Gender Representations in Two 5th Grade Korean EFL Textbooks

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Abstract

This study seeks to establish if the male and female genders are equally represented in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) textbooks used in elementary schools in South Korea. A comparison of two chapters, from two widely used government approved EFL textbooks published in 2017, revealed increased gender parity in terms of the visibility of male and female characters in text, images and audio. Males and females were also equally represented in mixed-gender dialogues and were afforded equal opportunities to speak first. Nevertheless, the findings also revealed the perpetuation of some stereotyped images of men and women in the actions, activities and occupations in which they take part, as well as in the content of mixed-gender dialogues. While the textbook writers appear to have given some thought to the equal portrayal of male and female characters, it is clear that typical male and female stereotypes persist via the underlying messages regarding gendered roles.
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Definitions/Abbreviations

EFL - English as a Foreign Language

ELT- English Language Textbook

ESL – English as a Second Language

MOE – Ministry of Education

TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Language
1 Introduction

1.1 Background

While teaching a class of fifteen-year olds in a Korean private English school, the students were asked to complete a writing exercise using the future tense. I was surprised when all male students wrote; ‘[w]hen I am older, I will be a solider’, and all female students wrote; ‘[w]hen I am older, I will be a mother.’ These gendered responses led me to question if they were genuine reflections of what students wanted to be when they were older. When interpreting responses provided by students it is important to appreciate the importance of English in the Republic of Korea (henceforth Korea), and the status of gender equality in the country.

In Korea, the sole official language is Hangul (Korean) (Chung & Choi, 2016). However, English is equated with economic prosperity on an individual and national level. Traditionally, education has been viewed by Koreans as a tool to gain power and become a member of the upper classes, whether in society or on the world economic stage (Lee, 2009; Chung & Choi, 2016). Kwon et al. (2017) consider that this widely accepted societal belief is an example of the remnants of deeply rooted Confucius philosophies.

Originating in China, Confucian philosophy entered Korea more than fifteen centuries ago (Kwon et al., 2017). In implementing Confucian ideologies, high-status government roles were secured by individuals who had succeeded in passing highly competitive examinations (Seth, 2002: 9). These exams were often the sole means of securing a prized government position hence, a school system was formed in Korea, to prepare students for these exams (Kwon et al., 2017). The benefits of education extended to the wider family. Privileged families often invested heavily in education, as it was the main means of ensuring success (Kwon et al., 2017). Confucian ideology is reflected today in the public demand for schooling. Korean’s enthusiasm for learning has been rebranded; ‘education fever’ (Kwon et al, 2017; Seth, 2002; Lee, 2006).

Seth (2002: 97) describes Korea’s extremely competitive educational context as; ‘education fever’. The most striking examples being late night cram schools or ‘hagwons’, which provide students with the opportunity for extra study. Perhaps more notable, is the national university entrance exam. On the day of the exam, all non-essential government work comes to a halt, flights are rescheduled and construction is put on hold.
Driven by globalisation, the government has perpetuated the place of English in recent years, by pushing English as a tool for economic gains (Song, 2013). Through the implementation of numerous national English curricula, the Korean government has targeted students in cultivating ‘cosmopolitan citizens’ (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology Korea, 2008). Teachers deliver the day-to-day teaching via the Korean English curriculum and the textbooks designed alongside it. They also use textbooks as tools when coaching students on high-stakes national exams (Song, 2013). Song (2013: 383) warns:

[T]he prolific use of these textbooks has the potential to play a significant role in influencing learners’ worldviews as they enhance students’ understanding of different cultures and their own culture in relation to others.

With the widespread use of government set textbooks affecting masses of young Koreans’ perceptions of themselves and others, it is important to consider if inequalities are concealed within the curriculum.

Gender equality, is a new concept on global agendas. The UN launched the decade for women in 1976 (Inglehart & Norris, 2003). In Korea, women’s rights have been protected since 1995, according to the Global Gender Gap Report 2017 (D’Andrea Tyson et al., 2017), the situation is continuing to improve. In 2015, the Framework Act on Gender Equality was introduced, protecting women’s rights under Article Seven. Its aim is to; ‘strengthen gender equality elements in education’ (Framework Act on Gender Equality, 2015). These recent policies are steering the country towards a less gendered society however, Uk (2007: 109) argues that; ‘despite the various legislative measures, Korean women’s status shows that we still have a long way to [sic] achieve gender equality’.

This is reflected by figures published by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2017), which found gender gaps in Korean earnings, representations in government and labour market participation. The gender pay gap was the highest amongst the 37 member countries, with women earning 63% of what men do. Considering that 17% of the Korean National Assembly’s seats are held by women, the picture worsens. In the private sector, the problem is more acute with 10% of women in managerial roles, the lowest in the OECD. Most relevant to education is the representation of women in the labour market. Korean women have above average PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) scores and are higher academic achievers than their male counterparts however, they continue to be underrepresented in the workplace (OECD, 2017). This reflects of a lack of opportunity as opposed to a lack of ability (OECD, 2017:2).
The link between underrepresentation and education cannot be overlooked. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOE) (2008: 64) stipulates that topics of study should; ‘promote a democratic conscience such as gender equality, human rights, etc.’ The Korean government is taking steps towards the pursuit of gender equality however, it is unclear as to how these steps are reflected in practice.

1.2 Research Focus

The legislative measures introduced by the government have seen gender equality become a national priority. The government exploits the curriculum and materials as a means of achieving this aim. Brugéilles and Cromer (2009b: 7) believe that textbooks are ‘powerful levers for social change’, acting as driving forces in the achievement of gender equality. The notion of a textbook as a vehicle for social change has important ramifications for human rights. Article 29 of The Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN General Assembly, 1989), explains the role of education and its links to human rights;

[education shall be used for] the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, [...].

It is important, to consider the extent textbooks support this declaration, as well as considering whose human rights textbooks promote.

Academics argue textbooks are important instruments in the socialisation of children, shaping identities, attitudes and values (Frasher & Walker, 1972; Porreca, 1984; Mineshima, 2008). Kizilaslan (2010) believes that gender stereotyping in textbooks impacts the affective and cognitive development of children, while others (Sunderland, 1992; Rifkin, 1998) warn of negative effects on language learners and users specifically. Effects include; 1) the unconscious effect on language learners as social agents; 2) the demotivation of language learners due to a lack of relatable characters; and 3) the presentation of gender biased models in classroom practice (Sunderland, 1992). Maehara (2010) reinforces Sunderland’s findings, identifying that textbook language choices stand to implicitly marginalise females as early as a language learner’s first encounter with a word. While Rifkin (1998: 218) argues that ‘the exclusion of girls and women from F[oreign] L[anguage] textbooks may seriously impair their abilities to understand the target language’.

Researchers agree that we conceptualise the world around us through language (Mineshima, 2008), therefore language plays a subliminal role in the shaping of our
behaviours and ideals. Law and Chan (2004), discuss the variety of language surrounding us in terms of ‘socialisation agents’, including; schools, television and the internet. According to Law and Chan (2004), the language of ‘socialisation agents’ helps individuals form internalised notions of gender stereotypes. These notions are created through the social values and attitudes transmitted via these ‘agents.’

When we consider that students spend 80 to 95 % of class time using textbooks, and teachers make the majority of their decisions based on textbooks (Sadker et al., 2009: 88), there is a case to be made for considering textbooks as ‘socialisation agents’. The implications of viewing textbooks through this lens are far reaching, with ramifications for social change and individual identities, attitudes and values. An examination of social realities and inequalities transmitted by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) textbooks is a worthy area of study, its importance becomes more apparent when scholars criticise the lack of research. Demir and Yavuz (2017: 118) highlight the need for further exploration at both a national and global level, referring to the previous body of research as; ‘a drop in the bucket’. Gender-focused EFL studies represent an under researched area, hence the present study aims to make a contribution by in addressing this gap.

1.3 Research Aim and Questions

To advance an understanding of the representation of females and gender stereotyping in current EFL materials, the following aim has been identified:

To establish if the genders are equally represented in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) textbooks in Elementary Schools in the Republic of Korea.

In answering this research aim, two specific research questions have been identified:

1) How are male and female characters represented in the textbooks?
2) To what extent do visual and audio representations of male and female character traits reflect gender stereotypes?

This research will contribute to the development of gender-focused EFL textbook studies by assessing representations of male and female characters in the current literature, and by obtaining and analysing data from two widely used Korean 5th grade EFL textbooks. This will allow for a meaningful comparison between theory and practice.
The next chapter (Chapter 2- Literature Review), examines the literature pertinent to
the objectives of the study. Chapter 3 (Methodology) goes on to discuss and justify the
use of content analysis as a research strategy. Chapter 4 (Findings) presents the study’s
findings. Finally, Chapter 5 (Conclusion) concludes by reflecting on the implications of the
current study, before discussing limitations and making recommendations.
2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines representations of male and female characters in EFL/ESL (English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language) teaching materials by exploring the concept of gender, and examining the extent of gender stereotyping in previous studies. Previous studies are loosely grouped based on their frameworks of analysis which include; linguistic analysis, visual analysis and content analysis. The following examination of literature will help facilitate a critical understanding of gender-biases in EFL/ESL textbooks.

2.2 Defining Gender

The notion of gender is conceptually different to that of sex, despite the fact they are often used interchangeably. Sex, concerns biological differences which distinguish males and females and is determined by biological features such as; anatomical, and reproductive attributes (Unger, 1979, Butler, 2006, Talbot, 2010, Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2013). This binary divide is reproduced in society, although this dichotomous way of thinking has been criticised for decades. Oakley (1972, cited in Oakley et al., 2016), argued that sex should be thought of as a continuum, with male and female at the extremities. She reasoned that the binary split was no more than a social construction.

Gender can also be viewed as a spectrum, with masculinity and femininity at its poles. Marchbank and Letherby (2014), note the importance in understanding that masculinity is not a property reserved for males, nor is femininity reserved for females. Recently, there has been a political shift the perception of gender. Wickman (2003: 41) describes developments in the political sphere as resulting in;

[…] the development of new identities that departed from the medical constructions of transsexual and transvestite […] People would define themselves as gender-benders, gender-blenders, bigenders or simply describe their identity more loosely using the umbrella concept of transgender.

Arguing gender is a social construct rather than a biological fact, both male and female bodies are able to exhibit elements of masculinity and femininity. That said, most rationalisations for gender difference maintain a focus on the duality of gender.
2.2.1 Gender Theories

Arguments regarding gender differences fall into four broad categories; 1) biological, 2) social learning theory, 3) poststructuralist/materialist, 4) discourse and language. The following section addresses the first three categories, the fourth is the focus of the proceeding section.

The biological argument explains the different social roles and behaviours attributed to men and women as the result of sexual differences between males and females. A functionalist approach to this argument, sees gender roles as instinctive, claiming that men and women have predetermined societal roles which they are suited to. This rationale is referred to as; ‘sex role theory’ (Marchbank & Letherby, 2014). Research has moved away from the biological argument recently however, it continues to be influential in society (Marchbank & Letherby, 2014).

A significant critique of sex role theory comes from social learning theorists. They refute the biological argument for neglecting to consider the ways gender is affected by societal pressures, and claim it fails to explain the diversity of men and women. Mead (1962), for example, found that gender roles differ across cultures and societies. Social learning theory purports that gender is not based on biology, but is a learned set of behaviours affected by the messages surrounding us from birth. From this point of view, gender has been referred to as a ‘social product’ (Aydınoğlu, 2014). The notion of socially constructed gender is best described by Simone De Beauvoir (2009: 293) who famously wrote; ‘[o]ne is not born a woman, but rather becomes one’. Talbot (2010: 7) clarifies; ‘sex is biologically founded whereas gender is learned behaviour.’

Despite this understanding of gender, it is argued that socialisation messages transmitted by our families, peers and the media are based on biology, as some messages are strongly focussed on females whilst others are directed at males. Birke (1992) maintains the difficulties in confronting biology and culture separately, claiming they are inextricably linked. Walby’s (1990) critique of social learning theory suggests it is limited, in that it assumes a single set of masculine and feminine qualities. Walby (1990), believes that this view of masculinity and femininity does not offer an accurate representation of the range of masculinities and femininities in society, or account for adaptations of masculinity and femininity. Finally, Walby’s (1990) argument contests that social learning theory does not provide an explanation for the ways individuals resist socialisation messages. While some disagree with gender being a social construct, arguing that it represents an oversimplified view of masculinity and femininity, there is undoubtedly an element of socialisation which implicitly informs our gendered behaviours.
Further dimensions of gender have been debated, namely poststructuralist debates and materialist debates. Connell (2000: 19) argues that gender dichotomy is hegemonic. Influenced by Foucauldian discourse analysis, she believes that language and discourse create multiple masculinities and femininities, resulting in plurality of masculinities and femininities (Connell, 2000). This observation is significant in the study of gender as it highlights the flexibility and fluidity of gender. The poststructuralist argument holds that gender is culturally and historically constructed. An example of a poststructuralist approach is provided by Butler (2006), who rejects the binary approach to masculinity and femininity, favouring the view of gender as a ‘performance’. Butler (2006: 178) argues that; ‘[…] gender is not a fact, the various acts of gender create the idea of gender, and without those acts, there would be no gender at all’. However, Connell (2000: 20) critiques this argument, stating it fails to account for gendered inequalities in, childcare, employment and other societal realms.

Alongside poststructuralism, materialists built upon Karl Marx’s ideas to explain the economic and material subordination of women (Mitchell, 1984; Rowbotham; 1973; Barrett, 1988; Hartmann, 1979). The materialist argument is centred on class relations and patriarchy which stand to reinforce the interests of men at the expense of women. The main focus of study is identifying the ways institutions reinforce and reproduce the division of labour amongst men and women in the workplace (Marchbank & Letherby, 2014). For some materialists, masculinity and femininity are not at opposing ends of the spectrum, rather gender is seen as a concept representing the relationship between masculinity and femininity (Holter, 1995, cited in Connell, 2000). This view of gender is far removed from the biological argument, seeing gender as a means of social organisation where historically, men were employed and women were concerned with domestic roles.

Crenshaw’s (1991) work widens our understanding of gender and discrimination. Her notion of intersectionality sets out the deeper complexities of gender discrimination, suggesting that gender cannot be considered in isolation. She argues this view is too narrow, failing to account for multiple variables (such as; age, ethnicity, sexuality and class) which interact with one another to compound discrimination. This stance has meaningful implications for the study of gender in EFL textbooks. It provides a framework for a richer understanding of gender portrayals in EFL materials, and how they intersect with characteristics such as; race and class. A limitation of the current study is that its scope does not allow for a full exploration of the intersectionality of gender.

Each of these explanations and descriptions may compete or conflict with one another, yet they converge on the importance of gender. Brod and Kaufman (1994: 4), illustrate the significance of perusing research into gender issues; ‘gender is a system of
power and not just a set of stereotypes, or observable differences between women and men'.

Seeing gender as a 'system of power', it is crucial to explore how the balance of power can be redressed. One way, is through further multidisciplinary research. Investigation of gender stereotypes in EFL textbooks provides an insight into how gender imbalances may be tackled in the future, by first understanding what already exists. Applying materialist theory, it could be argued that the EFL textbooks analysed, represent vehicles by which educational and governmental institutions instil and reinforce conventions surrounding the division of labour between men and women. This is of particular interest in the context of fifth grade Korean ESL textbooks, as the government currently approves the content of these textbooks.

This section has reviewed several theories related to gender differences including; sex role, social learning, poststructuralist and materialist theories. The following section will explore gender in language.

2.2.2 Language and Gender

Linguistic origins of gender date back to fifth century Greek philosopher Protagoras, who used 'masculine', 'feminine' and 'neuter' to identify nouns (Corbeill, 2008). Gender is a grammatical category, with many languages such as French, specifying gender:

Example of Gender in the French Language:

l(e) homme la femme
the (masculine) man the (feminine) woman

Grammatical gender is absent from English however, gender can be seen in pronouns; 1) he walked, 2) she walked, 3) it walked, are examples. Hellinger and Bußmann (2003: 7) refer to pronouns and personal nouns (such as; mother, father, sister) as lexically specified, carrying semantic properties of 'maleness' or 'femaleness', this is; 'lexical gender'. While English does not employ grammatical gender, instances of lexical gender are apparent. The Korean language exhibits neither. Korean does not give importance to gender, instead placing weight on relationships. For example, Korean uses the relationship between the addressor and addressee in determining which pronouns to use,
which is not aligned to gender, an example being dongsaeng (동생), meaning younger brother or sister.

Languages demonstrating grammatical gender, use it a property to classify nouns (Yule, 2017). Classifications are often meaningful and linked to biological sex, which is why languages have masculine and feminine genders. The implications of such classification are considerable, particularly considering that some researchers believe our perceptions of categories are influenced by gender (Boroditsky et al., 2003). The gravity of this is compounded by the Whorfian Hypothesis, a theory arguing that language influences thought. Whorf (1956: 272), describes the way we make sense of the world as being intimately linked with language systems;

We dissect nature along lines laid by our own language. […] the world is presented as a kaleidoscope flux of impressions which has to be organized by our minds—and this means largely by the linguistic systems in our minds.

While Whorf does not make explicit reference to grammatical gender however, the gendered classification systems of some languages may affect the way we individuals interpret the world. The consequences of introducing the English system of gendered pronouns to Korean learners; who have no background of grammatical or lexical gender, are unknown. However, based on Whorf’s hypothesis, it would be imprudent to conclude there would be no effect. This may be a worthy area of study however the scope of present research does not allow for its consideration.

Another aspect of language and gender with implications for EFL materials, is the idea of social gender in language. Hellinger and Bußmann (2003) refer to social gender as the stereotypes imposed, and assumptions made, by society through language. Examples include, the formal marking of any deviations from the norm; male-nurse and female-doctor (Hellinger & Bußmann, 2003: 99). They also describe practices of pronominalisation, where the referent is unknown as being instances where societal stereotypes are reflected through language. For example, anaphoric use of he when referring to a lawyer and she, referring to a teacher. Many studies into gender representations in EFL materials have focussed on masculine generic constructions, whereby masculine nouns and pronouns refer to generic people (see; Porreca, 1984; Hartman & Judd, 1978). Recent findings are suggesting there is a growing tendency to use gender neutral terms such as; they or he/she (see; Lee & Collins, 2009).
Having reviewed the grammatical, lexical and social manifestations of gender in language, the following section proceeds by defining *representations* and examining gender representations specifically.

### 2.2.3 Gender Representations

Hall (1997), adopts a constructivist approach in understanding *representations*. His approach suggests that individuals construct knowledge and meaning from experiences (Hall, 1997). As per constructivism, *representations* produce, and are produced by culture (Hall, 1997). Seeing gender through this lens, we understand that individuals construct identities based on their interpretations of discourses surrounding them (Sunderland, 2004; Hall, 1997; Montgomery, 2008). Hall (1997) purports that ‘culture’ is a synonym for ‘shared meaning’, with language acting as the vehicle for the exchange and production of meaning amongst individuals and society. Through language, culture sees us interpret the world around us in similar ways. Language takes on this role as;

In language, we use signs and symbols—whether they are sounds, written words, electronically produced images, musical notes, even objects—to stand for or represent to other people our concepts, ideas and feelings. Language is one of the ‘media’ through which thoughts, ideas and feelings are represented in culture (Hall, 1997: 1).

The term ‘culture’ is important. Culture is something specific to certain groups, whether; family, geographical or institutional groups, culture takes on a specific meaning to individuals within these groups. Culture, can be used to describe the ‘shared values’ of a group or society (Hall, 1997: 2). Hall’s (1997) definition of culture accurately describes the notion that culture is something shared amongst particular groups, however, it fails to comment on further shared aspects of culture, such as; shared practices, beliefs and artefacts. With this in mind, the author’s Western cultural lens will have an impact on the interpretations and conclusions drawn throughout the present study, this will be explored further in Chapter 3 (Methodology).

Building upon Hall’s (1997) cultural analysis of the meaning of *representation*, Sunderland (2004: 24) clarifies that *representations* are of subjects which are ‘other’ to the consumer; ‘something’ or ‘someone’ other than oneself; examples include *representations* of someone of a different ethnicity, gender or culture. With *representations* reliant on the interpretation of consumers there may be variations amongst them (Stephens, 1992). Moreover, as creators of *representations*, we are not conscious actors, as Sunderland (2004: 24) points out; ‘it is […] hard to establish intent particularly since *representations* are often pre-framed, based on stereotypes.’
When it comes to representations in EFL textbooks, characters from a variety of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds are depicted. Some textbooks employ world cultures as themes. Themes are used as units of progression which are applied as a means of structuring the textbook. For example, the Next Move textbook series claims to ‘[take] children on a language-learning and cultural journey to build not only their language awareness, but also their cross-cultural awareness’ (Macmillan Education, 2018: 1). Attempting to take young learners ‘on a cultural journey’, textbook designers are employing representations of characters and cultures that are ‘other’ to the intended consumers on a number of levels including; ethnicity and gender.

Hall (1997) and Sunderland’s (2004) understandings of representations, are applied to the present study which looks specifically at the communication of representations via the text, images and audio within each selected textbook. Textbook publishers play a role; implicitly or explicitly, in the creation of representations. The present study considers the extent to which representations transmit gender stereotypes. In this regard, the next section explores the meaning of ‘gender stereotyping’.

### 2.2.4 Gender Stereotyping

Gender stereotyping has been explained as a cognitive process which is used to organise our information stores, such as; our feelings and memories (Blaine & Brenchley, 2017). We employ stereotypes automatically in everyday situations (Devine & Sharp, 2007). This means, we assert assumed beliefs about people who belong to a specific social group, onto individuals who appear (based on our internal conceptions), to belong to that group. Allport’s 1954 definition of a stereotype remains called upon by researchers from multiple backgrounds today;

> Whether favourable or unfavourable, a stereotype is an exaggerated belief associated with a category. Its function is to justify (rationalize) our conduct in relation to that category (Allport, 1954: 187).

The concept of stereotypes has been applied to gender. Gender stereotypes as a term in its own right, has been discussed in the feminist literature since the 1960’s (see; Yang, 2011). Defined by Manstead & Hewstone (1995: 256), as; ‘beliefs about the characteristics of each sex’, we understand that we may have some degree of collective responsibility in upholding existing gender stereotypes. However, feminist theory has discussed the issue of ‘epistemical violence’ in relation to gender stereotypes. The term, originally coined by Spivak to describe cultural repression in India via discourse (Morris &
Spivak, 2010). In feminist theory, it has been used to describe the harm caused when we use gender stereotypes (Williams, 1989; Britton, 2000; Harding, 2004).

Our beliefs about the characteristics of each sex are deep-seated, subliminal or unstated. They are formed from an early age and develop throughout our lives via the socialisation agents surrounding us such as; schools, culture, religious beliefs and family (Harding, 2004). Although these various agents intertwine to construct our beliefs and stereotypes, it is in the context of education that the present study finds its focus. Schooling and school materials are of significance as children are exposed to textbooks from a young age, often working from textbooks on a daily basis. Should textbooks include examples of gendered roles or stereotypes, they may play a significant role in the construction of individual learners' beliefs regarding gender and gender stereotypes (Kereszty, 2009).

Kızılaslan, (2010) believes gender stereotypes found in textbooks, have detrimental effects on a child's cognitive development. Kereszty (2009) goes further, discussing damaging effects of textbook gender stereotyping at a societal level, arguing that they stand to contribute to social inequalities. Kereszty (2009: 3) contends that textbooks act as a means of transforming, strengthening or diminishing the developed and developing power relations in the classroom and society. This is significant in the present study, which seeks to understand the extent of such power relations in the context of Korean EFL textbooks. Analysing the Korean context, it is important to situate the findings alongside those of previous studies, as the effects of gender stereotyping in textbooks may differ according to the society in question. This is a result of individuals from different cultures holding different gender stereotypes (Allport, 1954). Examples of different gender stereotypes in different cultures was illustrated in a recent study. The results demonstrated that countries including; Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania and Croatia, held equitable perceptions of typical gender roles. Conversely; Poland, Slovakia, Albania and Romania, demonstrated stronger perceptions of gender and the roles designated to males and females (Weziak-Bialowolska, 2015).

Gender stereotyping in textbooks is not isolated and appears to be a global phenomenon (see; Davies, 1995; Blumberg, 2008; Law & Chan 2004; Yang 2011). Research into gender stereotyping from the 1970’s onward, has consistently found that common stereotypes are frequently reproduced in school texts.

Teachers should be aware of negative effects of gender stereotyping, and have a duty to limit these effects. With that said, Kızılaslan’s (2010: 3530) research found that few student teachers expressed concern regarding detrimental effects of gender stereotypes
on the development of learners’ self-esteem, or on the perceptions of their own self-esteem. This seems like a missed opportunity in terms of teacher education. While the current study does not address the issue of teacher awareness of gender stereotypes explicitly, it highlights the extent of gender stereotyping in two Korean EFL textbooks and recommends future research regarding teacher training. Awareness of the consequences of gender stereotypes could go great lengths in diminishing their effects in the classroom.

To help develop an understanding of the extent and types of gender stereotyping in class materials, an exploration of the previous work in the field is necessary. The following section outlines the results of several studies focusing on gender stereotypes in EFL/ESL teaching materials.

2.3 Gender Stereotypes in Previous Studies

To help eliminate stereotypes, teachers should adopt a critical role. In this function, teachers could implement an anti-bias curriculum and create an environment that better reflects the diversity of society. To do so, it is important for teachers to consider how stereotypes manifest themselves in teaching materials. Previous studies show gender stereotypes emerging from language textbooks via linguistic analysis, visual analysis and content analysis:

2.3.1 Linguistic Analysis

Linguistic analysis of EFL/ESL textbooks reveals the subtler elements of gender stereotyping, via 1) verb associations and firstness and 2) mixed-gender dialogues.

- Verb Associations and Firstness

An influential study conducted by Hellinger (1980), found that verbs associated with female characters reflected stereotypically female comportments. Hellinger (1980) studied 131 texts from three widely used EFL high school textbooks in Germany. Looking at the collocational properties of predicates with female headnouns, she found that the largest group of predicates were associated with actions directed towards males. Hellinger (1980) suggests that this finding represents distortion, as the range of women’s activities seems to be restricted by male presence. The second largest group related to speaking, which, Hellinger (1980) claims, reinforces the stereotype that women speak more than men, though frequency counts showed that men spoke four times more than women. Another grouping related to verbs of movement. Results showed that the movement of female agents was never connected to a vehicle, whilst male characters drove cars, took planes
and made voyages. Hellinger (1980), found over one hundred predicates linked to females, woefully, only one was identified as having associations with power or authority.

Many have built on Hellinger’s (1980) work, recent studies employ concordance techniques to analyse verbs associated with male and female actors and subjects. Carroll and Kowitz (1994) analysed two EFL textbook series published in the 1980’s. Analysis of concordance lines associated with the verb ‘to work’ was more frequently associated with males. Similarly, Jasmani et al. (2011) built a corpus from six Malaysian ESL textbooks. Their quantitative analysis of action verbs found gender imbalance; 2215 (64%) examples of action verbs were associated with males and 1263 (36%) with females (Jasmani et al., 2011: 67). Yang’s (2012) study was more promising. Investigating collocations with gendered nouns in a series of Hong Kong primary English textbooks, Yang (2012) found female characters were not portrayed as delicate and weak, they were seen engaging in a range of outdoor activities. Conversely, Lee’s (2014a) study focussed on an analysis of verbs from two series of Japanese EFL textbooks. Findings indicated that ‘saying’ verbs were mostly associated with the pronoun ‘he’, suggesting males are more likely to be speakers in texts. Further verb analysis revealed males were more active than females and females were often associated with childcare roles (Lee, 2014a). However, Lee (2014a) notes that textbook writers are incorporating women’s success into texts, with verbs such as elected and voted associated with women.

Another form of linguistic bias occurs when the male form is placed in the position before the female form, for example; him and her, Mr. and Mrs. This is known as ‘male firstness’. Hartman and Judd’s (1978) investigation of ESL materials was one of the first to assess the order of mention of mixed pair nouns such as; brother and sister, husband and wife. They concluded the masculine noun always precedes the feminine, with the exception of ladies and gentlemen. Claiming that ‘such automatic ordering reinforces the second-place status of women […]’ (Hartman & Judd, 1978: 390). Recent studies of Australian and Hong Kong English textbooks, found it was more likely for males to be mentioned first when two gendered nouns were paired together (see; Lee & Collins, 2008; 2009; 2010). Corresponding with Hartman and Judd’s (1978) study, Lee and Collins (2008) found the fixed expression; ladies and gentlemen, to be an exception. In contrast, Healy’s (2009) analysis of a current Cambridge English textbook, found the same number of instances of male and female firstness.

The current study does not focus on verb associations however, it does consider firstness and the content of mixed-gender dialogues, which are discussed in the next section.
• Mixed-gender Dialogues

Multiple studies have found females have less opportunity to speak in mixed-gender dialogues, and they perform limited discourse roles. Hellinger’s (1980) found that 80% of speakers across three analysed textbooks were male. Gupta and Lee’s (1990) findings confirmed this discrepancy. Looking at two Singaporean English reading schemes, Gupta and Lee (1990) found the frequency of male utterances was higher than that of female utterances and each male utterance was longer than those produced by females. Mukundan and Nimehchisale’s (2008) study of a Malaysian English textbook series produced similar outcomes. Their study demonstrated the higher frequency and length of male speech compared to female speech. Their results also highlighted that discrepancies in representations worsen as textbook levels increase (Mukundan and Nimehchisale, 2008).

Other studies, have demonstrated contesting findings. Jones et al. (1997), analysed three widely used EFL textbooks; Headway, Hotline and Look Ahead. They found encouraging levels of gender fairness in mixed-gender dialogues, and discovered females had more opportunities to speak than males. Similarly, a recent study of a Japanese high school EFL textbook, found female speakers spoke more often than male speakers, 60% of speakers in mixed-gender dialogues were female (Pihlaja, 2008). Recent research demonstrates gender imbalances and gender equity in mixed-gender dialogues hence, it is unclear if the situation improving.

In examining mixed-gender dialogues in two recently published Korean EFL textbooks, the extent of gendered discrepancies will be uncovered. Similar to linguistic analysis, visual analyses further reveals the extent of gender stereotyping in EFL/ESL materials. The next section explores the research in this area.

2.3.2 Visual Analysis

Visual representations of males and females, and their reflections of gender biases have been examined in several ways; 1) frequency of occurrence of males and females in images, 2) images of male and female characters engaging in actions, activities and occupations, 3) visual semiotics.

• Frequency of Occurrence

Studies have found male characters are not only more visible in text and dialogues, they also appear more frequently in images within textbooks. Lee and Collins (2008),
compared ten current EFL secondary textbooks, with ten textbooks no longer in circulation. Their analysis of images in both sets of textbooks determined that women appear more frequently in more recent materials, although underrepresentation was still prevalent. Lee and Collins (2009), extended their study to include Australian English textbooks. Consequently, Australian textbooks demonstrated similar biases in terms of the frequency of male and female characters in images. Of 489 visuals, 56.9% depicted males only, while 19.2% depicted only females (Lee & Collins, 2009). A study in Uganda mirrored these findings. Barton and Sakwa (2012), investigated images in an English textbook recommended by the Ugandan Ministry of Education. They found females were underrepresented in visuals, with females portrayed in 20.7% of images and males in 79.3% (Barton & Sakwa, 2012).

Building on these findings, the present study analysed the frequency of male and female characters in the text, images and audio of each of the selected textbooks. It also focused on depictions of male and female characters participating in actions, activities and occupations, which is addressed in the following section.

- Actions Activities and Occupations

Besides the frequencies of male and female characters in images, several studies have addressed visual depictions of male and female characters engaging in actions, activities and occupations. Giaschi (2000), for example, examined two textbooks from two well-known ESL/EFL textbook series; *Headway* and *4th Dimension*. His analysis of 76 images from the textbooks demonstrated that males were most often associated with occupational domains. Men were associated with being managers, leaders or protagonists, while women were depicted in the world of fashion. Further, his analysis found that men that men were shown in an active role in 76% of the images analysed, whilst women were portrayed as passive in 75% of all images. Similarly, Otlowski’s (2003) study of a Japanese EFL textbook, discovered that men were visible in twelve out of seventeen illustrations depicting a working environment, while women were included in just five. Finally, two studies conducted by Lee and Collins (2008, 2009) had similar findings with regards to male and female character depictions in images. The first study explored Hong Kong EFL textbooks, the second focused on Australian ESL textbooks, both studies found that males were portrayed as being more active and more likely to be involved in sport than females (Lee & Collins, 2008, 2009).

The current study analyses depictions of male and female characters as they engage in various actions, activities and occupations. It is hoped that analysis of these portrayals will assist in establishing the extent of gender stereotyping within the selected Korean EFL
textbooks. The following section addresses elements of visual semiotics, which pertains to the qualitative analysis of data in the present study.

- **Visual Semiotics**

  Visual semiotics has been used as a means of decoding images and the messages they communicate to the reader. Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006) describe visual semiotics as the ‘grammar’ of images, or the way in which the people, places or things depicted in an image combine to make a more meaningful whole (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006: 1). Their framework for analysing visuals includes; contact, the relationship between the viewer and participants in an image; social distance, the size of a frame; and attitude, the horizontal and vertical dimensions of participants in an image. Recent studies have begun to focus on multimodal analyses of gender stereotypes in EFL textbooks, which incorporate properties of visual semiotics.

  Tajeddin and Janebi Enayat’s (2010), study analysed images from three elementary ESL/EFL textbooks; Top Notch (U.K published), Headway (U.S. published), and Elementary 3 (Iran published). Applying Kress and Van Leeuwen’s (2006) framework, they found women were frequently shown as the reactive participants of images, while men were active participants who held more ‘social power and prominence’ (Tajeddin & Janebi Enayat, 2010: 72). Presentations of women also showed them being less competent than men, appearing frequently in domestic roles whilst men were in workplaces and outdoor spaces. Analysis of images of women, found that females were stereotyped as less socially powerful and as objects to be owned and desired by males. Men on the other hand, were shown as powerful individuals in society, and played the role of breadwinner (Tajeddin & Janebi Enayat, 2010: 72).

  A study carried out by Marefat and Marzban (2014), found concurrent results. Applying Kress and Van Leeuwen’s (2006) framework, they analysed a cartoon strip from an Iran Language Institute EFL textbook, and found males were more visible than females. According to their results, males were more frequently depicted; as new information sources, the focus of attention and active doers. Females meanwhile, were invisible and underrepresented (Marefat & Marzban, 2014).

  The current study applied elements of visual semiotics when discussing the extent of gender stereotyping in the images within the two selected textbooks. Moving on from visual analysis, the next section addresses content analysis, a further area where studies have attempted to reveal the extent of gender stereotyping in ESL/EFL materials.
2.3.3 Content Analysis

With linguistic and visual approaches discussed above, it is important to consider content analysis in its own right, as many studies have adopted content analysis to determine the extent of gender stereotypes in ESL/EFL materials. Content analysis has primarily been applied as a quantitative method, used to determine the frequency of selected features. Early content analyses of ESL/EFL textbooks concentrated on: 1) male overrepresentation (see; Hellinger, 1980), 2) males achieving higher status and dominating occupational roles (see; Porreca, 1984), 3) males and females engaging in stereotypical activities and emotions (see; Hartman & Judd, 1978; Porreca, 1984), and 4) females being objects of ridicule (see; Hartman & Judd, 1978).

The examples provided above are dated, representing early studies in the field. Research into the first three features continues to be examined in the current literature hence, they are considered below in more detail.

- Male Overrepresentation

Hellinger (1980) found that male participants were visible in 93% of texts in three German ESL textbooks, while female participants were visible in only 30%. Recent studies demonstrate an improving picture, Lee and Collins (2009) found male characters outnumbered female characters at 1.35:1, in their study of ten Australian English language textbooks. These results were replicated in a later study by the same research pair (Lee & Collins, 2010). Their study compared Australian and Hong Kong English textbooks, finding males and females were more closely represented, at 57.5% and 53.2% respectively. Barton and Sakwa (2012), found the discrepancy between male and female characters to be slightly higher in their analysis of a Ugandan English textbook, males constituted 64.3% of occurrences and females, 35.7%. The gap between male and female representations in EFL materials appears to be closing, one study of a Japanese EFL textbook exemplifies an instance where male and female character representations are equal (Pihlaja, 2008).

- Male Occupational Dominance

The dominance of males in the workplace was illustrated in an early study which found that women were mainly portrayed in domestic roles (Hartman & Judd 1978). This finding was reaffirmed in Hellinger’s (1980) study of English textbooks in Germany which found that males were involved in a wider and more prestigious range of occupations than females. Occupations included; engineer and scientist, while women were waitresses,
office ladies, maids, and housewives (Hellinger, 1980). A decade later, Gupta and Lee (1990) explored gender stereotypes in primary school English reading schemes in Singapore. They found males were depicted in a greater range of occupational roles than females, who were portrayed in nurturing professions such as teaching and nursing (Gupta & Lee, 1990).

Recent studies demonstrate that this trend is not disappearing at the same rate as male overrepresentation. In 2008, Lee and Collins found women portrayed as; secretaries, receptionists, and typists (Lee & Collins, 2008). Again, in 2010, Lee and Collins compared English textbooks in Australia and Hong Kong, and found females were portrayed in domestic roles or engaged in chores (Lee & Collins, 2010). Barton and Sakwa’s (2012) study of a Ugandan textbook also revealed a narrower range of occupations for females when compared to those of males.

- Male and Female Stereotypes

Hartman and Judd (1978) originally commented on the phenomenon of females being assigned stereotypical emotional reactions. Their study found women were; easily frightened or angry. Sakita’s (1995) later study uncovered similar results. Of ten widely used Japanese junior and senior high EFL textbooks, Sakita (1995) found that being emotional, crying and complaining were characteristics assigned to females. More recently, Evans and Davies’ (2000) content analysis of two elementary reading series, found that males were more often portrayed as; aggressive, argumentative, and competitive than females. Females were more likely to be described as affectionate, emotionally expressive, passive, or tender (Evans & Davies, 2000: 260).

Conversely, a Malaysian study of four English textbooks demonstrated bias in favour of females (Mukundan & Nimehchisalem, 2008). Mukundan and Nimehchisalem (2008) found that negative qualities such as; aggressiveness and naughtiness, were most often associated with males. Female characters however, were assigned negative attributes on only four occasions. In contrast, a Kenyan study found the opposite. Kobia’s (2009), study established that positive character traits such as; hardworking, creative, and knowledgeable, were more frequently assigned to males over females. In analysing four primary school English textbooks, Kobia (2009), found positive traits were allocated to males on 47 occasions, and 37 occasions to females.

Recent studies demonstrated that overrepresentation of males and invisibility of females in ESL/EFL materials is diminishing. Despite these improvements, there is work to be done regarding female depictions in occupational contexts, and in the attribution of
stereotypical character traits. Each of the above areas were considered in the present study, the results of which can be found in Chapter 4 (Findings).

2.4 Emerging Issues and Need for Empirical Research

The review of literature stressed the need for more research in the field in order to generate an up-to-date and global picture. The current study hopes to address this issue to an extent, as it focuses on two textbooks from Korea, a country where little research in the English language is available. It is clear that gender stereotyping in ESL/EFL materials has improved since Hartman and Judd (1979) and Porreca's (1984) influential studies. However, continued exploration in the field is required to advance our understanding of how males and females are represented in current ESL/EFL materials. For continued meaningful debate, more contemporary empirical data is required. Demir and Yavuz (2017) highlighted the need for further research in their study, stating that; 'more scholarly research is needed to clarify whether gender inequality is vanishing or still present in ELT coursebooks' (Demir & Yavuz, 2017: 118).

Placing the current study in the Korean context, a survey of 1,257 Korean women; ranging from teenagers to those in their 70’s, found that they believed their country was sexist (Womenlink, 2017, as cited in Ock, 2017). 93% of respondents agreed that Korea was not a gender equal. The study concluded that gender stereotypes prevail in Korea, which is consistent with the Global Gender Gap Report, ranking Korea 116th out of 144 countries (D’Andrea Tyson et al., 2017). Korean EFL textbooks do not exist in a vacuum rather, they are an integral part of the sociocultural framework in which they exist. Therefore, the current study implements a research strategy to help determine if elementary EFL textbooks in Korea are gender equal, or if they too are in some small part, a factor contributing to the Korean gender-gap. The following chapter (Chapter 3- Methodology), sets out methods of data collection used to establish if the genders are equally represented in Korean EFL textbooks.
3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This section provides details of the research strategy adopted to address the research aim;

To establish if the genders are equally represented in EFL textbooks in Elementary schools in Korea.

It details; the material for analysis, the methods of analysis, the specific method, the data collation, and the analysis processes. The research questions below were identified as a means of achieving the overall research aim;

1) How are male and female characters represented in the textbooks?

2) To what extent do visual and audio representations of male and female character traits reflect gender stereotypes?

As discussed (see; Chapter 1), the author has personal experience teaching in Korea. Students often contributed answers which seemed strongly influenced by stereotypical perceptions of gender consequently, the author questioned the influence of textbooks in the creation and maintenance of these perceptions. Subsequently, several different aspects of two 5th grade Korean EFL textbooks were examined to determine the balance of male and female representations and the extent of gender stereotypes.

Gender representation in EFL textbooks is a subject which has generated a lot of discussion. However, in the Korean context research appears to be limited, this may be due to poor availability of translated research. Therefore, any insight gained, will contribute to the study of gender representations in EFL materials. It will also help develop the global picture of gender representations in the TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) field, particularly for those practitioners who do not have access to materials printed in Korean.

In considering the current study’s contribution, the researcher’s Western cultural lens and its effects on the research process and findings, must be taken into account. According to several researchers, Easterners and Westerners see the world through different cultural lenses (see; Chiao, 2009; Hedden et al., 2008; Nisbett, 2003). Nisbett (2003), claims human behaviour is not innate, believing it is shaped by culture. He affirms,
individuals originating from the East and West think differently as a result of a number of differing cultural factors. These include; differing ecologies, social structures, philosophies and educational systems (Nisbett, 2003). The implications of differing cultural lenses include varying interpretations of the same events. Consequently, the author’s reading of the findings of this study may differ from a researcher applying an Eastern cultural lens. This is significant with regards to the current study, as the materials under investigation are made and distributed in Asia, for consumption by Asian students and teachers. This raises questions regarding the author’s subjectivity and its effects on the research process and product. With this in mind, the next section presents the materials analysed.

3.2 Material

The textbooks examined in this study were chosen as they are prescribed by the government and being used extensively throughout Korean elementary school, they have a notable impact. Three publishers produce English textbooks at Elementary level; *Genius Education*, *YBM* and *DAEKYO*, all of which represent ‘Type II’ textbooks; textbooks authorised by the Minister of Education and published by private publishers (MOE, 2008). Due to the principles of textbook design set out by the MOE, all three publishers produce similar textbooks with respect to their format and content. Books published by *YBM* and *Genius Education* were chosen for the purposes of this study as they are used by a large number of students.

English is introduced as compulsory from third grade in Korea (Chung & Choi, 2016). The writer chose fifth grade textbooks for the purposes of the study as they provide sufficient examples of text images and audio for analysis. Moreover, with the selected textbooks being published in 2017, they provide examples of the most recent representations of gender in Korean EFL textbooks. The textbooks selected for study include; *Elementary School English 5*, published by *Genius Education* (henceforth; *Genius*) (Lee, 2017) and *Elementary School 5*, published by *YBM* (Choi, 2017). Both books are designed to improve; reading, writing, listening and speaking skills and are written by native Korean speakers. Each textbook consists of fourteen and thirteen lessons respectively, which are made up of six and seven respective sections. Lessons focus on different themes, the first theme in each of the books concentrates on holidays. With the first lesson from each book focusing on the same theme, these were chosen for comparison. Data was gathered from the images, text and audio from each lesson. The audio was examined with the aid of audio transcripts available as part of the teachers resources. Each textbook has been created by its author with consideration of the strict guidelines dictated by the Ministry of Education. As a result, it is hoped that an
investigation of the selected textbooks will reveal government held views of gender roles in Korean society.

3.3 Methods of Data Analysis

Researchers have used different criteria when considering gender representations in EFL materials (See Hartman & Judd, 1978; Oliver, 1974; Lee & Collins, 2009; Brugelis & Cromer, 2009a). Porreca’s (1984) work focused on quantifying sexism in ESL textbooks. Quantitative criteria adopted by Porreca (1984) was extensive, focussing on; 1) omission of females from text and images, 2) order of mention (firstness), 3) female occupational visibility in text and images, 3) nouns describing males and females, 5) generic masculine constructions, and 6) adjectives associated with males and females. Building on previous studies, this study conducted a quantitative content analysis; incorporating several of Porreca’s (1984) original criteria, as well as; a qualitative content analysis, giving depth to quantitative results. The study focussed on images however, text and audio was incorporated where appropriate.

3.3.1 Content Analysis

Content analysis was identified as the method to fulfil the aim of the study; to establish if the genders are equally represented in EFL textbooks in Elementary schools in Korea. It has been defined as; ‘a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication (Berelson, 1952, as cited in Bengtsson, 2016: 9). This definition expresses the reliable and learnable nature of content analysis; which precludes the researcher’s subjectivity to an extent yet, it fails to articulate the qualitative, subjective aspects of content analysis. Krippendorf’s (2004: 18) definition is helpful in capturing this aspect; ‘[content analysis is a] research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use’. This demonstrates the objective (replicable) and systematic (valid) facets of content analysis; where credibility is achieved through the design of a replicable methodological procedure, while a systematic approach ensures all data is analysed according to the same system. Berg and Lune (2014) expand the definition, by describing how content analysis can be applied as a strategy for collecting and analysing qualitative data via a coding scheme. While an objective approach could be applied to the coding of the quantitative data, a subjective approach was taken when interpreting qualitative data. Duelli Klein (cited in Wilkinson, 1986: 14) argues, ‘conscious subjectivity’ is a more honest approach to analysis than the traditional ‘value-free objective’ method. Such an objective method has no room for the researcher influence. ‘Conscious subjectivity’ however, acknowledges researchers as individuals whose; attitudes, beliefs and values, influence
the research process. This is neither an advantage nor disadvantage, it is simply an acknowledgement of what is.

The above definitions demonstrate the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of content analysis. For the purposes of this research, quantitative analysis was used to determine visibility of the male and female genders in terms of ratios, as well as their visibility in various actions, activities and occupations. Qualitative analysis was applied to draw subjective interpretations from the quantitative data. Mixing of both quantitative and qualitative analyses acts as a means of triangulation, with several researchers endorsing the mixing of the two methods to ensure credibility (see; Berg & Lune, 2014; Pingel, 2010).

### 3.3.2 Quantitative Analysis

The selected textbooks are designed for beginners, and contain more images and audio than text however, a quantitative textual, visual and audio content analysis was adopted. Content analysis is not always separated from visual analysis (Sunderland 2011), in this case visual analysis is applied in conjunction with traditional content analysis. Visual analysis of illustrations and photographs revealed how male and female characters were represented in terms of frequency. Gender representations in visuals were determined counting the number of characters and establishing if one gender outnumbered the other. The frequency of males and females was not established exclusively via images, characters appearing in audio were also included in the count. The count is represented in a chart displaying the overall gender ratio across both textbooks, before being broken-down and analysed from further perspectives.

The first step of visual analysis was to determine the kinds of visuals to be examined. Quantitatively, to ascertain if males and females were comparatively represented in visuals, all characters appearing on each page of the selected units were counted. However, characters were excluded if they appeared in visuals which were too small, or if their gender could not be clearly identified. A tally of the number of male and female characters was generated. Characters depicted several times, involved in different actions or activities, were counted each time they appeared. However, if a character was repeated to show movement or a changing situation, they were counted once. In cases where it was difficult to determine if a character was male or female, an ‘unspecified’ entry was recorded.

In addition to the character count, all instances of characters’ speech was recorded. Where male and female characters were speaking to one another, the character
initiating the conversation; or speaking first, was also recorded. The final aspect of quantitative data collection involved making a note of all characters’ actions, activities and occupations. This allowed for analysis of the distribution and number of activities associated with male and female characters (See; Appendix 1 for the data collection tool).

3.3.3 Qualitative Analysis

According to Berg and Lune (2014), combining quantification with a qualitative approach allows for the significance of the phenomena being studied to appear more clearly. Hence, qualitative analysis was carried out to compliment the quantitative dimension and gain a deeper understanding of the character traits ascribed to males and females within the textbooks reflect gender stereotypes. Gender stereotyping can be identified where men and women are portrayed engaging in traditional activities or displaying typical physical characteristics, including dress (Women in EFL Materials, 1991; Sunderland, 2011).

This was explored by examining specific examples from statistical observations, which provided a better understanding of the subtler aspects of gender representations in each textbook. Adopting a similar approach to Clark (2016), gender ratios presented in the quantitative data were examined, to determine if they were uniformly applied across each page of the selected units. Qualitative analysis was also applied to dialogues between males and females. Mineshima (2008) qualitatively analysed five mixed-gender dialogues, to establish authors’ perceptions of gender roles. In line with Mineshima (2008), the present study examined the content of several mixed-gender dialogues. Lastly, qualitative analysis was applied to data concerning the portrayal of characters in various actions, activities and occupations. Analysis was similar to that conducted by Clark (2016), who looked at depictions of characters’ employment and social activities.

3.4 Specific Method

Establishing the research aim and determining if the genders are equally represented in Korean elementary EFL textbooks, characters within the selected textbooks were identified as the main focus of the study. To gain an overview of characterisation within the textbooks, an adaptation of Brugelies and Cromer’s (2009a) data collection framework was implemented. According to Brugelies and Cromer (2009a: 15), gender representations in school textbooks can be captured through characters’ characteristics, actions, activities and interactions with others. They affirm that character analysis provides insight into what it is to be a man, woman, boy or girl in a given society (Brugelies & Cromer, 2009a: 16).
Executing Bruegilles and Cromer’s (2009a) data collection tool, an Excel spreadsheet was generated to gather information (See Appendix 1 for data gathered in Excel). Each line of the spreadsheet represented a character in order of appearance, the columns were used to record the categories. Categories include the textbook code and page numbers, as well as, categories by which characters are defined (e.g., gender, age, activities). Bruegilles and Cromer’s (2009a) framework is comprehensive, with sections deemed unnecessary for the purposes of this research. Sections not incorporated include; cover analysis, analysis of the teacher’s book, distinctions between exercises and course materials and analysis of characters’ postures. The categories chosen to answer the research questions are listed below:

**3.4.1 Gender Visibility**

Recording gender is an essential part of analysing gender representations in Korean EFL textbooks. It can be a difficult task to determine characters’ genders, particularly when they have foreign forenames. Bruegilles and Cromer (2009a: 33), recommend that textbook researchers do not depend on their own intuition when determining gender rather, the context must be considered and when in doubt, a ‘neutral’ value should be entered.

**3.4.2 Texts, Images and Audio**

Characters were categorised by the source in which they appeared. This was key, as it enabled analysis of differences in gender representations between texts, images and audio. As per Bruegilles and Cromer’s (2009a) framework, characters portrayed in text or audio as well as an image, were listed twice in the spreadsheet. This was considered important, as according to Bruegilles and Cromer (2009a), characters have double significance when they appear in more than one domain. As the textbooks were designed for beginners, visual and audio content outweighed textual content. As a result, characters were counted if they were the subject of a sentence or identified specifically in a dialogue. In these cases the character was counted more than once, if they appeared in different situations throughout the unit.

**3.4.3 Utterances and Firstness**

When characters ‘spoke’, in text or audio, a note was made. This allowed for character’s utterances to be recorded. This data was used to establish if one gender had more opportunity to speak over the other. Where utterances made up part of a mixed-gender dialogue, a note of the first character to speak was made. This was important as it builds on previous research (see; Porreca, 1984; Hartman & Judd, 1978; Jones et al.,
assessed the order of mention of mixed pair nouns, such as Mr. and Mrs., and brother and sister. They concluded that the masculine noun always precedes the feminine and argued that this ‘reinforces the second-place status of women…’ (Hartman & Judd, 1978: 390). The present study examined all instances in the textbooks where the two genders were mentioned together, and recorded which gender appeared first.

### 3.4.4 Actions, Activities and Occupations

These columns were designated to record what characters were doing. Taylor (2003: 304), affirms that an inductive approach to content analysis allows for identification of important themes. Consequently, several broad themes were generated, these were based on the actions and activities characters engaged in. Themes included; hobbies, sports, outdoor, retail and socialising. Characters’ main actions and activities were determined based on context, information regarding each character was gathered from text, images and audio. They were assigned one activity based on what was found to be most prominent. Character traits were also derived from context and examined as part of the qualitative analysis. The occupation section signifies a character’s job. This was important as it is an indicator of stereotypical portrayals of males and females.

### 3.5 Data Analysis

Data collated in Excel, was extracted and analysed to answer the research questions above. In establishing the gender frequency across both textbooks, the total number of males and females was extracted from the spreadsheet and presented in a pie chart. This was repeated to demonstrate the frequency of males and females in individual textbooks. Graphs were compiled to demonstrate the visibility of the genders in texts, images and audio.

Data pertaining to the number and order of utterances was assembled and presented in a table which exhibits; the total number of characters’ utterances, and the total number of instances where males or females spoke first. Tables were also used to display the number and types of actions, activities and occupations that characters engaged in.

The advantages of adopting this type of analysis include the fact that it is unobtrusive and cheap. Moreover, its application is straightforward, as materials were available for purchase online. Content analysis is a particularly useful method of analysis in the context of gender representations in EFL textbooks, as it can be applied to
document trends over time. Additionally, considering the specific procedure outlined above, content analysis serves as a reliable method, as future researchers are able to replicate the same procedure (Krippendorff, 2004).

In terms of the limitations of the approach, more robust insights may have been gained if other research methods were incorporated; such as interviews with students or teachers. In addition, content analysis is purely descriptive (Krippendorff, 2004). While this is effective in describing what is observable amongst data, it does not help in understanding why a particular phenomenon is observable in the first place.

3.6 Overview

This chapter has described the procedures and methods used in this study. An overview of the characteristics of analysis is provided below. The next chapter (Chapter 4-Findings), presents the findings of the current study.

**Gender Visibility:**

- Ratios of Male and Female Characters
- Gender Ratios in Images and Audio
- *Firstness*

**Actions, Activities and Occupations:**

- Actions and Activities
- Occupational Visibility
4 Findings

This section organises and reports the study’s main findings, presenting quantitative results in pie and bar charts, complete with descriptions. Proportions are expressed in percentages, giving a clear overview of results. Following the quantitative results, the qualitative aspects are considered. It is hoped that qualitative analysis will lead to a deeper understanding of quantitative findings through triangulation.

To answer the research aim; attempting to establish if the male and female genders are equally represented in EFL textbooks in Korea, quantitative analysis explores; gender visibility and firstness. The quantitative analysis then considers character depictions as they enact actions, activities and occupations. The qualitative analysis attempts to develop the quantitative findings by discussing each of the above aspects. The following section proceeds to an analysis of the study’s quantitative findings.

4.1 Quantitative Analysis

4.1.1 Gender Visibility

Previous gender studies in the field have focused on gender visibility. Findings often highlighted female invisibility (see; Hartman & Judd, 1978; Porreca, 1984; Lee & Collins, 2008; Yang, 2011). In this study, gender visibility is determined via 1) ratios of male and female characters, and 2) the order in which characters appear in instances where male and female characters occur concurrently, also referred to as firstness.

- Gender Ratios

Figure 1 displays overall gender representations gathered from two-hundred characters across the selected textbooks. Only 4 % of characters were defined as ‘neutral’ across both textbooks. With regards to gendered characters, males account for the largest portion of characters, outweighing females by 8%. It is clear from the data that male representations slightly outweigh female representations in the images and audio of the selected textbooks.
Figure 1- Overall Gender Ratio of 200 Characters from Genius & YBM Textbooks

Figure 2 breaks down the findings displayed in Figure 1, demonstrating gender ratios per textbook.

Figure 2- Gender Ratios of 117 Characters from Genius Textbook & 83 Characters from YBM Textbook

Figure 2 highlights the higher percentage of males compared to females, in each textbook. Males represent 50% of all characters in YBM and 54% in Genius. Interestingly, at 44%, the same percentage of female characters is exhibited in each of the textbooks. Over half of the characters are identified as male in the Genius textbook. In numerical terms, this represents twelve additional male characters. Meanwhile, the YBM textbook demonstrates marginally less preference towards male characters, the numerical
difference between male and female characters being less than half that in the *Genius* example, with a difference of four characters.

A slight preference towards males is apparent in the gender ratios of each textbook, closer analysis reveals that the *YBM* text maintains a more even distribution of characters than its counterpart *Genius*.

- Gender Ratios in Images and Audio

To determine if results are skewed by the number of characters in images compared to audio, these categories were considered individually. The textbooks analysed contained little text, the bulk of the content was visual or audio. This may be due to the beginner level of intended students, who may be unable to read a lot of English text. Hence, there are no instances of characters mentioned in text in either textbook.

![Number of Characters in Images and Audio: Genius Textbook](image)

**Figure 3- Distribution of 117 Characters in Genius Textbook**

Of the 117 character representations in the *Genius* textbook, the number of male and female representations in images greatly outweighs those in found in audio. 45% of all male characters were represented in images, at 38%, a slightly lower percentage of all female characters were found in images. The number of characters exclusive to the audio in the *Genius* textbook is low at only 4% of the total number of characters. It is worth noting the percentage of characters appearing in images and audio. In the *Genius* textbook, 15% of male and 11% of female characters enjoy a ‘dual presence’, where they appear in both image and audio (Brugeilles & Cromer, 2009a: 25). According to Brugeilles
and Cromer (2009a: 25), this affords a character greater importance than those in only one domain.

![Number of Characters in Images and Audio: YBM Textbook](image)

**Figure 4- Distribution of 83 Characters in YBM Textbook**

The instances of ‘dual presence’ in the YBM textbook are less remarkable, only 4% of males and 4% of females are depicted in images and audio. Characters exclusively portrayed in audio, represent 4% of male and 4% of female characters. The majority of the 83 characters counted in the YBM textbook were found in images alone; 32% of all male characters, 28% of female characters and 6% of neutral characters, were exclusive to images. The proportions of male, female and neutral characters in the images in both textbooks are consistent with the pie chart, with female characters marginally less visible than male characters. Other noteworthy data includes instances of characters’ equal representations in the audio and image plus audio categories. This highlights that male and female characters are equally represented in certain domains within the textbook.

- **Firstness**

According to Porreca (1984: 712), ‘firstness’ is; ‘the number of times that males or females [are] presented first in exercises, examples or sentences’. In a study carried out by Hartman and Judd (1978) which continues to be referred to today, firstness was investigated in terms of the order of mention of noun pairs (for example, Mr. and Mrs.). Building on this work, studies continue to analyse firstness in instances where males and females interact together, to establish which gender has the opportunity to speak first (see, Jones et al., 1997; Lee, 2014b). To pursue this matter, this study examined all instances where males and females appeared together and identified which gender
appeared first. Again, due to the level of English of the intended audience, there were few occurrences of reading and listening dialogues. Table 1 sets out instances of firstness overall, and in each of the selected textbooks.

Table 1- Instances of Firstness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>YBM</th>
<th>Genius</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table demonstrates the equal representation of males and females across both textbooks, and the equal representations within each textbook. Tables 1 and 2 show instances of firstness from dialogues in the selected lessons in each textbook.

Example- Male Firstness in YBM Textbook

Dialogue Situation: [A boy and girl are talking in the library about what they did yesterday]

Dialogue: Boy: I read this book yesterday. Girl: How was it? Boy: It was fun.

Example- Female Firstness in Genius Textbook

Dialogue Situation: [Yuna and Wei are talking in the street about their vacations]

Dialogue: Yuna: Wei! How was your vacation? Wei: It was good. I read many books. How about you?

Males and females are afforded equal opportunities to speak first. Data gathered from dialogues in each textbook demonstrates a lack of bias towards either gender.

4.1.2 Actions and Activities

Images and audio making up the examined lessons depict characters in a range of actions and activities. Table 4 outlines the number and types of activities male and female characters engaged in.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Female Genius</th>
<th>Male Genius</th>
<th>Female YBM</th>
<th>Male YBM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hobbies</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>Stargazing</td>
<td>Stargazing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Reading a Book</td>
<td>Reading a Book</td>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Presenting a Poster</td>
<td>Presenting a Poster</td>
<td>Rollerblading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Taking Photos</td>
<td>Taking Photos</td>
<td>Taking Photos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Playing Cards</td>
<td>Playing a cards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Playing a Game</td>
<td>Playing a Game</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Riding a Bike</td>
<td>Riding a Bike</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sports</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>Playing Baseball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Playing Football</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outdoor</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Riding a Boat</td>
<td>Riding a Boat</td>
<td>Riding a Boat</td>
<td>Riding a Boat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Camping</td>
<td>Camping</td>
<td>Look at Flowers</td>
<td>Visiting the Park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Having a Picnic</td>
<td>Having a Picnic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Retail</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>Buying</td>
<td>Selling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Buying</td>
<td>Buying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Browsing in a store</td>
<td>Browsing at a Stall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Socialising</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Eating w/others</td>
<td>Eating w/others</td>
<td>Eating w/others</td>
<td>Eating w/others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Talking to others</td>
<td>Talking to others</td>
<td>Talking to others</td>
<td>Talking to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Greeting Other</td>
<td>Visiting Grandma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Visiting a Friend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Presenting a Poster</td>
<td>Presenting a Poster</td>
<td>Holding a Picture</td>
<td>Holding a Picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Visiting Tourist Attractions</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Visiting Tourist Attractions</td>
<td>Visiting Tourist Attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>Sitting</td>
<td></td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Crying</td>
<td></td>
<td>Thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Visiting Tourist Attractions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Walking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cheering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Actions and Activities</strong></td>
<td>Female Genius</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Male Genius</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Female YBM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Despite variations in the number of items in each genre, the total number of actions and activities for females and males in both the *Genius* and *YBM* textbooks are close (F: M= 19:21) and (F: M=14:17) respectively. While females and males enjoy the same number of hobbies in the *Genius* textbook, *YBM* sees female hobbies outweighing male hobbies at a ratio of 4:1. While females enjoy a variety of hobbies, they appear to be missing from certain sporting activities. Females are seen swimming in both textbooks yet, males are also depicted, in the *YBM* textbook, playing football and baseball. Overall, the textbook authors have succeeded in portraying females and males in a diverse range of actions and activities.

### 4.1.3 Occupational Visibility

Porreca (1984) carried out an influential study which continues to be referred to in the literature regarding gender stereotypes in EFL materials today (see: Women in EFL Materials, 1991; Lee & Collins, 2008, 2009; Foroutan, 2012; Lee, 2014b). She highlighted the importance of examining occupational roles and the gendered clichés and stereotypes they transmit to students. Table 3 shows the occupations and roles of characters in both textbooks.

**Table 3-Occupations in *Genius* & *YBM* Textbooks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Female Occupations Genius</th>
<th>Male Occupations Genius</th>
<th>Female Occupations YBM</th>
<th>Male Occupations YBM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Shop Assistant</td>
<td>Bus Driver</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Shop Assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Shop Assistant</td>
<td>Sailor</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Baseball Player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Farmer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Musician</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Philosopher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Detective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At a glance, the number of male occupations outweighs female occupations by double (F: M= 5:10). Men are associated with more diverse and higher status jobs than females. The range of roles for males and females are more limited in the *Genius* textbook with females being depicted exclusively as Shop Assistants. Conversely, we find a male Shop Assistant in the *YBM* textbook, with no female equivalent.

Quantitative data regarding gender visibility demonstrates that despite a small discrepancy, males and females are almost equally portrayed in each textbook. Moreover, the genders are equally visible in mixed-gender dialogues and have equal opportunities to initiate speech. Additionally, both textbooks portray males and females enacting a range of actions and activities, and opportunities to participate appear equally distributed.
However, in occupational visibility, female characters are underrepresented in the YBM textbook. The following section proceeds to qualitative analysis of the quantitative data presented. By examining the data from a qualitative perspective, a deeper understanding of the results will be gained.

4.2 Qualitative Analysis

Some suggest that textbook researchers should be wary of making finite distinctions between quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis, arguing they complement one another (Pingel, 2010). Hence, the following section proceeds to a qualitative analysis of the textbooks. It is hoped this will further probe the portrayals of male and female characters, as designed by the publishers and endorsed by the Korean Ministry of Education. According to Clark (2016), in his study of ‘subliminal gender bias’ in a Japanese English textbook;

‘[…] it is not the quantity of males and females that creates bias, it is the qualitative aspects of their lives as they enact their respective social worlds in words and pictures.’ (Clark, 2016: 4)

Therefore, the following analysis will enhance the statistical observations and provide another facet for a deeper understanding of gender representations in both textbooks.

4.2.1 Gender Visibility

- Ratio of Males and Females

Quantitative analysis of gender ratios demonstrated minimal disparity overall yet, there is an imbalance on certain pages within the textbooks. Male and female characters appear on almost all pages of the selected unit of the Genius textbook, but two pages exclusively represent a single gender. In both cases, the pages show only male characters. This could be considered an omission of female characters. Despite the relatively equal gender ratios in the quantitative analysis, the omission of females from two pages render them somewhat invisible. Moreover, quantitative equality in gender ratios, does not convey bias in characterisation in the Genius textbook. For example, the extended reading section within the unit details the true story of a Kenyan boy who invented a way to keep his family’s cattle safe from lions. In a double page spread, the boy is portrayed herding cattle in a photograph and giving a talk on stage to an audience. These images see him undertaking a dominant discursive role, presenting his story to others.
Like Clark’s (2016) qualitative study of a Japanese textbook, no equivalent female was identified in the unit and there were no instances of females taking on a dominant discursive role, where such a role would shift the focus and power towards a female character. This example could be a demonstration of male superiority, reinforcing the stereotype of males as intelligent and analytical (see; Appendix 2 for a list of Macionis & Plummer’s (2012), gender stereotypes).

In contrast to the *Genius* textbook, the *YBM* text shows less bias. No pages are exclusively dedicated to one gender. However, there is an example of five females being depicted alongside a single male. This is consequently balanced as nine males appear on a single page with a lone female. A qualitative analysis of gender ratios on the pages of the *YBM* textbook shows little bias in favour of either males or females, whilst a marked difference is evident in the *Genius* textbook.

- *Firstness*

In terms of *firstness*, quantitative analysis of dialogues highlighted that males and females are afforded equal opportunities to speak first. This shows parity between the genders however, it does not reveal the extent to which the content of the speech reflects gender stereotypes. In contrast to Jones et al., (1997), the dialogues in the *Genius* textbook give male and female characters the same opportunities to ask and answer questions. However, this is a surface level assessment. When considering the detail of mixed-gender dialogues gender stereotyping becomes more apparent (see; Table 6).

**Example- Male/Female Dialogues: *Genius* Textbook**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>David:</th>
<th>How was your vacation?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Girl:</td>
<td>It was good. I went to a food festival. I ate delicious food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sara:</td>
<td>How was your vacation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>It was good. I went to Jeju-do. Look! I bought this T-shirt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although males and females have equal opportunities to ask and answer questions and their turns are similar in length, the content shows underlying gender stereotyping. The male character demonstrates dominance using commanding language
‘Look! I bought this T-shirt.’ It could be argued that this example reflects the traditional male gender stereotype of males as assertive (Macionis & Plummer, 2012).

In another example comparable to Clark’s (2016) study, a female character takes a subordinate role. An image depicts two boys and one girl chatting as they sit at desks in a classroom. They are talking about holidays. The only opportunity the female character has to speak is to express approval towards her male counterpart, “Cheonghak-dong? Wow, great!”. The male characters continue their conversation while the female passively looks on. This portrayal highlights the traditional female gender stereotype of females as passive (Macionis & Plummer, 2012).

The YBM textbook differs from the Genius textbook as it is not the conversations between male and female characters that highlight gender stereotyping, but the dialogues between the same genders. One visual portrays two girls talking outside the school gates. In another series of images, two boys are depicted talking in a park. One boy is sitting on a park bench with a basketball and a baseball magazine, the other is pushing a bike and showing his friend his ‘selfie’ with a famous baseball player.

These visuals have been used to present males and females differently. Similar to images in Clark’s (2016: 4) study, which describes an image of an aggressive male baseball player juxtaposed with the image of a female character in a school uniform ‘smiling benignly’. In the YBM textbook, two school girls are talking about their holiday’s including; visiting a grandma. This action could be described as reinforcing the female stereotypes of, females as sensitive. Meanwhile, the male characters are discussing baseball, which reinforces two male stereotypes outlined by Macionis and Plummer (2012), whereby males are portrayed as active and competitive. This is no more evident than when one character states his favourite baseball team is the ‘Black Dragons’. When the other character assents, the first character retorts that he had a picture taken with a player from the team. Analysis of individual examples of dialogues across both textbooks shows that, although male and female characters are afforded equal opportunities to speak numerically, the content of their speech reveals stereotypical representations.

4.2.2 Actions and Activities

Table four outlines specific actions and activities that males and females engage in. While Table 4 demonstrates relative balance statistically, and depicts male and female characters taking part in a range of actions and activities, a closer examination of individual character portrayals demonstrates the extent of gender stereotyping across the Genius and YBM textbooks.
- **Hobbies**

The *Genius* textbook portrays males and females cooking while *YBM* reserves cooking for females alone. The invisibility of male characters in the kitchen reaffirms the common female stereotype, where the kitchen is a woman's domain. Although, this assessment needs to be verified in further research. While this one instance illustrates a problem, it is not sufficient to establish a definite assessment. In contrast to the *YBM* textbook, the makers of the *Genius* textbook appear to be making an effort to redress gender imbalances by depicting both genders in the role of cook, as well as across a wider range of hobbies.

- **Sports**

Again, *YBM* publishers demonstrate greater equality in their portrayals of males and females in sport. The sole sport male and female characters participate in is swimming. Characters are depicted swimming, a total of ten times. However, on seven occasions the swimmer is male, females swimmers appear three times. This marginal difference sees more male characters given the opportunity to be sporty, which could reinforce the gender stereotype of males as competitive and females as passive. When looking specifically at images of males and females swimming, further imbalance is revealed.

In the *YBM* textbook, separate images of a male character swimming and female swimming, were found on the same page. The picture of the male shows him smiling and unaided in the water. The image of the female, depicts her wearing a rubber ring and looking cautious. He appears to be confident and competent moving through the water and is the epitome of the strong, brave male. The female however, is aided by a rubber ring, she is dependant in contrast to her male counterpart. In every instance where a female character is depicted swimming in the *YBM* textbook, she is aided by a rubber ring.

The data from the *Genius* textbook shows males playing team sports; football and basketball. Females are invisible in these sports, only depicted in the individual sport; swimming. This echoes Clark’s (2016; 4) finding; ‘basketball and baseball are represented in the textbook as almost exclusively male activities.’ In the image of the two boys talking described above, there is evidence of males being portrayed as active sports lovers. The characters engaged in conversation are surrounded by sporting equipment including, a bike, basketball and baseball bat.
• Outdoor & Retail

The *Genius* textbook demonstrates less gender stereotyping in outdoor pursuits, males and females are seen riding boats, camping and having picnics. The publishers of the *Genius* textbook may be helping to deconstruct stereotypical female pastimes by depicting females as active and enthusiastic about the outdoors. The same cannot be said for *YBM* publishers, as only female characters are seen ‘looking at flowers’. This portrayal supports the view that females are sensitive (Macionis & Plummer, 2012). The *YBM* textbook further maintains female stereotypes by depicting them exclusively as buyers, it could be argued that this reinforces the stereotype of females as consumers. The *YBM* textbook meanwhile, sees females in both buying and selling roles.

• Socialising & Other

Males and females appear equally represented across both textbooks in terms of socialising. However, in the *YBM* textbook, the privilege of visiting a friend is reserved for males, who are depicted visiting a friend on three occasions. Meanwhile, female characters are depicted as friendless, having no opportunities to visit friends. Instead, females were often seen visiting grandmas. This portrayal could be reinforcing the stereotype of females as sensitive, or females as caretakers.

One final noteworthy representation of characters’ actions and activities is the single instance where a character is crying. Maru; a male character, is caught out lying about the places he visited on his holiday and cries. This is intriguing as while Maru is demonstrating the male stereotype of being competitive, showing off the places he’s been, he goes on to demonstrate the typically female trait of being sensitive or emotional (Macionis & Plummer, 2012). The above examples provide a picture of the extent to which the assignment of gendered character traits by textbook publishers, reflect certain gender stereotypes.

4.2.3 Occupational Visibility

As far as occupational visibility, both textbooks are mostly populated with children. The prevalence of child characters is a result of the textbooks’ target audience; namely 5th grade elementary students. Subsequently, there are few portrayals of characters engaging in an occupation. In the *YBM* textbook, of the characters with a known occupation three are real-life historical figures.
Of these three figures, two are male. Outnumbered by a well-known male musician; Mozart, and a renowned male philosopher; Jeong Yakyong, Hellen Keller is an obscure female historical figure. She is an author who is known for being the first deaf-blind person to earn a Bachelor degree. Perhaps the publishers chose Keller to portray the strength of the female character, depicting a female who overcame adversity. On the other hand, the authors could be juxtaposing the images of two successful male figures; who gained recognition through success in their field, against a female figure; who is recognised as a result of her ability to fight through adversity. If this is the case, it could be said that they are cementing the dominant position of males. An examination of the images of these figures sheds more light on their portrayal.

The shapes of the frames themselves denote gender demarcation. The male pictures are housed in rectangular frames with hard square edges. Keller’s picture is bordered by a soft oval. Composition of the images is also worthwhile. The male characters look towards the portrait artist, Keller looks away. The posture and gaze of Mozart and Jeong Yakyong could be described as strong and confident. Meanwhile, Keller's posture does not engage the viewer. She is also holding a magnolia flower, this could suggest that Keller is exhibiting the typically female trait of being sensitive. Table 5 highlights gender discrepancies in the YBM textbook in terms of occupations. Female characters are portrayed as students with one example an author. At the same time, male characters are depicted in an array of occupational domains. Based on both the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the depictions of fictitious and real life characters in the YBM textbook, it could be argued that the publishers' portrayals openly reflect traditional gender stereotypes of men and women at work.

The Genius textbook fares better in terms of occupational visibility, if only marginally. Table 5 demonstrates the Genius textbook’s positioning of the role of Shop Assistant as exclusively female, thus reinforcing a common stereotype. The textbook also depicts males in stereotypical roles with images of a male bus driver and a sailor. Omission of females in charge of vehicles could be a reference to the well-known stereotype that women are bad drivers.

A deeper level of understanding of the depictions of the characters engaged in the various occupations listed in Table 5, reveals the extent that textbook publishers; knowingly or otherwise, reinforce traditional gender stereotypes. Although, stereotypes are evident in the textbooks, they are portrayed in indirect ways. It is clear that textbook writers have given some thought to the equal portrayal of males and females, particularly in the ratio of characters and their opportunities to speak. Discrepancies, however, persist in the underlying messages regarding gender roles.
4.3 Unexpected Findings

The data collection process brought some unexpected findings to light. On six occasions throughout the YBM textbook, characters talked about visiting their grandmas. Grandpas were omitted. The invisibility of grandpas could be an example of positive discrimination towards female characters. However, it is more likely that in overlooking grandpas, the textbook writers are acknowledging the role of grandmas as strong cultural symbols who have important cultural connotations. Another way to perceive this phenomenon however, is to consider that perhaps the YBM publishers are reinforcing the social role of grandmas as caregivers and matriarchs.

A further unexpected finding was the use of adjectives ‘beautiful’ and ‘pretty’. On all three occasions where females bought goods in the Genius textbook, they refer to the item purchased as ‘pretty’. This word is not encountered when male characters make a purchase. Similarly, the YBM textbook adopts this subtle method of upholding traditional gender stereotypes through the strategic use of adjectives. This is exemplified on two occasions where female characters say they ‘looked at beautiful flowers’. There are no instances of male characters looking at flowers, much less ‘beautiful’ ones. An additional observation with regards to both textbooks, is that while male characters buy caps and backpacks, female characters are never pictured purchasing a cap. This suggests that certain items of clothing are attributed to either the male or female genders.

This chapter began by reporting the study’s qualitative findings, which demonstrated gender parity in terms of visibility, and to a degree, male and female involvement in actions, activities and occupations. It then addressed the qualitative aspects of the statistical data, providing a deeper understanding of subtle gendered character portrayals. In the chapter that follows, concluding statements recommendations are presented.
5 Conclusion

5.1 Conclusion

This study has provided insights into the representations of male and female characters in two Korean elementary EFL textbooks. It represents a contribution to an area of research where limited literature in the English language is available. The study found evidence of gender awareness on the part of the publishers of the Genius and YBM textbooks. Counter to the results of previous studies, (see; Hartman & Judd, 1978; Hellinger, 1980; Porreca, 1984; Lee & Collins, 2009, 2010; Barton & Sakwa, 2012), the present study discovered more even gender ratios.

In further contrast to previous studies in the field; which uncovered the gender-biased male-firstness phenomenon (see; Porreca, 1984; Hartman & Judd, 1978; Jones et al., 1997; Lee & Collins, 2009a; Lee, 2014b), the findings of the current study demonstrated that males and females had precisely the same number of opportunities to speak, and to speak first. That said, qualitative analysis revealed that the content of male and female speech differed significantly. It seems that despite publisher’s efforts to be more egalitarian, unintentional biases may be interfering.

It is clear that progress towards male and female equality has been made however, it is ongoing. This is evidenced by this study's findings of marginal female under-representation and common gendered stereotypes. It is also worth noting, that while textbook authors seem to be aware of the need to avoid depicting males and females in stereotypical roles, there is a tendency to depict traditional gender stereotypes in a more subtle, and unconscious manner. This suggests that while presenting females in a diverse range of actions and activities, the publishers of both textbooks do not challenge traditional gender stereotypes. This could have been achieved by disassociating characters from stereotypical actions, activities and careers. Regarding careers in particular, each textbook presented significantly gendered roles for males and females. The continued presentation of males as bus drivers and baseball players, versus females as students and Shop Assistants, is not a full reflection of society.

The study's findings highlight the benefits of integrating quantitative and qualitative methods of content analysis. The qualitative analysis of characters’ utterances, actions, activities and occupations, allowed for a deeper investigation of individual character portrayals, which revealed a more complete picture of how males and females were portrayed in the textbooks.
According to Lee (2014b), while it is a common for Western publishers to adhere to formal codes of practice in creating non gender-biased teaching materials, equivalent guidelines are rare in Asia. As discussed in the introduction, the sole governmental stipulations regarding gender equality in Korean school materials state that topics of study should; ‘promote a democratic conscience such as gender equality, human rights, etc.’ (MOE, 2008: 64). Without a formal gender equality code of practice, it is left to publishers to interpret the stipulations. The publishers of the Genius and YBM textbooks seem, in part, to acknowledge the need for improved balance of males and females at a superficial level. However, they neglect the importance of presenting women and girls in a range of activities, actions and careers that challenge common gender stereotypes. It is clear that there is a need for the Ministry of Education (MOE) to issue more specific guidelines for publishers on the promotion of gender equality in EFL textbooks. This recommendation does not seem unrealistic when we consider that the MOE dictates the current English language curriculum and its associated materials. Guidelines could include accurate representations of men and women in society and equal visibility of male and female characters in a range of actions, activities and occupations. It is hoped that through the growing body of research, educational materials will begin to emerge which reflect societal norms, and treat male, female and, eventually, the entire spectrum of genders equally. Such materials have the potential to serve as a catalyst for change, helping to build a more gender equitable society not only in Korea but worldwide.

5.2 Limitations and Recommendations

The present small-scale study included a selection of two textbooks, from a series of textbooks officially sanctioned by the MOE. While this facilitates an investigation of potential stereotypes within two widely used Korean EFL textbooks, its limitation is that the findings are not generalisable across other textbooks. The scale and scope of the study is a further limitation. A larger-scale study conducted over various countries, or including textbooks from previous eras, would broaden our understanding of geographical differences in gender representations and, changes in gender representations over time. Additionally, had the scope of the study been extended to include gender representations and their relationships with ethnicity and class, it may have added to the discussion of the intersectionality of gender in EFL materials, an area which merits future research. Further, the literature review introduced Wickman’s (2003: 41) description of ‘gender-benders’ and ‘gender-blenders’, as representing recent gender developments in the political sphere. This study has not attempted to incorporate this perspective, which may provide an alternative reading of the results of gender stereotyping in EFL materials. These studies would give a better insight into the gaps that need to be bridged for the purposes of future research.
A further limitation is the fact that the researcher’s Western social orientation may have had an effect on the interpretation of the data. This raises questions with regards to objectivity when applying a Western lens to content which is designed specifically and exclusively for consumption in Eastern contexts. However, this lens could be complimented by other perspectives. In order to determine if this is the case, the data and findings of the present study would need to be corroborated with other analyses, carried out by researchers with different social orientations.

According to Sunderland (2000), textbook publishers are not the sole facilitators of change, EFL teachers play an important role in leading change from the ground up. Based on this study; which builds on previous studies, a future recommendation would be to adapt teacher training courses to include consciousness raising activities where student teachers are guided in identifying underlying gender biases in the materials they use. This is crucial going forward, as it the treatment of the materials in the hands of teachers which will ultimately help shape student’s conceptions about gender. A teacher can; consciously or otherwise, exploit or ignore materials with stereotypical portrayals of male and female characters. Acknowledgement of the importance of gender parity in teacher training programmes could lead to teachers being able to employ strategies which rectify disparities in the materials they use and expose students to gender diversity. With that being said, the extent to which students are exposed to gender diversity would have to be measured and age appropriate.

It may be helpful if future studies of gender representations in EFL textbooks incorporated the treatment of materials by teachers, as well as students’ interpretations of materials. A further recommendation for future research in the field, pertains to the present study’s qualitative findings which revealed the subtler ways in which gender stereotyping persists. Taking this into account, future research should complement the traditional focus on quantitative lines of enquiry; where results suggest near parity, and focus on the underlying qualitative aspects which seem to continue to reinforce traditional gender stereotypes.
### 6.1 Sample of Data Gathered in Excel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Source 1</th>
<th>Source 2</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Identity Y/N (f)</th>
<th>In Instance where M/F appear together in the character mentioned first?</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Specify</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>L2 129</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Eating</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>A</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>13-131</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Y(Audios)</td>
<td>Forename</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Audio</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Y(Audios)</td>
<td>Forename</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Audio</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Y(Audios)</td>
<td>Forename</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: The table contains information about the characters, including their actions, sex, identity, and occupation. The columns include Source 1 and Source 2, Sex, Identity Y/N, Action, and Specify.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook Pg. No.</th>
<th>Character No.</th>
<th>Source 1</th>
<th>Source 2</th>
<th>If Image then Photo?</th>
<th>Sex (Inc. M/F/Mc/FC/MXC/UC)</th>
<th>Age (A/C)</th>
<th>Identity Y/N (if in Text/Audio only)</th>
<th>If Y then Which? (Fornam/Surname/Kinship bond/Other bond/Status)</th>
<th>Specify</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Specify (Inc. Character No.)</th>
<th>In Instances where M/F appear together is the character mentioned first? (Y/N) (Text/Audio Only)</th>
<th>Famous Character? If Y then name</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Holding a picture Grandma</td>
<td>23, 24)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Y(Audio)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Family Bond</td>
<td>Visiting Grandma</td>
<td>25 (Audio)</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
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<td>YBM</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Visiting Grandma</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Baking bread Grandma</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Y(Text)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Family Bond</td>
<td>Walking, riding a boat</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Playing baseball, visiting friend</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Y(Text)</td>
<td>Other Bond</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Playing baseball, visiting friend</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Y(Text)</td>
<td>Other Bond</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Playing baseball, visiting friend</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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</tr>
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<td>33</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>34</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
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<td>35</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>U</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Walking</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
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<td>36</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Y(Text)</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<td>Greeting Grandma</td>
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<tr>
<td>YBM</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Image</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Y(Audio)</td>
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<td>39</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Y(Audio)</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Y(Audio)</td>
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<td>M</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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If Image then
Drawing/Photo?
Sex (Inc. M/F/MC/FC/MXC/UC)
Age (A/C)
Identity Y/N (If in Text/ Audio only)
If Y then Which?
(Forename/Surname/Kindred bond/Other bond/Status)
Specify Action
Specify (Inc. Character No.)
In Instances where M/F appear together is the character mentioned first? (Y/N) (Text/Audio Only)
Occupation
Famous Character? If Y then name

YBM 136-137 50 Image P M U Y (Image + Text)
Forename Chris
Stargazing, visiting a museum
Family Bond Grandma
Yes N/A N/A

YBM 51 Image P F C Y (Image + Text)
Forename Susie
Visiting gran, eating grapes
Walking
Grandson (57)
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 52 Image D Dog U U Y
Family Bond Grandma
Eating Grapes
Being hugged by great-grandmother
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 53 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Stargazing
Talking
Talking with other (54)
Yes N/A N/A

YBM 54 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Playing football
Talking
Talking with other (53)
No N/A N/A

YBM 55 Image D Dog U N/A N/A N/A
Investigating
Detective
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 56 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Thinking, writing
Talking
Talking with other (54)
Yes N/A N/A

YBM 57 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Family Bond Grandma
Eating Grapes
Grandma
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 58 Image D F A Y (Text)
Family Bond Grandma
Greeting Grandson (57)
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 59 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Walking
Comparing yesterday's activities (60, 61, 62)
Yes N/A N/A

YBM 60 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Thinking, writing
Comparing yesterday's activities (60, 61, 62)
No N/A N/A

YBM 61 Image D F C N/A N/A N/A
Comparing yesterday's activities (60, 61, 62)
Yes N/A N/A

YBM 62 Image D F C N/A N/A N/A
Looking at flowers
Comparing yesterday's activities (60, 61, 62)
No N/A N/A

YBM 63 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Seeing, buying
Comparing yesterday's activities (60, 61, 62)
Yes N/A N/A

YBM 64 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Seeing, buying
Comparing yesterday's activities (60, 61, 62)
No N/A N/A

YBM 65 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Eating Frolicking (64)
Comparing vacations
No N/A N/A

YBM 66 Image D & P M C Y (Text)
Fullframe Richard Turere
Posing for picture
Presenting (67)
N/A Farm hand N/A

YBM 67 Image D M KC U N/A N/A N/A
Looking at flowers, swimming, riding a bike, roller skating
Comparing to other historical characters (73, 72)
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 68 Image D F C N/A N/A N/A
Went to Jeju-do, rode a boat, looked at flowers
Comparing activities
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 69 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Seeing, buying
Comparing vacations
N/A N/A N/A

YBM 70 Image D F C N/A N/A N/A
Visiting a museum
Comparing to other historical characters (73, 74)
Yes N/A N/A

YBM 71 Image D M C N/A N/A N/A
Walking, playing baseball, riding a bike, claggifying
Comparing to other (73)
No N/A N/A

YBM 72 Image P M A Y (Image) Surname Mozart
Posing for painting
Comparing to other historical characters (73, 74)
N/A Mexican (Y) Mozart

YBM 73 Image P F A Y (Image) Fullname Anne Sullivan
Posing for picture
Comparing to other historical characters (73, 74)
N/A Skivvies (Y) Anne Sullivan
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<th>Textbook Pg. No.</th>
<th>Character No.</th>
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<th>Source 2</th>
<th># Image than M/F/M/C/J/C/M</th>
<th>Sex (Inc.</th>
<th>Age (A/C)</th>
<th>Identity Y/N</th>
<th>If Y then Which? (Forename/Surname/Kindred bond/Other bond/Status)</th>
<th>Specify</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Specify (Inc. Character No.)</th>
<th>In Instances where M/F appear together is the character mentioned first? (Y/N) (Text/Audio Only)</th>
<th>Famous</th>
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<td>Image P M A</td>
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<td>Full name</td>
<td>Jeong Yakyong</td>
<td>Y</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
<td>Background information: full name Jeong Yakyong</td>
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<td>Y</td>
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<td>Background information: talking about vacation (68)</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<td>Y</td>
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<td>Forename</td>
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<td>17</td>
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*Found in Macionis and Plummer (2001)*
7 List of References

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