Gender, Race and Generation in Algerian Secondary School Textbooks

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“The essence of schooling is a value – oriented enterprise”

Welsford (1994)
Abstract

The present research is an attempt to evaluate the Algerian new reform-based English Textbooks designed for Secondary School Education with regards to gender, race and generation. Our particular interest in conducting a Magistér dissertation on these issues was triggered by the function that school textbooks have as “powerful agents of socialization”. It can be argued that coursebooks, with all their aspects, have the power of altering students’ opinions and beliefs on many socio-cultural matters such as gender, race and generation since the majority of classroom teaching is carried out by the use of them. In relation to this, critical theorists reject the claim that schooling constitutes a valu-neutral process and argue that schools often operate with the intent to reproduce the values and privileges of the dominant culture (Darder, 1991). Hence, school textbooks have effects on students’ cognitive and emotional formation. Therefore, recent trends in English Language Teaching (ELT) research necessitates the study of coursebooks and instructional materials from various perspectives including their cultural, social, and psychological qualities and effects (Kramsch 2000). Gender, race and generation as represented in school textbooks are worth studying because students are exposed to many words and images effecting their knowledge, perceptions and world views.

It is believed that by focusing on how characters are portrayed in an EFL textbook, an infinite number of messages or values are passed on to students. Such values, then, may turn into stereotypical thinking of students towards others in society, inevitably building onto the malpractices such as hatred, intolerance, or belittling of others. Therefore, Our intention in the research at hand is to unveil the way characters: Female, male, groups minorities and elders are represented in the new manuals since one of the aims of the latest reform is to promote values and not demote them. To reach this aim, Sadker and Sadker’s seven categories of
bia(invisibility, stereotypes, linguistic bias, unreality, fragmentation, selectivity and cosmetic bias) were used as our theoretical starting to investigate and explore the different forms of bias that may be found in *At the Crossroads*, *Getting Through* and *New Prospects* designed for S1, S2 and S3 Respectively.

To realize our research, both quantitative and qualitative analysis were performed. Through content analysis (CA) and critical discourse analysis (CDA) the results obtained have displayed that the textbooks in question are far from being bias-free with regards to all the aspects selected for evaluation. It has been found that there is a significant tendency to underrepresent females, ethnic groups and elders. The invisibility of these characters is recorded both in text and illustrations. The findings further show some stereotypes especially concerning the aspects of occupations and personal traits. Additionally, both quantitative and qualitative analysis have confirmed the presence of these forms of bias (selectivity, fragmentation, unreality, cosmetic bias). As far as linguistic bias is concerned, it has been observed that the authors of the textbooks have been sensitive in their use of language in the portrayal of ethnic groups and elders. Furthermore, there is a remarkable tendency to use an inclusive and neutral language in the description of both genders.

On the basis of these findings, we come to the conclusion that authors of the textbooks were not guided by specific checklists that would prevent the production of biased instructional materials. Hence, it is highly recommended for the Algerian Ministry of Education to elaborate checklists for identifying bias, because, besides the overt role schools play on students’ mental development, there is also an implicit and “covert message” that the school endorses to students.

**Key words**: Textbooks evaluation, gender, race, generation, ageism, bias, stereotypes, content analysis, critical discourse analysis, hidden curriculum, socialization.
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my grandfather
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List of Abbreviations

CA : Content Analysis

CDA : Critical Discourse Analysis

CERIST : Centre de Recherche sur l’Information Technique

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

ESL : English as a Second Language

LS : Language Socialization

SE1 : Secondary Education, Year One

SE2 : Secondary Education, Year Two

SE3 : Secondary Education, Year Three

UNESCO : United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization

WL : Women Language
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General Introduction

This dissertation aims essentially to evaluate the Algerian new reform-based English textbooks with regards to gender, race and generation. Based on Sadker and Sadker’s categories of bias (2001), our intention, in the present research is to examine the English coursebooks for the secondary school level: *At The Crossroads, Getting Through* and *New Prospects* designed for S1, S2 and S3 respectively to determine whether they contain any of these forms of bias. Many scholars argue, school textbooks are important agents of socialization that “may affect students’ attitudes and dispositions towards themselves, other people and society” (Ndura, 2003:1). Therefore, our motivation in conducting this research is grounded, in the main, on the power and role of these newly designed manuals as well as the potential impact of the issues under investigation on the socialization of Algerian learners.

A crucial position textbooks hold in the teaching and learning process is unquestionable. This is particularly true in Algeria, where all the instructions are based upon Ministry of Education approved textbooks which outline the didactic and social objectives to be achieved. As a matter of fact, the paramount importance attached to these textbooks is due to the fact that they create the foundation of classroom activities and provide knowledge about the subject matter. In this respect, Dick Allright (1991) expresses well the value of textbooks when he depicts a lesson as an “interaction between three elements: teachers, learners and materials and this interaction leads to optimal learning” (Allright cited in Grace, 1995:3).

More importantly, textbooks also contain knowledge about the world in general as Kabira and Masingila (1997) claim “writers of textbooks create a human world in which learners learn about what people do and how they relate to one another” (Kabira and Masingila, 1997:3).

1 Sadker and Sadker’s categories of bias in Gender Bias: From Colonial America to Today’s Classrooms, (2001)

2 Coursebook and textbook are used throughout the dissertation to mean the same thing.
In view of the “protean role” that textbooks perform in any teaching and learning situation, textbook evaluation has become an important dimension in English language learning. Consequently, in the last few decades, textbook evaluation has stimulated the interest of many authors. The number of published works and investigations in the field between the 1970’s - 2000’s reflects the importance attached to it by scholars. From this standpoint, our study is a simple attempt to contribute to the bulk of investigations carried out in the area of textbook evaluation. Our focus will not be on purely academic aspects of the textbooks, but on the representation of human relations. The latter may affect students’ self-image, their perceptions of others and the world in general. Hence, the representation of gender, race and generation deserves serious consideration.

It goes without saying that conducting research on the latest English textbooks that were designed after the new reform was launched in September 2001 would be helpful in gaining new insights in the field of textbook evaluation and also contribute to the process of evaluating the quality of the new manuals. Though the reform has just been completed, the textbooks have already received the attention of many academics in the country.

However, it has been observed that this enthusiasm in evaluating these manuals focuses chiefly on the way skills are fleshed out, the attitudes of teachers towards the way they are streamed, their compliance with the programme and so on and so forth. In this respect, Zahoric claims that “most studies of textbooks are focused on textbook content: general content, cognitive processing, clarity, interestingness and readability” (Zahoric cited in Ndura, 2003). Instead, our study, purposes to break away from the evaluation of these aspects by concentrating on the issues of gender, race and generation. Our research therefore, falls within what is called sociolinguistic studies but there are didactic implications. In other words, the aspects under investigation are to a large extent the concern of sociolinguistics, yet its findings in these areas can contribute largely to our understanding of how important they
are in any educational system, since they “significantly affect students’ development of knowledge and their perceptions of self and others” (Hishfeld cited in Ndura, 2003).

Furthermore, recently it has been largely acknowledged among sociolinguists and educationists that schools are sources of experience by which social values and attitudes are transmitted with textbooks acting as agents of this transmission. To highlight this point (Freeman and McElhinny, 1996) state strongly that “School textbooks constitute an important tool that presents educational materials of schools as the primary socializing institutions where students start to understand their social identity relative to each other and to institutions” (Freeman and McElhinny cited in Flinders et al, 2004:15).

Being fundamental issues of social identity “social identities include cultural or ethnic membership identity, gender identity, sexual orientation identity, social class identity age identity, disability identity or proffesional identity” (TingToomy, 1999:28) and gained more attention than the other subcategories, justifies our impetus in investigating the representation of gender, race and age(generation). More importantly, in the Algerian context, according to the CERIST (Centre de Recherche sur l’Information Technique ) Dissertation Abstract database, no study of this kind has been reported. Therefore, this research will be a starting point in filling this knowledge gap.

As gender permeates our everyday life and affects our perceptions of others (Chavez, 2001), the issue of language and gender has become an enthusiastic area of research for many scholars: “the field of language and gender has become one of the most lively, sophisticated and interdisciplinary areas of linguistic inquiry” (Pillars and Whelehan 2004:2). Many scholars, among them, Romaine (1999, 2000) one of the leading figures in the field of language and gender, gives a detailed analysis on the influence of gender in our daily life. According to her, gender is indeed a communicative process based on clues or indexes like physical appearance, fashion styles, behaviour and language. Those indexes give
important means for us to identify others and ourselves as women or men and they may vary in communities and cultures. Owing to the importance of gender, indeed growing attention on the topic is found in the area of academic research, especially in the field of language learning and teaching process since in this process learners are regarded as social and cultural beings with feeling and identities that should be taken into consideration by educational practitioners (Byran and Grundy cited in Ndura, 2003) to ensure optimal learning.

Hence, this dissertation approaches how gender is conveyed by the Algerian Secondary School English textbooks from a feminist perspective on the one hand and from the angle of a latent or hidden curriculum on the other hand, since it has been reported that: “English language textbooks are of additional importance since learners are required to use their content frequently, which can affect their conscious as well as their subconscious” (Zografou cited in Sunderland, 2006:23).

The racial issue is no less important. In Cunningsworth’s words, “gender differences are not the only area of possible discrimination or unflattering portrayal” (1995:19). He further claims that it is also illuminating to look at materials to see how coursebooks represent various people according to their ethnic origin. Indeed, questions of “racial equality”, “harrassment” and discrimination have become a familiar part of late twentieth century life (Gillborn, 1990:1). Thus, the “race issue” is at the center of education since it has the opportunity and obligation to make a significant contribution towards the creation of a more just society as it is claimed by Lacey:

Schools can not solve the problem of racism in societies, but they should surely not contribute to it, to the extent they do. There is not a simple or doctrinaire solution to the problem but the teaching profession can make a much larger contribution than they do at the present (Lacey cited in Gillborn, 1990:1).
The concept and construct of “race” is implicitly and profoundly connected to the issues of culture and identity which are at the core of the Algerian new reform-based curriculum. Hence, racial representation also deserves to be examined since “school textbooks...transmit and disseminate societal knowledge, including one’s own and other groups (Gillborn, 1990:7).

The last but not least important issue that will be tackled in our investigation is the generational issue. The representation of characters in terms of generations should hold our attention. This is so in a context like ours; Algeria, where English is not taught solely as a foreign language, but also as a carrier of values, images and beliefs of the target culture that are not necessarily similar to that of the learners as Hutchinson claims that “textbooks are not simply the daily tools of the language teacher, they are an embodiment of values” (Hutchinson cited in Dominguez, 2003:3).

All in all, the issues we have selected for investigation are ethical issues, of great importance for the education of today’s Algerian learners and the citizen of the Algeria of tomorrow: “the facts, interpretations and values taught to today’s children will largely determine the character of tomorrow’s citizenry” (Vitz cited in Edin, 2007:16), issues that are strongly related to values such as respect, tolerance, citizenship, openness and understanding that are foregrounded in the Middle and Secondary School English syllabuses, whereby English is no longer restricted to the understanding and usage of the target language. Students acquire competencies in English as a tool for learning other skills as well. Critical thinking, creativity and communication skills are considered crucial for helping learners to appreciate the pleasure of learning to learn as syllabuses claim that:

L’enseignement de l’Anglais implique non seulement l’acquisition de compétences linguistiques et de communication, mais également des compétences transversales d’ordre méthodologiques, technologique, culturel, social chez l’élève telles que le développement d’un esprit critique et d’analyse, l’attachement à nos valeurs nationales, le respect de valeurs universelles basées sur le respect et l’ouverture sur le monde” (Third Year Curriculum, 2007:3).
According to the above-mentioned quotation, it is clear that with the new reform, the Algerian educational system has the objective of educating learners who will be aware of the global values in general and the basic values of their society in particular. Moreover, language learning is not merely a linguistic system for learners to express ideas, transmit information and communicate with one another. However, presenting English should reflect social values, customs and beliefs and not only be used for instructional purposes. Furthermore, acquiring English is a way to develop the learner’s personality in all its dimensions as well as a way of personal enrichment of the Algerian learners as citizens of their country and the global village. In sum, English as a foreign and additional language should be viewed as a “form of symbolic medium which carries social and cultural knowledge” (Weedon and Baxter cited in O’Brien et al, 2009:178).

1. Objectives of the Study

The present research has the following objectives:

- To investigate through content analysis (CA) and critical discourse analysis (CDA) and by using pre-set categories (Sadker and Sadker’s categories of bias), gender, racial and generational representations in the English Secondary School textbooks currently being used in order to determine:

  - Gender bias

  - To check whether the language used in the textbooks is sexist and discriminatory against women or is rather neutral and represents the two sexes in an equal way.

Although the attention of the language planner is usually focused on describing and eliminating linguistic sexism at the word level, an attempt should be made to examine the issue at sentence and discourse level or at least to draw the language users’ attention to the fact that eliminating sexism is not a matter of replacing sexist terms with non-sexist ones (Pauwels cited in Mills, 2008:15).
As Pauwels directs our attention to the issue, our study seeks to repair this omission by approaching sexism at the word, sentence (grammar) and discourse level.

- It analyses racial bias
- It examines the generational gap and conflicts as they are reflected in the textbooks.
- Ageism: like racism and sexism are more or less the same in the sense that they involve discrimination.

2. Statement of the Issue and Hypothesis

The general objective of this dissertation is to explore how gender, race and generation are represented in EFL textbooks in Algeria. In other words, the study examines the ways in which the new reform official goals of values such as tolerance, respect, openness and understanding are promoted or demoted in the coursebooks: These include the gender and racial ideologies, gender roles conveyed by the textbooks, the possible struggle between traditional or sexist discourse and what might be called “new gender discourse” and generational conflicts and gaps. These two research questions entail the general goal of the study: Do the English textbooks carry out any form of bias in terms of gender, race and generation? Does the way the generational issue is handled in these manuals widen the generational gap and reinforce generational conflicts or is it the opposite? In order to find out answers to this raised problematic, the two major questions are supported by these sub-questions that will guide our discussion:

- Do the newly designed textbooks reflect or meet the new social and pedagogical expectations of the reform in terms of the representations of gender, race and generation?

Given the fact that one of the primary objectives of this reform is to promote values such as tolerance, solidarity, respect to others and openness.
- How are gender roles depicted in the textbooks?
- Do the content and illustrations of the selected textbooks reflect sexist attitudes?
- Do the designers of these textbooks take into consideration the different guidelines put forward by theorists to avoid gender and racial biases?
- How are various ethnic groups depicted?
- In what way and to what extent will cultural bias impact students’ achievements?
- What effective mechanisms are provided by the Algerian Ministry of Education for ensuring the production of bias–free textbooks?

In order to answer the above stated questions that will shape our study, these hypotheses are advanced:

- The representation of gender and gender roles in English textbooks reflect the development of Algerian society towards equality between women and men.
- Even though the review of literature has revealed that the bulk of EFL textbooks are “perniciously biased” we hypothesize that the situation now is changing, thanks to the elaboration of guidelines that reject all forms of bias.

To answer all these questions, our analysis will be relied on Sadker and Sadker’s categories of bias (1995) that will be explained thoroughly in the course of this dissertation.

3. The Scope of the Present Research

The analysis of gender, race and generation in the Algerian English Secondary School textbooks is a broad topic. Therefore, it is important to outline the scope of our study.

The determination of the relationship between text and the users of textbooks (learners and teachers) inside the classroom is beyond the scope of this research. In other terms, we are not going to address the question of how textbooks are perceived and used by teachers and learners from gender, race and generation perspectives.
Some of the aspects of the education process that include learners’ pedagogy, classroom interaction that may affect learners and have a strong link with the issues under investigation are overlooked. For example, teachers tend to give boys more attention in the classroom than girls (Sadker and Sadker, 2008). Males more often ask questions which require advanced reasoning skills than are female (Ibid).

This research does not examine other factors influencing inequalities between groups. In other words, it does not examine the intersection of gender, race and age, which has been shown to be significant in prior studies (Lord cited in Pilcher and Whelehan, 2004:34).

The study also does not investigate how students make meaning from the images and text contained within the textbooks. The assumption is that the images and words contained within the textbooks do help to construct social reality and that students are affected by them. However, this assumption is not tested in this study.

Namely, this research work is confined to gender, racial and generational representations within At The Crossroads, Getting Through and New Prospects by analyzing the content and messages contained within text and illustrations. Bearing in mind what Daniel Stufflebeam said “the most important purpose of evaluation is not to prove but to improve”, our aspiring goal in this magistér dissertation is to carry out an evaluation that would be fruitful in improving the quality of EFL textbooks in Algeria by producing findings that may help textbooks’ authors, teachers and students to be aware of the different forms of bias that may have negative impact on the learners.
4. Research Methodology

In the current section, we are going to give a brief outline of our methodology that will be applied to realise our research. This is an exploratory analytical research based on the content analysis (CA) and a critical discourse analysis (CDA) of *At The Crossroads, Getting Through* and *New Prospects* designed for SE1, SE2 and SE3 in Algeria. A content analysis of illustrations and text will be performed. According to Merriam-Webster’s Online Dictionary, content analysis is an “analysis of the manifest and latent content of a body of communicated material (as a book or film) through a classification, tabulation, and evaluation of its key symbols and themes in order to ascertain its meaning and probable effect”. The content analysis of the textbooks, through its tabulation and evaluation of the illustrations and the text would reveal messages contained within the textbooks regarding the importance of gender, race and generation with respect to people’s place in our society.

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) will be also applied in this study. Researchers who are interested in the relationship between language and society use CDA to help them describe, interpret, and explain such relationships. In the third chapter, our research methodology will be detailed.

5. Structure of the Dissertation

In addition to the general introduction in which we provide the motivation and significance of the study, statement of the issue and hypothesis, the scope of the study and research methodology design, our dissertation comprises two parts which are, in turn, divided into chapters. The first part includes four chapters: the first three chapters are meant to go over the previous literature review related to the issues of gender, race and generation and the fourth chapter details the research methodology used to implement our study. As for the second part, this consists of three chapters where the results reached through our analysis of
each issue and their discussion are reported. Finally, a general conclusion of our research is
given. It presents the summary of the main points of our work and suggestions that would be
a source for further research in the area of textbook evaluation as well as recommendations
that would help the improvement of school textbooks’ quality.
Part One

Literature Review and Methodology

Introduction

As it is pointed out in our introduction to the research, this theoretical part is divided into four chapters; while the first three chapters respectively deal with the Literature Review on the issues of gender, race and generation, the fourth one details our Methodology. As its name denotes, the Literature Review is devoted basically to looking back at our topic-related previous works which revolve around gender, race and generation theories. In general, three common aims are pursued throughout these chapters. One, to clarify the basic terminology that will be referred to all along our discussion of each issue that may be unfamiliar to the reader; two, to elaborate Sadker and Sadker’s categories of bias (1995) that are used as a framework of analysis of bias in the Algerian Secondary School textbooks and three, to present previous works undertaken within the area of textbook evaluation with regards to gender, race and generation. The fourth chapter included in this part deals with the research methodology adopted to put into practice our survey. It consists of a brief analysis of the Secondary School English curriculum to elicit the main points that stress the social and cultural aspects of the new reform, alongside with a detailed description of the English textbooks that will serve as the corpus of our study. More importantly, the research methods of content analysis (CA) and critical discourse analysis (CDA) will be fully discussed.
Chapter One: Theoretical Issues on Gender

The issue of gender is one of the foci of our investigation. The present chapter will be totally devoted to it. Its main objective is to explore how women and men are portrayed in school textbooks. To begin with, defining the most crucial terms that are linked to the gender issue can serve as a way to introduce the points with which our discussion is concerned. Then, Sadker and Sadker’s categories of bias (1995) with respects to gender will be presented. After, all along our discussion, three main points will be highlighted: Firstly, What do we mean by gender studies and from where have they originated? It seems to us that answering this question will serve as a good starting point to shed light on the representation of gender in EFL textbooks. Then, we will provide an overview of the early days of the field of language and gender and its development. Secondly, we try to explain feminism which is a central perspective for the study of gender and elaborate the social learning theory, gender identity and the traditional division of labour. Finally, previous works done on the portrayal of gender in textbooks will be reported and we will end up with the main points reached through our discussion of the gender aspect.

1. The Definitions of Key Terms

A - Gender and Sex are two terms that are often conceived synonyms. However; there is a clear-cut distinction between them. The term “sex”, which is taken to refer to “differences between females and males that are based on biology” (Downes, 1998:203). By contrast, gender is used to describe, “socially constructed categories based on sex” (O’Grady et al, 1996:549). So, sex is an objective biological fact and gender expresses subjective cultural attitudes. Hence, we can define gender as opposed to sex as a socio-cultural specific set of characteristics that identifies the social behavior of women and men and the
relationship between them. Thus, gender refers not simply to women and men but also to the relationship between them, and the way this relationship is socially constructed.

B - Bias is defined as “a tendency to support or oppose a particular person or thing in an unfair way by allowing personal opinions to influence your judgement” (Cambridge Advanced Learners Dictionary, 2003).

C - Gender stereotyping refers to the psychological traits and behaviours that are believed to occur with differential frequency in the two gender groups….they are often used in support for traditional sex roles (eg, women are nurses, men are construction workers) and may serve as a socialization model for children (Ember and Ember, 2003:11). In other terms, gender stereotypes may be defined as the tendency of a given culture to assign particular traits, characteristics and roles distinctly to women and men. The assumption behind stereotyping is that the attributes of man apply to all men and those of woman to all women.

D - Gender roles is a sociological term borrowed from theatre. It refers to the set of behaviours, duties and expectations attached to occupying a particular social position (Burr, 1998:22). So we can put it differently by saying that gender roles are behaviours, attitudes, interests and skills that a culture considers appropriate for female and males and that the genders are expected to fulfill, as a social construct, gender roles are not fixed and can thus change.

E - Biased language communicates inaccurately about what it means to be male, female, black or white, young or old … it reflects the same bias found in racism, sexism and ageism (Maggio, 1996:6).

F - Sexist language promotes and maintains attitudes that stereotype people according to gender while assuming that male is the norm—the significant gender (ibid:7).
G - Non–sexist language treats all people equally and either does not refer to a person’s sex at all when it is irrelevant or refers to men and women in symmetrical ways” (Maggio, 1996:6).

J - Androcentrism deriving from the Greek word for male, androcentrism literally means a doctrine of male–centredness. Androcentric practices are those whereby the experiences of men are assumed to be generalizable and are seen also to provide the objective criteria through which women’s experiences can be organized and evaluated (Piltcher and Whelehan, 2004:1). An early use of the term “androcentric” was made by Charlotte Perkins Gillman who subtitled her 1911 book Our Androcentric Culture. In feminist analysis, most societies, historically and in the present, exhibit androcentric tendencies whereby their culture, knowledge, organizations and institutions reflect and reproduce the dominance and power of men. As Smith writes with reference to the modern western context “the problem is not a special, unfortunate and accidental omission of this or that field but a general, organizational feature of our kind of society” (Smith cited in ibd).

K - Androgynous Greek word “andro” (male) and (gyn) female, signifying fluidity in the assignation of gender linked characteristics (Gamble, 1998:152). Some individuals, known as androgynous exhibit high levels of both masculine and feminine traits (O’Brien, 2009:33).

L - Identity is “how people understand their relationship to the world, how the relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future” (Norton, 1997:410). For Norton, identity is a dynamic phenomenon and is often context–bound. Collier claimed that “identities are multiple, overlapping and contextually constituted and negotiated” (Ibid).
2. Sadker and Sadker’s Categories of Bias

While a lot has been said and written down through the years on bias in instructional materials with the aim of eradicating it from the school environment, it has been observed that school textbooks are far from bias free and bias continues to permeate school life (Sadker and Sadker, 2001, Sadker and Zitteleman, 2002). Nevertheless, for the fourth decade, activists and educators have continued to identify and issue guidelines that would improve significantly the quality of school textbooks. Indeed, many case studies all around the globe have been conducted and a huge amount of literature on the subject has been reported and the striking conclusion reached is the general or common pattern for the last forty years. For example, it has been observed that women, group minorities and elders are underrepresented and stereotyped. Researchers in this area have elaborated a set of categories to detect and examine instructional materials for bias sensitivity.

As our evaluation of *At The Crossroads*, *Getting Through*, and *New Prospects* will be based on Myra Sadker and David Sadker’s framework (2001) whereby they had developed a set of categories to assess instructional materials for bias (invisibility, linguistic bias, stereotyping, selectivity or imbalance, unreality, fragmentatation or isolation and cosmetic bias), it seems to us crucial to justify our choice of these categories to serve as the theoretical basis for our research. Being leading scholars in the field of gender and schooling, Sadker and Sadker have reached the same findings as other researchers as far as the bias that prevails in instructional materials. What makes their work so outstanding is the way that they give a simple and thorough elaboration of each form of gender bias. Even though, their discussion is limited to the representation of gender bias; it is argued that these forms may be applied not only to gender but also to other forms of bias like ageism and racism, which is pertinent to our study. “all the seven forms of bias can be also applied to other variables of social
identity like race and age, ethnicity, religion, social class” (Banks, 2001 cited in Ndura, 2003 :3). In the following, each form is thoroughly explained:

**a- Invisibility:** refers to the omission of information regarding any of the main variables (Baker, 2001 cited in Ndura, 2003 ) that make up our individual and collective cultural identity and of the influence that they exert on our everyday life. Most previous research done since the 1960’s has reported a total or relative exclusion of a particular group in school textbooks. For instance, the examination of gender representation in textbooks reflects the visibility of men versus the invisibility of women.

**b- Stereotypes:** A term taken from printing which denotes something fixed and lacking in originality. In common usage the stereotype can be seen as an “ideological discursive strategy which demarcates an us/ them binarity which functions to reinforce the dominant discourse” (Gamble, 1998:306). This concept was introduced into social studies in 1922 when Limpman used to describe the “typical picture that comes to mind when thinking about a particular group” (Macrae et al 1946 cited in ibid ). It is the most familiar form of bias. A stereotype may be negative or positive, justified or unjustified, accurate or inaccurate. Yet, it is the negative, inaccurate and unjustified stereotypes that leave a bad impression or “cause us most concern” (Schneider cited in Worell et al 2002:90). In fact, a stereotype is not only contained within individuals’ minds, but also exists at a collective level. For example, women are often depicted as emotional or bad drivers and men as rational and liking sport, elders as wise and weak.

**c- Unreality:** is another form of bias, where controversial topics like discrimination, racism, exploitation, oppression, sexism, ageism and prejudices are veiled and glossed over in favour of an idealistic world. This technique is widely used to present a distorted image of reality. By doing so; readers are given a rosy picture of unpleasant facts that are widespread in society.
d- **Imbalance or Selectivity:** This technique is applied for textbooks which present only one side or one interpretation of an issue, situation or a group of people, avoiding subtleties and complexities (Sadker and Sadker, 2001:136). The selection or imbalance of the issues to be addressed ignores the different points of view and rejects altogether the different perspectives, and can thus leave the reader confused.

e- **Cosmetic Bias:** Through this form of bias, it is suggested that a text is bias free, but beyond the attractive cover and pictures bias actually persists. The “shiny cover” and pictures mask the bias vis a vis a given group. It is largely used to minimize the impact of bias that may be found in instructional materials by giving a good impression superficially.

f- **Fragmentation and Isolation:** According to Sadker and Sadker (2001), this form of bias takes two forms. One, fragmentation emerged when minority groups and women may be isolated in the texts. Two, minority group members and women may be portrayed as interacting only with persons like themselves. Fragmentation and isolation present non-dominant groups as peripheral members of society.

g- **Linguistic Bias:**

Being a means of communication, language is also an important vehicle for transmitting social values. Words in a language can be a powerful conveyer of bias, either in overt or subtle ways (Mills, 2008:1). Linguistic bias can be defined as the use of language as a conveyer of biases and negative attitudes about a particular group, the group can be either racial, ethnic or gender and age-related.
3. Gender

The academic study of gender has a relatively short history. Its emergence goes back to the late 1960’s with the birth of the women’s movement. Second wave feminists drew attention to the way in which women’s experiences, interests and identities were totally excluded (Pilcher and Whelehan, 2004:10). For instance, the issue of gender was completely overlooked in social sciences in general and in sociology in particular. The “people” it studied were mainly men and the topics it focused on were aspects of the social world especially significant for men, such as paid work and politics (Pilcher and Whelehan, 2004:10).

Additionally, pre 1970’s women were invisible, merely depicted in their traditional roles as wives and mothers within families. During this period the inequalities and differences between women and men were not regarded as an issue worthy to be addressed. Until the 1970’s the study of gender in sociology grew out thanks to the feminists who have severely criticized sociology for its ignorance of women, Wharton claims “The sociology of pre1970’s reflected, male bias, generating knowledge most applicable to men’s lives rather than to the lives of women and to the society defined more broadly” (Wharton, 2005:4).

Also, psychology has been an area where gender researches have been flourished. Right from the beginning, there was what is know as “sex studies”. There are many reasons actually for its prominence. First, social psychological studies of person perception show that sex is especially salient in social groups. It is the first thing people notice about others, and it is one of the things we remember best (Fiske et al cited in Burr, 1998:12). Secondly, many people hold beliefs that aspects of physiology suit men and women for particular social roles. Men’s body strength makes them better for manual labour, and their greater height gives the

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3 “Is a term used to describe a new period of feminist collective political activism and militancy which emerged in the late 1960s”. (Piltcher and whelehan:2004 :144).
impression that they would make good leaders (i.e. people we look up to). Women’s reproductive capacity and the caretaking tasks (e.g., breastfeeding, baby minding) that accompany it make them seem suitable for other roles that require gentleness and nurturance. For more than a century, psychological research focused on the universal, biologically-based causes of behaviour i.e. sex and totally denied the idea that human behaviour is multiply determined i.e. has bio psychosocial determinants).

Until recent years, feminist psychologists, influenced by the women’s movement of the 1960’s and 1970’s started to pay attention to socio-cultural influences on the psychology of women. They used the word “gender” to describe psychological and social aspects of behaviour and social roles. Gradually the term “gender roles” came to replace the older term “sex roles” as psychologists realized the extent to which social and cultural influences operated to move people into particular roles (e.g. breadwinner, bread baker). As a result, the formal study of gender in psychology was established and a great number of journals and articles appeared that have contributed largely to the progress of gender studies. For example, the first psychologies of women textbooks for graduate courses were published in 1971. The journal *Sex Roles* published its first issue in 1975; *Psychology of Women Quarterly* came next in 1977, followed by *Women & Therapy* in 1982.

Furthermore, in the field of English literature, women started to wonder about their exclusion from the greatest works and once these questions were raised, the search for the answers was inevitable and this is what actually gave birth to what started to be known as women studies. During the late 1960’s in the US and from the mid- to late 1970s in the UK, women studies as a specialised area of academic interest began to develop, as well as rapidly spreading elsewhere around the globe.

Last but not least, in the field of sociolinguistics, the relationship between gender and language becomes a fascinating topic since it has a real implication for our real lives.
Sociolinguists as far as gender is concerned are mainly concerned with two aspects of the representation and presentation of gender through language. They can be divided into two categories: how the genders speak or write, and how they are spoken or written about. As an example of the first category, there exists certain forms of language which are appropriate only for use by men and other forms which only women can use. The second category which is the focus of this study, applies to women’s and men’s representations in language, which have become a sociolinguistic target.

4. Gender and Language

The issue of gender and language has a long history. Inspired by the early feminists who paved the way for recent academic research in the field “the women's movement in the 1960’s triggered studies on women's role in linguistic settings” (Cameroon, 1998:23), a large critical literature on the subject has emerged. In its fourth decade (1970-2000), the relationship between language and gender still fascinates and receives growing attention from scholars. Like sociolinguistics in general, the study of language and gender has been always grounded in eliminating disadvantage as it has been explained by various scholars “Investigating and understanding language use are crucial in eliminating disadvantage because it is through language that relationships with others are negotiated and social identities constructed” (ibid). Prior to the 1970’s, women were totally invisible both in psychological and sociological research, this is also the case in the field of sociolinguistics. By the mid 1970’s things were turned upside down with the publication of three books, the latter has continued to significantly influence sociolinguistic work: Male/Female Language (Mary Ritchie Key, 1975), Language and Sex: Difference and Dominance (Barrie Thorne and Nancy Henley, 1975) and Robin Lakoff’s remarkable Language and Women’s Place (1975) which is considered as a turning point in the field because pre 1970’s sociolinguistic
works had entirely ignored gender as a social variable. Moreover, during this period, academic research was dominated by white males who were interested only in co-variation of language and social class, age and ethnicity. This approach is known as “male” or “norm approach” that sprung from the belief that men and people are the same thing.

As far as the relationship between language and gender is concerned, a lot has been written concerning the asymmetries between women’s and men’s language. Sociolinguists have approached language and gender from different perspectives which are: deficit, dominance, difference and the social constructivist approach. The distinctions among these approaches can be found in the way they attempt to explain the gender differences either by social positions, power relations or cultural experiences.

According to the deficit framework which was a characteristic of earlier works in the field. This approach is best-exemplified in Lakoff (1975). In Language and Women’s Place (1975), Lakoff raised the question of gender differences in speech. She identified her objective as to understand what language use can tell us about sexual inequalities. She claimed to establish what is called Women Language (WL). She viewed women as using language in ways that relegate them to subservient status. In her analysis, women were seen as hesitant to express their opinions and likely to use hedges, intonational patterns, and tag question formations to appear tentative and to avoid confrontation with others (Llamas, Mullany and Stockwell; 2007:65). She describes (WL) as deficient, as conveying weakness, uncertainty, and unimportance, in contrast to the standard or neutral language spoken by men. She asserted that women’s language contributes to their inferior status or to them being seen as “the second sex” in terms of Simone de Beauvoir. By not writing about men’s language, Lakoff conveyed her perspective that men’s speech is the standard, and women’s speech less acceptable. Although she assumed men as normative and women as deficient approach, Lakoff realized that women could not easily solve their problems simply by adopting the
speech style of men. According to her, women who speak like men are criticized for not being feminine, and women who use women’s style of speaking are “ridiculed as unable to think clearly, unable to take part in a serious discussion... as less than fully human” (Lakoff cited in Llamas et al, 2007:65). Women are presented to be disadvantaged, inferior language users and thus they speak powerless, uncertain, weak and excessively polite language whereas men are implied to be the superior language users and the language they use is considered to be the norm (Weatherall, 2002).

Regarding the dominance framework, the asymmetries of language use by women and men are interpreted as the manifestations of a patriarchal social order (Llamas et al, 2007:65). To put it differently, this approach sees women as an oppressed group and explains linguistic differences in women’s and men’s speech in terms of men’s dominance and women’s subordination. Those who have used this model tried to show how male dominance is enacted through linguistic practice as Zimmerman and West put it “doing power is often a way of ‘doing gender’” (Zimmerman and West cited Llamas et al, 2007:67).

In the framework of the difference or “two-culture” approach, which is offered as an alternative to the deficit and dominance approaches, women and men constitute different cultures and develop different speech styles chiefly because of the early communication patterns. Girls and boys are thought to play predominantly in single-sex groups and as a result, they develop unique communication patterns in their own gender groups and cross-gender miscommunication occurs (Talbot, 1998). Women begin to assert that they have a different voice, a different psychology, and a different experience of love, work and the family from men (Humm cited in ibid). The advantage of the difference model is that it allows women’s talk to be examined outside a framework of oppression or powerlessness.

The language and gender research concerned with these three types of frameworks has been recently criticized as deterministic and oversimplified since the research mistreats
gender as a fixed, unproblematic binary category shared across cultures and a set of social and cultural attributes and behaviors given to rather than performed by males and females. It also overlooks the interaction of gender with other contextual factors such as social class, social networks, age, social settings and educational background (Cameron, 1998 Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 1992).

The fourth and most recent and prevailing approach is what is known as a “social constructivist”. This approach challenges the idea that gender is static. In this framework gender identity is seen as a social construct rather than as a given social category. As Zimmerman and West put it a speaker should be seen as “doing gender” rather than statically “being” a particular gender” (Zimmerman and West cited in Llamas et al 2007:66). This idea is also adopted by many authors like Suzan Romain who claimed that gender is no longer seen as static, but something that is accomplished in talk every time we speak (Ibid: 66).

The idea of gender as a social and a cultural category is not an old one. The understanding of gender as something performed or done had spread among sociolinguists by the 1990’s. Actually; this altered definition of gender has also shifted the aims of the research in the field of language and gender. Researchers in this field are no longer concerned with showing how gender correlates with the use of linguistic features, yet their aim is to show how speakers use the linguistic resources available to them to accomplish gender. Every time we speak, we have to bring off being a woman or being a man.

All in all, the early years of language and gender research revolved around English-speaking cultures and around white, middleclass speakers. More recently, researchers have been encouraged to study the speech patterns of women and men in a variety of cultures. In the Maghrebin context, Fatima Sadiqui’s comprehensible book **Women, Gender and Language in Morocco** is the best example. She deals with the relationship between women, language and gender in Morocco.
Our analysis of the portrayal of gender in textbooks has applied feminism as a framework. What constitutes feminism and its application to content analysis and critical discourse analysis of gender is discussed in the following section.

**5. Feminism**

This section of literature review sheds light on the theoretical framework of our analysis of gender; feminism and its main types. Through our discussion, we shall briefly outline the general characteristics of the different orientations of feminism with a special emphasis on liberal feminist theory since it has been an instrumental factor in advocating gender changes in the education sphere, particularly gender issues as reflected in school textbooks.

**5.a. Definition**

Despite having a negative connotation for many people, feminism simply refers to a “social movement whose basic goal is equality between men and women” (Lorber, 2005 cited in Gamble, 1998:200). Other feminists put forward similar definitions. Freedman defines feminism as a “belief that women and men are inherently of equal worth. Because most societies privilege men as a group, social movements are necessary to achieve equality between women and men” (ibid). For his part, Gibbon (1999) goes deeper in defining feminism, “feminism is a practice, a philosophy which challenges social arrangements concerning male and female relative values, status, positions, roles, and opportunities” (Gibon cited in Piltcher and Whelehan, 2004:48). Feminist theory, upon which the feminist movement is based, is built upon the concept of the equal worth of women and men and is concerned with eliminating sexism in societies and alleviating the social injustice that results from it.
5.b. The Impetus of Feminism

Currently feminism is regarded as a social and political movement whose objective is to strive for equality of rights, status and power for both women and men. It seeks to change the traditional roles and images of women, to end sexism and attain equal rights for women with men (Makenzie, 1993:156). It is based on the belief that women and men are equal and should be equally valued as well as have equal rights. Feminism addresses, among other gender-related issues, the question of women’s subordination to men. The feminist theoretical framework, looks to how women’s subordination arose, why it is perpetuated and how it might be changed (Aker, 1992:142). Feminists argue that differential valuing of each sex must end so that equality can prevail.

5.c. Main Types of Feminism

Within the broad movement of feminism there are various types of orientations. While the general objective of feminism is the same, feminists differ among themselves with respect to their perceptions of the causes of women’s subordinations as well as the solutions to end it. (Makenzie1993) classifies feminism into cultural, ecofeminism, global, liberal, and socialist and radical. Aker (1987) and Basow (1993) on the other hand, have categorized feminism into three main types, namely, liberal, social and radical. This classification is the one we adopt for its relevance to the context of our study.

5.c.1. Socialist Feminism

Refered to as the dual systems theory because it insists that neither capitalism nor patriarchy alone can explain gender inequalities. Socialist feminists therefore undrestand gender in terms of the way the two systems, the economic system and the system of gender relations, interact with each other (Burr, 1998:30). They argue that there are two different systems of oppression. They emphasize the necessity of changing the economic system as a
precondition for establishing gender equality. Economic oppression and sexist oppression are both seen as fundamental and reinforcing each other. For them, to understand properly women’s oppression, one must look at both the gender division of labour in the domestic sphere as well as the paid work and how they are related (Ibid).

5.c.2. Radical Feminism

Radical feminism developed in relation to the radical civil rights movements of the 1960’s. Radical feminists place the concept of “patriarchy” at the centre of their discussion. They claim that women as a class are and, probably always have been dominated and controlled by men as a class, and thus this domination and control pervades all aspects of their lives (Burr, 1998:29). Their goal is to abolish class and gender inequality and create new culture based on a more balanced synthesis of male and female modes of power. As it is asserted by Beasley 1999:

Radical feminism describes sexual oppression as the primary oppression for Women and other forms of power are often seen as stemming from patriarchy (Social systems of male domination). Men as a group are considered To be the beneficiaries of this systematic and systemic form of power. (Beasley 1999 cited in Monro, 2005:35)

5.c.3. Liberal Feminism

Liberal feminism stems from eighteenth- and nineteenth-century thinking concerning individual equal rights (Burr, 1998:26). Liberal feminists focus upon gender inequality caused by gender discrimination. They see the root of the problem as lying in the way that children are socialized. They assume that girls and boys are born with equal potentials to develop a variety of skills and abilities and it is only through our child-rearing practices and education practices that they learn to become typically feminine or masculine
This idea was put forward by Simone de Beauvoir in her “*The Second Sex*” (1949), which is considered by many as “the bible” of modern western feminism (Ursula: 2009:7) where she claimed that “*one is not born, but rather becomes a woman*” (ibid).

Liberal feminist’s goal is to obtain for women economic, political and social rights equal to those of men within the existing system. Feminism challenges traditional gender orders of male dominance and female subordination. They have a fundamental role in eliminating stereotyping in school textbooks.

**a. Liberal Feminism and Education**

Education has the capability of perpetuating inequality but it also has the power to redress it. Liberal feminism scholarship has therefore, potentially dramatic implications in the field of education. It emphasizes the need to expose and criticize possible male bias in education theory and practice that might perpetuate the exclusion or subordination of women. It is for this reason that liberal feminists have been active in challenging sexism in schools. They have concerned themselves with eradicating sexist instructional materials and encouraging girls to pursue predominantly male careers such as those in science and technology.

**b. Liberal Feminism and Textbooks**

Liberal feminism under the umbrella of feminism proposes the need to expose and criticise possible male bias in the schooling system that might perpetuate the exclusion or subordination of women in society (Hayes cited in Ursula: 2009:7). According to liberal feminists, education is supposed to change attitudes, beliefs and values and bring about gender equality. Within this framework, girls and boys are socialized into traditional attitudes and orientations. This socialisation process conveys hidden messages which function through hidden curriculum in textbooks and affect learners negatively. In order to remove barriers that
prevent females and males from reaching their potential; liberal feminists argue that it is only through education that beliefs that reinforce inequality between women and men are challenged.

Indeed, the struggle to eliminate gender stereotypes in the schooling sphere can well be understood by looking back at the endeavour of feminists since the 1960’s to disclose and do away with sexism in school textbooks. It has been reported by many researchers that female teachers were the first to notice sexist prejudice and stereotypes in instructional materials. This realization generates an awareness of the importance of carrying out research to determine the types and extent of sexism in textbooks. According to Michel (1986) much research was carried out worldwide on the issue of gender prejudices, and the findings were used to denounce sexism by putting in place a set of guidelines that are used to produce material that is free from gender–bias. Although, many efforts were exerted in combating sexism in school coursebooks, studies on gender stereotyping show that it still exists.

Analyzing curriculum material to document gender stereotyping in textbooks is one of the strategies used by liberal feminists to challenge it. As we have already pointed out, the target of this research is the Secondary School English textbooks At The Crossroads, Getting Through, and New Prospects. As many scholars have confirmed, EFL teaching materials representations of gender affect learners both as language users and learners since English has been depicted as “sexist” and assumes that male is the norm. These representations can uncouchsiencly impact learners as they work as ”agents of socialization”. Such influence is even greater when it comes to a context like ours; Algeria, where the learners first language(s) and culture(s) could already be seen as discriminating ones. As it is well stated by P. Trudgill (1974) “sexism is an uncounscious cultural bias, expressed in and reinforced by the language people learn from childhood”. If the problem is not raised, sexist attitudes that
are held in the first culture(s) will be reinforced and maintained and considered as something natural and acceptable without being challenged or resisted.

6. The Social Learning Theory and Gender Identity

Different authors have discussed the social learning theory in relation to the acquisition of gender identity. This theory emphasizes the socialization impact of society on the child. The idea of socialization or social learning can be traced back to the 1970’s and 1980’s. It refers to “the acquisition of social and cultural knowledge to become a competent member in a community through learning from school, interactions with adults and other activities” (Goddad and Patterson cited in Pilcher and Whelehan, 2004:160).

Other authors have linked this process of socialization to language and proposed what is known as “language socialization theory” which is defined as “the practice by which children or novices to a community are socialized both to the language forms and through language, to adopt the values, behaviours and practices of that community” (Schieffelin and Ochs cited in Hinkel, 2005:337) in all works dealing with LS. Through this definition we realize that language socialization extends through one’s life, underscores the importance of understanding the process that learners experience in settings outside the home like schools.

From the general social learning theory, as it relates to textbooks, there are the modeling and cognitive development approaches. Many authors have discussed the application of the modeling theory in relation to the portrayal of gender. According to the modeling theory, which is used to analyze the impact of children’s stereotypes on curriculum materials, it is suggested that children will pay attention, and copy attitudes of characters in textbooks and other instructional materials. It is argued that the self-esteem, fears and aspirations of learners are all influenced therefore by the extent to which they identify with characters and situations that they encounter in print. This becomes especially true when the readers become emotionally involved with the characters.
7. Literature Review on the Portrayal of Gender in Textbooks

For these four last decades, the study of instructional materials from the gender perspective has inspired scholars from various fields: pedagogy, linguistics, social studies, and feminist and critical studies. The massive body of research on the representation of gender in school textbook expanded in the 1970’s when the second-wave feminist movement called attention to the linguistic treatment of women. In the same decade UNESCO also launched a worldwide research programme to explore gender bias in children’s literature and instructional materials. The results were presented in *Down with stereotypes! Eliminating sexism from children’s literature and school textbooks* (Michel 1986). The programme inspired numerous textbook analyses during the following decades. Later on, as sexism could be said to have taken on more implicit and indirect forms, the concept itself came to be understood as a problematic one (Mills 2008) and the interest shifted from textbook content to learner responses (Jones et al cited in Ibid ) and teacher mediation of gender biased texts (Sunderland and Littosseliti, 2002). However, the issue of how gender is represented in learning materials is still worth further studies, especially in foreign language textbooks, for good reason. As Sunderland and Littosseliti point out:

> Foreign language textbooks can be seen as data worth examining for their gender significance because they are characteristically densely populated with people who are not only in social relationships with each other, but who continually verbally interact with each other (Sunderland and Littosseliti 2002:223)

From our review of the literature, we have found that the examination of textbooks with regards to gender has been addressed by analyzing both pictorial and text portrayals of female and male characters. By pictorial presentation we mean illustrations that include pictures and other representations in the form of drawings within textbooks. Text portrayals are linked to the narration of content in the textbook. It is suggested that either visual or linguistic representations can unconsciously have a drastic impact on the minds and
imagination of the readers. For example, illustrations are important in forming images, because people and especially children developing reading skills, form impressions based on the virtual presentation of ideas (Obura cited in Aker, 1991). Many studies carried out on this issue have concentrated either on one dimension or both. Our present evaluation will deal with linguistic as well as pictorial aspects.

It has also been observed that the great number of studies on the representation of gender in school textbooks has been based on content analysis, as the method has the benefit of producing quantitative data that is easy to handle and provides results that can be compared with those from other similar studies. On the other hand, content analysis has been criticised for neglecting the textual context and ignoring the role of the readers as active participants in the discourse process. The present study, as it will be explained in the chapter devoted to research methodology, makes use of content analysis, but combines it with a qualitative analysis of discourse.

More importantly, much of the previous works undertaken on gender in textbooks have strongly confirmed gender bias and the projection of stereotypical views and beliefs, especially for female characters, as pointed out by Jassey:

Virtually all of the studies conclude that textbooks have not adequately reflected the range of women’s roles and occupations in the real world. In general, it seems gender biased images remain strongly present in school textbooks throughout the world (Jassey, 1998 cited in Jason et al, 2004:56).

Indeed, Textbooks within their images and words may contain messages about what the dominant group (men) considers to be important and appropriate. If the educational system continually depicts women and men in stereotypical roles, these images and the placement of women within society are reinforced and perpetuated (Maass and Arcuri, 1996). Maass and Arcuri found that stereotypes are at least partially transmitted via textbooks. Research
indicates that “repeated and unreinforced exposure to a stimulus will affect attitudes towards the stimulus” (Mackie et al cited in Ibid). Exposure effects tend to be strongest when the perceivers are unaware of their exposure (Burr, 1998:87). Hence, in order to counter gender bias in textbooks, researchers have developed a set of categories for analysis; since gender-biased materials have been reported to affect the motivation of students who go through the textbooks (Treichler and Frank cited in Hinkel, 2005:98).

Before moving on with our discussion on the categories of bias that have been selected for our analyses, the “Traditional division of labour” which is thought to be the origin of these forms of bias in society in general, and in school textbooks in particular, will be discussed.

8. The Traditional Division of Labour

The cause of the gendered order and inequality between women and men can be considered using a bio historical analysis (Bem, 1993 cited in Piltcher and Whelehan, 2004:30). Women’s physical sex differences, particularly women’s reproductive activities of pregnancy and lactation, are at least partially responsible for the gendered division of labour. Women’s tasks have historically included nursing and caring for children. These roles made it difficult for women to perform tasks that require speed, long uninterrupted periods of time, or travel (Eagly et al, 2000 cited in Ibid). Traditionally, women have not performed tasks such as hunting large animals. Instead, they have been given tasks that can be performed simultaneously while taking care of children, such as cooking, and weaving. This home-task orientation probably led to women being associated with the home.

Another biological factor which has influenced the gendered division of labour was men’s greater size. There were few paid jobs which were not reliant on physical strength. Strength and size dictated which roles were appropriate for men and women. Technology had
not yet provided tools which would ameliorate the strength or size limitations of the human body.

The traditional gendered division of labour evolved from biological practicality, since men were more mobile, stronger and bigger on average than women. Men did not have the physical constraints of pregnancy and childbirth, nor were they responsible for feeding the children. Women stayed at home and performed tasks that were associated with or near the home; they raised the children. Men, on the other hand, went out into the world; they hunted, they explored, and they protected their home. They became warriors; they could better defend their homes because they were bigger and stronger than women. Men would do the heavy labour since they were physically more suited to the role. This division of labour based on biological differences went on for centuries. Both genders over time became associated with characteristics of the roles they were assigned. Research has shown that people tend to assign characteristics to others based upon the roles that have (Pilcher, and Whelehan, 2004:30). If people work in a certain job, they are viewed as having the characteristics of that job, whether or not they innately possessed those traits before having that job.

In another argument that seeks to justify the gendered division of labour in societies, naturalists claim that men and women are inherently biologically different. Sex is determined by biology; gender refers to the kinds of social relations commonly attributed to the differences between males and females (Roy cited in Ibid). Proponents of the sex difference viewpoint assert that biology determines gender. This argument is based on the premise that, biologically, women do not have the same talents and abilities as men; therefore, women will have different opportunities and careers than men. The sexes are fundamentally different and social inequality is continually justified due to these natural differences.
9. Sadker and Sadker’s Categories of Bias with Regards to Gender

In this part of literature, we turn our attention to the seven categories of gender bias that have been developed by Myra Sadker and David Sadker (2001) to assess instructional materials. Indeed, these forms of bias exist from picture books to college texts, from brochures to official documents. Therefore, mastering this framework offers a useful lesson for both teachers and students at all instructional levels (Sadker and Sadker, 2001:13)

a. Invisibility : The Depiction of Frequency of Appearance of Characters

In this section the frequency of female and male characters’s appearance in textbooks is discussed. Our discussion is based on what constitutes a biased instructional material in relation to the invisibility of characters.

Sadker and Sadker (2005) and Gossman (1994) are among those researchers who have reported on this aspect. According to the former, one of the features of a biased textbook is when female characters appear less frequently than their male counterparts. Grossman (1994) discusses “invisibility” of characters as one of the elements of gender-biased textbooks. Invisibility is when certain groups are underrepresented or omitted altogether (Grossman, 1994:67) and, in this case, women were shown to be invisible.

One way to indicate the prominence of female and male characters in textbooks is by the number of characters depicted in textbooks. It has been reported that invisibility is embedded in four main facets :protagonists, historical figures assuming protagonists’ roles or being mentioned, female and male appearance in texts and illustrations. According to Michel (1986), the depiction of female and male characters in terms of frequency of appearance can indicate discriminatory attitudes towards girls and women. This is demonstrated when frequency of presentation of male characters in text and illustration is greater than female characters. On another level, according to Sadker and Sadker (1995), it is the prominence
given to the characters being narrated that tells whether or not a textbook is discriminatory. A
character can be considered a protagonist by being the central character in the story.

Most previous research done since the 1960’s has reported of a total or relative
exclusion of a particular group in EFL school textbooks. For example, the examination of
genre representation reflects the visibility of men versus the invisibility of women.

Indeed, ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign
Language) textbooks have been the target of extensive ongoing studies from a gender
perspective, which essentially aims at analyzing how females and males are portrayed in
many areas of language. It has been commonly found that gender bias and sexism continue to
flourish in spite of the laws and guidelines that have been put forward for more than forty
years. The fact that textbooks’ authors have presented more male than female characters is
well documented by a number of researchers. These include, among others: Hartman and
studies are selected since it is out of our reach to cover all the countless research findings on
this issue.

The first pioneering study was carried out by Hartman and Judd (1978). They explored
the treatment of women in ESL materials. Some of their observations revealed that women
were often less visible than men. Also, illustrations found in the texts reinforced this aspect
since the majority of characters were mainly males which reflect sexist attitudes and values.

Another study that was conducted on this aspect was Porreca’s investigation (1984) on
how sexism manifests itself in ESL textbooks and with what consequences five years after
Hartman and Judd study. Porreca analyzed fifteen ESL textbooks which had been bought in
the largest quantities by all the ESL centers and focused on (1) omission (the ratio of females
to males) in texts and illustrations, (2) the frequency of male nouns to female ones, (3) female
exclusive masculine generic constructions. In each category of her study, Porreca found that there was evidence that sexism continued to flourish in ESL textbooks.

Additionally, a study by Gupta and Lee (1990) confirmed that the number of characters depicted in EFL textbooks favours male characters. They observed that the presentation of female and males characters in English textbooks used in Singapore primary schools and found out that males accounted for 71% of all characters, and male characters also spoke more than females. In addition males tended to control topics.

More recent research was conducted by Holmqvist (2006) who analyzed six EFL textbooks used in the secondary and upper schools in Sweden. Two texts had been in use since the 1970’s and the other four texts were published in 2004. Concerning the aspect of invisibility, Holmqvist’s findings showed that in illustrations, the majority of pictures portrayed are males. One interesting findings demonstrated that the number of famous men mentioned were four times higher than the number of famous women. Holmqvist was surprised by the results of the study because the gender and gender roles in English textbooks would reflect the progression of Swedish society towards equality between women and men. However, on the contrary, modern EFL textbooks still show a tendency to promote males and to diminish females.

Looking back over the research findings covered in the literature review from the 1970’s through to the 2000’s, indicates no gender balance in the depiction of the frequency of characters. It can be seen that males have been much more visible in textbooks than females. Men were more visible than women in most textbooks analyzed. Additionally; men were in more stories, photographs, citations, and dialogues. Even though it has been reported that women are becoming more visible than in previous decades, the depictions of women are still not as visible and prominent as depictions of men. Progress with respect to women’s visibility
in textbooks needs be made since the low visibility of women can have negative effects on learners. Sunderland notes that:

If female learners are conscious of the female 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 (Sunderland, 2006:86).

b. Linguistic Bias

Language is a means of communication that reflects social values, and thus an important vehicle for transmitting ideas about masculinity and femininity. Language gives some the power to dominate “language contributes to the domination of some people by others” (Fairclough cited in Mills 1995:4), order and so on and so forth. Words in a language are powerful tools that convey meanings through inferences and overtones. Therefore, gender bias can be portrayed through language by either speaking or writing and this is usually done in subtle ways (Mills, 2008:3). The way language portrays and represents women has been a core issue in the field of language and gender. Romaine summarises well how women are harmely injured by language when she writes “language both reflects and constructs a woman’s status; it often casts her in an inferior or unfavourable light” (Romaine, 1999: 291).

In Feminists Stylistics (1995) and Language and Sexism (2008), Sara Mills explains how language can be discriminatory against women. She detailed the different forms that sexism can take. In the following section, we are going to discuss the issue of language and sexism as far as the English language is concerned by taking Mill’s books as references.

b.1. Language and Sexism

Language and sexism has been an issue keenly debated by feminists since the 1960’s and is still today a sociolinguistic target. Our aim in dealing with this aspect is to find
out whether there is any manifestation of sexism in the Algerian Secondary School English textbooks. Our discussion will be led by making reference to the review of literature on the subject and relying on Mill’s *Language and Sexism* (2008) and *Feminists Stylistics* (1995). Based on her own experience as one of the leading feminists and taking her bearings from the previous research carried out in the field of language and gender, Mills suggests two forms of sexism that she defines as overt/direct sexism and indirect sexism. According to her overt sexism is clear and unambiguous; in other words it is that type of sexism that feminists of the previous decades had tried to combat. While indirect sexism or, as it is also termed, “subtle sexism” “can only be understood contextually in relation to the interpretation of surrounding utterances” (Mills, 2008:1). It is of course this type of sexism that is more difficult to see and therefore there is an urgent need to tackle it. Indeed, our aim in this research paper is to analyse sexism in the reform-based textbooks, yet moving from a simple analysis of direct sexism that should not be considered “banal”, but a necessary step, to an analysis of “indirect sexism” a more subtle form of contextualised sexism.

Sexism has been defined differently by many scholars in different areas of research. However the one which is often cited in literature reviews on the subject is the one given by liberal feminists which states that “sexism is the practices whereby someone foregrounds gender when it is not the most salient feature” (Vetterling-Braggin, 1981 cited in Mills, 2008:3). This means that sexism can be regarded just as a mistake caused by a lack of awareness from the part of the speaker or writer and thus can be rectified simply by making them aware of the mistake, rather than assuming an individual basis of sexism (ibid). For her part, Mills challenges this traditional conception of sexism; since she feels that it has become highly problematic. The initial idea of sexism as being systematic discrimination against women and working for the benefit of all men has become old-fashioned. She defines sexist language as “that language-use, conscious or unconscious on the part of the speaker, which
may alienate females (and males), and which may lead to the establishment of an environment which is not conducive to communication and effective social interactions” (Mills, 1995:3).

Furthermore, Mills claims that “sexism”, just like racism and other discriminatory forms of language, stems from larger societal forces, wider institutionalised inequalities of power and, ultimately, therefore conflict over what gives individuals the rights to certain positions and resources (ibid). She adds that language is not just a neutral vehicle which represents reality but a site of struggle over word-meaning.

Being aware of the complex nature of sexism, she argues that sexism does not only reside in isolated words or phrases that can be exposed objectively but it is also related to the context as explained below by Deborah Cameron:

If we take it that no expression has a meaning independent of its linguistic and non-linguistic context, we can plausibly explain the sexism of language by saying that all speech events in patriarchal cultures have as part of their context the power relations that hold between women and men. This varied and heterogeneous context is what makes expressions and utterances liable to sexist interpretation. (Cameroon, 2006:16)

As reflected by this quotation, recently, feminist analysis of sexism has shifted from a simple analysis of “overt” sexism which occurs at the word level to an analysis of indirect sexism which resides at the levels of sentences and discourse “the subtle and hence more insidious discriminatory and exclusionary discourse that abound” (Mills, 2008:7).

b.2. Overt Sexism and Indirect Sexism

Sometimes it is difficult to categorize some statements as being sexist linguistically, simply because we do not possess clues. For this reason, currently we can not speak of sexism in the way that feminists of the 1970’s and the 1980’s did, since there has been a shift of emphasis. While the original concern of feminists was sexism at the linguistic level, nowadays feminist linguists are much more interested by another form of sexism which
goes deeper i.e. discursive level. Sexism, as many scholars explain, and because of their negative effects on women, these two forms are just two sides of the same coin that will be explained in later sections.

**b.2.a. Types of Overt sexism**

Analyzing sexism in the same way as second wave feminists have done since the 1960’s is undeniably necessary but is perhaps just the tip of the iceberg. Their aim was to draw attention to the way in which the use of certain language items seemed to be discriminatory and cause offence to women, by compiling lists of such language items in dictionaries and calling for people and institutions to avoid such language use (Mills, 2008:38). This lexicographical work has been of great importance in highlighting overtly sexist language, yet it has ignored that more subtle form of “contextualized sexism” which arose as a response to their anti-sex discriminatory language campaigns and is difficult to easily recognize.

Interest shown in “direct sexism” had actually produced a large amount of literature on the subject. The most crucial and prevailing forms in which it manifests itself are categorized and covered as follows:

**A- Words and Meaning**

1- Masculine Generic Constructions

2- Naming

3- Women as the Marked Form

4- Endearments and Diminutives

5- First names, Surnames and Titles

6- Semantic Derogation
B- Processing

As its name denotes and from the above categorization, it is clear that direct sexism resides in individual words that can be directly and easily identified. Below, we shall give an account of how sexism is embedded in words and meaning (nouns, pronouns and adjectives) as well as in verbs or processes.

1-Masculine Generic Constructions

Regarding their great significance, the use of nouns and pronouns in English has been a core aspect in feminist discussion of the relationship between language and gender, as Hellinger and Bussmann describe:

Personal nouns and pronouns... have emerged as a central issue in debates about language and gender. In any language personal nouns constitute a basic and culturally significant lexical field. They are needed to communicate about the self and others, they are used to identify people as individuals or as members of various groups, and they may transmit positive or negative attitudes. In addition, they contain schemata of, e.g. occupational activities and (proto- or stereotypical) performers of such activities. On a psychological level, an appropriate use of personal nouns may contribute towards the maintenance of an individual’s identity, while inappropriate use, for example, identifying someone repeatedly (either by mistake or by intention) by a false name, by using derogatory or discriminatory language, or by not addressing someone at all, may cause irritation, anger or feelings of inferiority. (Hellinger and Bussmann cited in Mills, 2008:47).

Masculine generic constructions is a concept defined as a fixed expressions for “all” that tend to be male. These are called “generics” which imply that a word such as “he” is used generally to refer to both females and males, it is usually refered to as the ‘he-man” language. There are also other “generics” like “man”, “mankind” “businessman”. The use of masculine generic language is “The prevalent use in referring to people as male in general and to individuals when the sex of the person is unknown or is irrelevant” (Lawrance and Tshum, 1992 cited in ibid). When the sex of the character in an illustartion is unknown,“he”or “man” is used as a substitute. In many stories, the term “man”is also widely used as a generic
term. “Man” is also used as a prefix in such examples as “man-power” or “man-hours”, or as an affix in such examples as “craftsman”, “seaman”, “policeman”, “fireman”, “postman”, “dustman”, “fisherman”…etc. In all of these cases the generic nature of the term is often undercut by the context, and is usually understood as referring only to males. This usage is claimed to be confusing by feminists and contributes to the effect of asserting the markedeness of female reference i.e. to the invisibility of females within the language and within society at large. This idea is not a new one, and can also be found in earlier feminist philosophical writings. For example, Simone de Beauvoir noted that in male dominated cultures, the term man:

Represented both the positive and the neutral, as is indicated by the common use of man to designate human beings in general; whereas woman represents only the negative, defined by limiting criteria, without reciprocity.

(De Beauvoir, 1952 cited in Weather all, 2002:12)

Indeed, feminist’s achievements in redressing the use of generic nouns and pronouns have born fruit and we can now see the results. For example using ‘she/he’, ‘s/he’ and ‘they’ instead of ‘he’, and also replacing “man” with “person” as in the examples “chairperson” instead of “chairman”. Romaine (2000) suggests that we need to look not only at pronouns but at the number of times that males and females are referred to.

2-Naming

Starting from the point that “To be named, carried values”⁴, we look at why the question of “naming” is usually raised whenever language and sexism are dealt with. An obvious way that gender-differentiated language use reflects social hierarchies is through naming conventions, which are often ways of referring to people and addressing them in

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interaction. Naming conventions have therefore been targeted by feminists for change as it is asserted by Cameroon that “many strands in the feminist critique of language have specifically concerned themselves with representation” (Cameroon, 2006:12). In her book entitled *Man–Made Language* (1980), Spender has been said to have pioneered the discussion and analysis of sexism in language by focusing on naming. She reported that many words have negative connotations when they are used to refer to women. She gave the example of “shrill” and “feisty”, usually used to depict a woman’s strong voice and determination but both with negative connotations. She continues to say that; while one wants to depict a male to mean the same thing other adjectives with positive connotations are used. She strongly argues that:

> Names are essential for the construction of reality for without a name it is difficult to accept the existence of an object, an event, a feeling. Naming is the means whereby we attempt to order and structure the chaos and flux of existence which would otherwise be an undifferentiated (Spender cited in Mills, 2008:43).

### 3-Women as the Marked Form

In English the range of affixes used to refer to women has been amply documented. Such affixes lead to a view of women as the deviation from a male universal norm. The female form is seen as the marked term and the male as the unmarked term. The different affixes such as ‘lady’ and ‘-ess’, ‘-ette’, ‘-enne’, ‘-trix’ have connotations which the male term does not; these connotations are generally derogatory and trivializing. Terms like ‘lady poet’, ‘lady doctor’ suggest amateurism of the person whom they are depicting (Mills, 1995:70). The terms ‘actress’, ‘authoress’, ‘hostess’, ‘stewardess’, ‘poetess’, ‘comedienne’, ‘aviatrix’ and so on also reflect a sense of lack of seriousness about them, especially when
they are compared with the male terms (actor vs actress’). Etymologically speaking, many of these terms are diminutive forms of the male term; that is, ‘-ette’ can be seen to mean ‘smaller than’ or ‘less than’. Many feminist theorists argue that these terms should be avoided because they have trivializing connotations “these terms which refer to women using an affix were in fact always problematic: they never only denoted the female counterpart of a male referent, but generally carried additional negative connotations” (Hellinger, 2006:59).

4-Semantic Derogation

There are many words in English which have a tendency to be derogatory towards women. Schultz argues that there is “a semantic derogation of women – a systematic process whereby words and phrases associated with women becomes negatively inflected” (Schultz, cited in Mills, 2008:56). In this respect, Cameroon reports “feminists have discovered that many languages have an underlying semantic or grammatical rule where the male is positive and the female negative, so that the tenets of male chauvinism are encoded into language” (Cameroon cited in Mills, 1995:83)

There are terms which are etymologically connected, but the scope of the female-specific term is different from that of the male-specific term, being used to refer to someone of lower status and frequently having an overlaid sexual connotation. For example, the terms ‘courtesan’ and ‘courtier’ have meanings which seem so far apart that the original connection will come as a surprise to many. The male term has retained its meaning of someone attached to court, but the female equivalent now has the meaning of a sexual servant or prostitute. ‘Adventurer’ and ‘adventuress’ are similar in that adventuress has a sexual connotation, as do the other female terms. This pattern is repeated frequently in other pairs of gender-contrastive terms such as these:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>mistress</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the cases of the terms like ‘master’ and ‘mistress’ and ‘sir’ and ‘madam’, the male term has retained its associations of power and prestige, but while the female term can still have this core meaning, it has acquired a sexual and non-prestigious meaning. English is full of such terms which have sexual connotations when they are associated with women, and have connotations of power and prestige when they are associated with men.

Moreover, there are other words which refer to women alone (‘skinny’, ‘bubbly’, ‘vivacious’, ‘pretty’, ‘voluptuous’, ‘tom boy’) which seem to have no male equivalent. They seem to have a derogatory effect simply because they are generally used to refer to women. Indeed, many feminists pointed out the psychological cost many women may experience when they are addressed with such labels “the harm done does not need to be physical, but can arise from a hostile verbal environment” (Romaine: 1999:03).

5- Endearments and Diminutives

Endearments and diminutives have become one of the crucial areas of feminists’ debate on the relationship between language and gender. It has been found that certain endearment terms, which may be used with affection, can also be used to demean. Men can use a category of words to refer to their female partners; for example, “my bird”, “my chick”, which appear to be endearments, but which imply equivalence between women and cute small animals. Similarly, there is a wide range of vocatives frequently used by men to and about women —“doll”, “baby”, “chuck”, “chick”, “duck”, “ducky”, “hen”, “pet”, “flower”, “petal” and so on. These terms can also be used to refer to men, but less frequently and only in particular contexts, such as an older woman to a younger man, where a parent-child
relationship seems to be invoked (i.e. the relationship involves unequal status) (Mills, 1995:68).

Also, there is a range of words such as “honey”, “sweety”, “sweetheart”, “sugar”, “cheesecake” used to refer to women more frequently than men, which imply the referent is something good to eat, available for consumption. Therefore, feminist linguists have severely criticized and rejected the usage of terms which are apparently endearments but are applied more frequently to women than men and in fact reproduce asymmetric patriarchal power relations (ibid:89).

6- First names, Surnames and Titles

These words have also been the target of feminist analysis of language. In English it has been claimed that first names which are given to women tend to have diminutive forms (for example, Debbie, Nikki, Maggie, Mandy), whereas male names tend not to be seen as diminutive.

Besides, surnames have displayed a form of possession of the woman by her husband on marriage; and the traditional loss of name on marriage has been fiercely debated by feminists. Hellinger and Pauwels argue that the use of the male’s surname after marriage, together with the use of titles “which identify women in terms of their relationship to men (married or not married)... highlight their dependency on the male” (ibid).

More to the point, the use of titles for women is equally fraught with difficulties, because of the need to choose between ‘Mrs’ and ‘Miss’ (where there is no equivalent distinction between married and unmarried men). The term ‘Ms’ was introduced in the 1970’s, in the UK and US, in order to give women the option of choosing to represent themselves as something other than married or unmarried. While Ms is still very much used by feminists in Britain, and is widely available as an option on official forms and considered neutral, for many it is often treated with some suspicion.
Indeed, the use of such titles Mrs, Miss and Ms are considered by feminists as sexist because they denigrate females. They do not only qualify a person as a female, like the title Mr which qualifies maleness, but specify is the female married or not. In fact, titles like Mrs and Miss do not mark women as femaleness in women but they are symbolic “as men’s property and present their status as sex objects” women are “available “or “not available “according to whether they are” owned by another male or not”(Romaine,1999:300).

B- Processing

As we have seen so far, overt sexism analysis has focused on pronouns, nouns and adjectives. However, recently, verbs or processes have become the focus of feminist discussion. (Free body and Baker cited in Mills, 2008) have found a set of verbs associated with males in a subject positions like “work” “answer” and object position like play with and for females like “hold on to”, “kiss”. It has been observed that although there has been some changes in overtly sexist usage in recent years, the process of associating verbs with males or females is still present in EFL school textbooks (Mills, 2008:69).

B.1. Transitivity

This concept is associated with Michael Halliday’s work in Symtric Lingusites from 1940 onwards. According to him, transitivity

Is the set of options whereby the speaker encodes his “experience”of the process of the external world, and of the internal world of his consciousness, together with the participants in these process and their attendant circumstances; and it embodies a very basic distinction of processes into two types those that are required as due to an external cause, an agency other than the person or object involved, and those that are not involved (Halliday cited in Mills, 2008:70).

The study of transitivity is concerned with how actions are represented: what kind of actions appear in a text, who does them and to whom they are done. When we make
choices between different types of process and different participants, between the different roles participants might take, these decisions are shown syntactically through transitivity choices.

Through his work, Hallidays has shown that by analyzing patterns in transitivity choice it is possible to make more general statements about the way characters or people view their position in the world and their relations to others. To put it more explicitly, we can deduce the extent to which a character is a passive “victim” of circumstances, or is actively in control of situations, and making decisions. Transitivity is one of the concerns of Feminists Stylistics⁵, as it is reflected through the literature; women are always represented as victims and recipient of male’s actions. “Instead of being represented as active and acting upon others, they are very often represented as the recipients of other’s actions, in the object position rather than the subject position” (Mills, 2008:78). As the aim of this study is to unveil the way women are treated and represented in the textbooks, through the examination of the grammatical function, we seek to shed light on the positions allocated to both genders and the way they act in discourse sentences. A careful examination of sentences was carried out and the focus was on one position which is the role of the actor as a subject or as agents of her or his own actions.

B.2. Reported Speech

Caldas-Coulthard cited in (Mills, 2008:88) argues that there is a tendency for the speech of females to be represented in news reports in indirect speech rather than in direct speech. She suggests that, because of this lack of direct quotation from women, women’s statements are mediated by newspapers, which often leads to evaluative statements being made through the use of reporting words such as ‘claim’and this actually reflects the

invisibility of women in language. Moreover, women are marginalized by being denied the role of active agents (Weatherall, 2002:14).

b.2.b. Indirect Sexism

Overt sexism has been severely criticised by feminist linguists and reforming measures have been taken to get rid of the prejudices that are associated with women. Unfortunately, in spite of all these efforts to combat this “discriminatory form” of language, recently, other forms or responses have emerged as a reaction to feminist interventions: “political correctness” and “indirect sexism” or what Mills claims as the “ironising of sexism”. In order to get a clear insight into “this new sexism” the notion into “indirect sexism” will be fully discussed, while “political correctness” will not be dealt with here since it is not a core issue in our research work.

It has been observed by recent research in the field that “new sexism” is usually accompanied by either humour or irony and statements used to depict women are sexist and discriminatory. Williamson refers to this type of sexism as “retro-sexism” because it seems to be drawing on very outdated notions of sexual difference and male and female identity. She states: “retro-sexism” is sexism with an alibi: it appears at once past and present, “innocent” and knowing, a conscious reference to another era, rather than an unconsciously driven part of our own” (Williamson cited in Gill, 2007: 111). Therefore, “indirect sexism” it is not overtly stated, but occurs beyond the word level i.e. at the level of the phrase/sentence and at the level of discourse. In the following, we shall analyze how sexism manifests indirectly at the level of sentences by covering these areas: ready made phrases, presuppositions and inferences, metaphores, humour and jokes and collocation and connotations, then we move our attention to the discoursal sexism and how it manifests itself through characters/roles, fragmentations and focalizations.

1. Analysis at the Sentence Level
a- Ready -Made Phrases

As stated previously, English is full of words which demean and degrade women and which seem to portray them as a negative “other” to a male norm. Also, in all languages, we find preconstructed-phrases which convey sexist meanings. This is the case with proverbs which have sexist messages underlying them. Proverbs and set phrases are curious elements because they are posed as commonsense knowledge which is uncontestable (Mills, 1995:98). For example, in the phrase “A woman’s work is never done”, there is a sense in which the message seems to be a natural state of affairs when it is used, it is very difficult to reject it, because it is presented in a form which is not personal: the person using the phrase does not claim responsibility for inventing it, but is simply calling upon pre-existing knowledge (schemata) which assumes that such a phrase is evident and true.

b- Presuppositions and Inferences

Presupposition can be defined as an idea or a statement which is necessary to already know in order to make sense of a given statement (Mills, 1995:169). One way through which sexism can be manifested is through presuppositions and inferences. In fact, this indirecteness is chosen to “mask” sexism and to give the speaker the possibility of denying their responsibility of being sexist (Mills, 2008). Eckert and McConnell-Ginet have also analysed the functioning of presuppositions. They comment that very often words such as “director” presuppose a male referent and therefore when it is followed by the pronoun “she”, there may be a feeling of disjuncture (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 2003). They go on to argue that sometimes what we imply is more than what we mean and it is this implication of words which may be based on sexist beliefs.
c. Humour and Jokes

The other complex way through which indirect sexism can be manifested is through humour, because once again it is not possible to locate sexism at the level of the individual words used. It is a form of exaggeration whereby women or men are trivialized. This form of sexism may be disguised under the cover of humour, the reader or listener may unwillingly participate in the perpetuation of the sexism embedded in the text when s/he laughs at the wit.

Many feminists have conducted research on humour and have shown that women are subjects of jokes by males. Humour often exaggerates certain features associated with a group or draws on and plays with stereotypical knowledge for comic effect. It is used in a way to reinforce unequal power relations, these types of jokes also can help to create a sense of solidarity amongst men, as Lakoff asserted:

Saying serious things in jest both creates camaraderie and allows the speaker to avoid responsibility for anything controversial in the message. It’s just a joke, after all–can’t you take a joke? In a light and camaraderie society worse than being racist or mean-spirited is not getting a joke or being unable to take one (Lakoff, 1990:270).

Therefore, sexist jokes seem to function as a way of affirming sexist views within society without allowing for challenge or resistance regarding their indirect nature. To respond and unveil this type of unjustified humour, many measures have been proposed by feminists to face it:

- Firstly, reject critically the jokes.
- Secondly, contest the presupposition of the jokes.
- Ironise the jokes for themselves i.e to take a woman perspective.
d. Collocations and Connotations

In order to examine how sexism operates in a more complex way, we move on to see how connotations and collocations of words are used to demean women. Collocation is concerned with the company that words keep (Mills, 2008:148). Research carried out in this area has found that many words are not sexist on their own, yet when collocated or associated they have a range of negative connotations. In her study, Romaine conducted research on this element of sexism, when analyzing the 1995 British national corpus for the collocation of “spinster”; she found that the majority of the words collocating with this word have negative connotations. She listed some of them to be gossipy, nervy over-made, up, ineffective, jealous. She points out that:

This example shows how the connotations of words do not arise from words themselves but from how they are used in context. The meaning of words are constructed and maintained by patterns of collocation. Collocations transmit cultural meanings and stereotypes which have built up over time (Romaine, 2001:160).

Also, it has been reported that certain adjectives tended to collocate with male–referent nouns (rich, poor, brave, short, pleased, happy) and other with female referent nouns (angry, beautiful, pretty, busy). The analysis of collocation is crucial in the way that women and men are represented and perceived. Therefore, in our corpus, we attempt to see whether the company of words reflect and reveal sexist attitudes.

e. Metaphor is defined simply as “a word or phrase which uses analogy to suggest similarity in one respect between two things” (Mills,1995:106). It is another element through which sexism can be manifested at the level of sentences. It is claimed by many feminists that a metaphor works at the level of the phrase rather than at the level of isolated words “metaphors are better regarded as systems of belief than as individual things”
(Black in Orton cited in Mills, 1995:105). It has been found that metaphors are largely used to depict women especially their sexuality and work to reinforce stereotypical knowledge.

2. Analysis at the Discourse Level

As we have seen in section I.4, in the 1970’s and the 1980s, feminist concern with language and gender fell broadly into one of two “camps”; langue and parole in Sausserean terms. Langue: Gender (bias) in a language especially in the English language as an abstract system (with the focus on individual words) and parole i.e; gender and language use (with the focus on gender differences). By the 1990’s, the distinction between the two areas had become less marked and both prongs in the study of language and gender came under attack from feminists, linguist and early post structuralist perspectives for mainly one reason: the role of context or ‘situatedness’ as key to both the production of a given utterance and its interpretation was underestimated. One consequence of the breaking down of old question boundaries is that the focus of research has shifted to discourse rather than language per se. “Seeing gender and language through a discourse lens has in one way united the two ‘prongs’ of early feminist gender and language study” (Sunderland and Lilietitia, 2002:223) and feminists were “no longer at ease” with the previous analysis of sexist language. It is assumed that identifying examples of sexism is, in a sense, too easy, and taking a step further i.e. analysis of discourse is inevitable as Toolan claims that:

Now no longer enough to accuse texts of being coercive and describing ways in which they manipulate the reader; it is necessary to ‘include a clear sense of how a particular control-revealing, hegemony eliciting, manipulative text might have been constructed, so as to more nearly attain the status of being a non-manipulative and non hegemonic text … we need to move to analysing ‘the subtle and hence more insidious discriminatory and exclusionary discourses that abound (Toolan cited in Mills, 2008:7).

Indeed, in more recent works on language and gender, the interests of feminists on the concept of “discourse” has been so tremendous. The intention of this section is to shed light
On the way linguist feminists have undertaken a gendered analysis focusing on the larger-scale structures at the level of discourse i.e. above the level of a sentence. However, before doing so, defining “discourse” is crucial in leading our discussion.

a. Discourse

Discourse is in fact a highly contested term and new works on it are continually appearing. A basic, linguistic understanding of discourse is “language above the sentence or above the clause” (Stubbs cited in Rogers, 2004:5) and most analysts agree that discourse includes the idea of stretches of text, spoken and written (though sometimes the term is used to refer only to speech. Brown and Yule wrote that “the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it can not be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve human affaires” (Brown and Yule cited in Sunderland and Lilettitia, 2002:224 ). However, from a different, ideological, social theory perspective (which is also of interest to many linguists), discourse has been theorised as a form of social practice (Fairclough 1992) and “the sort of language used to construct some aspect of reality from a particular perspective, for example the liberal discourse of politics” (Fairclough 1999:63). In other words, “Discourses are seen as possible ways of representing the world, or as larger systems of meaning that help to make sense of the world” (Sunderland 2006: 47).

Discourses can be durable over time, on the one hand, but may undergo transformations on the other (Sunderland and Littosselitti, 2002 ). Sunderland (2006: 48) points out that although discourses themselves are not visible, they can be recognised by analysts through their linguistic manifestations or “traces”. For example, in textbooks there may be traces of what could be called “sexist discourse”, for instance ridiculing women or depicting men as aggressive, or “traditional gender discourse” that could depict mothers as housewives, describe girls as weak and pretty, and fathers as being strict and mainly
interested in sports, politics and work. In addition, there may be discourses that challenge the traditional or sexist discourse: for example, females may be positioned as heroes, the feminine sphere may be valued and representations of both femininity and masculinity may be found to transgress the traditional boundaries.

In order to find out whether such discourses are present in the textbooks, the present study makes use of critical discourse analysis (CDA). Gee (2005) commented on the advantages of (CDA) by stressing its applicability to every situation and every subject. In addition, critical discourse analysis shows how language use may reflect stereotyping and examines words, phrases, clauses, dialogues, and narratives. From this point of view, firstness, characters/roles, focalization and fragmentation will be clarified and analyzed qualitatively by using critical discourse analysis.

b. Focalization the process whereby the events in a story are related to the reader through the consciousness of a character or narrator (Mills, 1995:166). There has been a great deal of work in narratology on point of view and focalization: position relative to the story, and degree of persistence. With regard to position relative to the story, focalization can be either external or internal to the story. It is not something which occurs only in literature, since most information which is presented to us is from someone’s point of view. Focalization has also drawn feminist attention for analysis since it has been amply documented both in texts and visuals that experiences are either depicted from a male point of view or men are the center of interest even though the narrator is external. In this present paper we try to see how this aspect is reflected in the coursbooks.

c. Fragmentation the process whereby characters in texts are described in terms of their body-parts instead of as people (Mills, 1995:166). The technique of fragmenting the female body in literature has been widely noted, especially when women’s descriptions are given. This has two primary effects. First, the body is depersonalized, objectified, reduced to
its parts. Second, since the female protagonist is not represented as a unified conscious physical being, the scene cannot be focalized from her perspective. Fragmentation of the female is therefore associated with male focalization, the female is represented as an object, a collection of objects, for the male gaze (Mills, 1995:166).

Thus, fragmentation seems to be an element which comes into play when women are described; this is obviously a strategy which is located at a higher level than the lexical item, but it does determine the type of language which will be used. Feminists have utilized fragmentation to show how language may demean and render women as sexual objects.

d. Characters / Roles

A great number of texts draw on stereotypical knowledge when presenting information about characters, particularly when these characters are not ‘fleshed out’ but are simply described briefly. In order to sum up a character quickly, a form of shorthand is used which the reader decodes with reference to stereotypical knowledge. The descriptions of clothes and facial characteristics are used to ‘point to’ the type of overall assessment that the reader is expected to make of the character. These signals are conventional, in that they are signs which the reader learns when she/he learns to read and which is part of their reading competence. Such knowledge might mean that female and male characters are described differently. It has been found that the male characters are described in terms of their overall appearance and discussed in terms of their trustworthiness, while women’s descriptions are concerned with establishing a degree of sexual attractiveness and sexual availability, and there is a concentration on their supposed sexual characteristics.

A similar problem arises in English as a Foreign Language textbooks where female characters are often presented according to stereotypes and the language and situations in which they are portrayed lead to a sexualized vision of females.
e. Firsteness

The aspect of order of appearance of females and males in paired constructions was and still is one of the most controversial gender aspects. These pairs can be pairs of pronouns (he and she, him and her) pairs of nouns (uncle and aunt, mother and father, sisters and brothers) and titles (Mr and Mrs). The question which arises is who ought to be mentioned first females or males?

Responding to this question, Wilson argues that males should be mentioned before females “Let's keep the natural order and set the man before the woman for manners sake” (Wilson cited in Eckert and McConnell-Guinet, 2003:34).

Recent researchers denied the validity of the above mentioned endocentric view. Paul stated that:

When described a couple (woman and man ), treat both partners as equals. If mentioning women and men together, do not always list man first; try instead to alternate the order in which men and women are described(Paul, 1991:57).

Judd and Hurtman argued that by placing the masculine pronoun first in front of female, male dominance is also displayed. This reinforces the second place status of women and could, with only a little effort, be avoided by mixing the order (Judd and Hartman; 1978:390).

In the English language where the order is of great importance, women are always the “second” sex” (Romaine, 1999:35). Pairs such as men/women; boys/girl; husband and wife; brother and sister give males more importance. Because in English the order is important and the first is always the best (Weatherall, 2002), feminists claim that there is no justification why males always precede females when given two paired nouns such as father/mother or uncle/aunt, they strive to reverse the order where females always come after males as if their
roles are less important when used with males. In the present research paper, examples will be taken from the texts in order to examine the environment of such location.

**c. Stereotypes**

When we are dealing with sexism in language, the notion of “stereotypes” is always evoked. A stereotype can be defined as “a cognitive structure containing the perceiver’s knowledge beliefs, and expectancies about some human social group” (Mackie et al, 1996: 42). Research within the field of language and gender has examined the presence of gender stereotyping in key agencies of socialisation, such as families, the education system and the media. Through our literature surveyed, most of the stereotypes about gender include, but are not limited, to the following:

- The portrayal of occupational roles
- The portrayal of personality traits

**1. Portrayal of Occupational Roles**

This section of literature reviews the description of textbooks characters in relation to their tasks. In order to carry out our discussion, a set of questions are raised to tackle this aspect which is at the centre of any discussion on the representation of gender in EFL textbooks.

- Have the characters been shown in a great number of activities?
- Is the portrayal of the characters depicted in a stereotypical or negative manner?
- Has fairness been achieved through gender balance in reproductive, social roles?
- Have female and male characters been depicted in text and illustrations in a realistic manner and not in exaggerated situations?
- Have women been displayed only in private spheres?
In most studies, it has been found that occupational roles have been largely gendered by society (Bem, 1993). Women typically are confined to narrow occupational choices which reflect the traits associated with their traditional homemaking roles, whereas men have a wider variety of occupational roles from which to choose. From the traditional division of labour, men were attributed characteristics of independence, aggressiveness, and bravery. These characteristics have allowed them to choose from a wider range of occupational choices.

Also, it has been reported that women are more frequently depicted in a private (home) setting, whereas men are more frequently depicted in a public (work) setting. This split of women into the private sphere and men into the public sphere can be traced back as well to the traditional division of labour.

Since the occupational roles of women and men characters in EFL textbooks, were first analyzed in the 1970’s, women have been portrayed in fewer occupational roles than men. The roles of both women and men have generally followed a traditional division of labour schema, with women depicted as nurses, teachers, and homemakers, while men have been depicted in a range of occupations.

Indeed, as many authors explain, if textbooks only show women in domestic or service roles while men are depicted in wide range of interesting high status occupations, learners of both sexes may take the messages that girls are expected to fulfil only subservient roles in their future life. Such sexist textbooks, where boys are encouraged to view a wide range of life possibilities for themselves while girls are directed towards a much-narrowed range of possibilities, do not provide gender equity in the schooling system specially, but also in the community at large since they create sexist images and stereotypes that curb girl’s professional goals.

So thus, the number of occupational roles in which women have been depicted in textbooks has expanded over time, but improvement is still needed. A good example to be
The report of UNICEF which states that although women do two thirds of the world’s work, they earn only one-tenth of the world’s income and own less than more one percent of the world property (www.UNICEF.fr).

2. The Portrayal of Personality Traits of Textbooks Characters

Different researchers have investigated the portrayal of personality traits in textbooks as one of the research sub-categories in examining gender bias and sexism in textbooks. Before dealing with the research findings, it is important to show what gender biased textbooks in relation to personality traits is. According to Brouwer “gender-biased textbooks are textbooks in which personal traits, abilities and vocations are identified with one gender” (Brouwer cited in Kabira and Masingila, 1997:44). The depiction of personality traits is thus differentiated between female and male characters. In the light of this definition, the following are the finding from our surveyed literature.

Historically, the concept of masculinity and feminity in relation to personality traits has been categorically differentiated. Men have been considered as “masculine” and women as “feminine”. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1998), “masculine” and “feminine” are adjectives used to describe the behaviour and appearance which people think as normal or acceptable for each of the sexes. For example, female are seen as emotional, nurturant, dependant, submissive and talkative. Stereotypical masculine traits are active instrumental traits such as assertiveness, self-reliance and independence. Males are perceived as non emotional, dominating, independent and aggressive.

Personality traits of characters in textbooks are depicted by how female and male characters are positively or negatively described by their writers. The characters can be described in a traditional manner of femininity or masculinity or being androgynous. Basow is one of the scholars who have addressed this aspect; the table below sums up his categorization
of personality traits that are stereotypically associated either with women or men that he
found in his investigation of the attributes that are ascribed to school textbooks characters:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Men personality traits</th>
<th>Females ‘s personality traits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Potentially hard workers</td>
<td>Submit without protest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>Doing repetitive, dull, and unrewarding tasks at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Dependant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative</td>
<td>Passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive</td>
<td>Reactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating away from home</td>
<td>Quite, tidy and hard-working in domestic scenes, full-time mothers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interact more with outsiders</td>
<td>Interact less with outsiders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive in making up their minds</td>
<td>Indecisive and dependant on males in decision –making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make successful plans</td>
<td>Unable to make successful plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active participant in the world outside the home, adventurous, eagerness</td>
<td>Described in terms of physical appearance, praised for beauty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1: Female and Male Personality Trait (Source, Obura, 1993).**

From Basow findings on the pegging of personality traits to textbooks characters, the
following remarks can be made on the probable perceptions learners using the textbooks
might have:

- There are specific and different traits for females and males.
- Male are positive and females are not.
- Women are depicted in terms of their physical appearance or emotional state of minds, whereas men in terms of their intellectual potentials.

Our content analysis of the Algerian Secondary School English textbooks aims
to determine if personality characteristics are stereotyped into the traditional categories of feminine and masculinity behaviours or androgynous since this aspect can have a drastic impact on the development of learner’s personalities.
c. Unreality this is another form of instructional bias. Many researchers who have analyzed the representation of gender in instructional materials noticed the tendency of glossing over unpleasant and negative facts and events that concern women like sexual harassment which is considered to be a “sin” to be exposed overtly. By overlooking and ignoring prejudices and sexism, learners are deprived from having access to the information they need to recognize and understand the social problems that women encounter in their daily lives and which “plague society at large”. In our analysis, we attempt to display how the authors of the Algerian EFL textbooks for the secondary school level approach and present the different issues that are related to women’s experiences.

d. Fragmentation or Isolation is the fifth form of bias documented in instructional materials. This occurs when information about nondominant groups is presented physically or visually separate from mainstream content. This bias is present when information about "others" (females) is placed in boxes at the side of the page or in separate chapters or sections.

Through their long own analysis of the surveyed literature, Sadker and Sadker (2001) have found that there is a tendency in school textbooks to depict women isolated from other cultural communities rendering them “additional beings” or peripheral members of society. This form of bias is reflected in school textbooks through isolating women in special chapters or showing them interacting only between themselves.

e. Selectivity and Imbalance : is Another common form of instructional bias. Insight into this type of bias comes from examining whose "truth" is being reported. An exclusive and culturally privileged perspective of an issue leads to an imbalanced account of the situation. It has been largely reported that the media and school textbooks have perpetrated bias by presenting only one interpretation of the issue, situation or group of people. This imbalanced account restricts the knowledge of students regarding the varied
perspectives and alternative possibilities. For example, when school textbooks refer only to male discoveries, an incomplete picture of scientific inquiry is described since females inventions have overlooked and ignored.

To counteract this type of bias, educators need to ensure adequate representation of knowledge from a variety of cultural groups. A review of the literature needs to be expanded to include current information about a variety of groups and not just knowledge that reflects the dominant culture, which may pervade the mainstream literature (Byrne, 2002:5).

f. Cosmetic Bias: textbooks publishers are aware that educators and reform movements are demanding better, fairer and more comprehensible materials in education. To rewrite text requires thorough research and infusion. Occasionally, authors and publishers minimize the process by creating an illusion of equity. Two common shortcuts are: large pictures of non-traditional people (in the beginning of the book or in fronting chapters) with little evidence of content inclusion. This form of bias has been detected by many researchers among them Sadker and Sadker (2001), according to them, using “shiny covers” and attractive pictures is a strategy to give an impression of equity which is just an illusion. For example, the contributions of women in scientific fields are ignored in the content, even though pictures may be inserted.

So far, it is clear that women are “injured” by language which reflects the bias of society (Sadker and Sadker, 2001:3) and this have raised awareness of the issue, generates reactions and reforms. The different strategies of reform deployed by feminists are discussed in the coming section.

B.b Strategies For Reform

The first stage in any educational reform is to analyse and evaluate its effectiveness. This also applies to textbooks. Raising the issue of gender sensitivity is one
among the steps that should be taken by evaluators. Concerning sexism in language, feminist linguists have launched a campaign criticising the negative vision of women and the way in which they are represented. Criticism is essential; yet it is not enough to reform the language, therefore other measures have been taken to get the “chilly climate” that surrounds language. Introducing alternatives words is another strategy adopted by feminists or what they come to term “the naturalisation of language” i.e using words to refer to both women and men. As Frank and Treichler argue that:

Gender-neutral is a linguistic description: a gender-neutral term is formally linguistically unmarked for gender: police officer, domestic violence, flight attendant, in place of gender-marked policeman, wife battering, and stewardess. Non-sexist is a social, functional description; a non-sexist term works against sexism in society. While many gender-neutral terms are consistent with non-sexist usage, the two are not the same. (Frank and Treichler, 1989, cited in Pauwels, 1998: 15).

Also, other strategies used by feminists are renaming or neologism. Feminist neologisms have been very useful for women to recognise that certain experiences are general rather than specific to themselves like sexual harassment.

We have to bear in mind, that reforming language is not just a matter of introducing alternatives to the sexist words; there are many strategies deployed by feminists to encounter such a language. This linguistic reform does not aim at replacing sexist words in favour of what has been called gender-free terminology. Yet, it is a change in the way the relation between women and men are represented as it is asserted by Hellinger and Bussmann:

Gender-related language reform is a reaction to changes in the relationships between women and men, which have caused overt conflicts on the level of language comprehension and production. Reformed usage symbolises the dissonance between traditional prescriptions such as the use of masculine/male generics and innovative alternatives. In most cases it explicitly articulates its political foundation by emphasising that equal Treatment of women and men must also be realised on the level of communication (2001: 19).
All in all, to reform language that is discriminatory against women is an ongoing process which involves a set of strategies to be deployed like criticism through coining new words and developing witty answers against sexism.

12. Concluding Remarks

Overall, through our review of literature on the representation of gender in school textbooks, we have noticed that the bulk of EFL textbooks that have been securitized are fraught with the different forms of bias. Content analyses of language textbooks found, variously, that males were over-represented in relation to females, that men tended to occupy both more powerful and a greater range of occupational roles, that both males and females performed gender stereotypical activities and that women tended to be stereotypically emotional and were more likely than men to be the butt of jokes. In a word, males are found to be positive and females to be negative.

Besides, complementary discourse analyses of textbook characters’ discourse who speaks, when, how, how much, about what, and who listens – showed that the verbs associated with female agents reflected “some of the traditional stereotypic female behavioural patterns” (Hellinger 1980:272). In dialogues females were found to speak less, and perform a narrower range of discourse roles. Finally, previous research has found that men are accorded more power and status than women in the textbooks. Research into most of these areas (occupational roles, power/status, personality traits, focalization and fragmentations) have shown that the representation of gender in textbooks mirrors how gender is constructed in societies and how it still abounds. Also in the other forms of bias, women are always the subject of intimidation and marginalization as we have reviewed on the overlooking and ignoring the issues that are for their benefits since when women’s experiences are mentioned, it is done superficially and briefly with no spirit. In short, females experiences are well
described by Andrian Rich when he beautifully writes “looking into a mirror and not seeing one’s self” (Rich cited in Moore et al:239).
Chapter Two: Literature Review on the Race Issue

As we have already stated briefly in our introduction, our evaluation of the manuals with regards to race will be our second main focus. Along side with gender, previous works done on the non-academic aspects of school textbooks have demonstrated that the issue of race or the representation of various ethnic groups in instructional materials has been a core aspect in researcher’s inquiry to the relationship between textbooks content and learners. In this context, Penny Ur in her discussion of “different kinds of content” raised the issue, when she identifies four areas which deserve special attention with reference to the notion of “underlying messages in a course book” (UR, 1999:87). She claims that sexism, ageism, racism and values are issues that one should check when she/he goes through any course book.

Additionally, findings from the literature indicate that the analyzed instructional materials in terms of bias show also “The misrepresentation and under representation of cultural minorities and their life experience” (Otlowski in[ http://www.asian-efl-journal.com-03-mo-pdf]). Bearing in mind what some educators have said “At the very least, stereotypes and racial caricatures have no place in teaching materials” (Kang 1989:120 cited in Ndura, 2003), and because in the Algerian context, to date, no research has been reported to scrutinize the way the different minorities that constitute the societies of the targeted culture or language, in our case English are portrayed, our research work aims at addressing this issue which is like gender, if not handled properly may have drastic impact and ill effects on the Algerian learners since racism and sexism are more or less similar in that both they use stereotypes and ascribe attributions to explain and rationalized the subordination and domination of particular populations “If the textbooks are biased, learners are taught to internalize a set of negative stereotypes that reconcile them to their socially constructed
subordination and teach them forms of behaviours that reinforce the prevailing social and economic relations of society” (Moor et al, 2008:32).

Thus, through our evaluation we attempt to examine how racism is conveyed through biases and stereotypes in the Algerian EFL textbooks published under the supervision of our Ministry of Education. In this chapter, we shall shed light on the previous research undertaken on this aspect which can serve as our theoretical bearing in our evaluation. In order to accomplish this goal, it is necessarily to examine first, the definitions of terms that are strongly related to our discussion: race, racism, ethnic groups and ethnicity.

1. Defining and Studying Race

It is of utmost importance to bring up the clarifications of some key terms that are related to “race” since their meanings have evolved and changed over the last previous decades. Words which were once considered proper become insulting. To illustrate this, we take a simple example, during the early 1960’s, the words “negro” and “coloured” were largely used by Civil Rights leaders, yet by the end of that decade these words were considered as derogatory or insulting (Demaine cited in Gillborn, 1990:2). Moreover, Social science researchers in the field of race and ethnic relations have used different terms to describe different groups (Bulmer cited in ibid). So, before going any further in our discussion of the representation of race in school textbooks, defining race-linked terms is something inevitable.

1.a. Biological Race

During the nineteenth century, biologists used the term “race” to place human beings in apparently distinct groups (types) thought to share a common biological ancestry. These races were primarily defined in terms of physical differences (known as phenotypes), such as skin colour. Consequently, geographical factors also became bound up in the
competing racial categorizations proposed by different physical anthropologists assumptions about physical and mental differences were conflated so that supposed scientific ‘fact’ was used as “an explanation of and justification for the exploitation and subordination of blacks by whites” (Mason cited in Gillborn, 1990:3) what is sometimes known as ‘scientific racism’. Although such a view of ‘race’ still survives among some political and lay groups, in biological terms the notion of separate human races is now discredited as claimed by Domaine:

The human species shares a largely common genetic structure in which minute variation controls differences in individual phenotypes (apparent characteristics) for example, skin colour in humans is thought to be controlled by just four out about a hundred thousand genes (Domaine cited in ibid).

1.b. Social Race

Although the idea of biologically distinct human races is now discredited, the term is still very widely used to refer to groups of people who are socially defined as sharing common characteristics. Again, physical characteristics play a major part in this. Such groupings are, therefore, socially constructed; they are not a biological fact, but are defined into existence. In this sense, “race” is no longer supposed to be a permanent, fixed genetic feature but is recognized as a variable, contested and changing social category (Gillborn, 1990:4). This is a crucial point and can be illustrated with reference to the different conceptions of ‘race’ which have been constructed in different societies. In the United States, for example, any physical indication of even partial African ancestry might define someone as ‘black’, whereas the same person could well be be viewed as ‘white’ in Brazil (Banton, cited in ibid). It is worth mentioning that the notion of “social race” underlies almost all current use of the word “race” in social science literature and research.
1.c. Ethnic Group

Members of ethnic groups see themselves as culturally distinct from other groupings in a society, and are seen by those others to be so. Many different characteristics may serve to distinguish ethnic groups from one another, but the most usual are language, history or ancestry (real or imagined), religion, and styles of dress or adornment. Ethnic differences are wholly learned (Giddens cited in ibid).

There are several important points about this definition. Ethnic groups exist within larger cultural systems and are distinguished by their cultural distinctiveness (for example, language or history).

Ethnic groups may, or may not, also be visibly distinct (for instance, through dress customs or physical characteristics). Where ethnic groups are visibly distinct this may reinforce the group’s separation from the wider society.

1.d. Ethnicity

Closely related to the concept of ethnic group, “ethnicity” emphasizes the ‘sense of difference which can occur where members of a particular ethnic group interact with nonmembers. Real differences between groups of people are no more (and no less) than potential identity markers for the members of those groups” (Wallman cited in Springer, 2010:6). Ethnicity concerns the sense and expression of ethnic difference. To acknowledge and glorify one’s ethnicity does not necessarily involve passing judgement on other ethnic groups. It is where such judgements are made that we begin to move into the realms of racism (Gillborn, 1990).
1.e. Racism and Ethnicity

The concepts of race and ethnicity are often used interchangeably. However, both of them are subjects of extensive debate. The everyday, commonsense meaning of race entails the idea that the human population is made up of a number of biologically different groups. Within this understanding, a person’s bodily appearance and especially their skin colour are often regarded as determining their membership of a racial group. The idea of a biologically differentiated human population as we have seen above, was promoted by nineteenth-century scientists, and was subsequently used to justify ideologically the hierarchical division of humans into dominant and subjected racial groupings. By the middle of the twentieth century, with increased understanding of genetics, it was widely established that there was, in fact, no scientific basis for the concept of race. Importantly, despite “the evidence that races in the biological sense did not exist... large sections of the population, and indeed whole societies, continued to conduct themselves as though they did” (Mason 2000 cited in Gillborn, 1990:7). There is, then, a contradiction between scientific knowledge (which denies the existence of races), and common-sense understandings and practices (which serve to categorise people into different groups on the basis on physical appearance).

Sociologists invariably accept the scientific argument that biological races do not exist. However, there has been debate as to whether the scientific refutation of race means that the concept itself should be wholly abandoned. Mills (2006) mentioned in (ibid) has argued that, since the concept of race has no scientific validity, its continued use merely serves to promulgate racist ideology. Other have argued that the concept of race should be retained. This is because of the extent to which a ‘discourse in which the idea of “race” is present remains a powerful feature of common-sense. Given the contested character of the concept of race, many social scientists seeking to understand and explain ‘differences’ between groups of human beings have been drawn to the concept of ethnicity.
In contrast to the emphasis on biologically determined differences imbued in the concept of race, the emphasis in the concept of ethnicity is on cultural differences; it is therefore a more sociologically appropriate way of conceptualising difference. ‘Ethnicity at its most general level involves belonging to a particular group and sharing its conditions of existence’ (Mason 2000 cited in Gillborn, 1990:9). This will include not only being regarded as having the right credentials for membership but also being able to gather ethnic resources which can be used for struggle, negotiation and the pursuit of political projects, both at the level of individuals making their way but also for the group as a whole in relation to other groups’ (ibid). Examples of ethnic credentials or resources held in common might include language, religion, beliefs about common ancestry and nationality, or claims to territory, as well as other aspects of culture which might serve to sustain a sense of distinctive group identity (ibid).

2. Racism and Language

Being the repository of a culture’s worldview, an instrument of social interaction, an indicator of social identity and the primary vehicle of learning, language is so crucial in human’s lives. As a matter of fact, recognizing the importance of language to human is critical to understand the inequities that exist among groups of people. Language, both spoken and written, can be racially coded to implicate certain groups, “racism is acted on using language that is less overtly racist and more subtle.” Collins, refers to this as “racially coded language” which does not explicitly refer to race but race is embedded within its context. (Collins cited in Gillborn, 1990:56). Lawrence et al describe race-based language as “a form of hate speech that is used to demean and degrade and that evokes or conveys a message of inferiority and of persecutory and degrading acts toward marginalized or oppressed individuals or groups” (Lawrence et al cited in ibid). Language is a social phenomenon that shapes one’s humanity and one’s group membership (Moor et al, 2008:237). Like racism, it
is not natural, rather, it is “dialectically related to society and not an independent, isolated linguistic system” (Fairclough cited in Moor et al, 2008:237)

Indeed, nowhere is the connection between language and racism more potent than in the schooling process in which a given minority group can be stereotypically and unjustly described and this cultivates a long-lasting ideas of self as unfit and the world as unfair. Hence, racism is like sexism can be conscious or unconscious, intentional or unintentional and it is manifested through language and this aspect is worth investigating in the textbooks since there is a common assumption that the use of racially charged language is intended to “disparage” the other. As it is well argued by Asante “it is inflammatory, marginalizing …….and the use of language to racialize an individual or a group implicated in the promotion of racist ideologies and structures of inequality and voices the hierarchical nature of society (Asante cited in ibid) and it is the duty of educators to explore racism in language as Byrne explains:

To recognize the racism in language is an important first step. Consciousness of the influence of language on our perceptions can help to negate much of that influence. But it is not enough to simply become aware of the effects of racism in condoning attitudes. While we may not be able to change the language, we can definitely change our usage of the language. We can avoid using words that degrade people. We can make a conscious effort to use terminology that reflects a progressive perspective, as opposed to a distorting perspective. It is important for educators to provide students with opportunities to explore racism in language and to increase their awareness of it as well as learning terminology that is that is positive and does not perpetuate negative human values (Byrne, 2002:6).

3. Previous Works Done on Racial Bias in School Textbooks

As we have already reviewed in the preceding sections, gender bias in school textbooks was first exposed during the 1970’s and still a topic which receives growing attention in the academic sphere, so too is racial representations.

As far as the issue of racial bias in EFL textbooks is concerned, many studies and analysis addressed it. Yet, what we have concluded throughout our research is that there are
not as much studies in the representaion of race as in gender. Therefore, we notice that our discussion is not so longue as in gender with regards either to the number of pages devoted to them nor to the bibliographical references. In order to fill this gap, we are content with the available research to carry out our evaluation which also will be based on Sadker and Sadker’s categories of bias (2001) since they can be applied to this issue as well.

Actually, some of the surveyed works on this issue in EFL textbooks show that they are all concerned with how the make up of the target societies are presented. One of these is Parson (1980). In his essay “The Nature and Implication of Textbooks Bias”, he comes with a conclusion that blood-thirsty, drunk, monosyllabic, naked and primitive are that kind of stereotypes that were used to depict one ethnic group (Native American) in the textbooks. Furthermore, he accuses many textbooks of being racist and he claims that this has a negative impact on children, since they get an image that some groups are better than the others, or some cultures are more valuable than the others. In this respect, Rosentene Purnelle, adds in her article “Teaching them to Curse: Racial Bias in Language, Pedagogy and Practice” that the American education reflects a certain “ethnocentric bias” it tends to value certain dominating western concepts as perceived within that framework. She stated how negative may such representation be on children education “perhaps no other aspects of language use has graver implications for human interaction than that of its racism” (Purnlle, 1996:1). Indeed, this “ethnocentric” perspective in presenting things may also be explained and related to history. For example, in the case of the expansion of the English empire, English was used to paint the world from perspectives of superior over inferior, culture over nature and civilized over savage.

To illustrate this, in the following we are going to bring to light the summary of the different research findings that have tackled the representation of minorities in EFL school textbooks throughout the 1960’s, numerous studies discussed the problem of textbook
bias against minorities, particularly portrayals of blacks. Generally, these studies as they are reported by Nunez indicated that textbooks in use throughout the United States virtually omitted minorities, diminishing or ignoring them. Moreover, not only is racism not written about, it is rarely an accepted topic of discussion. Contemporary racial issues rarely are articulated, which denies students information needed to confront and resolve complex problems (Ibid).

In summary, the studies reviewed in relation to the treatment of blacks in textbooks indicated the following:

1. Blacks were stereotyped in certain occupational roles, primarily service work, sports and entertainment.

2. There was a strong tendency to present romanticized versions of black life and to avoid or deny the actual conditions in which many blacks have existed;

3. Southern textbooks were particularly likely to present romanticized or distorted histories; and Blacks were frequently presented as "tokens."

It is obvious from this limited review of literature on the racial representation in EFL textbooks, that like women, minorities and specially people of colour suffer from the different forms of bias that have already been discussed. Omission, invisibility, unreality, fragmentation, selectivity, racist language are also present whenever minorities are presented and represented in EFL textbooks.
Chapter Three : The Issue of Generation

In the previous chapters of our review of literature, we have seen how gender and race became burning issues during the twentieth and nineteenth centuries respectively. In this chapter, we attempt to shed light on the third aspect of our investigation i.e. the way the generational issue is handled in the English coursebooks. Based on the few existing age-related literature, our analysis of the way and manner elders and youngers have been projected will be reported. Our main objective is to bring to light the image of elders as it is promulgated by EFL textbooks.

Indeed, it has been noticed that the same conclusion is reached concerning the representation of characters in terms of age. Like women and minorities, elders are depicted in stereotyped ways and this is what is known in geneoloty as ageism. In the last three decades, ageism has raised as a third “great” ism “and it becomes a “burning topic “to draw on Palmore’s own words. This new “ism” has been reported to be “the ultimate prejudice, the last discrimination and the cruest rejection” (Palmore, 1999:1) since it affects every one old or young. Unlike sexism and racism, ageism has scarcely attracted the attention of the academic scholars this is why the issue has not been amply documented” (Lyons et al, 1998). By relying on the limited existing works on the topic, we attempt to address the issue of generation by discussing the two main themes that emerged from the literature; generational gap and conflicts and ageism; its origins, forms, manifestations and its consequences on the learners.
1. Generation and Cohort

Generation often denotes “successive groups in time in which the second group could (but not necessarily be) the biological offspring of the first group. By contrast, the term cohort is an arbitrary definition of a point in time or a range of time during which members of a group enter the environment (by birth or other temporal entry)” (Birren et al, 2007:619). Hence, the temporal distance between two generations will generally represent a time frame that may range from 20 to 30 years, while cohort differences may and often cover much shorter periods of time (Ibid).

2. The Generational Gap

Although generational differences have been discussed by a small number of academic research and few empirical studies of the phenomenon have been undertaken (Lyons et al, 1998), our understanding of the generartional theory is due to geneotologists. One of the contributors to this theory was Mannhein (1952), who strongly argues that “generational boundaries are created when significant historical events and periods of social change occurs, making the formative experiences of those born after the change fundamentally different from those born before it” (Mannhein cited in Lyons et al, 1998:4). He claims that, since these formative contexts vary, entails members of different cohorts have different modes of thought and actions that are in keeping with the times they are raised. Because values are learned during that formative period (ibid), one could expect that the values that are shared among members of generational cohort differ significantly from those among members of the other cohorts or what is know as "cohort effect" (Palmore, 1978b). For example, older people might value family ties more than younger people because the older generation was socialized when family ties were considered more important than they are...
today. This cohort effect is the cause of the stereotype that older people are “old-fashioned” and this leads to a gap or conflicts which refers to the differences between youth and their parents. Also, evidence has shown that value conflict is actually a major source of ageism between the generations.

As a matter of fact, these differences in generational values are significant and evident in modern societies, especially with the impact of the new technologies and the social changes that have taken place in those societies. This difference may actually result in intergenerational conflicts and widens the generational gap between generations. For example, stereotypes can be a source of conflicts. Extreme negative stereotypes of many young people (e.g., irresponsible) can actually predispose older people to make attributions that are characterised by well-known clichés such as “the youth of today”. The same applies to extreme negative stereotypes of older (e.g., dominating or interfering). There is a strong evidence that this kind of stereotypes contributes largely to promote age-related attitudes especially vis-à-vis the elders (Palmore, 1999:4) which will be our next emphasis.

3. Ageism

The term ageism was coined by Robert Butler in 1969; he defined it as “a process of systematic stereotyping and discrimination against people because they are old” (Butler cited in Palmore, 1999:4). He argues that ageism is another form of bigotry, similar to racism and sexism (ibid). Others, define it as “prejudice, discrimination and stereotyping against someone based on her or his age” (Birren et al, 2007:57). While, it can refer also to younger persons, ageism, as a term is usually used by most researchers typically to refer to prejudices against older persons (ibid). For Palmore, ageism is “any prejudice or discrimination against or in favour of an age group” (Palmore, 1999:5). As it is reflected by this definition, indeed, research indicates mixed evidence for the existence of ageism. Some studies suggested that
people had very little positive attitudes towards elders, while other suggested that society regarded elders in negative light. Yet, in general, there are much more negative attitudes.

After tracing back the origins of ageism, we shall point out to the types of ageism by relying on Palmer’s *Ageism: Positive and Negative*, since it is so remarkable and different from others written on the subject since it introduces the notion of “positive ageism” that we shall explain in the course of our discussion.

3.a. The Origins of Ageism: Historical Changes

Over the centuries, the nature of societies have changed, so does the image of the elders in their communities. Actually, there are three main reasons that explain why elder’s position has altered from a position of high status, commanding respect and power to a position of no power and commanding little respect.

In pre-industrial era, elders were held in a high regard. They had both political and economic power in their communities; they were valued for their life experience, wisdom and knowledge of the history of their community. They were considered as the historians and librarians of their communities. Thus, the large part of their status is derived basically from the fact that their lifetime of knowledge, information, memories about the history of their community and the world beyond was far beyond that of others in the community. However, the advent of the printing press meant that such information was no longer the sole province of the elders, instead every one could own that information.

The second major factor was the industrial revolution, prior to that period, it was quite common for a typical family structure to be extended in that grandparents would live with the whole family and they were considered as valuable educators for children and grandchildren. However, the industrial revolution has turned things upside down, it created a boom in employment that resulted in the need to move where the jobs were located. Coinciding with this change in society was a change in the way that society regarded
tradition. To be successful in such a new environment, young people needed to value new, creative ideas and because elders represented traditions and were seen as unwilling or unable to adapt to new, creative ways of doing things, they were devaluated and even seen as obstacle to the success of younger persons.

The last factor that has largely contributed to a distorted image of the elders was the advances that medicine has known. As medicine allowed people to live longer and families were faced with taking charge of them, elders have been regarded as a burden: “Elders were seen no longer as sage teachers, but as non-productive relics of a bygone era who should be marginalized and to the frings of society” (Birren et al, 2007:75).

3.b. Negative and Positive Ageism

Palmore’s definition of “ageism” reflects the mixed attitudes vis a vis the elders. He claims that stereotypes can be against or in favour of elders. He has classified the prejudices against elders in two negative stereotypes and negative attitudes. According to him, stereotypes are mistaken or exaggerated beliefs about a group, in this case the elderly. Negative attitudes are negative feelings about a group. Stereotypes are more cognitive, and attitudes are more affective, although both tend to go together. Negative stereotypes usually produce negative attitudes and negative attitudes support negative stereotypes as it is shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative Stereotypes</th>
<th>Positive Stereotypes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>Attitudes</td>
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Table 2: Types of ageism (Source: Palmer, 1999:4)

Moreover, he introduces the notion of “positive ageism”; stereotypes and attitudes that are positive yet they are applied for all the elders which is not necessarily true as we shall see in our discussion of this type of ageism;
a. Negative Stereotypes

According to many genealogists, among them, Palmore, there are nine major stereotypes against elders but which are not limited: illness, impotency, ugliness, mental decline, mental illness, uselessness, isolation, poverty and depression.

1- Illness: it is the most often cited prejudice against elders. Elders have been usually depicted as “spend much more time in bed because of illness”, feel tired almost every time.

2- Impotency: A related stereotype is the belief that most elders no longer have any sexual activity or even sexual desire, and that those few who do are morally perverse or at least abnormal.

3- Ugliness: Another related stereotype is that old people are ugly. A study using drawings of attractive and unattractive faces found that among both younger (under 30) and older (over 56) persons, there was a strong association between perceptions of older age and unattractiveness (Wernick and Manaster cited in Palmore: 1999:9). Beauty is usually associated with youth, and many people, especially women, fear the loss of their beauty as they age. The following terms for old people reflect the stereotype of ugliness: crone, fossil, goat, hag, witch, withered, wizened, and wrinkled.

4- Mental decline: Another common stereotype is that mental abilities begin to decline from middle age onward (or even earlier), especially the abilities to learn and remember. The well-known aphorism "You can't teach old dog new tricks" sums up this stereotype.

5- Mental illnesses: A similar stereotype is that many or most aged are "senile" and that mental illness is common, inevitable, and untreatable among most aged. Two-thirds of those surveyed think that elders have more mental impairments than younger people, and
some even believe that most persons older than age 65 have some mental illness severe enough to impair their abilities (Palmore, 1998).

6- Uselessness: Because of these beliefs that most old people are disabled by physical or mental illness, many people conclude that the elderly are unable to continue working and that those few who do continue to work are unproductive. Indeed, age discrimination in employment in which people over a certain age are barred from applying or are dismissed is one of the widespread stereotype reported.

7- Isolation: "the majorities of old people are socially isolated and lonely" and "The majority of old people live alone" (ibid).

8- Poverty: Views about the economic status of elders range from those who think most elders are poor to those who think most are rich.

9- Depression: Because many believe that the typical older person is sick, impotent, senile, useless, lonely, and in poverty, they naturally conclude that the typical older person must also be miserable. Common terms for older people are "grouchy," "touchy," "cranky," and "feel sorry for themselves.

b. Positive Stereotypes

As reflected in the table above, there is also positive ageism. It has been observed that less attention has been paid to this type of ageism for many reasons; firstly, it is less common and it is less harmful to the elders. According to Palmore, there are at least eight positive stereotypes that are related to elders, he cited them as follow: kindness, wisdom, dependability, affluence, political power, freedom, eternal youth and happiness.

a- Kindness:

This stereotype provides the image of the kindly grandmother or grandfather spoiling grandchildren, helping to support children, and being kind and generous to people in
general. This is one of the most common stereotypes as shown by several studies (Palmore, 1999:34).

b- Wisdom:

This belief is based on the assumption that greater years of experience bring greater wisdom. This stereotype also has been found by several studies to be commonly associated with old age (Thomas and Yamamoto cited in ibid).

c- Dependability:

Because elders are assumed to be kinder and wiser, they are often assumed to be more dependable.

d- Affluence:

This image is one of the widespread about elders frequently stated in news magazines and other mass media: "The aged are well off; they have been lifted out of poverty" (Palmore, 1999).

e- Political Power:

This stereotype is another of the new axioms about elders used to "Scapegoat" the elderly: "The aged are a potent, self-interested political force" (Binstock, 1992).

f- Freedom:

This belief assumes that because elders are affluent and retired, they are free to do anything they want, any time they want, any way they want. This has been called the "roleless role" of being old or the "normless elderly" (ibid).

g- Eternal Youth:

Some believe that if one uses enough skin cream, wrinkle remover, hair dye, cosmetic surgery, vitamins, and exercise gadgets, one can halt the aging processes.
h- Happiness:

Finally, it is often assumed that because elders are wise, affluent, powerful, and free they must be happy. Butler (1975) calls this "the myth of serenity": The myth of serenity portrays old age as a kind of adult fairyland. Now at last comes a time of relative peace and serenity when people can relax and enjoy the fruits of their labors after the storms of active life are over. Advertising slogans, television and romantic fiction foster the myth (Butler cited in Palmore, 1990:15).

4. Existing Works Done on the Portrayal of Elders in School Textbooks

As the academics are becoming aware and sensitive to the importance of school textbooks and the way they can serve as a medium for conveying bias about a particular group, either women, ethnic minorities and elders, considerable efforts have been done to examine school textbooks in terms of how fairly they have portrayed women, minorities and elders since “EFL textbooks are “perniciously biased”. As far as, the elders are concerned the first research conducted on age–related issues in textbooks was in 1996 by Couper and Pratt.

The result of their finding showed that educational materials in use at the secondary school level contain little or no content on ageing–related issues and they argue that this is a form of ageism by omission. Additionally, when a textbook deals with ageing the information are usually brief, often misleading and sometimes erroneous, as they report:

Similarly, high school history textbooks, government, and economics textbooks basically ignored ageing of the population and its implications for society.……..when later life issues are included in instructional materials, it is usually with focus on problems that, in effect, equate ageing with dependency, disease, disability and dying (Couper and Pratt, cited in Moore et al, 2008:48).

It is obvious that the potentials of ageing are overlooked in school textbooks, instead it is usually incorporates like illnesses, disability, or death in the characterization of
older people. Portrayals of older people rarely include older leader, elder heroes, role models, famous old people, intergenerational activities and few books that actually exist and portray the real lives of older people.

In 1976 Edward Ansello, a pioneer in the study of ageism has carried out a research on the portrayal of older persons in 656 children's books. He found that 83 percent of all physical descriptions consisted of three adjectives: "old," "little," and "elder." The most frequent personality descriptions were "poor" (17 percent of all descriptors) and "sad" (7 percent). Ansello concluded that stereotypes of older persons were not so much negative as they were "boring" because the older person was denied the full range of behaviors and roles.

In her 1977 analysis of 100 books for children from preschool through grade three, (Barnum cited in ibid Nunez, 1980:14) found additional evidence of stereotyping of older persons. For example, she said older persons were portrayed as employed in a limited range of occupations, primarily in service jobs such as janitors, storekeepers, and servants. Furthermore, Barnum found that old persons were shown as significantly less healthy and less self-reliant than younger adults. According to Barnum, these images gave "an unnecessarily gloomy cast to old age in children's literature," and taught that old age cannot be an enjoyable time of life. She found that older people constituted 3.3 percent of all main characters, appeared in 5.3 percent of all illustrations.

Research on EFL textbooks also found that they are highly biased against older people. It has been reported that elders are rarely featured in textbooks, and when they are, it is usually as problem creators and dependant characters. Moreover, a study cited in Birren at all (2007), the portrayal of older persons in courses books mirrors the ambivalence of society towards elders in that the older characters were almost described as poor, sad, wise, dear and childlike. They are valued on a sentimental level for what they represent (values, traditions and family).
From the different researches that have been reviewed on this aspect, researchers had reached a common conclusion concerning the manifestation of ageism in school textbooks. Their findings are summed up as follows:

1- Insignificance of the elderly and their invisibility and omission: literature has reported that in the materials surveyed, it has been observed that in recent years, textbooks used at the secondary school level contain little or no content on ageing-related issues and they argue that this is a form of ageism by omission. Improvement has been done with respect to the inclusion of the elders in instructional materials, yet they still underrepresented and this implies that they are of less importance. This form of bias against the elders is what Sadker and Sadker call invisibility and unreality (explained in page 4).

2- Ethnical and racial composition: When older characters appear, the vast majority are white.

3- Stereotypes: As it is asserted by Barrow “…..olders see their own experiences through the lens clouded by pernicious ageist attitudes and related stereotypes. These stereotypes are reflected through: character role, Occupational role, Behavioural Characteristics, Physical traits: personality traits and illustrations”(Ibid).

3.a- Character role: older people have rarely been visible as main characters. They have been peripheral, introduced irregularly in minor roles. Their major characterizations have been grandparents or storytellers. It has been observed that it is uncommon for older to be depicted realistically or to be assuming a significant role in the story.

3.b- Occupational role: the majority of old characters are placed in indeterminate occupational roles or those that require only passive participations, fishing, walking and listening are among those activities. To foster the idea that elders are contributing to society, they should be shown in a diversity of meaningful occupations and employment settings.
3.c- Behavioural characteristics: the types of behaviour exhibited by old people in school textbooks tend to be routine and mandate. It has been reported that at all levels of school instructions, olders are portrayed as self-reliant and less healthy than other adults. Thus, a gloomy cast to the aging process is instil in the learners mind.

3.d- Physical traits: older characters are rarely given fully developed descriptions. Instead, they are described by three adjectives “old” “little” and “ancient”.

3.e- Personality traits: like their physical traits, personality descriptions are limited to specific adjectives like “poor “ “sad” and wise” and childlike

3.f- Illustrations or visual images: Gerontological interest in the analysis of visual images of the ageing body and the role images play in constructing the meaning of the ageing process is of a recent origin. It can be traced back to the mid1960’s, it emerged as a result of two major social development. First, the emergence of “ageism” as a term that refers to the widespread existence of negative attitudes towards people simply because they are biologically old. Analyses of images of old age, for example, in movies, school textbooks showed that older people were consistently represented in a negative manner. The second development was the greater awareness of the role played by visual images in the construction of social life. It is often observed that contemporary western societies are consumer societies and that the construction and dissemination of visual images is a feature of consumer culture (Birren et al: 2007:). As far as EFL textbooks are concerned, it has been reported that elder characters appear less frequently in illustrations than their younger counterparts. It is extremely rare to have them portrayed in communications with youngers. When they are seen in pictures they are often illustrated as being unrealistically old.

3.g- Isolation: like the depiction of women and minority groups, it has been observed that in school textbooks elders tend to be fragmentated or isolated. They have been shown lonely and not with the other members of the community.
f- Language and Ageism

One of the subtlest but most pervasive influences of culture on our attitudes is our language. Language often supports ageism. There is considerable evidence that our language influences our perceptions and prejudices (Palmore, 1999).

The following examples cited in Palmore’s book *Ageism: Negative and Positive* will show how ageism is reflected and promoted through the English language.

In his analysis of the English terms for elder people through history, Covey (1988) has found that these terms reflected the “decline in status of the elderly and the increased focus on the debilitative effects of aging” (p. 297). He also found that terms for old women have a much longer history of negative connotations than those for old men because women suffer not only from ageism but also sexism.

Coupland et al (1991) conducted a sociolinguistic analysis, have shown how society marginalizes its older member through conversation and social interaction.

Also, Nuessel (1982) has done an analysis of the language used to depict elders and found it to be “overwhelmingly negative in scope”. He also found that many ageist terms are doubly offensive because they contain both ageist and sexist references (biddy, crone, hag, old maid). Many negative adjectives do not specifically refer to elders but are often associated with being old, such as cantankerous, constipated, cranky, crotchety, eccentric, feebleminded, frumpy, garrulous, grumpy, overage, peevish, rambling, toothless, withered, wizened, and wrinkled.

Even the adjective “retired” may have negative connotations because of its alternative meanings of withdrawn or gone to bed. As a result, some retired elders try to counteract this connotation by saying they are “actively retired” “partially retired”, or “retired” but busier than ever.
There is a more basic and subtler way in which our language encourages ageism. That is the equating of chronological age with various positive or negative characteristics. For example, the phrase “young at heart” means alert, active, vigorous, fresh, innovative, and fun-loving—all positive characteristics. The implication, of course, is that the “old at heart” means dull, passive, slow, stale, old-fashioned, and wet blanket. Similarly, a “youthful figure” is one that is trim, beautiful, and attractive. By implication an “old figure” would be fat, ugly, and unattractive.

On the other hand, when we look at the opposite of old, namely, young and youthful, most definitions appear neutral (being in the first or early stage of life), but one is negative (having little experience), and the second is usually positive (new and fresh, vital or vigorous). However, when “young” or “youthful” is used in contrast to “old”, the connotations are usually positive (as in “youthful skin”) implying that “old” skin is bad. Thus, words like old and young do not necessarily have negative definitions or connotations, but many of them do support ageism.

Another way through which ageism can be manifested through language is humour. It has been shown that humour is usually the subtle way through which the different forms of bias are expressed. As we have discussed how sexism and racism are conveyed through jokes and ironizing, the same can be said on ageism. Many content analysis have been conducted on this element and it has been observe that jokes reflect a negative view of ageism and elders have been also the brunt of joke (Palmer, 1999:93). In a study mentioned by Birren et al (2007), shows that out of 4200 jokes examined, 102 employed a predominant stereotypes of older persons. These include the disinterest of female, the innocence of second childhood, the forgotten old person, yet there are also positive humour of the elderly.

Needless to say that older people have unjustly been subject to the harmful effects of negative stereotypes and school textbooks contribute largely towards the education of
children to the beliefs that older people are unimportant and that later years are not an enjoyable time for life. In recent years, researchers have discovered that the links between people and characteristics in our memories can have significantly effects on the way we think, feel and behave towards those people (Palmore, 1999:59). When the individual is aware of the fact she or he is stereotyping, the person she or he is thinking about the process is referred as stereotypes. However, where the perceiver is unaware of the influence of the automatically activated stereotypes about the outgroup where she or he evaluating a member of outgroup, that process is referred as implicit stereotyping. Implicit stereotyping is all the more difficult to control and remedy because the perceiver is unaware of its activation and influence.

This is actually damaging to the elderly, as it destroys their self esteem. Stereotyping older is so pervasive and subtle thus it is the task of educators to be sensitive to the issue and use critical reading to evaluate it. Like gender-bias and racism, ageism also has serious negative effects on the learners that will be discussed in the next section.

As a conclusion, it is clear from the reviewed literature that over the last several decades and continuing to the present day, much more attention has been devoted to sex and race prejudices. Indeed, one of the major reason why research on ageism lags far behind the volume of interest generated by sexism and racism is the institutionalized nature of ageism (Birren et al, 2007:49) i.e. age prejudice is so pervasive throughout society, that every one knows about the stereotypes, and yet few regard the stereotypes, as on the same par as prejudice based on sex and race. As a result, our understanding of the causes, maintaining factors, and consequences of ageism is nascent. Hence, it is crucial that we devote much more research attention to the aspect of ageism. In doing so, we can help society at large to make the changes needed to significantly enhance the quality of life for elders.
Conclusion

The Effects of Biased School Textbooks on the Learners

In EFL textbooks, women, minority groups and elders have been projected in stereotyped ways. As it is asserted by many academics, school textbooks are intended not to teach only facts but also influence values and behaviours as stated by Nunez:

Textbooks play an important part in education, transmitting not only facts and figures, but ideas and cultural values. The words and pictures children see in school influence the development of the attitudes they carry into adult life: these words and pictures not only express ideas, but are part of the educational experience which shapes ideas (Nunez, 1980:2).

In this part of our research, we are going to tackle the impact of the issues under investigations (Gender, Race and Generation) on the learners by relying on the published research in this area. Many researchers have been concerned with the provision of education that is bias-free for students. Through our review of the literature, four main aspects have been shown to be impacted by bias in school textbooks which are: learner’s attitudes, (2) their personality development and behaviour, (3) their academic and long-range career-related achievement.

a. Attitudes

Learners assimilate the content and values of coursebooks with little conscious thought. Values and attitudes concerning gender, race and age may be altered by the presence of subtle distortions as well as gross stereotypes in school textbooks.

- The characters that are omitted have the implication that they are of less value, importance, and significance in the society.
Some of the readers tend to lack role models as a result of the omission of some characters.

Perpetuation and reinforcement of existing inequality between females and males, gender stereotyping in textbooks does not provide gender equity in the schooling system but also the community at large.

b. Personality Development and Behaviour

Textbooks provide learners with information that broadens their scope of knowledge and allows them to experience, test, and solve problems arising in their own lives. At the same, textbooks also influence the learner’s self-esteem, values, aspirations, and fears. The degree to which textbooks influence a learner’s sense of self-worth is largely determined by the extent to which that child identifies with the characters and situations and becomes emotionally involved with them. This process is actually expalin by sara Zut as follow:

The socializing effect of reading may be explained in terms of the processes of identification and ego development. Identification is the process that leads the individual to mold his own or behave as though the characteristics of another person or group of people belong to him. (Zut cited in Burr, 1998:13).

c. Career Aspirations and Attainment

The preparation that learners receive from their schoolbooks is also reported to affect their career interest, expectations, and achievements. Many studies carried out in this respect have demonstrated the effects of sex-role biases in teaching materials on children's occupational interests.

d. Academic Achievement

The content of school textbooks has been found to influence a wide range of factors related to children's academic achievement in school. For example, children's acquisition and maintenance of reading skills, their understanding and retention of subject
matter, and their motivation and success in problem solving abilities are related to nonacademic aspects of textbook content.

All in all, the content of school textbooks do affect learner’s attitudes, personality development, behaviour, and academic and occupational achievement. When stereotypes and omissions of females, minorities and elders occur in the curriculum, children’s understanding of themselves and the world around them has been shown to be detrimentally affected as Flinders et al claim:

The formal curriculum is the central message – giving instrument of the school. It creates images of the self and the world for all students. The curriculum can strengthen or decrease students motivation for engagement, efforts, growth and development through the messages it delivers to students about themselves and the world (Flinders et al, 2004:1).

Taking these influences into consideration, our objective in the present study is to unveil the way gender, race and generation have been handled within At The Crossroads, Getting Through, and New Prospects since their influences on the Algerian learners should not be overlooked or under estimated.
Chapter Four : Research Methodology

In the present chapter, we attempt to detail our research methodology that we shall put into practice to realize our intention in undertaking a research which revolves mainly around, textbook evaluation, gender, race and generation. In this chapter also, our corpus which is the Algerian Secondary School English Textbooks will be described. Before doing so, the place of textbooks in an EFL classroom will be discussed together with concepts related to curriculum. Moreover, as gender, race and generation are strongly linked to culture, the issue of culture in an EFL curriculum will be highlighted.

1. The Importance of School Textbooks

The importance of textbooks in any teaching and learning process is recognized by many scholars (Cunningsworth, 1984; Ur, 1996). Westbury expresses well why textbooks are so crucial in any education system when he writes “Textbooks are considered as the repository of knowledge that the school communicate. It is a basic tool for teaching and learning” (Westbury cited in Ur, 1996:45).

Other academics have also acknowledged their significance. According to Hilton (1972), textbooks are appropriately simplified and arranged in a way that fits learners. Hence, they are the principal repository of standrad knowledge that relates to the official curriculum (Hilton cited in Cunningsworth, 1984:15). Sadker and Zittleman also cite a significant research “students spend as much as 80 to 95 percent of classroom time using textbooks and that teachers make a majority of their instructional decisions based on the textbook” (2002:144). Besides, the intentions of the official curriculum as designed by its developers are reflected through school textbooks.
Additionally, apart from being a source of information in teaching content, textbooks also play the role of “agents of socialization” that shape specific social or cultural attitudes. For instance, the way female and male, minority groups and elders’ characters are portrayed in textbooks contributes to the images learners develop of their own roles and expectations in the society. This is actually may not be stated explicitly but it is acquired unconsciously through hidden curriculum.

To grasp the meaning of “hidden curriculum”, it is inevitable to introduce some concepts related to the notion of “curriculum”. Curriculum as a process, the meaning of official, taught and learned curriculum will be elaborated in the following sections. After, a detailed descriptions of our corpus; the Algerian Secondary School English textbooks will be given.

2. Curriculum as a Process

Curriculum “denotes all planned learning opportunities offered by school to learners and the experiences learners encounter when the curriculum is implemented” (Print, 1987:63). According to him, this does not include hidden curriculum.

Thus, in order to display the differences between the overt and hidden curriculum, curriculum is regarded as a process that includes the intended, taught and learned curriculum.

3. The Official Curriculum and What it Entails

The official or intended curriculum is also known as the explicit, overt or written curriculum. It refers to the formal, approved guidelines for teaching content to the learners. Usually, this is accompagnied by textbooks and teachers’ guides. In Algeria, the “commité des programmes” under the Ministry of National Education is in charge of developing and approving the curriculum that will be translated to materials for textbooks and teachers’ guides. Textbooks are required to match what is stated in the curriculum with specified
learning outcomes. Teachers are expected to use the textbooks and the guides to teach the intended curriculum and thus meet the goals of the Algerian education. Curriculum developers determine the subject objectives, content to be learned, teaching and learning strategies and evaluation procedures. A curriculum, therefore, defines the subjects to be taught, how the subjects should be taught and gives the guidance regarding the duration of the instructions. The official intended curriculum is then given to teachers for implementation through teaching and learning situations; this is actually what is known as the taught curriculum which is different from the learned and the hidden curriculum that we shall explain briefly below.

4. The Taught Curriculum

The taught curriculum is the actual curriculum in use that teachers implement which consists of the content and the concepts in the curriculum guides. This is done by mastering the content to be taught and taking into consideration the way their learners learn and their learning environment.

5. The Learned Curriculum

The learned curriculum is what learners actually learn and make sense of from the intended and unitended curriculum. Through education, learners are supposed to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes. As Kabira and Masindjila refer to the learned curriculum as “what happens to students in the teaching and learning encounter” (Kabira and Masindjila, 1997:30). It has been observed that some messages that are found in textbooks constitute what is coined as “the hidden curriculum” which can serve to advance the agendas of various groups in society, thus producing social inequalities to borrow Kabira and Masindjila’s own words (ibid).
6. Hidden Curriculum and What It Involves

According to Meri (1992) the concept of the “hidden curriculum” originates in the work of the American researcher Philip W. Jackson, *Life in Classrooms* (1968). Until then, the study of learning processes from the point of view of the students was practically nonexistent and Jackson’s work started a new wave of interest in the school experiences and interpretations by the students. Later on, the hidden curriculum has been the subject of a body of research in education and pedagogy (Meri cited in Kabira and Masindjila, 1997:30).

Many researchers (Kabira and Masinjila 1997, Print 1987) have discussed what hidden curriculum is as opposed to the official curriculum. Hidden curriculum refers “to the outcome of unintended side effects of the official curriculum but which are nevertheless communicated to the pupils and students in education institutions” (Print, 1987:34). It includes those aspects of learning schools that are unofficial and unintentional. Curriculum therefore goes beyond the official statements that are supposed to be translated through textbooks. Hence, learners learn things in their schooling besides the intended curriculum.

In hidden curriculum, content, attitudes or behaviours are taught and learned without the conscious intention of the teacher and the learner. It leads to outcomes of education that are not explicitly intended by educators. Educators may not intend these because they are not stated by teachers in their oral or written lists of instructional objectives nor are they included in the official documents. It is argued that a hidden curriculum is so powerful and is portrayed in pervasive and subtle ways that teachers and students may not be fully aware of its effects (Witt, 1997:87). More to the point, Research indicates that “repeated and unreinforced exposure to a stimulus will affect attitudes towards the stimulus” (Mackie et al, 1996: 53) and exposure effects tend to be strongest when the perceivers are unaware of their exposure (ibid).
7. The Algerian Secondary School English Curriculum

It is evident that undertaking a new educational reform necessitates a new syllabus design. Syllabus outlines the goals and objectives to achieve, the contents of language that is supposed to be learned, the process in which the language contents should be presented to the students and finally the product of the teaching process that shows what kind of abilities and skills the learners are supposed to acquire at the end of the learning process. In Algeria, with the new reform, the goals of learning English in the Secondary School cycle are summed up as follows:

Le but de l’enseignement de l’Anglais est d’aider notre société à s’intégrer harmonieusement dans la modernité en participant pleinement et entièrement à la communauté linguistique qui utilise cette langue pour tous types d’interaction (English as a means of communication). Cette participation, basée sur le partage et l’échange d’idées et d’expériences scientifiques, culturelles et civilisationnelles, permettra une meilleure connaissance de soi et de l’autre. L’on dépassera ainsi une conception étroite et utilitariste de l’apprentissage de l’anglais allez vers une approche plus offensive ou l’on ne sera plus consommateur mais acteur et agents de changement. Ainsi chacun aura la possibilité d’accéder à la science, la technologie et la culture universelle tout en évitant l’écueil de l’acculturation. (Third Year Curriculum, 2007 :3).

From this quotation, it is clear that the Algerian educational reform has brought a new vision about learning an additional and a foreign language. Learning English is meant to respond to the social needs for communication and modernisation. Additionally, acquiring English as a foreign language is an opportunity for the Algerian learners to promote their methodological, technological and socio-cultural competencies. Indeed, as we can notice from the above quotation, culture has been at the heart of the new curriculum and introducing the different cultures to the Algerian learners besides theirs was highly recommended, but at the same time “acculturation” to be avoided.
8. Culture in the Algerian EFL Textbooks

For students in countries like Algeria where English is a foreign language, it can be argued that the course book and the teacher are the two most important linguistic and cultural links between the students’ native language(s) and culture(s) and the target foreign language and culture. Then the way the teacher presents the text, the way the text portrays the various people in the target society and the way those people are shown to communicate will directly affect EFL students’ choices of language when communicating with native speakers.

In this respect, Lakoff (1975) argued that society is reflected in the language with the values and assumptions held by the society being mirrored in the language. Also, Halliday (1978) concluded that if textbooks fail to present the components of society, the language learned may be unsuitable and a cause of cross-cultural pragmatic failure. Pierce (1995) stated that the role which learners play for themselves in society is governed by their use of English; therefore, the language and the social roles the learners encounter are crucial components of the language and curriculum and as such should be carefully selected.

As a matter of fact, learning about culture could be a channel which provides opportunities for students to evaluate the similarities and the differences between the two cultures. In this respect, Current foreign language educators acknowledge the necessity of implementing diverse cultural contexts in foreign language classes in order to provide authentic and meaningful experiences for students. From this point of view, as gender, race and generation constitute major component of any culture, it becomes vital to analyze EFL textbooks to map out the way female and male, different ethnic groups and elders in the target language has been presented to foreign learners and in our case to the Algerian learners.

9. Description of the Algerian English Secondary School Textbooks

9.1. At the Crossroads (1 A.S.)
9.1. a. General Presentation

Level of proficiency: 1A.S.1ST Grade Secondary Cycle.

In the section *To the Teacher*, the author explains that the textbook is designed to comply with the new English curriculum as set down in January 2005. The authors assume that students are then familiar with the competency –based teaching and the learner-centred approach. The textbook is intended for all streams, though one unit (*Once Upon a Time*) is specifically meant for the literary stream. It consists of five units distributed on the basis of 20 hours per unit and is organized topically.

**At the Crossroads** is composed of:

- Contents (p.2),
- Book Map (pp3-7)
- A note to the teacher (pp 8-9)
- A note to the Student (pp10-11)
- Phonetic symbols (pp 12-13)
- Five units (pp 14-167)
- Scripts for listening (pp168-174)

Irregular verbs (175) and
Acknowledgments (176).

9.1. b. Unit Organization

Each unit consists of four sequences and includes three sections:

1. Sequence 1: listening and speaking,
2. Sequence 2: reading and writing (These two sequences are of the same pattern, they aim at producing oral and written discourse),
3. Sequence 3: developing skills. (The students combine the four skills in Problem-situations),

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4. Stop and Consider (a language reference section, exercises based on the implementation of grammar rules),

5. Sequence 4: consolidation and extension (afford a combination of knowledge and know-how to reach objectives conductive to a competency),

6. Project Workshop (guidelines for the realization of a project, students are expected to re-invest functions and skills acquired earlier),

7. Check your Progress (self-evaluation section).

The units are detailed in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Titles of the Topics</th>
<th>Number of Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Once Upon ATime</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Our Findings Show</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Eureka!</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Back to Nature</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>152</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Units (At the Crossroads)**

*At the Crossroads* contains a great variety of topics. Most texts have their sources indicated (Books, newspapers, Encyclopaedia). Some of them show authenticity, for example (mailbox). As far as culture is concerned, and we find a lot of facts, pictures and allusions to both foreign and home culture.

Illustrations are numerous and colourful: they consist of pictures rather than photos. From this brief description, needless to say, this new reform based textbook attempts to respond to learners’ needs either in terms of language accuracy and fluency or in terms of developing her/his different intellectual competencies and skills.
9.2. Getting Through(2A.S.)

9.2. a. General Presentation

Level of Proficiency: 2 A.S.—2nd Grade in Secondary Cycle.

Getting Through: as the authors (Riche et al) state in the To the Teacher section, complies with the 2005 curriculum designed by the Ministry of Education. It follows the same procedures used in At the Crossroads, and relies on the competency-based approach. It consists of eight units, meant to be completed in 15 hours, each; the units are organized topically. The students are supposed to prepare projects after every unit. One new feature to be introduced is the portfolio. A portfolio is defined as “a purposeful collection of work that provides information about someone’s efforts, progress or achievements in a given area. It is a learning as well as assessment tool”. (Richards and Schmidt, 2010:443). However, in the context of the textbook in question, the designers see it as “a useful means of monitoring the progress made by each student” (Riche et al., 2006: 6). This portfolio consists of supplementary tasks done at home or in class and corrected by teachers.

Getting Through consists of:

- Contents (pp. 2-3),
- A note to the student ( pp 4-5),
- A note to the teacher (pp 6-7),
- Outline of the book (pp 8-13),
- Eight units (pp 14-178),
- Scripts for listening (pp 179-186),
- Grammar Reference (pp187-207), and
- Acknowledgements (p208).

9.2. b. Unit Organization

Each unit consists of five main parts:
1. Part 1: Discovering Language (constituents of the language)

2. Part 2: Developing Skills (students build basic language skills and intellectual skills)

3. Part 3: Putting Things Together (project itself)

4. Part 4: Where Do We Go From Here? (self-assessment)


The units are detailed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Titles of Topics</th>
<th>Number of Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Signs of the Time</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Make Peace</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Waste not, Want not</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Budding Scientists</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>News and Tales</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>No Man is an Island</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Science or Fiction?</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Business is Business</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Units (Getting through).

As it is obvious from the above table, the topics contained in Getting Through are rich and varied. Most sources are cited, and most texts are authentic. Culture, and particularly general culture, is present throughout the book. Illustrations are very present too.

9.3. New Prospects

9.3.a. General Presentation:

Level of Proficiency: 3A.S. 3rd Grade in Secondary Cycle
This textbook is designed in tune with the English syllabus for SE3 as laid out by the National Curriculum Committee of the Ministry of National Education in March 2006. It is designed in 2007 and published by the National Office of School Publications (N.O.S.P.). As third year secondary school learners, and studying English for six years, “communicate orally and write a selection of about twenty lines following the communicative situation and relying on one text type” is the aspiring goal at this level. **New Prospects** constitutes of six units organized topically. Each unit is composed of two main parts with two sequences each.

**New Prospects** is composed of:

- Foreword(p. 3)
- Book map(pp.8-13)
- Units (pp15.195)
- Listening scripts (p 195)
- Grammar reference(p206)
- Resources portfolio(p293)
- Acknowledgements(p271)

**9.3.b.Unit Organization**

Each unit consists of two parts:

1. Part 1: Language outcomes is divided into Listen and consider and Read and consider (to work out, through the around-the-text rubric, on the language dimension of the texts by the study of grammatical structures, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling) in order to prepare the student to speak, in the second part of the unit.

2. Part 2: Skills and strategies outcomes comprises two sequences, listening and speaking and reading and writing (focus on the awareness and practice of primary skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and social skills (collaborative work). Besides, Intellectual outcome is also in-built.
The units are detailed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Titles of Topics</th>
<th>Number of Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Exploring the Past</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ill-Gotten Gains never Prosper</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Schools: Different and Alike</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Safety First</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Are we Alone?</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>We are a Family !</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5: Units (New prospects).**

Again, this new reform-based textbooks is so rich as far as the topics or the illustrations are concerned.

**10. Research Methodology**

This section covers our research methodology that is implied to realise our research. As the starting point of our work was our interest to unveil the way the issues of gender, race and generation are handled in the Algerian Secondary School English textbooks, content analysis (CA) and critical discourse analysis (CDA) are suitably performed to realize our objective. The justification of our choice will be explained below.

**a. Choice of Data Collection Method**

Actually, there is no general agreement upon the criteria by which textbooks should be evaluated, as Johnson (1993:23) points out, but it is up to the individual researchers to select and combine the methods and approaches that best suit their purposes. As the present
study was set to explore bias in school textbooks, it makes use of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

It has been amply documented that previous textbook research has been mainly based on content analysis, as the method has the benefit of producing quantitative data that is easy to handle and provides results that can be compared with those from other similar studies. On the other hand, content analysis has been criticised for neglecting the textual context and ignoring the role of the readers as active participants in the discourse process. In relation to our research aims, this means that traces of both discourses that support the aim of promoting equality and discourses that perhaps work against that goal, thus realising the hidden curriculum, may be detected in the textbooks. Therefore, to realize these goals, the research at hand, combines between content analysis and critical discourse analysis which will be explained in the next sections.

a.1. Content Analysis

Some researchers define content analysis as quantitative approach. For example, Berelson defines content analysis as “a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication” (Berelson cited in Krippendorf, 2004:13). Also Denzine and Lincoln (1994) claimed that “CA is a quantitatively oriented technique by which standardized measurements are applied to metrically defined units and these are used to characterize and compare documents” (Denzine and Lincoln cited in ibid).

Other researchers have claimed that CA can be approached qualitatively, rather than quantitatively. Wilson defines qualitatively analysis as “the non numerical organization and interpretation of data in order to discover patterns, themes, forms, exemplars and
qualities found in the fields notes, interview transcript, open-ended questionnaires, journals, diaries, documents, case studies and other texts “ (ibid).

Indeed, many researchers agree that the best content analytical studies should adopt both qualitative and quantitative approaches to the text (Weber, 1990, Krippendorff, 1980). In this context, Johnson (1993) states that in the textbooks research it is typical to treat these two approaches as opposites. Their advantages and disadvantages are pointed out in research reports, and one method or the other is picked as a solution. Johnson describes this as being “Symptomatic of the problem textbook research has with scientific validity” and sees it as the result of the textbook research being perhaps “too tied” to social sciences.

a.2 Justification of Using CA and CDA

Berelson (1952) argued that content analysis stands or falls by its categories. Studies using content analysis have been productive to the extent that the categories were clearly formulated and well adapted to the problem and to the research (Berelson cited in Krippendorf, 2004:13). In this regards, Holsti (1969) concluded that categories should reflect the purposes of the research, be exhaustive, be mutually exclusive, independent, and be derived from a single classification principle (ibid). Krippendorf (2004) stongly emphasized that the core of content analysis is categorization.

Therefore, the application of CA as a method in investigating bias with regards to gender, race and generation is appropriate for our study since it is based on a set of categories (Sadker and Sadker ‘s categories of bias). Moreover, the justification of using CA as research method is based on its numerous advantages as far as our survey is concerned. Content analysis can allow for both quantitative and qualitative operations hence using strengths of both approaches while at the same time addressing the weakness of each of operation.
Many scholars acknowledge the importance and efficiency of content analysis as a method (Mills, 1995:11), yet it has also been widely criticised. For example, Gilbert (1989:62) aims his criticism above all at the lack of attention given to the text sequencing and organization, explaining that the units of analysis are most often treated as isolated elements of text, as if they were unaffected by their location in the text. Mills shares Gilbert’s view that “the focus on content analysis leads to oversimplification of the way by which the readers participants in the production of meaning as the context and the interpretative and productive processes are often forgotten” (Mills, 1995:11). For example, An expression may be indisputably sexist on one occasion, and non sexist on another. As critical discourse analysis (CDA) insists on context to understand language use, “CDA starts with the assumption that language use is always and inevitably constructing and constructed by social, cultural, political and economic contexts.” (Rogers, 41), justifies also our choice of using CDA.

a.3. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Critical Discourse Analysis is both a theory and a method. According to language analysts, it is a general term for a number of approaches to analyzing written and spoken language (Yule, 1996:139). Researchers who are interested in the relationships between language and society use CDA to help them describe, interpret and explain such relationships (Rogers, 2004:34). CDA is different from other discourse analysis because it includes not only a description and interpretation of discourse in context, but also offers an explanation of why and how discourse works.

Actually, Critical Discourse Analysis is in itself a developing field, one which grew out of systemic functional linguistics, interpreted differently by analysts from different (though usually progressive) standpoints (Ibid). Yet, they all agree on the fact that, CDA is concerned not only with social injustice, inequality, power and power struggles, but also with
exposing the often subtle role of discourse in the construction and maintenance of injustice, inequality and domination.

According to Gilbert and Mulkay, CDA is “an attempt to identify and describe regularities in the methods used by participants as they construct the discourse through which they establish the character of their actions and beliefs in the course of interaction” (1984:14).

For van Dijk, CDA is “primarily interested and motivated by pressing social issues, which it hopes to better understand through discourse analysis” (1993:280).

Critical discourse analysts view language as a form of social practice and focus on the ways social or political domination are reproduced by text and talk. A common theme for how theory of critical discourse analysis relates to research is via the notion of that mankind utilizes language to create pictures of and assume reality (Fairclough, 2003:124). Therefore, if we study and analyze language, we can get closer to the perception of a true reality. Furthermore, Fairclough explains that discourse is the domain of statements and goes on to say that he sees it as “ways of representing aspects of the world” (Ibid).

As a matter of fact, critical discourse analysis holds much promise for educational research. Researchers using CDA can describe, interpret and explain the relationships among language and important educational issues. In this context, Corson raised an important point in relation to the aim of CDA when he writes that “the aim of critical discourse analysis is to explore hidden power relationships between inequality, power relations, discrimination and bias” (Corson cited in Rogers:34). Therefore, as bias is a core issue in our evaluation of the Algerian Secondary School English textbooks, using CDA is so pertinent.
Part Two

Results and Discussion

Introduction

This study was undertaken to assess how gender, race and generation are represented in the latest Algerian Secondary school English textbooks. In this practical part, as its title denotes, I will attempt to report, discuss and interpret the results obtained through both quantitative and qualitative approaches. My analysis will be drawn on previous research presented by prominent figures in the field, such as, Sadker and Sadker (2001), Mills (1995,2008), Sunderland (2002), Porreca (1984), (Renner,1997) among others. Thereafter, our findings will be compared, to see whether the textbooks are biased or not.

For the sake of simplicity, three chapters are included in this part, each dealing with one issue. The first is devoted to the representation of gender, the second to race and the third to generation. In the course of our discussions, several interesting examples taken from the coursebooks will be attached to the analysis.
Chapter Five

Analysis and Discussion of the Representation of Gender

In the present chapter, the data analysis of gender representation in *At the Crossroads, Getting Through* and *New Prospects* is discussed. First, in quantitative terms, the invisibility, underrepresentation or omission of characters on the cover page, text (reading passages, dialogues and activities) and illustrations will be reported. Our focus will be mainly on four facets: female and male appearance in texts and illustrations, protagonists and historical figures assuming protagonists roles or being mentioned. Then, a closer analysis of the text and the pictures will be performed in order to get an idea of the roles females and males are assigned with. Afterwards, our attention will be turned to the number and types of personal traits ascribed to females and males. As quantitative approach provides only statistical data and ignores altogether the context, our discussion of other forms of categories that are context-bound (linguistic bias, cosmetic bias, fragmentation, unreality and unbalance and selectivity) will be led qualitatively. It is worth mentioning that the quantitative analysis and the qualitative analysis were performed concurrently; neither method was considered to be more important than the other method. The results from both the quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis were used to support each other.

**A-Quantitative Data Analysis**

**a-Invisibility: The Portrayal of the Frequency of Appearance of Characters in Texts and Illustrations**

In this section, we are going to report and discuss our findings on the first category used to determine gender bias in the textbooks; invisibility. As mentioned earlier in our review of the literature on this aspect, it is often suggested that there is imbalance in the
representations of characters in EFL coursebooks as they appear in reading passages, activities, or visual materials. Female characters are usually less portrayed than male characters both in texts and visual materials. Below, are the obtained results with illustrative tables of the analysis of the portrayal of the frequency of appearance of females and males characters on the cover page, illustrations and texts of *At the Crossroads, Getting Through* and *New Prospects*.

### a.1 Cover Page and the Portrayal of Gender Images

It is evident that the illustrations of the cover page of any book communicate in a nutshell the contents contained in it. Thus, the cover page may be a powerful vehicle for communicating gender messages to the reader. Analysis of the cover page and gender representations in *At the Crossroads, Getting Through* and *New Prospects* are detailed below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coursebook Title</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At the Crossroads</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Prospects</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6: Gender Representation on the Cover Page**

Data in table 6 reveals that male characters outnumber female characters on the cover page of *At the Crossroads* analyzed in this study. The total number of characters is three: a female with a microscope and a male with a book entitled “the complete works of Shakespeare”. By portraying more males than females on the cover page leaves a bad impression since it is the first page that pupils come in touch with, before flipping other pages. The picture of one of the greatest figures in the history of English literature appeared i.e. Shakespeare. In sharp contrast, no famous female figure is shown. The underrepresentation of females and their exclusion translate their marginalization and
These findings reflect gender bias in the representation of female and male characters on the cover page of this textbook.

As far as Getting Through is concerned, the cover page does not contain any illustrated characters, only a Map of Algeria is included which renders this cover page fair.

In New Prospects, the total number of illustrated characters on the cover page is six: there are three females and three others are males. So we can say that, there is fairness in the representation of characters on the cover page. More importantly, both the illustrated females and males have been shown involved in scientific and technological activities (both female and male using laptops). Yet, in order to be satisfied with this result, one should flip the pages of the coursebook to see if its content is inclusive or not. As it has been reviewed in our literature, most textbooks ‘writers use a“ shiny picture” to diminish the extent of bias that may be found inside the coursebooks, hence to check this fairness, further analysis as far as the representation of female’s contributions and involvement in the scientific field is needed.

a.2. The Frequency of Illustrated Characters in At the Crossroads, Getting Through and New Prospects

“A picture is worth a thousand of words”

This saying actually highlights the importance of the analysis of pictures but also refers to the complexity of images and their content. Language teachers make use of visual materials such as (photos, pictures, cartoons…) with a belief that students do not only learn by words. To be more specific, especially in foreign language teaching, researchers and practitioners have long ago declared that “stories and dialogues are not the only way in which ‘new’ language can be contextualised” (Wright, 1976: 4). The use of visual materials in foreign language coursebooks, to make learning the target language easier and socio-cultural background of the culture more understandable, is becoming important in an increasing way (Genç, 2004). A closer look at the number of visual materials in English Language Teaching
(ELT) coursebooks, from past to present, also indicates that visual materials are becoming an important part of instruction in a growing manner (Wright, 1976: 4). Due to the significance of visual material in EFL textbooks, pictures may also heavily influence students, since the use of images may provoke different emotions among them (Genç, 2004). Therefore, taking into consideration their significance in communicating how the two genders are portrayed is of paramount importance “although many current coursebooks demonstrate a motivating range of situations and of texts, for example, newspaper articles, advertisement, maps, posters… it is of utmost importance to analyze not only their meaning, but also how these situations and people are presented” (Hedge cited in ibid).

At the Crossroads, Getting Through and New Prospects contain a large number of illustrations: over 290 pictures. I collected only those which had a human character, the rest of the pictures contained maps, flags, pictures of animals and cities etc. These pictures are used to make the coursebooks more colorful and inspiring for pupils. They are also useful as a basis for discussions in teaching situations. Consequently, it is not only the texts in a textbook that are expected to reflect the ethos of gender equality, but also the illustrations would have to present females and males in a non-stereotypical manner. Therefore, the illustrations in the textbooks were analyzed in order to see the distribution of females and males characters. One should bear in mind that the illustrations are in most cases not produced by the authors who composed the text, although, they were clearly approved by the publisher.

The number of females and males that appeared in visual materials were manually numerated, the reached findings are shown in table 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbooks</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total characters</th>
<th>Ratio of females to males</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At the Crossroads</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33,33 %</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>66,66 %</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1:2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24,43 %</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>75,57 %</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>1:3,09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>40,15 %</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>58,84 %</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>1:1,49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prospects

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>32,48%</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>67,52%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Female and Male Illustrated Characters in the Algerian Secondary School English Textbooks

To illustrate this clearer, I have also constructed a pie-chart diagrams which demonstrate this distribution and show them in percentage terms (see figures 1,2,3,4).

**Figure 1**: Female and Male Illustrated Characters in At the Crossroads

**Figure 2**: Female and Male Illustrated Characters in Getting Through

**Figure 3**: Female and Male Illustrated Characters in New Prospects

**Figure 4**: Female and Male Illustrated Characters in the Algerian Secondary School English Textbooks

As the charts show, in each of the textbooks there are more male illustrated characters than females. There is an overrepresentation of male in illustrations. The total number of illustrated males is 235 (67,52%) compared to 113 (32,48%) for females. There are some illustrations where female characters are totally absent. For example, At the Crossroads, learners are given four pictures of the greatest inventors of the previous century and were asked to match the pictures with names. All the pictures are about men, no women
scientist has been included, and this total exclusion of women in the field of inventions can be translated as sexist. On the other hand, in the same unit, page 110, women have been shown in a “desperate” picture of washing clothes. Indeed, the omission or underrepresentation of women in textbooks implies that they do not play an important role in society.

It follows that, there is a strong evidence that the materials that were designed for learners of the Secondary School level neglect women and ascribe more importance to male. They are in line with Poccera’s study where she states that “there is evidence that sexism continues to flourish in EFL textbooks” (Poccera cited in Babaai and Ansary, 2003: 05).

As the purpose of the analysis of the illustrations was to investigate whether the treatment of females and males is equal in quantitative terms. We can conclude that women’s invisibility in the illustrations is so clear. Moreover, as previous studies have shown that EFL textbooks are traditionally dominated by men both in illustrations and texts, since the pictures and textual content hand in hand complementing each other. In most cases, texts directs the interpretation of the pictures and the pictures support the textual content. Therefore, relying on the text for identification of the characters provides more correct information than just discarding the pictures from data. Hence, our findings as far as the distribution of characters in the text is concerned will be presented in the next section.

As shown in table 7, of all the characters in the pictures of 33,33% (At the Croosroads), 24,43% (Getting Through) and 40,15% (New Prospects) were female and an average more than 70% for male. This disproportion is not devastating, but clear enough to evoke both questions and discussion. The significant proportion of images on male characters is a possible indication of an appreciation of the masculine sphere life. The textbooks ‘authors perhaps look for pictures and themes that they think most of the students are likely to find interesting and motivating. Either female learners are expected to be more adaptive, being
able to be sustaining motivation and identification with masculine traits, or the masculine characters are considered to be more interesting for learners of both genders.

It can be said that the illustrations in the three textbooks are male dominated and portraying females and males in a stereotyping manner is so clear. Besides, women are mostly illustrated as mothers, housewives, singers or secretory. Males, on the other hand, appeared mostly as businessmen, inventors and men of actions.

**A.3. Frequency of Occurrence of Female and Male Characters in the Text**

The occurrence of female and male characters in the text is one of the aspects of the visibility of characters. In presenting the findings of the frequency of appearance of characters, the number of named and unnamed females and males characters have been counted. Female and male pronouns have also been counted. According to Kabira and Masinjila “naming or not naming is instrumental in shaping attitudes and perceptions towards characters in a text” (Kabira and Masinjila 1997:18).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAMES</th>
<th>UNAMED CHARACTERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textbook</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: The Numbers of Named and Unamed Characters in the Three Textbooks.

It is worthpointing out that the names are coded according to their appearance in the text. If the name appeared more than once on the same page the name is counted once. This happens especially when the character is in a story. The name may be repeated several times. However if the name appeared on the different page, it is counted afresh.

Looking at the table above, it is clear that the majority of the texts are quite male dominated, it is obvious that the high number of male names is in congruence with their high
number of appearance in illustrations and this translates the dominance of males over females. On the other hand, the number of unnamed characters for females surpasses that of males. The omission of names of many females characters in textbooks compared to males characters can have a negative effects on the formation of positive identities to females learners. Actually, a name is an important identity which signifies a person’s existence, position in society and power relations between females and males in the family and the community at large. The absence of female names or naming only few characters signifies the low status associated with the female gender.

On the whole, the overall frequency of appearance of characters in texts and illustrations shows that females are less presented in terms of frequency of appearance across all the content analyzed textbooks. Female compared to male characters have been underrepresented in terms of named and illustrated characters. As a matter of fact, the reached findings are in tunes with the previous research on this aspect which has and is still given special attention in the discussion of gender representation since the preponderance of males over females is always confirmed.

A.4. Historical Figures and Celibrities

As we have already mentioned, many authors argue that the depiction of female and male characters in terms of frequency of appearance can indicate discriminatory attitudes towards girls and women. At another level, according to Gupta and Lee (1990), it is the prominence given to the characters in terms of being the main or the minor characters of the story being narrated that tells whether or not it is discriminatory. Other authors have claimed that achievement of characters mark their visibility or what they have referred as historical figures and celibrities. In the following, we are going to report our findings as far as the portrayal of greatest figures is concerned in the three English textbooks.
Historical figures in school textbooks facilitate students’ sex role socialization and act as role models. There are lots of social psychology studies that have shown learners’ imaginations are limited by the models they are presented with through texts.

In her description of omission, Porreca states that “when females do not appear as often as males in the text, the implicit message is that women’s accomplishment ....... are not enough to be included ”(Pocceria cited in Babaai and Ansary, 2003:05). This actually has effects on the learners. Sunderland notes that:

If female learners are conscious of the female characters in their coursebook 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 (Sunderland, 1992:86).

Through our analysis of At the Crossroads, to explore the portrayal of the greatest figures in the history of humanity, we have been surprised by the huge number of the greatest male figures in all domains: literature (e.g: a portrait of Achebe; page 52, Shakespeare, page 65, ), in the scientific field (Louise Paster, Alexander Fleming, Graham Bell and Albert Einstein on page 113), in Politics (George Washington on page 126) and astronomy (Thales, Pothagoras, page 132). In sharp contrast, only two famous female figures are included in page 126. The table below with illustrative pie-chart diagrams translates these findings which are similar in the two other textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbooks</th>
<th>Male greatest figures</th>
<th>Female greatest figures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>Joseph mallard William turner, Ban Ki Moon, Hitler, Mussolini, Elbaradaii, Martin Luther King, Alkawarizmi, Caliph, Ma’ mun, Albatani, Jabber, Rhazes, Alhaze, Grimm, Moufdi Zakaria, Bill Gates, H.G Well, Abraham Lincoln and Victor Frankenstein, Christopher Columbus, Karl Marx</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Prospects</td>
<td>Tarek Ibn Ziad, Jean Francois Champollion, Zidane, Ronaldo, Yuri Alexandre Gagarine, Galileo Galilei, Johanne Kepler, Prince Charles</td>
<td>Marie Currie, Lady Diana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>66</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 9**: *Female and Male Greatest Figures in the Textbooks.*

**Figure 5**: Female and Male Greatest Figures in at the Crossroads

**Figure 6**: Female and Male Greatest Figures in Getting Through
As we can observe from figures (5, 6, 7, 8), male greatest figures dominate the three textbooks with 66 and only three for female. It struck me that the number of greatest male figures mentioned is larger than the number of famous women. Perhaps that could be a result of there being more famous men than women, historically speaking, but one could also argue there were famous women of the time as well. Even though, the authors of the textbooks have not written all the texts themselves they are responsible for the selection of the texts. The data show that only greatest male figures from different domains being scientific, literary, politics, sports, maths, chemistry and physics are included. On the other hand, no depiction of the achievement of famous women has been found, only their names were mentioned. Such reached results do actually have drastic impact on the Algerian learners who use these manuals. On the one hand, they are provided by limited greatest figures since female famous figures are completely ignored and this would not broaden their knowledge and horizons. On the other hand, female learners lack models in the textbooks and this may have negative impact on their achievement and career expectations. As I mentioned earlier, this is exactly what previous research has concluded: “Female characters are numerically fewer in coursebooks and have more limited occupational and discourse roles than males. Thus, it can be concluded that an impact of this reality also reflects classroom practices and restrict female students” (Renner 1997:45).
a.5. **Protagonists**: The protagonist is the central character in the story, and is often referred as the story’s main character. Frequently a story is told from the protagonist point of view, thus her or his attitudes are made clearer to the reader or listener to a large extent than for any other characters. Is there any balance between female and male protagonists in the textbooks? Data collected on this aspect show that male protagonists again surpass female protagonists. The results achieved as far as the protagonists in the English textbooks designed for S1, S2, and S3 respectively are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbooks</th>
<th>Female Protagonists</th>
<th>Male protagonists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At the Crossroads</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Prospects</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 10: The Female and Male Protagonists in the Textbooks**

As we can also notice from this table, it is clear that the same conclusion can be made about the underrepresentation of female protagonists. All in all, through our discussion of this category, we conclude that the invisibility and omission of female characters in the English secondary school textbooks is confirmed, which may be judged as biased against women and these findings are in tune with all what has been said in the literature on this aspect.

b. **Stereotypes**

Another form of bias that researchers have largely inspected is gender stereotyping, explicitly and implicitly promoted by various kinds of media such as school textbooks. In this regards, Sunderland defines stereotypes as “a received "wisdom", which may or may not contain a "grain of truth," which is then distorted and exaggerated to fill the whole picture'.
Such wisdom cannot be received if it is not circulated across through the media one of which could be the textbook one of whose stereotypes of a woman that is not criticized is the pretty and empty headed, or unable to make decisions on her own” (1992: 59).

Gender stereotyping means the tendency of a given culture to assign particular traits, characteristics and roles distinctly to women and men. The assumption behind stereotyping is that the assembled attributes of men apply to all men and those of women apply to all women.

As far as this second form of bias is concerned, it is out of our reach to cover all the aspects widely used to stereotype women such as physical appearance, social roles, domestic roles, personality traits etc. Our qualitative and quantitative analysis is confined merely to the occupational roles and the depiction of the personality traits of the characters.

Hence, the present research will investigate gender stereotyping, if there is any in the Algerian English secondary school textbooks. Inspections of the roles and personalities assigned to female and male characters in these textbooks would provide clues as to how the textbook writers perceive each gender. Indeed, the available literature provides evidence on how these stereotypes affect consciously or unconsciously the learners. As O’Neill, mentions that “stereotypes can be and often are created with deliberate intent to wound, to insult, to denigrate ……the stereotypes that occur in the textbooks are rarely if ever intentionally negative “ (1994:68), however, he later notes that “unintentional sexism can be just as offensive as subconscious racism”. This means that even though the inclusion of stereotypes are not designed purposefully will definitively disappoint some learners (ibid).

b.1. Occupational Roles

At this level of analysis, the types of jobs assigned to females and males are identified. According to Kabira and Masinjila (1997) activities that human beings are involved in can be divided into three categories. These are productive activities, which are done to produce goods and services, secondary, reproductive activities, which include collecting water;
cooking, nursing children which are performed at home for maintenance of the family, three are community activities, which are done for general community welfare like attending public ceremonies. Reproductive and community activities are not paid for. In short, the analysis of occupational roles gives us insights into women’s and men’s status in society. The obtained results on this aspect are reported in the table below that shows what kind of occupations female and male are engaged in the textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbooks</th>
<th>Female’s occupations</th>
<th>Males’s occupations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At the Crossroads</td>
<td>Housewife, Journalist, Secretary, Teacher, Hairhostess Ironing cloths, Sewing Washing cloths, Veterinary, Escorting children</td>
<td>Electrician, Director, Camp leader, Authors, Adventurous, Political leaders, Humorist, Policeman film director, Chairman, Cameraman, Doctor and, Cardiologist, Psychotherapist Police officer, Inventors, Scientists, President, Artist, Clergy man, Tax collector Telegraph operator, Book binder, Gourmet, Recluse Astrologer and Physician, Clerk, Engineer, Factory manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>Businessperson, guitarist, singer, conduct a research project, sewing</td>
<td>Farmer, Docker, Mayor, Mineur, Comptable Ambilancier, Factory woker Public officer, Barber, Doctor painter, Dentist, Mechanic, Lawyer, Politician, Writer, Colonel, Headmaster, Interviewer, Businessperson, Knight, Chairman, Journalist, Disabled Driver and Economist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Prospects</td>
<td>Guitarist, chemical engineer, a biologist, a comedian, attending hospitalized patient</td>
<td>Archaeologist, Lawyer, Mayor, Customs officer, Businessman, Musician, a Cook, Head master, Astronaut, Scientists, Comedian, Police and Photographer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Occupations of Female and Male Characters in the Algerian Secondary School English Textbooks.
Through our examination of the characters occupational roles, we have found that females, unlike males do not enjoy a wider variety of jobs. Also, the achieved findings indicate that men are depicted in more prestigious occupations like authors, political leaders, scientists, unlike women who are depicted performing less esteemed occupations like teaching, secretary, guitarists. However, the materials have attempted to infuse gender responsiveness in few instances like a biologist, chemical engineer (examples are found in New Prospects on page : 75, 82, 93 and Getting Through on page 117). Indeed, in the first schoolbook; males hold 27 jobs, whereas females are attributed only 10 jobs. The same pattern occurs in Getting Through, with males attribute 26 jobs and females only with 5 roles. As far as New Prospects is concerned, males have been exposed to 13 occupations, while female have only four occupations. To illustrate this clearer, below, i will present charts to show female and male occupational roles in percentage terms.

**Figure 9 : Occupational Roles in At the Crossroads**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>27.03%</td>
<td>72.97%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 10 : Occupational Roles in Getting Through**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>16.13%</td>
<td>83.87%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Furthermore, a closer look at the results, we notice that those occupations that are related to the home are confined solely to women like ironing cloths, sewing, keeping children, nursing. (At the Crossroads, pages 64, 110, 121) which Kabira and Masingila (1997) refers as reproductive roles which are not remunerated, while those outside home are pegged to males, or to put it in other terms, males are more pegged in productive occupations which are paid for. As a matter of fact, previous studies in this regard show the same results (Porreca (1984), Judd and Hartman (1978), Sunderland (1994)) Sakita (1995) “sexist portrayals of both women’s and men’s occupational roles in teaching materials reinforces gender bias in society. Such findings may have effects on the attitudes of the Algerian learners since it implies that most occupations are exclusively for males and females do not acquire knowledge and skills related to some occupations.

As far as private sphere is concerned, in a sharp contrast of what has been reported from the literature of the portrayal of women in private or (home) setting, in our analysis of this aspect we have found that even though there are instances where women are depicted as housewives and mothers in an indoor passive sphere (At the Crossroad, p.21 and p.110), there are also many good examples that have projected women in an outdoor active environment as the following examples show:
On the cover page of *At the Crossroads*, a female is shown with a microscope in a laboratory.

*At the Crossroads*, (p.63) women have been shown involved in sport activities like tennis, ski and golf.

*At the Crossroads*, (p.76), two females, a secretary with her boss and a journalist covering an event have been pictured.

*At the Crossroads*, (p.21,110, 121) women have been described carrying out domestic activities like ironing, washing cloths and taking care of children.

*At the Crossroads*, women have been involved in activities that are good for the community at large by depicting them as activists who fight against “killing the whales” (P.155)

In *Getting Through* women were shown in a vaccination campaign against bird flu (p.146).

In *New Prospects*, (p.75) women have been shown in different environments like a laboratory, library and a university lecture theatre

( P.82 ) women have shown with academics qualifications.

A woman scientist (Marry curie) is shown in a laboratory with her experiments.

In sum, from the above example it is fair to say that the authors of textbooks have projected textbooks female characters in a variety of active environments that reflect the involvement of women in the active life. Even though there are many stereotypical roles to either sexes that reinforces the traditional divisions of labour. It may affect learners negatively by reserving the indoor passive sphere to females and the outdoor active one to males. The EFL learners to, whom the English culture is unknown, may easily develop a belief that would exclude women from the workplace and they form a distorted image since in the target culture, there are many women workers in all domains. Moreover, whenever they
are householders their work may not be addressed as an “unreal work” because women householders in general work 20 hours a week than the workers on the other sectors. More importantly, it is undeniable that such work, when done by woman, frees men from domestic tasks that should otherwise be paid to be done. Indeed, women householders contributed in the economic development because they produce time for men and in western culture “time is money”.

B.2. Depiction of Personality Characteristics

Scott (1981:139) believes that “…Males as well females can be fearful, weak, mechanically inept, and illogical….Male can be polite, cooperative, inactive, or neat. Because such characteristics are shared by males and females in reality, textbooks that classify them as “masculine” or “feminine” are misrepresenting reality”.

In order to check what reality the Algerian textbooks depict through the personality traits of the two genders, this research now examine, personality traits that are pegged to textbooks characters. The portrayed personality traits can have positive or negative effects on readers. To find out if personality traits are stereotyped, positively or negatively to female and male characters in the textbooks, table 9 shows the identified personality traits found in the Algerian secondary school English textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbooks</th>
<th>Females’ Personality traits</th>
<th>Males’ personality traits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At the Crossroads</td>
<td>Curious, ambitious, happy, timid, good, enthusiastic, cheerful, cordial, friendly, bored, kind, anxious, nervous, negative, pretty, early riser, lonely, weak</td>
<td>Ambitious, greatest, famous, hard worker, wealthy, aggressive, lazy, improvident, incapable, coward, fierce, a man of action, sporty, poor, intelligent, important, hero, wealthy farmer, powerful, courageous, well known, representative figure, kind funny, corrupted, most famous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>Helpful, benevolent kind, loyal, emotional, weak, angry, loved, naive bored, warm-hearted, younger, beautiful, smart, afraid, charitable.</td>
<td>Hard worker, early riser, helpful, quite famous, piece keeper, outstanding, unforgettable, poor, rich, charitable, greatest, afraid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
New Prospects | Cheerful, irritable, chartable, studious | Lazy, corrupted, greatest, celebrity, cruel, funny ecologists, studious

Table 12: Personality Traits of Female and Male Characters in The Algerian Secondary School English Textbooks

As we can notice from the above table, in the first textbook; At the Crossroads, there has been an attempt to reach a certain balance in the portrayal of positive traits in female and male image although males hold the upper hand, 20 positive personality traits have been pegged to males compared to 12 for females. For negative personality traits the balance has been maintained. Females have been associated with 6 characteristics and the same for males. What we can deduce from these numbers is that males have been pegged more positive and less negative characteristics traits if we take into account the number of characters in the course book and this can be attributed to the fact that there are more illustrated, named males characters as we have already demonstrated above on the visibility of males. What is also striking is that females are described in terms of emotions like loyal, kind, bored, weak (examples are found in At the Crossroads in pages :76,84,110, also in Getting Through some examples have been detected in pages :44,103,114,129 and in New Prospects in page: 59) or in terms of appearance their beauty whereas males are depicted in terms of strength, rationality and achievements as it is illustrated by these examples which reflect the power and prestige associated with men and weakness and dependancy associated with females “he is one of the greatest men in his time…..he was the man who like action ….his courage against the british invaders won him a place among hereos of his tribe” (At the Crossroads, p.53), “please tell me what should I do ?said meriem.......it is quite natural to be nervous “(p.91)

As far as Getting Though and New Prospects are concerned, the findings show that females are associated with 10 and 3 positive traits and 6 and 1 negative traits, while men are associated with 12 and 5 positive traits and 1 and 3 negative traits respectively. In a nutshell, the three textbooks show certain personality traits are only associated with women.
and other for only men. Females are described in terms of affection and appearance, whereas males in terms of achievements and this follows the traditional differentiation of masculinity and femininity and no androgenous behaviours have been observed and this may have a negative impact on the learners because they identify themselves with the characters found in their daily coursebooks.

B-Qualitative Analysis

c. Cosmetic Bias

This form of bias is manifested through the illustrations that pretend gender equality. Yet the shiny cover is just an illusion of gender fairness. This form of bias is apparent on the cover of At the Crossroads which features a glossy pullout of female scientist with a microscope but when we flip the pages of this coursebook, we find that women’s contribution to science is totally ignored or overlooked and this is reflected by the array of male scientists included, while no woman scientist has been incorporated neither in texts nor in illustrations. As a matter of fact, such findings may have a negative impact on the Algerian learners who are given a very limited knowledge of those who have devoted their lives to science, especially female learners who would think that women scientists did not exist.

The same conclusion is reached through our analysis of Getting Through, where females have been shown in a vaccination campaign against bird flu in page 164, but no comment has been made on their contributions to combat the epidemic.

As far as New Prospects is concerned, cosmetic bias is also manifested in three main examples: on the cover page where females and males depicted in a scientific atmosphere, the first impression we get is that the content of the manuals would be as well inclusive in terms of the depiction of women’s “scientificness”, however, when we go through the material, we were surprised but the total absence of women scientist and
inventors in the content where throughout the texts good examples of male scientists are prevailing. Also, in page 75, two females, a biologist and a chemical engineer are shown concentrated on their works, but no narrative worth mentioning has given a hint to their works. Another example is also shown in page 93 with a picture of Marry Currie in her laboratory carrying out experiments, but no little precious narrative has been included to show her devotion to science and to the welfare of humanity. In sharp contrast, many male inventors have been portrayed in details in page 151, like Galileo Galilee, or Yuri Gagarin in page 141.

It is obvious that cosmetic bias in the coursesbooks is manifested through the shiny pictures that women have been projected. Bias persists since woman’s potentials have been totally ignored in favour of males’s scientific achievement.

d. Fragmentation

This category is largely used to detect gender bias. At this level of analysis, women are being shown as peripheral members of society, when they are isolated or when they are shown communicating with each other.

Through our analysis, we have found an example in At the Crossroads where females have been shown isolated, in page 110, a picture of women washing cloths together and discussing is presented. In Getting Through and New Prospects no manifestation of this form of bias is found. On the contrary, we have found many instances where women and male are depicted side by side when they are carrying their activities. (At the Crossroads, p. 155, New Prospects, p.74, 75, 82).

e. Unreality

At this level of analysis, we are going to see whether the authors of the textbooks have tried to include or avoid certain issues that are strongly related to women’s daily lives
and which are considered controversial like divorce, conflicts, sexual harassment and discriminations. Through our close look to the topics dealt with in the coursbooks, we have deduced that in *At the Crossroads*, women are mainly projected in terms of their roles as housewives and mothers who carry out their domestic activities with a greatest serenity (page 21 and 121) and no family tensions or problems have been mentioned which are part of the living reality. In another example, a real picture of women struggling and suffering to survive is given in page 110. This picture reveals the daily problems that women confront to carry out their routine activities. The lack of water pushes them to go outside and wash cloths.

As far as *Getting Through* is concerned, a text on American women at work (page 170), has pointed out to the role of women in the workplace in the history of America, however, no even a smallest hint to narrate on the struggle of those women to get those jobs and this leaves us with an impression that women’s contributions and achievements when they are mentioned, it is usually done briefly and superficially. In this textbook also no topics about women’s interest or furies have been exposed. With regards to *New Prospects*, women are depicted carrying out their activities in different work environments like laboratory, library and university but no hint on their daily challenges.

Through our analysis of this form of bias, we have attempted to display qualitatively how women’ experiences are portrayed through different themes and images that are used to depict them. By ignoring their challenges, negative and unpleasant facts and their issues of interest, we get the impression that females are unrealistically projected as being in an idealistic world. Therefore, it is necessarily that textbooks authors portray the reality and not beautify it, as O’Neill argues that textbooks should not endeavour to manipulate the reality and show a “sterilized picture of the community”

*That does not seem to me a convincing argument for suggesting that we should pretend in our textbook that women have more equality than they have already …i do not believe that it will benifit anyone…if we create the illusion in our textbooks that the battle...*
has already won …i feel that our textbooks will be better if we try to portray the world as we would like it to be. In doing so, we do not perpetuate inequalities and injustices” (O’Neill, 1994:71)

f. Imbalance or Selectivity

In this study we are going to show how textbooks may perpetuate bias by presenting only one interpretation of issues that are strongly related to gender. For example, a woman may be described as a political leader but does not discuss her work or struggle to hold such a position.

Through our analysis of the coursebooks, we have found many examples that reflect this form, as its name denotes the selection of issues to be tackled by omitting different perspectives. In At the Crossroads (page 113), we find a striking example in which this bias is manifested, learners have been given four selected pictures of male scientists (Einstein, Graham bell, Fleming and Paster) and no woman scientist has been included as if science is “man-made” and woman are totally excluded from this field. Additionally, in the same schoolbook, literary texts or abstracts are drawn primarily from male authors as it is shown in page 46 where four pictures of the greatest English authors (Shakespeare, Twain, Dickens, Carrol) have been given. Also, two books written by male authors Chinua Achebe and Charles Dickens respectively have been presented to the students (p.52 and 57). Moreover, a portrait of William Shakespeare has been provided (p. 65). Besides, abstracts about Gandhi has exerted from a male written book (Y.Chadha) (p.70). The same findings have been reached from Getting Through where males dominate the pages. Greatest male figures in a wide variety of domains have been depicted in politics, Albaradai, Ban Ki Moon, (p. 37, 41) in the scientific field (p. 96) where a long list of the greatest Arab male scholars have been given and literary achievement which are presented through the classical works in the English literature like (James Joyce, Jonathan Swift, Shakespeare) (p.106), and the poet of the Algerian revolution, (moufdi Zakaria) (p.112). Also in the field of information technology;
Bill Gates (p.122). Additionally, the example cited above on our discussion of the unreality issue as far as women’s work in the American life, is an example worthy to be recited since women’s endeavour to get their rights to become a work force is never mentioned. As a matter of fact, the same results have been sorted out when analyzing *New Prospects*, where the authors of the manuals have selected a sheer number of greatest male figures from different academic areas like archeology (p.28) football stars; Zidane and Renaldo (p.126), scientist like Youri Gagarin and only one female scientist has been included Marry Currie (p.93) but no narrative about her greatest achievement has been pointed out.

Accordingly, introducing the learners to the greatest works either in the field of science or literature is a great thing, yet it should be done from different perspectives not only from a male perspective, because this may have a negative impact on the learners who will consider only males as references. More importantly, the issues and challenges that face women in their lives should be incorporated since giving a distorted image of the reality may have negative impact on the learners in general and among females in particular.

g. Linguistic Bias

Most of the language that learners acquire during their schooling especially English is through their teachers or textbooks. It can be said that the textbooks used in EFL or ESL setting are not just tools by which the English language is taught to pupils; they also provide knowledge about cultural context. Lackoff (1990) argues that society is reflected in the language, with values and assumptions held by the society and being mirrored in the language.

According to Kabira and Massingila (1997) language is one of the most and subtle ways of depicting gender bias. In this regards, many researchers (David Carroll and Johanna Kowitz cited in Renner, Mills , Sunderland, Lackoff ) among others, attempted to raised our awareness of how language is used to convey stereotypes and contributes to the perception of
gender. Moreover, they have commented on the danger of exposing pupils to textbooks fraught with sexism “Sexism is something that affects people’s everyday life from domestic affairs to choice of career and should therefore be taken into consideration once presenting textbooks to the pupils” (Renner, 1997:1-3).

As we have already mentioned, our analysis of this category will be held at three different levels: word, sentence and discourse levels. At the word level, these aspects will be fully analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively: generic terms, naming, women as the marked form, endearments and diminutives, semantic derogation and female’s marital statue and the presentation of characters in the dialogues (transitivity). With regards to the sentence level, humour, connotations and collocation, ready made phrases, presuppositions will be also analyzed and finally at the discourse level, firstness, focalization and fragmentation will be addressed.

G.1.Analysis at the Word Level

a.Generic Terms

The findings in the Algerian English secondary school textbooks show that in most incidences, writers have used gender generics that are gender bias. The results reached from the analysis of the generic-male forms along the three schoolbooks reveal the existence of some male generics. The following examples show how the authors have been gender–biased in the use of language through generics.

In *At the Crossroads*

- From the time of primitive **man.** (p.115)
- **Men** used drums to send and receive messages. (p.115)
- TV is the best invention that **man** has ever made.(p.121)
- Among the planets which astronomy has made attractive to **man.** (p.134)
- Rural pollution is a dangerous to **man.** (p.134)
• Chemicals at war against man. (p.145)

• Chairman (p. 148)

• In Getting Through

• The horrors of modern warfare have made man think about preserving human life

• Not gold, but only man can make a people great and strong (p.55)

• Great calamities can show the best in man(p.129)

• Elbaradiah : yes, the chances of peace for the next decade are greater than they are now. This is simply due to the fact that man has all sorts of worthy’ wars to make(p.42)

• Other male terms also identified in unit two (businessman, p.54) in unit six (man-made p.120, grandfathers to mean grandparents p.123) and unit eight (chairman p.174 and foreman p.186)

• In New Prospects:

• Every man has his price (p.59)

• Businessman (p.61)

• In a rich man’s world

In the above description of masculine generic terms of “man”, it is meant to depict both females and males and this is best exemplified in “great calamities can show the best in man”(Getting Through,p.129), which is accompanied by a picture of a group women holding plates of food for the sinisters. Yet, in many instances, such example may imply confusion on whether women are included or not, or may completely excluded by evoking mental images of males in situations where the two sexes are involved (Weatherall, 2002).

The other masculine generic terms that are found in the textbooks are “businessman”, “chairman”, “foreman” “fisherman “policeman”.

As far as generic pronouns are concerned, examples such as s/h or inclusive ‘we’ “I” and “you” are used and prevailing along the three textbooks. For example, in At the
Crossroads, (p.25) “Confirms the identity of the person on line in case s/he thinks that it is the person s/he wants to speak to”, I’m sorry :s/ he is on holliday. I will call her/him later. Such pronouns refer to woman and men at the same time without referring one over the other. Yet, we have recorded the presence of some non inclusive pronouns which may contribute in the suppression of women by conveying men as the prototype even where females are included.

In Getting Through, unit 06, there is one manifestation on page 130 which states “…the reporter’s thought from that of his informant”. Referring to a reporter whose gender is unknown by using the pronoun *his* implies ambiguity because this pronoun refers to “…either ‘the person just mentioned ’or ‘the male just mentioned” (Hudson cited in Mills, 1995:103). This tendency makes women invisible and suggests that only males can be reporters.

Another manifestation of generic-male pronouns is exemplified also in Getting Through (p.129) which states “this earthquake has made everyone of us show his best ….”. In the context where this utterance occurs, it is obvious that both women and men are meant. Indeed, a group of women are shown carring food for those who lost their houses in the earthquake. However, the use of the pronoun “he” to refer to the generic noun “everyone” may suggest that those who showed their best are males and females’ contribution is of less importance. As Bernard Spolsky claims: “*The use of generic masculine …..however well-meaning and neutral the speaker’s intention may be , reinforces the secondary status of women in many social groups*” (Bernard Spolsky cited in Mills, 1995:48).

The third evidence of sexism is manifested in unit 02 on page 42. In one of his answers to the journalist’s questions, Mr. El. Baradai says “This is simply because man has all sorts of worthy wars to make”. He adds: “well, for example, we have to wage war against global warming….”. Seemingly, the personal pronoun *we* is inclusive. But in the context where it is used and since it refers to an ambiguous subject *man*, it is probable that it specifies
males. Not surprisingly, the personal pronoun *we* and its referent man may evoke mental images of males.

The previous examples are evidence on the impact of generic male pronouns on learners. Indeed they are “…potentially more dangerous…” because they render women invisible by evoking mental images of males “…….*as the prototype even for the sex-neutral concept*”(Hudson cited in Mills, 1995: 49).

Although those examples may have a stereotypical tendency, their number is few if we take into consideration the whole number of pronouns included in the textbooks. In fact many inclusive pronouns are used along the three textbooks. The consciousness and awareness to include women is reflected by the recourse to neutral alternatives such as pluralizing and using s/he. The occurrence “Writers often divide texts into manageable chunks in order to make it easy for their reader to understand them” and “…….writers don’t always state what they mean directly”(Getting Through,p.171) portrays both females and males as writers and readers. It reflects efforts to avoid the bias with recourse to pluralization. Similarly, using’s/he to refer to unknown gender, are important steps towards women inclusion.

Considering that, the use of generics in the textbooks is remarkable even though they are considerably outnumbered by gender-inclusive terms. In this sense, language is also used to convey and alternate stereotypes from Renner point of view(1997:3) and as a consequence a state that Mills refers to as a “cold climate”is created, where girls are to a large extent excluded (Mills, 2008:88). So, by teaching pupils that a police officer is a “policeman”,can from this perspective, be seen as contributing to the creation of gender roles which separate females and males and restrict them occupationally (Renner, 1997:5).

To sum up, from the above discussion, even though, the use of generic male nouns and pronouns is recorded in the three textbooks, the prevalence of inclusive and the use
of neutral alternatives to include both genders is clear and this may qualify the three textbooks as fair materials with regards to this aspect.

**b. Naming** : no negative names are recorded through our analysis of the manuals as far as the depiction of females is concerned.

**c. Markedness** : professional titles mostly reflect males as the default or unmarked sex, but are marked for females. For example, in the English language, the term “doctor” clearly refers to a man, and to mean a female, it specifies: woman /female/lady doctor. In this context Suzanne Romaine asserts “it is assumed that a doctor is a man, so a woman who is a doctor must somehow be marked as such, which conveys the idea that she is not the “real” thing” (Romaine, 1999:130). She comments on such sexist practices by stating “….in the prevailing world every one is male unless otherwise designated” (ibid:132). Feminists argue that such terms are sexist because they convey meanings and imply that things are unusual, unexpected and deviant.

A focus on the marked terms used for either sexes reveal the occurrence of one example in *At the Crossroads* (unit three p.84) “hostess” and two occurrences in *Getting Through* “female employee” on page 173 and “female guitarist” on page 166; an no occurrence of marked terms in *New Prospects*.

The occurrence of “female employee” on page 173 suggests that employees are just males and to be so, women must be specified as “female employee”. This means that to say it is usual for a male to be a worker but a woman who works is deviant, abnormal and therefore must be marked. Such aspects omit women from the workforce and qualify them as passive and dependant on men. Similarly, “females guitarist” on page 166 may imply that only males are normal guitarists but females are unexpected to hold such positions. They are just “female guitarists “because they are exceptions of the other females. On the same page,
one may considered the “disable driver” as a male because the person’s occupation does not contain marked terms that would make of it ‘female /women disable driver.

d. Endearments and diminutives: The endearments that men usually used to address women and which are considered diminutive are not found in the textbooks and this may be explained by the fact that no examples of intimate interactions between females and males are reported.

e. Derogatory Vocabulary for Females

A glance into the vocabulary used in the three textbooks to connote females, reveals no occurrence of any demeaning label. This tendency may reflect awareness about the offence that may result every time females are depicted as sexist objects rather than as normal human beings.

f. Females ‘Marital Status

In our examination of this aspect, we have taken in to consideration the titles used to refer to women. The textbooks are full of example which refer to female either by the title Mrs or Ms. The table below summarizes the recorded occurrences of these titles:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbooks</th>
<th>Mrs and Miss</th>
<th>Ms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Designed for S1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designed for S2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designed for S3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Female’s Marital Status

As it is reflected by this table, the occurrence of the title “Mrs”and “Miss” is so great in comparison with the neutral title “Ms”. Actually, feminists have argued that the use of “Mrs”and “Miss” is sexist because it denigrates women. It constitutes means of social pressure towards marriage by “lumping single women with young and inexperience” (Mills, 2008:23). This category positionizes women as being objects owned by men.
g. Female and Male Presence in Dialogues

The use of textbooks is a key resource among language educators. However, pedagogues can never predict how the pupils will interpret a text. Regardless what the author has in mind, interpretations are individual and subjective (Jones and Sunderland 1997:1-2). Jones and Sunderland indicate that the learners may unconsciously absorb what can be considered as gender stereotypes through media and society as well as textbooks in school. Further, they point out a tendency in older textbooks to portray women as homemakers and men as businessmen. They bring to the surface the concern that this may adversely affect women’s learning as well as conception in how they view themselves (Ibid).

The images and language which are used in teaching and the extent to which learners can identify with them have an important effect on how well people learn. If women are under-represented in teaching or represented in demeaning ways, the women who are taught with these materials may learn less well (Jones and Sunderland, 1997:2).

However this is just a hypothesis from their part and the key word being “may”. There appears to be a disagreement among linguists and pedagogues as to whether this is the case or not.

Jones and Sunderland (1997: 1-4) believe that textbook dialogues are often used in various language teaching situations. Dialogues can consist of taped or written conversations between two people, and can be used three various ways when it comes to learning language:

- Firstly, as role-play, the dialogues help to develop knowledge of the language by contributing to the broadening of students’ vocabulary, their ability to use expressive and figurative speech and syntactic competence.
Secondly, dialogues tend to also provide social knowledge through the context as well as practice of a new language.

It also facilitates practice which develops fluency. (Jones and Sunderland, 1997:1-4)

From a pedagogical point of view, dialogues are valuable opportunities to provide language practice as well as proficiency. There can be listed a number of advantages of using dialogue in teaching; even the quietest pupils tend to participate, instead of only the most successful speakers in class. However, dialogues that lack gender balance can be turned into an obstacle that hinders girls’ language learning (Ibid).

Hence, serious consideration should be given to dialogues. In the current study, they have been analyzed by taking into account the following criteria (a) who speaks to whom (the persons involved); (b) who starts the conversation; (c) the topic of conversation and (d) who asks for or give information (the amount of talk).

Jones and Sunderland (1997:8) said that “textbook carries a unique authority which is created and maintained through its texts…..theses are understood as the legitimate version of a society’s sound knowledge”. Following such saying, the aspect of gender topic control was looked as a major indicator in deciding gender fairness representation. Some researchers refer to this as the amount of talk. Ansari and Babaii (2003) Sivasligil (2006) have counted the number of turns of gender conversational roles when they have investigated dialogues.

Many researchers maintained that males always initiated dialogues, and that the length of utterances, the number of utterances is male dominated. Not far from these results were Sunderland (1998) findings. Her data showed that “Male John “always initiated and the “Female Sally” complied. She noticed also that John’s utterances were also longer than Sally’s.
It is true to conclude that EFL texts studies preferred presenting males as the main acting characters in dialogues. These results do not contradict the findings of the several studies that have suggested that in mixed-gender conversations males did speak more than females (Spenser, 1990, Holmes 1980).

In the present survey, the results obtained with regards to the representation of females and males in dialogues reveal three different categories of dialogues employed in the textbooks: same gender, mixed gender and neutral dialogues. Same dialogue represents male to male and female to female communication, mixed gender dialogues involved both female and male characters and neutral do not emphasis the participant’s gender and could be presented by both female and male characters.

A close examination of At the Crossroads reveals that the number of neutral dialogues is four (p. 22, 64, 66 and 90). The following is an example of neutral dialogues where the participant’s gender is unknown:

**A:** Hello, I’m doing a survey about students’ regular activities. Can you help me.

**B:** Yes of course

**A:** well, my first question is …. 

**Air hostess:** would you like another drink ?

**Passenger:** No, thanks, I’m fine

Besides the neutral dialogues, we have found also four same gender dialogues. On page 61 the dialogue is between Peter and John. On page 90, between Karim an Doris, Aicha and Meriem, policeman and motorist. On page 92 between Rachid and Karim. Besides, we have also found two examples of gender mixed between a lady and a man, she initiated the dialogue and asks him questions (p.48) and between chairman, Marry, John and Peter on page 148. It is the chairman who initiated the topic and he is the one who asks questions and try to
get answer, he started by Marry then the topic about the problem of traffic pollution is dominated by Peter and John.

**Chairman:** Right. Can we start? The main purpose of this meeting is to discuss the problem of traffic pollution in our town. Would you like to begin, Mary? What have you got to say on the subjects?

**Mary:** Well, I think that there are too many private cars in the streets. That’s what causes traffic jams and pollution. Now, the way to solve the problem in my opinion is to discourage people from using their cars in the city centre.

**Chairman:** So, you mean that people should use public transport in town. How do you feel about Mary’s idea, John?

**John:** I like Mary’s idea, but I really agree with her because many people need to use their cars simply because they are dependent on them…….

**Peter:** I disagree with you there John.

**Chairman:** Just a minute. Let him finish, Peter! What were you saying, John?

**John:** Well, I was saying that people are dependent on their cars and that’s true..

In *Getting Through:* we have two examples of neutral dialogues on page 42 and 122 and three of the same gender dialogues found on pages 28, 44 and 84.

In *New Prospects:* we have found three examples of neutral dialogues and one of the same gender and one mixed gender dialogue between a wife and a husband who initiated the dialogue (p. 112) and between two males characters and a female (p. 171).

As we can notice, eleven neutral dialogues, eight the same–gender dialogues and two mixed dialogues are found in the textbooks. As we can see, neutral dialogues prevail the textbooks and this can be perceived as for the reason that they provide equal unrestricted opportunities for both female and male students ‘participation in speaking activities. A close examination of the mixed–dialogues that have been found on page 148, *At the Crossroads*
and \textit{(New Prospects)} on page, 112, 171, reveal some cases of female under presentation. For example, the first dialogue is about the problem of traffic pollution between chairman, Marry, John and Peter. As we can notice in the dialogue, we find three males and one female. Additionally, the chairman initiated the dialogue and asks for information from Marry, Peter and John. Marry has taken only one turning and the others two. Consequently, the difference of the amount of talk between females and males is so big. Males uttered 112 words and Female only 42. It is obvious from these results that males have dominated the dialogue and those who express more their point of views. In the other example, on page 112, the dialogue is between a wife and her husband, she initiated the dialogue, she takes five turning and her husband four. She is the one who seeks for information, she uttered 49 words and her husband only 23 words. With regards to the dialogue on page 171, Henry, Sofiane and Lamia. The male Henry initiated the dialogue about TV heroine and heroes. Henry and Sofiane have taken two turns, while Lamia just one and she is left at last to express her opinion. Males uttered 80 words, whereas Lamia only 39.

As far as the same gender dialogues, out of the total six found in the school textbooks, four are between males-males and only two between females and females on pages 90 \textit{At the Crossroads} between Aisha and Meriem and in \textit{Getting Through} between Maya and Leila.

Additionally, through our examination of the dialogues along the textbooks, the topics tackled in these conversations and the status of the persons involved may imply sexism. Indeed, males are portrayed as journalists, businessman, heads over international organizations and noble price winners. Females, however, are depicted as sensitive schoolgirls who are discussing “futile“ topic where such as boredom or shame. The depiction of females as emotional, “the futility “of the topic they discuss on one hand and the portrayal of males as important figures and subjects of great achievements on the other hand reinforces
the biased stereotype about the two characters ‘roles in society. Such a portrayal trivializes women and denies them access to business, fame and different achievements that aim to promote the human life. Moreover, they may imply offence to learners by disadvantaging females from entering the field of business which they believe is not theirs. Furthermore, It is capable of straightening males’ myth of superiority over females and subsequently perpetuates gender inequalities and discrimination in society.

In conclusion, the inequalities of female and male representations in dialogues is so obvious as it is revealed by the results obtained, male characters appear more in dialogues, when they speak and initiate more, or take more turns, may be referred as negative factors in EFL classrooms, since these dialogues cause discouragement in developing speaking skills and passives classroom role of the females. Only gender balanced dialogues, integrating equal numbers of female- male appearances, turns, initiations and words, improve classroom interaction and provide equal opportunities of English learning.

G.2. Analysis at the phrase /sentence level

a. Humour

As we have already stated, humour can be used as a mask to disguise sexism. through our examination of the three manuals, we have recorded two instances in New Prospects where women have been projected as the laughing stock of the readers. On page 59, a picture in a hospital shows an elderly man lying in his bed and an other elderly man has asked a woman who is setting next to him, how all the medicines that he has taken has not cured him and the woman replied by wondering how they have not killed him:

**Man**: Incredible !he has taken all these medecines and yet none of them has cured him.

**Woman**: what is even more incredible is that none of them has killed him.
Indeed such example can be considered as sexist since it depicts this woman as weak and criminal and wish death for people. Even though it is said humorously, nevertheless the implying message is so strong and harsh since a negative image of women is manifested.

The other example is also found on page 189, a woman also depicted as a victim of man’s lies. After insisting on seeing unicorn in the garden, the woman believes that her husband is crazy and she called the police and psychiatry because she thought that unicorn is a mythical beast, when they have arrived they have seized the woman because of her husband lies. This is also a good example of how humour can be used as a technique to convey a negative image of women. In this story, women are depicted as weak, lack rationality and are victims of males domination. Even though, it can be argued that the purpose of incorporating such example in learners book is just for “kidding”, one’s must reject it because it may wound and have negative impact on the learners, especially girls.

**b-Ready –made phrases :** As far as this aspect is concerned, no proverbs or ready-made phrases that are demeaning women have been reported, this may be also explained by the fact that textbooks authors become aware of the potential impact that such phrases may have on learners.

**c-Connotation and Collocation :** The same conclusion is reached as the ready-made phrases, no negative connotations have been detected in the textbooks as far as the depiction of females is concerned.

**d-Inferences and presuppositions :** No instances that presuppose the alienation or the trivialization of women is found in the textbooks.

**G.3. Analysis at the Discours Level**

**a. Firstness**
After reviewing the order of appearance of the two sexes in pairs, the data gathered in the textbooks are reported as follow: At the Crossroads, the results show four occurrences where females occurred before males. They are “……mum and dad” on page 21(unit one), women and men on page 155 (unit five) and s/he in pages 84 and 91 (unit two and three respectively). This use, did not seem to occur randomly. It is probably an alternative to change the dominant order where females are always the second sex. Referring to females before males can be interpreted as an awareness about the offence sexist language may cause and as a step towards challenging it. Be it or not, such usages are capable of lessening the gap existing between females and males by implying that both of them are of equal importance.

Besides the previous occurrences, occurred seven utterances where males are mentioned before females. These instances are recorded in unit one such as “Jari and Kirsi” on page 21, “Tom and Edora Smith” “Dear Sir and Madam” p. 27. “I have brothers and sisters”, on page 32, “men and women” on page 126, “my father and my mother” and “brothers and sisters” on page 91.

As far as Getting Through is concerned with regards to firstness, the results mention five occurrences where females occurred before males. They are ……sisters and brothers …” on page 49 (unit 2) and “ladies and gentlemen “ on page 68 (unit 3) and s/he on pages 122, 128 and 130 (unit 6).

In addition, the previous utterances occurred also five where males are mentioned before females. These instances are recorded in unit 2 such as “…little white boys and white girls …” “ little black boys and little black girls …” on page 49 (unit 02) and” “ladies and gentlemen “on page (50 unit 2) and” husband and wife” on page 102 (unit 5).

With regards to New Prospects, we have found the occurrence of two examples where females proceed males on pages 80 and 155 “ladies and gentlemen “ and one example where male comes before female on page 130 “dear sir and madam”.

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It is obvious from the above examples that referring to males before females constitutes an aspect of sexism in language. Even if it is done unconsciously, each time the occurrences such as “boys and girls” or “males and females” constitutes a negative attitude towards females. In fact, in a language such as English where the order of appearance is important “the worthier is the one who is preferred and mentioned before, just like a man is mentioned before women” (Weatherall 2002:18). The aforementioned examples are discriminatory against women because they depict them as the second sex and allege that their roles are of less importance when used with males ones (Romaine, 1999:35). Because this order is so ingrained in our culture, switching it seems difficult or even odd. This constitutes an evidence of the power of such aspect of sexism on EFL learners who believe that males are naturally the first and then the best.

b. Fragmentation: our focus on the fragmentation aspect in our analysis of gender at the discourse level is triggered by the fact that women are always the subjects of fragmentation and objectivization through their depiction. In our survey, we have found that women are not exposed as sexual objects in the Algerian secondary school English textbooks and this may be explained by our context and the background of their authors who are living in a society where such issues are considered as taboo and topics that should not be addressed, especially for the learners who are in the period of adolescence.

c. Focalization: the three school textbooks are fraught with examples which reflect the centredness of male characters in all the aspects addressed both in pictures or in texts. The Focalization on the male characters reflect the marginalized image of women. Either the stories or the dialogues have been reported from the male point of view.
Chapter Six: Analysis and Discussion of Race

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of the obtained results, we attempt to see how the representation of minorities, especially “people of colour” is reflected through the data gathered. Like our analysis of the gender issue, the same steps will be followed to evaluate the intended textbooks with regards to the racial representation since our theoretical basis is the same i.e. Sadker and Sadker categories of bias. As a starting point, the appearance of minorities in the cover page, text and illustrations will be checked. Then, the occurrence or the absence of instances of stereotypes will be reported. After, the linguistic aspect i.e the language used to depict minorities will be analyzed. Finally, as far as the race aspect is concerned, our corpus will be analyzed to see if there is any manifestation of the rest of bias categories (selectivity, unreality, fragmentation and cosmetic bias).

a-Cover Page and the Representation of Race

Bearing in mind the proverb “the first impression lasts”, our interest in the analysis of the cover page is triggered mainly by its importance in giving the first impression of what is inside the book. In relation to the race issue, after our examination of the three content analyzed textbooks, all the characters are white and seem to be all Algerians, no “people of colour” or from different minority group is included. This invisibility can be interpreted that these characters are not worthy to be incorporated and this leaves a bad impression.

b- Invisibility in Text and Illustration

None of the textbooks give a real picture of the diversity of the Algerian society or the target culture i.e. English. At the Crossroads, after scrutinizing the texts and illustrations we have found solely two examples where people of colour have been depicted. On page 52, a picture of a greatest African writer who is “black” is presented. In the next page, an exert which can be consider as a summary of his book is given. Another example is
found on page 126, while the career of a great black American scientist George Washington Carver has been given. It is obvious from these two representations that the different ethnic groups that constitute either the target culture or the Algerian society are totally omitted or underrepresented. In Getting Through, the authors have not provided an inclusive picture of the diversity that constitutes both the Algerian and the English societies. Through our content analysis, we have found only one illustration accompanied by a text which reports on the suffering faced by people of colour during the 1960’s in USA. In the picture, we find a group of black men are transported on a ship as slaves and two white men surveille them. In New Prospects, we have also a picture of a woman of colour with two of her colleagues who have just been graduated. As a matter of fact, these results reveal that the newly designed textbooks do not actually meet the social expectation of the new reform in terms of the representation of the different ethnic groups and their contributions and positions either in the Algerian or the target society, given the fact that promoting tolerance, openness and understanding the others are among the aspiring goals of the reform.

Stereotypes: Given the fact that minorities and “people of colour“ are almost invisible in all aspects of the textbooks, stereotypes with regards to this aspect are scarce. Nevertheless, the text and illustration on the American blacks during 1960’s (Getting Through, p.48) reflect the fact that they are stereotyped as, slaves, helpless, weak and the servant of the white men.

c. Selectivity

Through our analysis, we have found an example of selectivity with regard to the race issue. In the text entitled; Martin Luther king, the man of peace, in the text it is said that the black Americans now enjoy the same rights as the whites, but the authors have not given even a smallest hint on the challenges and the hardship that their precedes have experienced
“black American can do a lot of things that their parents could not do years ago because of racism” (Getting Through, p48).

d. Linguistic Bias: no occurrence has been recorded on the use of language that may be considered as racist.

e. Cosmetic bias: as far as race is concerned, no occurrence that reflect this form of bias is recorded, this may be explained by the lack of attention attributed to these two issues from the authors of the textbooks

f. Fragmentation: The best example of fragmentation is shown on page 48 in Getting Through where a group of “people of colour” are depicted in a desperate picture.

g. Unreality: no instance that reflect this form of bias has been recorded.
Chapter Seven: Findings on the Generational Issue

a. Invisibility

With regards to the last issue in our survey; the depiction of elders is also content analyzed by relying on Sadker and Sadker ‘s categories of bias. Through our data gathered, the invisibility of older characters in *At The Crossroads* is striking. Out of 90 total characters, only two elderly ladies have been found in the illustrations on page 64 and 121 respectively. In the second textbook content analyzed, elderly people are completely excluded in the illustrations. No elderly character has been incorporated. Actually, this omission reflects the unimportance and the position that they hold in society. In the last course book underanalysis, we have noticed an improvement in the way elderly people have been handled. In New Prospects, we notice an improvement in the way the elderly people have been treated. Even though, their number is small (8) compared to the total characters (127) found in the schoolbook, however, their representation is so significant.

It is obvious from the data gathered in the three manuals that the elderly people are underrepresented and excluded from texts and illustrations and when they are mentioned, they are depicted in terms of kinship; grandfather or grandmother.

One aspect of biased textbooks with regard to the portrayal of elderly people is their invisibility or omission in the text. In the coursebook designed for S1, we have one elderly character mentioned in the text about okonkwo. Unoka who is okonkwo ’s father has been depicted as a negative character “a lazy and improvident and incapable ……he is a cowards”(p53). In the two remaining textbooks; elderly people have been depicted only in terms of kinship as grandfather and grandmothers.

b. Stereotypes

As far as the occupational roles assigned to elderly people, no example worth to be mentioned. They are all projected as grandfather and grandmother.
Elderly people have been depicted in stereotypical images; they have been shown lonely seeking for a good company as the picture in At the Crossroads (p.64) shows; when the elderly lady asks a young woman “why you don’t come and site next to me”. This stereotypical image of elderly people also found in New Prospects, as ill, unable “an elderly man lying in the hospital”(59), on page 121 also a couple is shown isolated and living lonely. We have also found positive stereotypes they have been depicted as kind, loyal and great as the following examples demonstrate:

“The best grandmother ….she was very kind and loyal” (Getting Through, p.32)

“My grandfather was the greatest hero” (New prospects, p.170).

e. Linguistic Bias: no occurrence has been recorded on the use of language that may be considered harmful towards the elders.

f. Isolation: there is only one example found in New Prospects (p.121) worth-citing that reflects this form of bias. A couple have been shown isolate and this reflects the negative stereotype that elders are alone.

g. Cosmetic bias, Unreality and Selectivity

No manifestation of such forms of bias either in text or illustrations, this confirms that this category is totally ignored.

As the findings of this study suggest, many ageist tendencies are apparent in the coursebooks. First, these coursebooks do not treat the elderly as they treat any individual appearing in these coursebooks. That is to say, the elderly are depicted only when their age is the significant counterpart of their appearance. Thus, when the elderly are presented, their age makes up the largest part of the discourse. It is noteworthy that when the elderly is a part of the discourse, they are represented as minor characters such as those having the role of the grandfather or grandmother. In other words, the elderly are not presented as whole persons existing with many qualities other than their ages. Often, the
elderly appear as grandmothers and grandfathers or as examples in support of the belief that healthy life is possible at all ages with their role confined to caretaking their children. 

As it is reflected by the number of pages concerned with the findings on the race and generational issues, the data collected is so limited since these two aspects are completely ignored by the authors of the textbooks. The textbooks do not provide ample examples that allow us to carry out a long discussion and to derive conclusions as far as these forms of bias are concerned. In sum, the elders and minority groups are invisible in the Algerian secondary school English textbooks.
Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter starts with the summary of the main points reached through our evaluation of the Algerian Secondary School English textbooks. Then a conclusion has been made to answer the major question that has guided this research work “Do the Algerian English textbooks carry out any form of bias ?”. Next, pedagogical implication of the issues under representation will be discussed. The chapter concludes by an overall evaluation of the current study and suggestions for the further research.

Before closing this study, it is convenient to comment on some of its findings. As it is stated in our introduction, in carrying out this study, our research is mainly guided by research objectives accompanying by questions. Based on sadker and sadker categories of bias, the findings of the study were specifically collected with the purpose of responding to the following main study issue:

Do the Algerian secondary English textbooks carry out any form of bias with regards to gender, race and generations ? As we have described in our methodology, our study has employed both qualitative and quantitative methods in data analysis.

On the determination of the portrayal of gender, in the secondary school English textbooks that are presently in use in Algeria, as it can be discerned from the outcomes of this research, there is gender imbalance in the depiction of gender in favours of males across all the categories that are identified and used in the content analysis of the three textbooks. Female compared to male characters are underrepresentation. Generally there is gender imbalance in the portrayal of gender images in favours of males at the expanse of women.

Our current study has found that the cultural content regarding gender represented in illustrations and texts does not actually violate the norm adopted in many EFL texts all over the globe displaying some kind of female under representation. Through our obtained results, we confirm that stereotypes of gender visibility continue to appear in recent EFL textbooks.
This study and other studies (Hellinger, 1980, Porecca, 1984, Sunderland 1992) stresses the invisibility of females in foreign language textbooks. These methods of presenting and representing gender aspects might hinder learners from expanding their cultural horizon; they shift their perspective toward the unfairness of gender representation in textbooks because their value systems are still in the process of developing.

Also, the findings of this study proved that there is a significant imbalance in the number of the greatest figures that have been incorporated in the textbooks. Indeed, these findings show a serious problem in the Algerian secondary school English textbooks. According to some researchers, under representation of one gender over the other implies that the gender has less importance, value, and significance in society (Sadker and Sadker 1978, Gollnick and Chinn cited in Porreca). This unfair treatment of gender may cause young students to consider females less importance and significant in society.

As far as gender-linked jobs and occupations, the findings of the study demonstrates that the overall pegging of male and female characters to employment favours males in comparison to females. These prevalent and unfair findings of representation, besides the restricted female occupations may affect and distort students’ views of the world (Sakita, 1995).

In the domain of personality traits, the findings of the survey reveal that males are given positive traits than females. If we add to this clear male outnumbering the types of traits ascribed to each gender, we conclude that the authors of the school textbooks are not actually accurate in presenting this aspect. Females have been negatively described as weak, sensitive, and submissive and dependent on men. They have at the same time been described positively in personality characteristics that relate to human relations, such as being kind, affectionate and loving. Males characters on the other hand are positively portrayed as brave, courageous, adventurous but negatively shown to be cruel and lazy. Again, the portrayal of personality
traits favours males and it is their advantage in the building of self-esteem. The personality trait can aspire males to model on them. Such modelling can be advantageous to them in carrying out other activities outside the home. Therefore, textbooks should depict the appropriate positive and negative personality traits for both girls and boys to permit them to judge the worthiness of such behaviour.

The findings on the use of gender-biased language reveal that the depiction of gender-biased language has not very much featured in the content analyzed, to a large extent, the authors of the textbooks have tried to avoid it even though we have found instances of generics terms. Yet, gender-biased language is not significant. Such conclusion is in line with what we have said in our review of literature concerning the greatest achievement of feminist to combat generic terms.

The findings of the study show a visible tendency regarding the aspects of firstness. Out of 22 Examples of firstness, males are seen 13, while females appeared 11, these results are in concord with Porreca’s findings which indicate that male preference is the norm, which in turn violates one of the goals of foreign language education that emphasises developing linguistic proficiency and cultural knowledge.

With regards to markedness, the data gathered across the three textbooks show that there are only three marked terms which are found in the textbooks. English marking of females terms depicts males as the “norm”, the best and the most desirable (Hardman, 2004:6). Simultaneously, it reflects a view of women as a deviant inferior and of less importance. Such practice is capable of moulding the ESL learners’ thought into bipolarized society that let no place for diversity and tolerance.

In the selectivity or imbalance category: the results obtained from our analysis show that actually there are many instances where these forms of bias are manifested. As we have already seen in our discussion of this form, the authors of the English textbooks have
mainly selected the greatest male achievement at the expanse of females and this may leave a bad impression from the females’ learners who will consider that women have no place in the field of science or literature.

Fragmentation: as far as the findings on this category, only an example where this form of bias has been noticed in At the Crossroad, on page 110.

Unreality: also, learners have been given with a distorted image of the daily reality of women. As we have seen in our discussion, no conservational topics that are strongly related to women have been tackled.

As far as the two last issues race and generation, as it is reflected by the amount of discussion that is discerned to them, it is obvious that the authors of the textbooks have not given importance to picture the diversity of the local culture or the culture of the target language. Ethnic groups and elders are scarcely pointed out and this is what makes the Algerian secondary English textbooks bias also with regards to these two issues, through their invisibility.

The above summary of the findings indicate that actually the Algerian secondary school English textbooks are not free from bias in terms of gender, race and generation. The textbooks that accompany or are part of the official curriculum have hidden negative messages that are communicated to the learner’s inentitially. Textbooks which remain one of the versatile agents of socialization in the society leads to shape attitudes by transmitting a society’s culture. Bearing in mind the new reform goals, we can say that the authors of the textbooks have failed in proving an inclusive picture as far as the gender, the race or the age of characters are concerned.

Finally, bearing in our minds what vitz (1984:4) has said “the facts, interpretations and values taught to today’s children will largely determine the character of
textbooks ‘writers must take care that what they write is inclusive and not discriminatory. They could not only rely on their experiences and knowledge and values for presenting aspects of the target culture. They need to get goals and prescribe themes to act as guidelines for their work. It is the biggest responsibility of our Ministry of Education to set in advance guidelines to guide textbook writers to exclude bias from EFL textbooks. Unfortunately, through our research work we have not found any document concerning gender implementation in EFL textbooks. Hence, in order to bridge the gap, for practical reasons, as an English teacher, we suggest an immediate implementation of some techniques and strategies by teachers to exclude or at least minimize all forms of bias that may be found in learners’ daily textbooks. Teachers can:

- Analyze their students’ textbooks, especially where the roles of female is portrayed according to traditional beliefs. Then, they can prepare additional supplementary materials to eradicate the short flow

- Use inclusive language such as police officer for police man, chair person for chair man and they or s/h instead of he.

- They should avoid using teaching strategies that would undermine the values and images of females and males learners and also to explore better alternative ways, which would promote gender balance in the teaching and learning process.

- Ask students to review school textbooks to identify the types of bias that may be found in their course book by relying on sadker and sadker categories of bias that should be explained thoroughly. The following should be ensured where appropriate:

  Males and females are:

  ▪ Are presented with equal respect
  ▪ Are illustrated in similar number and importance
  ▪ Are shown in a variety of occupational roles
- Are shown as making important contributions to their communities and to the world.

- Are shown as active and responsible society members

  Also, they should be ensured that the pictures mirrored of their society and the society of the target culture is inclusive.

  They should be aware of the importance of providing an inclusive picture of the local and the target culture as far as the different ethnic groups are concerned.

  In a nutshell, Through our research it is hoped that every possible effort will be made either from textbooks designer, teachers and educators in general not to offend a certain group of learners purposfully or unintentionally.
Recommendations for Future Studies

To develop this study further, a more extensive amount of material could be collected, more textbooks could be scrutinized and compared, this in order to make the study more reliable. Based on the findings of this study, which have established that bias exists in the Algerian English textbooks, other studies are recommended:

- Examine the issue of bias in the English textbooks that are designed for middle school levels.

- Carry out a research on the issues of gender, race and generation in the textbooks of other subjects.

- Investigate teacher–learner classroom interactions in both female and male classes to reveal the ways teachers follow to present aspects of gender:

There are other aspects of gender that need to be examine such (tag questions, woman’s lexical and grammatical choice).

In sum, gender, race, generation, language and education are all broad subjects and there are immense possibilities for researchers to examine.
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Appendices

Appendix N°1

Male Greatest English Authors
Appendix n° 2

Female and Males 'Activities
Appendix n°3

Females ‘Occupations
Appendix n° 4

Male and Female Greatest Inventors
Appendix n° 5

Humour

A cartoon

Incredible! He has taken all these medicines and yet none of them has cured him!

What is even more incredible is that none of them has killed him yet!
Appendix n° 6

Slavery in America
Good Morning,

I'm an Algerian post-graduate student, I prepare a master thesis entitled Gender, Race and Generation in Algerian Secondary School Textbooks. From my review of literature, I have found that your work in the field of cultural bias and especially in gender bias is so remarkable. Thus, I would be very grateful if you could provide me with some guidelines and advices to how to proceed and send me articles about categories bias especially the entitled Gender Bias: From Colonial America to Today's Classrooms.

Best Regards

Mrs Akili Chafiaa

Re: Articles about gender bias
À Chafiaa Akili

e: (dsadker@gmail.com)

dim. 08/11/09 21:33

Chafiaa Akili

: (akili.chafiaa@hotmail.fr)

Dear Chafiaa:

I am pleased that you are investigating these issues that limit human potential. You will find some useful information on my website http://www.sadker.org/DavidSadker.html

and some categories and data you may find useful in 

http://www.sadker.org/textbooks.html

The chapter you identified will not be that helpful to you.

Good luck,
Résumé

Le présent travail a pour but d'analyser et d’évaluer les nouveaux manuels scolaires (Algérien, « At the Crossroads », « Getting Through » and « New Prospects » destinés aux élèves du cycle secondaire en ce qui concerne le sexe, la race et les générations.

Notre intérêt particulier à la réalisation d’une thèse de magistère sur ces questions a été déclenché par la fonction qu’ont les manuels scolaires comme « de puissants agents de socialisation ».

Il peut être soutenu que ces manuels, avec tous leurs aspects, ont le pouvoir de modifier l'opinion des élèves et leurs croyances sur les nombreuses questions socioculturelles telles que le sexe, la race et la génération, puisque la majorité de l’enseignement en classe est réalisée par leurs utilisation. En rapport à cela, les théoriciens rejettent la demande que la scolarisation constitue un processus neutre et que les écoles fonctionnent souvent avec l’intention de reproduire les valeurs et les privilèges de la culture dominante (Darder, 1991). Ainsi, les manuels scolaires ont des effets sur la formation cognitive et émotionnelle des élèves. Par conséquent, les tendances récentes de recherche dans l’enseignement de langue anglaise (ELT) exigent l’étude du matériel didactique à partir de perspectives différentes, y compris leurs qualités culturelles, sociales et psychologiques et leurs effets (Kramsch 2000).

Il est estimé qu’en se concentrant sur la façon dont les personnages sont représentés dans les manuels, un nombre de messages ou de valeurs sont transmises aux élèves. De telles valeurs, alors, peut se transformer en pensée stéréotypée des élèves envers les autres dans la société, forcément à cause de mauvaises pratiques telles que la haine, l'intolérance, ou de rabaisser les autres. Par conséquent, notre intention dans cette recherche
est de dévoiler les personnages : Femme, Homme, des minorités et des groupes d’aînés sont représentés dans les nouveaux manuels. L’un des buts de la dernière réforme est de promouvoir les valeurs et non de les rétrograder. Pour atteindre cet objectif, Sadker et Sadker sept catégories de préjugé (invisibilité, les stéréotypes, les préjugés linguistiques, l’irréalité, la fragmentation, la sélectivité et la partialité cosmétiques) ont été utilisés comme théorie de départ pour étudier et explorer les différentes formes de préjugé qui peuvent être trouvés dans les manuels scolaires.

Pour réaliser notre recherche, à la fois une analyse quantitative et qualitative ont été effectuées. Grâce à l’analyse de contenu (CA) et l’analyse critique du discours (ACD) les résultats obtenus ont affichés que les manuels en question sont loin d’être exempt de préjugés à l’égard de tous les aspects retenus pour l’évaluation. Il a été constaté qu’il ya une tendance significative à sous-représenter les femmes, les groupes ethniques et les personnes âgées. L’invisibilité de ces personnages est enregistrée à la fois dans le texte et les illustrations. Les résultats montrent en outre certains stéréotypes en particulier dans les aspects des métiers et des traits de personnalité. De plus, l’analyse la fois quantitative et qualitative ont confirmé la présence de ces formes de préjugé (sélectivité, la fragmentation, l’irréalité, de partialité cosmétiques). Dans la mesure du préjugé linguistique, il a été observé que les auteurs des manuels ont étaient sensibles dans leur utilisation du langage dans la représentation des groupes ethniques et les personnes âgées. Par ailleurs, il y a une tendance remarquable à utiliser un langage inclusif et neutre dans la description des deux sexes. Sur la base de ces constats, nous arrivons à la conclusion que les auteurs des manuels scolaires ne sont pas guidés par des listes de contrôle spécifiques qui empêchent la production de matériel didactique biaisée. Par conséquent, il est fortement recommandé par le ministère Algérien de l’éducation à élaborer des listes de contrôle pour identifier les préjugés, parce que
ce que possèdent les manuels scolaires et de transmettre aux apprenants socialement et culturellement est d'une importance primordiale.
ملخص

من خلال هذه الرسالة قمنا بتحليل و تقييم مضمون الكتب المدرسية للغة الإنجليزية المصممة لمستوى التعليم الثانوي فيما يتعلق بالجنس، العرق و الجيل. و لقد أثار اهتمامنا الخاص في إجراء أطروحة الماجستير حول هذه الفضيحة من خلال الوضيفة التي تأديها هذه الكتب "كعناصر قوية للتنشئة الاجتماعية".

- إن الباحثين في مجال تقييم المواد التعليمية بصفة عامة و الكتب المدرسية بصفة خاصة، أكدوا أثارها على التكوين المعرفي و العاطفي للطفل. فبالنسبة لاتجاهات الحديثة في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية تستوجب دراستها من منظورات مختلفة بما في ذلك خصائصها الثقافية و الاجتماعية و آثارها النفسية على التلاميذ.

- تشير هذه الدراسة إلى إظهار كيفية تمثيل الجنس، العرق و الجيل فالكتب المدرسية الجزائرية للغة الإنجليزية للطور الثاني.

لقد حاولنا من خلال هذا البحث التقليمي الإجابة على هذين السؤالين:

- هل الكتب الجزائرية المصممة للتعليم الثانوي لمادة اللغة الإنجليزية تحتوي على أي شكل من أشكال التحيز فيما يتعلق بالجنس، العرق و الجيل.

- هل كيفية تصوير الشخصيات في هذه الكتب تعكس القيم المنص عليها خلال إصلاح المنضومة التربوية الجديدة أم أنها تعزز التحيز و التفكير النمطي.
للإجابة على هذين السؤالين الأساسيين تابعنا الخطوات التالية:

أولاً: نظرية، إعتمدنا على أعمال «صادكور و صادكور» (2001) فيما يتعلق
أشكال التحيز والتفكير النمطي. من خلال دراستنا للتحيز الجنسي، قاموا بتطوير سبع
فئات للتحيز الآتية (القلبية الخفي)، التحيز اللغوي، التحيز الشكلي، اللاتوقية، الإنتقائية،
التجزئة، النمطية.

ثانيًا: تطبيقية، فمنا بالتحليل الكمي والنوعي و التحليل التقني للخطاب لمعرفة
ما إذا كان هناك أي شكل من أشكال التحيز فيما يتعلق تمثيل و تصوير الإناث و الذكور،
الألفيات و المسنين.

أخيرًا: جمعنا أهم المعطيات و النتائج التي تؤدي إلى إجابة النسأولات
المطروحة في بداية هذا العمل.

من خلال النتائج المتحصل عليها من التحليل الكمي و النوعي، توصلنا إلى
الخلاصة التالية:

- تمثيل الإناث أقل بكثير من تمثيل الذكور. إضافة إلى ذلك، تصوير و إدماج
الألفيات و المسنين شبه غائب سواء في النص أو الصور التوضيحية.
- وجود الصور النمطية خاصة منة جوانب المهن و الصفات الشخصية للجنس
 الأنثوي و الذكي.
- أظهرت التحليلات الكمية و النوعية للنص و الصورة وجود أشكال التحيز،
الإنقائية، التجزئة، اللاتوقية و التحيز الشكلي.
- هناك حساسية في استخدام اللغة لتصوير الألفيات و المسنين، إلى جانب ذلك، هناك
ميل ملحوظ إلى استخدام لغة شاملة و محايدة في وصف كلا الجنسين.

على أساس هذه النتائج، نصل إلى استنتاج أن الكتاب الإنجليزية تعكس غالبية
أشكال التحيز و أن تأليف هذه الكتّب غير مبني على أساس قوائم محددة من شأنها منع
إنتاج مواد تعليمية متحيزة بالتالي، هناك ضرورة ملحة لوضع قوائم لتحديد التحيز. التي
يمكن من وزارة التربية الوطنية الجزائرية تطويرها، لأن محتوى الكتب المدرسية
الاجتماعي و الثقافي و ما تصله إلى التلاميذ ذو أهمية قصوى.