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Abbes Laghrour University, Khenchela
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Department of English



**Investigating Gender Representation as a
Socio-Cultural Prominence in Algerian English
Secondary School Textbooks**

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Requirements of the L.M.D Doctorate Degree in "Didactics of English Language"*

Candidate: Rim KHIARI

Supervisor: Dr. Sabrina BAGHZOU

Board of Examiners:

Chairman:	Dr. Salim OUNIS	Abbes Laghrour,	Khenchela University
Supervisor:	Pr. Sabrina BAGHZOU	Abbes Laghrour,	Khenchela University
Examiner:	Pr. Nadia DAGHBOUCHE	Abbes Laghrour,	Khenchela University
Examiner:	Pr. Sarah MERROUCHE	Larbi Ben Mhidi,	Oum El Bouaghi University
Examiner:	Dr. Hanane SAIHI	Mohamed Khidher,	Biskra University
Examiner:	Dr. Nassira BOUDERSA	ENS-Assia Djebar -	Constantine

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family.

To my mother, for being there for me, encouraging and supporting me.

To my father, for being the best father one could ever wish for.

*To my siblings: **Riyadh, Housna, and Taha**. I wish them all the success in the world, for no one gave me as much boosts of motivation as they did.*

*To my husband: **Abdelali**, for being my rock to lean on and simply for sharing my dreams and ambitions.*

And most importantly,

*To my son: **Yazan**, I hope one day he can read this work and be as proud of me as I am proud of myself.*

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The Most Gracious, and the Most Merciful,

All the gratitude goes to Allah.

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ABSTRACT

Gender is defined as the product of biology, society and culture. Textbooks are an essential vehicle for the socialization of gender at school. Thus, students should be exposed to a balanced view of the roles and responsibilities that males and females share in a society. On this basis, this study aimed at investigating gender representation in the currently used Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks. In pursuance of this aim, the study followed a descriptive analytical approach. The study examined each textbook through a checklist designed by the researcher. The checklist is both structure and content-based. The latter consists of four sections; mainly, language and structure, gender and language, gender visibility and gender over-under representation. Furthermore, the study was followed by a questionnaire that aimed to investigate Algerian secondary school English language teachers' perceptions of gender in textbooks. The questionnaire sought to shed light on whether or not teachers have gender awareness towards existing biases and how they deal with them. To this objective, a questionnaire was administered to 256 educators teaching at different secondary schools throughout Algeria. Findings of the textbooks' analysis revealed that all three textbooks have gender unequal representation and visibility. The findings indicated that there is an underrepresentation of females in all analysed textbooks. In the same line of thought, the findings of the questionnaire revealed that teachers perceived gender as an important social variable although they were unaware that they held gender biased perceptions. Finally, it is recommended to do a replication study with a bigger sample to include other valuable variables to the topic such as culture and educational background.

Keywords: Gender, EFL Textbooks, Textbook Analysis, Gender Bias

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

- AL: Applied Linguistics
- ALM: Audio Lingual Method
- CA: Communicative Approach
- CC: Communicative Competence
- CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
- CT: Conflict Theory
- DM: Direct Method
- EFL: English as a Foreign Language
- ESL: English as a Second Language
- FLC: Foreign Language Classes
- FLL: Foreign Language Learning
- FLT: Foreign Language Teaching
- GS: Gender Studies
- GTM: Grammar Translation Method
- L1: First Language
- L2: Second Language
- NC: Native Culture
- SF: Structural Functionalism
- SI: Symbolic Interactionism
- SLA: Second Language Acquisition
- TC: Target Culture
- TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language
- TL: Target Language

LIST of TABLES

Table Number	Page
Table 1: Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) Checklist for Textbook Analysis.....	91
Table 2: Hashemi's Checklist for EFL Textbook Analysis (2011).....	93
Table 3: Weber's Gender Based Checklist for EFL Textbook (1990).....	96
Table 4: General Manual Checklist for Content Analysis of EFL Textbooks.....	100
Table 5: Weber's 1990 Content Based Analysis for EFL Textbook from a Gender Stance	101
Table 6: At the Crossroads' Checklist.....	120
Table 7: The Interpretation of the Crossroads' Analysis	137
Table 8: The Getting Through's Checklist	142
Table 9: The Interpretation of 'Getting Through' Analysis.....	147
Table 10: New Prospects' Checklist.....	148
Table 11: The Interpretation of 'New Prospects' Analysis	164
Table 12: The Interpretation of 'Textbooks' Analysis and Interpretation of Objectives.....	166
Table 13: Textbooks' Analysis and Interpretation of Reading Texts and Topics.....	169
Table 14: Textbooks' Analysis and Interpretation of Dialogues	170
Table 15: Textbooks' Analysis and Interpretation of Proper Nouns	173
Table 16: One Way Analysis of Variance Test Results	203

LIST OF FIGURES

Number of Figure	Page
Figure 1: Characteristics of Traditional Textbooks Adapted from Grant (1990).....	80
Figure 2: Characteristics of Communicative Textbooks.....	81
Figure 3: Cunningsworth's Checklist for EFL Textbooks.....	93
Figure 4: Klaus Krippendorff's Basis for Content Analysis.....	99
Figure 5: The Textbook Identification Card.....	116
Figure 6: At the Crossroads' Identification Card.....	118
Figure 7: A Female Oriented Reading Text.....	123
Figure 8: Mixed Gender Dialogue.....	129
Figure 9: Female Oriented Illustration.....	135
Figure 10: Male Oriented Illustration.....	135
Figure 11: Getting Through Identification Card	140
Figure 12: New Prospects' Identification	154
Figure 13: New Prospects' Cover Picture.....	155
Figure 14: New Prospects' Distribution of Objectives.....	167
Figure 15: Comparison of Objectives Layout in the Three Textbooks.....	168
Figure 16: Item Scale Analysis of the Questionnaire.....	178
Figure 17: Teachers' Gender.....	182
Figure 18: Teachers' Age.....	182
Figure 19: Teachers' Years of Experience.....	183
Figure 20: Teachers' Perceptions of the Concept of Gender.....	184
Figure 21: Teachers' Gender in Relation to Their Perception of the Definition of Gender	185
Figure 22: Teachers' Age in Relation to Their Perception of the Definition of Gender.....	186

Figure 23: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Personality.....	187
Figure 24: Teachers' Gender in Relation to Their Perception Regarding the Effect of Gender on Personality.....	187
Figure 25: Teachers' Age in Relation to Their Perception regarding the Effect of Gender on Personality.....	188
Figure 26: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Identity.....	189
Figure 27: Teachers' Gender and its Relationship with Their Perception Regarding the Effect of Gender on Identity.....	190
Figure 28: Teachers' Age and its Relationship with Their Perception Regarding the Effect of Gender on Identity.....	191
Figure 29: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender Roles.....	192
Figure 30: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender Stereotypes	192
Figure 31: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender as an Individual Difference in EFL Classes.....	193
Figure 32: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Quality of Learning	205
Figure 33: Teachers' Recognition of Gender Differences.....	206
Figure 34: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Classroom Participation	206
Figure 35: Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Classroom Misbehaviour.....	207
Figure 36: Teachers' Techniques of Correcting Misbehaviour According to Students' Gender...	207
Figure 37: Teachers' Assessment Methods According to Students' Gender.....	207
Figure 32: Teachers' Assessment of Textbooks for Gender Offensive Content.....	208
Figure 33: Data Interpretation of the Three Textbooks.....	210

LIST OF CONTENTS

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study.....	1
2. Statement of the Problem.....	1
3. Aims and Objectives of the Study	4
4. Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	4
5. Population and Sample.....	5
6. Research Methodology.....	6
7. Significance of the Study.....	7
8. Research Structure.....	8

Chapter One: Introduction to Gender

Introduction	10
1. Introduction to Gender.....	10
1.1. General Definitions.....	11
1.1.1. Gender from a Physiology Viewpoint.....	11
1.1.2. Gender from a Psychology Viewpoint.....	14
1.1.3 Gender from a Sociology Viewpoint.....	19
1.2. Basic Concepts of Gender.....	22
1.2.1. Gender and Personality.....	22
1.2.2. Gender and Identity.....	26
1.2.3. Gender Roles.....	30
1.2.4. Gender Stereotypes.....	33
1.3. Gender as a Socio-cultural Prominence.....	34
1.3.1. Gender and Culture.....	34
1.3.1.1. Definition of Culture.....	34

1.3.1.2. Culture and Society.....	37
1.3.2. Gender as a Socio-Cultural Prominence.....	38
1.3.2.1. Gender Studies.....	39
1.3.2.2. Women’s Studies.....	40
1.3.2.3. Men’s Studies.....	44
Conclusion.....	47

Chapter Two: Gender in the EFL Context

Introduction.....	48
2.1. Gender, Language, and Education	48
2.1.1. An Account on Language.....	48
2.1.1.1. Language Usage.....	49
2.1.1.2. Language Use.....	51
2.1.2. An Account on Language and Gender.....	52
2.1.2.1. Gender and Language Usage.....	53
2.1.2.2. Gender and Language Use.....	56
2.1.2.3. Gender and Communication	58
2.1.2.4. Gender and Language Learning.....	61
2.2. Gender in English as a Language Classes.....	63
2.2.1. Gender in Language Teaching Methods and Approaches.....	63
2.2.1.1. Definition of Language Teaching Approach and Method.....	63
2.2.1.2. The Place of Gender in Pre-Communicative Methods.....	68
2.2.1.3. The Place of Gender in Communicative Methods.....	70
2.2.1.4. The place of Gender in Post-Communicative Methods.....	71
2.2.2. Gender in EFL Classes.....	71
2.2.2.1. Gender in EFL Textbooks: Previous Studies.....	74

Conclusion.....	77
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Chapter Three: Gender and Textbook Analysis

Introduction.....	78
3.1. Textbooks from a General Stance.....	78
3.1.1. Definition of Textbook.....	78
3.1.2. Types of Language Teaching Textbooks.....	79
3.1.3. Roles of Textbooks in Education.....	82
3.2. Textbooks of English as a Foreign Language.....	83
3.3. Advantages and Disadvantages of EFL Textbooks.....	85
3.4. Textbook Analysis.....	88
3.4.1. Textbook Analysis Definition.....	88
3.4.2. Types of EFL Textbook Analysis.....	90
3.4.3. Structure Based Analysis.....	90
3.4.4. Content Based Analysis.....	98
3.4.5. Checklists.....	103
3.5. Textbook Analysis from a Gender Lens.....	104
3.5.1. The Vietnam Gender Project.....	104
3.5.2. Gender Representation in Saudi Arabia’s EFL Textbooks.....	106
3.5.3. Gender Representation in the Turkish Textbooks.....	107
Conclusion.....	108

Chapter Four: Methodological Framework and Analysis of Algerian

Secondary School EFL Textbooks

Introduction.....	109
4.1. Rationale for Textbook Analysis from a Gender Perspective.....	110
4.2. Data Collection Tools: The Textbook Analysis.....	114

4.2.1. Hybrid Checklist.....	115
4.2.2. The Sample of the Analysis.....	115
4.2.3. Procedures of the Analysis.....	116
4.3. First Year Textbook: At the Crossroads.....	120
4.3.1. Data Collection.....	120
4.3.2. Data Analysis.....	122
4.3.3. Data Interpretation.....	142
4.4. Second Year Textbook: Getting Through.....	146
4.4.1. Data Collection.....	147
4.4.2. Data Analysis.....	150
4.4.3. Data Interpretation.....	161
4.5. Third Year Textbook: New Prospects.....	164
4.5.1. Data collection.....	165
4.5.2. Data Analysis.....	173
4.5.3. Data Interpretation.....	178
4.6. Discussion of the Findings.....	183
Conclusion.....	188

Chapter Five: Gender in the Teaching Field

Introduction.....	189
5.1. The Questionnaire.....	190
5.1.1. Questions and Hypotheses.....	191
5.1.2. Sample and Population.....	192
5.1.3. Validity and Reliability.....	195
5.2. Data Analysis.....	201
5.3. Data Interpretation.....	205

Conclusion.....	209
-----------------	-----

Chapter six: General Conclusion

Introduction	210
6.1. Summary of the Research.....	210
6.1.1 Textbooks' Analysis.....	210
6.2. The Questionnaire.....	211
6.3. Recommendations	211
6.3.1. For Textbook Designers	212
6.3.2. For Teachers	212
6.4. Researchers' comments.....	213
6.5. Limitations.....	214
List of References.....	216
List of Appendices	
Resume	
ملخص	

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

The textbook is the most used printed material in the Foreign Language Classrooms (FLC). Teachers and students alike rely heavily on its content, because it is the realization of a given syllabus and the concrete implementation of specific pedagogical theories. On this basis, the content of textbooks is very crucial in determining, not just how students will approach the target language learning but also the way they perceive their native culture (NC) and the target one. By the same token, textbooks do not reflect pedagogical concepts alone; they mirror the NC and social values as well. Consequently, the way students perceive the world around them and the way they perceive themselves in this world is highly influenced by the textbook content.

One of the most important factors that distinguishes us from others and affects us in so many ways is gender. The latter not only influences the choice of our words and how we learn, but also affects our personality as socio-cultural beings. Gender is finally receiving the attention it deserves in the educational context. Thus, addressing gender issues in all educational stages and forms with a view to fight against gender discrimination and promotes gender equality is a must and is considered as a fundamental dimension of social justice, inclusiveness and social cohesion.

2. Statement of the Problem

It is axiomatic that “every human being is born with a sex and into a gender, which is a formation of roles molded by society and culture” (Söylemez, 2010, p. 751). Gender identity is a social and cultural construct; it is formed when individuals go through the socialization process in their society and culture. However, the latter is

a continuous and ongoing process that is affected especially by what students learn at schools.

Schooling, thus, plays a pivotal role in this process, which makes textbooks at the forefront. All educational systems are shaped and affected by the prejudices, values, and traditions held by the society, which are reflected in textbooks. As a part of the educational system, textbooks and teaching materials are of paramount significance. Moreover, “gender describes the social expectations, rules and norms attached to femininity and masculinity” (Holmes, 2010, p. 18). Gender bias in textbooks is considered as an “important, near-universal, remarkably uniform, quite persistent, and but virtually invisible obstacle on the road to gender equality in education” (Blumberg, 2008, p. 345). He further continued to argue that since redoing textbooks and curricula is difficult it would be better to promote gender equality by exposing learners to gender bias and allowing them to counteract it. For the same reason, it is important to shed light on textbooks’ content in terms of gender to see how it is represented and whether or not one gender is more or less represented. In fact, this begs to raise awareness that serves both teachers and learners to combat and overcome the problem of gender imbalance in textbooks and society.

Textbooks are the most visible component of a curriculum. In many parts of the world, textbooks are still effectively driving teaching and learning. They are the number one source of information and content for both teachers and students. Thus, the messages delivered by textbooks have a powerful impact on learners and on society more broadly. In recent years, researchers turned their attention to textbook analysis in order to study specific language aspects and how they are portrayed in terms of: structures, patterns, and even cultural aspects. In this era of globalization, issues of feminism, sexism, and gender inequality and bias are taken into

consideration are addressed. Given their importance and place, textbooks can easily become vehicles for promoting biases. Such biases can be promoted in an explicit or a more subtle and implicit way. Consequently, it is very important to explore what elements in textbooks may hinder gender equality and make specific recommendations on what should change so that textbooks can contribute more to the development of open-mindedness and gender-sensitive attitudes and approaches. To this end, gender should be studied to see how it is represented in the different visuals, texts and activities of the textbook.

Gender studies (GS) are not new. However, they have been neglecting the educational context. This is a result of the absence of research and scientific data on gender issues in education, in addition to the lack of gender awareness, knowledge and openness towards gender in the fields of social sciences and pedagogy. This results in claims that there are no gender inequalities and discrimination in schools and that the gender dimension is irrelevant in education. There have been several research studies focusing on gender roles in textbooks in Hungary, Pakistan and Malaysia (Jafari & Alemi, 2012); researchers have shown that textbooks mostly represent the male character as the norm.

On this basis, this research attempts to study the Algerian English language textbooks from a gender perspective, focusing on secondary level textbooks, and particularly how the world represented in them render prescribed, divided and unquestionable spheres for both boys and girls in the process of learning and knowledge production. In addition to that, this study also aims to explore Algerian secondary school teachers' perceptions of gender and their approach towards gender equity in their classrooms through the use of textbooks.

3. Aims and Objectives of the Study

The present study aims to analyse Algerian secondary school textbooks from a gender perspective and sheds light on gender representation as a socio-cultural prominence. In addition to this, it focuses on studying whether male and female characters are equally represented in the textbooks or not, and whether or not social roles and gender stereotypes are reflected in the textbooks and if yes, to what extent.

In addition to that, the study seeks to explore Algerian secondary school teachers' perceptions concerning gender and how it is represented in the secondary school level then their opinions concerning gender bias and inequality in the educational context in general and textbooks in specific. Through exploring teachers' perceptions towards gender at a national level, other factors will be examined and studied as well such as age, teachers' gender, years of experience in addition to cultural background given that Algeria is a vast country with diverse cultural backgrounds.

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study on gender representation seeks to answer the following research questions:

Q1: Do male and female characters occupy an equal number of reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives, illustrations and occupations in the Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks?

Q2: To what extent are gender roles and gender stereotypes reflected in reading texts, dialogues, adjectives and illustrations, occupations in the Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks?

Q3: What are the Algerian EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions towards gender?

Q4: What are the Algerian EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions towards gender representation in textbooks?

To answer the questions above we hypothesised the following:

H1: Male characters occupy more reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives, illustrations, and occupations than female characters in the Algerian secondary school textbooks.

H2: Gender roles and gender stereotypes are clearly reflected in reading texts, dialogues, adjectives, illustrations, and occupations in the Algerian secondary school textbooks.

H3: Algerian EFL secondary school teachers have gender biased perceptions.

H4: Teachers do not pay attention to gender representation in the Algerian secondary school textbooks.

5. Population and Sample

In the textbook analysis part, the researcher opted for the currently used Algerian secondary school textbooks, mainly: *At the Crossroads*, *Getting Through* and *New Prospects*, respectively. In the questionnaire, the choice fell on Algerian EFL secondary school Teachers throughout Algeria using a snowball sampling technique.

The choice of the textbooks and the teachers is not random. In Algeria we have three educational levels: primary education, middle school stage and secondary school stage. Since English is not taught in primary education so students start learning English in the middle school which makes this educational stage neither feasible nor appropriate for this investigation due to students' age, critical thinking and cognitive abilities to understand and comprehend concepts such as gender bias in addition to their linguistic abilities. Hence, if they cannot yet understand English well,

they would not be affected much by this phenomenon. This paved the way for choosing secondary school textbooks and teachers. Furthermore, the choice of the questionnaire sample is due to two main reasons. The first reason is that our aim was to have a representative sample to avoid drawing conclusions and generalizations to under-representative sample. The second reason is methodologically based, and is attributed to the factor of analysis risk; the nature of the study and its variables demand two main necessary factors which are gender and diverse cultural background. Limiting the sample to one Wilaya would affect the availability of the aforementioned factors.

6. Research Methodology

The present study follows a mixed method approach. The three Algerian EFL textbooks in the secondary level are analysed. The procedure aims at counting: illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives and occupations to see whether or not male and female characters have equal representation. In the pursuit of this aim, the study followed a combination of structure-based and content based analysis to examine the representations of gender in the textbooks.

The total numbers of male and female characters were counted; then, data were analysed and interpreted. The second research tool was the questionnaire which aimed to answer the third and fourth questions of the thesis. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire have been tested using a pilot study which was later analysed in both item scale and factors. The questionnaire was proved to be valid and reliable so it was administered to Algerian secondary school teachers to see how they perceive gender in the secondary level textbooks.

7. Significance of the Study

Textbook as a teaching material is one of the most powerful gender agents. It represents a particular society's perspective about gender. Furthermore, learners receive educational information unconsciously, which may have long-term consequences for both performance and social conduct. Many researchers such as Söylemez (2010), Holmes (2010), Blumberg (2008) and Jafari and Alemi (2012) believe that EFL textbooks are the primary source for studying gender representation since they are meant to reflect the most frequent and prominent elements of gender representation in a culture. Moreover, EFL materials can provide a language foundation for gender description. Recreating textbooks with gender inequality is the product of hidden curriculum, which is intentionally or unintentionally integrated throughout textbook design. A hidden curriculum is described as unspecified values and ideas anchored in and conveyed to learners through norms that mould classroom routines and public relationships (Jafari & Alemi, 2012). Thus, stereotyped materials have a detrimental impact on students' career choices as well as their personal and social life. Textbooks can be examined for the use of the language in the creation of such materials, as well as its terminology. This type of research would provide useful data that can assist textbook designers to make gender-equitable textbooks and help the teachers to be more cautious.

In the same line of thought, textbooks can affect students negatively and may create an unfair image due to the numerous cases regarding the issues of gender-bias which are often baseless and imbalanced (Cameron, 1992). It has been argued that “studies on gender and language have found that gender bias and gender stereotypes in written text and pictures have deleterious effects for female students” (Lesikin

2001, p. 282). These studied effects can lead to some undesirable feelings such as exclusion, depression, isolation and low self-esteem.

The aforementioned studies have shown that there are many textbooks used at different schools around the world which represent the role of females only as housewives and nurses or show more males than females in their texts and illustrations. EFL materials can inadvertently reflect not only the opinions and attitudes of their authors and designers but also the society and culture they live in. For instance, if a textbook contains gender stereotypes, it reinforces inequities between males and females and promotes societal division. A balanced and appropriate one, on the other hand, is thought to sustain a healthy, cognitively, socially, and culturally growth for learners throughout their educational stages. As a result, no one can dispute the importance of textbooks in the learning process, future educational goals, and social life of students.

8. Research Structure

The present study is divided into two main parts: theoretical and practical. The theoretical part is divided into three chapters. The first chapter is dedicated to exploring gender. It is titled '*Introduction to Gender*'; it defines gender from several stances and in light of some fields, mainly: physiology, psychology, and sociology. In addition to that, it revolves around general concepts that are related to gender like gender roles and stereotypes.

The second chapter is titled '*Gender in the EFL Context*'; it deals with the concept of gender in relation to education and specifically EFL classes and textbooks. Furthermore, it illustrates the relationship of gender and the educational context moving from general definitions to specific theories. The third chapter is titled

'Gender and Textbook Analysis' in which the concepts of textbook and textbook analysis are thoroughly explained alongside their types, tools and so on.

The practical part is dedicated to the description and analysis of the textbooks and the questionnaire, in addition to synthesising data and drawing conclusions. It consists of two chapters. The first one is titled *'Methodological Framework and Analysis of Algerian Secondary School EFL Textbooks'* and it deals with data collection tools, data analysis and data interpretation of the textbook analysis and. The second one is titled *'The Questionnaire'* which deals with the pilot study of the questionnaire and the main questionnaire, its data collection process and method, data analysis and data interpretation. Furthermore, the third chapter is titled *'General Conclusion'* and it tackles summary of the findings, pedagogical implications, recommendations and study limitations. The thesis ends conclusion in which the sum of all the research is presented alongside the researcher's comments and suggestions.

Chapter One: Introduction to Gender

Introduction

The study of gender emerged as one of the most important trends in the twentieth century when gender became more widespread in scientific research, media, and daily life. This widespread attention that has been given to gender resulted in the realisation that human beings are not just their biological set; they are also the product of their cultures and societies. This made understanding the concept of gender crucial in many disciplines that attempt to study human beings including: physiology, psychology, and sociology. The present chapter aims to explore the concept of gender and de-puzzle it in order to make a clear picture of what gender is and its ties to other fields and areas of life generally and research specifically.

1.1. General Definitions

Academic researches about gender should specify the concept of gender and provide definitions upon which one can have a better understanding of a certain variable in relation to it. Furthermore, the concept of gender is fairly recent in the majority of research fields and due to its interconnectedness with numerous disciplines and areas of research, it is only understandable if defined and put into these contexts.

One cannot give an accurate account of gender without making a reference to physiology since the former is branched out from both biology and culture. In addition to that, the concepts associated with gender and or resulted from gender such as gender roles and gender stereotypes are deeply rooted in sociology since they are

considered social attributes. Based on the aforementioned, it is necessary to put gender in the contexts of physiology, psychology and sociology.

1.1.1. Gender from a Physiology Viewpoint

Physiology is a branch of biology; the latter is the study of life in general, how it works, evolves and changes, which makes it a very broad subject due to the limitless aspects of life; while the former is about human life and how it functions within itself. The most known and researched area of physiology is sexual dimorphism (Kirchengast, 2004), which is the scientific term for physical differences between males and females.

The priority and importance that has been given to this area of research is for the reason that the basics of any human research depend on the categorization of sex as male and female. The International Institute of Medicine defines sex as simply being male or female according to reproductive organs and the functions assigned by chromosomal complement XX for female and XY for male (Kirchengast, 2004). In other words, the term sex explains the human reproductive systems and categorizes them into two; it describes the biological differences between males and females, which are Universal and determined at birth. In general, biologists distinguish between two types of sexual dimorphic characters: primary and secondary sexual dimorphism (Söder, 2007). The first one is linked to what is considered as a successful reproduction including sex differences in the size, number and mobility of gametes, such as sperms and eggs, the structure of reproductive organs and gonads (Leong 2006, Söder 2007). The second one is about features that are not linked to reproductive success.

Sex differences in physiology and patho-physiology, or the physiology of diseases, can be classified into three general categories. The first one is about the

conditions or diseases that are unique to one sex, such as conditions associated with reproduction. The second one is about conditions or diseases that not only affect but have greater prevalence in one sex compared to the other. The third one is about the conditions that have different age of onset, symptomatology, or response to treatment in one sex compared to the other (Kirchengast, 2001). In sum, physiology is interested in the sexual differences between males and females in terms of chromosomes, hormones, gametes, gonads, reproductive organs and diseases.

Gender is both explicitly and implicitly implanted so thoroughly in our lives; it is the thing that defines us from the very early childhood and it is not just something we are born with, but also something we do (West & Zimmerman, 1987). Based on that, gender is not merely biological or a state of being, but also socio-cultural or a state of doing; thus, sex is all what is biological and determined and gender is what we know about our sex and all what is learnt and imposed by society such as some gender roles and stereotypes. Following this premise, there are two main biological approaches that deal with gender and sex.

The first approach is the biosocial (Money & Ehrhardt, 1972) which is an interactionism oriented view between biology and sociology whereby nature and nurture both play a role in gender development. Money (1972) argued that gender is formed not the moment a biological male or female is born, but with society's labelling and different treatment. In simpler terms, the biosocial approach considers that with joining the physiological differences which are added to the acculturation process result in what we know as gender (Kirchengast, 2004). In other words, the nature-nurture debate has a very close relationship with the distinction between sex and gender, while sex is a result of nature; thus fixed. Gender is a result of nurture;

thus, fluid. Nonetheless, the two are intertwined and there is no clear cut where sex begins and gender ends or the opposite.

The second approach is the biological anthropology oriented approach which uses the terms interchangeably for the reason that it deals with sex as the mere and solid foundation for gender and not just an influencing factor (Kirchengast, 2013). According to biological anthropologists, sex explains the human reproductive system which makes life cycle possible. This makes the dichotomy of sex as male and female the foundation of the great biodiversity of reproductive processes observed in nature; thus, male is man and female is woman based on successful human reproduction (Worthman, 1995). Nevertheless, during the 1990s, the term gender was increasingly used in biological anthropology (McIntyre & Edwards, 2009). This change of use was not a result of change of thought, but came as an addition rather than a replacement, especially in areas of research such as social and human sciences. Gender is a very useful and important category of all sub-disciplines of biological anthropology and consequently the German Anthropological Association established the working group ‘*Gender Studies*’ in 2003 (Kirchengast, 2004). Thus, the term gender is essential for nearly all topics of biological anthropology as it is considered as the most common dichotomy used to classify data.

In simpler words, the Interactionism oriented approach considers that gender is built upon the knowledge we have about sex but it is not merely and purely due to it alone. The meaning of gender is always in flux, “multiple, contestable, and still a matter of debate” (Capdevila & Lazard, 2014, p. 766). However, the biological anthropology considers gender as a product of sex. Having said that, recent studies such as Kirchengast (2013), Capdevila and Lazard (2014), and McLeod (2014) agreed that to whatever extent gender is related to biology, it is not solely based on it. The

individual's chromosomes, hormones, genitalia, and secondary sex characteristics determine morphological, behavioural and attitudinal differences, but they do not determine social roles and expectations such as house shores, politeness, and reaction to verbal and emotional stimuli, occupation, gait, and use of certain terminology... as the means by which society explicitly and implicitly accomplishes the differentiation that constitutes the gender order.

To sum it all up, researchers tend to favor a middle ground approach in which biology and society jointly create the concept of gender; biology does impose certain physiological constraints; however, it does not completely determine gender, and society dictates certain roles and expectations but this does not mean that individuals are helpless beings shaped by external social forces. In this line of thought, gender is defined by physiological and socio-cultural characteristics that are expressed on a continuum. For example, masculine and feminine behaviours may be defined by socio-cultural expectations (Mahalik et al, 2003). What may be considered a neutral behaviour in one culture, for example, driving, may be considered a masculine behaviour in another culture.

1.1.2. Gender from a Psychology Viewpoint

Humans are complex beings and their behaviours are a mirror reflection to their complexity. Psychology studies those behaviours for the aim of reaching satisfying, logical and valid conclusions as to why human beings behave in certain ways (Coon & Mitterer, 2010). However, the definition of psychology as a field of study is much more elusive and complex not just because of the complex nature of humans, but also due the nature of the discipline itself. One of the definitions of Psychology is the following:

Psychology simply cannot be defined; indeed, it cannot even be easily characterised. Psychology is what scientists and philosophers of various persuasions have created to understand the minds and behaviours of various organisms from the most primitive to the most complex. It is an attempt to understand what has so far pretty much escaped understanding, and any effort to circumscribe it or box it in is to imply that something is known about the edges of our knowledge, and that must be wrong (Reber, 1995, p. 617).

In simpler words, psychology is not bound to one specific concrete thing like most other disciplines, which makes it hard to define and most often hard to understand. Although the discipline is influenced by many different schools of thought, modern psychology employs scientific methods (Schultz & Schultz, 2004). Amongst those schools of thought is structuralism which was primarily interested in the structure of the human mind; structuralists' focus was on the investigation of a generalised adult mind (Shields, 1975). They were not concerned with individual differences including the differences between males and females or their effect on personality and identity. However, all their subjects of study were males, and this resulted in the generalised adult mind therefore to be a male mind (Shields, 1975 and Schultz & Schultz, 2004).

Functionalists rather focused upon the functions of the mind rather than its structure. They included a wider variety of subjects including women, children, and animals. Their research was mainly about Intelligence and Adaptability (Schultz & Schultz, 2004). As a consequence they delved into intelligence test development and study of individual differences regarding mental abilities, and personality traits, including sex differences. All that was considered to be a criticism of functionalism

was ignoring and disregarding the impact of social influence and deemed it to be unworthy of investigation.

In the same line of thought, behaviourism emerged mainly as a reaction to the introspective approach. The subject matter of psychology for them was observable behaviour alone, rather than inner experience or what goes in and through the mind. Their primary interest was in learning and memory (Schultz & Schultz, 2004). They emphasized '*nurture*' in other words, gender, and their main emphasis was different from the functionalists, but their approach towards sex differences was not much different. Gender differences and gender roles along with other social factors were ignored.

These early psychologists created '*womanless*' *psychology*' (Crawford & Marecek, 1989). Their research negatively affected the attention required by the sex/gender difference issue in two ways: their research did not include women as participants, or when both men and women were participants, gender related variables were not examined. Furthermore, psychological research on gender does not take the form of a thread; it comes in waves and theories which have most often focused on the analysis of sex differences, within-sex variability, and gender roles. Nonetheless, understanding gender and gender differences is a prevalent aim in many psychological sub-disciplines (Epstein, 1988, cited in Walker & Fennell, 2003). Gender is described in psychology from two opposing viewpoints which are called minimalism and maximalism. Maximalists believe in huge and fundamental differences between men and women. Minimalists believe that there are notable and fundamental differences; however, they are just a few (Anselmi & Law, 1998).

Psychodynamic theory that is based on Freud's psychoanalytic theory (1905) was the first to talk about sex differences in personality between men and women. It

focuses on the unconscious drives and the relationship between the child and early experiences with the parents or primary caregivers (Fisher & Greenberg, 1996), in which gender is a core part of personality that rests on the child's awareness of its anatomy and its identification with the same-sex parent. Freud (1905) talked about the developmental stages of personality in terms of '*Psycho-sexual Development*'.

Social learning theory does not focus on the innate, unconscious and biological basis of gender, it rather emphasises the child's environment and learning experiences (Bandura, 1986). According to this view, gender differences are learned through a mixture of observing the behaviour of others and modeling, in other words, imitation of same-sex caregivers (Bandura, 1977); children recognise the differential behaviours of boys and girls, generally, and the way they are treated by others in the form of rewards or punishments for appropriate and inappropriate behaviours (Bandura, 1977). Children also experience individual differences in treatment, which starts at birth with physical handling, clothes, toy choices and patterns of speech (McLeod, 2016). However the theory is heavily criticized on the ground that it underplays individual differences in development and inconsistencies in behavioural reinforcement and how children actively make sense of the world and how they cope with conflicting messages regarding gender. Later on, Social psychology has tended to employ a binary understanding of gender and has focused on understanding key gender stereotypes and their impact in addition to their source and their impact on specific social contexts (Epstein, 1988, cited in Walker, Henry & Fennell, 2003).

The cognitive-developmental theory views gender as a product of maturing and experiencing the world, and reorganising mental processes as children progress through a series of stages of development (Kohlberg, 1966). This takes many phases

moving from the simple to the complex and from the concrete to the abstract, including language development. Children are active agents in acquiring gender roles within development stages that allow for an understanding of such an abstract concept as gender. Therefore, children's understanding of gender develops together with their intellectual abilities. This theory suggests that the development of gender identity is age-dependent (Damon, 1977).

The gender schema theory, also, holds that the development of cognitive abilities to form schemes is very important for understanding gender. In addition to that, it draws on social learning theory as well. In other words, those schemes are influenced by information within the surrounding social context which constantly provides children with new information about gender roles and they continually upgrade their already developed gender schema (Epstein, 1988, cited in Walker, Henry & Fennell, 2003). Therefore, their understanding of gender is constantly renewing and improving.

Over time, these two cognitive perspectives; that is, cognitive developmental and gender-schema theories have been influential in promoting the idea that children actively construct gender on the basis of both the nature of the social environment and how they think about the sexes (Damon, 1977). This theory is considered a middle ground between all other mentioned theories, it recognizes and acknowledges gender differences alongside their source which according to the theory, is a bridge between cognitive ability and the social context.

Overall, the psychology of gender is revealed in grey areas, that is: the relationship between identity and expression. Males and females are recognizably different; “human males and females should have evolved to be psychologically

identical...is a theoretical impossibility, and, indeed, turns out to be untrue” (Vandermassen, 2011, p. 733).

1.1.3. Gender from a Sociology Viewpoint

The word ‘*sociology*’ is derived from the Latin word ‘*socius*’ which means companion and the Greek word ‘*logos*’ which is equivalent to speech or reason, together meaning logical speech or discourse about an individual or a group (Norbert, 1978). In technical words, it is the systematic study of the development, structure, interaction, and collective behaviour of organised groups of human beings (Merriam-webster.com, 2019). Those groups form a society, which is defined as a group of people in which members interact, reside in a definable area, and share a culture. The latter includes shared practices, values, beliefs, norms, and artifacts.

Sociologists make theories that help them develop questions and interpret data. However, social theory to a great extent is considered to be even older than sociology itself, “its theories were used as a means of visualising the social universe in order to obtain practical knowledge about it” (Caplow, 1971, p. 156). Therefore, issues that social theory was interested in are not limited or traced back to the recent advent of sociology as a field.

Gender has been one of the most prevalent and important topics in social theory and sociology. Theories about gender are divided into two classes, those that look at society from a large scale or macro level, and others look at a small structure of society or micro level. Sociological views on gender also differ based on the level of analysis at which they cover. Macro sociological perspectives on gender focus on large-scale social phenomena, such as racial, educational, and political trends. While,

micro sociological perspectives on gender focus on small groups, for example, differences between friends, classmates and colleagues. This makes its literature significantly heavy with different theories and scholars. Sociologists, to this aim, formulated different theories from which three are the most popular, namely, Structural Functionalism (SF), Symbolic Interactionism (SI) and Conflict Theory (CT).

SF is based upon the functionalist perspective; although some historians trace functionalism to Montesquieu in the 18th century (Cohen, 1968) its roots can be traced to the works of Herbert (1873), Emile (1897) and Pareto (1935). Its emergence as a developed sociological theory can be attributed to Malinowski, Brown and others. This approach looks at society through a macro-level lens and focuses on the social structures that shape society as a whole from a broad level. It views society as a complex system whose parts work together to achieve solidarity and stability. A common analogy, popularized by Spencer (1973), presents these parts of society as ‘organs’ that work towards the proper functioning of the ‘body’ as a whole. Later on, the functionalist perspective of gender inequality was articulated in the 1940s and 1950s, and largely developed by Parsons’ model of ‘*nuclear family*’ (1943). It has provided one of the most important perspectives of sociological research in the twentieth century and has been a major influence on research in the social sciences, including gender studies. Although, the structural-functionalist perspective believes that gender inequalities exist as a form of the division of labor, it applies that premise to view predefined gender roles as complementary, for example, women take care of the house while men provide for the family. Thus, for them, gender, like other social institutions, assists to stabilize society as a whole. This view has been criticized for materializing, rather than reflecting on gender (Cohen, 1968).

SI aims to understand human behaviour by analysing the critical role of symbols in human interaction. It is based on an equally important theory in sociology, Interactionism. The latter is a theoretical perspective that understands social processes including conflict, cooperation and identity formation as they emerge from human interaction. It deals with social phenomena on a small scale and analyses the data from a subjective perspective. Its origin can be traced to the works of Cooley (1912), Herbert (1920) and Thomas (1933). According to them, gender stratification exists because people act toward each other on the basis of the meanings they have for one another, and that these meanings are managed and transformed through an interpretive process that people use to make sense of, and handle, the objects that constitute their social worlds, based on the premise that meanings attached to symbols are socially created. When people perform tasks or possess characteristics based on the gender role assigned to them, they are said to be “doing gender” (West & Zimmerman, 1987, p. 123). Thus, to them, gender is something we do or perform, not something we are, it is produced and reinforced through daily interactions and the use of symbols. According to Cooley’s (1910) concept of the *‘Looking-Glass Self’*, an individual’s understanding of their gender is based on how society perceives them. Thus, if society views that the place of the woman is in the house, the woman is expected to act as such.

CT views society in a constant struggle for dominance among the different social groups, like women versus men, who supposedly compete for insufficient resources. When sociologists examine gender from this perspective, men are perceived as the dominant group and women as the subordinate group, which accordingly, results in the creation of social problems (Farrington & Chertok, 1993). In contrast to SF, which sees society as a harmonious well-integrated social system,

with shared values and common goals, CT presents a different picture of society. It depicts society as an arena of widespread conflict and struggle at every level of it. Instead of values consensus, as a means of keeping society together, it considers exercise of power to play the role. This implies that conflict persists throughout the existence of society in all its levels. Furthermore, CT is criticized for its pessimistic perspective of society, for it sees society in terms of strife and disorder and turns blind eye to the harmonious, integrated aspect of social life. Therefore, “both Structural functionalism and CT can lay exclusive right to comprehensiveness and applicability” (Bryjak & Soroka, 1994, p.22); we learn gender through the process of socialization either by being part of society, interacting with its members or facing constant social conflicts.

1.2. Basic Concepts of Gender

The word gender is branched out from many related concepts such as personality, identity, societal roles and stereotypes. The relationship of gender with these concepts is related to it by association given to biological and social nature of the word gender itself.

1.2.1. Gender and Personality

The concept of personality is relatively ancient in comparison to the field of psychology. It is often traced back to 400 BC and linked to Hippocrates, a physician, who argued that personality is a set of traits that set people apart. His idea that personality has a biological basis is now seen in modern psychological theories that link the presence of brain chemicals to mood and behaviour. What is considered as the birth of modern psychological theories explaining the concept of personality is the work of Freud in the twentieth century who described his theory of personality which he called psychoanalysis as “a theory of the mind or personality, a method of

investigation of unconscious process, and a method of treatment” (Freud, 1923, p. 62). Based on this theory he developed a number of hypothetical models to describe the mind or what he referred to as the psyche. The first model is a topographic of the psyche that explains how the mind is organised, the second model is the structure of the psyche that explains how personality works, and the third model is psychogenetic development that explains how personality develops.

Another prominent mind analyst to deal with the concept of personality is Jung (1933), who, unlike Freud, saw humans as not just guided by sex and aggression but also by aims and aspirations. To distinguish his approach from classic psychoanalysis, Jung called it analytical psychology (1951). His theory stands on the ground that personality consists of competing forces and structures within the individual that must be balanced. He focused on the conflicts between opposing forces within the individual, rather than between the individual and the demands of society, or between the individual and reality.

In simple “personality is a dynamic organisation, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create the person’s characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts and feelings” (Allport, 1961, p.28); men's and women's personalities differ in several aspects. The field of personality has not provided yet reliable knowledge about gender and has not contributed much to it; nonetheless, researchers such as Freud and Jung have attempted over the course of time to explain the source of personality and how it works, and most of all, how personality traits differ between men and women. There are two classes of theories, mainly: biological and psycho-social theories.

The biological theories attempt to explain gender related differences as innate temper based, gradually developed by natural selection. In other words, gender

differences in personality result because of the process of survival and reproduction of human beings throughout history. Buss (1995) predicted that it is the reason that men and women will differ in domains in which they have faced different adaptive problems throughout evolutionary history. For instance, biological reasons including pregnancy, childbirth, and lactation, tend to make women be more invested in relations with children more than men do.

Other biological theories have been proposed to account for gender differences when it comes to depression and other mental and psychological diseases. Studies have been documented suggesting women have about twice the rate of depression in comparison to men (Van de Velde, Bracke, & Levecque, 2010). These explanations point to hormonal differences and their effects on mood and personality. In 1987, Nolen considered that evidence in support of these explanations was inconclusive; however, more recent studies (Berenbaum & Resnick, 1997; Berenbaum, 1999) suggest that sex differences during early development do affect interests, activities, and aggression.

Social psychological theorists argue for more direct and observed causes of gender differences. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) conducted the first major review of research on gender related differences in personality. They concluded that men are more assertive and less anxious than women; however, in locus of control and self-esteem, there were no differences. Eagly and Wood (1999) claimed that, “men and women have inherited the same evolved psychological dispositions” (p. 224), continuing “it is likely that extensive socialization is required to orient boys and girls to function differently”. (p. 705). In other words, it is argued that boys and girls are born with the same personality structure but extensive social exposure makes them have a variant difference in their personalities.

Those studies led researchers to sketch theoretical models explaining how social context influences personality traits. The social role model (Eagly, 1987) explains that most gender differences result from the adoption of gender roles, which define appropriate conduct for men and women (Eagly, 1995; Geary, 1999). The artifact model (Feingold, 1994) explains gender differences on personality scales in terms of method variance. There are two main methods, meta-analysis and single trait studies. Meta analysis was used by Feingold (1994) to confirm the gender differences in adult personality traits. His studies were reported by Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), concluded that women scored lower than men on assertiveness and higher on gregariousness, anxiety, trust, and tender mindedness. Hyde (2014) also reviewed studies of gender differences in personality across a wide variety of psychological traits and concluded moderate to large gender differences are consistently observed in agreeableness, sensation seeking, physical aggression, interests in things versus people. Smaller, but still persistent, gender differences in personality were found for measures of negative affectivity, conscientiousness, gregariousness, reward sensitivity and self-esteem (Zell, Krizan, & Teeter, 2015).

The studies have noted that men tend to score lower than women in neuroticism and agreeableness to a lesser degree (Schmitt, 2015; Schmitt et al., 2016). When they studied the traits of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy or what is referred to as the dark triad (Grijalva et al., 2014; Jonason, Li, Webster, & Schmitt, 2009) found that men typically scored higher (Schmitt et al., 2016). One single trait method examines one personality trait at a time. Del Giudice, Booth, and Irwing (2012) documented across 15 traits of Raymond Cattell's personality theory, the data indicated a ranging from dominance and liveliness to perfectionism and tension in personality and gender differences are quite large. Studies examining

gender differences in self-esteem (Gentile, 2009; Kling, Hyde, Showers, and Buswell, 1999), subjective well-being (Schmitt et al., 2016) However, gender differences in personal values have been documented showing women report higher levels of benevolence and universalism values, whereas men report higher levels of power, achievement and hedonism values (Schwartz & Rubel-Lifschitz, 2009). Gender differences in occupational interest report that women are considered as more interested in people-oriented professions, while men are more interested in things-related professions (Rounds, & Armstrong, 2009).

The scientific study of gender differences has yielded a myriad of vigorous generalizations about the way males and females differ across domains, cultures, and developmental stages. Competing theories of gender vary in the role they assign to evolutionary history, social and cultural practices, endocrine and neurobiological mechanisms, and individual learning; they also vary in the extent to which they regard these levels of explanation as complementary or mutually exclusive. Among the more likely forces behind large and pervasive gender differences in personality are the specialised designs of men's and women's evolved psychology.

1.2.2. Gender and Identity

Identity is typically defined as the perception or recognition of one's characteristics as a particular individual, or in a social context. It is the ensemble of qualities, beliefs, personality, physical attributes that make a person or group (Arnett, 2000). The identity of a particular, single individual is called self Identity, which consists of relatively indefinite self-assessments of personality traits, knowledge of one's skills and abilities, one's occupation and hobbies, and awareness of one's physical attributes. It is defined in many disciplines in numerous ways and with multiple theories.

In cognitive psychology, the concept of identity refers to the ability to self-reflect and being self-aware (Leary & Tangney, 2003). Psychologists most commonly use the term to describe personal or self-identity. Sociologists, however, oftentimes use the term to describe social or group-identity. Neuroscientists draw upon these fields to study the neurobiological basis of personal and social identity.

A person's identity is defined as:

The totality of one's self-construal, in which how one construes oneself in the present expresses the continuity between how one construes oneself as one was in the past and how one construes oneself as one aspires to be in the future (Arnett, 2000, p. 16);

This allows for definitions of aspects of identity, such as:

One's ethnic identity is defined as that part of the totality of one's self-construal made up of those dimensions that express the continuity between one's construal of past ancestry and one's future aspirations in relation to ethnicity". (Weinreich, 1986, p. 80)

In other words, the concept of identity to Weinreich is the collection of self interpretations in the past, present and future. In addition to that, our perception of ourselves in the span of time relates to our perception of how one interprets one's view of one's self. This is what Laing meant by '*Meta-Perspective of Self*', or the self's perception of the other's view of self (Saunderson & O'Kane, 2005). These different selves lead to constructed images dichotomized between what the ideal-self that people seek and the limited self that others perceive. The description or representation of individual and group identity is a central task for psychologists, sociologists and anthropologists and those of other disciplines where '*Identity*' needs to be mapped and defined.

At a general level, psychology is compelled to investigate the question of how the personal self relates to the social environment. These different explorations of 'identity' demonstrate how difficult a concept is to pin down. However, its manifestations and the ways in which it is exercised are often open to view. Those manifestations appear clearly in the differences found in men and women's perception of themselves and one another. In other words, identity is a clearer concept when studied from a gender perspective. Gender identity forms an important part of identity in psychology, as it dictates to a significant degree how one views oneself both as a person and in relation to social context (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003).

The biochemical theory of gender identity suggests that people acquire gender identities through biological factors such as hormones and genes rather than socialization (Arnett, 2000). One of the biochemical factors that influence gender identity is Hormones, which are chemical substances produced by glands throughout the body and carried in the bloodstream. It is worth noting that the same sex hormones occur in both men and women, but only differ in amounts and in the effect that they have upon different parts of the body. An example would be testosterone, a sex hormone which is more present in males than females; it can cause typically male behaviors such as aggression, competitiveness, visual-spatial abilities...etc.

The effects of testosterone have been confirmed in animal studies. Briscoe and Quadagno (1977) found that female monkeys who were deliberately exposed to testosterone during prenatal development later engaged in more rough and tumble play than other females. However, the study was criticized on the grounds that it was conducted in a lab; thus, it has low ecological validity; because hormones are injected in one single high dose; whereas, in real life, hormones tend to be released by the body in pulses, in a graduated fashion. Therefore, the results might not be generalised

outside of the lab, to a more naturalistic setting. However, a study by Hines (1982) suggested it might be possible to generalize the results to humans. He studied female babies born to mothers who had been given injections of male hormones during pregnancy to prevent miscarriage. They were found to be more aggressive than normal female children.

As the evolutionary approach is a biological one (Arnett, 2000), it argues that gender identity, like personality, appears as an adaptation to the challenges faced by the ancestral humans in the environment of evolutionary adaptation. The mind is therefore equipped with '*Instincts*' that enabled our ancestors to survive and reproduce. This explains why men and women differ identically; they tend to have different self perceptions due to their different social occupations and survival instincts. Furthermore, parental influence on gender identity can be summed to factors such as the absence of a father, a mother's wish for a specific gender, or parental reinforcement patterns were suggested as influences (Eriksson, 2000). Our expectations of what girls do, and what boys do, have changed. Many female athletes excel at their sports. Girls increasingly pursue subjects traditionally thought of as '*Masculine*'. There are many famous male chefs, artists, and musicians; those fields are traditionally thought of as '*Feminine*'.

The social learning theory posits that children furthermore develop their gender identity like their personality through observing and imitating gender-linked behaviours, then being rewarded or punished for behaving that way, thus being shaped by the people surrounding them through trying to imitate and follow them (Eriksson, 2000).

Barbara Newman (1989, p. 189) breaks it down into four parts:

- (1) Understanding the concept of gender,

- (2) Learning gender role standards and stereotypes,
- (3) Identifying with parents, and
- (4) Forming gender preference.

Nonetheless, there are several theories about how and when gender identity forms and studying the subject is difficult because children's lack of language requires researchers to make assumptions from indirect evidence. Although the formation of gender identity is not completely understood, many factors have been suggested as influencing its development. In particular, the extent to which it is determined by socialization versus innateness. Both factors are thought to play a role.

1.2.3. Gender Roles

A role is an expected behaviour linked with a status (Kohlberg, 1966). Roles are performed according to certain social norms and shared rules that guide people's behaviour in specific situations. It is agreed upon that they are "socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women" (Thorne, 1980, p.23). Nonetheless, researchers are still debating whether gender roles are socially constructed or biologically determined and to what extent. Many researchers and sociologists including Ellis (1945) Hofstede (1983), Zimmerman and West (1995) argued that gender roles are discriminatory and should not be upheld. Conflict theorists argue that although certain gender roles may have been appropriate in a hunter-gatherer society the only reason these roles persisted is because the dominant group naturally worked to maintain their power and status. Furthermore, according to the sociology of gender, gender roles are culturally specific constructed and understood by cultural expectations (Weinreich & Saunderson, 2003). They are considered to be an expression of gender identity but not a synonym for it. Similarly, West and Zimmerman viewed gender roles as "the product of social doings

of some sort...undertaken by men and women whose competence as members of society is hostage to its production” (1987, p. 129). They argue that roles are constructed identities, such as ‘*Teacher*’ and ‘*Student*’, casted and enhanced as the situation demands while gender is a changing identity with no specific concrete context. For them, "conceptualising gender as a ‘*Role*’ makes it difficult to assess its influence on other roles and reduces its explanatory usefulness in discussions of power and inequality” (Zimmerman, 1987, p.130). They consider gender an individual production that reflects and constructs interactional and institutional gender expectations; thus, gender roles.

Social constructionists and social functionalists argue that gender roles were constructed and established decades or even centuries before the pre-industrial era when the man took the title of hunter gatherer, he typically took care of responsibilities outside of the home, and the woman typically took care of the domestic responsibilities in or around the home. These roles were considered functional because women were often constrained by the physical restraints such as pregnancy and nursing and were unable to leave the home for long periods of time. These roles were passed on to subsequent generations since they served as an effective means of keeping the family system functioning properly (Hawke, 2007).

Theories of opposition such as Baron-Cohen (2014) and Wallen (2015) believed that gender roles are products of our biological and chemical compositions, one of those theories is evolutionary psychology. Research at the Yerkes National Primate Research Centre (2013) has shown that gender roles may be biological among primates. They studied the interactions of 11 male and 23 female Rhesus monkeys with human toys, both with wheels and plush. The males played mostly with the wheeled toys while the females played with both types equally. However, the studies

were criticized by Wallen (2015), on the basis that the results were over-interpreted, in addition to the fact that color and size of the toys may also have been factors. In the same line of thought, Baron-Cohen (2014) conducted a gendered study on newborns, she claims that the female brain is predominantly 'hard-wired' for empathy which according to her claim, explain why females are more sensitive and empathetic than males, while the male brain is predominantly 'hard-wired' for understanding and building systems which explain why males tend to think in more linear ways and prefer designing and constructing things. However, Nash and Grossi (2016, p. 12) described this study as "fraught with methodological problems".

The difference of opinion does not just lie on the source of gender roles but also on how different cultures perceive them (Baron-Cohen, 2014). There are undeniably huge differences in attitudes towards appropriate and inappropriate gender roles across different cultures. In the World Values Survey (2018), responders were asked about their attitudes concerning the thought of restricting wage work to only men in the case of shortage in jobs. In Iceland, responders who agreed with the idea were counted only as 3.6%; while in Egypt, the result was 94.9%.

Attitudes have also varied across different spans of history, for example, in Europe, during the Middle Ages; gender roles for women were commonly associated with medicine and healing. However, not long after, the same role was only restricted to men because of the rise of witch-hunts. Lately, gender roles that are related to positions and jobs are becoming more neutral such as doctors, nurses, teachers, chefs...etc (Baron-Cohen, 2014).

Religion also plays a huge role in the interpretation and attitudes towards gender roles (West & Zimmerman, 2000). A self-evident fact is that most gender roles are neutral and humanly constructed because of the different religious and cultural

groups within one country and how they interpret, construct and cast those roles. Gender roles in Muslim countries are centered on the importance of the family unit, which is viewed as the basis of a balanced and healthy society. In Muslim culture, women are seen as having a similar status to men, however, men are seen as a degree above women according to the holy Qur'an; however, how gender roles are honored is largely cultural (West & Zimmerman, 2000). Over the years, gender roles have continued to change and have a significant impact on the institution of marriage in specific and life in general. Gender roles can be defined as the behaviors, values, and attitudes that a society considers appropriate for both male and females. Traditionally, men and women had completely opposing roles, men were seen as the provider for the family and women were seen as the caretakers of both the home and the family. However, in today's society the division of roles is starting to blur (Leinbach & O'Boyle, 2013).

1.2.4. Gender Stereotypes

Stereotypes are generalizations cast based on observations or contact with an individual or a group (Leinbach & O'Boyle, 2013). Although, stereotypes can include positive and true characteristics, they most often consist of negative ones that are used as a means of justification to racism, sexism and any other kind of discrimination. The personality, identity and gender roles of males and females are often stereotyped according to the characteristics certain groups are assumed to possess by virtue of their biology or psychology (Leinbach & O'Boyle, 2013).

Both women and men face different negative stereotypes in many aspects of their lives. Moreover; those negative stereotypes limit their capacities, abilities and affect their lives badly on the educational level, career choices in addition to distorting their perception of themselves and the world around them. Women are often

stereotyped as unreliable because they are assumed to possess uncontrollable hormones which cause rage and emotional outbursts. Men are most of the time stereotyped to be insensitive and hard to respond to emotional stimuli (West & Zimmerman, 2000); through assigning unreliability and insensitiveness to them based on myths which are scientifically discredited result in bad treatment, misunderstanding and sexism.

Studies, conducted by Leinbach and O'Boyle (2013), showed that gender stereotyping and labeling is acquired at a very young age, and that it does not just affect their personalities and identities but also their performance on subject matters such as: choice of toys, patterns of speech, emotional responses and education. In the studies conducted, the effects of gender stereotypes on children's mathematical abilities were tested. It was found that the children, as early as the second grade, demonstrated the gender stereotype that mathematics is a '*boy's subject*'. This may show that the mathematical self-belief is influenced before the age in which there are discernible differences in mathematical achievement. In another study of gender stereotypes by Jacobs (1991) on the concept of '*Stereotype Threat*' which is being at risk of confirming, as self-characteristic, a negative stereotype about one's self or group such as women perform worse than men in mathematics and better in languages and literary subjects, which is proposed to lead to lower performance by women in mathematics and lower performance of men in languages (Leinbach & O'Boyle, 2013).

1.3. Gender and Culture

1.3.1. Definitions of Culture

Culture is considered as one of the hardest words to define. LeVine (1984) stated that:

The term '*culture*' itself has a positive connotation in all languages, as well as the adverb '*cultural*'. The word culture is derived from the Latin word '*colere*' which is the cultivation, used always with an attribute, e.g. the culture of grapevine or the culture of corn (p. 67).

In simple words, the word culture as it is traced back in history means the reform state and the upper slot which something or someone belongs to. However, the word culture has undergone many changes semantically but it kept its positive connotation. Hence, in today's world, culture refers to the state of a person or a group of people who are gathered and governed by a set of patterns and rules. Furthermore, culture encompasses our being and the way we live our lives (Byram, 1998, Kramsch, 2006).

In an attempt to solve the problem of the definition of culture once and for all; the two anthropologist Alfred L Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn (1952) collected over 100 definitions of culture in their book which is titled: '*Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions*', which were organised then classified into several categories: descriptive, historical, normative, psychological, structural, and incomplete that they called "on-the-side stabs in passing" (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952, p. 72). The categories, as their names indicate, were used to classify the definitions based on their description, chronological order, their relation to any field...etc.

From a sociological viewpoint, the existence of culture is valued from different sociological theories (Leinbach & O'Boyle, 2013). From a structural functionalists' viewpoint, culture is a set of breaks that together provide a shelter for people. However, conflict theorists see culture as a means to create social differences and discrimination that enable a group of people, usually more powerful and dominant, to overpower other groups or even minorities in the same group. Symbolic

interactionists hold a middle ground in which they believe that culture can be both depending on how we define and approach it. According to Kramsch (1993), culture refers to “membership in a discourse community that shares a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and action” (p. 127). In other words, culture ties a group of people together and gives them the opportunity to share beliefs, attitudes and perceptions.

By the same token, culture is defined differently by anthropologists. Behaviourists argue that culture is a set of learned behaviours. They are only interested in studying observable behaviours of culture without diving into their source or providing any explanation as to why they happen. Functionalists had a similar premise yet different perspective regarding the definition of culture; they believed that culture is a set of behaviours that enable the society to stay intact and function properly. Like the behaviourists, the functionalists also did not take the invisible part of culture into consideration.

Cognitivists defined culture as mind maps or computer software of the mind. In simpler terms, culture is seen as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 5). As the name indicates, they studied more than just the observable behaviours. Culture, according to them, is like an iceberg, the tip of which is called Big C culture or high culture, while the rest of the iceberg is known as small c culture or low culture. The latter is a set of behaviours, beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, superstitions, stereotypes, myths...etc, the former, is what can be seen and observed like architecture, arts, literature...etc. Cognitivists were interested in both, but mainly ‘*Small c Culture*’. Nowadays, there has been a conventional agreement that culture is all of that.

1.3.2. Culture and Society

According to sociologists, a society is typically defined as a sovereign social entity with a state at its centre that is responsible for organising the rights and duties of each societal member. The term society has been derived from the Latin word '*Societas*', which in turn was derived from the noun '*Socius*' which roughly translates to a friend, an ally, association or fellowship (Merriam-Webster, 2020). This is because human beings have always lived in the company and presence of their fellow beings; based on this sociability or companionship is seen and considered as the essence of society. Moreover, through the interdependence of social members and their society, it is presumed that societies are known and distinguished from one another because they are defined as self-regulating entities (Held, 1995; Rose 1996).

Over the past two centuries, defining and studying society has been the focal point to the concept of what it means to be a human being, specifically a human who possesses the rights and duties of citizenship. The definition of society has been associated with the definition of being a human. To be human has meant that one is unambiguously and undoubtedly a member of a particular society. Historically and conceptually there has been a strong connection between the idea of humanness and that of membership of a society, which refers to, not a general sense of civilization, but as a nation-state, with clear territorial and citizenship boundaries and a system of governance over its respective citizens. In other words, humanness and society have an indivisible and indispensable duality.

The relationship between culture and society is very complex; "culture is a set of learnt behaviours and their consequences, the elements of which are common for

members of a given society and are spread within the society” (Kłoskowska, 1964, p. 38). In simpler words, culture functions like an invisible and implicit conventional rule and knowledge to people who have the same affiliations. Culture and society are co-existent and inter-linked. One cannot exist or functions without the other. A society needs a culture to tie its members together. They have many common elements but the two are not identical, they are complementary to one another; hence the word: socio- cultural.

1.4. Gender as a Socio-cultural Prominence

Since culture and society are intertwined and both have the human being as a common attribution, it makes gender, which is the most important and apparent distinctive feature between human beings, an aspect of everything that is socio-cultural. If socio-cultural beliefs about gender are the rules for enacting the gender system, social relational contexts are the arenas in which these rules are brought to bear on the behaviour and evaluations of individuals. The process that links gender and socio-cultural contexts is sex categorization. Although gender is the most visible distinction between human beings, it is considered as an unnoticeable socio-cultural prominence or reflection.

Published research on socio-cultural differences in gender has focused more on cross-national differences than on cultural-group differences within countries. Several dimensions of cultural variability have been employed to distinguish cultures. The four dimensions of Hofstede (1998, 2001): 1-individualism–collectivism, 2-power distances, 3-uncertainty avoidance, and 4-masculinity–femininity, which have been used by many researchers to explain a wide range of cultural differences. Best and Williams (1994) found in their large-scale cross-cultural study of gender-role beliefs that gender roles were more pronounced in countries that score higher on the

cultural dimension of power distance (the extent to which people in the society accept unequal distribution of power). Hofstede pointed out that more masculine societies strive for maximal distinction between how men and women are expected to behave. These societies expect men to be competitive and to strive for material success and expect women to serve and care for non-material quality of life and for children. In more masculine societies, belief in inequality of the sexes dominates, social roles of sexes are different, and the mother has a weaker position in the family. In more feminine countries, like The Netherlands (Hofstede, 2001), social roles show more overlap, the belief in equality of the sexes is more prevalent, there is less occupational and educational segregation, and the mother has a stronger position in the family. Thus, society is as good as its people, and to be good one should have a healthy dose of gender differences not toxic myths and stereotypes.

1.5. Gender Studies

The study of gender is defined as an interdisciplinary field of study which focuses on the concept of gender. It is held to help attain an understanding of gender and its intersection with culture and society. Gender studies has become a focal point of interest in countless universities and research journals worldwide due to the impact gender has on everyday life aspects and especially on the process of learning (Pearson & Rooke, 2018). The most important aim of GS is to educate students and make them aware about gender and gender issues from a social, cultural and psychological level. It does not just investigate the actual differences between women and men, but also encourages students to think critically about what these differences mean in a socio-cultural context (Sultana & Sohaimi, 2011).

The history of GS looks at the different perspectives of gender. This discipline examines the ways by which historical, cultural, and social events shape the role of

gender in different societies; the universal suffrage revolution of the twentieth century and the women's liberation movement of the 1960 and 1970s have promoted a new vision to gender and have resulted in the birth of gender theory. It was the goal of many scholars interested in GS to question original assumptions regarding women's and men's attributes, to actually measure them, and to report observed differences between women and men. Initially, these programs were essentially feminist, designed to recognize contributions made by women as well as by men. Soon, men began to look at masculinity the same way that women were looking at femininity, and developed an area of study called '*Men's Studies*'.

1.5.1. Women's Studies

Women's studies, as the name indicates, is an interdisciplinary academic field which studies and researches are devoted to every topic that concerns women. It draws on several theories such as the feminist theory, and multiple approaches such as women's history, women's fiction, and women's health. The first women's studies lecture is traced back to 1956, when a researcher called Madge Dawson took up a lectureship in the Department of Adult Education at Sydney University. The course was titled '*Women in a Changing World*' which focused on the socio-economic and political status of women in Western Europe. However, the first accredited and official women's studies course was held in the U.S in 1969 at Cornell University (Kahn, 2006). A year later, the first women's studies program in the United States was established in 1970 at what is now called San Diego State University (Salper, 2011). The first scholarly journal in interdisciplinary women's studies is called '*Feminist Studies*', which began publishing in 1972, The National Women's Studies Association, was established in the United States (Ginsberg, 2008).

The field of women's studies continued to grow during the 1990s and into the 2000s with the expansion of universities offering degrees, and certificates in women's studies. The first official Ph.D. program in Women's Studies was established at Emory University in 1990, as of 2012, there were 16 institutions offering a Ph.D. in Women's Studies in the United States and in 2015 at Kabul University the first master's degree course in gender and women's studies in Afghanistan began (FaithWorld, 2015).

In the beginnings of women's studies courses and curricula, there was a question that was often seen as the centre of the field. The question focused on the absence of women in all life domains that excluded women generally and in education specifically (FaithWorld, 2015). Furthermore, as more women became more included and present in higher education as students and faculty staff, more questions arose, different in form but similar in nature about the male-centric nature of most courses and curricula. In other words, the question moved from why are women not included in x domain to why males are more centred in x domain. Based on this transition of interest, women fought for more focus and attention so they started offering courses in history, English, and philosophy with a focus on women. Drawing from that, courses also began to develop around women's roles in society, and the ways in which women's personal lives reflect larger power structures. Correspondingly, four major theories have seen light in an attempt to be employed in women's studies.

The first theory is called the feminist theory which refers to the body of literature that addresses gender discrimination and inequality, while acknowledging, describing, and analyzing the experiences and conditions of women's lives. This can be seen in works such as *'In Search of Our Mothers' Gardens'* by Alice Walker who coined the term *'Womanism'* to situate black women's experiences as they struggle for

social change and liberation, while simultaneously celebrating the strength of black women, their culture, and their beauty, and '*Black Feminist Thought: Knowledge, Consciousness, and the Politics of Empowerment*' by Patricia Hill Collins who also contributed to the concept of the "matrix of domination" to feminist theory, which re-conceptualizes race, class, and gender as interlocking systems of oppression that shape experiences of privilege and oppression. In essence, theorists and writers added to the field of feminist theory by showcasing the ways in which race and gender mutually inform the experiences of women of color.

The second theory is named intersectionality which belongs to Kimberlé Williams Crenshaw. It is the way of understanding and analysing the complexity in people, human experiences, and society. Intersectionality has become the key theoretical framework through which various feminist scholars discuss the relationship between one's social and political identities such as gender, race, age...etc. It posits that these relationships must be considered in order to understand hierarchies of power and privilege, as well as the effects in which they manifest in an individual's life. Though events and conditions of social and political life are often thought to be shaped by one factor, intersectionality theorizes that oppression and social inequality are a result of how powerful individuals view the combination of various factors; emphasizing that discrimination is accounted for by power, not personal identity.

The third theory is known as the Standpoint, which was developed in the 1980s as a way of critically examining the production of knowledge and the way the latter affects on practices of power. Moreover, it operates from the idea that knowledge is socio-culturally situated which sheds light on the underrepresented groups and minorities that have historically been ignored or marginalised when it

comes to the production of knowledge. The theory stems from Marxist thought, where the focus is on analysing, criticising, and challenging the authority of what is called political and social "truths"; since it emerges from the assumption that power lies solely within the hands of the male gender not only as the process but also the product of decision making in society. A clear demonstration of where standpoint theory presents itself in society is through the processes of political analysis, as this field of study is known to be male-centred. Furthermore and based on the Marxist viewpoint, those in power do not possess the ability to understand the perspectives of those whom they hold power over. Similarly, standpoint theory argues that men are incapable of understanding the oppression in which women face in society since they are said to be the ones in power.

The fourth theory is called social justice which is connected with the women's movement and women's activism. Increasingly social justice has become a key component of women's studies' courses, programs, and departments since it is concerned with the fight for whole communities, not on the individual level like most theories aforementioned. Women's studies students engage in social justice projects, the latter is often defined as the concept that is used to describe the movement towards a socially just world, e.g., the Global Justice Movement.

In this context, social justice is based on the concepts of human rights and equality. Several movements are working to achieve social justice in society toward the realization of a world where all members of a society, regardless of background or procedural justice, have basic human rights and equal access to the benefits of their society. Based on social justice theory, women's studies not only focus on concepts such as domestic violence, discrimination in the workplace, and gender differences in

the division of labor at home, but give a foundation for understanding the root cause of these concepts, which is the first step to making for a better life for women.

In essence, these theories play an important role in women's studies. In the same line of thought, women and their experiences are placed at the centre of inquiry through the use of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. In most institutions, women's studies courses employ feminist pedagogy that is grounded in Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy or the Pedagogy of the Oppressed. Feminist pedagogy is an engaged process facilitated by concrete classroom goals in which members learn to respect each other's differences, accomplish mutual goals, and help each other reach individual goals. Since women's studies students analyse identity markers including gender, race, class, and sexuality, this often results in dissecting institutionalized structures of power. As a result of these pedagogies, women's studies students leave university with a tool set to make social change and do something about power inequalities in society.

1.5.2. Men's Studies

Men's studies, like women's studies, is also an interdisciplinary academic field devoted to topics concerning men, gender, and politics; it often includes feminist theory, men's history and social history, men's fiction, men's health, feminist psychoanalysis and the feminist and gender studies-influenced practice of most of the humanities and social sciences. As opposed to women's studies which found a global welcome and acceptance as a field of studies; men's studies on the other hand was often regarded as unnecessary and not needed. One of the reasons that led to such perception is that women's issues were more apparent.

In the same line of thought, sociologists and psychologists in the Nordic countries such as Norwegians Erik Grønseth and Per Olav Tiller were early pioneers

of men's studies as a research field and they are considered as the founders of the field of men's studies and Norwegian family sociology. Grønseth and Tiller's classic study of how the father's absence in sailor families impacts their children's personality development in the 1950s is often regarded as the starting point of men's studies in the Nordic countries and the world. In Anglophone countries, men's studies as a field, was formed largely in response to, and as a critique of, an emerging men's rights movement, and as such, has been taught in academic settings only since the 1970s.

Early men's studies scholars studied social construction of masculinity, which by definition are the characteristics and features of a man. The Australian sociologist Raewyn Connell introduced the concept of hegemonic masculinity, describing it as a practice that legitimises men's dominant position in society and justifies the subordination of the common male population and women, and other marginalised or right ways of being a man. Being pervasive across societies, it results in multiple masculinities (Kimmel, 2006) specifically a hierarchy of masculinities, in which some men do not experience the same privilege other men do, because of their other marginalised identities such as the man's social class, race, skin colour, religious affiliation, ethnic origin, educational status, living standards, political opinions, and appearance like height and weight which play a huge role upon which the hegemonic masculinity is based. Such exclusionary forms of discrimination may also apply to men with a disability, minorities, the elderly and the young. Any man who appears to deviate in any way from perceived norms of a population may thereby become subject to coarse or subtle forms of social exclusion whether the difference is biological like appearance or social like social class and ethnic group.

According to Kimmel (2006), the concept of masculinity began to be acknowledged and redefined around the 19th century in America. The reaffirmation

of masculinity as a term involved proving one's masculine worth as well as providing for one's family, and thus affected by the political atmosphere and financial aspect. Kimmel talks about what he calls the 'imbibing of masculinity' which happens to young boys at home, at school and when watching adults interact, they acquire masculinity through social learning and imitation. Kimmel also described the term '*Toxic Masculinity*' which is defined as the enactment of men centred cultural norms which are proven to be not only harmful for females as the subordinate population but also harmful to men and society in general, because it promotes and encourages negative behaviours related to violence and aggression. The cultural expectations of boys and men to be tough, stoic, aggressive and unemotional are harmful to men's development because it does not let them experience the true range of human emotions, increased levels of anger and depression and can even result in a shortened life expectancy. In addition to that, society puts double the pressure on men in comparison to women in terms of careers and financial independence and stability. This often results in reversed results where young boys drop out of school due to pressure and inability to pursue short term goals such as finishing school but rather expected to have a future plan with an income source.

The field of men's studies has received criticism for the reason that it separates itself from the rest of gender studies. Some researchers and women's studies advocates such as Canaan and Griffin described their direct and explicit reservation of Men's Studies, asking: "is it a coincidence that the new men's studies is being constructed in the present context as a source of potential research, publishing deals, and (even more) jobs for the already-well-paid boys holding prestigious positions?" (1989, p. 12) Timothy and Hickey-Moody suggest that there "have always been dangers present in the institutionalisation of "masculinity studies" as a semi-gated

community”, and note that “a certain triumphalism vis-à-vis feminist philosophy haunts much masculinities research” (p. 18)

Conclusion

All societies are structured around relatively stable patterns that establish how social interaction will be carried out. One of the most important social structures which are responsible for the organisation of social interaction is gender. The latter is not just a biological, social and psychological construct, it is also a group of concepts stretched together by society and commonly understood by its members. On this basis, the study of gender emerged as one of the most important trends in the twentieth century when gender became more widespread in scientific research, media, and daily life. In the same line of thought, human beings are not just their biological make-up; they are also the product of their cultures and societies. This made understanding the concept of gender crucial in many disciplines that attempt to study human beings including; physiology, psychology, and sociology.

Chapter Two: Gender in the EFL Context

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of gender in the EFL context. It sheds light on the relationship between language and gender and how one affects the other. Furthermore, it deals with the notion of language and the difference between language use and language usage, and how each one differs drastically when it comes in contact with gender. In addition to that, this chapter aims at bridging between the theoretical part of the study and the practical part by moving from the abstract definitions of gender and its relationship with language to how it has been historically regarded and is actually dealt with in EFL classes and teaching materials, specifically, textbooks.

2. Language, Gender and Education

2.1 An Account on Language

Language, as derived from the Latin word '*Lingua*' which roughly translates to the tongue, and the French term '*Langue*' which expounds the complex phenomena associated with human vocal and auditory communication of emotions and ideas (Pickering & Garrod, 2004). Language in a general sense has multitudes of definitions that can be used to stress different aspects of the phenomenon (Lyons, 1981). These definitions also entail different approaches and understandings of language, and they also inform different and often incompatible schools of linguistic theory (Trask, 2007).

Debates about the nature and origin of language go back to the ancient world. There is still no answer for this question, only theories and plausible explanations as to

how human beings started speaking a language. Simply, language is a “system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication” (Brown, 1994, p. 4). In other words, language is a system of conventional spoken or written symbols by which human beings, as members of a social group and active participants in its culture express themselves. This well-known utility of language is one of its multitudinous functions, which can be summed into three main categories. The first one is communication which is the link between language and culture. The second one is the expression of identity, in other words, the use of language to express who we are. The third and last one is the imaginative expression and emotional release (Trask, 2007).

In linguistics parlance, the scientific study of language, the latter is usually defined as an organised noise used in actual social situations (Brown, 1994). “Language is the principal means by which we conduct our social lives. When it is used in contexts of communication, it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways” (Kramsch, 1993, p.3). On the same token, Language is called a social phenomenon, because it cannot exist nor have relevance outside its social setting. That is to say, it is only recognized and defined as a language if it has a social aspect. This fact makes each language unique as each one stems from a different social context, making language special in terms of features and functions. Thus, to communicate within a social group means not only to speak and exchange thoughts but also to learn, think and believe in a given way (Chapman & Routledge, 2009).

Language is the reflection of one's perceptions, perspectives, and attitudes toward the world. This social exchange of language shapes it in more than one way, whether internally as in its structure or externally as in its different discursive patterns. All in all, language can be approached internally through its usage, i.e. how it is constructed, or externally i.e. how it is used.

2.1.1 Language Usage

The usage of a language is the way in which the written and spoken form of a certain language is habitually used by its speakers. In other words, language usage, according to the Chicago manual style (2010) refers to "the collective habits of a language's native speakers" (p. 261) as opposed to the idealised picture held by linguists regarding how a language should work. The terms language usage is not fairly new, they date back to when Fowler (1926), in her book '*A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*', characterized usage as the grammatical and syntactic rules and how a word or phrase is normally and correctly used by its native speakers.

In linguistics, the word grammar is defined as the set of structural rules that govern the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in a language. In addition to that, it also refers to the study of those rules (Trask, 2007). When it comes to first language acquisition, grammar is acquired naturally and unconsciously as part of acquiring the language. However, when it comes to second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language learning (FLL), it may require conscious study or instruction. Thus, grammar is the cognitive information underlying language use (Lyons, 1981). Outside linguistics' parlance, the term grammar has a rather slightly different meaning. It is used more broadly to include conventions of spelling and punctuation, which linguists would not typically consider as part of grammar but rather as part of orthography, the conventions used for writing a language (Trask, 2007).

In linguistics, syntax is the set of rules, principles, and processes that govern the structure of sentences in a given language, usually including word order. The term syntax is also used to refer to the study of such principles and processes (Chomsky, 1957 and Chapman and Routledge, 2009). The goal of many syntacticians is to discover the syntactic rules common to all languages. One basic description of a language's syntax is

the sequence in which the subject (S), verb (V), and object (O) usually appear in sentences Brown, 1994). Almost all the modern works and studies on syntax are influenced by Chomsky's syntactic theory, which he published in a book in 1957 called syntactic structures. It contains the now-famous sentence "colorless green ideas sleep furiously" (Chomsky, 1957, p. 15) which he offered as an example of what a grammatical yet meaningless sentence sounds like.

To sum it all up, language is a complex system of communication, it is a mental and social phenomenon that has unique and distinctive features that enables human beings to interact and communicate. Language is a set of structures that are mentally stored inside our brains. These structures are grammatically organized from the text level to the sentence at the syntactic level. The act and study of these structures and how they are organized by grammatical and syntactic rules is called language usage Brown, (1994).

2.1.2 Language Use

Language use is defined as the implementation of language usage in communication Pickering and Garrod (2004), in other words, it is the way language is spoken and utilized in conversations and socio-cultural contexts. According to the (British Council | The UK's international culture and education organisation, 2020) "language use refers to the communicative meaning of language. It can be compared to usage, which refers to the rules for making language and the structures we use to make it". In short, it is about how one employs language to effectively communicate with other people. One of the major things that distinguish us as human beings from animals is basically the way we communicate with each other by using language.

Languages are different and each language is unique and distinguishable from the other; however, all languages have in common the strategies and techniques which are used to enhance communication Kramsch (1993). People use language in patterned ways, for instance, formal language is used when speaking to someone important or an authority; however, casual and informal language is used when speaking with friends or family.

Language can be patterned in several ways; Pickering and Garrod (2004) argue that we achieve our conversational coordination by virtue of our ability to interactively align each other's actions at different levels of language use. Common ground is a set of knowledge that the speaker and listener share, it helps people coordinate their language use. For instance, when a speaker says something to a listener, he or she takes into account their common ground, that is, what the speaker thinks the listener knows (Clark, 1996). To conclude, language use is about how the latter is employed by its respective speakers to achieve a conversational aim.

2.2 An Account on Language and Gender

Researchers and scholars consider the topic of gender and language as relatively new (Kürschner & Nübling, 2011). Literature written on the relationship, intersection, and interaction between language and gender is very diverse because it draws on so many disciplines and fields of study. It crosses disciplinary boundaries and encompasses research within the fields of linguistics, anthropology, social science, media, and GS(Alhumaid, 2017). When it comes to linguistics, it draws on applied linguistics, linguistic anthropology, conversation analysis, interactional sociolinguistics, mediated stylistics, and lastly, sociolinguistics (Janhunen, 1999). This complicated intersection and mediation make defining the relationship between language and gender very hard.

Given that the field of GS is new and broad, it does not limit its methodological ways, there is no single approach. Different approaches can all be seen in action during the study of language and gender, producing and reproducing what (Speer, 2005) has described as different, and often competing, theoretical and political assumptions about the way discourse, ideology and gender identity should be conceived and understood. As a result, research in this area can perhaps most usefully be divided into two main areas of study. The first one is gender and language usage which deals with grammatical gender, gender indexicality, gender markedness, and gender system (Kürschner & Nübling, 2011). The second one is gender and language use which focuses on the varieties of speech associated with a particular gender; second, the social norms and conventions that (re)produce gendered language use. Third, studies that focus on ways language can produce and maintain sexism and gender bias.

2.2.1 Gender and Language Usage

When it comes to language and linguistics, gender is a class feature and a semantic property to achieve grammaticality (Jakobson, 1972). “Grammaticality is the extent to which a ‘string’ of language conforms with a set of given rules” (Chapman & Routledge, 2009. p, 1). Grammatical gender is the assignment of a specific form of noun class system in which the division of noun classes forms an agreement system with another aspect of the language, such as adjectives, articles, pronouns, or verbs. This system is used approximately in most languages. In these languages, most or all nouns inherently carry one value of the grammatical category called gender (Kürschner & Nübling, 2011); the values present in a given language are called the genders of that language. In a few languages, this gender assignment is solely determined by their meaning or attributes, like biological sex, humanness, or animacy (Janhunen, 1999).

Nonetheless, the notion of grammatical gender does not always refer to biological sex, as Weir (2014) puts it “grammatical gender is merely a way for partitioning reality into different sets of things on a grammatical basis” (as cited in Alhumaid, 2017, p. 130). In other languages where masculinity or femininity is assigned to objects, no inherent reason was found to justify the classification, Boroditsky, Schmidt, and Phillips (2003) give an example of the Arabic word ‘chair’ كرسى which is masculine, and the word ‘table’ طاولة which is feminine. In addition to that, many nouns may belong to a gender category that contrasts with their meaning; for example, the word for ‘manliness’ has a feminine gender in Arabic الرجولة ‘aarujula’. In this case, the gender assignment is not influenced by the inherited meaning of the word but by the morphology or phonology of the noun, or in some cases can be third-person arbitrary. Ibrahim (1986) concludes that “grammatical gender is merely a means for classifying nouns according to their suffixes without in the beginning any allusion to sex; the sex reference of gender was always posterior to the emergence of grammatical gender” (p.116).

Markedness is the state of standing out as unusual or divergent in comparison to a more common or regular form. In a marked–unmarked relation, one term of an opposition is the broader, dominant one. The dominant default or minimum-effort (Kürschner & Nübling, 2011) form is known as *unmarked*; the other, secondary one is *marked*. In other words, markedness involves the characterization of a "normal" linguistic unit against one or more of its possible ‘*irregular*’ forms. In linguistics, markedness can apply to, among others, phonological, grammatical, and semantic oppositions, defining them in terms of marked and unmarked oppositions, such as ‘*legal*’ (unmarked) vs. ‘*illegal*’ (marked). Jakobson (1972, p. 73) described language by saying that "every single constituent of a linguistic system is built on an opposition of two logical contradictories: the presence of attribute ‘*markedness*’ in contraposition to its absence ‘*unmarkedness*’.

Moreover, Arabic third person pronouns are gender-marked both in singular ‘هو’ ‘هي’ and plural forms ‘هم’ ‘هن’. However, only the female forms ‘هي’ ‘هن’ are the ‘*marked forms*’; on this matter Hachimi (2001) notes that “only feminine words are morphologically marked for gender, like most, but not all of these, carry the feminine suffix -a. Masculine words, on the other hand, carry a zero suffix, they are thus unmarked for gender” (p. 31).

Languages have different gender systems, some languages have a binary system of masculine and feminine like Arabic and French; however, some other languages have a threefold gender system of masculine, feminine, and neuter like English Brown, 1994. In other words, nouns can be feminine or masculine or neuter when they belong to the ‘*animate–inanimate semantic property*’ like animals and things. Other types of division or subdivisions may be found in particular languages. These may sometimes be referred to as classes rather than genders. Nonetheless, in languages that never had grammatical gender, there is normally just one word for ‘*he*’ and ‘*she*’, like ‘*dia*’ in Indonesian, ‘*ő*’ in Hungarian, and ‘*o*’ in Turkish (Kürschner & Nübling, 2011). “In other languages where masculinity or femininity is assigned to objects, no inherent reason was found to justify the classification. While some researchers may attribute it to the fact that sometimes the grammatical genders of some nouns are reflected in the properties of their referents, it is most certainly not always the case” (Alhumaid, 2017, p. 130).

Ochs (1999) argues that gender can be indexed directly and indirectly. Direct indexicality is the primary relationship between linguistic resources such as lexicon, morphology, syntax, phonology, and language and gender. For example, the pronouns ‘*he*’ and ‘*she*’ directly index ‘*male*’ and ‘*female*’. However, there can be a secondary relationship between linguistic resources and gender where the linguistic resources can index certain acts, activities, or stances which then indirectly index gender. In other

words, these linguistic resources help constitute gender (Janhunen, 1999).

All in all, studies will reveal that the perspectives and the philosophies underlying the research have changed over time. Research on language and gender and theoretical shifts in the field result from real-world changes brought about by political movements and therefore represent not only differences in academic perspectives on gender and language, but also changes across time in how gender and language are perceived to work in the world (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004).

2.2.2 Gender and Language Use

The study of gender and language use originated in sociolinguistics (Alhumaid, 2017). It is considered as an intersection of three main fields: linguistics, sociology, and gender studies. It started with Robin Lakoff's 1975 book, '*Language and Woman's Place*'. This field of study is about the discursive and linguistic differences found between men and women. Scholars and researchers in this field came up with four main approaches that explain why men and women speak differently. Coates (2003) outlines the historical range of approaches to gendered speech; she contrasts the four approaches known as the deficit, dominance, difference, and dynamic approaches. The first two approaches can be classified as negative gendered speech while the last two can be classified as positive gendered speech.

The negative gendered speech models are the deficit and dominance approaches. The deficit approach has begun in 1975 when Lakoff identified a '*women's register*', which she argued served to maintain women's inferior status and role in society. Lakoff (1975) argued that women tend to use linguistic forms such as tag questions, question intonation, and directives among others, that reflect and reinforce a subordinate role. This approach was named as such because studies of Lakoff and others posit that one gender is

deficient in comparison to the other. However, descriptions of women's speech as deficient can be dated as far back as Jespersen's '*The Woman*', a chapter in his 1922 book '*Language: Its Nature and Development, and Origin*'. In which females are seen as disadvantaged speakers and communicators, particularly in the professional world, due to their upbringing and socialization as females.

Not long after the expansion of the field of language and gender studies, the dominance framework was adopted by most researchers as a refinement to the deficit approach. They linked negative evaluations of women's language to their social domination by men Coates (2003). In the mid-1970s, studies of gendered language structures and language used suggested that men gain and maintain power over women in social interaction through interrupting and overlapping women's speech, using a high volume of words, or denigrating women (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004). "In this model women are perceived to perform their '*womanness*' in an ethnomethodological frame as they continually negotiate their position of relative powerlessness vis a vis men" (Block, 2002, p.53). The dominance model has been subject to criticism from researchers such as Giddens (1991) with regard to its failure to represent and explain the increasing complexity of language and gender in late modernity.

Unlike previous models, the positive gendered speech models are socio-cultural based and they are called the difference approach and the dynamic approach. Difference model is an approach of equality, differentiating men and women as belonging to different sub-cultures as they have been socialised to do so since childhood. In other words, it views gender and language use as different but equal and the differences are a result of socialization and context rather than deficiency, dominance or both. This then results in the varying communicative styles of men and women. Tannen (1993) compares gender differences in language to cultural differences. Comparing conversational goals,

she argues that men tend to use a '*report style*', aiming to communicate factual information, whereas women more often use a "rapport style", which is more concerned with building and maintaining relationships (Clark, 1996). This model assumes that, if communication breaks down between men and women, it's caused by misinterpreting the other party's form of interaction (Tannen, 1993, 1996), not because of the men's dominance. In this era, besides bringing the two genders on the same grounds, the difference model valued the positive aspects of women's unique communicative styles. SLA studies specifically focused on gender differences in conversational style, quantity of talk and learning styles and strategies (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004). The '*dynamic*' or '*social constructionist*' who is, as Coates (2003) describes is the most current approach to language and gender. Instead of speech falling into a natural gendered category, the dynamic nature and multiple factors of an interaction help a socially appropriate gendered construct.

The use of language is different between men and women in case of vocabulary, in voice and tone, in syntactic structure and style and in conversational style. In each of the single parts gender differs to a great extent. In every sphere of our life the difference is being noticed while using a language Kramsch (1993). The mentioned four models provide an explanation as to why men and women use language differently. Each model was built on the shortcomings of the precedent; however, it has been widely recognized that the dynamic model is the one that is most used and referenced in today's research.

2.1.3 Gender and Communication

Women and men communicate differently by employing different communication strategies (Speer, 2005). A '*strategy*' is a way of speaking that is acquired and used unconsciously by the speaker to achieve a specific goal (Lyons, 1981). Tannen (1993) further defines a strategy by eliciting that it is composed of such elements of

speech as minimal responses and listening , topic of conversation, use of question, and self disclosure.

One of the ways in which the communicative behaviors of men and women differ is in their use of minimal responses, i.e., paralinguistic features such as 'mm' and 'yeah', which is behaviour associated with collaborative language use (Zimmerman and West, 1975). Men generally use them less frequently than women, and when they do, it is usually to show agreement. However, studies that dichotomize the communicative behavior of men and women may run the risk of overgeneralization (Alhumaid, 2017). For example, minimal responses appearing throughout streams of talk may only function to display active listening and interest and are not always signs of gendered speech; it appears that women attach more weight than men to the importance of listening in conversation, with its connotations of power to the listener as confidant of the speaker. This attachment of import by women to listening is inferred by women's normally lower rate of interruption (Hashemi, 2001).

Power is also reflected in other aspects of communication such as the topic of the conversation, to the ways in which it is communicated. Women are typically less concerned with power and more concerned with forming and maintaining relationships, whereas men are more concerned with their status (Sunderland, 2006). The relations of each gender to linguistic markets are different Pickering and Garrod (2004). When it comes to the subject of the conversation, males tend to change subject more frequently than females Boroditsky, Schmidt and Phillips (2003). Dorval (1990) argues that this difference may well be at the root of the conception that women chatter and talk too much. Goodwin (1980) observes that girls and women link their utterances to previous speakers and develop each other's topics, rather than introducing new topics; as Fishman (1983) claims that men and women differ in their use of questions in conversations. For

men, a question is usually a genuine request for information whereas with women it can often be a rhetorical means of engaging the other's conversational contribution or of acquiring attention from others conversationally involved (Sunderland, 2006). Therefore, women use questions more frequently (Speer, 2005) However, a study carried out by Freed and Greenwood in 1996 showed that there was no significant difference in the use of questions between genders. "a tag question is a kind of polite statement in that it does not impose assent or trust on the interlocutor" (Lakoff, 1980, p. 239).

Female speech is usually more polite and gentler than male speech (Speer, 2005).

Women use more operators that build a sense of community between the speakers and the person they are addressing. Tannen (1996) analyzes and verifies the stereotypes related to women's and men's verbal behavior such as the belief that women are more talkative by nature, that they speak more often and say more. In the social consciousness, certain types of utterance are reserved for a specific gender (Tannen 1993, 1996 and Speer, 2005). Female tendencies toward self-disclosure, i.e., sharing their problems and experiences with others, often to offer sympathy, contrasts with male tendencies to non-self disclosure and professing advice or offering a solution when confronted with another's problems (Alhumaid, 2017). Self-disclosure involves risk and vulnerability on the part of the person sharing the information. The influence of biological sex on communication values has received scholarly attention (Ibrahim, 1986).

In general, women value affectively oriented communication skills more than men, and men value instrumentally oriented communication skills more than women, although the effect size for these differences are generally small. Studies began shifting from perceiving gender as an individual and generalized concept to perceiving gender as a social construction within specific cultural and situational contexts (Davis & Skilton-

Sylvester, 2004). The view that women and men use different strategies and styles of communication is considered a fact in literature (Tannen 1996, 1993). However, the '*speech of the sexes*' is described in a great variety of ways. The criteria here can be linguistic, sociological and psychological (Boroditsky, Schmidt & Phillips, 2003). As a conclusion, since the norm was defined by men's speech, then women's speech had to be perceived as a disturbance of the norm, a deviation from the general custom; thus, the differences in gender-correlated language styles are the effect of learning, socialization, and preparing women and men for specific roles.

2.3 Gender and Language Learning

General acceptance about children's way of learning their mother tongue is quite straightforward; it is natural and without striking a blow (Li & Bu, 2006). However, there are also several studies of first language acquisition (Douglas, 1964 as cited in Block, 2002; Morris, 1966 etc.) that have shown girls to be better learners than boys. Trudgill (1983) showed that women used the prestige variants more frequently than men and related this phenomenon to female social insecurity. Differences between male and female L1 learners appear more in studies conducted in bilingual settings; and such studies favor female learners in acquiring the languages they are exposed to. In a study of Punjabi migrant children in England, Agnihotri (1979) as cited in Block, (2002); showed that girls assimilated the prestige variants faster than the boys; they were also better at resisting the stigmatized variants. Satyanath (1982) as cited in Block, (2002); too found that women in Delhi showed a higher percentage of assimilation of linguistic features associated with Hindi and also a higher degree of usage than men. He found that younger women assimilated the host society's language and culture maximally.

Gender and SLA or FLL which is a subarea of applied linguistics, has become a genuine field of research for the last three decades; previously, the research of gender and

SLA basically focused on the topics valued in the area of SLA; nevertheless, with the change of perspectives it started to investigate the teachers and the learners more (Brown, 1994). Individual differences such as age, aptitude, learning style and motivation are very-well focused on in most SLA research studies, but gender is often ignored (Block, 2002). Besides, as Ehrlich (1997) points out, even in studies where gender was included into research, it was perceived in an oversimplified way. In his prominent work '*The Study of Second Language Acquisition*', Ellis (1994) as cited in Block, 2002) devotes only a few pages to gender in a section entitled '*sex*', that is included in the section of "Social factors and second language acquisition" (p. 12). He shortly discusses the difference between the terms '*sex*' and '*gender*' and following Labov's generalisations about men and women's speech, he states that "women might be better at L2 learning than men as they are likely to be more open to new linguistic forms in the L2 input and they will be more likely to rid themselves of inter-language forms that deviate from target-language norms" (Ellis, 1994, p. 203 cited in Block, 2002). According to Ellis' review, there was nothing conclusive in studies of gender differences in SLA in achievement, attitudes and strategy use at that time. As a result, Ellis concluded the section about gender as follows: Sex is, of course, likely to interact with other variables in determining L2 proficiency. It will not always be the case, therefore, that females outperform males.

Accepting that gender is a practiced attainment, gender should no more be studied as natural sex difference, yet it should be studied as contextualized social, psychological and linguistic behavior (Speer, 2005). In spite of the changing research philosophies and practices, traditional gender perspectives, the superiority of female language learners being the first, persist among TEFL educators (Sunderland, 2006). SLA research and practice still continue to hold the belief that gender differences can be reified, and are

uniform across language learning contexts (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004). Many other scholars concluded their research studies with the claim that females have an advantage over males in language acquisition both in L1 and L2. However, the biological and dualistic conceptions of gender that underlie much (past) work in SLA exaggerate and over-generalise differences between males and females, and ignore the social, cultural, and situational forces that shape gender categories, relations, and learner outcomes (Ehrlich, 1997). Yet many researchers and theorists are gradually moving away from traditional frameworks towards richer understandings of the relationships between gender and language learning across societies, communities and classrooms (Davis & Skilton-Sylvester, 2004). Second language research, therefore, shifted from the positivistic conceptualization of gender as an individual variable to a constructivist view of gender as social relations operating within complex systems has led to richer understandings of the relations between gender and language learning across societies, communities, and classrooms (Norton & Pavlenko, 2004).

2.4 Gender in language teaching methods and approaches

In recent years, the concept of gender has received wide coverage in the education literature. Research in gender and language education attempts to understand which students are disadvantaged by particular gender contexts, gender bias or gender ignorance and what can be done to address these inequities. In the last three decades, research on gender and language education has shifted from studying gender in relation to language learning to gender in the classroom and in teaching methods, approaches and materials where students are introduced to the '*imaginary worlds*' of other languages whose gender ideologies and practices may appear different, unfamiliar or perhaps even illegitimate.

2.4.1 Definition of Language Teaching Approach and Method

An approach is often defined as a theory of language learning in general; however, in the context of FLT, it is defined as an axiomatic philosophy of teaching and learning that is based on linguistic and psychological theories and recently on humanistic ideologies. Psychological theories deal with the learning aspect of the language; in other words, it specifies whether language is learnt as a set of habits using repetition and drills like behaviourism. There are several psychological theories; most of them are considered impractical and futile. Language theories on the other hand are three: structural, functional and interactive.

In 1963, a teaching framework was formulated by Professor Edward Mason Anthony; the framework consists of three levels: approach, method, and technique in which "the arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach" (Anthony, 1963, p. 45); his concept of approach is described as a set of consistent principles or ideas about the nature of language learning. However, the concept of method was described to be more procedural than theoretical. In other words, the concept of method in this framework represents everything that is done in the classroom and reflects the theoretical aspects found in the approach. In order for an approach to be translated into a method, an instructional system must be designed considering the objectives of the teaching/learning, how the content is to be selected and organized, the types of tasks to be performed, the roles of students and the roles of teachers. This brings up the last concept which is called technique and it refers to the actual implementation of the method in the language classroom; "a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective" (Anthony, 1963, p.19). Techniques are set to be consistent with a given method and by extension, with a given approach.

Anthony's framework has received wide acceptance and was welcomed by the language teaching community, and it was agreed upon that it is a useful way of classifying different teaching practices. On the same token, it failed to provide a thorough definition of the difference between approach, method, and technique, and due to this ambiguity there was "widespread dissatisfaction" (p. 98) with it. Anthony himself recognized the limitations of his framework, and was open to the idea of improvements being made to it.

In 1982, Richards and Rogers' expanded on Anthony's three-level framework and gave more focus to the concept of method; however, instead of approach, method and technique, they chose the terms approach, design, and procedure. Their concept of approach was similar to Anthony's, but their design and procedure were fundamentally different from Anthony's method and technique. The concept of design referred to all major practical implications in the classroom, such as syllabus design, types of activities to be used in the classroom, and student and teacher roles; procedure referred to different behaviors, practices and techniques observed in the classroom. These new terms were intended to address limitations in Anthony's framework and also gave them specific criteria by which they could evaluate different methods. On the same line of thought, this evaluation process was a key way that their formulation differed from Anthony's framework. Despite Richards and Rogers' efforts to clearly define approach, design, and procedure, their framework has been criticized by Kumaravadivelu for having "an element of artificiality in its conception and an element of subjectivity in its operation" (p. 109).

Pennyworth and the Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning also raised the same points and described the new framework to be complicated and a bit artificial for the actual classroom. In addition to that, Brown also questions the suitability

of Richards and Rogers' term design; he points out that in English teaching design is usually used to refer specifically to curriculum design.

Most current teacher training manuals favor the terms approach, method, and technique. When an instructional design is quite explicit at the level of theory of language learning but can be applied in many different ways at the levels of objectives, teacher and learner role and activities is usually referred to as an approach. Some methods however, are regarded as both an approach and a method like the Communicative Language Teaching because the principles underlying it can be applied in many different ways. Teachers adopting an approach have considerable flexibility in how they apply the principles to their own contexts. When an instructional design includes a specific level of application in terms of objectives, teacher and learner roles, and classroom activities it is referred to as a method. With a method there are prescribed objectives, roles for teacher and learners, and activities and consequently little flexibility for teachers in how the method is used. The teacher's role is to implement the method.

Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching are examples of methods. The era of methods in this sense is often said to have lasted until the 1990s, by which time researchers and applied linguists shifted the focus to teachers and the process of teaching rather than methods. They suggested that while teachers may draw on principles and practices from approaches and methods they have studied or been trained in, once they enter the classrooms and develop experience in teaching their practice is much more likely to reflect an interaction between training-based knowledge, knowledge and beliefs derived from the practical experience of teaching, and their own teaching philosophy and principles. This is known as the theorisation of practice.

Teaching methods and approaches have been categorized according to where they fit in relation to the revolutionary concept of communicative competence. Those methods

that came before the term was coined and the concept was known are usually referred to by the teaching community as the pre communicative methods. In simpler words, they are the old methods that came before the communicative competence in which the focus was on language as a form and the teaching process. Shortly after the CC was introduced to the context of TEFL, many methods and approaches have tried to build on that foundation, where the focus is slightly shifted from teaching to learning and from the teacher to the learner. These respective methods are referred to as the CC based methods. In other words, all methods that came around the 70s in the communicative era. The last one, however, is quite illusive in the sense that it does not belong to a specific time frame or even a teaching orientation. It is only referred to and studied as the post communication era or the post-method era.

2.4.2 The Place of Gender in Pre-Communicative Methods

The first foreign language teaching method known is the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). It is derived from the ancient method of teaching Latin. In grammar–translation classes, students are expected to learn grammatical rules and then apply them using translation between the target language and the native language. The higher the level of the students the more translation they are required to do. It is important to note that the translation at that time was defined as a word to word from one language to another regardless of context or culture of both languages. The method has two main goals: to enable students to read and translate literature written in the target language, and to further students' general intellectual development. In addition to that, GTM classes are about linguistic competence, in which communication was not an aim. Furthermore, grammatical rules are learned deductively; and by rote. In other words, grammar was learned through making habits out of repetition and drills and then practicing the rules by translating sentences to and from the target language. Attention is paid to the form of the

sentences being translated rather than to their content. Tests often involve translating classical texts. This entails that no attention or focus was given to the students themselves or their learning process. On this basis, it has been criticized for its shortcomings mainly that it did not have a place for culture in general and gender in specific. The students were seen as past receivers regardless of their learning strategies, cognitive abilities or even their own gender. On the same line of thought, the content also was seen out of any context except for the grammatical one. Little to no attention was given to the age suitability of the students; however, no regard was paid to other factors such as culture, politics, and/or gender bias.

The second pre-communicative method came right after the GTM; it is called the direct method (DM) which came into being at the end of the nineteenth century since the GTM failed in making students use the TL for the sake of communication. The DM derives its name from the fact that “meaning is to be connected directly with the target language without ... translating into the student’s native language” (Sárosdy et al, 2003, p. 12). Learning a language involves learning the culture of people who speak that language, and the geography of the country in question. Moreover, DM supplies learners with information about the daily practices of people where the language is spoken (Sárosdy et al, *ibid*). This shows that the DM resembles GTM in the sense that they both neglect learners and their learning process and focus only on the teaching. Thus, students’ gender was not taken into account, in terms of both: being a distinctive learning factor and content based variable.

The third and last pre-communicative method is called The audio-Lingual Method (ALM). The US involvement in World War Two brought a significant change in the teaching of foreign languages. It quickly became apparent that the DM failed in making students ready for speaking FL they studied. The ALM aims at teaching students how to

communicate using the TL automatically, and this can be done when “students form new habits in the TL and overcome the old ones of their native one” (Sárosdy et al, p.14). It was believed that much practice of dialogues would develop oral proficiency. Since language, context, and culture cannot be separated. Cultural information is contextualized in the dialogues or presented by the teacher .In this teaching method culture consists of the everyday behaviour and lifestyle of the TL speakers, or the so-called small “c” or behaviour culture. It was believed that the ALM contributed directly to the student’s ability to “function linguistically and socially in contemporary culture” (Chastain, 1988, p. 303). On the same line of thought, it is evident to say that culture in general and social aspect in specific started to catch attention from both material designers and teachers. In other words, at the end of the pre-communicative era, gender was brought from under the table and was seen as a basic distinctive factor and that boys and girls approach learning a FL differently.

- (1) Emphasize the ability to use language and pay attention to the actual needs of students;
- (2) Encourage students to use improvised language to express their fluency in a large number of authentic languages;
- (3) Intrinsic to stimulate students’ learning language motivation and enthusiasm for learning;
- (4) Emphasis on the student-centered teaching philosophy and emphasis on the development of communicative competence (Qin, 2019, p.3).

However, the ALM is still considered to belong to the pre communicative era by numerous scholars and researchers such as those who believe that although ALM has opened the gate for FL education to a better world but it has failed to achieve the set

aims. In other words, it was not implemented correctly which led to a strong theoretical base but a weak practical one.

2.4.3 The place of Gender in Communicative Methods

By the 1970's and 1980's the communicative approach (CA) or the communicative language teaching (CLT) started taking its first steps as a dominant approach. The CA came into being as a reaction to the focus on the use of language as a system rather than using that system in context. For CLT, language learning is not based mainly on the study of grammar, vocabulary and rules governing it for its own sake, but also on the fluent use of language to achieve successful communication. This does not mean that it neglects the importance of studying language in its form; besides mastering forms, learners need other sorts of knowledge that enables them to communicate appropriately. Moreover, forms must be "approached in the context of their usefulness" (Cook, 2003, p. 36). The key term in the theory of communicative language learning and teaching is known as communicative competence.

The term was coined by the sociolinguist Hymes (1972) who was convinced that Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence was too limited. Hymes believes that Chomsky's concept is too narrow, pointing out that Chomsky's theory does not account for socio-cultural factors. One of the main aims of FL teaching today is to develop the learner's ability to "communicate with each other across linguistic and cultural boundaries" (common European framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment (CEF, 2001, p.3).

This new notion of communicative competence and by extension sociolinguistic competence opened the door to social variables such as gender and introduced the concept of learners as social beings rather than just past receivers.

2.1.4 The Place of Gender in Post Communicative Methods

As the era of communicative competence and best method started to fade, a lot of researchers and scholars including McKay and Wong (1996) believed that it is time to conceptualize second and FL learners as complex social beings. For many years, both in EFL in specific and SLA in general; the focus was on the teaching process of that language and the method to do so. However, recently; there is a tendency of encouraging a focus on the learner's personal and social distinctions and needs rather than on the language as formal code and teaching as a mission. Furthermore, little recognition started to be given to learning processes by the end of the 90s and beginnings of 2000's. This recognition touches on the individual variables within the learner's social context. In other words, personal and distinctive variables such as gender started to gain more importance and attention in EFL research. Furthermore, gender was no longer seen as just a binary code to classify learners but rather a trait and an internal package that influences the way students learn, what they learn and most importantly how they perceive themselves in that learning process.

2.5 Gender in EFL Classes

During the past decade gender stopped being an administrative variable and started to be seen as a vital social aspect, several scholars in the fields of language education, EFL and multilingualism have addressed the influence gender has on linguistic, interactional resources, and classroom interaction, in addition to language learning outcomes (Ehrlich, 1997; Norton, 2000; Pavlenko, 2001; Pavlenko et al., 2001; Sunderland, 2000). On the same token, the field of FL education has shown an interest in

the impact of gender on ESL and EFL learning, this interest is noticed in the increasing number of plenaries, panels, discussion groups, and research papers on the topic. However, the nature of the connection between gender and language learning remains elusive.

Classroom interaction is considered as one of the most important classroom dynamics. Studies made on the topic of the influence of gender on classroom interaction demonstrated that the teacher's gender is not just a distinctive factor but rather a very important variable whose influence on classroom interaction is undeniable. In one of the most famous studies done on classroom interaction, Spender (1982) stated that "one teacher reported that 'the boys...were complaining about me talking to the girls all the time'" (p.56). This note does not just entail that the teacher's gender can have an influence on the classroom nature and quality of interaction but also can affect the students who might feel neglected because of their gender. Such conclusions and results mean that one gender might get more speaking practice and more feedback; Holmes (1989) analysing data from ESL classrooms in Australia and New Zealand, found that the adult male students both responded more to the teachers' questions and asked more questions themselves thus getting more speaking practice. This might be due to the nature and nurture of one gender encouraging discursive traits over the other, in this case, males are encouraged to initiate conversations and females are stereotypically forced to be shy (Holmes, 1989; Edelsky, 1981).

However, there are, of course, many further ways teachers can treat female and male students differently, including selection (who asks/answers a question? Who demonstrates?), varying the level of difficulty of questions by gender, and employing double standards for, for example, error identification and treatment, presentation of

written work, and acceptable classroom behaviour. These may not be intentional nor recognised, by either teacher or students.(Holmes, 1989, p. 12)

In other words, all aspects of classroom interaction might be affected directly or indirectly by both teachers' and students' gender.

Concerning the teacher's discourse, studies have dealt with the amount and type of attention the teacher gives in mixed sex classes, especially in EFL settings, based on teachers' and students' perceptions. Non verbal behaviour, like teachers' gaze or eye contact and differential treatment according to gender also play an important role in classroom dynamics, and become indicators of male or female students' marginalization. Regarding learners discourse, several studies have suggested that boys talk more than girls, and in general that the role of the learner gender in the classroom is reflected in talk in pair and group work, turn taking, topic choice and interruptions. Through the interaction of individuals involved in classroom events, prior experiences, assumptions, expectations, values and students' world view in general become apparent, and consequently there is an influence of such features in the process of production and interpretation. Therefore, it becomes important to understand how male and female students and teachers position themselves and each other through their interactions in the language classroom (Freeman, 1996).

Teachers' perceptions of gender were also analysed as a crucial component of classroom interaction and of direct influence on the teachers' attitudes and behaviours with respect to the students. Teachers' perceptions have to do initially with the way we move about in the world, we create a model of how the world works. A common factor about perceptions regarding gender is that they tend to be the result of the way we have been taught in relation to stereotypes and prejudices. With respect to the way teachers see themselves in relation to the way they treat the students according to gender, "we teachers

do not think much of gender influence in our classroom practices, or take for granted that our performance in class reflects equitable opportunities for mixed sex learners and in general that our classroom environment does not promote imbalance's (Holmes, 1989, p. 20). However, research findings reveal that teachers treat male and female students differently (Li, 1999). In addition, lesson transcripts (Sunderland, 1996) have shown that teachers of mixed classes pay more attention to male students. Other authors like Poynton (1985) and Freeman (1996) also coincide with the fact that even when teachers think that they distribute their attention equally, what actually happened is that girls received much less time. This situation demonstrates the relevance of exploring the discrepancy between what the teachers thinks he or she was doing and what they were actually doing. As for the students, their age was another influential unit in this study which also determined the students` points of view and performance in interaction.

2.6 Gender in EFL Textbooks: Previous Studies

According to Yang (2014), representation “occurs in spoken, written and visual texts; in spoken and written texts, gender can be represented by the choice of words, for example, adjectives, nouns/noun phrases, and verbs” (p.43). In other words, gender representation elucidates the qualities, aptitudes, roles and responsibilities associated with men and women in a given context (Brugeilles & Cromer, 2009). In visuals, gender representation relates to the way males and females are portrayed and the number or portrayals related to each gender. Representation of genders is often based on gender stereotypes (Sunderland, 2004, 2006 as cited in Yang, 2014) which are usually overgeneralizations and beliefs about personality traits and how men and women should act and behave (Blaine, 2007; Muñoz López et al., 2014).

Gender representation in LTM has been for a long time a focus of attention in the fields of AL and TEFL. In particular, content analyses of ESL textbooks, published in the

1970s and early 1980s, revealed that many texts stereotyped male and female roles and excluded women from the narrative through omission of females in texts and illustrations, firstness of males in any pair of categories, privileging of males in occupational visibility, and the use of masculine generics such as *'he'*, *'man'*, or *'mankind'* (Hartman and Judd 1978; Porreca 1984; Sunderland 1992). EFL textbooks published in Japan (McGregor 1998) showed that “students present highly stereotypical linguistic *'norms'* based on hegemonic ideologies of class, language, and gender”. (p. 38). Any unconscious influence of one gender characters who play restricted social, behavioural, and linguistic roles does not suggest cognitive and communicative empowerment for learners. Secondly, if those learners are conscious that characters in their course book as relatively few, with limited roles, and are offended, alienated, or made to feel marginalized by this and subsequently demotivated, this is more likely to hinder than facilitate their learning. There is need and scope for research into such affective influences. Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly, models of language can become classroom practice”. (sunderland, 1992, p.86)

Yang (2014) studied gender representation in two widely used textbook series in Primary English language in Hong Kong. In relation to male and female characters in the illustrations, she discovered that human males were significantly more visible than female in line drawings in both series. Also, in photographs non-human male characters were more represented in one of the series while in the other non-human female characters were significantly more. Yang (2014) also found that adult males and females in the line drawings and photographs in both series were portrayed as engaging in a similar number of occupations. Yet, females were mainly depicted as teachers and in stereotyped professions such as cashier, secretary and nurse while males were illustrated

in traditional occupations such as police officers and drivers. Aljuaythin (2018) analyzed two EFL textbooks implemented for elementary students in Saudi Arabia. The results in this study showed that females were considerably underrepresented as compared to males; males were depicted performing activities more frequently than females, and activities and roles for both genders were portrayed stereotypically. The studies on gender representation in English learning textbooks indicate the existence of underrepresentation of females and the prevalence of gender-stereotyped roles in various levels of education.

However, the results are not always consistent; in search of evidence for gender stereotyping in books designated as picture books for young readers, Gooden and Gooden (2001) assessed 83 Notable Books for Children from 1995 to 1999. They examined the gender of illustrations, characters and titles and found that in comparison to some previous studies, some steps towards equality have advanced based on the increase in females represented as main characters. According to Amini and Birjandi (2012), gender-biased textbooks may negatively affect female students' perceptions of social, behavioral, and linguistic roles (Hamilton et al., 2006).

Sunderland (1992) argues that gender representation in textbooks affect language students and language users in three ways: unconscious influence of restricted social, behavioral and linguistic female roles, hampering female students' learning as they become demotivated if noticing these restricted portrayals and, promotion of models of language that can become classroom practice such as male firstness in conversations. Therefore, it is vital to produce and maintain gender balanced EFL textbooks for all ages, especially among young learners who are still rapidly developing their understanding of the world including gender roles.

While there has been broad research on gender representation in EFL/ESL course books, there is very little, if any research available relating to gender representation in

EFL textbooks in secondary school in ALgeria. These studies suggest that there is still a lot to accomplish in order for classroom language teaching materials, in particular textbooks, to fairly represent gender relations and practices and to reflect the gendered nature of linguistic exchanges.

Conclusion

This chapter bridges the gap between theoretical concepts of gender and language together with gender in the EFL context. The different and deviant behaviors of adult males and females may be a consequence of their education in childhood; experimental research suggests that the development of children's gender identity is strongly affected by their reading materials and extensive research on these materials have revealed that gender bias and gender stereotypes are prevalent.

Education, along with other agents such as family, friends, and media play an important role in addressing issues of inequality and at gender socialization processes (John et al., 2017). Textbooks can be one of the great influences in contributing to cultural prejudices and gender bias (Dominguez, 2003) since exposure to textbooks and other learning materials may serve as a powerful medium for nurturing young people into dominant patterns of gender relations and gendered behaviors that can perpetuate in adult life (Leach, 2003).

Chapter Three: Gender and Textbook Analysis

Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections; the first one attempts to cover the concept of textbook from a general stance, i.e. It focuses on its definition, its types, its roles, in addition to its characteristics and most importantly textbooks as an EFL teaching material. The second section focuses more on the textbook analysis as the methodology followed in this thesis. It builds on how textbook analysis is defined along with its types and criteria, to what type that is going to be used to analyze the Algerian secondary school textbooks for gender representations and the rationale behind this choice.

3.1. Textbooks from a General Stance

3.1.1 Definition of Textbook

In order to define the textbook, one has to tackle the definition of Teaching-Learning Materials (TLM) first. The latter are the tools that are used by teachers and instructors within schools to facilitate learning and understanding of the learning content among students. In other words, TLM are the educational materials that are used within the walls of the classroom to achieve the already set learning objectives within the lesson plans. The main role of TLMs is to make learning real, practical and pleasurable for students.

One of the oldest and infamous TLM ever is the textbook. The latter is considered as the concrete representation of both the methods of imparting basic knowledge to the students and the knowledge/content itself. Textbooks are designed and written by specific teaching instructors called textbook designers. It is an indispensable basic TLM that is made use of in schools regarding all subjects. In pre-schools, elementary schools,

secondary schools...etc for the teaching of all subjects including, sciences, social sciences, languages, and so forth. In schools, students are required to bring in textbooks within classroom settings. These also comprise exercises at the end of each lesson plan, which students need to work on to acquire an effective understanding of the lesson plans. The teachers normally read the lesson plans within the textbooks to impart an efficient understanding to the students.

The most important consideration when designing a textbook is that it should meet the students' needs as Cunningsworth puts it: "Students particularly more sophisticated adults and teenagers need to feel that the materials from which they are learning have to be connected with the real world and at the same time they must be related positively to the aspects of their inner makeup such as age, level of education, social attitudes, the intellectual ability and level of emotional maturity." (1984, p.71); in addition to that, textbooks are usually part of a pedagogical design, i.e. it can be the centerpiece of a course syllabus, it can be used for self-study (students and professionals), teachers can assign just parts for reading. This has sparked the ongoing debate of whether textbooks are authentic or created materials. In Kramsch's (2000) view "the term 'authentic' has been used as a reaction against the prefabricated artificial language of textbooks and instructional dialogues; it refers to the way language is used in non-pedagogic, natural communication" (p. 177). Furthermore, teachers can also create their teaching materials by adapting and adopting from the textbook instead of solely relying on it. In conclusion, the textbook can be considered as both, created and authentic. Created in the sense that it is made for teaching purposes and authentic in terms of the content (pictures, dialogues...Etc) found within it.

3.1.2 Types of Language Teaching Textbooks

Textbooks in general cannot be categorized due to their varied and diverse purposes, “people provide different categorizations of textbooks” (Grant, 1990, p. 12); however, language teaching textbooks can easily be defined as academic teaching materials which are generally classified into two types: traditional textbooks and communicative textbooks. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that there may also be textbooks that “sometimes do not fit into either of these categories” (Grant, 1990, p. 12).

Traditional textbooks as their name suggests are the oldest type of textbook as a teaching material. However, they are still being published and widely used till this day. On the same line of thought, the categorization of this type of textbook does not come from their publishing dates, but rather on their content and the language teaching approach they fall under (Grant, 1990). Grant claims that “the traditional textbook tries to get students to learn the language as a system. Once they have learned the system, it is hoped that they are then equipped to use the language for their own purposes in any way they think” (Grant, 1990, p. 13). In other words, traditional textbooks use traditional language teaching methods and approaches in which the focus is not placed on learning language as a whole and as a means of communication but rather on learning to use aspects of that language, mainly, grammar.

Figure 1

Characteristics of Traditional Textbooks Adapted from Grant (1990)

- Traditional textbooks**
- They focus on grammar rather than on communication.
 - They emphasise the writing and reading skills over listening and speaking.
 - They overuse of refer to the students' first language
 - Accuracy is an important aspect
 - easy to use

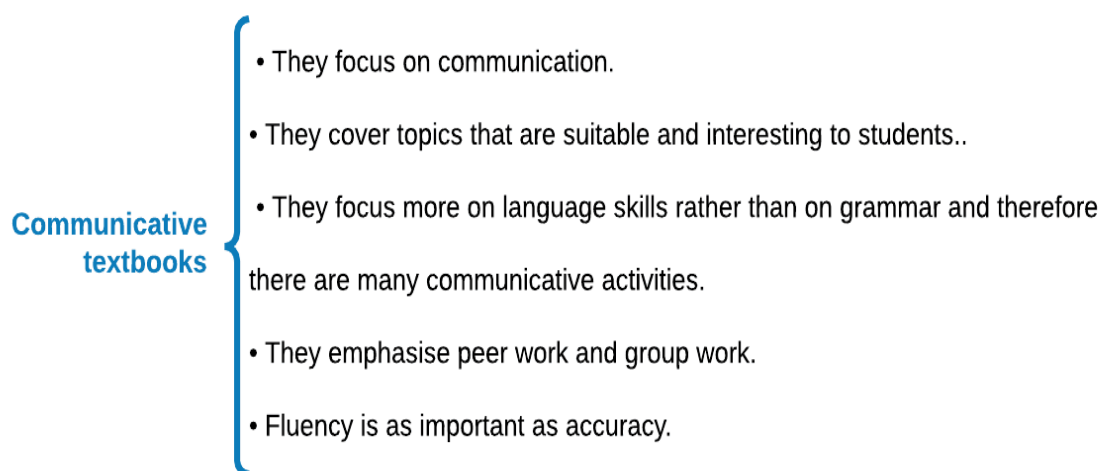
Note. This figure is designed by the researcher and adapted from Grant (1990).

Many teachers use traditional textbooks all over the world. They have many advantages; however, the main disadvantage of them is that students find that “they cannot communicate in the language after they have finished their studies, despite the fact that they might be proficient in its grammar” (Grant, 1990, p. 13).

The second type of textbooks is the ‘*Communicative textbook*’ which by definition creates possibilities for students to communicate in the language they are learning for the reason that it is based and designed for the sole and central aim of communication. As a result, and as opposed to the traditional textbook, students will be able to use the language when they have finished school (Grant, 1990, p. 13).

Figure 2

Characteristics of Communicative Textbooks.



Note. This figure is designed by the researcher and adapted from Grant (1990).

In Algeria, language teaching textbooks are considered as a mixture of both traditional and communicative (Merrouche, 2006). In other words, Algerian language teaching textbooks do not directly fall in any of the previously mentioned categories. This

common ground works to the advantage of both teachers and students. English language textbooks specifically attempt to focus on language use and the communicative aspect at the same time. To sum it all up, language teaching textbooks are hard to categorize but they generally fall under two main categories: traditional textbooks and communicative textbooks. However, some textbooks either fall completely out of these two categories and not belong to either, for instance culturally relevant language textbooks or travel textbooks which are often not used in the classroom or by the teachers and there are those textbooks that are a mixture of both the traditional and communicative textbooks.

3.3 Roles of Textbooks in Education

Since the textbook is a teaching material; thus its role. Textbooks generally provide an overview and a syllabus for a set program. Furthermore, one of textbooks' main roles is portraying and reflecting the teaching approach and syllabus of the designed content. In addition to that, they provide standardized instruction in all schools or levels which use a certain textbook. For example, using one textbook to teach all first year middle schoolers enables them to have a standardized learning and a unified knowledge acquisition. It gives both teachers a sense of assurance that they all taught similar content while their students have all received similar instruction and therefore can be tested in the same way about the same things. On the same line of thought; textbooks are known to provide a variety of learning resources. Since they are often "accompanied by workbooks, CDs and cassettes, videos, CD ROMs, and comprehensive teaching guides" (Grant, 1990, p. 12), providing a rich and varied resource for teachers and learners. To sum it up, most textbooks have those roles in common; however, there are some distinctive roles that differ from one type of textbook to another depending on the level and subject.

Language teaching textbooks specifically have some roles that are unique to them. They are designed to provide an effective language learning process so they are not just written in that language they are representing but also aim to make students learn it. In other words, language teaching textbooks have a double facet. For instance, a math textbook is generally written in students' first language and the aim of using it is to teach math via the instructions and exercises it contains; whereas, a FL textbook does not just contain instructions and exercises but is also written in another language which the student is expected to learn and master. On the same token, this double facet of a language teaching textbook may cause both teachers and students a bit of difficulty given the linguistic and cultural differences. However, if teachers have limited teaching experience, a textbook together with the teacher's manual can serve as a medium of initial teacher training.

The roles of the textbooks can be infinite depending on why and where they are used. However, they all have some common roles which are widely agreed upon in the teaching community. Some teachers prefer to rely solely on the textbook; thus, giving the textbooks more roles that are attached to the total dependency status. Other teachers are more lenient when it comes to using textbooks, they prefer to adapt and adapt; thus, giving the textbook less roles that are attached to the codependency status. It is worth noting that there are other teachers who prefer to not use the textbook altogether; thus, giving the textbook no roles which go with the total independence status.

3.4 Textbooks of English as a Foreign Language

Textbooks are undoubtedly the most common teaching materials used in FL classes. On this basis, textbooks of EFL are expected and supposed to be both linguistically and culturally relevant and accurate. Hutchinson and Torres state that "the textbook is an almost universal element of (English language) teaching... No teaching-

learning situation is complete until it has its relevant textbook.” (1994, p. 315). Therefore, it is very essential that they include the main elements of English as a FL language and its culture and those they correspond to learners’ needs, cultural background, and level of linguistic proficiency. However, this premise poses a very controversial point of what English to teach and what cultural elements to choose. The first part of the question is answered by the ministry of education in every country. The choice of English is actually political, more so linguistic. The second part of the question is answered by textbook designers, in which they take into consideration students’ age, language proficiency level, academic level and most importantly, the native culture.

EFL Textbooks usually combine contemporary and traditional approaches to language teaching. Textbook designers make sure to incorporate “concepts such as ‘learner development’, ‘task-based methodology’, and ‘cross-curricular themes’ while providing a grammar framework and a thorough practice of vocabulary, grammatical structures and functions” (Hutchinson & Gault, 2009, p. 4). In other words, EFL textbooks include one or numerous approaches to language teaching depending on the country’s selected approach. For example, in Algeria, EFL textbooks are designed on the competency based approach. Furthermore, Sheldon (1988) argues that textbooks symbolize “the visible heart of any ELT program” (p. 237).

Cortazzi and Jin (1999) refer to a textbook as a teacher, a map, a resource, a trainer and an authority. As a teacher, a textbook gives students relevant information about grammar and vocabulary, as well as English speaking countries and their cultures. As a map, it shows an outline of linguistic and cultural elements as a structured programme and it guides students and teachers to follow the steps taken in previous lessons. A textbook is viewed as a resource as it contains a set of materials and activities available to the teacher from which one can choose. It can also be a trainer for novice

teachers who need valuable instructions, support and guidance. As an authority, a textbook is seen as valid, reliable, and written by experts and authorized by important publishers or ministries of education; however, “no course book will be totally suited to a particular teaching situation. The teacher will have to find his own way of using it and adapting it if necessary. So we should not be looking for the perfect course book which meets all our requirements, but rather for the best possible fit between what the course book offers and what we as teachers and our students need” (Cunningsworth, 1984, p. 6).

3.5 Advantages and Disadvantages of EFL Textbooks

In the EFL context, there are two main contradictory views regarding the use of textbooks. Linguists and researchers such as Sheldon (1988), Hutchinson and Torres (1994), Cunningsworth (1995), Cortazzi and Jin (1999) and others agree that textbooks are necessary and indispensable tools for language teaching and learning. They argue that, on the one hand, textbooks provide an extensive help for students to improve their language skills, learn about the subject content, and become familiarized with the cultures and way of life of people from foreign countries. On the other hand, textbooks can help teachers as well, not just students, providing a unified and standard teaching programme and a support for the less experienced or novice teachers to gain confidence, test new methodologies, and become aware of the pedagogical issues (Sheldon, 1988).

According to O’Neill (1982), textbooks “can serve as a grammatical and functional framework which leaves enough space for improvisation, adaptation and a spontaneous and creative interaction in the classroom. Using a textbook reduces the chance of gaps in learning and the learner is always certain where the course is going, since there is a clear structure from the beginning to the end” (p. 110). In his view (2001, textbooks are merely proposals for action, not instructions for use.

Other linguists and researchers such as Allwright (1981), Porreca (1984), Cathcart(1989), Clarke and Clarke (1990), Carrell and Korwitz (1994) and Renner (1997) express opposite views, arguing that textbooks have more disadvantages than advantages in the sense that they often lack authentic content because they are designed on certain preferences and biases of the designers and therefore may generate misjudgment, misconceptions, prejudices and stereotypical representations. The advocates of authentic language in the classroom such as Cathcart (1989) argue that besides cultural and social biases, the representation of the target language in textbooks is unnatural, inappropriate and lack authenticity.

Furthermore, such teaching materials might be more suitable for individual and home usage and not convenient for classroom usage. Allwright (1981) claims that textbooks “mirror the pedagogic, psychological and linguistic predilections and biases of their authors; textbooks impose, determine and control language learning and teaching methods, techniques, approaches, procedures and processes" (p. 9). Furthermore, researchers such as Porreca (1984), Florent and Walter (1989), Clarke and Clarke (1990), Carrell and Korwitz (1994) and Renner (1997) consider textbooks to be socially and culturally biased as they contain evident examples of sexism, stereotyping and gender bias, specifically in terms of sexist and unrealistic characterization of both men and women, under-representation and disregard of female characters and stereotypes regarding occupations, relationships, actions and roles in society (Porreca, 1984; Florent & Walter, 1989; Clarke & Clarke, 1990; Carrell & Korwitz, 1994; Renner, 1997). It is crucial; therefore, that teachers develop their own critical thinking and intercultural competence in order to be able to deal with potential cultural conflicts and stereotypical presentations in textbooks, a teacher’s responsibility goes beyond that of the textbook’s

author, as only the teacher can mediate between the text and the specific culture within the classroom.

EFL textbooks have advantages and disadvantages depending on how much they are used and the purpose behind using them. The majority of teachers feel secure using a textbook as a basis for their lesson plans. With time they can introduce more variety in the materials they use and the techniques they employ. Allwright (1981) argues that; Language learning is such a complex process that textbooks cannot meet various needs of learners around the world. There is no perfect textbook that meets the needs of all students, teachers, schools and curricula. Each textbook has its own strengths and weaknesses and, consequently, no textbook designed for the general market can be perfectly suitable for a specific group of learners. Teachers' opinion on the same textbook may differ depending on their experience, background, teaching styles and the needs of their students. (p. 8)

On the same line of thought, Graves (2000), argues that “what one teacher considers an advantage in a textbook, another teacher may consider a disadvantage” (p. 175). In simpler words, there is no clear cut or a universal definition of what an advantage and a disadvantage is in a textbook. For example, experienced teachers may regard the unified set programme in the textbook as a disadvantage while less experienced teachers would think the opposite.

Some researchers such as Hutchinson and Torres (1994) do not disregard the fact that textbooks might have disadvantages; however, there is a general census that they can act as very effective agents of change, playing a significant role in innovation through a supportive environment for teachers, helping them to feel more confident to demonstrate new methodologies and relieving them from the burden of responsibility for introducing change. Furthermore, they argue that textbooks have a vital importance in teaching the

English language, especially at an elementary level, and they become even more important in periods of change. On the same token, in order to avoid prevalent bad sides and disadvantages of instructional materials, it is necessary to carry out a systematic analysis of textbooks based on well-established criteria and determine their strengths and weaknesses. Experts such as Joiner (1974), Sheldon (1988), Skierso (1991), Cunningsworth (1984, 1995), Byram (1997), Byrd (2001), Brown (2001) and Kilickaya (2004) have provided various manuals and checklists for textbook analysis, from which a teacher can choose according to one's needs and preferences.

3.6 Textbook Analysis

3.6.1 Textbook Analysis Definition

Textbook analysis or evaluation simply means the act of assessing the textbook to indicate its strengths and weaknesses. According to Carter and Nunan (2001), the term analysis in the educational context refers to “a purposeful, cyclical process of collecting, Analyzing and interpreting relevant information in order to make educational decisions” (p. 221). In other words, it focuses on the quality, appropriateness, or relevance of teachers, students, classroom instruction, in addition to the instructional materials and activities: or, the whole syllabuses or programs of instruction. In addition, for Tomlinson et al. (2001) analysis in the EFL context is an activity in the field of applied linguistics that enables teachers, supervisors, administrators and material developers to make judgments about the effect the materials have on the people who use them.

Sheldon (1988) suggests two important reasons to analyze textbooks. The first reason is that analysis helps teachers in their decision for selecting the most useful textbook. The Second reason is that analysis makes teachers identify weaknesses and strengths of the textbook; and on that basis they make a suitable modification in their future instruction.

Textbook analysis is often done in two directions: “the analysis of selected textbooks in order to determine whether they are suitable or not for classroom usage, i.e. predictive analysis, and the analysis of textbooks that are already in use, i.e. retrospective analysis” (Skopinskaja, 2003, p. 39). In other words, textbook analysts either aim for a predictive analysis which happens prior to the textbook usage to determine its suitability. Or they aim for a retrospective analysis which happens to textbooks that are already in use to analyze one aspect of it or more.

Furthermore, Cunningsworth (1995) describes how textbooks can be evaluated for potential and for suitability. In the first case, the textbook is assessed according to a predefined set of criteria, but without any particular learners or courses in mind. This approach is more frequent when a new textbook is published and may result in book reviews being written. However, since classroom situations introduce many unknown elements and require constant adapting on the side of the teacher, this type of analysis has its flaws as the textbook cannot be matched to a particular class or group of students. On the other hand, the evaluation of textbooks for suitability is always done with a certain audience in mind. In this case, as Cunningsworth (1995) stipulates that:

There are very specific learning objectives, learners’ backgrounds, resources available, etc. In practice, it can be said that both types of analysis are done equally frequently and sometimes the same textbook is analyzed first for potential (before it is used in class, as the teacher is selecting a textbook for the upcoming academic year) and then for suitability (while it is used in class, so the teacher can confirm that the choice he/she made was correct. (p. 15).

In case the textbook is assessed positively in both of these situations, then it will be used in future; in case the evaluation for suitability proves that the textbook does not comply

with all the needs of the learners, then the teacher has a clear signal that another textbook should be chosen. Of course, a variety of other factors such as school policy, contracts with publishers, etc. make the switching of the textbook difficult or impossible, but that is beyond the scope of this paper.

3.7 Types of EFL Textbook Analysis

When two teachers analyze an EFL textbook, they may likewise look at it from very different perspectives. One may subscribe to a structure oriented view of analysis and look for design, layout and grammar points. Another may be more concerned to opt for a content oriented approach in which analysis is made to judge the content of the textbook based on quantitative or qualitative data. In any textbook analysis, therefore, there are different types of analysis that the teacher, researcher or even a textbook designer may opt for; based on the factors in each situation, questions specific to that situation need to be generated around the main issues involved in textbook analysis and selection. Furthermore, there are two main types of EFL textbook analysis: structure based analysis and content based analysis. However, one can use a checklist of the two types together depending on the aim and direction of the analysis.

3.7.1 Structure Based Analysis

Textbooks are widely accepted as a common feature of classrooms worldwide and are important vehicles for the promotion of curricula. Consequently their structure is very important for the promotion of a specific vision of curriculum. There are many structural features of the textbook, some which go unknown to the authors, which have a significant impact on their target audience. Such features can have positive or negative impacts on learning. Textbook analysis is a means by which these features can be identified and hence the effectiveness of textbooks be established.

Studies such as Sarem, Hamidi, and Mahmoudie (2013) of textbook analysis follow a structure based approach. They analyzed the specialized book of English for International Tourism based on a structure based checklist developed by Daoud and Celce-Murcia in 1979.

Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) checklist for textbook analysis consists of five aspects. The first is subject matter, the second is vocabulary and structures, the third is exercises, the fourth is illustrations, and the fifth is physical make-up. The total items of the five aspects are 25.

Table 1

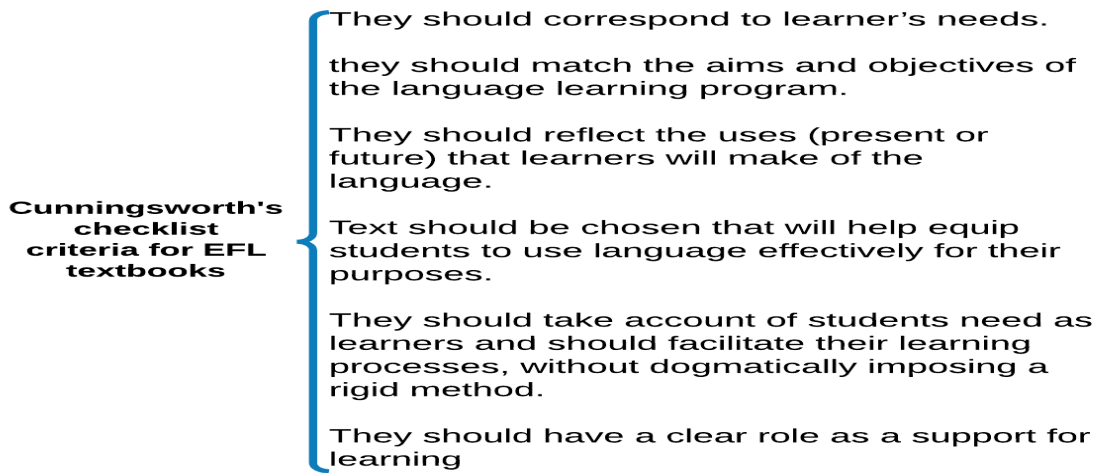
Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) Checklist for Textbook Analysis

Aspects of the analysis	Items of the structure based analysis	The answer
Subject matter	1. Does the subject matter cover a variety of topics appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended (urban or rural environment; child or adult learners; male and/or female students)? 2. Is the ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion? 3. Is the content graded according to the needs of the students or the requirements of the existing syllabus (if there is one)? 4. Is the material accurate and up-to-date?	
vocabulary and structures	5. Does the vocabulary load (i.e., the number of new words introduced every lesson) seem to be reasonable for the students of that level? 6. Are the vocabulary items controlled to ensure systematic gradation from simple to complex items? 7. Is the new vocabulary repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement? 8. Does the sentence length seem reasonable for the students of that level? 9. Is the number of grammatical points as well as their sequence appropriate?	

	<p>10. Does the structure gradually increase in complexity to suit the growing reading ability of the students?</p> <p>11. Does the writer use current everyday language, and sentence structures that follow normal word order?</p> <p>12. Do the sentences and paragraphs follow one another in a logical sequence?</p> <p>13. Are linguistic items introduced in meaningful situations to facilitate understanding and ensure assimilation and consolidation?</p>	
exercises	<p>14. Do the exercises develop comprehension and test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas?</p> <p>15. Do the exercises involve vocabulary and structures</p> <p>16. Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion, spelling and dictation, guided composition)?</p> <p>17. Does the book provide a pattern of review within lessons and cumulatively test new material?</p> <p>18. Do the exercises promote meaningful communication by referring to realistic activities and situations?</p>	
illustrations	<p>19. Do illustrations create a favorable atmosphere for practice in reading and spelling by depicting realism and action?</p> <p>20. Are the illustrations clear, simple, and free of unnecessary details that may confuse the learner?</p> <p>21. Are the illustrations printed close enough to the extent and directly related to the content to help the learner understand the printed text?</p>	
physical make-up	<p>22. Is the cover of the book durable enough to withstand wear?</p> <p>23. Is the text attractive (i.e., cover, page appearance, binding)?</p> <p>24. Does the size of the book seem convenient for the students to handle?</p> <p>25. Is the type size appropriate for the intended learners?</p>	

Figure 3

Cunningsworth's Checklist for EFL Textbook Analysis



Raheleh Hashemi (2011) analyzed three English language textbooks used at high schools throughout Iran. For analyzing the data collected by means of a structured based questionnaire-checklist that the researcher personally designed, first the answers were quantified. Each option of the items was ranked (not at all 1, not satisfactorily 2, to some extent 3, to a great extent 4). The items were grouped together and analyzed (Vocabulary, Reading, Grammar, Language Functions, Pronunciation Practice, Physical Make-up, and Practical Concerns).

Table 2

Raheleh Hashemi's Checklist for EFL Textbook Analysis (2011)

Sections of the Textbook		o a great exte	To Some extent	Not satisfactoril,	Not at all
Vocabulary	<p>1. Does the vocabulary load throughout the textbooks seem to be reasonable for the students of each level?</p> <p>2. Are the vocabulary items systematically graded from simple to complex items?</p> <p>3. Are the vocabulary items repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement?</p> <p>4. Are the vocabulary items presented in a variety of ways?</p> <p>5. Are the vocabulary items introduced in motivating and realistic contexts?</p> <p>6. Do the new items receive sufficient practice through different kinds of exercises?</p> <p>7. Do the vocabulary exercises promote internalization of the previously and newly introduced items?</p>				
reading	<p>8. Are the texts interesting for the students?</p> <p>9. Are the texts authentic pieces of language? 10. Do the texts cover a variety of topics and themes?</p> <p>11. Do the topics dealt with meet local and national standards?</p> <p>12. Are the topics up-to-date?</p> <p>13. Do the texts serve as a window into learning about the target language culture?</p> <p>14. Do the texts present information in a way that the students will understand?</p> <p>15. Is the content age-appropriate?</p> <p>16. Are there enough exercises and activities accompanying the texts?</p>				
grammar	<p>17. Is the number of grammatical points introduced in the textbooks appropriate? Grammar</p> <p>18. Are the grammatical points presented in an increasing level of difficulty?</p> <p>19. Are the new grammatical points presented in a</p>				

	<p>meaningful context to facilitate understanding?</p> <p>20. Are the explanations easy to understand? 21. Are there enough examples accompanying the explanations?</p> <p>22. Do the grammatical points receive sufficient practice through exercises and activities?</p> <p>23. Are the grammatical points repeated and reinforced in subsequent lessons?</p>				
Language functions	<p>24. Is the number of language functions introduced in the textbooks appropriate?</p> <p>25. Are the language functions presented in meaningful contexts?</p> <p>26. Do the language functions introduced accompany practice of different kinds? (e.g. in pairs, in groups) help</p> <p>27. Are the language functions repeated and reinforced in subsequent lessons?</p> <p>28. Do the language functions exemplify English in its authentic use?</p>				
Pronunciation practice	<p>29. Are the pronunciation points presented in meaningful contexts?</p> <p>30. Is there enough practice accompanying each pronunciation point introduced?</p> <p>31. Are the pronunciation points repeated and reinforced in subsequent lessons?</p>				
Physical Make-up	<p>32. Are the textbook covers attractive?</p> <p>33. Is the paper of satisfactory quality?</p> <p>34. Are the type size and font appropriate for the learners?</p> <p>35. Are there enough illustrations accompanying texts in the textbooks?</p> <p>36. Are the illustrations colorful and attractive?</p> <p>37. Are the illustrations informative and functional?</p> <p>38. Do the illustrations provide appropriate representations of local and national standards?</p> <p>39. Do the size and weight of the textbooks seem</p>				

	convenient for the students to handle?				
Practical concerns	40. Are the objectives explicitly laid out in the introduction part? 41. Do the textbooks support the goals and objectives of the program and the curriculum? 42. Are the textbooks sufficiently challenging for the students? 43. Do textbooks raise the students' interests in further language study? 44. Does each textbook cohere both internally and externally with the other ones in the series? 45. Do the textbooks contain periodical review sections and exercises throughout lessons? 46. Is the methodology proposed to the teachers appropriate for the teaching/learning situation and the students?				

Other similar studies such as one that is conducted by Ahour, Towhidiyan, and Saeidi (2014) analyzed Iranian EFL textbooks through an adapted structure based checklist developed by Litz, Rashidi and Kehtarfard in 2014. Furthermore, Hussin, Nimehchisalem, Kalajahi, and Yunus (2016) evaluated the presentation of new vocabulary items in three English language textbooks used in Secondary Schools in Malaysia. A group of five purposely selected teachers used a structure based checklist to evaluate the presentation of vocabulary items in the selected textbooks.

Table 3

Weber's Checklist for EFL Textbook Analysis from a Gender Stance (1990)

Category of	Definition	Examples
gender biases		
		For instance, - In some languages, the terms used for

Invisibility	Complete or relative exclusion of a group	<p>different occupations suggest that either women or men are excluded from practicing them (i.e. in English, minister; doctor; lawyer are associated with men because for a long time only men could carry out such occupations – more recently though for some professions a feminine alternative started to be used, such as ‘doctors’; on the contrary, nurse and babysitter were traditionally associated with women)</p> <p>- a powerful gender imbalance (or total lack of one or the other gender characters) in examples and/or illustrations, such as pictures of a scientific congress where men are predominant, suggesting that science is typically a male occupation</p>
Stereotyping	<p>Unfair assignment of characteristics to a group of people, at the cost of individual attributes and differences</p> <p>Stereotyping, may contain and produce either offensive or flattering statements and situations, depending on the positive or negative prejudices they promote</p>	<p>For instance, - the belief that women are usually emotional, while men are not - the belief that men are good with technology, while women are not - the belief that women like gossiping - the belief that men are better organized than women and more efficient leaders</p>
Imbalance And selectivity	Presenting only one interpretation of an issue, situation, or group of people	<p>For instance, - while talking about heroism or excellence in areas like science and technology, only men are mentioned - while referring to household, only women are being referred to</p>
		<p>For instance, - avoiding portraying sensitive and</p>

Unreality	Ignoring unpleasant aspects in favour of flattering ones	unpleasant aspects in family life, such as domestic violence, especially against women - avoiding portraying issues such as women's exploitation or the fact that women are sometimes considered as socially inferior - presenting individual cases as rules, such as suggesting that (quite rare) cases of women leadership or achievements in the society are the rule
Fragmentation and isolation	Presentation of non-dominant groups as peripheral members of society	For instance, - narrative and illustrations of different situations where women are always underrepresented

3.7.2 Content Based Analysis

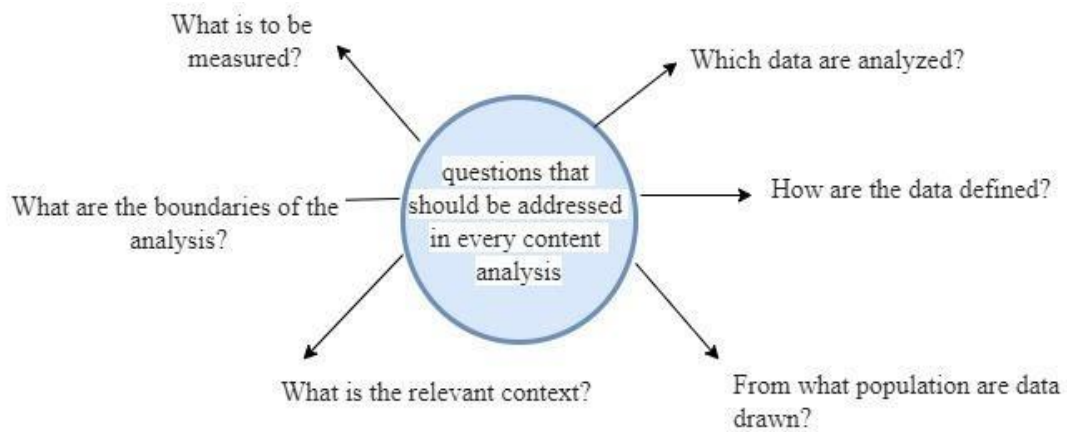
A content based analysis is a systematic and objective means of describing and quantifying data. For many scholars, it is popularly used as a tool in analyzing data. It is the study of documents, which might be texts of various formats, pictures, audio or video. It allows the researcher to examine hypothetical claims to improve the understanding of the data collected. Furthermore, it is defined as "a research methodology that utilizes a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text" (Weber 1990, p. 89). In other words, it is used to determine the existence of certain ideas, phrases, words, themes, characters, illustrations, or even words within a particular text or texts in order to enumerate such a presence for data analysis purposes.

Researchers can analyse patterns of content quantitatively using statistical methods, or use qualitative methods to analyse meanings of content within texts. Content analysis is research using the categorization and classification of speech, written text, interviews, images, or other forms of communication. In its beginnings, using the first newspapers at the end of the 19th century, analysis was done manually by measuring the

number of columns given a subject. The approach can also be traced back to a university student studying patterns in Shakespeare's literature in 1893. The political scientist Harold Lasswell formulated the core questions of content analysis in its early-mid 20th-century mainstream version: "Who says what, to whom, why, to what extent and with what effect?". Then, the researcher Klaus Krippendorff put six questions that should be addressed in every content analysis:

Figure 4

Klaus Krippendorff's Basis for Content Analysis



The strong emphasis for a quantitative approach started up by Lasswell was finally carried out by another "father" of content analysis, Bernard Berelson (1997), who proposed a definition of content analysis which, from this point of view, is emblematic: "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (p. 122). Quantitative content analysts have been criticized for limiting the scope of content analysis to simple counting, and for applying the measurement methodologies of the natural sciences without reflecting critically on their appropriateness to social science. Conversely, qualitative content analysts have been criticized for being insufficiently systematic and too impressionistic; Krippendorff argues

that quantitative and qualitative approaches to content analysis tend to overlap, and that there can be no generalisable conclusion as to which approach is superior.

Content based textbook analysis involves close examination of the textbooks materials including hidden meanings, attitudes and identifying and counting characteristics. It was emphasized that categorization is the core of content analysis. For example we have three categories: Grammar and Vocabulary, Exercises and activities and teachers' manual and context. Each of these categories is further divided into questions as it is illustrated in the table below:

Table 4

General Manual Checklist for Content Analysis of EFL Textbooks

Check points	Textbook- content analysis	yes	no
Grammar and Vocabulary	Does the content serve as a window into learning about the target language culture (American, British, ect.)?		
	Are the reading selections authentic pieces of language?		
	Are the text selections representative of the variety of literary genres, and do they contain multiple sentence structures?		
	Are the grammar rules presented in a logical manner and in increasing order of difficulty?		
	Are the new vocabulary words presented at an appropriate rate so that the text is understandable and so that students are able to retain new vocabulary?		
Exercises and activities	Do the activities facilitate students' use of grammar rules by creating situations in which these rules are needed?		
	Are there interactive and task-based activities that require students to use new vocabulary to communicate?		
Teachers' Manual And context	Does the manual help teachers understand the objectives and methodology of the text?		

	Does the manual suggest a clear, concise method for teaching each lesson?		
	Is the textbook appropriate for the curriculum?		

Gender based content analysis in textbooks is not recent, Data will be set as categories and numbers or frequencies will be recorded within each category (Weber, 1990). The categories are:

Table 5

Weber's 1990 Content Based Analysis for EFL Textbook from a Gender Stance

Categories	Aims and instructions	Check
1. Visibility in illustrations:	Illustrations include pictures, drawings, photographs or cartoons. Each character in an illustration is examined to determine the frequency of occurrence of male and female illustrations. Each character will also be counted as a separate occurrence even if the same character reappears more than once. Simple clues such as clothing and hair style will be taken into consideration when determining the gender of the character. However, if the character cannot be identified for any reason, it will be disregarded.	
2. Visibility in the text:	the researcher will record the frequency of proper nouns (e.g. Ali, Mary, etc.), nouns (e.g. father, mother, etc.) and Generic antecedents (e.g. he, she, his, her) in all passages. Then, the frequencies and percentages will be calculated and compared.	
3. Topic Dominance:	the researcher will examine the reading passages and dialogues to examine the gender of the dominant character that controls the dialogues or texts. The focus will be on who controls the texts, who initiates conversations and the number of speech turns. The occurrences and percentages will later be quantitatively enumerated.	
4. Occupations:	an occupation refers to a job, career, profession, and any type of work done by a female or male. The focus in this section will be	

	on the occupational roles presented in the units. The occupations are to be thoroughly examined and enumerated to evaluate whether there is a balance or imbalance distribution of occupations in the units. The researcher will focus on the variety of jobs rather than the recurrent repetition of jobs.	
5. Grammatical Functions:.	refer to the functional connection between the elements in a sentence (subject: and object). In this study, the focus will be on the role of the subject (proper nouns, nouns and subject pronouns including he/she) in every sentence. It is commonly used in studies analyzing sentences in corpus and dictionaries	
6. Character Traits:	In this category, the use of adjectives to describe the quality of a female or a male will be investigated. In many studies, females were described as beautiful, fat, ugly, etc. However, males were described as strong, courageous, attractive, etc. To determine the adjectives used in the units, traits will be quantitatively recorded.	
7. Character Activity:	A leisure activity is usually practiced by males and females not only in textbooks but also in reality. The researcher will examine the distribution of activities (e.g. reading, running, playing football, coloring, etc.) and if such activities are connected to one gender.	
8. Generic Masculine nouns	These refer to males as the norm and exclude females. The researcher will record any masculine nouns used (e.g. postman, policeman, etc.)	

2.2.3 Checklists

One of the most used methods in analysing textbooks is the checklist method. The checklist method is an instrument that helps practitioners evaluates textbooks in an effective and practical way. It is used to assess the worth of materials along with some determined aspects. According to McGrath, there are four advantages of the checklist method as follows.

- It is systematic, ensuring that all elements that are deemed to be important are considered.

- It is effective, permitting a good deal of information to be recorded in a relatively short space of time.
- The information is recorded in a convenient format, allowing for easy comparison between competing sets of material.
- It is explicit, and, provided the categories are well understood by all involved in the evaluation.

In some cases, these criteria may not meet learners' or teachers' needs since situations differ from one context to another. However, without a checklist one cannot analyze a textbook. For that reason, several checklists have been designed and achieved to analyze whole textbooks that are commonly proposed by different researchers in the field of teaching and the most generally used is that of Cunningsworth (1995), Sheldon (1988), Hutchinson (1987), McDonough and Shaw (1993), Littlejohn (1998) and Tomlinson (1998). Developing a checklist should be based on the learning-teaching context and the specific needs of the learner and teacher.

Checklists such as Cunningsworth and Kuzel (1991) or Skierso (1991) examine similar features like aims, layout, and methodology. They also include how language skills (speaking, listening....) sub-skills (grammar and vocabulary) and functions are presented in the textbook depending on the present socio-cultural setting (Zabawa, 2001. Ur, 1996; Cunningsworth, 1995; Harmer, 1991); these checklists can fall under one of three main categories; structure based, content based or mixed based analysis.

3.8 Textbook Analysis from a Gender Lens

3.8.1 The Vietnam gender project

The Vietnam gender project (UN/ Vietnam gender equality in EFL textbooks 2009/2010) is an educational reform analysis that was done on all primary education textbooks in Vietnam. The primary education textbook review and analysis project

carried out by the Technical Team of MOET and UNESCO Office with the assistance of UNESCO which contributed to the empowerment of education authorities and other duty bearers to implement the gender equality laws in the realm of education. At the same time, the project represents an attempt to encourage public discussion on gender issues in education with a view toward raising the awareness of education stakeholders and the broader public.

The project focused on analyzing primary education textbooks from a gender perspective which was set as a necessary step in preparing for upcoming cyclical textbooks for all education levels. The Project tackled both conceptual and methodological aspects pertaining to textbooks analysis from a gender perspective in the following ways:

- Textbook analysis from a gender perspective was supported by comprehensive and collaboratively developed Guidelines that address the conceptual and methodological aspects related to gender issues in education.
- The textbook analysis was based on a coherent and comprehensive strategy that allows for relevant research findings. The Guidelines provided a variety of research methods from ‘text analysis’ to inquiring the opinions of stakeholders, users and beneficiaries
- The Guidelines also constituted a valuable support for the adequate processing of research findings, based on which sound recommendations could be drafted. Recommendations to improve textbooks by integrating gender issues and ‘Text Analysis’ referred to the analysis of the textbook discourse, delivered through its various components (i.e. authors; titles; lesson content; student activities; illustrations).

The actual research on primary textbooks was carried out in 2009 focused on analyzing the discourse in textbooks (i.e. narrative text; examples; illustrations; messages passed to learners). The Guidelines, together with the research process and findings on

gender issues in education (and more specifically in textbooks) have provided an example of good practice for other (cross-cutting) fields, such as education for sustainable development or health education. In addition to that, the project has dealt with the main issues in primary education textbooks that foster gender equality and consequently need to be reinforced and the different learning areas, textbooks and grades that need most attention with regard to the prospect of revising textbooks from a gender perspective.

Different types of grids were developed to count male and female characters in text and illustrations while also recording their associated characteristics. For instance, it was observed whether male and female characters are presented static or in interaction. In the case of interactions, observations were also made with regard to their nature, i.e. family interactions; professional interactions; cooperative interactions; interactions reflecting hierarchical relations.

Based on the counting of such male and female characters in association with different characteristics, such as whether they are represented as individuals or groups; their position in the text and chapter; whether they appear in the context of activities; attributes; or interactions, the findings led to the conclusion that in the textbooks analyzed a masculine world is still predominant while female role models are rare. Girl pupils have little foundation for identification and projection, and boys have no role models from the opposite sex, which is barely visible. Consequently, pupils of both sexes, together with their parents and teachers, perceive that knowledge is legitimate for the male sex rather than the female sex.

3.8.2 Gender Representation in Saudi Arabia's EFL Textbooks

One of the best examples of analyzing textbook from a gender perspective is the study done on English Unlimited Special Edition/ textbook used in a Saudi Arabia's university. The study used a quantitative approach in which descriptive statistical analysis

was utilised to investigate male and female frequencies. The examination of gender representation in the Arab user-friendly EFL textbook revealed that the material does, in fact, underrepresented females. In other words, males were found to be more represented and existed more frequently in the textbook than females. The number of male characters outnumbers female characters; almost half of the conversations in the textbook are male-male conversations. Although men and women are presented in one conversation, however, the overall number of male-female conversations is very low compared to single gender conversations (i.e. male-male and female-female). Regarding subject positions, both men and women were more frequent in societal positions. However, the number of men occurrences in this position outnumbers women. This underrepresentation of women has caused the textbook to be male oriented.

More than that, the high number of female enrolment implies that Saudi female youth are vital consumers of the adapted versions of EFL textbooks. Thus, biased gender representation in textbooks would promote the ideology of female marginalism among female students. In the case of Saudi Arabia, one must admit that the education sector gives more privilege to men over women based on the number of various majors opened for male students; in addition to that, the fact that education is segregated by gender. However, women are not totally excluded from the education sector or the social reality nowadays; in fact, the status of women is developing rapidly in Saudi Arabia. Consequently, biased representation of gender in textbooks would hinder the process of women empowerment.

3.8.3 Gender Representation in the Turkish Textbooks.

Another example of textbook analysis from a gender stance is the case of the Turkish textbook analysis which aimed to explore the place of women in the secondary education textbooks. The study concluded that visuals of women were mostly presented

only within family roles as wife and mother and they were shown cooking, making jam, pickles, and tomato paste, and doing other house chores such as cleaning and knitting (Aykaç, 2012; Sarıtaş & Şahin, 2018).

However, there were some changes in the textbooks in the 2001-2002 academic year; consequently, textbooks began depicting women having jobs and working like men, and men were even depicted helping the women with house chores; although there are some positive changes in the last two decades about the presentation of women in the textbooks, women are still underrepresented compared to men and supplementary learning materials that focus on Turkish women such as primary sources, memorabilia, posters, and other auxiliary reading texts are still insufficient in the social studies textbooks (Zor, 2008). For example, human figures in the Turks on the Silk Road chapter in the 6th grade Social Studies textbooks in 2007 and 2014 consist of a high proportion of men (Karaçalı Taze, 2018).

Anadolu-Okur (2005) stated that during the pre-Islamic era, nomadic Turkic societies relied heavily on women's skills for survival as women rode horses, participated in wars, and conducted trade business. So, even in this period in which women had played a significant role in society, women were not presented as they deserved in the textbooks. In many social studies textbooks including history, geography, and citizenship education, men were always depicted as the head of family and women remained generally behind men (Demirel, 2010; Tezer Asan, 2010).

Although the aforementioned issues still exist in many textbooks in Turkey, a few textbooks might have been better than others in terms of presenting women. According to Aratemur-Çimen and Bayhan (2018) 9th grade history textbooks used in the 2016 academic year were generally in favor of supporting equality between men and women, acknowledging the role of women in historiography, and depicting women as

political authorities and in positions of power, while in the following year's textbooks the portrayal was the opposite and these sections were completely omitted or weakened. The follow-up study focusing on textbooks for various schools' subjects in Turkey also concluded that gender biased language and visuals are still dominant in the most current textbooks in Turkey (Aratemur Çimen & Bayhan, 2019). They indicated that women and their female children generally are depicted doing housework and men are depicted doing the house budget as they are the primary breadwinners. In conclusion, several challenges related to gender equality persist in Turkish social studies textbooks. Nonetheless, as Aratemur-Çimen and Bayhan (2018) concluded, there has never been a time where gender discourse has been completely equitable.

Conclusion

All the studies done on gender in relation to education in general and EFL context in specific prove that there is actually a problem of gender representation in textbooks and it mostly lead to social issues and cracks in societal structure and identity. In addition to that, the underrepresentation is not exclusively related to females, sometimes males are not visible in the textbooks and even if they were it is mostly a gender biased representation which gives a wrong impression and a false picture; for instance, males are represented more as athletes than scientists, also associated with corruption which makes male students think that only males are responsible for corruption and that they are hardwired to do bad things.

As a conclusion, gender is a broad concept and very complex which makes its ties to other fields and disciplines very complex as well. This calls for research in the area of education and social studies, specifically gender for the aim of striving towards a more healthy societal structure and empowerment.

Chapter Four: Methodological Framework and Analysis of Algerian Secondary School EFL Textbooks

Introduction

This chapter revolves around the methodology of the present research which seeks to answer four fundamental questions. In the pursuance of this aim, the researcher used a mixed method approach relying on two research tools for the purposes of data collection. The first tool is the checklist which aims to analyze the three selected textbooks from a sociolinguistic stance both qualitatively or quantitatively. The second tool is the questionnaire which aims to explore secondary school English teachers' perceptions towards gender in the textbooks and in the classroom.

4.1 Rationale of the Study

Textbooks are considered as the visible tip of the curriculum iceberg, and also the most used learning resource by teachers and students. In other words, textbooks represent the concrete aspect of the curriculum; thus, the structure and content that textbooks deliver have a powerful impact on learners especially young ones and on society more broadly. In addition to that, people, generally, and students, specifically, have the tendency to respect printed materials, like books and textbooks. People are prone to believe that whatever is written or printed in a book, including a textbook, must be right and true. On this basis, textbooks can easily become vehicles for promoting biases, including gender biases. Such biases can be promoted in an explicit or a more subtle way.

Textbooks may influence learners in many ways: through their structure, for example, their design, visual elements, layout and titles and through their content like

concepts; factual information, pedagogical approach and other aspects. A gender analysis of textbooks should consequently take into account all these issues in a comprehensive manner. A textbook may be judged as good in compliance with some explicit quality criteria, such as the accessibility of its content or the values and attitudes it promotes.

Quality learning, as fundamental to education, is the process through which learners acquire and develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours. As a fundamental and universal human capacity, learning induces changes in learners by facilitating the integration of new acquisitions (i.e. knowledge, skills, and attitudes) into existing cognitive and behavioural structures. In the process of learning, learners cope with various challenges and tensions that need to be overcome effectively in order to produce sustainable quality results. It is important to stress the importance of developing high quality textbooks in compliance with clear and relevant quality criteria, among which the promotion of gender equality and the avoidance of gender biases should play a central role. These quality criteria are as follows:

- Quality of inputs (such as teachers, curricula, textbooks, facilities, and assessment systems);
- Quality of processes (such as teaching and learning processes, and processes of developing curricula and textbooks);
- Quality of outputs (i.e. learning outcomes/student competencies, broader impact of education on individual and social development).

With reference to textbooks and gender issues in education, an example of such challenges to learners is constituted by the clash between the hidden curriculum (i.e. traditional beliefs about girls) and the current approaches of the formal curricula and textbooks in countries promoting gender equality under:

- The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights;
- The 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child;
- The 1995 Beijing Declaration adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women

Gender equality addresses just as much the situation of boys and men in today's and tomorrow's world. In some countries, for instance, the proportion of low achieving boys and boys that drop out of education are increasing as against the proportion of girls. A new trend is also indicated by the increase in some countries of men's (long term) unemployment as against higher rates of (also sometimes better paid) employability in women. Such phenomena draw attention to the need to address gender inequalities comprehensively by taking into account the many changes occurring in the situation of both women and men.

Gender inequality has a negative impact on both individual and societal development. On the contrary, in countries where gender equality has been truly embraced from the perspective of both Human Rights principles and practices (for example, in the Nordic countries), the benefits for individuals, communities and the society at large are quite obvious. In such societies, gender equality is indeed leverage for personal and societal growth, social cohesion, social justice and inclusiveness based on a balanced and interchangeable distribution of roles among women and men in all areas of private, professional and public life. Internationally, gender issues in education can be summarized as follows:

- In many countries, access to quality education is still not granted for all girls of school age;
- There is still predominance in curricula and textbooks of a male-driven perspective, where women are given little space and/or a low profile;

- Negative biases about women (i.e. women are not ‘technical’; they are too emotional; they are not good leaders) are quite widespread even though not always intentionally; such biases tend to reflect a rather traditional and inflexible gender roles as an influence of the ‘hidden curriculum’;
- Only cosmetic changes are made in curricula and textbooks by focusing on superficial and/or less relevant aspects of gender equality, such as ‘quota representations’ of girls and women in different areas.

While textbooks are “not the only learning resource in most countries, they continue to be quite influential given their interface between the curriculum and the classroom, policy and practice, theory and implementation” (Braslavsky, 2006, p. 21); they are obviously not the only place where biases of all kinds (including gender biases) may occur. However, given their powerful role especially in the early years of schooling, it is critical to identify aspects (both intentional and unintentional or not reflected prejudices and stereotypes) hindering gender equality. As the most visible expression of the curriculum, textbooks play an important role in the transmission and internalization of values, and the acquisition and development of knowledge, skills and attitudes. As such, if well designed and implemented, textbooks can facilitate quality learning processes and outcomes.

However, in the absence of reliable quality checks based on clear and sound quality criteria, textbooks can become vehicles of biases and/or misconceptions, including gender biases. Consequently, textbooks, may be central to the way learners shape their understanding of themselves, the others and the world, based on which they develop their attitudes and patterns of behaviour. Moore (2007) argued that biased representation of men and women in EFL textbooks could contribute to an inaccurate understanding of social and cultural reality and norms of a society. If such

representation of men and women in textbooks is, in fact, a reality in that society, reinforcing gender biasness through learning materials could contribute to slowing down or setting back the process of establishing equalities among people.

4.2 Data Collection Tools: The Textbook Analysis

The researcher used the mixed-method approach for collecting the data and for the purpose of the analysis. The mixed method approach is defined as "a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry" (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p.5). It is claimed that the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches may provide a clearer image and a better understanding of research results rather than one single approach.

For quantitative analysis purposes, the researcher used the content analysis which is defined as "a research methodology that utilizes a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text" (Weber, 1990, p. 89). It is used to determine the existence of certain ideas, phrases, words, themes, characters, illustrations, or even words within a particular text or texts in order to enumerate such a presence for data analysis purposes. A content analysis is also a systematic and objective means of describing and quantifying data. It involves close examination of the textbooks materials including hidden meanings, attitudes and identifying and counting characteristics. It was emphasized that categorization is the core of content analysis. Data will be set as categories and numbers or frequencies will be recorded within each category (Weber, 1990).

In this study, the categories involve: Structure and authenticity, language and gender, gender visibility and gender under-over representation.

Each element in the category is examined to determine the frequency of occurrence of males or females. Each character will also be counted as a separate

occurrence even if the same character reappears more than once. Simple clues such as clothes, length of hair and height are taken into consideration when determining the gender of the character. However, if the character cannot be identified for any reason, it will be disregarded and considered gender neutral. The researcher examined the reading passages and dialogues to extract the gender of the dominant character that controls the dialogues or texts. The focus will be on who controls the texts, who initiates conversations and the number of speech turns. The occurrences and percentages would later be quantitatively enumerated. In addition to that, it is worth noting that an occupation refers to a job, career, profession, and any type of work done by a female or male. The researcher also focused on the variety of jobs rather than the recurrent repetition of jobs. Furthermore, the use of adjectives to describe the quality of a female or a male will be investigated. To determine the adjectives used in the units, traits were quantitatively recorded.

4.2.1 The Hybrid Checklist

After a thorough scrutiny of the different textbook analysis types, models and different checklists, this study opted for a personally created hybrid checklist that is based on both structure based analysis and content based analysis both quantitative and qualitative modes. This textbook analysis aimed at investigating gender representation in Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks. The checklist is composed of four categories which are built upon the elements mentioned in the literature review. The overall number of questions are 19, ranging from structure based questions to content based questions from a general stance.

4.2.1.1 Sample of the Analysis

In the present thesis, the sample of the textbook analysis is the currently used Algerian secondary school EFL textbooks. There are three years in the stage of

secondary education in Algeria, namely: first year secondary school, second year secondary school and third year secondary school which ends with the baccalaureate exam. The latter is the key to entering the next educational stage which is the higher studies: university LMD system's first stage.

The sample consists of the three textbooks: 'At the crossroads' which is the English textbook for the first year secondary school, 'Getting Through' which is the English textbook for the second year secondary school, and lastly, 'New Prospects' which is the English textbook for the third year. It is worth noting that the textbooks are designed for all streams.

The choice of the textbooks was not random, as previously mentioned, the English language is considered a FL in Algeria which makes its integration into the educational system and curricula relatively late. This determines the skills and abilities of the students thus affects what would be considered as an influencing factor in their learning process such as gender biases for the simple reason that they lack the needed linguistic abilities to understand texts and even the cognitive abilities to think much about social issues.

4.2.1.2 Procedures of the Analysis

Before the analysis of all the three selected textbooks, general information about the textbook are presented and dealt with in a gender based way for the following reasons:

- ✓ Textbook Authors: it is important to note who designed the textbooks because the gender of the designer(s) may influence the overall gender quality of the textbooks. In other words, the predominance of one gender (and the absence of the other) in the case of different subjects may trigger the belief that gender is

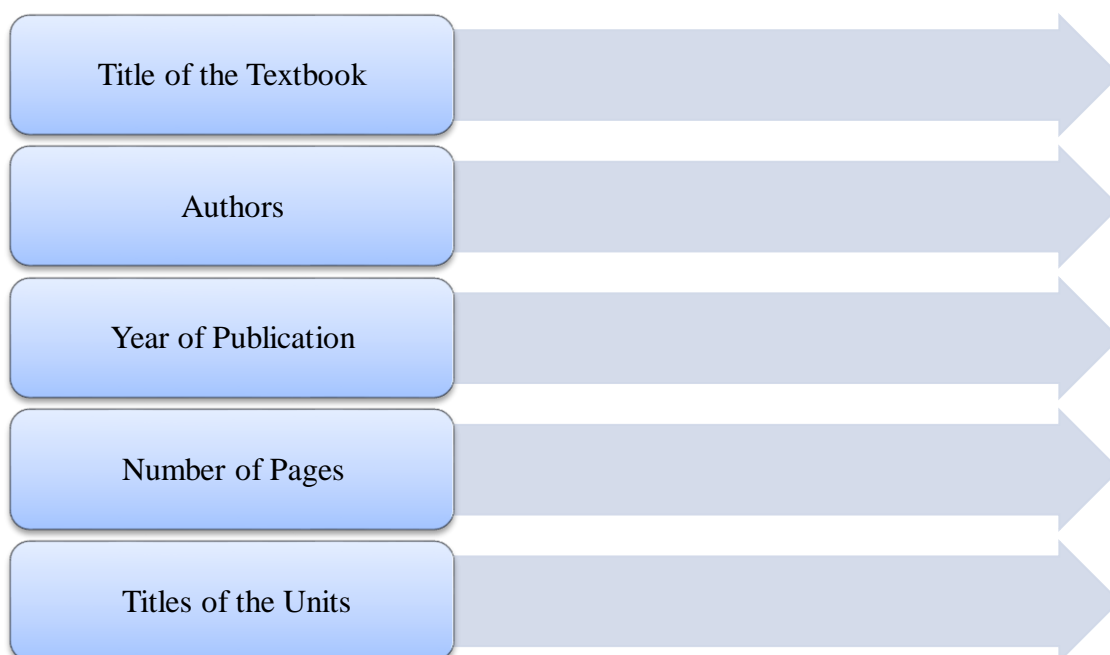
associated with excellence in certain areas. Moreover, if only men are authors, women's voice and experience may be excluded.

- ✓ Cover Pictures: the cover pictures of the textbooks are very important for any textbook analysis because they set the mode of both teachers and students and give a synopsis about the content of the textbook.
- ✓ Titles of Units: how male and female characters are presented in titles and introductory units; (for instance, is reference made to male and female thinkers, political figures, media figures, etc.).
- ✓ The Date of the Textbook Publication: whether the textbook designers have taken into account all previously mentioned documents that call for human rights and gender equality or not. And whether or not the textbooks are in line with the rapidly developing world.

The general information shall be presented in this format and the information is to be analyzed:

Figure 5

The Textbook Identification Card



Note. This card is designed by the researcher.

After presenting those general and factual information about the textbook and analyzing them, then comes the checklist (see appendix 1).

The researcher tailed the following procedures:

1. **Data Collection:** Using the hybrid checklist through counting each item alone and then presenting it alongside the page number and then followed by presenting it in contrast with another item. For example, the researcher counts all the reading texts in the textbook then precise which is authentic and which is created and which of which is male or female oriented or even gender neutral.
2. **Data Analysis:** In this step, the researcher analyzes the counted data and puts it into perspective with its respective category. For example after finding the total number of the reading texts, the researcher analyzes if they are sufficient in terms of coverage and in respect to the textbook number of pages. In addition to that, the researcher analyses whether or not they are relevant to students' age and gender and if they are interesting and motivating or not. Last but not least, the researcher determines if they are up-to-date or outdated based on the date of the textbook publication, the date of the text publication if it is authentic and finally the quality of information it contains.

As a final step, the researcher links the data analysis to the topic of the present thesis which is gender representation.
3. **Data Interpretation:** In this step the researcher uses the analysis of each item alone and interprets it from a sociolinguistic approach. On this basis, the researcher either confirms or rejects the hypotheses. Finally, the researcher

determines whether or not there is a gender under presentation or gender over presentation in all four categories of the checklist.

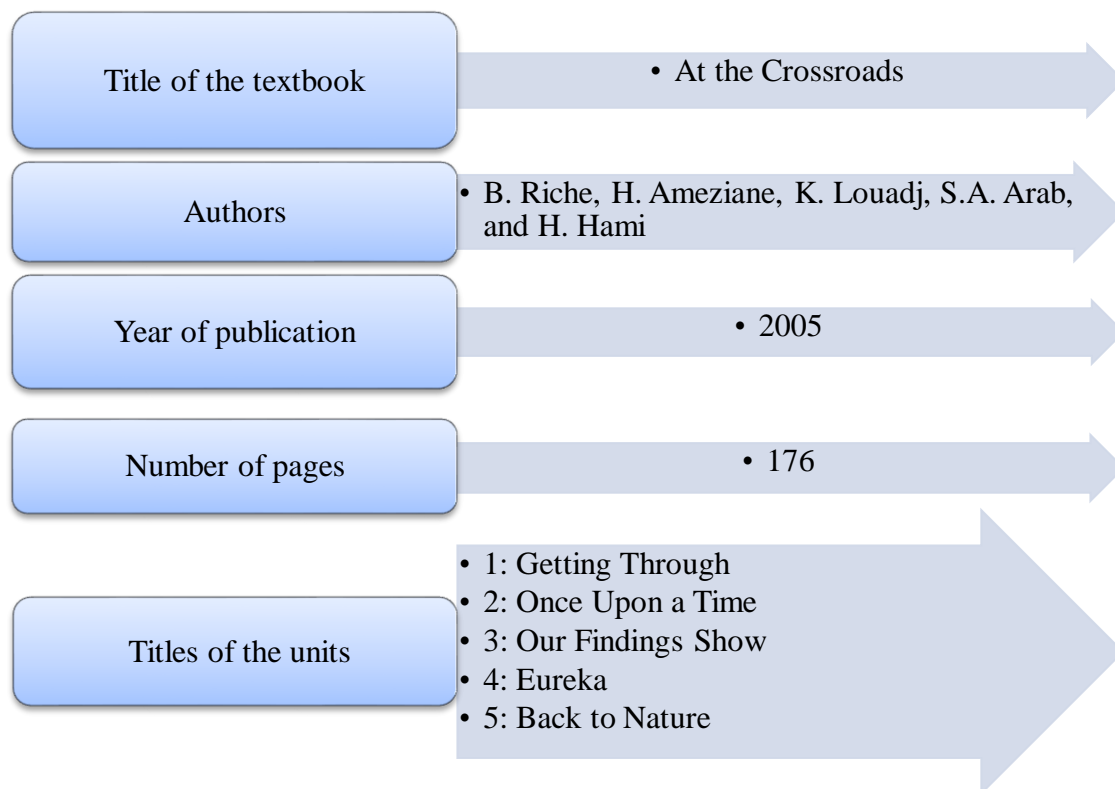
4.2.2 First Year Textbook: At the Crossroads

4.2.2.1 Data Collection

The first textbook to be analyzed is titled ‘At the Crossroads’. As previously mentioned, the general features of the textbook are presented in the figure below:

Figure 6

At the Crossroads’ Identification Card



‘*At the Crossroads*’ is designed for first year secondary school learners for all streams. However, the second unit titled ‘*Once Upon a Time*’ is intended only for the literary stream. The textbook consists of 176 pages and five units; each one includes four sequences, which are:

- Section 1: listening and speaking

- Section2: reading and writing
- Section3: developing skills
- Section4: consolidation and extension.

4.2.2.2 Data Analysis

After the structure based and content based quantitative analysis of the first year secondary school took place, the researcher came to the following analysis:

- ✓ Textbook authors: *'At the Crossroads'* is written and designed by five authors, B. RICHE, S.A. ARAB, H. AMEZIANE, H. HAMI, K. LOUADJ. The gender of the authors is not mentioned in the textbook, neither titles were used nor names were mentioned.
- ✓ Cover Picture: The cover picture includes four pictures; two of which belong to students, male and female. The male appears to hold a literary book the author of which is the infamous Shakespeare, while the female is wearing a lab coat and looking through lab equipment. Both the male and females appear to be students in secondary school. The other two pictures are located down the page and they belong to the 'Big Ben' London clock and the other one is a picture of Algiers the capital of the country. In the middle of the cover picture we see the title of the textbook written in red and the year of the level to which the textbook is designed. The textbook cover then represents both males and females in addition to the NC and the TC.
- ✓ Titles of Units: the titles of the units are plain, simple and gender neutral. They are titled as follows: Getting Through, Once Upon a Time, Our Findings Show, Eureka, and Back to Nature. The titles of the units are composed either from one word or a simple phrase which meaning indicates the theme of the unit.

- ✓ The Date of the Textbook Publication: The first year secondary school textbook was first published in 2005. The date of publication is considered relatively old; it has been used for 17 years which is not a short period of time since a lot has changed in this era of rapid development and scientific innovations.

Table 6

At the Crossroads' Checklist

Type	N	Pages' Number
Reading texts	28	page 21, page 27, page 35, page 40, page 51, page 53, page 56, page 57, page 59, page 68, page 70, page 83, page 88, page 101, page 115, page 120, page 121, page 126, page 127, page 129, page 132, page 133, page 134, page 145, page 150, page 155, page 156, page 160, page 162, page 170, page 172. Female oriented reading texts: There are a total of 7 female oriented reading texts: page 21, page 27, page 35, page 40, page 51, page 59, and page 126. Male oriented reading texts: page 27, page 51, page 53, page 61, page 70, page 115, page 126, page 127, page 160, page 170.
Created reading texts	16	page 21, page 35, page 40, page 56, page 70, page 101, page 120, page 121, page 126, page 129, page 133, page 155, page 160, page 170, page 172
Authentic reading texts	12	page 51, page 53, page 57, page 59, page 68, page 83, page 88, page 115, page 132, page 145, page 150, page 162
Dialogues	8	page 24, page 25, page 37, page 61, page 66, page 90, page 148, page 168, page 169, page 171, page 172, page 173, page 174, , page 173, page 92, page 93
Adjectives associated with males	25	Positive adjectives associated with males: page 52, page 53, page 54, page 70, page 94, page 102, page 126, page 127, page 130, page 170 Negative adjectives associated with males: page 49, page 53, page 94, page 127, and page 133.
Adjectives associated with female	10	Positive adjectives associated with females: page 32, page 3, page 54, page 94, page 102 Negative adjectives associated with females: page 90, page 93, page 94

<p style="text-align: center;">Female Proper nouns</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">45</p>	<p>Native culture names: Amel, 21, Karima, 25, Meriem Djoual 28, Amel 30, Fatima 34, Hind Benmouloud, Djamila 37, Sihem, 40), Sihem (page 42), Wassila (45), Sabrina (75), Aisha, Meriem, (90), Melissa, Dyhia, Salima (93),</p> <p>Target culture(s) names Kirsi (21), Kirsi (23), Edora Smith, Anne, Nora, Maya, Melinda, Lynn, Jenny (27, Joy J Prafit 35, Nora Jones, Jane 37, Sheyenne 40, Alice 46, Alice Collier 51, Alice 59, Anne Hathaway, Sussana (65), Dorothea Mackellar (69), Katie Courie, Lynda Johnson 89, Doris 90, Anne Trevor (94), Josephine Coshran (117), Marie Curie, Ruth Benedict, Halley (126), Mary Higgins (148), Mary (174).</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Male proper nouns</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">150</p>	<p>Native culture names: Hamid (22) Farid, Rashid, Karim (30) Hichem, Farid, Fouad, (34) Hichem, Ryan (42), Amirouche, Lotfi 71), Ali, Ryan (81), Karim (90), Bashir, (91), Rachid, Karim (92), Ali, Bachir, Karim, Sofiane, Jamel (93), Karim (94), Bennous Sofiane (121), Khaled Mehidi, Aladdin (128),</p> <p>Target culture(s) names: Jari (21) Bob Karl (25) Tom Smith, Peter, Sam, George, John Smithson, Johnson, Tim, Tom Jackson, Henry, Jackson (27), Marvin (34), Michel Armstrong, Haryton Bay (35), James (37), Peter (page 45), Huckberry Thin, Mark Twain, Oliver Twist, Charles Dickens, Shakespeare, Lewis Carroll (46), Aladdin, Alibaba, Shahrayar (48) Peter Pan, JM Barrie, Robert Louis, Tom Sawyer, Mark Twain, Bram Stoker, Paul Stewrat, Chris Riddle (51) Chinua Achebe, Okonkwo (52) Okonkwo, Unoka, Amalinze (53) Charles Dickens (57) Lewis Carroll (59), Bob, Jack, John, Peter (61), Charles Dickens, Oliver Twist (63) William Shakespeare, Henry (65), Gandhi (70) Charlie Chaplin (72) Benton, Ryan, Simpson, Nelson Mandela (75) Richard Carlson (88) Carlson (89), Tom, (94), Jones (96), Smith, Jones, Charles, Brooks, Sanchez (99), Jarvis, Oliver (107), James King (111), Louis Pasteur, Alexander Fleming, A G Bell, Albert Einstein (113), Alexander Graham Bell, Guglielmo Marconi, Heinrich Hertz, Arthur C Clarke (115), Einstein, Graham Bell, Marconi, Arthur Clarke (116) Jhon Thurman, Percy Spencer, Graham Bell (117) Smith Hamilton (120) Jhon Pimperton, Levoi Straus, William Wrigly, Chester Carlson (124) Leonardo Da Vinci, William Herschel, Lavoisier, Priestley, Edison, Einstein, Faraday, Kepler, G W Carver (126), George Washington Carver (127), Thales, Ptolemy, Pythagoras (132), Ptolemy, Johannes Kepler, Nicolaus Copernicus, Galileo Galilei, Isaac Newton (133) Carver, Louis Pasteur (137) Mike (141) Paul (145) Peter Roscoe, Peter Smith, Jhon, (148) Dan Smithson (160) Sindibad (170) Bob, James King (172) Robert, Mike (173) Peter (174).</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Illustrations</p>		<p>Number of illustrations associated with females: The number of illustrations that are female oriented or represent females is 15 distributed throughout the textbook as follows 1(in the cover) 1(page 17) 1(page 34) 1(36) 1(51) 1(63) 1(64) 1(76) 1(79) 2(84) 1(110) 1(121) 1(132) 1(146).</p> <p>Number of illustrations associated with males: The number of illustrations that are male oriented or represent males is 41 distributed throughout the textbook as follows: 1(cover) 1(page 17) 1(page 31) 1(page 34) 5(page 46) 1(page 48) 1(page 52) 1(page 61) 1(page 62) 3(page 63) 1(page 64) 1(page 65) 1(page 72) 2(page 76) 1(page 79) 2(page 84) 1(page 88) 2(page 107) 4(page 113) 4(page 121) 1(page 126) 1(page 128) 1(page 132) 1(page 135) 1(page 152) 1(page 155).</p>

Occupations	<p>Female oriented occupations: in the ‘<i>at the crossroads</i>’ textbook, we find seven female oriented occupations, distributed in texts or illustration as follows: Journalist page 21, housewife page 21, housewife page 32, secretary page 76, reporter page 76, receptionist page 94, teacher page 126. Some of the occupations are mentioned in texts such as in page 21, page 33, page 94 and page 126 while two are portrayed in illustrations in pages 76.</p> <p>Male oriented occupation: there are 33 male occupations in the ‘<i>at the crossroads</i>’ textbook, presented as follows: Electrician (page 21), doctor (page 31), engineer (32), writer (52), (64), (65), actor (65), leader (70), film director (72), teacher (75), office man, camera man (page 76), Doctor (page 88), lab worker, scientists/ inventors (113), artist, band leader, tax collector, clergyman, telegraph operator, office clerk, physician, astrologer (126), farmer, scientist (127), astronomer (133), chairman (148, 174), factory manager, (page 160) sail man (170), salesman (172).</p>
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Section One: Structure and Authenticity of the Textbook

1. Objectives:

The first question in the first section of the checklist is about the objectives of the textbook and whether or not they are clearly laid out. Textbook designers made sure to explicitly inform both teachers and students about their roles and their set outcomes in the introductory pages of the textbook, specifically pages 8 to 9 are dedicated to the teachers and titled as such; pages 10 to 11 are dedicated to students and titled.

The objectives are presented in what the textbook authors call ‘*The Book Map*’ in which they explain the sequences. The latter are:

- Listening and Speaking,
- Reading and Writing,
- Developing Skills,
- Consolidation and Extension,
- Project Workshop,
- Check Your Progress.

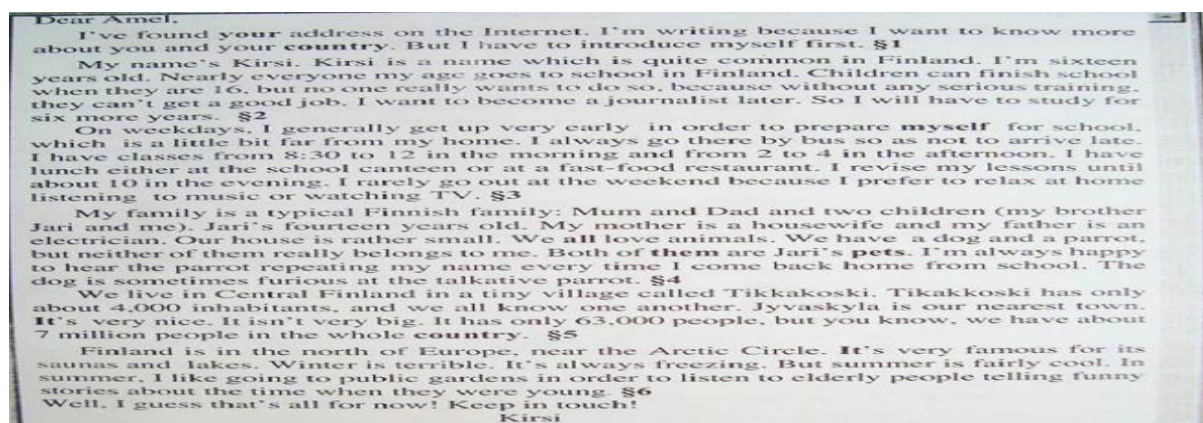
It also provides the teacher with the aims of these sequences. The teacher knows through these introductory objectives what is expected from him/her and how each sequence relates to the other one.

2. Variation of Reading Texts

There are 31 overall reading texts in the *'At the Crossroads'* textbook. The number is reasonable when compared to the number of pages which is 175 and units which is five. Reading pieces are very important in textbooks, they represent the lungs from which students breathe information and content. If the textbook contains a variety of reading pieces, students will be exposed to a variety of topics, thus, a broad repertoire of knowledge. *'At the Crossroads'* contains over ten reading pieces with different double faceted topics such as in page 21 where the text is an email (see figure 7) that introduces a new country and a new culture.

Figure 7

A Female Oriented Reading Text



The figure above illustrates a piece of reading which contains an exchange of information between two students through emails. The girl in the reading text is 16 which make the text age-appropriate to students, furthermore, the girl is also a student, it means a real life projection which is a very important factor when talking about

relevancy. The text contains a new country that students may or may not have heard about, which would spike their curiosity.

Such texts are relevant and interesting to students because they suit their: age, real life situations, interests and curiosity. Other texts in the textbook are similar in structure and language level. In pages 52, 57, 59, 68, 70 texts are about different authors and books such as Chinua Achebe, an African writer who writes in English and his bestselling book '*Things Fall Apart*' which revolves around an African village and a protagonist who seeks strength and wealth in his village. Including writers from Africa who write in English might be very inspiring to students. In addition to that, another text in the same unit talks about the infamous book '*Arabian nights*' and the popular character '*Aladdin*'. Most students would have probably heard about '*Aladdin*' which makes the text relevant and interesting, in addition to that, the book '*Arabian nights*' touches upon part of students' identity which has a relationship with their native language '*Arabic*'.

The number of the female oriented reading texts is very few in comparison with the total number of the reading texts which is 31, which makes the percentage 22. On the same line of thought, the number shows that females are underrepresented when it comes to reading content. The themes of the reading texts correspond with the themes of the units; one example could be in page 40 which is an email from a secondary school student named Sihem communicating with another student from another country named Cheyenne. However, the content of the email is a cooking recipe which is considered as bouncing on the edges of stereotypes on what females only talk about. Furthermore, page 59's reading text is a passage from the infamous novel '*Alice in the wonderland*' which is known with its feminine protagonist, this can be a very good example to female students. The shortage of the female oriented reading texts can have

a negative impact on female students who may notice that the majority of the reading material and topics are male oriented; thus, they see themselves less in the textbook at hand which may lead as well to lack of motivation and inspiration.

There are a total of 10 male oriented reading texts in the present textbook. The total number of the male oriented reading texts is almost the same as the female oriented ones, the rest of the reading texts are either gender neutral or thematic in nature and bear no gender specific trait such as topics related to science. The reading text on page 51 represents an overview of the book ‘things fall apart’ in addition to information about its protagonist ‘*Okonkwo*’. Tackling a male oriented reading text about books and male protagonists is very good; however, the example of the book here is a bit extreme for their age and understanding due to the nature of the character (violent, abusive...etc) which would not serve as a positive example to secondary school male students who are still adolescents. Other texts however, depict some really good examples such as the reading text on page 126 which tackles the topic of scientists, and provides really good examples to male students to be influenced by and aspire to be.

3. Authenticity of reading texts

Some reading texts are created materials and other ones are authentic pieces of texts (extracts from a newspaper, book, and an article). There are 28 reading texts in the textbook ‘*At the Crossroads*’ (check table n 08) 16 of which are created, pages: check table n and 12 are authentic pieces of texts; 57% of the reading texts are created, most of them are Emails and letters such as in page 21, 35, 40, 120, 160, stories and anecdotes such as in page 56, 70, 170, and unit-related topics such as in pages 101, 121, 126, 129, 133, 155, and 172. The created texts are all closely related to the topics and theme of the respective units. They are also language appropriate and lay the ground for the activities to follow, especially grammar or the check your progress sequence. For example, the

reading text in page 70 belongs to the check your progress sequence, unit 2: once upon a time, is directly related to the unit theme which is: famous figures and literary works, and most importantly is built up according to the language forms laid out in the objectives. The language forms are past simple tense (studied, led, returned...etc), prepositions, description (he studied law in London), time expressions and markers (today, 1914, 1974...etc).

On the other hand, 43 % of reading texts are authentic; they are a mixture of extracts of journals, magazines, books and websites. For example, the reading text on page 53 is an extract from the book '*Things Fall Apart*' by Chinua Achebe from the second unit as well (once upon a time). The text is the appropriate length, the language level is very basic, adheres to the set language forms in the objectives (past simple tense, descriptive, and includes time markers).

Both authentic and created pieces of texts throughout the textbook are varied, interesting and theme-related to their respective units. There are almost equal numbers of authentic and created texts with a difference of 7%, which is considered in the normal range of authenticity.

4. Relativity of the reading texts

The fourth question in the first section of the checklist is also about the topics and themes of the textbook and whether or not they are up-to-date. To consider something updated it has to belong to the last decade from which it is analyzed. In other words, since the analysis of the textbook took place in 2021 then the range of what is considered as recent is between 2011 to 2021; it is worth noting however that there are topics that stand the flow of time and are considered as recent if they belong to the last century from which the analysis takes place such as inventions, discoveries, and famous figures.

Since there are five units, so there are five main themes/topics, which are as follows: getting through (technology and communication), once upon a time (famous figures and literary works), our finding show (newspapers, interviews and journals), eureka (inventions, scientists and discoveries) and the last unit called back to nature (nature).

The themes are chosen to fit students' needs and be appropriate to their ages (16/17) and level of critical thinking. As it is the century of technology, choosing a theme about technology and communication is very crucial and necessary. However, the technological communication tools chosen such as emails are relatively old since we are living in the days of social media. On the same line of thought, emails remain a professional way of communicating using the internet till this day. The second unit contains famous figures including writers (Chinua Achebe, Shakespeare, Charles Dickens...etc), political figures (Gandhi), film directors (Charlie Chaplin). The famous figures belong to the 21 century which makes them relatively recent and up-to-date. The third unit contains topics that are related to journaling and reporting which are still valid and used today. Newspapers, magazines and journals are still a big part of our lives and a very important source of news. The fourth unit contains topics that are related to scientists and discoveries, some of which belong to the 21st century (Alexander Fleming, Albert Einstein...etc) and others belong to the 20th century (Louis Pasteur, Alexander Graham Bell...etc). This unit is somehow old since there are numerous recent discoveries and inventions. However, there is no harm in learning about old ones as well. The last unit revolves around nature and the problems which it faces. Today, we are officially behind pollution as the only threat to nature and we are facing many new challenges and problems such as climate change which is very important for students to

know. All in all, the topics in the textbook are considered as relatively recent but not up-to-date and they definitely need some modification and additions.

4. Dialogues

There are 13 dialogues in the '*At the Crossroads*' textbook which are distributed throughout the textbook. The total number of the dialogues in the present textbook is considered sufficient and enough in comparison to the number of pages of the textbook, reading material, and number of units. Dialogues are considered as reading materials yet they are most of the time used either as an example or an exercise. This makes them a very powerful tool through which students can either relate or not, and most importantly be influenced in a positive way or not.

- Female oriented dialogues:

There are five female oriented dialogues in this textbook 38.46 % of the total number. They are distributed throughout the textbook as follows: page 37, page 90, page 148, page 168, and page 172. The themes of the dialogues correspond with the general themes of the units. First female oriented dialogue in page 37 is an exercise which revolves around different types of phone calls in which a female either calls or answers the phone. The dialogue is simple and theme-free in the sense that the gender of the characters here does not have an influence over the flow of the dialogue or its context.

Figure 8

Mixed Gender Dialogue

WORK IT OUT

① There is a problem to solve in dialogues 1-5 below. Identify the problems. Then complete the dialogues with replies a - e on the right.

A: Hello, can I speak to Nora Jones, please?
B: What number do you want? ① **a. No, I can't. It's a bad line.**
A: 873291.
B: _____
A: I'm sorry.

A: Hello, is that Hind Benmouloud?
B: Could you speak up, please? I can't hear you very well.
A: Can you hear me now? ② **b. My line was engaged.**
B: _____
A: Don't worry. I'll call you back.
B: Sorry, what did you say? I didn't catch that...

A: Good morning. I'm Djamila.
B: Jane here.
A: Hello Jane. I tried to call you at about nine o'clock, but I couldn't get through.
B: What was the problem? ③ **c. Sorry, you've got the wrong number.**
A: _____

A: Can I speak to Mr Jones, please?
B: I'm afraid he's not in the office. He won't be back till next week.
A: Sorry, I don't understand. ④ _____
B: He won't be back till next week. He's not here.
A: Oh, thank you.
B: Try his mobile phone.
A: Sorry?
B: I say he has a mobile phone. **d. Oh, I see. Our phones were out of order all morning.**

A: Hello, James. I tried to call you earlier, but I couldn't get through.
B: What time did you call?
A: Just after ten. ⑤ **e. My English is not very good.**
B: _____

موقع عين البصائر التعليمي

Other dialogues are similar in nature like the second dialogue in page 90 which is a mixture of both genders and involves a conversation with two female classmates and a mother and her child; this dialogue is also considered as theme free, however, the mere representation of females is considered as something positive since female students would relate to female characters and feel included. The third dialogue in page 148 is also similar and includes both genders.

- Male oriented dialogues:

there are eight male oriented dialogues in this textbook, distributed as follows: page 37, page 61, page 90, page 148, page 169, page 171, page 173, page 174 with a percentage of 61.53, this makes the male oriented dialogues outnumber the female oriented dialogues. The difference in the number of representations plays an undeniable role in the extent to which students feel validated and valued. Nonetheless, the difference is not relatively big since it is just three more dialogues for males if we do not count the gender neutral which include both genders. As an illustration we have the

dialogue in page 148 which includes both genders but is considered thematic since it follows a line of thought.

This is the last question in the first section of the checklist titled: structure and authenticity. This question serves the purpose of unraveling the structural layers of the textbook and what it contains. On the same line of thought, dialogues are a very important part of language forms and should have a slot in the language teaching curriculums. They are considered as one of the oldest and most used techniques to learn a FL. Furthermore, the analysis showed that '*At the Crossroads*' contains a range of dialogues (check table n). The topics of the dialogues, like the reading texts, follow the themes of the units, thus, they are varied and multi-themed.

5. Appropriateness of the Reading Texts

The analysis has shown that the textbook '*At the Crossroads*' contains a wide variety of texts which follow the themes of their respective units; thus, five main themes and ten subthemes. The analysis has also shown that the texts are interesting because they are age-appropriate; they project real life situations, and spark curiosity since they are just one level above the students' comprehensible abilities according to the input hypothesis by Krashen (1977). In addition to that, there are authentic and created texts, serving the needs of students in both target language authenticity and the simplicity of the created ones.

The analysis also indicated that the topics are considered as relatively recent but not up-to-date and they definitely need to be updated. To conclude, the first section of the checklist is a structure based analysis of the textbook: '*At the Crossroads*' and is considered in this research as an introductory part to the content analysis of gender.

Section Two : Gender and Language

1. Adjectives :

In linguistics, an adjective is a word that modifies a noun or noun phrase or describes its referent. Traditionally, adjectives were considered one of the main parts of speech of the English language, although historically they were classed together with nouns. The most used and known type of adjectives in any language is the attributive adjectives", For example: "my hardworking student", wherein hardworking occurs on an antecedent basis, and therefore functions in a pre-positive or attributive way. In other words, it gives an attribute to what comes before or after it.

The analysis has shown that '*At the Crossroads*' contains a wide variety of adjectives; however, most of them are gender-neutral or lack the human attribute. For example (the internet is a very useful invention, p. 19).

- Positive adjectives associated with females:

I (Amel) am happy (p. 32);

I (Joy J Parfit) am suitable for the job, (p. 35)

She was a pretty girl P, 54

Hard worker, cordial receptionist, polite partner (Anne), (p. 94)

She is a cheerful person, (p. 102)

- Negative adjectives associated with females:

I (Aisha) am bored, (p. 90)

Dyhia: I am so late, (p. 93)

Sometimes late (Ann), (p. 94)

- Positive adjectives associated with males:

Important man (p. 52)

Okonkwo was well known, Amalinze was the greatest wrestler, made him very famous, Okonkwo was a very hard worker, and he became a wealthy farmer, one of the greatest men, handsome man. (p. 53)

He was an intelligent boy (p. 54)

One (Gandhi) most representative figures (p. 70)

Hard worker, (Tom) Quick and useful computer user (p. 94)

He is a hard worker (p. 102)

The career of the great black American..Etc (p. 126)

He became the most famous agricultural chemist; his story is an inspiring example (p. 127)

He has got a marvelous tank (p. 130)

He (king merchant) told him (king) my (Sindibad) fantastic story, (p. 170)

- Negative adjectives associated with males:

Poor (Sindibad), (p. 49)

He (Unoka) was lazy and improvident; he (Unoka) was a coward. (p. 53)

Cold partner, heavy smoker, (p. 94)

Did (George) odd jobs (p. 127)

He was wrong (p. 133)

The overall number of adjectives associated with females is 10; whereas, the overall number of adjectives associated with males is 25. The number of positive adjectives associated with females is 7 while the number of the positive adjectives associated with males is 18. The difference in number is 11 which is considered as a major difference in representation.

On the one hand, the positive adjectives associated with females are (happy, suitable, pretty, hard-worker, cordial, polite, cheerful) and can be categorized as soft

adjectives that are descriptive in nature and are not varied or representative to a large group such as females. On the other hand, the positive adjectives associated with males are (Important, well known, greatest, famous, hard worker, wealthy, greatest, handsome, intelligent, representative, hard-worker, quick, useful, great, famous, inspiring, marvelous, fantastic), these adjectives are varied and the repetitiveness of some of them (hard worker, famous, greatest) has an affirmative effect in the sense that students would memorize and recall them more than the other adjectives. In addition to that, the adjectives are boarding from physical attributes to important abstract ones such as (intelligent).

The negative adjectives associated with females are 3 (late, late, and bored) while the negative adjectives associated with males are 8 (Poor, lazy, improvident, coward, cold, heavy, odd, and wrong). The number of negative adjectives associated with males is higher than that of females with the difference of 5; however, in comparison to the total numbers of the adjectives associated with males and females, the number of the negative adjectives associated with females is actually higher in significance.

All in all, gender represented in adjectives is generally low, given that most adjectives are gender neutral or gender free. On the same token, females are clearly misrepresented in the sense that the number of positive adjectives associated with them is very few and unvaried in comparison to those of males, and the negative adjectives associated with them is higher than those of males. In other words, females are represented negatively in adjectives in contrast to males.

2. Proper Nouns:

There are 45 proper nouns (names) associated with females and 150 proper nouns associated with males. The overall number of proper nouns is 195; the number of

female proper nouns constitutes 22.3% of the overall number, while male proper nouns make up the rest 77.7%.

Furthermore, the number of female NC proper nouns is 16 out of 45 (37.20%) while the number of female target culture(s) is 27 out of 50 (62.8%). However, the number of male NC proper nouns is 76 while the number of male target culture(s) proper nouns is 116. The numbers show a great imbalance in the distribution of names, characters and gender representation.

On the one hand, the remarkable difference between the number of female proper nouns and male proper nouns show a noticeable underrepresentation for females. On the same line of thought, the NC's proper nouns are way less than TC's proper names which would be considered as an indication of the over-presence of the target culture(s) at the expense of the native one. Furthermore, the proper nouns used for females are all generic except for two names of famous people: Marie Curie, Ruth Benedict (page 126).

On the other hand, the big number of male proper nouns indicate the clearly overrepresentation of males. However, the NC's proper nouns of males would also indicate the over-presence of the TC at the expense of the native one. On the same token, most of the male proper nouns unlike the female ones are famous people (characters, writers, scientists...etc) for example: Hackberry Thin, Mark Twain, Oliver Twist, Charles Dickens, Lewis Carroll, Aladdin, Alibaba..Etc. The uses of famous people's names have been proved to motivate and inspire people (Hashemi, 2017).

Section Three : Gender Visibility

1. Illustrations:

The overall number of illustrations is 96; the number of illustrations is considered sufficient to provide visual content for the textbook.

The number of illustrations that are female oriented or represent females is 15 distributed throughout the textbook as follows CHECK TABLE N. The first female oriented illustration is found in the cover of the textbook (see figure) which is considered a representative thing since the cover of the textbook is the facade and the first thing one is able to see in the textbook. The illustration includes both genders, the female in the illustration looks like a student in the lab, looking through lab equipment. The illustration is very well chosen since it represents females in the scientific context unlike old illustrations in the previous textbooks which depicted females as housewives doing house shores.

Other illustrations as well have represented females in job positions such as the example below:

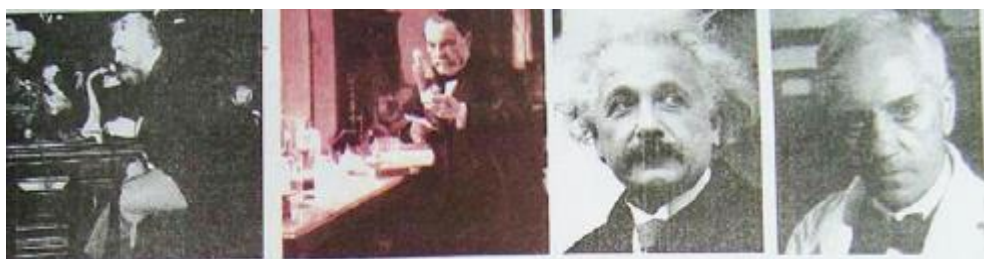
Figure 9

Female Oriented Illustration



Figure 10

Male Oriented Illustration



The illustration above from page 113 depicts four famous scientists in the fourth unit which is titled eureka. This is one among numerous illustrations that depict males in higher academic and scientific positions.

It is clearly shown by the number of the illustrations of each gender that females are underrepresented in comparison to males; however, the quality of the presentation of females plays a compensatory role to the lack of quantity. The illustrations found in the first year textbook '*At the Crossroads*' are well representative to both genders and would definitely have positive influence on both males and females since they hold many aspirations and influencing characters for them.

Section four: Gender Over-Under Representation

When it comes to representation, we have three main directions; adequate and sufficient representation, under representation and over representation. The latter can be about any and every thing. However, when it comes to teaching materials such as in textbooks, we often focus on just one aspect whether linguistic such as adjectives or structural such as visual illustrations.

The choice of representation in the present analysis is a mixture of both the occupation and the nature of the occupation itself since the study focuses not only on 'words' of occupations but also their nature and how they are portrayed in illustrations and pictures throughout the textbook.

Most of them are mentioned in texts while very few are portrayed through illustrations. The overall number of occupations in the textbook is 40. Only seven of them are female oriented 17.5 %, the rest are male oriented with a percentage of 82.5 %. This big differences in numbers shows the variance in representation between males and females when it comes to occupations. Furthermore, the imbalance is not just noted in numbers but also in the type and variation of the occupations themselves. On the same

line of thought, male oriented occupations are varied, for instance we have teachers, doctors, writers, scientists... In other words, we have educational based careers and free-personal businesses and freelancing. Nonetheless, this is not true for female oriented occupations in which we have only seven and two of them are being a housewife, which is considered by many people as a status and not a job since it lacks the breaks of the very definition of a job like salary and self fulfillment.

4.2.2.3 Data Interpretation

Male and female characters do not occupy an equal number of illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, occupations and adjectives. The results are clearly displayed in the table below:

Table 7

The Interpretation of the Crossroads' Analysis

Element	Male	Female
Reading texts	10	7
Dialogues	8	5
Proper nouns	150	45
	Positive: 8	Positive: 5
Adjectives	Negative: 5	Negative: 2
Illustrations	41	16
Occupations	43	7

Through the table 8, the answer of the first question in the study which is as follows:

Q1: Do male and female characters occupy an equal number of illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives and occupations in the Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks?

- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of illustrations. Males outnumbered females in illustrations whether in terms of quantity with a difference of 35 illustrations. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of reading texts. Males outnumbered females with a difference of two reading texts.
- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of dialogues, males outnumbered females with a difference of three dialogues.
- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of proper nouns, males outnumbered females with a difference of 105 proper noun.
- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of adjectives, males outnumbered females with a difference of six adjectives.
- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of occupations, males outnumbered females with a difference of 36 occupations.

Gender roles and stereotypes in illustrations:

Q2: To what extent are gender roles and gender stereotypes reflected in illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, adjectives and occupations in intermediate textbooks?

The majority of the illustrations are free of stereotypes or biased gender. However, there are few that depict women as housewives, doing chores and being outnumbered by males in domains, in addition to giving females soft jobs such as a secretary. In page 61 and 63 males are depicted as athletes doing all kinds of sports through six illustrations

while only one illustration is attributed to females practicing handball. On the same line of thought, the illustration in page 76 depicts the female as a secretary which is considered as a gender stereotype of women being the helping hand instead of the responsible one. Women now are found in all life domains and work all types of jobs. Female students need more role models and more job representations to choose from because the problem is not in being a secretary, the problem lies in being the only female job depicted in the whole textbook except two pictures where women are doing house chores in pages 110 and 121 while men in the same unit are depicted as scientists and inventors.

On the same token, the reading texts also contain very few gender stereotypes for example in page 32, the girl who is writing an email to her friend describes her family as an engineer father and housewife mother. Also, in page 40, the topic between the two females in the text is about a cooking recipe. Nonetheless, even males are represented in a stereotypical way in the reading text on the page 53 which depicts men as violent. Dialogues are free from any gender roles or gender stereotypes. However, adjectives, given their nature depict females as soft and crying which is the very infamous stereotype about the nature of the female; while they depict males both physical and abstract levels. Following that, females are relay underrepresented and not visible throughout occupations in the textbook. They are mostly depicted as a housewife, journalist, secretary, and writer while males are depicted as having all types of jobs from the very physical in their nature to the title of inventor.

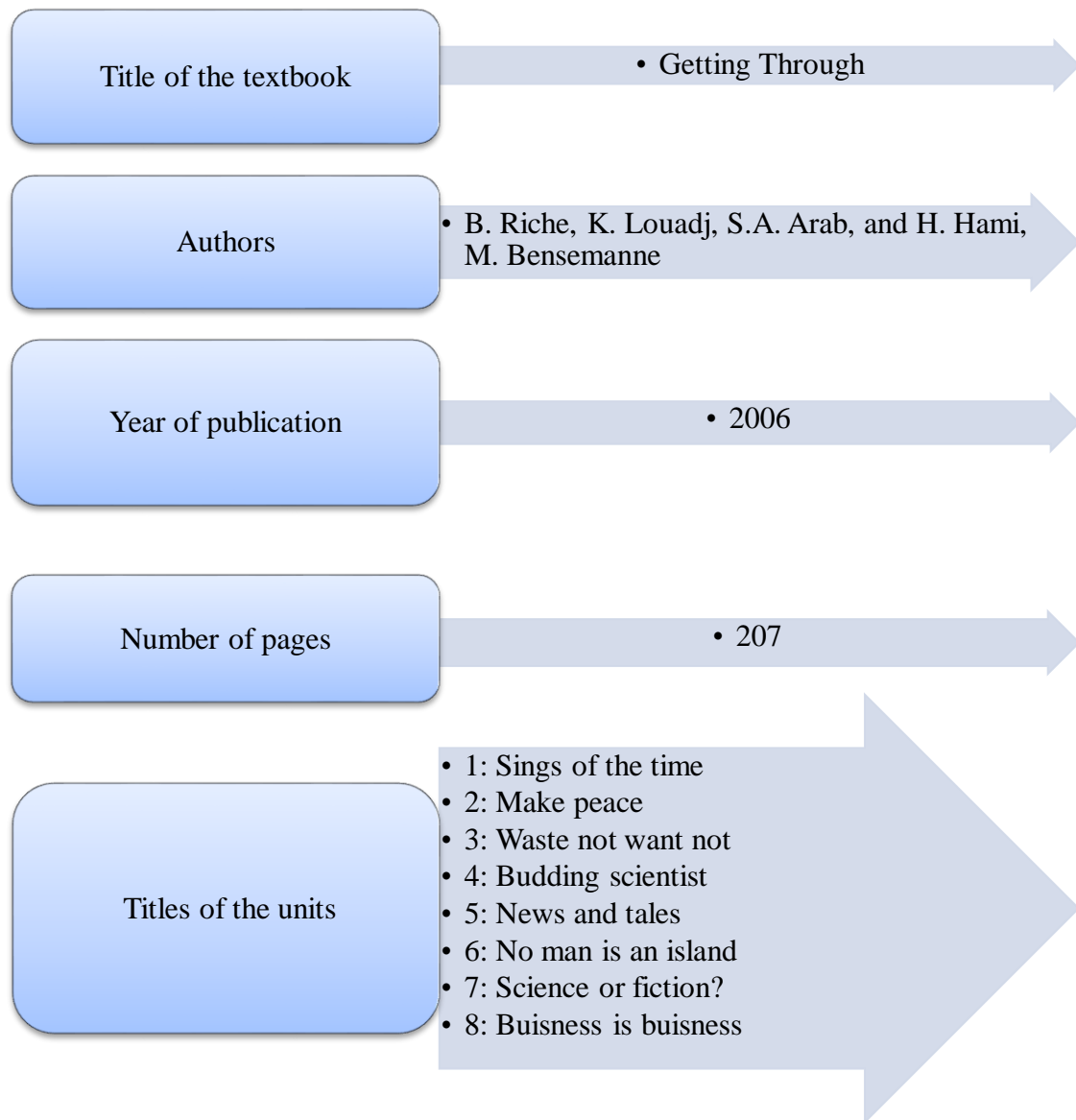
4.2.3 Second Year Textbook: Getting Through

4.2.2.1 Data collection

The second textbook to be analyzed is the second year secondary school textbook which is titled Getting through.

Figure 11

Getting Through identification Card



4.2.2.2 Data analysis

The textbook ‘*Getting Through*’ consists of 207 pages and is made up of eight units which are organized on a topical (thematic) basis. The first page in each unit includes an illustration which demonstrates the main theme of the unit, and a list of words with their alphabetic transcription that students will come across in the different stages of the units. The way units are introduced invites learners to speculate

the content they will be exposed to. Moreover, each unit is divided into three main sections: think it over, discovering language and developing skills. Furthermore, the first section is further divided into other subsections: grammar in context, say it loud and clear, and working with words. While the second section is subdivided into: developing skills which is also subdivided into: listening and speaking, reading and writing, putting things together, where do we stand now, and exploring matters further. Each section has its objectives explicitly stated in the (book map) at the beginning of the book and at the beginning of each file (unit).

After the structure based and content based quantitative analysis of the second year secondary school took place, the researcher came to the following analysis:

- ✓ Textbook authors: ‘Getting Through’ is written and designed by five authors, B. RICHE, S.A. ARAB, H. HAMI, K. LOUADJ and M. Bensemane. The same authors who designed ‘at the crossroads except for M. Bensemane. The gender of the authors is not mentioned in the textbook, neither titles were used nor names were mentioned. Furthermore, second year secondary school textbook presented the designer: Ch Azouazi, the illustrator: T. Beghdad and the graphic editor: Y. Kaci Ouali. The gender of the authors and designers is not known.
- ✓ Cover pictures: the cover picture includes one picture which is the map of Algeria. The illustration is considered gender free and it represents students’ NC.
- ✓ Titles of units: the titles of the units are plain, simple and gender neutral. They are titled as follows:
 - signs of the time,
 - make peace,

- waste not want not,
- news and tales,
- no man is an island,
- science or fiction,
- Business is business.

The titles of the units are composed either from one word or a simple phrase which meaning indicates the theme of the unit. All titles are gender free except for the use of the generic male 'man' in the title of the sixth unit. The word man does not refer to males; it rather refers to the humankind. The use of generic nouns and pronouns is considered as exclusive nowadays and authors are using more inclusive and gender free language.

- ✓ The date of the textbook publication: the second year secondary school textbook was first published in 2006. The date of publication is considered relatively old; it has been used for 16 years which is almost the same as first year's textbook.

Table 8

Getting Through's Checklist

Type	N	Pages' Number
Reading texts	44	page 16, page 18, page 19, page 21, page 32, page 33, page 34, page 38, page 48, page 54, page 60, page 69, page 74, page 75, page 76, page 77, page 80, page 90, page 95, page 96, page 97, page 100, page 104, page 109, page 110, page 114, page 115, page 116, page 120, page 129, page 134, page 136, page 139, page 149, page 155, page 156, page 170, page 176, page 178, page 181, page 183. Female oriented reading texts: 1 page 32, 1 page 104, 2 page 114, 1 page 170 Male oriented reading texts: page 14:1 page 16, 1 page 33, 1 page 48, 1 page 54, 1 page 96, 1 page 97, 1 page 110, 2 page 114, 1 page 115, 1 page 116m, 1 page 134, 1 page 149, 1 page 155, 1 page 156
Created reading tex	21	page 16, page 18, page 19, page 21, page 38, page 48, page 60, page 69, page 80, page 90, page 100, page 104, page 109, page 110, page 120, page 129, page 139, page 149, page 170, page 181, page 183.

Authentic reading text	22	page 32, page 33, page 34, page 54, page 74, page 75, page 76, page 77, page 95, page 96, page 97, page 114, page 115, page 116, page 134, page 136, page 155, page 156, page 176, and page 178.
Dialogues	7	1 page 24, 1 page 44, 1 page 122, 1 page 180, 1 page 181, 1 page 184, 1 page 185. Female oriented dialogues: 1 page 44, 1page 180, 1page 181, Male oriented dialogues: 1 page 122, 1page 181, 1page 184, 1page 185.
Adjectives associated with males	25	Positive adjectives associated with males: page 48, page 55. Negative adjectives associated with males: page 45, page 48, page 57, page 55
Adjectives associated with female	12	Positive adjectives associated with females: page. 40, page 104 Negative adjectives associated with females: page 19, page 40, 2 in page 44, page 45,2 in page 46, 2 in page 104, page 105,
Female Proper nouns	13	Native culture names: Samira and Nassima, page 18, Zohra page 19, Leila and Maya page 44, Maya page 86, Zohra page 105, Saida and Karima page 110 Target culture(s) names : Sandra page 32, , Maria Carry page 53, Julia Stein page 57
Male proper nouns	41	Native culture names: Hassan, Mouloud, and Karim page 19, Ahmed page 20, , El Baradei page 42, Karim page 45, Farid page 105, Karim page 110, Moufdi Zakaria page 112, Rafik page 129, Ali and Said page 185 Target culture(s) names Joseph, William and Graham page 33, Hitler and Mussolini page 38, Abraham Lincoln and martin Luther page 48, dalai lama, Yasser Arafat, nelson Mandela page 51, Ralph Waldo page 55, Emerson, Henry, Waldo, Thoreau, and mark twain page 57, Jamal page 86, Robert Recorde page 95, Al Khwarizmi, caliph Ma'mun, al Battani, Ptolemy, Jabir, Rhazes, and Alhazen page 96, Archimedes page 97, , Clancy page 184, Mr. lee page 186.
Illustrations	92	Number of gender neutral illustrations : Cover picture, : 1page15n, , 1 page 22n, 1 page 24n, 1 page 143n, 1 page 144n, 1 page 156n, 1 page 157n, 1 page 159n, , 1 page 35n, , 7 page 59n, 1 page 60n, , 1 page 66n, , 1 page 69n, 2 page 69n, 1 page 72n, 1 page 74n, 2 page 75n, 2 page 77n, , 1 page 80n, 1 page 93n, 5 page 99n, 1 page 100n, 1 page 103n, 2 page 106n, 1 page 109n, , 1 page 117n, 2 page 119n, Number of illustrations associated with females: The number of illustrations that are female oriented or represent females is 15 distributed throughout the textbook as follows1 page 146f, 1 page 160f, 1 page 170f. , 1 page 44f, , 1 page 53f, 1 page 129f Number of illustrations associated with males: The number of illustrations that are male oriented or represent males is 41 distributed throughout the textbook as follows: , 2 page 30m, , 1 page 35n, 9 page 37n+m, 1 page 153m, 2 page 155n+m, , 6 page 16m, , 9 page 37n+m, 1 page 38m, 1 page 48m, , 2 page 55m, 1 page 63m, , 4 page 76n+m, 2 page 79m, 4 page 86m, 1 page 112m, 1 page 122m, 1 page 126m, , 4 page 138n+m,

Occupations	29	<p>Female oriented occupations: Mother cooks p18, singer p53,</p> <p>Male oriented occupation: 1 page 16 farmer, factory worker, jogs page 18, docker page 19, mayor + public officer page 28, landscape painter and hairdresser + dentist page 33, Nobel winner page 42, leader page 48, construction builder page 55, dam worker page 63, machine gunner and soldier page 57, writer and physician page 95, mathematician, astronomer, alchemist and physicist page 96, mathematician page 97, motorist page 109, Poet laureate page 112, shepherd, trader, sailor, page 114, chairman page 134.</p>
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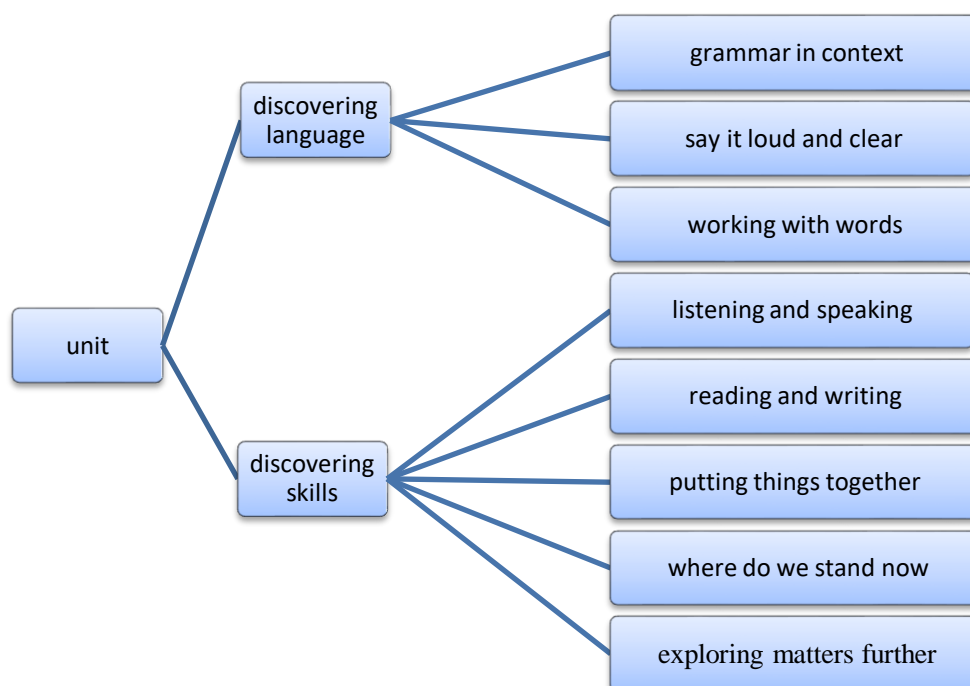
Section One: Structure and Authenticity of the Textbook

1. Objectives:

The present textbook approaches objectives in what the designers called '*The Book Map*' from page eight to 13 in which they lay out the aims and objectives for both teachers and students. In addition to that, it represents the two sequences, which are: discovering language and developing skills. The first one is also divided into five main sub-sequences which are: grammar in context, say it loud and clear, working with words. While the other sequence is also subdivided into five main skills: listening and speaking, reading and writing, putting things together, where do we stand now, exploring matters further. The teacher knows through these introductory objectives what is expected from him/her and how each sequence relates to the other one.

Figure 12

Division of Sequences and Sub-Sequences in 'Getting Through'



2. Variation of Reading Texts

The overall number of reading texts: there are 42 overall reading texts in the 'At the Crossroads' textbook. The number is reasonable when compared to the number of pages which is 207 and units which is five. The number of female oriented texts is and the number of male oriented texts is (see table 9).

Like the first textbook, reading texts in 'Getting Through' textbook are also considered varied. There are many new themes such as: lifestyles in unit one, peace and conflict resolution in unit two, disasters and solidarity in unit six, management and efficiency in unit eight. Furthermore, there are also themes which are rooted in first year textbook 'At the crossroads' and they are as follows: science and experiments in unit four, literature and the media in unit five, and technology and the arts in unit seven.

This variation in themes is very motivating to students; however, the topics are a bit old since the publishing date of the textbook goes back to more than ten years ago. The topics and reading texts need to be updated in terms of time because units like science or fiction have very ancient information that are now updated and changed by the scientific community. For example, we no longer use CDs, we now use flash drives, we no longer use home computers, we replaced them with PCs.

3. Authenticity of the reading texts

Some reading texts are created materials and other ones are authentic pieces of texts (extracts from a newspaper, book, and an article), (see table 9), 24 out of 44 reading texts are gender free and neutral. In other words, they revolve around topics that are inanimate and have no gender orientation or gender based topics. This point is very important because half of the reading texts are consciously made to be gender free which is a sign of relative gender awareness and a focus on the content rather than on roles and gender based divisions.

On the same line of thought, there are 21 created reading texts distributed throughout the textbook see table while there are 22 authentic pieces of texts

There are almost an equal number of created and authentic reading texts throughout this textbook with a difference of one authentic reading text. This shows that textbook designers attempted to include original content and made up texts as well. It is worth noticing that almost all created reading texts belong to the first sequence in all units which is titled grammar in context, while the authentic reading texts belong to the second sequence dealing with skills, mainly the reading and comprehension skill. As an illustration, there is the first reading text in the textbook on page 16 which belongs to the first sequence ‘discovering language’ and the first subsequence ‘*Grammar in Context*’, the text is an exercise about the present simple

tense. Although the text focuses on grammar points, it falls under the theme of the first unit signs of time and deals with people's different lifestyles when it comes to jobs, hence using verbs in the present simple tense. On the other hand, the reading text on page 32 is considered as an authentic piece of text which is extracted from the internet. The text belongs to the second sequence '*Developing Skills*' mainly, the last skill titled '*Exploring Matters further*'. In addition to that, the text also relates to the theme of the first unit which shows through its title '*Traditional Manners and Changing Manners*'.

This mixture of created and authentic reading texts gives the student a sense of all cultures, especially the target culture and the native one. Oftentimes, the created texts use the NC aspects whether in proper nouns or topics. However, the authentic texts focus on other cultures mainly the English ones and this is natural since they are authentic and written in English.

The texts are appropriate in terms of their length, since they are not too short so students lose interest or too long so students would lose their motivation to finish reading them. Furthermore, the texts are considered as age appropriate based on their themes and topics. Both authentic and created pieces of texts throughout the textbook are varied, interesting and theme-related to their respective units. There are almost equal numbers of authentic and created texts with a difference of 1%, which is considered in the normal range of authenticity.

4. Relativity of the Reading Texts

The fourth question in the first section of the checklist is also about the topics and themes of the textbook and whether or not they are up-to-date. To consider something updated it has to belong to the last decade from which it is analyzed.

Since there are eight units, so there are eight main themes/topics, which are as follows: signs of time (lifestyles), make peace (peace and conflict resolution), waste not want not (world resources and sustainable development), budding scientist (science and experiments), no man is an island (disaster and solidarity), science or fiction (technology and the arts) and business is business (management and efficiency).

The themes are chosen to fit students' needs and be appropriate to their ages (17/18) and level of critical thinking. As it is the century of technology, choosing a theme about technology and communication is very crucial and necessary.

5. Dialogues

There are 07 dialogues in this textbook, they are considered insufficient in comparison to the number of pages of the textbook, reading material, and number of units. Dialogues are considered as reading materials yet they are most of the time used either as an example or an exercise. This makes them a very powerful tool through which students can either relate or not. Female oriented dialogues and Male oriented dialogues see table n 08 and one is gender neutral.

The insufficient number of the dialogue can be attributed to the aims and objectives of the textbook and the upgrade of the level of students from first year secondary students with more than ten dialogues to fewer ones in their second year in secondary school.

The analysis of the first section of the checklist of the '*Getting Through*' textbook shows that it is structurally similar to the first year textbook '*At the Crossroads*' which is normal and expected. However, in this textbook there are three more units and more reading texts, especially authentic ones. In addition to that, this textbook is well grounded upon language skills unlike the first one. The aims and

objectives are clearly laid out, the topics are relatively old and need to be updated and the reading texts are sufficient in terms of number and quality but need a bit of modern touches to them.

Section Two: Gender and Language

1. Adjectives:

In this textbook, adjectives and attributes are neutral and do not belong or orient towards any gender in particular. On the same line of thought, there are a lot of generic words and pronouns. The reason might be that the textbook aims to make both genders think critically about every reading piece and exercise.

- Positive adjectives associated with females:

Strong (p. 40),

A girl who was loved (p. 104),

Throughout the whole textbook, we find only two direct adjectives that are female oriented in a positive way.

- Negative adjectives associated with females:

Crying p19,

I've hurt her feelings p40,

Crying: page 44,

Stupid: page 44,

She borrowed my bag without letting me know (stealing) page 45,

She hasn't said a kind word to me+ angry: page 46,

Red riding hood story: page 104,

She was shouting and knocking at her neighbour's door: page 104,

She wouldn't listen: page105,

- Positive adjectives associated with males:

Great leader: page 48,

Brave men who work while others sleep: illustration in page 55.

- Negative adjectives associated with males:

He shouldn't have read it (invasion of privacy) page 45

, slavery (illus) page 48,

Dictator: page 57,

Blind obedience: (illustration) page 55,

The overall number of adjectives associated with females is 11; whereas, the overall number of adjectives associated with males are 6. The number of positive adjectives associated with females is 2 while the number of the positive adjectives associated with males is also 2.

2. Proper Nouns:

There are 13 proper nouns (names) associated with females and 41 proper nouns associated with males see table 8. The overall number of proper nouns is 53. The undeniable difference in the number of the proper nouns of males and females is very clear in showcasing that females are not visible in texts, dialogues or even exercises as much as males. Furthermore, unlike females, males have a variety of names between scientists, athletes, philosophers, historical figures and laymen; whereas females have only local and NC names.

Section Three: Gender Visibility

1. Illustrations:

The overall number of illustrations is 92 distributed throughout the textbook as follows (COVER NEUTRAL ALGERIA's map): see table n 8.

The number of illustrations is considered sufficient to provide visual content for the textbook. The number of illustrations that are female oriented or represent females is

15 distributed throughout the textbook as follows, Number of illustrations associated with males: 15

Section Four: Gender Over-Under Representation

the number of Female oriented occupations is two while Male oriented occupations are 27, the occupations are varied between cognitive, physical and skill based such as : farmer, factory worker, dentist page 33, Nobel winner page 42, leader page 48, construction builder page 55, mathematician, astronomer, alchemist and physicist page 96, sailor, page 114, chairman page 134.

The occupations above clearly indicate the underrepresentation of females in the present textbook. It is very insufficient and unfair to limit female jobs, occupations and leisure activities in the whole textbook to just two slots and one of them is doing house chores and specifically cooking which is a very stereotypical gender role. While the males are represented in a variety of domains and jobs even literary ones such as poet laureate, scientific ones such as: Alchemist, mathematician and physicist. In addition to that, males are also represented in physical and non physical jobs such as a construction builder and writer; alongside stereotypical and non stereotypical careers such as soldier and tailor.

4.2.2.3 Data Interpretation

Male and female characters do not occupy an equal number of illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, occupations and adjectives. The results are clearly displayed in the table below:

Table 09

The Interpretation of 'Getting Through' Analysis

Element	Male	Female
Illustrations	15	15
Reading texts	14	4
Dialogues	5	3
Proper nouns	41	12
	Positive: 2	Positive: 2
Adjectives	Negative: 4	Negative: 9
Occupations	27	2

Through the table 9, the answer of the first question in the study which is as follows:

Q1: Do male and female characters occupy an equal number of illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives and occupations in the Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks?

- ✓ Males and females occupy an equal number of illustrations. Males and females have an equal number of gender oriented illustrations which is 15.
- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of reading texts. Males outnumbered females with a difference of ten reading texts.
- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of dialogues, males outnumbered females with a difference of two dialogues.
- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of proper nouns, males outnumbered females with a difference of 37 proper noun.
- ✓ Males and females occupy an equal number of positive adjectives.

- ✓ Males and females do not occupy an equal number of occupations.

Based on the above, the first hypothesis; H1: Male characters occupy more illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives and occupations than female characters in the textbook is confirmed

Gender roles and stereotypes in illustrations:

Q2: To what extent are gender roles and gender stereotypes reflected in illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, adjectives and occupations in intermediate textbooks?

Based on the above, the second hypothesis; H2: Gender roles and gender stereotypes are clearly reflected in illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, adjectives and occupations in the present textbook is rejected since there are stereotypes but they are very few and subtle in terms of quantity i.e. the number of their appearance and quality i.e. their nature.

4.3.3 Third Year Textbook: New Prospects

4.3.3.1 Data Collection

The third and last textbook to be analyzed is the third year secondary school textbook which is titled: '*New Prospects*'. The Ministry of Education introduced a new textbook alongside the framework of the General Educational Reform to replace the previous textbook of English for third year, Comet (2001). The competency-based Approach is the new paradigm the textbook is meant to implement.

Figure 12

New Prospects' Identification Card

Title of the textbook	• New Prospects
Authors	• B. Riche, H. Ameziane, K. Louadj, S.A. Arab, and H. Hami
Year of publication	• 2006
Number of pages	• 270
Titles of the units	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• 1: Exploring the Past• 2: Ill-Gotten Gains Never Prosper• 3: Schools: Different and Alike• 4: Safety First• 5: Are we alone?• 6: We are a Family

The front page of the textbook is characterized by a photograph representing what appear to be men and women of different occupations. We read the name of the country ‘*The people’s Democratic Republic of Algeria*’ and that of the Ministry of National Education in Arabic at the top of the page. The name of the textbook is right at the top of the photo written in 40 bold letters. ‘*Secondary Education, Year Three*’ is written at the very bottom in Arabic and English.

Figure 13

New Prospects' Cover Picture



The book map then follows and extends from pages 08 to 13 in which we find the summary of each teaching unit divided in terms of outcomes: language outcomes that include functions, grammar and vocabulary, and sound system; skills and strategies outcomes that include listening and speaking, reading and writing; learner's outcomes; intercultural outcomes; and finally project outcomes.

The six successive teaching units represent the body of *'New Prospects'* and they extend from page 14 to 195. Each unit, spreading over almost 30 pages, deals with a main theme around which all the teaching and learning activities revolve. Moreover, all of the six units share the same sections following the same pattern. At the end of the textbook, going from page 196 to 210, we find sections devoted to the listening scripts, grammar references, phonetic symbols, and irregular verbs. The Listening Scripts section that goes from page 196 to 210 is related to all the sections dealing with listening activities throughout the textbook, ordered according to their appearance in the units. Grammar References is another section that extends from page 210 to 235 and reviews the main grammatical points mentioned in the teaching units like prepositions, articles, quantifiers...etc. Phonetic Symbols is the following section in pages 236 and 237; finally, the section of Irregular Verbs that is located in pages 237 and 238. Resource Portfolio extends over three pages, from 239 to 270, is an appendix for authentic texts for further reading in relation to the themes covered in the units. The texts are extracts from different newspapers and magazines or adapted literary works. Finally, the textbook closes with the acknowledgment of the designers over the two last pages.

Table 10

New Prospects' Checklist

Type	N	Pages' Number
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Reading texts	55	<p>Page 18, Page 22, Page 37, Page 54, Page 66, Page 80, Page 83, Page 87, Page 98, Page 100, Page 114, Page 126, Page 143, Page 156, Page 157, Page 168, Page 174, Page 179, Page 186, Page 189, Page 196, Page 198, Page 202, Page 206, 2 Page 09, Page 240(five for each unit from 240 to 270, all neutral except for page 265, page 247, and page 254.</p> <p>Female oriented reading texts: 1 in page 179, 1 in page 189, 1 in page 202.</p> <p>Male oriented reading texts: 1 in page 37, 1 in page 66, 1 in page 126, 1 in page 189, 1 in page 240, 1 in page 265, 1 in page 247, 1 in page 254</p>
Created reading texts	5	1 page 18, 1 page 80, 1 page 87, 1 page 114, 1 page 126
Authentic reading texts	43	1 page 22, 1 page 37, 1 page 54, 1 page 66, 1 page 83, 1 page 98, 1 page 100, 1 page 143, 1 page 156, 1 page 157, 1 page 168, 1 page 174, 1 page 179, 1 page 186, 1 page 189, 1 page 198, 1 page 198, 1 page 202, 1 page 206, 1 page 209, 1 page 240, 1 page 241, 1 page 242, 1 page 243, 1 page 245, 1 page 246, 1 page 247, 1 page 248, 1 page 250, 1 page 251, 1 page 254, 1 page 255, 1 page 256, 1 page 257, 1 page 258, 1 page 259. 1 page 260. 1 page 261. 1 page 262. 1 page 262. 1 page 264. 1 page 265. 1 page 266. 1 page 267. 1 page 268. 1 page 269, 1 page 270.
Dialogues	13	<p>1 page 17n, 1page 112, 1 page 147, 1 page171, 1 page 179, 1 page 196, 1 page 199, 1 page 200, 1 page 201, 1 page 204, 1 page 205, 1 page 207, 1 page 208.</p> <p>Female oriented dialogues: 1 in page 112, 1 in page 171, 1 in page 205.</p> <p>Male oriented dialogues: 1 in page 112, 1 in page 171, 1 in page 179, 1 in page 196, 1 in page 199, 1 in page 200, 1 in page 201, 1 in page 205, 1 in page 207, 1 in page 208.</p>
Adjectives associated with males	11	<p>Positive adjectives associated with males: Page 28, 5 in page 170.</p> <p>Negative adjectives associated with males:2 in page 28, illustration page 30, illustration page 61, Page 112, Page 180</p>
Adjectives associated with female	6	<p>Positive adjectives associated with females: Page 179, 2 in page 202.</p> <p>Negative adjectives associated with females: Page 190, 2 in page 202</p>
Female Proper nouns	20	<p>Native culture names: Wahiba and sadia in page 89, Lamia page 171, Karima and Sabrina page 177</p> <p>Target culture(s) names : Emma, Peggy and Rebecca in page 91, Daisy page 112, Cindy page 123, Jenny page 124 and 125, , Diana page 179, Manya, Marie and Bronya page 202, Jenny page 205, Barbara and Cleopatra page 241, Robyn page 247, Jane page 254.</p>

<p style="text-align: center;">Male proper nouns</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">78</p>	<p>Native culture names: Tarik Ibn Ziad page 25, Said page 80, , Rachid page 176, Rachid, Karim and Ismael page 177, Sofiane page 171, Mohamed Birachid, Karim Bishi page 199</p> <p>Target culture(s) names: Christopher Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci page 20, , Jean François and Jack page 30, Ts'ai Lum page 34, Tutankhamen page 38, Polumous Ulysses and Trojan page 41, Ozymandias page 44, Giovanni Preston and Bill page 66, Edward, Stephan and Graham page 91, Jason page 112, James pages 124 , 125, Galileo, Tyco Brahe page 140, Yuri Gagarin and Neil Armstrong page 141, Ptolemy, Galileo, Johannes Kepler page 153, David Grinspoon page 156, Henry page 171, Charles, Harry and William page 179, Dodi Fayed page 180, Bertrand Russell page 186, James Thurber page 191, , Bob, George and Mark page 200, Harris and William page 201, Pierre Curie page 203, James page 205, Mr. Hanswa page 207, Ibn Badjaja, Ibn Rochd and Ibn Maymun page 240, Socrates page 241, Martian and Voltaire page 243, Wilco, Ram, Danny and Terry page 247, Obi and Okonkwo page 248, Mr. Gradgrind page 251, Lee Lacocca page 254, Orson Welles page 264, James page 265.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Illustrations</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">76</p>	<p>2 in page 14, 1 in page 15, 1 in page 22, 1 in page 27, 1 in page 30, 1 in page 32, 1 in page 35, 3 in page 36, 7 in page 41, 2 in page 45, 1 in page 46, 1 in page 53, 1 in page 59m, 1 in page 61m, 1 in page 65, 1 in page 70m, 1 in page 73, 2 in page 74, 5 in page 75, 1 in page 82m+f, 1 in page 90m, 1 in page 92f, 1 in page 93, 1 in page 105m, 2 in page 106, 1 in page 107, 1 in page 114, 1 in page 121, 1 in page 123, 1 in page 126m, 1 in page 129, 1 in page 134, 2 in page 135, 2 in page 136, 1 in page 141m, 1 in page 143, 1 in page 150m, 3 in page 151m, 1 in page 152, 1 in page 156, 1 in page 161m, 1 in page 164, 2p165, 1 in page 166, 1 in page 173, 1 in page 179, 1 in page 181, 4 in page 183 2, 2 in page 188, 1 in page 253.</p> <p>Number of illustrations associated with females: 1 in page 73, 1 in page 74, 3 in page 75, 1 in page 82, 1 in page 92, 1 in page 93, 1 in page 121, 1 in page 123, 1 in page 151, 2 in page 165, 1 in page 166, 1 in page 173, 1 in page 179, 2 in page 183.</p> <p>Number of illustrations associated with males: 1 in page 30, 1 in page 35, 3 in page 41, 1 in page 45, 1 in page 46, 1 in page 53, 1 in page 59, 1 in page 61, 1 in page 70, 1 in page 73, 1 in page 74, 2 in page 75, 1 in page 82, 1 in page 90, 1 in page 105, 1 in page 107, 1 in page 121, 1 in page 126, 1 in page 141, 1 in page 150, 3 in page 151, 1 in page 161, 1 in page 164, 2 in page 165, 1 in page 166, 2 in page 183, 1 in page 253.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Occupations</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">38</p>	<p>Female oriented occupations: Biologist, chemical engineer, and musician (in the illustration) page 75, inventor and scientist page 93, agony aunt page 172, princess page 179, teacher page 202, secretary page 254.</p> <p>Male oriented occupation: Egyptologist-historian page 28, inventor page 34, Pharaoh page 37, king page 44, businessman page 61, social audit page 66, welder and cook page 75, football player p126, astronomer p 140+p151, astronaut p141, mathematician, physician page 151, king page 179, policeman and psychiatrist page 190, radio interviewer and historian page 196, head of association page 199, headmaster, graphic artist, and actor page 201, professor page 202, doctor page 203, historian and philosopher page 243, vet page 251, page CEO page 254.</p>

4.3.3.2 Data Analysis

- ✓ Textbook authors: '*New Prospects*' is written and revisited by three authors, B. RICHE, S.A. ARAB, and M. Bensemane. The same authors who designed '*At the Crossroads*'. The gender of the authors is not mentioned in the textbook, neither titles were used nor names were mentioned.
- ✓ Cover pictures: the cover picture includes an illustration of two females and four males, some of whom are clearly students from their appearance in the lab and with laboratory equipments, others are clearly workers. They are all using different technology. The illustration includes both gender but the visibility of males is more apparent.
- ✓ Titles of units: the titles of the units are plain, simple and gender neutral. They are titled as follows:
 - Exploring the past,
 - Ill-Gotten gains never prosper,
 - Schools, different and alike,
 - Safety first,
 - Are we alone?,
 - We are a family.

The titles of the units are composed either from one word or a simple phrase which meaning indicates the theme of the unit; all titles are gender free.

- ✓ The date of the textbook publication: the third year secondary school textbook was first published in 2006. The date of publication is considered relatively old; it has been used for 16 years which is almost the same as first and second year's textbooks.

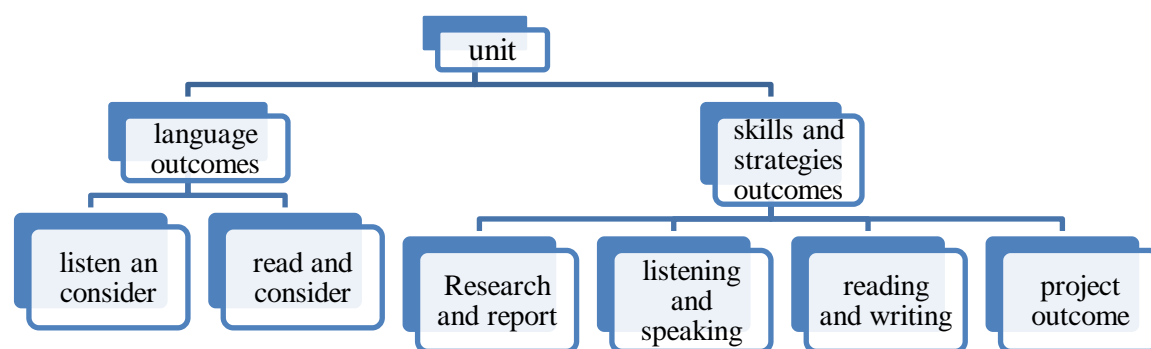
Section One: Structure and Authenticity of the textbook

1. Objectives:

The present textbook which is entitled ‘*New Prospects*’ is characterized by an opening message from the writers from page 3 to 7 in which they laid out the main objectives and orientations of the textbook. The focus is thematic, in other words, the theme of the unit is the criterion upon which all the reading texts, dialogues and exercises are directed. Following that, there is the book map from page 8 to 13 which is divided into three main sections: unit, topic and the language outcome. The language outcome is also divided into three main subsections: functions, grammar, and vocabulary and sound system. The latter is sectioned into two main parts: word building and pronunciation.

Figure 14

New Prospects’ distribution of objectives





The figure above illustrates the distribution of objective in the textbook ‘*New Prospects*’. There are two main categories of objectives which are language outcomes and skills and strategies outcomes, which mean that the present textbook aims to deal with both language and skills. The objectives are very similar to those of first and second year textbook except in some aspects such as ‘*Research and Report*’ which is new.

The objectives are varied and inclusive in the sense that they suit students' age, cognitive abilities and skill set.

2. Variation of the Reading Texts:

The overall number of reading texts is 55 distributed throughout the textbook see table 10; there are three female oriented reading texts distributed throughout the textbook. All three texts are authentic reading pieces; the first one is about Princess Diana and the text revolves around her life and how she died. The second text is a short story extracted from James Thurber's book *'Fables of our time'*. The third text is about the life of Marie curie and how she married her husband Pierre curie. All three texts are extracts from books and they all failed to focus on the female characters themselves, they rather shed light on the male ones in the stories. For instance, in the story of the princess Diana the spotlight was her ex husband prince Charles, in the second story the wife ends up in a mental institution and the third text revolves around the childhood and marriage of the famous scientist and inventor Marie curie rather than her inventions and discoveries, the text also mentions that she does not know how to cook and her husband does not mind because he is in the lab all day. There are 8 male oriented reading texts in the present textbook. All the male oriented texts are also authentic. The male representation in the reading texts is close to female ones with a difference of two reading texts.

Considering that there are both authentic and created reading texts in several themes we can say that there is an adequate variety of reading texts. There are six thematic units and each unit consists of at least two topics. They are presented as follows (page, 8-12):

Unit: exploring the past  theme: Ancient civilization  topic: Different civilizations, Algerian Heritage.

Unit: ill gotten gains never prosper → theme: ethics in business → topic: fighting corruption.

Unit: Schools: different and alike → theme: education in the world → topic: the different educational systems.

Unit: safety first → theme: advertising, consumers and safety → topic: advertisement and consumption.

Unit: it's a giant leap for mankind → theme: astronomy and the solar system → topic: astronomy and the solar system.

Unit: we are a family → theme: family → topic: family, humor and related topics.

3. Authenticity of the Reading Texts:

The present textbook consists of both authentic and created reading texts; there are five created reading texts which are distributed throughout the textbook. One of the created reading texts is written by the authors themselves, the text on page 114, titled: *'How is Your Balance?'* the text revolves around food and eating habits in addition to the importance of balancing our energy.

4. Relativity of the reading texts

Although most topics revolve have a scientific orientation but they are considered outdated due to the date of their publication. The majority of authentic texts are extracts from scientific magazines, journals and books which date way before 2006; in other words, they do not belong to the 21st century since for example: the reading text on page 262 which belongs to the last unit titled 'Are we alone?' is dated January 1993. The text revolves around space and satellites; it is titled 'the satellite era', in today's terms, the satellite is considered outdated because nowadays we have broadcast through the internet.

Other reading texts are old as well and need to be updated to meet students' interests and motivate them especially in the aspect of inventions because texts about civilization and history can stand the force of time but technology is changing everyday in a rapid rate.

5. Dialogues

There are 13 dialogues distributed throughout the textbook (see table 10). The number of dialogues is considered as suffice in terms of the goals and objectives set by the textbook author in addition to the students' level and linguistic needs. There are three female oriented dialogues distributed throughout the textbook. There are nine male oriented dialogues distributed throughout the textbook.

There are three dialogues that include both genders and two dialogues that are totally gender free and neutral. Females are visible in three out of 13 dialogues while males are visible in nine of them. Both genders share two dialogues which makes males more visible in dialogue with a difference of five dialogues

Section Two: Gender and Language:

1. Adjectives

The present textbook contains very few gender oriented adjectives and this shows that the textbook authors have sought to be inclusive of both genders through the use of gender free adjectives and attributes except for the few times that marked the use of gender oriented adjectives and they are distributed as follows:

- Positive adjectives associated with females:

Admired page: 179, bright and dependable: page 202.

- Negative adjectives associated with females:

Crazy page: 190, shy and frightened page: 202

- Positive adjectives associated with males:

Enjoyed great popularity page 28, greatest hero, intelligent, never shows off and always thinks about others page170.

- Negative adjectives associated with males:

Terribly wrong and lying to himself page 28, illustration page 30, illustration page 61, So cruel page112, crazy page180.

There are three positive adjectives associated to females whereas there are five positive adjectives associated with males. The number of positive adjectives associated with males and females is almost the same. However, there are two negative adjective associated with females whereas there are six negative adjective associated with males. The difference in number is noticeable which affects the type of visibility of males in adjectives.

2. Proper Nouns

There are 20 female proper nouns distributed throughout the textbook; there are 78 male proper nouns in the present textbook see table 10. There is a noticeable difference in the number of male and female proper nouns. Females are clearly not visible in texts and dialogues due to the shortage of their proper nouns; whereas males are undeniably visible given the number of their proper nouns. On the same line of thought, almost all female proper nouns belong to the NC and to normal characters unlike male proper nouns which belong to famous figures such as: Christopher Columbus, Amerigo Vespucci, Tarik Ibn Ziad, Jean François and so on. Furthermore, the names represent a variety of people from scientists to philosophers and kings, belonging both to the Arab world and western world. This is the opposite for females in which the names are common except for two: Diana and Cleopatra.

Section Two: Gender visibility

1. Illustrations:

There are 76 illustrations throughout this textbook; 18 of which are female oriented illustrations. However, there are 34 illustrations associated with males. This indicates that males are twice visible in illustrations as females. This difference is very measurable and it shows that males outnumbered females in an undeniable rate.

Section Four: Gender Over-Under representation

1. Occupations

There are nine female oriented occupations and 29 male oriented occupations distributed through the textbook. Based on this, there is a noticeable shortage and underrepresentation of female oriented occupations. Males have ten more occupations than females and they have a variety of jobs and careers and even titles such as prince, Pharaoh and king (see table 10). They also have physical and soft jobs such as welder and cook. They also differ in terms of field and specialty from literary based jobs such as philosopher and scientific based ones such as doctor and mathematician. This is not the same for females in which they were noticeably underrepresented and not visible and three out of nine occupations they have are very stereotypical such as teacher and secretary.

4.2.2.3 Data Interpretation

Male and female characters do not occupy an equal number of illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, occupations and adjectives. The results are clearly displayed in the table below:

Table 11

The Interpretation of 'New Prospect' Analysis

Element	Male	Female
Illustrations	34	18
Reading texts	8	3
Dialogues	9	3
Proper nouns	78	20
Adjectives	Positive: 5	Positive: 3
	Negative: 6	Negative: 3
Occupations	29	9

Through the table above, the answer of the first question in the study which is as follows:

Q1: Do male and female characters occupy an equal number of illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives and occupations in the Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks?

- ✓ Males and females do occupy an equal number of illustrations. Males outnumbered females in reading texts, dialogues, adjectives, proper nouns, illustrations and occupations.

Based on the above, the first hypothesis; H1: Male characters occupy more illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, proper nouns, adjectives and occupations than female characters in the textbook is confirmed.

Gender roles and stereotypes in illustrations:

Q2: To what extent are gender roles and gender stereotypes reflected in illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, adjectives and occupations in intermediate textbooks?

Based on the above, the second hypothesis; H2: Gender roles and gender stereotypes are clearly reflected in illustrations, reading texts, dialogues, adjectives and occupations in the present textbook is accepted.

4.3 Discussion of the Findings

4.3.1. Structure and authenticity

Objectives:

Table 12

Textbooks' Analysis and Interpretation of Objectives

Name of the textbook	General Objectives	For Teachers	For Students
At the Crossroads	skills functions language forms phonology project	explain units Naming sequences Explain each sequence Note for the teacher “‘ <i>At the Crossroads</i> ’ is <i>Taught From</i> ’ rather than ‘ <i>Taught</i> ’. This makes the teacher’s role as a facilitator and guide all the more significant” (p. 9)	From page 10 to 11: Authors explain units and sequences then further explain the rubrics of each sequence for ex: sequence 1: anticipate, listen and check, say it clear and it is your turn.
Getting Through	Book Map from page 8 to 13	From page 6 to 7. The authors explain the layout of the textbook; explain the activities and how to use the portfolio. They also explain the reading texts in relation to themes and units and how the teacher can use them. They also allocate time needed to finish each unit. Finally they explain the stages of the units in detail.	From page 4 to 5 The authors explain units and stages of each unit for ex: “in each unit you will go through five different stages. These are called: discovering language, developing skills, putting things together, where do we go from here and exploring matters further” (p.4)

New Prospects	<p>Forward: for both teachers and students from page 4 to seven in which the author illustrates that the textbook is designed based on three main objectives: to be thematic, for the baccalaureate, and to suit students' level and interest from all streams.</p> <p>Book map: from page 8 to 13 in which authors introduced units, themes, topics and sequences.</p>
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From the table above we conclude that all three textbooks have the same layout and structure when it comes to the objectives. They all have three main categories: list of content, foreword, and the book map; however, their arrangement differs from one textbook to another.

For the first year secondary school textbook '*At the Crossroads*' we have: contents, book map then foreword (To the teachers and to the students). In the book map we have the layout of the textbook in terms of content: units, skills, functions, language forms and phonology attached to the project section, each unit is divided to sequences and each sequence has its own skills, functions, language form and phonology. Each unit ends with a project bearing the same theme. There are five units and four sequences.

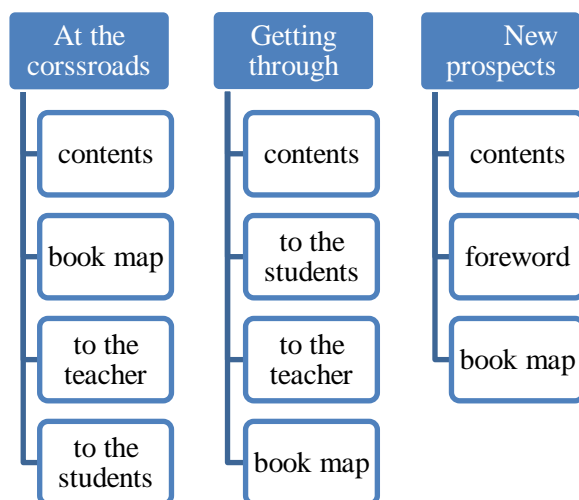
For the second year textbook '*Getting Through*', we have the contents, foreword (to the students and to the teacher) then the book map. The foreword to students and to the teacher is presented in the form of an email in which the sequences are explained to students and further explained to teachers. Then we have the book map which is divided into the unit, the topic, discovering language and discovering skills; the latter are further divided. Thus, we have six units, six themes, two sequences and six subsequences in addition to a project at the end of each unit.

For the third year secondary school we have the contents, foreword and the book map. The foreword comes in the form of a letter in which the textbook authors explain how the textbook should be used to both students and teachers at the same

time. The book map consists of unit, topic, language outcome skills and strategies outcomes, learners' outcomes, and intercultural outcomes, finally a project at the end of each unit.

Figure 15

Comparison of Objectives Layout in the Three Textbooks



Reading texts:

Table 13

Textbooks' Analysis and Interpretation of Reading Texts and Topics

Name of the textbook	Number of reading texts	Number of authentic texts	Number of created texts	Names of units
At the Crossroads	35	12	23	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Getting through • Once Upon a Time • Our Findings Show • Eureka • Back to Nature

Getting through	43	22	21	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Signs of Time • Make Peace • Waste Not, Want Not • Budding Scientist • News and Tales • No Man is an Island • Science or Fiction • Business is Business
New Prospects	55	45	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exploring the Past • Ill Gotten Gains never Prosper • Schools: Different and Alike • Safety First • Are We Alone? • We Are a Family!

The table above shows the difference in the total number of reading texts alongside the number of texts that are oriented to each gender. We notice that the number of reading texts grows expediently with the students' level. In the first year textbook we have 35 reading texts whereas in the second year textbook we have 43 and the third year textbook consists of 55 reading texts. The number of the overall reading texts also corresponds with the number of the textbook pages in which we have 175 in *'At the Crossroads'* and 207 in *'Getting Through'* while we have 276 in *'New Prospects'*.

On the same line of thought, male oriented reading texts also grew expediently with the level of the textbook. However, the number female oriented reading texts have decreased. Spender (1990) in his study of reading passages from a gender stance concluded that although females appeared in reading topics, males were in control in most topics; females were the followers while males were the topic leaders.

Dialogues:

In addition to counting the reading texts and explore which is male or female oriented, the researcher also recorded the number of dialogues and which is male and female oriented.

Table 14

Textbooks' Analysis and interpretation of Dialogues

The name of the textbook	Total number of dialogues	Female oriented dialogues	Male oriented dialogues
At the crossroads	13	5	8
Getting through	7	3	4
New prospects	13	3	9

As it is shown in the table above the overall number of dialogues does not exceed 13, this is due to including dialogues only in exercises and not as a reading material. Nonetheless, the number of male oriented dialogues is higher than the number of female oriented dialogues. On this basis, we can say that females are not as visible in dialogues as males.

It is worth noting that although the dialogues are mostly gender oriented but the turn taking in them is equally distributed and can be read by both male and female students. In addition to that, the textbooks authors attempted to make dialogues gender free which is shown in the use of (she or he, you and your partner, and student and classmate).

Notwithstanding the fact that dialogue analysis can effectively reveal the gender representation in EFL, only certain aspects of EFL textbooks in terms of dialogue use were analyzed by researchers. Johansson & Malmsjö (2009) investigated the worldwide used EFL textbooks' (Time, Wings, Happy and What's Up?) dialogues with respect to turn-taking, dialogue initiation, number of characters and number of words spoken. In some of the textbooks males are overrepresented, in others females are overrepresented. It is revealing to see that textbooks published earlier

demonstrated overrepresentation of males whereas more recently published textbooks demonstrated overrepresentation of females. In almost every reading passage, there is a main character. He/she controls the reading passage and guides the dialogue. Mineshima (2008) in the analysis of EFL textbooks published in Japan. In order to examine the visibility, the researcher analyzed the dialogues with respect to the allocation of speaking chances. Both males and females had an equal number of opportunities to communicate. It means students have an equal chance to practice speaking skills

On the same line of thought, dialogues in the three textbooks: at the crossroads, getting through and new prospects are dominated by males in terms of topic dominance, however, there is an equal turn taking and dialogue initiation. In other words, male and female students have the same turns taking and time allocation in addition to the number of words spoken but they differ in only the dominance of male topics over female topics.

Textbooks should portray authentic real life situations; however, this gender inequality hinders that. In reality, both males and females share the same recognition in many societies including the Arab region. Therefore, males and females should be given equal control of topics and dialogues in texts.

To sum up, males have outnumbered females. The focus in this aspect will be on who controls the texts, who initiates conversations and the number of speech turns. It is evident that the titles of the selected units in all stages are gender free. Textbook authors used gender free terminology when assigning titles for these units. It is worth noting that textbooks were assigned simple titles that can be linked to students' linguistic level. It can be observed that the authors used neutral titles rather than male/female centered titles. The researcher noticed that the authors used more

complex titles rather than simple ones progressively from the first to the last year secondary school textbook.

Based on the above, it is clear that the authors of all the series avoided, intentionally or unintentionally, the usage of any gender specific titles; and gender free dialogue turn taking and initiation they rather used broader terms. This, in turn, would have a positive impact on all learners and would avoid any presuppositions about certain units targeting a gender-specific audience.

Section Two: Gender and Language

1. Adjectives

After the examination of the selected textbooks, it was clear that the use of adjectives was limited and almost gender free except for the ones that we found. It is worth noting that, after thorough analysis, the researcher found very few words that can be referred to as generic masculine nouns. Rather, the authors of the textbooks used more neutral words which are suitable to fit both males and females.

Moreover, the adjectives ascribed to each gender are very few and most of the time used for grammatical purposes not the meaning of the content. In other words, the adjectives that are related to males and females in first year secondary school textbook belong to the lesson of comparatives and superlatives. In conclusion, the authors tried to use more positive traits rather than negative ones for both genders. This aspect is in congruence with Porreca (1984) who summarized that the numbers of adjectives given to males in the ESL textbooks surpass that for females. In summary, this is an indication of the authors' awareness of the importance of attributing positive traits to characters and avoiding any negative traits that may have a negative impact on learners.

2. Proper nouns

Table 15

Textbooks' Analysis and Interpretation of Proper Nouns

Textbook name	Total number of proper nouns	Male proper nouns		Female proper nouns	
		TC nouns	NC nouns	TC nouns	NC nouns
At the crossroad:	135	25	70	16	29
Getting through	53	13	28	7	5
New prospects	96	18	60	7	13

As it is shown in the table above male proper nouns outnumber female proper nouns in all three textbooks; the highest number of the overall proper nouns is found in first year textbook 'at the crossroads' and the lowest number belongs to second year textbook 'getting through'.

Section Three: Gender visibility

1. Illustrations:

According to the findings Males are the dominant character in illustrations at all levels; Eckert & MacConnell (2003) in their study concluded that illustrations are as important as words in any given textbook. Moreover, it was also stated that "... pictures have an impact beyond the surface they convey." (Lavender and Vanstone, 1991 p. 56) In other words, illustrations in terms of quantity, assignment, and content can play a significant educational tool (e.g. ice breaker, lesson planning, class discussion etc.). To design a gender balanced textbook, illustrations should be presented equally. It can be concluded from the results that there is a crucial need to evaluate all the EFL instructional materials offered to students and expose students to more gender balanced materials including illustrations.

It was observed that in every level the illustrations were different. Many studies have tackled the issue of gender representation in illustrations in textbooks (e.g. Ansary and Babaii 2003, Domnguez 2003, Holmqvist 2006). Their results correlate with the results of this aspect in this study. The author concluded that there was not a balanced representation of males and females in illustrations. According to Sadker and Klein (1991), the representation of gender fairness in teaching materials may widen the students' learning attitudes towards gender roles, may increase their motivation levels and may lead to a better social life.

Section Four: Gender over-under representation

Occupations:

It was noticed that males have shared both traditional occupations and non-traditional occupations. As for females, the occupations were mostly traditional and limited in quantity. The selected textbooks contain an unbalanced distribution of occupations between males and females. It was observed that males occupy more physical jobs rather than careers. Females, on the other hand, have traditional occupations such as teacher,, secretary, nurse, etc.

The difference in the number of occupations is an indication for unbalanced representation of gender in occupations. It is worth noting that the difference in the number of occupations lies in the types of jobs males do. That is, males are seen more in physically demanding jobs (e.g. logger, carpenter, painter, truck driver, factory workers, cleaners, welder, etc.). Females are seen occupying relatively less physically demanding jobs (e.g. cashier, customer service, receptionist, sales assistant, accountant, etc.).

Based on the above, it can be concluded that there is a biased representation. In reality, females are present in all walks of life (e.g. ministers, members of the

parliament, judges, lawyers, engineers, police-officers, doctors, taxi drivers, sellers, etc.). Hence, it is very surprising that textbook authors do not reflect reality in their work. This unequal gender representation is also an indication that there is a lack of consistency and systematic approach in implementing gender diversity in school textbooks. The results of this section correlate with those of Porreca (1984), Farooq (1999), Otlowski (2000), Ansary and Babaii (2003), Holmqvist (2006) and Hamdan (2008). They all concluded that males occupy more jobs than females by 70% in ESL/EFL textbooks.

Conclusion

Many studies as mentioned in the literature review concerning analyzing EFL/ESL textbooks revealed that the visibility of males and females in illustrations is one of the widely investigated categories in textbook evaluation studies. With every new encounter, students' first impressions can. If a gender does not appear as regularly as the other in illustrations, the embedded message could be that this gender is not important in real life. In reality, the balanced representation of males and females is the base of the society. Males and females share the same schools, practice the same leisure activities, and work together in different fields.

The stereotype of a dominating man in society is deeply entrenched in the views of people. Consequently, it is reflected in the textbooks. Regardless of culture, social and economic development and other aspects all textbooks slightly or more obviously exhibit male-centeredness. Nowadays women work in the public sphere and comprise the majority of the population; however, textbooks still provide the idea of male-centeredness in the society.

Chapter 5: The Questionnaire

Introduction

It is clear that there are a number of debates about the impact and influence of perception on any human behaviour and that any type of stereotype is a biased perception (Fung & Ma, 2000). One of the issues that have been the subject of debate is whether differences in the gender of students could possibly affect teachers' perceptions of their students and how their gender based perceptions are reflected in their classroom practices.

The present chapter revolves around the questionnaire as the second research tool in this study. It covers the pilot study which was used as an assessment technique to validate the reliability of the main questionnaire. In addition to that, each question is going to be quantified, analyzed and then interpreted.

5.1. The pilot Study

The pilot study has two aims. First, we wanted to determine the appropriateness of every single scale (n 12) items by using an item analysis. Second, we assessed the scale's validity using factor analysis.

5.1.1. Participants

Participants were 26 English language teachers who teach in Oum El Bouaghi, Algeria. The teachers consented to be part of the study and answer the questionnaire. Their age ranged between 29 to 47 years old ($M = 38$, $SD = 8.52$). Participants are first chosen from one secondary school (Ferhati Hmida, Oum el Bouaghi) and then by a snowball technique, which is a recruitment technique in which research participants are asked to assist researchers in identifying other potential subjects who are in the same domain or share the same main variable of the study.

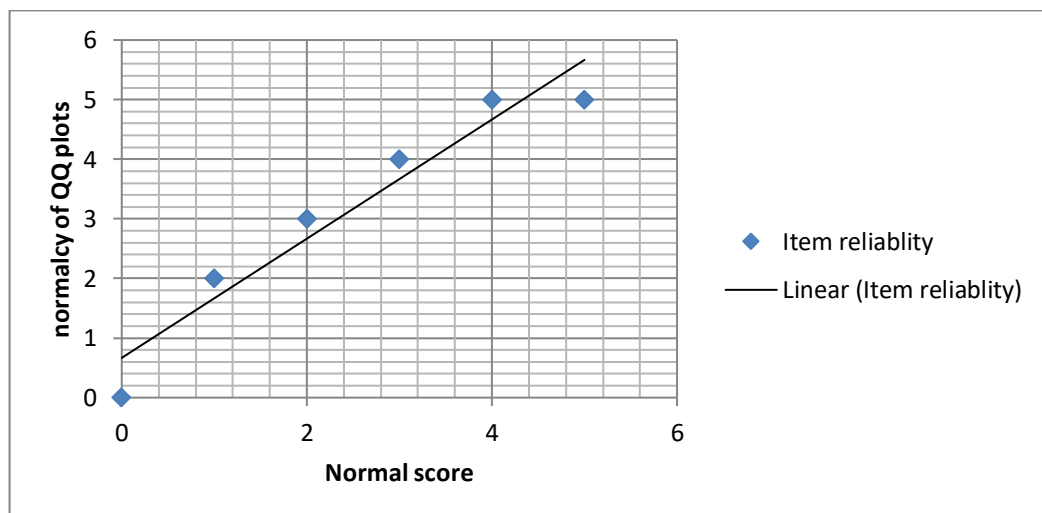
5.1.2. Item Scale Analysis

Item analysis is a preliminary examination of the scale items' quality. It entails charting each item against the concept that the scale is meant to reflect in order to discover any items that lack a positive monotonic trace or link (Microsoft word, 2017). The questionnaire consists of 23 questions, 12 of them are scale item questions. The item scale analysis aims to measure their appropriateness and reliability.

Computing the total score: compute total = sum (i1 to i12). Reliability of the pilot questionnaire was high (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.94$). Thus, no items needed to be deleted to improve reliability. Item-specific homogeneity was high and ranged from 0.66 to 0.72. Corrected item-total correlations ranged from 0.72 to 0.91, suggesting that each item represented the scale well. Moreover, item means ranged from 0.51 to 0.59.

Figure 16

Item Scale Analysis of the Questionnaire



5.1.3. Factor Analysis

For the aim of checking the one-dimensionality and confirm that all items in the questionnaire are suitable, factor analysis results indicated that values are >0.77

and moderate to high commonalities (0.50–0.80). According to a graphical plot analysis in the figure above, a one-factor solution was confirmed. There was a steep decline of explained variance from factor one (61%) to factor two (12%). Furthermore, the factor matrix showed a strong first factor suggesting all items to measure something similar.

The present questionnaire has been validated using the Cronbach's alpha using this equation:

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} \right) \left(\frac{1 - \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} \sigma_{\gamma i}^2}{\sigma_z^2} \right)$$

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{12}{12 - 1} \right) \left(\frac{1 - \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} 8,12_{\gamma i}^2}{8,12_{7,23}^2} \right)$$

$$\alpha = 0,89$$

\mathcal{K} Refers to the number of likert scale items which is 12

σ_{γ}^2 Refers to the variance associated with the item 8, 12

The result indicates that the present questionnaire has an acceptable level of internal consistency.

5.2. The Questionnaire

After conducting the pilot study and confirming the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, it was mailed to 300 participants, only 256 has responded and finished answering the questionnaire. The data reported are collected as part of a mixed method study, with the specific goal of exploring the effect of students' gender on EFL secondary school teachers' perceptions and classroom practices. The questionnaire is divided into four main parts:

- (i) The first one was designed to gather the demographic information of the sample; it is titled ‘Personal Background’. It consisted of the age, the gender and years of experience, and place of residence
- (ii) the second part was devoted to assessment of general knowledge about gender and gender based perceptions and stereotypes and it consisted of ten questions, it is titled ‘Assessment of Theoretical Background about Gender’,
- (iii) The third one was devoted to teachers’ attitudes and practices in the classroom based on students’ gender and it consisted of ten questions, it is titled ‘Gender in English as a Foreign Language Classes’. While the fourth and last part is about Teachers practices in the classroom in relation to gender, it is titled ‘Gender in EFL Secondary School Textbooks and the Classroom’. All in all, the entire questionnaire consists of twenty three questions of different types: (i) closed ended questions, (ii) open ended questions, (iii) option based questions and, (iiii) four point Likert scale.

5.2.1 Research’s Questions

The present study addresses the following questions:

Q1: What are Algerian secondary school EFL teachers’ perceptions about gender?

Q2: What are the Algerian EFL secondary school teachers’ perceptions towards gender representation in textbooks?

5.2.2. Research's Sample and Population

The questionnaire was sent to over 300 secondary school teachers all over the country, however only 256 have corresponded. 173 are female teachers and 83 are male teachers. It is worth noting however, that there is no information concerning the overall number of English secondary school teachers in Algeria in the ministry's website. The researcher attempted to contact teachers through collecting emails from inspectors of different states; some inspectors have cooperated while others did not respond.

5.3. Analysis of the Questionnaire

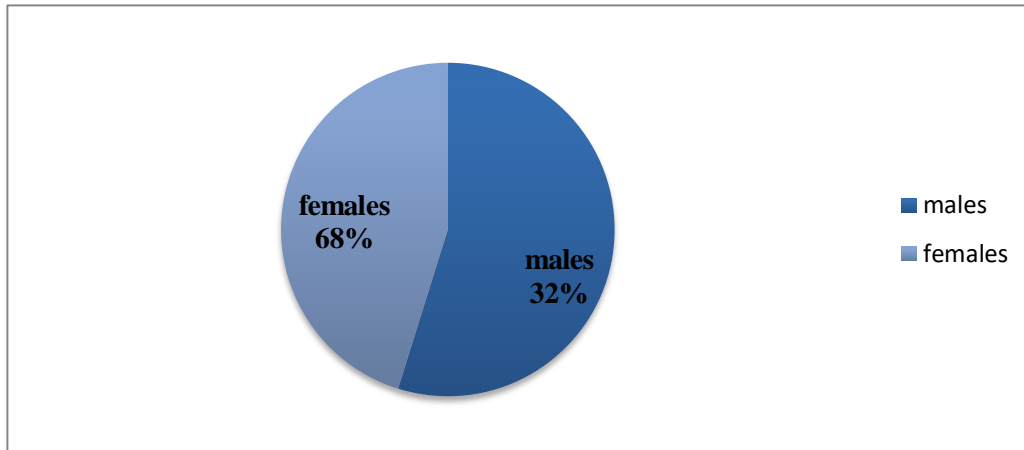
5.3.1. Section one: General Background of the Correspondents

Question 1: Teachers' Gender

The first question in the first section of the questionnaire which is titled '*General Background*' seeks to gather general information about teachers. Gender is the most important extended variable in this study; hence, it is the census upon which this whole study revolves around. As the figure above illustrates, there are 32 % male teachers (n 83) and 68 % teachers (n 173) which makes females the majority of the study population.

Figure 17

Teachers' Gender

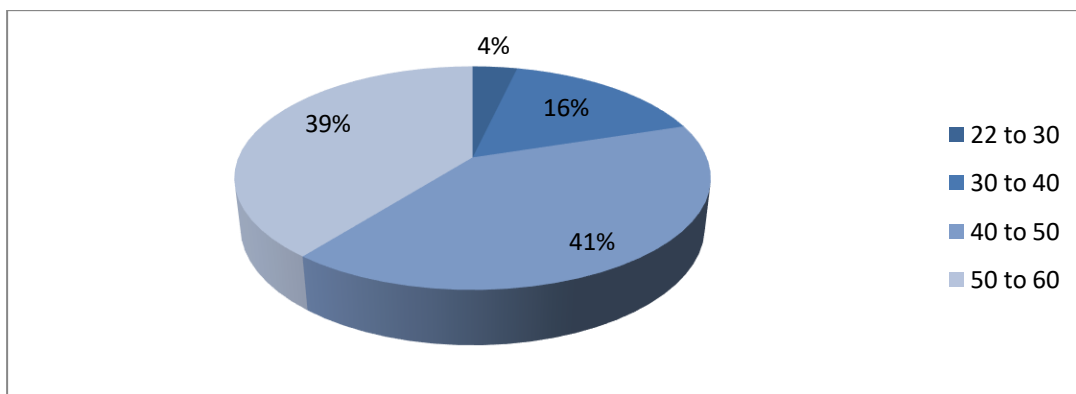


Question 2: Teachers' Age

The second question is about teachers' age and it aims to explore whether or not teachers' age may have a relationship with their perceptions about gender. The majority of teachers are aged between 40 and 50 with 41 % (n 101) while the second majority aged between 50 and 60 with 39 % (n 98). The rest of the teachers are 30 to 40 with a percentage of 16 (n 41) and only 4 % aged 22 to 30 (n 9). This indicates that the informants are considered as relatively middle aged.

Figure 18

Teachers' Age

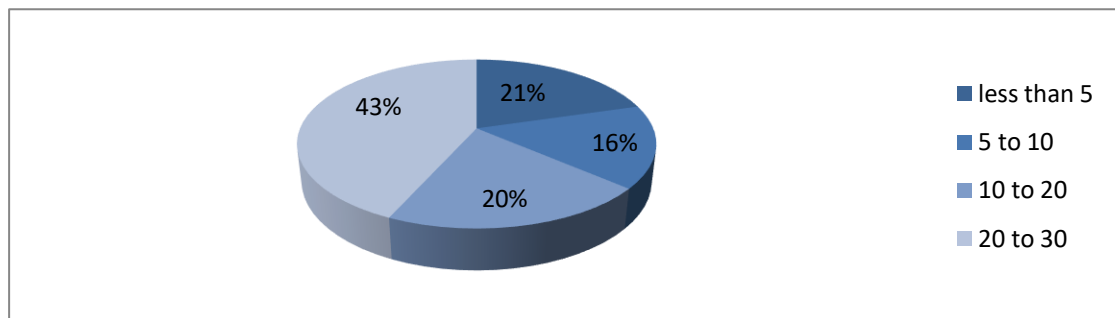


Question 3: Teachers' experience

The third question in the first section aims to explore teachers' years of experience which may have a relationship with their classroom practices and how they manage gender; the majority of teachers 43 percent have 20 to 30 years of experience only which correlate with the results of the previous questions about teachers' age. Teachers' experience of less than 5 years is the second majority are 21%. While those with the experience from 10 to 20 are 20% and those with the experience from 5 to 10 are 16 percent representing the minority. There are no teachers with 30+ years of experience in this study.

Figure 19

Teachers' Years of Experience



Question 4: Residence of Participants:

The fourth and last question in the first section of the questionnaire deals with teachers' place of residence. However, it is worth noting that all participants in this study have answered that the place of their residence is the same place in which they teach. Moreover, teachers from 43 out of 58 wilaya have corresponded to the questionnaire. They are distributed as follows:

Annaba 3, Batna 1, Algiers 2, Constantine 2, Msila 3, Relizane 3, Biskra 1, Jijel 2, Ouargla 1, Tebessa 3, Tiaret 1, Blida 1, bejaia 3, Skikda 2, Saida 1, Oran 1, Djelfa 1, Setif 1, Tipaza 1, Tizi Ouzou 1, Khenchela 4, El Oued 6, Mascara 1, Chelf 1, Sidi Bel

Abbes 2, Boumerdes 1, Laghouat 2, Adrar 1, Tlemcen, Bourj bou aririj 1, Mila 1, Mostaganem 1, Souk Ahras 2, El tarf 1, Tissemsilt 1, Medea 1, Guelma 1, Tindouf 1, oum el bouaghi 13, Ain defla 1, Ain temouchent 2.

43 states out of 56 are considered sufficient and representative since there is at least 7 states in each region: east, west, south, north and centre of Algeria. Furthermore, this distribution of participants allows for a diverse cultural background that could be an affecting factor in this study.

The first section of the questionnaire consists of the most important demographic information which is the teachers' gender. Female teachers are the dominant respondents, 68 % of the sample, in comparison to male teachers who take 32 %. The reason for that is the population itself, not the sample chosen, in which female teachers outnumber male teachers in the Algerian educational system (Education in Algeria, 2010).

5.3.2. Section two: Assessment of the Theoretical Background about Gender

Question 5: Definition of Gender

The question is: According to your belief about gender, do you perceive it as:

Biological concept

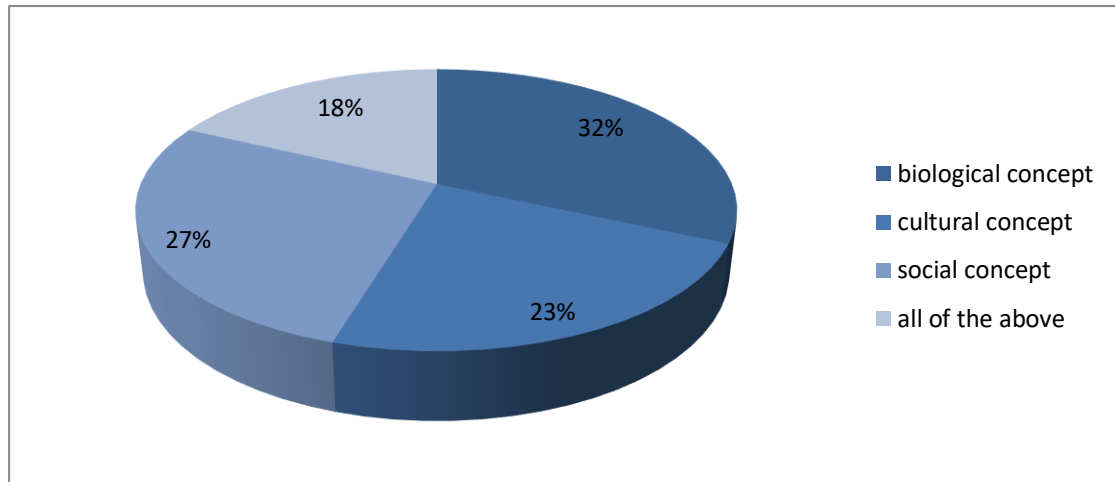
Social concept

Cultural concept

All of the above

Figure 20

Teachers' Definition of Gender

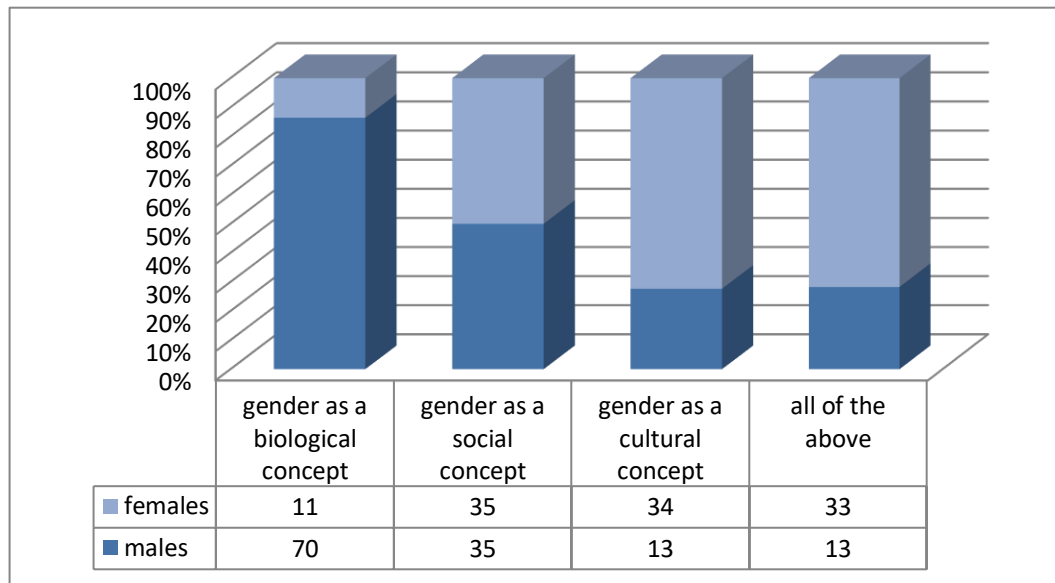


The figure above illustrates that the majority of teachers believe that gender is a biological concept 32% (n 81), then; the second majority of teachers believe that gender is social concept 28% (n 70) and cultural concept 23% (n 59). Only 17 % believe that gender is all of the aforementioned option (n 46), while 0% believes that it is none of the options (n 0).

The results indicate that the majority of teachers; 81 teachers out of 256 ones perceive gender as a biological concept which means that they think of it in terms of sex and physiology alone without referring to other importance factors such as society and culture. Out of this majority, 70 teachers are males and 11 are females.

Figure 21

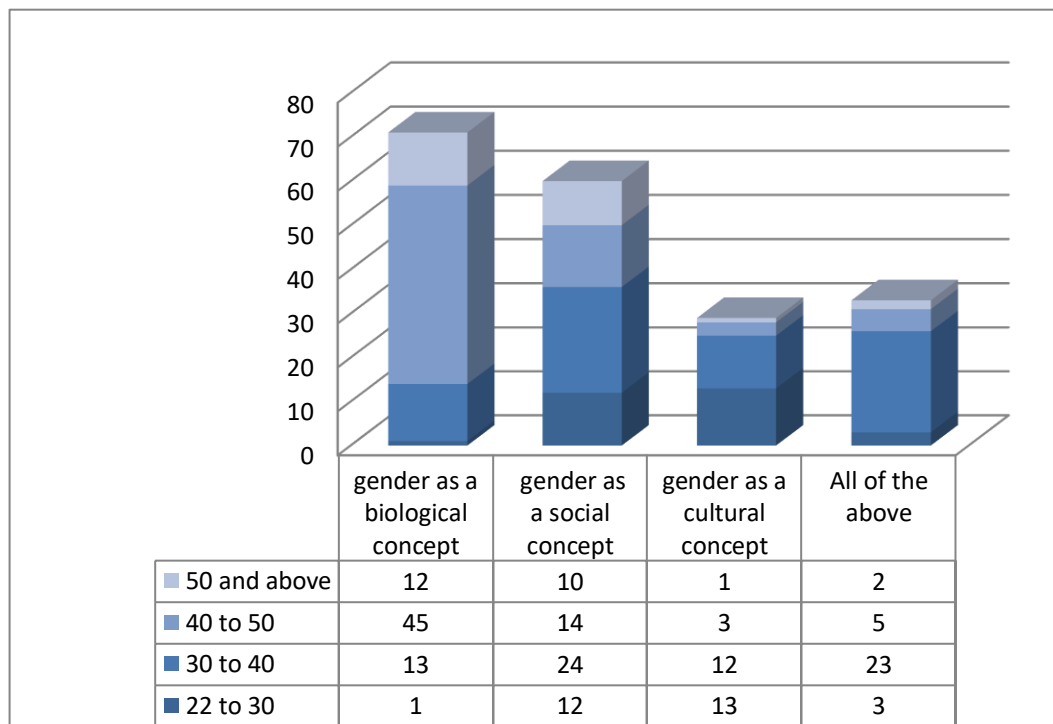
Teachers' Gender in Relation to Their Perception of the Definition of Gender



The figure above clearly shows that the majority of teachers who reported that gender is a biological concept are male teachers. While the majority of teachers who reported that gender is a cultural concept are female teachers. This may indicate that males tend to perceive gender in terms of biology and females tend to think of gender as cultural construct. This difference is attributed to the nature vs nurture debate regarding gender.

Figure 22

Teachers' Age in Relation to Their Perception of the Definition of Gender



The figure above indicate that teachers' age have an impact on their definition of gender; furthermore, the majority of teachers aged from (40 to 50) reported that gender is a biological concept, while, the rest of teachers who belong to this category reported that gender is socio-cultural concept.

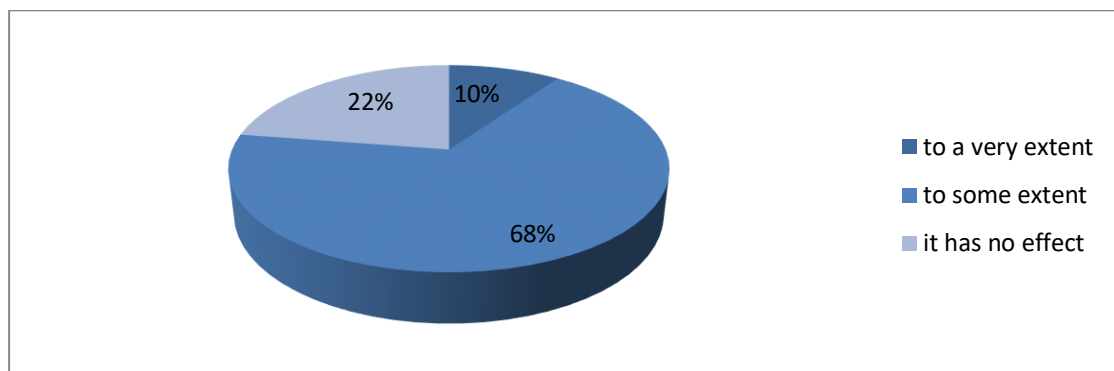
This indicates that both gender and age of teachers certainly play a role in their perception of gender, specifically its definition. Moreover, males and middle aged teachers tend to see gender in terms of physiology (sex) while females and younger teachers tend to see it as a socio-cultural concept.

Question 6: Gender and Personality

The question is: according to your previous knowledge about gender, to what extent do you believe that gender affects personality?

Figure 23

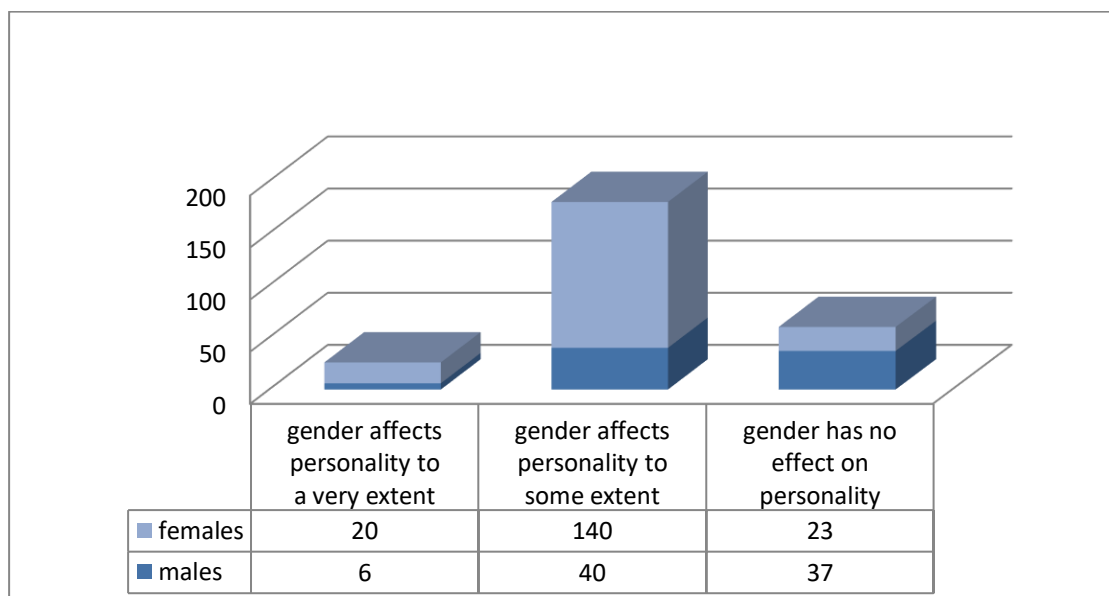
Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Personality



The figure above indicates that the majority of teachers (n 180) 68% believe that gender affects personality to some extent, while 22% (n 60) of teachers believe that gender has no effect at all on personality.

Figure 24

Teachers' Gender in Relation to Their Perception regarding the Effect of Gender on Personality

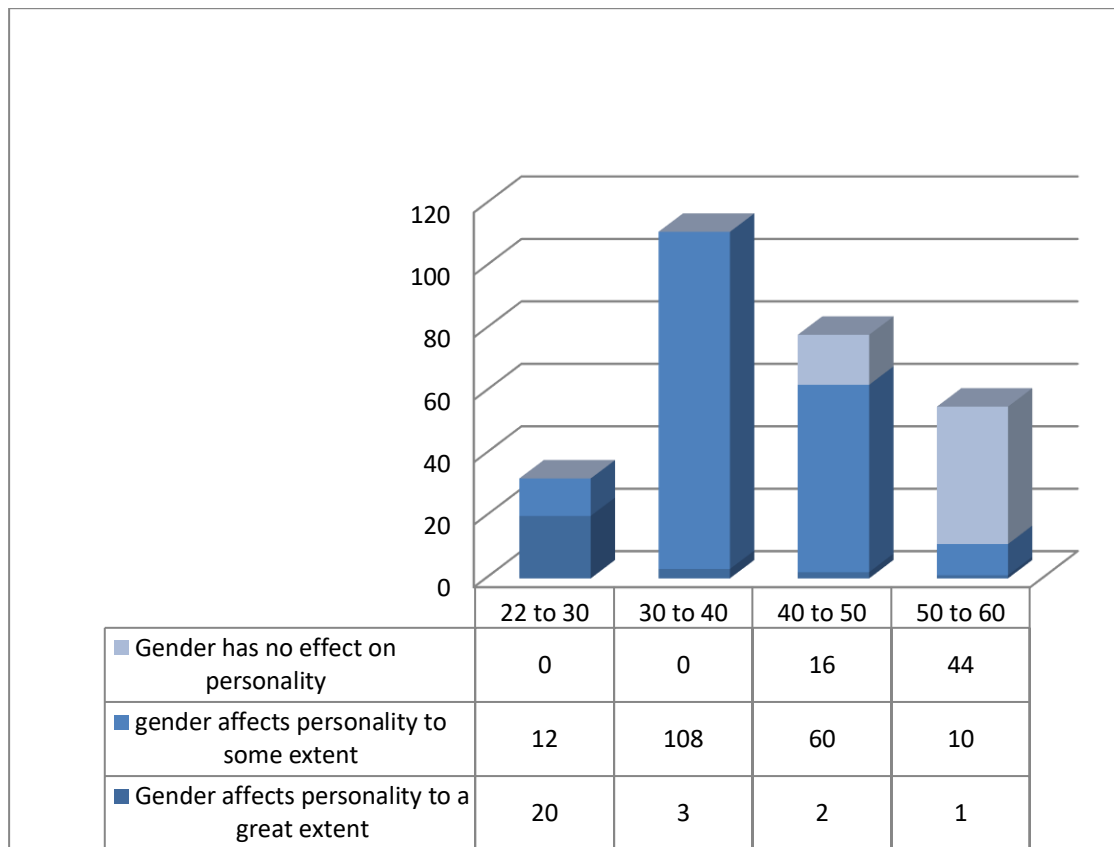


The figure above indicates that the majority of teachers who reported that gender affects personality to some extent (n 140 out of 173) are female teachers. While only 6 males out of 83 reported that gender affects personality to a very extent.

Moreover the majority of male teachers (n 40 reported that gender affects personality to some extent.

Figure 25

Teachers' Age in Relation to Their Perception regarding the Effect of Gender on Personality



The figure above indicates that the majority of teachers who reported that gender affects personality are aged 30 to 40 (n 108 out of 256). Moreover, the majority of teachers who reported that ‘gender does not affect personality’ aged 50 to 60. While the majority of teachers who reported that gender affects personality to a great extent are teachers aged 22 to 30.

To sum it all up, gender and age clearly affect the way teachers perceive gender and personality. We noticed that the majority of teachers who see that gender affects personality to a very extent or some extent are females and aged 22 to 40,

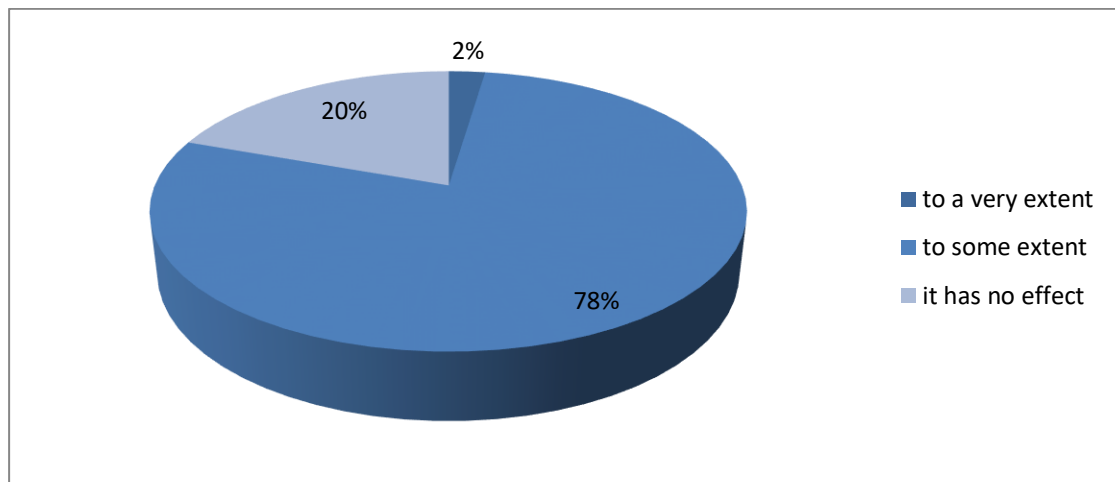
while the majority of teachers who see that gender has no affect on personality are males and aged 40 to 60.

Question 7: Gender and Identity

The question is: to what extent does gender affect identity?

Figure 26

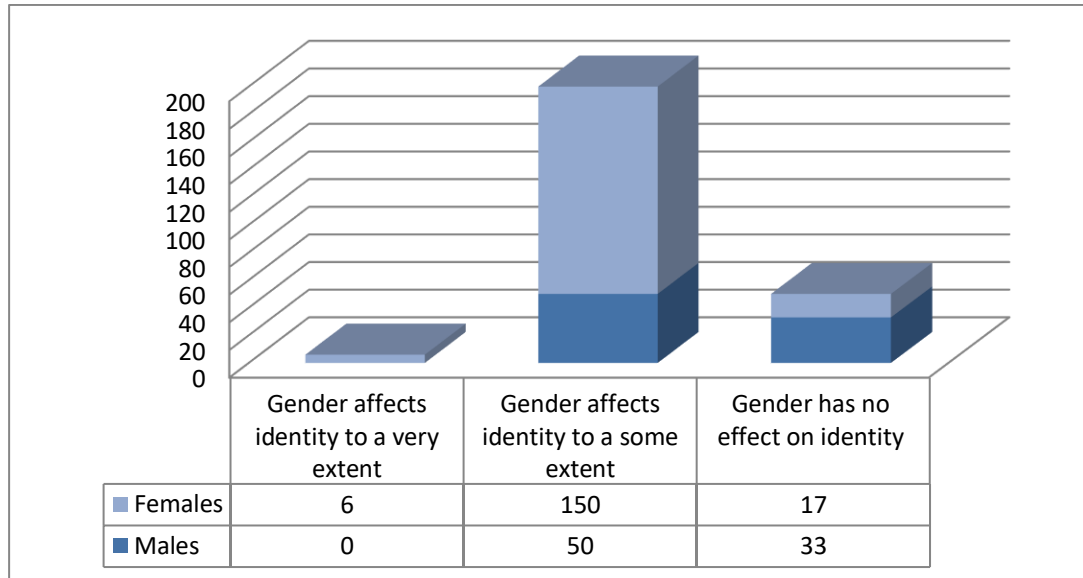
Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Identity



Based on the figure above, we can see that the majority of teachers (n 200 out of 256) reported that gender affects identity to some extent. While only 6 teachers reported that gender affects identity to a very extent. Moreover, 20 % of teachers (n 50 out of 256) believe that gender has no effect on identity.

Figure 27

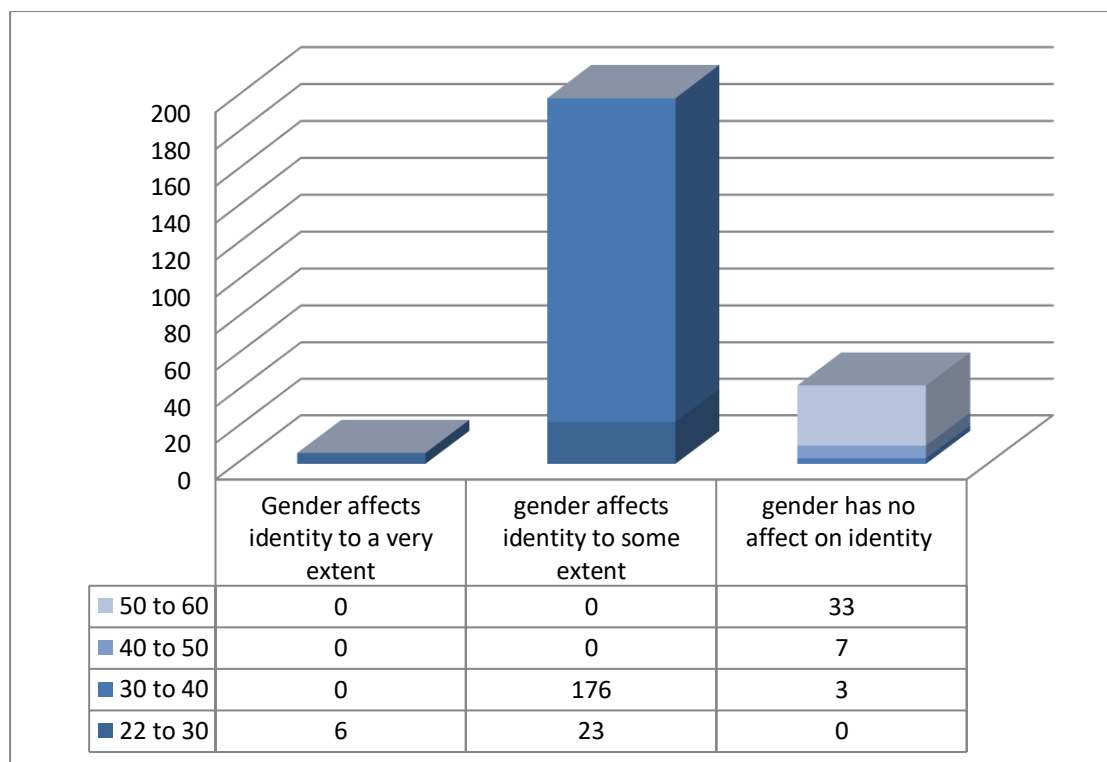
Teachers' Gender and its Relationship with Their Perception regarding the Effect of Gender on Identity



Based on the figure above, it is noticed that the majority of teachers who reported that gender affects identity to some extent are females (n 150 out of 200), in addition to that, all who reported that gender affects identity to a very extent are females (n6 out of 6). Moreover, the majority of teachers who reported that gender has no effect on personality are males (n 33 out of 50).

Figure 28

Teachers' age and its relationship with their perception regarding the effect of gender on identity



The figure above indicates that all the teachers who reported that gender affects identity to a very extent are aged 22 to 30 (n6 out of 6). While the majority of teachers who reported that gender has no effect on identity are aged 50 to 60. Furthermore, the majority of teachers who reported that gender affects identity to some extent are aged 30 to 40.

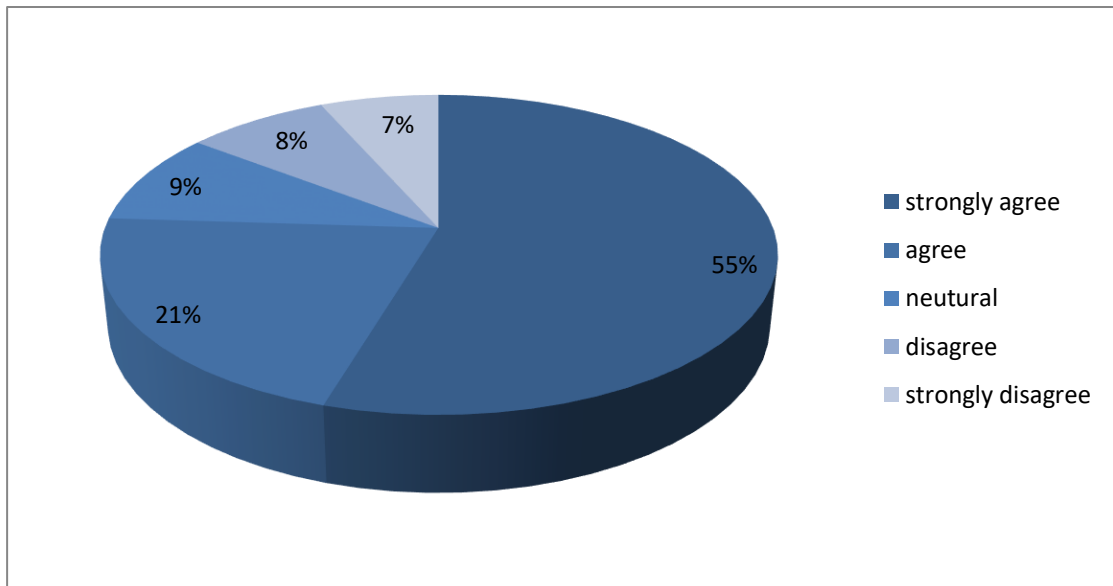
This indicates that teachers' gender and age affect the way they perceive gender and identity. Moreover, the majority of teachers who believe that gender affects identity to a very extent or some extent are females and aged 22 to 40. While the majority of teachers who reported that gender has no effect on identity are males and aged 40 to 60.

Question 8: Gender Roles

The question is: gender roles can be defined as the behaviours, values and attitudes that a society considers for both male and female, how much do you agree with this statement?

Figure 29

Teachers' perceptions about gender roles

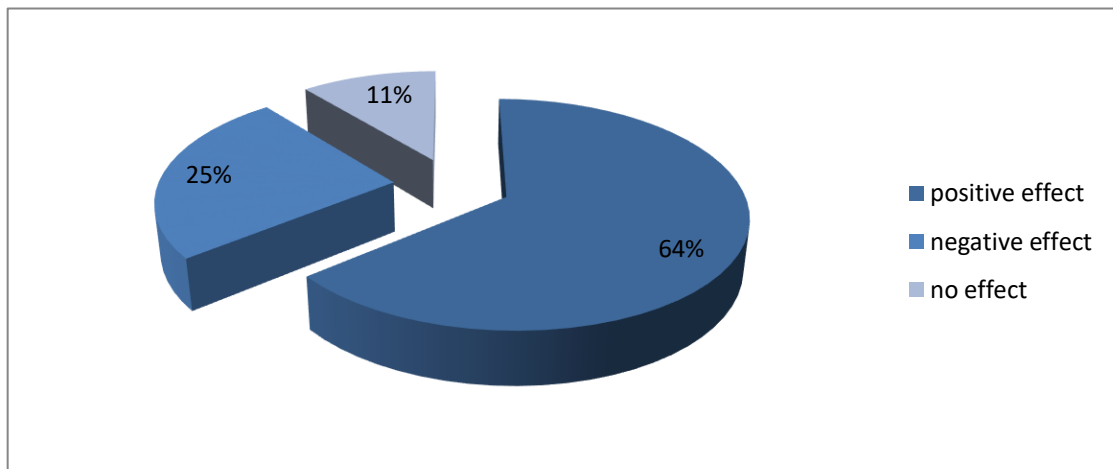


As it is indicated in the figure above the majority of teachers have reported that they strongly agree with the definition of gender roles.

Question 9: Teachers' perceptions of gender stereotypes

Figure 30

Teachers' perceptions of gender stereotypes



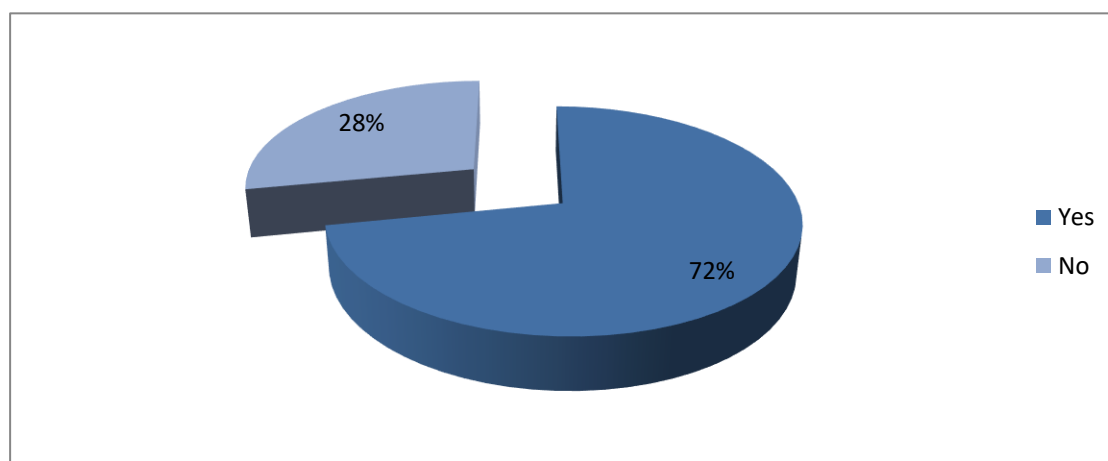
5.3.3 Section three: Gender in English as a Foreign Language Classes

Question 10

The question is: according to your previous knowledge and perspective, is gender recognized as an individual and distinctive difference in EFL classes?

Figure 31

Teachers' perceptions about gender as an individual difference in EFL classes



Question 11-If yes, what areas are most affected by this difference?

The majority of the respondents reported that the areas affected by Gender in the EFL classroom, one of them believe that it is *the outcome /the results if the pupils and their ability to learn and master the language*; While some teachers reported that *the difference lies mostly in how differently we treat misbehavior. Teachers are harsher on misbehaving boys than misbehaving girls.*

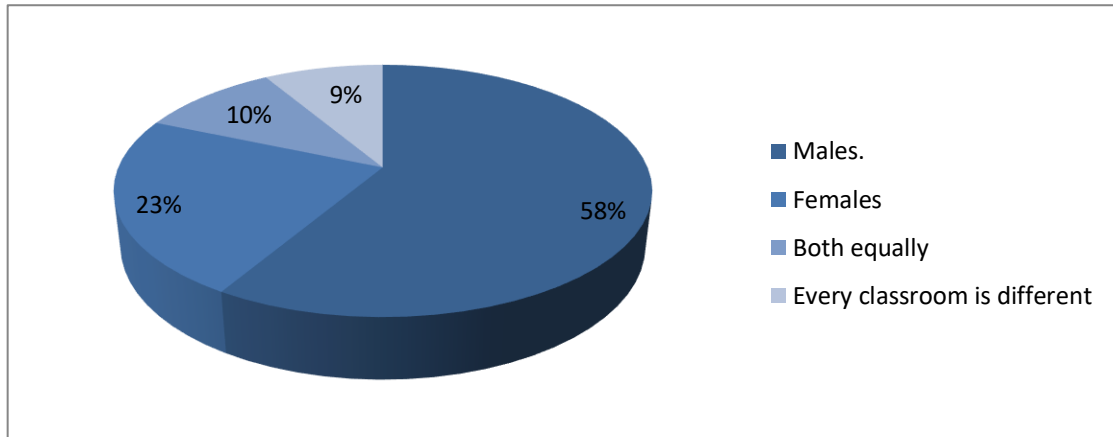
This indicates that teachers generally agree that gender is an individual difference and that it affects learners' way of learning, teachers' behaviour and so on. However, only 20 teachers answered this question which indicates that most of them are unaware of the areas that are affected by this difference.

Question 12: Teachers' perceptions about gender and quality of learning

The question is: according to your previous knowledge and perspective, who are better learners?

Figure 32

Teachers' perceptions about gender and quality of learning



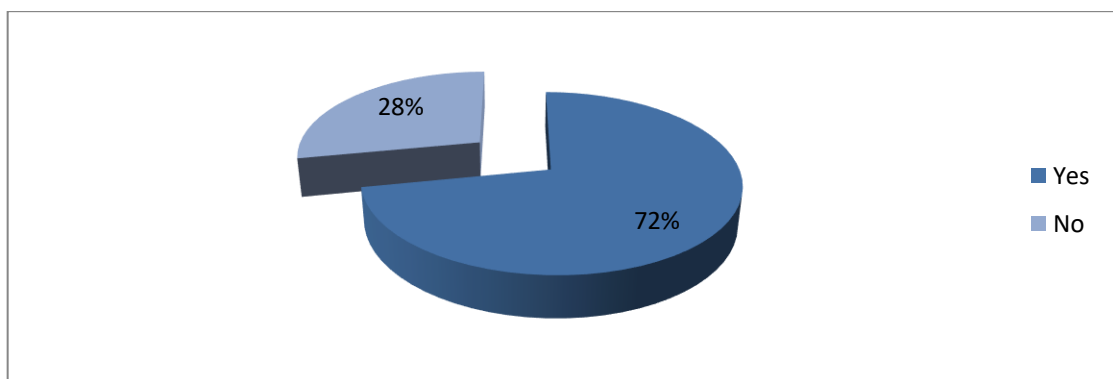
The figure above indicates that the majority of teachers reported that males are better learners than female. This question shows that teachers have gender biased perception regarding the quality of learning that both males and females receive. Only 9 percent of teachers reported that every classroom is different which is considered as a non biased answer that indicates no selection bias from the teachers.

Question 13: Teachers' recognition of gender differences

The question is: do you recognize gender as an individual difference?

Figure 33

Teachers' recognition of gender differences



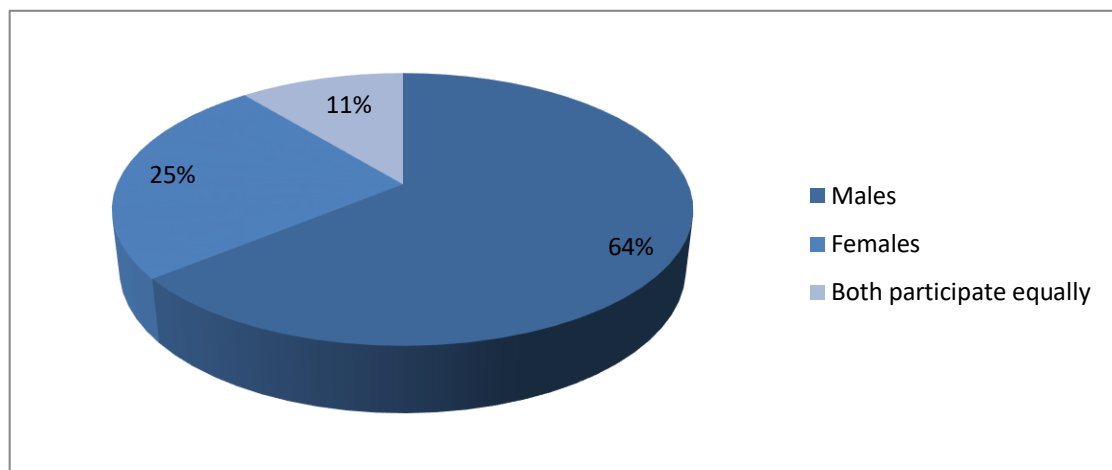
The figure above shows that the majority of teachers reported that they recognize gender as an individual difference

Question 14

The question is: according to your perspective and classroom observation, who participates more?

Figure 34

Teachers' Perception about Gender and Participation

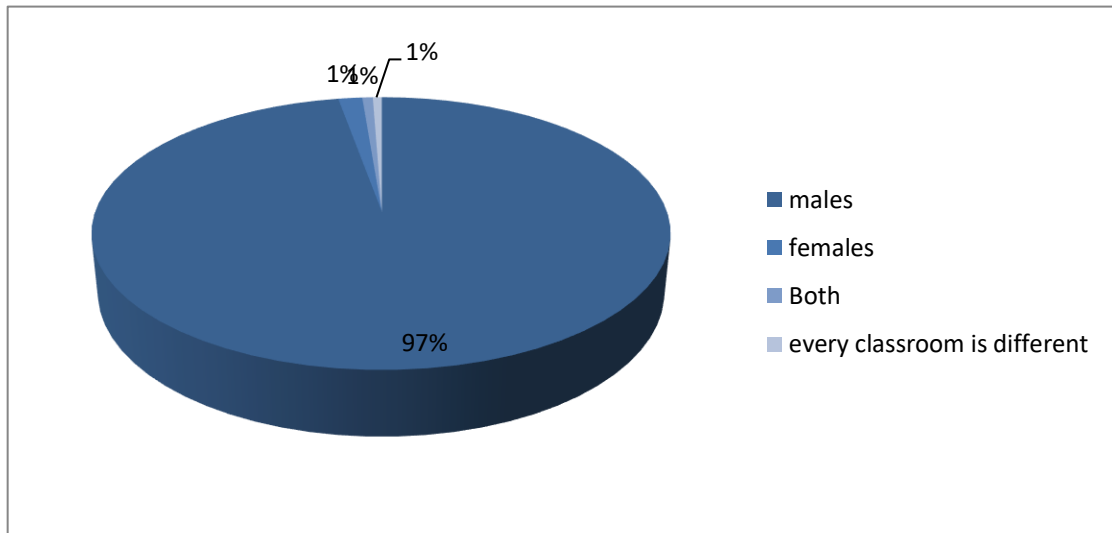


The figure above indicates that the majority of teachers 64 percent reported that males participate more than females. These results go against the general stereotype that females are more active in the classroom and that they participate more. However, it is worth noting that 78 percent of teachers who reported that males participate more are male teachers. This might be a gender biased perception to the same sex or it could be the result of males feeling more comfortable participating around same sex teachers.

Question 15: according to your perspective and classroom observation, who misbehaves often?

Figure 35

Teachers' perceptions of gender and misbehaviour

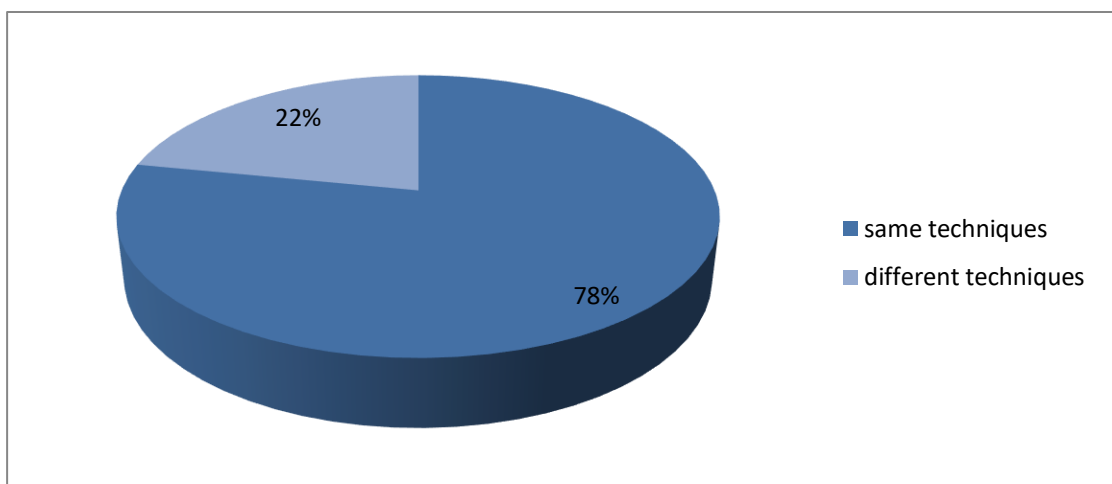


Question 16: Gender and Misbehaviour Techniques

The question is: in case of misbehaviour, as a teacher, do you use the same techniques with both males and females or do you use different techniques for each gender?

Figure 36

Teachers' techniques for misbehaviour according to each gender

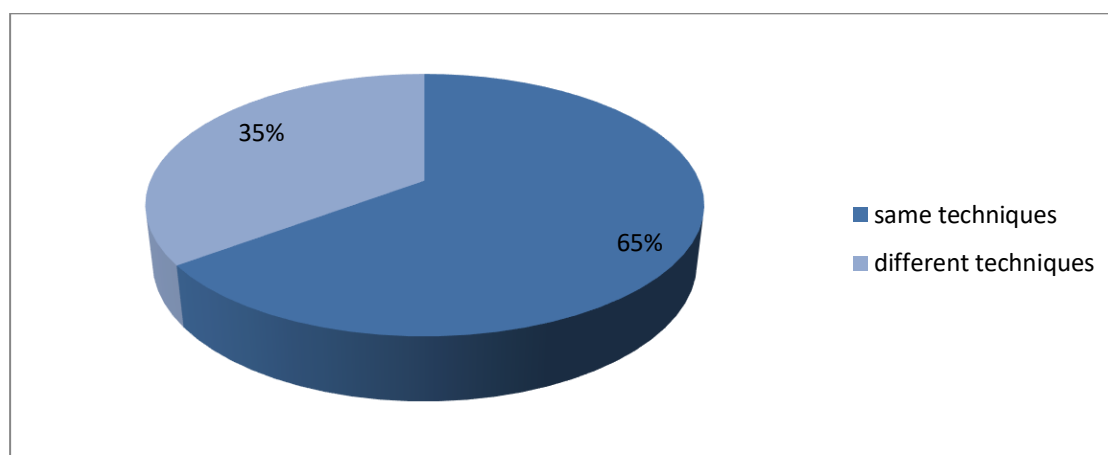


The figure above shows that the majority of teachers reported that they use the same misbehaviour correction techniques with both genders. While only 22 percent reported that they use different misbehaviour correction techniques with each gender. This in fact might seem contradictory but most researchers and academics advise of using different techniques for each gender because the misbehaviour varies from males to females and the way they respond to misbehaviour correction techniques vary as well.

Question 17

Figure 38

Teachers' techniques for assesment based on gender



Question 19: Gender and the EFL Textbooks

The question is What do you usually adapt from the textbook and what do you leave out?

The majority of teachers reported that they *leave out repetitive activities* or *focus on vocabulary and sentence building*, another teacher reported that (he) *usually adapt texts and role-playing exercises*. Other answers were similar such as:
I generally change tasks which I find too complicated or not interesting learners.

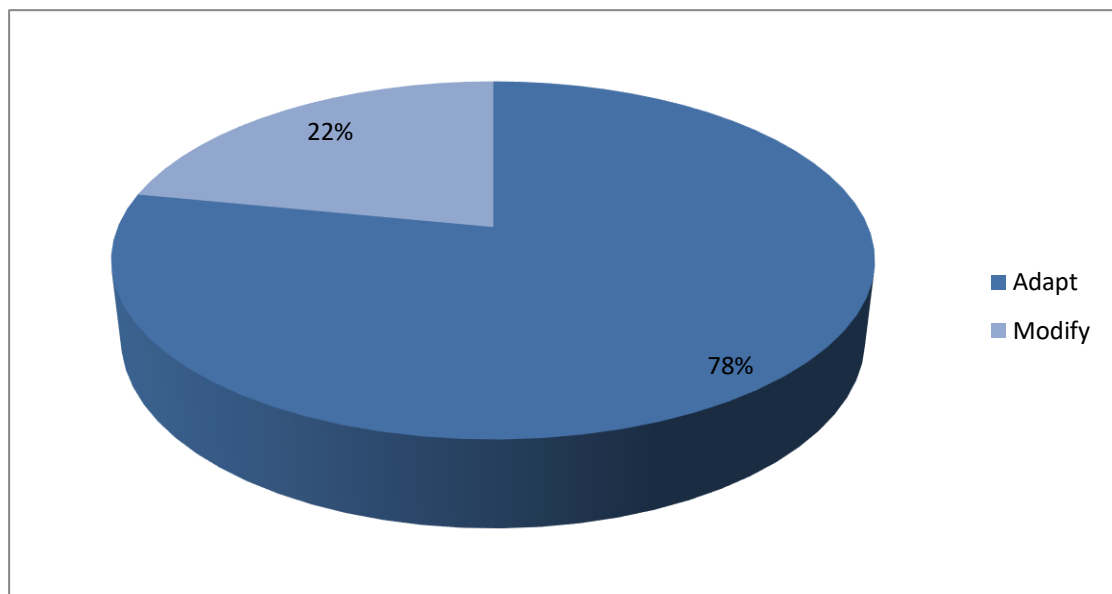
to be honest, and even when I use it I tend to adapt a lot of things, for example the instructions, the questions...etc

I usually adapt new texts, pictures, videos, activities and listening tracks. It is a bit demanding and challenging as well to find a better version of a certain type of material, but leaving out some of audio-scripts, lengthy dialogues' practice and outdated texts from the textbook seems a mandatory task for the teachers these days. Currently, I am designing an ameliorated version of each unit provided in Textbook Year 1.

Question 20- In case of a dialogue that is one gender oriented (only for males or females), do you adapt it as is or modify it according to students' numbers, gender available and needs?

Figure 39

Textbook analysis content in terms of gender

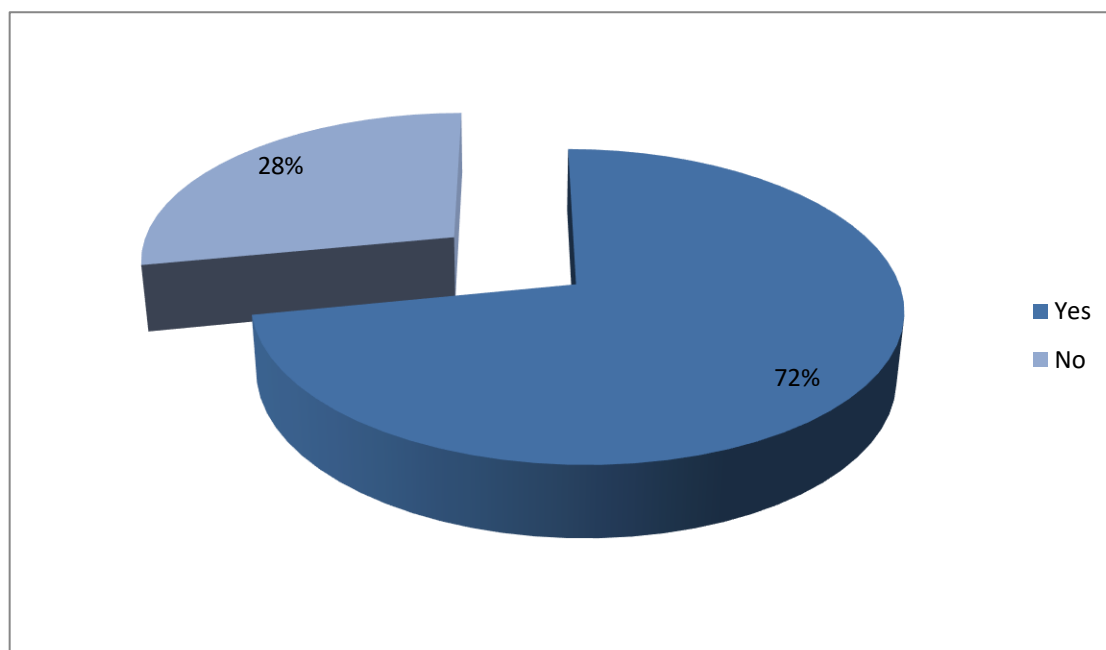


The figure above indicates that the majority of teachers resort to adapting from other sources or teaching materials when they find gender offensive content.

Question 21: Teachers' assessment of textbooks in terms of gender offensive content

Figure 40

Teachers' assessment of textbooks in terms of gender offensive content



Question 23- As a teacher, what do you think of EFL secondary school textbooks in general and in terms of gender?

When answering this question, one teacher said that (she) *Never noticed, Not gender based*. While another one said that *the textbooks generally do not highlight gender differences, and if there are any, they are beneath the surface*. This indicates that teachers did not notice any gender bias in the selected sample. Furthermore, another teacher provided his perception saying that *I think that the textbook of English does not contain remarkable instances of gender offensive or discriminative content*. However, it seems that the majority of teachers agree that *the textbooks are outdated, not interesting at all, very boring and students hate using them...their content is demotivating and in terms of gender*

Moreover, some teachers suggested that *If it were the case (Textbooks include gender biased content), I would either not drag my learners' attention towards its sensitivity and teach it with neutrality or adapt a more appropriate task.*

By the same token, only few teachers said that the textbooks include gender biased content or gender biased representation; one of them said *They are biased and obviously gender oriented. I don't use the contents that showcase these differences.*

The majority of teachers, thus, think that the selected textbooks *do not reflect any prejudice about gender.* in addition to that they believe that *Secondary school textbooks are geared towards building an Algerian identity with according roles and expectations thus they are designed in a way that concurs with the Algerian Islamo-conservatism with a little exposure to foreign cultures but not too much.*

Based on the aforementioned, majority of teachers reported that they do not believe that the selected textbooks contain gender biased or offensive content. While some of them reported that the only issue with the selected textbooks is that they are not updated.

5.3 Data interpretation

Majority of teachers (n 81) 32% reported that gender is a biological concept, only 59 out of 256 respondents reported that gender is all of the mentioned options (biological, social and cultural). The majority of teachers who reported that gender is a biological concept are males and aged 50 to 60; while the majority of teachers who reported that gender encompass biology, society and culture are females and aged 22 to 40.

The majority of teachers 68% reported that gender affects personality to some extent while 22% reported that gender has no effect on personality. The majority of teachers who reported that gender affects personality to some extent or very extent are

females aged 30 to 40 while the majority of teachers who reported that gender has no effect on personality are males aged 40 to 50.

The majority of teachers 78% reported that gender affects identity to some extent while 20% reported that gender has no effect on identity. The majority of teachers who reported that gender affects identity to some extent or very extent are females aged 30 to 40 while the majority of teachers who reported that gender has no effect on identity are males aged 40 to 50. 55% of teachers agree with the definition of gender roles and their importance, 7% disagree, moreover, 64% of teachers believe that gender stereotypes are prevailed in society. 72% of teachers have reported that they recognise gender differences in the classroom. nonetheless, the majority of teachers hold biased perceptions due to their belief that females are better learners (58%) and 97% reported that male students are more likely to misbehave.

In the same line of thought, 78% of teachers reported that they use the same disciplining techniques for both genders, and 65% answered yes to using the same techniques for informal assessment for both genders. 78% of teachers adapt the textbook readings texts as they are regardless of their gender orientation or gender offensive content, while only 22% said that they modify the reading texts and analyze the textbook reading texts in terms of gender to avoid gender bias.

The results revealed that the majority of teachers recognize gender as a socio-cultural variable in the EFL context. 62.5% of females and 50% of male teachers acknowledge that gender plays a pivotal role in their students' personality and identity while 48.5% and 50% of male teachers believe that gender is not that important and does not cause any difference or influence students' personality and identity.

The interpretation of the results suggests that teachers' beliefs are inconsistent because learning styles by definition are affected by one's personality and identity (Calli, 1999). This inconsistency might be due to:

- i. Teachers' lack of awareness about the topic of gender,
- ii. Teachers confuse gender identity (a western concept) with the influence of gender on the students' identity which is normal and biological.

The interpretation suggests that:

- i. Each gender is more likely to notice the opposite gender's actions,
- ii. Each gender might sympathize more with the same gender's actions,
- iii. Students' misbehaviour is linked or influenced to the teachers' gender, females misbehave more in the presence of male teachers and male students misbehave more in the presence of female teachers.

Female teachers believe that female students participate more than male students, while half of the sample of male teachers believes that male and female students participate in an equal manner.

Teachers regard female students as better in terms of classroom activities such as participation,

The interpretation of the results suggests that teachers have varied gender based perceptions built upon their experiences and presuppositions.

In section three, the last five questions were devoted to explore teachers' classroom practices based on their students' gender. Figure 4 illustrates how teachers respond to the same misbehaviour of their students based on their gender.

Table 16

One way analysis of Variance test results

Data Summary					
Groups	N	Mean	<u>Std.</u> <u>Dev.</u>	<u>Std.</u> <u>Error</u>	-
Female Teachers	173	10.125	6.3862	1.5965	
Male Teachers	80	12	3.7417	1.8708	
ANOVA Summary					
Source	Degrees of Freedom DF	Sum of Squares SS	Mean Square MS	F-Stat	P-Value
Between Groups	1	11.25	11.25	0.3097	0.5847
Within Groups	18	653.7542	36.3197		
Total:	19	665.0042			

F-statistic value = 0.30975

P-value = 0.58469

The F-statistic value and the P-value indicate that there is a correlation between the gender and age of the teachers and their answers. These results found huge support with previous studies. The findings related to the variables of teachers' gender and age were backed by previously mentioned researches such as (Bol, 2006), (Calli, 1999) and (Day, Elliot, & Kington, 2005) where teachers' gender and

age significantly affect their perceptions of students' gender expectations and stereotypes.

Conclusion

The results of this study indicate that teachers have gender based perceptions that lean towards biasness. While they recognize gender as a socio-cultural variable and believe that it should be taken into account in EFL classes; most of them detained gender-stereotypes; however, results have shown that they were unaware of that. Some results show a slightly significant difference between the gender stereotype belief, attitudes and practices of males and females teachers in the classrooms such as in feedback. However, other results show a very significant similarity between gender stereotype belief, attitudes and classroom practices such as responding to misbehaviour. Another important conclusion drawn from the study is that there was a significant difference between teachers' awareness of beliefs and perception of gender stereotyping and teachers' background characteristics which is really prominent in results.

Chapter six: General Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the research. In other words, the conclusions of both the textbooks' analysis and the questionnaire are going to be provided and commented on. In addition to that, it deals with the research's implications, recommendations and limitation.

6.1. Summary of the Research

6.1.1 Textbooks' Analysis

After data collection and interpretation, the researcher concluded the following: For the first secondary school textbook 'At the Crossroads' the data reveals that males and females do not occupy an equal number of illustrations. Males outnumbered females in illustrations whether in terms of quantity with a difference of 35 illustrations. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of reading texts. Males outnumbered females with a difference of two reading texts. Furthermore, males and females do not occupy an equal number of dialogues, males outnumbered females with a difference of three dialogues. Moreover, males and females do not occupy an equal number of proper nouns, males outnumbered females with a difference of 105 proper noun. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of adjectives, males outnumbered females with a difference of six adjectives. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of occupations, males outnumbered females with a difference of 36 occupations.

For the second Algerian secondary school textbook 'Getting Through' the data revealed that males and females occupy an equal number of illustrations. Males

and females have an equal number of gender oriented illustrations which is 15. In addition to that, males and females do not occupy an equal number of reading texts. Males outnumbered females with a difference of ten reading texts. Furthermore, Males and females do not occupy an equal number of dialogues, males outnumbered females with a difference of two dialogues. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of proper nouns, males outnumbered females with a difference of 37 proper noun. Moreover, males and females occupy an equal number of positive adjectives. Lastly, males and females do not occupy an equal number of occupations.

For the third Algerian secondary school textbook '*New Prospects*', the data revealed that males and females occupy an equal number of illustrations. Males and females have an equal number of gender oriented illustrations which is 12. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of reading texts. Males outnumbered females with a difference of ten reading texts. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of dialogues, males outnumbered females with a difference of two dialogues. Moreover, males and females do not occupy an equal number of proper nouns, males outnumbered females with a difference of 31 proper noun. Males and females occupy an equal number of positive adjectives. Males and females do not occupy an equal number of occupations.

Perceptions on gender, which by definition, characterize differences between the two sexes, are very common and pervasive in most cultures and societies (Ayodeji, 2010). These deep-rooted beliefs reflect expectations of society from individuals to behave and make choices in accordance with their gender. One common illustration of gender stereotyped beliefs can be noticed in parents steering their children toward certain educational and occupational choices that are deemed to be suitable for their gender. These beliefs and gender biased

perceptions may greatly contribute to gender-attainment and achievement gaps as well as the underrepresentation / overrepresentation of one gender over the other in certain positions (Elias & Loomis, 2004).

6.2. The questionnaire

Perceptions are unconsciously stored most of the time; this makes them deeply rooted and invisible at the same time. It is argued that sometimes teachers are unaware of their own biased behaviours because there is a common census that teachers are just knowledge transmitters and should not pay attention to what is considered as trivial and side work for them.

Majority of teachers (n 81) 32% reported that gender is a biological concept, only 59 out of 256 respondents reported that gender is all of the mentioned options (biological, social and cultural). The teachers who reported that gender is a biological concept are males and aged 50 to 60; while the majority of teachers who reported that gender encompass biology, society and culture are females and aged 22 to 40.

The majority of teachers 68% reported that gender affects personality to some extent while 22% reported that gender has no effect on personality. The majority of teachers who reported that gender affects personality to some extent or very extent are females aged 30 to 40 while the majority of teachers who reported that gender has no effect on personality are males aged between 40 to 50.

The majority of teachers 78% reported that gender affects identity to some extent while 20% reported that gender has no effect on identity. The majority of teachers who reported that gender affects identity to some extent or very extent are females aged 30 to 40 while the majority of teachers who reported that gender has no effect on identity are males aged 40 to 50.

55% of teachers agree with the definition of gender roles and their importance, 7% disagree, moreover, 64% of teachers believe that gender stereotypes are prevailed in society. While 72% of teachers have reported that they recognise gender differences in the classroom. nonetheless, the majority of teachers hold biased perceptions due to their belief that females are better learners (58%) and 97% reported that male students are more likely to misbehave.

In the same line of thought, 78% of teachers reported that they use the same disciplining techniques for both genders, and 65% answered yes to using the same techniques for informal assessment for both genders. 78% of teachers adapt the textbook readings texts as they are regardless of their gender orientation or gender offensive content, while only 22% said that they modify the reading texts and analyze the textbook reading texts in terms of gender to avoid gender bias.

Despite the fact that almost all previous studies discussed in the present paper have indicated that gender bias is still ingrained and dominant in school and non-school textbooks, the present study indicates that some efforts are being made to improve gender equity in textbooks. The present study results, for example, have shown that females are more visible than males in some areas (e.g. occupational roles), equally represented with males (e.g. gender visibility/presence), and less visible compared to males (e.g. gender firstness). It is therefore deemed necessary to push for more room for gender equity, balance, and equality in school textbooks. Due to the fact that gender bias is deeply-rooted in school textbooks, gender equity should be reinforced in present and future school textbooks. Teachers, educational institutions (e.g. ministry of education), and experts in the area of gender and education should take the initiative in promoting, enhancing, and administering pro gender equity policies and practices in present and future school textbooks.

6.3 Recommendations

The research's findings have some implications for classroom practices and the need for a cultivated awareness of gender. Therefore it is recommended that teachers must learn to recognize and eliminate gender bias in their student-teacher interactions. Seminars and workshops should be organized for teachers, administrators and parents to eliminate this element due to which students suffered a lot. Teachers should avoid language that limits one gender or another from participating in classroom interaction.

6.3.1. For textbook designers

Investigating gender representation in EFL textbooks is crucial. Researchers should develop a set of instruments that will aid them in evaluating EFL textbooks not only for gender representation but also for general textbook evaluation. The researcher suggests textbook authors and evaluators ask the following questions when examining gender inequity in textbooks:

1. Do males and females appear equally in illustrations?
2. Do males and females appear equally in reading texts?
3. Do males and females equally practice leisure activities?
4. Are males and females equally presented in occupations?
5. Do males and females equally share traits?
6. Who is dominating the conversation?
7. Who is the problem solver?

It is undeniable that gender is an important component of any culture. Hence, EFL textbooks should present the culture more accurately, authentically, and representatively by objectively representing different aspects of the targeted culture and society and avoid any biased and imbalanced content.

6.3.2. For teachers

Teachers should also take part in designing textbooks since they can aid in the examination, evaluation and recommendation process. Since curriculum is the means of socialization of gender at schools, teachers should expose students to equal views of the roles and responsibilities of males and females in real life which might not be included in textbooks. For example, teachers could prepare discussion activities using equal presentation about famous males and females to break stereotyping ideas and create gender awareness in their classes by exposing students to bias free materials. In addition, teachers should create gender awareness in writing classes by teaching students how to use gender free language. Through these techniques, teachers can identify students' perception of gender stereotypes and how they can help in changing such perceptions.

Authors, publishers, curriculum supervisors and teachers should suggest new plans and ideas to alter any imbalanced contents found in the current textbooks by creating new and balanced EFL supplementary materials in order to prevent students from forming stereotyped images and thoughts about their culture and that of the target culture. It is recommended to do a replication study with a bigger sample to include other valuable variables to the topic such as culture, educational background, and marital status. It is also recommended to conduct a questionnaire with more questions about gender and teachers' classroom practices on a national and international level. This being said, the effect of students' gender on teachers' perceptions had been studied in the secondary school level in this thesis, thus, it is recommended to conduct further examination in other levels.

6.4. Researcher's comments

- Curriculum committees and textbook developers should encourage researchers to assess the EFL curriculum critically by focusing on gender and the extent of their representation in the various aspects of textbooks.
- The researcher suggests that textbook authors should give both males and females balanced roles in these textbooks, and the focus of texts and illustrations should neither be masculine or feminine.
- Textbook authors must review the content of their textbooks and the extent of representation of gender roles carefully. They should also check the credibility of the findings of the various studies on gender representation to achieve justice and fairness in the presentation of these roles through the texts, illustration, lessons, themes, etc.
- Teachers should be involved in examining and evaluating textbooks, and recommending new materials to replace any biased ones.
- The researcher recommends that gender representation in EFL textbooks be equal in all fields; educational, cultural, literary, economic, social, and political.
- Finally, the researcher recommends further studies on the presentation of gender manifestation in the EFL textbooks with a focus on other aspects of textbook contents that were not covered by the current study.

6.5 Limitations

As with the majority of studies, the present study has some limitations that affected the data collection process. The first and main study limitation is concerned with the sample of the questionnaire. In other words, there is no minstrel website that includes the names or emails of the teachers or even their overall numbers. Moreover,

the sampling process took longer than it should and more efforts that were needed to reach for as many secondary school teachers as required in order to have a representative sample.

The second limitation is tied to data availability. The study's topic has not been studied at all in the Algerian educational context which affected the data collection process due to shortage of references and sources which the researcher would have been able to use.

The third and last limitation is linked to time constraints. The period during which this research has been conducted 2018/2021 is known to have witnessed the Covid-19 pandemic which lasted for three years. Moreover, there has been a major lockdown during these years in which libraries were closed, schools were shut down and any attempt of an action based research was impossible. Thus, the researcher was not able to conduct any interviews or classroom observations in order to support the study's findings with any practical or action data and evidence.

It is worth noting that these study limitations have indeed affected the data collection process but had no effects on the study's results.

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Appendix 1: The Questionnaire

Investigating Algerian Secondary School EFL Teachers' Perception of Gender in the Classroom

Dear participants/secondary school teachers

You are kindly invited to answer this questionnaire which is part of my PhD thesis. It is about investigating Algerian EFL secondary school teachers' perception of gender and how it is reflected through their classroom practices. Your answers and personal information are confidential and will be treated with utmost confidence, thank you so much in advance for your cooperation. The researcher's email: Rimkhiari0@gmail.com

Abbes Laghrour, Khenchela University

Part one: Personal Background

1-Gender

- Male
- Female

2-Age

- 22 to 30
- 30 to 40
- 40 to 50
- 50 to 60
- 60 to 65

3-Experience

- 0 to 5
- 5 to 10
- 10 to 20
- 20 to 30
- 30 or more

4-In what wilaya do you teach

Part Two: Assessment of Theoretical Background about Gender

5-According to your previous knowledge about gender, do you believe that gender is..

- A biological Concept
- A cultural Construct
- A social Concept
- All of the above
- none of the above
- other.....

6-According to your previous knowledge about gender, to what extent do you believe that gender affects personality

- To a very extent
- Neutral
- It has no effect

7-According to your previous knowledge about gender, to what extent do you believe that gender affects identity

- To a very extent
- Neutral
- It has no effect

8-Gender roles can be defined as the behaviors, values, and attitudes that a society considers appropriate for both male and female. Do you agree or not?

- ✓ strongly disagree
- ✓ disagree
- ✓ neutral
- ✓ agree
- ✓ strongly agree

9-Stereotypes are generalizations cast based on observations or contact with an individual or a group. What type of effect do gender stereotypes have on society?

- ✓ positive effect
- ✓ negative effect
- ✓ both
- ✓ none

Part Three: Gender in English as a Foreign Language Classes

10-According to your previous knowledge and perspective, is gender recognized as an individual and distinctive difference in EFL classes? yes• no•

11-If yes, what areas are most affected by this difference?
.....
.....

12-According to your previous knowledge and perspective, who are better learners?
males• females• both equally• every classroom is different•

13-As a teacher, do you recognize gender differences? yes• no•

14- According to your perspective and classroom observation, who participates more?

males• females• neither• both participate equally•

15- According to your perspective and classroom observation, who misbehaves often?

males• females• both• none•

16- In case of misbehaviour, as a teacher do you use the same techniques with both males and females or do you use different techniques for each gender?

same techniques• different techniques for each gender•

17- When it comes to informal assessment, as a teacher do you use the same techniques with both males and females or do you use different techniques for each gender?

same techniques• different techniques for each gender•

Part Four: Gender in EFL Secondary School Textbooks and the Classroom

18- How often do you rely on the textbook?

very often• often• sometimes• rarely• never•

19- What do you usually adapt from the textbook and what do you leave out?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

20- In case of a dialogue that is one gender oriented (only for males or females), do you adapt it as is or modify it according to students' numbers, gender available and

needs?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

21- As a teacher, do you assess the textbook in terms of gender offensive content?

✓ Yes

✓ No

22- In case you find an image, an adjective or an activity in the textbook that you consider as gender offensive, what would you do?

Teach it nonetheless

Skip it and adapt from another resource or material

23- As a teacher, what do you think of EFL secondary school textbooks in general and in terms of gender?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Résumé

Le genre est défini comme le produit de la biologie, de la société et de la culture. Les manuels scolaires sont un vecteur essentiel de la socialisation du genre à l'école. Ainsi, les élèves devraient être exposés à une vision équilibrée des rôles et des responsabilités que les hommes et les femmes partagent dans une société. Sur cette base, cette étude visait à enquêter sur la représentation du genre dans les manuels scolaires EFL du secondaire algériens actuellement utilisés. Dans la poursuite de cet objectif, l'étude a suivi une approche analytique descriptive. L'étude a examiné chaque manuel à travers une liste de contrôle conçue par le chercheur. La liste de contrôle est basée à la fois sur la structure et sur le contenu. Ce dernier se compose de quatre sections; principalement, la langue et la structure, le genre et la langue, la visibilité du genre et la sur-sous-représentation du genre. En outre, l'étude a été suivie d'un questionnaire qui visait à enquêter sur les perceptions des enseignants algériens de langue anglaise du secondaire sur le genre dans les manuels scolaires. Le questionnaire cherchait à faire la lumière sur la question de savoir si les enseignants étaient ou non sensibilisés au genre vis-à-vis des préjugés existants et comment ils les gèrent. A cet effet, un questionnaire a été administré à 256 éducateurs enseignant dans différents lycées à travers l'Algérie. Les résultats de l'analyse des manuels ont révélé que les trois manuels ont une représentation et une visibilité inégales entre les sexes. Les résultats ont indiqué qu'il y a une sous-représentation des femmes dans tous les manuels analysés. Dans le même ordre d'idées, les résultats du questionnaire ont révélé que les enseignants percevaient le genre comme une variable sociale importante bien qu'ils ignoraient qu'ils avaient des perceptions sexistes. Enfin, il est recommandé de faire une étude de réplication avec un échantillon plus grand pour

inclure d'autres variables utiles au sujet telles que la culture et le niveau d'éducation.

Mots-clés : genre, manuels EFL, analyse des manuels, préjugés sexistes

ملخص

يتم تعريف الجنس على أنه نتاج علم الأحياء والمجتمع والثقافة. الكتب المدرسية هي وسيلة أساسية للتنشئة الاجتماعية بين الجنسين في المدرسة. وبالتالي ، يجب أن يتعرض الطلاب لوجهة نظر متوازنة للأدوار والمسؤوليات التي يشترك فيها الذكور والإناث في المجتمع. على هذا الأساس ، هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى التحقيق في تمثيل الجنسين في الكتب المدرسية الجزائرية للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية (EFL) الثانوية المستخدمة حاليًا. لتحقيق هذا الهدف ، اتبعت الدراسة نهجًا تحليليًا وصفيًا. درست الدراسة كل كتاب مدرسي من خلال قائمة مرجعية صممها الباحث. قائمة المراجعة تعتمد على البنية والمحتوى. هذا الأخير يتكون من أربعة أقسام ؛ بشكل رئيسي ، اللغة والبنية ، والجنس واللغة ، وإبراز النوع الاجتماعي ، والتمثيل الناقص للجنس. علاوة على ذلك ، أعقب الدراسة استبيان يهدف إلى التحقيق في تصورات معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الثانوية الجزائرية عن الجنس في الكتب المدرسية. سعى الاستبيان إلى تسليط الضوء على ما إذا كان المعلمون لديهم وعي جنساني تجاه التحيزات الموجودة وكيف يتعاملون معها. ولتحقيق هذا الهدف ، تم توجيه استبيان إلى 256 معلمًا يقومون بالتدريس في مدارس ثانوية مختلفة في جميع أنحاء الجزائر. كشفت نتائج تحليل الكتب المدرسية أن جميع الكتب المدرسية الثلاثة بها تمثيل ورؤية غير متكافئين بين الجنسين. أشارت النتائج إلى وجود نقص في تمثيل الإناث في جميع الكتب المدرسية التي تم تحليلها. على نفس المنوال ، كشفت نتائج الاستبيان أن المعلمين ينظرون إلى الجنس باعتباره متغيرًا اجتماعيًا مهمًا على الرغم من أنهم لم يكونوا على دراية بأن لديهم تصورات متحيزة تجاه النوع الاجتماعي. أخيرًا ، يوصى بإجراء دراسة تكرار باستخدام عينة أكبر لتضمين متغيرات قيمة أخرى للموضوع مثل الثقافة والخلفية التعليمية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الجنس ، كتب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية ، تحليل الكتب المدرسية ، التحيز الجنساني