A SOCIAL SEMIOTIC ANALYSIS OF GENDER REPRESENTATION IN SELECTED KENYAN SECONDARY SCHOOL ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS

MUTUNE FELLIS NTHAMBI

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Declaration

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University or any other award.

Signature: _____ Date: 27th March 2023

Mutune Fellis Nthambi

C80-12659-2017

Department of Linguistics and Languages

Machakos University

We confirm that the work reported in this thesis was carried out by the student under our supervision.

Signature: _____ Date: 27th March 2023

Prof. Geoffrey Maroko

Department of Linguistics and Languages

Machakos University

Signature

Dr. Alice Kiai _____ Date 27th March, 2023

Department of English and Creative Writing

The Technical University of Kenya

Dedication

To my dear husband Fredrick Muthoka, and beloved children Emmanuel Mumo, Patience

Mwikali, Nite Ndanu and Eleazar Kyama

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

List of Figures

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CA	Content Analysis
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
DPCD	Directorate of Project Coordination and Delivery
EFT	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ETSGP	Education and Training Sector Gender Policy
FDSE	Free Day Secondary Education
IT	Information Technology
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KICD	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development
KIE	Kenya Institute of Education
KLB	Kenya Literature Bureau
KNHREC	Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoE	Ministry of Education
NGEC	National Gender Equality Commission
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPGAD	National Policy on Gender and Development
PSC	Project Steering Committee
RQ	Research Questions
SETB1	Secondary English Textbook 1
SETB2	Secondary English Textbook 2

SETB3	Secondary English Textbook 3
SETB4	Secondary English Textbook 4
SEQIP	Secondary Education Quality Improvement Project
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
TLM	Teaching and Learning Materials
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WHO	World Health Organizations

ABSTRACT

The present study is a social semiotic analysis of gender representation in selected Kenyan secondary school English textbooks. Textbooks are a powerful instrument for creating social identities. As a result, how male and female genders are represented in textbooks can have a big impact on how students perceive men and women in society. As a result, eliminating gender biases in textbooks and, in turn, the curriculum, is an essential step in achieving equality in education, which is a fundamental objective of both Education for All and the Sustainable Development Goals. Reviews of textbooks indicate that minor concerns regarding gender roles and representations are obvious, despite efforts to address differences in the visibility, position, and perceived potential of males and females represented in textbooks. The objective of the present study is to identify how gender is depicted in English textbooks by first analysing linguistic signals. Second, the study explores how gender is represented in the visual signs. Third, the study assesses the social factors that underlie how gender is portrayed in the chosen secondary English textbooks from Kenya. Explanatory sequential research design was used in the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Purposive approaches were used to sample four textbooks that were provided and approved by the Ministry of Education. The four textbooks are those used in Kenya's secondary schools to facilitate the teaching and study of English. Social semiotics theory, SFL theory, and Social construction of reality theory (Berger & Luckmann, 1991) served as the study's guiding principles. All of the gender-related data was manually generated for each item. A document analysis guide derived from the model for analysing visual images by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) and Systemic Functional linguistic framework by Halliday (2004, 1994) was employed in the analysis of quantitative data from the visual and linguistic signs in the four textbooks. A number of central outcomes emerged. From the analysis, first variations were noted in the number of males and females in both linguistic and visual signs. The findings revealed that males' images transcended the females' in the textbooks. More males were also portrayed playing the actor role and they were involved in more instances in both non-transactional and transactional actional processes, in addition to having more gazes towards the reader than the females. The linguistic analysis showed that males outnumbered the females in the theme and rheme position, in the relational, mental, material and verbal processes. On the analysis of the social contexts that underlie the representation of gender in visual and linguistic signs, it was revealed that in addition to unequal portrayals of both genders, gender stereotypical depictions were observed which may be interpreted as gender bias favoring males. Certainly, the analysis revealed that visuals and linguistic signs implicitly and explicitly represented males as superior to females. The study recommends that materials for English textbooks be created and chosen with gender concerns in mind. The Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development could begin a review and revision of the textbooks to ensure that there is a gender balance in the written and visual cues. The study is expected to advance our understanding of language and gender, language in the classroom, and applied linguistics.

Key words linguistic signs, visual signs, social contexts, representation, SEQIP, gender,

social semiotics

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Gender: The attributes, behaviours, activities and roles that a particular material developer constructs for women and men and that are regarded appropriate for them.

Gender equality: A concept that males and females have equal and similar conditions, treatment and fortuities for actualizing their full capabilities, human rights and decency in English textbooks.

Gender inequality: The notion of presenting either females or males as being inferior to their counterparts in English textbooks.

Gender representation: The construction or portrayal of males and females in English textbooks.

Instructional materials: Didactic resources intended to make learning and teaching English possible.

Materials: Instruments of instruction used for curriculum implementation.

Productive activities: Jobs that participants in the English textbooks engage in to earn their living.

Responsiveness: The quality of a text to be able to elicit some curiosity and satisfaction among learners.

Semiotics: A study of linguistic and visual signs and the role they play in making meaning in the English textbooks.

Textbooks: Formal manuals of instruction in English subject, particularly for use in secondary schools.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter comprises of the background, which contextualizes the current study to

materials development, gender and language. The chapter further enunciates the

problem under investigation, the objectives, and the research questions. The chapter

also delineates the scope of the study and advances some practical instances where

the study's findings would be significant, in addition to the limitations of the study.

1.1 Background Information

In an ideal situation, female and male genders should be perceived and represented in

similar ways in all spheres of society. Perhaps this is due to the zealous advocacy and

legislation of various institutions throughout the country. Kenya has enacted several

policies to address any form of gender inequality in order to adhere to and achieve the

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), specifically the fifth goal is on gender

equality, the contents of the United Nations (UN) charter that made gender equality

part of international human rights law, and the UN convention that advocates for

gender inclusive language.

Among these policies is the National Policy on Gender and Development (NPGAD)

of 2000, which was adopted in 2007 and later revised in 2015 to be aligned with

Article 27(3–8) of the Constitution of Kenya (2010), which lays emphasis on equality

and freedom from discrimination. Under Article 27(6) of the constitution, the state is

mandated to take regulatory and other related precautions, including anti-

discriminatory programmes and strategies mapped out to reattribute any deprivation

borne by respective entities or factions of people due to past unfairness (Republic of Kenya, 2010). One of the core mandates of the NPGAD is to address gender inequality in all spheres of life.

An Act of Parliament that created the National Gender Equality Commission (NGEC) in August 2011 to advance gender equality and the absence of discrimination also made the revision to the NPGAD of 2000 necessary. To advance gender equity and parity, the Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission (KNHREC) was founded. Due to the crucial role that education, especially basic education, plays in people's lives, both education and quality education have drawn a lot of attention.

In fact, the UN Human Rights Council (2017) advocates that gender equality be incorporated into national school curricula. One way of promoting gender equality is through education in several specific areas, such as the curriculum and materials, attitudes and behaviors, and discipline within school. Generally, gender refers to the overt expression of attitudes that indicate to others the degree of femaleness and maleness in specific societies. These roles, in turn, determine the existence of relations of power between males and females. Gender is moulded by ways of life, social relationships, and the natural environment, and thus it is not the same as sex, which is a biological construct. Gender is able to permeate societal institutions and arts and the mannerisms that are components of our routine, thoughts, and styles of speech (Butler, 1993); gender is realized by means such as architecture, socialization, economic, emotional, and mental credentials, body identification, and clothes, among others (Felderer, 1997). Thus, gender identity is constructed socially through learning activities in schools, society, and in both political and cultural circles (Coates, 2004;

2007). Accordingly, gender is a creation by the people involved or in charge of these social institutions.

The concept of gender is highly connected to language. Research on language and gender was pioneered by Lakoff (1973, 1975), who showed females were more likely to be in lower-status positions compared to males. Language plays a key role in socialization. Members of a given speech community are socialized into their gender and gender roles through verbal, non-verbal, and visual communication. Language is believed to constitute behaviour and influence people's thoughts and feelings (Hodge & Kress, 1993; Van Dijk, 2001). Thus, language is an essential tool that can shape our views about life and bring about changes in our society's realities. Language greatly impacts gender since, without language, gender cannot be expressed or talked about. Linguists from all over the world have conducted studies to determine how gender and language interact. Aydinoglu (2014) believes that gender and language exhibit a reactive relationship; that is, language reflects gender and helps to shape it, and that gender, as a part of human identity, is unstable. Language, like gender, is socially instituted, and language use is a social practice (Fairclough, 1989). Beliefs and systems of a people's way of life are represented by language. Gender and language are mutually related; that is, language constructs and reflects gender.

Studies on language and gender have found that gender influences our own perceptions and our attitudes toward others (Lakoff, 1975; Tannen, 1990; Cameron, 1998; Holmes & Meyerhoff, 1999; Cameron, 2007). These studies have led to an understanding of how gender may be influenced by factors in society and culture. Skliar (2007) notes that gender bias and stereotyping manifest themselves in all

domains of how people live in society, such as the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge, the family, the workplace, the services sector, and the business field. Thus, education is one key element that is capable of maintaining social inequality. Education is manifested through the curriculum and learning and teaching materials that may have stereotypical manifestations of gender (Kobia, 2009).

In the Kenyan education context, all school-going children should acquire primary and secondary education. The Basic Education Act (2013), Section 30, states that every parent should ensure that their child attains "compulsory primary and secondary education." Education requires input from teachers, learners, and society in general in order to be effective, and textbooks are a useful artefact for disseminating knowledge and skills.

A core tenet of the Education for All (EFA) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), gender equality, textbooks play a critical role in forming the social skills, values, and attitudes necessary to achieve this goal. Learning and teaching materials are an instrumental aspect. Textbooks are used in many language programs, and in some contexts, they act as the only language input that learners get to practise language in a classroom setting. Further, learners consume essentially 80–95 percent of classroom time making use of textbooks, and tutors predominantly base their instructive resolutions on the textbook (Sadker & Zittleman, 2007).

Different scholars and organizations have highlighted different perspectives on the presentation of content in textbooks. Toms (2004) highlights the suitability of

textbooks in the presentation of the content, in enhancing consistency and continuity, and in presenting the students with a sense of system and progress. This assertion emphasizes that without textbooks, learning would not progress as scheduled, and the process would be marked by inconsistency and discrimination.

According to UNESCO (2005), correctly used textbooks can serve two purposes: educating and socializing. The role of school textbooks in shaping gender identity and equality in most people is acknowledged. In fact, Mutune, Maroko and Kiai (2022) posit that textbooks are a powerful tool for the construction of social identities, which can be implicitly or explicitly conveyed through the linguistic and visual signs. Textbooks are thus critical tools for conveying direct or indirect meanings about how gender roles are reproduced in society.

Richards (2001) advances that textbooks are essential components in many language programs because they provide students with the primary language input they get and practice in the classroom, especially during sessions at the majority of institutions. Brugeilles and Cromer (2009) assert that textbooks have a substantial influence on society by providing illustrations of the moral concepts, manners, and standards that are required. The perspective by which the universe is portrayed in textbooks serves as a possible socializing tool. When these resources are "processed through the lived culture of teachers and students in the course of their everyday lives in the classroom," they become the "actual curriculum" (Apple, 1989, pp. 282, as cited in Kiai, 2012, pp. 33).

Although textbooks serve a positive role, they are far from flawless, and some academicians have expressed a number of issues regarding these resources. According to Hutchinson and Torres (1994), the structure and presentation of textbooks make them ineffective and inappropriate. A notion may be advanced that textbooks hinder students from attaining communicative competence since they focus on the way language is used to present the items instead of presenting opportunities for acquiring and learning. Ur (1996) asserts that textbooks inhibit teachers from being creative since they confine them to a particular space. Thus, teachers are reduced to mediators and slaves who do not have a free hand in the process of teaching and learning, as minimal collaboration exists between language teaching research and the authors. According to this claim, it can be concluded that there is a disconnect among the researchers, the teachers, and the authors.

Other anti-textbook views suggest that learners are forced to learn other ways of life, which are incorporated in the textbooks. This practice may affect learners negatively by making them alienated from their culture and reluctant to learn. Gray (2000, p. 274) is of the view that course book production is an avenue for the government to benefit economically and disseminate properly packaged ideologies to advance its agenda. Sheldon (1988) further advances that textbook content is ordered illogically and is either too general or too limited for publishers and authors to produce them with the aim of increasing their publications, and that textbooks are a medium of gender disparities, stereotypical behavior, and gender-biased principles (Clarke & Clarke, 1990; Renner, 1997).

Gender imbalances and stereotypes are still pervasive in textbooks used in educational institutions around the world, despite efforts to address differences in the position, visibility, and recognized potential of girls and males depicted in textbooks. Although there have been modifications to Kenyan policy regarding the publication and distribution of textbooks, gender inequality has persisted. The researcher, therefore, wishes to create awareness among stakeholders about gender representation, an unexplored aspect in the selected Kenyan textbooks.

Five years after independence, in 1968, the first textbook policy was formed. A 1968 Education Act established the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) as a curriculum organization to create and distribute resources. According to Chakava (1992), the transition of the education system from 7-4-2-3 to 8-4-4 in 1985 led to revival of publishing industry. The KIE wrote required textbooks by engaging untrained teachers in writing to "produce a manuscript" for a specified subject within a designated time. The documents that were created were handed in to State publishing houses with the focus on developing textbooks within a spelled-out timeframe.

According to Kiai (2012), the 2002 curriculum review that followed the 1998 National Policy of Textbook Publication, Procurement, and Supply's success resulted in a high enrollment in elementary schools in 2003 after the level of education at which it was offered was deemed "free." On the basis of a list of textbooks compiled and approved by the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) on behalf of the MOE, schools were permitted to select and purchase textbooks. The Kenyan government replaced the KIE in 2013 by establishing the KICD in accordance with

Act of Parliament Number 4 of 2013. Each school used money allotted to them through a particular line item designated in the school capitation grant to make purchases. Up until 2017, when the KICD reevaluated the currently approved school textbooks, this textbook regulation was in effect.

The purpose of the re-evaluation was to reach a student-to-textbook ratio of 1:1, which had not yet been accomplished. Although this method of textbook purchase gave schools the ability to choose which books to employ, Kenyan schools spent a lot more money on books than schools in other African nations like Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Madagascar, Namibia, and Rwanda. Enhancing teaching standards is one of the Secondary Education Quality Improvement Project's (SEQIP) four key goals.

SEQIP is a nationwide initiative that aims to address significant obstacles to achieving high standards in education, such as inadequate secondary science, mathematics, and language instruction. Teachers of the three secondary subjects, county and sub-county officials, MoE technical employees, KICD, the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), and the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) were to benefit from the project. The Project Steering Committee (PSC), the Directorate of Project Coordination and Delivery (DPCAD), and the MoE State Department of Basic Education worked together to carry out the project.

One goal of SEQIP was to raise teaching standards by ensuring that students had access to the secondary school textbooks used in Kenya. The accessibility of textbooks was one of the factors that led to subpar educational outcomes. More

English and mathematics textbooks for all secondary school levels were made available under SEQIP. Since January 2018, the MoE has been in charge of overseeing textbook purchases following a reevaluation. The MoE urged all publishers whose books were on the list of authorized textbooks and other educational resources to resubmit the books with revised rates per unit that took into account the expenses of the textbooks' manufacture and delivery. New publications from publishers were required to be reviewed. Textbooks were evaluated based on content, quality, and price per subject and grade. The best-evaluated textbooks were subsequently selected as the respective course books per subject for use in all public schools, nationally. Starting January 2018, the MoE has begun providing adequate textbooks to all of Kenya's public secondary schools through the appropriate publishing companies. All students in public schools are currently given one textbook per topic from the list of books that have been approved. In all Kenyan elementary schools, English is a required subject.

In many developing nations in which English is either a subject or the medium of instruction, English-language textbooks are essential to teaching and learning. The medium of instruction for all other disciplines given in Kenya's secondary school curriculum is also English, which is one of the languages taught there (except for other languages). SEQIP gives selected materials access to and potential influence over the entire nation. The Education and Training Sector National Policy (2015) highlights that to understand gender inequalities and the way they are enacted, continuous and consistent gender analysis needs to be undertaken. Accordingly, the process of materials' evaluation should be continuous while they are being used, as

well as after each implementation period, so that they do not become stale concerning the particular curriculum involved.

Moreover, textbooks are viewed as sociological and semiotic channels for the transmission of the meanings that make up the societal system (Halliday, 1977). In order to assess textbooks from a social semiotic perspective, this study advanced this subject. The analysis of signs and their function as cultural meaning-making devices is known as semiotics (Hall, 1997). Language, gestures, visual signs, sound, and other semiotic resources are some examples cited by Kress (2010). Hence, social semiotics is concerned with "the underlying available repertory of signs and their contextualized use for communication of broader ideas, moods, perceptions, and identities," according to Machin and Mayr (2012). The current study analyzed linguistic and visual signs from the selected textbooks to reveal how gender is represented. It is therefore important to conduct a social semiotic analysis to assess how gender is linguistically and visually constructed in the textbooks that Kenyan learners are exposed to in high school since these materials are not only substantial tools for curriculum delivery but are also tools that can either reinforce gender inequality or help dismantle gender stereotypes.

Sunderland (2000) notes that the representation of gender in textbooks, given their educational role, can also influence perceptions and contribute to challenging stereotypical visions. English textbooks are fundamental tools for teaching and learning because English is not only among the subjects taught in all basic institutions in Kenya, but it is also the primary medium of instruction. Therefore, unearthing and

consequently addressing gender impartiality in English textbooks and; thereupon, the curriculum, is an essential avenue with regard to attaining equality in education as envisaged in both Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Education for All (EFA) models (Mutune, Maroko & Kiai, 2022).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the enactment of the National Policy on Gender and Development (NPGAD), which among other goals is to correct disparities in the visibility, status, and perceived potential of males and females represented in textbooks, reviews on textbook reforms hint that whereas depiction of females have been up-scaled and apparent manifestations of gender addressed, more subtle concerns around gender roles and representation are evident. The depiction of gender in textbooks can largely determine the mental pictures about both females and males that students develop. The Human Rights Council advocates for constant review of programs of studies, textbooks, initiatives, and pedagogical methods to guarantee that they do not advance detrimental gender stereotypes. Nonetheless, females continue to be underrepresented or, when included, are confined to folkloric roles such as household chores and caregivers. This demonstrates how gender parity policies and actual gender identity representations do not line up. Simple gender inequality as seen in textbook illustrations may reinforce comparable inequality in the actual world.

In order to help teachers and students become more aware of gender imbalance tendencies in English learning situations, it is crucial to look into the verbal and visual modes. This study examines the representation of gender identity in the linguistic and visual signs in particular English textbooks used in secondary schools in Kenya from

a socio-semiotic perspective, taking into account the significance of the textbook in the teaching and learning of English as well as the knowledge that gendered linguistic and visual signs are a central mode in them.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze gender representation in selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks from a social semiotic perspective.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were:

1. To analyze the construction of gender in the linguistic signs in the selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks.

2. To analyze the construction of gender in the visual signs in the selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks.

3. To evaluate the social contexts that underlie the representation of gender in visual and linguistic signs in the selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks.

1.5 Research Questions

The following questions served as a guide for the study:

1. How is gender constructed in the linguistic signs in the selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks?

2. How is gender constructed in the visual signs in the selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks?

3. How do social contexts underlie the representation of gender in visual and linguistic signs in the selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks?

1.6 Justification and Significance of the Study

Textbooks that are well-designed can serve as the foundation for high-quality education and societal change. Therefore, given Kenya's support for gender-related policies and the importance of English language textbooks in the secondary school system, it is necessary to raise awareness about the status of gender representation in the chosen English language textbooks among textbook producers, users, and a wider fraternity of stakeholders in education.

This study significantly advances knowledge in the field of gender representation in textbooks and, in turn, the fields of language and gender as well as language and education more generally. The semiotic study adds to understanding of how gender is portrayed in the sampled textbooks.

The study also informs teachers of English of the representation of gender in the Secondary Education Quality Improvement Project (SEQIP) textbooks since they use them in teaching as recommended by the MoE. This knowledge is likely to be instrumental to the teachers of English since it may generally affect how the teachers interpret visual and linguistic content in the textbooks. In addition, the teachers of English are likely to consider the research findings in the process of teaching to ensure that the learners are not in any way affected or disadvantaged by the way gender is portrayed in the textbooks.

The findings of the current study are useful to KICD, the agency that is entrusted with vetting and recommending textbooks that are used in the implementation of the

curriculum. The findings of the study may aid KICD in improving textbooks' evaluation. The findings could be used by KICD to assess whether it is meeting its goals of improving gender responsive materials by recommending gender-neutral textbooks. The research results might also come as an eye opener to the MoE, which is guided by access, equity, and quality. In general, gender is an important development in education because it provides the necessary foundation for designing gender-responsive education. The MoE is likely to study the essential steps to reduce gender disparity for the benefit of secondary school learners in Kenya by looking into the issue of gender representation in textbooks.

Further, the findings of the study are likely to be a revelation to all the stakeholders who are responsible for developing the textbooks. This category of parties involved includes the authors, English language textbooks editors, illustrators, and designers. Material developer awareness regarding how they have represented gender in the textbooks is important so that they may consciously and continually address gender concerns to ensure that the content of English textbooks does not enhance gender inequalities.

Another party that may benefit from the study is the National Gender Equality Commission (NGEC), which was instituted by an Act of Parliament in August 2011. NGEC may use the findings to facilitate integration of a gender perspective in textbooks and present a clear picture to the government (MoE) of all aspects of gender portrayals in the SEQIP textbooks. Again, the findings could be used as a way of monitoring, facilitating, and advising KICD on developing a proper gender

monitoring tool in textbooks. NGEC may also need to work with the MoE and KICD in developing standards useful for the implementation of the National Gender and Development Policy. NGEC is also mandated to conduct and coordinate research activities on matters relating to equality. On this note, NGEC may start collaborating with researchers in universities to help undertake gender-related research. By engaging in such an exercise, the NGEC would be achieving its vision and mandate of promoting gender equality.

1.7 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The present study undertook a social semiotic analysis of how gender is represented in selected Kenyan secondary schools' English textbooks. There are different types of materials approved for secondary school English in Kenya, including poetry, novels, short stories, oral literature, and textbooks. This study focuses only on textbooks that have been approved as course books to teach and learn English in secondary schools under SEQIP. The researcher focuses on visual and linguistic signs in these SEQIP English textbooks, which have been approved for use in secondary schools in Kenya, namely, Mwangi, P., Kisirikoi, F., Gichema, W., & Nyaa, T. (2018). *Secondary English an integrated approach form one students' book* (Fourth Edition); Kenya Literature Bureau Publishers and Printers, Indangasi, H., Mwangi, P., Gecaga, C., & Mukunga, M. (2018). *A secondary English an Integrated Approach Form Three students' book* (Second Edition); Kenya Literature Bureau Publishers and Printers, Mwangi, P., Kisirikoi, F., Gichema, W., & Mukunga, M. (2018);*Secondary English an integrated approach form two students' book* (Third Edition).Kenya Literature Bureau Publishers and Printers and Kiai, A., Odour, B., & Owuor, E. (2018); *New Horizons in English Form 4 Student's Book A Course for Secondary Schools*, East African Educational Publishers.

In terms of theory, the aspects of social semiotics theory that were used to analyze visual signs are unidirectional transactional action, bidirectional transactional action, and the realizations of vector under the representational tenet. Aspects of social distance, the image act, the point of view of the interactive metafunction, and framing and positions of elements in the compositional metafunction. of the social semiotic theory The linguistic signs were analyzed within the tenets of the SFL theory, which includes the mood system and interpersonal metafunction. Aspects of the verb processes (mental, material, relational, and verbal) involve ideational metafunction. The role of the speaker is based on the type of verbs, the theme, and the rheme structure under the textual metafunction. Aspects of visibility (inclusion and exclusion) in Social Construction of Reality theory include the use of pronouns and nouns; conversation turns; order of mention (firstness); adjectives used for males and females; and the classification of males and females as second class. The other aspect that the researcher utilized was the grammatical, lexical, and syntactic resources of the linguistic signs. Adjectives and pronouns used to refer to animal characters especially in narratives were excluded in this study.

Visual signs were analyzed using the three metafunctions of social semiotics theory. The study utilized the image act, the actor-goal relationship, social distance, and point of view as the images' representational resources. The context that underpins gender representation in visual and linguistic signs was examined in terms of gender roles, occupational activities, and conversational contexts within Kenya's cultural backgrounds.

The findings from this study are limited to what is discernable from analysis of the selected texts and does not include input and insights from either producers or consumers of the targeted content.

1.8 Summary of the Chapter

This introductory chapter has depicted the way the present study fits within the recent developments of gender and textbook studies. The chapter has hinted at some absence of adherence to policies and legislation on gender equity and equality in English-language textbooks used in Kenyan secondary schools. The chapter has also delineated the specified research objectives and questions that the research sought to answer and presented their significance along with their scope and limitations. The succeeding chapter develops this one by examining more deeply the conceptual and theoretical framework within which the current study was anchored.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines literature related to the research and describes the study's theoretical framework. The chapter has three main purposes. The first section reviews the basic concepts used in the thesis: concept of gender and gender representation, gender policy in Kenya, gender in applied linguistics and textbooks. The second section describes gender, linguistic signs and visual signs, and research gaps on gender representation in textbooks. Lastly, the chapter explores theories that underpin social semiotics research.

2.1 The Notion of Gender and Gender Representation

This sub-section expounds on the angles from which different scholars in different disciplines and organizations have examined the concept of gender. Biologists, sociolinguists, and researchers such as Correll & Ridgeway (2004) and Bergwall (1999) have highlighted the different ways in which gender is manifested. These manifestations have been expounded in the subsequent paragraphs.

A common argument is that men/boys and women/girls are biologically different, which determines gender and results in outstanding differences in what they are able to do and deal with conclusively. The differentiation between sex and gender strives to counter beliefs that biological differences account for imbalances between females and males. Some scholars believe that higher testosterone levels in males make them more aggressive than females (Batrinos, 2012 & Hargrove & Heusel, 1996).

Biological advancements in society's construction of males and females are frequently used to justify the privileges accorded to men and boys. It can be argued that the differences in biological orientation between men and women do not provide sufficient grounds for society to push and implement its traditional gender roles and imbalances. As Graddol and Swann (1989) advance, the different lives that males and females are exposed to cannot be accounted for by mere biological differences between the sexes.

The World Health Organization (WHO) (2009) perceives gender as a social construction of roles, behaviors, activities, and qualities that a particular society gives to males and females. Based on this definition, a society can either break or make men/boys or women/girls depending on how they model them. This is so, as society is the one that comes up with the activities that are assigned to men and women. Butler (1991) advances that gender is a societal construction that classifies its members into social classes and status. The assigned roles and duties become the norm for a particular gender, and this leads to gender stereotypes. In Kenyan societies, women are mostly associated with the nurturing of babies and generally undertaking household chores, while men are known to be involved in undertaking jobs such as taking care of livestock and are generally involved in outdoor activities. Visual images and linguistic items, which advance role differentiation based on gender, are said to promote gender stereotypes. The current study sought to find out whether such stereotypes are manifested in the sampled textbooks

Gender representation can be referred to as speaking or scripting about a phenomenon by language (Hall, 1997). The presence of representation is obvious and can be examined in a visual, printed, or oral text. In verbal and printed materials, gender is also represented by the words that are used, for instance, verbs, naming words, and modifiers. In addition to the individual words, representation in language can be attained by the diverse patterning of words in a sentence, such as in intransitive sentences, which mean giving either a doer's or a recipient's role or an entity in the sentence in either an active or passive construction.

The notion of "representation" involves the way in which something or someone is normally articulated by another party (Sunderland 2004). Hall (1997) suggests three approaches that advance how the representation of meaning operates using language. The reflective approach assumes that language mirrors or reflects the world. That is, meaning reflects what is in the world. The intentional approach holds that language articulates only the speakers', writers', or illustrators' intentions. That is, the meanings emanating from the speaker or writer in a language play a significant role in representing the world.

The constructionist approach, which is an aspect of interest in the study, emphasizes that meanings are created through language and that the audience plays a significant role in constructing the meaning of a representation (Hall, 2003). Language is a signifying system that makes use of signs to represent meaning. A representation is made up of the actual phenomenon, the lifestyle and attitudes of the audience, the individual reactions of the members of the audience, and the specific society in which

the representation is taking place. The constructionist approach to representation greatly borrows from Saussure's conviction that meaning production relies on language, which is a system of signs (Culler, 1976). The sign is analysed into the signifier (the visual or the word) and the signified (the idea).

Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) perceive representation as a procedure whereby sign makers, whether old or young, try to come up with a representation of a given idea, whether substantial or semantic. This kind of representation involves only the criteria and not the whole object, and perceives the society as a key player in creating gender (Berger & Luckmann, 1991). This form of representation is metaphorical in nature. This study adopts the constructionist approach to representation, for it is based on the construction of gender, and for the portrayal of gender in the textbooks to be revealed, signs (words and visuals) were analyzed.

Desprez-Bouanchaud, et al. (1999) define gender as the economically, socially, politically, and culturally determined qualities and opportunities that are aligned with being male or female. Gender dictates that either men or women in several social groups should perform different activities. For instance society determines who accesses and controls resource and, assigns activities that are expected of men and women. The assigned roles and duties become the norm for a particular gender, and this leads to gender stereotypes. Butler (1991) claims that performing male and female roles in accordance to the societal norms repeatedly ratifies the categories created by the same society. As earlier noted, in most Kenyan societies, women are mostly associated with raising children and undertaking indoors chores, while men are

assigned jobs such as herding or feeding livestock, among other outdoor duties. Visual images and linguistic items, which advance such inequalities, are said to promote gender stereotypes.

Holmes (2008) highlights six claims that he believes universally concern the notions of gender and language. These highlights have been summarised as follows: Males and females come up with different ways of using language, and the latter are more focused on the affectionate aspects of an interaction than their male counterparts are. Again, women more often than not use solidifying language devices than males, and the females' interactions are geared towards maintaining and increasing solidarity, more so in formalised contexts, while the males' interactions are largely focused on maintaining and increasing their social status and power. Furthermore, in a similar social grouping context, females use more standardised linguistic forms than males. Lastly, in terms of styles of language use, women display a higher degree of flexibility than men do. Although Holmes' observations support the common assumption that there is some common justification underlying the linguistic positions of males and females in the world (Bergwall, 1999), a slew of measures should be pursued to achieve gender parity in all circles.

According to Yule (2010), gender in society entails classifying individuals by their social roles. A school's set-up gives the learners an opportunity to understand and identify themselves as members of a particular society in relation to the school and other learners. In other words, institutions are crucial grounds for constructing and enacting gender. Some scholars argue that schools play an important role in instilling

resistant characteristics of gendered roles that exist in society. From the strand on gender, the current study was informed by the understanding that gender is a construction of society through performance and expectations on its members (Butler,1991). Society dictates the roles to be undertaken by either men or boys or women or girls.

Brussels (2010) recommends that clear guidelines in the writing, publishing, and selection of teaching and learning materials and regular assessment of these materials could certainly be a step towards eliminating gender bias. The guidelines will be handy in ensuring that neither males nor females are discriminated against in the representation of both linguistic and visual signs. According to Brussels (2010), proper guidelines should be set and proper monitoring should be done to ensure total compliance by the authors. In conclusion, gender representation in language textbooks needs to be evaluated to determine whether they are gender-bias-free. In assessing gender representation in the selected textbooks, the researcher focuses on the visual and linguistic signs in the selected English textbooks used in Kenyan secondary schools.

2.2 Gender Policy in Kenya

Kenya has enacted several policies to address any form of gender inequality. One of these policies is the National Policy for Gender Development (NPGAD) of 2000, which was adopted in 2007 and later revised in 2015 to be in line with, first, the Kenya Constitution (2010) that spells out equality and freedom from discrimination in Article 27(3–8). NPGAD (2000) was subsequently revised to be in line with Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012, which forms the basis for Acts of Parliament 2012 and 2013.

The NPGAD of 2000 was intended to eventually bridge gender biases in the education sector by 2010 and achieve gender equality in education at all levels by 2015. However, gender equality has not been realised fully in education. Nzesei (2017) observes that, though achievements have been realised concerning the elimination of gender disparities, gender equality has continued to be elusive even after the 2015 target elapsed. The EFA 2015 national review conducted by the Kenyan government through the MoE in 2014 also noted that though there was progress in making education accessible, it was not substantial.

The NPGAD of 2000 was later reviewed in 2019 by the State Department for Gender in the Ministry of Public Service and Gender. NPGAD conceives of gender issues in education such as a favourable and gender-responsive learning environment and a gender-friendly curriculum, among other issues. One way of ensuring gender sensitivity in the curriculum is by ensuring that the textbooks used in the implementation of the curriculum do not contain any misrepresentation of either males or females. As a result, for full implementation of the NPGAD of 2000, all textbooks used at all levels should depict girls, women, boys, and men equally in visual and linguistic signs. This requirement is also backed up by the 2013 Task Force on "Realignment of Education to the 2010 Kenyan Constitution," which recommended that textbooks and other materials used in the delivery of the curriculum be reviewed to increase possibilities for men/boys and women/girls to participate equally.

The NPGAD is anchored in the constitution, and its vision is enshrined in the mandates of several gender-related commissions. The National Gender Equality Commission (NGEC), which was established by a Parliamentary Act in August 2011 to unbiasedly promote gender equality and freedom from discrimination, is one of the commissions. The most important objective of NGEC is to reduce bias and gender inequities against all groups, including men, women, children, minorities, people with physical disabilities, and marginalized communities. The NGEC was established by the Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission (KNHREC), whose goals include "promoting gender equality and equity generally and coordinating and supporting gender mainstreaming in national development," among other things. The KNHREC mandates ministries and state-owned corporations to engage in gender-responsive planning, implementation, and evaluation. Gender officers have been deployed in the departments to coordinate gender equality in education.

The Kenyan Constitution (2010), Chapter 4, Section 27 (3), advances that all Kenyans should be treated equally and fairly and that they are entitled to equal opportunities in all spheres regardless of their gender. Neither women nor men should be elevated or treated differently than each other. Again, Part 5 of the Kenyan Constitution is about the Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission (KNHRC). One function of KNHRC is to guarantee that males and females are treated equally and to engage in the coordination and facilitation of gender mainstreaming in national development. This highlights the intensity with which Kenyans value equality.

Kenya Vision 2030 is a key pillar and a guide to where Kenya would like to be in the year 2030. Kenya shall be a country that treats its women and men equally and that it will not discriminate against any person based on tribe, gender, color, religion, or ancestral heritage, according to one of the main guiding principles on parity of citizenship. Kenya as a nation would prefer that all of its citizens, male or female, be treated equally. On gender, a Kenya Vision 2030 (2002) objective is to increase the representation of women in the political, social, and economic decision-making processes.

The literature on gender policy in Kenya clearly shows that the issue of gender has been given prominence, as shown by the policies that have been enacted and the commissions that have been established to ensure that the policies are implemented in the different spheres of our country. The current study strives to find out how gender is constructed in the selected textbooks through the linguistic items and visuals used to present the content in the textbooks.

2.3 Gender in Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics emerged as an interdisciplinary field of research into how language is used. Language teaching, sociolinguistics, education, language acquisition, work place communication, language testing, language planning and management, forensic linguistics, and literary linguistics are some related disciplines in which research has been conducted. Research in sociolinguistics has focused on different manifestations of language based on the environment and the users of a specific language. One of the research concerns is the relationship between language and gender. For instance, studies have shown that males dominate talks by making

more turns and using generally more words than females (Dovidio, Brown, Heltman, Ellyson, & Keating, 1988; Mulac, Seibold, & Farris, 2000).It is worth noting that studies on gender and language have definitely influenced debates on education.

Applied linguists, for example, have questioned how the language used by teachers affects content delivery and how male and female spoken and written discourse differs (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998; McMillan et al, 1977; Mehl & Pennebaker, 2003; Mulac et al., 2001). Other issues that have been analysed include the language curriculum, the teaching and learning materials, and how the gender of the authors affects illustrations and language use. In addition, the learners' preferences for subjects based on their gender, the learners' affective factors, which influence their motivation to learn, and the organisation of the syllabus have also been investigated. Further, studies have been carried out to understand teachers' perceptions of the curriculum and how the gender of the teachers influences the language used in the delivery of lessons, in learner engagement, and in means and modes of language assessment. All these studies have yielded the conclusion that effective use of language greatly determines how well learning and other aspects of language teaching take place. Similarly, the language and visuals used in textbooks influence how some concepts are represented. Gender and language are inseparable; language is used to construct gender, and gender shapes language.

Mlama et al (2005) notes that gender is socially constructed even in school by teachers who give different treatment to girls and boys by reinforcing stereotyped gender roles using engendered textbooks in the implementation of the curriculum and

adopting management styles that strengthen gender stereotypes. Mlama et al (2005) notes that stakeholders should strive to create a gender-responsive school regarding methods of teaching, choice and presentation of the recommended teaching and learning materials, interactions at the classroom level characterised by use of inclusive language, and management of academic processes.

Further, Mlama et al (2005) recommends that the instructional materials need to be reviewed to establish how gender is represented. Furthermore, the language used in textbook content encoding should be gender inclusive. Gender as part of our identity, according to Aydnolu (2014), is not a static phenomenon that is influenced by the factors with which we interact. One such factor is the school. In a school setting, textbooks are important tools that are used in teaching and learning. Again, Aydnolu (2014) observes that inculcation of skills and knowledge is considered the finest means to advance gender balance, but the system of communication used for inculcating skills, attitudes, and knowledge can accidentally support gender imbalances. The inequalities are advanced through the language and visuals contained in the textbooks that are used by the teachers and learners. Therefore, teaching and learning materials that are crucial in curriculum delivery should be free from any gender bias to enhance quality education. This, therefore, justifies the fact that the current study is a worthy undertaking to establish how gender-inclusive the selected English textbooks are.

According to UNESCO (1990), it is a universal goal for all to get quality education. UNESCO (2003) also stresses that it is a universal goal for all member countries to

28

achieve gender equality in their didactic systems by the year 2015. This goal is geared towards gender equality in all aspects concerned with the dissemination of the preset educational goals. Gender equality would advocate that both girls and boys have the same chance and opportunity to attend school, that they have access to similar teaching methodologies and curricula free of stereotypes, and that they have access to academic orientation and informed guidance free of gender bias (UNESCO, 2003, p. 116).

The quality of the textbooks in which the curriculum is packaged determines the quality of education. English textbooks specifically are of great concern as they mould the learners' mindsets and influence their worldview. While other researchers have examined different angles relating to gender, language and education, the current study examines school textbooks in an effort to assess how males and females are represented and whether there are any gender roles and stereotypes that are reinforced. Further, the current study is in line with an argument advanced by some scholars who have opined that textbooks should be evaluated continuously to ensure that they are devoid of any gender inequalities.

2.4 Textbooks

A textbook, used as an educational instrument, may be considered an artefact (Rezat 2006a; Johansson 2006). The word "artefact" refers to the creation or recreation of human undertakings in society (Wartofsky, 1979). An artefact is developed through a historical process, through a cultural formation, generated for a specific purpose, and utilised with specified objectives (Rezat 2006b, p. 482). Therefore, textbooks are artefacts since people (authors) produce them to achieve specific intentions (present

the curriculum). As an artefact, the content of the textbooks can be analysed for proper interpretation. As a structured artefact, content analysis can be used to understand the meanings of the elements of the textbook.

Brugeilles and Cromer (2009) define a textbook as an important learning tool made up of visuals and text designed to attain specified educational objectives. Okeeffe (2013) echoes Brugeilles and Cromer by stating that textbooks are widely accepted as a common feature in classrooms around the world because they are important vehicles that promote the delivery of the curriculum. Accordingly, textbooks are designed to achieve preset educational goals, without which the dissemination of the intended objectives of the educational curriculum would be compromised.

The suitability of EFL/ESL textbooks for both learners and teachers cannot be overlooked. EFL/ESL textbooks influence the learners' use of language due to the vocabulary contained in them, while the teachers use the textbooks as important tools for providing language input that is considered valuable during teaching (Richards, 2001). According to Holmquist (2006), if textbooks are well-designed, they can be avenues for learners to explore, learn, and even enjoy the learning experiences. The present study examines gender representation via visual and linguistic signs modes in selected English-language textbooks. Representation in the two modes should ideally be aligned with the recommendations contained in the Kenyan gender policies.

Agun & Okunrotifa (1977) advance the idea that textbooks as instructional materials give learners the intended content at all times as they facilitate teaching and learning.

In fact, textbooks are a physical representation of the curriculum in a classroom setting. Veriara (2015) highlights the key role that textbooks play by stating that a textbook guides the teaching and learning process by supplementing the teachers' knowledge deficits. Carmen (2015) further notes that textbooks as learning materials have some authority over the learners since students rarely disagree with the content. Textbooks contain both latent and manifest content. The manifest content includes direct or noticeable elements, while the latent content is the hidden elements of the textbooks, which need to be interpreted for the underlying or hidden issues to be revealed. The content of the textbooks, whether latent or manifest, should be designed to promote gender inclusivity so that learners get gender-balanced content.

Lahdesmaki (2009) notes that EFL/ESL textbooks contain varied text types that are meant to expose the students to different texts (written, spoken, and visual images). Most of the time, the content reflects society's perceptions of various phenomena, providing learners with a long-term impact on the content. Gender is one of the concepts modelled explicitly or implicitly in EFL/ESL textbooks. Clarke and Clarke (1990) note that English textbooks, regardless of their nature (whether EFL or ESL), may at times contain stereotypes, gender inequalities, and sexist language. The types of males and females' images used and the way they are represented may manipulate the learners' perceptions of various jobs by associating them with either women/girls or men/boys.

The images and descriptions used for either males or females may present either as superior to the other. This scenario is contradictory to the policies enacted to ensure

that the learning materials portray males and females equally. In fact, EFL/ESL textbooks should propagate content that is free from bias and gender stereotypes. Nofal and Qawar (2015) note that the biased construction of gender in EFL textbooks could be an unseen obstruction to gender equality in an educational setting. Biased content in textbooks could compromise the quality of education provided to learners since textbooks are central materials in the implementation of the curriculum.

It can be deduced that textbooks are influential and important artefacts or tools in the classroom, without which curriculum delivery would not be successful. Textbooks contain both latent and manifest content that represents the curriculum. Furthermore, language textbooks play an important role in learners' revision and practice of linguistic skills. However, some textbooks advance gender bias, gender roles, and stereotypes that are obstacles to achieving equality in education. This can be corrected through research or analysis, which may lead to the revision of the textbooks and the development of gender-sensitive vetting tools. Further, one of the best-structured approaches used to analyse the textbook as an artefact is content analysis, as adopted in the present study.

2.5 Studies on Gender Representation in Textbooks

A raft of studies have been conducted on gender representation in textbooks in different contexts. The following discussion highlights the studies and the dimensions of gender that feature in textbooks. Some reviewed studies in this section have been conducted in some Asian countries, which are not limited to Hong Kong, China, Japan, Malaysia, Iran, India, Vietnam, and Indonesia. These studies have revealed gender in the dimensions of firstness (a situation where either female or male is

mentioned first in an utterance or a phrase, clause, or sentence), domestic roles assigned to males and females, occupational roles associated with males or females, and visibility (the number of times that males and females appear in the visuals or linguistic sign).

Lee (2006) examined 20 EFL Hong Kong textbooks to determine the changes as a result of the review in improving gender representation and discovered that gender stereotypes were prevalent despite changes in women's status. Mineshima (2008) conducted a mixed-methods study on how gender is represented in Hong Kong upper secondary EFL textbooks and found chauvinistic gender representations in visibility, and domestic roles dimensions. Amini's (2012) study of 2010-2011 Iranian EFL textbooks revealed that females were less visible than males.

Tajeddin and Enayat's (2010) study noted that males are illustrated as powerful actors and breadwinners while women are passively represented. The study also revealed the gender imbalances in ILI textbooks. Jannati (2015) conducted a study on gender stereotyping revealed by adjectives in selected Iranian textbooks and discovered that the majority of adjectives describing males appeared in the first and second levels. Again, most of the adjectives referring to the females described their physical attributes while those describing the males referred to their personalities. Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012) conducted a content analysis of four Iranian senior high school textbooks and found that males were more visible in the texts and visuals. In Malaysian gender representations, studies have revealed gender imbalances in terms of visibility and occupational roles (Mukundanand, 2008).

Some studies on Japanese gender representations have exposed gender imbalances in firstness, where males occurred in the first positions more times than females(Ruddick 2010),) and in visibility (Mineshima, 2008). On the other hand, Chinese studies on senior high schools textbooks reveal gender imbalances in visibility, occupational roles, and domestic roles (Yang (2010), Zhang & Yang (2003).

Some studies evaluated in some countries in Europe have shown a situation where males and females continued to be presented differently in several educational textbooks. Again, males are overrepresented compared to females. The use of vocabulary contradicts the gender equality principle because males are given major characters. Females, on the other hand, are portrayed shown in typical female jobs that do not require the use of intellect or politics. Saarikivi (2012) studied the EFL textbooks in Finland and found that three groups of verbs: thinking, resting, and motion, and speaking verbs, were used in the description of males and females, and the verbs used to talk about men were more common than those used for women. Similarly, males were described as enthusiastic, famous, and great, while females were described as beautiful and unenthusiastic.

Gender matters research in language textbooks in some African countries such as Uganda, Zimbabwe, Algeria and Nigeria was also evaluated. The reviewed studies yield same findings, which have revealed that textbooks advance gender imbalances. Mutekwe and Modiba (2012) evaluation of gender sensitivity in the Zimbabwean secondary school textbooks complemented by focus group interview of students. the evaluation revealed gender biasness, imbalances, stereotypes and a lot of patriarchal

values and ideologies and the textbooks affirmed that textbooks shape learners' minds and that the gender representations directly or indirectly affected the students.

Abdellay and Benhaddouche (2015) conducted a case study of four Algerian middle school EFL textbook in a bid to find out how male and female gender were portrayed in the dimensions of visibility, family roles and participation in sporting activities. The study revealed that in all the three dimensions, the females were less visible and inferior to the males. Mustapha (2012) sought to reveal gender representation in seven English textbooks used in Nigerian secondary schools. The study showed that males were over-populated while females were under represented and that there were imbalances in visibility of males. Further, males were represented being involved in outdoor economically oriented roles while the females were depicted engaging in indoor activities.

In Uganda, Barton and Sakwa (2012) analysed gender representation in English textbooks and found out that males were more in illustrations and appearances that female oriented stories were fewer than male-oriented stories and that there were more female stereotypes than male ones. There was also use of domestically generated adjectives for males and others referring to emotions and frequent use of the personal pronoun 'He' even when the sex of the person referred to is not stated.

Locally, some studies on gender on Kenyan textbooks have addressed a limited number of issues among them ratio or frequency between female and male gender and less focus is given to the gender roles and actions in representational structures. In

Kitale, Foulds (2009) analysed three social studies textbooks used in primary schools to establish the extent that the textbooks reinforced gender stereotypes. The study indicated that the authors attempted to use gender-neutral language. However, females are displayed undertaking chores at homes and in marginalised societies in Kenya.

Further, Mburu and Nyaga (2012) examined 40 class one to class three mathematics, Kiswahili, history, and civics pupils' textbooks, using an interview guide, a survey for the teachers, and content evaluation to assess how gender role representation affects students' ambitions for academic success. They discovered that gender stereotypes had an impact on students' academic expectations because they generally identified with textbook characters that represented their own gender. Malova (2012) examined how gender roles are represented in five categories in Kenyan secondary school textbooks (the "New Integrated English Series"): visibility, authorship, firstness in dialogues, sex-related occupations and activities within an ethnographic framework, and sex-related occupations and activities and the feminist reproduction theory, which revealed a few attempts to use gender inclusive language.

The current study evaluated textbooks identified as coursebooks by the MoE for use in all public secondary schools in Kenya. This is different from Malova's (2012) study, where, in terms of textbook policy, schools were free to choose the textbooks to use as coursebooks from the orange book. Gachari (2012) conducted a gender analysis of literature set books of selected Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education literature texts using the ABC Gender Analysis Model and the Reader–Response Theory based on Rosenblatt's Transactional Reader-Response Theory (1995) to

examine how gender responsive they were. She found out that all the set books had elements of unequal representation of female and male characters, the language used was gender insensitive, stereotypes of characters and character roles were rife, and gender bias was widespread. Gachari's (2012) study focused on literature set texts that are taught only in forms three and four and are approved for use for a maximum of five years, while the current study focuses on English textbooks used in Kenyan secondary schools.

Another study by Muasya and Kahiga (2018) undertook a documentary analysis of 10 English and Science Early Childhood Education courses, workbooks, and supplementary books to establish how gender messages are portrayed. The study revealed that the authors had tried their level best to improve the gender responsiveness of the textbooks, though gender stereotypes are advanced in both masculine and feminine discourses. The majority of previous research has focused on the ratio or frequency of female and male gender, with less attention paid to gender roles and actions in representational structures, textual metafunction, and interactive processes. Again, the studies have not necessarily addressed the particular materials that the researcher is interested in, which are used by all learners under the current system of procurement by the MoE; hence, the level of exposure of learners to the currently selected materials is high.

From a review of the literature, it can be observed that this is not the first time that textbooks are being analysed for gender representation. The previous studies allude to the current study's scope and rationale, which focuses on gender representation in

textbooks. The current study would ensure that gender inequalities that may be perpetrated through the linguistic items and images are unearthed and addressed accordingly. The majority of these studies have been conducted in other countries, including Germany, Hong Kong, the Dominican Republic, Argentina, Greece, and Spain.

The reviewed Kenya based studies differ with the current study in terms of discipline, scope, and methodology. That is, the studies focused on different materials and primarily applied different approaches to analysing the text. This study adopts a social-semiotic approach. In addition, the studies do not address the concept of social contexts, which underlie the representation of gender in visual and linguistic signs. Lastly, it has been noted that in the previous local studies, the major items of analysis were linguistic (words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and passages), unlike the current study, which includes analysis of both visuals and linguistic items. These gaps portray the major focus of this study.

2.6 Studies on Gender and Visual Images in Textbooks

Earlier studies on textbooks and how gender is portrayed focused more on the frequency or the ratios between female and male gender. However, since 2006 there has been a shift of focus to the visual images. The argument has been that the images are not simply motifs accompanying the linguistic items since meaning is constructed multimodally. Most of these studies have utilized Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006) framework for analyses. This section highlights some of the research work on visual images in textbooks from different countries.

Some studies in European countries have shown that textbooks contain gender stereotypes in images and even illustrations. Thus, there is an imbalance in how men and women are represented. Luengo and Blazquez (2004) conducted a study in Spanish on gender stereotypes in images present in school language and literature textbooks that revealed gender bias both in the qualitative and quantitative data. According to quantitative bias, the number of women's images in the sampled materials was roughly half that of men's. Regarding qualitative bias, the researchers established that there were aspects in the way males and females were represented on images—pale and pink colours were used for women—and that there were also gender stereotypes in the portrayal and behaviour of males and females. The study also revealed perceptual representation, which mostly placed males in public spaces and females in private spaces.

Soda & Murkowski (2007) conducted a Polish study that revealed that illustrations and images in textbooks designed for older learners advanced sexism more than those used by younger ones did. Thus, according to the author, the sampled Polish school textbooks are full of stereotypes, reproduce traditional ideologies, and fail to recognise exemplary women's achievements, goals, and figures. Feminists Magno & Silova (2007, p. 651) note that though textbooks in most post-communist countries were revised in the 1990s, the revised textbooks were still full of gender stereotypes and gendered roles. The role of women in respect to gender, particularly in textbooks, has become a hot topic in Poland in recent years.

Some studies on the Asian continent have shown gender misrepresentation in the visual images in textbooks. Bhattacharya (2017) undertook a study on the way gender is represented in textbooks of English approved by the national government and the state boards in India. He suggests that males and females should be represented equally in textbooks so that growing children are not exposed to engendered roles. The study underscores the role of education in the creation of positive gender perceptions on gender. The study found that men dominated the sampled textbooks in terms of authorship, character visibility, and character firstness. Moreover, more male participants were represented visually than female participants. About participation, males dominated in active participation as displayed by the images.

An additional study by Jannati (2015) used a social semiotic methodology to examine how gender is portrayed in the illustrations in particular Iranian textbooks. The picture study suggests gender stereotypes in the distribution of roles, where women are portrayed as wives, caring for children, and performing home duties. Further, women are relegated to the private sphere, unlike men who are shown undertaking outdoor activities. This study informs the current one in terms of approach and focus. However, the current study draws its data from the English textbooks used in Kenyan Secondary schools while the former draws its data from English textbooks used in Iran Language Institute.

The above review divulges that several studies have been conducted in the Asian continent involving visual analysis of the image to assess gender representation. The most current of such studies is by Dewi (2019) who analysed pedagogical

representation of visual images in EFL Indonesian textbooks within the framework of Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006). This study revealed that out of 232 images, 66% portrayed males while 34% of images were females, thus portraying gender imbalances in terms of visibility, and that the visuals represented an objectivity and impersonality between images and viewer, devoid of a power discrepancy. These findings are echoed by Dabbagh (2016), who investigated how gender was positioned in Iranian ELT textbooks within Kress and Van Leeuwen's (2006) social semiological framework's narrative role, gaze direction, distance, body display, and space and discovered gender bias. Males were more frequently represented as reactive and goal participants than females, and men gazed directly at the viewers more often, while women more often than men gazed away from the viewers.

Furthermore, Yasin (2012) observes that there are several gender stereotypes in Malaysian English school textbook illustrations that favour men and boys, and that females are confined to the private sphere while males are mostly represented in the public domain of society. The women are presented as nurturing the young ones and attending to their husbands, while the males are exposed to the outside world. The current study is similar to this one in that both English textbooks were the primary sources of data. Marefat and Marzban (2014) investigated gender in ILI textbooks through the interactions of the visual and verbal modes, concluding that the visual mode supplements the verbal discourse by underrepresenting and limiting the visibility of females.

Males were significantly more represented than females, according to Ena (2014), research on the visual content analysis of gender representation in Indonesian school textbooks (1113 male images made up 62.8% of the total, compared to 663 female images making up 37.2% of the total). The ideational metafunction proposed by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006) was used by Damayanti (2014) to analyze gender construction in images for primary school students in Indonesia. She found that females were portrayed as more dependent than males and as admirers of the actions performed by the males.

Chipoda and Wassermann (2015) analysed the visuals in junior Malawian secondary textbooks using a visual semiotics framework and social construction gender theory. The study's sample included all visual images of people and revealed that 36 out of 160 visual images featured women, while 124 (78%) featured men, and that women were underrepresented because they were always paired with men. Another study that resonates with the Malawian one is Nunoo, Mensah, Boahen, and Nunoo (2017), which used descriptive statistics to analyse gender representation in basic level English textbooks in Ghana in terms of domestic roles, occupational roles, and frequency of occurrence, and revealed that the visuals representing males were more than the females. The analysis of occupational and domestic roles revealed gender stereotypes. Kobia (2009) investigated the portrayal of gender images within the gender theory in Kenyan primary school English textbooks and discovered a stark gender imbalance in terms of appearances of male and female characters, with male appearances outnumbering males in all aspects.

In their research, Mathuvi, Ireri, Mukuni, Njagi, and Karugu (2012) selected forty children's picture books used to supplement English language textbooks published between 2005 and 2010 for classes 1, 2, and 3 in Kenya to analyse qualitatively how gender is displayed using Goffman's model of decoding gender displays and sexism in visuals. The evaluation showed that there are differences in the way females and males behave and that females have been displayed both positively and negatively in the images.

Igavie (2009), in his study on "An English language textbook study from a gender perspective," notes that almost all the images directed to boys show a stereotypically masculine side, where hard objects such as guns, fast cars, and outdoor activities are associated with males, and pretty visuals of women surround males. Furthermore, Damayanti (2014) studied how gender was portrayed in textbook illustrations for Indonesian primary school students. The study looked at the linguistic texts as well as the visual image as textual analysis. The results showed that there is a gender disparity depicted in Indonesian primary school students' English language textbooks. Interestingly, the illustrations in these textbooks continue the prejudiced gender portrayal that predominated throughout the 1970s and 1980s. Gender representation was portrayed asymmetrically in the images that accompanied linguistic texts. Both males and females were almost equally portrayed as actors.

Lie (2001) examined 42 Indonesian textbooks, finding glaring gender disparities in the proportions of male and female characters in the reading sections and the illustrations accompanying the texts."The ELT Coursebook as a Cultural Artefact"

was studied by Gray (2007). He set out to determine the format that cultural content has taken in ELT global coursebooks published in Britain since the 1970s, the rationale behind such a format, the opinions of practicing teachers about the nature of cultural content, and the practitioners' perceptions of the connection between culture and English language instruction.

The researcher discovered that the majority of the fictional characters are predominately male after analysing data in accordance with Kress and Van Leeuwen's social semiotic and multisensory theories. In conclusion, there are more males than females depicted in the literature, artwork, and tapes. According to Gray, "such misrepresentation of women is often viewed as sexism," or prejudice (in this instance, by omission) towards women. The analysis revealed that men were represented as occupying a wider range of jobs and roles than those occupied by women. The current study is similar to the former one in that the primary source of data is a textbook, as is the theory within which the data was analysed.

From the reviewed studies from all regions, there are gender imbalances, gender stereotypes, and gendered roles, which have been revealed by the images. It is evident that most of the studies have utilised different theories, and those that have utilised the social semiotic theory have not applied the three metafunctions, as they have in this study. Again, the study population of the current study is different from the conducted studies

The reviewed Kenyan studies focused on primary school and pre-school textbooks, apart from Gachari's (2012), who analysed set books, while the current study is based on secondary school English textbooks.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This section discusses the study's theoretical justification. The three frameworks that were utilized to categorize the components of gender which the current study concentrated on are described in this section. The theories include Kress and van Leeuwen's (1996; 2006) theory of visual social semiotics for the analysis of visual images, Halliday's (2006) Systemic Functional Linguistics theory for the evaluation of language signs, and the Social Construction of Reality theory as a basis for the study of gender. The next section delves into SFL theory, social semiotics theory, and Social Construction of Reality theory in turn.

2.7.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics Theory

One of the main ideas that is used to explain how people utilize language in various social circumstances is the Systemic Functional Linguistics Theory (SFL). The SFL approach was adopted by this study since the theory is ideal for analysing gender representation in relation to linguistic signs. The SFL theory was established by Halliday in the early 1960s. According to Halliday (1978), language systems evolve as systems that have the potential to create meaning or sets of resources that determine how speakers use language in a given social context. SFL emphasises language functionalities, such as what language is used for. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory is one of the substantial theories, which is used largely to account for use of language in different social contexts. Language attends, engages, transforms, integrates and orders.

Halliday (1978) highlights on the three mefunctions for which English language is organized. Like the visual signs, linguistic text carries out three key functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions, which are the major regard of this research (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). The three metafunctions serve as a connection point between language and the outer world. These language processes are referred to be ideational, metafunctions, and metalinguistic by Halliday (1978). interpersonal and textual respectively.

a) Interpersonal Metafunction

The interpersonal metafunction, constructs interpersonal dynamics. This metafunction allows participants to enact their interactions with the world. According to Halliday (1994, 2004), the interpersonal metafunction, language functions as a medium of interactions that is referred to the enactment and preservation of social interactions. Language expresses societal functions from the basic conversation roles such as roles of interrogator or informant, to the more composite role with regard to the power of the user of a language such as in situations where language portrays attitudes of the speakers.

The interpersonal metafunction deals with the acts of the participant in relation to each other brought out by the speakers pronouncement of his/her attitudes and judgements to influence others (Halliday,1978).). This metafunction is employed to establish the speaker's role in the speech situation and his or her association with others. One of its major linguistic structures is mood (Matthiessen & Halliday 1997), which is actualized by statements, commands, and questions. Mood processes were used to express gender differences in the forms of declaratives, interrogatives, and imperatives. The subject and finite features are what bring out the grammatical

46

representation of the clause, where the subject represents the participant in the clause and the finite relates to the helping verb. Mood choices determine gender superiority. The frequency of males and females appearing as subjects in declaratives, imperatives, and interrogatives was calculated using the mood choices as a measure of gender superiority. The gender that is represented engaged in commands and declaratives is considered more powerful than the other while the gender that is involved more in the interrogative mood is deemed less powerful.

Further, the concept of image act was applied in the analysis of the written modes, whereby the demands and offers are realised as personal pronouns: "he/she/they." Again, the concepts of offer and demand are realised through speech acts. In the offer of information in the form of a statement and realised in the indicative mood, the subject comes before the finite elements (men cannot live on food alone). The offer of goods and services is in the form of a question (will you take tea?). The demand for information speech act is perceived in an interrogative mood (could be a yes-or-no question or a wh-questions), whereas the demand for goods and services is perceived as a type of command. The clauses or sentences in which the males or females are represented as engaged and offering either information or goods and services were interpreted as being less powerful than those where they (the gender) demand either information or goods and services. Table 2.1 shows the mood types, how the moods are realized, the function of each mood and examples in a classroom set-up.

Table 2.1 Interpersonal Metafunction through Mood

Mood	Function	Example from classroom discourse	Implications for analysis
Declarative mood: Statements	To give information, to construct a fact, even when it is not a fact	Teacher: Mira! Using equations, diagrams, and written explanations, we will today gain a grasp of what a linear function is. Can someone please describe what a linear function is? ... [Silence] Okay, [Reads passage from textbook] Examine each of the textbook's graphs. Explain why you believe the graph depicts a linear function.	In the interest of investigating social roles and power dynamics in classroom interactions, literature, films, and the media, text analysts, including students, can analyze the use of questions, statements, and commands (e.g., who has the right to speak; who is silent; who uses remarks to construct authoritative "facts; who asks questions and engages in meaning negotiation; who gives commands and how instructions are taken up or opposed; and who codes mixes and for what purposes).
Interrogative Mood: Questions	To ask for information or for someone to do something; to make an offer		
Imperative mood: Commands	To command or to express something forcefully		

The three mood types were instrumental in analysing gender within the interpersonal metafunction.

b) The Ideational Metafunction

Ideational metafunction, as its name implies, creates concepts and experiences based on information from the outside world. These various verb forms create participants, which are functionally distinct types of nouns or noun groupings.

The lexico-grammatical system of transitivity realizes patterns of human experience. This topic is addressed in this study by taking into account the total number of men and women who perform or receive an action. The functions of the listener and the speaker (Halliday, 2004). This level enables participants to construct and represent the experiences and occurrences in the world using the transitivity system: the

circumstances, the roles participants undertake, and the process types involved. Ideational metafunction construes experiences and ideas using field resources. The selection of defined kinds of verbs known as processes is one way in which transitivity patterns are created. The processes construe the functioning of varied types of nouns and noun phrases referred to by participants. Transitivity includes a number of aspects that partly involve the four essential kinds of processes in English. These processes are verbal, mental, relational, and material **(**Halliday, 1994, p. 109**)**.

Mental processes are accomplished by verbs such as *feel, believe, think and believe,* and regard roles such as *senser.* The senser is the participant who undertakes the action of *feeling, believing, thinking,* or *knowing.* The mental processes were analysed in order to determine the gender that was presented as believing, feeling, thinking, or seeing, and to determine whether males and females are portrayed as having similar feelings toward some experiences, or if there are some mental experiences that men or women have never had. Material process verbs essentially give details on the event or action. The person that causes the action is called the *actor,* and the one who receives the action is called the *goal* (Halliday, 1994, p. 109). The material process is analysed to reveal if either females or males are represented with the highest occurrences or have greater power, and to establish the active participants in the textbooks.

Verbal processes involve saying or writing processes that are signalled by terms such as *demand*, *promise, pray, suggest, say, tell enquire, nominate, inform, ask, cry,* etc. The basic roles undertaken by the participants are recipient, sayers, and *message*: the participant involved in the saying or writing is called the sayer (Halliday, 1994, p. 138). Verbal processes were analysed to determine the gender that has the most

number of turns in a conversation and the gender whose words are reported. Also, to find out the impact of the speaker on the listeners and whether they exercise some dominance, for instance in the speech acts they undertake, in addition to giving information on the key issues of concern to the speaker, Thus, analysis of the verbal processes was undertaken to reveal the gender that controlled the conversations.

Finally, relational processes in their simplest form involve entities that are identified by reference to one of their qualities. The processes may be actualized by stative verbs such as *equal, seem, remain, contain, have, be, stay,* etc. The process relates to participant roles called *token* and *value.* Possessor and possessed are important roles in this process. The study utilised the carrier and attribute aspects of the relational process by revealing the kinds of attributive words (adjectives) used for males and females. The relational process was analysed to establish the group of males and females playing the possessor role. A participant is able to undertake varied roles based on the types of verbs they are connected to in a sentence (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Table 2.2 demonstrates the relationships that exist between the processes and the participants**.**

Table 2.2 Processes Types

Process type	Examples	Transitivity and participants roles
Relational	Become, appeared, remain, have, be	Ndanu was kind and responsible. Carrier attribute
Mental	Discover, contemplate, think, perceive, believe, love	Gitonga loved the girl Senser phenomenon
Verbal	Protested, ordered, confessed, mumbled, pleaded, explained	He categorically declared that it was his right to live.
Material	Bought, saw	She bought a little sugar.

c) Textual Metafunction

The third aspect is the textual metafunction, which organizes ideas and interactions into meaningful acts (p.112). In addition, this metafunction facilitates the management of how communication flows coherently and in a unified manner. Theme and rheme structure is one of the primary textual frameworks (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997). This is known as creating harmonious theme/rheme patterns in SFL. The "psychological subject" or "subject of discourse" is the theme (Brown & Miller, 1991, p. 343). The message's final component, rheme, expands on the theme. The terms "theme," "rheme," and "focus" here allude to sentence structure. This study appears to be interested in aspects of grammatical structure within sentences that are connected to the communicative role of sentences in texts.

Halliday (1978) likens construction of sentences in English with composition of a piece of music where a part of the meaning of the sentence is derived from any of the three elements. He emphasizes on having a unified text: language, context and the social structure, and that language has a social function necessitated by the uniqueness of its system of signs. Language as a social semiotic means that language must be interpreted within a social cultural context (Halliday, 1978). Context is one central way in which language is analysed.

According to this argument, language and culture work together to produce social positions. Three crucial strands are employed by Halliday to model the situation's context, which has elements that are closely related to the language that was used to construct the text (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997). Tenor, which indicates who is/are engaged in the information exchange (dialogues) and the relationships among them,

and mode, which indicates the role that language is playing in the communication and what form it takes, are the attributes that were applied in examining the social contexts that underlie the representation of gender (written or spoken).

2.7.2 Social Semiotics Theory

The social semiotics theory arose from Ferdinand de Saussure's work on the patterns and functionalities of language as a system of meaning-making signs. He emphasised the arbitrary nature of the relationships revealed by signs as either the signifier (sign) or the signified (meaning). The theory builds on Saussure's insights by looking at the role of social processes in forming language codes and communicative acts. Halliday (1978) advanced Saussure's insights by incorporating the term "social semiotics" into the theory. He perceived language and society as a unit that could not be separated. He broadened the scope of written language by introducing the semiotic approach.

Hodge and Kress (1988) advanced social semiotics by highlighting the functions of semiotic systems in social practice. The aspect of interpretation is introduced into social semiotics, where the producers of a message depend on the consumers' interpretation to achieve the intended function. Hodge and Kress (1988) build on de Saussure's description of the linguistic sign as arbitrary; that is, the relationship between the signifier (sign) and the signified (meaning) is arbitrary. The terms referent and representation are also introduced at this point. Hodge and Kress (1988) emphasise that society dictates meanings and interpretations.

Currently, the scope of social semiotics theory has been extended by introducing the aspect of visual images and how modes of communication combine with the theory. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) hold that, just like the other semiotic modes, the visual

mode should serve as a complete communication system by meeting the communication requirements. Visual image grammars, like language, emerge through social interaction and are based on Halliday's (1988) interactional, ideational, and textual metafunctions.

According to van Leeuwen (2003), semiotics involves studying signs to get meaning, and a sign is anything that stands for or represents something; it could be written texts or visuals such as images (Parsa, 2012, p. 841). Signs are made up of two components, the signifier and the signified (Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006). Meanings can only be revealed by studying the signs systematically. The signifier is literally an object or word (Parsa, 2012). The current study looks at the written modes and the visuals (signifiers) used in the selected English textbooks and how they construct gender. .According to Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006), social semiotics is concerned with how people maximize semiotic resources or signs to produce objects and communicative texts, and semiotic resources include all acts and artefacts used to convey messages (Van Leeuwen, 2005). Color, space, a gaze, social distance, size, shape, and picture details can be social semiotic resources of the image, whereas the representational resources of written modes can be syntactic, grammatical, lexical, and typographical. This study is interested in the space, social distance, point of view, image act or gaze, and size of the visual and the syntactic, lexical, and grammatical resources of the written modes of the selected texts.

The visual social semiotic theory borrows heavily from Halliday's (1994) and Halliday & Matthiessen's (2004) theories of metafunctions. Halliday's theory suggests that language fulfils three metafunctions simultaneously, namely ideational,

interpersonal, and textual. Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996, 2006) have enhanced social semiotic theory with these metafunctions. They contend that all visual codes perform a variety of communication tasks, including compositional, interactive, and representational ones. The three main functions—ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions—are all carried out by both verbal and visual modes (Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006). However, this does not imply that linguistic modes function similarly to those of the visual ones; there are specific ways of depicting the world that can be expressed exclusively via language, exclusively through visual image, or through both (Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006). As a result, the researcher concentrated on how gender is portrayed in the chosen textbooks through both linguistic and visual modes.

This section discusses and evaluates Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) description of the ways that varied types of visual images organise and represent their meanings representationally (idealistically). The two sections following this one discuss and review how the images strive to communicate to their would-be viewers in interpersonal terms and the different ways that meanings are organised in visuals; on the page, in compositional or layout terms, that is, the major tenets of this theory that are relevant to the current study are discussed below:

a) Representational Metafunction

Images that depict the connections between objects, people, and locations are under the purview of the representational metafunction. Namely, how experience is represented visually. Narrative and conceptual components encode the visual. An object is referred to as a goal, and a subject is known as an actor in the narrative role. According to Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006), there are four possible participant

roles: actor, goal, behaver, and recipient. In the actor position, participants execute an action for another person. In the goal role, players receive an activity from another participant. The participant can also function as a "reactor" or "recipient" of an event or circumstance. The gender that holds the actor position in the linguistic expression is valued more highly than the gender holding the goal position, however in the visuals, the individuals who are depicted as actors are valued higher than those who are given the actions.

Actional processes, which consist of an arrow emanating from the actor, are of two types: non-transactional (involving the actor only) and transactional (involving the actor and a goal). In written language, actional processes are realised by the notion of transitivity in sentences. Non-transactional actional process is determined by the use of intransitive verbs (the action of the verb affects anything or nothing), while transactional actional process is equivalent to transitive verbs whose action is directed at something or somebody. This aspect was used to show the manifestation of gender. In instances where a member of either gender does something to someone, this is interpreted as superiority on the part of the doer of the action. Transactional processes can either be unidirectional, in which case a vector links two actors (the participants), or bidirectional, in which case a vector connects two interactors (the participants), where the variable could be said to be originating from and being directed at both participants. Second, reactions that result from a participant's gaze direction can either be transactional reactions, in which case an eyeline variable connects two participants (i.e., the reacter-phenomenon), or non-transactional reactions, in which case an eyeline vector begins from a participant (i.e., the reacter), but does not point at

another contributor (no phenomenon). The realization of the vectors is shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Three Basic Types of Vector Realizations

Type of vector	Its realization
Unidirectional transactional action	'A vector connects two human beings, an Actor and a Goal, according to Kress and van Leeuwen, (2006:74).
Bidirectional transactional action	'Two Interactors, such as two participants who are staring at each other, are connected by a vector.
Non-Transactional action	"A vector, created by a (often diagonal) displayed element, or an arrow, originates from a player, the Actor, but does not target at any other Participant"). No such thing as a goal. Action is received by nobody or nothing.

Vectors are the only ways through which interactions between objects within images take place (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). According to Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006), the representational structures are related to the visual modes representing people, animals, places, or objects. Thus, before analysing any visual, the researcher should take note of its type and establish any implied interpretations, for example, gender stereotypes, and any deeper interpretations of the visual.

b) Interactive Metafunction

The interaction between viewers and participants is referred to as the interactive metafunction by Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006). In other words, how the images interact and speak to the audience. The three components that make up the interactive elements are the image act, social distance, and point of view, as per Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006). The direction of the participants' gaze during the image act is important since it can either be demanded of them or directed away from them (offer).

Demands have the potential to create an imagined relationship with participants since they speak to them directly and have the power to either inform or command attention (Stoian, 2015).

In a visual setting, a participant's direct gaze is understood as a demand, and the observer is expected to respond or behave in a particular manner. The participant is seen gazing away from the observer in a graphic that offers a deal nevertheless. In this instance, the spectator must do a comprehensive investigation into the participant who is presented as an object. Depending on the visual act, the participants may be engaged or disengaged. Again, if everyone is looking at the same item, it suggests that they are working toward the same thing. Those who were alone were thought to be more powerful compared to those paired with other participants. All these aspects of the image act were used in the analysis of the visuals.

Social distance is the vantage point from which people, places, and objects are depicted, and it converts visual cues into indicators of physical proximity in daily interactions (Macken-Horarik, 2004; p. 14; Leeuwen, 2006). Distance relates to visual frame size. Social distance is sensed by looking at how big or small the frame is. Social distance manifests itself in various ways. Heads can be seen at a very close range, while only heads and shoulders can be detected at a close range. At medium distance, the participants' waist and up are seen, while at a medium shot, they are seen from the knees up. At a medium-long distance, the participant's whole figure is detected, while at a long distance, some space is detected around the participant's whole figure.

The social distance chosen shows the relationship that exists between those viewed and the participants. A very close shot can be interpreted as meaning that the viewer and the represented participants are intimate, while a long shot brings about a sense of impersonality. The medium shot depicts that the participants are social and objective (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). The aspects of distance in images and corresponding social interpretation is shown in Table 2.4

Table 2.4 Classification of Distance in Images and its Social Interpretation

The different types of camera shot	The different types of Represented distances	What these represented /spatial distances mean in social terms
'Close shot'/'Closeup'	Close personal distance: 'the head and shoulders are [can be seen]'	One can hold the other participant
'Medium-close shot'	Far personal distance: '[we are shown] from the waist up'	two participants can hold fingers if they both stretch their hands
'Medium-long shot'	Close social distance: '[we are shown] the whole figure	A little further away
'Long shot'	Far social distance: the whole figure with space around it is shown	The distance to which people move when somebody says, 'Stand away so I can look at you

In terms of point of view, two distinct sorts of images are highlighted: an objective image that conveys all pertinent information, and a subjective image that does so from a particular point of view (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 2006). Participants may also be displayed vertically or horizontally. The three pictures in the vertical dimension—low angle, high angle, and eye level—show the participants' power relationships. Due to the low perspective, it appears as though the participant is stronger than the audience. The participant is seen from above in the high-angle photo. In other words, the observer has influence over the participant. The participant and the viewer are both at

eye level in the eye-level shot. This implies that the participant and the viewer are on an equal level and share an equal amount of authority.

On the other hand, the horizontal dimension, which can take either a frontal or an oblique dimension, elaborates on the extent of being involved with the observers (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006). The participants are engaged in the action when they are viewed from the front. When the vanishing point(s) is (are) positioned inside the vertical limits of the visual, a frontal angle is realised; when the vanishing point(s) is (are) positioned outside the vertical limits of the image, an oblique angle is realised. In linguistic terms, the possessive pronouns *his, her,* and *their* are used to denote the horizontal angle. The usage of possessive pronouns in textbooks was used by the researcher to identify the gender construction of the textual mode. Table 2.5 and Table 2.6 shows the elements of the vertical and horizontal point of view that were applied to comprehend how gender is portrayed in the visual signs.

Table 2.5 Manifestations of Vertical Point of View

Type of shot	Realisation	Interpretation
Low angle	The participant shown from below	Participant is more powerful than the viewer
High angle	Participant shown from above	Viewer has power over the participant
Eye angle	Viewer and participant are at the same level	Viewer and participant are equal

Table 2.1 Manifestation of the Horizontal Point of View

Extent of involvement	Realization	Interpretation
Frontal	Vanishing points within vertical boundaries	Participants involved in an activity(active participants)
Oblique	Vanishing points outside vertical boundaries	Participants are passive.

c) The Compositional Mode/ Metafunction

How meanings are created is related to the compositional mode or metafunction. Specifically, how representational and interactive processes work together to create a unified whole (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006). The study looked at compositional elements' framing and placement to investigate how gender is conveyed in visual signs. Important information about the photos is revealed by how the elements are arranged in relation to one another. The exhibited images' left-hand portions are seen as outdated information, whilst the right-hand elements are seen as fresh data. The components at the peak are regarded as perfect or optimistic. The elements shown at the bottom are thought to be true or factual.

The other component of the framework that was used to determine how gender is constructed in the selected English textbooks is space, which has three values: home, workplace, street and neighborhood, leisure areas, and shops. Space was analysed within home-set up (household chores), workplace or the occupational roles and the leisure activities. These aspects were used to reveal the contexts within which gender is constructed in linguistic and visual signs and is represented.

The social context is very instrumental in determining the producers' interests. According to Kress (2009), linguistic and visual signs represent the way the world is, the way people are related socially, and the way social entities are connected. According to Kress (2003), social semiotics shows that the agency of social context humans is essential to sign-making and that interpersonal metafunction enables comparative examination of how speakers engage with one another and negotiate

information or services. According to the theory of social semiotics, individuals employ the resources that are at their disposal in the particular social and cultural contexts in which they engage to produce signals, and by doing so, they transform the resources. In other words, signals are seen as constantly being created through a system in which the signified (what is intended) is realized through the most appropriate signifier (that which is available to make the intended actual) in a particular social situation.

To sum up the social semiotics theory, the three strands were used to interpret how gender is represented in the selected visual signs. Again, the context that underlies the representation of gender in visual and linguistic codes was analysed in terms of gender roles, occupations, activities, visibility, and gender attributes within the cultural background of Kenya as a country.

2.7.3 Social Construction of Reality Theory

The study is based on gender and there has to be a gender framework, which acts as lenses through which gender construction was revealed. Berger and Luckmann (1991) are the proponents of the social construction of reality theory that proposes that human interactions in the society construct identity and that the human interactions are context related. These creations of society by human beings and their interactions is what Berger and Luckmann (1991) referred as habitualization. The scholars explicate that habitualization as any action that is casted into a pattern due to being undertaken frequently and repeatedly (Berger & Luckmann, 1991). Further, meanings are created and retained by the society through interactions and adherence to the rules

and values, which they perceive as habit. (Berger & Luckmann, 1991). This assertion implies that gender has been approved by society as acceptable.

Also, Thomas and Thomas (1991) posit that social value system, and social norms are created and maintained through language. Therefore, knowledge in which meaning is packaged is socially created and that the knowledge is as a result of human interactions. Thus, the belief that knowledge is influenced by the social norms and in turn knowledge is created by the individuals in the society. The society plays a key role in inducting and training the people from a tender age to be either female or males. The theory is based on the following propositions:

Gender roles, statuses, differences and behaviours that are constructed and strengthened by culture, where females and males are compelled into engaging into certain social and economic roles. The defined gender roles are engraved in people's mind starting early stages of life in what is referred to as ascribed status. The engendered roles define and categorize groups of people, experiences and realities in contextualized cultural settings. In the current study, gendered roles underlying social contexts were analyzed based on this tenet

The man is considered the norm since the words human or mankind relates to the male gender though the terms encompass both females and males. The position that in normal day to day living 'man' is perceived as the norm perpetuates gender inequalities against women. For example, use of masculine nouns and personal pronouns for both males and females gives males symbolic capital where males are visible and females are invisible (Spender, 1985). Under the proposition on generic

man and he, females' sexuality is defined based on masculinity limits. The current study sought to establish construction of gender through generic man and pronoun he.

Occupational activities are socially created and enhanced meaning that some jobs or productive activities are perceived to be a preserve of one gender and not the other. Jobs like, manager, priest, engineer, lawyer or doctor are thought to be males' whilst teachers, nurses and housewives are perceived as feminine professions. This division of jobs is purely a socially constructed thought, which determines on which occupational roles are females or males' should be engaged in. It follows that sometimes people may not choose the profession independently but the choice people make is based on the socially acceptable belief. The tenet on occupational role was applied to determine whether there were similar gender social construction on jobs in the linguistic and visual signs in the selected English textbooks.

From the above discussion, a conclusion can be drawn that the following strands will be instrumental in analysing data within the social construction of reality theory. It is evident from the literature review that the chosen textbooks were not examined to determine how gender is portrayed using a Social Construction of Reality framework.

2.8 Summary of Chapter

A review of the literature that is relevant to the topic of the current study has been presented in this chapter. According to the chapter, social semiotics studies have seen a surge in popularity in recent years. The chapter has stressed that some aspects of studies on gender representation have not been explored. Finally, the chapter has discussed several theoretical perspectives, noting that Halliday's SFL theory, Social Semiotics theory and Social Construction of Reality theory are, in particular, effective

tools in studies on social semiotics analysis. The chapter that follows presents the methods of research adopted to achieve the objectives of the current study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

In chapter two, literature related to the present study has been reviewed to both rationalize and contextualize the study. Following up on the review is a description of the methods used to investigate the issues raised in the study. This chapter expounds on the situated quantitative and qualitative research designs used in realizing the objectives of the study. The chapter also describes the study population, the sampling and the data collection procedures. The chapter describes how quantitative and qualitative techniques were delved into to systematize and sort the data.

3.1 Research Design

The study applied a mixed-method approach, where both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used to collect and analyze data. The explanatory sequential design was applied in obtaining information concerning gender representation in the selected English textbooks used in Kenyan secondary schools. This research design comprises quantitative and qualitative phases that are distinct. The researcher first conducted quantitative research, analyzed the results, and later provided in-depth qualitative explanations. The original quantitative data results are further explained by the qualitative data, which is why the design is regarded as explanatory. The inceptive numerical stage is replaced by the qualitative stage, which further supports the notion that the design is sequential. The design is employed, in accordance with Edmonds and Kennedy (2017), when the researcher wants to supplement the quantitative findings with qualitative information. Combining the two models led to the interpretation and clarification of findings from the quantitative analysis of data in a

complementary way, which broadens and deepens the study (Maroko et al. 2019; Maroko, 2021).

In general, the findings of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies can be viewed as a whole, and that is more important than the sum of its parts, that is. mixed method results (Dörnyei, 2007). This research design comprises quantitative and qualitative phases that are distinct. The quantitative aspect of the study was represented through descriptive statistics. On the other hand, qualitative data were used to complement the results of the quantitative data. Qualitative methods were used in the interpretation of visual images and linguistic codes portrayed in the books. The qualitative aspect of the study focused on words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, passages, and the sampled images in the selected English textbooks.

3.2 Study Population

The target population was all the seven recommended secondary school English language textbooks. The list of the seven recommended English texts according to the MoE are as follows:

i. *Explore English,* published by Longman Kenya Ltd

ii. *Headstart Secondary, English* published by Oxford University Press

iii. *Advancing in English,* published by Longhorn Ltd

iv. *New Horizons in English,* published by East African Educational publishers

v. *New Integrated English,* published by Jomo Kenyatta Foundation

vi. *Excelling in English,* published by Kenya Literature Bureau

vii. *A Secondary English: An Integrated Approach Students' Book*, published by Kenya Literature Bureau

3.3 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

The population of the study determined the sampling techniques that were used in the selection of the textbooks from which the linguistic and visual data was generated. In defining the sample population, one criterion was used: the population consisted of all textbooks recommended by KICD and approved by the MoE for the teaching of English in Kenya's secondary schools. Only the four English textbooks published in 2018 under SEQIP were included in the sample.

To actualize the objectives of the current study, a corpus of four textbooks (one textbook per level in secondary school) were selected. A non-probability sampler, which comprises a sequence of non-random processes for choosing the features of a sample, seemed suitable. The study used a purposeful sampling strategy. Total sampling (Palys, 2008), a kind of purposive sample, was used. It entails looking for cases or people who represent the diversity of viewpoints on the issue being studied. The inclusion characteristics such as KICD approval, use in secondary schools, and use in the instruction of English were taken into consideration while using the purposive sample technique.

The researcher selected the visual and the linguistic signs content sections where both females and males were represented since, in total sampling, the researcher determines the qualities of interest in a targeted population, then locates the individuals with those characteristics, and selects the qualities (events or people) in a deliberate manner to obtain crucial information that can only be obtained from the choices made (Maxwell, 1996). The details of the sampled textbooks based on their wide usage in the secondary schools in Kenya are presented in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1 Details of the Sampled Textbooks

Universal Features

Type: Main course book

Intended Consumers School: Secondary Schools Location: Kenya

Place of Publication: Nairobi

Components: Students' Book

Series as a Whole	Form one	Form two	Form three	Form four
Title	Secondary English: An Integrated Approach Form One Students' book (fourth Edition)	Secondary English An Integrated Approach Form Two Students' Book (Third Edition)	Secondary English An Integrated Approach Form Three Students' Book (Second Edition)	New Horizons in English: A Course For Secondary schools Student's Book' Form four
Author/s	Mwangi, ,P., Kisirikoi,F., Gichema, W., & Nyaa, T.	Mwangi P, Kisirikoi, F., Gichema, W.,& & Mukunga, M.	Mwangi,P. Kisirikoi,F. Gichema, W. ,& Mukunga, M..	Kiai, A., Oduor, B.,& Owuor, E.
YoP	2003	2004	2004	2005
Publisher	Kenya Literature Bureau(KLB)	KLB	KLB	East African Educational Publishers Ltd
Sub division (units)	20 units	26 Units	24 Units	20 Units
Unit Pattern	Listening and speaking, Reading, Comprehension, Grammar Writing.	Listening and speaking, Reading on study skills and comprehension, grammar Writing Think a little	Listening And speaking, Reading, Grammar, Writing	Listening and speaking, Reading, Grammar Writing 3 Model Examination Papers
Number of pages	178	238	232	264

YoP- Year of Publication

The list of the sampled textbooks is as follows:

a. *Secondary English: An Integrated Approach Students'* Book 1 (Third Edition)', published by Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB)

b. *Secondary English: An Integrated Approach Students'* Book 2 (3rd Eds.) published by Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB)

c. *Secondary English: An Integrated Approach Students'* Book 3 published by Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB)

d. *New Horizons in English: A Course for Secondary Schools Students* Book 4' published by East African Educational Publishers Ltd.

Furthermore, the visual signs were purposively chosen based on the displayed participant(s). The visuals selected were all those that portrayed either males only, females only, or both males and females, regardless of the section of the textbook's unit. The criteria for selecting the linguistic signs were: words that feature males and females; phrases where either males or females occur; paragraphs where males and females appeared; and passages that were about males and females. The linguistic signs that subscribed to these criteria were selected, and those that did not subscribe to the criteria were excluded from this study.

Accordingly, the visuals selected were not necessarily the ones accompanying the selected linguistic signs, for "in a multimodal text, using images and writing, the writing may carry one set of meanings and the images another." (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). Further, both linguistic signs and visual signs express meaning from the same source. Nonetheless, the two signs are not simple substitutes ways of representing 'the same thing' (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). Table 3.2 shows the sampled items for analysis in the present study.

Table 3.2 Units of the Sampled Textbooks

Level/ Book	A Listening & Speaking	B Reading on Study skills	C Comprehe nsion	Visual images	D Grammar	E Writing	F Think a Little	G Total units
Book 1	5	0	11	27	7	3	0	53
Book 2	5	0	11	32	9	8	9	48
Book 3	6	0	12	43	7	8	-	44
Level/ Book	Effective Communicati on	Reading & Comprehensi on	Language Use	Visual images	-	Writing	-	Total units
Book 4	1	8	5	38	-	3	-	24

Table 3.2 shows details of the sampled textbooks. Kenya Literature Bureau published Book 1, Book 2, and Book 3. These three textbooks have uniform subsections as indicated in Table 3.2. Book 4, however, was published by the East African Educational Publishers and contains slight variations in the titles of sub-sections.

Specifically, total sampling, a type of purposive sampling in which the whole population of interest is considered, was used to select two textbooks: *"A Secondary English: An Integrated Approach Students' Book (Third Edition)*." and *"New Horizons in English: A Course for Secondary Schools Student's Book 4*," published by East Africa Educational Publishers Ltd. instead of analysing all 8 texts. The selected textbooks are largely used in Kenya and are provided by the government to public schools under SEQIP. Further, the researcher purposively selected visual images and linguistic codes that reflected gender representation through content analysis.

The researcher extracted all the visual images as well as words, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and passages that referred to males and females for analysis. In the extraction of data, all the pronouns occurring in the textbooks referring to animal characters and supernatural beings, especially in narratives, were excluded.

3.4 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

Documentary analysis method was used in collecting data. The instruments of data collection were created based on data that needed to be collected. Some data needed an observation sheet, whereas some required observation checklist sheets. In relation to research, the three research questions, observation sheets with rows for recording the

71

frequency of male and female for all the items of analysis to reveal gender portrayal in the linguistic and visual signs, and evaluating social contexts that underlie gender representation were used. Observational checklists sheets and observational sheets served as the tools for collecting data to answer the research questions. Each of these instruments showed the number of male and female participants for visibility in the visual and linguistic signs for each activity in rows. The instruments featured in Appendix I to Appendix XX aided in collecting and eliciting data on gender representation from the textbooks in both the linguistic and visual signs. Also, a camscanner was used in collecting data where the visual signs were scanned and edited so as to obtain clear and credible data.

Corncerning the linguistic data, the tasks of identifying and counting the types of each unique feature in this study were done manually rather than electronically, since the selected textbooks were not available electronically. Moreover, as the qualitative aspect of this study required detailed reading of the text, the researcher read the texts, which were only available manually. Substantial time was spent flipping and reading the texts while extracting items that portrayed gender. This exercise was fruitful since data was elicited as per the research questions.

Content analysis provided the following data: words, excerpts, quotations, sentences, phrases, clauses, paragraphs, or entire passages—which were organized into major strands, classes, and examples of cases based on the representational, interactive, and

textual metafunctions of both the social semiotics and systemic functional linguistics theories.

Regarding the elicitation of data on the visual signs, the frequency data was elicited where each textbook in the study corpora was studied to highlight all the occurrences of the categories and tokens of analysis. The frequency data was first determined, then the quantitative data was collected by counting the frequency of appearance or occurrence of males and females in the linguistic signs.

Therefore, the categories that were used to tag the frequency data were the gaze, social distance, visibility, vector types, actional processes, types of camera shots, vertical and horizontal point of view and the positioning of elements on the frame. The visuals were scanned and uploaded on a laptop. Once uploaded on the laptop, the visuals were coded by including captions indicating the actual textbook sourced from, and the sub-heading where the visuals appeared (See Appendix XVI Visual XVI1 to Visual XVI16).

3.5 Data Analysis

In this part of the study, quantitative data was analyzed separately from the other inclusive features per textbook. In this section, therefore, information on how the linguistic and visual items were analyzed is given.

The analysis of the linguistic items followed the steps outlined as follows: The first step involved an establishment of the categories under the representational, interpersonal and

73

textual metafunctions and the interpersonal, ideational and textual metafunctions of the SFL theory upon which quantitative analysis of the distribution of each specific feature per textbook was done. In this analysis, the number of occurrences and frequency of each item of analysis were expressed in percentages. For instance, the frequency of each category of analysis in each textbook was identified, such as frequency of names referring to females and masculine pronouns occurred in the textbooks.

The next step in the quantitative analysis involved a gender comparison of the distribution of the various categories. The first level of this comparison was based on the four textbooks. The number of occurrences was determined and expressed as percentages. This was to determine the distribution of each category considered to be represented per textbook. Thus, the frequencies of each type of unique feature in each textbook were determined. A comparison of each category used to identify gender representation and corresponding types was done. In this comparison, the distribution of unique features and subtypes within the corpus of the entire study was determined, as well as their frequencies.

The visuals were analyzed quantitatively by determining the male and female characters in the visual signs. A tally was made of the number of male and female characters in each of the illustrations. The representational metafunction was applied to determine the number of females and males occupying the goal, the actor, and the behaver positions. The actional processes in which the goal and actor are involved were also determined in

74

terms of males and females. Based on the interactive metafunction of the Social Semiotic theory, the image acts of the participants were determined in terms of gazing toward the viewer, gazing toward each other, and gazing neither toward the viewer nor toward each other. The social distance of the participants was also determined in terms of the long, medium, and close shots, clearly showing the total number of males and females represented and their percentages.

From the point of view of the participants, the vertical and horizontal dimensions were determined. The positioning of the participants against each other represented the compositional metafunction and was determined by considering the number of males and females. All the quantitative results were explored qualitatively to understand the construction of gender in the selected English textbooks.

Qualitative data was first condensed after collecting it through the content analysis technique. The qualitative data consisted of visual signs and phrases, clauses and excerpts that were analyzed within the Social Semiotics theory, the SFL approach and the Social Construction reality theory. The linguistic signs were analyzed by noting the gender that appeared more frequently as the theme, rheme, the kind of occupations associated with males and females, and the gender that appears first in a clausal construction, which comprises a male, and a female in collected examples. In addition, the adjectives used to describe participants of each gender were noted, use of generic terms and gender-neutral words and expressions were noted and any similarities and contrasts noted. The analysis

was done within the ideational, interactional and textual metafunction of the SFL approach and the aspects of Social Construction of Reality of conversational turns, choice of adjectives, and omission of females as themes, inclusion and exclusion in both linguistic and visual signs, and use of adjectives. The visual signs were analyzed within the tenets of Social Semiotics theory: representational, interactive and the compositional metafunction. The collected visuals were carefully scrutinized to determine goals and the actors in non - transactional and transactional processes based on the representational metafunction. The direction of the gazes, the social distance and the point of view on the interactive metafunction was determined. Finally, on compositional metafunction, the framing and position of the participants were also determined and findings recorded. The qualitative analysis was done to back up the quantitative findings.

3.6 Piloting

The current study involved a pilot of the instruments for the purposes of ensuring that the instruments are reliable and that they are working in an efficient way for a credible data collection exercise. To pre-test the research instruments and generally determine whether the whole research would "take off," the researcher purposively sampled one visual and some linguistic signs from two textbooks and analyzed them (the data) using the content analysis based on Social Semiotics theory, the SFL theory and the Social Construction of Reality theory. As Yin (2003, p.79) writes, "convenience, access, and geographical proximity are usually chosen as the main criteria for selecting the pilot case or cases".

Piloting aided the researcher in recognizing the strenuous exercise associated with collecting and analysing quantitative data. This enabled the researcher to select the visuals containing only humans and written modes representing males and females. Again, the researcher noted that some visuals were not necessarily accompanied by literature that distinctly referred to males or females. This prompted the researcher to focus on the visual images and the linguistic signs separately during the collection and analysis of data. This process was undertaken to clean up the tool by revising it to improve its efficiency. The results of the pilot study were used to clean up the ,research instruments by making any necessary adjustments. Piloting was done to fine-tune the tokens of analysis of the visual signs and linguistic signs.

3.6.1 Validity and Reliability

Weber (1990) asserts that for valid references to be made from a given document, the researcher should ensure the reliability of the classification procedure to enhance the consistency of the findings. He notes that reliability can be achieved by having two people code the same document in a similar manner. In relation to this observation, the reliability of the data analysis was achieved by the researcher working with an expert who is one of the supervisors and is well versed in conducting research on textbooks. The researcher verified the identified themes of analysis with the supervisors to ensure that they were the correct ones for analysis. Again, two of the theories within which the contents (visual and linguistic signs) of textbooks were analyzed are interrelated, whereby one of the theories is a development of the other.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

To undertake an efficient research, several aspects of ethical considerations were undertaken. The researcher obtained a letter of introduction from Machakos University that was used to apply and obtain a research permit from the National Council of Science and Technology of Kenya to undertake the research. No permission was sought to analyze the textbooks since they are in the public domain and can be obtained without the authors' permissions. Also, all works which were referred to were duly acknowledged through proper in text referencing and providing a list of all the materials used in the writing of the thesis.

3.8 Summary of Chapter

This chapter showed that the recommended quantitative and qualitative research strategies were necessary given the nature of the current study. The chapter has also highlighted the importance of the purposive sampling techniques in the current study. The process for gathering and eliciting data for this study has also been outlined in the chapter, with an explanatory sequential approach indicating that quantitative data was collected first, followed by qualitative data to interpret and clarify the quantitative data. Additionally, it was revealed in the chapter that the corpora were processed using both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data analysis due to the nature of the quantitative and qualitative data. The results of a thorough examination of how gender is constructed in the linguistic signs in the sampled textbooks are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONSTRUCTION OF GENDER IN LINGUISTIC SIGNS

4.0 Introduction

The tools, processes and methods used to carry out the current study were covered in detail in Chapter 3. This chapter explains how gender is represented in linguistic signs in the selected English textbooks used in secondary schools in Kenya. The first section of the chapter describes the SFL theory and Social Construction of Reality theory elements incorporated into the analysis of the linguistic signs. This is followed by quantitative analysis and then qualitative analysis of the linguistic signs drawn from the selected textbooks. The subsections that follow present how gender is represented in the linguistic signs in line with ideational metafunction, interpersonal and textual metafunctions.

4.1 Ideational Metafunction

This first sub section presents an analysis of the linguistic signs within the ideational metafunction. As the term suggests, ideational mode constructs ideas and experiences using field resources: solely concerned with the clause as representation of patterns of experience, realized by verbs. Patterns of people's experiences are recognized by the structure of transitivity of the lexico-grammar. These resources construct transitivity patterns that comprise the choice of particular kinds of verbs called processes. These diverse forms of verbs create functional dissimilar types of nouns or noun clusters known as participants. Any participant may act out a range of roles based on the verb(s) they are interrelated to in a clause (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

In this study, transitivity is achieved by considering the total number of males and females doing or receiving an action, as well as the order in which male and female participants occur (Halliday, 2004),. Kress (2004) explains that in a clause that comprises of a male and female name, the name that appears first shows a close relationship with such a person and that is more important than the one mentioned thereafter. This observation clearly affirms that the order in which nouns or pronouns referring to males and females are portrayed in a certain phrase, clause or sentence may convey gender bias. According to Corbett (2006), grammatical gender is a morpho - syntactic characteristic present in many languages, whereby nouns are assigned to classes called 'genders'. Therefore, nouns can be used to portray gender, based on how the writer chooses the word. Consequently, in linguistic signs, gender can be portrayed by the selection of words, for instance, adjectives, nouns/noun phrases, and verbs. Further, at syntactic level, word order may signal to readers or listeners semantic and social hierarchies (Hegarty, Mollin & Foels, 2016; Kesebir, 2017). Accordingly, citing a woman and a man is perceived as not being the same as a man and a woman and the result is biased representation toward the first person mentioned. The ideational metafunction was analyzed within the following aspects:

4.1.1 Visibility of Pronouns and Nouns

The study examined the visibility of pronouns and nouns in the selected textbooks. The study focuses on the pronominal and nominal items that are marked for gender that is, exclusion and inclusion of noun and pronouns referents of females and males, in addition to the pronouns that portray gender neutrality. The focus of the study was to assess the frequencies of feminine pronouns and nouns, and masculine pronouns and names

portrayed in the study's corpora. It follows then that the gender represented with less occurrences than the other is not as important as the one that is underrepresented. The issue of invisibility arises when females do not appear in the text as frequently as males, according to Sunderland (1994). The underlying implication is that women's achievements or that they are not significant sufficient for inclusion (Porreca, 1984, p.706).

One perception advanced by the Social Construction of Reality is that gender representation may be revealed by considering the inclusion and exclusion of males and females in the text. The first section tackles visibility in pronouns and the next focuses on visibility in nouns.

The visibility of pronouns was assessed based on third person singular and plural pronouns: she, he, his, her, hers, him, them, their, and they. Reflexive pronouns, which indicate that the doer of the action is affected by the action, were also factored in revealing how gender is represented in the selected textbooks. This study took in to account only three reflexive pronouns namely: himself, herself and themselves.

Female and male visibility, or how men and women are portrayed in relation to linguistic signs, has traditionally been one of the main examples of sexism in textbooks. When women do not really appear as frequently as men, it suggests that they are not as significant as men, that their achievement are not as noteworthy as men's, or that they are not significant enough as individuals to warrant inclusion (Porreca, 1984). When one

gender is overrepresented in linguistic signs, it means that one gender has greater value than genders that are underrepresented or completely omitted. Pronouns and nouns were examined in this regard, with the findings displayed in Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 Gender was represented by the choice of words in the selected textbooks, and more so through nouns, noun phrases and pronouns.

According to Evison (2010), the first stage in corpus research is to perform a frequency analysis to determine how frequently a certain word appears in a corpus. Hence, the researcher examined how often male and female "node words" appeared in SETB1, SETB2, SETB3, and SETB4. The frequency of appearances for males paired with their female equivalents is used to rank the gendered pronouns. In order to gain a broader view and provide evidence for the conclusions about the two genders' presence in media, gendered pronouns were counted. Table 4.1 displays how frequently pronouns are used to express gender in the selected textbooks.

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Table 4.1 Gender representation in pronouns

Pronoun / Form	Frequency											
	He	She	His	Her	Him	Hers	They	Them	Their	Himself	Herself	Themselves
One	363	250	194	207	109	2	200	105	96	14	9	10
Two	358	209	260	197	118	3	252	92	166	4	2	10
Three	427	213	196	97	137	1	289	92	147	5	1	3
Four	400	290	283	283	123	0	217	66	171	21	13	4
∑	**1548**	**962**	**933**	**784**	**487**	**6**	**958**	**355**	**580**	**44**	**25**	**27**

With reference to the statistics in Table 4.1, the masculine pronouns' cumulative occurrences are more than the feminine pronouns' occurrences. Considering the cumulative 6613 pronouns, 4720 pronouns, (71.4%) specify gender that is; it represents either males or females. It can also be noted that cumulative frequencies of masculine pronouns was higher than the feminine pronouns: 2968 times (62.9%) against 1752 times (37.1%) respectively. The masculine pronouns were distributed as follows: pronoun *he* with a cumulative frequency of 1548 times, *his* appeared 933 times and *him* at 487 times. The feminine pronouns were distributed as follows: 962 (54.9%) hers, 784 (44.8%) her and 6 (0.3%) hers. It can also be noted from Table 4.1 that the frequencies of gender-neutral pronouns occurred 1893 times (28.6%) (*They* 958 times (50.6%), *them* 355 times (18.8%) and *their 580* times (30.6%)).

Table 4.1 indicates that the masculine pronoun *he*, had cumulative occurrences of 1548 compared to its feminine counterpart pronoun *she* that recorded 962 incidences. For instance, Table 4.1 also shows a disparity in comparison of *his* and *her*. While the male gender has appeared 933 times in SETB1 through SETB4, the pronoun *her* on the other hand occurred 784 times. Table 4.1 also shows the use of gender-neutral pronouns *their, them* and *they*. These pronouns were used in English textbooks to create gender balance, that is the usage of plural *they* instead of generic *he* and dual gender indication (he/she). More so, to achieve linguistic equality, the authors used the 'gender-neutralization' strategy.

According to Davis (1995) gender-neutrality entails substituting the general *he* with *you*, *he or she*, *s/he*, *she or he*, the indefinite pronoun *one* (or *one's* for possessive) or singular *they* when the gender of the referent is not known. In the data collected, the pronouns *their, them, themselves* and *they* were used in plural form in order to achieve gender neutralization.

Gender representation in terms of linguistic signs shows that the feminine pronouns are typically less noticeable than males. The findings show that male pronoun referents outnumbered the females. The analysis revealed that third person singular masculine pronouns predominated over third person singular feminine pronouns in all the selected textbooks. The researcher noticed that the exercises, tasks, and examples used the masculine pronoun "he" more frequently. In comparison to feminine pronouns, males used more masculine pronouns. Gender bias can be identified by evaluating inclusion, which refers to the depiction of one gender more than the other, and exclusion, which refers to the portrayal of one gender less than the other or not at all, as per Kim (2014) and Yaghoubi Notash & Nouri (2016). The study therefore concludes that the high number of male pronouns usage in textbooks is naturally influenced by the high number of male characters in the linguistic signs as discussed in section 4.1.

The results of this study are consistent with those of Bahman and Rahimi (2010) and VeriKaite (2012), who examined the English textbooks used in Iranian high schools and Indian EFL textbooks, respectively, and discovered that there were more nouns, names, pronouns, and adjectives referring to men than women overall. Table 4.1 displays how often names for men and women appear in the chosen English textbooks.

By totaling up all the names that relate to both men and women, the prevalence of nouns was determined. This was done in an effort to determine how frequently the names of boys and girls appeared in the chosen textbooks. Table 4.2 lists the total number of times both male and female names occur as well as the corresponding percentages.

Table 4.2 Distribution of Frequencies in Mention of Names of people

Form	Frequencies				∑
	Female names	Percent	Male names	Percent	
One	290	23.5	433	23.7	723
Two	407	33.0	619	33.9	1026
Three	306	24.8	391	21.4	697
Four	230	18.7	384	21.0	614
∑	**1233**	**18.6**	**1827**	**100**	**3060**

N-3060

The statistics reported in Table 4.2 suggest that there are more occurrences of the mention of males names than female ones. According to Table 4.2, the total occurrences of mention of male proper names were 1827 (59.7%) juxtaposed with (1233 (40.3%) females' proper names. Similar findings were revealed in Alemi & Jafari's (2012) study who discovered that females' proper nouns were less than males' in ten ELT textbooks used in Zimbabwe. According to Jin, et al., (2013, p. 18), the gender that is frequently mentioned in the linguistic signs portrays pre-eminence or partiality towards the specific

gender especially the males. Thus, the findings of this study depict that by representing more proper nouns for males and females, accords them dominance and favours them. The usage of proper nouns was examined together with occupation. The findings reveal that males are associated with certain occupations such as *teacher, driver, footballer, sport person* and *politician*. The results demonstrate that the mention of such nouns (occupational nouns) is frequently assigned to males.

In summary, in terms of male and female mentions by use of nouns and pronouns, the study concludes that females are underrepresented in the textbooks while men outnumber women in the usage of characters. The underrepresentation of females in the textbooks shows that gender bias in favour of males is rife in the Kenyan English textbooks. This trend may affect the quality of education since textbooks are key materials in the implementation of curriculum. Again, most Kenyan students, both girls and boys, interact with the content most of the time and it could be the only material at their disposal. Therefore, there is need to ensure that gender parity is enhanced by having almost equal or equal number of female and male mentions.

4.1. 2 Firstness

The selection of gender expression in the language of the chosen English textbooks was based on the firstness or sequence of mention criterion. When two people of different genders are discussed together, firstness in linguistics refers to the scenario when one gender is frequently said or stated first. The study looked at how firstness represented gender in language cues. The hierarchical component of the Social Construction of

Reality theory, which includes firstness in female and male names as well as firstness in third personal pronouns, highlights the use of established appositions in the English language to elaborate on firstness. Examples include "he or she," "husband and wife," and "men and women" (Goddard and Patterson, 2000, p. 57). Firstness, or having a male name preceding a female one in a construction, may portray gender bias against females. According to Mills (1995), one aspect of the gender bias against women is the order of the male and female phrases.

Firstness in this study means positioning terms referring to males before the terms referring to females and vice versa. The first part of this section addresses firstness in nouns (names referring to females and males) while the other section explores firstness in pronouns. The study considered items in the sampled textbooks where names referring to the two genders were used. These items included phrases, clauses and sentences, and the order of their mention that is the gender mentioned first was considered. Eckert and Ginet, (2004) note that males usually mentioned first in the accustomed forms of English usage, for example, males and females, husband and wife. In a clause containing female and male names, it is principally the terms that refer to males that come before the female terms. Table 4.3 represents frequencies of occurrences and corresponding percentages in the order of mention of males and females names in SETB1 to SETB4.

Table 4.3 Distribution of Frequencies in Firstness in Proper Nouns

Form	Frequencies			
	Females First	Percent	Males First	Percent
One	21	48.8	25	34.3
Two	5	11.6	19	26.0
Three	11	25.6	19	26.0
Four	6	14.0	10	13.7
$\sum$	**43**	**100**	**73**	**100**

N-116

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the occurrences of males being mentioned first are more than the females' mentions. Thus, whereas males recorded 73 occurrences of first mentions, which is equal to 63%, females recorded 43 first mention occurrences, which is equivalent to 37%. SETB1 portrayed the most female male order mentions with 21 instances of females appearing first and 25 occurrences for constructions where males are mentioned first, whereas SETB4 showed the fewest instances, with only six (37.1%) of females being mentioned first and 62.5% of males being mentioned first.

Table 4.3 revealed that in the majority of cases, men were mentioned before women. This scenario, according to Eckert and Ginet (2004), historically suggests that males are a more worthy gender. According to Porreca (1984), when manly words typically come first, the scenario reflects the inferior position of women. The occurrences are listed in order of the general notion that men are more important than women in practically every society are. They must always come first, wherever (Hameed, 2014, p. 110). As a result, it is considered a natural order that keeps the man before the woman for manners' sake. This finding is due to the cultural or traditional representation of women in Kenyan

society. NGPAD (2019, p.9) acknowledges the partriarchal social order in Kenya, enhanced by the statutory, customary laws and practices among others, that impede attaining of gender equality. In most of the cultures in Kenyan society, males appeared to be prominent by being referred to first followed by the females, who in some communities are regarded as subordinate to males. Nonetheless, these results are favorable since the difference is minimal as compared to earlier studies that show 12 mentions of men against two mentions of females (Amini & Birjandi, 2012; Lee & Collins, 2010).

More specifically, firstness also showed up in the qualitative data when masculine and feminine nouns co-occurred. The following examples illustrate how the male nouns were typically mentioned first in certain situations. Consider examples 1-8 from this study's corpora.

1. I want to show *men* and *women* are equal.

2. Both *father* and *mother* care about my performance in school.

3. My *brother* and *sister* asked why they couldn't eat then.

4. They started to live as *husband* and *wife*.

5. Both my *father* and *mother* care about my performance in school. (SETB3)

6. *Baby girls* like playing with dolls, but *baby boys* prefer toys. *(SETB3)*

7. Dancing is one of the recognized ways, in which *boys* and *girls* expect to find their future partner. (SETB4)

8. The society is demeaning that those entrusted with safeguarding public resources be *men* and *women* of integrity. (SETB1).

As examples 1-8 indicate, whereas only a few instances of female firstness were noted (Ref. 6 *baby girls…baby boys),* males tended to be cited first when two nouns (Ref. 8 *men and women,* Ref. 5 *father and mother*, Ref 3 *brother and sister*) or gendered third person pronouns were paired. These examples of male firstness occur in groupings of nouns (for instance, men and women) and possessive nouns (for example, in two sentences that follow *the boy's father left the country* and *the baby's mother is coming*," etc.) and also compound words and expressions (*herdsboys and housegirls, both brother and sister*). Male gender depicts higher occurrences, which may be interpreted as gender bias against females. The Lee & Collins (2008) study, which found a strong tendency for men to be quoted first in single phrases in Hong Kong English textbooks when two nouns were paired for gender, is also supported by this study. Again, an Indonesian study by Nashriyah et al. (2020) revealed male characters in the lead in terms of importance. There were five more instances in reading tasks and exercises where men were named first and women were addressed second.

Furthermore, according to Kress (2004), if he said, that *Asrul and Dewi are getting married*. This clause would indicate that he was closer to the person mentioned first: Asrul. He had greater significance than Dewi did. This finding unequivocally supports the notion that the arrangement of nouns referring to males and females are portrayed in a certain phrase, clause or sentence and may convey gender bias. Hartman and Judd (1970, quoted by Farooq, 1999, p. 16) further advance this assertion, "While such automated arrangement (where the males come first) could be an insignificant occurrence, it enacts the inferior status of females".

Firstness was also revealed in the analysis of the frequency of occurrence of pronouns referring to males and females in the study's corpora. Table 4.4 shows the frequency of the pronouns and their corresponding percentages.

Table 4.4 Distribution of Frequencies in Order of Mention in Pronouns

Pronoun Form	Masculine Pronouns appearing first		Feminine Pronouns appearing first	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
One	22	25.3	0	00
Two	16	18.4	4	50
Three	24	27.6	3	37.5
Four	25	28.7	1	12.5
Σ	**87**	**100**	**8**	**100**

N 95

The mention of men first and women first differs noticeably, as shown in Table 4.4. In comparison to females (8, which is 9%), men (87, with a comparable 91%) appear first more frequently than females do in Table 4.4. The quantitative findings are supported by examples 9–11; this occurs when alternative pronouns are used to include both males and females:

9. If anyone wants to improve *his* or *her* image, *he* or *she* should seek advice on what suits *him* or *her. (SETB3)*

10. If anyone wants to pass his or her exam, he or she must work hard on *his* or *her* studies. (SETB3)

92

11. I am saying that the war against corruption can only be won if each individual decides *he* or *she* will never give or take a bribe. (SETB1).

As examples 9 to 11 indicate, usage of alternative pronouns to include both females and males, for instance Ref. 9 and 10 his or her; and Ref. 10 and11 *he or she, her/his, her* or *him, himself* or *herself* is evident. The findings show that the authors used dual gender to attain generic neutralization as the examples demonstrate. Willis (2008), however, observes that the use of "he or she" makes a sentence clumsy, and moreso, the use of the "dual gender" that shows how men come first before women. This is also evident in subject and object pronouns (e.g., *he is or she is, him/her*, etc.). According to Hartman & Judd (1978, p. 390), placing the male first in an order "reinforces the second-place status of women" and has recommended mixing the order to avoid this view.

4.1. 3 Adjectives

Adjectives or descriptive words were analyzed within the relational processes as an aspect of the ideational metafunction. The relational process is realized by the carrier and attribute aspects of the sentence or clause. The carrier can be either male or female. This concept of gender representation using adjectives as a syntactic method in English may point out the gender of the person being referred to. For instance, *attractive, amiable,* and *impassioned* are attributes that are inclined toward females or children and not males. On the contrary, words like *flinty, sturdy, and tenacious* are used in describing males; when the expressions are used to describe females, they undermine concepts of their feminineness. Using these terms in unusual ways (e.g., referring to females as serious and males as pretty) may help to dent adjectives that function to mark (or index) gender.

93

The data collected shows adjectives used for females relate to their attractiveness. For instance, in SETB1 through SETB4, the pronoun *she* was collocated with adjectives of personality such as *beautiful, angelic, gentle, humble, diligent, sociable,* and *friendly*. Additionally the pronoun *she* was linked to intellectual descriptors like brilliant and intelligent. Table 4.5 shows the types of adjectives associated with males and females.

The study also analyzed gender attributes as an aspect of gender representation. Gender attributes may mirror the realities in our society or can closely reflect the realities in people's lives at a period of time (Mustapha, 2012) and space. The analysis of gender representation in terms of gender attributes focuses on the way women and men are depicted in the textbooks. That is how males and females are represented by looks and behavior.

Through content analysis the researcher observed that gender representation was manifested in the way the authors portrayed gender based on physical features. The authors distinguished males and females in relation to the physical features. From the study's corpora, males were described as being big in size, stout, large and stout, while women were presented as small, invariable frail and vulnerable. This description is typically classified as positive and negative. Table 4.5 shows the description of males and females in SETB1, SETB2, SETB3 and SETB4.

Table 4.5 Distribution of Occurrences in Adjectives

Form	Positive Adjectives						Negative Adjectives					
	Males		Females		M.G		Males		Females		M.G	
	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%
One	23	27.1	18	22.5	01	50	15	17.4	09	22.0	01	50.0
Two	16	18.8	21	26.3	01	50	24	27.9	12	29.1	01	50.0
Three	25	29.4	26	32.5	00	0	13	15.1	10	24.4	00	00
Four	21	24.7	15	18.8	00	0	34	39.5	10	24.4	00	00
∑	**85**	**100**	**80**	**100**	**02**	**100**	**86**	**100**	**41**	**100**	**02**	**100**

N 296

Table 4.5 reveals that both negative and positive adjectives are more frequently used with males than with females. 85 (51.5%) positive adjectives were used to describe males against 80 (48.49%) such adjectives used for females. Concerning negative adjectives, a substantial discrepancy was noted: 86 (67.7%) cumulative adjectives for males and 41 (32.3%) cumulative frequencies for the females. These findings are similar to Söylemez's (2010) study that examined how social gender identity was created in the reading passages of the elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate textbooks. She tried to identify the traits given to males and females by searching the reading materials for adjectives used to describe both genders. She discovered that the authors of these textbooks tended to associate certain adjectives with one gender over the other. The quantitative data is further expounded by the qualitative findings revealed by examples 12 to 40.

12. He noticed how worn out she had become.SETB1

13. She was very arrogant. SETB1

14. He would be very happy one moment then suddenly become angry and short-tempered. SETB1

15. Karugu was a bright friendly boy. SETB1

16. His hardwork and good character had really paid dividents. SETB1

17. Ndanu was kind and responsible well-behaved girl. SETB1

18. Alfred was gifted chemist and excellent linguist. SETB1

19. Njeru, the politician is a far sighted man. SETB1

20. Nekesa felt very nervous. SETB2

21. Omollo was very cunning. SETB2

22. Jasho was a quiet and humble boy. SETB2

23. Ekweume was dutiful and responsible. SETB2

24. Faith in the next door is proud. SETB4

25. The slender woman SETB4

26. Njoki was a generous woman. SETB4

27. The poor man waggles down the paths of the village like a mad woman. SETB4

28. As we prepared for war with a desperate group of young men. SETB4

29. My father is careful and fastidious person. SETB4

30. The dirty urchin stretched out his hand helplessly. SETB3

31. The intelligent boy found his way home without difficulties SETB3.

32. Koriang and Peter are good students. SETB3

33. She became restless. SETB3

34. Kamau was impatient. SETB3

35. Kamongonye went home heartbroken SETB3

36. He grew impatient. SETB3

37. Benson was a brilliant student. SETB3

38. Kioko walks in an arrogant swagger. SETB3

39. He is rather lazy. SETB3

40. She was his confidant and always kind, considerate, and patient. SETB3

Table 4.5 and Ref. 12 - 40 show that some adjectives describe the female gender negatively, as shown by adjectives such Ref 20, nervous, Ref. 13, arrogant Ref. 24, proud and Ref. 33, restess. Also, the examination of the adjectives used to describe appearance reveals that women are stereotypically perceived as being little and feeble. It is important to note that the pronoun she appeared frequently in SETB4 alongside predicative adjectives that characterized women as bad in various things, such as being bad laborers, bad drivers, and reckless typists. A close examination of the masculine pronoun *he* when analysing the adjectives in SETB1 and SETB2 showed that the pronoun *he* is collocated with adjectives that describe a man's character, such as *modest, honest, vivacious, likeable, young,* among others. The pronoun *he* also has a colloquial relationship with adjectives like *dull, fierce,* and *mad.* The pronoun *he* also has associations with intellectual descriptors like *bright, incompetent, clever, a walking dictionary,* and *wise.*

The pronoun *he* is used with both positive and negative personality adjectives in SETB3 and SETB4. In these textbooks *he* is associated with derogatory adjectives like *proud, envious, opportunistic, and greedy* as well as good words like *loving* and *decent.* This result is somewhat consistent with other studies where men were also more stereotypically portrayed as having negative attributes compared to women (Kobia (2009) and Mukundan & Nimehchisalem (2008)). The pronoun *he* is also connected to

adjectives of appearance like *athlete figure* and "*emafigure*," as well as adjectives of emotion like *anxious*. His size and height are similarly related, as seen in SETB3 words like *athletic figure, tall,* and *thin.*

According to the study corpora's data, instances of similar adjectives for both genders were noted in reputational categories like *bold* and *renowned*. Additionally, both the male and female genders are portrayed as being careless. The results of this study are closely comparable to those of Porreca's (1984) study, which discovered that the majority of adjectives used to describe women are connected to their attractiveness. The study by Carroll and Kowitz (1994) also revealed that women are never portrayed as *important* or *busy*, but only as *lovely* or *pretty*.

The results of the current study show a departure from earlier studies that stereotyped men and women by categorizing men as active and women as *quiet* or men as *strong* or *bold* while women were *weak*. The two genders in the current study are at some instances described using similar adjectives. with the fact that both girls and boys learners in the secondary schools use these textbooks The notion that members of both genders may exhibit similar attributes could impact them positively and enhance gender parity in the Kenyan classrooms. It is interesting to note that according to the study's corpus, the pronouns *she* and *he* frequently appear alongside adjectives that describe the sentence's subject's characteristics. *She* or *he*, for instance, exemplifies virtues like beauty, kindness,

and diligence. Some adjectives, such as *skinny,* characterize a person's physical appearance or attitude, whether they are male or female.

4.1.4 Verbs

The analysis of verbs in the current study follows Halliday's (1978) views on the ideational metafunctions of language. According to Halliday (1994), the verb expresses the following processes: Physical or doing processes, mental or sensing processes, physical or being processes, relational or linguistic processes. In order to compare the frequency of activities that are often referred to or ascribed to males or females, verbs that appeared along with the pronouns he and she and proper nouns were dispersed into these verb clusters. The stative verbs are primarily responsible for realizing relationship processes. The mental processes refer to verbs that appeal to emotions, such as feel, think, and contemplate. The verbal processes are realized by verbs that portray participants as saying something, mainly in the target role, where participants are presented as sayers. The material processes involve situations where males and females are involved in events or actions that affect somebody or something. Table 4.6 summarizes the occurrence of both male and female in relational, mental, verbal, and material processes.

Table 4.6 Distribution of Occurrences in Processes Types

		Form 1		Form 2		Form 3		Form 4		∑	
Process type		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	**M**	**F**
Relatio nal	Fr.	151	104	176	136	229	106	241	193	**797**	**539**
	%	51.2	40.8	56.4	43.6	68.4	31.6	55.5	44.5	**59.7**	**40.3**
Mental	Fr.	38	22	41	12	19	07	19	07	**117**	**48**
	%	63.3	36.7	77.4	22.6	73.1	23.0	73.1	26.9	**70.9**	**29.1**
Verbal	Fr.	108	63	61	39	84	44	96	54	**349**	**200**
	%	63.2	36.8	61.0	39.1	65.6	34.4	64.0	36.0	**63.6**	**36.4**
Materi al	Fr.	123	114	163	60	115	70	114	66	**515**	**310**
	%	51.9	48.1	73.1	26.9	62.2	37.8	63.7	36.6	**62.4**	**37.6**

Fr. - Frequency

N-2875

Table 4.6 shows that both females and males are involved in all the processes, though at different frequencies. Males are represented with more occurrences in all the processes considered in the selected textbooks. The verbs representing the relational processes in both males and females were more numerous than the verbs representing the mental and material processes in all the four textbooks, with 797 and 539 incidences, respectively. However, in comparison to the other processes, the verbs representing the mental processes were used the least with 117 times for the males and 48 times for the females. Table 4.6 reveals a relative frequency analysis of the pronouns *he* and *she* and *proper names* against the verbs that they are collocated with and reveals that all Forms 1 to 4 books show that the most common verb is the material process or process of doing (515 times for males and 310 times for females). Also, the action verbs such as *studying, watching, digging, traveling, playing, spending, cooking, carrying, working, typing, going, reading, writing, coming,* and *be*.

Concerning the relational processes, Table 4.6 indicates that men are associated with physically demanding activities such as *digging* and *carrying.* These findings are similar to Pearce's (2008) study on sexist language, which found that men were associated with physically demanding activities. The portrayal of males involved in energy draining and strenuous activities may affect the learners negatively, especially the females who may develop a biased thinking that socially, they are considered the weak gender. Considering the key role of English textbooks, these biased scenarios should not be enacted since they advance gender inequality that should be removed in all spheres of society (NPGAD, 2018).

Further, the content analysis of the verbs in SETB2 also shows material and mental process verbs collocating with the pronoun he *and male names* reveal that males are associated with crime or using physical strength. The verbs for physical and mental processes are indicated in the examples 41- 46 that follow.

41. The accident *traumatized* **him** so much that he ***sank*** deeper into drug abuse.SETB2

42. He *fell* asleep while *holding* a lit roll of bhang.SETB2

43. However, he *survives* the burns and this happens to be his turning point. SETB2(Sourced from SETB2 pp. 77- 79)

Additionally, a content analysis of the verbs in SETB2 reveals that masculine names and the pronoun *he* are frequently used together, suggesting that men are often connected

with committing crimes or exerting physical force. In the instances that follow, the verbs for both physical and mental activities are specified.

44. Mogaka and his sister Nyaboke are convinced by a man that their one thousand shillings would be doubled provided that they had strong faith in the whole process but they are *conned* in the process (SETB2 pp. 25- 26)

45. Mutuku *convince*s, Kasyoka and Wanza *to steal* mangoes from Kisingu's farm. (SETB1) pp. 151- 153) (SETB1 comprehension on Kisingu's mangoes.

However, a number of material verbs or verbs of doing were used with the pronoun *she or the proper noun female*. The verbs assisted, offered, and helped, among others, are examples. The following excerpt is from SETB1 comprehension on Ndanu and her Teacher, p. 118–120.

46. Mrs. Mutiso, a teacher of English at Mtoloni Day Secondary school *assisted* Ndanu and Ndolo from a humble background to continue with their education during a drought season by *offering* Mrs. Kitunguu some housework job. (SETB1)

Verbs exemplified in 46 show how helpful and willing to help others, women are. The SETB3 also make clear that speaking, giving something, and seeking something are acts shared by both sexes, whereas giving is a male-only activity. Men and women both used verbal actions like *speaking, saying, explaining, asking,* and *telling.* Additionally, the results showed that both men and women were interested in learning, particularly computer-assisted learning. Together with mental verbs like click, delete, and connect that were placed next to the pronouns she and he, the semantic field of computers was utilised. This demonstrates how technology skills are improving for both sexes.

The examination of mental process verbs demonstrates that the mental process of *thinking* is attributed to both males and females. The study of the verbs *wish* and *dream*, however, was more gender-specific for females. Verbs of behaviour indicate that both men and women yell. This result contrasts with Willis' (2008) study, which discovered that the verb s*hout* is frequently associated with boys as opposed to girls in the subject position. In conclusion, the findings on verb processes indicate that verbs contribute to the grammatical manifestation of linguistic sexism.

4.2 Interpersonal Metafunction

The relationships between the speaker(s) and addressee are fundamental to interpersonal meaning(s). It is employed to establish the speaker's role in the speech situation and his or her association with others. Interpersonal metafunction basically involves using language to enact personalized and social relations. One of its major linguistic structures is mood (Matthiessen & Halliday 1997), which is actualized by statements, commands, and questions. Mood processes were used to express gender differences in the forms of declaratives, interrogatives, and imperatives. The subject and finite features are what bring out the grammatical representation of the clause, where the subject represents the participant in the clause and the finite relates to the helping verb.

Mood choices determine gender superiority. The frequency of males and females appearing as subjects in declaratives, imperatives, and interrogatives was calculated using the mood choices as a measure of gender superiority. The gender that had higher frequency of representation using commands and declaratives was deemed superior to the

104

other gender with fewer occurrences. Again, the gender represented most times engaging in interrogatives was considered less powerful. The frequencies of males and females in the three moods were determined and represented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Distribution of Frequencies of Mood Types

Mood Type		Frequencies									
		Form 1		Form 2		Form 3		Form 4		∑	
		ML	FL	ML	FL	ML	FL	ML	FL	**ML**	**FL**
Interrogative	F	32	19	102	31	50	30	69	20	**253**	**100**
	%	63	37	77	23	63	37	76	24	**71.7**	**28.3**
Declarative	F	143	64	326	197	119	64	314	159	**902**	**484**
	%	69	31	62	38	65	35	66	34	**65.1**	**34.9**
Imperative	F	22	03	03	0	21	30	04	02	**50**	**38**
	%	88	12	100	0	41	59	67	33	56.8	43.2

ML-Males FL- Females F- Frequency N-1835

Table 4.7 reveals that in all the three manifestations of mood, the males registered the highest frequencies in all the textbooks, except in SETB3. The declarative mood which is realized by use of statements represents the highest frequencies, a cumulative of 902(65%) for the males against 484(35%) for the females. The imperative mood

105

registered the least incidences in all the study's corpora: 38 times (43%) for the females compared to 50(57%) for the males.

With reference to Table 4.7, the interrogative mood represented by questions showed 100 (28%) and 253 (72%) cumulative occurrences and corresponding percentages for females and males respectively. The data from SETB3, however, revealed that females were engaged 30 times (59%) in giving commands contrasted with 21 times (41%) for the males. Nonetheless, females were not featured giving commands in SETB2. Since women make up 35% of the interrogative mood compared to 65% of men and the least amount of the declarative mood, it can be inferred that they are portrayed as being less powerful than males are. By asking other people for information, interrogatives are used to start conversational engagements. As a result, males are portrayed as being dependent on the female interlocutors' reactions.

The commands that carry out the imperative mood may be encoded with instructions, advice, or directives. The males were superior to the females in this study because they outnumbered the females in the declarative mood. Most male participants are providing information, as evidenced by the predominance of utterances made by men (Banda, 2005; Eggins & Slade, 1991). Clauses in the declarative mood frequently start conversations by presenting material for discussion. The material offered may be accurate or based on opinions, and it (material) may be used to solicit comments to earlier discussions or to refute and counter refute earlier assertions (Eggins & Slade 1997, p. 85). Males are more

frequently featured in fact presenting, posing, and responding to challenges from women in the declarative mood, there may be some gender bias against women. Therefore, as shown in Table 4.7, gender bias is perceptible in the interpersonal metafunction in this regard.

The quantitative findings are supported by some qualitative data presented as examples 47- 53.

47. "Hey guys, I am tired of walking. I have a plan. What about some nice juicy mangoes?" he told them.

48. "Kisingu's of course," he replied.

49. "No, not me," Wanza said sternly.

50. "Oh come on, Wanza…Don't you ever have any fun...You will not chicken out Kasyoka, will you?" Mutuku scoffed.

51. "Hey, watch out! You are making much noise…." he advised.

52. "Wait a minute!" Wanza said.

53. "What for?" Mutuku asked quickly.

(Sourced from SETB1 P.152-154)

Ref. 47, 48, 50, 51, and 53, feature males advancing six times of declarative mood and three instances of the interrogative mood. Clauses Ref. 49 and 52 feature a female involved in declaring her thoughts and beliefs. From these examples, males are presented as being superior to females. Based on these findings, gender bias is revealed through the types of utterances assigned to females and males. This revelation underscores an earlier

107

observation in this study that English textbooks as a socialization tool may create and enhance gender inequalities. Textbooks as one of the key materials in the dissemination of the curriculum should be freed from any form of gender exclusion.

The results of this study are rather different from those of other studies that have shown that declaring her thoughts and beliefs males and females are equally inclined to ask questions (Mulac, Weimann, Widenmann, & Gibson, 1988) and males are likely to give directives as in the current study

4.3 Textual metafunction

The textual meanings pertain to the formation of text and the organisation of meanings to make sensible text. Theme and rheme is one of the most important textual systems (Matthiessen & Halliday, 1997). The first place of the phrase belongs to the subject. According to that reasoning, it represents the "theme" of the sentence, which according to Halliday (1994) is "what the clause is about" and "the beginning point for the message" (Halliday, 1994, p. 38). The second place of the phrase belongs to the object. Based on this knowledge, it represents the rheme of the clause or sentence. The textual metafunction in this study represents the roles that men/boys and women/girls take on in the clauses and sentences in the chosen textbooks. There are two possible roles: doer, representing theme and receiver, representing rheme. The gender that plays the doer role was deemed superior to the other gender. The total number of males and females portrayed as themes and rhemes is shown in Table 4.8

Table 4.8 Distribution of Theme and Rheme Frequencies

Form	Themes				Rheme			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%
One	757	25.2	543	26.5	181	22.7	169	27.0
Two	902	30.0	542	26.4	248	31.0	170	27.1
Three	751	25.0	536	26.1	184	23.0	155	24.7
Four	597	19.9	432	21.0	186	23.3	133	21.2
∑	**3007**	**100**	**2053**	**100**	**799**	**100**	**627**	**100**

N-6486

Table 4.8 reveals that males were more than the females as themes and rhemes of clauses in the four selected textbooks. Table 4.8 shows cumulative frequencies of 3007 (59.4%) for males as themes against 2053 times (40.9%) for the females. Whereas males recorded 799, cumulative occurrences as rheme females were portrayed 672 times. The personal pronoun *he* and the males proper names are collocated with verbs that show both males and females doing something. On the other hand, there were 1346 female participants. This suggests that the pronoun she and female proper names are linked to verbs that depict women acting in certain ways (707). Examples 54-64 complemented the qualitative results.

54. Jane stared at the envelope. SETB1

55. He looked at the heap of files on her desk and shook his head.SETB1

56. He introduced his companion. SETB2 P.160-162

57. Maria sobbed ceaselessly. SETB4 P.97

58. Jacob bought the hockey stick. p.98

59. Mary likes chips.SETB3 P.10

60. Komora is a very intelligent young man. He is rather lazy.p.28

61. He accidentally hit him on the head and hurt him badly.P.29

62. She wants food.p.46

63. He saw the boy at the door, he experienced a strange sensation. p.98

64. I found Nguli with her. p.50

Examples Ref. 54 - 64 show that males are more often than females portrayed as themes. Sentences Ref. 55, 56, 61, and 63, he 58, Jacob, 60, Komora, portray males as themes. Females as themes are represented in sentences Ref. 54 Jane, 57, Maria, 59, Mary 62, she, whilst females as rhemes are portrayed in sentences Ref. 64, her. Males as rhemes appear in sentences Ref. 61, him, him, Ref. 63, the boy, and Ref 64, Nguli.

Referring to Table 4.8 and examples Ref. 54 through 64 on females and males in terms of the participants' role, findings reveal that the female characters play a passive role as compared to men who are more frequently portrayed as themes. The results of the current study are completely compatible with earlier ones (Macaulay & Brice, 1997; Lesikin, 2001). The theme pattern is compared to communicative structures by Lesikin. It is

crucial to indicate that the communicative importance belongs to the individual who is the theme in a clause (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 412; Brown & Miller, 1991, p. 348–349). People who are the centre of discussions, articles, or information appear to be more prominent in society than persons who are not. Those who are not of interest are not the focus of our communication; instead, we talk about those who in some way interest us or are significant to us. Accordingly, depending on the level of interest given to them, people might be viewed as having varying degrees of social importance (Lesikin, 2001, p. 227).

Similar to this, if characters of one gender (represented by gender-specific nouns or pronouns) more frequently appear in the position of the theme in a written text like a textbook, the underlying message to the readers is that one gender has higher communicative importance than the other hence gender. Accordingly, males in the selected textbooks presented as being more important than the females since more males than females have been presented as themes. This kind of revelation may be interpreted as gender impartiality favoring males that is contrary to the Kenyan legislation and policies, which advocates for equity in all circles of society including education. Gender inequalities presented by having more males than females presented as themes impede quality and equity in education.

4.4 Gender Neutral Constructions

Gender was also revealed by use of gender-neutral constructions. This aspect of gender portrayal was achieved by use of indefinite pronouns, pairing of pronouns referring to

females and males, and gender inclusive terms. Gender-inclusive constructs were also used to represent gender in the linguistic signs. The information gathered shows that, in certain instances, authors of secondary English textbooks employed generic, gender-neutral formulations to represent both men and women. Table 4.9 lists the total number of constructs in the chosen English textbooks that are gender-neutral.

Table 4.9 Distribution of Gender-Neutral Words and Expressions

Form	Gender neutral nouns		Indefinite pronouns%		Paired personal pronouns	
	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent
One	28	41.8	15	13.9	22	23.2
Two	15	22.4	43	40.0	20	21.0
Three	10	14.9	29	26.8	27	28.4
Four	14	20.9	21	19.4	26	27.4
$\sum$	**67**	**100**	**108**	**100**	**95**	**100**

 N- 270

With reference to Table 4.9, gender-neutral nouns, indefinite pronouns, and paired personal pronouns demonstrate the writers' attempt to use language that is sensitive to gender. Use of indefinite pronouns to portray gender neutrality had the highest cumulative frequency at 108 (40.0%) while the use of gender neutral nouns had the least times of occurrences at 67 (28.8%). These quantitative findings are affirmed in the qualitative data provided by examples 65 -74.

65. …to track the progress and effectiveness of *his* and *her* work. SETB3 p.78.

66. ….a worker may injure *himself* or *herself.*

67. The police officer – was promoted. SEBT3 p. 172

68. Every discussion group must have a *chairperson* to guide the discussion and a secretary to record what transpires in the discussion. SETB3 p. 133

69. He tearfully explained everything to the *principal* who listened sympathetically and gave Bukeli a gentle scolding. (Comprehension on Bukeli's ordeal p.174).

70. "I want you to plant trees now," our *principal* told us. SETB1

71. Our *principal* told us that he wanted us to plant trees then (grammar topic: direct speech. SETB1 p. 144

72. Anxious about time, the **chairperson** called the meeting to order. SETB4 p.109

73. The **spokesperson** for the visitors does not present their case openly, but builds up slowly to the point of their visit. SETB4 p.193

74. My **headteacher** is a well-read **man**. All the students admire **him**. SETB4 p 38.

Gender neutrality was represented in sentences Ref. 65, his or her, Ref. 66, himself or herself, Ref. 67, police officer, Ref. 68, and 69 chairperson, Ref. 70, 71 and 72 principal, Ref. 73, spokesperson, and Ref. 74, head teacher. The study found that the authors used gender-neutral language in all the chosen textbooks. This indicates that the textbook developers (authors among others) were sensitive to gender issues and that English textbooks in Kenya reflect the country's expanding, unfettered awareness of gender issues. Again, this revelation may positively affect the learners' perceptions about men women in the society. This finding is consistent with (Lee & Collins, 2008, 2010) study, which found that the "generic" male pronoun he was neither used exclusively nor less frequently than in prior textbooks released. Indefinite pronouns such as anyone,

everybody, someone, and they, as well as the pronouns *they, their*, and *them*, were also used in gender sensitive language, as seen in examples 75-79:

75. If anyone (wants/want) to leave early, let them

76. Anyone can do that if they are prepared to work hard.

77. If anybody is still in the classroom, they can go to the library.

78. If someone comes to see me, you can show them in.

79. Somebody has left their newspaper on that seat. 76- 80.

Sentences Ref. 75 through 79 represent indefinite pronouns as follows, Ref. 75, and 76, anyone, Ref. 77, anybody, 78, someone and 79, somebody. The qualitative data enhance gender neutrality since the gender of the participants is not specified. Ref. 75 through indicates that indefinite pronouns are used when the gender of the people need not be included. Use of indefinite pronouns enhance gender parity for according to Bahman and Rahimi (2010) gender bias can be enhanced by use of gender marked pronouns then it can be inferred that gender neutral pronouns enhance gender parity. Gender parity enhanced by use of indefinite pronouns in the selected English textbooks is in line with the gender policies, which advocate for equity and inclusivity. Use of the indefinite pronouns incorporates both females and males.

4.5 Generic' Masculine Pronouns and Man

The aspect of use of generic masculine pronouns and nouns was analyzed within the Social Construction of Reality that highlights that gender bias can be advanced by omitting females from conversations by use of generic terms that are in fact not generic.

Willis (2008) reveals that in appropriate linguistic contexts *man* and *he* are generic. That is the word *man* and he includes women as well as men (Wills & Mullany, 2011). Table 4.10 shows use of generic *man* and *he*.

Table 4.10 Distribution of Occurrences of Use of Generic *Man* and *He*

Form	Generic man		Generic he	
	Occurrences	Percent	Occurrences	Percent
One	07	31.8	00	00
Two	07	31.8	01	16.7
Three	00	00	04	66.7
Four	08	36.4	01	16.7
∑	**22**	**100**	**06**	**100**

N-18

Table 4.10 shows that use of generic *man* terms appeared 22 times (78.6%) against 6 times (21.4%) for generic *he* in the study's corpora. The analysis revealed instances of use of generic *man*. The findings are similar to Bahman and Rahimi's (2010) who analyzed, ELT high school textbooks used in Iran and noted several instances of male generics. This finding is in contrast to Lisa, Ikhsanudin, and Gatot's (2019) investigation, that no masculine generic construction was found in the textbooks. The study reveals use of a male word like *he, his*, etc. to refer to both genders as shown in examples 80-94:

80. Nobody should blame himself for it. SETB3 p.15.

81. Somebody has forgotten his book on the table. SETB3 p.15

82. Everyone has his rights. SETB3 p.15

83. A person who forces *his* company on others hoping to benefit is called a hanger-on. SETB2 p. 9.

84. If anybody is in christ, behold , he is a new creature. SETB4 p.225

85. . The *headmaster* pointed to me. The *headmaster* said rights and duties go together becomes the *headmaster* pointed to me and said rights and duties go together. SETB2 p. 159

86. The *policeman* on patrol, ------, was the picture of perfect confidence. SETB2 p. 98

87. The *businessmen* were affected adversely by the fire that burnt down all their stock. SETB4 p. 55

88. The *policeman* has arrested one of the thieves and is looking for the others. SETB4 p. 57

89. Jasho further surprised her by offering to help her carry some of her luggage to her house in the compound. He left his box with the *watchman* at the gate. SETB2 p. 5

90. The candidate was behaving as if *he* had already won the election.

91. Those involved include *businessmen.*

92. The young person has injured *himself* permanently through a single lie

93. If the *fireman* had arrived on time, the house would not have been burned down. SETB2 p.81

94. The *policeman* came to the show riding a – horse. SETB1 p 171

Examples Ref. 80-94 collected revealed the construction of gender in the linguistic signs through the generic masculine pronouns "*he* and "man." The collected data reveal cases of masculine generic constructions, Ref. 80, nobody…himself , Ref. 81, somebody…his,

Ref. 82, everyone…, Ref. 83, a person…his, Ref. 84, anybody…he, Ref. 85, headmaster, Ref. 88, 86, and 94, policeman, Ref. 87 and 91, businessman, Ref. 89, watchman, Ref. Ref. 92, candidate…he, 92, young person…himself, and Ref. 93, fireman. The qualitative data show that gender representation is manifested in the use of masculine generic constructions rooted in the grammar of the English language itself.

The qualitative data (Ref. 80- 94) demonstrate how masculine stereotypes can be propagated through English textbooks. In fact, Litosseliti (2006) contends that using "generic" masculine pronouns like *he, him, his,* and *man* to refer to both genders enhances the perception of males while diminishing that of females (Holmes, 2001). The use of generic man and pronoun *he* in the textbooks may create wrong impression about Kenya since the Kenyan constitution advocates for equal treatment and presentation of both males and females. Again, the content may also affect the female learners negatively, since they may feel left out, therefore discriminated against.

Even if only a few examples are considered to be instances of gender prejudice, occasioned data in Tables 4.1 to Table 4.10 demonstrate that gender inequality is depicted in the corpora used for the study. Findings on the relative frequency of male and female characters in the textbook demonstrate that male characters exceed female ones in every scenario under study. Women/girls are far less prominent. Females are mostly recipients of the male counterparts' actions. In various studies, males were stereotypically characterised as having more negative qualities than females (Kobia, 2009; Mukundan &

117

Nimehchisalem, 2008). Nonetheless, Davatgarzadeh (2007) study revealed that the language style of the Interchange Third Edition Series gave women higher status positions and portrayed them as more prominent, successful, powerful, and intelligent than men. Ideally, all genders in the textbooks should be displayed in similar and equal ways so that the content presented to learners in any way does not perpetuate gender bias thereby influencing their worldview about the society.

4.6 Summary of Chapter

The findings presented in this chapter show that transitivity presented the highest manifestation of gender bias against females in the study corpora, followed by the aspect of visibility of females and males. This trend can be attributed to the high frequency of gender-revealing nouns and pronouns in the selected English textbooks. The chapter also showed that, in contrast to women/girls, who tended to be described as pretty and beautiful, men/boys tended to be described with negative adjectives and those that proclaim their masculinity and strength. The chapter further mentions how males are portrayed as giving directives more frequently than women. For a detailed understanding of gender portrayal in the study's corpora, the next chapter presents a detailed understanding of how gender is represented in the visual signs.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONSTRUCTION OF GENDER IN VISUAL SIGNS

5.0 Introduction

The fourth chapter examined how gender was represented linguistically in the chosen textbooks. In this chapter, gender representation in visual signs is examined and discussed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The first section represents numeric distribution of females and males across the metafunctions of representation, ideational, and compositional. A qualitative study of a few visual signs taken from the sampled textbooks is then presented. Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) postulates representational, ideational, and interactive levels of analysis are applied to the visual signs. The elements under each metafunction that need to be considered while conducting a social semiotics analysis are outlined by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006).

5.1 Analysis of Visual Signs

Visual signs serve three primary purposes: linguistic, interpersonal, and representational (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). Moreover, Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) assert that grammar structures in images can be evaluated for meaning in the same way as they can in language. The researcher focused on the visual signals of the chosen textbooks' gender representation as a consequence. According to Kress and van Leeuwen (2006), there are various ways to represent items, their relationships to other objects, and processes through visual pictures used to depict parts of the world as perceived by humans.

119

In this study, the choices that the visuals represented in the direction of the gaze, the positioning of the visual images, actional processes, and realisation of vectors were examined. The current study makes use of descriptive statistics to determine how frequently both male and female visual representations appear in textbooks. One of the main representations of gender bias in textbooks is visibility, which is also known as "omission" (Amini & Birjandi, 2012). The frequency with which individuals representing different genders appear in visual content from textbooks is provided in order to examine visibility and identify instances where one gender is omitted in favor of another. Tables were utilized to list the results and aid with data analysis at this level. Male and female were the two levels of the gender variable that was looked at in the nominal classifications to assess the visuals.

Descriptive statistics and content analysis were combined for the qualitative analysis. Our initial goal was to identify trends of occurrence of male and female characters in the chosen textbooks, guided by the framework for assessing visuals developed by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006). Visibility is defined as the patterns of occurrence that demonstrate the absence of one gender or the other (Birjandi 2012; Stokade 2006). Table 5.1 provided a summary of the visibility statistics.

Table 5.1 Quantitative Distribution of Visual Signs in Selected Textbooks

FORM	Gender Representation in the Visuals			
	Number of Males		Number of Females	
	Male only visuals	Mixed gender visuals	Female only visuals	Mixed gender visuals
ONE	10	83	2	46
TWO	5	79	5	38
THREE	9	107	1	87
FOUR	9	101	4	40
Σ	**33**	**370**	**12**	**211**
%	**73.3**	**63.7**	**26.7**	**36.3**

Single Gender (N) – 45   Mixed Gender (N) - 581

Table 5.1 clearly shows the total units in each of the selected textbooks, number of visuals in each of the textbooks, total visuals representing people, visuals representing females and males only and percentages of males and females have been calculated.

Table 5.1's visibility patterns show that out of 45 pictures, 33 (73.33%) only males were present. In contrast, only 12 (26.7%) females were included in the remaining 35 visuals. Nonetheless, there were 370 (63.7%) many males than females 211 (36.32%) in mixed-gender views. According to these figures, men predominate over women in the chosen English textbooks used at the four secondary school levels in Kenya. Such an imbalance in representation shows that men are regarded as being superior to women. According to Porreca (1984), when men predominate over women in a text, it implies that either women are not as significant as men or that their achievements are not noteworthy. The disregarding of the females may be as a result of social construction and enactment of gender. Females were underrepresented in the textbook illustrations, accounting for

20.7% of them as opposed to 79.3% of the male illustrations, according to a study by Barton & Sakwa (2012).

The visual component of textbooks, which projects what Sunderland (2000) refers to as the exclusion of the female gender, has drawn attention and been found to contribute to gender bias and stereotypes, according to Fatemi, Pishghadam, and Heidarian (2011) and Giaschi (2000). The findings in Table 5.1 are consistent with Huang's (2009) study, which found that males were disproportionately represented in the images in junior high school English textbooks in Taiwan. Males are portrayed in the ILI textbook by Marefat & Marzbarn (2014) as being more visible, the center of attention, and aggressive doers, while female participants are underrepresented and invisible.

According to Nashriyah et al. (2020)'s study "Addressing Gender Bias Problems in Elementary School EFL Textbooks," "An Evaluation of Gender Development with English," males dominated with a higher number in three textbook units. The principal characters in several textbooks are all males. Additionally, the textbook features pictures of male characters on almost every page. This explains why there were more men than women in the category of visibility. Yang's (2011) study, in contrast, found that primary school textbooks did not exhibit a significant prejudiced position towards either males or females. Female characters appeared more frequently in pictures and made more female-spoken utterances in Yang's study, which found that women were just as visible as men. Nagatomo's (2010) study on Conversation Themes for Japanese University Students,

which found that female characters were more apparent and appeared to play more proactive role than male characters, provides findings that are contrary to the interpretation of the current study. In contrast to this analysis, where their appearance was only 28.4%, they had a visual dominance by appearing in 62.0% of the images that featured people. This shows that the way in which men and women are perceived varies depending on the context.

The results on visual signs show a gender bias in the portrayal of female and male characters in textbooks. The data point to sexism in terms of how visible women and men are. The findings of the analysis are consistent with those of Fatemi, Pishghadam, and Heidarian (2011) and Giaschi (2000), who contend that the visual component of textbooks is one of the elements that has drawn significant attention and been shown to contribute to gender bias and stereotypes. The outcomes illustrate the exclusionary phenomena. Exclusion, in the words of Sunderland (2000), refers to the phenomena in which women are disproportionately "excluded" from society while men are over-represented. The quantitative findings demonstrate that males were disproportionately favored in the secondary English language textbooks in Kenya. Even though there are only a few examples that are considered to be biased against women, the numbers provided above prove it. Findings on the relative frequency of male and female characters in the selected textbooks show that male characters are illustrated far more frequently than female characters. Figure 5.1 shows the disparity between men and women in qualitative data..

Note. A visual sign from Unit 9 listening and speaking: The Arinkon. From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p.85),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 5.1 A Visual Sign Displaying Visibility of Gender

Figure 5.1 displays both males and females. Nine males are casted against two females. The figure therefore portrays gender disparity because males outnumber the females in the visual sign. This finding resonates with Nabifar & Baghermousavi (2015) study that sought male and female visibility in visuals and examination of English Social semiotic components like frequency and revealed males as more common in the photos than females. The gender inequality may influence female learners negatively considering that the textbooks under study are readily available to almost all the secondary school Kenyan students.

5.2 Representational Metafunction in Visual Signs

The qualities of gaze and social distance are included in the representational metafunction, according to Kress & van Leeuwen (2006). Within Kress & Van

Leeuwen's socio-semiotics theory, participants' gaze direction is important to consider. The ideology behind how gender is represented in text and images, which includes social distance and gaze qualities, is determined by eye and gaze direction.

5.2.1 The Gaze of the Participants in the Visuals

The study also aimed to identify the participants' gaze in the images. The gaze or eye direction of the participants is a crucial aspect that affects the principles underpinning gender representation in visual signs, in accordance with Kress & van Leeuwen's (2006) socio-semiotics theory. The viewers may be looked at, avoided, or the participants may choose to look neither at the viewers nor at one another. The results of the study on how female participants looked at the SETB1 through SETB4 textbooks are shown here. The frequency of each form of gaze for men and women, as well as the associated percentages for each form, are shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Distribution of the Female and Male Participants' Gaze

Description of Gaze	Males		Females	
	Occurrences	%	occurrences	%
FORM 1				
Toward the viewer	10	1.7	1	1.2
Towards each other	25	4.6	18	3.3
Neither to the viewer nor to each other	25	4.6	11	2.0
FORM 2				
Toward the viewer	12	2.2	4	0.7
Towards each other	20	3.7	8	1.5
Neither to the viewer nor to each other	51	9.5	33	6.1
FORM 3				
Toward the viewer	11	2.0	9	1.7
Towards each other	67	12.4	54	10.0
Neither to the viewer nor to each other	29	5.4	21	3.9
FORM 4				
Toward the viewer	2	0.4	0	0.0
Towards each other	66	12.2	17	3.2
Neither to the viewer nor to each other	23	4.27	22	4.08
Σ	**341**	**63.27**	**198**	**37.73**

N - 539

Table 5.2, shows the types of gaze that males and females who are portrayed in the visuals adopt. The gazes are classified as a gaze towards the viewer, a gaze towards each other, and a gaze neither to the viewer nor to each other. The gaze towards each other implies that the character may be gazing at a character of the same gender or the opposite one. Males made 341 gazes (63.3%) of the total number, compared to females' 198 gazes (37.7%). Males made 35 cumulative gazes towards the viewer, compared to 14 for females, which is less than half as many. Males made 178 cumulative gazes at

126

other people in the visuals, whereas females made 97 cumulative gazes at other people. Hietanen et al. (2008) claim that looking at each other directly elicits higher levels of autonomic arousal than looking away. There were 128 cumulative cases of gazes that were not focused at the viewer or at each other, also known as the averted gaze, among men compared to 87 in women.

The majority of female gazes were in the classification where they glanced at each other at 97 and neither at the viewer nor each other at 87, despite the fact that female gaze incidence was normally lower than male incidence. The same tendency was observed among the males, with 178 and 128 gazes, respectively. The direction of gaze patterns in Table 5.2 demonstrates that in SETB1, the gaze of female participants was toward each other as shown by 60.0%, neither to the viewer nor to each other as shown by 36.7%, and toward the viewer as shown by 3.3%. In SETB2, the gaze of female participants was neither to the viewer nor to each other, as shown by 73.3%; towards each other, as shown by 17.8%; and toward the viewer, as shown by 8.9%. In SETB3, the gaze of female participants was toward each other as shown by 64.3%; neither to the viewer nor to each other as shown by 25%; and toward the viewer as shown by 10.7%. In the four sampled textbooks, the gaze of female participants was neither to the viewer nor to each other, as shown by 56.4%, nor towards each other, as shown by 43.6%. The findings reveal that, in SETB1 and SETB3, most female participants in the visuals gazed towards each other; nevertheless, most female participants in SETB2 and SETB4 gazed neither to the viewer nor to each other.

The results in the four selected textbooks show that both males and females are likely to gaze towards each other and away from the viewer. In terms of gaze toward the viewer, the results of secondary textbooks indicated a weaker dominance, whereby out of the total 49 times the characters were presented gazing towards the viewer, 35 (71.0%) times were for males against 14 (29.0%) times for female characters in all the four selected textbooks. The gender whose participants are represented more gazing towards the viewer is deemed more powerful than the gender with fewer frequencies. Accordingly, males are portrayed as exercising more power towards the viewers than the females.

Table 5.2 reveals that from the study's corpora, both males and females are likely to gaze towards each other and away from the viewer. In terms of gaze toward the viewer, the results of secondary textbooks indicated a weaker dominance, whereby out of the total 49 times the characters were presented gazing towards the viewer, 35 (71.0%) times were for males against 14 (29.0%) times for female characters in all the four selected textbooks. This finding resonates with other studies that have been done before (Dyler, 1992). The findings indicate that, compared to girls, males in secondary English-language novels looked at the viewer more often. According to a study by Dyler (1992), males dislike the femininity of looking at the viewer and regard it as a passive behavior that reveals their vulnerability. Women may be depicted as more mere observers of an active gaze than men, according to Dyler (1992). The results of the present study, however, indicate that men/boys were more engaged in their gaze toward the viewer than women/girls were. That is, females gazed at the viewer less than males did.

As a result, men have been portrayed as being more likely than women to be active participants in the visual signs. It is worth noting the frequency with which each gender appears in the textbook images. Women are presented in fewer images as compared to men, as shown in Table 5.2 Males outnumbered females in the visual signs of the secondary English textbook, which is a sign of supremacy and domination on the part of the male participants.

5.2.2 Social Distance in Images

As we turn our attention to social distance, Macken-Horarik (2004, p. 14) notes that it is the spacing from which people, places, and things are exhibited and produces a visual correlation of physical proximity in daily interactions. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) point out that varied frame sizes, such as extremely close, close shot, medium close, medium shot, and medium long, can be used to denote social distance. Only the head or face can be seen in a very close camera shot, whereas heads and shoulders are seen in a close image. From a medium distance, individuals are depicted from the knee up, but from a close-up, participants are visible from the waist up. At a medium distance, the entire figure is visible, and at a great distance, the entire figure and the surrounding area are visible.

Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) note that while long shots are impersonal and portray participants as if they are strangers we might pass on the street, extreme close-up shots foster a closeness between the observer and the represented participant, ensuring that the participant is depicted as if they were our lover or close friend. They also note that the

social distance between the spectator and the participants can be influenced by the selection of distance between the image's situation and its participants. The findings on social distance in the current study are shown in Table 5.3, which highlights social distance in terms of very *close, close shot, medium, medium shot,* and *medium distance* as portrayed by females and males. The total number of females and males in a given social distance, as well as their corresponding percentages, are depicted in the textbooks.

Table 5.3 Social Distance between Male and Female Participants

S/D	FORM 1		FORM 2		FORM 3		FORM 4		Σ	%
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
V/C	6	5	2	1	2	5	2	2	**25**	**4.7**
C/S	1	0	10	11	12	2	4	0	**40**	**7.5**
M/C	6	4	24	14	16	15	16	6	**101**	**19.0**
M/S	11	8	8	6	10	9	12	2	**66**	**12.4**
M/L	20	11	24	9	11	18	42	23	**158**	**29.6**
L/S	19	9	13	8	47	25	14	8	**143**	**26.8**
Σ	**63**	**37**	**81**	**49**	**98**	**74**	**90**	**41**	**533**	**100**
%	**11.8**	**6.9**	**15.2**	**9.2**	**18.4**	**13.9**	**16.9**	**7.7**	**100**	

S/D - Social Distance   **V/C – Very Close**   **C/S - Close Shot**   **M/C   – Medium Close**

M/S - Medium Shot M/L – Medium Long   **L/S – Long Shot   M – Males F-Females**

N = 533

According to Table 5.3, medium near had the highest prevalence, with 158 occurrences (29.6%), followed by long shot, with 143 occurrences (26.8%), and medium close, with 101 (19.0%), in that order. Also noteworthy are the low and second-lowest occurrence rates for the variables Extremely Near, Close Shot, which were 25 (4.7%), and 40 (7.5%), respectively. In most categories of social distance, males recorded frequency components than females in terms of male-female distinction. Medium-long and long shot interactions had the highest prevalence, at a combined 56.5%, suggesting that both men and women prefer more formal than informal interactions. It was interesting to note, however, that medium-close, which tends to be more intimate, had a higher occurrence rate than the neighboring medium and close shots, making it appear to be an outlier.

SETB1's social distance patterns revealed that the image with the very close social distance (heads only) had a composition of 54.5% males and 45.5% females, while the image with the close social distance (heads and shoulders in the images) had only males (100%). In addition, the images where the social distance was medium close, where participants' waists and up were portrayed, had a composition of 60.0% males and 40.0% females, while the image with a medium distance (the participants are seen from the knees up) had a composition of 57.9% males and 42.1% females. Further, the image where the social distance was medium-long (participants' whole figure is seen) had 64.5% males and 35.5% females, while the one with a long-shot social distance (some space is detected around the participants' whole figure) had 67.9% males and 32.1% females.

The same trend is replicated in the form of two textbooks, which showed that the image with a very close social distance (heads only are seen) had a composition of 67.0% males and 33.0% females, while the image with a close social distance (heads and shoulders in the images are seen) had 52.0% females and 48.0% males. In addition, the images where the social distance was medium close, where participants' waists and up were portrayed, comprised of 63.2% males and 36.8% females, while the image with a medium shot (the participants are seen from the knees up) had a composition of 57.1% males and 42.9% females. Further, the image where the social distance was medium-long (participants' whole figure is seen) had 72.7% males and 27.3% females, while the one with a long-shot social distance (some space is detected around the participants' whole figure) had 61.9% males and 38.1% females.

The results regarding SETB3 show that the image with a very close social distance (heads only are seen) had a composition of 71.4% males and 28.6% females, while the image with a close social distance (heads and shoulders in the images are seen) had 85.7% females and 14.3% males. In addition, the images where the social distance was medium close, where participants' waists and up were portrayed, had a composition of 51.6% males and 48.4% females, while the image with a medium distance (the participants are seen from the knees up) had a composition of 52.6% males and 47.4% females. Further, the image where the social distance was medium-long (participants' whole figure is seen) had 62.1% males and 37.9% females, while the one with a long-shot social distance (some space is detected around the participants' whole figure) had 34.7% males and 65.3% females.

SETB4 shows that the images represented indicating very close social distance (heads only are seen) had a composition of 50.0% males and 50.0% females, while the image where the social distance was close (heads and shoulders in the images are seen) had only males; specifically, four male characters were represented in this shot. In addition, the images where the social distance was medium close, where participants' waists and up were portrayed, had a composition of 72.7% males and 27.3% females, while the image with a medium distance (the participants are seen from the knees up) had a composition of 85.7% males and 14.3% females. Further, the image where the social distance was medium-long (participants' whole figure is seen) had 64.6% males and 35.1% females, while the one with a long-shot social distance (some space is detected around the participants' whole figure) had 63.6% males and 36.4% females. The females were shown in close-up images with the same percentage that the men were represented. Nonetheless, men appeared in more long-shot images than women. These results indicate the balance of power between males and females

The results in Table 5.3 show that men have a slightly higher percentage of very close-ups and close-ups than women, who are more represented in medium shots. According to Chandler (1998), zooming into a close-up can enhance the importance of a person, and this is from a semiotic perspective. Thus, the results of this study show that assigning the males more close-up images than the females makes them more powerful. The difference in SETB1 is small: 54.5% of males and 45.5% of females, whereas the difference in SETB2 and SETB3 is large: 67% of males and 33% of females, or 71.4% of males and 28.6% of females, respectively. These differences in the use of visual casts like the frame

of images reveal that men were more likely to be represented in close-up images. These results clearly show the more socially important face of men who are portrayed more in close up camera shot in comparison with women, who appeared more in medium and long shots. Figure 5.2 portrays a qualitative data on representational metafunction.

Note. This image was sourced from the comprehension titled The Money Doubler From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p.22),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 5.2 A Visual Sign on Representational Metafunction

Figure 5.2 portrays participants of both genders: males and females. On the aspect of image distance, none of the participants is portrayed in a very close shot, where only the participants' heads are seen. One female and one male are portrayed with a long shot

(some space is detected around the participants). Also, one female and one male are depicted in the medium close shot, and a man is represented in the close shot where the head and shoulders are seen. The qualitative analysis illuminates the quantitative results in all the four selected textbooks, which revealed that more males than females are represented in the very close and close shots. This representation affirms the presence of gender disparity in the visuals, as males are more outstanding in the images than their female counterparts are. This revelation may influence the female learners negatively upon seeing the male counterparts being represented more prominently than the females in the linguistic signs.

5.3 Compositional Metafunction /Place of Positioning

In the current study, compositional metafunction or location of placing was another component of the images. The interaction between representational and interactive processes to produce an intentional totality is known as compositional metafunction (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006). In order to analyze how gender is represented in the visuals, our study concentrated on the framing and positioning of the compositional mode's elements. According to Kress & Van Leeuwen (2006), information placed on the right side of shown images is thought to be fresh information, but information placed on the left side is perceived as being old information. The components at the top are regarded as ideal or as making a promise, whilst those at the bottom are regarded as true or as facts. Table 5.4 provides trends for element placement in the chosen visuals in terms of frequency and related percentages for the chosen English textbook.

Table 5.4 Distribution of occurrences in compositional metafunction

Positioning	Males		Females	
	Occurrences	%	occurrences	%
FORM 1				
Right side	33	6.3	19	3.6
Left side	15	2.9	14	2.7
Bottom	3	0.6	2	0.9
Top	9	1.7	1	0.2
FORM 2				
Right side	27	5.1	19	3.6
Left side	31	5.9	8	1.5
Bottom	11	2.1	6	1.1
Top	9	1.7	6	1.1
FORM 3				
Right side	31	5.9	24	4.6
Left side	31	5.9	25	4.8
Bottom	12	2.3	14	2.7
Top	24	4.6	17	3.2
FORM 4				
Right side	33	6.3	18	3.4
Left side	42	8.0	15	2.9
Bottom	10	1.9	4	0.8
Top	7	1.3	5	1.0
Σ	**328**	**62.5**	**197**	**37.5**

N = 525

Men/boys had more positions than women/girls did at 328 (62.5% vs. 37.5%), according to Table 5.4's patterns. It is noticeable that males registered more incidences in each of the four locations than females. As a result, there were far more male than female photos on the right side—124 (23.6) as opposed to 80 (15.2). On the left, there were 119 (22.7%) male photos and 62 (9.8%) female photos. The lower side has similar patterns, with male images appearing 36 times (6.9%) compared to female images 26 times (5.0%). Similar results may be observed on the top side, where male images are recorded more frequently—49 times (9.3%)—than female images—29 times (5.5%).

The placement of the parts in respect to one another reveals significant information about the photographs. Pictures' left-side components are thought to contain out-of-date information, whilst their right-side components contain more recent information (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006). The elements at the top are viewed as ideal or constructive. It is believed that the components displayed at the bottom are accurate or factual. These traits seem to be more prevalent in males than in females in general. Figure 5.3 demonstrates positioning of participants on the frame.

Note. A visual sign from Unit 9 listening and speaking: The Arinkon. From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p.16),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 5.3 A Visual Sign Portraying Compositional Metafunction

Figure 5.3 reveals eight males that are placed on the right side of the frame, six on the left, and one male at the top, while two females are portrayed on the left side of the frame. The image clearly shows that males occupy three parts of the frame while females are being depicted in only one position.

Figure 5.3 analysis affirms the quantitative analysis, which showed that males tended to be positioned in varied places on the visual frame, hence dominantly represented in the visuals, which translates to gender bias against the females who are displayed in fewer

places on the image frame. All these aspects of positioning of participants in the visual signs are in favour of males, a sign of gender bias against females.

5.4 Actional Processes of the Visuals

Also, the actional processes of the textbook visuals were also analysed. The four categories of actor, goal, behaver, and reactor were utilized to categorize the actional processes in the chosen pictures in accordance with Kress and van Leeuwen (2006). A goal is the object of an action by an actor, whereas an actor is a participant who is depicted as acting towards another player (in this example, a goal). A behaver is a participant who acts in a non-transitive way in response to other players' actions, such as grinning or running, while a reactor reacts by fixing their gaze on a model, object, or circumstance. Table 5.5 presents the findings from the sampled textbooks.

Table 5.5 Distribution of Frequencies on Actional Processes of the Visuals

Functional Role	Males		Females	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
FORM 1				
Actor	22	3.8	5	0.9
Goal	20	3.5	13	2.3
Behaver	13	2.3	11	1.9
Reactor	14	2.4	1	0.2
FORM 2				
Actor	11	1.9	9	1.6
Goal	31	5.4	11	1.9
Behaver	34	5.9	20	3.5
Reactor	5	0.9	1	0.2
FORM 3				
Actor	30	5.2	14	2.4
Goal	49	8.5	52	9.1
Behaver	27	4.7	19	3.3
Reactor	21	3.7	0	0.0
FORM 4				
Actor	31	5.4	8	1.4
Goal	41	7.1	15	2.6
Behaver	29	5.1	14	2.4
Reactor	1	0.2	2	0.4
Σ	**379**	**66.0**	**195**	**34.0**

N-574

Table 5.5 represents the actional processes in which males and females are engaged in the visual signs of the selected textbooks, males and females' totals and their corresponding percentages in the roles that they play in the visuals. The represented roles are actor role, goal role, behaver role and the reacter role.

According to Table 5.5, there were 379 (66.0%) male-assigned positions in the sampled photos compared to 195 (34.0%) female-assigned roles. It is also interesting to note that more men than women appeared in the four roles in the chosen photographs. Particularly, 94 (16.4%) males and 36 (6.3%) females were given the role of actor, respectively. In a similar vein, males received 141 (24.6%) target roles while females received 91 (15.9%) of the same responsibilities. The behaver role follows a similar pattern, with men having a rate of 103 (17.9%) compared to women's 64 (11.2%). Lastly, in the reactor role, male images played the role 69 (7.1%) times against female images at 4 (0.7%).

Males assign themselves the position of actor, according to Marefat & Marzban's (2014) research, which is supported by the higher intensity of actor roles ascribed to the male gender in this study. In a different study, Danova (2006) found that female images were more likely than male images to have goal roles, suggesting that women typically play the subservient position in society. It was fascinating to see that more male images than female images were given the target role in the study. The results also diverge with Berger's (1979) research, which found that women behaved passively in society and filled

141

executive functions while men functioned as actors in images. In contrast, the current study reveals that even though the reactor role had the lowest prevalence in the study data, more males than females were given the role, at 69 (7.1%) and 4, respectively. So, more research is required in this area to understand how the material creators currently feel about the apparent role reversal.

Thus, the results from all the selected textbooks show that the percentage of male roles as active participants is higher than that of females. The males have been presented as more active participants in the images than the females. The findings also show more males than females are assigned gender roles as the goal of participants' actions. These findings are different from earlier studies that represented women with more instances of the goal role than males, indicating a higher submissive role in comparison with the picture of males (Danova, 2006). This may be due to the greater representation of males in the text as compared to females.

The results are advanced further by the percentage of participants who played a reactive role; males were portrayed as playing a reactive role more than females in the textbook visual signs. The results diverge from Berger's (1979) study, which discovered that women acted out the pictures while males only appeared as reactors and that women take passive roles in society. This also implies that, compared to men, women are more inclined to interact to other participants. Tables 5.4 to 5.5 demonstrate the dominance of men (as actors). The qualitative analysis of Figure 5.4 brings out this amplified masculine domination quite clearly.
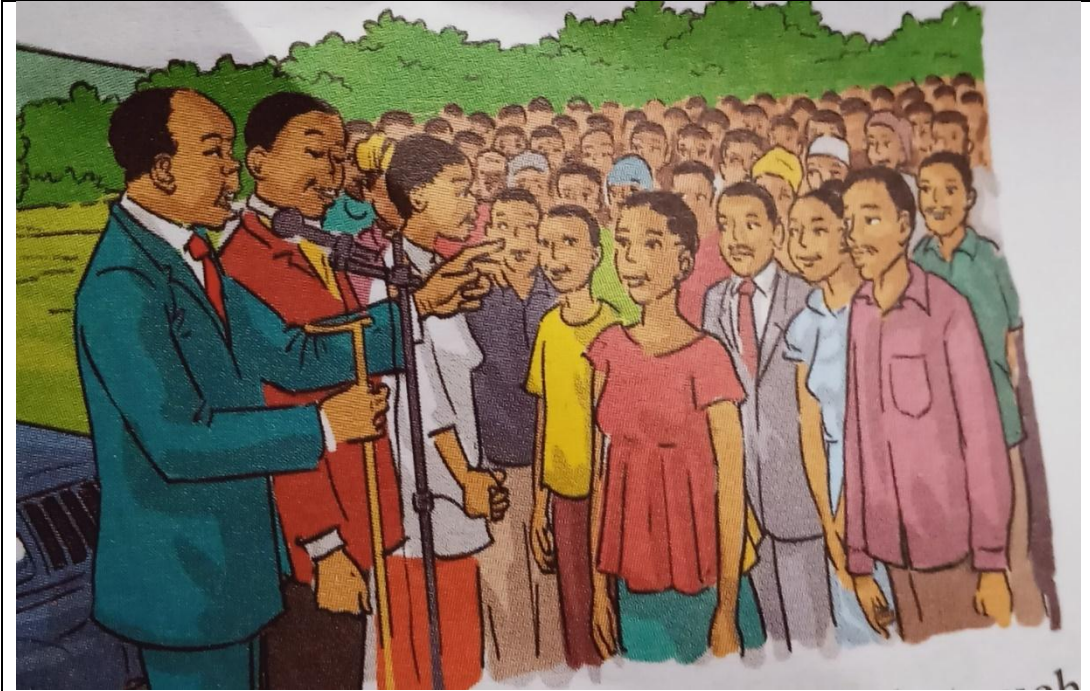
Note. Image from Unit 16: comprehension: A good Leader From Secondary English Form One Student's Book (4th ed. p. 133),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and T. Nyaa, 2018, KLB

Figure 5.4 A Visual Sign Portraying Actional Processes

One female and two males are facing the audience (consisting of both females and males) are shown in Figure 5.4. All the participants are standing. There seems to be one outstanding male who is addressing the audience, therefore the actor of a transactional action is a male while the audience is the target of a transactional action. Due to a vector connecting the male to the audience, the transactional process of the male participants is unidirectional. An eye line vector connects the woman and the male participants in a transactional reaction process. Figure 5.5 displays similar relationships.

"Stop it! Let the little boy alone."
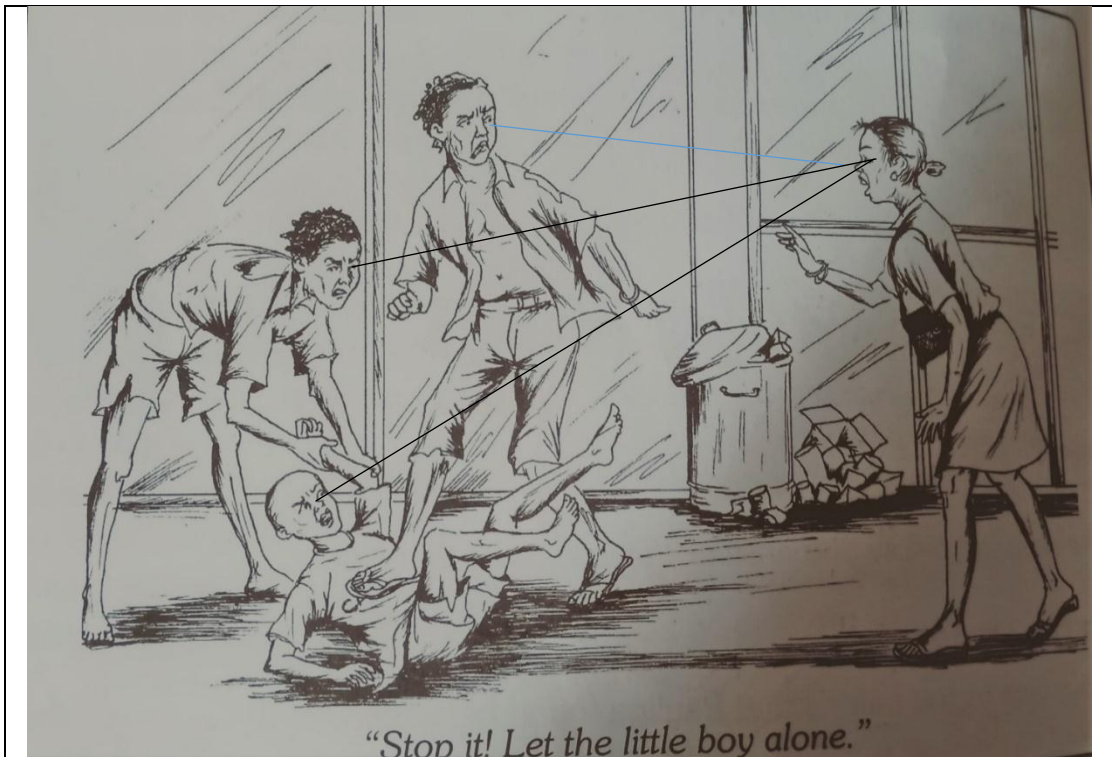
Note. The visual is from a Reading and comprehension titled Life on the Streets. From New Horizons in English A Course for Secondary schools 4 Student's Book (p. 14),' by A. Kiai, B. Oduor and E. Owuor, 2018, East African Educational Publishers

Figure 5.5 A Visual Sign Portraying Actional Processes

Figure 5.5 portrays two big boys who are actors in a transactional action, while the young boy is the goal. One of the big boy's feet is on the young boy's chest, while one of the big boys is threatening the same young boy. The female participant is also an actor involved in a transactional action: talking and pointing at the two big boys. In addition, the transactional process of the female participant is unidirectional because there is a vector that connects her (the female actor) and the goals (two big boys). The young boy is involved in a transactional reaction process where an eye line vector connects him (the

144

young boy) and the female actor. The woman and the two boys are involved in a unidirectional transactional action whereby they are connected by a vector. Figure 5.6 presents participants as actors exhibiting different relationships.

Note. A visual sign from Unit 9 listening and speaking: The Arinkon. From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p.132),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 5.6 A Visual Indicating Roles of Participants

Figure 5.6 depicts a father, a daughter, a mother, and a son as its four participants. A bidirectional vector is created, with the father and son serving as both actors and goals. A

vector produced by the man's head and the woman's body emanates from the parents to the television, and this process might be understood to suggest that they are the actors in a transactional activity with the news anchor on television as the aim. This demonstrates that the couple is capable of doing something—watching television—together. The father's head direction creates a bidirectional vector, and the son and father are both the actors and the goal. The father's head turning in the direction of his son's eyes creates a bidirectional vector, making the father and son both actors and the goal. The daughter is the reactor in the process, which takes on the characteristics of a reactional event. Her gaze at the television creates an eye line. She smiles in response to the news anchor's action. According to Kress and van Leeuwen (2006), this type of procedure can be understood to suggest that the daughter is an admirer of the news presenter's words while the news anchor, who is a male, is the "doer" or the actor.

The qualitative analysis of Figure 5.4 to Figure 5.6 affirm the quantitative findings that males are predominantly playing the actors role in the selected secondary English textbooks that can be interpreted as gender bias against the females.

5.4.1 Realization of Vectors in Visuals

Vectors play a crucial role in the study of images because they specify social relationships. The four different sorts of relationships that can be determined by vectors are non-transactional, transactional, unidirectional, and bi-directional, claim Van Leeuwen (2005) and Kress & van Leeuwen (2006). A participant has a non-transactional relationship when they are shown in visuals acting independently, whereas a participant

has a transactional relationship when they are acting in support of a goal or another participant. A bidirectional relationship develops when a two-way vector combines two or more participants, as opposed to a unidirectional relationship, which occurs when one member acts toward another without expecting anything in return. "When players are connected by a vector, they are portrayed as doing something to or for each other," write Kress & van Leeuwen (2006, p. 59). In Table 5.6, which lists the many sorts of realized vectors, males and females in the chosen textbooks summarize how vectors are represented in the study's data. The visual signs include non-transactional, transactional, unidirectional, and bidirectional transactional vectors as well as the associated frequencies and percentages of males and females.

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Table 5.6 Distributions of Frequencies of Vectors in Visual Signs

Type of Vector	Males		Females	
	Frequencies	**%**	**Frequencies**	**%**
FORM 1				
Non-transactional	10	3.6	8	2.9
Transactional	3	1.1	0	0.0
Unidirectional transactional	11	4.0	7	2.5
Bidirectional transactional	6	2.2	0	0.00
FORM 2				
Non-transactional	26	9.4	13	4.7
Transactional	4	1.4	1	0.4
Unidirectional transactional	9	3.2	4	1.4
Bidirectional transactional	16	5.8	7	2.5
FORM 3				
Non-transactional	16	5.8	6	2.2
Transactional	15	5.4	9	3.2
Unidirectional transactional	5	1.8	4	1.4
Bidirectional transactional	9	3.2	8	2.9
FORM 4				
Non-transactional	11	4.0	15	5.4
Transactional	21	7.6	4	1.4
Unidirectional transactional	5	1.8	3	1.1
Bidirectional transactional	11	4.0	11	4.0
Σ	**178**	**64.0**	**100**	**36.0**

N = 278

Males showed a larger cumulative incidence of transactional relationships than females, with 178 (64.0%) compared to 100 (36.0%) in Table 5.6's patterns. Male images

148

exhibited each of the four types of partnerships more frequently than female ones. Male images had a prevalence of 63 (22.7%) in the non-transactional kind, compared to female images' 42 (15.1%). When an action is not "done to," "done with," or "aimed at" anybody or anything, a non-transactional relationship exists (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.63). Males had 43 (15.5%) instances in the transactional category compared to 14 (5.0%) for females. For the male and female photos, the unidirectional relation showed 30 (13.0%) and 18 (6.5%) occurrences, respectively. The same pattern was seen in the bidirectional relationship, with 42 (15.1%) and 26 (9.4%) for male and female pictures, respectively. The total scores show that men and boys are more inclined than women and girls to take action on behalf of the other gender.

Table 5.6 reveals that, in SETB3, the number of people identified as doing something alone in the visuals was 26, out of which 42.3% were males and 57.7% were females. Those identified as doing something toward a goal or toward someone else in the visuals were 25; 84.0% were males and 16.0% were females. Furthermore, 8 were identified as unidirectional transactional (a process in which a vector connects two participants), with 62.5% being male and 37.5% being female. Also, it was discovered that there were 22 individuals involved in bidirectional transactions (a vector connects two interactors), with 50.0% of them being men and 50.0% of them being women. Women are disproportionately represented in statistics as actors, but they also dominate as goals because they participate in most bidirectional actions. Throughout these processes, women are doing for and being done by others. Males are statistically predominating in unidirectional actions compared to females; they are cast as the actor who is "doing

something." In transactional reactions, both men and women are shown as reacters, but only men are portrayed as the phenomena. In a qualitative study Figure 5.7 this trend is further demonstrated.
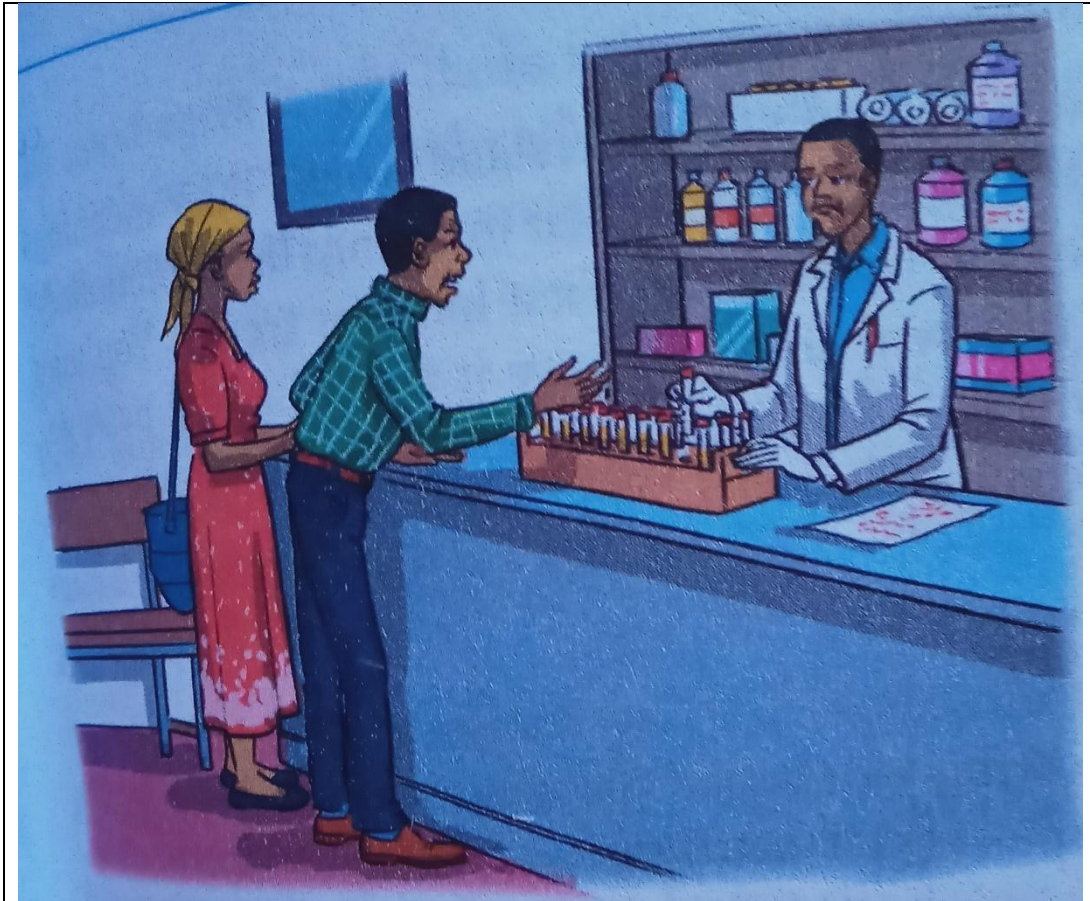
Note. The visual sign is from a comprehension in form I textbook The Sick Man From Secondary English Form One Student's Book (4th ed. p. 13),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and T. Nyaa, 2018, KLB

Figure 5.7 A Visual Sign on Realization of Vectors

Figure 5.7 represents the image act that addresses the direction of the involved participants: a woman (Jennifer), two men (Ngugi, and a laboratory assistant). The laboratory assistant's gaze is fixed on the audience, as well as on a female named Jennifer

and a male named Ngugi. The laboratory assistant is the centre of attention, as displayed by the irrefutable presence of two participants (a man and a woman) looking at him. He is essentially the goal and is involved in a unidirectional action process, in which there is one actor among the participants and two goals.

Furthermore, the female participant is portrayed as a bystander to the action between the two male participants. The female appears to be a behaver in the conversation, which seems to be going on between the two male participants. Though the woman is depicted in a more confident and an upright posture, it appears that she is following the discourse between the males. The bent posture adopted by the male next to the woman should not be mistaken for weakness for the male seems to be engaging a more senior participant and therefore the leaning forward to attract the attention of the male scouting a dust coat. This portrayal shows that men are more powerful and significant than women, an indicator of a gender bias against females.

The overall analysis of the data in this chapter reveals that males are more visible in all the categories, and that the English textbook had a bias toward men and tried to overshadow the visibility of women. The analysis of visuals in the *four selected textbooks* was conducted based on the elements of social semiotics like frequency, gaze, modality, social distance, compositional, and actional processes. The revelation of gender construction in the visual signs seems to contradict the gender policies in Kenya that advocate for gender parity in all the spheres of society. The important role played by textbooks and more so the English language textbooks seems compromised by gender

bias against females for this may compromise the quality of education offered in the Kenyan classroom. The findings are consistent with other research that looked at gender representation in ELT textbooks (Amini, 2012; Ansary & Babaii, 2003; Dominguez, 2003; Giaschi, 2000; Paivandi, 2008; Stockdale, 2006). Females are less visible than males in the Iranian English textbooks for the second and third years of high school, according to Amini (2012).

According to Porreca (1984), women are not as frequently shown to demonstrate their presence as men are, and their accomplishments are not as significant. The outcome was somewhat consistent with research by Tajeddin and Janebi Enayat (2010). They concluded that males are portrayed in ILI textbooks as being more strong, actors, breadwinners, and significant, whereas girls are passive and socially subordinate to males.

The results show that females are less noticeable in the visual images than males. Males and females in traditional civilizations exhibit various forms of social orientation, according to Berger (1972). The level of power that men offer is what determines how great they are. Power often takes on moral, physical, and financial manifestations. The fact that there are now more females than males shows that possibly time is changing. The existence of women may be shown more equally as one of the two crucial concepts in society as feminism movements increase the necessity for their implications to be applied in society. Textbooks being powerful media in transmitting knowledge, skills and attitudes to the learners should feature equal representation of gender justified by the

concept that learners spend 80- 90% of the learning time interacting with the textbooks (Sadker & Zittleman, 2007). Consequently, the learners perceptions may be shaped towards a certain end.

From the above interpretations, the findings on visual images in the four selected textbooks have shown that there is tendency to preserve the stereotyped disparity of gender portrayal in which males are depicted to be more significant, independent and active albeit the females to be dependent, passive, and restricted. These results are consistent with Huang's (2009) study, which found that males were disproportionately represented in the graphics in Taiwan's junior high school English textbooks.

The results of the present study, however, differ from those of Yang's (2011) study, which found that elementary school textbooks did not exhibit a significant biased stance toward either men or women. The researcher also observed that the series of textbooks he looked at lacked the female invisibility that was common in textbooks written in the early 1970s. Male and female presence was equal, with more female figures depicted in drawings and more female-spoken words. Nagatomo's (2010) study on Conversation Themes for Japanese University Students, which found that female characters were more visible and appeared to perform more active roles than male characters, provides findings that are contrary to the current study's interpretation. In contrast to this study, where their appearance was only 28.4%, they had a visual majority by featuring in 62.0% of the images that featured people.

The findings of this study are consistent with a substantial body of past research on the representation of gender in textbooks and other educational materials. These results demonstrate that gender disparities are still substantial and ubiquitous. Stereotypical, biased, and stereotyped depictions of gender are still prevalent in these textbooks. In these textbooks, female characters were underrepresented in qualitatively and numerically. Specifically, there were less female participants in the images than there were males. Undoubtedly, the data showed that images subtly and overtly portrayed men as superior to women.

5.5 Summary of chapter

At this point in the study, aspects of gender construction in the linguistic items and visual signs have been analyzed, and tables disclosing the regularity manifestation of the facets studied have also been presented. The chapter has presented the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the visual signs in the selected English textbooks. It has been noted that the males outnumber the females in the study's corpora in all the tokens of analysis. Results in this chapter have revealed that gender disparities are still immense and prevalent. Typical, prototypical, and prejudicial visuals and percipience of gender recognition is still rife in these textbooks. Certainly, the analysis revealed that visuals implicitly and explicitly represented males as superior to females. The chapter that follows focuses on the social contexts within which gender representation in the chosen textbooks in order to reveal the social conditions within which gender is represented in linguistic and visual signs.

CHAPTER SIX

SOCIAL CONTEXTS UNDERLYING GENDER REPRESENTATION

6.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on illuminating the social background that underlies how males and females are portrayed in the visual and linguistic signs in secondary English textbooks in Kenya. According to Halliday (1978), people's routine behaviors and speech reflect the social structure, emphasizing their own social statuses and duties as well as establishing and expressing the synergistic order of value and knowledge. It requires attention on the literal and figurative meanings, explaining the discourse and the linguistic system that underlies it in terms of the context, and interpreting language in relation to its place in the social process. Language reflects society's attitudes and beliefs toward the male and female genders; therefore, creating gender roles and stereotypes, interpreting language is essential to constructing gender representation in English textbooks (Jewitt & Kress, 2003). Most areas or contexts of a person's social life, including school, family, and the job, the services industry, and the business world, exhibit gender prejudice (Skliar, 2007).

Gender bias manifests itself in all spheres or contexts of people's social life, such as education, family, the workplace, the services sector, and the business field (Skliar, 2007). Hallidayan (1978) SFL theory was used in analysing the dialogues, which in the current study are in written form though intended to be spoken. The analysis of the social context within which gender is represented reveals how gender is constructed within the

155

home context, the work place or occupation context, and the socialization context in the cultural background of Kenya as a country.

6.1 Gender roles

SFL, Social Construction Reality theory, and the concepts of social semiotics theory were used to study gender role portrayal in secondary English textbooks in Kenya while also taking into account the activities that men and women engage in. Males and females in traditional civilizations exhibit various forms of social orientation, according to Berger (1972). The activities in SETB1, SETB2, SETB3 and SETB4 that outline gender roles in a domestic setting are shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Distribution of Frequencies of Male and Female Activities

Form	Household activities				Outdoor activities			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
One	01	14.3	11	33.3	14	42.4	06	46.2
Two	02	28.6	05	15.2	07	21.2	0	00
Three	03	42.9	07	21.2	03	09.1	03	23.1
Four	01	14.3	10	30.3	09	27.3	04	30.8
Σ	**07**	**100**	**33**	**100**	**33**	**100**	**13**	**100**

F- Frequencies N -85

Patterns in Table 6.1 show that males outnumber females on the outdoor activities with cumulative occurrences of 33(76.4%) compared to females occurring 10 times (23.3%). However, females are portrayed more frequently than males engaging in household activities at 33 (82.5%) against males 7 times (17.5%). The qualitative data represented by examples 95-107 affirms the quantitative findings.

95.   Joshua would want to help her mother prepare supper.SETB4 p.53

96.   His mother cooks his food, washes his clothes. SETB3 p.192

97.   Judy is cooking because Jennifer wont cook.SETB4 p.214

98.   He found his mother waiting at home. SETB3 p.147

99.   She repaired the broom whose handle was broken. SETB3 p.171

100.   He offered to drive me home SETB3 p.57

101.   She plans to expand her business. SETB3 p.57

102.   The kitchen of my mother is very neat SETB2 p.37

103.   The boy's father left the country yesterday. SETB2 P.37

104.   Grandmother is taking the children of her children to school. SETB2 p.37.

105.   He rode his bicycle in the open field. SETB2 p.48.

106.   Maria escorted the visitors after she entertained them for two hours. SETB2 p.49.

107.   Her early years were spent on her grandmothers farm tending pigs, chickens, and cows. SETB2 p.176.

108.   . For the duration of the day, he cared for his mother and infant sister alone. Their housekeeper overstayed while visiting her in her remote home for her uncle's funeral. At the time, Karani's father was employed in the remote town of Narok. SETB1, p. 5

Examples Ref 95 - 108 shows females most featured undertaking household chores or activities associated with places of preparing food (examples Ref. 96 to 99). Males are mostly represented undertaking outdoor activities (examples Ref. 100, 103,105). This revelation translates to gender bias since males and females are not shown in similar spaces.

According to Table 6.1, both men and women engage in productive, reproductive, and socially beneficial activities including going to public bazaars and church events. The investigation of gender role portrayals in Kenyan secondary English textbooks took into account family duties and other domestic tasks. Table 6.1's findings show that in SETB1, the ideal female participated in household chores such as serving food, cleaning the home and the compound, doing the laundry, watching over the kids, and nursing their ailing husbands. SETB1 also depicts males working on household tasks like slashing grass and baking a cake. However, compared to males, there were greater home duties. Males are portrayed as engaging in outdoor pursuits like window-shopping for clothes.

Additionally, Table 6.1 displays gender preconceptions and roles played by women in SETB2 that are markedly gendered. These textbooks portray a comparable perceptions of gender representation to SETB1. The female responsibilities are associated with a domestic context and encompass tasks like caring for children, serving guests, making delectables, entertaining guests, bringing water, and carrying a baby (p. 15). (p. 92). In contrast to data from the SETB2, which show that men do participate in family chores like making dinner (p. 92), most depictions of men show them working on useful tasks.

158

As a source of money, the boys and men polish shoes, construct a house, and work on other projects. SETB3 and SETB4 textbooks reveal the same findings.

Males are portrayed in Table 6.1 as the "heads" of the household. This indicates that men rule over all facets of life at home. On p. 45, the men are seen getting married, while page 45 is where the women are shown being married. Men have also been portrayed as receiving inheritances from their fathers (p. 59) and as providing orders to their families (p. 82). In all the three activities, men are shown to be more superior to women than vice versa, which is typical in many countries. Men also engage in activities that are mostly outside of the home, such as drinking alcohol (p. 6), fishing (p. 71), playing soccer (p. 96), and cultivating plants (p. (p. 106). Females are casted indoors undertaking gender roles reflected in Figure 6.1 .

Note. A visual from Comprehension celebrating on Our Gender pp. 34. From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p. 183),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 6.1 A Female Suckling a Young One

Figure 6.1 shows a woman suckling a baby. Female students may perceive this visual that their role as a female is giving birth and breastfeeding. This depiction of females undertaking a gender role may negatively influence the females. The English textbooks are key tools of implementing the language curriculum. If the content advances gender stereotyping, the female students may develop a stereotyped gender perception on their future roles in society. The portrayal of gender stereotypes in the textbooks may have great influence on the learners' definition and identification of roles in the society.

The analysis of the four textbooks showed that women were primarily responsible for household chores like cooking and cleaning, while males engaged in physical activity. In conclusion, Table 6.1 shows that gender role representation is consistent across all textbooks. The findings show that while men are given tasks outside the home, girls and women actively participate in household duties. Males, however, participated in domestic tasks like cooking in minimal instances. The findings indicate a gender difference in home activities. Worth noting is that according to Campbell (2010), textbooks are powerful instruments that can be used to form concept and attitudes, help in learners' self-esteem and identity depending on the gender role models they are exposed to in the society. It is outright that there is a difference in the household chores between men and females which may affect the female learners' present and future perceptions on gender roles. Figures 6.1 to Figure 6.4 depict some models extracted from the sampled textbooks.
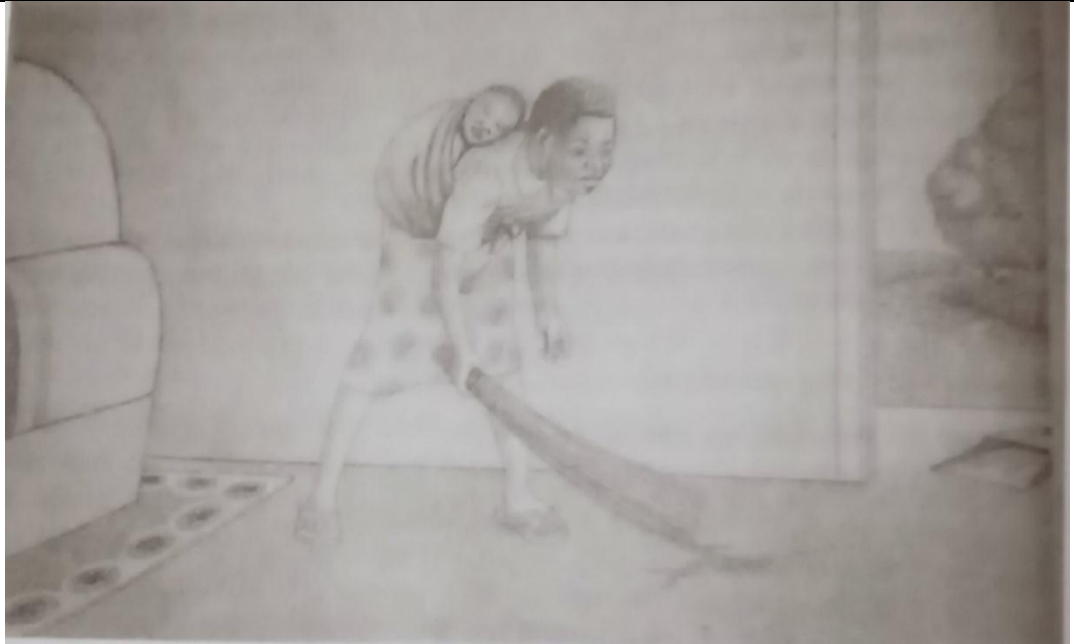
Note. A visual from Comprehension celebrating on Our Gender pp. 34. From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p. 34),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 6.2 A Visual Sign Depicting Female Gender Roles

Figure 6.2 shows a female carrying a young one on her back and sweeping at the same time. The two tasks the woman is undertaking are tasking are taking place within the home home set up. The figure shows how sometimes females are overworked especially when they have to underatake two tasks simultaneously.

The housewife has a choice of domestic utensils.
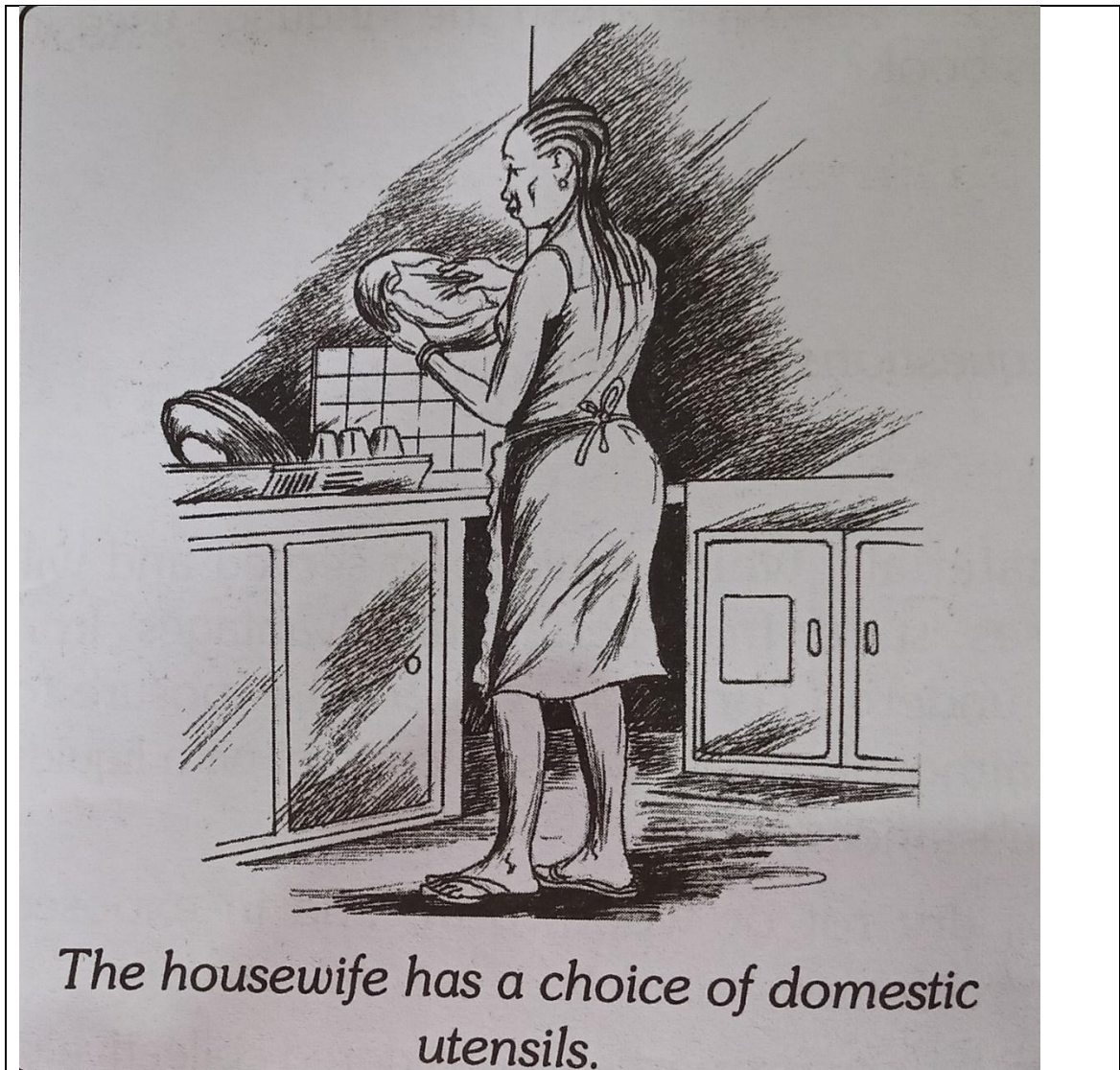
Note. The visual sign is from a Passage 2 on Plastics. From New Horizons in English A Course for Secondary schools 4 Student's Book (p.212),by A. Kiai, B. Oduor and E. Owuor, 2018, East African Educational Publishers

Figure 6.3 A Visual Sign Depicting Female Gender Roles

Figure 6.3 shows a female wiping a plate, as she seems to be keenly scrutinizing it. This activity is taking place inside a house. The visual sign affirms that some visuals in the corpus of the study are biased against females as they portray women undertaking their traditionally assigned gender roles.
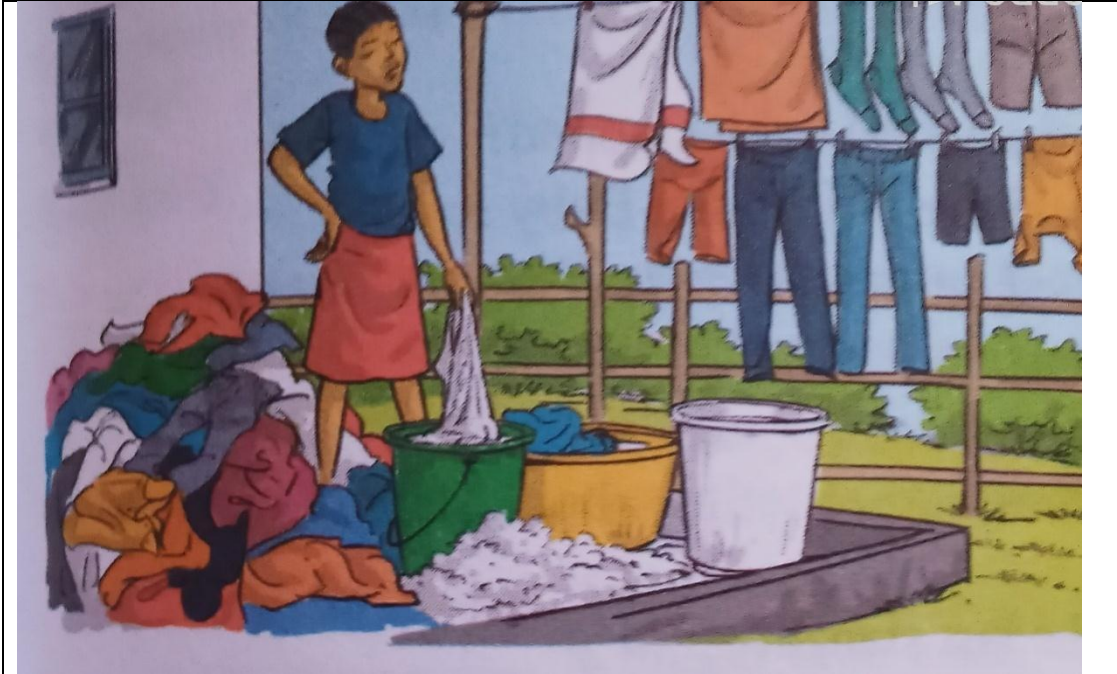
Figure 6.4 A Visual Sign Depicting Female Gender Roles

Figure 6.4 also depicts a female participant undertaking a traditionally marked gender role. The girl in the visual sign is portrayed doing laundry. The visual also shows that some of the clothes she has already hung are males, a traditional role where women and girls are required to wash the men and boys' clothes.

Note. The visual is from a Comprehension on Relating with Parents From Secondary English Form One Student's Book (4th ed. p. 30),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and T. Nyaa, 2018, KLB

Figure 6.5 A Visual Sign Portraying Household Chores

Three males are positioned on the left side of Figure 6.5, and on top of that, it is a well-known truth and an accepted element of culture that men perform more engaged or labor-intensive home tasks. Females are depicted in the same figure performing stereotypical tasks, such as mopping the floor and cleaning the windows. The females' arm make diagonal lines directed to the window and floor. As a result, the females are the actors,

while the floor and windowpanes are the goals in a transaction action process in a transactional action process. The participants are shown busy sweeping the floor and polishing the windowpanes. Perhaps a philosophical interpretation of this is possible: That female revealed herself in the traditional activity.

These findings are in tandem with Eckert and Ginet (2003, p. 39), who found that laundry and other home tasks are exclusively done by women washing the house and watering the plants. Studies in other contexts have shown that females are assigned roles based at home Mustapha's analysis (2012, 56), whereas males are assigned roles based outside the home. A significant gender disparity was noted between the domestic and social realms. However, according to Mineshima's (2008, 130) analysis of the EFL textbook; a closer look indicated that the burden for men and women is not equal although males and females are actively involved in household chores, women are more likely to do the dishes, clean up the compound, and cook. The results in the current study show that women are typically responsible for caring for daily requirements of people; women take care of the children, clean the dwellings, and prepare meals. Women are depicted performing domestic tasks including cleaning the house, cooking, and caring for the infant in SETB1, SETB2, SETB3, and SETB4.

6.2 Occupations and Social Activities

Productive work done outside home (occupational activities) and social activities were used to evaluate the social contexts in which gender is portrayed. The Social Construction of Reality theory highlights that gender bias may be portrayed by considering the kind of

occupation assigned to men and women. Most occupational activities take place outside

home. Through content analysis, the researcher analyzed outside of home gender

representations through participation of women and men in productive work outside the

home setting. SETB1 through SETB4 reveal the attitudes towards males and females in

Kenyan Culture. The data collected show males and females occupations depicted from a

traditionally stereotypical point of view that reveal sexism as shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Distribution of Occupation for Females and Males in Linguistic Signs

Form	Skilled jobs				Semi- skilled jobs			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
One	06	10.3	10	35.7	08	22.2	06	37.5
Two	12	20.7	04	14.3	12	33.3	04	25.0
Three	17	29.3	04	14.3	07	19.5	02	12.5
Four	23	39.7	10	35.7	09	25.0	04	25.0
Σ	**58**	**100**	**28**	**100**	**36**	**100**	**16**	**100**

F- Frequencies
N- 138
Table 6.2 depicts that the males registered the highest incidences in both the skilled and

semi-skilled jobs at 58(42.0%) and 36 (26.1%) respectively whilst the females recorded

the least occurrences at 28 (20.3%) for the skilled jobs and 16 occurrences (11. 6%) for

the semi-skilled jobs. The findings bears some resonates Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012)

study which examined gender bias present in four ELT textbooks used in Iranian high

schools. The study also showed that males were depicted in the textbooks as having a

wider range of occupations than females, while females were less visible in texts and photos. Qualitative data on occupational activities in the study's corpora is portrayed in examples 109-144.

109. The fisherman said, 'victoria is the biggest lake in East africa.'SETB1 p.145

110. …the new district officer had upon realizing that child labour had become rampant . It was he who had… SETB1p. 149

111. It was after Sonu truthfully answered her questions that she introduced herself as Mrs. Tinega, a social worker. SETB1 p.149

112. Mrs. mutiso, the English teacher, watched with grief as students dropped out of school. SETB1 p.120

113. The shopkeeper, Mr. Makau, smiled and said to Ndanu. 'You are such a beauty.' SETB1 p.119

114. Ronaldo is the- of the Brazilian players. SETB1 p.94

115. Professor Wangari Maathai the nobel laureate has been invited to lead your school in a planting exercise. SETB1p 168

116. The novel, A grain of wheat was written by Ngug'i wa thiongo. SETB2 p.216

117. The present that had made him a D.O reflected a past from which he had tried to run away. SETB2 p.219

118. She started having an affair with Karuri the paramount chief. SETB2 p.219

119. Thank you, Mrs Mumo could you narrate to me a myth now? SETB2 p.61

120. Ngug'i wa Thiongo is a novelist and Imbuga is a playwright. SETB2 p. 110

121. The principal has listened to each of the students. He has not made a decision. SETB2 p.118

122. Perhaps Dr. Harris, the Hospital Superintendent, was very sick. SETB4 p.163

123. He is a teacher. SETB3

124. They saw Amina. SETB3

125. Speech made by Francis Muthaura, head of public service and secretary cabinet. SETB3

126. Benson is a young lawyer. SETB3

127. Kenyans read Ngugi's books for entertainment. SETB3

128. I helped my uncle start a tailoring business. SETB3

129. Otieno is a kind teacher. SETB4 p.108

130. He is a good driver. SETB4 p. 120

131. Wanjira is a bad driver.p.120

132. Njeri is a careless typist. SETB4 p 120

133. Mr. Okello is a good teacher. p. 120

134. The late president of Kenya, Jomo Kenyatta. SETB4

135. The late president of Tanzania, Dr. Julius Nyerere. SETB4

136. His place in society was no longer obscure. He was no longer considered a poor old fisherman. SETB4 p.6

137. Jane is a nurse. SETB4 p.6

138. He was an excellent athlete. p. 214

139. The director enjoyed shareholder's support. What he did know was that one day…p.214

140. The househelp had washed the clothes. She hung them on the wash line. SETB4 p.55

141.   A burly policeman with a thick neck demanded to see our purse. SETB4 p.126

142.   Cooking makes Chef Caleb happy. SETB4 p. 72

143.   The salesgirl had wrapped the gift. She handed it to the customer. SETB4 p. 55

144.   Ronaldinho was selected the best footballer. Fans cheered wildly at him. SETB4 p. 38

Examples 97-144 shows the occupations that have been allocated to the male and female gender in the linguistic signs. Females are represented as nurses Ref. 137, social worker, Ref. 111 house help Ref. 140, salesgirl Ref. 143 teacher, Ref.112 among others. .Males are represented as District officers Ref. 110 and 120, soccer player Ref. 114, lawyers, Ref,126 medical doctor, and hospital superintendent Ref. 122 playwright, Ref. 120 novelist Ref. 116, president, Ref. 134 and Ref.135, athlete, Ref.138, director, Ref. 139, policeman, Ref. 141.Figure 6.6 through Figure 6.10 reaffirms these findings.
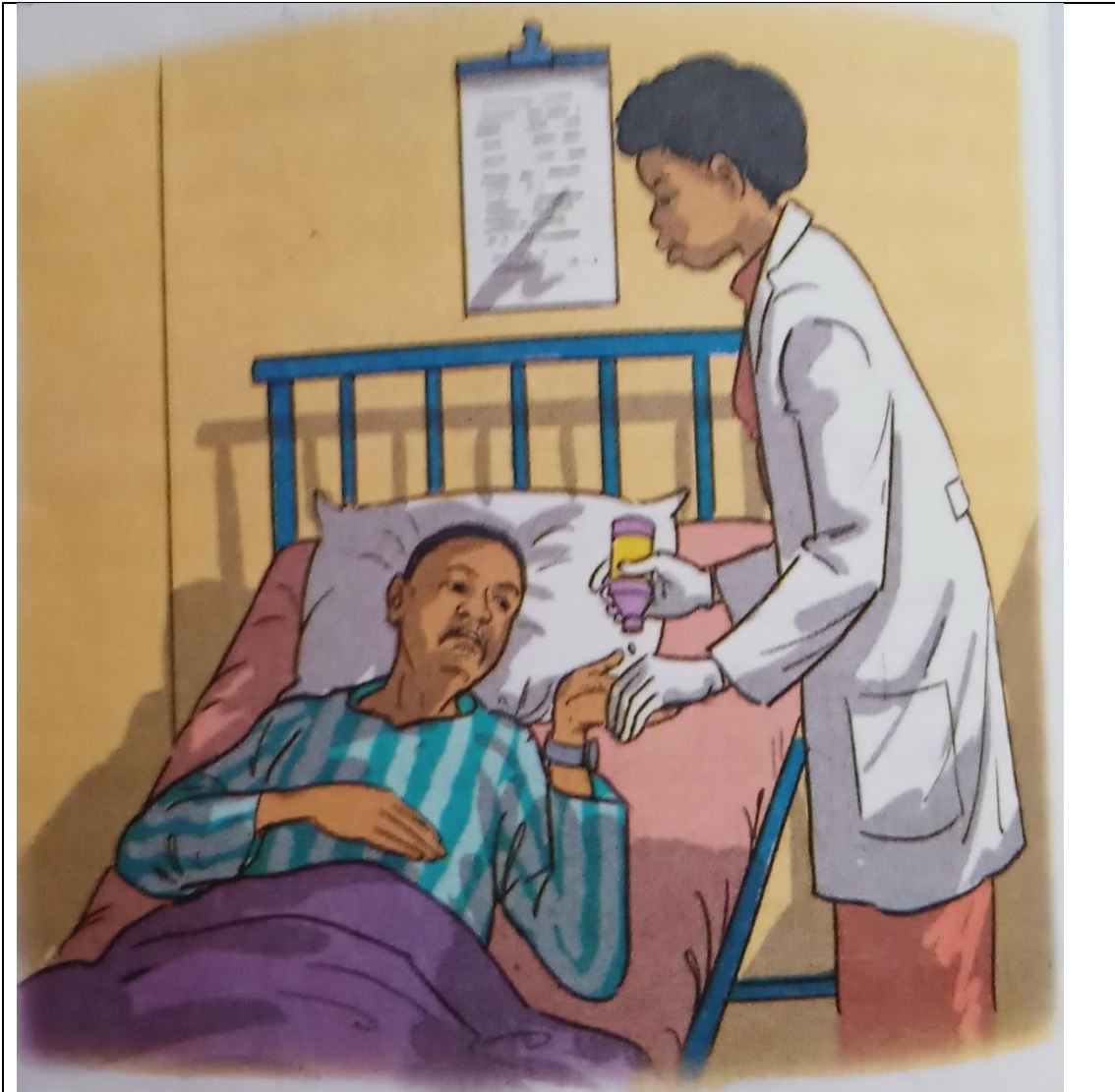
Note Sourced from the comprehension titled What About This Child From Secondary English Form One Student's Book (4th ed. p. 126),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and T. Nyaa, 2018, KLB

Figure 6.6 A Visual Sign Portraying Professions and Occupation

Figure 6.6 represents a hospital setting which in the context of this study is considered as an outside home setting- a hospital. the visual sign portrays a female and a male. The female is engaged in a productive activity known as nursing and in this representation she is attending to the hand of a male patient who keenly watches as he is being attended to.

The female is therefore a nurse, an occupation which is traditionally perceived as females. Renner (1997) defines a nurse as aproficient female who takes care of patients.'

We were hustled into a ramshackle police station.
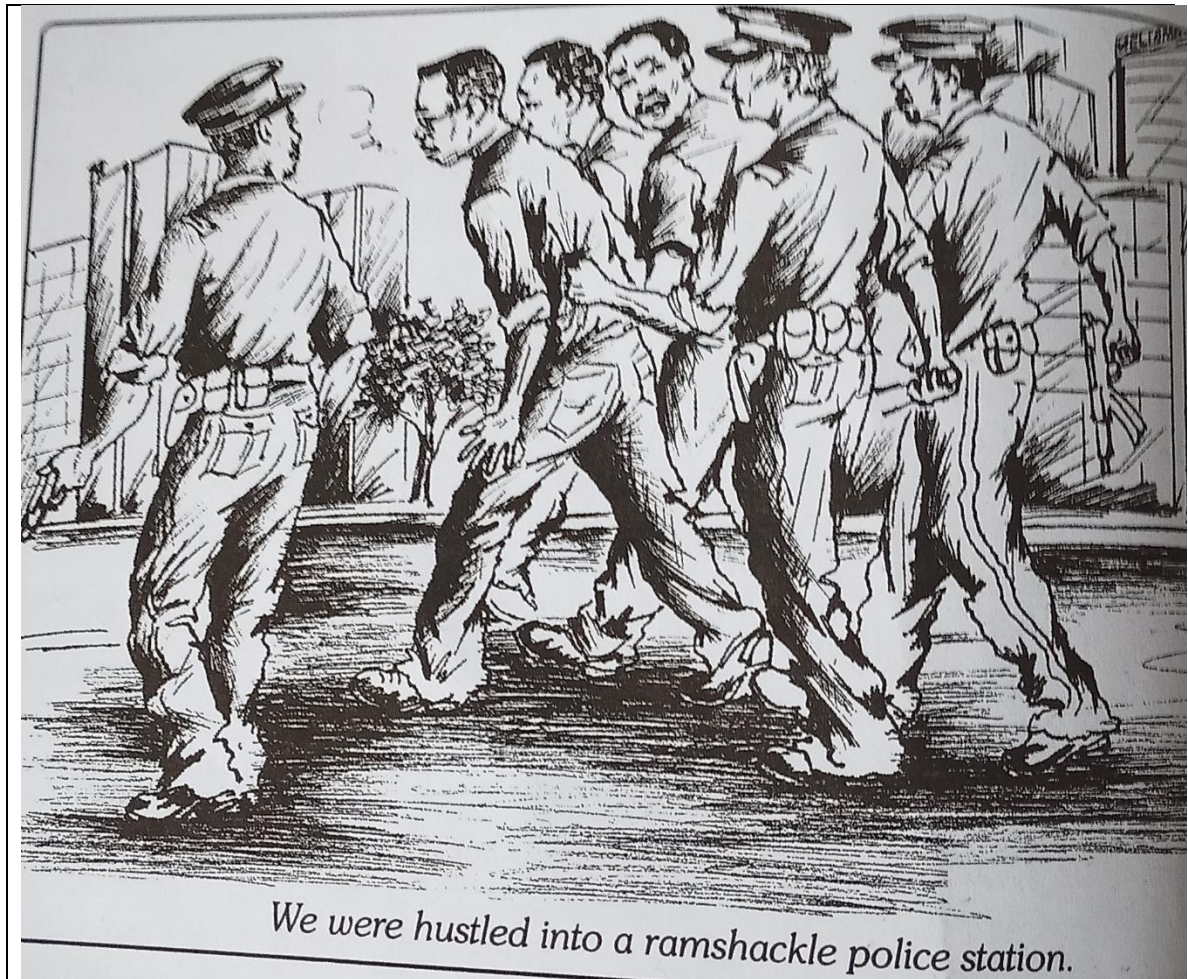
Note. Visual sourced from a Passage 1 on Racism. From New Horizons in English A Course for Secondary schools 4 Student's Book (p. 126),' by A. Kiai, B. Oduor and E. Owuor, 2018, East African Educational Publishers

Figure 6.7 A Visual Sign Portyaying males' Occupation

Figure 6.7 shows men who appears to have been arrested by police officers. The visual signs affirms findings on quantitative findings that police officers' jobs are typically assigned to males in the selected textbooks as indicated in the linguistic signs analysis**.**
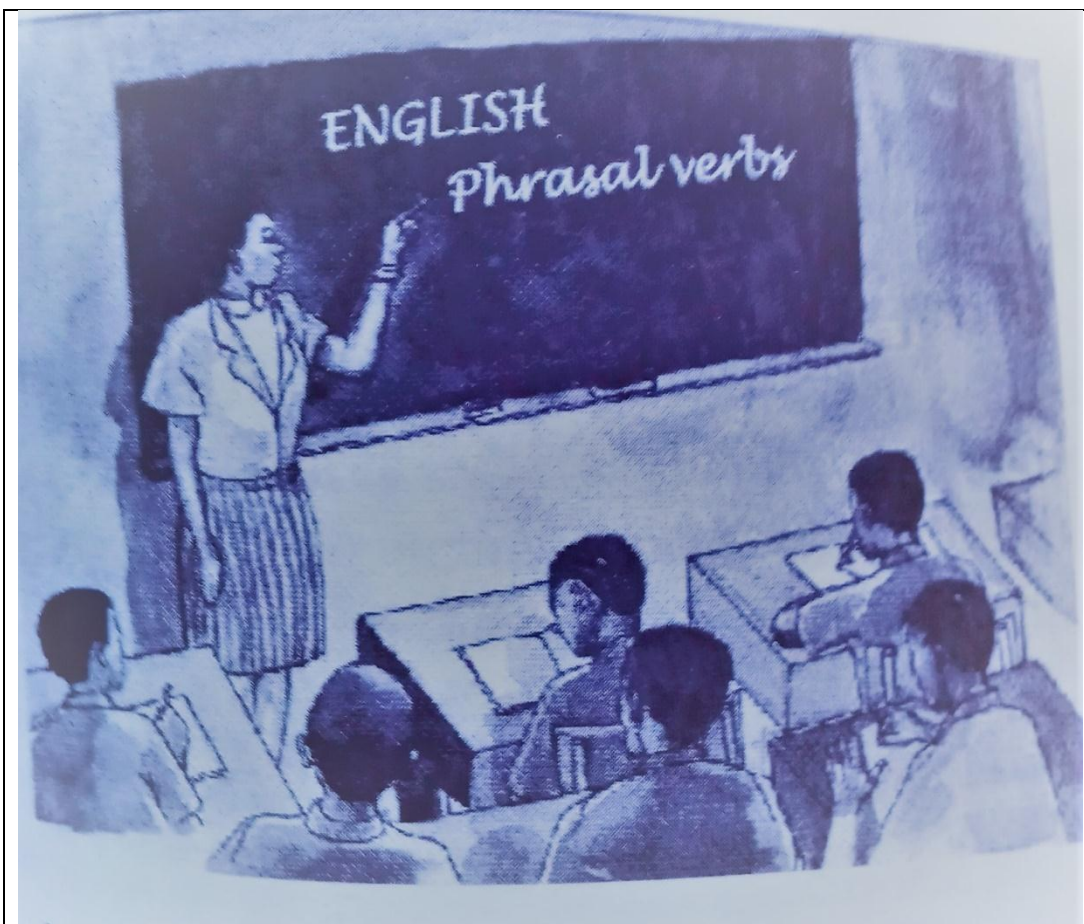
Note. The visual sourced from a Comprehension on Our Rights and Responsibilities From Secondary English Form Three Student's Book (2nd ed. p. 65),' by H. Indangasi, P. Mwangi, C. Gecaga and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 6.8 A Visual Sign Depicting Occupation

Figure 6.8 portrays a female participant engaged in an activity outside the home setting, mostly probably in a classroom. The visual sign shows a teacher of English teaching 'phrasal verbs'. Teaching as an occupation is mostly associated with the females in the sampled textbooks as indicated in the linguistic signs analysis. The visual; therefore affirms the linguistic findings where females are portrayed as teachers.

Note. The visual is derived from the comprehension Munyaga and his Boss. From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p. 166),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 6.9 A Visual Sign Displaying Professions

Figure 6.9 displays an outside home setting- a coffee plantation. The visual sign displays men only. They are undertaking tasks: three males are working together in pruning the coffee plants and slashing weeds while one male, who appears to be the manager, is supervising them. The three males are portrayed in active roles since all the participants are in transactional action process.

Note. Listening and speaking: sounds /l/ and /r/: From Secondary English Form Two Student's Book (3rd ed. p. 181),' by P. Mwangi, F. Kisirikoi, W. Gichema and M. Mukunga, 2018, KLB

Figure 6.10   A Visual Sign Depicting Occupation

Figure 6.10 depicts an out of home setting though the participants as confined in a space-inside a bus. The visual shows a school bus with pupils onboard and the participant seated behind the wheel is a male. Occupation-wise the male is a driver as portrayed in the Figure 6.10.

The occupational and social activities that both men and women participate in, in the study's sample are shown in Table 6.2. Both men and women are involved in productive activities. However, compared to females (10 activities, 40%), males (18 activities, 60%)

were slightly more actively involved in productive activities. Table 6.2 shows that there were differences between the activities that men and women participated in. With reference to Table 6.2, both men and women work in fields requiring high skills; female characters were shown as counselors (p. 102) and pilots (p. 43), and teachers (p. 43). Nevertheless, males are portrayed as popular firm administrators (pages. 7, laboratory assistant, p. 12, instructor, pp. 43, industrialist, p. 49, *inventor* p. 49, *linguist* p. 49 and *banker* p.176.

Table 6.2 also demonstrates that men were more prevalent in sports, particularly soccer (p. 176). However, men were not as related with shopping as females in SETB1 (window shopping for dresses and fruits, p. 23; buying sugar, p. 112). The males are depicted as having an industrious quality typical of a developed nation; for example, they were portrayed as industrialists and innovators (p. 49).

Further, Table 6.2 reveals that, of the 32 identified vocational and social activities, 21 were assigned to males. According to this data, men performed 66.0% of the activities, while women performed 34.0% of the activities. This revelation suggests that, like in SETB1, men hold the majority of professions. More specifically, SETB1& SETB2 include female characters in the teaching and nursing professions (teacher pp. 43 and nurse p. 126 in book 1; teacher p. 4 and nurse p. 237 in book 2). Ena (2013) who examined the English-language -textbooks used in Indonesia and discovered that several professions were only represented by males in occupations like medicine, politics, and the military. Additionally, a nurse is only assigned to a woman. According to Renner

(1997), a nurse is a female individual proficient in providing for others and caring for ill persons (Mustedanagic, 2010, p. 11). Thus, the findings show gender stereotypes where occupations such as nursing are relegated to females.

This indicates that stereotypes about women in the teaching profession are true. Additionally, SETB1 represents females as semi-skilled workers such as house helps on pages 5 and 6, house girls on page 101, and social workers on page 149, but in SETB2, they were depicted as *talk show hosts* on page 176. On the contrally, men have been depicted in positions of authority, such as managing director of a well-known corporation (p.7 in SETB1) and manager of a popular company (p. 149 in SETB2). Two men were depicted as holding high-ranking jobs in the textbook, including principal (p. 150), head storekeeper (p. 154), college president (p. 154), hospital superintendent (p. 163), manager (p. 165), district officer (p. 205), and supreme chief (p. 219). The findings show that male participants played active roles in the visual signs and had a higher status than females.

The lawmaker, on page 5 of SETB2, is the sole case where a female character is assigned a leadership position, according to the content analysis. According to the study's corpora, women are underrepresented in leadership positions in the English textbooks. As indicated in Section 6.2.1, the data demonstrate a stronger ideological bias that restricts women to the kitchen for tasks like cooking, cleaning, and housework. Table 6.2 further demonstrates the stereotyping of social and vocational activities in English textbooks.

With reference to Table 6.2, two out of the 17 occupational activities in the SETB3 were assigned to female characters (*teacher* p. 26 and *doctor* p. 127) and two were social activities (*swimming* p. 47 and *prostitution* p. 51). The male characters are represented in a variety of occupations, namely a) leadership positions as *vice president (cook (*pp. 29), k*ing (p.* 51), *driver (*p. 57, *lawyer* (p. 75), *driver (*p. 124), t*eacher (p. 145)*, *carpenter (*p. 1165) *doctor* (p. 192), and *judge (*p. 2224). The results show that female characters are portrayed in restricted occupations, where they are not necessarily involved in major decision -making as is the case with male characters, who are presented as a *vice president, lawyer,* and *judge*. Thus, men are in occupations that may task them with making key and fundamental decisions in society. Table 6.2 further illustrates the same findings.

Table 6.2 also reveals that of the 41 tasks included in SETB4, 27(65.85%) were attributed to men and 14(34.15%) were attributed to women. The findings demonstrate that females are represented in a smaller spectrum of employment and social activities. The findings demonstrate that males participated in a variety of activities (from semi-skilled to highly skilled). *Fisherman* (p. 6), *herdsman* (p. 19), *messenger* (p. 15), *gardener* (p. 125) and *fruit vendor* are a few of the semi-skilled occupations shown in the Table 6.2 (p. 160).

Table 6.2 also lists renowned and well-paying professions for men, including *doctor, inventor,* and *video editor* (p. 22, p. 56). (p. 186). Sociocultural influences have an impact on the occupational job distribution mentioned above (Cameron, 1998). In addition, females have been depicted in lower-paying jobs than men, such as *typewriter* (p. 120),

178

police officer (p. 22), *salesgirl* (p. 22), and librarian (p. 9). According to Hellinger (1980), this type of distribution, which places women in lower ranks associated with authority, is known as subordination. According to the findings, women are given a variety of jobs with lesser social standing than those given to men (e.g., banker, singer, teacher, p. 38; president, vice-president, p. 9; video editor, p. 22).

Other studies have also shown that females spend most of their time indoors, relegating them to the domestic realm, whereas males are portrayed in the wider, outer domain (Jariah, 2000). Further, Nashriyah et al. (2020) noted that because males were portrayed as engaging in a wider variety of activities than women engage, they (men) are also dominant in the area of activity. Male actions outweighed those of females in the textbook (at best, 13 against 8 different activities). This implies that the textbook contains certain imbalances. In addition, the textbook featured males more frequently outdoors in the visual signs than women. The textbook also includes gender stereotypes where females are cast performing domestic tasks like housecleaning, cooking, peeling fruit, and serving food, whereas men are portrayed engaging in outdoor activities like napping, reading the newspaper, and riding a bike.

As a result, the conclusion that males outnumber females in a variety of occupational pursuits can be drawn. More often than not, women are shown in nurturing occupations like teaching and nursing (Nurse, p. 8; Teacher, p. 196). Additionally, female characters are shown as "petty traders," such as those who sell clothing, perfumes, and clothing (p. 89), as well as "sale girls." In the business world, where they feature in a variety of

businesses as shopkeepers, male characters likewise predominate (p. 229 in SETB1 *selling houses* pp.73 in SETB1, *carpenter* pp. 165 in form 3 and *large scale farmers* (*owning flocks* pp. 7 and *coffee plantations*). These findings resonate with Nashriyah et al. (2020) study, which showed that, there were few variations of jobs pertaining to either men or women in the textbook's category of occupations. Only three different occupations were mentioned in the textbook. One of the represented occupation was carried out by a woman, while two of the occupational actives were undertaken by a male. On p. 28, a king is identified as a male character, yet on page 90, a shop assistant is identified as a female character. On various pages, a female character is depicted as a teacher 14 times.

Sports are assumed exclusively a male pastime. The results of this study are consistent with Sunderland's (2000) conclusions that women are constrained and that textbook representations of women are skewed. The findings are also in line with a study's conclusion that men are exhibited as physically fit, active people that live healthy lifestyles and have the power and stamina to engage in a variety of outdoor activities (Jin et al., 2013). Both quantitative and qualitative findings have revealed that males involved in professional occupations and outdoor activities were more than the females. According to Brown (1996), cited in Manea (2013), if particular behaviours are regularly depicted as belonging to a single gender in images from literature, television, and newspapers, those behaviours may translate into attitudes that could be ingrained as gender stereotypes into shared values. Gender stereotypes should therefore be removed from Kenyan secondary

school textbooks to prevent misrepresentation of gender in society and enactment of negative mindsets.

The analysis of some of the sampled visual signs showed females and males represented in the same setting reflecting positive ideologies displaying both genders equally while other visuals revealed gender stereotypes. Also, females are portrayed engaging in traditionally assigned occupations such as teaching and nursing while males are represented as *drivers, supervisors, police officers* and *lawyers* (Figure 6.8, Figure 6.9 and Figure 6.10). The stereotyped occupational representation in the SEQIP English textbooks may affect the learners choice of careers. Dean (2007) observes that textbooks may present a gendered picture of the world thus implicitly encourage boys and girls to embrace archetypical positions and occupations constructed for them in the English textbooks.

The ramification may be that the male students are probable influenced to choose more profitable occupations and powerful positions since male role models are displayed in the textbooks Females are represented invoved in restricted career choices most of which banish them to caregivers jobs. This observation is in line with Griffith (2010) observation that the textbooks power cannot be downplayed because of the curriculum is so powerful especially where textbooks are involved since the textbooks can orientate males and females towards specific occupations. This may compromise the essential role of textbooks which should provide quality content that enhances gender equity as pronounced in NPGAD.

6.3 Conversational context underlying gender representation

The social context analysis also paid attention to the conversations represented in form of dialogues in the sampled textbooks. A dialogue is a "subgenre" of language textbooks that is defined as a conversation (written exchange) "between two or more people" (Jones et al. 1997). Dialogues are crucial for teaching speaking skills because they give students role models for how to interact in various situations (Wong, 2009). The dialogues provide crucial practice and training needed by learners to memorize some aspects of speaking in the English language in real communicative contexts. Dialogues were present in every textbook being analyzed. The researcher used content analysis to evaluate dialogues, paying special attention to turn taking, dialogue initiation, character count, and word count. The fundamental guideline that ensures an equitable flow of a discourse is turn taking. Turn taking, according to Levinson (2001), translates one participant A's speech to another participant B's; the latter then starts speaking.

In the present study, turn taking is examined with respect to gender representation in order to identify the gender that initiates or continues the turn as well as the gender that takes and maintains the turn for a longer period. Table 6.3 lists the total dialogues, the number of times men and women switch roles, and the overall number of words said by females and males in the four sampled English**.**

Table 6.3 Distribution of Aspects of Conversations (Dialogues) Occurrences

Form	TD	ToM	ToF	Total words by female	Total words by males	Total Times males initiate a dialogue	Total times females initiate a dialogue
One	6	24	40	302	508	4	2
Two	10	90	109	1863	3526	7	3
Three	9	46	67	790	2193	6	3
Four	6	114	40	922	2023	4	0
Σ	31	274	256	3877	8250	21	8

TD- Total Dialogues N-12717 ToF-Turns Occurrences by females ToM Turns Occurrences by male

Table 6.3 demonstrates that in lower levels textbooks (Forms 1, 2, and 3) and in the six dialogues in SETB4 where both male and female characters initiated a dialogue, male turns were more prevalent. Males started the conversation on average 21 times (72.41%) compared to females' 8 times (27.6%). Out of the 9 dialogues in SETB3 males initiated 6 dialogues with a corresponding (67.0%) and females initiated 3 (33.0%). The quantitative study reveals that, on average, men produced a little number of utterances more frequently than women did. Table 6.3 also demonstrates that in SETB1 through SETB4 and in the six dialogues in which both male and female characters appeared, male turns were more prevalent. In comparison to men's turns, women's turns account for 47.7% of all turns. The sample dialogue 1 complements these findings.

Musa: After reading Hotel News magazine, I too would like to be a waiter when I grow up.

Alice: Will you be able to balance a tray full of food on your arm?

Musa: Of course. Let me try it right now. See? I've got it right!

Alice: That's good. But can you remember the orders of several customers off head?

Musa: That is not necessary. One is allowed to record them on a note pad.

Alice: I've heard that dropping dishes can cost you your job. Besides, you could hurt yourself if such dishes hit your feet.

Musa: That's probably true but I'm sure every job has its own risks and only a fool would get discouraged by that. All you've to do work hard.

<div align="center">(Sample dialogue 1 Sourced from SETB1 p.27)</div>

Sample dialogue 1 portrays two participants: Musa, a male and Alice, a female. The male takes 4 turns, uttering 76 words whilst the female takes 3 turns totaling to 48 words.

The qualitative findings affirm the quantitative results. The current study reverberates with some earlier studies (Dovidio, Brown, Heltman, Ellyson, & Keating, 1988) that found that males use more words and take more turns in dialogues. The results show that males in secondary English textbooks take more turns than females. However, other studies indicate that women initiate dialogues many times. This finding is somewhat consistent with other studies, which showed that men typically spoke for longer in conversations between the sexes. The study by Jones et al. (1997, 50) on three EFL textbooks (Hotline, Look Ahead 2, and Headaway) revealed gender impartiality in dialogues that revealed authors' gender awareness in terms of turn-taking by males and

females. The findings of this study also support Mineshima's (2008, 126) who examined the visibility of men and women in Japanese EFL textbooks and came to positive conclusions. Males had more opportunities to talk than females, according to the analysis of the dialogues in terms of the distribution of turns. Thus, there is an unfair opportunity for practice for students. Males had more opportunities to talk than females, according to the analysis of the dialogues in terms of the distribution of turns. It indicates that students have unequal opportunities to hone their speaking abilities. The quantitative examination of the utterances in the Jones, Kitetu, and Sunderland (1997) study, which found that females made more utterances than males, is in contrast to this study.

Additionally, according to a compilation of research on dialogue textbooks by Sunderland et al. (2001), women tended to speak less, initiate conversations less frequently, and take on a smaller variety of discourse. Males in this study initiated dialogues more times than females and this means they steer or control the discourse: the individual who starts the conversation typically has more authority. Traditional power differences are perpetuated through socialized patterns of verbal behavior depicted by females and males (Henley, 1977; Henley& Harmon, 1985). Language is one of the powerful medium that can yield enormous and influential power. The way people use language can be a means of maintaining authority or gaining influence over other people. Accordingly, males are portrayed as being more powerful than females hence gender bias in favour of men and boys.

6.4 Summary of Chapter

This chapter illustrated how the social contexts of home (social roles), outdoor, the workplace as represented by occupations, and the context of socialization underlie the portrayal of gender in visual and linguistic signs in the chosen English textbooks. By looking at turn-taking behaviors (which gender took more turns), the number of words each gender used, and the number of conversation starts made by each gender, the socialization context was precisely attained. It is important to note that social roles are stereotypically represented by showing more women than men performing household duties in a home setting in both visual and linguistic signs. This chapter has advanced that the portrayal of males and females in the different social contexts in the study corpora is done on an imbalanced and stereotypical basis. The following and final chapter summarizes the findings and presents recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 Introduction

The study addressed three concerns: first, it uncovered the construction of gender in the linguistic signs. Second, it explored how gender is represented in the visual signs. Third, it evaluated the social contexts underlying the representation of gender in the linguistic and visual signs. This chapter includes a summary of the overall findings of the current study and gives implications for English learning and teaching, especially in the design of visuals and choice of linguistic signs.

The first section of the chapter focuses on the summary of findings and conclusion for each aspect of gender representation in the linguistic signs, visual signs, and the social context underlying the representation of gender in the textbooks. The second part presents the implications of the study for language learning and teaching, specifically the choice and selection of learning materials and the designing of visual and linguistic signs that constitute the content in course books. It also summarizes the study's overall conclusions. The summary of findings and conclusions for each facet of gender representation in linguistic signs, visual signs, and the social context supporting the depiction of gender in textbooks are covered in the chapter's first section. The last section provides suggestions for areas of future research

7.1 Summary of Findings

This section presents a summary of the findings of each of the objectives of the study as follows:

7.1.1 Gender Portrayal in the Linguistic Signs

Gender was analyzed at three levels: the ideational metafunction, which focused on the adjectives used in describing males and females, the visibility of pronouns and nouns in the order of mention of a string of females and males in the same clause, phrase or sentence, and the relational processes based on adjectives. The results indicated that more masculine personal pronouns were portrayed appearing as the first ones in the selected textbooks than the feminine ones as indicated by 2968 occurrences for males against 1762 for the females'. The same trend was also revealed in the order of nominal and pronominal mentions referring to males and females. The females' names appeared 1233 times first as contrasted to the males who were portrayed 1827 times in the first mention.

The order of mention also known as firstness of occurrence or prioritization clause, phrase or a sentence was considered as a means of portrayal of gender in the selected textbooks. The names of people and words used in place of nouns were considered in this category. SETB4 represented the highest occurrences of males being mentioned first, 25 times accounting for 96% against 1% of females being mentioned first. In general, cumulative occurrences of 87(91%) males were mentioned first in constructions which include both males and females while females are at 8 times translating to 9%.

Use of positive and negative adjectives in the description of males and females separately and same adjectives for mixed gender was a parameter which was used in revealing gender construction in the selected English textbooks. The study revealed that there were few instances that similar adjectives were used to describe females and males. Also, most adjectives associated with males were negative especially those referring to the physical appearance. The study revealed that females were depicted as pretty and charming as highlighted in section 4.3. Further, some instances of both negative and positive adjectives were used in describing both genders. The use of more negative adjectives in describing males than females may be interpreted as gender bias against women because the textbooks where the linguistic signs appear were approved for use by both female and male students and therefore almost similar words should be used to describe all the participants in the textbooks.

Under the interpersonal representation of linguistic signs, the mood types were realized by use of questions, statements and commands for interrogative, declarative or indicative, and imperatives respectively. Overall, use of statements was more than the use of questions and commands. A cumulative frequency of 1386 of which 908 represented males while females appeared 484 times. This indicates that males were more actively involved in-declaring things-than females did. Furthermore, more males than females were portrayed giving commands and posing questions as represented by 253 times against 100 and 50 times against 38 respectively.

Also, the theme and rheme structure of the textual metafunction was used to reveal gender construction in the linguistic signs. The theme was an outstanding aspect in this study. The analysis revealed that the frequencies of occurrences of males was higher that the females in the theme position in all the four textbooks at 3007(59.4%) and females at 2053 (40.6%). The concept of process types was also another key parameter in establishing of gender portrayal featuring especially the relational, mental, verbal and material processes. The study revealed that males outnumbered females in the four processes.

Gender stereotypes were also portrayed by use of masculine pronouns and man to refer to both males and females. The analysis revealed also some effort in using gender neutral terms with the SETB3s representing 30 such constructions at 29.0% while form one and four came second and third in using terms that showed gender neutrality at 28(27.0%) and 25(24.0%). The linguistic signs of the textbooks have not been written with the concept of equality of all human beings, as enshrined in the Kenyan constitution (2010), the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the NPGAD.

7.1.2 Gender representation in the Visual Signs

The analyses of the selected textbooks revealed gender bias against women in the visual signs. The analysis of visuals in the four selected textbooks was conducted based on the elements of social semiotics like frequency, gaze, modality, social distance, compositional and actional processes. The findings reveal that females are less visible in the visual images compared to males. For instance, under representational metafunction,

190

males were more in all the tokens of analysis on the gaze of the participants at 341(63.3%) against 198 (37.4%). Focus on social distance that had one aspect as the types of shots, the analysis of the shots indicates that most of the shots are long medium shots, whilst the least frequent are the close distance shots. Also, more females than males were portrayed in medium shots while a little more males than females were depicted in the very close and close-up. This finding indicates that males are more outstanding in the camera shots than females.

The study also analyzed gender representation in reference to the place of positioning of participants on the frame. The findings indicated that males at 62.5% assumed more positions than females at 37.3%. SETB3 showed more participants positioned in the frame in comparison with the SETB1 and SETB4 portraying more males than females casted in the frame is in itself an imbalance from a gender perspective. Both quantitative and qualitative results reflected the same trend, which was biased against females.

The actional processes associated with the activities that the participants are involved in also shed light on gender construction. According to the findings, there were twice as many male participants as female participants—379 (66.0%) against 197 (34.0%). The actor, aim, behaver, and reactor roles were all filled with more men than women were. This finding shows that gender bias favors men.

In order to show gender representation in the visuals that characterize social ties, vector's realization in visual signs was also utilized. The data from the chosen English textbooks demonstrated that there were more men than women in all four types of relationships. 178 (64.0%) times compared to 100 (36.0%) times for females saw transactional relations. Females made up 15.1% of non-transactional relationships, while males made up 22.66%. In the category of unidirectional transactional relations, the cumulative frequencies of men were greater than 30 (13.0%) than those of women (6.5%). Males and females both showed up in the bidirectional associations 42 (15.1%) and 26 (9.4%) times, respectively. Males are portrayed as being more significant and powerful than females in both quantitative and qualitative statistics. This portrayal of men and women exhibits gender bias.

7.1.3 Social Contexts Underlying Portrayal of Gender

This study showed that, despite the fact that Kenya is undergoing changes and improvements across all areas, including gender, the old social stereotypes are still in existence and are even being revived through new, varied, and even educational means. The social factors that underlie how gender is portrayed in linguistic and visual signs were examined in order to identify this trend. In terms of the jobs assigned to men and women, the study analyzed the home environment, the workplace, or the environment beyond the home. The participants' chores around the house were displayed according to gender roles. More women than men were involved in household tasks, particularly those involving food and children, according to the analysis's quantitative and qualitative features. Males are primarily depicted in homes doing outside chores like, mowing grass, cleaning up the yard, and performing outside duties inside a home. More women than

men are allocated household responsibilities. According to research, women/girls carry out specific duties related to family welfare, such as buying food and taking the children to school. Women are far less prominent. Sports are assumed to be exclusively a male pastime. Men were only ever shown as reactive and docile when they appeared to be in positions of higher prestige, whereas women were only ever portrayed as performers while playing domestic roles doing the housework.

Outside-of-the-home activities were another social environment that suggested an underlying gender representation. According to the findings, both men and women work in productive capacities. However, more jobs are given to men than to women, and those given to women are less varied and less productive than those assigned to males are. Because men predominate in the vocational dimension, female students may be held back and discouraged from pursuing non-traditional careers. In conclusion, the drawings used for the profession component were prejudiced against women and only showed them in conceived vocational roles. As a result, women uphold the status quo of the unequal distribution of labor between men and women.

In the conversational context, quantitative research showed that males produced more utterances than females. Additionally, males initiated more conversations than women (67.0% in SETB1, 70.0% in SETB2, 67.0% in SETB3, and in all of the SETB4 conversations). Furthermore, females made 47.7% of all turns. The findings suggested that men had more opportunities to converse than women in all of the chosen textbooks

did. The quantitative analysis showed that males produced slightly more utterances than females. Also, males cumulatively, initiated more dialogues than females (67.0% in form one, 70.0% in form two, 67.0% in SETB3 and in all the dialogues in SETB4. In addition, females' number of turns were at 47.7% of all the turns. The results portrayed males in all the selected textbooks having more chances to communicate that female.

7.2 Conclusion

How gender is portrayed in textbooks has always been a puzzle for linguists. The following conclusions were derived about gender representation of the SEQIP English textbooks used in secondary schools in Kenya—by analysing how gender is represented.

Findings on the relative frequency of male and female characters in the textbook demonstrate that male characters exceed female ones in every scenario under study. Females are far less prominent as they are mostly recipients of the male counterparts' actions. The findings show dominant males' visibility in both the linguistic and visual signs, and that males more frequently than females appear as themes and rhemes in clauses. However, more females were portrayed in textbooks in normal and stereotypical roles. Females are limited to a select group of regulated social activities, in contrast to men, who engage in a variety of risk-taking, successful, and skilled employment. The study's findings on gender representation in the linguistic signs indicated more males than females in the interpersonal, ideational and textual metafunctions. A conclusion can be drawn that, gender construction in the linguistic signs favours the males more than the females.

194

The overall analysis of the data on construction of gender in the visual signs in Chapter Five reveals that males are more visible in all the categories and that the English textbook had a bias toward men and tried to overshadow the visibility of women. The analysis of visuals in the *four selected textbooks* was conducted based on the elements of social semiotics like frequency, gaze, modality, social distance, compositional, and actional processes. The revelation of gender construction in the visual signs seems to contradict the gender policies in Kenya that advocate for gender parity in all the spheres of society. The important role played by textbooks and more so the English language textbooks seems compromised by gender bias against females for this may compromise the quality of education offered in the Kenyan classroom.

By looking at the social contexts underlying gender representation in linguistic and visual signs, the social roles, occupational and outdoor activities and conversational instances, gender stereotypes and bias was reflected in all the tokens of analysis. The roles assigned to males and females showed some typical gender stereotypes. Males were represented in diverse occupational activities as compared to females. Further, more males than males were relegated in indoor activities; a contrast on the portrayal of participant in the out-of-home activities were less females than males were depicted. On turn-taking behaviors (which gender took more turns), the number of words each gender used, and the number of conversation starts made by each gender, the socialization context was precisely attained. It is important to note that social roles are stereotypically represented by showing more women than men performing household duties in a home setting in both visual and linguistic signs. Nevertheless, men are portrayed as having more profitable,

diverse, and well-respected professions than females. This chapter also indicates that the portrayal of males and females in the different social contexts in the study corpora is done on an imbalanced and stereotypical basis.

Thus, gender misrepresentation is portrayed in the linguistic signs, visual and social contexts underlying gender representation. This situation is contrary to the gender equality laws and policies in Kenya. Again, such gender imbalances presence in the textbooks can influence the female learners negatively since reality as articulated in the study is a human creation. Thus, the textbooks should be reviewed to address such gender imbalances because they are powerful tools of socialization.

7.3 Recommendations

The study's conclusions raise some questions about how gender is portrayed in textbooks. The analysis's findings showed that while women and girls are invisible and underrepresented, men are more visible, seen as possessing new information, the center of attention, and active doers and demanding attention. In this part, stakeholder engagement technique was applied in advocating changes to educational policy. Organizations and people drawn to applied linguistics are among the potential collaborators in this work. Since this study is based in Kenya, recommendations regarding textbook policy would be made specifically to the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD), which is tasked with conducting research, developing curriculum, as well as vetting and recommending curriculum implementation materials and NGEC. There will also be recommendations for

linguists working on this continually evolving subject both inside and outside of Kenya's borders.

It is hoped that KICD, the institute in charge of reviewing and making recommendations for textbooks used in curriculum implementation, will find the results of the current study to be helpful. The results of the study should aid KICD in enhancing textbook evaluation. The research recommends to KICD to initiate an evaluation and review process of the linguistic and visual signs in the SEQIP textbooks, which portray and thus reinforce gender bias and stereotypes to enhance gender parity. Therefore, the findings should serve as the starting point for a review and revision process to address the gender inequalities promoted in the textbooks.

The MoE, which is guided by three factors—access, equity, and quality should be enlightened on how gender is represented through this study's research findings. For the benefit of secondary school pupils in Kenya, the MoE should examine essential measures to alleviate gender disparity by focusing on the issue of gender representation in textbooks. The Ministry of Education, which selects and provides the SEQIP textbooks, should take action to remedy the gender gaps identified in the study. A strategy for recurrent coaching of the human resources involved in the creation of secondary school textbooks should also be developed by actors working in the ministry of education. MoE should ensure that future textbooks are adequately gender-balanced for students, both boys and girls, to experience true equality.

This information should influence the parties involved in developing the SEQIP textbooks, who include the authors, editors, illustrators, and designers, and are the key participants. The results of this study should be applied in forums where this group of individuals is actively engaged in educating stakeholders about the gender bias and stereotypes present in English textbooks so that they can actively and repeatedly address gender issues to improve gender parity through the content of English textbooks. A recommendation is made to book designers and authors to pay more attention to social conventions and movements that are visible in their culture. Since textbooks reflect the social, cultural, and religious ideologies and perspectives of the authors, the authors and designers should incorporate components that convey gender equality in the design of the books. Further, book designers and developers should create learning and teaching materials that convey gender-neutral information that actively engages students. In order to achieve gender parity, the designers should incorporate more graphical representations of women and girls in textbooks. Also, more female characters should also be shown engaging in a greater variety of diverse and productive occupations.

To improve gender equity in the presentation of information during lesson facilitation and delivery, teachers should embrace any training on how to recognize and challenge the biased and stereotyped portrayal of women and men in the SEQIP textbooks. This intervention will serve as a safety net to ensure that students are exposed to impartial information and that their learning environment is more advantageous and satisfying.

By pointing out to the government (MoE) that the way gender is represented in linguistic and visual signs promotes inequality and stereotypes, NGEC should encourage the strengthening and adherence of a gender viewpoint in the English textbooks used in secondary schools. Again, NGEC may maximize the findings to monitor, assist with, and advise KICD on improving or ensuring that an appropriate gender-monitoring instrument for textbooks is implemented. The National Gender and Development Policy may need to be implemented; hence, NGEC should work closely with the MoE and KICD to put standards in place. NGEC may also require conducting and organizing research initiatives on issues linked to equality and inclusivity in light of the findings of the current study. In light of this, the National Gender and Equality Commission (NGEC) should upscale its commitment in working with academic scholars to help carry out gender-related research in textbooks used at other levels of basic education institutions. By considering the aforementioned recommendations, NGEC would be advancing gender equality in accordance with its mission and vision by taking part in this initiative.

7.4 Suggestions for Further Research

These findings open up a wide range of avenues for further investigation. First, future researchers could examine the language structures by using the tools of functional linguistics and critical discourse analysis to examine the transitivity of sentences and the use of passives and nominalizations throughout the discussion of how gender is represented in the chosen textbooks.

There is a need for research on the actional processes used in disclosing the construction of gender in visual signs because in the current study it appears that more men than

women are depicted performing the reactor function, which is a reversal of roles. An applied linguist researcher may engage material developers to get their standpoint about the identified reverse of roles.

Future researchers can compare and contrast short stories written by male and female authors based on the current findings. The study may draw inspiration from the depictions of men and women in the Literature Set short story collections, which have been recommended by KICD and approved by MoE to be taught to form three and four students in all secondary schools in Kenya beginning in 2023 in accordance with the principles of social semiotics theory. It would be interesting to reveal whether similar trends of female underrepresentation are rife in the set book or not.

To determine how gender is represented in the remaining secondary school textbooks in Kenya, additional study might be done using different conceptual frameworks. To gain a more comprehensive understanding of the framework of regard that may be advocated about gender, it is advised that further study based on this model be performed, with a particular focus on the images of women in the other textbooks that are suggested for students in other subjects.

This gender-related study focused on content analysis. A researcher may strive to undertake a gender analysis of the SEQIP textbooks by seeking the producers and consumer aspects.

By conducting research on the recommended areas, more knowledge would be created and there would be a stronger basis for recommending review of the SEQIP textbooks especially if the recommended research areas would portray gender imbalances.

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212

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Analyzed Textbooks

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Indangasi, H., Mwangi, P., Gecaga, C., & Mukunga, M. (2018). *A secondary English. An integrated approach form three students' book* (2nd Edition). Kenya Literature Bureau Publishers and Printers

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Appendix II: Research Instruments

Observation Sheet II1: Gender Representation in Pronouns

Pronoun Form	Frequenciesy											
	He	She	His	Her	Him	Hers	They	Them	Their	Him self	Her self	T
One												
Two												
Three												
Four												
Total												

T-Themselves

N

Observation Sheet II2: Distribution of Mention of Names of People.

Form	Frequencies				Σ
	Female names	Percent	Male names	Percent	
One					
Two					
Three					
Four					
Σ					

N-

Observation Sheet II3: Firstness in Proper Nouns.

Form	Occurrences			
	Females first	Percent	Males first	Percent
One				
Two				
Three				
Four				
Σ				

N-

Observation Sheet II4: Order of Mention in Pronouns

Pronoun Form	Masculine pronouns appearing first		Feminine pronouns appearing first	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
One				
Two				
Three				
Four				
Σ				

N

Observation Sheet II5: Distribution of Adjectives

Form	Positive Adjectives						Negative Adjectives			
	Males		Females		M.G		Males		Females	
	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%
One										
Two										
Three										
Four										
Σ										

N -

222

Observation Sheet II6: Distribution of Mood Types

Mood Type		Frequencies									
		Form 1		Form 2		Form 3		Form 4		∑	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Interrogative	F										
	%										
Declarative	F										
	%										
Imperative	F										
	%										

N-

Observation Sheet II7: Distribution of Processes Types

Process type		Form 1		Form 2		Form 3		Form 4		∑	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Relational	Frequency										
	Percentage										
Mental	Frequency										
	Percentage										
Verbal	Frequency										
	Percentage										
Material	Frequency										
	Percentage										

N-

Observation Sheet II8: Distribution of Theme and Rheme Frequencies

Form	Themes				Rheme			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
One								
Two								
Three								
Four								
Σ								

N-

Observation Sheet II9: Distribution of Gender-Neutral Words and Expressions

Form	Gender neutral Nouns		Indefinite pronouns%		Paired personal pronouns	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
One						
Two						
Three						
Four						
Σ						

N-

Observation Sheet II10: Occurrences of use of Generic Man and he

Form	Generic man		Generic he	
	Occurrences	Percent	Occurrences	Percent
One				
Two				
Three				
Four				
Σ				

N-

Observation Sheet II11: Distribution of Visual Signs in the Selected Textbooks

FORM	Gender Representation in the Visuals			
	Number of Males		Number of Females	
	Male only visuals	Mixed gender visuals	Female only visuals	Mixed gender visuals
ONE				
TWO				
THREE				
FOUR				
TOTAL				
%				

Single Gender (N) –   Mixed Gender (N) -

Observation Sheet II12: Distribution of Gazes by Gender of Participants

Description of Gaze	Males		Females	
	Frequencies	**%**	**Frequencies**	**%**
FORM 1				
Toward the viewer				
Towards each other				
Neither to the viewer nor to each other				
FORM 2				
Toward the viewer				
Towards each other				
Neither to the viewer nor to each other				
FORM 3				
Toward the viewer				
Towards each other				
Neither to the viewer nor to each other				
FORM 4				
Toward the viewer				
Towards each other				
Neither to the viewer nor to each other				
Σ				

N -

Observation Sheet II13: Frequencies of Social Distance by Gender

S/D	FORM 1		FORM 2		FORM 3		FORM 4		Σ	%
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females		
V/C										
C/S										
M/C										
M/S										
M/L										
L/S										
Σ										
%										

S/D - Social Distance   V/C – Very Close   C/S - Close Shot   M/C   – Medium Close

M/S - Medium Shot M/L – Medium Long   L/S – Long Shot

Observation Sheet II14: Occurrences in Compositional Metafunction

Positioning	Males		Females	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
FORM 1				
Right side				
Left side				
Bottom				
Top				
FORM 2				
Right side				
Left side				
Bottom				
Top				
FORM 3				
Right side				
Left side				
Bottom				
Top				
FORM 4				
Right side				
Left side				
Bottom				
Top				
Σ				

N =

Observation Sheet II15: Distribution of Frequencies in Actional Processes

Functional Role	Males		Females	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
FORM 1				
Actor				
Goal				
Behaver				
Reactor				
FORM 2				
Actor				
Goal				
Behaver				
Reactor				
FORM 3				
Actor				
Goal				
Behaver				
Reactor				
FORM 4				
Actor				
Goal				
Behaver				
Reactor				
Σ				

N =

Observation Sheet II16: Frequencies of Vectors in Visual Signs

Type of Vector	Males		Females	
	Frequencies	**%**	**Frequencies**	**%**
FORM 1				
Non-transactional				
Transactional				
Unidirectional transactional				
Bidirectional transactional				
FORM 2				
Non-transactional				
Transactional				
Unidirectional transactional				
Bidirectional transactional				
FORM 3				
Non-transactional				
Transactional				
Unidirectional transactional				
Bidirectional transactional				
FORM 4				
Non-transactional				
Transactional				
Unidirectional transactional				
Bidirectional transactional				
Σ				

N =

Observation Sheet II17: Distribution of Male and Female Activities

Form	Household activities				Outdoor activities			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%	Occurrences	%
One								
Two								
Three								
Four								
Σ								

N -

Observation Sheet II18: Distribution of Occupation by in Linguistic Signs

Form	Skilled jobs				Semi- skilled jobs			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Occurrences	Percent	Occurrences	Percent	Occurrences	Percent	occurrences	Percent
One								
Two								
Three								
Four								
Σ								

N-

Observation Sheet II19: Quantitative Distribution of Turn Taking in Dialogues

Form	Total dialogues	occurrences of turns by the female	Occurrences of turns by the males	Total words by female	Total words by males	Total times males initiate a dialogue	Total times females initiate a dialogue
One							
Two							
Three							
Four							
Σ							

N-

Appendix III: Qualitative Data on Gender-Based Occupations in SETB1

1. The fisherman said, 'Victoria is the biggest lake in east Africa.' p.145
2. The new district officer had upon realizing that child labour had become rampant . It was he who had…p. 149
3. It was after Sonu truthfully answered her questions that she introduced herself as Mrs. Tinega, a social worker. p.149
4. Mrs. Mutiso, the English teacher, watched with grief as students dropped out of school. p.120
5. The shopkeeper, Mr. Makau, smiled and said to Ndanu. 'You are such a beauty.' p.119
6. Ronaldo is the- of the Brazilian players. p.94
7. Professor Wangari Maathai the nobel laureate has been invited to lead your school in a planting exercise. p 168
8. To Adolescent's and parents by Dr. Juliana Molgosa Spain. p.31
9. She had done a Civil Engineering Course at University and was keen to make her contribution in nation building.
10. Kelvin, the former minister, is a very consist politician. p.35
11. Njeru, the politician, is a far-sighted man. p.35
12. The laboratory assistant went in to an inner office. p.13
13. Lemayian's father was a manager of a popular company in Nairobi. p.7
14. She was employed as a housegirl. pp. 101
15. The lady counsellor was very punctual. p.100
16. He was able to secure employment as a herds boy for a salary of 500 shillings. p.100
17. Mrs. Kimani is a teacher. p.171
18. Njeri is a doctor

Appendix IV: Qualitative Data on Gender-based Occupations in SETB2

1. The novel, A grain of wheat was written by Ngug'i wa thiongo. p.216
2. The present that had made him a D.O reflected a past from which he had tried to run away. p.219
3. She started having an affair with Karuri the paramount chief. p.219
4. Thank you, Mrs Mumo could you narrate to me a myth now? p.61
5. Ngug'i wa Thiongo is a novelist and Imbuga is a playwright. p. 110
6. The principal has listened to each of the students. He has not made a decision.p.118
7. His father, Muingai was a son of Kongo wa Magana a renowned herbalist and diviner. p123
8. In August 1960, the chief secretary of the colony Walter Cortis paid Kenyatta a visit. p.125
9. Mrs. Manduli is my class teacher.p.136
10. Pastor Eliakim Ngoya, died on eer…No, no,no…p.144
11. Perhaps Dr. Harris, the Hospital Superintendent, was very sick. p.163
12. The Arinkon chief made a request that he was sure was impossible to fulfil.

Appendix V: Qualitative Data on Gender-based Occupations in SETB3

1. He is a teacher.
2. They saw Amina.
3. Speech made by Francis Muthaura, head of public service and secretary cabinet.
4. Benson is a young lawyer.
5. Kenyans read Ngugi's books for entertainment.
6. I helped my uncle start a tailoring business.
7. By Georgia Douglas Johnson in American negro poetry hill and wang p.53
8. Whenever Mr. Justice William Galloway, judge of the high court of Lagos and southern Cameroons. p.224
9. Mrs. Asenath Maina (secretary) p. 182
10. I called the doctor but I was told that he was… p.192
11. Also, re-examine the conclusion of the speech by Dr. Martin Luther king. p. 194
12. As the class prefect, written a memo to Mrs. fatuma Juma, your teacher of English. p. 197

Appendix VI: Qualitative Data on Gender-based Occupations in SETB4

1. Otieno is a kind teacher. p.108

2. He is a good driver. p 120

3. Wanjira is a bad driver.p.120

4. Njeri is a careless typist. pp 120

5. Mr. Okello is a good teacher. p. 120

6. The late president of Kenya, Jomo Kenyatta.

7. The late president of Tanzania, Dr. Julius Nyerere.

8. His place in society was no longer obscure. He was no longer considered a poor old fisherman. p.6

9. Jane is a nurse. p.6

10. He was an excellent athlete. p. 214

11. The director enjoyed shareholder's support. What he did know was that one day…p.214

12. The househelp had washed the clothes. She hung them on the wash line. p.55

13. A burly policeman with a thick neck demanded to see our purse. p.126

14. Cooking makes Chef Caleb happy. p. 72

15. The salesgirl had wrapped the gift. She handed it to the customer. p. 55

16. Ronaldinho was selected the best footballer. Fans cheered wildly at him. p.38

17. The teacher looked happy. Her students had passed well. p.38

18. My headteacher is a well-read man.p.38

19. My aunt is a banker.p.38

20. Our new librarian is Miss. Ngug'i. p.9

21. The president appointed Mr. Pino vice president. p.9

Appendix VII: Qualitative Data on Gender-Based Adjectives in SETB1

1. He noticed how worn out she had become.

2. She was very arrogant.

3. He would be very happy one moment then suddenly become angry and short-tempered.

4. Karugu was a bright friendly boy.

5. His hardwork and good character had really paid dividents.

6. Ndanu was kind and responsible well-behaved girl.

7. Alfred was a gifted chemist and excellent linguist.

8. Njeru, the politician is a far sighted man.

9. Karimi was considered ugly.

10. He was very generous to the poor.

11. He is a consistent politician.

12. He was sighted man.

13. He is good and jovial.

14. An hungry man is an angry man.

Appendix VIII: Qualitative Data on Gender-based Adjectives in SETB2

1. Nekesa felt very nervous.

2. Omollo was very cunning.

3. Jasho was a quiet and humble boy.

4. Ekweume was dutiful and responsible.

5. She is a good young person.

Appendix IX: Qualitative Data on Gender-Based Adjectives in SETB3

1. The intelligent boy found his way home without difficulties.

2. Koriang and peter are good students.

3. She became restless.

4. Kamau was impatient.

5. Kamongonye went home heartbroken

6. He grew impatient

7. Benson was a brilliant student.

8. Kioko walks in an arrogant swagger.

9. He is rather lazy.

10. She was his confidant and always kind considerate and patient.

11. She was downcast and depressed

12. She was downcast

13. Kasuku was rather ugly really ugly

14. Nyakio once again proved impervious.

15. A very beautiful girl whose name is Nyakio.

16. The wife was so skinny.

17. Her mother was unbent,young and uncowed.

18. Komora is a very intelligent.

19. She shly shook her shapely shoulders

Appendix X: Qualitative Data on Gender-Based Adjectives in SETB4

1. Faith in the next door is proud.

2. The slender woman.

3. Njoki was a generous woman.

4. The poor man waggles down the paths of the village like a mad woman.

5. Aswe prepared for war with a desperate group of young men.

6. My father is careful and fastidious person.

7. Jilo is the honest person I know.

8. The dirty urchin stretched out his hand helplessly.

9. The poor old woman

10. The policeman on patrol

1. Mr Tumbo removed a brown envelope

2. Jane stared at the envelope.

3. She was contented to serve her nation.

4. She felt confused.

5. She was handling many projects.

6. Jane admired him.

7. He looked at the heap of files on her desk and shook his head.

8. He introduced his companion. SETB P.160-162

9. He is a good student.p.163

Appendix XII: Qualitative Data Theme and Rheme in SETB2

1. Does Denise understand that Ndambuki indeed endorsed the deed that David did? p.1

2. …Sheila sister Soila, sells simple shapeless short-sleeved striped shirts in a shiny city centre shop.

3. Mutiso respects his girlfriend very much.p.9

4. Wanjiku will make a beautiful bridesmaid.

5. People liked Jasho because he treated them well.p.49

6. Maria escorted the visitors after she entertained them for hours.

7. …Peter let him use his.

8. She sang a beautiful song.p.48

9. He rode his bicycle in the open field.

10. I found Nguli with her. p.50

11. He himself gave them to us.

12. She will injure herself with it.

1. Fatuma won the race.

2. Hamisi praised Fatuma p.25

3. Mrs. Lobo taught us English.

4. This is the man who gave me a gift. p.26

5. John saw Beth Cheptui and Auma yesterday.p.27

6. Komora is a very intelligent young man. He is rather lazy.p.28

7. Pamela picked some juicy pears.p.29

8. kamau keeps cups in the cupboard.

9. Beatrice bought a basket that was very beautiful.

10. Tonui takes herbal tea

11. He accidentally hit him on the head and hurt him badly.

12. He closed the door. p.45

13. She admires her aunt.

14. Wafula made a lovely basket.

15. Moraa married Momanyi.

16. She wants food.p.46

17. Jack wants a new job.

18. He killed Abdi accidentally.

19. He took many photographs.p.47

20. She argued convincingly.

21. The ladies want new roles.

22. Franco told us many jokes.

23. Sheila swam across the lake.

24. He knelt.

25. He saw the boy at the door, he experienced a strange sensation.p. 98

26. Mwania married a modest woman.

27. Caroline is very brilliant.

28. He made a good suggestion.

Appendix XIV: Qualitative Data on Theme and Rheme in SETB4

1. Maria sobbed ceaselessly. SETB4 P.97

2. She repaid her huge debt.

3. Jacob bought the hockey stick. p.98

4. Mueni is the swimmer from whom the glory was snatched. p.98

5. He opened the door with a master key.p.145

6. Kinuthia sells oranges. Karanja sells mangoes.

7. Nobel honoured Prof. Wangari Maathai. She conserved the environment. p. 160

8. Susan ran after the matatu. Susan missed the matatu.p.160

9. Nthemba, whose mother is kind, went to Canada.p.226

10. Mary likes chips. P.10.

Appendix XV: Household and Outdoor Activities

SETB1	
Females	**Males**
Taking care of her family p.5	Carrying a crocodile to a river p. 21
Taking care and seeking medical care for her sick husband in hospital p. 123	Window shopping shirts p.23
Helping the blind cross the road p. 19	Slashing grass p.30
Window shopping dresses and fruits p.23	Collecting slashed grasses p.30
Wiping window panes and mopping floor p.30	Trimming trees p.30
Planting trees p.40	Directing visitors to an office p.31
Washing clothes p.41	Being happily married p. 35
Sweeping p.135	Planting trees p. 40
Praying for people p.61	Washing cars p.51
Serving people p. 61	Playing soccer p. 52
Singing p.73	Herding cattle p. 53
Buying sugar p.111	Baking cake p.69
Setting table for breakfast p. 114	Selling houses p.73
Taking care of her children p. 119	Helping the physically challenged p.82
Sweeping p.119	Picking coffee p.148

Cleaning the compound p119	Stealing p.172
Picking coffee p.148	Entertaining the tourists p.172
	Playing football p. 176
SETB2	
Females	**Males**
Feeding children p. 15	Owning flocks p. 7
Serving guests p.1 8	Polishing shoes p. 39
Preparing delicacies p.24	Preparing supper p.92
Accompanying grandchildren to school p.39	Building a house p. 102
Making fireless stoves p. 46	Weeding coffee p. 112
Entertaining visitors p.49	Neglecting baby p.136
Singing a beautiful song p.48	Painting p.169
Grieving the loss of her child p. 77	Putting up a house p.169
Receiving flowers from husband p.229	Playing football p 210
Drawing water p.139	Involved in robbery and drug peddling p 216
Suckling baby p.132	
Entertaining the family p.132	
Picking coffee p.112	
Carrying a baby p.92	

Loving her child p.91	
Giving birth p. 165	

SETB3	
Females	**Males**
Getting married p. 45	Marrying p.45
Swimming p. 47	Making lovely baskets p. 45
Prostitution p.51	Taking photographs p.49
Cooking p.59	Inheriting from fathers p. 59
Singing to husbands p.89	Giving instructions p.82
Giving children food p. 103	Repairing broken handles of broom p.171
Reprimanding a daughter for sitting badly p.118	Playing with toys p. 192
Being a good wife, good mother p.136	Taking photographs p. 192.
Playing with dolls p.192	

SETB4	
Females	**Males**
Looking for food p.3	Drinking alcohol p.6
Preparing supper p.53	Collecting garbage and begging in streets p.53
Giving birth p. 66	Presented as raping step-daughter p.

	65
Polishing shoes p.70	Doing work in the shamba p.70
Dancing p.72	Fishing p.71
Serving husband p. 89	Eating p. 75
Hugging her baby p.94	Playing soccer p. 96
Mulching crops p.95	Cultivating p. 106
Singing, dancing p.98	Preaching the gospel p.224
Cultivating p.106	Fighting thieves p. 226
Singing softly to the baby p. 119	Earning p.226
Cooking p.214	Story telling p.235
Shopping clothes p.220	Painting a picture p. 249
Fetching water p. 224	
Washing and drawing water p.235	
Taking care of baby p. 235	

Appendix XVI: Quantitative Data-Visual Signs

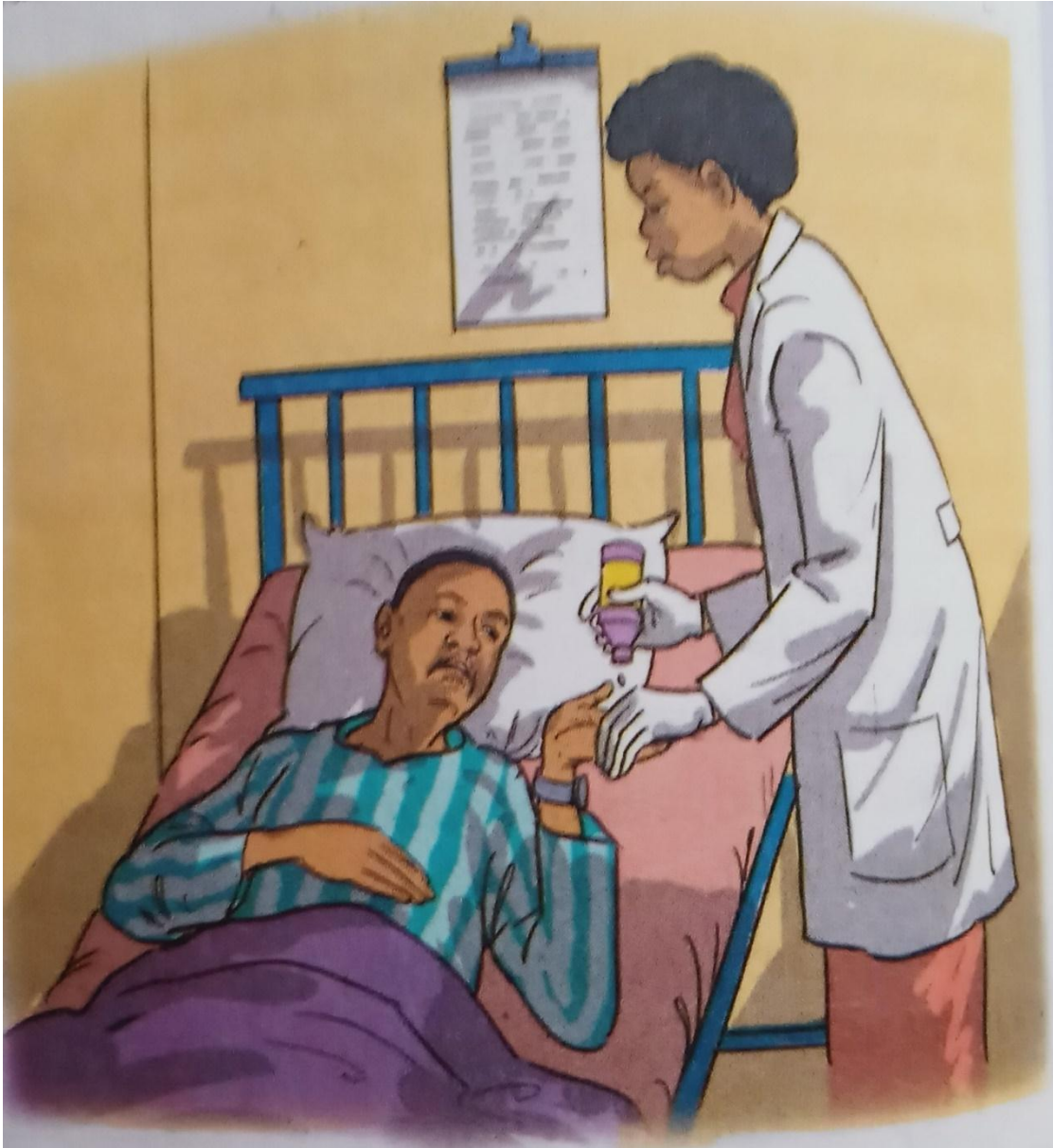**Visual Sign XVI1:** Males as Police Officers in SETB1

Unit 8: comprehension: The worrying Drug Problem in Kenya p.70

Visual Sign XVI2: Female as a Vegetable Vendor in SETB1

Unit 11: comprehension: Saito p.101

Visual Sign XVI3: A Female as a Nurse in SETB1
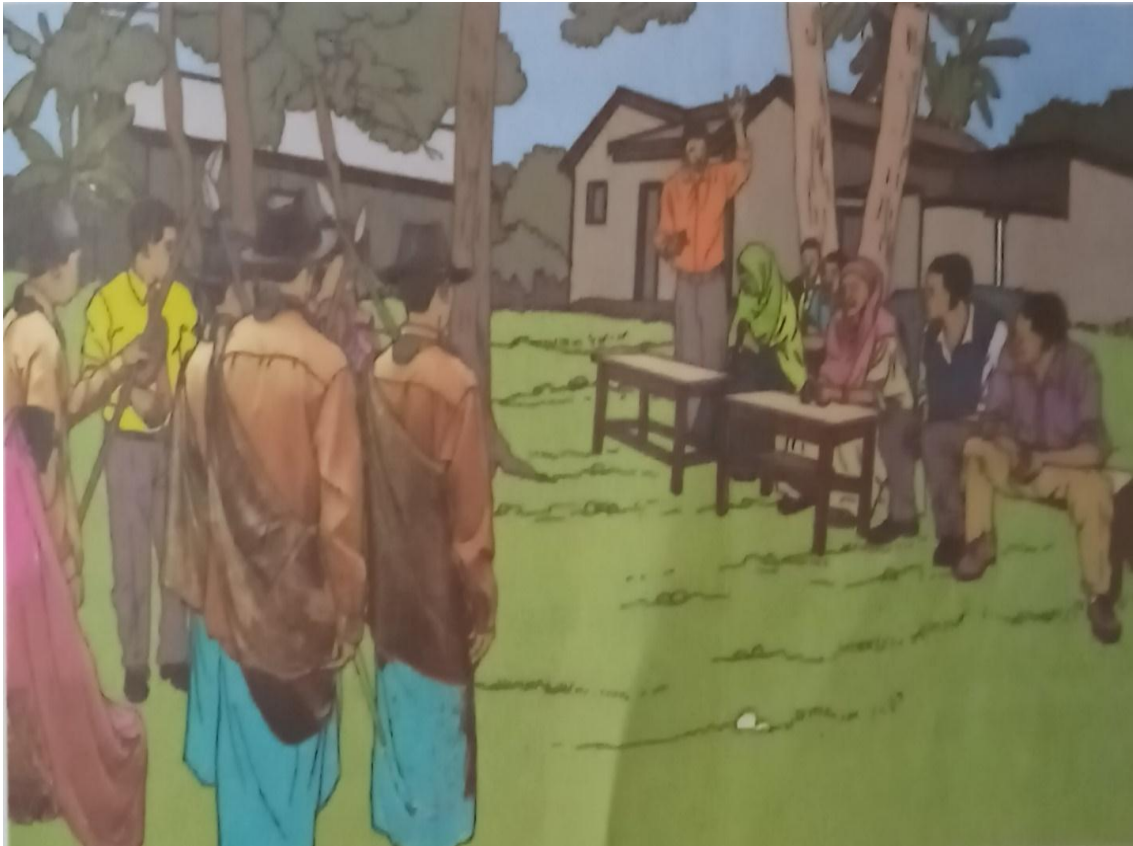

Unit 14: comprehension: Typhoid Fever p. 126

Visual Sign XVI4: A Female as a Teacher in SETB2

Unit 1: Comprehension A worthy Prefect p. 5

Visual Sign XVI5: Visibility of Males and Females in SETB1

Unit 9 listening and speaking: The Arinkon p.85

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Visual Sign XVI6: A Male as a President in SETB1
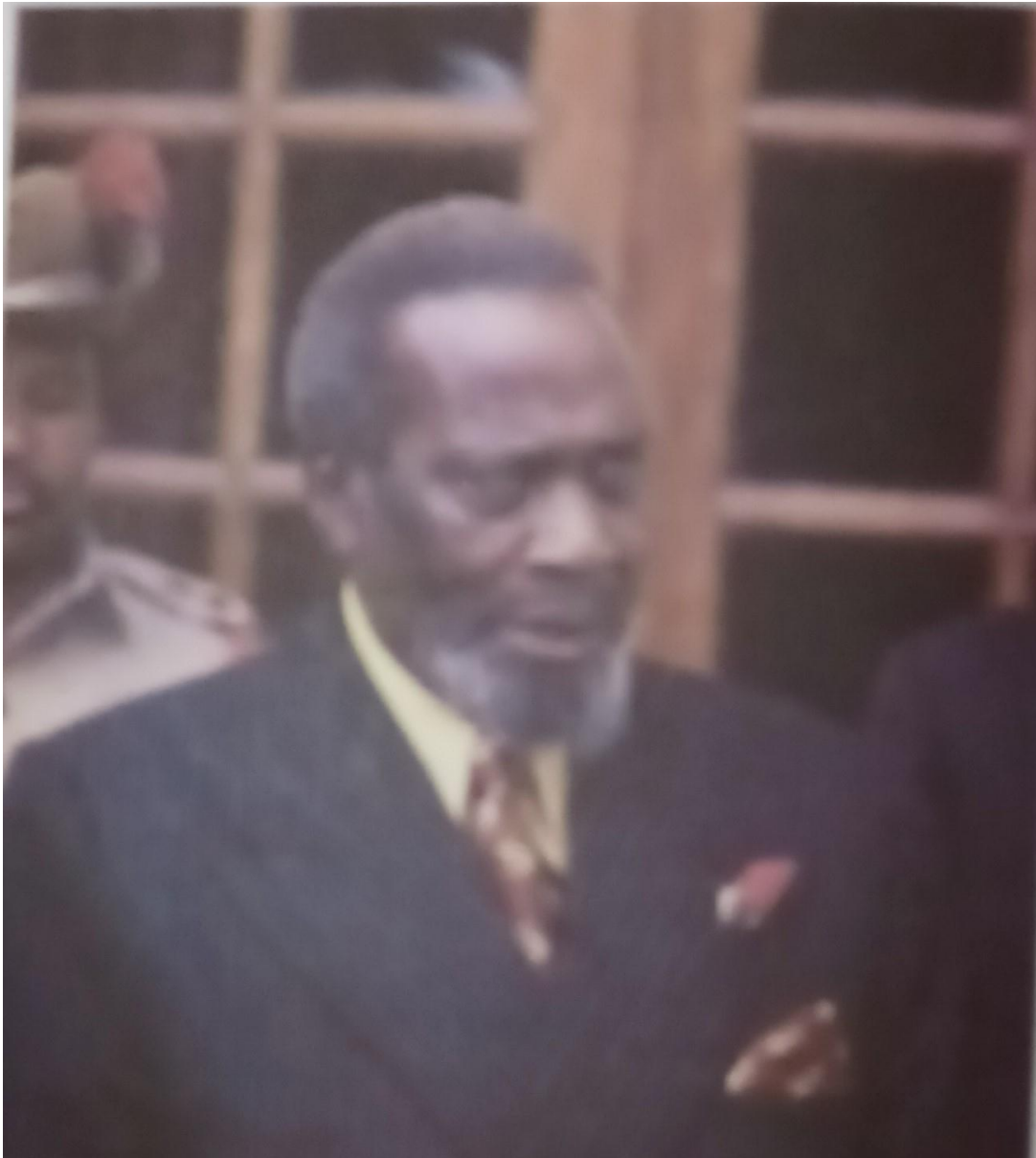
Unit 13: Comprehension: Kenyatta finally released p.124

Visual Sign XVI7: A Male as a Principal and Female as a Teacher in SETB2
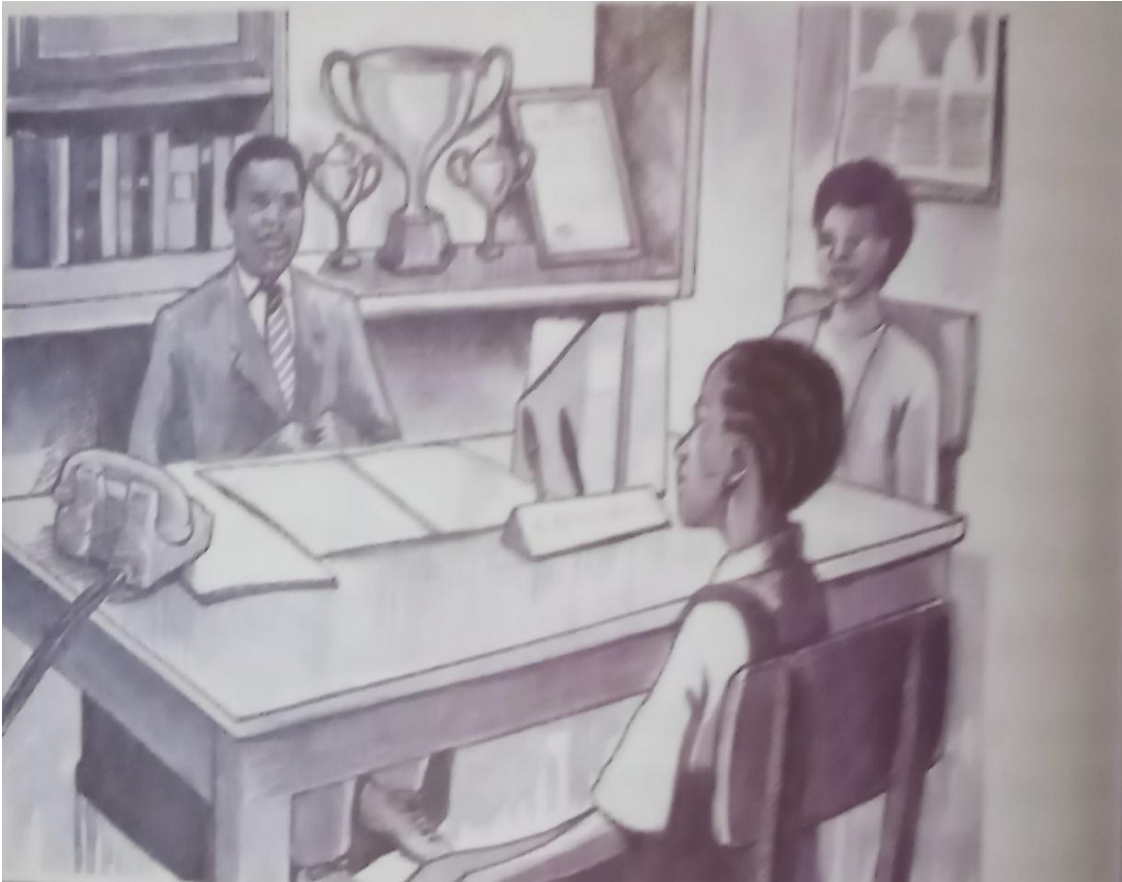
Unit 16: Listening and speaking: Interviews p.150

Visual Sign XVI8: A Female as a Talk Show Host

Unit 18: Comprehension: Oprah Winfrey p.177

Visual Sign XVI9: A Male as a Pastor in SETB3

Unit 4: (ii) Comprehension: Women break from the Shackles of Traditions p.33

Visual Sign XVI10: Males as a Conductor and Driver SETB3

Unit 5: (ii) Comprehension: Citizen's role in good governance. p.44

Visual Sign XVI10: A Male as a King in SETB3
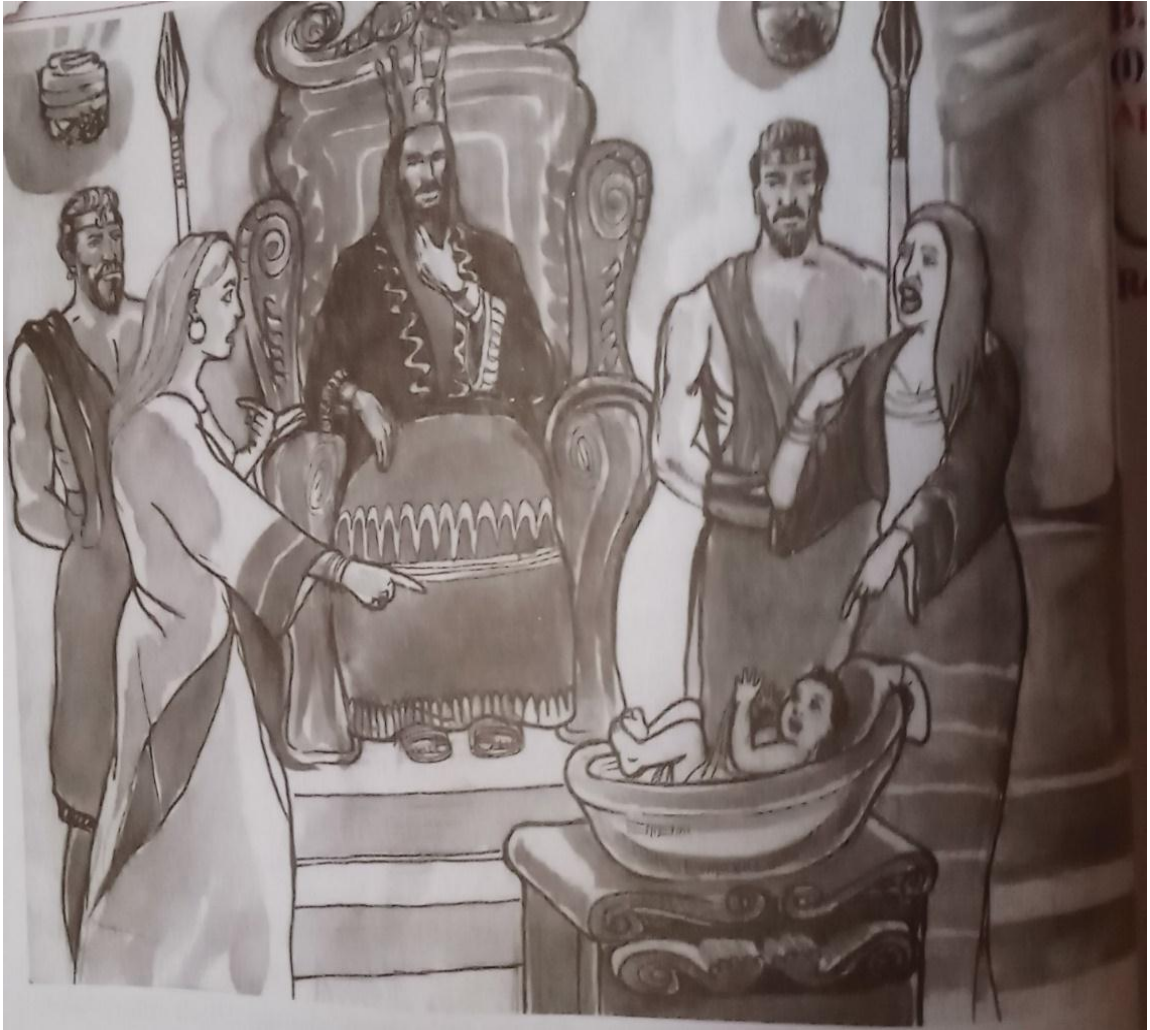
Unit 6: A. Listening and speaking: Features of Dilemma Narratives p.52

Visual Sign XVI11: A Female as a Counsellor in SETB3

Unit 6: (ii) Comprehension: HIV- The emotional journey p 55.

Visual Sign XVI12: A Female Teaching in SETB3
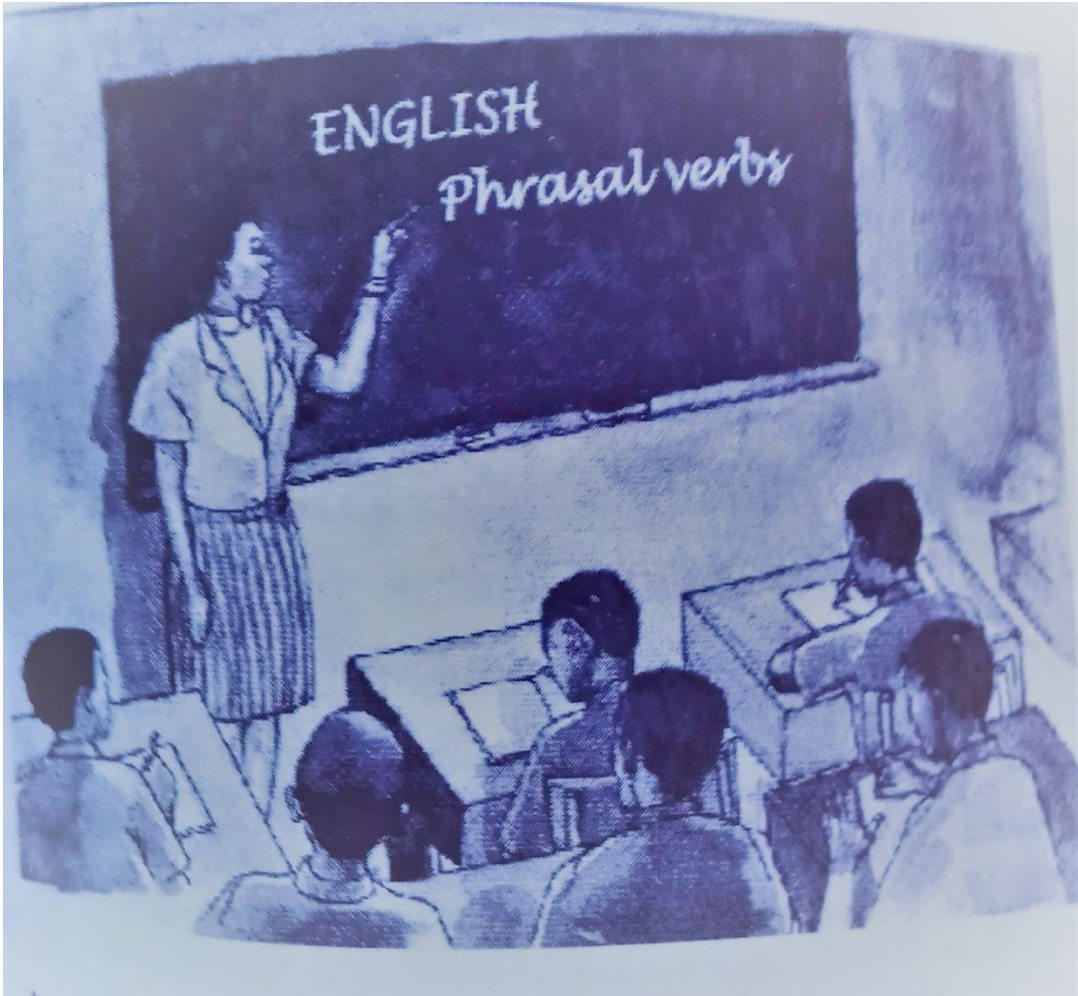
Unit 7: (ii) Comprehension: Our rights and responsibilities p. 65.

Visual Sign XVI13: Males as a Major and Police Officer in SETB4

'Let him sit down,' the Major, who was sitting behind the desk, said.
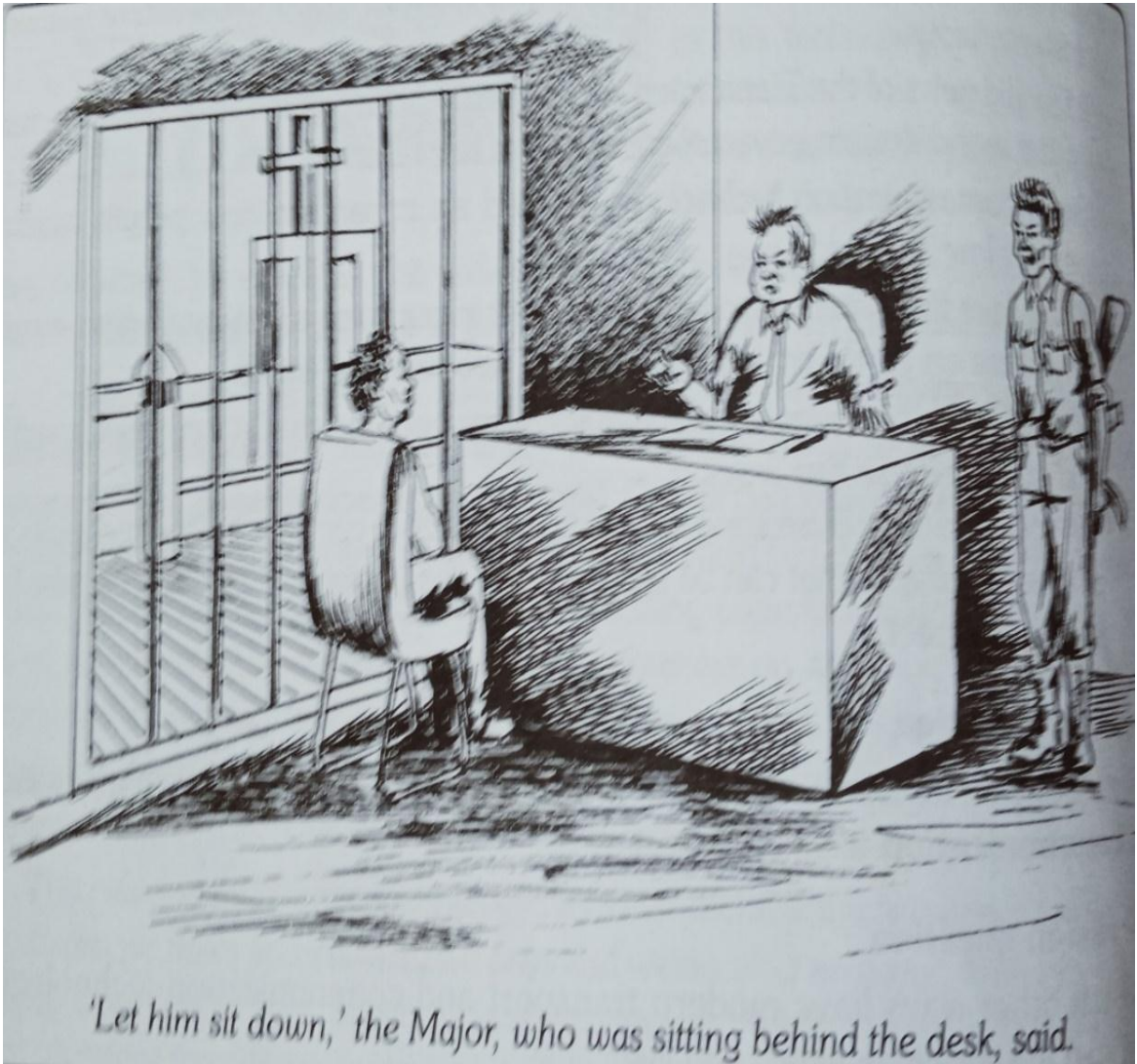
Unit 4: Passage 2: The Prisoner

Visual Sign XVI14: A Male and Female Involved in an Act SETB1

Sourced from Unit 1: Comprehension Karani and Kemunto p. 5

Visual Sign XVI15: A Girls and boys Undertaking Some roles SETB2

Unit 11: Comprehension: Child Labour p. 99

Visual Sign XVI16: A Woman Picking Coffee and Males Weeding in SETB2

Unit 11: Writing: summary coffee farming p.112

Appendix XVII: Samples of a Visual Test of Research Instruments
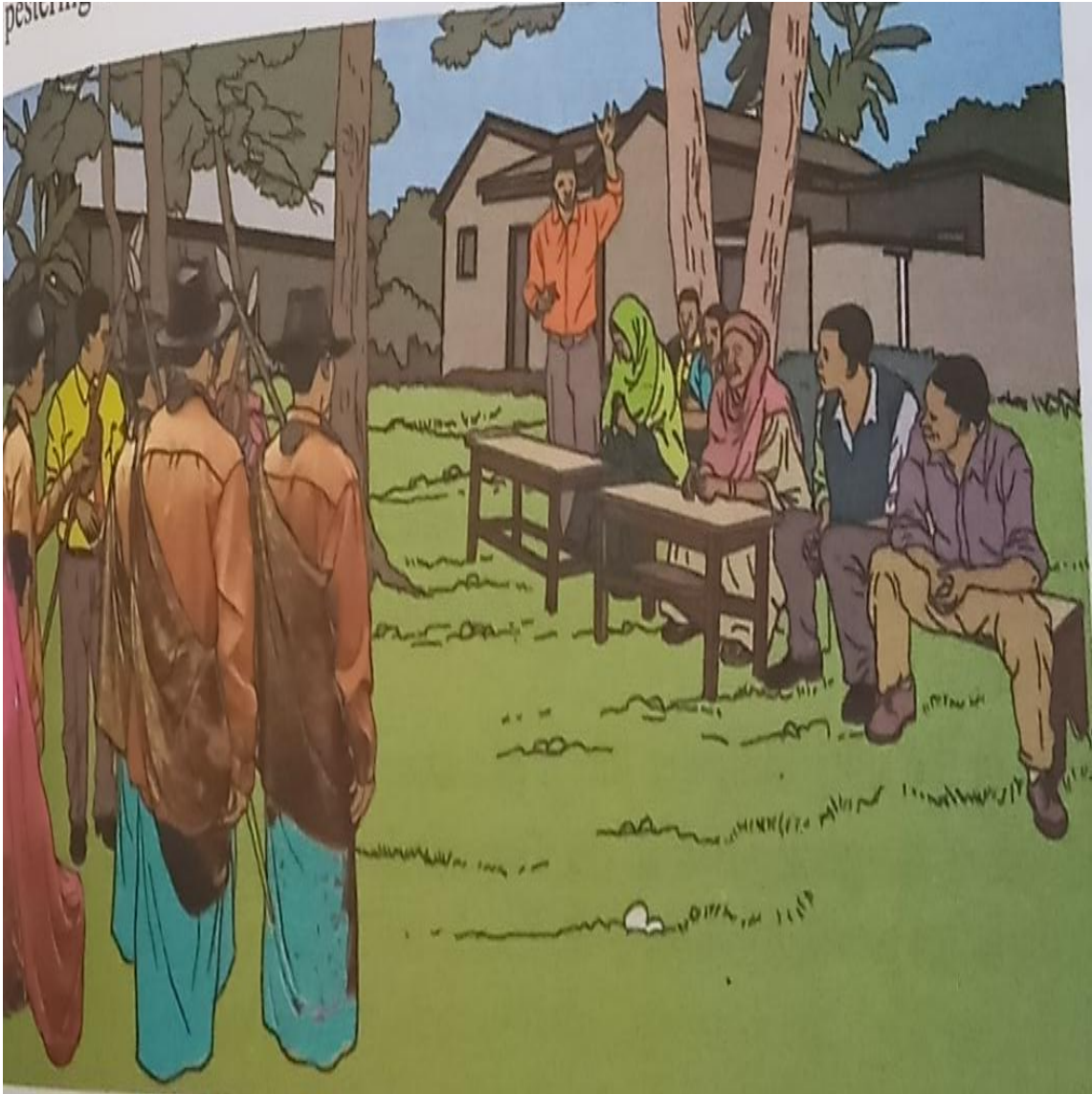
Unit 9: Listening and speaking The Arinkon p.85

Appendix XVIII: Occupational and Social Activities in Linguistic Signs

SETB1	
Females	**Males**
Househelp p.5	Fisherman p.133
Doctor p.43	Manager of a popular company p. 7
Teacher p. 43	Laboratory assistant p.12
National beauty queen p. 97	Messenger p. 16
Housegirl p.101	Teacher p.43
Counselor p.102	Inventor p49
Nurse p.126	Industrialist p. 49
Singing p.73	Playing soccer p. 52
Pilot p. 176	Linguist p. 49
Social worker p.149	Chef p.69
Window shopping dresses and fruits p.23	Driver p.74
Buying sugar p.111	Shopkeeper p.111
	Herdsboys p.148
	District officer p.149
	Banker p.176
	Farmer p. 152
	Entertaining the tourists p.172
	Playing football p. 176
SETB2	
Females	**Males**
Teacher p.4	Watchman p.5
Shop attendant p. 5	Teacher p.49
Parliamentarian p. 5	Farmer p. 226

Managing director p.129	Managing director p.149
Shop attendant p. 154	Principal p. 150
Talk show host p. 176	Head storekeeper p.154
Headman p. 220	College principal p 154
MP p.222	Doctor p. 163
Nurse p.237	Hospital superintendent p.163
Grieving the loss of her child p. 77	Workman coffee plantation p.165
Singing a beautiful song p.48	Workman p.165
	Manager p.165
	Driver p. 182
	Sales representative p.182
	Paramount chief p.219
	Medicine man p. 219
	District officer p.205
	Shopkeeper p. 229
	Lawyer p.233
	Playing football p 210
	Involved in robbery and drug peddling p 216
SETB3	
Females	**Males**
Teacher p26	Cook p 29
Doctor p. 127	Vice-president p. 48
Swimming p. 47	King p.51
Prostitution p.51	Driver p. 57
	Boxers p 59
	Lawyer p.75
	Driver p. 124

	Teacher p.145
	Carpenter p. 165
	Doctor p.192
	Judge p. 224
	Playing with toys p. 192
	Taking photographs p. 192.

SETB4	
Females	**Males**
Nurse p.8	Fisherman p.6
Librarian p. 9	Artist p.8
Police officer p. 22	President p.8
Salesgirl p. 22	Vice-president p.9
Banker, singer, teacher p.38	Messenger p.15
Headmistress p.55	Herdsboy p.19
Selling clothes,perfumes and cloths p.89	Video editor p.22
Typist p. 120	Footballer p.138
Environmentalist p. 189	Headteacher p.38
Teacher p.196	Master of ceremonies p.45
Dancing p.72	Sportsman p.50
Singing, dancing p.98	Inventor p.56
Singing softly to the baby p. 119	Headmaster p. 79
	Policeman p.100
	Teacher p.120
	Gardener p.125
	Commissioner p. 127
	Selling fruits p.160
	Driver, tout p.165

	Doctor p.186
	Chief p.234
	Prison officer p.245
	Childhood education specialist p.262
	Orator p.262
	Playing soccer p. 96
	Preaching the gospel p.224

Appendix XIX: Approval of Research

MACHAKOS UNIVERSITY
OFFICE OF THE DEAN GRADUATE SCHOOL

Telephone:254-(0)735247939, (0)723805929
Email: graduateschool@mksu.ac.ke
Website: www.machakosuniversity.ac.ke

P.O Box 136-90100
Machakos
KENYA

REF. MksU/GS/SS/011/VOL.1

18th February, 2021

The Director,
National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
P.O Box 30623,
NAIROBI

Dear Sir

RE: FELLIS NTHAMBI MUTUNE (C80/12659/2017)

The above named is a PhD student in the second year of study and has cleared course work. The University has cleared her to conduct a research entitled: **"A Socio Semiotic Analysis of Gender Representation in Selected Kenyan Secondary Schools English Textbooks"**

Kindly assist her with a Research Permit in order to undertake the research.

Thank you

DR. KIMITI RICHARD PETER, PhD
DEAN GRADUATE SCHOOL

KRP/gm

ISO 9001:2008 Certified .... Soaring Heights in Transforming Industry and Economy

276

Appendix XXI: Research Permit

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 692077

Date of Issue: 17/March/2021

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Ms.. Fellis Nthambi Mutune of Machakos University, has been licensed to conduct research in Machakos on the topic: A SOCIAL SEMIOTIC ANALYSIS OF GENDER REPRESENTATION IN SELECTED KENYAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS for the period ending : 17/March/2022.

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P. O. Box 30623, 00100 Nairobi, KENYA
Land line: 020 4007000, 020 2241349, 020 3310571, 020 8001077
Mobile: 0713 788 787 / 0735 404 245
E-mail: dg@nacosti.go.ke / registry@nacosti.go.ke Website:
www.nacosti.go.ke