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**Gender Representation in the Algerian Arabic, French and English
School Textbooks : A Comparative Study**

**Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctorate in Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies**

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Dedication

I dedicate this work:

To my Mother

Acknowledgements

First of all, I thank Allah for helping me to accomplish my research.

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Abstract

The present study aims at exploring gender representation in the current Arabic, French and English school textbooks which are used in the Algerian Primary, Middle and Secondary Schools. It was hypothesized, in general, that the design process of these textbooks is done from an unawareness perspective. More particularly, it was hypothesized that these textbooks maintain females' invisibility as well as the gender stereotypes, make use of sexist language forms and portray the males and the females frequently interacting with each other. Regarding comparison, it was hypothesized that gender bias appears in different degrees in such textbooks. Methodologically, content analysis is employed to collect data. After the data had been collected, it was found: first, the females were portrayed more invisible than the males mostly in all the textbooks. Second, both genders were mostly stereotypically portrayed regarding both the traits and the roles except the findings that indicated that the females were mostly represented more positive than the males in most of the textbooks and that both genders were portrayed in prestigious and low status professions in all the textbooks. Third, the females were represented in more gender-mixed interactions than in female-female interactions in all the textbooks. Fourth, all the textbooks make use of sexist language, but in different degrees. Regarding the section of comparison, it was found that, first, the females were the most invisible in the Arabic textbooks. Second, the English textbooks were the most gender stereotypical regarding the traits and the entire textbooks were equally gender stereotypical, regarding the roles. Third, the French textbooks were the most gender-unbiased regarding the interaction among both genders. Finally, the English and the Arabic textbooks were more linguistically-biased than the French ones.

Key words: Textbook, gender, representation, content analysis, comparison.

List of Abbreviations

CDA: Critical Discourse Analysis

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

EFL: English as a Foreign language

ELT: English-Language Teaching

TESOL: Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages

UNESCO: United Nations of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

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General Introduction

General Introduction

Statement of the Problem

The textbooks play a significant role in the children's socialization and development (Zinec-Anima, 2002). They not only indoctrinate knowledge, but they also have a decisive role in conveying social values and gender roles to the learners (Amerian and Esmaili, 2015). Consequently, the era of the 1970s and the 1980s saw a flurry of investigations of how gender was represented in the foreign language school textbooks, for reason. Owing to their gender significance, those foreign language school textbooks can be regarded as data worth analysing. They are, in fact, heavily populated with characters who both relate socially to each other and interact frequently verbally with each other (Sunderland et al., 2002). The general problem is that the males' and the females' portrayal in the school textbooks, as it has been proved by the previous studies, is most of the time biased against the females. This was claimed by Sunderland (2000a, p. 212) who said that the findings of the early studies indicated that the women were poorly portrayed in the school textbooks in terms of *“visibility, stereotyping of personality traits and occupational roles (including illustrations), and derogatory treatment”*.

From the above point, the specific problem that this study focuses on is examining how both genders are portrayed in the Arabic, French and English language school textbooks in the Algerian context, on the one hand, and comparing them to each other to see which language school textbooks convey more bias, on the other hand. Adell et al. (1976) believed that if the textbooks constantly portray the girls in particular roles and the boys always in other different roles, the minds will be limited by these determinations. In so doing, the present study can have a significant impact on the learners through providing them with more gender-fair language education because the fact of uncovering gender bias in the language school textbooks helps the teachers to avoid such bias and the Ministry of National Education to review the quality of the current learning materials.

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The significance of such research resides in five aspects. First, it investigates the element of gender in the language school textbooks which are crucial socialization agents which can lead or mislead the learners' perceptions about masculinity and femininity. Second, it is of a world-wide recognition because it is one among the issues that the UNESCO focuses on in order to provide the children with bias-free education. Third, it investigates the second generation textbooks that have been recently launched by the Ministry of National Education in Algeria. It is, thereby, pioneer in tackling the issue of gender representation in the second generation language school textbooks in Algeria. Fourth, this research addresses gender representation in the school textbooks from a comparative approach. It contrasts gender portrayal in the Arabic textbooks to that of French and English textbooks. Finally, such study contributes to the improvement of the quality of learning that the learners receive because the fact of uncovering gender bias in the textbooks and pointing at it leads to avoiding such obstacle by the teachers through making them aware to such gender bias in the learning materials and by the Ministry of National Education through urging it to review such learning materials regarding the aspect of gender.

Aiming at solving the problem of gender representation in such learning materials, several attempts to examine gender portrayal in the textbooks have been undertaken through examining mainly gender invisibility, stereotyping and the sexist language forms.

The present research fits in the overall field of language and gender studies because this field of study deals with two important issues which are how the man and the woman use language and how they are talked about and represented through language. This research, indeed, tackles one among the important issues of language and gender studies which is how the men and the women are being represented in the language textbooks. Its findings, thereby, can help and contribute to clear understanding how language functions to represent the men and the women.

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Rationale

Men's and women's representation through language is one of the most important subjects that the field of language and gender studies focuses on. It is this subject of gender representation through language that underlies the issue of this research. In other words, this research examines men's and women's representation in the language school textbooks,

The majority of the examined previous studies of gender representation in the school textbooks have mostly been dealt with mainly from a representational side. Put differently, most of those studies examined only how the males and the females were represented in particular school textbooks, but they haven't gone further to deal with the issue from a diachronic or comparative approach. However, this research differs partly from those studies as it approaches the issue from the representational and the comparative aspects. More specifically, it not only attempts to investigate gender representation in the Arabic, French and language school textbooks, but also it tries to compare gender representation in these language school textbooks to each other to see which of these language textbooks are more biased. Moreover, there are no similar studies which have been conducted in the Algerian context. Therefore, this research is undertaken to fill this knowledge gap.

Tackling the issue of gender portrayal in the school textbooks is important because *"the textbook is an essential vehicle for the socialization of gender at school"* (Tahan, 2015). Moreover, Sadker et al. (2009) assured that the students spend from 80% to 95% of the classroom time making use of the textbooks. So, owing to the significant role textbook plays in the gender socialization of the learners and the great amount of time the learners spend using the textbooks, it is necessary to make research of this kind to eliminate gender bias in these learning materials

Regarding the comparative approach that makes this study different from the previous studies, it is necessary not only to examine gender representation in the language school

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textbooks, but also to compare such representation in these textbooks to each other for the aim of revealing which language textbooks transmit more gender-bias. Due to the fact that the learners spend more time using different language textbooks at the same time, detecting gender representation in only one language textbook is not enough for them to receive a language education which is not gender-biased if the other language school textbooks carry gender bias. In other words, this research is necessary in providing the learners with gender-fair language textbooks.

Objectives

The objectives that this research aims to reach come as follow. First, the ultimate objective is to provide the young generations with a gender-fair language education. This, in fact, occurs through, first, uncovering gender bias in the language school textbooks, then, exposing such bias to the Ministry of National Education to revise gender bias in such learning materials. Second, another objective is to check which language school textbooks, Arabic, French and English, are more gender-biased because it is believed that the languages, themselves, carry bias differently. Finally, this research aims to check the extent to which these language school textbooks really depict the gender roles in the Algerian society.

The Research Questions

This study tries to find answers to the following research questions:

1. How are man and woman represented in the Algerian current Arabic, French and English school textbooks?
 - a. Are both genders equally represented?

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- b. Are both genders portrayed stereotypically at the level of their roles and characterization?
 - c. Are the women represented as an isolated group?
 - d. Do these language school textbooks still make use of sexist language forms?
2. Which ones of the these language school textbooks are the most gender-biased?

The Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are advanced:

1. The designing process of the opted corpus may be done from a gender unawareness perspective.
 - a. The males may be represented more visible than the females.
 - b. The school textbooks may maintain rather than challenge the gender stereotypes.
 - c. Both genders may be represented frequently interacting with each other.
 - d. The school textbooks may still make use of the sexist language.
2. Gender bias may appear in different degrees in these language school textbooks.

Methods

To test the research hypotheses, content analysis is used to gather data. The corpus of this research is the Arabic, French and English language school textbooks that are used in the Algerian Primary, Middle and Secondary schools. Four categories of bias, invisibility, stereotyping, fragmentation and linguistic, are examined in this research. About comparison, these categories in the Arabic, French and English textbooks are contrasted to each other at each school level. Put differently, the Arabic and the French Primary school textbooks are

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compared to each other regarding all the former categories of invisibility, stereotyping, etc. and the same is done regarding the Middle and the Secondary school textbooks.

Limitations

About the limitations which are encountered during research, the corpus of this study is limited because it is a combination of both old generation and second generation language textbooks because the Ministry of National Education hasn't launched the second generation language textbooks at the secondary school yet. This process of second generation school textbooks publications is a bottom-up one i.e. the Ministry of National Education had, first, launched the second generation textbooks in the Primary School. Then, it moved to the Middle school and it is going to launch those of the Secondary School in the coming years.



Chapter One

Chapter One: Gender and Language Education

Introduction

This chapter is generally designed to provide an overview about gender and language education research that brings language and gender studies together with the field of education. More specifically, this chapter discusses a number of issues that gender and language education research has investigated. First, this chapter provides an introduction to the field of language and gender, the scope in which this study is undertaken, and how this field has been approached by the different scholars. Second, it deals with the link between the field of language and gender studies and the field of education. Third, it highlights the literature which has been written about language, gender and education. Finally, it mentions the various educational issues that language and gender researchers have investigated namely the hidden curriculum, classroom interactions, feminist classroom, gender representation in the learning materials.

1. The Evolution of Language and Gender Studies

The men and the women are, generally, supposed to act differently from each other in their daily life regarding all the life sides, for instance the men and the women are expected not only to dress differently and to perform different domestic activities, but also to speak differently. Regarding the speech expectations of both genders, they are merely commonsensical ones. As a result, language and gender as a branch of sociolinguistics appeared specifically to deal with such issue in a scientific way.

Language and gender is one of the important language variations that the sociolinguists attempted to study. The sociolinguists believe that language use varies from one context to another, from one region to another, from one social class to another and from one gender to

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another. This latter language and gender variation gained much interest among the sociolinguists. Consequently, it becomes a vital area of research within such field. According Wardhaugh (2000, p. 309), “*a major topic in sociolinguistics is the connection, if any, between the structures, vocabularies, and ways of using particular languages and the social roles of the men and women who speak these languages*”.

The history of language and gender as a non-academic field goes back before the second wave feminism which emerged during the late 1960s and early 1970s. The popular attempts to discuss and understand how man and woman actually speak and how they are expected to do so, in fact, started for centuries ago before language and gender develops into an academic field of study (Sunderland, 2006).

When discussing language and gender as a field of study, it is inevitable to mention the year of 1975 because in this year three foundational books have been published. These books are: *Language and Woman's Place* which is written by Robin Lakoff, *Male/Female Language* of Mary Ritchie Key and that of Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henly *Language and Sex: Difference and Dominance*. These scholars problematize the facts of identifying the masculine norms as the human norms and the biological determination of the behaviour of both genders. These are not the only issues that the early research of language and gender focused on. However, it was also mainly interested in documenting empirical disparities in the woman's and man's talk, chiefly in cross-sex interactions, reciting the speech of women in particular and recognizing the role that the language plays to create and maintain gender inequality (Tannen et al., 2015).

Early gender and language research has been broken up into two categories. The first one involves the way language represents men and women and the latter deals with the way men and women make use of language (Speer, 2005). According to McElhiny (2003), within the

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traditional paradigm, language and gender researchers draw on four theoretical controversial postulations. First, they believe that gender is strongly linked to sex and dealing with gender is also directly associated to dealing with heterosexuality. Second, they see gender as an attribute that the human beings are born with. Third, they necessarily link studying gender to studying the individuals. Fourth, they think that gender can be best investigated wherever it is most salient.

Unlike the sociolinguists, who were interested in examining how language varies across gender and use the terms sex and gender as synonyms, the western feminist scholars were known for their foundation which was distinguishing sex from gender (Holmes and Meyerhoff, 2003). One of the advocates of this view is Shapiro (1981) who put clear lines between the sex and gender terms when he said: *“I would use the term "sex" only when I was speaking of biological differences between males and females and use "gender" whenever I was referring to the social, cultural, psychological constructs that are imposed upon these biological differences. ...”*(cited in Holmes and Meyerhoff, 2003, 22).

Simone de Beauvoir also established such differentiation between sex and gender, a decade before Shapiro, in her book *The Second Sex* (1972) when she stated: *“One is not born, but rather becomes, a woman”*. To the best of my knowledge, Simone de Beauvoir uses this statement to convey the meaning that the individuals are not born as men and women, but they become so because of the social and cultural environment they live in through what is named as gender role socialization process. In so doing, sex is an inherent biological feature and gender refers to the fact of being masculine or feminine.

Another clear distinction between sex and gender is stated by Holmes (2009) when she said: *“Sex refers to whether a person is considered female or male, based on the kind of body they have. Gender describes the ideas and practices that constitute femininity and*

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masculinity". Put differently, the word 'sex' means whether the person is a male or a female, but the word 'gender' refers to the femininity and masculinity practices.

Sex and gender distinction, in fact, tries to oppose those thoughts that attribute differences and asymmetries between men and women to the biological sex (Holmes and Meyerhoff, 2003). According to Pilcher and Whelehan (2004, 56), this distinction has another aim which is the following:

The purpose of affirming a sex/gender distinction was to argue that the actual physical or mental effects of biological difference had been exaggerated to maintain a patriarchal system of power and to create a consciousness among women that they were naturally better suited to 'domestic' roles.

Hence, sex is, used in this study, to refer to those biological features that divide the human race into males and females. Whereas, gender is used to refer to those roles and characterizations that males and females are expected to perform and have respectively.

The differentiations which appear at the level of men' and women' speech have been understood in different ways by the different language and gender researchers. Consequently, four approaches emerged within the field of language and gender. Three of these approaches are known as the traditional approaches, they are the deficit approach, the dominance approach and the difference approach. Then, it comes another revolutionary approach which is labeled the dynamic approach.

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1. 1. The Deficit Approach

According to the deficit approach, women are disadvantaged and underprivileged users of language. When using language, women show much uncertainty and lack of authority (Crawford, 1995). Moreover, this approach is used to refer to every approach which considers the linguistic differences amongst the males and the females as an evidence of women's powerless and subordinate status when compared to men. Robin Lakoff is generally recognized as an important supporter of this approach. Within Her book *Language and Woman's Place* (1975), she investigated the linguistic disparities from two aspects: first, how the women are expected to talk i.e. the way they make use of language. Second, how the women are talked about i.e. the way in which they are represented in the language (Speer, 2005).

Before Lakoff's research, Otto Jespersen is another pioneer to the field of language and gender. His book *Language: Its Nature, Development and Origin* (1922) is regarded as one among the 'classic' texts in the field (Mulyani, 2014). One among the issues that this book addresses is woman's language in a chapter which takes the title of "The woman". In this chapter, Otto Jespersen provides a description of woman's language in comparison to man's. To the end of describing men's and women's speech, Jespersen brings examples from different places in the world. Jespersen's characterizations of women's language come as follow: First, women's vocabulary is limited in comparison to men's. Second, women also make use of the "adverbs of intensity" such as "awfully pretty" and "terribly nice". Third, women are characterized by their linguistic conservatism; whereas, men tend to be "inventive" because they are able to create new vocabulary. Finally, the women produce the half-finished exclamatory sentences.

Although the significant contribution of Jespersen's research is widely acknowledged within the field of language and gender studies, it was not far from the feminist criticism.

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Cameron (1985) is one of those who declare their criticism about Jespersen's work when she stated that Jespersen is constricted between his fantasies and prejudices to generate sexist stereotypes about woman's language. Speer (2005) also claimed that Jespersen's work received criticisms of the feminists because it communicates sexism, it is self-serving and belittling and it is based on the folklinguistic stereotypes about the woman's language. Furthermore, Mulyani (2014) claimed that Jespersen's interpretation of man's and woman's language is essentialist in the sense that it considers the disparities in the language of men and women as a consequence of their biological sex as well as their gender differences.

Robin Lakoff, the American linguist, also brought influential contributions to gender and language studies through publishing her book *Language and Woman's Place* (1975). This book is widely regarded as the key which opens the door of language and gender studies. Moreover, it is considered a foundational book in feminist linguistics (Speer, 2005). There is a number of language and gender scholars who acknowledged the significance of this work among them is Cameron (1998c, 216) who claimed that Lakoff's book "*did more than any other text before or since to bring issues of language and gender to wider attention and to place them in the context of the post-1968 Women's Liberation Movement*". Jane Sunderland (2006) also admits the weight that this book gains when she says "*Language and Woman's Place* is commonly recognized as a pioneer work of great importance. It held and still holds extensive influence.

Lakoff (1975) thinks that "*women experience linguistic discrimination in two ways: in the way they are taught to use language, and in the way general language use treats them*". According to her, women are discriminated linguistically at two levels: at the process of language learning when women are trained to use the language and at the linguistic representation level. For her, the linguistic discrimination occurs through: First, downgrading women into passive roles such as being "sex-object" or "servant". Second, language

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marginalizes the identity of the women because it prevents them from expressing themselves powerfully and it promotes the trivial and uncertain talk among them.

In her article *Language and Women Place (1973)*, Lakoff specified women with some linguistic features which come as follow: First, she claims that there is some lexis which is much present in women's speech than in men's such as the names of colours. Second, women's speech is characterized by using "particles" which the grammarians consider as having no meaning. Moreover, she said that the women's use of such "particles" in official settings is trivialized. Such trivializing necessarily means underestimating women in weighty contexts. Third, women are differentiated by their use of admiration adjectives like adorable, charming, lovely, sweet and divine. Fourth, women use tag questions which carry the meaning of lack of confidence, uncertainty and reluctance. Finally, women show more politeness in their speech than men do. Consequently, Lakoff (1973) considered that these linguistic behaviours that women show are just the consequence of the treatment that women receive during their socialization process.

In spite of the great contribution that Lakoff's work brought to the field of language and gender, it receives a number of criticisms which are mainly related to Lakoff's gender assumptions and the methodology that she adopted. Concerning her assumption, she was criticized because she assumed that woman's language is deficient and man's is the norm. In so doing, Talbot (2003) claimed that Lakoff's work shows '*women as disadvantaged language users*'. Methodologically, Lakoff's work received criticism because she drew on her introspection to collect data and she uses her intuitions to analyze the gathered data. About Lakoff's introspection, Sunderland (2006, 95) stated that "*Lakoff was not being obtuse: she was writing at a time when introspection...was more usual than it is now*".

Hence, both Jespersen and Lakoff reached similar findings that the language of women is 'inferior/ deficient' when it is contrasted to men's language. However, they

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interpreted their findings differently. Jespersen viewed the linguistic deficiency of women as essentially biological; whereas, Lakoff viewed it as socially determined i.e. the subordinate status that women have in the society engenders the linguistic deficiency among women (Mulyani, 2014).

1.2. The Dominance Approach

The dominance approach to language and gender emerged in 1980, five years after the publication of Lakoff's work *Language and woman's place*. This approach believes that men quite dominate women regarding both the amount of talk and the control over the conversation topics (Speer, 2005). In general, this approach considers the differences in man's and woman's language use as a mirror image of their power relations where the men are dominant and the women are subordinate (Mulyani 2014). As Weatherall (2002) claims that "*power can be thought of as part and parcel of language, not as separate from it*". Zimmerman and West (1975) and Spender (1980) are the well known supporters of this approach.

According to Zimmerman and West (1975), the relationship between men and women is a dominant-dominated one. Men's dominance is also communicated in their conversations with women. To prove this, Zimmerman and West, in their study, found that in cross-sex (male-female) conversation, 70% of the interruptions were done by the men. Such interruptions led directly to silencing the women for a long duration. Moreover, the men were able to alter the topic of the conversation, initiate topics on which they had upper hand and end the conversation through the use of the minimal responses. For them, those interruptions allowed men to contravene female right of expressing themselves easily. However, in same-sex (female-female) conversations, they found that the interruptions were nearly equally allocated. They concluded that those interruptions, silencing, topic initiating and discussion

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ending which occurred at the level of cross-sex discussion were just an extension of male dominance at the macro-institutional level.

Dale Spender is another proponent of the dominance approach. Her contribution to this approach is her book *Man Made Language (1980)*. In her book, Spender strongly defended the idea that the language is sexist because it is constructed by the socially dominant men. For her, men do not only make language in a way which serves them, but they produce the reality as a whole and name it according to their perception. However, the women are kept far from the process of language making. Furthermore, Spender provided examples which prove that language is 'man-made' when she mentioned that in the English grammar, there are persistent rules which consider 'man-as-norm', these examples are the generic *man* and *he*.

Although the dominance approach gives a clear understanding of how language and power coexist and it is helpful for understanding how gender and language interrelate in a variety of contexts, it neglects highlighting how gender interconnects with class, age, and ethnicity. This approach also receives criticism because it keeps gender away from being a central variable in researching language and it encourages for situations where women adopt men speech styles (Weatherall, 2002). This approach portrays women in only the weak and submissive position and it deemphasizes the context where women can be in powerful status which allows them to interrupt, silence men and take long turns as O'Barr and Atkins's (1980) study shows that when women have a high status, they avoid the use of that kind of language which is inferior and conveys subordination and dependence.

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1.3. The Difference Approach

The difference approach is founded on the assumption that males and females are socialized, at an early age, into different sub-cultures where both of them learn different interactional styles (Talbot, 2003). Unlike viewing the women as weak as claimed in the deficit model and as victims as claimed in the dominance model, the difference model attempts to view the women's language not only as different; however, positively esteemed (Litosseliti, 2006). Moreover, Cameron (1995b, 39) said that the model of "*difference was the moment of feminist celebration, reclaiming and revaluing women's distinctive cultural traditions*". Tannen (1990) and the supporters of this approach believe that both genders have 'different but *equally valid* styles'. In other words, the men's and the women's speech styles are different from each other, but none of them is superior to the other. About the well-known promoters of this approach, they are Tannen (1990) and Maltz and Borker (1982).

Maltz and Borker's (1982) contribution to the field of language and gender, in general, and to the difference approach, in particular is worth mentioning. Their contribution to this approach is their work *A Cultural Approach to Male-female Miscommunication*. In this work, Maltz and Borker tackled the issue of miscommunication at the interethnic as well as the cross-sex levels. Regarding the cross-sex miscommunication issue, like the proponents of the deficit and dominance approach, Maltz and Borker admitted that man and woman tend to have divergent speech styles. However, Maltz and Borker provided another explanation to man and woman divergent speech styles. They argue that man and woman are the products of distinct sociolinguistic subcultures where both genders learn to use the language differently when conversing with each other. Consequently, a number of cultural miscommunication problems appear among man and woman. Maltz and Borker also explained how man and woman learn different cultural beliefs about the friendly interaction. They argue that when being young at the age period between five and fifteen years, both boys and girls acquire a

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range of interactional rules mainly. Those rules are learned through interacting with the peers of the same sex i.e. boys learn the interactional rules from their boy peers and the same is for the girls and such rules are maintained when the boys and the girls get older. Maltz and Borker described boys' and girls' play where both genders develop particular speech patterns. They claimed that girls' play was homogeneous, private or semi-private, cooperative and non-competitive. That kind of girls' play, according to Maltz and Borker, leads to establishing and maintaining friendship which is generally expressed through intimate and non aggressive talk. Meanwhile, boys' play tends to be in large and hierarchically structured groups. As a result, boys' speech appear to be more competitive.

The sociolinguist Deborah Tannen's donation to the difference approach is her work *You Just Don't Understand: Men and Women in Conversation* which was published in 1990. Tannen is influenced by Maltz and Borker's (1982) cultural model which addressed the issue of miscommunication and the cultural discrepancies among men and women. Similarly, Tannen maintained that young men and women "*grow up in different worlds of words*" i.e. males and females are socialized to use dissimilar speech styles. She added that communication between men and women is similar to the cross-cultural one where the individuals speak different dialects, but for men and women, they, instead, articulate distinct genderlects. Tannen put it as follow: "*communication between men and women can be like cross cultural communication, prey to a clash of conversational styles*". Tannen also listed a number of characterization for both male's and female's speech styles. When trying to do describe both genders 'speech, Tannen, first, described male's speech, then, she opposed it to female's. For Tannen , male 's speech is the report , lecturing, public, status, oppositional, independence , whereas female's speech is the rapport, listening , private, connection, supportive and intimacy. About Tannen 's characterization of male's and female's talk, Talbot (2003) claimed that male's speech characterization is merely an extension of the

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privilege and power that males enjoy at the societal level, however, female's speech characterization celebrates the traditional role of the woman as a nurturer.

The difference approach was in the centre of criticism because of a variety of assumptions. First, it emphasizes on separation among boys and girls and it doesn't highlight why there exists same-sex play. This separation engenders gender segregation (Talbot, 2010). Second, it claims that both man and woman are not responsible for the tensions that occur in the cross-cultural situations (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 1992). Third, this approach overemphasizes on miscommunication amid man and woman serves as a powerful instrument which sustains gender hierarchy in the communities (Henley and Kramarae, 1991). Fourth, it suppresses the element of power and neglects the gender inequalities that may appear it assumes that men and women are merely equal-but-different. This occurs because of disregarding the broader social context (Talbot, 2010). Finally, the difference approach serves as an interactional resource for reproducing gender hierarchy and oppression (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 1992).

Early research of language and gender which includes the deficit, dominance and difference frameworks, received a number of criticisms. It tended to be very speculative and not to reflect critically on the concept gender, it, rather, merely drew on the commonsensical assumptions of males and females. This reliance on commonsense led directly to the reproduction of the sexist stereotypes (Talbot, 2003). These frameworks understand gender from an essentialist perspective. According to this gender essentialist perspective, gender is viewed as a fixed attribute which is inherent in males and females. Language use, in this respect, is seen as reflecting one's own sex. As a result, three important problems have been identified in this essentialist view. The first problem underlies generalization because all men and all women are believed to have particular speech styles. This generalization disregards the divergences amid men and amid women. The second problem with this gender essentialist

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understanding is that of gender reification i.e. reifying gender is to understand the social construct gender as a biologically determined feature. The third trouble of this perspective involves the larger social context which is seen as a measure which is prior to and determines males' and females' linguistic choices. As a consequence, males and females have no agency. They are expected to talk in particular ways and they simply reproduce the gendered social arrangements through their talk. The essential view engenders another trouble which is that the advocates of the above three approaches start from the belief that both genders are essentially different. This assumption unsurprisingly leads them to find differences at the level of males' and females' talk and they use gender as a variable to explain the found differences (Speer, 2005).

1.4. The Constructionist Approach

This constructionist approach appears recently and it is also named the dynamic approach for the reason that the dynamic features of the interaction are centralized. Within this approach, the gender identity is regarded as a socially constructed category rather than being a given one. What differentiates this constructionist approach from the previous ones is its assumption that gender is not conceived as being static and a joined trait of the speaker, however, it is accomplished through talk (Coates, 2004).

This approach has revolutionized the thought that individuals have about language and its function in the society. It uses the term 'discourse' instead of the term 'language' because the term 'discourse' admits that language is value-laden. This perpetuates the view that the neutral discourse doesn't exist. When the individuals speak, they should choose between a variety of meanings and values that they wish to convey. Under this dynamic approach, language use is also seen as dynamic i.e. the speakers are able to subvert, resist and partake critically and actively in constructing the meaning and the 'selves' including being

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masculine and feminine (Coates, 2004). About the role that the language plays in constructing the gender identity, Wood (1995, p.18) stated that *“language not only expresses cultural views of gender but also constitutes individuals' gender identities. The communication practices we use define us as masculine or feminine, in large measure, we create our own gender through talk”*.

This approach also revolutionizes the concept of gender. Gender, within this regard as mentioned above, is regarded as socially constructed. According to Coates (2004), this gender conceptualization and distinguishing sex from gender become common in the field of sociolinguistics only at the beginning of the 1990s when Judith Butler extended her theory of performativity in her book *Gender Trouble* (1990). She claimed that *“there is no gender identity behind the expressions of gender; that identity is performatively constituted by the very expressions that are said to be its results”* (Butler, 1990, p. 25). Unlike the traditional thought which believes that we use the language according to whether we are masculine or feminine, Butler (1990) believes that masculinity and femininity are performed through language use. Viewing gender as performed in the daily interactions makes the researchers in the field of language and gender change their aims from seeking to explain how gender interrelates with the use of specific linguistic patterns to explaining how the speaker uses the language to accomplish their gender identity (Coates, 2004).

Under the constructionist perspective, gender is not dealt with in isolation from the facets which constitute the speaker's social identity. Gender, instead, is just one aspect that the individuals exhibit when they are speaking. Cameron (1996, p. 34) as cited in Coates (2004) declares this view when she states that *“gender . . . has turned out to be an extraordinarily intricate and multi-layered phenomenon – unstable, contested, intimately bound up with other social divisions”*. Because gender is conceived as more fluid, sociolinguists, in general, and language and gender researchers, in particular, were urged to

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give more importance to the social context. More specifically, these researchers were urged to insist on what is named *communities of practice*. The ways of talking exhibits to which community of practice we belong. Moreover, these communities of practice help the speakers to construct their identities and position themselves vis-à-vis others. Above all, working within the approach communities of practice helps the researchers to understand how gender interrelates with age, class, race and sexuality (Coates, 2004).

2. Language, Gender and Education

The concept gender is omnipresent everywhere across all settings, including education, media and the workplace, etc. The field of education was not a central interest for only the educationalists; however, it has gained the interest of the researchers across all the human and social sciences including the language and gender researchers. The marriage of language and gender studies with the domain of education gives birth to a body of research named language, gender and education research. According to Litosseliti (2006), this sort of research has emphasized mainly on interactions that occur between the students themselves and between the teachers and the students, on the one hand, and on the language teaching materials and language learning, on the other hand.

The school milieu is a point of focus for both the social and the human studies because of the vital role that the school performs in both promoting or in undermining the cultural, social and political beliefs to the young generations. Such importance of the schools has been widely admitted by the researchers. Stromquist et al. (1998) admitted this when stating that the educational institutions function as influential ideological institutions which do not only transmit the prevailing values, but they also work as social control mechanism. Stromquist et al. (1998, p.83) added that “*schools transmit values that not only reproduce social class but*

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also main gender structures...the formal school system contributes to the reproduction of gender inequalities". Put differently, the schools not only convey values about the social class and the gender structures, but they also take part in reproducing the gender inequalities.

Gender and language researchers are also aware of the significance that the educational context plays in perpetuating the gender ideologies. Litosseliti (2006, p.88) stated that: *"The educational settings are important settings for the construction of gender and the (re)production of a range of gendered norms, practices, relations, representations and identities"*. In other words, the schools are a significant site where gender is constructed and the gendered identities, practices, norms, relations and representations are produced and reproduced.

Regarding the relevance of gender in the educational setting, Sunderland (2018) claimed that gender is made relevant both formally and informally at the educational systems. Formally, when the educational systems distinct between the male and the female students. Informally, when the educational systems emphasize the routine talk or the learners. Gender is as well made relevant in the teaching materials where most of the characters are overtly males or females. Therefore, gender is a portion of the 'hidden curriculum'.

The history of Language, gender and education is as old as language and gender studies. In other words, they evolved in parallel. Moreover, the body of the conducted research within the framework of language, gender and education tended to update the conceptual shifts which happened at the level language and gender studies thought. The most remarkable conceptual shift in language and gender is the move from the essential perspective, which imprisoned the language and gender researchers' thought during the 1970s and 1980s, to the fluid perspective which emerged during the 1990s. This shift has a great impact on the research in language, gender and education. Litosseliti (2006, p.73) admitted this when she stated: *"more recent work marks a shift away from gender generalizations and*

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differences, to examine discourse and gender identities that are at work in educational settings". This impact was also acknowledged by Swann (2003) who is an important figure who theorizes about language, gender and education research in her paper *Schooled Language: Language and Gender in Educational Settings* which is going to be discussed in details in the following section of the literature review about language, gender and education.

3. Language, Gender and Education: Literature Review

Swann (2003)'s contribution, which is mentioned above, to language, gender and education research literature is explored in this section in details because it discusses most of the language and gender issues in the educational context.

Swann (2003) started her paper by clarifying what she means by "schooled language". For her, this means the spoken and the written language which is used in the schools and the classrooms to organize the teaching and learning processes. When exploring the relationship between language and gender in the educational environment, she claimed that that gender in the educational context is done, to a great extent, through the use of language and she maintained that the gendered language has an effect on the development of the male and female students and on their educational and life experiences.

Swann (2003) tackled three important issues. The first one involved the shifts that occurred at the level of the concepts of 'language' and 'gender'. The second one dealt with how the conceptual shifts in the field of language and gender influenced the educational policy and practice in Britain and in the neighboring countries. The last one was about how language and gender conceptual shifts were transported to the electronic communication.

To begin with the conceptual move of 'language' and 'gender'. Within this respect, Swann (2003) claimed that most of language, gender and education research tended to document the differences and the asymmetries that appear when boys and girls use language.

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Regarding the differences, studies within this respect observed that the boys and the girls showed divergent speech styles and reading choices and they chose to write about different topics and in different ways. Regarding the asymmetries, it was observed that the boys tended to have control over the interactions that took place in the classroom, whereas the girls remained having less opportunities to participate in such interactions. Such asymmetries also appeared in the learning materials which overrepresented the males and underrepresented the females.

According to Swann (2003), this body of research which was undertaken within the difference and inequality paradigms was challenged by the postmodern shift which affected how the concepts of 'language' and 'gender' were conceived and how they interrelated. For her, 'language' and 'gender' conceptions moved *"from relative fixity to relative fluidity"*. Concerning gender, the postmodern shift tended to focus more on diversity among men and among women rather than viewing gender from a binary perspective. The context and performativity were also emphasized because gender was regarded as being done and performed within context. Concerning the shift in language conception, the postmodern shift had the tendency to view language as context-bound and its meaning as ambiguous and uncertain.

To imply for this postmodern shift, Swann examined three papers that challenged the idea that girls have cooperative speech styles and the boys have competitive ones. Those papers were those of Hewitt (1997), Sheldon (1997) and Swann (1997). According to her, Hewitt (1997) differentiated between two forms of speech. The declarative form which tends to be oriented toward self-interest and the coordinative one which is oriented toward collectivity and interconnectedness and he observed that both the coordinative and declarative forms may occur simultaneously in interaction; moreover, he claimed that a form can carry the meanings of competition and collaboration at the same time. The second paper

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was that of Sheldon (1997) whose argument involved that the girls are able to perform both the competitive and the oppositional speech, but that depends on the culture and the context where the girls live. In her study, Sheldon observed that both the boys and the girls employed double-voice discourse, however the girls employed it more frequently. In spite of such difference, Sheldon tended to downplay it and she emphasized the crucial role of the culture and the context. The third paper is that of Swann's (1997). Swann (1997) also problematized the issue of cooperation when she analysed a discussion of two students, a boy and a girl, who were required to write a text together. For Swann (2003), Swann's paper was different from Hewitt's and Sheldon's because it emphasized ambiguity and uncertainty. For Swann (1997), the girl's questions are ambiguous because they can be interpreted both as a sign of cooperation and as a strategy to impose her own contribution. Similarly, the written text was also open to different readings.

When combining the three papers, Swann (2003) stated that all of them addressed the meaning of cooperation and they viewed the speech as multifunctional, ambiguous, uncertain and context-bound. When foregrounding the difference between these studies, Swann claimed that Sheldon's paper was different from the other two papers since she deemphasized the differences and she viewed gender from more performative and contextualized perspectives.

The Second issue that Swann (2003) tried to highlight was the relationship between the shifts that occurred within the field of language and gender and the educational policy that Britain and other countries adopted. About this, Swann (2003) mentioned that male dominance in the classroom interactions led to the emergence of "equal opportunities" projects to resist such inequality. Language issues and gender issues were part and parcel of such projects. The English curriculum was taken as an example. That curriculum included a whole chapter that discussed the educational implications which dealt with the gender

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differences which appeared at the level of language use. Boys' underachievement was also central issue for the policy makers of education. The educationalists offered a variety of explanations to such phenomenon including gender differences in the learning styles and in maturity. Swann mentioned that a variety of publications were designed specifically to deal with boys' underachievement. *Can Do Better* booklet was taken as an example to be discussed. That booklet, according to her, treated boys' underachievement from a variety of facets ranging from boys' performance in the four skills of the English language to explaining how the English curriculum implementation could influence boys' learning and to clarifying how the teachers could deal with the issue of boys' underachievement. According to Swann, such booklet emphasized the interests of the boys over those of the girls and it also provided a characterization of boys' speech styles which was just similar to the one which was provided by the early language and gender researchers that boys are competitive and interrupt more when they take part in the discussions. *Can Do Better* did not deal only with the oral aspects but also it dealt with boys' reading and writing preferences such as non-fiction, fantasy and action. Regarding this, the booklet suggested that such preferences should be emphasized; otherwise, the boys will be disadvantaged learners.

Swann (2003) provided a number of criticisms to the booklet of *Can Do Better* because of a number of reasons. For her, the booklet viewed gender from polarized and fixed perspectives; it didn't consider the differences amid boys and amid girls, it didn't take into consideration the different social aspects such as race and class, the context was totally deemphasized and it didn't show awareness that the meaning that the language convey is uncertain.

According to Swann (2003), as a reaction to such uncritical publication, a number of academic texts and official publications appear. Alloway and Gilbert (1997), within the Australian context, published *Boys and Literacy* to address boys' achievement in literacy.

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Unlike *Can Do Better*, this publication provided practical suggestions and it acknowledged differences amid boys and amid girls.

The third issue that Swann (2003) addressed was shifting context toward communication. Regarding this, she claimed that communication practices were in constant change because of the technological advances. For her, the electronic communication produces texts which challenge both the traditional authorship and readership and the English education. According to her, several researchers continuously speculated to which extent the electronic communication developed new shapes of the interpersonal relationships and Turkle (1995) was one of them claimed that the students feel that they perform different identities as they move from one communication practice to another. For Swann, the electronic communication is a postmodern means that allows flexibility to the individuals when they present themselves to the others and it encourages for a sort of “identity-hopping” which is difficult to be achieved in face-to-face communication.

Swann (2003) stated that unlike the feminists who claimed that the electronic communication could be beneficial for the girls and women, Spender (1995) argued that this kind of communication didn't differ from the face-to-face communication where the males dominated the interactions and the inequalities were prevailing and reinforced.

All in all, Swann (2003) tried to address how the gender element functions in different ways in the English language classrooms, but she overlooked the issue of how gender can be addressed in the EFL and ESL classroom.

4. Addressing Gender in the EFL and ESL Classroom

According to Norton and Pavlenko (2004), gender can be addressed in four ways in the EFL and ESL classroom setting: developing a lived curriculum, imagining alternative worlds, tackling challenging topics and sharing power.

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According to Norton and Pavlenko (2004), developing a lived curriculum refers to the process of designing fresh programs, including new modules and classes, and altering the current ones to the end of meeting the needs of the learners. In the ESL classroom context, these innovations frequently tend to meet the immigrant women's needs because their access to ESL classes is restricted by a number of reasons such as their domestic and work engagements together with the problems of transportation and safety. Within this regard, Norton and Pavlenko (2004), gave a number of examples about the curricular innovations. El Barrio Popular Education Program was one among the curricular innovations that Norton and Pavlenko (2004) mentioned, such program was investigated by Rivera (1999), it took place in the New York City. It was designed for the Latinas who wanted to learn English. Most of those learners were mothers, who were unemployed workers, whose children attended public schools. That El Barrio Program met the needs of those women through: organizing meetings when the children were taking courses at the schools. Those meetings were organized near to the learners' houses; moreover, those learners were exposed to a Spanish-English curriculum which suited better their experiences. Norton and Pavlenko (2004) claimed that El Barrio program was just an example among those which occurred in different contexts with different learners of different social and cultural backgrounds (Norton and Pavlenko, 2004).

The second way of addressing gender in EFL and ESL classes that Norton and Pavlenko (2004) suggested is imagining alternative worlds. According to them, unlike the curricular innovation, this way of addressing gender is interested in the practices of and the materials used in the feminist classroom setting. They gave variety of innovative practices within this regard. The first one is that of Schenke (1996) that claims that teacher makes use of the students' interest to discover their histories that they call to mind Another practice is that of Cohen (2004) who used the provoking texts together with new teaching sequences that were always based on the students' experiences to the end of improving the students' oral,

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writing and interpretive proficiencies Life writing is one more practice that Toff (2002) used with her students occasionally controversial issues to help her students evoke their imagination and tackle their personal and occasionally controversial issues. Norton and Pavlenko (2004) concluded that such innovative practices not only enable the students to reflect on their experiences and situate them within the larger social setting, but they also push them to imagine themselves as different individuals.

Tackling challenging topics, according to Norton and Pavlenko (2004), is the third way of addressing gender in the ESL and EFL classrooms. It is about how the teacher brings controversial issues in the classroom. Norton and Pavlenko (2004) gave a number of practices within this regard. The first practice is that of Nelson (2004) who examined how a teacher, in a modal auxiliaries lesson, discusses the lesbian and gay issue with her students in a skillful way. Norton and Pavlenko (2004) claimed that such practice helped the teacher to see to which extent sexual identities are socially and culturally constructed, rather than being inherent. In another intonation lesson, Morgan (1997) supplied his students with a text which addressed the gender roles in the Chinese family and he asked them how to deal with a situation where a female wanted to learn English, but she couldn't because of her family restrictions. The teacher incorporated the students' discussion into a scripted dialogue which was helpful for both the students and the teacher. Norton and Pavlenko (2004) concluded that discussing such challenging issues about gender and sexuality helps the students to be more familiar with the discourses of such tricky issues.

The fourth way of dealing with gender in EFL and ESL classroom, Norton and Pavlenko (2004), involves sharing power between the teachers and their students. Norton and Pavlenko (2004) talked about two ways of sharing power in such context, the first one was used by Fujimura-Fanselow (1996) who discussed a curriculum which was composed of mini-research projects and she proposed that both the teachers and students to be the audience

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of such projects. In this way, she mitigated the rigidity of the power asymmetries and made them sound less hierarchical. Another way of sharing power was introduced by Jordon (2004). He suggested making a writing centre because he thought that it was a better site which encouraged the students to produce knowledge. Furthermore, Jordon (2004) argued that such writing centre hunted for decentering authority, more specifically the one which had to do with gender asymmetries.

In sum, all of the four ways of addressing gender that Norton and Pavelenko (2004) invited for drive the EFL and ESL students toward both language proficiency and familiarity with gender and sexuality across the larger context, however, smoothly. So, what are the other gender issues that have been examined in the language classroom?

5. A Brief History of Language and Gender in the Classroom

The school setting, in general, and the classroom, in particular, are well-liked places of investigation for language and gender researchers. The early language and gender studies (e.g. Tannen 1990; Maltz andorker 1982) were mostly concerned with looking for differences between the speech styles that men and women employ and they regarded these differences as being natural. However, the studies which examine the classroom talk (e.g. Spender 1980, 1992; Sadker and Sadker 1990; Swann 1992) dealt with language and gender from a more critical standpoint because they problematized how power is enacted out through having control over the conversations. Those critical studies came across the finding that the boys had the tendency to dominate the classroom interactions through using particular speech strategies such as interruptions. The recent classroom talk studies of (e.g. Eckert 1989; 2000; Eckert et al., 1995; Bergvall et al., 1996; Stokoe, 1998) moved toward treating language and gender as being social practices and they drew on the pragmatic analysis of the talk.

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Language and gender as social practices means that the individuals construct and practice their gender identities through the use of the language (Remlinger, 2005). However, more recent studies (e.g. Pavlenko et al., 2001; Norton and Toohey, 2004; Norton and Pavlenko., 2004) have moved away from gender differences and generalizations toward examining the gender identities and discourses which are taking place in the educational context (Litosseliti, 2006).

Moving from addressing how the power dynamics are enacted in the classroom talk toward the pragmatic analysis of this talk, and toward investigating how the gender identities and discourses function in the educational environment, language, gender and education researchers have explored various language and gender issues in the EFL classroom that come as follow in the below section.

6. Language and Gender Issues in the EFL Classroom

Language and gender research in the classroom context, in general, and in the EFL classroom, in particular, investigates a variety of issues because according to Sunderland (2000), gender is widespread in each angle of the language classroom. In her article “*Gender in the EFL Classroom*” (1992), Sunderland tried to provide an overview about how gender manifests in the EFL classroom. About this, Sunderland (1992, p.81) said: “*closer examination, however, suggests that gender operates at more than the level of materials. Other levels include the English language itself; and classroom processes, including learning processes, teacher-learner interaction, and learner-learner interaction*”. These ways in which gender functions in the language classroom, in general, and EFL in particular are explored below in details.

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6.1. Language and Gender within Language Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction refers to both teacher-to-student talk and student-to-student talk. Teacher-to-student talk includes conversation initiation, giving directives and asking questions. Student-to-student talk includes talk between the students when working in groups or pairs as well as questions answering and asking for clarification (Litosseliti, 2006). Moreover, the classroom interaction is a significant subject which is dealt with in the language, gender and education research (Menard-Warwick et al., 2014).

The language classroom interaction occupies a central status in language, gender and education research because of three important factors. This was acknowledged by several language, gender and education researchers. First, Pakula, et al. (2015) claimed that emphasizing the classroom interaction comes from the idea that the practices which occur in the language classroom setting are completely interactive. Second Ehrlich (1997) claimed that gender is an interactionally and locally constructed aspect of the social identity. Third, Sunderland (2000a) put it that the element of “*gender is so wide-ranging, it spreads into every corner of the language classroom*”. Moreover, Sunderland (2000a) claims that this kind of research is described as being sparse which is not the case in the classrooms of the other subjects.

According to Decke-Cornill (2007), the earliest study which explored the link between classroom interaction and the gender element is dated back to 1956 when Meyer and Thompson conducted a research which was about *Teacher interactions with boys, as contrasted with girls*. For Decke-Cornill (2007), the studies which investigate gender and language classroom interaction fall under two paradigms: the quantitative paradigm i.e. they investigate the quantity of talk that both the teachers and their students utter (Meyer & Thompson, 1956; Carol Dweck et al.; 1978, Spender, 1980; Politzer, 1983; Gass & Varonis, 1986; Batters, 1986; Munro, 1987; Kelly, 1988; Alcón, 1994; Yenez, 1994; 2004; Chavez,

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2001; Sunderland, 2002) and the explorative paradigm (Siegal, 1994; 1996, McMahon, 2001; Willett, 1995). According to him, the studies which belong to the explorative paradigm tend to be different from the quantitative ones because they are undertaken in a more critical framework and they make use of the explorative methods of research.

The most important purpose of the first or foreign language classroom is to allow the students interact with each other and with their teachers without difficulty. However, the research which is conducted on language and gender in the language classroom interaction proved that there is gender inequality in the teacher's distribution of the amount of talk between the male and the female students (e.g. Spender, 1982; Swann and Graddol, 1988; Kelly, 1988). According to Sadker (1999), the teacher-students interactions position the male students in the spot-light, but the female ones are relegated to the sidelines or invisibility.

6.1.1. Teacher-students Interaction

The teacher talk studies which took place during the 1970s and the 1980s indicated that the teachers do not only speak more than their students, but they also offered unequal attention to their male and female students. However, this occurs mostly unintentionally (Litosseliti, 2006).

An early study was conducted by Spender (1982) when she played the role of the researcher and of the teacher at the same time. She audiorecorded her classroom interactions with her students when she was doing a number of lessons. In her study, she examined the amount of speech she delivered with her female and male students. Surprisingly, she found that she spent more time with the boys than with the girls. When declaring her findings, Spender said:

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Sometimes I have . . . thought I have gone too far and have spent more time with the girls than the boys. But the tapes have proved otherwise... Out of ten taped lessons the maximum time I spent interacting with girls was 42 percent and on average 38 percent, and the minimum time with boys 58 percent.

(p.56).

Spender reached the above results because of her wrong assumption that her classroom interactions were mostly directed to her female students. This wrong assumption pushed her to try to allocate her speech equally between the girls and the boys. As a result, she fell in the trap of gender inequality when distributing her interaction with her female and male students.

Moreover, Spender told that her male students were not satisfied with the amount of speech that Spender, as a teacher, exchanged with her female students when she said "*the boys ...were complaining about me talking to the girls all the time*". Thus, even those boys enjoyed more interactions with their teacher than the girls did, they protested for being marginalized.

Another important study is that of Sunderland (1996). This study is distinguished from the other ones because Sunderland preferred to work on German which is treated as a foreign language within the secondary school context. In her study, Sunderland focused more on the amount of "solicits" that the teacher directed to the students. By the term 'solicits', she meant the students' reactions to the teacher's questions in terms of doing and saying. She arrived at the following results. She found that the boys received more 'solicit words' and 'non-academic solicits'. Whereas, girls were given more 'academic solicits' and they were required to respond to more questions than boys. Those questions needed more than one word

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to be answered. Sunderland's findings indicated that the female students were more engaged in the academic subjects that the teacher raised than the males.

A recent study is that of Hu (2012). It was undertaken in a junior Chinese high school. He tried to decipher the bond between classroom interaction and the gender element. First, he addressed the number of the questions and the turns which were directed to both girls and boys. He found that the girls were required to answer more questions, take more turns and get more positive and negative feedbacks than boys do. Second, Hu also examined the students' responses to the questions raised by the (female) teacher. He found that the girls tended to feel more concerned with answering the teacher's question than the boys. Third, the researcher moved to examining the number of academic and non-academic questions that the girls and the boys asked. His results indicated that the girls chose to ask more academic questions, however, the boys tended to ask more non-academic questions.

Language and gender in the language classroom interactions hasn't only focused on teacher-students interactions, but it has also addressed student-student interactions.

6.1.2. Student-student Interaction

Language and gender researchers have not only examined the ways in which the teachers interact with their male and female students. They also have investigated how the female and male students interact with each other in the language classrooms in the pair and group works. Language and gender research indicated that student-student interactions, which are the key to the collaborative work in the classroom, are gender-based. When reviewing the studies of Edelsky (1981) and Holmes (1998) that have been conducted about student-student interactions, Sunderland (1992, p.89) concluded that *"these female students were providing a good supportive environment for the male's language practice, but getting little conversational encouragement themselves"*.

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Litosseliti (2006) listed a number of the other studies which proved boy's dominance in the classroom interactions which are (e.g. Clarricoates, 1978; French and French, 1984, Edelsky, 1981; Spender and Sarah, 1988; Sadker and Sadker, 1985,). Moreover, the findings of such studies were summarized by Swann (1992, p.51-52) as cited in Litosseliti (2006). The findings of such studies came as follow:

- Boys were more outspoken than girls in the classroom;
- Boys interrupted more in conversations;
- Topics and materials for discussion in the classroom were chosen in favour of boys' interests;
- Boys had a tendency to hold the floor longer once they took their turn in the conversation.

There are also other studies which validated the difference theory to language and gender (e.g. Swann and Graddol, 1988; Kelly 1988; Sunderland, 1996). Within this respect, when summarizing the findings of such studies, Litosseliti (2006) stated that differences in the male and the female students interactions indicated, first, the girls tended to facilitate and maintain the interactions and support the other interlocutors. Second, during the playground activities, the girls issued directives that reveal a future action which is collective, but the boys make use of imperatives which are more direct and explicit. Third, the girls employ discourse styles that establish collaborative learning atmospheres; however the boys employ distancing tactics that hamper learning.

About the location of girls' talk in the pair and group works, Baxter (2002, p.16) as cited in Litosseliti (2006) claimed that:

On one hand, girls appear to be powerfully located according to the discourse of collaborative talk because this values supportive speech and good listening

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skills. On the other, according to a discourse of gender differentiation, girls are stereotypically expected to be good listeners [...], which consequently might diminish a positive assessment of their contributions.

Thus, the girls' speech in the pair and group works is located as powerful and powerless at the same time. It is considered as powerful when it is seen from the 'collaborative talk' angle as it esteems the good listening skills and the supportive speech, on the one hand, and it is considered as powerless according to the 'gender differentiation' discourse because it conforms to the stereotype that the girls are supposed to be good listeners.

Going back to Decke-Cornill (2007), he didn't only classify gender and language classroom interaction studies into quantitative and explorative ones, but he also provided critical assessments to each of the two kinds of studies.

Regarding the methodology, Decke-Cornill (2007) claimed such quantitative studies can be categorized as deductive and quantitative. That kind of methodology produced mainly objectivist discourses and factual knowledge about the social world. Moreover, those studies took gender binarism as an initial point and they focused on examining the quantity, the type and the range of the gendered interactions. In this way, they tended to generalize what was observed and they subsumed those observations under an overarching thought of gender.

In addition to this methodological assessment, Decke-Cornill (2007) gave other six criticisms. First, these studies draw on the common knowledge rather than questioning it. That prevented the researchers from going beyond the everyday knowledge and discourses which are perceived as naturalized. Second, those studies examined the gender variable in relation to the interactions, but they did not consider the wider context where gender operates. Third, that kind of studies did a superficial analysis of the interactions. They only focused on

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the types of the expressions, but they ignored the aspect of the interpersonal relationships where the context and the non-verbal modes play an important role. Fourth, they also had the tendency to oversimplify the average values. Fifth, they made a link between the classroom interactions and the learning success, but they only speculated about this link instead of analyzing it. Sixth, they did not consider the researcher's involvement and the impact of their research on the field as a whole.

Regarding the explorative studies, Decke-Cornill (2007) claimed that although those studies shifted their interest from gender-specific aspects to viewing gender as doing, they remained taking gender binarism as a starting point. In addition, those studies did not examine gender and classroom interaction in isolation from the wider context. Methodologically, they tended to use the narrative and ethnographic research methods, focused on the local settings, and dealt with the individuals in their specific contexts. However, they gave importance to the outside factors that may influence the classroom interactions.

6.2. Gender Representation in the English Language

Gender, as already mentioned above, functions in a variety of ways in the EFL classroom. The first way is that of the English language itself. During the 1970s and 1980s, considerable number of works was written about sexism in the English language. Those works included Kramer (1975) and Cameron (1985). Those two works, among others, showed that sexism appears at many levels of the English language. It manifests in the use of the generic pronouns (he, him, his, himself), generic nouns (postman, policeman, etc.), semantic derogation (mistress, lady, madam), titles (Mrs., Miss). According to Pauwels (2003), this linguistic sexism occurs as a consequence of male regulation of language. However, the feminist linguistic activism resisted this sexist bias in the language through

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suggesting a number of neutral terms such as the use of the title *Ms* instead of *Mrs* and *Miss*, the use of the term *police officer* instead of *policeman*, and the use of the term *humankind* instead of *mankind*. Such kind of linguistic activism, for him, is considered as a ‘feminist language planning’. These alternatives are, in fact, supposed to be used both at the speaking and writing levels.

Concerning teaching English, Phillipson (1992) claimed that teaching the English language tends to have three functions: the economic-reproductive function, the repressive function and the ideological function which is of our interest. About the ideological function Phillipson (1992, p.68) said: “*English is also supposed to bring 'modern' ideas with it, to be a channel for interpersonal, social, and cultural values. It therefore has an ideological function*”. To the best of my knowledge, the gender values are among the cultural values that the English language conveys to the students learning it because for Piercey (2000), the students do not learn the language to use it only as a communication instrument; however, they also learn the cultural values, including the gender values, that the language is loaded with.

There is a problem with the methodology which is used in teaching the language in general. Language teaching has the tendency to support the view that the language learners would like to learn the language only in order to use it but not to learn about its use in the social context. Language learning, in fact, is diminished to be just a technical activity which is detached from both the political and the social relationships (Benson, 1997). For this reason, the language learners need to know how to employ sex-linked linguistic forms appropriately (Wolfson, 1989). The learners also should know the sexist language forms, their alternatives, why they should be used and how they can be interpreted. Moreover, it is more interesting that these learners know that even the native speakers of English face difficulties with the use of the gendered forms of language. They, for example, still

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sometimes use the word *policeman* instead of *police officer* and they still have problem in pronoun selection and in referring to someone as *a woman, a girl or a lady* (Bebee, 1998).

The English language learners need not only to be aware that the language they are learning has sexist forms and know how to avoid the use of such forms, but also to know that these sexist forms are also apparent in the learning materials namely the dictionaries, the pedagogic grammars and the language textbooks.

6.3. Gender Representation in Pedagogic Grammar and Dictionaries

The issues of gender representation in the pedagogic grammars and in the dictionaries are also investigated by language, gender and education researchers. According to Newby (2000), the pedagogic or pedagogical grammar refers to the grammar which is developed specifically for those learners who seek to have command on a foreign language, while the dictionaries refer to the foreign language dictionaries which the foreign language learners use in the classroom.

Masked in the virtues of a declared traditional authority and objective description, the dictionary is one among the most risky transporters of the cultural prejudices and biases. Lexicography and dictionaries, in fact, have been an important issue that language and gender scholars, mainly the feminist ones, attempted to investigate and to transform. These scholars aimed at detecting sexism and stereotypes in the dictionaries (e.g. Whitcut, 1984; Cameron, 1990; Romaine, 1999). As a result, the call for designing non-sexist dictionaries appeared (e.g. Graham, 1975; Kramarae et al., 1985) (Gershundy, 1975).

From a feminist perspective, grammars and dictionaries were the primary resources of bias and this bias must be challenged. Moreover, the dictionaries and grammars functioned as trustworthy resources for people in general and for the learners of the second language in

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particular. This made it obligatory that any changes which occurred at the level of a language of a society had to, first, look at these grammars and dictionaries (Hadidi et al., 2015).

The Pedagogic grammars, in principle, have to describe the new grammar forms which are in common use and don't break the English syntax rules (Sunderland, 1992). When reporting her own study which was undertaken in 1994, Sunderland (2000) stated that she analysed the pedagogic grammars which were written in the period between 1970 and 1984 and she found that the alternatives of the 'generic' 'he' were frequently stated, but some of the other non-sexist alternatives were overlooked.

From a feminist linguistic perspective, the feminist linguists have regarded the issue of countering the domination of the mainstream dictionaries and the issue of excluding the women from the process of dictionary-making as crucial matters. Consequently, they have printed their feminist dictionaries such as Kramarae and Treichler's *A Feminist Dictionary* and Mills's *Woman words*. Alma Graham has the honor to be the first scholar who published the first dictionary which was non-sexist when the second wave feminism was in the air (Hadidi et al., 2015).

Although the lexicographers and the terminologists claim that they are receptive to the feminist thought and claims, their products do not always incorporate the verbal and the social transformations (Bengoechea et al., 2012). According to a very recent study which has been conducted by Arimbi and Kwary (2016) where they investigated a popular dictionary of English language learners, many examples of that dictionary proved the subsistence of the gender stereotypes because it was found that the females were subordinated by the males. For Arimbi et al (2016, the learners who make use of such dictionary may not be aware of the fact that they are using sentences which convey gender inequality. This may lead to perpetuating gender asymmetry in the whole teaching and learning process of the English

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language. This issue makes it necessary for the teachers in such setting to have gender attentiveness and to supply their learners with additional gender neutral materials.

Regarding the gender roles representation in the dictionary illustrations, a study which is conducted by Jimenez Catalan and Ojeda (2000) as cited in Litosseliti (2006) found that men were more visible than women because men appeared in the illustrations more often. Moreover, those men appeared in more prestigious jobs which reached the number of 66 jobs, leaving only 21 jobs of lower status for the women.

Concerning the issue of informing the learners and making them aware about what is said about particular grammar forms, Wood and McLeod (1990) as cited in Sunderland (1992) whose grammar book is *Using English Grammar: Meaning and Form* showed positive attitudes toward this issue. Woods and McLeod (1990) told the learners that the *generic 'his'* is regarded by several people as offensive because it carries gender bias and that there is a common tendency in the English language to avoid the use of the sexist language forms. Moreover, they supplied the learners with the alternatives of the *generic 'his'* which are either the use of (**her or his or his/her**) in the formal writing or the use of the plural (**their**) in both the informal writing and speech.

The pedagogic grammar and dictionaries, as proved by the previous studies, are not free from gender bias. It is crucial to make the learners aware of it and how to avoid because in way gender bias is resisted among learners.

6.4. Gender Representation in the Teacher's Guide

Regarding the issue of gender representation in the teacher's guide, Sunderland (1992) just mentioned the issue when dealing with gender representation in the teaching and learning materials without providing any empirical studies. She claimed that it could be difficult to create a case for the teacher's guide being biased. She maintained that the publishers and the

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writers may not aim for a policy which is 'gender blind', but they rather encourage for fair male-female participation, increase the teachers' consciousness toward the issues of giving more attention to the female students and of the textbook sexist practices.

6.5. Gender Representation in the EFL Textbooks

Gender is also evident in the EFL classroom through the textbooks. According to Sunderland (1992), the studies which examined gender in the language textbooks tended to highlight three important aspects: the female character invisibility, gender roles stereotypes, and language as discourse where sex-mixed dialogues are analyzed. According to Sunderland et al. (2002), the 1970s and the 1980s saw a flurry of studies which analyzed how gender was represented in the EFL textbooks. Examining these textbooks is of a high importance because textbooks show the people interacting with each other not only socially but also recurrently verbally

Most of those studies were in the form of content analyses and found that the female characters were poorly represented at the levels of their visibility, occupational roles, personal traits and derogatory handling. That biased representation against the females could be categorized under the senses of 'exclusion' (e.g. Hellinger, 1980), 'subordination and distortion' (e.g. Cincotta, 1978; Porreca, 1984) and 'degradation' (e.g. Hartman and Judd., 1978; Talansky, 1986) (Sunderland, 2000a, 2000b). Concerning the language textbooks which were subjected to the linguistic analyses, they showed the females in the dialogues as being speaking a smaller amount, rarely speaking first and carrying out less discourse roles (Sunderland et al., 2002). However, there are studies which have found that there are no considerable differences in representing the gender roles of both the males and the females in the EFL textbooks (e.g. Jones et al., 1997; Mineshima, 2008). For Sunderland (2000b), such

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findings may designate that the awareness toward the gender issues has risen in the recent years.

6.6. Teacher's Talk Around the Textbook Texts

The issue of teacher's talk around the textbook texts has its roots in the works of the critical discourse analyst Fairclough (1992a, 1992b) where he discussed the notion of 'talk around the text'. For him, this 'talk around the text' can be regarded both as 'consumption' of this text and as a 'discursive practice' that can be realized in several discourses and it also happens in accordance with the social practices that are gendered in many (frequently patriarchal) ways (Sunderland et al., 2002).

The teachers behaviour toward the textbook texts is unpredictable because the teachers can be in hurry, they can re-interpret or misinterpret the writer's intention, they can feel unconfident about specific teaching point or they can also like or dislike specific content (Pakuła et al., 2015). In his study, Abraham (1989, p.45-47) as cited in Sunderland et al (2002), tried to investigate extent to which the lessons depend on the textbooks, he came to the conclusion that the ideological perspectives of the teacher *"strongly influence their attitude towards designing, and/or introducing in the classroom, non-sexist or anti-sexist curriculum materials"* and that these ideologies *"significantly influence[s] teachers' selection of texts with respect to sex roles"*.

Regarding teacher's talk around gender bias and sexism in the textbooks texts, Sunderland (1994, p.64) as cited in Sunderland et al. (2002) said that *"the most non-sexist textbook can become sexist in the hands of a teacher with sexist attitudes"*. That is to say that the teachers' sexist attitudes can influence their interpretation of the textbook texts. However, the teachers who are aware to gender bias, they can resist sexism and gender stereotypes in the textbooks texts. In this way, the sexist and gender biased textbook texts can turn to be free from gender bias when they are between the hands of the teachers who are aware of such

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issues. Thus, the teachers' talk around gender representation in the textbooks texts depends, to a great extent, on both the teachers' attitudes and degree of awareness toward gender issues.

In sum, all the language and gender issues in the language classroom context which are discussed above aimed at detecting gender bias in the language classroom setting and tried to offer a clear link about how the element of gender operates in such context. Moreover, such issues played a crucial role in enriching the field of language and gender studies, in general and language, gender and education research, in particular. However, what other researchers in the same field tried to explore is how gender functions in language learning process itself. In other words, they attempted to answer some questions such as: which gender performs better in language learning? Which gender is more motivated to learn languages? How gender operates in the choice of language learning styles strategies?

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The correlation between language learning and gender differences was, in fact, the interest of the scholars of the fields of anthropology, sociology and psychology since the 1920s (Wang, 2015). Gender and language learning is one amongst the important issues that have been emphasized in the recent studies that were undertaken within the language classroom context. The researchers who are in charge of this issue examined the way the gender identity of student impacts the language learning process (Rowlett and King, 2016). About how gender connects to language learning, Yaghoubi-Notash and Kooshavar (2013, p. 791) claimed: "*gender lies among the social factors which contributes to language learning*". Moreover, Zoghi, et al. (2013) stated that gender, in fact, is viewed as a fundamental issue in the theory and the pedagogy of the second language learning because a

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considerable number of studies reached the result that the gender variable can play a significant impact on the way students tend to learn a language.

Gender and language education researchers examined gender and language learning from a number of aspects such as achievement, subject choice, ability, motivation, the four skills and learning strategies and styles. Furthermore, this research tended to follow the shifts that occurred in the field of language and gender studies when it moved from the ‘differences’ paradigm to the ‘identities’ paradigm (Sunderland, 2000).

7.1. Gender and Language Learning: Ability, Performance and Choice

Language ability refers not only to the learner’s intelligence, motivation and interest, but it also includes the learner’s ability of learning the four skills which are the ability to speak, listen, read and write. Generally speaking, the value of language ability is a major factor that makes the difference between the learners of the English language. Regarding the gender of the language learner, it is believed that recognizing the differences between the boys’ and the girls’ language abilities can facilitate for and lead to predicting their performances in language (Xiong, 2010).

Moving to the results of gender and the ability of language learning, gender differences at the level of the verbal ability and the use of language have been proved, across a variety of contexts, by a number of studies (e.g. Maccoby and Jacklin., 1974; Thorne et al., 1983). Moreover, there is a general agreement on females’ superiority over the males in terms of their verbal abilities (Maccoby et al., 1974; Denno, 1982; Cole, 1997; Zoghi et al., 2013).

About gender and language performance, Schmenk (2004) stated that the issue of which sex performs better in language learning has been central in the research of gender and language education and he suggested that the conceptions about gender and language

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learning such as “*girls are better at language learning than boys*” and “*languages are girls’ subject*” are to a great extent commonsensical and they result from particular stereotypes. For him, “*social beliefs about gender help to shape and are shaped by conceptions of gender and language learning and teaching*”

Regarding the findings of the studies conducted within the respect of performance, Fariadian et al. (2014) stated that a large body of research was undertaken about such issue and the results seemed to be different. Some researchers found that males are more superior than the females, others found that the females are better than the males and some others see gender as an irrelevant factor in second or foreign language acquisition.

Concerning gender and language learning in terms of choice, there is a study which is conducted by Carr and Pauwels (2000) to the end of examining the relationship between masculinity and femininity and foreign language learning. They analysed interviews with two hundreds Australian male secondary school students and they found that foreign language choice “*is not something that boys do; not something that boys are good at; it is very much a ‘girl thing’*”. This is not the only study which proved the female performance superiority over the male in language learning, in fact, there is a considerable number of early studies which support the same claim such as (Brustall, 1975; Ekstrand, 1980; Boyle, 1987). Moreover, the matter of studying languages, in general, not only foreign or second languages is ‘girls’ subjects’ (Sunderland 2000a, 2000b).

Gender and language education was not only concerned with the link between gender and language learning ability, performance and choice. What was also of interest in gender and language learning is the issue of exploring the relationship between the gender of the language learner and the styles and the strategies they opt for.

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7.2. Gender and Language Learning Styles and Strategies

Before the 1970s, language teaching and the teacher's methodology were a point of focus at the expense of language learning and the learners. However, since the 1970s, there was a shift of attention toward the learners and the language learning process. Consequently, an extensive body of research has been undertaken to examine the learners' features and language acquisition. The learner's strategies were among the most remarkable features that enjoyed more attention (Shabani & Sarem, 2009).

According to Oxford (1994) as cited in Litosseliti (2006), the language learning strategies refer to "*specific behaviours that (language) learners employ, usually intentionally, to enhance their understanding, storage and retrieval of (...) second/ foreign language information*". Whereas, according to Dunn and Griggs (1988), the learning styles refer to a group of imposed biological and developmental characteristics which lead to seeing one teaching method both as motivating for some students and awful for the others.

According to Oxford (1990), the use of these learning strategies depends on a number of factors amongst them is the learners' sex. Oxford (1990) also claimed that the language learner's gender plays a crucial role in the use and the choice of the learning strategies. For her, the male and the female students tended to use dissimilar strategies.

7.3. Gender and Language Learning: Motivation

Motivation is as decisive as it is responsible for the determination of the behaviour of the individuals through strengthening and directing it (Dörnyei, 1998). Moreover, Coskun, (2014) claimed that motivation is crucial for learning the language and sex appears to have a significant role in the students' motivation in language learning.

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Regarding the findings of gender differences in English language learning motivation, they are not statically proved (Akram & Ghani, 2013). Moreover, Bacon and Finneman (1992) claimed that the studies which attempted to look into if the female language learners are more motivated than the males in foreign language learning are abundant but inconclusive. In their study, Bacon and Finneman (1992) found that the female learners were more instrumentally motivated and this means that they are motivated to learn the foreign language in order to communicate with the target language speakers.

7.4. Gender and Language Testing

Gender and language testing is a significant issue because the ideas that the girls are superior to boys in language learning in terms of both ability and proficiency draw on the results which are obtained in language tests (Sunderland, 2000). In other words, the thought which is spread in gender and language education research that the female language learners do better than the male ones draws to a great extent on the test marks that the male and female learners obtain during the research. According to Sunderland (1995), both male and female testees can be favoured in tests in terms of three aspects: “Topic”, “Task” and “Tester”.

In their study, Lumley and O’Sullivan (2005) which aimed at examining the effect of the gender of the test-taker, the topic and the audience on the task performance in the speaking-mediated tests, they found that there was only alimited evidence which conveys that the interlocutor’s gender has an effect on the task performance. However, this was not always the case because Lumley and O’Sullivan also found that in the task which dealt with horse racing topic, the gender of the audience and the topic, itself, joined together to engender bias. In that task, the female students showed that they had less knowledge about the topic of horse racing than the males. Those findings led Lumley and O’Sullivan to speculate that when the

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male test-takers face a situation where they are required to speak about topics which are they are unfamiliar with, their responses to the test would be different from what the female students did in the horse racing task where they showed ignorance, the males instead would see it as face-threatening test.

Another study which is a little bit different from the above study, but both of them share their interest in the interaction between gender and the speaking test. Yu (2012) tried to investigate whether the test-taker's gender and attitudes and the medium through which the test was delivered had an impact on the test results. The results of his study indicated that the test-taker's gender, attitudes toward the test delivery medium and the test delivery medium itself were important test results predictors. His findings suggested that there was a possible unjust advantage for the males in the tape-based tests and unfair advantage for the females in computer-mediated tests.

8. Gender and Language Education: From the Essentialist to the Constructivist Paradigm

Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004) have a significant contribution to language, gender and education. This contribution involves their attempt to provide a historical overview about how language and gender studies interrelate with applied linguistics and SLA (Second Language Acquisition) in general, and with TESOL (Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages), in particular. They, in fact, focused on how the conceptual shift of gender, from the essentialist perspective to the dynamic or constructivist one; is reflected in gender and language education research and how that shift contributed in giving new understandings of how gender and language education varies from one society to another, from one community to another and from one classroom to another.

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According to Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004), Willet's (1996) question "*Why has the TESOL profession taken so long to examine gender?*" played an important role in inspiring English language teaching scholars to explore a variety of gender-related issues such as the immigrant women's concerns and the voices and the needs of women within the EFL locations. The feminist movement which took place during the early 1970s also had an impact in inspiring the researchers to engage in gender-related studies in the field of applied linguistics. Moreover, the majority of the subsequent research of applied linguistics which dealt with language and gender issues was undertaken within the three language and gender frameworks which are the deficit, the dominance and the difference ones. More specifically, the SLA research tended to stress on the gender differences at the level of the conversational styles, the amount of talk, and the styles and the strategies of learning. However, when the language and gender scholars shifted toward regarding gender as being a social construct which is acted out differently according to the cultural contexts instead of regarding it as an individual attribute, the SLA research, in general, also moved from the essentialist understanding of language learning to a more constructivist one where all the surrounding aspects, including the social, the political, the cultural and the historical ones, were taken into consideration when examining the topic of language learning.

Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004) claimed that in spite of shifting toward a more constructivist view of gender, SLA researchers remained perpetuating the essentialist view of gender and that gender differences are homogeneous across the different language learning settings through perpetuating the idea that females tended to be superior language learners (e.g. Ehrman et al., 1990; Ellis, 1994; Oxford, 1993). According to Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004), that essentialist SLA tradition received a number of criticisms. First, Ehrlich (1997) claimed that the dualistic and essentialist tradition which was widely spread in SLA tended to overgeneralize and overstress the differences among men and women and it

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ignored about the cultural, social and contextual aspects that play an important role in shaping the learners' gender identities, relations and outcomes. Second, Schmenk (2004) also criticized that tradition by claiming that unlike the critical SLA tradition which acknowledged that the language learners continuously construct and reconstruct their identities across the different contexts and societies, the essentialist tradition attempted only to provide generalized images about how males and females learn language.

Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004) related the persistence of the essentialist and binary view of gender within the SLA to the researchers' positivist and postpositivist views which tended to look for reality and believed that the results can be oversimplified and generalized. For them, that positivist perspective may possibly rebuff the constructivist, poststructuralist and the critical feminist research paradigms as being unscientific. It was until recently applied linguists together with SLA and gender researchers seemed progressively shifting in the direction of richer understanding of how gender and language learning interrelate across the different settings including the communities and the classrooms.

Within the constructivist perspective, Davis and Skilton-Selvester (2004) provided a number of examples about SLA research which examined the social relations. Those studies included Goldstein's (1995) study which explained how gender, language and the social environment interweave when he gave the example of how the gendered roles of the Portuguese women restrict both their opportunities to extend English proficiency and their contribution in labor. The other studies were those of Norton (1997; 2000) and Norton Peirce (1995) that demonstrated how the ethnic, class and gender asymmetrical power relations operate together to limit five immigrant women to use English.

In sum, emphasizing the language learners' different social, cultural, economic experiences by the SLA researchers had been, first, emphasized by the critical and feminist pedagogies. So, how those did pedagogies evolve and what did they focus on?

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9. Critical and Feminist Pedagogies

Critical and feminist pedagogies as ways of approaching the teaching/learning process have two crucial concepts which are ‘critical’ and ‘feminist’. These concepts are decisive in knowing the origins of critical and feminist pedagogies.

The concept “critical” has its roots in the critical theory of the Frankfurt School which aims at emancipating the powerless people from the oppressive practices. While the concept “feminist” has its roots in the feminist movement which aims at attaining gender equality and resisting the sexist practices. Transporting the concept “critical” to pedagogy gave birth to what is called “critical pedagogy” and transporting the concept “feminist” to pedagogy gave birth to what is known as “feminist pedagogy”. These critical and feminist pedagogies share common objectives. Pavlenko (2004, p.54) claimed that these pedagogies “*aim to demystify normative discourses of gender by clarifying the mechanisms of symbolic domination and to engage students with cross-cultural differences in the meanings of gender and sexuality*”.

In other words, the critical and feminist pedagogies have the objective of explaining how gender normative discourses function and of exposing the students to the different conceptions of gender and sexuality across cultures.

9.1. Critical Pedagogy

The concept ‘critical’ was transported to the field of education in 1970 when the Brazilian well-known educator Paulo Freire published his book “*The Pedagogy of the Oppressed*” to criticize the oppressive capitalist system and to liberate the oppressed people. McLaren (2000, p.1) described Freire as “*the inaugural philosopher of critical pedagogy*”. In addition to Freire’s work, critical pedagogy has other pioneering works such as Giroux (1988) and McLaren (1989). This critical pedagogy stems from the need of transforming the

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educational systems in order to be socially and politically influential. Its ultimate objective is to make “*independent learners, thinkers and doers*”. (Riasati and Mollaei., 2012; Halabsaz and Hedayati, 2016).

Trying to give a definition to critical pedagogy, Shor (1992, p.129) said that critical pedagogy takes the form of

Habits of thought, reading, writing, and speaking which go beneath surface meaning, first impressions, dominant myths, official pronouncements, traditional clichés, received wisdom, and mere opinions, to understand the deep meaning, root causes, social context, ideology, and personal consequences of any action, event, object, process, organization, experience, text, subject matter, policy, mass media, or discourse.

From Shor’s definition of critical pedagogy, it can be said that critical pedagogy is a way of thinking which goes beyond the exterior meanings and the primary impressions through digging deeper to discover the hidden ones. This way of thought also challenges the prevailing oppressive structures, ideologies, practices, discourses, decisions and the conventional clichés to move toward an emancipated and equal society.

The critical pedagogy came into being as a reaction to the traditional pedagogy promoters. According to the educational critical theorist Giroux (1983a), “*The traditionalists have failed because they refuse to make problematic the relations among schools, the larger society, and issues of power, domination, and liberation*”. Put differently, the traditionalist pedagogues were unsuccessful because they took for granted the links between the schools, the social context with its undesirable issues.

About the function of education, Freire (1970) claimed that education can function either as an instrument which helps the individuals to conform to the prevailing systems or an

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instrument through which the freedom can be practiced and the men and the women think critically about the real world.

Concerning the principles of the critical pedagogy, it is based on three main principles. Many critical theorists like McLaren, Giroux, and Hooks agreed upon these constituting principles which are: reflecting upon one's own culture and experience, improving the voice by seeing one's own society and world from a critical angle, and moving toward an equal society (Riasati and Mollaei., 2012).

Critical pedagogy is much interested in “the margins” of the society and in the needs and the experiences of those individuals who are subjugated and oppressed. Moreover, he has tried to give the guiding lights of this pedagogy namely solidarity, respect, love and justice. (Kincheloe, 2008).

Stating the features of the critical pedagogy and comparing them with those of the traditional or mainstream pedagogy is among the important elements that Freire (1970) did. This is dealt with in details below.

9.1.1. Mainstream Pedagogy Vs Critical Pedagogy

One of the crucial tasks that Freire (1970) presented in his book is identifying the characteristics of the banking concept of education and the critical or liberating education. When doing this, he lists a number of features of both types of education.

To begin with the narrative or the banking concept of education, within this tradition, Freire (1970) claims that: first, the teacher articulates reality to the students as static and as if they are detached from the real world. Second, another characteristic of this kind of education is the “sonority” of words where the students just repeat these words without knowing the real meanings that the words convey. Within this tradition, the students are treated just as mechanic “containers” and “receptacles”. Moreover, the best teacher is the one who is able to

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fill completely his receptacles who are, in fact, students and the best student is the one who is completely ready to be filled. In this way, education becomes a matter of depositing where the teacher plays the role of the depositor and the students play the role of the depositories. Third, knowledge is communicated to the students by the knowledgeable teachers and the students are treated as if they know nothing. Holding knowledge by the teachers justifies their existence and convinces the students that they are really ignorant. This knowledgeable-ignorant relationship lessens the critical consciousness among the students which allows them to be the world's transformers against the oppressor's concern which is dominating the world. In sum, the banking concept of education is a designed instrument to supply the oppressor-oppressed system (Freire, 1970).

Ironically, the same instrument, i.e. education, can be used as a liberating force by those "dreamers" who want to resist to the ideologies perpetuated through the banking concept of education. This liberating education is based on reflecting upon the real world to the end of transforming it. Challenging the banking concept of education, the liberating education believes that men and women are conscious beings who reflect upon their world. The proponents of this kind of education also abandon the fact that educating is a practice of depositing and they turn it into a "problem-posing" act. The "problem-posing" education discusses the problems of the individuals and it also tries to restore the teacher-student opposition by employing what is called "dialogical relations" between the teacher and the student. The teacher ceases to be authoritative, but, he constructs the knowledge during his or her dialogue with the students. Within the problem-posing education, the students become critical co-investigators in their dialogue with their teachers. In this way, the more the students are critical, the less dominated they are.

Thence, unlike the banking concept of education which supports the oppressive and dominating systems, the problem-posing education promotes for practicing freedom.

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9.2. Feminist Pedagogy

Feminist pedagogy, as its name indicates, brings feminism and pedagogy together. So, before defining and going deeper in what is feminist pedagogy, it is preferred first to highlight the relationship between feminism(s) and pedagogy i.e. their history and evolution.

9.2.1. Feminisms and Pedagogy

Enns and Forrest's (2005) contribution to the field of feminist pedagogy is worth mentioning because they clarified how the different feminisms (Liberal, cultural, radical and social feminisms) behaved toward the field of pedagogy.

9.2.1. a. The Liberal Feminism and Pedagogy

The liberal feminists have mainly emphasized on the idea of transforming the prevailing institutions and systems. Their ultimate and central objective is to eliminate the discriminatory practices which create inequality. The liberal feminist educator emphasizes the issue of encouraging the students to think critically in order to attain their educational and professional ambitions. The feminist liberal educator also tries to generate a classroom atmosphere where the students are encouraged to know their skills and chances. The liberal feminist educator is primarily attentive to the issue women's underrepresentation in the classroom setting and the professions which focus on the domains of mathematics and science. This educator may also try to raise awareness about opportunities for success in the mentioned domains (Enns and Forrest, 2005).

Therefore, the liberal feminist pedagogy in a way or in another aims at eliminating gender inequality within the educational institutions by means of encouraging the students to think critically and raising awareness among them toward women's invisibility in such context.

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9.2.1. b. The Cultural Feminism and Pedagogy

According to Enns and Forrest (2005), the cultural feminists have attempted to revalue the subjective, relational and connected methods of learning and call for the significance of incorporating '*separate*' and '*connected*' ways of knowing. Though the cultural feminists focus on the significance of women's connected knowing, this principle is relevant to the entire learners who are disempowered by the traditional methods of learning. The cultural feminist educator helps the learners to revalue the forms of knowledge which has been undervalued in the androcentric world. This cultural feminist educator also helps the students to apply this revalued knowledge to expand their competence and knowledge.

Thence, the cultural feminist pedagogy endeavors to give another value to the students' ways of knowing and learning so as to develop their knowledge and competence.

9.2.1. c. The Radical Feminism and Pedagogy

According to Enns and Forrest (2005), the radical feminists advocate the thought of creating new communities and organizations which are separatists where new egalitarian values are clarified. In this way, women can bring creative contributions in the different domains such as literature, science, religion, etc, rather than fighting the patriarchal values directly.

Regarding the radical feminist pedagogy, it aims at raising awareness that the forms of male dominance and that of patriarchy are pervasive. The role of the radical feminist educator, within this respect, is to provide a radical critique to the processes of teaching and learning and to bring methods for the aim of disrupting the patriarchal values which pervade the educational setting. The radical feminist educator views the classroom as nonhierarchical site where women are placed at the heart of inquiry. This educator also emphasizes the important role of dialogue and participation in preparing women for resistance. Hence, the

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radical feminist pedagogy sees the classroom as a laboratory where both the students and the teachers get aware about the dominant and patriarchal thoughts (Enns and Forrest, 2005).

According to the radical feminist educator, the freedom of expressing the emotions allows women to denounce their oppression experiences. When the learners name their experiences, they become free to resist oppression in new empowered manners. The radical feminist perspective to pedagogy is different from the other feminist approaches to pedagogy different because the teachers, in the radical feminist perspective, are able to problematize the issue if male teachers are able to support the female students with the radical and transformative skills (Enns and Forrest, 2005).

Thence, the radical feminist pedagogy differs from the other sorts of feminist pedagogy because it aims at a radical change on the methods of teaching and learning in order to eradicate patriarchy from the educational setting through giving opportunities to the women to express their oppression experiences.

9.2.1.d. The Socialist Feminism and Pedagogy

According to Enns and Forrest (2005), socialist feminism is different from the liberal, cultural and radical feminisms because it is the only feminism which identifies the intersection between sexism, racism and classism.

The classroom which is dominated by the socialist feminist thought tries to look at how capitalism and the social policy participate in reproducing the systems of dominance. The socialist feminist educators, more particularly, try to explore the ways the educational systems make the students, with their different gender, racial and class backgrounds, ready to accept performing the roles which are assigned to them. The socialist feminist pedagogy also examines the way women are required by the social world to perform taking care and nurturing roles in the family, in the school and the employment settings, whereas men act as

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decision makers. The socialist feminist educators also put under question how the hidden curriculum supports inequalities and they try to make these unseen issues explicit in order to resist and transform them (Enns and Forrest, 2005).

Hence, the socialist feminist pedagogy attempts to look at how the systems of dominance are reproduced in the educational setting and how the men and the women are prepared to accept performing decision making roles and taking care roles respectively.

9.2. 2. What is Feminist Pedagogy?

Feminist pedagogy as a global academic discipline appeared during the 1980s. Then, it was widened by the social activists and feminists who were to some extent inspired by the Paulo Freire's emancipating pedagogy. This kind of pedagogy aims at resisting and transforming the power relations both at the micro-level which is the classroom and at the macro-level which is the society. Moreover, feminist pedagogues strongly defend the idea that the classroom relations, in particular, and the social ones, in general, must be built on respect and equality. Starting from the classroom setting, feminist pedagogues seek to make the students more powerful through ending the hierarchical power relations among teachers and their students (Lundberg et al., 2013).

A considerable number of scholars wrote about feminist pedagogy and most of them tried to define what is meant by such feminist pedagogy. One among them is Fisher (1981, p.20) who defined feminist pedagogy as a kind of *“teaching which is anti-sexist, and anti-hierarchical, and which stresses women's experience, both the suffering our oppression has caused us and the strengths we have developed to resist it”*.

Shrewsbury (1993, p.10) is another important scholar who wrote about feminist pedagogy. According to him, the feminist pedagogy is: *“a theory about the teaching/learning process that guides our choice of classroom practices providing criteria to evaluate*

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specific educational strategies in terms of the desired goals and outcomes". From this definition, it can be said that the feminist pedagogy comes to give a new shape to the teaching/learning process through organizing the classroom activities and re-examining the adopted educational approaches in ways that meet the required objectives.

The feminist pedagogy came to raise the awareness that the body of knowledge that the teachers give and communicate to the students is not the detached truth. In this way, feminist pedagogy gives another shape to the relationship between the students and the materials of the course because the feminist pedagogues claim that the students are able to be active learners, instead of being passive receivers of knowledge. More than this, feminist pedagogy promotes for that kind of classroom interaction which encourages the students to prolematize, to dig deeper in the issues and to care for developing the motivation and the skillfulness that allow the students to discuss the ideas and reach the meanings (Parry, 1996).

Feminist pedagogy is also interested in revolting against the traditional teacher-student relationship. It calls for a more active and multifaceted relationship. To put this new relationship into practice, teachers with feminist thought use techniques that allow the students master the materials by themselves or within groups. In this way, the students become more powerful, having more power over knowledge and having weight in the classroom (Parry, 1996).

Focusing on the cooperative and collective work among the students is another characterization of feminist pedagogy. This is considered as another change which occurs at the level of the relationship among the students themselves. When the students engage in group work, they exchange knowledge. Consequently, the learners become able to see themselves as source of knowledge for each other (Parry, 1996).

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9.2.3. The Principles of Feminist Pedagogy

Webb et al. (2002) attempted to set six principles to feminist pedagogy. These principles came as follow: Reformation of the teacher-learner relationship, empowerment, community building, privileging the individual voice as a way of knowing, respect for diversity of personal experience and challenging traditional views.

Regarding the first principle of the reformation of the teacher-learner relationship, (Webb et al., 2002) claimed that feminist pedagogy assigns both the teachers and the students new roles. Power becomes shared between the teachers and the students. The teacher becomes more engaged in the learning process and the learner becomes more engaged in the teaching process. Thereby, the teachers and the students can overcome the traditional power relations. Moreover, Christie, (1997) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002) believed the classroom which is based on feminist pedagogy is considered a community of learners where power is partaken and the learners become more independent as the learners engage in the participatory democratic processes. Such kind of classroom is active and collaborative and it encourages for risk-taking and intellectual excitement. In this way, power in such context is regarded as potential, capacity and energy rather than domination.

The second principle is empowerment. Shrewsbury (1993) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002) claimed that conceiving power as capacity, feminist pedagogy aims at increasing the power of the entire actors, but not at limiting the power of some. (Bright, 1997) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002) stated that even though the teacher attempts to minimize his or her power, it doesn't mean that this power can be given away. On the contrary, when the teacher's institutional power is denied, the students become incapable to express their experiences rightly.

The third principle that feminist pedagogy is based on is building community. Schniedwind (1993) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002) said that since the feminists estimate

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community and equality, it is very important to build a trusting atmosphere where all the individuals are respected and offered equal chance to participate. Gawelek et al. (1994) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002) claimed that collaborative learning supposes that learning occurs through dialogue and relationships and that the learner is expected to be active in the meaning-making process and to be a real knower.

Privileging the individual voice as a way of knowing is the fourth principle of feminist pedagogy. According to Webb et al. (2002), feminist pedagogy values authority in other and considers knowledge as constructed and dependent to the cultural context. The individual's voice needs not to be confined to the courses of oral performance; however each student's unique voice paves the way to knowledge and methodology for teaching. In this way, the students are encouraged to appear at the public space, talk about themselves and transport their own issues to the studied material.

The fifth principle of feminist pedagogy is respect for diversity of personal experience. For Webb et al (2002), when the students are given the opportunity to articulate their personal experiences which have different backgrounds, respect can substitute fear. Shrewsbury (1993) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002) think that learning how to respect each other's differences rather than being afraid of them is one among the goals of the libratory classroom. Moreover, Scering (1997) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002) believes that when the students-teachers community work collaboratively and respect each other's sociohistorical backgrounds, the hierarchical relations of schooling will be challenged and the democratic relations of schooling will be encouraged.

The sixth and the last principle is challenging traditional views. According to Webb et al. (2002), feminist pedagogy affronts the thought that knowledge and methods of teaching are value free. It also affronts, according to Scering (1997) as cited in (Webb et al., 2002), the idea the educational institutions reinforce and reproduce the social gender structures

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through the following dichotomies: masculine and feminine, nurturance and autonomy and public and private

In sum, feminist pedagogy as a challenge to the old pedagogical views came into existence to transform the bond between the instructor and the learner through empowering this learner to build a cooperative community where the individual's voice is heard and the diversity of personal experiences is respected.

9.2.4. How are the Students Situated Within Feminist Pedagogy?

Unlike the traditional pedagogy, critical and feminist pedagogies came particularly to put the students into the centre rather than consider them as peripherals and to empower them and above all to realize the social justice. This is acknowledged by most of the feminist and critical pedagogues like Freire (1970), McLaren (1989), Giroux (1988), Pavlenko (2004) and Parry (1996).

Hook (1994) as a feminist pedagogy practitioner described his experience in the classroom with the students' experiences and voices and how the feminist pedagogy treats such classroom reality. He said

As a teacher, I recognize that students from marginalized groups enter classrooms within institutions where their voices have been neither heard nor welcomed... My pedagogy has been shaped to respond to this reality . . . This pedagogical strategy is rooted in the assumption that we all bring to the classroom experiential knowledge, that this knowledge can indeed enhance our learning experience. If experience is already invoked in the classroom as a way of knowing that coexists in a nonhierarchical way with other ways of knowing, then it lessens the possibility that it can be used to silence. (p. 84)

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Shackelford (1992) is another advocate of feminist pedagogy who tried to employ it within Economics classroom. He claimed that feminist pedagogy designs a program which brings the learners from powerlessness to powerful status. This occurs through fostering their critical and creative thoughts. In so doing, the learners become less dependent to their instructors' authority. Moreover, Shackelford (1992, p.570) described feminist pedagogy as "*student-centered*" and "*less hierarchical and emphasizes cooperation and community*".

About considering the student's experiences, Norton and Pavlenko (2004) as cited in Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004) called for a curriculum which is flexible in the sense that it advocates sharing the process of decision-making among the teachers and the students and which recognizes the diverse students' needs. They also called for pedagogy and practices that both integrate and locate the student's life incidents and beliefs within the wider social context and push them to see themselves as different individuals.

The students' voices are also emphasized among the advocates of feminist pedagogy. Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004) claimed that simplistic ideas of considering the student's voices may mask more powerful and subtle hierarchies. Pavlenko (2004) maintained that the transformation occurs when the led discussions which supply the students with the various chances to situate their personal incidents in the wider social world and that involves autobiography and storytelling as oppositional consciousness discourses.

In sum, feminist pedagogy is a student-centered and cooperative one with an ultimate objective of ending the practices of hierarchy within the classroom. Such practices give birth to what is named the feminist classroom.

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9. 2.5. The Feminist Classroom

The feminist educators try to generate a classroom environment which is pluralistic, inclusive, and open to the different views and to the various ways of knowing (Sinacore and Boatwright, 2005). This kind of classroom that the feminist educators aim at creating is named the feminist classroom. According to Sinacore and Boatwright (2005), the educators also characterize this feminist classroom as being collaborative, transformative and proactive.

The feminist pedagogy views the classroom as a liberatory site where both the teachers and the students behave as subjects rather than acting as objects (Shrewsbury, 1993). To the best of my knowledge, the feminist classroom has its roots in this feminist pedagogical thought about the classroom. The feminist classroom takes place when the feminist and critical pedagogies are put into practice. In other words, the feminist and critical pedagogies are the theory and the feminist classroom is when these pedagogies are put into practice.

According to Shrewsbury (1993), this liberatory or feminist classroom draws on the participants' experiences. It puts them into a new light because this kind of classroom not only relates these experiences to other different ones, but it also makes the participants think about their experiences in different ways. In this setting, the participants become able to integrate new ways of learning and to modify their prior ways of thinking. In this ways, the participants turn to be able to make use of their critical thinking abilities. Within the respect of encouraging critical thinking among the students, Lal (2000) claimed that the students should not be treated as decontextualized individuals who deal with knowledge uncritically, the students, instead, should be taught to think critically about their personal identities and life experiences and choices.

Moreover, Parry (1996) stated that teaching in the feminist classroom calls for those classroom interactions which help the students to problematize and explore the matters deeply. Among the issues that the students explore are the issues of oppression and power.

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According to Sinacore and Boatwright (2005), after dealing with the issues of oppression and power within the classroom, the students use what they have learned about such issues to bring about transformation within the world outside the classroom.

The feminist classroom turns to be a site where the students explore the socialization incidents that both men and women face. When the students become familiar with such gender role socialization, they become more aware about the individual's ambitions limitations. These limitations involve lack of confidence and self-esteem, fearing success and mathematics anxiety. When the students' awareness about such problems increases, they become able to resist and transcend them (Enns and Forrest 2005). Concerning the role of the teacher in the feminist classroom, s/he turns to be more collaborative and less instructive. Knowledge, in this context, is shared among the teachers and the students rather than being imparted (Bignell, 1996).

Going back to the feminist and critical pedagogies all together, what they have in common is that both of them address the inequalities of gender in connection with those of class, race, sexuality, age, ethnicity or disability in three important ways: the first one occurs through making language programs and classes which meet particular learners' needs. The second way involves exploring and admitting the gender inequities and discourses of resistance within the classroom readings and interactions. The third way deals with investigating the access obstacles which disadvantage some learners from the opportunities of education (Pavlenko, 2004).

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Conclusion

This chapter aimed at giving an overview about the main issues that have been investigated within the language, gender and education research. These issues are divided into three important sections: First, gender issues in the EFL classroom namely gender representation in the English language, gender representation in teaching and learning materials and language and gender in the classroom interactions and teacher's talk around the textbook texts. Second, gender and language education in terms of ability, choice, performance, learning styles and strategies, motivation and gender and language testing. Third, critical and feminist pedagogies which take into consideration gender and the other social variables like race, class, ethnicity in the language classroom.

The issue of gender representation in the language textbooks is one among the issues that have been dealt with in this chapter but only briefly. In this way, a closer examination of how gender functions in the educational setting, more specifically in the language classroom, helped to situate the studies about the gender representations in the language textbooks within the larger language, gender and education research. More details about how gender is portrayed in the language textbooks are going to be explored in the coming chapter.



Chapter Two

Chapter Two: Gender Representation in the Language School Textbooks

In my textbooks I learned that only men

are kings and soldiers.

Till I read a book in which famous,

queens ruled and fought against enemies.

In my textbooks I learned that only men

are doctors.

When I went to a doctor I saw that

she was a woman.

In my textbook I learned that only men

do farming in my country,

until, on a train journey I saw women

working in the fields.

I have learned that I have a lot to learn by seeing.

– Pooja, Ramya, Anuj, Utakarsh

students of Class VII, Baroda (cited in Panjabi et al, 2006)

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Introduction

Starting from the poem above, it is supposed that the textbooks do not represent the real gender structure as it is in the real world. They just portray it in a stereotypical way to the young generations. So, this chapter is designed to give more details about one of the most vital issues in gender, language and education research which is gender representation in the language school textbooks. More particularly, this chapter discusses the following points: the key concepts, the schools and the textbooks as agents of gender socialization, the effects of gender representation in the textbooks on the young generations, guidelines for detecting sexism, the evolution of research about gender representation in the textbooks, gender representation in the textbooks between different ways of analysis, forms of sexism in the textbooks, the previous studies and the theoretical framework in which the study is carried out, Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis.

1. The Key Concepts

A number of concepts are going to be discussed within this part. These concepts are: 'gender', 'representation' and '(language) textbook'. In other words, this part discusses the concepts that shape the title of this chapter.

a. Gender

Gender is a key concept in this study since this study aims at looking for the way gender is represented in the textbooks. The terms 'gender' and 'Sex' were used reciprocally. However, during the 1980s, the western feminists distinguished between these two terms. Regarding this distinction, Shapiro (1981) cited in Yanagisako and Collier (1990) stated that

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she uses the term 'sex' when referring to the biological differences between the males and the females; however, she uses the term gender when referring to the cultural, social and psychological orders that are imposed on the males and females on the basis of their biology.

The UNESCO (2003), when trying to give definitions of the concept of gender, it stated that gender refers to the men's and the women's roles and responsibilities which are created in the families, societies and cultures. The concept gender also embraces expectations about the women's and the men's characteristics, behaviours and aptitudes. These gender expectations and roles are learned and can differ within and across cultures and systems of social differentiations. UNESCO (2003) added that the concept of gender is vital as applied to social analysis, it shows the way the subordination of women (or men's dominance) is socially constructed and not biologically or forever set up.

b. Representation

The concept 'representation' is given importance in this study because the aim of this study is to investigate the representation of the males and the females in the textbooks. This concept is so important that it can't be dealt with superficially or repeated for many times without dealing with it thoroughly.

About the commonly used meaning of the term representation, Hall (1997) stated that "representation means using language to say something meaningful about, or to represent, the world meaningfully, to other people". Put differently, the term representation is generally used to refer to that use of language to say meaningful things about the real world. Then, Hall (1997) added that "representation is the production of meaning through language".

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Apart from the definitions, the concept representation has a number of theories. According to Hall (1997), there are three theories or approaches to explain how the representation of meaning works and proceeds through language. These approaches are named the reflective, the intentional and the constructionist or constructivist approaches.

The first approach is the reflective one where the meaning is thought to be in the object, idea, person or the event which exists in the real world and the language works like a mirror which *reflects* the meaning truly as it already is in the real world. The second approach is the intentional one. It contradicts the reflective approach because it claims that it is the author or the speaker who imposes his or her sole meaning on the real world by means of language. The third approach is the constructionist or constructivist one which recognizes the public and social nature of language. It rejects the thoughts of both the reflective and the constructionist approaches. It claims that neither things nor the language users have the ability to fix meaning in the language. According to this approach, we construct meaning via the representational systems including the concepts and the signs (Hall, 1997).

To sum up, among these three suggested theories of representation, the reflective theory is seen as suitable to investigate how gender is represented or reflected in the language textbooks.

c. The Textbook

The textbook is another key concept in this study as it plays the role of being a site of investigation where the male and female are represented. In Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the textbook is defined as being "*a book that teaches a particular subject and that is used especially in schools and colleges*" (OALD, 2000, p. 1238).

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About the importance of the textbook plays within English Language Teaching, henceforth (ELT), classes, Samadikhah and Shahrokhi (2015) claimed that the significance of the textbooks in the current trends of language teaching and learning can't be rejected. Though there are challengers of the idea of using the textbooks in the ELT classes, most of the educationalists assert its saliency in such classes. Similarly, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) claimed that the textbook is a nearly common component in ELT. Moreover, millions of copies are put up for sale every year and several aid projects are devoted to produce them in (different) countries. And they added that no teaching-learning situation seems to be perfect till it owns its relevant textbook. Sheldon (1988, p. 237) goes further to say that the textbook is "*the visible heart of any ELT program*".

The textbooks are significant elements in the educational procedure. They could guide the teacher's work and incorporate the subjects, the norms and the knowledge which are favoured by the school. Its main objective is to shape a subject-specific skill. Concerning the second function, the textbook intercedes the worldviews, values and expectations because the textbook is a component of the 'hidden' curriculum. This 'hidden' curriculum plays the role of identity shaper because it mediates gender-related norms, behaviours and expectations. It, thereby, reproduces the social inequalities and it might strengthen, transform or diminish the power relations in the classroom setting and in the society Kereszty (2009). Therefore, textbook has both instructional and ideological functions. It doesn't only provide the learners with knowledge about the studied subject, but also about the social norms and expectations.

About the textbook design, Amerian and Esmaili (2015) argued that the process of designing any textbook, especially the ELT one needs to consider a variety of factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, ability levels or the curriculum objectives. To the best of my knowledge, since the textbook plays an ideological role through conveying the social norms

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to the students, its design needs to be carefully done and it must be inclusive to all the social parameters.

As a consequence, the textbook is a crucial element in the process of teaching and learning, especially that of the language textbook. It instructs the learners about the subjects and it transmits to them norms and ideologies through what is named the “hidden curriculum”. Furthermore, since the ideologies are conveyed implicitly through, especially, the language textbooks, the textbooks designers are obliged to be very careful during the designing process and not to take things for granted, however, they must be critical. In other words, when taking the social parameters like age, gender, class, etc into consideration when developing a textbook, the designing process becomes a more cautious one.

As a conclusion of the three key concepts above, it can be said that the present study aims at investigating how the men’s and women’s roles, behaviours and expectations are reflected in the textbooks.

2. The Schools, the Hidden Curriculum and the Textbooks as agents of Socialization

The concept of socialization is a crucial one that the social theorists employ to clarify the cultural maintenance and change. Socialization combines the individuals to the collective life through molding the individuals into compliance and cooperation to fulfill the social requirements. This process of socialization is not predetermined since the individuals can reject and question some cultural patterns. Socialization, in fact, is a fluid, contingent and dynamic process. It occurs in a variety of institutions and setting (Stromquist, 2008).

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The educational institutions are among the institutions where socialization occurs.

Kuruvilla and Thasniya (2015) claimed that the school is an educational social institution that provides the male and female learners with equal space to grow and develop. It plays a crucial role in gender socialization through reinforcing the social values and attitudes during the teaching-learning process. The curriculum is a vital component of schooling within which the learners grow up as males and females in their society.

Regarding the role that element of curriculum plays in the socialization process, Stromquist (2008) stated that socialization that occurs through the informal hidden curriculum is a critical aspect of schooling because the schools may resist the social perceptions, values and attitudes or keep reproducing them through such kind of curriculum. Socialization through the hidden curriculum covers a wide number of practices ranging from the expectations of the administrators and the teachers, the classroom dynamics, peer interactions to the textbook messages.

About the textbooks as agents of gender roles socialization, Tahan (2015) stated that *“the textbook is an essential vehicle for the socialization of gender at school”*. Amerian and Esmaili (2015, p. 4) added that *“textbooks, not only instruct some information; but they also play a crucial role in transmitting gender roles and social values to students”*. Regarding the role the textbooks play in the construction of the gender identity, Jannati (2015) claimed that gender identity is constructed as the individuals go through the process of socialization in their social and cultural environment. Schooling plays a significant role in this socialization and the textbook is part of this schooling.

Regarding how the textbooks generally act as agents of socialization, Zinec-Anima (2002, p.162) claimed that *“Textbooks have a major socialization role in the development of children. They convey important messages to the young on how relations in society are to be*

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organized and which value system they should adopt.” Put differently, the textbooks play an important role in socializing the young generations. This occurs through the transmission of messages about how the social relations are arranged and about the values that the children are required to adopt.

Explaining how the textbooks exactly work as agents of gender role socialization, Kereszty (2009) said that the textbooks represent the real life to the children. They give varieties of experiences, identities, attitudes and interests which determine the children’s position and strongly influence their life views, gender socialization and the reproduction of the gender stereotypes and inequalities in the society. Within the same regard, Alrabaa (1985) claimed that the textbooks prepare the males for decision making and for a world full of excitement and the females are conditioned for a life where support and servitude are the sole requirements. Baiqiang (2008) claimed that the textbook contains historical figures that facilitate the students’ gender role socialization and these figures act as role model for the students. Furthermore, Hall (2014) argued that the textbook is a powerful means through which gender-biased language is conveyed and it plays a crucial role in setting up the students’ socially-held gender perceptions.

In conclusion, the school is a site where the children get socialized and learn the social values and norms. This socialization is performed through a number of practices including the textbook messages. Since the social norms and values are partly gendered, the gendered norms and values are conveyed via the textbook messages. Therefore, the textbook plays a crucial role in gender role socialization that mainly occurs through the representation of the male and the female characters that the young generations are exposed to. However, how does this gender representation in the textbook impact the children?

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3. The Effects of Gender Representation in the Textbooks on Children

Since the students spend a great part of their classroom time using the textbooks, it can be said that the way gender is represented in such materials, surely, influences their gender perceptions and contributes in their gender identity construction. About the amount of time the student spend dealing with the textbooks, Sadker et al. (2009) assured that the students spend from 80% to 95% of the classroom time making use of the textbooks and most of the teachers' instructional decisions are made on the basis of the textbook.

Gender representation in the textbooks is not without effects on the children who spend most of their classroom time using them. Lesikin (2001, p.276) as cited in Alasadi (2017) tried to comment on the effects the gender-biased representation in the textbooks can have on the ESL students. His comment came as follow:

“Female ESL students..... may also construct less powerful and prestigious identities than their male counterparts from similar sources. The undervaluing of women potentially adds to the female language learner's sense of alienation and worthlessness, making adjustments more problematic and perhaps slower than for her male counterpart”.

From Lesikin' (2001) comment, it can be said that although using the same textbook, the male and the female students develop different gender identities and unequal gendered power relations. The female students tend not only to develop identities which are less prestigious and powerful than males', but they also develop a more alienation and worthlessness sense than the male students do. This goes back to the undervalued representation of the women and the overrepresentation of the men in the textbooks.

The textbooks can affect the learners' gender role socialization through the characters that appear in them. Baiqiang (2008) argued that the historical figures that appear in the

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textbooks make the learners' sex role socialization easier and they act like role model for them. He also added that there are various studies in social psychology that indicate that the learner's imagination is tied up to the models that the learner sees in the texts. Similarly, Adell et al. (1976) added that if the (text) books always portray the girls in particular roles and the boys always in other different roles, our minds will be limited by these determinations. To the best of my knowledge, the depiction of the females in the textbooks in certain roles like being housewives, teachers, flight attendants and the males as soldiers, carpenters, football players can limit the learners' gender roles perception.

As proved by most of the previous studies, including both the early and the recent ones, that the textbooks are mostly biased against the women, this biased gender representation, according to Sulaimani (2017, p.50), "*would promote the ideology of female marginalism among female students*". Jones et al. (1997) who dealt with gender in the textbook dialogues, also claimed that the textbook dialogues can promote for the gender biased thinking among the students by means of their discourse practices when the students are asked by their teachers to perform them orally.

On the contrary, studies reveal that using suitable texts and materials promotes for knowledge which is more gender-balanced. Moreover, this initiative can promote for more flexible attitudes regarding gender roles and it can also help cut out the old tendency of gender biased texts (Sheeraz, 2014). Thence, it can be said that gender representation in the textbooks is a two-way traffic. If it is gender-biased, sexist and stereotypical, it leads to the same perception in the learners. However, if it is a gender-balanced one, it transplants more gender-balanced values in them.

To attain gender equality via the way gender is represented in the textbooks, Parham (2013) suggested that it is crucial to provide the children with gender-fair and non-sexist reading materials so as to construct a balanced image of gender identity and obtain equal

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opportunities to accomplish their total potential as humans. Hence, gender representation in the learning materials is so crucial that it can lead not only to gender equality but also to social equality.

As a conclusion, gender representation in the textbooks in a way or in another influences the students' gender perception either positively or negatively depending on the way in which both genders are being represented in such learning material.

4. The Evolution of Gender Representation in the EFL Textbooks

The second wave feminism which took place during the late 1960s and the early 1970s attempted to treat sexism and gender bias in different domains. Education was amongst those domains that the feminists focused on. They also examined sexism and gender bias in children's literature. Since the textbook texts are also considered children's literature, they gave a great interest to such kind of gender bias in these learning materials because the feminists were well-aware about the socializing role that the textbook play. To tell about the extensive research that have been carried out during that time, Sunderland et al. (2002) claimed that the 1970s and the 1980s saw a flurry of content analyses of how gender was represented in the foreign language textbooks.

More particularly, Blumberg (2007) claimed that the hidden gender biases started to be exposed nearly during 1970-71 when the activists and the educators, chiefly in the U.S, began to scientifically document them through employing content analysis of the textbooks and also employing other qualitative methodologies. Soon, endeavors to ameliorate gender bias in the textbook (and in the curriculum) spread all over the world. Baiqiang (2008) and Amini and Birjandi (2012) added that since the 1970s, the researchers around the world

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showed interest in the investigation of gender bias within the ESL/ EFL materials and since then such studies became prevalent.

Regarding the results that the early studies reached (e.g. Schmitz, 1975; Hartman and Judd, 1978; Hellinger, 1980; Porreca, 1984), Sunderland (2000a, p.212) claimed that the findings indicated that the women were poorly represented in the textbooks in terms of “*in visibility, stereotyping of personality traits and occupational roles (including illustrations), and derogatory treatment*”. To the best of my knowledge, those findings were not surprising, they merely reflected the subordinate situation that the women occupied in the real world at that time.

As a conclusion, the second wave feminism had a crucial role in triggering content analysis studies about gender representation in the school textbooks. Those early studies found a poor representation of women which was just a reflection of the subordinate situation they lived in their societies. This kind of studies haven't used only content analysis; however, they used other different methods, that are going to be discussed in the next part, like linguistic analysis, visual analysis, critical discourse analysis and critical image analysis.

5. Gender in the Textbooks between Different Ways of Analysis

Gender representation in the EFL textbooks was variously analysed. Studies of this kind were dispersed between content analysis, linguistic analysis, visual analysis, discourse analysis, critical image analysis and critical discourse analysis. They didn't shift from one method to another through time, but these methods were used simultaneously, for example content analysis was used by the early studies and it is also still being used in the very recent studies. Moreover, these methods are sometimes used together in one study.

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a. Content Analysis

Content analysis is a research technique which was used in most of the early studies that aimed at detecting how gender was represented in the textbooks (e.g. Hartman and Judd, 1978; Hellinger, 1980; Porreca, 1984). According to Krippendorff (2012), content analysis refers to a research technique that makes replicable and valid deductions from the texts (or any meaningful issue) to the contexts in which these texts are used. Busha and Harter (1980, p. 171) gave a more detailed definition of content analysis, they defined it as *“a procedure designed to facilitate the objective analysis of the appearance of words, phrases, concepts, themes, characters, or even sentences and paragraphs contained in printed or audiovisual materials.”*

Even the very recent studies still rely on this method to explore the way gender is represented in the textbooks (e.g. Ansary and Babaii, 2012; Gharbavi, 2012; Toci and Aliu, 2013; Alasadi, 2014; Aoumeur, 2014). More specifically, this research technique was used to investigate the rate of recurrence of the male the female characters, the professional and the domestic roles, the personal and the physical traits, the occurrence of masculine generics, initiating and taking turns in dialogues, etc.

b. Linguistic Analysis

Researchers involved in examining gender representation also relied on another method to explore the way both genders were linguistically treated in the textbooks. This method is named linguistic analysis. Unlike content analysis which is used in both texts and illustrations, linguistic analysis is associated with only the texts. More specifically, this method was employed to detect linguistic sexism with its overt forms, masculine generic constructions, semantic derogation, endearments and diminutives, etc., and the indirect ones,

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ready-made phrases, humour and jokes, collocations and connotations, etc. This method is employed in these studies (e.g. Hellinger, 1980; Hartman and Judd, 1978; Poulou, 1997; Jannati, 2015; Nofal and Quatar., 2015, etc.). What is observed in these studies that drew on the linguistic analysis method is that this method is not used alone. It is always associated with another method like content and visual analyses.

c. Visual Analysis

Visual analysis was also employed to investigate gender representation in the textbooks. This method was used in a number of studies (e.g. Lee and Collins, 2008, Gharbavi and Mousavi, 2012a; Subakir et al., 2012; Amini and Birjandi, 2012; Ena, 2013). In this method, the researchers try to evaluate the illustrations, including pictures, photographs, drawings and caricatures. Regarding the criteria, they include the frequency of occurrence of the male and the female characters.

d. Discourse Analysis

Some researchers of gender representation in the textbooks shifted their attention toward analyzing the discourse of the textbooks. This method is called discourse analysis. According to Yule (1983, p.24), discourse analysis deals with '*how humans use language to communicate*'. So, researchers in this field attempted to explore the way the males and the females in the textbooks use the language to communicate with each other. By using discourse analysis, they analysed the textbooks mixed-gender or same-gender dialogues. More specifically, they examined, for example, who talks more, who starts the talk, who takes lot of turns, who closes the talk, etc. Some of the studies that used discourse analysis are (e.g. Jones et al., 1997; Poulou, 1997; Johansson, 2009; Lehiste, 2013).

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e. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis CDA, henceforth, is another method of analysis that was used to detect the gender ideology and sexism that stand behind the textbooks. CDA is defined by Van Dijk (1997, p. 352) as a discipline which deals with *"the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enhanced, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context"*. Because inequality is produced and enhanced in the textbooks as the countless previous studies proved, CDA was seen as a fruitful way of uncovering and analysing gender ideology in the textbooks as Amerian and Esmaili (2015) claimed that CDA is viewed as a fertile research framework to emancipate the hidden power relations that govern the different ways in which the textbooks are designed.

There are, in fact, a number of studies that made use of CDA with its different approaches and models. These studies included (e.g. Nagamoto, 2010; Barton and Sakwa, 2012; Abdorreza and Pouran, 2014; Amerian and Esmaili, 2015 ; Siren, 2018; Beiki and Gharaguzlu, 2017).

F. Critical Image Analysis

Some studies about gender representation also drew on another method which is named critical image analysis (e.g. Giaschi, 2000; Dabbagh, 2016). Such method is in between critical discourse analysis and visual analysis. It examines the images and the illustrations in the textbooks. Regarding the criteria that this method of analysis examines, the criteria that were investigated, for example, Giaschi' (2000) study, the status of the persons, whether these persons are active or passive in the image, the kind of activity that they do, their gestures, their clothes, and their gaze direction.

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Moving between content analysis, linguistic analysis, visual analysis, discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis and critical image analysis, studies about gender representation in the textbooks met almost the same finding which indicated bias where the females were underrepresented and the males were overrepresented. But, how could this bias be detected?

6. Guidelines for Detecting Sexism

Schmitz (1975) suggested a number of guidelines of how to detect sexism in the French language textbooks, but these guidelines can be also applied to detect sexism in the EFL textbook and in any other language textbooks. These guidelines are exclusion, subordination, distortion, and degradation.

- a. **Exclusion:** This category refers to the ratio of contents which are devoted to the males and the females. It underlies whether there are as much females as the males in the key sections of the book including the dialogues and readings, as well as in the secondary sections like the example, exercises and illustrations (Schmitz, 1975).

- b. **Subordination:** This category refers to those occupations and roles that women have in the textbooks. More particularly, this category examines these elements: First, whether the women are restricted to subordinate roles such as being a nurse, a stewardess and a secretary. Second, it also investigates if the women are often represented as men as main characters. Third, it examines if the women appear in prestigious occupations and positions of leadership. Finally, it checks whether the women are portrayed outside the houses (Schmitz, 1975).

- c. **Distortion:** Such category qualifies the women's presence statistical material. Distortion investigates if the women are represented in distorted ways, the situations in

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which women appear and their ways of acting. Another element that this category of distortion looks at is if the textbook reinforces the stereotypical attitudes and behaviours and those culturally-bound sex characteristics like men are independent, active and strong, but the women are dependent, passive and emotional. The last element which is investigated within this category is if the adjectives that refer to the physical appearance, manners and personality are used more often to refer to the females than to the males (Schmitz, 1975).

- d. Degradation:** Such category means those degrading statements or generalizations about women. Degradation looks at if the textbook contains instances of culturally-condoned anti-feminist thoughts and if the women are perceived as an unpleasant “other” (Schmitz, 1975).

Schmitz’s (1975) four guidelines are set up to detect the amount of content which is dedicated to the male and the female characters, their roles, if they are represented stereotypically and whether the textbooks make use of gender degrading statements. From Schmitz’s (1975) guidelines, it can be understood that sexism in the language school textbooks takes a number of forms related to the males’ and the females’ occurrence, stereotypes and degradation.

7. Forms of Sexism in the Textbooks

Gender bias and sexism in the textbooks were not that kind of issues that can be easily or directly investigated. Researchers of this issue, in fact, looked for ways to investigate gender bias in the textbooks. When examining the early studies, it was observed that at its very

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beginning, gender bias in the textbooks was investigated in terms of a number of categories including invisibility, stereotyping and linguistic sexism.

About the sexism markers in the textbooks, Scott et al. (1972) as cited in Sakita (1995) claimed that:

“Textbooks are sexist if they omit the actions and achievements of women, if they demean women by using patronizing language or if they show women and men only in stereotyped roles with less than the full range of human interest, traits and capabilities.”(p.5)

Thence, according to Scott et al. (1972), sexism in the textbooks underlies women’s achievements omission, the use of the denigrating language and the stereotypical gender roles.

Sunderland (1994a) as cited in Mukundan (2008) also tried to summarize the instances of sexism in the learning materials. Her summary came as follow:

- *Invisibility*: fewer males than females or vice versa
- *Occupational stereotyping*: females/ males in fewer and more menial occupational roles
- *Relationship stereotyping*: women more in relation with men than men with women
- *Personal characteristic stereotyping*: e.g. women as emotional and timid
- Disempowering discourse roles: more males talking first
- *Degradation*: blatant sexism to the point of misogamy

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7.1. Invisibility

Invisibility is one among the manifestations of sexism and gender bias in the school textbooks. This made it necessary in any investigation of gender representation in the school textbooks.

Furthermore, invisibility, according to Sadker (1991), is described as being the most harmful form of bias and that gender equity needs to be considered as a crucial issue in the educational research and efforts need to be made to reorganize schools.

Such category of bias, in fact, was investigated through the examination of three criteria: the frequency of occurrence of the gender characters, their occurrence in the gender pairs and naming the gender characters.

7.1.1. Frequency of Occurrence

The frequency of the occurrence of the male and the female characters in the school textbooks is one technique that the researchers used to detect gender invisibility in such learning materials. Moreover, gender invisibility is generally examined in the textbooks through counting the frequency of occurrence of the male and female characters in both the textbook texts and illustrations. Regarding gender invisibility through frequency of occurrence of the characters, Porreca (1984, p.706) claimed that invisibility occurs “*when females do not appear as often as males in the text (as well as in the illustrations which serve to reinforce the text).*”

About the meaning that such females’ invisibility carries, Porreca (1984, p. 706) added that “*the implicit message is that women’s accomplishments, or that they themselves as human beings, are not important enough to be included.*”

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When examining the early studies (e.g. Hartman and Judd, 1978; Hellinger, 1980 and Porreca, 1984), their findings indicated that the females' invisibility in school textbooks in the sense that the female characters didn't occur as often as the male ones in such learning materials.

Healy (2009) tried to explain women's invisibility which was found by the early studies. He stated that during that 1960s, 70s and 80s, a lot of EFL texts tended to be biased against the women because at that time world organization was a different one because the place of the women was at home to raise their children and support their husbands. For him, there was no need to portray them in a different way from the real one. The women, at that time, were considered less important than men who made more important decisions in life.

However, although the situation of women has changed in the society, the very recent studies which examined females' invisibility in the school textbooks (e.g. Barton and Sakwa, 2012; Ansary and Babaii, 2012; Mustapha, 2014; Aoumeur, 2014; Abdelhay, 2015) found that the females are still being represented as invisible.

There are always exceptions, Jones et al. (1997) and Mineshima (2008) bumped into textbooks where both genders were equally visible. Jones et al. (1997) context found that the female characters outnumbered the males characters. The female characters were 68 and the male characters were 58. Mineshima (2008) found that there were 29 female characters and 33 male characters, but the researcher considered such finding a sign of gender equality. Mineshima (2008), in his conclusion, says "*there seems to be ample evidence to suggest that the textbook examined in this study exhibits fairly egalitarian representations of the two genders*".

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7.1.2. Firstness

Firstness is another technique that the researchers used to detect gender invisibility in the school textbooks. According to Bataineh (2017), gender firstness is viewed as a linguistic sexism indicator in the curriculum. Many researchers investigated and analysed gender firstness in both school and non-school coursebooks so as to recognize the existence of gender bias. Nagamoto (2010) defined firstness as the number of times the male and female characters appear first in texts, including a reading, an exercise or a dialogue.

There are many nouns which occur in pairs like *fish and chips, salt and pepper, etc.* Though these pairs can grammatically be used as separated, they are regularly paired because these pairs are socially taught to be used in a particular order. There are also gender nouns which are often occurring in pairs like *ladies and gentlemen, boys and girls, etc.* In these gendered pairs, the male is put first before the female. This is considered as gender bias in language (Healy, 2009). This firstness works to reinforce the subordinate status of the women and it can be easily avoided via only mixing the order (Hartman and Judd, 1978).

This criteria of firstness was investigated by both the early studies (e.g. Hartman and Judd, 1978; Porreca, 1984) and the recent studies (e.g. Healy, 2009; Nagamoto, 2010; Ahmad and Shah, 2012; Bataineh, 2017). Both of the early and the recent studies arrived to the same finding which was that the males were most of the time mentioned first while the females mostly occurred at the second position.

7.1.3. Naming

Naming the male and the female characters is another technique the researchers employed to uncover gender invisibility in the school textbooks. They examined the

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situations where the male and the female characters are named or unnamed because when a character is given a proper noun, this means it is visible, but when a character appears without name (nameless), this means it is given less importance and it is invisible.

In Aoumeur's (2014) study, it was found that unlike the male characters who are most of the time given names, the women frequently appeared in the textbooks as mothers, teachers and nurses, but they were never named. Jin et al. (2013) also examined the criteria of naming characters in details and they found that 72% among the named characters were males and only 28% of them were females.

7.2. Stereotyping

Stereotyping is a form in which sexism manifests in the school textbooks. According to Cook and Cusak (2010, p. 9), a stereotype, in general, is *“a generalized view or preconception of attributes or characteristics possessed by, or the roles that are or should be performed by, members of a particular group”*.

The stereotypes, in fact, are closely linked to all the social parameters that classify people into groups like age, race, class and gender. This means that there are age stereotypes, race stereotype, class stereotypes and gender stereotypes. Gender stereotypes are of great importance in the present study. Weiten et al. (2012) are defined them as beliefs which are commonly shared about the males' and the females' personality characteristics, abilities and social behaviours. Stenberg et al. (2009) added that the social and the cultural stereotypes and attitudes, that shape the ways in which the girls grow up to become women and how the boys grow up to become men, are widely spread across societies. The young boys and girls are treated in different ways because they are exposed to unlike values, morals, lessons, expectations and encouragements.

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What relates gender stereotypes to textbooks is that the textbooks are full of male and female characters that are, according to a great body of previous research, most of the time stereotypically portrayed. Researchers, in fact, tried to detect gender stereotypes in the school textbooks, through examining the occupations and the traits of the male and the female characters because the stereotypes, as Cook and Cusak (2010) claimed, are closely linked to the roles and the traits.

7.2.1. Occupational Stereotyping

Owing to the link between the stereotypes and the roles, the researchers examined the roles of the males and the females so as to uncover gender stereotypes in the school textbooks. According to Anselmi and Law (1998), these gender roles are those beliefs and prescriptions that are socially and culturally defined about men's and women's behaviours and emotions. Moreover, Bataineh (2017) claimed that examining the occupational roles is considered an integral element in almost any research about gender imbalance or balance in the non-school and school textbooks.

The early studies of gender representation in the school textbooks found that the males and the females were stereotypically represented in terms of their occupations. The females appeared in indoor activities as caregivers and the males in outdoor activities and as breadwinners (e.g. Schmitz, 1975; Hartman and Judd, 1978; Hellinger, 1980; Porreca, 1984; Arabaa, 1985). The recent studies also found that the textbooks still perpetuate such gender stereotypical roles (e.g. Nagatomo, 2010; Barton and Sakwa, 2012; Parham, 2013, Ansary and Babaii, 2012; Aoumeur, 2014; Abdelhay, 2015; Sulaimani, 2017).

Therefore, the gender roles are those tasks that the males and the females are expected to or should perform in their societies. Such roles have been examined in the textbooks in order

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to uncover the gender stereotypes that persist in these learning materials. Consequently, most of the early and the recent studies about this issue arrived to the same finding that the textbooks carried and still carry gender roles stereotypes.

7.2.2. Personal Characteristics Stereotyping

Examining the characteristics of both genders is another way that the researchers adopted to detect gender stereotypes in the school textbooks because the gender traits are an essential part in the gender stereotypes. More specifically, the studies that dealt with gender stereotypes in the textbooks examined the personal and the physical traits of the male and the female characters.

Regarding the findings of the early studies that explored the traits, Hartman and Judd (1978) found that the females were represented as overemotional and the males as helpful and patronizing. Porreca (1984) found that the females were depicted in more physical state, emotionality, and environmentally descriptive adjectives than the males. Alrabaa (1985) found that there is an apparent sexist bias because the adjectives: popular, strong, achieving, innovative and adventurous were at the bottom of the female list i.e. such adjectives are rarely joined with the females. He added that those attributes were helpful to succeed in the market place.

Regarding, the findings of the recent studies, Barton and Sakwa (2012) found that the females were not only described as being emotional, but those adjectives were also linked the domestic and marriage situations.

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7.3. Sexist Language

Another manifestation of sexism in the school textbooks occurs at the level of language which is used in such learning materials. According to Baker and Ellece (2011), sexism refers to that discrimination that occurs against the individuals because of their sex. Moreover, it has the tendency to mediate the thought that one sex is superior to the other.

Regarding the sexist language, according to Parks and Robertson (1998, p.455), the sexist language consists of “*words, phrases, and expressions that unnecessarily differentiate between women and men or exclude, trivialize, or diminish either gender*”. Holmes (2001) added that the sexist language is that way in which the language communicates both positive and negative stereotypes about both men and women.

Regarding how sexism manifests in the language, Baker and Ellece (2011) tried to summarize the sexist language forms. According to them, sexist language includes a set of practices: First, the use of denigrating terms like the term *bitch*. Second, naming of particular jobs so as to normalize them to a particular sex like *fireman, chairwoman, and policeman*. Third, the use of terms that mark cases which are considered to be exceptional like *lady doctor and male prostitute*. Fourth, sexism also appears at the level of the language systems, like in the English language, the adult males are referred to as *Mr*, and the females as *Miss* if they are unmarried, but if they are married, they are referred to as *Mrs*. In this way the language system obliges women to disclose their marital status; however, the men do not. Fifth, the use of the generic terms which involve exclusion like *industrial man* or employing stereotypical and generalizing remarks about both genders. Finally, the use of terms of sexual objectification like the use of the terms *honey, sweetheart, etc.*

Regarding the findings of the studies that examined sexist language in the school textbooks, Porreca (1984) found that the number of the masculine generic constructions

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reached 383 instances with the average of 25 in each textbook. Another recent study is that of Shah (2012). Its findings indicated that there were a number of examples of masculine generic “man” and “mankind”.

7.4. Disempowering Discourse Roles in Dialogues

The school textbook dialogues are also another site of investigation the researchers of gender representation in the school textbooks focused on because, according to Sunderland (1994), they are disempowering discourse roles and also locations through which sexism and stereotyping are transmitted.

According to Jones et al. (1997), there were very few studies of gender bias in the EFL learning materials which investigated the ways in which both the male and the female characters make use of language differently in their dialogues.

To begin with, Jones et al. (1997) found that the number of the mixed-sex dialogues which were initiated by the females and by the males was equally distributed between them. The females took 243 turn while the males took 213 turn. The females’ mean number of turns was 41, 99 and for the males it was 38, 73. It was also found that 3176 words were uttered by the females and 3230 words were uttered by the males.

According to Litosseliti (2006), Poulou (1997) who examined gender in the textbook dialogues found that women ask for information and make requests, but the men were found to receive information and perform directives.

About empowering discourse roles in dialogues, Sunderland (1994, p.62) as cited in Stockdale (2006) claimed that: *“it would make more sense to advocate male and female characters speaking an equal amount, using the same range of language functions, ...and*

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initiating dialogue equally often.” Moreover, Stockdale (2006) thinks that gender balanced representation in the textbook can manifest in the discourse contributions which are made by the male and the female characters in the textbook.

8. The Previous Studies

There is a flurry of studies, as it is mentioned above, that have been undertaken about the issue of gender representation in the school textbooks throughout the world. So, it is preferred, in this section, to classify these studies into five groups: early studies, Western world studies, Muslim world studies, Arab world studies and Algerian studies.

8.1. The Early Studies

The early Studies about gender representation studies were mostly undertaken during the 1970s and 1980s mainly in the Western countries (e.g. Schmitz, 1975; Hartman and Judd, 1978, Cincotta, 1978; Hellinger, 1980; Porreca, 1984)

A. Child et al. (1946)

Child et al.’s (1946) study is the earliest one that investigated gender representation in the textbooks. This study was conducted as a result of the poor representation of the minorities and the females in the elementary and secondary school textbooks in the USA. They examined 30 reading textbooks which were published from 1930 to 1946. More specifically, they examined 914 stories in these textbooks. They found that the female characters represented only 27 percent of the overall characters and they were represented stereotypically. The women and the girls were portrayed not only more frequently than the

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men and the boys as kind and sociable, but also as unambitious and timid beings. Moreover, the female characters were portrayed only in taking care roles (Flemming et al., 1980).

B. Schmitz (1975)

Schmitz (1975) attempted to examine how both genders were represented in six widely-used French language textbooks. More particularly, he examined the categories of exclusion, subordination, distortion and degradation in such textbooks.

When Schmitz (1975) examined the category of exclusion, he found that the females were omitted from the dialogues 79 times, but the males' omission from the dialogues was only 27 times and there 216 male speakers while the female speakers were only 120 ones. Then, he moved to examine the category of subordination. Subordination was examined only in the texts of *Harris & Leveque* textbooks and in the illustrations of the tenth lesson of the *Son et Sens* textbook. Regarding the findings of the *Harris & Leveque* textbooks, it was found that the males appeared in 17 occupations ranging from the more prestigious to less prestigious ones; however, the females appeared in only 04 occupations which were not prestigious. The illustrations of the *Son et Sens* textbook also carry the same results, it was found that 15 prestigious occupations were for the males and only 08 subordinate and low-paid occupations were for the females. After that, Schmitz (1975) examined the category of distortion. He found that in male-male dialogues, males appeared doing a variety of activities. But in mixed-gender dialogues, the males appeared initiating and giving help while the females appeared dependent. In female-female dialogues, the situation was routine or trivial. Regarding the descriptive adjectives, it was found that the females were valued according to their appearance, but the males were valued as intelligent and skillful. Finally, the findings of the category of degradation showed that the women were perceived as intelligent, talkative,

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always late, silly and flighty. Moreover, they are seen by the males as unpleasant and they are valued for their beauty only.

C. Hartman and Judd (1978)

Hartman and Judd (1978) attempted to review a set of ESL texts in order to explore women's and men's representation. In most of the reviewed ESL texts, it was found that women experienced low visibility and that the male referents greatly outnumbered the females'. Another form of invisibility was found in the Reading Improvement Exercises for Students of English (Harris, 1966) where only five of them marked women in non inspiring roles. More offensively, women were portrayed as butt of jokes. It was also found that the women suffered from the stereotypical representation in those ESL texts. They were represented as overemotional while the men were represented as helpful and patronizing.

D. Hellinger (1980)

Hellinger (1980) attempted to analyse gender representation in three ELT textbooks which were used in the German schools. More specifically, he analysed 131 passages from those textbooks. The results of his study indicated that 80% of the speakers of the examined passages were males. The female characters were rarely portrayed not only as performing demanding and challenging roles, but they also were portrayed as socially less influential. However, the males were represented as enjoying a wide range of occupations and leisure interests (Litosseliti, 2006).

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E. Porreca (1984)

Porreca (1984) tried to examine the issue of sexism in the ESL textbooks. To detect sexism, Porreca (1984) examined a number of categories which are: omission in texts and illustrations, firstness, occupational visibility in texts and illustration, nouns, masculine generic constructions and adjectives.

In the illustrations, it was found that the mean ratio of the females to the males was 1:1.97. Regarding firstness, it was found that the average ratio of the males to the females was 1:2.96. Then, Porreca (1984) investigated the occupational in both the texts and the illustrations. In the texts, it was found that the ratio of the entire occupations for the females to the entire occupations for the males was 1:5.87 while in the illustrations of only nine textbooks, it was 1:5.12. After that, the nouns were examined, it was found that the ratio of the females to the males, including the masculine generic constructions, was 1:2.06 and when these constructions had been excluded, the ratio became 1:1.77. Sexism also appeared in the category of masculine generic constructions. The number of those constructions reached 383 instances with the average of 25 in each textbook. The last investigated category of sexism was the adjectives. It was found that the females appeared having more physical state, emotionality, and environmentally descriptive adjectives than the males.

8.2. The Western World Studies

The Western World context was a fertile site to investigate how gender was portrayed in the school textbooks (e.g. Jones et al., 1997 and Biemmi, 2015).

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A. Jones et al. (1997)

Jones et al. (1997) conducted a study in the USA context in which they analysed the dialogues of three popular ELT textbooks quantitatively. Concerning the frequency of occurrence of the female and the male characters, they found 29 females and 20 males with different frequencies in each of the analysed textbooks. The appearances of these characters were also calculated and it was found that the females' appearances also outnumbered the males' (F:M = 68:58). When counting the mean type appearance, the results showed (F:M = 9,82: 10,47). Regarding the number of the mixed-sex dialogues which were initiated by the females and by the males, the results were equal (F:M=22:22). After that, the turns that both genders took were examined and it was found that the females took 243 turns while the males took 213 ones. The results about the mean number of turns per females and per males indicated that the mean number of turns was 41, 99 for the females and it was 38, 73 for the males. About the number of the dialogue words that were spoken by the females and the males, it was found that 3176 words were uttered by the females and 3230 words were uttered by the males with their mean numbers type 529, 08 words for females and 607, 2 words for the males and with mean number token for both genders (F: M=118,88:141,26).

B. Biemmi (2015)

Biemmi (2015)' study was undertaken in the Italian context where he tried to examine gender representation in ten textbooks. He analysed them both quantitatively and qualitatively. Regarding the qualitative analysis, he found that there are more men than women in all the examined textbooks. About the professions of both genders, it was found that the men appeared in 50 jobs and the women appeared in 15 jobs; moreover, the men's jobs are more rewarding and prestigious. Then, Biemmi (2015) examined the characteristics of both genders, he found an apparent difference between the adjectives attributed to the men

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and to the women. After that, he moved to examine the spaces in which both genders appear. He found that the males are more present than the females in both the closed and open spaces, but the males' presence is more revealing in the open spaces. Males' and females' games were also examined. It was found that the males' appeared in typical activities which were associated with their sex, but the females' activities were more various. They are sometimes linked to their sex and sometimes new to it. Regarding the qualitative analysis, it was found that the females are shown both beautiful and ugly, but their beauty is conceived as positive trait while their ugliness is conceived as a negative one. About the roles, the women were found performing mainly indoor domestic activities while the men were portrayed in an idealized way. Furthermore, while the women were evaluated in terms of their physical look, the men were evaluated in terms of rationality. The alternative models, the women were depicted in more unconventional traits and roles than the men.

8.3. The Muslim World Studies

The issue of gender representation in the school textbooks has also been recently investigated in the Muslim world setting (e.g. Shah, 2012; Ansary and Babaii, 2012)

A. Shah (2012)

Shah's (2012) study examined gender representation in the ELT textbooks that were used in the Pakistani secondary school. In these textbooks, he investigated the categories of omission or invisibility, firstness, roles distribution and the masculine generic. Then, he exposed the findings of these categories to the teachers in the forms of interviews and questionnaires to test their awareness to gender representation in the textbooks.

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First, regarding the findings of invisibility, in the *English Book 9*, it was found that only two lessons out of 22 lessons included and treated the woman's issues in the Pakistani society while all the other lessons ignored the women completely. In the second ELT textbook *English Book 10*, it was found that only one lesson out of 21 lessons talked about a very famous woman in the Islamic History who was the wife of the Prophet. Second, the findings of the category of firstness indicated that there were many examples of firstness where the males were mentioned first like men/women, boys/girls, Sir/Madam. Third, the findings of roles distribution indicated that the females were stereotypically represented and their various roles were unacknowledged. Fourth, the findings of the masculine generics indicated that there were a number of examples of such generics of "man", "mankind" and "he".

Regarding the findings of the teachers' awareness toward gender representation in the textbook, it was found that most of the teachers were insensitive and unaware to the exclusion of the women in the textbooks.

B. Ansary and Babaii (2012)

Ansary and Babaii (2012) investigated sexism in two ELT textbooks used in the Iranian secondary schools through analysing those textbooks quantitatively and qualitatively.

To begin with, the findings of the quantitative analysis indicated that the females form only 40% of the whole characters while the males form 60% of them. Then, the female/male-oriented topics in the dialogs and the reading passages were counted and it was found that twenty-seven out of forty topics were male-oriented and only eleven of them were female-oriented and one topic of the remained ones was neutral and the other was common.

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In the qualitative analysis, the sex-linked job possibilities were analysed. It was found that women were more often restricted to particular occupations like student and nurse and they were sometimes portrayed in occupations like teacher and doctor. Unlike the females, males were portrayed in various jobs like policemen, farmers, soldiers, etc. When investigating sex-related activity type, the females were found to be essentially portrayed into indoor activities, but the males into outdoor activities.

8.4. African Studies

The African context is also among the other contexts where the studies about gender representation was undertaken. Unlike in the other contexts, such kind of studies have been only recently conducted (e.g. Kobia, 2009; Schoeman, 2009; Barton and Sakwa, 2012; Mustapha, 2014).

A. Mustapha (2014)

Mustapha (2014) investigated gender ideology in seven English language textbooks that were used in the junior secondary school in Nigeria. He examined the frequency of occurrence of the male and the female characters, their experiences in the passages, their roles, their character portrayal, their amount of talk by sex speakers, frequency of dyad by sex and discourse analysis of the dialogues. It was found that 65, 3% of the textbook characters were males and only 34, 6% of them were females. The males' experiences were also overrepresented because 69% of the experiences were males' while the other 30, 9% of the experience were females'. Moreover, the females were represented most of the time inside the home while the males appeared most of the time in the outside. Regarding the characteristics, the males' desirable characteristics were represented more than females' and the females' undesirable characteristics were offered more importance than the males'.

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About the dialogues, it was found that the males engaged in 29.7 % of the dialogues, but the females engaged in only 8.1% of them. In addition, it was found that 52% of the speakers were males and 48% of the speakers were females with a very slight difference. Regarding the discourse analysis of the dialogues, it was found that the females' initiations of dialogues was 51% and the males' initiation was 49% with a quite close difference.

B. Barton and Sakwa (2012)

Barton and Sakwa (2012) examined the gender stereotypes in the English-language textbooks which were used in the Ugandan secondary schools both quantitatively and qualitatively. More particularly, they examined: The female's omission, the representation of the females, the occupational visibility, the masculine generic forms, the adjectives and the teachers' mediation of the texts. Their findings were as follow: the number of the male characters was 54 and the females' was only 30. About the representation of the females, it differed from one unit to another. In some of them, the females were represented as central characters, but in a heavily stereotypical way. In some others, they dominated the space of the kitchen and in some others they outnumbered the males, but they were negatively represented. In the illustrations, only 20.7% of the characters were females while the other 79.3% were males. Regarding the occupational visibility, it was found that 73% of the occupations were performed by the males. Moreover, the males' jobs were various, better paying and of high status, but the females' jobs were not only limited, but also stuck to the domestic chore. About the masculine generic forms, it was found that such forms were used sixteen times in only six units. When examining the adjectives, it was found that the females were not only described as being emotional, but those adjectives were also linked the domestic and marriage situations. About the teacher's mediation of texts, it was found that the teachers failed to make use of a text as a means to promote for gender-inclusive attitudes.

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8.5. The Arab World Studies

The studies of gender representation in the school textbooks in the Arab world were not undertaken only about the EFL textbooks, but also about the Arabic textbooks. The earliest study in the Arab context was the Arabraa's (1985) study and the recent ones include (e.g. Sulaimani, 2017; Otoom, 2014).

A. Arabraa (1985)

Arabraa (1985) examined how gender was represented in 28 Arabic school textbooks which were used in the Syrian schools. More particularly, he examined: the male and the female characters, the frequency of their occupations, the males and the females as subjects of biography and the frequency of the favourable images by men and women.

Regarding the results, Arabaa (1985) reached these findings: First, 75% of the lessons in the selected textbooks were dominated by the males. Second, the males also dominated the biographical lessons because 47 biographies were about the males and only 7 biographies were about the females. Third, the attributes of both the males and the females were heavily stereotypical because the females were usually described as being beautiful, obedient and self-sacrificers, but the males were described as being brave, intelligent and as achieving. Fourth, a few of the most frequent favourable images of the males and females were similar, but those different images indicated an apparent sexist bias because the adjectives popular, strong, achieving, innovative and adventurous were at the bottom of the female list. Fifth, 84% of the occupations were for the males and only 16% of them were for the females.

Regarding the qualitative analysis, Arabaa (1985) also analysed a set of textbooks which were prescribed between 1979 and 1981 for the analysis of the themes and the images. He analysed: the male and the female centered language, traditional sex-role expectations,

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derogation of women and victimization and acquiescence. Regarding the male centered language, it was found that the masculine gender was employed to refer to both the males and the females. In the traditional-sex roles, it was found that those textbooks reproduced the traditional models that were existing in the Syrian society. Those textbooks portrayed the females as being proficient in their household chore while the males appeared as striving to realize high goals. Concerning derogation of women, the findings showed that the textbooks often included derogating undertones of women by for example conveying the meaning that the females had disadvantages while the males had chivalry and that the females were overgrown children who needed support and that they were fussy and did nothing. Regarding victimization, Arabaa (1985) found that those textbooks also victimized the females in many instances and the most poignant one was when it was revealed that the girls were not as wanted as the boys and that the women appeared as praying to bring more boys.

B. Otoom (2014)

Otoom (2014) examined the image of the woman in the second grade primary school Arabic textbook in Jordan. More specifically, Otoom (2014) examined three elements: the roles that the women and the men perform, the values of both genders, and their linguistic discourse. He found that the women performed only 41 jobs while the men performed 74 ones; moreover, women usually appeared in indoor activities; however, the men appeared in more outdoor activities. Regarding the values, the women were usually characterized as having the characteristics of compassion, humility, honoring the parents of the husband, taking care of the family, etc, while men were characterized with the characteristics of courage, independence, sacrifice, leadership, independence, etc. About the linguistic discourse, he found that 38% of the speech was masculine and only 5, 4% of it was feminine while the other speech was neutral.

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C. Sulaimani (2017)

Sulaimani's study (2017) was conducted within the Saudi Arabia context. It investigated gender representation in the listening conversations of an ELT textbook. He found that 47,6% of the conversations were male-male, 16% of them were female-female and 36, 76% were mixed-gender. Regarding the unequal gender relations in male-female conversations, it was found that waiter-customer relations frequently occurred between both genders with a frequency of five out of nine. In those five conversations, the females appeared three times as waitresses, but the males appeared twice as waiters. Subject positions of all the conversations were also counted and it was found that 60,71% of males' and 55% of females' conversations dealt with societal subjects. Regarding the frequency of characters in the total conversations, it was found that 83 of the entire characters were males; whereas, only 44 of them were females.

8.6. Algerian Studies

The Algerian context is no exception. It also saw a number of studies on gender representation in the EFL textbooks (e.g. Boukheddad, 2011; Aoumeur, 2014; Abdelhay, 2015). However, this body of research has been only recently conducted.

A. Abdelhay (2015)

Abdelhay (2015) investigated gender stereotypes depicted in the pictorial illustrations of the first year Middle School EFL textbook, *Spotlight on English 1*. Abdelhay (2015) examined: the frequency of appearance, the portrayal of the productive and the reproductive and the depiction of the sport activities. Regarding the frequency of appearance, it was found that there were 120 male characters and only 66 female characters. It was also found that the males performing 38 sorts of occupations, but the females appeared in only 9 occupations.

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About the reproductive roles, there were only two roles. Regarding the sport activities, the males were depicted in various types of sports, but the females were depicted in only one sport activity.

B. Aoumeur (2014)

Aoumeur (2014) investigated how gender was represented in three Arabic primary school textbooks in Algeria. She examined: the presence of the males and the females, the number of men and women as producers of texts, the activities, professions and roles associated to the males and the females, their traits, their behaviours and their linguistic features. In the Arabic textbook of *Grade1*, it was designed by three male inspectors of education and also two male teachers. Regarding the presence of the characters, the textbook was dominated by a male character "Reda" who appeared in approximately all the texts and 98% of those text were around him and his family, activities, likes, etc. Moreover, he was represented approximately active in the outdoor activities. His father also was represented as a breadwinner and an intellectual. The grandfather also appeared in this textbook, but as lazy and suddenly he moved to be represented as wise. However, the females were poorly represented and excluded. Moreover, they were represented childish, fragile and love candy and likes playing with dolls. The mother was also at the background. The females also appeared as teachers and they were represented either as invisible or passive and silent.

Regarding the findings of the second textbook *Grade3*, it was designed by two female teachers and two male teachers. It was found that the textbook was opened by a female character "Soundous". Then, she vanished after fewer pages and she was replaced by a male character "Tarek". Regarding the presence, both genders are equally represented, but in terms of the roles, the females appeared as stuck to some roles such as being stewardess, teacher or

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salesgirl. It was also found that there were some situations which were stereotypical where the girl “Afaf” was represented performing the role of the mother when taking care of her doll and another situation where the girl “Mouna” appeared preparing a cake to her friends. Conversely, the researcher encountered a situation where a male character “Mounir” with his sister “Mouna” engaging in the domestic work willingly and happily. The parents also in that textbook appeared in their traditional roles i.e. the mother in indoor activities and the father in outdoor activities.

About the findings of the Arabic textbook of *Grade5*, it was designed by two female teachers and one female inspector. In the writing exercises, the father was always present and portrayed having the ability to negotiate, to convince, to buy beautiful things and even to realize dreams. Regarding the roles, the males were represented in 20 occupations while the females were represented either without work or in stereotypical roles.

9. The Theoretical Framework: Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis

Feminist critical discourse analysis is adopted as a theoretical framework of the present study because such study aims at uncovering how gender relations, ideologies and values are discursively produced or challenged at the level of the school textbooks.

9.1. Discourse

The concept “discourse” is so crucial in discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis and feminist critical discourse analysis. According to Mc Arthur (1996), the etymology of the term “discourse” is traced back to the 14th century. It is derived from the Latin word “discursus” which refers to “conversation”. Whereas, (Haase, 2007) thinks that the term

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“discourse” has its origins in the Greek cultural background that dealt with the dialectical communication which was practiced and learned by the public speakers.

Discourse has been defined differently by the scholars. Brown and Yule (1983) claimed that discourse means “*language in use*”. However, Foucault (1972, p.63) viewed discourse from an ideological angle. He defined it as “*practices which systematically form the objects of which they speak.*”

Therefore, giving a standard definition to the concept “discourse” is unattainable because each scholar attempted to define it according to their interpretations which each time clarifies some ambiguities about “discourse”. In so doing, the identification of the concept “discourse” remains open to the different interpretations of the scholars.

9.2. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a discipline which is both old and new. Its origins go back to the study of language, literature and public speech, exceeding 2000 years ago (Van Dijk, 1985). According to Baker and Ellece (2011), just like the term “discourse” has various connotations, there are similarly numerous conceptions of discourse analysis that have changed throughout time. Brown and Yule (1983, p.44) defined discourse analysis as “*how humans use language to communicate.*”. Stubbs (1983, p.1) also defined it as “*the study of naturally occurring language*” Another interesting definition was given by Gee (2005, p.222). He claimed that “*Discourse analysis considers how language, both spoken and written, enacts social and cultural perspectives and identities.*”

The discourse analysts perform what the ordinary people in their real life experience of language perform instinctively and mostly unconsciously. They note the patternings of language in use and the conditions. The patternings and conditions include the participants,

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the purpose, the situations and the outcomes. The discourse analyst's specific contribution in this activity is to do conscious, deliberate, systematic and as much as possible objective noticing and they also produce accounts, like descriptions, interpretations and explanations, of what their investigations have disclosed (Trappes-Lomax, 2006). Drid (2010) added that the discourse analysts endeavor to uncover the patternings of the situational context and to announce its correlation with the patterning of discourse.

While there are some discourse analysts who focused on the way meaning as well as structure are marked in the texts, there are others, mostly ever since the early 1990s, who dealt with discourse analysis more critically aiming at examining power, ideology and inequality issues (Baker and Ellece, 2011). This shift that the discourse analysts had experienced gave birth to new discipline called Critical Discourse Analysis. So, how have this discipline evolved and with which aims and principles?

9.3. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (henceforth CDA) as a discipline developed over time and it has some aims and principles.

9.3. 1. A Brief History

CDA appeared during the early 1990s as a network of scholars thanks to the support of the University of Amsterdam when Van Dijk, Fairclough, Kress, van Leeuwen and Wodak spent two days with each other. That meeting was an opportunity for them to discuss the methods and theories of discourse analysis, particularly CDA. That meeting was a site where differences and sameness were laid out. The differences were about the theories and

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methodologies of discourse analysis, but sameness was about the programmatic way. Both the differences and samenesses framed the theoretical approach of CDA (Van Dijk, 1993).

The beginning of CDA network was observed by launching the Journal of *Discourse and Society* (1990) of Van Dijk and by the numerous books which were coincidentally published. The meeting of Amsterdam was considered as an institutional start attempted to constitute and exchange programme as well as to make collective projects and to collaborate between the scholars from different countries. Since that time, new journals were created and different overviews were written. These days, CDA is a recognized paradigm in linguistics thanks to the journals like that of *language and politics*, *discourse and communication*, etc, as well as the book series which have been launched and the regular CDA meetings that took place. Hence, CDA becomes a recognized discipline which is institutionalized across the world in the various departments and curricula (Van Dijk, 1993).

9.3. 2. Principles and Aims of Critical Discourse Analysis

Van Dijk (1993) suggested a list of CDA aims and principles. According to him, the first principle and aim is the emphasis on dominance and inequality. Unlike the other domains and discourse analysis approaches, critical discourse analysis focuses on dominance and inequality. This implies that CDA primary aim is not to contribute to a particular discipline, school, paradigm or discourse theory. It is, in fact, chiefly interested in and motivated by pressing the social issues which are hoped to be understood via discourse analysis, drawing on chosen theories, methods, descriptions and empirical work to realize the sociopolitical aims.

The second principle is that the critical discourse analyst, unlike discourse analyst, take an overt sociopolitical stance: they make clear their point of view, principles,

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perspectives and aims in their discipline and in their society. Although not all their theory formation and analysis stages are ultimately political, they occasionally hope to change via critical understanding. The critical discourse analysts are interested in the victims of dominance and inequality. Their critical intentions are the elites who have the power to enact, legitimate, sustain, ignore and condone the social inequality and injustice. They treat the real life problems that threaten the lives or well-being of people, but not only the petty disciplinary problems of describing the structures of discourse. CDA is unabashedly is normative. Unlike the politicians and the activists, the critical discourse analysts go above the immediate everyday issues. Their structural understanding assumes more broad insights and occasionally indirect and long-term analyses of the conditions, causes and consequences of the issues. Moreover, the critical discourse analysts, unlike the majority social and political scientists, would like to offer more specific contribution which involves getting more insight into the fundamental role which is played by discourse in reproducing dominance and inequality. The success of Critical discourse analysis involves its effectiveness and relevance and its contribution to transformation. Regarding change, it can be marginal; especially the ones who are directly involved and whose resistance acts are effective change agents. Thought change is marginal, academics' contribution in the movements of change was present because critical discourse analysts' contribution was crucial in addressing problems of oppression, injustice and inequality during the 1990s. These choices, aims and criteria implies for scholarly work via monitoring theory formation and the analytical methods and procedures. When dealing with the forms of oppression and inequality, the critical scholars do not take care of the interests of the powerful individuals. However, the majority of white or male scholars have appeared to despise this partisanship. This makes them to be condemned of mixing scholarship with politics.

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9.3.3. Approaches to CDA

CDA has been approached differently by the scholars. This gave birth to three approaches to CDA which are named: the three-dimensional approach, the discourse-historical approach and the socio-cognitive approach.

9.3.3.a. Fairclough' Approach to CDA

Fairclough's (1989) three-dimensional model is interested in how ideologies and power relations are conveyed through language. Fairclough (1989) adopted three stages in this model: the first one is called *description*. It is involved in text analysis and it is based on Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar. The second stage is named *interpretation*. It emphasizes the link between the text and the interaction where the text is viewed both as a result of the production process and as a resource in the interpretation process. The last stage is *explanation*. It deals with the link between interaction and the social context and it takes into consideration the social effects of the production and interpretation processes (Baker and Ellece, 2011).

9.3.3. b. Discourse-historical Approach

The discourse-historical approach is a CDA form. It was developed by Reisigl and Wodak (2001) in Vienna. It is influenced by a number of theories and works of scholars. Regarding the scholars, they are Van Leeuwen (1995, 1996), Fairclough (19989, 1995) and Hodge and Kress (1988). The theories and the scholars works that influence this approach

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are the systemic functional grammar of Halliday, the critical theory, critical linguistics, the argumentation theory and the German ‘politico-linguistics’ (Baker and Ellece, 2011).

Aiming at mitigating the danger of biased politicizing, the discourse-historical approach makes use of triangulation and it emphasizes how to find out as much information as possible about the context. The analysis of the context takes into consideration a number of elements which are: the way language is used in specific texts, the intertextual connexions, interdiscursivity, the social variables as well as the institutional frames that deal with the situational, sociopolitical and historical context (Baker and Ellece, 2011).

The typical discourse-historical analysis requires the researcher to follow steps: first, the researcher outlines the contents of a specific discourse. Then, s/he examines the discursive strategies, like argumentation, which are employed to sustain it. Finally, s/he checks how the particular constructions, like stereotypes, are accomplished linguistically (Baker and Ellece, 2011).

9.3.3. c. Socio-cognitive Approach

The socio-cognitive approach is an approach to CDA. It is developed by Van Dijk (1998). It clarifies the relationship between discourse, cognition and society. Practically, this relationship entails the analysis of the topics or macrostructures, the local meaning that relates to the phenomena like a word choice, the mental or context model which deals with attitudes knowledge and ideologies and finally the analysis of the link between discourse and society (Baker and Ellece, 2011).

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9.4. Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis

For over a decade, there had been a collective shift toward using the term “feminist” in the different subfields of language and discourse studies by the feminists who work in this field. This gave birth to ‘feminist stylistics’ (Mills, 1995), ‘feminist conversation analysis’ (e.g. Kitzinger, 2000) and ‘feminist pragmatics’ (Christie, 2000). The mainstream research in these subfields has been described as being neutral and objective. However, the feminist scholars in these subfields have confronted this neutrality and objectivity (Lazar, 2007).

9.4. 1. Why Feminist CDA?

CDA is famous for its openly political stance and it is interested in analysing the different forms of social inequalities. However, why is there a need for an overt feminist label? There are various reasons for this label. The first reason is that not all the CDA studies which deal with gender in discourse are essentially feminist in this critical meaning. The second reason is that reticence of the feminist scholars about CDA calls for pause of thought. The third reason is that the absence of self-naming has denoted that the feminist critical discourse analysts across the world are not organized enough to form a common forum (Lazar, 2007).

9.4.2. Principles of Feminist CDA

Like CDA, feminist CDA, is also guided by a number of principles which are stated by Lazar (2007). These principles are: feminist analytical activism, gender as ideological structure, complexity of gender and power relations, discourse in the (de)construction of gender and critical reflexivity as praxis.

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a. Feminist Analytical Activism

The social practices relate to the category of gender into two ways. The first relation is that gender works as an interpretive category which allows the individuals of a community to organize and make sense of their social practices. The second relationship is that gender is considered as a social relation which partially makes up all the other social relations and practices (Lazar, 2007).

The analysis of discourse that shows up the workings of power, which maintain the oppressive social structures and relations, participate into the on-going struggles of transformation and contestation via what can be named “analytical activism” (Lazar, 2007).

The critical praxis orientation doesn't only tell about the social justice approach, it also forms the theory itself. Furthermore, the critical praxis research solves the dichotomization of theory and practice among the feminists. The academic feminists dealt with ‘theory’ and the grassroots feminist activists dealt with ‘practice’. The work of the academic feminists is named ‘academic activism’ since it raises the critical awareness via research and teaching. Whereas, the work of the grassroots feminists is named ‘analytical activism’ since it analyses the gendered discourse practices. Additionally, any feminist theorization and analysis which considers group identities, power relation and ideologies make the critical/feminist research to be more objective than others (Lazar, 2007).

b. Gender as Ideological Structure

Although the individuals can diverge from the masculinity and femininity prototype of a community, this doesn't occur against the ideological structure of gender in which the men, as a social group, are symbolically, socially, politically and economically privileged from the capital (Lazar, 2007).

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The gender ideology is discursively achieved, particularly in the ways in which the ideological assumptions are continually re-enacted and circulated via discourse as reasonable and natural. Regarding the gender crossings, it is claimed that masculinizing talk by the women who are in powerful status and feminizing the forms of masculinity at home may attempt to redefine the gender norms in some communities or eternize the underlying duality of the gender structure (Lazar, 2007).

c. Complexity of Gender and Power Relations

The contemporary theories of poststructuralism and feminism have played an important role in the different and complex conceptualizations of relations of power and gender at work in particular social structures. Feminist CDA has two significant insights which are recognizing differences and diversities among women (and men) and the pervasiveness of the discursive forms of modern power in different societies. Although the forms of gender and sexism tend to be diverse across cultures and time, the gender structure and power asymmetry remain persistent across place and time. From a feminist standpoint, though power can be ‘everywhere’, gendered subjects are influenced by it differently (Lazar, 2007).

The job of feminist CDA is to check the ways in which power and dominance are produced or resisted discursively through the textual representations of the gendered activities and the interactional strategies (Lazar, 2007).

Power mechanisms do not function in complex and subtle ways, but they are also experienced and produced differently by different women. Moreover, admitting differences among women and the sexism forms that they differently experience doesn’t deviate from the broader feminist political mission of emancipation and social justice in favour of women.

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Hence, feminist CDA would propose a perspective which is comparative rather than attentive to the discursive manifestations of oppression (Lazar, 2007).

d. Discourse in the (de)Construction of Gender

The conception of constitution, as clarified by Fairclough (1992) discourse constitutes and is constituted by the social structures, means that any meaning-making act via language and other semiotic forms engage either in reproducing and maintaining the social order or resisting and changing it. From a critical feminist stance, it is problematic when celebrating the individual freedoms to engage in transgressive behaviours, such as cross-dressing and cross-talking, which are not a radical challenge to the gender structures, these behaviours, indeed, can unwittingly help in reinforcing such gender structures (Lazar, 2007).

e. Critical Reflexivity as Praxis

Focusing on the critical reflexivity as contemporary social life phenomenon must be a significant aspect when practicing feminist CDA. Feminist CDA is interested in two areas which are: the way in which reflexivity manifests in the practices of the institutions and the need for being unending critical self-reflexive among the feminists to achieve radical transformation of the social orders which are gendered (Lazar, 2007).

Feminist CDA is interested in the institutional reflexivity in terms of both the progressive institutional and the strategic utilization of feminism for non-feminist goals. Consciousness of the feminist about women's inclusion and opportunity for equal contribution in the public sphere manifests in implementing women-friendly programs at many universities through including modules related to gender in the curricula. However, there are also recuperative reflexive practices of institutions that recuperate the feminist egalitarian and empowering

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values for non-feminist goals. Moreover, the feminists need to be critically reflexive of their own theoretical positions and practices because these positions and practices can inadvertently lead to the perpetuation of the hierarchically exclusionary and differential treatment of some women (Lazar, 2007).

Conclusion

Dealing with gender representation in the textbook thoroughly through tackling all the above elements, especially the previous studies that were undertaken in different places throughout the world, acts as a source of inspiration to find out methods to investigate such issue from another perspective in the next chapter.



Chapter Three

Chapter Three: The Findings

Introduction

This chapter is generally intended to display the methodology followed to get the data and also to expose the findings. More specifically, this section tackles the following elements: The research questions, their hypotheses, the corpus, the data collection method, the followed model, the criteria analysed, and the findings with their description.

1. The Research Questions

This study tries to find answers to the following research questions:

1. How are man and woman represented in the Algerian current Arabic, French and English school textbooks?
 - a. Are both genders equally represented?
 - b. Are both genders portrayed stereotypically at the level of their roles and characterizations?
 - c. Are the women represented as an isolated group?
 - d. Do these language school textbooks still make use of sexist language forms?
2. Which ones of these language school textbooks are the most gender-biased?

2. The Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are advanced:

1. The designing process of the opted corpus may be done from a gender unawareness perspective.

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- a. The males may be represented more visible than the females.
 - b. The school textbooks may maintain rather than challenge the gender stereotypes.
 - c. Both genders may be represented frequently interacting with each other.
 - d. The school textbooks may still make use of the sexist language.
2. Gender bias may appear in different degrees in these language school textbooks.

3. The Corpus

The corpus of the present study is a collection of language school textbooks. These textbooks are of Arabic, French and English which are used currently in the Algerian primary, middle and secondary schools. The primary and the middle school textbooks are of the second generation textbooks series, but the secondary school textbooks are of old generation series as they haven't been reformed yet.

4. The Data Collection Method

Content analysis is selected as a method to gather data regarding gender representation in the school textbooks.

Content analysis is defined as a procedure that is intended to facilitate the objective analysis of the occurrence of characters, words, concepts, themes, phrases, or even sentences and paragraphs which appear in the materials whether they are printed or audiovisual. (Busha et al, 1980). Moreover, content analysis is realized as research technique that makes valid and replicable inferences from the texts to the context in which these texts are used. (Krippendorp, 2004 as cited in Cohen et al, 2007).

Content analysis is seen as a suitable data collection method because the present study tends to investigate the frequency of some words, phrases, characters, and illustrations in the

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school textbooks for the aim of detecting and analysing gender representation in the school textbooks within the broader context.

5. The Model of Analysis

Sadker and Sadker's model (2001) for detecting bias in the textbooks is opted as model in this study to reveal gender representation in the selected school textbooks. According to Sadker & Zittleman (2009), These forms are the followings:

- a. **Invisibility:** Invisibility is the omission of groups such as the African Americans, Hispanics, women, etc from the textbooks.
- b. **Stereotyping:** Stereotyping occurs when all the members of a group of people are assigned strict roles or characteristics such as representing women only performing the family roles. This stereotyping disguises the individual features and differences.
- c. **Imbalance and Selectivity:** This category of bias is the omission of the different perspectives of issues.
- d. **Unreality:** Unreality is when the texts ignore the facts such as class differences and sexism. This category of bias prevents the students from the information which is needed to confront and solve the social challenges.
- e. **Fragmentation:** Fragmentation is when the textbooks represent women as isolated groups and that their contributions do not shape the mainstream history, science or literature.
- f. **Linguistic Bias:** This category of bias occurs through the language which can be a potent conveyor of bias both blatantly and subtly by employing the masculine and the generic terms and pronouns.
- g. **Cosmetic Bias:** The cosmetic bias donates an "illusion of equity", but the bias persists beyond the attractive covers and photos that appear in the textbooks.

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Only four of these forms of bias, invisibility, stereotyping, fragmentation and linguistic bias, are investigated in this study because they fit to the raised research questions, but the others do not.

6. Procedure

To find answers to the raised research questions, the following procedure is followed: First, the criteria of analysis are set according to the four chosen categories of bias of Sadker and Sadker (2001) model, invisibility, stereotyping, fragmentation and linguistic bias. Second, I collect data regarding the selected criteria in each school textbook. To investigate invisibility, the frequency of occurrence of the male and the female characters as well as their frequency in the gender pairs are examined. Stereotyping is investigated through examining the personal and the physical traits of both genders as well as their professional and domestic roles. Regarding the category of fragmentation, the mixed-gender and the female-female interactions are counted. Concerning linguistic bias, six forms of bias are investigated which are denigration, names of jobs, marital titles and the marked, generic and objectification terms. Third, the results are displayed in the form of tables. Fourth, the results are described and discussed. Finally, gender representation in the Arabic, French and English school textbooks is compared to each other.

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7. The Analysed Criteria

To investigate the above four categories of bias, the following criteria are advanced:

- a. **Invisibility:** To detect invisibility, the frequency of male and female characters in the school textbooks and their occurrence in the gender pairs are investigated.
- b. **Stereotyping:** To detect the category of stereotyping, the frequencies of the occupational and domestic roles as well as the personal and physical traits of the male and female characters are examined.

Invisibility and stereotyping are investigated in order to provide an answer to the first research question.

- c. **Fragmentation or Isolation:** To investigate this form of bias, the frequency of same-gender and mixed-gender dialogues are counted. This category answers the third research question.

- d. **Linguistic Bias:** This category is investigated through counting the frequency of denigration, names of jobs titles, the generic and the exceptional terms and objectification are examined.

8. The Findings

8.1. The Primary School Textbooks

8.1.1. Arabic Textbooks

8.1.1.1. Invisibility

8.1.1.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

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	Males	Females
1 st Year	16	11
2 nd Year	44	31
3 rd Year	78	48
4 th Year	70	31
5 th Year	111	32
Total	319	153
Percentage	67,58%	32,42%

Table1. Frequency of Occurrence in the Arabic Primary School Textbooks

Table 1 shows that the male characters greatly outnumber the female ones in all the Arabic primary school textbooks without exception. The results appear as follow: (M:F= 16:11), (M:F= 44:31), (M:F= 78:48), (M:F= 70:31), and (M:F= 111:32) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year, the 4th year and the 5th year textbooks respectively.

8.1.1.1. b. Firstness

	Males First	Females First
1 st Year	03	00
2 nd Year	04	00
3 rd Year	07	07
4 th Year	03	02
5 th Year	01	00
Total	18	09
Percentage	66,67%	33,33%

Table2. Firstness in the Arabic Primary School Textbooks

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Table 2 indicates that almost all the gender pairs begin with masculine nouns in the entire textbooks except in the 3rd year textbook where both cases are equated. The results regarding gender firstness come as follow: (M:F= 03:00), (M:F= 04:00), (M:F= 07:07), (M:F= 03:02), and (M:F= 01:00) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year, the 4th year and the 5th year textbooks respectively.

8.1.1.2. Gender Stereotypes

8.1.1.2. a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
1 st Year	No traits	No traits	No traits	No traits
2 nd Year	No traits	No traits	Smiling	Small
3 rd Year	Kind-loving- tender- hearted-promising- generous- serious- hardworking- hero- clever- kind-hearted- active- genius- gifted- hesitating- self- confident- skilful- capable of bringing	Handsome-tall-strong- bodied- lithe-bodied- laughable appearance- deaf	Kind- clever- conscious- active	Thin- elegant- lithe-bodied- straight-tall

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	food for himself- helpful			
4 th Year	Having a magic smile- sane-prestigious- matronly- courageous- having good morals- generous- patient- modest- intelligent- faithful- active- far- seeing - patriotic- great- helpful-tight- fisted- -brave- calm- clear- stubborn	White barb - tall-thin- strong- muscular- white-skinned- wide front- black and thin eyelashes- green eyes- black hair- heavy barb- elevated nose-thin lips- curly-haired - black- skinned- able-bodied- pale hands	Tender-hearted- genius- patient- having a strong will- persistent- loving- polite- gifted	Deaf- blind- mute-blond- haired- white- skinned- middle- tall- black and long hair- short- thin- beautiful face
5 th Year	Firm- courageous- self- confident-hopeful- having a sweet talk- cheerful- tolerant- devoting-faithful- sensitive- well- observer-hero- commando-intelligent- genius- careful-kind- niggardly- generous	Bright face- deaf	Great- noble	No traits

Table 3: Gender Traits in the Arabic Primary School Textbooks

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Table 3 displays that the male characters are portrayed in more personal as well as physical traits than the females. The results come as follow (M: F= 58: 16) and (M: F= 16: 15) respectively.

8.1.1.2. b. Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
1 st Year	Carpenter –teacher- school master-doctor- football arbiter- goalkeeper- boxer- ping-pong player- sportsperson	Planting trees in the house garden	Teacher- nurse	Preparing the dinning table- planting trees in the house garden- serving the children with milk
2 nd Year	Carpenter- teacher- Moujahid- farmer- boxer-- football player- football arbiter- scout leader- water company employee- dentist- clown- museum receptionist	Accompanying the daughter to school- visiting the book fair- participating in cleaning the neighbourhood- going to the laket- arranging the school things- going to the post office- visiting the	Teacher- doctor- nurse-TV show presenter	Awakening the kids to go to school- preparing the breakfast- sweeping the house- washing the dishes- arranging the furniture- arranging the clothes- taking the mattress to the balcony- visiting the mesuem- visiting

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		museum		the bookfair- going to the laket- serving the daughter with the meal- preparing the breakfast-taking the daughter to the dentist- serving the daughter with medicines- doing shopping-preparing the dishes
3 rd Year	Engineer- pastry cook- merchant- doctor- farmer- plumber- veterinary- dressmaker- shoemaker- teacher- firefighter- movie producer- mill owner- football arbiter- fruiterer- pediatrician- musician- judge- stage actor- actor- painter- fisher- sailor- taxi driver	Taking the grandson to the hospital-going out to buy a gift to the daughter- going to the market- taking care of the children- going to the cinema- taking the son to the doctor- taking the son to the gasoline station-telling stories to the	Engineer- teacher- flight attendant- doctor- nurse- artist	Preparing cakes and sweets- sewing a flag to the son- taking the son to the doctor- preparing dinner- giving the vegetables to the sons- preparing lentil soup to the son- preparing “couscous”- preparing malts bread- preparing lunch

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		grandsons		
4 th Year	School head- teacher- diol wafers seller- car glass cleaner- bread seller-leader- village representative- head of the village council- village finance responsible-builder- knight- man of military sciences- writer-man of culture- man of letters- doctor- football arbiter- goal keeper- footballer- weaver- storyteller- tour guide- - ichthyologist- astronaut-computer scientist- fisher	Accompanying the daughter to the school- preparing food- bringing the doctor to his wife- roaming in the city	Novelist- thinker- teacher- carpet weaver- Queen- princess- flight attendant	Preparing diol wafers- cleaning the house- preparing pancakes- preparing home-baked bread- preparing “couscous”- washing and drying wool- serving the son with herbs tea
5 th Year	Teacher- school head- clean worker- messenger- carpenter- electrician- builder- mechanic- blacksmith- plumber- shoemaker- writer- fireman- doctor-	Repairing the tab- travelling	Teacher- nurse- woodperson- sulfur seller- writer- servant	Preparing the”Ghraif”- preparing food

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clinic head- painter- caliph- war leader- philosopher- king- Koran teacher- soldier- prince- sea captain- mayor- farmer- wood person- merchant- scientist- sultan- discoverer- researcher- engineer- mathematician- gardener- shop owner- door keeper- novelist- writer-seller- prince- traveller- restaurant owner- boxer- sailor- shepherd- judge			
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Table 4: Gender Roles in the Arabic Primary School Textbooks

Table 4 displays that the male characters' professional roles highly predominate the females' (M: F= 120: 25). However, the female characters' domestic roles predominate the males' (M: F= 22: 37).

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8.1.1.3. Gender Interaction

	Female-female	Mixed-gender
1 st Year	00	03
2 nd Year	13	17
3 rd Year	03	23
4 th Year	03	07
5 th Year	02	06
Total	21	56
Percentage	27,27%	72,73%

Table 5: Gender Interaction in the Arabic Primary School Textbooks

Table 5 displays that the mixed-gender interactions greatly outnumber the female-female ones. The mixed-gender interactions are fifty-six, but the female-female ones are only ninety-one.

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8.1.1.4. Linguistic Bias

	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
1 st Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms
2 nd Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Sweetheart (female) -Little (Female)
3 rd Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Sweetheart (male and female)
4 th Year	No terms	- Man of military sciences - Man of letters - Man of culture	No terms	- Mrs -Mr	No terms	No terms
5 th Year	No terms	-Fireman	No terms	-Mr -Miss	- Man	-Darling (male)

Table 06: Linguistic Bias in the Arabic Primary School Textbooks

The results of table 06 display that the Arabic primary school textbooks contain four forms of linguistic bias. Firstly, the names of jobs ‘man of military sciences’, ‘man of

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letters', 'man of culture' and 'fireman' which manifest in the 4th and the 5th year textbooks . Secondly, the titles 'Mr', 'Mrs' and 'Miss' which appear in the 4th and the 5th year textbooks. Thirdly, the generic 'man' which appears in the 5th year textbook. Finally, the objectification terms 'sweetheart', 'darling' and ' little' which manifest in all the in the 2nd , the 3rd and the 5th year textbooks.

8.1.2. The French Textbooks

8.1.2. 1. Invisibility

8.1.2. 1.a.The Frequency of Occurrence

	Males	Females
3 rd Year	52	52
4 th Year	61	50
5 th Year	53	40
Total	166	142
Percentage	83,90%	46, 10%

Table7. Frequency of Occurrence in the French Primary School Textbooks

Table 7 shows that the male characters outnumber the female characters in the 4th year and the 5th year textbooks, but they are equal s in the 3rd year textbook. The results are the following: (M:F= 52:52), (M:F= 61:50), (M:F= 53:40) in the 3rd year, the 4th year and the 5th year textbooks respectively.

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8.1.2. 1.b.Firstness

	Males First	Females First
3 rd Year	01	04
4 th Year	04	01
5 th Year	05	07
Total	10	12
Percentage	45, 45%	54,55%

Table8. Firstness in the French Primary School Textbooks

Table 8 indicates that the gender pairs are feminine-dominated in most of the textbooks except in the 4th year textbook where the gender pairs are masculine-dominated. Firstness results come as follow: (M: F= 01:04), (M:F= 04:01) and (M:F= 05:07) in the 3rd year,4th year and the 5th year textbooks respectively.

8.1.2. 2. Gender Stereotypes

8.1.2. 2.a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
3 rd Year	Polite	Huge- thin- small- fat	Gifted	Clean
4 th Year	Kind- unkind- attentive- great dreamer- courageous	No traits	Generous- emotional- Genius	No traits

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5 th Year	Kind	No traits	Generous- kind	Beautiful
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Table 9. Gender Traits in the French Primary School Textbooks

Table 9 displays that the female characters appear in more personal traits than the males (M: F= 07: 08), but in less physical traits than the males (M:F= 04: 02).

8.1.2. 2.b. Occupational Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
3 rd Year	photographer- barber- painter- quay head- male nurse- dressmaker- boxer-firefighter- builder- magician	Bringing vegetables to the house- going to the park-giving milk to the bull- working in the garden- putting perfumes to the bear- giving carrot to the rabbits- taking the family to have dinner- planting trees in the school garden-preparing	Pharmacist - hairdresser-painter- nurse-dressmaker- teacher	Going to the market- sewing a bonnet to the grandson- going to the pharmacy- going to the park- preparing omelets- preparing chocolate sweets- giving grass to the Taurus- giving the chickens grains-taking the dog to the kitchen- helping the mother in carrying the scuttle- preparing beignets-

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		compote- cleaning the dining table		preparing the children to go to the countryside- planting trees in the school garden- distributing sweets to the pupils- preparing jam- serving with food
4 th Year	Pastry cook- barber- seller- director- painter- male nurse- milkperson- vegetables merchant- shoemaker- clown- mechanic- magician- teacher of French- head of orchestra- pirate- swimming pool keeper- builder- fisher- arbiter- footballer- baker-	Going to the shop- going to the market- helping the mother in preparing for the party- preparing for the party-revising the lessons- do sleeping the cats- collecting wood- doing the exercises- going to the stadium	Pastry cook- swimmer-director- painter- nurse- milkperson- teacher	Going to the shop- going to the market- cleaning the house- washing the dishes- helping the mother in cleaning and decorating the house and in purchases- serving the sons with sweets- putting Henna on the hands of the grandchildren- preparing candies- preparing the breakfast- doing homeworks- medicating the brother

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	doctor			
5 th Year	Teacher- veterinary- zoo keeper- footballer- director- museum keeper- musician- magician- comedian- mechanic- seller- shoemaker- doctor- firefighter- singer- artist- trainer- engineer- policeman- baker- actor- plumber	Going to the park- serving the pupils with food- playing in the block garden- going to the quarter library- going to the swimming pool- accompanying the daughter to the museum- doing bicycle race- serving the cousins with sweets- lifting out the rubbish	Veterinary- footballer- director- painter- dancer- comedian- mechanic- swimming champion- pharmacist- goal keeper- computer scientist- pastry cook- dentist- architect	Feeding the parrot- roaming in the park- preparing pancakes- preparing dinner- preparing soup- preparing mini-pizzas

Table10. Gender Roles in the French Primary School Textbooks

Table 10 displays that the male characters perform more professional roles than the female characters (M: F= 54: 27). But, regarding the domestic roles, the females perform as many domestic roles as the male characters (M: F= 27: 32).

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8.1.2. 3. Gender Interaction

	Female-female	Mixed-gender
3 rd Year	07	22
4 th Year	03	18
5 th Year	04	18
Total	14	58
Percentage	19,44 %	80, 56%

Table11. Gender Interaction in the French Primary School Textbooks

Table 11 displays that mixed-gender interactions outnumber the female-female ones. The mixed-gender interactions are fifty-eight, but the female-female ones are only fourteen.

8.1.2. 4. Linguistic Bias

	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
3 rd Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs - Mr	No terms	-The little (male)
4 th Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs - Mr	No terms	- The little (male and female)
5 th Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs - Mr	No terms	- The little (male and female)

Table 12. Linguistic Bias in the French Primary School Textbooks.

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The results of table 12 display that the primary school French textbooks contain two forms of linguistic bias. The first one is the titles 'Mr' and 'Mrs' which appear in all the textbooks. The second form is the objectification terms 'little' which also appear in all the textbooks.

8.2. The Middle School Textbooks

8.2.1. Arabic Textbooks

8.2.1. 1. Invisibility

8.2.1. 1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

	Males	Females
1 st Year	93	27
2 nd Year	54	32
3 rd Year	33	07
4 th Year	37	09
Total	217	75
Percentage	74,32%	25,68%

Table13. Frequency of Occurrence in the Arabic Middle School Textbooks

Table 13 shows that the male characters outnumber the female characters in all the Arabic middle school textbooks (M:F= 217:75). The results appear as follow (M:F= 93:27), (M:F= 54:32), (M:F= 33:07) and (M:F= 37:09) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year and the 4th year textbooks respectively.

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8.2.1. 1. b. Firstness

	Males First	Females First
1 st Year	07	00
2 nd Year	03	00
3 rd Year	00	00
4 th Year	02	00
Total	12	00
Percentage	100%	00%

Table14. Firstness in the Arabic Middle School Textbooks

Table 14 indicates that the gender pairs are totally male-dominated. The results are the following: (M:F= 07:00), (M:F= 03:00), (M:F= 00:00), and (M:F= 02:00) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year and the 4th year textbooks respectively.

8.2.1. 2. Gender Stereotypes

8.2.1. 2. a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
1 st Year	Loving- having a compassionate heart- having an innocent laugh- having a great faith- great- calm- hero-	harsh cheek- long ears- rose cheeks- handsome- blue eyes- dirty face- blind- pretty face- thin-	Having a sweet laugh- kind- compassionate- tender-hearted- sweet- pitying-	Small forehands- large eyes- long and pendulous hair- thin lips- sad

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	conscious-peaceful- noble- meek- compassionate- having a big heart-patriotic- firm- courageous- patient- dictator- murder- moody- - humorous- soft-hearted- austere- altruist- science doting- persistent- far- seeing- respected- faithful- genius- hard- working	giant- muscular	loving- inactive- dull- sincere- heroine	eyes-tall- thin- white- skinned- elevated head- hard look- weak sight- gray hair
2 nd Year	Scarifying-well-doer- respected- having spacious mind- sincere- having a sweet talk- wise- great- human- pitying- compassionate- peaceful- not belly- enslaved- not tongue- enslaved- silent- not complaining- extremely intelligent	No traits	Tender-hearted- scarifying- heroine- human- rebellious- patient- persistent- altruist	No traits
3 rd Year	Alcoholic-deviant- having a bad behavior-	Handicapped- thin- weak- flexible hands	Knowledgeable- solidary- doting-	No traits

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	respected- scarifying		ambitious - affectionate	
4 th Year	Having a bad behaviour- severe- greedy- passive- masterful- timid- great	Black skin- yellow hands- thin palm of hand- tall- healthy- shining eyes- curved- handsome- blue eyes- blond hair- noble identikit	Affectionate- calm- heroine	No traits

Table 15: Gender Traits in the Arabic Middle School Textbooks

Table 15 displays that the male characters are portrayed having more personal and physical traits than the female characters. The results come as follow (M: F= 59: 27) and (M: F= 22: 12) respectively.

8.2.1. 2. b. Occupational Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
1 st Year	Doctor- scholar- poet- parachutist- messenger- prophet- teacher- writer- king- soldier- keeper- scientist- clinic head-	Taking care of the son- going to the gasoline with the father- arranging his books- arranging the clothes- cleaning the	Teacher	Bringing food to the neighbour- helping the neighbour to do the daily needs- upbringing the child- covering the son- giving medicines

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	caliph- musician- czar- emperor- prince- ruler- occupying a state post-minister- inspector- school head- doorkeeper- astronaut- shoe cleaner- farmer- barber- Imam- judge- shepherd	shoes- going to the barber shop- going to the mosque- going to the cemetery- going to the market with the father to buy Eid El- Adha sheep- going to the school		to the son-staying up the night with the child- combing the son's hair- medicating the patient- going to the school- preparing bread- preparing sweets
2 nd Year	Lawyer- judge- post worker- prophet- writer- policeman- teacher- poet- fireman- leader- Emir- doctor- scholar- mathematician-factory worker- thinker- pharmacist	Educating the son- nurturing the son- medicating the patients- nurturing the wife and the sons- buying medicines to the daughter from the pharmacy	Queen- worker at a factory	Peeling off orange to the kids-breaking up walnut to the kids- preparing and serving sweets to the kids and the guests- taking care of the mother- upbringing the children- preparing food dishes- taking care of the daughter- weaving a flag to the son- medicating the daughter
3 rd	Shopkeeper-	Bringing water from	Radio	Yarning and cleaning

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Year	merchant- school head- TV station manager- TV station chief editor- messenger- teacher- traveler- Sultan- ruler- dressmaker- weaver- prophet- tester- Imam- fireman- blacksmith- brass maker- poet	the outside- going to the wedding party	announcer- taking care of the old people in the old age hospital- writer- pottery maker-artist- wool seller	wool- preparing traditional dishes
4 th Year	Judge- roaster- scholar- journalist- sultan- pharmacist- philosopher- mathematician- founder- leather tailor- blacksmith- shoemaker- clean worker- knight- prince- leader-doctor- businessman- thinker	Taking care of his grandmother	Princess	Preparing the breakfast to the husband- washing clothes- sewing clothes to the son- sewing a carpet- sewing a burnus to the son- yarning and weaving wool

Table 16: Gender Roles in the Arabic Middle School Textbooks

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Table 16 displays that the male characters are portrayed performing more professional roles and domestic roles than the female characters. The results come as follow (M: F= 86: 10) and (M: F=16: 29) respectively.

8.2.1. 3. Gender Interaction

	Female-female	Mixed-gender
1 st Year	01	09
2 nd Year	02	04
3 rd Year	00	00
4 th Year	01	03
Total	04	16
Percentage	20%	80%

Table 17: Gender Interaction in the Arabic Middle School Textbooks

Table 17 displays that the mixed-gender interactions outnumber the female-female interactions. Sixteen of the interactions are mixed-gender and only four of them are female-female.

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8.2.1. 4. Linguistic Bias

	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
1 st Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Darling (male) - Sweetheart (Female) - The Little (male)
2 nd Year	No terms	-Policeman	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Darling (female)
3 rd Year	No terms	- Fireman	No terms	Mr	No terms	No terms
4 th Year	No examples	-Businessman	No examples	No examples	No examples	No examples

Table 18. Linguistic Bias in the Arabic Middle School Textbooks

The results of table 18 show that there are three forms of linguistic bias are persistent in these textbooks. Firstly, the names of jobs which are ‘policeman’, ‘fireman’ and ‘businessman’. They manifest in the 2nd year, the 3rd year and the 4th year respectively. Secondly, the title ‘Mr’ which exists in the 3rd year textbook. Thirdly, the objectification

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terms ‘the little’, ‘darling’ and ‘sweetheart’ which appears in the 1st year and the 2nd year textbooks.

8.2.2. French Textbooks

8.2.2.1. Invisibility

8.2.2.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

	Males	Females
1 st Year	75	35
2 nd Year	152	117
3 rd Year	82	46
4 th Year	94	32
Total	403	230
Percentage	63,67%	36,33%

Table19. Frequency of Occurrence in the French Middle School Textbooks

Table 19 shows that there is a large gap in the distribution of the male and the females characters (M:F= 403:230). The results appear as follow: (M:F= 75:35), (M:F= 152:117), (M:F= 82:46) and (M:F= 94:32) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year, and the 4th year textbooks respectively.

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8.2.2.1. b. Firstness

	Males First	Females First
1 st Year	01	00
2 nd Year	09	05
3 rd Year	02	03
4 th Year	02	00
Total	14	08
Percentage	63,64%	36,36%

Table 20. Firstness in the French Middle School Textbooks

Table 20 indicates that most of the gender pairs start with masculine nouns as fourteen of the gender pairs start with a masculine noun and only eight of them start with feminine nouns. The results regarding firstness come as follow: (M:F= 01: 00), (M:F= 09:05), (M:F= 02:03) and (M:F= 02:00) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year, and the 4th year textbooks respectively.

8.2.2.2. Gender Stereotypes

8.2.2.2. a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
1 st Year	Honest- patient- generous	No traits	No traits	No traits
2 nd	Honest- fair- good-	Small- white barb-	Brave- kind -	Very beautiful-

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Year	brave- imperturbable- dishonest- jealous- generous- having a bad humour- affective- careful- severe- having a big heart- respected- wise- helpful- smiling- loyal- wicked	giant- sharpened teeth- spiny barb- big nose- handsome- admirable	good- honest- haughty- having a smile of an angel- intelligent- jealous- affective- lovely- bad- loveable- sensitive- generous- soft- helpful- imprudent	having doll chins- small- thin- black hair- black hair elongated on the shoulders- luscious- elegant- golden hair- horrible- charming
3 rd Year	Having a big heart- Well-doer-honest- loyal- careful- modest- careless- well-brought up- hero- volunteer- independent- ambitious	Thin nose- giant- big, thick and misshaped lips	Brave-attentive- smiling- very timid- well- brought up- heroine	Small, pale and soft forehands- agile fingers- rigid hair- matted hair- shining face- large and blue eyes
4 th Year	Wise- intelligent- rebellious	No traits	Rebellious- peaceful	No traits

Table 21. Gender Characteristics in the French Middle School Textbooks

Table 21 displays that the male characters are portrayed having more personal traits (M: F= 37: 25) but less physical traits than the female characters (M: F= 12: 18).

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8.2.2.2. b. Occupational Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
1 st Year	Pneumology service head- institution head- sports teacher- cook- institutor- writer- post worker- restaurant owner- head of a football team- doctor- minister- balls collector- athlete- APC president- scholar-fisher- king- agronomist-farmer- worker- pilot- pharmacist- firefighter-veterinary- researcher-energy minister- gardener	Doing toilet- preparing the bath things	Cook- writer- teacher- worker- nursemaid- state council president	Preparing bread- preparing jam- doing brodery
2 nd Year	Woodcutter- king- prince- magician- singer- fisher- hunter- emperor- shepherd- gardener- farmer- sultan- dressmaker- head of farmers- master-fable teller- teacher-ploughman-	Going to hunt- visiting the grandmother- going to fish- collecting the sea stars- going out to look for the golden pieces in the	Princess- magician- queen- sorceress- shepherd- servant in a palace	Yarning wool- looking for a plant to the father in the garden- planting and watering the pomegranate-

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	blacksmith- head of servants	wood to the king- accompanying the father to go to hunt- accompanying the father to go to Tlemcen- going to bring water from the river		preparing meals- visiting the woman who gave birth
3 rd Year	Haschich seller- Wali's office head- ships head- sailor- firefighter- mayor- pilot- police officer- fisher- judge- operator- service officer- trail officer- teacher- paramedic-police inspector- Wilaya general secretary- association member- Moujahid- soldier- colonel- fighter- Emir- actor- coal seller- cosmmonaut- footballer- architect- Imam- singer- volcanologist- agnomist- ecologist- painter- boxer- rugby-man	Helping the daughter to revise her lessons	Shepherd- School head- Moujahida- poetess- researcher	Serving the father with food- helping the injuries- preparing "Bradj", and cracker- going to the fields- preparing a traditional dish- going out to look for the clay

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4 th Year	Poet- singer- farmer- commanding officer- Emir- consul- responsible in the army- governor- dey- ALN colonel- teacher- marshal- caid- policeman- man of politics- holyman-painter- school head- minister of culture- movie producer- actor- culture responsible - tour guide- illuminator- calligrapher- military- flowers seller- writer- comedian- factory worker- newspapers seller- police commissary- wood paste transporter- Imam- journalist- Youth and sports minister- arbiter- political party head- association member- basketball trainer- club manager- International work organization responsible- Fauna and Flora protection head-	Travelling	Kahina- warrior- queen- representative- culture minister- association president- environment minister	Travelling- protecting the daughters
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	firefighter- environment minister			
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Table 22. Gender Roles in the French Middle School Textbooks

Table 22 displays that the male characters are portrayed performing more professional roles (M: F= 129: 24) but less domestic roles than the female characters (M:F= 12: 16).

8.2.2.3. Gender Interaction

	Female-female	Mixed-gender
1 st Year	00	03
2 nd Year	02	07
3 rd Year	00	03
4 th Year	00	03
Total	02	16
Percentage	11,11%	88,89%

Table 23: Gender Interaction in the Middle School French Textbooks

Table 23 displays the textbooks interactions are almost mixed-gender ones. Sixteen of the interactions are mixed-gender and only two of them are female-female.

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8.2.2.4. Linguistic Bias

	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
1 st Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	Man	-Little (Female and male)
2 nd Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	-The little (Female and male)
3 rd Year	No terms	- Rugby-man	No terms	- Mr - Miss	No terms	-Little (Female and male)
4 th Year	No terms	- Holyman - Man of politics	No terms	-Mr	- Man	-The little (Female and male)

Table 24. Linguistic Bias in the French Middle School Textbooks

The results of table 24 display that four linguistic bias forms appear in these textbooks. The first form is the names of jobs ‘rugby-man’, ‘holyman’ and ‘man of politics’ that manifest in the 3rd and the 4th year textbooks. The second form is the titles ‘Mr’ and ‘Miss’ which also appear in the 3rd and the 4th year textbooks. The third form is the generic

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term 'man' which manifests in the 1st and the 4th year textbooks. The last form is the objectification terms 'little' which persists in the entire textbooks.

8.2.3. English Textbooks

8.2.3. 1. Invisibility

8.2.3. 1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

	Males	Females
1 st Year	27	32
2 nd Year	38	37
3 rd Year	43	22
4 th Year	52	37
Total	160	128
Percentage	55,56%	44,44%

Table25. Frequency of Occurrence in the English Middle School Textbooks

Table 25 shows that the male characters outnumber the female characters in most of the textbooks (M: F= 160: 128). The results manifest as follow: (M:F= 27:32), (M:F= 38:37), (M:F= 43:22) and (M:F= 52:37) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year, and the 4th year textbooks respectively.

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8.2.3. 1. b. Firstness

	Males First	Females First
1 st Year	01	04
2 nd Year	04	06
3 rd Year	04	03
4 th Year	10	01
Total	19	14
Percentage	57,58%	42,42%

Table26. Firstness in the English Middle School Textbooks

Table 26 indicates that the gender pairs mostly begin with masculine nouns as the following results show: (M:F= 01:04), (M:F= 04:06), (M:F= 04:03), and (M:F= 10:01) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year, and the 4th year textbooks respectively.

8.2.3. 2. Gender Stereotypes

8.2.3. 2. a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
1 st Year	Great	No traits	No traits	No traits
2 nd Year	Punctual -well-educated- having good manners- friendly- clever- hard-	Tall- having a beard- thin- short hair with a centre	No traits	Slim- pretty- tall- long straight blonde hair-

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	working- well-behaved- having a good heart- truthful- honest- obedient- typical	parting- short hair with a side parting- marine haircut- dark hair- black eyes- handsome- well-built body- small blue eyes- curly brown hair- overweight- having moustache		long strong blonde hair -long straight fair hair- wearing hair in a bun- wearing hair in plaits- wearing hair in ponytail- wearing hair in dreadlocks- overweight- very charming- blonde- chic elegant
3 rd Year	Cool- not very smart- respectful- calm- great- grateful- so smart- quick- quite active- having imagination	No traits	Respectful- tidy- organized- friendly- outgoing-calm- patient- impatient	No traits
4 th Year	Genius - very human- compassionate- loving- caring- mature- loyal- so kind- unkind- thoughtful	Heavy-weight- having unbreakable hands- tall	Insane- helpful	Nice- having big long breads- having short hair

Table 27. Gender Traits in the English Middle School Textbooks

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Table 27 displays that the male characters are portrayed having more personal and physical traits than the female characters. Regarding the personal traits, the result is (M: F= 33: 10) and for the physical traits, it is (M: F= 17: 18).

8.2.3. 2. b. Occupational Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
1 st Year	Teacher- doctor- mechanic- veterinarian- electrician- lawyer- carpenter- dustman- farmer- architect- surgeon- thinker	No roles	Teacher- nurse	No roles
2 nd Year	Journalist- waiter- school principal- architect- chemist- weatherforecast	Going to the swimming pool- playing football with the mates- training Judo- doing homework- playing tennis- doing training sessions- doing	Teacher- queen- doctor- dietitian- chemist- princess	Preparing couscous- doing shopping- going skiing- teaching the kids- taking the daughter to the doctor - taking care of the sick mother

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		shopping- going skiing		
3 rd Year	Prince- philosopher- scholar- writer- poet- physicist- king- caveman- Moujahid- chauffeur- emperor- traveller- soldier- painter- scientist- scholar- teacher- judge- musician- caliph- policeman- waiter- inventor- journalist- surgeon- physician- mathematician- astronomer	Driving children to the school	Reporter- teacher- judge- Imzad teacher- Imzad player- chauffeuse- Policewoman- waitress- nurse	Going for long walk in the countryside- doing a lot of domestic chores- serving the husband and children with food
4 th Year	Boxer- writer- artist-painter- Sultan- humanitarian worker- scientist- engineer- sculptor- architect- poet- novelist- playwright - shepherd- king- farm labourer- director of cultural affairs at the ministry of information- teacher- lawyer- employer- engineer- writer- fighter- captain- co-pilot- Quadi- baker- president of a country- leader- actor- inventor- advertising art director	No roles	Queen- teacher- writer- flight attendant- fighter	No roles

Table 28. Gender Roles in the English Middle School Textbooks

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Table 28 displays that the male characters are portrayed in more professional roles than the female characters (M: F= 78: 22). Regarding the domestic roles, the female characters are portrayed in as many domestic roles as the male characters (M: F= 09: 09).

8.2.3.3. Gender Interaction

	Female- female	Mixed-gender
1 st Year	05	09
2 nd Year	05	04
3 rd Year	01	01
4 th Year	03	01
Total	14	15
Percentage	48,28%	51,72%

Table 29. Gender Interaction in the English Middle School Textbooks

Table 29 displays that the mixed- gender interactions outnumber the female-female ones. The mixed-gender interactions compose 51, 72% of the whole interactions, but the female-females interactions compose only 48, 28% of them.

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8.2.3.4. Linguistic Bias

	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
1 st Year	No terms	- Dustman	No terms	- Miss	No terms	No terms
2 nd Year	No terms	No terms	-Female cousin	No terms	No terms	-Little (male) -Sweetheart (Female)
3 rd Year	No terms	- Caveman - Policeman -Policewoman	No terms	No terms	-Man	-The little (male) -Sweetheart (female)
4 th Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs -Mr	- Mankind - Men - Fatherland	No terms

Table 30. Linguistic Bias in the English Middle School Textbooks

The results of table 30 display that there are five forms of linguistic bias in these textbooks. Firstly, the names of jobs ‘dustman’, ‘policeman’, ‘policewoman’ and ‘caveman’ that manifest in the 1st and the 3rd year textbooks. Secondly, the titles ‘Mr’ and ‘Mrs’ which manifest in the 4th year textbook. Thirdly, the generic ‘man’, ‘mankind’ and ‘fatherland’ which appear in the 3rd and the 4th year textbooks. Fourthly, the use of the marked term

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‘female cousin’ which appears in the 2nd year textbook. Finally, the objectification terms “little” and “sweetheart” which appear in the 2nd and the 3rd year textbooks.

8.3. The Secondary School Textbooks

8.3.1. Arabic Textbooks

8.3.1. 1. Invisibility

8.3.1. 1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

	Males	Females
1 st Year Literary Stream	154	22
1 st Year Scientific Stream	109	14
2 nd Year Literary Stream	137	11
2 nd Year Scientific Stream	134	15
3 rd Year Literary Stream	220	36
3 rd Year Scientific Stream	201	25
Total	955	123
Percentage	88,59%	11,41%

Table 31. Frequency of Occurrence in the Arabic Secondary School Textbooks

Table 31 shows that the male characters more numerous than the female characters in all the textbooks (M:F= 955: 123). The results are the following: (M:F= 139:18), (M:F= 108:13), (M:F= 154:22), (M:F= 109:14) and (M:F= 137:11) (M:F= 134:15) and (M:F= 201:25) in the 1st year literary stream, the 1st Year scientific stream, the 2nd year literary stream, , the 2nd Year scientific stream, the 3rd year literary stream and the 3rd year scientific stream textbooks respectively.

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8.3.1. 1. b. Firstness

	Males First	Females First
1 st Year Literary Stream	03	01
1 st Year Scientific Stream	06	08
2 nd Year Literary Stream	01	01
2 nd Year Scientific Stream	01	02
3 rd Year Literary Stream	10	01
3 rd Year Scientific Stream	02	01
Total	23	14
Percentage	62,16%	37,84%

Table 32. Firstness in the Arabic Secondary School Textbooks

Table 32 indicates that the gender pairs starting with masculine nouns predominate the ones starting with feminine nouns as twenty-three of the pairs are masculine-dominated and only fourteen of them begin feminine nouns. The results come as follow: (M:F= 03:01), (M:F= 06:08), (M:F= 01:01), (M:F= 01:02), (M:F= 10:01) and (M:F= 02:01) in the 1st year literary stream, the 1st year scientific stream, the 2nd year literary stream, , the 2nd year scientific stream, the 3rd year literary stream and the 3rd year scientific stream textbooks respectively.

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8.3.1. 2. Gender Stereotypes

8.3.1. 2. a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
1 st Year Literary Stream	Hero- courageous- stager-wise- persistent- knowledgeable- mature- polite- having morals- hard worker- cowardly-fair- shrewd	Strong-bodied- strong skin- pale feet- bowed head- tiring face- wrinkled face	Hard-working	No traits
1 st Year Scientific Stream	Hero- courageous- not dictator- not liking uniqueness- kind- respected- shrewd- cautious in his behaviour- generous- gentle-sane-minded- fair	Elevated head- stern and meek- eyed- hoary- haired-stern-faced	Cultivated- tender-hearted	Pale face
2 nd Year Literary Stream	authoritative- hard working- hero- tyrant- solidary- timid- self- proud	White and black hair- handsome- pale- pretty face	Rebellious- having good behavior	Elegant- dark hair-beautiful
2 nd Year Scientific	Compassionate- not political- hard working-	Handsome- white and black hair-	Moderate morals-	White- skinned- light-

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Stream	libertine- human- solidary- timid- self- proud- having sweet talk- calm- silent- careless	having white hair- pale- wrinkled face- pretty face	compassionate- generous	skinned- large space between the shoulder and the ear- dark eyes- beautiful and large eyes- soft cheeks- beautiful spot on the palm- soft forehands - pretty- elegant- black hair
3 rd Year Literary Stream	Compassionate- smiling- miraculous- having good morals- soft-hearted-innocent- courageous- sordid- hypocrite- prestigious- dignitary-sincere- wise- loveable- naughty- idiot-firm- determined	Pretty face- ugly face- short- big belly and neck- hoary-haired- handsome- some hair on his chins- hard look	Hardworking- resistant- heroine- high spirits- big- hearted- scold- bad- fatuously- chaste- bashful	Beautiful- dark hair-black forearm trigger- stunner
3 rd Year Scientific	Patient- hero- prestigious- modest-	Pretty face- horrible face	Tender- hearted-	Beautiful- dark hair

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Stream	honest		rebellious- having good mood- bad- fatuously - bashful- chaste	
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Table 33: Gender Traits in the Arabic Secondary School Textbooks

Table 33 displays that the male characters are portrayed having more personal traits and physical traits than the female characters as the results show (M: F= 66: 26) (M: F= 30: 21) respectively.

8.3.1. 2. b. Occupational Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
1 st Year Literary Stream	Knight- ruler- doctor- merchant- minister- scholar- craftsperson- teacher- judge- politician- messenger- soldier- sportsperson- poet- Imam- work minister- caliph- orator- door keeper-administration service head- employee-writer- court counselor-Wally- prince- director	No roles	Queen- nurse- servant- worker- writer- teacher- Slave woman	No roles

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1 st Year Scientific Stream	<p>Knight- prince- ruler- prophet- philosopher- messenger- jurist- sultan- astronaut- inventor- saint- president- caliph- poet- teacher- minister- police post head- farmer- chieftain- orator- merchant- politician- doctor- school head- association president- keeper- king- Imam- historian</p>	Visiting the parents' tomb	Writer- bread seller	Visiting the parents' tomb
2 nd Year Literary Stream	<p>Minister-doorkeeper-writer- army leader-caliph- soldier- king- philosopher- poet- sultan- prince- graver-prophet- singer- clergy man- judge- scholar- leader- ruler- astronaut- merchant- wally- statesman- Imam- employee in a mosque- repairman- road employee- moneymen- businessman- sect head- weaver- agriculture censor- farmer- hunter- musician</p>	No roles	Singer- slave-woman	Preparing bread- preparing coffee
2 nd Year Scientific Stream	<p>Minister-doorkeeper-writer- army leader-caliph- ruler- philosopher- king- singer- poet-</p>	No roles	Slave-woman	Doing the housework

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	clergyman- prince- judge- teacher- translator- intellectual man- statesman- Wally- scholar- weaver- farmer- agriculture censor- porter- messenger- soldier-road employee- employee in the mosque - repairman- moneyman- businessman- hunter- artist			
3 rd Year Literary Stream	Messenger- prophet- scholar- judge- king- sultan- butcher- wall painter- shoeblack- Wally- ruler- farmer- shepherd- Bacha- intellectual- begger-leader- traveler- historian- poet- orator- general-novelist- critic- jailor- teacher- caliph- Imam- merchant- repairperson- weight porter- digging roads- digging mines- Wakaf- officer- Khuja- writer- employee- soldier- Moujahid- cafeteria master- doctors head-Kahan- minister	Praying	Writer- poet- saintess- Moujahida- queen	Washing clothes- preparing dinner
3 rd Year Scientific	Traveler- scholar- historian- religion teacher- university	No roles	Writer- queen	Washing clothes

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Stream	teacher- journalist- poet- novelist- general- messenger- soldier- critic- writer- Wakaf- leader- officer- Khuja-hunter- cafeteria owner- scientific committee president			
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Table 34: Gender Roles in the Arabic Secondary School Textbooks

Table 34 displays that the male characters' professional greatly outnumber the females' (M: F= 186: 19), but in less domestic roles than the females (M: F= 02: 07).

8.3.1. 3. Gender Interaction

	Female-female	Mixed-gender
1 st Year Literary Stream	01	02
1 st Year Scientific Stream	02	05
2 nd Year Literary Stream	01	02
2 nd Year Scientific Stream	01	03
3 rd Year Literary Stream	04	14
3 rd Year Scientific Stream	03	06
Total	12	32
Percentage	27,27%	72,73%

Table35. Gender Interaction in the Arabic Secondary School Textbooks

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Table 35 displays that the mixed-gender interactions greatly predominate the female-female ones because thirty-two of the entire interactions are mixed-gender and only twelve of them are female-female.

8.3.1.4. Linguistic Bias

	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
1 st Year Literary Stream	Slave- woman	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Darling (male) -Sweetheart (male)
1 st Year Scientific Stream	No terms	-Firemen	No terms	No terms	-Man	-Darling (female)
2 nd Year Literary Stream	Slave- woman	- Clergymen - Statesmen - Money men - Businessmen	No terms	No terms	-Man	No terms
2 nd Year	Slave-	-Clergymen	No terms	No terms	- Man	No terms

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Scientific Stream	woman	- Intellectual men - Statesmen - Men of reform -Money men - Businessmen - Merchantmen				
3 rd Year Literary Stream	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs -Mr	-Men -Man	-Sweetheart (male) - Darling (male and female)
3 rd Year Scientific Stream	No examples	No terms	No examples	-Mrs	No terms	Darling (male)

Table 36. Linguistic Bias in the Arabic Secondary School Textbooks

The results of table 36 display that these textbooks contain five linguistic bias forms. Firstly, the denigrating term slave-woman appears in the 1st year literary stream, the 2nd year literary and scientific stream textbooks. Secondly, the names of jobs ‘firemen’, ‘clergymen’ ‘statesman’, ‘moneymen’, ‘businessmen’, ‘reform men’, ‘intellectual men’ and ‘merchantmen’. They manifest in all the textbooks. Thirdly, the titles ‘Mr’ and ‘Mrs’ are

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persistent in the 3rd year literary and scientific stream textbooks. Fourthly, the generic term ‘man’ also appears in the 1st year year, the 2nd literary and scientific scientific stream and the 3rd year literary stream textbooks. Finally, the objectification term ‘darling’ and ‘sweetheart’ which appear in the 1st year literary and scientific stream and the 3rd year literary and scientific stream textbooks.

8.3.2. French Textbooks

8.3.2. 1.Invisibility

8.3.2. 1.a. The Frequency of Occurrence

	Males	Females
1 st Year	103	40
2 nd Year	104	32
3 rd Year	142	30
Total	349	102
Percentage	77,38%	22,62%

Table 37. Frequency of Occurrence in the French Secondary School Textbooks

Table 37 shows that the male characters outnumber the female characters in all the textbooks (M: F= 349: 102). The results appear as follow (M: F= 59:22), (M: F= 65:28) and (M: F= 113:14) in the 1st year, the 2nd and the 3rd year textbooks respectively.

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8.3.2. 1.b. Firstness

	Males First	Females First
1 st Year	04	01
2 nd Year	04	01
3 rd Year	03	02
Total	11	04
Percentage	73,33%	26,67%

Table 38. Firstness in the French Secondary School Textbooks

Table 38 indicates that the gender pairs starting with masculine nouns greatly outnumber the ones starting with feminine nouns at the level of all the textbooks without exception. The results concerning firstness come as follow: (M: F= 04:01), (M: F= 04:01) and (M:F= 03:02) in the 1st year, the 2nd year and the 3rd year textbooks respectively.

8.3.2. 2. Gender Stereotypes

8.3.2. 2. a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
1 st Year	Well-educated- dishonest- serious- ambitious- rarely smile- never laugh	Blackened, brushed and pomaded hair- small and treated barb- beautiful eyes- short- fat- big head- small nose- big lips- white	Sane- courageous- well-brought up- soft- patient malicious- brave	Beautiful- small- wrinkled- white hair- tiring eyes

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		teeth- round and black eyes- menacing eyebrow- pendulous ears- blond hair- bronzed face	cold soul-stupid	
2 nd Year	Kind- intelligent	Shining eyes- upright barb	Crazy- passionate- kind heart	Elegant- thin- false wrinkles- fat-big
3 rd Year	Honest-tyrant- sensitive- having unexplainable character	Blond- white forefront- orange lids- an eye with long and black eyelashes- brown	Savage- gracious- kind- loveable	Pale- blond- little

Table 39. Gender Traits in the French Secondary School Textbooks

The results in table 39 display that the female characters are portrayed having more personal traits than the male characters (M: F= 12: 16), but less physical traits than the males (M: F= 22: 13).

8.3.2. 2. b. Occupational Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
1 st Year	Poet- emperor- chemist- doctor- teacher- farmer- basketball player- trainer- study master- journalist- school head- baker- miner-police officer- park worker- hotel patron- mayor- taxi driver- technical director	Massaging the dog-going out to look for wood	Farmer- an institution manager- worker in an office- literature	Preparing coffee

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	in the APC- procurator- king- sailor- Touareg chief- captain- cook- fisher- big industry director- officer- painter		teacher- actress	
2 nd Year	Firefighter- dervish- Emir- physicist- researcher-president- Dey- world leader in plant biotechnology- clinic director- prophet- teacher- governor- prince- mechanic- astronaut- cosmonaut	Preparing lessons at home- picking orange in the field	Journalist- poetess- governess	Preparing puree- going to the school- medicating the baby- preparing the breakfast
3 rd Year	Engineer- governor- caliph- king- historian- mathematician- poet- police officer- farmer- inspector- colonel- writer- consul- politician- saint- officer- manager-parachutist sergeant- lawyer- rais- parliament office president- theologian- church monk- duke- prince- trainer- philosopher- service director- UNESCO director- republic president- prime minister- library manager- barber- judge- singer- hunter- baker	No roles	Kahina- nurse- manager- kitchen woman- governess	Catering the Djounouds

Table 40: Occupational Roles in the French Secondary School Textbooks

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Table 40 displays that the male characters' professional roles greatly outnumber the females' (M: F= 82: 13). Regarding the domestic roles, the female characters are portrayed performing more domestic roles than the male characters (M: F= 04: 06).

8.3.2. 3. Gender Interaction

	Female-female	Mixed-gender
1 st Year	02	04
2 nd Year	00	11
3 rd Year	00	03
Total	02	18
Percentage	10%	90%

Table 41 Gender Interaction in the French Secondary School Textbooks

Table 41 displays that the textbooks interactions are mostly mixed-gender ones. Eighteen of the entire interactions are mixed-gender, but only two of them are female-female.

8.3.2. 4. Linguistic Bias

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	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
1 st Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs - Mr -Miss	-Man	- Little (male and female)
2 nd Year	No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs - Mr -Miss	- Man	- Little (male and female)
3 rd Year	No terms	-Kitchen woman	No terms	-Mrs - Mr -Miss	- Man - Fathers	No terms

Table 42. Linguistic Bias in the French Secondary School textbooks

The results of table 42 display that four forms of the linguistic bias persist in these textbooks. Firstly, the name of job ‘kitchen woman’ which appears in the 3rd year textbook. Secondly, the titles ‘Miss’, ‘Mrs’ and ‘Mr’ which manifest in all the textbooks. Thirdly, the generic term ‘man’ and ‘fathers’ which appear in the 3rd year textbooks. Finally, the objectification term ‘little’ which appears in the 1st year and the 2nd year textbooks.

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8.3.3. English Textbooks

8.3.3.1. Invisibility

8.3.3.1. A. The Frequency of Occurrence

	Males	Females
1 st Year	157	80
2 nd Year	115	45
3 rd Year	149	48
Total	421	173
Percentage	70,88%	29,12%

Table 43. Frequency of Occurrence in the English Secondary School Textbooks

Table 43 shows that the male characters outnumber the female characters in all the textbooks (M:F= 421: 173). The results appear as follow (M:F= 157:80), (M:F= 115:45), and (M:F= 149:48) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, and the 3rd year textbooks respectively.

8.3.3.1. b. Firstness

	Males First	Females First
1 st Year	06	03
2 nd Year	03	07
3 rd Year	14	07
Total	23	17
Percentage	57,5%	42,5%

Table 44. Firstness in the English Secondary School Textbooks

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Table 44 indicates that the gender pairs which begin with the masculine nouns outnumber the ones which start with feminine ones. The results of firstness come as follow: (M: F= 06:03), (M: F= 03:07) and (M: F= 14:07) in the 1st year, the 2nd year, the 3rd year textbooks respectively.

8.3.3.2. Gender Stereotypes

8.3.3.2. a. Traits

	Males		Females	
	Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
1 st Year	Hard worker- great-lazy- improvident-incapable of bringing food to his wife and children- liking action-courageous- hero-intelligent- curious-having a great soul-quick– heavy smoker-cold- recluse	Tall- huge- having a very dark complexion- having a wide nose- having a very bushy eyebrows- having a fierce look- thin-handsome- having a gentle look- having a little scar on the left cheek-having curly and black hair- - having black hair-having a bald -	Volunteer-magic- curious-hard worker-cordial- polite-friendly-cheerful	Pretty- having a round face-having a little turned up nose-round grey eyes-having long dark eyelashes-having cold grey eyes

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		having a short mustache- having pointed chin- not strong		
2 nd Year	Good- kind- jealous	No traits	Kind-loyal - behaving in an educated way- loved- keen of mind-stupid	Elegant- tall- strong- little - red-haired - blue-eyed- odd- looking- big eyes - big teeth- very beautiful- slight beautiful
3 rd Year	Intelligent- not showing off- always thinking about others- cruel- helpful- do not laugh at embarrassing things- insane- lazy- venerable	No traits	Funny- friendly- quiet- having strong character- mad- bright- dependable	Tall- nice- thin

Table 45: Gender Traits in the English Secondary School Textbooks

Table 45 displays that the males are portrayed having more personal traits than the females (M: F= 27: 21), but less physical traits than the females (M:F= 16: 20).

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8.3.3.2. b. Occupational Roles

	Males		Females	
	Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
1 st Year	Electrician- engineer- secretary- guide- sailor- fisherman- king- horsemen- writer- wrestler- clerk- worker in a factory- worker for the navy- actor- leader- colonel- music hall performer- teacher- policeman- news presenter- police officer- clock maker- writer- inventor- businessman- artist- tax collector- clergyman- telegraph operator- patent- office clerk- astrologer- book binder-gourmet- physician- recluse- chemist- brewer- master of plantation- clothes washer- farmer- agricultural chemist- handicraft- painter-	Washing- ironing- cooking- sewing	Teacher- music hall performer- cardiologist- airhostess- architect	-Going to the school- attending to the father- taking care of her little sister- looking after the brothers and sisters- washing clothes

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	researcher- captain- king- merchantman- newspaper reporter-climate specialist			
2 nd Year	Farmer- worker in a factory- boss- docker- foreman- canner- waiter- mayor- public officer- businessman- painter- barber- dentist- doctor - soldier- warrior - head of the international Atomic Energy Agency- - doctor of physics- caliph- astronomer- physician- physicist- mathematician- hunter- bus driver- shepherd- trader- king- prince- marketer- market supervisor- guard- judge- policeman-scientist- chairman- blacksmith- laboratory assistant- captain- sales department worker - earthquake expert - education specialist- home technology specialist-	Doing shopping- running every afternoon (doing sports)- going to the post office- going to the seaside- painting the kitchen- swimming- going to the university	Research project director- worker- manager- personal assistant- teacher- nurse	-Cooking food - preparing dinner- going out with the parents- carrying food to the grandmother- going to the university

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	personnel manager			
3 rd Year	Scientist- explorer- navigator- Emir- traveler- caliph- conquistador- official- king- ruler- Mayor- custom officer- businessman- critic- cook- welder-headmaster- commercial artist- policeman- firefighter- doctor- police inspector- sporting man- astronomer- astronaut- footballer- geographer- comedian- prince- chauffeur- writer- historian- farmer- craftsman- radio host- head of an association- Czar- inspector- professor of physics- doctor- prime minister- humorist- worker in a factory- waiter- detective- historian- scholar- philosopher- minister of E-commerce-	Taking charge of the sons	Musician- biologist- chemical engineer- comedian- princess- patron of a charity- executive- detective- secretary	Preparing vesta, chicken supreme with rice - taking care of the little sister

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	spokesman- civil servant- school inspector- veterinary surgeon- fisherman- religious leader			
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Table 46: Occupational Roles in the English Secondary School Textbooks

Table 46 displays that the male characters appear in more professional and domestic roles than the female characters (M: F= 150: 21); however, as many domestic roles as the females (M: F= 12: 12).

8.3.3. 3. Gender Interaction

	Female-female	Mixed-gender
1 st Year	02	04
2 nd Year	03	04
3 rd Year	00	08
Total	05	16
Percentage	23, 81%	76,19%

Table 47. Gender Interaction in the English Secondary School Textbooks

Table 47 displays that the mixed-gender interactions greatly outnumber the female-female interactions. There are sixteen mixed-gender interactions, but only five female-female ones.

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8.3.3. 4. Linguistic Bias

	Denigra- tion	Names of Jobs	Excep- tional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectifica- tion
1 st Year	No terms	-Fisherman - Horseman - Policeman - Clergyman -Chairman -Bussinessman - Master - Merchantman	No terms	- Mrs -Mr	-Men	No terms
2 nd Year	No terms	-Foreman -Businessmen -Huntsman -Policemen -Chairman	- Female guitarist -Female employee	-Mrs -Mr	- Man -Mankind -Grandfathers	No terms
3 rd Year	No examples	-Businessmen -Policeman -Sporting man - Craftsman - Spoke man -Fisherman	No examples	-Mr - Miss	- Man -Men -Mankind	-Little soul (female) -Little (female)

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Table 48. Linguistic Bias in the English Secondary School Textbooks

The results of linguistic bias display that these textbooks contain five forms of linguistic bias. The first form is that of the names of jobs, 'fisherman', 'horseman', 'policeman', 'foreman', 'businessman', 'sporting man', 'craftsman', 'spokesman', 'clergyman', 'chairman' and 'merchantman', which exist in the entire textbooks. The second form is that of the titles 'Mr', 'Mrs' and 'Miss' that manifest in all the textbooks. The third form is that of the generic 'man', 'mankind' and 'grandfathers' which also appear in all the textbooks. The fourth form is the exceptional terms 'female employee' and 'female guitarist' which appear in the 2nd year textbook. The last form is that of objectification term 'little' and 'little soul' that manifest in the 2nd and the 3rd year textbooks.

Conclusion

This section is mainly set to tackle the methodology of the present study and to display its findings together with their description. As the findings about invisibility, gender stereotypes, gender interaction and linguistic bias in the Arabic, French and English school textbooks have been collected and thoroughly described, it is the following chapter which is going to discuss and compare them to each other.



Chapter Four

Chapter Four : Discussion and Comparison

Introduction

The present chapter discusses and compares the findings of the study in details. First, it discusses the findings of the research which are categorized both horizontally, Arabic, French and English textbooks, and vertically, Primary, Middle and Secondary School textbooks. Then, the findings are contrasted only horizontally to each other to check which ones of these language textbooks carry more gender bias.

1. The Hypotheses

For the purpose of reminding, the following hypotheses are advanced:

1. The designing process of the opted corpus may be done from a gender unawareness perspective.
 - a. The textbooks may represent the males more visible than the females.
 - b. The textbooks may maintain rather than challenge the gender stereotypes.
2. The selected textbooks may still make use of the sexist language.
3. Both genders may be represented frequently interacting with each other.
4. Gender bias in the chosen school textbooks may appear with different degrees in such language textbooks.

2. The Findings Discussion

The findings discussion is done on the basis of the previous research which was undertaken on gender representation in the school textbooks. These works include Child et al. (1946), Schmitz (1975), Hartman and Judd (1978), Hellinger (1980) and Porreca (1984).

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2.1.The Primary School Textbooks

2.1.1. Arabic Textbooks

2.1.1. 1. Invisibility

2.1.1.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 01 indicate that there is an overrepresentation of the males and an underrepresentation of the females because there is an apparent imbalance in the distribution of the male and the female characters (M: F= 319:153) throughout the school textbooks. Such results, in fact, correspond to those of the previous research (e.g. Child et al., 1946; Schmitz, 1975; Hartman and Judd, 1978 and Hellinger, 1980).

Regarding the implications of such gender representation, Porreca (1984, p. 706) believes that *“the implicit message is that women’s accomplishments, or that they themselves as human beings, are not important enough to be included”*. Hence, this gender representation is not without effects. It, in fact, sustains, rather than challenges, the gender social structures where the men are dominant and women are dependent.

2.1.1.1. b. Firstness

The results in table 02 indicate that the males are more visible than the females because the masculine nouns usually precede the feminine ones in the gender pairs: 66, 67% of the gender pairs are male-dominated, but only 33, 33% of them start with feminine nouns. Portraying the masculine nouns mostly at the first position at the gender pairs and leaving the second position to the feminine nouns doesn’t deviate from the early research findings (e.g. Hartman and Judd, 1978; Porreca, 1984). On the contrary, such findings support what was found previously. About the effects of mentioning the males mostly in the first position,

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Hartman and Judd (1978, p.) stated that “*it works to reinforce the subordinate status of the women*”. Thus, positioning the females in the second position in the gender pairs is another way that enhances the females’ secondary status that they occupy in the society rather than challenging it.

Therefore, this representation of the males as more visible than the females regarding both the frequency of occurrence of the gender characters and their positioning in the gender pairs strongly confirms what is hypothesized in the present study.

2.1.1. 2. Gender Stereotypes

2.1.1. 2. a. Traits

The results in table 03 indicate that the females are represented more positive than the males. The male characters are attributed four personal negative traits: hesitating, tight-fisted, stubborn and niggardly. But, the female characters are not attributed any negative trait. Representing the females without negative traits and the males with some negative traits is not stereotypical and it helps for evoking a positive picture about the females in the students’ minds.

Concerning the emotional and the rational traits, the females are portrayed more emotional than the males. Although the males are portrayed in six emotional traits, kind, loving, tender-hearted, kind-hearted, faithful and sensitive and the females in only three emotional traits, kind, tender-hearted and loving, the females are considered to be portrayed more emotional than the males because females’ emotional features compose 18,75% of their whole personal features, but it is only 10,34% for the males’. This finding, in fact, is

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just a continuum of those of the previous studies (e.g. Shmitz, 1975; Hartman and Judd, 1978 and Porreca, 1984).

About the rational traits, it can be said that there is an endeavor to reach somewhat balance in the distribution of the rationality-related traits amongst the male and the female characters. Put differently, although the males are attributed six rational features, intelligent, gifted, skilful, genius, sane and far-seeing and the females are attributed two features, conscious and clever, the males' rational features shape 10,34% of their entire personal traits and the females' traits shape 12,5%. This slight difference in the distribution of the rational features among the gender characters can be interpreted as the females are portrayed as rational as the males.

Such depiction of the females as more emotional than the males advocates the stereotype that emotionality is a feminine trait that the females are expected to possess. However, depicting both genders as equally rational is far from being stereotypical and it negates the expectations that rationality is a masculine feature.

Physically, there is an attempt to achieve equality regarding the beauty traits. The females are represented having as many beauty traits as the males. Both genders appear with three beauty traits. The females appear as elegant, lithe-bodied and having a beautiful face and the males as handsome, lithe-bodied and having a bright face. The females' beauty features take 20% of their physical traits and it is 18,75% for the males'. Thus, this trivial difference is interpreted as achieving equality. Such portrayal, in fact, negated the stereotype that beauty is a feminine trait and it promotes for the thought that beauty is not a gender-bound feature; however, it can be owned by both genders.

About the physical strength, the males are represented owning more strength traits than the females. The males are portrayed as strong-bodied, strong, muscular and able-

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bodied, but the females appear without any strength traits. Representing the males as physically strong and the females as totally deprived from such strength features reinforces the social gender stereotypical expectations that the males should own physically strong bodies.

Regarding the distribution of the personality traits among the males and the females in reality and their representation in the school textbooks, Scott (1981, p 39) said:

“... Males as well females can be fearful, weak, mechanically inept, and illogical... Males can be polite, cooperative, inactive, or neat. Because such characteristics are shared by males and females in reality, textbooks that classify them as “masculine” or “feminine” are misrepresenting reality.”

Therefore, it can be said the fact of representing the females in the textbooks in terms of emotionality while the males in terms of strength, as it is found in the present research, misrepresents reality.

Representing the females as more emotional than the males while the males as physically strong tend to confirm the present research hypothesis. However, representing the females as more positive than the males and both of them as equally rational and beautiful negates the present research hypothesis.

2.1.1. 2. B. Occupational Roles

The results in table 04 indicate that the females are misrepresented in terms of the enumeration and the sort of the professions performed. The males are portrayed enjoying a variety of professions; however, the females appear in a very limited number of professions when compared to males' (M: F=120:25). Such findings, in fact, were reached by the early

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research (e.g. Child et al., 1946; Schmitz, 1975, Hellinger, 1980 and Porreca, 1984).

Moreover, the females are portrayed in more taking-care professions than the males. The females appear occupying five taking care professions, teacher, nurse, doctor, flight attendant and servant, but the males appear occupying only three taking care professions, teacher doctor and dentist.

Regarding the prestige of the professions performed by both genders, both genders are equally represented. Both the males and the females are portrayed in prestigious and less esteemed professions. The males appear occupying professions as king and Sultan as well as farmer and shoemaker. Similarly, the females appear occupying professions as queen and Kahina as well as servant and weaver.

Showing the males in a variety of jobs and the females in very few ones, on the one hand, and the females in more taking care jobs, on the other hand, is highly stereotypical and it sustains the traditional social expectations where the professional world is supposed to be masculine-dominated and that the females suit better to perform taking care professions. About this, Sakita (1995) stated that “*sexist portrayal of both women’s and men’s occupational roles in teaching materials reinforces gender bias in society*”. Hence, such representation of the occupational roles can influence the learners’ attitudes towards the gender roles since it implies that the occupational roles are almost exclusive for the males. However, showing both genders in prestigious and less prestigious professions is not stereotypical as it doesn’t advocate the expectation that the males are expected to perform prestigious professions and the females to perform less prestigious ones.

Regarding the domestic roles, both genders are stereotypically represented. The males are represented mostly in outdoor activities because 16 out of 22 of their domestic activities are associated with the outdoor sphere. On the contrary, the females’ domestic activities are

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almost associated with indoor and taking care because 31 out of 37 roles are indoor and taking care ones. Such findings do not differ from those of the past research (e.g. Ansary and Babaii, 2012; Mustapha, 2014 and Otoom, 2014) (see 8.3.b, 8.4.a and 8.5.b in chapter two). Hence, portraying the males acting mostly in outdoor and the females mostly in indoor and taking care roles is strongly stereotypical and it does not challenge the social division of the domestic labour where the males are supposed to act in the outdoor world and the females in the indoor world.

In sum, showing the males in more various occupations than the females whose occupations are also more linked to taking care than the males, on the one hand, and the females mostly indoor and the males mostly in outdoor activities strongly affirm what is hypothesized in the present study. But, showing both genders occupying prestigious and less esteemed occupational roles invalidates the research hypothesis.

2.1.1.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 05 indicate that the females' representation is not biased. The females are portrayed participating in more intergroup interactions than in intragroup ones. The females are portrayed participating in 56 mixed-gender interactions and in only 21 female-female interactions. Hence, portraying the females communicating mostly with the males promotes for viewing the women as an integrated and important group rather an isolated and peripheral one. Such finding, in fact, merely confirms the research hypothesis.

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2.1.1.4. Linguistic Bias

The results of table 06 indicate that the textbooks make use of some linguistic bias forms. Firstly, using the following names of jobs, 'رجل علوم عسكرية' / 'man of military sciences', 'رجل أدب' / 'man of letters', 'رجل ثقافة' / 'man of culture' and 'رجل إطفاء' / 'fireman', conveys linguistic bias because such names of jobs, according to Weatherall (2002:14), *"generally refer to an unspecified person or to a group of people. But of course such words are also masculine-specific terms and can be interpreted as excluding women"*. So, the suffix "man" in such words conveys the meaning that the performers of these jobs are supposed to be only men and it excludes the women from such jobs.

Secondly, employing the titles 'السيد' / 'Mr' and 'سيدة' / 'Mrs' and 'أنسة' / 'Miss' is also biased because such titles, according to Hellinger and Pauwels (2007), *"identify women in terms of their relationship to men (married or not married) ...highlight their dependency on the male"*. So, such marriage titles are sexist because they have the effect of reinforcing women's subordination to men.

Thirdly, the use of the generic "رجل" / "man" is also biased as it puts the women in the background as invisible and peripheral members and it evokes the masculine patterns. The previous research also arrived to such findings (e.g. Porreca, 1984; Shah, 2012).

Finally, the use of the objectification terms, 'الحبيبة', 'حبيبي', 'حبيبتى' / 'sweetheart', 'عزيزي' / 'darling', / 'little', 'الصغيرة' is biased, but only when they are used to address one gender, but in these textbooks, these terms are used to address both genders. This makes them bias-free.

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Thus, the use of names of jobs that exclude the women from some jobs, the marriage titles that reinforce women's subordination to the men, and the generic 'man/ الرجل' that makes the women invisible proves the advanced research hypothesis.

2.1.2. The French Textbooks

2.1.2.1. Invisibility

2.1.2.1. A. The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 07 indicate that the males are more visible than the females (M: F= 166:142). Although the gap is not so large, the females remain less visible than the males. Such finding doesn't deviate from those of the previous research, but it goes with them in the same line. This occurrence of both gender characters in the textbooks is just a reproduction of the social gender construction where the males are dominant and the females are dependent and subordinate. In so doing, this gender representation asserts the hypothesis which is advanced in this research.

2.1.2.1.B. Firstness

The results in table 08 indicate that the females are more visible than the males because most of the gender pairs begin with feminine nouns. Such finding is original as it totally varies from that of the past studies. Positioning the feminine nouns mostly at the first status and the masculine ones mostly at the second status challenges the gender structures through reversing it. This initiative, in fact, encourages the young generations to view the

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women as an important and central society members. This finding completely negates what is hypothesized in this research.

2.1.2. 2. Gender Stereotypes

2.1.2.2. A. Traits

The results in table 09 indicate that the females are represented more positive than the males. The females appear without any negative personal trait, but the males appear with one negative trait which is unkind. Such gender portrayal is original and it invites for a more positive conception of the women at the real world.

As far as the emotional traits are concerned, the females are portrayed more emotional than the males. The females appear as emotional while the males appear without any emotional trait. Moreover, this finding maintains the prior research findings.

Regarding the rational traits, the females are portrayed more rational than the males. The females appear as genius and gifted, but the males appear without any rational trait. Such finding is inventive because it deviates from the findings that were reached by most the previous researchers.

The portrayal of the females as more rational than the males defies the traditional expectations about femininity and masculinity traits that expect the males to be rational and it promotes for the thought that rationality is a feature which can be shared by both genders. However, portraying the females as more emotional than the males is stereotypical because it boosts the social expectations about the females that emotionality is expected be a feminine trait.

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Moving to the physical traits, the females are represented in terms of beauty as beautiful while the males are represented in terms of the physical strength as huge. This finding is just a continuum of the past research findings. So, it is a strong validation of the stereotypical binary expectations that the females should be beautiful and delicate and the males should be physically strong.

Hence, such representation of the males' and the females' physical traits as well as portraying the females in terms of emotionality validate the advanced hypothesis. But, portraying the females more positive and rational than the males infirms the research hypothesis.

2.1.2. 2. B. Occupational Roles

The results in table 10 indicate that the females are misrepresented both by means of the variety and the kind of the occupations they appear in. Firstly, the males' jobs are more numerous than females' (M: F=54:27). Secondly, both genders are shown performing four taking care occupations, the males appear male as nurse, teacher, doctor and veterinary, and the females appear as nurse, teacher, veterinary and dentist; however, the females' taking care occupations percentage is bigger than the males'. In other words, females' jobs which are linked to taking care form 14, 81% of their total professional roles, but the percentage is only 11,11% for the males'. Such finding was also reached by the past researchers who found that the males dominated most of the occupations while the females performed taking care roles.

As regard the prestige of the occupational roles, both genders are equally represented as both the males and the females are shown in prestigious and low-status occupations. The males are shown in prestigious occupational roles like doctor and director as well as in less

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admired roles like builder and barber. Similarly, the females are shown in prestigious occupational roles like pharmacist and architect as well as in less admired roles like dancer and pastry-cook. Such finding, in fact, differs from most of the previous ones which most of the time found the males in prestigious roles and the females in less prestigious ones.

Therefore, portraying the males in a variety of occupational roles and the females in limited ones as well as portraying the females in more numerous taking care occupations than the males are stereotypically-loaded. Such finding can embeds the view that the occupational world is a masculine one and it shouldn't be penetrated by the females and even if the females have access to such world of occupations, they are well-suited to perform taking care occupations. However, portraying both genders in high-status and less esteemed occupations is far from being stereotypical and it rebuts the traditional expectancy that only the males fit to occupy high-status jobs.

Moving to the domestic roles, most of males' roles are associated with outdoor as 16 out of 27 of their roles are outdoor ones and most of females' are associated with indoor and taking care as 25 out of 32 of their domestic activities are indoor and taking care ones. Such finding also doesn't deviate from the findings of the previous studies. So, the domestic roles traditional expectation is also validated here through depicting the males mostly in the outdoor domain and the females mainly in the indoor and taking care domain.

In sum, portraying the males in more various jobs than the females whose jobs are also more linked to taking care than the males', on the one hand, and the males mostly in outdoor and the females mostly in indoor and taking care, on the other hand, is a strong affirmation of what is hypothesized in the present research. However, showing both genders in high-status and less esteemed roles rejects such hypothesis.

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2.1.2.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 11 indicate that the females are depicted in an unbiased way. The females' participation in mixed-gender interactions is more excessive than in female-female interactions. Representing the females as an integrated group communicating mainly with the other gender is bias-free and it promotes for picturing the females as important interactants and individuals in the society. In such way, the presented research hypothesis is confirmed.

2.1.2.4. Linguistic Bias

The results of table 12 indicate the persistence of two forms of linguistic bias in the textbooks. The first form is the titles 'Monsieur'/ 'Mr' and 'Madame'/ 'Mrs' which convey sexism because they treat the men and the women unfairly. They address only the women with their marital status and they disregard the males'. Moreover, they reinforce the dependency of the women to men. Thence, the use of marriage titles in these textbooks confirms the presented hypothesis.

The second form is the objectification terms 'petit' and 'petite'/ 'little' which are biased as they belittle the persons who are addressed by them. However, in this case both genders are addressed by such terms. This makes them far from being biased. Thus, the research hypothesis is invalidated.

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2.2.The Middle School Textbooks

2.2.1. Arabic Textbooks

2.2.1.1.Invisibility

2.2.1.1. A. The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 13 indicate males' overrepresentation and females' underrepresentation (M: F=217:75). This is a similar finding to the ones that were reached by most the prior research. This males' excessive representation and females' moderate one, in fact, keeps the social order where the men enjoy visibility and dominance, but the women suffer from invisibility and subordination. Thereby, the present research hypothesis is strongly confirmed through such finding.

2.2.1. 1.B. Firstness

The results in table 14 indicate females' total invisibility because the gender pairs are completely masculine-dominated i.e. all of such pairs start with masculine names. Such finding is merely a continuum of most of the past research findings. This entire absence of the females at the beginning of the gender pairs strongly boosts their invisibility and secondary status in the society and it promotes for viewing them as trivial members. In this manner, the present study hypothesis is powerfully asserted through such finding.

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2.2.1.2. Gender Stereotypes

2.2.1.2. A. Traits

The results in table 15 indicate that the females are represented more positive than the males. The females are characterized as only inactive and dull, while the males are characterized as murder, moody, austere, weak, deviant, alcoholic, having a bad behavior, greedy and passive. Attributing the females less negative traits than the males encourages for a more positive conception about the women among the young generations who make use of the textbooks.

Emotionally, the females are depicted more emotional than the males. The males are described as loving, having a compassionate heart, compassionate, soft-hearted and faithful. The females are described as compassionate, tender-hearted, pitying and affectionate. Although the males appear owning more emotional traits than the females, the females are considered to be more emotional than the males because the females' emotional traits compose 14.81% of their entire personal traits, but it is only 08.47% for the males'. This finding is identical to previous research findings.

Rationally, the males are depicted more rational than the females. The males are described as conscious, far-seeing, genius, wise, having a spacious mind, extremely intelligent and masterful, but the females are described as only knowledgeable. This doesn't vary from the prior research findings.

Thence, depicting the females with more emotional characteristics and the males in more rational ones is stereotypically-loaded because it legitimizes and supports the stereotype that emotionality should be feminine and rationality should be masculine.

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Physically, the males are represented owning more beauty features than the females. The males are characterized as handsome, having pretty face and having noble identikits, but the females appear without any beauty-associated traits. This result, indeed, differs from that of most of the precedent studies.

As for the strength traits, the males are also represented more physically stronger than the females. The males are characterized as giant, muscular and healthy, but the females are depicted without any such features. Such finding supports the past undertaken research findings.

Associating beauty traits exclusively with masculinity is not stereotypical. It, indeed, affronts the expectation that beauty is supposed to be a feminine quality rather than a masculine one. Nevertheless, associating strength traits exclusively with masculinity strongly advocates the stereotypical expectancy that the physical strength is supposed to be a specific masculine quality.

Portraying the females in terms of emotionality and the males in terms of rationality and physical strength validates the research hypothesis. However, portraying the females more positively than the males and the males in terms of beauty invalidates the research hypothesis.

2.2.1.2. B. Occupational Roles

The results in table 16 indicate that there is a misrepresentation of the females at the level of the diversity and the type of the occupations performed when compared to the males'. The males are shown basking a large set of occupations while the females are shown occupying a finite set of occupations (M: F=86:10). Dealing with the type of the occupations,

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both the females and the males appear in two taking care occupations. The females appear as teacher and taking care of the old people in the old age hospital while the males as teacher and doctor. Despite of this distribution of the number of the taking care jobs amongst both genders, such two females' occupations take 20% of their total occupational roles, while those males' two occupations take only 2,32% of their total occupational roles. These findings really work to reinforce the previous studies findings.

Regarding the occupational prestige, gender portrayal fairness is achieved because both genders appear in both high-status and less influential jobs. The males are represented in high-status jobs as king and Sultan and in less influential ones as shoemaker and shepherd. Like the males, the females are also represented in high-status jobs as queen and journalist and in less influential ones as wool seller and pottery maker. This finding is different from the findings of the prior studies that found the males mostly in prestigious roles.

Thence, portraying the males in a large variety of jobs which rarely deal with taking care while the females in very few jobs which sometimes deal with taking care is loaded with stereotypes as it carries the stereotype that the professional sphere is expected to be masculine-dominated and if the females enter it, they are supposed to compensate the taking care perspective in the professional world. Nevertheless, portraying both genders fairly regarding the prestige of the professions is far from being stereotypical and it promotes for the conception that both genders are tolerated to join different prestigious and minor occupational roles.

Domestically, the females are misrepresented because all of their domestic activities are associated with indoor and taking care except the activity of going to the school. However, the males appear mostly in outdoor activities because 10 out of 16 of their roles are linked to the outdoor sphere. As a consequence, representing the females mostly in indoor

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and taking care activities and the males mostly in outdoor activities merely reproduces the stereotype that sticks the indoor and taking care responsibilities to the females and the outdoor ones to the males.

In sum, depicting the males in a variety of professions and the females in a very finite number of jobs which are more linked to taking care than males' as well as the females generally in indoor and taking care domestic roles and the males in indoor ones is another confirmation of the presented hypothesis.

2.2.1.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 17 indicate that the females' representation is unbiased because their contribution in mixed-gender communications is excessive. This finding is creative and differs from the previous ones that depicted the females as an isolated group. Such females' representation, in fact, conveys the meaning that the females are influential society members rather than isolated ones. In this way, the present research hypothesis is powerfully confirmed.

2.2.1. 4. Linguistic Bias

The results of table 18 indicate that the linguist bias is constant in the textbooks by means of three sexist language forms. Firstly, making use of the jobs names namely 'policeman/رجل الشرطة', 'fireman/رجل الحماية المدنية' and 'businessman/رجل اعمال' carries linguistic sexism because these jobs names exclude the women from such jobs. Put differently, they appoint the gender of the job performers as if only the man can perform such jobs.

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Secondly, using the title ‘Mr/السيد’ is linguistically sexist because this title disregards the men’s marital situation when they are addressed.

Finally, employing the objectification terms ‘darling/عزيزتي/العزیز’, ‘little/الصغير’ and ‘sweetheart/الحلوة’ is linguistically sexist because these terms trivialize the persons whom they are used to address. However, the terms “little” and “darling” are used in these textbooks to address both genders. So, their use can be interpreted as not biased. Regarding the second term “sweetheart”, it is used, in these textbooks, to address only the females. So, it is sexist because it trivializes the women and objectifies them.

Therefore, this gender linguistic representation that excludes the women from certain jobs, disregards the male’s marriage status, and trivializes the females, are similar to the past research findings. In so doing, the advanced hypothesis is asserted.

2.2.2. French Textbooks

2.2.2.1. Invisibility

2.2.2.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 19 indicate that the males are more visible than the females because of the supernumerary presence of the male characters in the textbooks (M: F=403:230). This result is not original. It is just a continuum of what the past research found. This gender representation merely reproduces the prevailing gender structure where the males are dominant and visible and the females are dominated and invisible. Thereby, the research hypothesis is confirmed.

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2.2.2.1. b. Firstness

The results in table 20 indicate the males are overrepresented and the females are underrepresented because the gender pairs are dominated by the masculine nouns: 63, 64% of the pairs begin with masculine nouns, but only 36, 36% of them begin with feminine nouns. This result is also similar to the early research findings. The fact of positioning of the masculine nouns mostly at the first position and the feminine ones mostly at the second position maintains women's invisibility and secondary status at the society rather defying it. In this way, the advanced hypothesis is confirmed.

2.2.2.2. Gender Stereotypes

2.2.2.2. a. Traits

The results in table 21 indicate that the females are represented more positive than the males. The males are attributed five negative traits, dishonest, jealous, having a bad humour, wicked and careless, but the females are attributed only two negative traits, jealous and haughty. Such finding is inventive and it leaves a good impression in the young generation's minds about the females. Besides, it invalidates the research hypothesis.

Regarding the emotional traits, the females are portrayed as more emotional than the males. The females are characterized as affective, loveable and sensitive, but the males are characterized only as affective and loyal.

Regarding the rational traits, fairness is nearly achieved amongst both genders. Although the males are attributed two rational traits, wise and intelligent, and the females only one rational trait, intelligent, such slight difference can be interpreted as fairness because

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the males' rational traits compose 5.40% of their whole personal traits, and it is 4% for the females'.

Depicting the females as more emotional than the males was also found by the previous researchers and it has the effect of sustaining the stereotypical expectation that emotionality is a feminine personal quality. Consequently, it affirms the research hypothesis. However, the fair distribution of the rational traits between the males and the females is inventive and it transmits the thought that rationality is a shared gender quality, instead of being a masculine one as it is expected in the social world. Moreover, it negates the research hypothesis.

Physically, the females are portrayed having more beauty traits than the males. The females are characterized as very beautiful, luscious, elegant, charming and having a shining face, but the males are attributed only two beauty traits, handsome and admirable. About the physical strength, the males are featured as giant and big, while the females appear without any strength features. Such findings are identical to those of the past research. Depicting the females with more beauty traits than the males and the females as completely kept out of the strength traits strongly advocates the traditional expectations about the physicality of both genders where the females are expected to be beautiful and the males to be physically strong. In this manner, the presented hypothesis is validated.

2.2.2.2. b. Occupational Roles

The results in table 22 indicate that the females' representation is distorted both at the jobs distribution and their type. Firstly, there is a great gap at the distribution of the jobs between the males and the females (M: F=129: 24). Secondly, both genders are depicted in three

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taking care jobs: the females are shown as teacher and nursemaid and servant while the males appear as teacher, doctor and veterinary. Although both genders occupy equal number of taking care jobs, the percentage of the females' taking care-associated jobs is bigger than the males'. In other words, females' jobs percentage is 12.5%, but males' jobs percentage is only 2, 32%. These findings are just a duplication of those of the previous studies. Showing the males in several professions which are rarely linked to taking care and the females in very few jobs which are sometimes linked to taking care supports the traditional labour segmentation amongst both genders where the males are presumed to overrun the occupational world and the females are presumed to fill in the taking care gaps in the occupational world. The set forth hypothesis, thereby, is validated.

About the jobs prestige, both genders manifest performing prestigious and less admired jobs. The males are portrayed as king and prince as well as butcher and woodcutter. Similarly, the females are portrayed as queen and princess as well as shepherd and servant in a palace. This gender representation is creative and it treats both genders equally as it does advocate the view that both the males and the females can take part in the prestigious as well as the light-weight occupations. That way, the hypothesis of the study is not proved.

As far as the domestic roles are concerned, the males are depicted in more outdoor roles than in indoor ones because 09 out of 12 of their domestic roles are linked to the outdoor sphere. However, the females appear in more indoor roles than in outdoor ones because 10 out of 16 of their roles are linked to taking care and the indoor sphere. These findings were already reached in the early research. Such stereotypical depiction legitimizes the traditional social division of the domestic responsibilities between both genders where the indoor domestic world is expected to be feminine and the outdoor domestic world is expected to be masculine. In so doing, the tackled hypothesis in the present study is backed up.

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2.2.2.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 23 indicate that females' portrayal is bias-free because there are more mixed-gender interactions than female-female interactions in the textbooks. This finding is original and it pictures the females as a central and important social group rather than a minor and isolated one. That way, the advanced hypothesis is confirmed.

2.2.2.4. Linguistic Bias

The findings in table 24 indicate that the textbooks are linguistically biased by means of four forms. First, the job names 'man of politics/ homme de politique', 'rugby-man' and 'holymen/ saint homme' carry bias as they specify the job agent's gender as if the other gender cannot perform this job i.e. they eliminate the women from these jobs.

Second, the titles 'Mr/ Monsieur' and 'Miss/ Demoiselles' are biased because they do not address the males and the females fairly. They take only the females' marital state into consideration, but they ignore the males'. Moreover, such marital titles make the women subordinate to men.

Third, the generic term 'man/ homme' which is also biased because it is generally used to include both genders, but it, in fact, it evokes only the masculine image in the minds.

Finally, the objectification term 'little/ petit/ petite' which carries bias because it trivializes the persons who are attributed such term, but in this case, both genders are fairly attributed such terms. This makes these terms unbiased.

Therefore, the use of the above first two biased linguistic forms were also got in the prior research. In this case, the articulated hypothesis is confirmed. However, using the term

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‘little’ to address both genders equally is an original representation. Thereby, the advance hypothesis is infirmed.

2.2.3. English Textbooks

2.2.3. 1. Invisibility

2.2.3.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 25 indicate that the males are more visible than the females as the male characters’ presence in the textbooks outnumbers the female characters’ (M: F= 160:128). Although the gap is not so large, such gender representation remains biased against the females. This finding, in a way or in another, is identical to those of the previous studies. Such representation doesn’t affront the social gender structure. On the contrary, it merely transports males’ social dominance and females’ social invisibility to school textbooks. In this way, the articulated research hypothesis is asserted.

2.2.3.1.b. Firstness

The results in table 26 indicate the males are more visible than the females because the masculine nouns occur in the first position 19 times, while the feminine ones occur 14 times in such position. This finding merely corresponds to what the prior research found. Such gender positioning in the pairs has the effect of enhancing and reproducing the secondary status that the females suffer from in the society. Therefore, the presented hypothesis is confirmed.

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2.2.3.2. Gender Stereotypes

2.2.3.2. a. Traits

The results in table 27 indicate that the males are portrayed more positive than the females. The males appear as unkind and the females appear as impatient and insane. The males' negative traits compose only 3.03% of their whole personal traits, but for the females', it is 20%. These percentages convey the meaning that the females are characterized less positively than the males. This portrayal matches with the past research findings and it invites for spreading negative attitudes towards the females among the learners. So, the research hypothesis is confirmed.

About the emotional traits, the males are portrayed more emotional than the females. The males are characterized as friendly, loving, compassionate and loyal while females as only friendly. This portrayal is inventive and it promotes for the thought that emotionality is not associated only with the females; however, it also be found in the males. The set forth hypothesis, thereby, is infirmed.

Rationally, the males are portrayed more rational than the females. The males appear as clever, so smart, mature, genius and thoughtful; however, the females appear without any rationality associated features. This gender portrayal is just a repetition of the prior research findings and it revives the gender stereotypical expectation that the rationality is a masculine quality. In so doing, the research hypothesis is emphasized.

Physically, the females are portrayed having more beauty features than the males. The females are described as pretty, charming, chic, elegant, and nice; however, the males are described as only handsome. Regarding the physical strength, the males are portrayed owning more strength traits than the females. The males are shown as having a well-built body and

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having unbreakable hands, but the females appear without any strength-associated traits.

Thus, associating the beauty qualities mainly with the females and the strength qualities completely with the males was also found in the prior studies and it is stereotypically-loaded because it supports the traditional expectations that beauty is presumed to be a feminine quality and strength is a masculine one. The advanced hypothesis is, therefore, confirmed.

2.2.3.2. b. Occupational Roles

The results in table 28 indicate that the persistence of females' misrepresentation at the level of the variety and the type of the professions performed. The males are portrayed in more various roles than the females because the males' jobs are 78, but the females' are only 22. Moreover, the females are portrayed in more taking care professions than the males. The females appear as nurse, teacher, doctor, dietitian, waitress and flight attendant and the males appear as a teacher, doctor, veterinarian, waiter, physician and surgeon. Although the females' taking care roles are equal to those of the males, the females' form 27.27% of their entire professional role, but it is only 7.69% for the males'. Thus, the females' professions are more linked to taking care than the males'. Such gender portrayal is not original, it is just similar to the early research findings. Furthermore, it reinforces the social expectations about the gender roles rather than challenging them. In so doing, what is hypothesized in this research is validated.

Regarding the prestige of the professions, both genders appear occupying prestigious and less esteemed professions. The males occupy professions of king and Sultan as well as shoemaker and weaver. Similarly, the females occupy professions of queen and a judge as well as chauffeuse and Imzad player. This males' and females' fair portrayal is original and it promotes for the conceptions that neither the prestigious positions nor the less prestigious

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ones are gender-determined. It, in fact, denotes that such two sorts of jobs can be occupied by both genders. So, the hypothesis is infirmed.

Domestically, the males are represented mostly in outdoor domestic roles, except one role of doing homework, but the females mostly in indoor and taking care ones because 05 out of 9 of their roles are associated with taking care and indoor. Such gender portrayal goes in the same line with the past studies findings and it reinforces the traditional social division of the domestic roles between both genders where the outdoor activities are expected to be males' responsibility and the indoor and the taking care activities are expected to be the females' responsibility. Hence, the indicated research hypothesis is validated.

2.2.3.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 29 indicate that balance is nearly achieved between the mixed-gender interactions and the ones which take place between the females themselves because there are 15 cross-gender interactions and 14 female-female ones. Such balanced gender representation remains original and it transmits the thought that the females are as important individuals as the males. Thereby, this portrayal puts the females at the centre of the society rather than at its margins and the hypothesis, in this way, is negated.

2.2.3.4. Linguistic Bias

The results in table 30 confirm the persistence of the linguistic bias in such textbooks in four forms. Firstly, the use of the names of jobs namely 'dustman', 'policeman', 'policewoman' and 'caveman' carries sexism because these names of jobs contain the suffix 'man'. This suffix specifies the gender of the job doer.

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Secondly, employing the titles ‘Mr’, ‘Mrs’, and ‘Miss’ which also convey sexism since they address only the women by their marital status and they overlook the men’s. This way of addressing both genders is biased as it treats the women as objects to be owned by men.

Thirdly, the use of the generic terms ‘man’ and ‘fatherland’ is also biased as they evoke the masculine image in the minds of the recipients and this leads to females’ invisibility.

Fourthly, the use of the marked term ‘female cousin’ also convey bias because putting the term ‘female’ before the term cousin indicate that its use is marked and exceptional.

Finally, the use of the objectification terms ‘little’ to address the males and ‘sweetheart’ to address the females are also biased expressions because the former term belittles the men, and the last one objectifies the women.

The use of such five linguistically-biased forms doesn’t differ from what has been found by the past studies and it strongly validates the research hypothesis.

2.3.The Secondary School Textbooks

2.3.1. Arabic Textbooks

2.3.1.1.Invisibility

2.3.1.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 31 indicate that the males are strikingly overrepresented and the females are underrepresented (M: F= 955: 123). This prominent gap between the number of the male and the female characters really corresponds to the early research findings and it

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strongly fosters societal gender structure where the men enjoy visibility and dominance and the women suffer from invisibility and subordination. Moreover, it confirms what is hypothesized in the present research.

2.3.1.1. b. Firstness

The results in table 32 indicate the males' visibility over the females. The gender pairs which start with the masculine nouns outnumber the ones starting with the feminine nouns. The masculine nouns take the first position 23 times in the gender pairs, but the feminine nouns take the first position only 14 times. Such placement of the males mostly in the first position and the females mostly in the second one matches with the findings of the previous studies and it supports the societal gender order i.e. males' dominance and females' subordination.

2.3.1.2. Gender Stereotypes

2.3.1.2. a. Traits

The results in table 33 indicate that the males are represented as positive as the females. The males are attributed eight negative personal traits which are cowardly, tyrant, libertine, careless, sordid, hypocrite, naughty and idiot, but the females are attributed only three negative traits which are scold, bad and fatuously. Although the males' negative traits outnumber the females', it can be said that the negative attributes are fairly distributed amongst both genders because females' negative traits form 11.53% of their entire personal traits and the males' form 12.12%. This trivial difference is interpreted as fairness. Portraying both genders as fairly positive really differs from what has been found in the prior research

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and it has positive effects in the sense that it encourages for spreading positive attitudes toward both genders equally among the learners. Besides; it invalidates the advanced hypothesis.

As far as the emotional traits are concerned, the females are represented more emotional than the males. The males are depicted having three emotional traits, compassionate, soft-hearted and loveable, while the females are depicted having two emotional traits, tender-hearted and compassionate. Even though the males' emotional traits are more numerous than the females', the females' emotional traits occupy 7.69% of their entire personal traits, but it is only 4.54% for the males'. Furthermore, the males are depicted more rational than the females because the males are termed as stager, wise, knowledgeable, mature, shrewd and sane-minded, but the females are termed as only cultivated.

These findings regarding the emotional and the rational features don't vary from the prior ones. Moreover, portraying the females in terms of emotionality and the males in terms of rationality legitimizes the social stereotypical expectancies that expect the females to be emotional and the males to be rational. The set forth hypothesis is, thereby, strongly validated.

Regarding the physical traits, the females are portrayed owning more beauty features than the males. The females appear as elegant, beautiful, having beautiful and large eyes, having large space between the shoulder and the ear (sign of beauty), having beautiful and large eyes, having a beautiful spot on the palm (sign of beauty), pretty and stunner, while the males appear as handsome and having a pretty face. About the physical strength traits, the males are featured as strong-bodied and having a strong skin, while the females appear having no strength features at all.

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Portraying the females in terms of beauty and the males in terms of physical strength is merely a copy of the past research findings and it allows the persistence of the gender stereotypes about the physical appearance of both genders where the females are supposed to be beautiful and the males to be physically strong. Moreover, it asserts what is being hypothesized in this research.

2.3.1.2. b. Occupational Roles

The results in table 34 indicate that the females are misrepresented at the level of the enumeration and the kind of the professions performed. Firstly, there is a big gap in the distribution of the professions amongst both genders where the males perform 186 professions and the females perform only 19 professions. Secondly, despite of the variety of their professions, the males are depicted in only two taking care professions, teacher and doctor. On the contrary, despite of the limited number of their professions, the females are depicted in four taking care professions, teacher, nurse, servant and slave-woman.

Representing the males in a an excessive number of jobs which are rarely linked to taking care while the females in a finite number of jobs which are linked to taking care more than the males' is not a creative finding, it is just a copy of the previous research findings. Furthermore, it advocates the social labour expectancy that the professional world is supposed to be masculine and the females are expected to occupy the taking care roles in such masculine world. In this manner, the hypothesis is affirmed.

About the prestige of the occupational roles, both genders are equally represented as both of them occupy prestigious and less influential occupations. The males appear as Sultan

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and caliph as well as hunter and weaver. Similarly, the females appear as queen and writer as well as servant and slave-woman.

Portraying both genders doing prestigious and less prestigious roles is inventive and it communicates the idea that the prestige of the occupations is not gender-determined. On the contrary, it is reachable by both genders. Thence, the hypothesis is rejected.

Moving to the domestic roles, the females are completely represented in indoor roles except the role of visiting the parents tomb which is an outdoor role. However, the males are represented in indoor and outdoor roles jointly.

Representing the females acting mostly in the indoor sphere overlaps with what was reached in the previous studies and it communicates the stereotype that the domestic world should be feminine. In this way, the hypothesis is confirmed. However, representing the males in as many outdoor roles as indoor ones is original and not stereotypical and it challenges the expectation which claims that the males should act in outdoor only. In so doing, the research hypothesis is confirmed.

2.3.1.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 35 indicate that the females are represented in unbiased way. They appear participating mainly in intergroup interactions. This females' representation is inventive and it helps to see the women as central individuals rather than peripheral ones. In so doing, the hypothesis is validated.

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2.3.1.4. Linguistic Bias

The results of table 36 indicate that the textbooks are linguistically biased. They contain many instances of the linguistic bias. Firstly, the term ‘slave-woman/ جارية’ is denigrating because it considers the females as objects of sex serving the man in the different needs.

Secondly, the names of jobs namely ‘firemen/ رجال المطافىء’, ‘clergymen/ رجال الدين’, ‘intellectual men/ رجال الفكر’, ‘statesmen/ رجال الدولة’, ‘man of reform /رجال الاصلاح’, ‘moneymen/ رجال المال’, ‘businessman/رجال الاعمال’, ‘intellectual men/رجال الفكر’ and ‘merchantmen/رجال التجارة’ is linguistically-biased as such names are accompanied with the suffix “man”. This suffix conveys the meaning that only the men can do such jobs.

Thirdly, the use of marriage titles ‘Mr/ السيد’ and ‘Mrs/ السيدة’ also communicates linguistic bias because they take into consideration only the females’ marital status and they disregard the males’. Thereby, they make the women as objects to be owned by the males.

Fourthly, the use of the generic term ‘man/الرجل’ is also biased as it evokes the masculine image and it puts the feminine one in the background. So, it leads to women’s invisibility.

Finally, the objectification terms ‘darling/عزيزي/عزيزتي’ is used in these textbooks to address both genders and ‘sweetheart/ is used to address only the males. The first term is interpreted as unbiased because it is used to address both genders equally; however, the second term is biased because it is used only to address the males. It, thereby, objectifies them.

Employing all these above biased form of the language merely corresponds to the past studies findings and it validates the presented research hypothesis. However, the use the term

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‘darling’ to address both genders is an original representation and it invalidates the research hypothesis.

2.3.2. French Textbooks

2.3.2.1. Invisibility

2.3.2.1. a . The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 37 indicate that the males are overrepresented and the females are underrepresented because there is a great imbalance in the distribution of the gender characters throughout the textbooks (M: F= 349: 102). This gender representation is identical to those findings of the past research and it has the impact of keeping the prevailing social order which is based on man’s dominance and woman’s invisibility. So, the research hypothesis is asserted.

2.3.2.1. b. Firstness

The results in table 38 indicate that the males are more visible than the females as the masculine names occur eleven times at the first position in the gender pairs, but the feminine names occur first only four times. This gender positioning, in fact, doesn’t deviate from what was found in the previous research. Moreover, it does reflect and sustain the societal gender positioning where the males occupy a primary status and the females are placed in a secondary status. Thus, the hypothesis is confirmed.

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2.3.2.2. Gender Stereotypes

2.3.2.2. A. Traits

The results in table 39 indicate that the males are represented as positive as the females. The males are described as dishonest, rarely smiling and never laughing and the females as malicious, stupid, tyrant and savage. Though the females' negative traits outnumber the males', both gender' negative traits compose 25% of their total personal traits. Such portrayal of gender is creative and it can have the effect of communicating a more positive image about both genders to the textbooks users. The hypothesis, in this way, is infirmed.

Regarding the emotional traits, the females are portrayed more emotional than the males. The females manifest as having a kind heart and loveable, but the males appear as only sensitive. This finding is just a copy of that of the prior studies. Moreover, associating emotionality mainly with the females is stereotypical in the sense that it advocates the social expectation that emotionality should be correlating with femininity. The articulated research hypothesis is, thereby, confirmed.

Rationally, the males are depicted as rational as the females. Both of them are attributed one rational trait. The males appear as intelligent and the females appear as sane. The males' rational traits represent 8.33% of their entire personal traits and the females' represent 6.25%. This small difference is interpreted as fairness. Representing both genders fairly sharing rational traits is divergent from most of the previous research findings. It is not stereotypical and it promotes for the idea that rationality is not a gender-specific quality, but it can rather be a shared one. This way, the research hypothesis is invalidated.

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Physically, the females are represented having more beauty traits than the males. The females are characterized as beautiful and elegant, while the males as only having beautiful eyes. About the physical strength traits, the females are portrayed having more strength than the males. The females are described as huge, but the males appear without any strength traits. Portraying the females with more beauty features than the males is stereotypical and it boosts the social expectations about the females' physical appearance that they should be beautiful. The research hypothesis is, thereby, confirmed. However, portraying the females in terms physical strength is an inventive portrayal and it strongly defies the stereotypical expectations about the females' bodies where the females are supposed to be beautiful, but not to be physically strong. The articulated hypothesis, thereby, is rejected.

2.3.2.2. b. Occupational Roles

The results in table 40 indicate that the females are misrepresented regarding both the enumeration and the kind of the occupational roles performed. Firstly, the males' professions greatly outnumber females'. The males occupy 82 jobs, while the females are assigned only 13 jobs. Secondly, despite the variety of the males' jobs and the limitedness of the females', the females appear in more taking care professions than the males. The females are portrayed in three taking care professions, teacher, nurse and kitchen woman, while the males appear in only two taking care professions, teacher and doctor. Such females' misrepresentation doesn't diverge from what the past research found and it is stereotypical because it merely maintain the social binary labour division amongst the males and the females where the occupational world is expected to be masculine-dominated and the females suit to occupy taking care occupations. Therefore, the research hypothesis is confirmed.

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As far as the prestige of the occupational roles is concerned, both the males and the females are equally represented. Both of them appear in high-status and less esteemed roles. The males are depicted in the roles of king and minister as well as in the roles of baker and worker at the port. Similarly, the females are also depicted in the roles of governess and manager as well as in the role of a kitchen woman. This representation is original and it communicates the thought that the prestigious and the minor roles are not gender-specified. On the contrary, both types of roles are reachable by the males and the females. Hence, the hypothesis is rejected.

As regards the domestic roles, the females are misrepresented as they are fully depicted in indoor and taking care activities except in one outdoor activity which is going to school. However, the males appear in as many indoor roles as outdoor ones. Representing the females mostly in indoor merely duplicates what the previous studies found and it strongly reproduces the societal expectations about the domestic labour of the females where the females are expected to act in indoor. Such representation validates the set forth hypothesis. However, representing the males in indoor world as well in outdoor world is inventive and it resists the social expectation that the males are supposed to act in the outdoor world. Hence, the research hypothesis is invalidated.

2.3.2.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 41 indicate that the females' portrayal is far from being biased because the textbooks interactions are mainly mixed-gender ones. This unbiased representation is original and it invites for the conception that the women are highly integrated and central society members. Thereby, the research hypothesis is validated.

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2.3.2.4. Linguistic Bias

The results about linguistic bias indicate that the linguistic bias is present in the textbooks in terms of four shapes. Firstly, the job name ‘kitchen woman/ femme de cuisine’ is biased in the meaning that it determines the gender of the job doer. This determination associates such job to the women only and it excludes the men from doing it.

Secondly, the use of the marriage titles ‘Miss/ Mademoiselle’, ‘Mrs/ Madame’ and ‘Mr/ Monsieur’ is also biased because such titles do not treat the males and the females equally. They display only females’ marital situation and they overlook males’ as if only the women are obliged to marry. In so doing, these titles treat the women as objects of marriage.

Thirdly, using the generic term ‘man’ and ‘father’ is also biased, it, in fact, brings to mind the masculine patterns and it drops back the feminine ones. Thereby, it leads to women’s invisibility.

Finally, the objectification term ‘little/ petit/ petite’ which are biased only when they are used in addressing one gender. However, in this case, these terms are used to address both genders. Thus, they are not biased in this context.

Thence, using such forms of linguistic bias in the textbooks doesn’t deviate from the past studies findings and it merely backs up the research hypothesis. However, the use of the terms ‘little/ petit/ petite’ is inventive. Therefore, the research hypothesis is invalidated.

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2.3.3. English Textbooks

2.3.3.1. Invisibility

2.3.3.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

The results in table 43 indicate that the males are overrepresented and the females are underrepresented because the presence of the male characters in the textbooks is excessive and the female characters' is finite (M: F= 421: 173). This gender representation is just a copy of what the past research found and it fosters men's societal dominance and women's invisibility. Thereby, the research hypothesis is confirmed.

2.3.3.1. b. Firstness

The results in table 44 indicate that the males are more visible than the females as the masculine names dominate most of the gender pairs i.e. twenty-three of the gender pairs are male-dominated and seventeen of them begin with feminine names. This positioning of the masculine patterns mostly at the first status and the feminine ones mostly at the second status is not original, it is just a duplication of the findings of the prior studies. Moreover, it maintains the gender structure in the society where the men occupy the primary status while the secondary status is left to the women. In so doing, the advanced hypothesis is validated.

2.3.3.2. Gender Stereotypes

2.3.3.2. a. Traits

The results in table 45 indicate that the females are represented more positive than the males because the males' negative traits outnumber the females'. The males are attributed

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eight negative traits, lazy, improvident, incapable of bringing food to his wife and children, heavy smoker, recluse, jealous, cruel and insane. However, the females are attributed only two negative traits, stupid and mad. Such positive depiction of the females is creative and it promotes for a more positive conception of the females in the real world.

Emotionally, the females are portrayed more emotional than the males. The females are termed as cordial, loyal and friendly, while the males appear without any emotional trait. This finding doesn't differ from what the previous studies found and it is just a reproduction of the social expectancies about the females to be more emotional. So, it validates what is hypothesized in this study.

Rationally, the females are portrayed more rational than the males. The females are characterized as keen of mind and bright, but the males manifest as only intelligent. Portraying the females in terms of rationality is original and it communicates the conception that rationality can also be a feminine quality. The presented hypothesis is, in this way, invalidated.

Regarding the physical features, the females are portrayed in terms of beauty features more than the males. The females are shown as pretty, elegant, beautiful, and nice, but the males are characterized as only handsome. Associating a variety of beauty traits with the females is just a replication of the stereotype that beauty is believed to be a feminine quality. Furthermore, it backs up the research hypothesis.

About the physical strength, both genders are represented in terms of strength traits. The males are shown having as many strength features as the females. The males appear as huge, while the females appear as strong. Associating strength with both genders is inventive. It defies the social expectations and it communicates the thought that both genders can share strength qualities. Thence, what is hypothesized in this study is negated.

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2.3.3.2. b. Occupational Roles

The results in table 46 indicate that the females are misrepresented in terms of the distribution and the type of the jobs. Firstly, the males occupy an excessive number of jobs which reaches 150 jobs while the females appear in a limited number of jobs reaches 21 jobs. Secondly, the females are depicted in four taking care roles, teacher, cardiologist, nurse and airhostess and the males are depicted in three taking care roles doctor, waiter and veterinary surgeon. Despite of being limited, the females' roles are more associated with taking care than the males'. Such finding doesn't deviate from what was found in the prior studies and it is highly stereotypical in the meaning that it supports the social expectations which suppose that the professional domain is males' while the females are merely supposed to perform a limited number of jobs that have to do with taking care. The hypothesis is, in this manner, asserted.

About the prestige, both genders are equally represented. Both of them occupy influential and less influential occupations. The males appear in influential occupations as Czar and prince as well as in less influential ones as waiter and electrician. Similarly, the females appear in influential occupations as manager and chemical engineer as well as in less influential ones as worker and music hall performer. Hence, such finding differs from those of the previous research. It is not stereotypical and it invites for the conception that both types of occupations are accessible by the males and the females. The hypothesis is, therefore, invalidated.

Domestically, the females are misrepresented because 09 out of 12 of their domestic roles are linked to indoor and taking care. Such representation is similar to the past studies findings and it advocates the social expectancy that the females should act in the indoor sphere. In so doing, the research hypothesis is affirmed.

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However, the males are depicted in as many outdoor roles as indoor ones. Males' depiction in both the outdoor and the indoor spheres is creative and it is far from being stereotypical. It, in fact, communicates the idea the males do not act only in the outdoor, but they also can act in the indoor. The advanced hypothesis is, therefore, negated.

2.3.3.3. Gender Interaction

The results in table 47 indicate that the females' portrayal is not biased because they appear mostly in mixed-gender interactions and rarely in female-female interactions. This females' portrayal is, in fact, original and it challenges the view that the women are marginal and peripheral society members. In so doing, the research hypothesis is validated.

2.3.3.4. Linguistic Bias

The results of table 48 indicate that the textbooks are not free from linguistic bias. This bias appears in the form of five types. Firstly, the use of the names of jobs, 'fisherman', 'horseman', 'policeman', 'foreman', 'businessman', 'sporting man', 'craftsman', 'spokesman', 'clergyman', 'chairman' and 'merchantman', conveys bias because they appoint the gender of the job performer. This gender specification, in fact, eliminates the other gender, the woman, from occupying such jobs.

Secondly, the use of marriage titles 'Mr', 'Mrs' and 'Miss' also carry bias in the sense that they address only the women, but not the men, through their marital status. They, in this way, reinforce women' dependency to the men.

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Thirdly, the generic terms ‘man’, ‘mankind’ and ‘grandfathers’ is as well biased because it brings to the mind the masculine patterns and it puts the feminine ones in the background. It, therefore, leads to women’s invisibility.

Fourthly, the marked terms ‘female employee’ and ‘female guitarist’ also communicate bias because adjusting the term ‘female’ before the names of jobs points out that it is unusual for the females to occupy such jobs.

Finally, the term ‘little’ which is used to address only the females is also biased because it belittles the women.

Thence, employing these five forms of sexist language in the textbooks doesn’t deviate from the previous research findings. It, in fact, backs up what is hypothesized in this study.

3. Comparison

3.1. The Primary School Textbooks: Arabic and French Textbooks

Not all the Arabic Primary School textbooks take part in this comparison. Only the 3rd, the 4th and the 5th year Arabic textbooks are compared to the 3rd, the 4th and the 5th year French textbooks because the learners start learning French till the 3rd year.

3.1. 1. Invisibility

3.1.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

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The females are depicted more invisible than the males in both the Arabic and French textbooks (M: F= 259:111) and (M: F= 166:142) respectively. But, it is the gap between the number of the male and the female characters which makes the difference. The gap in the Arabic textbooks is bigger than in the French ones. It is one-hundred- forty- eight in the Arabic textbooks, but in the French textbooks it is only twenty-four. Thus, the females are more invisible in the Arabic textbooks than in the French ones.

3.1.1. b. Firstness

In both textbooks, the females are more invisible than the males. However, the gap which persists between the number of the gender pairs which begin with masculine nouns and the ones which begin with feminine nouns differs. When subtracting the pairs starting with feminine nouns from the ones starting with masculine nouns, it is found that the gap in the Arabic textbooks is larger than in the French textbooks. In the Arabic textbooks, it is nine, but it is only two in the French textbooks. Hence, the females are more invisible in the Arabic textbooks than in the French ones.

3.1.2. Gender Stereotypes

3.1.2. a. Traits

The Arabic and the French textbooks carry some stereotypes regarding the personal and the physical traits of both genders. Yet, the extent of such gender stereotypes throughout these textbooks varies. Firstly, the French textbooks communicate gender stereotypes about the emotional, beauty and strength traits, but the Arabic textbooks, communicate stereotypes only about the emotional and strength traits. Hence, although the Arabic and the French

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textbooks are jointly gender stereotypical, the French textbooks remain more stereotypical than the Arabic textbooks.

3.1.2. b. Occupational Roles

The Arabic textbooks contain as many gender stereotypes as the French textbooks about the occupational roles. Both of these textbooks carry stereotypes about, the distribution of the occupations amongst the males and the females, taking care occupations association, and the domestic roles division. Put differently, in both textbooks, the males are portrayed performing more various occupations than the females, the females perform more taking care occupations than the males and the males act in the outdoor, but the females in the indoor. In sum, the Arabic textbooks are as gender stereotypical as the French ones.

3.1.3. Fragmentation

The females are represented in an unbiased way in both textbooks where the females contribute in more mixed-gender interactions than in female-female ones. Nevertheless, it is always the count which makes the difference. In another way, the females' contribution in the mixed-gender interactions in the French textbooks is larger than in the Arabic textbooks. The females appear in fifty -nine mixed-gender interactions in the French textbooks, but in fifty-six such interactions in the Arabic textbooks. Hence, the female's portrayal in the French textbooks is more unbiased than in the Arabic ones.

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3.1.4. Linguistic Bias

Both textbooks are linguistically biased, but the Arabic textbooks are more biased than the French ones. The Arabic textbooks contain four forms of linguistic bias, which are about the names of jobs, the titles, the generic 'man' and the objectification terms, while the French textbooks contain only two linguistic bias forms which are about the titles and the objectification terms. Consequently, the Arabic textbooks are more linguistically-biased than the French ones.

3.2. The Middle School Textbooks: The Arabic, French and English Textbooks

3.2. 1. Invisibility

3.2.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

The Females are more invisible than the males in all the three textbooks, but the gap between the number of the male and the female characters always creates the difference. Subtracting the number of the female characters from the number of the male characters, it is found that the females are the most invisible in the French textbooks as the gap reaches one-hundred- seventy-three. Then, Arabic the textbooks come at the second position with a gap of one-hundred- forty-two. Finally, the English textbooks come at the bottom with a gap of thirty-two. In sum, the females are the most invisible in the French textbooks and they are the least invisible in the English textbooks while they are in between the Arabic textbooks.

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3.2.1. b. Firstness

The males are more visible than the females in the entire textbooks, but they differ in the gap that appears between the number of the gender pairs that start with masculine nouns and the ones that start with feminine nouns. The largest gap is found in the Arabic textbooks where all the gender pairs are masculine-dominated. Then, the French textbooks come at the second position with a gap of six. Finally, the English textbooks occupy the last position with a gap of five. Thus, the females are the most invisible in the Arabic textbooks and they are the least invisible in the English textbooks while they are in between in the French textbooks.

3.2.2. Gender Stereotypes

3.2.2. a. Traits

All the three textbooks carry gender stereotypes regarding the personal and the physical features, but in different degrees. The English textbooks are more stereotypical than the Arabic and the French textbooks because the English textbooks convey stereotypes about four features, but the Arabic as well as the French textbooks convey stereotypes about only three features. The English textbooks communicate stereotypes as regards the negative, rational, beauty and strength features. Concerning the Arabic and the French textbooks, the Arabic textbooks transmit stereotypes about the emotional, rational and strength features and the French textbooks carry stereotypes regarding the emotional, beauty and strength features. In sum, the English textbooks convey more gender stereotypes than the Arabic and the French textbooks.

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3.2.2. b. Occupational Roles

All the three textbooks carry gender stereotypes regarding the occupational and the domestic roles equally. The Arabic, French and the English textbooks jointly transmit stereotypes about the jobs distribution between the male and the female characters, the kind of the professions performed, and about the indoor and the outdoor domestic activities. In other words, all the textbooks portray the males in more various roles than the females, the females' roles more associated with taking care than the males', and the males mostly in outdoor domestic activities, but the females mostly in indoor and taking care activities. Therefore, the Arabic, the French and the English textbooks are equally gender stereotypical.

3.2.3. Fragmentation

The Arabic, French and English textbooks represent the females in an unbiased way. At the meantime, the difference manifests at the level of the number of the intergroup interactions. The Arabic textbooks are the most unbiased ones as they portray the females in sixteen cross-gender interactions. Then, the English textbooks come in the next place with fifteen cross-gender interactions. Finally, the French textbooks come last with twelve such interactions. Hence, the Arabic textbooks are the most unbiased ones and the French textbooks are the least unbiased one, while the English textbooks take the in between position.

3.2.4. Linguistic Bias

The linguistic bias is persistent in all the three textbooks, but in different degrees. The English textbooks contain five forms of linguistic bias, which are linked to the names of jobs,

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the titles and the exceptional, generic and the objectification terms. Then, the French textbooks come in the next position with four linguistic bias forms which are linked to names of jobs, titles and the generic and the objectification terms. Lastly, the Arabic textbooks contain three forms of linguistic bias which are related to the names of jobs, the titles and the objectification terms. Thus, the English textbooks are the most linguistically-biased and the Arabic textbooks are the least linguistically- biased, while the French textbooks come in the middle position.

3.3. The Secondary School Textbooks: Arabic, French and English Textbooks

3.3.1. Invisibility

3.3.1. a. The Frequency of Occurrence

The males are more visible than the females in all the three textbooks. However, there is a difference at the level of the number of the male and the females where the gap is sometimes larger. The largest gap occurs at the Arabic textbooks where it reaches eight-hundreds- thirty-two. The English textbooks come afterward with a gap of two-hundred- forty-eight. Then, the French textbooks take the last place with a gap of two-hundred- forty-seven. Therefore, the females are the most invisible in the Arabic textbooks and they are the least invisible in the French textbooks and they are in between invisible in the English textbooks.

3.3.1. b. Firstness

The males are more visible than the females in all the three textbooks; however, in different degrees. Counting the gap between the number of the pairs beginning with

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masculine nouns and the ones beginning with feminine nouns, it is found that in the largest gap occurs at the level of the Arabic textbooks, it reaches nine. Then, the French textbooks come at the second status with a gap of seven. Finally, the English textbooks occupy the last status with a gap of six. Hence, the females are more invisible in the Arabic textbooks, the least invisible in the English textbooks, and in between invisible in the French textbooks.

3.3. 2. Gender Stereotypes

3.3.2. a. Traits

All the three textbooks are gender stereotypical regarding the personal and the physical traits. It is found that the Arabic textbooks are the most gender stereotypical ones because they transmit stereotypes about the emotional, rational, beauty and strength traits where the females are portrayed more emotional and having more beauty traits than the males and the males are portrayed more rational and having more strength traits than the females. Then, the English and French textbooks take the next position holding stereotypes about the emotional and the beauty traits. Therefore, the Arabic textbooks are more gender stereotypical than the French and English textbooks.

3.3.2. b. Occupational Roles

All the textbooks transmit stereotypes equally about the occupations that both genders perform. The Arabic, French and English textbooks jointly carry stereotypes about the variety and the kind of the occupations textbooks, but regarding the domestic roles they are not entirely stereotypical i.e. they convey stereotypes only about the females' domestic roles

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while the males are portrayed in both outdoor and indoor domestic roles. Thence, the Arabic, French and English are fairly stereotypical.

3.3.3. Fragmentation

The females' representation is not biased in all the three textbooks; however, this unbiased representation differs from one language textbook to another. The Arabic textbooks are the most unbiased ones as they contain thirty-four mixed-gender interactions. Then, the French textbooks take the second position with eighteen mixed-gender interactions. Finally, the English textbooks occupy the last position with sixteen such interactions. Thence, the Arabic textbooks are the most unbiased, the English textbooks are the least unbiased, and the French textbooks are medium unbiased.

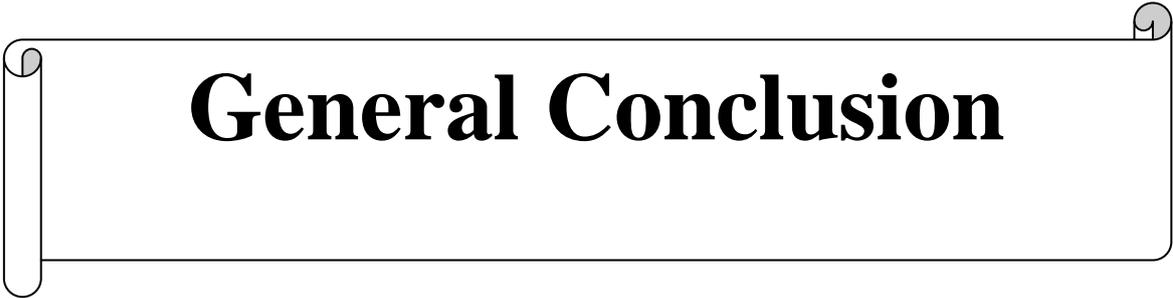
3.3.4. Linguistic Bias

The three textbooks communicate linguistic bias, but in different degrees. The Arabic and the English textbooks hold five forms of linguistic bias, while the French textbooks hold four linguist bias forms. Firstly, the Arabic textbooks linguistic bias is linked to denigration, the names of jobs, the titles, the generic and the objectification terms. Second, the English textbooks bias is linked to the names of jobs, the titles, the generic, the exceptional terms and the objectification terms. Lastly, the French textbooks come at the next position with four linguistic bias forms which are linked to the names of jobs, the titles and the generic and the objectification terms. Consequently, the Arabic and the English textbooks are more linguistically-biased than the French textbooks.

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Conclusion

This section is so important that it provides a thorough discussion of the research findings. This helps to uncover the way the selected school textbooks portray gender. Moreover, it draws clear lines between gender representation in Arabic, French and English textbooks through contrasting them to each other.



General Conclusion

General Conclusion

This section is devoted to a number of elements. First, the main findings of the present study are going to be summarized. Next, the main questions that have been raised in this study are going to be answered. After that, some recommendations are going to be presented. Finally, suggestions for future research are going to be advanced.

To begin with, the findings that have been reached in this study regarding the categories of invisibility, stereotyping, fragmentation and linguistic bias are going to be exposed briefly.

First, it was found that the females were represented more invisible than the males regarding both their frequency of occurrence and their occurrence in the gender pairs in all the textbooks, except in the French Primary School textbooks where the males were represented more invisible than the females concerning their positioning in the gender pairs.

Second, it was found that the females were represented more positive than the males in all the textbooks except in the English Middle School textbooks where the males were portrayed more positive than the females. Emotionally, the females were portrayed more emotional than the males in all the textbooks except in the English Middle School textbooks where the males were portrayed more emotional than the females. Regarding rationality, the males were represented more rational than the females in the Arabic and English Middle School textbooks and in the Arabic and French Secondary School textbooks. It was also found that both genders were portrayed equally rational in the French Middle School textbooks. Moreover, it was found that the females were portrayed more rational than the males. This was found in the Arabic and French Primary School as well as in the English Secondary School textbooks.

General Conclusion

Moving to the physical traits, the females were portrayed, firstly, having more beauty traits than strength traits in all the textbooks except the Arabic Middle School textbooks where the females were portrayed having neither beauty nor strength traits. Secondly, the males were portrayed having more strength traits than beauty traits the females in the entire Primary and Middle textbooks, but not in the Arabic, French and English Secondary School textbooks where the males were portrayed having as many strength traits as beauty traits.

As far as the occupational roles were concerned, the findings indicated that the females were misrepresented in terms of both the variety and the sort of the occupations in all the textbooks without exception. Regarding the prestige of the occupational roles, both genders appeared in both prestigious and less prestigious roles in all the textbooks without exception. Domestically, the males were portrayed in more outdoor roles than in indoor ones in both the Primary and the Middle School textbooks, but not in the Secondary School textbooks where the males were portrayed performing as many outdoor roles as indoor ones. However, the female were portrayed performing more indoor roles than outdoor ones in the entire textbooks without exception.

Thirdly, it was found that the females were portrayed participating in more mixed-gender dialogues than in female-female ones.

Finally, it was found that the entire school textbooks were not free from linguistic bias. All the linguistic biased forms, including denigration, names of jobs, marital titles, the generic, the marked and the objectification terms, persisted in the entire textbooks, but with different frequencies.

Concerning the section comparison, it was found: First, the females were the most invisible in the Arabic textbooks and the least invisible in the English textbooks while the

General Conclusion

French textbooks took the middle position regarding both the frequency of the male and the female characters and their position in the gender pairs.

Second, it was found that the English school textbooks were the most gender stereotypical and the French textbooks were the least stereotypical while the Arabic textbooks took the middle position regarding the traits. It was also found that the Arabic, French and English textbooks were equally stereotypical regarding the roles.

Thirdly, regarding the category of fragmentation, it was found that the French textbooks were the most unbiased and the English textbooks were the least unbiased while the Arabic textbooks took the middle position.

Finally, it was found that the English and the Arabic textbooks were more linguistically-biased than the French ones because both the Arabic and the English textbooks contained five forms of linguistic bias while the French textbooks contained four forms.

Answering the Research Questions

The present study aims at answering two main questions: The first question is how are the men and the women represented in the Algerian current Arabic, French and English school textbooks? This broad question attempts to provide an answer to whether these textbooks represent the males and the females equally or stereotypically, on the one hand, and whether the textbooks represent the women as an isolated group and whether the school textbooks are linguistically biased, on the other hand. The second question is which ones of these language school textbooks carry more gender bias?

The findings of the study showed that the under investigation textbooks were not free from gender bias regarding invisibility, stereotyping and linguistic bias, but not

General Conclusion

fragmentation. They represented the females more invisible and more stereotypical than the males and they used sexist language forms that undermine mostly the females. However, they represented the females in unbiased way regarding their interaction with the males.

Regarding comparison, it was found: First, the females were represented as the most invisible in the Arabic textbooks. Second, the English textbooks were the most gender stereotypical regarding the traits and the entire textbooks were equally gender stereotypical, regarding the roles. Third, the French textbooks were the most gender-unbiased regarding the interaction among both genders. Finally, the English and the Arabic textbooks were more linguistically-biased than the French ones. Thereby, the advanced hypotheses were most of the time confirmed. In sum, it can be said that all these language textbooks, regardless their generation, failed to a great extent to provide the learners with gender-fair language education.

Recommendations

From of the status of being a teacher and a researcher at the same time, I suggest some strategies when the Ministry of National Education and the teachers apply, gender bias in the school textbooks, at least, decreases. To begin with, the Ministry of Education had better make a guide for the textbooks designers about how to avoid bias with all its forms in such learning materials. Moreover, it had better organize seminars and workshops for the teachers to show them how to deal with bias and sexism in the textbooks whenever they exist.

Regarding the teachers, they should be aware of the way both genders are portrayed in the school textbooks including the stereotypical roles and traits that both genders are assigned and attributed respectively and they should use gender-neutral language instead of the sexist language forms which are persistent in the textbooks.

General Conclusion

Further research

To expand this study which dealt with comparing gender representation in the Arabic, French and English school textbooks only synchronically, it is recommended to also carry this study from a diachronic approach. Such diachronic study can be undertaken through examining the old generation Arabic, French and English school textbooks and comparing them to second generation ones which are investigated in the present research so as to see the extent to which extent the second generation textbooks series designers become aware of the gender element. Thus, the language school textbooks are a large site of research regarding not only the gender element, but also the other components of the identity like race, ethnicity, multiculturalism, age, etc.



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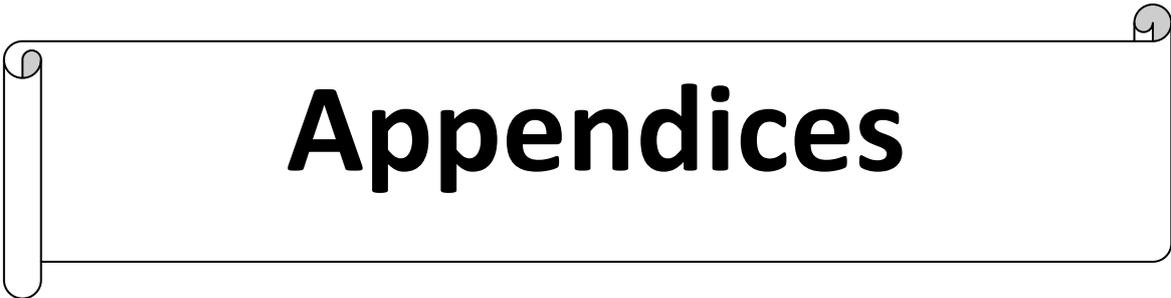
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Appendices

Appendix I

The Primary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
أحمد9- الاب10 -بلال 13- صديق بلال 13- الجد13- النجار 15- المعلم 35- المدير 39- حارس المرمى 65- حكم كرة القدم 65- الملاك 67- فاروق 65- طارق 65- - محفوظ69 -الطبيب93 -الخال 97- الرياضي 99	خديجة 9 - الأم10-المعلمة11- الجدة13- المعلمة بشرى29- التلميذة الجديدة42- العجوز50-زينب61- الممرضة63- الممرضة93- أم بلال101

Second Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
أب ليلي 10- المعلم 10- امين22- الجد 33- الأب 33- احمد 43- المجاهدان 43 - سي لخضر 45- أب سهام 52- العم 52- كريم 59- هشام 73- فؤاد 73- سمير 74- أب سمير 74-اللاعب 74- القائد 94- الصديق 94- فريد 95- أب فريد- سليمان 101- موظف شركة المياه 101- أب سليمان 101- هشام 107- المعلم 116- علي 116- الولد 126- أب منى 128- الطبيب 128-	الأم 9- ليلي 9- منى 11- المعلمة 16- سعاد 16- سلمى 31- أم سلمى 31- أخت سلمى- جارة سلمى 31- الجدة 33- 37- الأخت الكبرى 38- مريم 38-جدة سلمى 44- سهام 52- وداد 65- أم سهام 65- ياسمين 80- سندس 80- أم علي 11- أم أمين 121- أم سعاد

احمد 136- عم احمد 136- أب احمد 136- أمين	122- الطيبية 123- الطيبية
137- البهلوان 144- احمد 148- سليم 144-	124- أم منى 128 المعلمة 129-
أب احمد و سليم 144- جمال 158- أب جمال	الممرضة 129- حنان 142-
158- عون الاستقبال 158- عمر 163- أب	المنشطة 137- معلمة احمد 149-
سعاد 170	الأم 157- أم سعاد 164

Third Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
الولد 9- الأب 9- وسيم 10- حميد 10- الجد 10-	أم وسيم و حميد 10- الأم 13-
الأب 13- أب رزان 14- الخال 17- جمال 26-	رزان 14- أم رزان 14-
زهير 31- بائع الحلويات 34- التاجر 35- المتسول	الأرملة 26- الأم 26- الجارة
35- مروان 39- الأب 39- أكرم 43- عبد القادر	30- الجدة 31- أم زهير 31-
44- منير 46- عبد الرحمن 47- والد عبد الرحمن	أخت زهير 32- المعلمة 34-
47- عمر ياسف 48- المعلم 51- حمدي 52- أب	زوجة التاجر 35- أم التاجر
سيرين 56- مصطفى بن العربي 57- جان مارتن	35- معلمة أكرم 43- ذهبية
57- سوليناس 58- ياسف سعدي 58- إبراهيم	48- أم حمدي 52- سيرين
حجاج 58- جليلو بونتكورفو 58- الخال 59- سي	56- فوزية القادر 58- توما
لونيس 62- رامي 64- فادي 64- يوسف 77- الأب	سونيري 58- الأخت 68- نورة
77- عمر 77- رشاد 78- نزييم 82- الطبيب 81-	68- دنيا 77- نهلة 77 أم عمر
الطبيب 82- الاب 86- الفاكهاني 89- رسيم 90- ا	77- أم رشاد 78 – أم نزييم

ب رسيم 90- الوالد 91- طبيب الاطفال 91- موزار	81- أخت نزيـم 82- المعلمة 81
94- بيتهوفن 95- زرياب 95- القاضي 99-	- العمـة 86- الأم 86- الطبيبة
المسرحي 99- الزميل 99- سي محفوظ 105-	86- أم رسيم 90- الممرضة
ماهر 107- محمد راسم 109- حسين زياني 109-	91- المعلمة 91- داسين 94-
يوسف 111- والد يوسف 111- الابن البكر 112-	وفاء 95- سناء 95- الخالة
بيل 112- صياد السمك 115- الجد 116- عباس بن	الطاوس 102- الخالة رمانـة
فرناس 116- الاخوان دومغليي 116- عصام	103- جدة سيرين 103- عمـة
120- شهاب 124- بنز 125- دايلمر 125- جوزف	سيرين 104- الجدة 112-
كونيو 125- أب سعاد 128- جون 129- أوكوث	المرأة 112- - أخت عصام
133- جد- أوكوث 133- الجد البحار 136-	120- أم شهاب 124- سعاد
سندباد 136- حسن 137	128- أم - أوكوث 133-
	العجوز 136

Fourth Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
أب حورية 10- المدير 10- المدرس 10- عمر 12-	حورية 9- رجاء 10- أم
سمير 13- أمين 14- ملك 15- الجد 17- الشيخ 17-	سمير 13- ملكة 15-
الشيخ العجوز 18- سالم 22- والد سالم 22- الرجل الغني	المعلمة 17- الأم 17-
22- نيلسون مانديلا 23- محند 27- ارزقي 27- اخ	العجوز 18- هيلين كيل
ارزقي 27- حميد 27- تاجماعت 27- الظامن 27- لمين	23- سميرة 35- الجارة

تاجمعاث 27- لوكيل تاجمعاث 27- رامي 30- المعلم الجديد 30- الوالد 30- بوغرارة 30- السائق 30- الجار الجديد 34- منير 35- محمود 44- الأمير عبد القادر 47- مصطفى بن بولعيد 51- الشيخ امود بن المختار 57- بشير يلس 57- صالح 78- الولد المريض 81- عمار 82- الطبيب 82- رامي 85- الحكم 86- حارس الفريق 86- المهاجم 86- اللاعب 86- اللاعبين 86- ثلاثة لاعبين 86- الزميل 86- العم بلقاسم 98- بغاي 99- قايس 99- حكواتي 103- الحفيد 103- رامي 109- سامي 109- والد رامي و سامي 103- المرشد السياحي 109- سمير 111- اخ سمير الصغير 111- سالم 116- المدرس 124- عماد 124- جاك كوستو 124- عبده 124- بشير حليمي 125- الجد 129- الرجل الجزائري 133- محمد علي كلاي 133- الملك البابلي 138	سعاد 35- مريم بوعتورة 43- جدة محمود 44- حسيبة بن بو علي 51- نانا عائشة 52- رحيمة 52- المعلمة 68- كريمة 68- الجدة 81- سامية 82- الجدة باية 94- جازية 85- أم جازية 95- أخت جازية - الكبرى 95- ملكة الاوراس 99- خنشلة 99- ميلاس 99- سيرتا 99- صانداي 99- بسمة 129- المضيفة 129- الزوجة الفيتنامية 133
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Fifth Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
الشيخ 9- الزميل 9- الرسول 13- المعلم 13- المدير 13- المدير 17- عيد الرحمن 17- الوالد 22- لابن 22- ابن العم 23- علي 24- الرجل الفقير 24- اليتيم 24- الرجل السجين 24- العم بشير 27- خالد 31- السائق 31- المدير 31- عصام 35- أب عصام 35- سليم 39- والد سليم 39- الطبيب 39- صادق الفول 41- محمد بوراس 41- الوليد بن عبد الملك 41- تاكفاريناس 43- يوغرطة 43- ديدوش مراد 43- عبد الحميد بن باديس 43- الأمير عبد القادر 43- المعلم 48- شيخ تدريس القران 48 محمد	المعلمة 9- أم عبد الرحمن 17- فاطمة 24- الممرضة 30- رزان 35- أم رزان 35- أم سعيد 35- وردة 35- أم سليم 39- وردة 44- أم وردة 44-

48- أب محمد 49- حفيد لالة مسعودة 52- ابن لالة مسعودة	أم محمد 49- لالة مسعودة 52-
52- الوالد 56- مختار 56- الرايس حميدو 58- الأمير البطل	المعلمة 57- جميلة
ارابيون 58- محمد بوقرة 58- زيان عاشور 58- حمو الأخت	بوحيرد 57- جميلة
62- أب احمد 62- رئيس البلدية 64- احمد 67- أسامة 67-	بوباتشة 58-
إسحاق 67- بسام 68- والد بسام 68- الحصاد 69- المدير	المعلمة 73- ام
74- الأب 77- شهاب 84- معاذ 84- علي 90- ابو بكر الرازي	علي 90- والدة
92- ادوارد جنر 92- الصبي الصغير 92- البيروني 94- والد	البيروني 94- ماري
البيروني 94- السلطان 94- ابن البيطار 96- ابن الهيثم 96- ابن	كوري 104- زها
خلدون 96- الحزري 96- جابر بن حيان 96- الإدريسي 96-	حديد 104- بيتي
الكسندر فلمنج 99- هاورد فلوي 99- ارنست تشين 99 شقيق	غراهام 104- مريم
الكاتب 102- مصطفى 103- كمال 103- جلال 103- جوزيف	الاسطرلابي 104-
كوشران 104- كارل 106- والد كارل 106- المدرس 106-	زوجة جحا 116-
صاحب دكان 114- الرجل 114- جحا 116- السلطان 116-	السيدة 120- بائعة
حارس الباب 116- أشعب 117- حاتم 117- سعد 120- مراد	الكبريت 126-
120- أب مراد 120- الرجال الثلاثة 120- بنوكيو 126-	بيرنت 126- سارة
الروائي الايطالي 126- ابن المقفع 126- بيدبا 126 الملك دبشليم	كرو 126- الأنسة
126- أندرسن 126- والد سارة كرو 126- ابن بطوطة 132-	منشن 126-
الولد 132- الأب 132- الملك 133- احمد شتورازة 133-	العجوز 133-
كريستوف كولومبس 137- خالد ابن الوليد 137- عمر بن عبد	البننت 133
العزير 137- الراعي 143- القاضي 143- محمد 143	

French Textbooks

Third Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
Amine 12- Anis 12- Nabil 15- Miloud 15- Achraf 18- Nadir 19 – Tarik 20 - Ali 26- Mustapha 34- Mounir-Mouloud 34- Idir 34- Mourad 38- Bilal- Fodil 41- Nabil 41 - Djamel 48- Karim 53- le cousin 53- le oncle 53- le père de Karim 55- le grand-père de Karim 55- le oncle Kaki 55- le cousin Hakim 55- le frère Kamel 55- oncle Slimane 57- Sami57-Sofiane 61 – Chafik 64- Toufik 71- Massinissa 75- grand-père de Massinissa 75 – le père 79- le fils 79- le chef de quai 83- le grand-père 85- le fils 88- Rafik 93-Omar 94- Youcef 97- le garçon 97- Yacine 98- Zino 100- le grand-père de Amira 101- Sami 101-le bébé 103- Younes 109- Faycal- Mohamed 109- Ryad 109- Yougortha 109- Abdelaziz 109	Amina 12- Madame Lamine 12- Manel15- Nourhane 15- Narimane 15- Mimi 16- Mélissa19 –Tania 19- Nadia 20– Dalila 20-- Dalal 20 –Mona 25- Rima26- Lamia31-Batoul 34- Dounia 34- Anissa34 - Radia 38- Farida 41- la mère 41-la tante Loubna 41- Tata Fatima 45- la fille de tata Fatima- Fadia 46- la soeur de Djamel 48- Kamélia 49- Kahina 55- Karima 55- Malak55- la grand-mère de Karim 55- la maman de Sami 57-Zineb 57- la mere de Zineb 61- la mere de Chafik 64- la mere de Toufik 71- Louisa 71- Narimane 76- la maman 79- la fille 79- Sonia 82- la tante Nawal 84- la maitresse 88- Amira 101- la mère de Amira 101- Nadia 101- la sœur de Nadia 101-the mother- the daughter 70- la grand-mère de Narimane 103- Nora 109- Sabrina 109

Fourth Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Yacine 14- Massinissa14- Nadir 15- Majid 15- Monsieur Slimani 16- Mohamed-Amine 16- Yanis 16- le oncle Rashid 23- le frère de Majid 25- le cousin de Massinissa 26- le coiffeur 27- Kamel 27- Nassim 27- le vendeur 32- Rachid 33- le père de Lina 38- le cordonnier 42- Salim 49- le grand-père de Yacine 53- le mécanicien 54- Adel 57- le frère 58- la clown 61- le magicien 61- le frère 61- le garçon 63- le frère 63- les dix amis 64- les douze voisins 64- Youcef 65- le professeur de français 66-- le pirate 78- l'oncle Belkacem 83- le directeur85- le professeur 85- le gardien de la piscine 89- le pêcheur 93- l'oncle Youcef 96- Lamine 96- Réda 96- le garçon 103- le médecin 103</p>	<p>Lina 14- Amira 14- Tanina 15- la voisine 16- Mélissa 17- la coiffeuse 27- Samia 27- Karima 27- Malika 27- Selma 27- Nina 33- Lamia 33- la maitresse de Yacine 44- la mere de Yacine 44- le soeur de Yacine 44- Samira49- la grand-mère de Yacine 53- la mère de Amira53- la grand-mère de Yacine 53- la grand-mère 55- la soeur 55- la grand-mère 57- la maitresse de Salim 57- la petite fille 57- la tante 58- la mère 58- la voisine 58- les cinq cousines 64- les sept voisines 64- les cinq amies 64- Nina 67- la sœur 88- la tante Louisa 94- la mère de Amira 94- la petite Sophie 97- la mère 103</p>

Fifth Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Le maître 14- Massinissa 14- le grand-père 14- Youcef 14- Yacine 14-Kaddour 15- Bouzid 16- Yacine 17- le père de Yacine 17 – Majid 18-</p>	<p>La vétérinaire 12-la grand-mère14- Narimane 14- le mere de Yacine 17- la sœur deYacine 17- Sonia 19- the two</p>

<p>Nadir 18- Anis 18- Idir 18- Adem 22- Aissa 22- le garçon 25- Sofiane 25- le voisin 25- Oussama 27- Youcef- Zakaria 28- Mohamed 29- l'oncle Hassan 29- Farid 30- le maître de Horace 38- le gardien de musée38- le grand-père de Amira 39- le père de Lina 41 - le père de Safia 42- le frère de Safia 42- Amine 42- Réda 43- Ahmed 43- le père de Ahmed 43- Amine 48- le père 48- Azouz 49- le vendeur 50- le cordonnier 52- Sami- the boy- le cousin de Farida 54 – le pompier 62- Yacine Ibrahimi 63- tonton Nadir 64- Mohand 66- le père de Amira 70- le maître 72- le jeune homme 75- le père 91- le pompier 95- le petit frère de Rima 95- Amine 95</p>	<p>(female) cousins 19- la tante Samia 20- Malak22- la mère27- la tante Nawel 27- Amira 27- la mère de Zakaria 28- la mère de Massinissa 28 – Lila 29- Lamia 29- la mère de Lamia29- la grand- mère de Lamia29- Tania 30- Kamélia 30- mere de Farid 31 – Linda 40- Lina 41- Safia 42- la mère de Safia 42 – Imane 42- la mère de Ahmed 43- la maman 53- Hadjer 64-la sœur de Hadjer 64- la tante Kahina 64- Batoul65- Mélissa 67- la maman 72- la maman 75- la grand-mère de Massinissa 88- Rima 95- la mère de Amira 96- la mère Narimane 97</p>
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The Middle School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
الأب 12-الأب 14- الابن 14- رامي 16- أب رامي 16- الولد 18- مالك 20- رفيق مالك 20- الأب 22- الطفل 24- الأب 26- الولد 26- محمد 26- الجد 27- الأخ الأكبر 27- الأب 32- هيرو 32- ابن باديس 32- بيكو 36- الراكب 36- محمد غنيم	البنات 12- أم رامي 16- أم سعيد 16- زوجة رامي 16- الأم 18- العجوز

37- ابنا محمد غنيم 37- احمد شوقي 39- أبو العيد دودو 39-	20- البنت 22-
مخلوف 40- الرسول 41- دعد 46-الأب 48-مفدي زكريا 55-	الأم 24- أم محمد
احمد زبانة 55- فرانس فانون 56- عمر 58- رسول كسرى 58-	26-الأم 32- أم
العربي بن مهدي 59- أبو بكر الرازي 60- الخليفة 60-	سعد 39-
بيتهوفن 62- ابن الهيثم 64- محمد 65- الصديق محمد 65- سعد	زهور 40- زوجة
بن العاص 65 - ماسينيسا 66- ابنا ماسينيسا 66- ابن أخ ماسينيسا	دعد 46- الابن
66- مبارك الميلي 67- التلميذ 75- الملك 76- الوزير 76-	48- جميلة بوحيرد
الرجل 76- المفتش 84-علي البواب 84- المدير 84- الأب 88-	54 - أخت أبو
الابن 88- الأب 89- الابن 89- محمد الأنيس 95- أب محمد	بكر الرازي 60-
الأنيس 96- ديفيد كير كباتريك 96- الشيخ 101- رائد الفضاء	أم صديق محمد
102- الأستاذ 108- الأب 109- الابن 109- الرجل 113-	65- البنت 84-
المتسول 115- علي 116-- الجد 119- الضيف 121- الشيخ	الزوجة 113- أم
123- زونوبيا 125- علي الجمبلاطي 127- الابن 128- الأب	علي 116- المرأة
129- الأخ 135- الراعي 140- المعلم 140- الأستاذ 141-	الأعرابية 121-
الرجلان 145- مدير المتوسطة 149- الوليد ن عبد المالك 153-	الأم 123-الأم
زياد 153-زهير بن أبي سلمى 153- احمد 159- الرجل 159-	128- الأخت
الأمير 160-ابن سينا 160- محمود 160- أيمن 165- الأب	135- أم محمود
170	161- الأم 170

Second Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>الأب 12- مصطفى 13- زوج عيني 16- عم 21- الأب 26- الابن 26- الشيخ 26- حميد سراج 31- النبي 34- انطون جميل 40- حسن 41- محمد العيد ال خليفة 45- البشير 46- القائد الايطالي 56- عمر المختار 56- الأمير عبد القادر 57- نيلسون مانديلا 61- غاندي 62- أخ غاندي 62- الرجل الغني 65- الرجل الفقير 65- أبو طالب 65- عتبة 65- الوليد 65- الأب 72- الابن 72- عبد الله بن عباس 75- الأخ 82- عمرو بن عتية 86- مؤدب الأولاد 86- البشير الإبراهيمي 87- - أحمد أمين 91- ابن احمد أمين 91- قيس بن كثير 92- الترميذي 92- الرجل 92- أبو الدر داء 93- لويس ياستور 96- والد لويس باستور 96- علي بن النفيس 97- أب علي بن النفيس 97- رونتجن 102- الخوارزمي 106- علي بن ولي 106- خليل 106- بكير 106- أب علي بن ولي 106- معلم علي بن ولي 106- حسان 122- الأب 122- احد المفكرين 136- الطفل 157- الوالد 160- الطبيب 160</p>	<p>عيني 11- الأم 12- ماما 16- أختا عيني 16- نورة 17- أم نورة 17- الجدة 26- الأم 26- البنت 26- عائشة 31- جارة عيني 36- أخت البشير 46- أم البشير 46- لالة فاطمة نسومر 51- جميلة بوحيرد 52- الملكة البريطانية 57- زوجة غاندي 62- العجوز 76- زوجة رونتجن 102- ليلي 122- الأم 122- الفتاة 57- البنت 160- الأم - الأخت 160</p>

Third Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
مراد 12- رزقي 12- محمد 12- صاحب الدكان 12- والد حورية	حورية 16- الأم
16- الشبان الثلاثة 19- التلميذ 20- التاجر 21- الوالد 21- الأب	52- العجوز 66-
26- الابن 26 المدير 31- -حافظ إبراهيم 34- مارك زوكربيرج	العروسة 72-
42- الرسول 51- الاب 52- المعلم 52- غريب 52- ابن	صانعة الفخار
بطوطة 71- العريس 72- سلطان مقاديشو 76- الزميل 79-	132- أم صانعة
الرجل 95- داوود 139- احمد شوقي 141- دروت 137- الأب	الفخار 132-
155- العريس 155- الضيف 155- عصام 156- أبو ريشة	عيني 137
164- ابن العم 167	

Fourth Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
سي شعبان 8- العم محمد 10- إبراهيم 10- اب ابراهيم 10-	زهرة 10- أم
القاضي 11- الصديق 15- عيسى بن هشام 16- أبو عبيد 16-	إبراهيم 10- الأم
الشواء 16- باخوم 19- الشيخ 22- الشيخ ابو يقظان 30- الابن	36- أم بومهدي
فريدريك هرتز 36-67- البيروني 71- نوح 72- ابن نوح 72-	130- العجوز
ماوتسي تونغ 79- تيتو 79- السندباد 79- السلطان 79- الصيدلي	136- أم عبد
79- عبد الرحمن حاج صالح 94- ريمون لول 100- عبد الرحمن	القادر 136- أخت
بن خلدون 94- عبد الرحمن الثعالبي 119- بومهدي 130- عبد	عبد القادر 136-
القادر 136- اب عبد القادر 136- مالك 136- علي 150- المتنبي	139- الأم الخالة

152- جريو 152- زهير 152- الياس زرهوني 154- فاروق الباز 152- كارلوس الحلو 152- محمد أركون 161	139
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French Textbooks

First Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
Salah Lahlou 12- Louis Pasteur- docteur Fellah 18 – le petit frère 19-professeur T.F. Anders 20- le petit frère21- Mourad 21- le chef d'établissement 21- le professeur du sport 21- docteur Schwartz 21- Yanis 25- Mourad 25- le cuisinier 25- Si Bachir 28- l'instituteur 28- Bougherara 28- Abdelhamid Benhedouga29- le jeune garçon 41- le frère 41- le petit garçon 41- le père 43- l'homme 43 le pâtissier 45- le facteur 47- le restaurateur 47- Mouloud Mammri 51-Pekka Puska58- Islam Slimani 60- Rafik Helliche 60- Abdelmoumen Djabou 60- Yacine Brahimi 60- le médecin 61- le ministère 61- le ramassateur be ball 61- Bouboule 62- Baballe- Nouredine Morceli 66- Charle Kumin Gyanfi 66- Derartu Tutu 66- Karim 69- le professeur 70- le président d'APC 74- le prince 78-	La mère 21- Fatiha 24- la mère 25- la femme 28- la petite fille 41- la mère 41- la vieille dame 41-la mère 45- Nesma 45- la grand-mère 47- Maman 62- Nihad 63- Sara 63- Ibtisam 63- Hassiba Boulmerka 67- la mère de Karim 69- Maissa Bey 71-la princesse 78- la mère de Ali 92- Lydia 109- Chahinez 109- le mère de

<p>Anders Celius - le docteur d'UDS- Ali le pêcheur 92- les trois frères de Ali le pecheur 92- le père de Ali le pecheur 92- le roi 92- Tahar Ouettatar 93- -Marc Dufumeir 104- le fermier 105- le mari 105- le directeur 105- Hans Guido Mutte 107- M. Hassan 112-Brahim Bali 107- Omar 107- l'oncle 118- le frère de l'oncle 118- le pompier 123- le vétérinaire 127- le président d'APC 127- le fils 140- le ministère 144- Benhamou 148- le président d'APC 127- le ministère de l'énergie 151- le grand-père 151- Othman 158- le père 167- le défenseur de l'environnement 170- le jardinière 171</p>	<p>Lydia 109- la mère de Chahinez 109- Aini 112- Amina 127- la grand-mère 129- Assia Djébar 131- la grand-mère 151- Nafissa 158- Jacqueline 158- Lalla Aicha 158- Soumia Abdelsadok 166- la mère 169- la maitresse 171</p>
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Second Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Le Bucheron 13- le petit vieux 13- le prince 14- l'homme 15- l'homme 15- le roi 15- le roi 15- les trois fils de la magicienne 16- le vieux pêcheur 17- le chasseur 18- le petit chaperon rouge 18- Slimane 18- oncle Belkacem 18- Adel 18- Aghila 18- le prince 18- le roi 19- le petit Ahmed 20- le roi 20- le frère 20- l'homme 20- le garçon 20- le roi 20- Mehdi 21- l'empereur 22- le père de la princesse 22- le père 22- les septes garçons 22- le roi 22- le magicien 22- le magicien Merlin</p>	<p>La fille 15- la magicienne 16- la princesse 15- la femme du pecheur 17- la blanche-Neige 18- la grand-mère du chaperon rouge 18- Sabrina 18- la princesse 18- la vieille femme 18- la princesse 19- la reine 19- la petite fille 20- la sœur de Ahmed 20- la femme 21- la fille 21- la princesse 21- Sarah 21- Sabrina 21- la princesse 22- la mère de la princesse 22- la mère 22- la sorcière 24- la fille 28- la sorcière 28- la jeune femme 31- la fille de pêcheur 26- les</p>

<p>22- l'homme 23- le garçon 23- le petit garçon 24- Esteban – l'homme malhonnête 29- le petit vieux 29- le berger 31- le jeune garçon 31- l'enfant 31- le jeune homme 32- le jardinier 35- le prince 37- le prince 37- le roi 37- les deux frères 37- le père 37- Mehdi 38- le roi 37- le paysan 38- le prince 39- le roi 39- le roi 39- les deux garçons 39- le jeune homme 40- le vieux berger 40- le chasseur 40- l'ami 40- le roi 41- le petit prince 41- l'enfant 42- le prince 42- le père 42- le père 46- le roi 47- le jeune bucheron 47- le vieux 48- le chasseur 48- le mari de Djohar 50- le petit tailleur 51- le petit homme 51- le roi 51- le géant 51 - le mari de Djohar 50- Hailibu 52- le fils de Hailibu 52- le chef de paysans 53- le petit poucet 53- le petit prince 53- le roi 54- le petit prince 54- le petit Véroche 54- le chef 54- le petit garçon 54- le pêcheur 55- le père du petit prince 55- le roi 55- le bucheron 56- le prince 56- le jeune Moumen 57- le roi 57- le père de Sarah 58- le bucheron 60- Stéphan 60- Hélène 60- Ibn Al-Muquaffa 68- écope 68- Jean de la Fontaine 68- Aliboron 70- Jean-Pierre Claris 72- le maître 99- Icare 104- le frère</p>	<p>deux filles 26- la fille 32- la fille 33- la reine 33- cendrillon 33- la marraine 33- la femme de pêcheur 34- la reine 34- la fille de la reine 34- Sarah 35- la reine 37- les deux sorcières 37- la princesse 37- Khadija 37- la jeune fille 37- la mère 37- la princesse 37- la fille de paysan 38- la jeune princesse 39- la reine 39- la grand-mère 39- la princesse 39- la princesse 40- La femme du chasseur 40- le reine 41- la veuve 42- les deux sœurs 42- la femme 42- la femme 46- la fille 46- - Lounja 47- - Djohar 50- la mère de Djohar 50- la fille du Sultan 51- la femme 52- la vieille sorcière 53- le fille du pêcheur 54- la princesse 54- la femme de pêcheur 55- la mère de petit prince 55- les deux princesses 55- la mère de les deux princesses 55- la princesse 56- le femme 56- la méchante sorcière 57- Sarah 58- la femme de bucheron 60- la vieille femme 60- la vieille bergère 105- Baddur 107- la femme 111- la belle mère 112- la grand- mère 112- Lalla Mimouna 112- Sarah 115- la femme 115- El-Alia 115- Lalla</p>
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<p>Fourar 106- le Chef de Bedouins 107- le roi 109- l'homme 109- le jeune homme 111- le frère 111- le roi 111- l'homme 111- professeur 111- le professeur 111- le prince 114- le petit frère 117- le roi 118- le père de Sarah 118- le père d' Icare 119 Minos 119- -le sultan 126- le roi 126-le Sultan 129- Adel 129- Salah Bey 129- Sidi Mhammed 135- Ahmed 137- le prince (le frère de Sarah)- le mari de Sarah 137- Belabbes 138- le père de Belabbes 138- le laboureur 145- l'homme 145- le chasseur 150- le charbonnier 151- le roi 151- les septes garçons 151- le chef des serviteur 152</p>	<p>khdiya 116- la petite sœur 117- la princesse Lawayla 117- les deux filles 117- les deux servantes 118- la voisine de Sarah 118-la princesse132- les deux filles 132 (101)- la sœur de Sarah 132- Aicha 137- la mère de Aicha et Ahmed 137- la belle-mère 137-la petite bergère 143- la voisine de Sarah 137- Taous137- la fille de charbonnier 151- la femme du charbonnier 151- les septes filles 151- la femme 152</p>
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Third Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Le pauvre vieux 7- Kateb Yacine 7- le grand-père 7- le père 7- le vendeur de haschich 15- le chef de cabinet du Wali 17- le rais du chalutier 17- les deux frères 17- les cinq marins 17- le pompier 22- le conducteur de la voiture 24- le maire 24- le capitaine Edward Smith 28- un officier de police 29- les trois pêcheurs 38- le juge 42- le voleur 42- le jeune 44- Jack Phillippe 48- l'officier de passerelle 48- le professeur 53- Mohammad 55- l'officier de police 59- l'inspecteur de police 60- le frère 60- l'agent de police 60- le conducteur 60- le touriste 60- le professeur 60- l'agresseur 60- les trois pêcheurs 61- le secrétaire générale de la Wilaya 63- le garçon 65- Noureddine Karaoui 65- l'écolier 65- le professeur de français 71- le voisin 71- M-Hadj Salah Mekaches 72- Salah N'Kitount 75- Nelson Mandela 77- Colonel Si Amrouche 81- Mustapha Ben Boulaid 82- Colonel Lotfi 82- Rabah 83- p'tit Omar 85- Lotfi 103- le père Yahia 103- Emir Abdelkader 106- Charles 107- Johnny Weissmuller 107- Rachid Mimouni 107-6 Amine 117- Sami 118- le père 120- le frère 120- le frère 125- le père 125- le fils Jean 125- Lazhar Labter 128- le frère 132- le père 133- Yuri Gargarine 133- Ahmed Zabana 135-</p>	<p>La bèrgère 7- la fille du pauvre vieux 7- Fanny 21- la fille 53- la maitresse 54- la petite fille 55- la jeune fille 59- la directrice 60- la maman 65- les trois femmes 75- Bika Baya 80- les trois filles 86- la petite fille 96- Dassine 97- Khalti 116- Nana 110- la mère 111- la grand-mère 120- la petite fille 120- la grand-mère 120- la petite soeur 123- la jeune fille 123- la femme 123- la mère 123- la voisine 125- l'amie 125- la mère 125- la grand-mère 127- Corinne Chevalier 128- la mère 133- Zoïia 133- la mère d'Oscar 138- Lalla Fatma N'Soumer 140- Oum Keltoum 141- la mère de Jean 142- Marie Curie 144- Marie Slodowska 144- la mère de Marie Slodowska 144- Isabelle 143- Annaa 143- Nadia</p>

Rabah Madjer 1376 Oscar Niemeyer 138- le roi Pelé 138- le père de Oum Keltoum 141- Mohammed Tahar Ferghani 1416 Jean Mgu 142- l'ami 143- le frère 144- Haroun Tazieff 147- Nesreddine Dinet 149	143- Assia Djebar 145
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Fourth Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
Nigel Bishop 10- le père 17- le père 17- le voisin 17- le père 19- le frère 19- le père 19- le grand-père 23- Slimane Azem 25- le cultivateur 25- le père 28- Chérif Boubaghla 28- Emir Abdelkader 29- Jugurtha 30 - Mohammed El-Mikrani 33- Cheikh Hhaddad 33- le grand-père 33- l'oncle 33- Bugeaud 34- Mahfoud Kadache 35- le dey 35- Khaled 36- Larbi Ben M'Hidi 37- le colonel de l'ALN 37- le professeur 39- Emir Khaled 40- Hassan 42- Omar 42- Hamid Seraj 42- Mohammed Dib 43- Hocine Ziani 47- Sidi Ahmed El-Medjdoub 50- Lakhdar Hamina 51- Ounouri 52- Alphonse- Etienne Dinet 53- Sid Ali Kouiret 53- Ali Sellalou 53- El Hadj M'Hammed El Anka 53- le directeur de collège 53- Boualam Bessaih 54- le ministère de la culture 56- le réalisateur 55- Merzak Allouache 55- le guide touristique 57- le responsable de la culture 57- Omar Racim 57- Mohammed Ben Othmane 58- l'homme 60- Azouz 60- le père de Azouz 60- M.Grand 60- Azouz Begag 61- le père de Azouz Begag 61- le vieille home 70- le jeune garçon 70- le père 72- le fils 72- lz petit garcon 72- le professeur	Yasmine 17- la mère 17- la mère 19- Lalla Fatma N'Soumer 33- la mère de Khaled 36—la mère 42- Aouichah 42- Meriem 42- Sofia 52- la grand-mère 57- Khadaouj El Amia 58- la vielle dame 60- le représentante 68- la jeune femme 73- la mère 73- Nadia 73- la grand-mère 77- Emilie Lesur 78- la mère 91- la femme 91- la mère 92- la mère 93- la

<p>73- le policier 73- le ministère 73- le commissaire 73- le professeur 73- le jeune homme 73- le grand-père 75- le professeur 75- le transporteur de la pate de bois 76- l'homme 76- Martin Luther King 77- Nelson Mandella 77- Mustapha Chérif 77- le professeur 77-l'Imam 77- Arun Ghandi 78-Rné Philombé 81- le ministère de la jeunesse et des sports 90- le camarade 91- le père 91- le ministère 91- l'arbitre 91- le réfugié 91- le membre de l'association 93- le père 93- le chef de parti politique 93- le directeur du collège 93- l'entraîneur 93- le dirigeant de club 93- Mahatma Ghandi 95- le jeune collegian 102- Abdelkader Benkheira 112- le père 114- le ministère de l'environnement 114- Derrick Jeusen 114</p>	<p>jeune maman 93- Tin Hinan 95- la sœur de Tin Hinan 95- la président de l'association 95- Meriem 98- Latifa Benmansour 99- la jeune supportrice 102- la narratrice 106- la ministère de l'environnement 117</p>
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English Textbooks

First Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Djamel 13- Mahrez 16- Rafik 31- Younes-35 Akram 36-Omar 49- Peter 49-the brother 51-the grandfather 51- Khaled 51-Yacine 51-Mustapha 56- Ahmed 56- Kamel 58- Jack 66- the two sons 66- the son 66-Yasser 104- Abdelhamid Ibn Badis 129-Amine 129- Chen 131- Steve 131- Michel 138- Harry</p>	<p>Miss Meriem 13- Rania 13- Bouhired- Razane 35- Lina 35 - Margaret 36- Houda 39- Maria 39- Diana 40- Susan 41- Meriem 44- Omar's siter 49- Omar's grandmother 49- the sister 51- Leila 53- Soraya 56- Razane's mother 56- Sara 58- Adaku 60- Jack's mother 60- the three daughters 66- the two daughters 66- Amel 80- Younes's grandmother 80- Younes's mother 90-</p>

138- Carlos- Santos....	Amira 114- Bonnie 138- Annitah 140- Kathleen 140
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Second Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
Samir 11- the boy 12- Liz's brother 12- Sami 14- Rachid 14- Peter 24- Richard 30- the boy 30- Ali 32- the nephew 36- Mohammed Islam 37- Mohamed Islam's father 37- Mohamed Islam's brother 37- Mohamed Islam's friend 37- Mohamed Islam's grandfather 37- Mohamed Islam's uncle 37- Ernesto 44- Ernesto's father 44- the father 47- Mehdi 47- Mehdi's dad 47- Sandra's dad 48- John 52- Peter 58 the waiter 54- Bill Peter 67- the son Stan 85- Charles 85- Michael 58- Salim 92- Nacer 99- Mounir 108- Peter 127- Rachid 127- Ali Benamar - Hamza- John Mulberry- Andrew Williams	Liz 12- Razane 12- the girl 12- Katie 24- the two women 24- Zohra 32- the two nieces 36- Mohammed Islam's mother 37- Mohammed Islam's two sisters 37- Mohammed Islam's grandmother 37- Mohammed Islam's aunt 37- Ernesto's mother 44- the mother 46- Sandra 46- Sandra's mum 46- Lisa 53- the queen Elizabeth II 63- Lily 68- the mother 77- Amy 78- Amy's mother 78- the doctor 80- the dietitian 80- Liz's mother 81- Shirley Richardson 85- the mother 86- the mother 92- Nora 92- Nadia 98- Dr Sandgate 98- Keltoum 144- Tinhinan 144- the princess 144- Marry

Third Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
Enzo 11– Adamou 14- Karim 16- the grandfather 27- Mohammed Farah Djeloud 30- Abbas Mahmud al- Aquad 30- Aristotle- Sheikh Abdelhamid Ibn Badis 31- Mohammed Farah Djeloud’s father 30- Haj Moussa Akhamok34- poet Boukiyass 36- Poet Barka 36- Confucius 44 - Albert Einstein 44- Rudyard Kipling 44- Elizabeth’s dad 48- the emperor Trajan 66- the emperor Nerva 66- the emperor Septimus66- El-Bekri 73- Alphonse Etienne- Dinet 82- the Dr Bourouis 85- Prof Haba 85- Dr Baghdadi 85- Ibn Khaldoun 90- Ibn Khaldoun’s two sons 90- al-Farabi 96- Alkharizmi 96- Harun al-Rashid 96- Larry Page 98- Sergey Brin 98- Ladislo Biro 98- Ibn Sina 98- al-Haitham 99- al-Zahrwi 99- Feham Mohammed 104- Ziriyab106- al-Jazari106- Ibn al-Nafis 106- Ibn Firnas 109- Dr Sian Waters 109- Farid Belbachir 109	Maria 14- Nadia 16- the grandmother 27- Jumana Khamis 32- Mohammed Farah Djeloud’s mother 32- Hanane Al Hroub 32- Alamine Khoulen 36- Chtima Bouzid 36- Biyat Edaber 36- Al hadja Fatma 45- Jenny 48- Jenny’s grandmother 48- Elizabeth’s mother 48- Khaldoun’s wife 90- Ibn Khaldoun’s four daughters 90- Fatima al- Firhi106- Miriam 106-Amel Belbachir Bazi 140

Fourth Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
Ben Caunt 12- Benjamin Hall 12- the English writer (Shakespeare) 12- Abdelhamid Ibn Badis 13- the artist 17- Leonardo da Vinci 18- Pablo Picasso 18- Galileo Galilei 18- Karim 19 – Sinan 22- Souleyman	Elizabeth II 14- Nabila 15- Nadia 15- Mona Lisa 58- Sultan Suleyman’s wife 22- Kateb Yacine’s mother 44-Rosemary 55- Mrs Riley

<p>23- Mimar 23- Omar Racim 30- M'hamed Issiakhem36- Mouloud Feraoun 36- Mouloud Mammeri 36- Kateb Yacine 40- Mohammed Dib 40- Richard 45- Malek Haddad 50- the shepherd 50- Mokrani 50 - Mr Bradshaw 50- Dewi's father 58- professor Lupin 59- the lawyer- Alfred Nobel 71- Alfred Nobel's father 71- Ahmed 73- Omar 73- Zaki75- Zaki's little brother 75- the grandfather77- Samir 77- Jim Harley 78- Andrew Boyle78- Brenda's father 78- Gracia's father 82 - Zohra's Drif's father 82- - Mufdi Zakaria 91- Barack Obama92- Thomas Edison 92 - Brad Pitt 92 93- the father- Ahmed Taleb Ibrahim 93- Bachir Ibrahim 93- David Beckham 111- Zinedine Zidane 111- Carlo Ancelotti- Abraham Lincoln- Souf Mounir Youcef</p>	<p>55- Mrs Evans 55- Dewi 58- Dewi's mother 58- Dewi's sister 58- J.K Rowling 58- Kateb Yacine's teacher 62- Nadia 73- Lina 73-Samia 73- Sarah 75- the grandmother 75- Mrs Benmelanash 78- Brenda Chow Lin 78- Brenda Chow Lin's mum 78- Yara Jouda 80- Zohra Drif 82- Roselyne Garcia 82- Roselyne's mother82- Jana 94- Jana's mother 94-Thomas Edison's mother 92- Jana 94-Jana's mother 94- Marie Antoinette 101- Maria Theresa 101- Mrs Thomas- Farnechi- the grandma- Lina Ghiat</p>
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Secondary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Literary Stream

Male Characters	Female Characters
يعرب بن قحطان 12- عدنان 12- إسماعيل 12- درير بن البصمة 12-	البسوس 14-
ثابت بن جابر الفهمي 13- السليك بن السلكة 13- الشنفرى 13- عروة	الملكة
بن الورد 13- طرفة بن العبد 13- زهير بن أبي سلمى 13- كليب 14-	فكتوريا 24-
جساس 14- الحارث بن عمر الكندي 14- بكر 14- شرحبيل 14- سلمة	الطفلة 108-
14- المهلهل 146- قيس بن زهير 14- حذيفة بن بدر 14- الرجل 14-	الأم 109-
هرم بن سنان 14- الحارث بن عوف 14- عنتره بن شداد 14- السيدان	بثينة 133-
16- الأوس 296- ثابت بن المنذر 29- عمرو القيس 29- عمر بن	العجوز
الخطاب 30- عمرو بن معد 30- الطيب 38- احمد شوقي 41- مفدي	135-
زكريا 42- احمد أمين 48- الرجل الأعرابي 50- احد الحكماء 54-	الخادمة
الرسول 54- محمود درويش 54- نزار قباني 55- الإمام عبده 56-	135- كنة
ميخائيل نعيمة 56- الأعشى 65- المرقش 65- سويد بن أبي كاهل	الشيخ 136-
65- امرؤ القيس 65- النابغة الذبياني 65- مهلهل بن ربيعة 65- عبيد	الأم 144-
بن الأبرص 66- طارق بن زياد 71- الإمام علي 71- ابن عبد ربه	البنات 144-
76- إبراهيم 83- وزير العمل 85- حسان بن ثابت 89- كعب بن	المرأة 163-
مالك 89- النابغة الجعدي 89- طلحة بن الزبير 98- الأستاذ 104-	أم الإمام
الجندي 104- العباس بن الأحنف 105- أبو تمام 105- عمر بن أبي	مالك 171-
ربيعة 105- اليا أبو ماضي 105- البحتري 105- الحارس 107-	ليلي 174-
زكريا 107- الحارسان 107- الفارمان الأول 110- الفارمان الثاني	عفراء 175-

حواء 180-	110- الفرمان الثالث 110- رئيس المصلحة الإدارية 111- الموظف
عفراء-	111- عبد الله بن رواحة 113- كعب بن مالك 113- كعب بن زهير
الممرضة	113- عبد الله الزعبري 113- ضرار بن الخطاب 113- كعب بن
ليلي 201-	الاشرف 113- ابن زيدون 116- الرجل الأعرابي 118- الرجل
مريم 201-	الأعرابي 118- الخطيب 118- الأب 122- والد الأب 118- الولد
فاطمة 202-	124- محمود 132- الطالبان 132- جميل بن معمر 133- احمد بن
مريم 202-	جبران 133- حافظ إبراهيم 133- أبو القاسم سعد الله 135- الشيخ
زينب 202-	35- السائق 135- الأخ 144- المتنبي 145- الشريف الرضي 145-
الأم 202-	معاوية 148- - الصديق 155- الأستاذ 155- الكميث 155- الأمير
	عبد القادر 156- مصطفى 158- أب مصطفى 158- عمرو بن العاص
	163- علي 163- الأولاد الثلاثة 163- أبو موسى الأشعري 163-
	معتصم 164- ابن ملجم 164- جميل بن معمر 166- الإمام مالك
	171- أب م الإمام مالك 171- قيس 174- المهدي 174- أب ليلي
	174- زكي مبارك 184- الجاحظ 184- ابن سهل الأندلسي 185- ابن
	الفارض 185- الأخطل 192- الرجل 192- مستشار القضاء 192-
	جرير 194- محمد العيد آل خليفة 195- عمر بن عيد العزيز 199-
	الحجاج 199- عبد الملك 199- الفرزدق 199- أبو نواس 199- يزيد
	199- أبو تمام 199- بشار 199- شوقي ضيف 200- المدير 201-
	التلميذ عثمان 201- إبراهيم 201- يوسف 201- احمد 201- يزيد
	201- الوالد 202- زياد بن أبيه 209- أبان عثمان 209- عروة بن
	الزبير 209- عبيدشرية 210- عبد الملك بن مروان 210- تميم الداري
	210- محمد 210- المنصور 214- ابن بطوطة 214

Scientific Stream

Male Characters	Female Characters
يعرب بن قحطان 16-عدنان 16- إسماعيل 16- ابراهيم 16-دريد بن الصمة 16-ثابر بن جابر الفهمي 16- السليك بن السلكة 16- الشنفرى 16- عروة بن الورد 16- كليب 16-الحارث بين عمرو الكندي 18-	البسوس 18- عائشة 89- أم عمر قاسم
بكر 18- شرحبيل 18- تغلب 18- سلمة 18- المهلهل 18- قيس بن زهير 18- حذيفة بن بدر 18- الرجل 18-هرم بن سنان 18- الحارث بن عوف 18- عنتره بن شداد 18- حاتم 19-الرسول 22- الترميذي 22- علي 31- نزار قباني 36- سقراط 38- عم الرسول 38- عم الرسول 38-ابن الرشد 38- السلطان 38- ابن تيمية 38- فجاليليو 38- بطليموس 38- كامبانيا 39- أرسطو 39- زهير بن أبو سلمى 56- لبيد بن ربيعة 57- الأعرشى 57- امرؤ القيس 57-عبيد بن الأبرص 57- احمد شوقي 59- الرجال الثلاثة 65- الشيخ 72- عمر بن الخطاب 76- حسان بن ثابت 77- كعب بن مالك 77- النابغة الجعدي 77- أبو بكر 77- علي 89- طلحة 89- الزبير 89- كعب بن زهير 102- عبد الله بن مالك 102- كعب زهير 102- عبد الله الزبعرى 102- ضرار بن الخطاب 102- كعب بن الاشرف 102-أبو سفيان 110- المتنبي 112- الشريف الرضي 112- عمر القاسم 113- الرجل العجوز 114- أبو فياض 114- الرجل الأشيب 115- مختار الضيعة 115- الأغا 115-الأب 115- رئيس مخفر الشرطة 115- الشاب 116- الأستاذ 115- الغلامين 135- الأب 135- معاوية 142- مصطفى 149- أب مصطفى 149- عثمان بن عفان 153- المغيرة بن شعبة	113- الأم 115- أم الأستاذ عمر 115- أمنة 149- بثينة 159- زهرة 163- عائشة 163- سعدية 163- أم زهرة 163- الفتاة 174- الطفلة 183- أم الطفلة 183

<p>153- عمرو بن العاص 153- ابن ملجم 154- الحسن 154- أخ علي 154- الحسين 154- ثابت 159- زيد 159- جميل بن معمر 160- يوسف 163- الطبيب 164- المدير 164- اب زهرة 165- رئيس الجمعية 167- العم 174- جرير 178- الفرزدق 178- زكريا 182- الحارس 182- الحارسان 183- الملك 183- الأخطل 188- أبان بن عثمان 204- عروة بن الزبير 204- الزهري 204- عبيد بن شريعة الجهمي 204- تميم الداري 204- وهب بن منبه 204</p>	
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Second Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
المعتصم 8- أبو جعفر المنصور 10- الرشيد 10- المأمون 10- كسرى	أم محمود
12- أبو العباس 12- بسام 12- مروان 13- الفيلسوف 19- الملك 19-	درويش 89-
يشار بن برد 23- زهير 24- أبو نواس 24- ابن المقفع 24- أبو	وريدة
العتاهية 24- اسكندر المقدوني 24- يشر بن المعتمر 25- ملك الصين	140- مايا
39- تنكيزخان 39- السلطان 39- حماد بن عجرد 42- مسلم بن الوليد	كوفسكي
42- علي 44- اليا أبو ماضي 46- الأمير عبد القادر 46- مفدي زكريا	141-
46- محمد 53- شوقي 55- الشيخ ابن القارح 56- زهير بن أبي سلمى	دسنوس
56- عبيد بن الأبرص 56- ادم 57- أبو معاذ 58- كعب 58- بجير 58-	141-
الرسول 63- البحري 63- حسين الخليع 61- كثير عزة 71- المتنبي	التلميذة
71- عيسى بن هشام 72- الرجلان 72- الحسن البصري 74- مالك بن	173-
دينار 74- أبو حنيفة 74- عمرو بن عبيد 74- صالح بن عبد الجليل 74-	الأرملة
أبو السمك 74- سفيان بن عيينة 74- عبد المؤمن الأصفهاني 78- أبو	175- سعاد
جعفر الأندلسي 78- القاضي 79- الطالب 86- الرجل 86- محمود	193- زوجة

الشيخ عساف	درويش 89- جمال الدين الأفغاني 90- محمد عبده 90- صلاح الدين
196-	الأيوبي 101- خليل بن قلاوون 101- الطالب عمر 105- الأستاذ 10-
محبوبة	المعلم 106- المعري 106- إقليدس 113- بطليموس 113- ثابت بن
الشاعر	قرة 113- سنان بن ثابت 113- المتنبي 117- الحارث بن حلزة 117-
210- زوجة	طه حسين 117- أب الرسول 117- عم الرسول 117- جد الرسول
الصيد	117- عقبة بن نافع الفهري 130- موسى بن نصير 130- حسان بن
2146	النعمان الغساني 131- عبد الملك بن مروان 131- عمر يوسف تاشفين
نزهون بنت	131- بكر بن حماد 133- الإمام 133- قاتل الإمام 133- عبد الرحمن
القليعي	شكري 139- خالد بن طبال 140- جان بروفوست 141- مراد 140-
218-	افلح بن عبد الوهاب 145- احمد مختار عمر 145- خلف بن السمح 145-
	أب خلف بن السمح 145- راجح بونار 145- توفيق الحكيم 156- ابن
	توفيق الحكيم 160- ميسرة المطغري الثفري 163- عبد الله بن الحباب
	163- حبيب بن أبي عبدة 163- خالد بن ابي حبيب الفهري 163- خالد
	بن حميد الزناتي 163- عاصم بن جميل 163- حبيب عبد الرحمن بن
	حبيب 163- أبو الخطاب 163- عبد الملك بن أبو الاجعد 164- رفجومة
	164- محمد بن الأشعث الخزاعي 164- عبد الرحمن بن رستم 164-
	عبد الله بن عباس 166- عنترة بن شداد 166- ابن خفاجة 166- جبل
	166- محمد العيد ل خليفة 166- طارق بن زياد 168- يوسف بن عبد
	الرحمن الفهري 168- عبد الرحمن بن معاوية 168- المنصور بن ابي
	عامر 168- الملكان 169- أبو عبد الله الشقي 169- ابن الرومي 184-
	الشيخ عساف - ابن الشيخ عساف 196- الفلاح 197- أبو البقاء الرندي
	201- إبراهيم 206- نزار قباني 213- الملك 214- التاجر 214-
	الصيد 214- أولاد الصيد الثلاثة 214- سيدنا سليمان 215- ابن
	القزاز 218- ابن بقي 218- ابن سهل 218- الششتري 218- السدراتي
	218- لسان الدين خطيب 218

Scientific Stream

Male Characters	Female Characters
أبو جعفر المنصور 10- الرشيد 9- المأمون 9- ابن حميدس الصقلي 15-	مريم 21-
إبراهيم 15- الفيلسوف 16- الملك الحزين 16- ابن القفع 17- يشار بن	سعاد 21-
برد 18- أبو نواس 18- اسكندر المقدوني 19- أبو العتاهية 19- يشر بن	العجوز 28-
المعتمر 19- حمزة 21- يعقوب 21- عثمان 21- يزيد 21- معاوية	الجارية
21- عمران 21- احمد 21- سليمان 21- عمر 21- معاوية بن أبي	53- حبيش
سفيان 21- يزيد ابن معاوية 21- سليم 25- الشيخ 27- مطيع بن اياس	77- الاعسم
29- حماد عجرد 29- مسلم بن الوليد 30- ابن القارح 38- زهير بن أبي	99- وريدة
سلمى 38- عبيد بن الأبرص الاسدي 38- الحسن البصري 41- مالك بن	مايا كوفسكي
دينار 41- ابوحنيفة 41- عمرو بن عبيد 41- صالح بن عبد الجليل 41-	101-
المهدي 41- أبو السمك 41- موسى 47- رامي 48- محمد 48- عيسى	دسنوس 01-
بن هشام 49- الرجلان 49- كسرى انو شروان 53- المنذر الكبير 53-	زوجة الشيخ
أبو جعفر المكفوف 55- أخ أبو جعفر المكفوف 55- الطالب 58- الرجل	عساف
58- جمال الدين الأفغاني 60- محمد عبده 60- صلاح الدين الأيوبي	111- هند
69- السلطان خليل بن قلاون 69- سلطان 69- خالد 73- الأستاذ 73-	132-
ابن طفيل 76- حي بن يقضان 76- أبو الحسن الأشعري 77- واصل بن	الأرملة
عطاء 77- ابو الهذل 77- أبو الهذل العلاف 77- إسحاق بن حنين 77-	133-
ثبيت بن قره الحراني 77- الجاحظ 78- احمد بن أبي داود 78- ابن	دنيازاد
الرومي 78- المتنبي 78- ابو تمام 78- عقبة بن نافع 94- موسى بن	150- المرأة
نصير 94- عبد الملك بن مروان 94- يوسف بن تاشفين 94- عبد الله	150- زوجة
بن عباس 98- عنتره بن شداد 98- ابن خفاجة 98- جبال 98- محمد	الصيد
العيد آل خليفة 98- خالد بن طبال 98- مراد 99- و جان برفوست 101-	150- نزهون

<p>مالك حداد 101- ابن تاويت الطانجي 103- بكر بن حماد 104- الإمام عبد الوهاب 104- خلف بن السمح 104- رابح بونار 104- الأمير 106- شوقي 106- حافظ إبراهيم 106- الشيخ عساف 111- ابن الشيخ عساف 111- الفلاح 112- الكاتب 112- ناظر الزراعة 112- الحمال 113- ميسرة المطغري 114- ابن الحجاب 115- حبيب بن أبي عبدة 115- خالد بن أبي حبيب الفهري 115- خالد بن حميد الزناتي 115- عاصم بن جميل 115- حبيب بن عبد الرحمن حبيب 115- عاصم عبد الملك بن أبي الجعد 115- أبو الخطاب 115- محمد بن الأشعث 115- عبد الرحمن بن رستم 115- الرسول 117- - البحتري 117- طارق بن زياد 119- يوسف بن عبد الرحمن الفهري 119- عبد الرحمن بن معاوية 119- المنصور بن أبي عامر 119- الملكان 120- السلطان ابو عبد الله الشقي 120- توفيق الحكيم 140- ابن توفيق الحكيم 142- -- ابو البقاء الرندي 145- الصياد 150- أولاد الصياد الثلاثة 150- سيدنا سليمان 152- زرياب 153- ابن بسام 154- ابن القزاز 154- ابن بقي 154- ابن سهل 154- الششتري 154- السدراتي 154- لسان الجين الخطيب 154</p>	<p>بنت القليعي 154</p>
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Third Year

Literary Stream

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>جنكيزخان 8- تيمورلنك 8- هولاکو 8- الرسول 9- الاخ 13- ابو العتاهية 15- المتنبي 16- أبو العلاء المعري 16- ابن نباتة 17- البوصيري 17- أبو فراس الحمداني 18- عنتره بن شداد 18- الطغرائي</p>	<p>الخنساء 44- مریم 75- السيدة 85-</p>

18- صفي الدين 20- محمد باشا 20- خلف الغباري 21-بانث سعاد	أم السيدة
21- احمد بن عثمان الامشاطي 21- احمد الدرويش 21- كعب بن زهير	85- وريدة
32- القزويني 33- موسى 36-العباس بن الأحنف 44- ابن خلدون 44-	110- أحلام
جرير 44- جميل 44- ابن إياس 45- ابن مالك الطائي 45- ابن هشام	مستغامي
الأنصاري 45- ابن منظور 45- الفيروزبادي 45- ابن كلخان 46- ابن	111- فدوى
بطوطة 46- المقرزي 46- الدميري 46- عبد القادر البغدادي 46-	طوقان
النويري الابشيهي 46- السيد مرتضى الزبيدي 46- المقرئ 46-مفدي	112- الجدة
زكريا 54- الشابى 45- المهدي 54- البارودي 54- احمد شوقي 61-	123- خولة
ابن زيدون 61- بن عباد 61- فوزي المعلوف 63- القروي 64- رفيق	124- جميلة
القروي 64- ابراهيم 75- أب إبراهيم 75- ابو نواس 81- ميخائيل	بوحيرد
نعيمة 84- بدر شاكر السياب 92- عبد الوهاب البياتي 92- الخطيب	125- جميلة
98- نزار قباني 98- أيوب 101- هوميري 102- ادم 102- خالد بن	بوباتش
طبال 110- مالك حداد 111- صالح باوية 119- محمود الربيعي	125- جميلة
120-السجان 124- ضرار 125- الجلال 127- الأستاذ حسن 127-	بوعزة
ابو القاسم خمار 131- محمود درويش 132- سليمان العيسى 132-	125- الجدة
يوسف تاشفين 132- موسى بن نصير 132- عقبة بن نافع 132-	129- عبلة
طارق بن زياد 132- إبراهيم الدمغ 132- محمد الفيتوري 133- عبد	173- المرأة
المعطي حجازي 133- محمد ديب 135- سعاد خضر 136- السياب	205-
151-خليل حاوي 151- البياتي 151- صلاح عبد الصبور 152-	ياسمينه
موسيه 152- أبو تمام 163- المعتصم 163- علي 167- خالد 167-	105-
صلاح الدين 168- مجنون ليلي 170-السندباد 173- سيزيف 173-	الطفلة بنت
تموز 173- عشتروت 173- أيوب 173- هابيل 173- قابيل 173-	احمد 206-
اينياس 173- الخضر 173- عنتره 173- شهريار 173- هرقل 173-	سوزان
السيرين 173- سقراط 173- اوديب 173- أبو الهول 173- بنيلوب	عائشة كانت
173- الإمام علي 173- أمل دنقل 180- محمد البشير الإبراهيمي	221- الفتاة

185- طه حسين 191- محمد 192- عمر 192- رضا 192- الجاحظ	221-
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الرجل الاول 214- الرجل الثاني 214- الرجل الثالث 214- الرجل	226- فاطمة
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223- سيدي العربي 223- سيدي مبارك 223- بن يوسف 224-	الضيعة
الأمير 224-السلطان عبد القادر 224- الاب 226- مزار 226- محمد	235- وسام
بن أبو قاسم 226- شهريار 230- توفيق الحكيم 233- علي 236-	236- الملكة
الزوج 236- الأخ الأكبر 23-الأخ الأصغر 236- احدهم 237-	49- لالة
الأخر 237- رجل الثاني 237- مارون النقاش 242- موليير 242-	فاطمة
نابوليون بونايرت 242- أبو الخليل القباني 242- إسحاق 242- فرح	نسومر
انطون 242- سليم النقاش 242- يوسف الخياط 242- جورج ابيض	254- أمينة
242- يعقوب صنوع 242- يوسف وهبي 242- محمود تيمور 242-	254- زوجة
عزيز اباضة 242- يوسف إدريس 242-نجيب الريحاني 242- اسكندر	المؤلف
فرح 242- سلامة حجازي 242- سليمان القرد احي 242- ابسن 243-	264- آسيا
برناردشو 243- موريس 243- بيجاماليون 243- محمد دياب 243-	274- جبار
صالح سعد 243- دريد لحام 343- روجيه عساف 243- عمر	نوارة 280-
حجو 243- سعد الله ونوس 243- عتبة بن ربيعة 245- عبد المطلب	فضيلة 280-
245- عبد الله 245- الفاروق 146- الملك 248- الوزير 247- رأس	280- سليمة
الأطباء 249- كبير الكهان 249- سي الطاهر 254- والد لالة فاطمة	المرأة 285
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رويشد 274- مولود معمري 274- عبد الرحمن كاكي 274- محمد	

<p>التوري 274- عبد القادر السفيرس 274- محي الدين بشطرزي 274- بريخت 275- أبو شنب 277- عمر راسم 278- ابن خاتمه 278- حميد 280- الرجل 280- كريم 280- مخلوف بوكروح 283- بلال 285- امية بن خلف 285- عتبة 286- ورقة بن نوفل 286- ابو بكر 286- احد المعذبين 287</p>	
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Scientific Stream

Male Characters	Female Characters
جنكيزخان 8- هولاکو8- تیمور لانک 8- ابن مالک الطائي 9- ابن هشام	جدة شوقي
الأنصاري 9- ابن منظور 9- الفيروزبادي 9- ابن كلخان 9- شمس الدين	52- الأم
الذهبي 9- القزويني 9- ابن بطوطة 9- المقرئزي 9- هوميروس 13- ابن	53- فاطمة
مالك 14- الشاطبي 14- الخليل بن احمد الفراهيدي 14- خلف الأحمر	53- أم بشير
14- احمد بن منصور اليشكري 15- الحريري 15- زيد 15- عمرو 15-	53- سلمى
ابن مالك 16- الحسن بن خيران 16- ابن معط 16- ابن الحاجب 16-	53- مريم
تقي الدين السبكي 16- عبد العزيز المكناسي 16- جلال الدين السيوطي	56- السيدة
16- عصام الدين بن عربشاه الاسفراييني 16- شرف الدين العمريطي	74- أم
16- إبراهيم الكرمياني 16- شافية ابن الحاجب 16- موسى 20- ابن	السيدة 74-
عربي 24- ابن الوردي 25- ابن خلدون 33- عبد الله عنان 34-	وريدة 88-
الدميري 38- النويري 38- عبد القادر البغدادي 38- الابشيهي 38-	أحلام
مرتضى الزبيدي 38- بهاء الدين العملي 38- المقرئ 38- لسان الدين بن	مستغانمي
خطيب 39- زهير بن أبي سلمى 39- مفدي زكريا 47- الشابي 47-	90- فدوى
رفيق المهدي 47- الباودي 47- ابو نواس 47- ابو العتاهية 47- ابو	طوقان
تمام 47- الزهاوي 47- محمد العيد آل خليفة 47- عبد الله كنون 47- ابن	109- اسيا

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أرملة عبد	الطفل 53- بشير 53- أب بشير 53- جبران خليل جبران 61- العقاد
الغني 172-	63- المازني 63- شكري 63- اليا الحاوي 63- شوبنهور 71- نيتشيه
الام 178-	71- خالد بن طبال 88- ولد خالد بن طبال 89- مالك حداد 90- أيوب
فاطمة 178-	96- ادم 97- هوميري 97- الرسول 100- خمار 103- صالح
الأم 184-	خباشة 103- محمد الصالح باوية 115- محمود الربيعي 115- ابو القاسم
الضيقة	خمار 118- محمود درويش 119- سليمان العيسى 119- يوسف 119-
184- وسام	يوسف تاشفين 119- موسى بن نصير 119- عقبة بن نافع 119- طارق
184-	بن زياد 119- إبراهيم الدامغ 120- محمد الفيتوري 120- عبد المعطي
الملكة 195-	حجازي 120- أبو الحسن علي 122- محمد ديب 123- سعاد خضر
المرأة	125- حافظ ابراهيم 133- امين ناصر الدين 134- محمد البشير
200- أمينة	الإبراهيمي 147- ابن المقفع 156- الجاحظ 156- الوقاف 162- القايد
204- لالة	162- الضابط 162- الخوجة 164- فلان الأول 164- فلان الثاني
فاطمة 205-	164- فلان الثلث 164- فلان الرابع 165- عبد الملك مرتاض 168-
نواره 219-	ابو العلاء المعري 169- مرزاق بقطاش 171- احمد منور 171-
سليمة 219-	جيلالي خلاص 171- جروة علاوة وهبي 172- محمد الثالح حرز الله
فضيلة 219	172- عمار بلحسن 172- الأعرج واسيني 172- محمد أمين الزاوي
	172- مصطفى فاسي 172- الراوي 172- عم الراوي 172- عبد
	الغني 172- الصياد 172- عبد الله الركيبي 173- بوجو 175- الخليفة
	175- دوما 175- شونقاؤنييه 175- كورت 175- سيدي العربي
	175- سيدي مبارك - ب 176 ن يوسف 176- الامير 176- السلطان عبد
	القادر 176- الأب 178- مزار 178- محمد بن أبو قاسم 179- علي
	183- الزوج 183- الأخ الأكبر 183- الأخ الأصغر 183- صاحب
	المقهى 184- احدهم 184- الرجل الأول 184- الرجل الثاني 184-
	الرجل الآخر 184-- مارون النقاش 242- موليير 188- نابوليون

<p>بونابرت188- أبو الخليل القباني188 - إسحاق 188- فرح انطون188 - سليم النقاش 188- يوسف الخياط188 - جورج ابيض188 - يعقوب صنوع188 - يوسف وهبي188 - محمود تيمور188 - عزيز اباضة188 - يوسف ادريس188 -نجيب الريحاني188 - اسكندر فرح 188- سلامة حجازي188 - سليمان القرداحي 188- ابسن 188- برناردشو188 - موريس 189- بيجاماليون 243- محمد دياب 243- صالح سعد189 - دريد لحام189 - روجيه عساف 189- عمر حجو189- سعد الله ونوس 189- الملك 195- الوزير 195- رأس الأطباء 195- كبير الكهان 195- بلال 200- امية بن خلف 200- عتبة 200- ورقة بن نوفل 201- أبو بكر 201- احد المعذبين 201- سي الطاهر 204- -عبد الحلیم راييس 212-كاتب ياسين 212- رويشد212 - مولود معمري212 - عبد الرحمن كاكي 212- محمد التوري212 - عبد القادر السفييري 212 - محي الدين بشتريزي212 - بريخت212 – كالدرون 23- سن اوکيزي 213-أبو شنب 216- عمر راسم 218 - حميد 219- الرجل219 – كريم 219</p>	
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French Textbooks

First Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Léon Fargue 13- Martin Hugo Victor 24-Bonaparte Napoléon 24- Dromadaire 24- Berthollet 42- Pasteur 42- le médecin 62- le professeur 66- le délégué 66- le vieux Salamano 68- Kamel 69- le père 69- l'oncle de Kamel 69 - le vieux Amar 70-Smaiiin 73- Farid chopel 73- Descartes 75- le mari 76- le fils 76- le père</p>	<p>La maman 62- la soeur de Kamel 69 – la mère de Kamel 69 – la maman 76- la jeune fille 79- la maman 79- Ouardia 79-</p>

<p>79- le jeune home 79- Lamine87- le baskateur 90- l'entraîneur90- le garçon 96- le père 109- M. Lepic 109- Poil Carotte 109- Felix 109- le journaliste 112- Davy Moore 112- le directeur 114- Ahmed 122- le policier 123- le jeune conducteur 123- Ezekiel Garnett124-l'homme 127- chercheur 129- M. Thomas 132-le chauffeur 133- Dang Salangam 133- Wit Aniwat 134-le chauffeur 136- le maitre136-le patron de l'hôtel 138- Pavel Bem 142-le touriste italien 142- le chauffeur de taxi 142- Wit Aniwat- l'homme 144- le procureur 144- Mourad 145- Sofiane 145- Mohamed 145- Kada 145- Tayeb 145- les deux policeirs 145- les deux membres 145- the man 146- Zakiov 146- Shedov Timur 146- le jeune home 148- le jeune home 148- l'homme 148- le directeur technique à l'APC – le chahid 150- le roi Stefano 153 - le père de Stefano153- Omar 157- le père de Omar 157- Said 157- le père de Said 157- la maire de la ville 158- l'étrange 158- Toa 158- le garçon 158- le jeune garçon 158- le vieux chef de touareg 158- le Capitaine Nemo 160- le canadien Conseil 160- le cuisinier touareg 161- l'ami 161- le pecheur 163- le gamin 163- le vieux Santiago 163- le gamin 163- Paul 164-le pauvre garçon 166- le pêcheur 173- le pauvre garçon 170- le directeur d'une grande industrie 171- le vieux pêcheur 173- l'homme 176- le capitaine 179- l'homme 186- l'enfant 189- le père de l'enfant 189- Léon 189- le marin 189- le capitaine 189- le fils 190</p>	<p>la maman 85- la maman 87- Anissa 87- Amel 87- la petite fille 89- Houria 89- Fatiha 89- madame Amer 89 - Ernestine 109- la mère 109- Zineb 114- Mériem 114- Karen 124- la zoologist 130- Joy Adamson 130- la jeune fille 132- Sally Miles 139- la mère de Omar 157- la mère de Said 157- la femme noire 159- Ms Rosa Parks 159- Madam Aubain 164- Virginie 164- Urashima Mizuno 170- la fille 170- la fillette 186- la femme 186- la mère de l'enfant 189- Léa 189- la maman 190- la dame 191- Kim Bassinger 191</p>
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Second Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Giluliano 6- Antonio 6- Gramsci 6- Mussolini 6- Buzzati8- Francis Ponge 11- Zacharia Jansen 19 le père 31- Pangloss 31-le maitre 31- le derviche 31- Pierre Beranand 56- Emir Abdelkader 61- Jules Verne 64- Aldous Huxley 64- George Orwell 64- Robert Oppenheimer 64- Jacquard 65- David Maurice 73- le président 74- le Dey 74- Roh Sung 79- Hwang 80- Gerald Schatten 80- Pierre Corneille83- Guillaume Apollinaire 83- Victor Hugo 83- Mohand 98- Said 105- El-Bekri 110- al- Idrisi 110-le prophète 111- Abou Bakr 111- Hamza 111- le père d' Edna 112- le mari de Edna 112- Artie 112- Freddy Kramer 113- M. Waziki 115- Maud Wilson 115- Winston 115-Evelyn Cartwright 116- Pépé Joseph Tolstoi 124- Napoléon III 124- Napoléon IV 124- Pépé Paul 124- Pépé Harry 124- Alphha Soleil 124- Adler 124- Pépé Werner 125- le gamin 125-le garçon 125- Leo 127- John 129- Kurt Schmidt 129- Luc 129- Hugo 131- Eric 131- Noel 131- Tahiti 131- Guy Leclerc 137 Mansato 143- Dr. Calvin 151- le guide 153- le touriste 153- monsieur moi 154- Pierre Corneille 160- Don Diègue 160- Léonor 160- Ferdinand 160- Don Urrique 161- Don Gomès 161- Don Sanche 161- Don Arias 161- Icare 165- le mécanicien 165- Philippe 166- Jean-Marie 166 Thomas 167- Dick 167- le client 169- l'employé 169- James Brown 174- Pinocchio 175- Nickel-Chrome 175- Geppetto 174- le fils 175- le père 176- Von Pengoughlof –</p>	<p>Mousline 10- la journaliste 31- Parveti 56-Edna 115- M. Waziki 115- Margie 115-Melinda Petterson115- Annelise-Goethe- Sorel 124- Madja Shakespeare 124- Madia 124- Améria 125- la filette 125- Meg- Ida 127- girl Ipanema 126- Oglá 128- Julie 131- Anna Arnold 130- la psychologue 150- Susan 150-la joilie femme 153- Chimène 160- Elvire 161- Ghimène 161- Marie- Jeanne 165- la femme 174- maman 175- la</p>

Tim Berners-lee 180- François 182- le père 191- Srguei Avdeiev 191- Shannon Lucid 191- John Gilen 191- Buzz Aldrin 191- Youri Gargarine 193- Neil Amstrong 193- M. Cordier 194- l eprofesseur 194- Jusserand 194- Topaze 194- monsieur Blondet 194- monsieur Kerguézec 195	grand-mère 182- la mère 182- Lucie 182- la femme de Léon 187- Marlène 188
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Third Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
Louis Braille 6- Pélé 8- John Bardeen 9- Bell- Walter Brattain 9- William Schockley 9- Ronald Moreno 9- Farhat Abbas 10- El-hadj Messali 10- Musa Ibn Nusayr 12- Tarik Ibn Ziyad 12- le roi Rodrigue 13- le fils de Rodrigue 13- Abd Ar-Rahmanne 13-M. Kaddache 19- Khawarizmi 25- O. Khayyam25- Ptolémé 25- les deux policiers 27- l'homme 27- Said Milache 28-Lounes Tougourd 28- Daniel Féry 28- Jean Pierre Bernard 28- Edward Lemarchand 28- Raymond Wintgens 28- Hippolyte Pina Fanny 28-Dewerpre 28- Maurice Pochard 28- Bélaïd Archal 28- Achour Boussouf 28- Henri Benzet 30- l'inspecteur Laffout 30- le porteur de la pancarte 30- le colonel Bourdillat 31- Laghrour Abbès 33- Benboulaid 33- Chihani 33- Khaled 33- Meradi Mehadji 35- Bouchkara 35- Lakhdar 38- Kateb Yacine 39- Filtz-Patrick 40- André Malreaux 41- Delphine 41- Bugeaud 45- Montagnac 45- Saint-Arnaud 45- le roi Mohamed V 47- Nasser 47- Mussolini 50- Hitler50- l'officier François 57- Arab Mohamed 59- Bouda Abdekader 59- Ben Bella 59- le fils 63- Alban	Al Kahina- Kaira Guélaline 28- Anne Godeau 28- Susan Martorelle 28- Fatima Bédard 28-la vieille 35- Elissa 40- la mère 41- l'infirmière 54- les sept femmes 83- la mère 93- la femme 93- Madame de

<p>Liechti 72- Noeil Farelière 72- René Vautier 72- Ould Aoudia 72- Mourad Oussedik Benabdellah 72- Zavrian 72- Jacques Vergés 72- Roland Dumas 72- François Girouud 73- M.Y. le Déant 83- les sept hommes 83- G. Rozet 83- le directeur 84- Hegel 97- Josseph de Maistra 97- Nietzche 97- Gumplordicz 97- Hugo 104- M. de Moltke 104- Rousseau 109- Jean Jacques Pansophe 114- Capucin 114- Satrape 114- Bullit 116- l'entraîneur 117- Sergey Brin 130- Harry Page 130- Slavojzizek 131- Bill Gates 134- Marcus Owens 134- le directeur de l'UNESCO 137- Mairead Mauguire Corrigan 150- Nelson Mandela 150- Aung San Suu Kyi 150- Mijael Sergejevich Gorbachev 150- Simon Peres 150- Elie Wiesel 150- Monseigneur Desmond-Mpilo Tutu 150- Monseigneur Carlos Felipe Ximenes Belo 150- Fredrik Willem de Klerk 150- Betty Willams 150- LJosé Ramos-Horta 150- Norman Borlaug 150- Oscar Arias Sanchèz 150- Lech Walesa 150- Joseph Rotblat 150- Henry Kissinger 150- Jody Willaims 150- Hohn Hume 150- David Trimble 150- Rigoberta Mench 150- Abbé Pierre 151- M. Jacques Chirac 154- M.Lionel Jospin 154- Guy Maupasant 157- le gérant de la librairie 175- Ngala 178- Ivan Iakovlévitch 180- M. Bermutier 182- John Rowell 184- John 191- les deux hommes 194- Johann 196- Munich 196- Louis XV 201- Louis XIII 201- Bernard Polissy 201- Comte Lodborg 203- le chanteur 203- Jean Valjean 218- le mari 218- le père 218- Maubert 218- le voleur 218- Stephane 222- Saint Baylas 223</p>	<p>Francueil 102- Melinda Gates 134- mère Teresa de Calcula 150- la femme 151- Belgacem Latifa 175- Prascovia Ossipovna 180- la femme 191- comtesse Edwige 203- Oluf 203- la gouvernante 203- la sœur de Jean Valjean 218- Faustina 222</p>
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English Textbooks

First Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Jari 21- Jari's father 21- Bob Karl 25- Karima's brother 25- Tom 27- Peter 27- Sam 27-Mr George 27- John Smithson 27- Maya's father 27- Mr Johnson 27- Tim 27- Tom Jackson 27- Lynn Robert 27- Henry 27- Farid 30- Karim 30- Rashid30-Amel's father 32- Amel's younger brother 32- Hichem 34- Farid 34- Foued 34- Michael Amstrong 35- Mr Jones 37- James 37- the son 41- Foued 42- Ryan 42- Hichem 42- Aladdin 48- Ali Baba 48- Sindibad Sailor 48-the fisherman48- Shahrayer 48- Shahrayer's brother 48- Chinua Achebe 52- Okonkwo 52- Unoka 52- Amalinze 52- - Jim 61- Bob 61- Jack 61- Peter 61- John 61- Rachid 61- Karim 61- the father 62- Charle Dickens 63- Charle Dickens's father 63- William Shakespeare 65- Shakespeare's father 65- Shakespeare's brother 65- Ghandy 60- the man 72-the king –the king's horseman- Stoker- the boy - Charlie Chaplin 72- Charlie Chaplin's father 72- Mr. Benton 75- Ryan- 75 Mr Simpson 75- Nelson Mandella 75- Ali 80- Ryan 80- Richard Carlson 88- Peter Calson 89- the policeman 90- the motorist- 90-Karim 90- the child 90- Bashir 91- Karim 92- Rashid 92- Ali 93- Bashir 93- Karim93-</p>	<p>Amel 21- Kirsi 21- Kirsi's mother 21- Karima 25- Edora27- Anne 27- Nora 27- Maya 27- Melinda 27- Melinda's mother 27- Melinda's little sister 27- Kenneth 27- Jenny 27- Meriem Jouel 28- Amel 32- Amel 32- Amel's mother 32- Amel's sister 32- Fatima 34- Joy Parfit 35- Nora Jones 37 - Hind Benmouloud 37- Djamilia 37- Jane 37- Sihem 40-Cheyenne 40- Peter's mother45- Wassila 45- the mother 62- Miss Emma Smithson- MsWiz 51- Collie Unoko's wife 52- the girl 53- the lady 53- the granddaughter 56- the elderly lady56- Alice 59- Alice's sister 59-the mother 62- Shakespeare's mother 65-Anne Hathaway 65- Susanna 65-</p>

<p>Sofiane 93- Jamel 93- Tom 94- John Homles 96- Mr.Jones 96- the thief 96- the child 97-Mr Jones99- Mr Brooks 99- Charles 99- Sanchez 99- Sofiane- Jarvis 107- Tony 107- Oliver 107- James King 111- Louis Pasteur 112- Alexander Fleming112- Alexander Graham Bell 112- Albert Einstein 112- Guglielmo Marconi 115- Heinrich Hertz 115- Arthur C. Clarke 115- John Thurman 117- Perry Spencer 117- Smith Hamilton 120- Da Vinci 123- the man 124- Sir William Herschel 126- Joule 126- Lavoisier 126- Priestly 126- Faraday 126- Halley 126- Newton 126- Avicina 126-Kepler 126- George Washington Carver 126-Carver’s father 126- the master 127- Dr Ian Wilmot 129- Thales 132- Pythagoras 132- Ptolemy 132- Johannes Kepler 133- Nicolaus Corpernicus 133 Galileo Galilei 133- chairman 148- John 148- Peter 148- Mr Peter Burns 148- Ryan 149- Ahmed 149- Mr Boyle 169- Charles Barnes 169- Mr Smith 169- John 169- the captain 170- the king 170- the horseman 170- Alison Broadbent 171- Bob Bradely 172- Robert 173- Mike 173- King- Dr. John Pemberton- Leris Strauss- William Wingley- Chester Carlson-</p> <p>120</p>	<p>Madame Tussaud 67- Charlie Chaplin ‘s mother 72- Mr Simpson ‘s wife 75- Sabrina 75- Sabrina’s grandmother 75- Stephen Sinatra88- Katie Courie 89 - Lynda Johnson 89- the air hostess 90- Doris 90- Aicha 90- Meriem 90- the mother 90- Dr. Carla 91- Meriem 91- the woman 93- Melissa 93- Dyhia 93- Salima93- Anne 94-the neighbour 96- Mrs Jones 96- Mrs.Dickens99- Mrs Jones 99- Josephine Cochran 117- Marie Curie 126- Ruth Benedict 126- Carver’s mother 127- Dr Ian Wilmot ‘s mother 129-Mary 148- Ourida 149- Jane 167- mum 167- Karima- 167 Hind- 167- Carol 169-Sihem Kadiri 172</p>
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Second Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>The uncle Hassan 16- the boss 16- the father 18- the grandfather 18- the father 18- Mouloud 19- Karim 19- Zohra's father 19- Ahmed20 -the Mayor 28- the public officer 28- Sandra Fellici 's father 32- Turner 33- Turner's father 33- Hitler 38- Mussolini 38- Dag Hammarkjold 40- Mr El-Baradai 42- the bus driver 111- Karim45 - Abraham Lincoln 48- Martin Luther King 48- Yasser Arafat 51- Nelson Mandella 51- Jamel 86 - Dr Recorde 95- al-Khawarizmi 96- the Caliph Ma'mun 96- Al-Battani 96- Alhazen 96- Rhazes 96- Ptolemy 96- Jabir 96- Archemides 97- the husband 102- the huntsman 10- the grandfather 105- Farid 105- Alfred Hitckcock 107- the motorist 109- Saida's husband 110- Karim 110- driver 110- Moufdi Zakaria 112- the shepherd 114- the passer-by 114- the king 115- the king's son 115- the market supervisor 115- the man 116- the king 116- the king's guard 116- the judge 116- Bill Gates 122- Albert Einstein 123- John Donne 123- Bertrand Russell 123- the thief 125- the police officer 125- the son 125-the child 125- Rafik 129- the young man 129- the chairman-Robert Louis Stevenson 139- Dr Jekyll 139- Mr Hyde 139- Baron Frankstein- Frankstein 's brother 139- Frankstein's father 139- ThomasEdison 141- Alexander Fleming 141- Christopher Colombus 142- Karl Max 142-</p>	<p>Samira 18- Nassima 18- the mother 18- Zohra 19 - Zohra's mother Zohra 19- Zohra's sister 19-Sandra Fellici- 32 Sandra Fellici 's grandmother 32- Sandra Fellici 's mother 32- Leila 44- Maya 44- Farida44- Maya 86- agony aunt 87- the husband's wife 102 - the riding girl 104- the riding girl's mother 104- the riding girl's grandmother 104- Zohra 105- the woman 105- Saida 110- Karima- the market supervisor's daughter 115- the younger daughter of the market supervisor 115- Bill Gates's wife 122- the mother 125-the schoolgirl</p>

<p>Steven Spielberg144- Archemes 149- Isaac Newton 149- Michael Faraday 151- Michael Faraday’s father 151- Humphry Davy 151- Isaac Newton- Idaho 156- Kenneth Arnold 156- Thomas F. Mantell 156- Mr. James 160- Mr. P.G Lawlor-Omar 168- Rashid 168- Fredirick Taylor 174- John Galbrai 174- Milton Freedman 174- John Keynes 174- Jim Stanley 179- Mr. Welling179- Mr. Kris 179- Dr. Jones 179- Jamel 182- Mr. Clancy 184- Ali185- -Said 185- Chris Lee 186- Beckey 191- Jack 191- the man 192- Ali’s father 192- Abdelkader 192- Bob Dylan 192- Said 195- Smail 195- Abdelkader 200- Farouk 203- Badis 203- Farid 203- Sofiane205-Rashid 203</p>	<p>125- the mother 125- Leila 125- Mary Shelly 139- Mrs. Djefal 160- Sadia 168- Massaouda 168- Leila Derradj 173- Mrs Clarkson 179- Leila 180- Maya 180- Jane 186- the sister 195- Mary 197- Zohra 198- Yasmine 198- the sister 203-</p>
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Third Year

Male Characters	Female Characters
<p>Thales 19- Chritopher Columbus 20- Amerigo Vespucci 20- Emir Bulughin 23- - Baba Aruj brothers (two) 23-Tarik Ibn Ziyad 25- Caliph al-Mamun 26- Harun al-Rashid 26- Herman Ferdinand Cortés 27- Jean François Champollion 28- Jack 30- Ts’ai Lum 34- Pharaoh 37- Howard Carter 38- Penelope 41- Ulysses 41- Abe Lincoln 44- Ozymandias 44- the Mayor 48- the custom officer 53- the two men 59- Bob 63- George 63- Mark 63- Giovanni Preston 67- the welder 75- the cook 75-Mr.Harris 75- William 76- the headmaster 7-the student 77- Peter 90- Stephen 91- Peggy 91- Edward 91- Graham 91- the police inspector 94- the father 94</p>	<p>The woman 59- the biologist 75- the musician 75- the chemical engineer 75 - Mrs Harris 76- Farida 77- the student 77- Wahiba 89- Sadia 89- Emma 91- Rebecca 91- Marie Curie 93- the girl 94- Manya Sklodovsky</p>

<p>- the king 96- Jason 112- James 125- the dad 134- Joe 134- Galileo 140- Tycho Brahe 140- - Neil Armstrong-Yuri Gargain 141- the grandfather 147- the dad 150- the son 150- Ptolemy 151- Al-Battani 151- Razez 151- Brahe 151- Hubble 151-Johannes Kepler 151- Copernicus 151 Galileo Galilei 151- Mr.Henshaw 153- H.G. Wells 158- Henry 171- Sofiane 171- Rashid 176- Mr Bean 176- Woody Allen 176- Fellag 176- Rashid 177-Karim 177- Smail 177- the prince Charles 179- William 179- Harry 179- Dodi Fayed 180- the chauffeur 180- John Wayne 182- the man 189- James Thurber 191- Dr Skipp 196- Mohammed Berrashid 199- Karim Bishi 199- Alexander the Second 202- the inspector 202- Manya's father 202- the boy 202- Dr Victor- Marya's father- Bronya's husband 203- Pierre Curie 203- Tony Blair 204- John Joe 208-Charlie Chaplin 208- the father 211 - Mr Chaib 212- Said 215-Rashid 215- Said 215- Smail 215- Kader 215-Karim 220- John 227-Said 227- Said's father 227- Shakespeare 228- J.S. Bash 227- Karim 230-Habib- the prime minister 230- Neil 231- Ron 231- Machael Jackson 231- Edgar Alan Poe 231- Ibn Badjadja 240- Ibn Khaldun 240- Ibn Rushd 240- Ibn Maymun 240- Socrates 241- Cheikh Anata Diop 241- Martin Bernal 241- Martin Bernal's father 241- Lord Mountbatten 241- Basil Davidson 243- Voltaire 243- Immanuel Kant 243- Hume 243- George Hegel 244- Douglas Alexander 246- the spoke man 246- Roger Horam 246- Wilox- 247- Ram 247- Terry 247-Robyn 247- -Obi 248- Mr Okonkwo 248- the man 248- the son 248- the man</p>	<p>94- Daisy 112- Cindy Crawford 123- Jenny 125- Joe's mother 134- Lamia 171- Aunt Hillary 172- the lady 173- Sabrina 177- Karima 177- Diana Frances Spencer 179- the wife 189- Manya's mother 202- the four girls 202- the teacher 202- Bronya 202- Mr Chaib's daughter 212- the sister 215- the candidate 215- the mother 215- the sister 215- the mother 219- Hassiba 219- the mother 219- Miss Ford 225- the sister 230- Dr Penrose 248- Cecilia 252- the secretaty 254- Jane 254- Mary Leakey 260</p>
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248- Mr Gradgrind 252- Cecilia's father 251- the gentleman253-

Tarzan 254- lord Thompson- David Beckham 257- Peter Hollins

259- OrsonWelles 264- the religious leader 268- the man 269

Appendix II

Firstness

The Primary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbook

First Year

Males First	Females First
- هذا جدي و هذه جدتي 13 -جدي و جدتي 14-15	No gender pairs

Second Year

Males First	Females First
- رجالا و نساء 44 - سمير و ياسمين 86 - أبيه وأخته سعاد 158 -بنين و بنات 46	No gender pairs

Third Year

Males First	Females First
-الإبن أو البنت 11 -أبي و أمي 13 - التاجر و زوجته 36	-ابنته و حفيده 10 - أمي ثم أبي 13 - أمي فأبي 13

- أمي و أبي 13	- شباب و فتيات 52
- أمي و أبي 13	- أبي و أمي 88
- العمات و الأعمام 39	- عصام وأخته أمينة 120
- الفتيات والأطفال 102	- جده وأمه 133

Fourth Year

Males First	Females First
- زميل أو زميلة 9	- أنا (رجاء) و أبي 12
- ملك و ملكة 15	- سميرة و منير 36
- الصبيان و الصبايا 137	

Fifth Year

Males First	Females First
-عصام و رزان 35	No gender pairs

French Textbooks

Third Year

Males First	Females First
-Chafik et Louisa 71	- Nadia, Dalila et Tarik 20 - Rima et Ali 26 - Bonjour Madame! Bonjour Monsieur! 31 - Good night mum! Good night dad 104

Fourth Year

Males First	Females First
- Des cousins et des cousines 57 - Deux amis et sa cousine 79 - Pêcheur et sa femme 93 - Yacine et sa maman 103	-Lina et son papa 38

Fifth Year

Males First	Females First
- Massinissa et Amira 30 - Yacine et Narimane 41 -Mes frères et mes sœurs 53 -Les infirmiers et les infirmières 64 - Mohand, Zina et Nina 66	-Sonia et mes deux cousins 19 -Amira et son grand-père 39 - Du père et de la mère 42 - Sa maman et son papa 51 - Fières et fières 64 -La maman, Yacine et Youcef 45 -Narimane et Massinissa

The Middle School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Males First	Females First
-أخا أو أختا 24 -أبوك وأمك 32 - هو و هي 46 -المعلمون و المعلمات 53 - المدرسون و المدرسات 53 - ذكر وأنثى 72 - أبيك و أمك 170	No gender pairs

Second Year

Males First	Females First
- الأب و الأم 12 - شهيد أو شهيدة 51 -عالم وزوجته 102- 103	No gender pairs

Third Year

Males First	Females First
No gender pairs	No gender pairs

Fourth Year

Males First	Females First
-الرجال و النساء 59	No gender pairs

- الرجال و النساء 77

French Textbooks

First Year

Males First	Females First
-Ce mari et sa femme 105	No gender pairs

Second Year

Males First	Females First
-Le vieux pêcheur et sa femme 17-18	- Sarah et Mehdi 37
- Un home et une femme 20	- la fille de pêcheur et le roi 54
- Un garçon et une fille 20	- Leur voisine et son mari 137
- Le père, la mère 22	- Aicha et Ahmed 137
- Un chasseur et sa femme 40	- Sa sœur Sarah et lui 137
- Le roi et la reine 41	
- Le prince et la princesse 54	
- le pêcheur et sa femme 55	
- Sept filles et sept garçons 151	

Third Year

Males First	Females First
-Mon frère et moi (la petite fille) 120 - Mes frères et sœurs 127 - Un père anglais et d'une mère française 142	-Adriana and her (male) friend - Isabelle et Paul 143

Fourth Year

Males First	Females First
- Mon père et ma mère - Ounouri et Sofia Djama 52	No gender pairs

English Textbooks

First Year

Males First	Females First
-Omar and Amel (p 105)	- My mother ,father (P67) - Margaret and Younes (P 84) - Houda and Yasser (p105) - Mum and dad (p 123)

Second Year

Males First	Females First
Her dad and mum 48 - Charles and Shirley 85 -Mounir and Keltoum 108 --Mounir and Keltoum114	- Aunt and uncle 37 - Me (mum) and your dad 54 -Lily and Stan 68 - Shirley Richardson and her husband Charles 85 -Nora and her classmate Salim 92 -Ladies and gentlemen

Third Year

Males First	Females First
- Dear Karim, dear Nadia 27 - Mohammed Farah Djeloud's father and the Palestaniaan judge Hanan AlHroub - My grandfather or grandmother 71 - Farid Belbachir and Amel Belbachir Bazi 140	-Maria and Adamou 23 -Grandmother/ grandfather 48 - Grandma/grandpa 78

Fourth Year

Males First	Females First
- Karima and Nadia 19 (twice) -Sultan Suleyman and his wife 22 - Dad and mum 78 - A male or a female teacher	- Mrs Riley, Mrs Evans and Mr Bradshaw 56

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Kateb Yacine and Zohra Drif 81 (twice) - Kateb Yacine , Zohra Drif and Yara Joudi <p>84</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - K. Yacine's and Z. Drif's (p 85 twice) 	
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Secondary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Literary Stream

Males First	Females First
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -أصداؤها و صديقاتها 136 - الشاعر ومحبوبته 167 - عنتره و مريم 201 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -ليلي و قيس 178

Scientific Stream

Males First	Females First
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -رجالاً و نساء 114 - أبي و أمي 115 - جميل بن معمر و بثينة 160 - أخي و أختي 165 -يوسف و سعدية 165- 166 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - سعدية و أخيه الصغير يوسف 163 - المعلمات و المعلمون 165-166- 167 - زميلاتك و زملائك 165-166- 167 - أمهم و أبيهم 165

Second Year

Literary Stream

Males First	Females First
-المغنيين والمغنيات 60	-دسنوس و جان بر فوست 141

Scientific Stream

Males First	Females First
-الزوج وزوجته 101	- حبيش الاعسم و ثابت بن قره الحراني 77 - دسنوس و جان بر فوست 101

Third Year

Literary Stream

Males First	Females First
-بالرجال و النساء 131 - ذكر و أنثى 154 - عنتره و عبلة 172 - الطفل و الطفلة 206 - شخصية الأب و شخصية فاطمة 127 - شهر يار و شهر زاد 232 - ببجماليون و شهر زاد 243 - سي الطاهر و زوجته أمينة 254 - ذكر و أنثى 247	-ياسمين و احمد 208

- حميد ونوارة 282	
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Scientific Stream

Males First	Females First
- ذكر و أنثى 57	- أمه وأبيه 53
- حميد و نوارة 221	

French Textbooks

First Year

Males First	Females First
- Lamine et Anissa 87	-Sa mère et son père 157
- Grand frère Félix et sœur Ernestine 109	
-Mon frère et ma sœur 109	
- Ezekiel et Karen 124	

Second Year

Males First	Females First
- Les vieux et les vieilles 105	-Ogla et Luc 128
- Son professeur de père et sa poétesse de mère 116	
- Léo et Ida 134	
- Rodrigue et Chimène 162	

Third Year

Males First	Females First
- Hommes et femmes 43- 136 - Sept hommes et sept femmes 83 - Bill et Melinda Gates 134	- Comtesse Edwiget et Comte Ladbrog 203 - Filles et garçons 218

English Textbooks

First Year

Males First	Females First
- Jari and me (Kirsi) 21 -Tom and Edora27 - Brothers and sisters 35 - Men and women 125 - These men and women 125 -John's and Mary's 174	-Mum and Dad 21 - My mother and father 35 - Anne and Tom94

Second Year

Males First	Females First
- Black boys and black girls 49 - White boys and white girls 49 -My husband and I 102	- Sisters and brothers 49 -Ladies and gentlemen 50 (three times), 68 - Saida and her husband (twice) 110

Third Year

Males First	Females First
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Mr and Mrs Harris p75- James and Jenny p 124-Sir or Madam p130-Man and woman p 148 (twice)- Heros and heroines 171 (four times)- Bristish men and women 175- Smail, Karima and Sabrina 177- Husband and wife- Father and mother p202-Sir or Madam 231	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Penelope and Ulysses p41- Ladies and gentlemen p 80, 155- Jenny's and James's 125- Jenny and James p 125- Four girls and one boy 202- Her mother and father 202

Appendix III

The Primary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
No traits	No traits	No traits	No traits

Second Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
No traits	No traits	مبتسمة 23	No traits

Third Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
طيب 10- محب 10- حنون 12- 35- وفي للوعد 14- كريم جاد 45- 57- مثابر 45- بطل 48- - فطن 57- ذكي 57- 90- عطوف 57- نشيط 57- عبقرى 95- موهوب 95- مرتبك	وسيم 48 - طويل القامة 57- قوي البنية 57- رشيق 77- مظهره مضحك 82- لديه جسم	طيبة- فطنة - واعية 88- نشيطه 103- مستقيمة 133- طويلة القامة 133	نحيفة 86- أنيقة 8- رشيقة 86- مستقيمة 133- طويلة القامة 133

99- واثق من نفسه 99- ماهر 107 شاطر 137 – طيب القلب مساعد 137	قوي 90- أصم 95		
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Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
ذو ابتسامة ساحرة	ذو لحية بيضاء 17- طويل	حنونة 17- نابغة	عمياء 23-
14- عاقل 27-	27- جسمه نحيف 27- مربع	23- صبورة	صماء 23-
ذو هيبة 27- ذو	القامة 48-قوي 47- مفتول	23- ذات إرادة	بكماء 23-
وقار 27- شجاع	العضلات 48- 49- 86-	قوية 23- شديدة	صهباء الشعر
47- متخلق 47-	ابيض البشرة 48-عريض	المثابرة 23-	49- بشرتها
صبور 47-	الجبين 48- أهدايه سوداء و	محبة 29-	بيضاء 49-
متواضع 47-	دقيقة 48-عينييه خضراوين	عطوفة 38-	متوسطة القامة
ذكي 47- مخلص	48- اسود الشعر 48- كثيف	موهوبة 120	49- شعرها
47- نشيط 47-	اللحية 48- أفتى الأنف 48-		اسود و
بعيد النظر 47-	رقيق الشفتين 48- شعره مجعد		طويل 49-
محب لوطنه 47-	49- نحيف الجسم 49-طويل		قصيرة القامة
عظيم 47- همام	القامة 49- بشرته سوداء 49-		49- نحيفة
48- - في وجهه	قوي البنية 49- 86- يده شاحبة		49- وجهها
مزيج من القوة و	52		جميل 94
السكينة الصفاء			
48- عنيد 86			

Fifth Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
عازم 27- قوي 27- واثق من نفسه 27- أمل 27- حلو الحديث 27- يشوش 27- متسامح 27- متفان 31- مخلص 31- مرهف الإحساس 39- دقيق الملاحظة 39- بطل 44- مغوار 44- ذكي 94- عبقرى فذ 94- لديه ذكاء كبير 107- عبقرى 107- نبیه- طيب-106- بخيل 117- كريم 117	بشير الوجه 27- أصم 39	عظيمة 57- نبيلة 120	No traits

French Textbooks

Third Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Poli 38	Grand 65- maigre 65- petit 65- gros 65	Doué 101	Propre 38

Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Gentil 34- attentif 57- méchant 63- grand rêveur 96- courageux 103	No traits	Généreuse- affective 57- géniale 62	No traits

Fifth Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Gentil 64	No traits	Généreuse 30- Gentille 53	Belle 53

The Middle School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
عطوف 14- قلب رحيم 14- ضحكة بريئة 24- مضي الأيمان	خد خشن 12- إذن طويلة 12-	ضحكة عذبة 12- طيبة	راحتان صغيرتان 12- عينان

52- صلب الإيمان 52- عظيم	وجنتان ورديتان	16- رحيمة	نجلوتان 12- شعر
52- 66- قرير النفس 52- بطل	24- وسيم 24-	16- حنون	أليب مرسل على
55- ضمير مهتاج 56-مسالم 59-	عيونهم زرقاء	16- حلوة	الظهر 12- شفتان
نبيل 59- وديع 59- حلِيمَا واسع	40- وجوههم	18- شفوقة	رقيقتان 12-
الصدر 59- محب للوطن 59- ذو	قذرة 40- فاقد	24- عطوفة	عينان حزینتان
عزيمة قوية 59- شجاعا 59-	للبصر 62-	24- ليست	24- طويلة القامة
صبورا 59- 66- دكتاتوري 64-	وجه نضر	نشیطة و	39- رقيقة العود
سفاكا للدماء 64- شديد تقلب	وشرق و منور	حيوية 39	39- بيضاء البشرة
المزاج 64- ثابت العزيمة 66-	76- نحيف 78	صديقة 54-	39- مرفوعة
حلو الفكاهة 66-	-أهزل 145-	بطلة 54	الرأس 39-
رقيق القلب 66-متقشفا في نفسه	ضخم 145-		نظرتها لا تخلو من
66- لا يعتني بنفسه و يترك شان	مفتول		الحدة 39- بصرها
أمته 66-مكبا على العلم 66- مثابر	العضلات 145		ضعيف 39-
75- بعيد النظر 76- محترم 84-			شعرها أشيب 39
مخلص 116- وفي 119- عبقری			
125- مجتهد 149			

Second Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
مضحی 26- محسن 26- محترم 26-	No traits	حنون 17- مضحية 26-	No Traits
واسع الفكر 26- صادق 26- حسن		محترمة 26- بطلة 51-	
الحديث 26- حكيم 26- عظيم 50-		ثائرة 52- رمز للإنسانية	
إنساني 57- شفق 59- رحيم 59-		53- صبورة 52- عازمة	

مسالم 61- خارج من سلطان بطنه 82- خارج من سلطان لسانه صامت 82- لا يشكو وجعه شديد الذكاء 97		53- مؤثرة 76	
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Third Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
سكير 16- منحرف 16- تصرفاته مشينة 20- مبلج 76- مضحي 161	من ذوي الاحتياجات الخاصة 50- نحيف 57- ضعيف 157- يديه مرتنان 141	رمز الإشعاع العلمي 18- متبرعة 63- شغوفة 132- طموحة 132- ذات حنان 132	No Traits

Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
- سلوكه غير سوي 10- قاسيا 12- طماع 19- أصفر العقل 22- بارع 30- خجول- عظيم 139	بشرة سوداء 16-أصفر اليد 22- كفه نحيل 22- طويل القامة 150- ذا صحة جيدة 150- عيانان براققان 150- مطوي 150- ممشوق القامة 150- جميلا 150- عيانان زرقوتان 150- شعر أشقر 150- ملامح نبيلة	رقيقة 10- هادئة 10 - بطلة	No traits

	150-		
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French Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Honnête 94- patient 94- généreux 94	No traits	No traits	No traits

Second Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Honnête 13- juste 15- bon15- brave 34- imperturbable- malhonnête 26- jaloux 29- généreux 34- 38- avoir une mauvaise humeur 35- affectif 37- Attentif 38- sévère- avoir un grand cœur 52- respecté 52- sage 99- aidant 99- souriant 108-	Petit 29- barbe blanche 29- géant 35- des dents pointues 35-une barbe piquant 35-un nez énorme 35- petit 37-beau 38-admirable 138	Brave 15- 40- gentille 28- bonne 33- honnête 33- hautaine 33- gentille 34-38-39- 137- sourire d'ange 35- intelligente 38- 51- jalouse 38- affectif 37- ravissante39- méchante 40- aimable 42- jolie 46- sensible 11- généreuse 111- douce	Trés belle 20- horrible 24- maigre 24- avoir des joues de poupée 35- petite 38- avoir des cheveux noires- des cheveux noire qui tombent joliment sur ses épaules 39- charmante 47belle 51- avoir cheveux

fidèle 137- maléfique 138		137-serviable 137- imprudente	d'or 129-
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Third Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
-Avoir un grand Cœur 55- bienfaiteur 55- honnête 58- fidèle 58- prudent 58- modeste 106- bien élevé 120- héro 135- volontaire 147- indépendant 147- ambitieux 147	Avoir un nez bien élancé 123- énorme 123-avoir une grande lèvre épaisse et difforme 123	Valeureuse 75- attentive 110- souriante 110- très timide 120- bien élevé 126- héroïne 140	Petite mains pale, tête, caresse 110- deux doigts agiles 110- des cheveux raides 123- cheveux nodules 123- visage radieuse 123- grand yeux bleu 140

Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Sage 53- intelligent 70- révolutionnaire 95	No traits	Rébellé 33- pacifique 36	No traits

English Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Great 115	No traits	No traits	No traits

Second Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Punctual 44-well-educated44- having good manners44- friendly44- clever44- hard-working44- well-behaved44- having a good heart44- truthful 44- honest44- obedient44- typical 44	Tall 24- having a beard 24- thin 24- having a short hair with a centre parting 29- having a short hair with a side parting 29- marine haircut 29- having a dark hair 37- Having black eyes 37- handsome 37- having a well-built body 44- slim 37- having small	No traits	Slim 13- pretty 13- tall 24- having long straight blonde hair 24- having long straight fair hair 24- having long straight blonde hair- wearing hair in a bun 29- wearing hair in plaits 29- wearing hair in ponytail 29- wearing hair in dreadlocks 29- overweight 79- very charming 85-

	blue eyes 44- having a curly brown hair44- overweight 99- having a moustache 85		blonde 85- chic 85- elegant 85
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Third Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Cool 23- not very smart 23- respectful 23- calm 23- great 31- grateful 32- so smart 32- quick 32- quite active 32- having imagination32	No traits	Respectful 23- tidy23- organized 23- respectful 23- friendly 23-outgoing 23-calm 23- patient 54- impatient 56	No traits

Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Genius 20- very human 30- compassionate30- loving 30- caring 30-	Heavy-weight 12- having unbreakable hands- tall 72	Insane 44- helpful 74	Nice 76- having big long breads 82- having short hair 82

mature 30 – loyal 69- so kind 77- unkind 74- thoughtful 77			
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Secondary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Literary Stream

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
بطل 14- شجاع 50- ذو حنكة 50- حكيم 54- مثابر 104- عارف 104- راشد 104- وافر الأدب 132- فاضل الأخلاق 132- مجتهد 132- جبان 145- عادل 154- 163 داهية	قوي الجسم 50- شديد الجلد 50- أقدام شاحبة 135- رأس منكس 135- وجه متعب 135- مجعد الوجه 137	نجبية 132	No traits

Scientific Stream

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
<p>بطل 18- شجاع 42- مشاور 65- لايحب التميز 66- طيب 115- محترم 115 - داهية 142- متخرج في سلوكه 154- كريم 154- لين 154- حسن التدبير 154- عادل 194</p>	<p>مرفوع الرأس 114- عينان وديعتان و صارمتان 114- اشيب 115- عابس 116</p>	<p>متعلمة 59- حنونة 163</p>	<p>وجه شاحب 115</p>

Second Year

Literary Stream

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
<p>جبار 12- مجتهد 86- بطل 101- طاغي 127- متضامن 141- خجول 141- معتر بنفسه 141</p>	<p>شعر بياضه مختلط بسواده 196- وسيم الطلعة 196- لونه شاحب 196- وجهه مشرق 197</p>	<p>ثائرة 140- نعم السلوك 173-</p>	<p>أنيقة 127- شعر اسود فاحم 140- جميلة 140</p>

Scientific Stream

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
حليم 22- ليس سياسي	وسيم الطلعة	معتدلة الخلق	نقية اللون و الثغر 53-
22- مجتهد 25- فاسق	111- يختلط	53- حليلة 53-	قمراء 53-دعجاء 53-
30- ماجن 30- إنساني	بياض شعره	كريمة 53	عيناء 53- أسيلة الخد
101- متضامن 101-	بسواده 111-		53- بعيدة مهوى القرط
خجول 101- معتز	لونه شاحب		53- حسنة المعصم 53-
بنفسه 101- حلو	111- وجود		لطيفة الكف 53- أنيقة
الحديث 111- وقور	تجاعيد على		89- جميلة 99- شعر
111- صامت 112-	الوجه 112-		أسود فاحم 99
مهمل 112	وجه مشرق		
	112		

Third Year

Literary Stream

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
حليم 9-متبسم 9- معجز	- مجه مشع	نجيبة 12- صامدة	جميلة 110-شعرها
9- كريم الخلق 9-	213- وجه	124- بطلة 125-	الأسود 110- زندها
رقيق 23- بريء 23-	مكدود 213-	طيبة المزاج 226-	اسود 124- رائعة
قوي 205-دنيء 220-	قزم 220- أشيب	ذات قلب كبير	205
منافق 220- ذو هيبة	220- منتفخ	231- ذات لسان	

226- ذو كرامة خارقة	البطن 220-	سليط 255-سيئة	
227- ذو انفاس صادقة	غليظ الصوت و	255- حمقاء 256-	
227- حكيم 227-	الرقبة 220-	عفيفة 255- طاهرة	
محبوب 227- شقي	جميل 236-	255	
231- أبله 232-	وجود شعيرات		
عازم 280- مصمم	على الذقن		
280	236- ذو نظرة		
	حاقدة 268		

Scientific Stream

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
صبور 98- بطل	وجه مشع 164-	حنون 53- ثائرة	جميلة 89- شعرها
119- ذو هيبية	وجه مكدود 164	89- طيبة المزاج	أسود فاحم 89-
178- متواضع		178-مرأة سوء	
216- نزيه 216		204- لسان سليط	
		205- عفيفة 205-	
		205 طاهرة	

French Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
bien éduqué 79- malhonnête 142- sérieux 167- ambitieux 167- sérieux par excellence 171- sourire rarement 171- jamais rire 171	cheveux noircis, gominés et coiffés en arrière 142- petite barbiche soignée 142- avoir de bons yeux 153- grand 158- trapu 176- grosse tête 176- des narines épaisses 176- nez court 176- large lèvres 176- des dents blanches 176- yeux grands et ronds 176- sourcil menaçant 176- oreilles pendants 176- cheveux roux 176- face bronze 176	-Saine 79- Vigoureuse 79- bien élevée 79- douce 85- patiente 85- malicieuse 85- douloureuse 85- pleine de courage 85- âme fraîche 85- bête 164- brave 167	Belle 79- Petite 85- avoir des rides 85- cheveux blancs 85- des yeux fatigues 85

Second Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Gentile 119- Intelligent 166	Yeux brillants 117- barbe hérissée 194	Folle 182- avoir passion 160- bon Cœur 175	Jolie 53- maigre 105- fausses rides 124- grosse 174- grande

			174
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Third Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Honnête 109- despotique 114- voluptueux 114- avoir un caractère inexplicable 203	Blond 203- Front blanc 203- paupières oranges 203- un œil aux longs cils noirs 203- Brun 204	Sauvage 38- gracieuse 222- gentille 222- adorable 225	Pale 103- blonde 203- petite 222

English Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Hard worker 52- great 52- lazy 52- improvident 52- incapable of bringing food to his wife and children 52- liking action 52- courageous 52- hero-intelligent 53- great 53- curious	Tall 52- huge 52- having a very dark complexion 52- having a wide nose 52- having a very bushy eyebrows 52- having a fierce look 52- thin 52- handsome 52- having a gentle look 52- having a little scar on the left cheek 53- having curly and black hair- 54- having	Volunteer 35- magic 51- curious 59- hard worker 94- cordial 94- polite 94- friendly 94- cheerful 102	Pretty 53- having a round face 53- having a little turned up nose 53- round grey eyes 54- having long dark eyelashes 54- having cold grey

59- having a great soul 70- quick 94- heavy smoker 94-cold 94- recluse 126	black hair 54- having a bald 54- having a short mustache 54- having pointed chin 54- not strong 127		eyes 54
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Second Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Good 116- kind 116- jealous 151	No traits	Kind 32-loyal 32- behaving in an educated way 32- loved 104- keen of mind 115-stupid 180	Elegant 34- tall 40- strong 40- little 104- red-haired 104- blue-eyed 104- odd-looking 104- big eyes 104- big teeth 104- very beautiful 115- slight beautiful 115

Third Year

Males		Females	
Personal	Physical	Personal	Physical
Intelligent 170- not showing off 170- always thinking about others 170- cruel 112- helpful 177- do not laugh at embarrassing things 177-	No traits	Funny 89- friendly 89- quiet 89- having strong character 89- mad 192- bright 202-	Tall 89- nice 89- thin 89

insane 192- lazy 220- venerable 243		dependable 202	
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Appendix IV

The Primary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
نجار 11-15-معلم 35- مدير 39- طبيب 93- حكم كرة القدم 65- حارس مرمى 63- ملاكم 67 - لاعب كرة الطاولة 63- رياضي 99	غرس الأشجار في حديقة المنزل 85	معلمة 11-29- ممرضة 63-93	تحضير طاولة الأكل 21 -غرس الأشجار في حديقة المنزل 85 - تقديم الحليب للأطفال 101

Second Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
نجار 11-معلم 16- 115-مجاهد 43- فلاح 59- ملاكم 67- لاعب كرة	مرافقة البنت إلى المدرسة 10- زيارة معرض	معلمة 16 - طبية 123-ممرضة 129- منشطة 137	- إيقاظ البنت لتذهب إلى المدرسة 11 - إعداد الفطور 33 - كنس البيت 36

القدم 74- حكم كرة	الكتاب(85)-	- غسل الأواني 38
القدم 75- قائد	المشاركة في	-ترتيب الأثاث 38
الكشافة 94--	تنظيف الحي	-تنظيم الملابس 38
موظف شركة المياه	95	- إخراج الافرشة إلى
101- طبيب	الذهاب الى	الشرفة 38
الأسنان- 128-	البحيرة	- زيارة المتحف (85)
بهلوان 144- عون	(100)-	-زيارة معرض الكتاب
استقبال بالمتحف	ترتيب ادواته	(86)
158	(116) -	-الذهاب الى البحيرة
	الذهاب إلى	(100)
	مركز البريد	- تقديم الوجبة للبنت 114
	137- زيارة	- تجهيز الفطور 116
	المتحف	- اخذ البننت إلى طبيب
	(158)	الأسنان 128
		- تقديم الدواء للبننت 129
		-الخروج إلى المحلات
		التجارية 164
		- تحضير أطباق المأكولات
		165

Third Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
مهندس 16- بائع الحلويات	نقل الحفيد إلى	مهندسة 16-	- إعداد الكعك
34 – تاجر 35- طبيب	المستشفى 10	معلمة 43-	والحلوى 31
39- فلاح 44- سمكري	-الخروج لإحضار	81- مضيضة 46	- خياطة العلم للابن
46- بيطري 46- خياط	هدية للبنات 14	- طبيبة 86-	52
- 46- اسكافي 46- معلم	- الذهاب إلى	ممرضة 91-	- اخذ الابن إلى
51 – إطفائي 57- مخرج	السوق 26	فنانة 94	الطبيب 82
سينمائي 58- صاحب	- رعاية الأولاد		- تحضير وجبة
مطحنة 63- صياد 68 –	34		العشاء 86
حكم كرة القدم 79- طبيب	- الذهاب إلى		- تقديم الخضر
82- فاكهاني 89- طبيب	السينما 47		للأبناء 88
أطفال 91- موسيقار 94-	- اخذ الإبن إلى		- تحضير شربة
قاضي 99- مسرحي 99-	طبيب الأطفال 91		عدس للابن 90
ممثل 101- رسام 101-	- الذهاب إلى		- تحضير خبز
مهرج 101- صياد السمك	محطة البنزين مع		الشعير 103
115- بحار 120- مخترع	الوالد 111		- فتل الكسكس
125- سائق سيارة أجرة	- قراءة القصص		104
129	للأحفاد 116		-تحضير مأدبة
			الغذاء 105

Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
مدير مدرسة 10- مدرس 10-30-	مرافقة البنات	أديبة 23-	صنع رقائق
بائع رقائق الديول 13- ماسح زجاج	إلى المدرسة	مفكرة 23-	الديول 13-
السيارات 14- بائع المطوع 21- زعيم	10- إعداد	معلمة 68-	تنظيف الشقة
23- الضامن 27- لمين تاجمعاث 27-	الطعام 18-	نساجة 95-	36- تحضير
لوكيل تاجمعاث 27- بناء 27- فارس	إحضار	ملكة 99-	البغير 44-
47- رجل علوم عسكرية 47- رجل ادب	الطبيب	أميرة 99-	تحضير
47- رجل ثقافة 47- طبيب 82- حكم	للزوجة 82-	مضيضة 129-	قرص الكسرة
كرة القدم 86- حارس الفريق 86- لاعب	التجول في		52- غسل
كرة القدم 86- حياك 98- حكواتي	أزقة المدينة		الصوف و
103- مرشد سياحي 109- عالم بحار	116		تجفيفها 95-
و محيطات 124- عالم فضاء 124-			سقي الولد
مختص في الإعلام الآلي 125- صياد			بخلطة
السماك 137			الأعشاب 81

Fifth Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
معلم 14- مدير 14- عامل نظافة	إصلاح	- معلمة 9-	- تحضير
26رسول - نجار 28- كهربائي 2_ -	الحنفية 62-	ممرضة 29-	الغرايف
بناء 28-ميكانيكي 28- حداد 28-	السفر 132	40- بائعة	- تحضير
سمكري 28- اسكافي 28- كاتب 28-		حطب 94-	الطعام 90
رجل إطفاء 29- طبيب 31- مدير		-بائعة كبريت	
مركز استشفائي 31- رسام 39-		12كاتبة -	
خليفة 41- قائد حربي 44- فيلسوف		126- خادمة	
44 126- ملك 44- 126- شيخ		126	
تدريس القران 48- جندي 52- ربان			
بحر 58- رئيس بلدية 64- حصاد			
69- بائع حطب 94- تاجر 94- عالم			
94- سلطان 94- 133 مكتشف 99-			
باحث 99- مهندس 103- عالم			
رياضيات 106- بستاني 106-			
صاحب دكان 115- حارس باب			
116- روائي 126- كاتب 126- بائع			
في السوق الأسبوعي- أمير 129-			
رحالة 132 صاحب مطعم 133-ملاكم			
133- بحار 137- راعي 143-			
قاضي 143			

French Textbooks

Third Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Photographe	- Apporter les légumes 34	Pharmacienne	- Va au marché 16
45- coiffeur 75-		45 – coiffeuse	- Tricote un bonnet bleu au petit-fils
dessinateur 75-	- Va au parc 47	75–	Mounir 34
chef de quai 83-	- Donner le lait au veau 61	dessinatrice	- Va à la pharmacie 45
infirmier 84-		75- infirmière	- Va au parc 47
couturier 84-	- Donner des carottes au lapin 62	84- couturière	- Préparer l'omelette 57
boxeur 91-		84- maitresse	- Prépare le gâteaux au chocolat 61
pompier 92-	- Occuper bien dans le jardin 69	88-	- Donner du foin au taureau 62
maçon 97-	- Mettre du parfum a ours brun 71		- Donne des grains à la poule 62
magicien 106	- Donner les carottes aux lapins 75		- Mettre le chien dans la cuisine 64
	- Emmène la famille pour diner 85		- Laver et mettre du parfum à la poupée 76
	--Planter des		- Aider la mère à remplir le panier 79
			- Préparer les beignets 79- 84
			- Préparer les enfants 79
			- Planter des arbres dans le jardin d'écoles 88
			- Distribuer les bonbons aux élèves 94

	arbres dans le jardin d'écoles 88 - Prépare la compote 95 - Débarrasser la table 103		- Préparer la confiture 101 - Servir des nouilles et une soupe de fenouil 103
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Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Pâtissier 24- coiffeur 27- vendeur 27- directeur 27- dessinateur 27- infirmier 27- laitier 27- marchand de légumes 34- cordonnier 42- clown 45- 61- mécanicien 54- le magicien 61- professeur de	-Aller au magasin 32 - Aller au marché avec la fille 38 - Aider la mère à préparer la fête 53 - préparer la fête 65 - Réviser le leçon de français 65 - Faire dormir les chatons 78- - Ramasser du bois 79	Pâtissière 24- nageuse 27- directrice 27- dessinatrice 27- infirmière 27- laitière 27- maitresse 42	-Aller au magasin 32 - Aller au marché avec le père 38 - Nettoyer la maison 49 - Dresser les assiettes 49 - Aider la maman aux préparatifs : le nettoyage de la maison, la décoration, les achats 53 - Donner les gâteaux aux fils 53 - Mettre le henné au petit-

français 66- chef d'orchestre 66- pirate 78- gardien de la piscine 89- maçon 90-pêcheur 93- arbitre 96- joueur de football 96- boulanger 96- médecin 103	- Faire des échauffements de la natation 87- Faire l'exercice 95 -Aller au stade 96		filis 53 - Faire de délicieux gâteaux 56 - Préparer le petit déjeuner 58 - Faire les devoirs 65 - Raconter une histoire au petit-fils 74 - Ramener du désinfectant avec un gros pansement pour soigner le frère 94
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Fifth Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Maitre 14- vétérinaire 19- gardien de zoo- jouer de football 30- directeur 39- gardien de muse 42- musicien 42 – magicien 42-	-Promener dans le parc 19 -Donner le casse-croute, morceau de pastèque et un jus de pêche aux élèves 20 - Jouer dans le jardin de l'immeuble 27 - Aller à la bibliothèque du quartier 30	Vétérinaire dans le zoo 12 – joueuse de football 30- directrice 30- dessinatrice 30- danseuse 30- comédienne 42-	-Nourrir le perroquet 17 -Promener dans le parc 19 - Préparer les crêpes 20 - Prépare le diner 53 -Préparer une soupe 76 -Préparer des mini-

comédien 42- mécanicien 42- vendeur 50- cordonnier 52- médecin 59-pompier 59- chanteur 66- artiste 66- entraîneur 67- ingénieur 67- policier 67- boulangier 67- acteur 67- plombier 95	- Aller à la piscine 31 - Accompagner la fille au musée 41 - Faire une course de vélo 43 - Donner des bonbons aux cousins 48 - Sortir les poubelles 84	mécanicienne 42- championne de natation 42- pharmacienne 42- gardienne de but 42- informaticienne 42- pâtissière 64- dentiste 67- architecte 67	pizzas 86
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The Middle School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
طبيب 16- عالم 32- شاعر 37- مظلي 40- رسول 41- نبي 52- معلم 53- كاتب- 56- 66- ملك 58- 76-	رعاية الولد و رعاية مطالبه 14- الذهاب مع الأب إلى محطة البنزين 89- ترتيب كتبه 119- إعداد	معلمة 53	إحضار الطعام للجارة و تساعدها على قضاء حاجاتها اليومية 16- تربية الابن و تعليمه 16- إطعام الولد 15- إعطاء

<p>جندي 58-77- حارس</p> <p>58- عالم 60- مدير</p> <p>مستشفى 60 - خليفة</p> <p>60- موسيقار 62-</p> <p>قيصر 62- إمبراطور</p> <p>62- أمير 62- حاكم</p> <p>64- تقلد منصب من</p> <p>مناصب الدولة 64-</p> <p>وزير 76- مفتش 846</p> <p>مدير مدرسة 84- بواب</p> <p>84- رائد فضاء 102-</p> <p>أستاذ 108- ماسح</p> <p>أحذية 116- فلاح</p> <p>124- حلاق 124-</p> <p>إمام 124- قاض 125-</p> <p>راعي 125</p>	<p>الملابس 124-</p> <p>مسح الأحذية 124-</p> <p>الذهاب إلى الحلاق</p> <p>124- الذهاب إلى</p> <p>المسجد 124-</p> <p>زيارة المقابر 124-</p> <p>الذهاب مع الأب إلى</p> <p>السوق لشرا كبش</p> <p>العيد 129- الذهاب</p> <p>إلى المدرسة 159</p>	<p>الدواء للولد 16-سهر</p> <p>الليل لي اجل الولد 16-</p> <p>مشط شعر الولد 18- -</p> <p>تبديل ضمادة الذراع 20-</p> <p>وضع اليد على جبين</p> <p>المريض و وضع الثلج</p> <p>على جبين المريض و</p> <p>غسل ذراع 20- الذهاب</p> <p>إلى المدرسة 22-</p> <p>إنضاج الخبز 124-</p> <p>صناعة الحلوى 124</p>
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Second Year

Males		Females	
Professional Roles	Domestic Roles	Professional Roles	Domestic Roles
<p>محامي 13- قاضي 13- ساعي البريد 13-لنبي 34- كاتب 40 رجل شرطة 31- أستاذ 41- شاعر 45- رجل الحماية المدنية 50- قائد - أمير 57- طبيب 97- عالم 102- علم رياضيات 106- الاشتغال بمعمل النسيج 122- مفكر 135- صيدلاني 160</p>	<p>تربية الابن 26- العناية بالابن 26- طبيب الجرحى 57- تحمل رعاية الزوجة والأبناء 62- صرف وصفة الدواء من عند الصيدلي للبننت</p>	<p>ملكة 57- الاشتغال في معمل الخياطة 122</p>	<p>تقشير البرتقال و تكسير الجوز 12- تحضير و تقديم الحلويات للعائلة و الضيوف 12- تزيين طبق الكعك بالحلوى 13- رعاية الأم 16- تربية الأبناء 19- تحضير طبق الطعام 21- العناية بالبننت 26- حياكة العلم 40- طرز العلم 40- تطيب البننت</p>

Third Year

Males		Females	
Professional Roles	Domestic Roles	Professional Roles	Domestic Roles

صاحب دكان 12- تاجر 21- مدير مدرسة 31- مدير محطة تليفزيونية 34- مدير تحرير 34- 1- رسول معلم 52- رحالة 72- سلطان 76- حاكم 76- خياط 142- حياك 142- نبي 151- مختبر 151- حداد 139- صانع النحاس 141- شاعر 164	- جلب الماء 77- الذهب إلى حفل الزفاف	مذيعة 34- رعاية المسنين في دار الرحمة 63- كاتبة 118- صانعة الفخار 132- فنانة 133- بائعة الصوف 137	- ندف الصوف وغزلها 137 - إعداد الأطباق التقليدية 138
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Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
قاضي 11- شواء 16- علامة 30- صحفي 30 - عالم 67 - سلطان 79- صيدلي 79- فيلسوف 100- عالم رياضيات 100- سباك 119- خراز 119- حداد 119- صانع أحذية 119- منطف الحي 119- فارس 150- أمير 150- قائد 150- طبيب 152- رجل أعمال 154- مفكر 16	البقاء مع الجدة 136	أميرة 79	-وضع المايذة للزوج 10 - غسل الملابس 10 -انجاز سجادة 130 - نسج برنوس للابن 139 -غزل الصوف و نسجها 139

French Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Chef de service pneumologie 12- chef d'établissement 21- professeur du sport 21- cuisinier 25- instituteur 28- écrivain 29- facteur 47- restaurateur 47- directeur à l'OMS 58- médecin 61- ministre 61- ramasseur de ball 61- athlète 66- président d'APC savant 87- pêcheur 92- roi 93- agronome 109- fermier 105- travailleur 105- pilote 107- pharmacien 117- pompier 123- vétérinaire 127- chercheur 148- ministre d'énergies 154- défenseur de l'environnement 170- jardinière 171	Faire la toilette 71- préparer les affaires du bain 25	Cuisinière 45- écrivaine 71- enseignante 71- travailleuse 105- nourrice 158- président du conseil d'Etat 166- maitresse 171	Aplatir la pate à pain 44 -Conserver les confitures dans une armoire 47- faire le broderie 112

Second Year

Males		Females	
Professional Roles	Domestic Roles	Professional Roles	Domestic Roles
Le Bucheron 13- roi 15- 19- 20- prince 15- magicien 16-22- chanteur- pêcheur 17- chasseur 18- empereur 22- berger 31- jardinier 35- paysan 38- Sultan 50- tailleur- chef de paysans 53- chef 54- fabuliste 68- professeur 111- laboureur 145- forgeron 146- chef des serviteur 151	Partir à chasser 18- visiter la grand-mère 18- aller à pêcher 18- ramasse les étoiles de mer 23- accompagner le père pour chasser 52- accompagner le père à Tlemcen 138- aller dévier l'eau de la rivière	Princesse 15- 19- magicienne 16- la reine 19- sorcière 21- 24- bergère 105- servante 118	Filer de la laine 17- chercher d'une plante pour le père 58- raconter des histoires dans le jardin 131- planter et arroser les grenadiers 126- servir les repas 151- visiter la femme qui venait d'accoucher 151

Third Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Vendeur de haschich 15- chef de cabinet du wali 17- raïs du chalutier 17- marin 17- pompier 226 maire 25- pilote	- Aider la fille à réviser les leçons	Bergère 7- directrice d'école 60-	-Venir chaque jour lui (son père) apporter à manger

<p>28- officier de police 28- pêcheur 38- juge 42- opérateur 48- officier de service 48- officier de passerelle 486 professeur 53- ambulancier 55- officier de police 59-inspecteur de police 59- secrétaire général de la wilaya 63- membre d'une association de bienfaisance 65- professeur de français71- Moujahid 71- soldat 75- colonel 80- combattant- Emir 106- acteur 107- charpentier 133- cosmonaute 133- joueur de football 137- architecte 138- Imam 141- chanteur 141- volcanologue 147- agronome 147- écologiste 147- peintre 147- boxeur 147- rugbyman 147</p>		<p>Moujahida 80- poétesse 94- chercheuse 144</p>	<p>7 - Servir le blessé au béquille 75 - Préparer de 'Bradj', de la galette fourrée a la pate de dates 194 - Sortir dans les champs cueillir toutes sortes de fleurs et de plantes 93 - préparer un plat traditionnel 96 - Aller chercher à l'argile trayeuse 133</p>
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Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
<p>Poète 25- chanteur 25- cultivateur 25- commandant 25- Emir 29- consul 30- responsable militaire 33- gouverneur 34-</p>	<p>Faire un voyage 35</p>	<p>Kahina 36- guerrière 36- reine 47-</p>	<p>-Faire un voyage 19 - Protéger ses</p>

<p>dey 35- colonel de l'ALN 37- professeur 39- maréchal 40- caïd 40- policier 40- saint homme 50- homme de politique 50- peintre 53- directeur de collège 53- ministère de la culture 55- réalisateur 55- acteur 56- responsable de la culture 57-guide touristique 57- calligraphe 57- militant 57- enlumineur 57- vendeur des fleurs 60- écrivain 61- comédien 61- travailleur dans un usine 61- vendeur des journaux 70- policier 73- commissaire de police 73- transporteur de la pate de bois 76- Imam 77- journaliste 81- ministère de la jeunesse et des sports 90- arbitre 91- chef d'un parti politique 93- membre d'une association 93- directeur du collège 93- entraineur de basketball 93- dirigeant d'un club 93- responsable de l'organisation international du travail 92- home politique 95- philosophe 95- directeur de la protection de la faune et flore 112- pompier 113- ministère de l'environnement 114</p>		<p>représentante 68- ministre de la culture 88- président d'une association 95- ministère de l'environnement 117</p>	<p>filles comme des poupées 19</p>
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English Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Teacher 50- doctor 50- mechanic 50- veterinarian 50- electrician 50- lawyer 50- carpenter 50- dustman 50- farmer 50-architect 51- surgeon 50- thinker 115	No roles	Teacher 13- 56- nurse 49	No roles

Second Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Journalist 37- waiter 53- school principal 54- architect 85- chemist 87- weatherforcaster 138	Going to the swimming pool 14- playing football with the mates 14- training Judo 14- doing homework 14- playing tennis 15- doing	Teacher 37- queen 63- doctor 78- dietitian 80- chemist 85- princess	Preparing couscous 46- doing shopping 47- going skiing 68- teaching the kids 77- taking the daughter to the doctor 78- taking care of the sick mother 86

	training sessions 15- doing shopping 47- going skiing 68		
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Third Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Prince 30- philosopher 31- scholar 31- writer 43- poet 43- physicist 43- - king 43- caveman 31- Moujahid 44- chauffeur 57- emperor 66- traveller 73- soldier 73- painter 82- scientist 52- scholar 90- teacher 90- judge 90- musician 92- caliph 96- policeman 97- waiter 97- inventor 98- journalist 98- surgeon 99- physician 99- mathematician 99- astronomer 99	Driving children to the school 54	Reporter 32- teacher 32- judge- Imzad teacher 36- Imzad player 44- chauffeuse 57- Policewoman 97- waitress 97- nurse	-Going for long walk in the countryside 27- doing a lot of domestic chores 48 -Serving the husband and children with food 48

Fourth Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Boxer 12- writer 13- artist17- painter22- Sultan22- - humanitarian worker 30- scientist 33- engineer 33- sculptor36- architect- 36- poet 40- novelist40- playwright 40- shepherd 50- king 50- farm labourer51- director of cultural affairs at the ministry of information 51- teacher51- lawyer 69- employer 69- engineer- writer 70- fighter 77- captain 78- co-pilot 78- Quadi 82- baker 82- president of a country 92- leader 92- actor 92- inventor 92- advertising art director 92	No roles	Queen 14- 101- teacher 62- writer- flight attendant 74- fighter 82	No roles

Secondary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Literary Stream

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
فارس 30- حاكم 33- طبيب 38- تاجر	No roles	ملكة 24-	-إعداد
43- وزير 46- عالم 46- صانع 46- معلم		ممرضة 43-	الأكل
47- قاضي 47- سياسي 47- رسول 54-		خادمة	158
جندي 54- رياضي 54- شاعر 55- إمام		136- عاملة	
56- وزير العمل 85- خليفة 88- خطيب		136- كاتبة	
89- حارس 107- رئيس المصلحة		137- جارية	
الإدارية 111- الموظف 111- كاتب		174	
133- مستشار القضاء 193- أديب 193-			
والي 199- أمير 199- مدير 201			

Scientific Stream

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
فارس 18- أمير 37- حاكم 37- نبي 37-	- زيارة قبر	كاتبة 132-	زيارة قبر
فيلسوف 38- رسول 38- فقيه 38- سلطان	الوالدين	بائعة الخبز	الوالدين
38- عالم فلك 38- مخترع 38- قس 39-	165	164	165
رئيس 65- خليفة 76- شاعر 77- أستاذ			
105- وزير 113- رئيس مخفر الشرطة			
115- فلاح 115- مختار الضيعة 115-			

خطيب 135- رجل مطافئ 148- تاجر 149- سياسي 154- طبيب 164- مدير مدرسة 164- رئيس جمعية 167- حارس 182- - ملك 183- إمام 194- مؤرخ 204			
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Second Year

Literary Stream

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
وزير 8- حجاب 8- كتاب 8- قائد جيش 8- خليفة 8- جندي 8- ملك 12- لفيلسوف 19- شاعر 23- سلطان 39- أمير 39- نقاش 40- نبي 44- مغني 60- رجل دين 74- قاضي 79- عالم 83- قائد 101- حاكم 101- عالم فلك 113- تاجر 117- والي 127- رجل دولة 127- إمام 133- موظف مسجد 159- موظف الطرق 159- رجل إصلاح 159- رجل مال 160- رجل تجارة 160- رئيس طائفة 169- نساج 196- ناظر زراعة 197- فلاح 197- تاجر 214- صياد 214- موسيقيار	No roles	مغنية 60- جارية 61	تحضير الخبز 89- تحضير القهوة 89

Scientific Stream

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
<p>وزير 8- حجاب 8- كتاب 8- قائد جيش 8- خليفة 8- حاكم 9- فيلسوف 16- ملك 16- مغني 18- شاعر 18- كاتب 29- رجل دين 41- أمير 42- قاضي 48- أستاذ 73- مترجم 77- رجل فكر 77- رجل دولة 88- والي 89- عالم 89- مغني 89- نساج 111- فلاح 112- ناظر زراعة 112- حمال 113- رسول 117- جندي 117- موظف الطرق 142- موظف المسجد 142- رجل إصلاح 142- رجل مال 142- رجل تجارة 142- صياد 150- فنان 153</p>	No roles	جارية 53	<p>القيام بشؤون المنزل 101</p>

Third Year :

Literary Stream :

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
<p>رسول 9- نبي 9- عالم 9- قاضي 12- ملك 20- سلطان 20- جزار 20- دهان 20- كحال 20- والي 20- حاكم 21- فلاح 23- راعي 23- باشا 23- مثقف</p>	<p>إقامة الصلاة 226</p>	<p>كاتبة 111- شاعرة 113- قديسة 221- مجاهدة 221-</p>	<p>-غسل الملابس 102- تحضير</p>

<p>23- متسول 23- قائد 35- رحالة 46- مؤرخ 46-شاعر 54- ملك 61- خطيب 98-جنرال 102- روائي 111- ناقد 120- سجان 124- أستاذ 128- خليفة 164- زعيم 169- إمام 173- تاجر 173-رائد إصلاح 185- حمل الأثقال 206- حفر الطرق 206- حفر المناجم 206- وقاف 212- ضابط 212- قايد 112- خوجة 212- أديب 220- موظف 220- جندي 221- مجاهد 221- صاحب مقهى 237- رأس أطباء 248- كهان 248- وزير 248</p>		<p>ملكة 248- مكافحة 255</p>	<p>العشاء 265</p>
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Scientific Stream

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
<p>رحالة 9- علامة 33- مؤرخ 34- مدرس ديني 47- أستاذ جامعي 47- صحافي 47- شاعر 47- روائي 90- جنرال 97- رسول 100- جندي 102- ناقد 115- كاتب 124- وقاف 163- قايد 163- ضابط 163- خوجة 164- صياد 172- صاحب مقهى 183- أديب</p>	No roles	<p>كاتبة 90- ملكة 195</p>	<p>غسل الملابس 97</p>

216- رئيس مشرف على لجنة علمية 216			
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French Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Poète 13- empereur 24- chimiste 42- médecin 62- professeur 66- agriculteur 69- basketteur 90- entraîneur 90- maitre d'étude 96- journaliste 112- - directeur d'école normale et superieure 114-agriculteur 118- boulangier 118-mineur 118- policier 123- cornac travaille dans un parc 133- patron de l'hôtel 138- maire 142- chauffeur de taxi 142- directeur technique à l'APC- procureur 144- policier 145- roi 153- marin 154- chef de touareg 158- capitaine 160- cuisinier 161- pêcheur 163- directeur d'une grande industrie 171- officier 183- peintre 189	-Pousser le chien à la pommade 68 - Sortir pour aller chercher du bois 166	Agricultrice 70- gérante d'une Enterprise 76- travailler dans un bureau 89- professeur de littérature 114- Actrice 191-	-Faire un café 190

Second Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Pompier 7- derviche 31- Emir 61- physicien 64- chercheur 73- président 74- Dey 74- leader mondial des biotechnologie végétales 143- directeur d'un Clinique 79-prophète- professeur 116-enseignant 130- gouverneur 160- prince 160- roi 162- mécanicien 165- astronaute 191- cosmonaute 193	-Préparer les cours à la maison 130 - Cueillir les oranges dans la serre 29	Journaliste 31-poète 116- Gouvernante	-Faire un purée 10 - Prendre le chemin a l'école 56 - Soigner le bébé - faire le repas du matin 128

Third Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Ingénieur 9- gouverneur 12- calife 12- roi 13- historien 19- mathématicien 25- poète 25- policier 27- Fellah 30- inspecteur 30- colonel 31- écrivain 39- consul 45- politicien 45- saint 45- officier 57- gestionnaire 63- sergent parachutiste 72- avocats 72- rais 77- président d'une office parlementaire 84- théologien 114-	No roles	Kahina (devineresse) 11- infirmière 54- gestionnaire 63- femme de cuisine 163- gouvernante	Ravitailer les Djounouds 55

religieux de l'église 114- Duc 114- prince 114- entraîneur 117- philosophe 131- directeur d'une service 134- directeur de l'UNESCO- - président de la république 154- premier ministre 154- gérant d'une librairie 175- barbier 180- juge 182- chanteur 203- chasseur 203- boulanger 218		203	
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English Textbooks

First Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Electrician 21- engineer 32- secretary 42- guide 42- sailor 48- fisherman 48- king 48- horsemen 49- writer 52- wrestler 53- clerk 63- worker in a factory 63- worker for the navy 64- actor 65- leader 70- colonel 71- music hall performer 72- teacher 75- policeman 90- news presenter 94- police officer 96- clock maker 99- writer 99- inventor 113- businessman 117- - artist 126-	Washing 127- ironing 127- cooking 127- sewing 127-	Teacher 51- music hall performer 72- cardiologist 88- psychologist 88- airhostess 90- architect 137	-Going to the school 21 -Attending to the father 27 -Taking care of her little sister 27 - Looking after the brothers and sisters 35 - Washing

tax collector 126- clergyman 126- telegraph operator 126- patent-office clerk 126- astrologer 126- book binder 126-gourmet 126- physician 126- recluse 126- chemist 126- brewer 126- master of plantation 127- clothes washer 127- farmer 127- agricultural chemist 127- handicraft 127- painter 127- 128- researcher 129- captain 170- king 170- merchantman 171- newspaper reporter 171-climate specialist 173			clothes 110
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Second Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Farmer 16- worker in a factory 16- boss 16-docker 19-foreman 19-canner 20- waiter 25-mayor 28- public officer 28- businessman 32-painter 33- barber 33- dentist 33- doctor 33- soldier 34-worrior 34- head of the international Atomic Energy Agency 42- -doctor of physics 95- caliph 96- astronomer 96- physician 96-	-Doing shopping 16 - Running every afternoon (doing sports) 18 - Going to the post office 19 - Going to the	Research project director 168- worker 173- manager 173- personal assistant 186 - teacher 198-	-Cooking food 18- - Preparing dinner 18 - Going out with the parents 32

astronomer 96- physicist 96- mathematician 97- huntsman 104- bus driver 111- shepherd 114- trader 114- king 115- prince 115- marketer 115- market supervisor 115- guard 116- judge 116- policeman 116-scientist 139- chairman 134- blacksmith 151- laboratory assistant 151- captain 155- sales department worker 168-earthquake expert 184- education specialist 184- home technology specialist 184- personnel manager 186	seaside 20 - Painting the kitchen 105 - Going to the university 182	nurse 198-	- Carrying food to the grandmoth er 114 - Going to the university 182
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Third Year

Males		Females	
Professional	Domestic	Professional	Domestic
Scientist 19- explorer 20- navigator 20- Emir 23- traveler 26- caliph 26- conquistador 27- official 34- king 38- ruler 38- Mayor 48- custom officer 53- businessman 63- critic 67- cook 75- welder 75-headmaster 75- commercial artist 76- policeman 77- firefighter 77- doctor 77- police inspector 94- sporting man 134- astronomer 140- astronaut 141-footballer-	-Taking charge of the sons 179 - Telling stories to the children 202	Musician 75- biologist 75- chemical engineer 75- comedian 166- princess 179- patron of a charity 179-	-Preparing vesta, chicken supreme with rice 134 - Taking care of the little sister 203

<p>geographer 151- comedian 166- prince 179- chauffeur 180- writer 191- historian 196- farmer 197- craftsman 197- radio host 199- head of an association 199- Czar 202- inspector 201- professor of physics 202- doctor 203-prime minister 204- humorist 207- worker in a factory 211- waiter 211- detective 211- historian 241- scholar 241- philosopher 243- minister of E-commerce 246- spokesman 246- civil servant 248- school inspector 252- veterinary surgeon 252- Fisherman 263- religious leader 268</p>		<p>executive 211-detective 211- secretary 254</p>	
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The Primary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
No interactions	-المعلمة بشرى مع التلاميذ 37 - خديجة مع أحمد 61 - الأم مع بلال و صديقه 101

Second Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- الأم مع ابنتها 11 - ليلي مع صديقتها 9 - الأم مع ابنتها و صديقة ابنتها 10 - المعلمة مع تلميذة 16 - المعلمة مع البنات 21 - ليلي مع المعلمة 23 - الأم مع سلمى 35 - البنت مع مريم 38 - سلمى مع الجدة 44 - ثريا مع سهام 53 - سهام مع و داد 65 - سعاد مع أمها 122 - منى مع المعلمة 129	- ليلي مع أبيها 10 - المعلم مع الأطفال 16 - المعلمة مع تلميذ 16 - المعلمة مع الأطفال - أمين مع المعلمة 21 - سهام مع أبيها 53 - سلمى مع أبيها 100 - الأب مع سمير و ياسمين 66 - علي مع أمه 116 - أمين مع أمه 121 - الطبيبة مع الولد 126 - منى مع أبيها 127 - طبيب الأسنان مع منى 128

	<p>- احمد مع سلمى 144</p> <p>- عون الاستقبال مع جمال و أبيه و أخته</p> <p>158</p> <p>- سعاد مع أخيها جمال 158</p> <p>- الأب مع زوجته و ابنته سعاد 170</p>
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Third Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-سيرين مع جدتها 103	- الأم مع زهير 31
- وفاء مع سناء 95	- الجد مع ابنته و أحفاده 10
- الأم مع العممة 86	- الأب مع ابنته 13
	- التاجر مع أمه 35
	- التاجر مع زوجته 35
	- المرأة مع المتسول 35
	- الأم مع ابنها 35
	- حمدي مع أمه 52
	- الأب مع سيرين 56
	- عمر ياسف مع أمه 48
	-الأب مع ابنته و زوجته 14
	- رشاد مع أمه 78
	- الأم مع ابنها عمر 77
	- نزييم مع أمه 81
	- نزييم مع أخته 82
	- الطبيب مع نزييم 82
	- العممة مع أخيها 86

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - الجد مع أحفاده 116 - رسيم مع أمه 90 - عصام مع أخته أمينة 120 - الأم مع ابنها شهاب 124 - سعاد مع أبيها 129 -حسن مع العجوز 137
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Fourth Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - نانا عائشة مع رحيمة 52 -المعلمة مع كريمة 68 - المضيفة مع بسمة 129 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - المدرس مع رجاء 10 - منير مع زوجته سميرة و الجارة سعاد 35 -نانا عائشة مع مصطفى بن بولعيد 52 - المعلمة مع التلاميذ 68 - الطبيب مع سامية 82 - الكاهنة مع ابنتها خنشلة و قايس 99 - بسمة مع الجد 129

Fifth Year

Female- female	Mixed-gender
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -الأم مع الخالة أم سعيد 35 -وردة مع أمها 44 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -عبد الرحمن مع أمه - علي مع زوجته فاطمة 24 - عصام و رزان مع الخالة أم سعيد 35 -علي مع أمه 90

	- احمد مع جدته لالة مسعودة - ابن بطوطة مع العجوز 133
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French Textbooks

Third Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- Madame Lamine avec Amina 12	- Deux filles avec un garçon 18
- Two girls with each other 12	- Nadir with Melissa 19
- Nadia avec une autre fille 20	- Une fille avec son camarade 19
- La tante Loubna avec Farida 43	- Dalila avec Tarek 20
- Batoul avec Kamélia 51	- Mélissa avec son camarade 21
- La mère avec sa fille 79	- Tania avec Nadir 22
- La fille avec la mère 97	- Rima avec Ali 26
	- La maman avec Farida, le père et la tante Loubna 41
	- Farida avec Moustapha 47
	- Deux filles avec un garçon 49
	- Trois fils avec Batoul 49
	- Batoul avec un garçon 51
	- Batoul avec un garçon 52
	- Zineb avec l'oncle Slimane et Sami 57
	- Zineb avec l'oncle Slimane 57
	- Chafik avec sa mère 70
	- Chafik avec Louisa 71
	- Le fils avec sa sœur 79

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - La maitresse avec la fille et le garçon 88 -- Le garçon avec la maitresse 88 - La maman avec les enfants (deux garçons et une fille) 97 - Le garçon avec Yousef, la fille et le grand-père 97
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Fourth Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tanina avec Amira 28- 27 - Une femme avec un groupe de filles 64 - Amira avec sa mère 94 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Yacine avec Lina, Massinissa et Amira 14 - Majid avec Yacine et Tanina 15 - Mohammed Amine avec Majid et la voisine 16 -Tanina et Lina avec Mohamed Amine et Majid 16 - Mélissa avec Yacine et un garçon et une fille 17 - Lina avec Majid 32 - Amira avec Yacine 44 - Yacine avec Massinissa et Amira 53 - Yacine avec Massinissa, Tanina et Majid 62 - Un garçon avec Amira 64 - Nina avec Yacine et Majid 67 -Yacine avec Massinissa, Tanina et Amira 70 - Yacine avec sa mère 70 -Yacine avec sa grand-mère 72 -Une fille avec un garçon 73 - Yacine avec Amira, Massinissa et Tanina 74 - Amira avec Majid 95

	- La maman avec le médecin et Yacine 103
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Fifth Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- La mère avec la tante Nawel 27	- Le grand-père avec Youcef, Yacine et la grand-mère 14
- Lila avec Lamia 29	- Zakaria avec sa maman 28
- Amira avec sa mère 96	- Narimane avec Amira et le grand-père 39
- Narimane avec sa mère 97	- Le père avec la maman, Yacine et Narimane 41
	- Yacine avec Youcef et la maman 48
	- Massinissa avec le vendeur et maman 50
	- Yacine avec sa maman et son papa 51
	- Amira avec son papa 70
	- Amira avec le maître 73
	- Amira avec Youcef 75
	- Yacine avec sa maman 82
	- Narimane avec Amira et Massinissa 86
	- Massinissa avec la grand-mère 88
	- Yacine avec sa maman 93
	- Youcef avec Narimane, Yacine, Sofiane Amira, le maître et Massinissa 102
	- La maîtresse avec Yacine, Amira, et Youcef 102
	- Yacine avec Youcef et La maman 103
	- Le maître avec Yacine, Youcef, le pompier, Massinissa et Narimane 103

- La maitresse avec Massinissa, Yacine et Amira 102

The Middle School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Female- female	Mixed-gender
-أم سعيد مع أم رامي 16	-أم سعيد مع رامي 16 - العجوز مع مالك 20 - رفيق مالك مع العجوز 20 - الطفل مع أمه 24 - مخلوف مع زهور 40 - صديق محمد مع أمه 65 - المفتش مع البنت 84 - المدير مع البنت 84 - المرأة الأعرابية مع الضيف 121

Second Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-نورة مع أمها 17 - عيني مع جارتها 36	-الأب مع الابن والأم والبنت و الشيخ 26 - الأمير عبد القادر مع ملكة بريطانيا 57 - رونتجن مع زوجة 102 - الأم مع الأب وليلى و حسان 122

Third Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
No interactions	No interactions

Fourth year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-الأم مع أختها أم العارم 139	-زهرة مع زوجها 10 - الجدة مع عبد القادر 136 - الأم مع عبد القادر 136

French Textbooks

First Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- No interactions	- La mère avec le chef d'établissement 21 - La maman avec Bouboule 62 - La maman avec Karim 69

Second Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-La vieille dame avec la fille 42 - La mère avec sa fille 42	- Esteban avec la sorcière 24 - Prince avec la fille 42 - La fille avec ses parents 46 - Djohar avec son mari 50 - La femme avec son mari 56 - Le jeune Moumène avec la méchante sorcière 57 - Le Chef de Bedouins avec Baddur 107

Third Year

Female- female	Mixed-gender
No interactions	- Le professeur avec la fille 53 - La fille avec Mohammed 55 - L'officier de police avec la jeune fille 59

Fourth Year

Female- female	Mixed-gender
No interactions	- La vieille dame avec Azouz 60 - Arun Ghandi avec Emilie Lesur 78 - Meriem avec son grand-père 98

English Textbooks

First Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
<ul style="list-style-type: none">-Razane with Lina 35- Susan with Razane 41- Meriem with Margaret- Razane with Adaku 60- Houda with Kathleen 141	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-The teacher with the pupils (males and females) 34- Rafik with Rania 35- Razane with Younes36- Rafik with Lina36- Akram with Margaret 36- Younes with Diana 40- Omar with Margaret 57- Margaret with Younes 84-Younes with Meriem 108

Second Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
<ul style="list-style-type: none">-Razane with Liz 112- Sandra with her mother 46- Amy with the doctor 78- Liz with her mother 81	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-Sandra with her mother and father 50- The waiter with the Sandra's father and mother 53- Mum with the daughter and the father 54

-Dr Sandgate with Amy98	- Peter with Richard 127
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Third Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-Jenny with her grandmother 49	- Karim with Nadia 16

Fourth Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-Nadia with Nabila 15	- Karim with Nadia 19
- Zohra Drif with Roselyne 82	
- Jana with her mother 101	

Secondary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Literary Stream

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- الأم مع ابنتها 144	-أمينة مع أخيها مصطفى 160
	- قيس مع ليلي والمهدي و عفراء 175

Scientific Stream

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-زهرة مع عائشة 163 - الأم مع الطفلة 184	-عمر قاسم مع أمه 113 -أمنة مع أخوها مصطفى 149 - الفتاة مع عمها 174 - رئيس الجمعية مع زهراء 167 - الملك و زكريا و الحارس والطفلة 184

Second Year

Literary Stream

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- دنيا زاد مع المرأة 214	-خالد بن طبال مع زوجته 140 - المرأة مع المالك 214

Scientific Stream

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- دنيا زاد مع المرأة 150	-الشيخ مع العجوز 28 - خالد بن طبال مع زوجته 100 -المرأة مع الملك 150

Third year

Literary Stream

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-السيدة مع أمها 85	-خالد بن طبال مع زوجته 110
- المرأة مع ياسمينه 205	- الشاب مع خطيبته 221
- الأم مع الضيفة 237	- الأم مع ابنها 226
- لالة فاطمة نسومر مع	-شهرزاد مع شهريار 230
زوجة أخيها أمينة 254	-الأم مع صاحب المقهى 235
	-الملك مع الملكة 249
	- الأم مع السيد 237
	-الملكة مع الكهان 249
	-الملكة مع رأس الأطباء 249
	- سي الطاهر مع زوجته أمينة 254
	-لالة فاطمة نسومر مع أخيها سي الطاهر و زوجته أمينة
	254
	-المؤلف مع زوجته 269
	-المرأة مع بلال 287
	-لالة فاطمة مع سي الطاهر 287

Scientific Stream

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-السيدة مع أمها	-خالد بن طبال مع زوجته وريده 89

-الأم مع الضيفة 182 - لالة فاطمة نسومر مع زوجة أخيها أمينة 205	- الأم مع السيد 184 - سي الطاهر مع زوجته أمينة 204 -لالة فاطمة نسومر مع أخيها سي الطاهر و زوجته أمينة 205 - لالة فاطمة مع أخيها سي الطاهر 205 - حميد مع نواراة 219
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French Textbooks

First Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- La mère avec sa fille 79 - La dame avec la fillette 186	- La maman avec le médecin 62 -Lamine avec Anissa -Le pauvre garçons avec Urashima 170 -L'homme avec la fillette 186

Second Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
-No interactions	- Artie avec Edna 112 - Margie avec le père 112 - Edna avec son mari 115 - Melinda Patterson avec Winston 115 - La mère avec son petit garçon 119 - La Goethe-Sorel Tolstoi avec Pépé Harry

	<p>124</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Madia avec Pépé Werner 125 - Léo avec Ida 129 - Philipe avec Jean-Marie et Marie- Jeanne <p>166</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thomas avec Mary-Jeanne et Dick 167 - La grnd-mère avec le père, la mère et Lucie 182
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Third Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
- No interactions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Ivan IaKovlevitar avec Prascovia Ossipouna 180 - M. Bermutier avec la femme 182 - Stéphane avec sa femme Faustina 222

English Textbooks

First Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Aicha with Meriem 90 - Melissa with Dyhia 93 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Karim with Doris 90 - Bachir with Meriem 91 - Jamel with Salima 93 - The chairman with Mary, John and Peter

Second Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Leila with Maya 180- The riding girl with her mother 104- The riding girl with her grandmother 104	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- The market supervisor with his daughter 115- Rashid with Omar, Sadia and Messaouda 168- Jim with Mr. Welling and Mrs. Clarkson 179- Jamel with Maya 18

Third Year

Female-female	Mixed-gender
No interactions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- The man with the woman 59- Daisy with Jason 112- Henry with Sofiane and Lamia 171- The husband with his wife 189- Marie with her sister's husband 203- The husband with Bronya 203- James with Jenny p 205- The school inspector with Cecilia 252

Appendix V

The Primary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms

Second Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	- الحبيبة 32 - الصغيرة 163

Third Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	- حبيبي 14 - حبيبي 31

Fourth Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- رجل علوم عسكرية 47 - رجل أدب 47 - رجل ثقافة 47	No terms	-سيدة 35 -السيد 116	No terms	No terms

Fifth Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- رجل إطفاء 30	No terms	- السيد 31 -115-44 116 - سيدتي 57 - الأنسة 126	-الرجل 78	-عزيمي 35

French Textbooks

Third Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	-Madame 12, 31, 88 - Monsieur 31	No terms	- Petit 69

Fourth Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	-Monsieur p 16,18, 32, 34, 89 -Madam p 18	No terms	-La petite p57, 97 - Le petit p 78

Fifth Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	-Madame 19 - Monsieur 52, 73, 102	No terms	- Le petit 27 84 - La petite 65

The Middle School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	-العزیز 16 -الحلوة 18 -الصغير 116

Second Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- رجل الشرطة 31	No terms	No terms	No terms	-عزیزتي 102

Third Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- رجل حماية المدنية 60	No terms	- السيد 157	No terms	No terms

Fourth year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- رجل أعمال 160	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms

French Textbooks

First Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	Monsieur 112	-Homme 85, 130	-Petit 19- 21, 41 - Petite 41

Second Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	-La petite 18, 20, 37- 58, 117, 143 - Le petit 20, 24, 37, 41, 51, 53, 117

Third Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	-Rugby-man 147	No terms	- Monsieur 53 -Mesieurs 86 - Demoiselles 86	No terms	- Petite 7- 96-55 - P'tit 85 - Petit 147

Fourth Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	-Saint homme 50 - Homme de politique 95	No terms	-Monsieur 42, 60, 76, 77	-Homme 114	-Petit 60-72 - Petite 98

English Textbooks

First Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- Dustman 50	No terms	-Miss 13	No terms	No terms

Second Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	Female cousin 13	No terms	No terms	-Little 13 -Sweetheart 50, 84, 84

Third Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- Cave man 31 - Policeman 97 -Policewoman 97	No terms	No terms	- Man 31	-The little (for male) 30 - Sweetheart (for females) (51-55)

Fourth Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	-Mrs 53, 83, 84, 53, 106, -Mr p53	- Mankind 40, 76 - Men 76 - Fatherland 50	No terms

Secondary School Textbooks

Arabic Textbooks

First Year

Literary Stream

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
جارية 174	No terms	No terms	No terms	No terms	- العزيز 136 - حبيبي 160

Scientific Stream

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	-رجال المطافىء 148	No terms	No terms	-الرجل 22	- عزيزتي 164 - 165

Second Year

Literary Stream

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
61 - جارية	- رجال دين 73 -رجال دولة 127 - رجال الإصلاح 159 -رجال المال 160 - رجال التجارة 160	No terms	No terms	-الرجل 57	No terms

Scientific Stream

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
53 - جارية	- رجال دين 42 - رجال الفكر 77 -رجال دولة 88 - رجال الإصلاح	No terms	No terms	- الرجل 39	No terms

	142 - رجال المال				
	142 -رجال التجارة				
	142				

Third Year

Literary Stream

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	-سيدة 85 -السيد 237	-الرجل 22 -رجال 34	- حبيبي 231 - عزيزتي 235 - العزيز 249

Scientific Stream

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	- السيدة 75-74	No terms	-العزيز 196

French Textbooks

First Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mr/Mrs	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	-Madame 89, 164, - Monsieur 114, 132 -Mademoiselle 109, 114, 189	Homme p 24, 37, 61, 62, 63, 73, 75, 118, 120, 136, 140	-Petite 85 - Petit 158

Second Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	No terms	No terms	- Mr p115, 117, 166, 194 - Madmoiselle p 150, 166, -Monsieur 154, 165, 166- 169- 194 - Madame 184	- Homme 6, 31, 42, 53, 55, 60, 64, 72, 191, 193. - Pères 208	- petits 105 -Petites 105

Third Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	-Femme de cuisine 163	No terms	- Monsieur 93, 175 - Madame 102 - Mr X 112 -Mesdames 191	-Homme 6, 73, 79, 86, 104, 117, 144, 147, 151, 187	No terms

English Textbooks

First Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	- Fisherman 49 - Horseman 49 - Policeman 90 - Clergyman 127 -Chairman 148 -Bussinessman 117 - Merchantman 171	No terms	- Mr 27, 35, 37, 52, 75, 99, -Mrs 99	- Men 52, 115, 117, 121, 123, 132, 134, 137, 145, 147	No terms

Second Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	-Foreman 19 -Businessmen 54 -Huntsman 104 -Policemen	- Female guitarist 166 -Female employee 173	-Mr 134, 161, 166,179,184 -Mrs 161	- Men 34, 94, 124 - Man 23, 38,42, 55, 123, 129, 181, 185, - Mankind	No terms

	117 -Chairman 134			123, -Grandfathers 123	
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Third Year

Denigration	Names of Jobs	Exceptional Terms	Miss/Mrs/ Mr	Generic Terms	Objectification
No terms	-Businessmen 62, 64, 111 -Policeman 77, 105, 190 -Sporting man 134 - Craftsman 197 - Spoke man 246 - Fisherman 263	No terms	- Mr 153, 176, 212, 248 , 252 - Miss 225	- Man 59, 71, 72, 153, 249 - Men 105, 265, - Mankind 135, 261, - Englishman 208	-Little soul (female) 202 -Little (female) 203

Abstract

The present study aims at exploring gender representation in the current Arabic, French and English school textbooks which are used in the Algerian Primary, Middle and Secondary Schools. It was hypothesized, in general, that the design process of these textbooks is done from an unawareness perspective. More particularly, it was hypothesized that these textbooks maintain females' invisibility as well as the gender stereotypes, make use of sexist language forms and portray the males and the females frequently interacting with each other. Regarding comparison, it was hypothesized that gender bias appears in different degrees in such textbooks. Methodologically, content analysis is employed to collect data. After the data had been collected, it was found: first, the females were portrayed more invisible than the males mostly in all the textbooks. Second, both genders were mostly stereotypically portrayed regarding both the traits and the roles except the findings that indicated that the females were mostly represented more positive than the males in most of the textbooks and that both genders were portrayed in prestigious and low status professions in all the textbooks. Third, the females were represented in more gender-mixed interactions than in female-female interactions in all the textbooks. Fourth, all the textbooks make use of sexist language, but in different degrees. Regarding the section of comparison, it was found that, first, the females were the most invisible in the Arabic textbooks. Second, the English textbooks were the most gender stereotypical regarding the traits and the entire textbooks were equally gender stereotypical, regarding the roles. Third, the French textbooks were the most gender-unbiased regarding the interaction among both genders. Finally, the English and the Arabic textbooks were more linguistically-biased than the French ones.

Key words: Textbook, gender, representation, content analysis, comparison.

Résumé

Cet étude vise d'examiner la représentation du genre dans les manuels scolaires d'arabe, français et d'anglais qui sont utilisés actuellement dans les écoles primaires, moyens et secondaires algériennes. L'hypothèse générale de cet étude est que le formation de ces manuels scolaires est fait d'un perspective de cécité. Particulièrement, il est supposé que ces manuels maintiennent l'invisibilité des femmes et les stéréotypes du genre. Ils aussi utilisent la langue sexiste et représentent les deux genres interagir souvent. Concernant la comparaison, il est supposé que le biais du genre apparaît dans les manuels scolaires avec des degrés différents. En ce que concerne la méthodologie, l'analyse de contenu est utilisée pour collecter les données. Après les données sont collectées, it est trouvé : Premièrement, les femmes sont représentés plus invisible que mâles au niveau de la plupart des manuels. Deuxièmement, les deux genres sont représentés stéréotypiquement le plus souvent concernant les traits et les rôles sauf les deux résultats qui indiquent que les femmes sont représentées plus positive que les mâles au niveau de la plupart des manuels et que les deux genres apparaissent occuper les deux types des rôles prestigieux et ordinaires dans tous les manuels scolaires. Troisièmement, les femmes sont représentés dans plus des interaction mixte que dans femelle-femelle interactions dans tous les manuels sans exception. Quatrièmement, tous les manuels contiennent des mots sexites, mais avec des degrés différents. Concernant la comparaison, les résultats indiquent : Premièrement, les femelles sont les plus invisible dans les manuels d'arabe. Deuxièmement, les manuels d'anglais sont les plus stéréotypés concernant les traits et tous les manuels sont également stéréotypés concernant les rôles. Troisièmement, les manuels se français sont les plus impartials concernant l'interaction parmi les deux genres.

Finalemnt, Le manuels d'arabe et d'anglais sont plus biaisés linguistiquement que ces de français.

Les mots clés: Le manuel scolaire, genre, représentation, l'analyse de contenu, comparaison

ملخص

هذه الدراسة تهدف إلى إكتشاف تمثيل النوع على مستوى الكتب المدرسية للغة العربية, الفرنسية و الإنجليزية المستعملة حاليا في المدارس الإبتدائية, المتوسطة و الثانوية بالجزائر. كانت الفرضية العامة لهذه الدراسة أن عملية تصميم هذه الكتب المدرسية تمت من وجهة نظر غير مقصودة. خصوصا, افترض أن هذه الكتب المدرسية تبقي على اخفاء الأنثى و الصور النمطية الخاصة بالنوع. كما أنها تستعمل تعابير لغوية جنسية و تمثل كلتا الجنسين يتفاعلان مع البعض في كثير من الأحيان. فيما يخص المقارنة, افترض أن إنحياز النوع يظهر بدرجات مختلفة في هذه الكتب. فيما يخص المنهجية, تم استعمال تقنية تحليل المحتوى لجمع المعطيات. بعد جمع المعطيات, تم التوصل إلى النتائج التالية:

أولا, تم تمثيل الإناث غير مرئيين أكثر من الذكور على مستوى تقريبا كل الكتب. ثانيا, كلتا النوعان ظهورا في معظم الأحيان في صور نمطية فيما يحض الميزات و الأدوار بإستثناء النتيجتين التي تمثلتا في أن الإناث في معظم الأحيان ظهورا في صورة أكثر إيجابية من الذكور و ظهور كلتا النوعان في مناصب مرموقة و ثانوية.

ثالثا, تم تمثيل الإناث في محادثات مختلطة النوع أكثر من في محادثات أحادية النوع.

رابعا, كل الكتب المدرسية تحتوي على مختلف أشكال اللغة الجنسية لكن بدرجات مختلفة.

فيما يخص نتائج المقارنة, تم التوصل إلى النتائج الآتية:

أولاً, الإناث كانت الأكثر غير مرئيين في الكتب المدرسية للغة العربية.

ثانياً, كتب اللغة الإنجليزية كانت أكثر نمطية فيما يخص الميزات لكن كل الكتب المدرسية (العربية, الفرنسية و الإنجليزية) كانت نمطية بالتساوي في ما يخص الأدوار.

ثالثاً, كتب اللغة الفرنسية كانت الأكثر عدلاً فيما يخص المحادثات و التفاعل بين كلتا النوعين.

أخيراً, كتب اللغة العربية و الإنجليزية كانت أكثر إنحيازاً من كتب اللغة الفرنسية فيما يخص اللغة الجنسية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الكتاب المدرسي, النوع, تمثيل, تحليل المحتوى, مقارنة.