How Gendered Are Finnish Primary School English Language Textbooks: A Quantitative and Qualitative Study of Two Textbook Series

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In this MA thesis, primary school English language textbooks were studied in order to examine how equally the genders are presented and how stereotypical the contents of the books are. Since every educational establishment in Finland must issue an equality plan, this thesis aims to discover if the striving for gender equality in schools could be detected in the teaching material. As school and literature convey the dominant and prevailing attitudes and beliefs in the society and as they can also influence children’s gender views, it is important to be aware of the contents presented for children through textbooks.

The material of the study consists of four English language textbooks from two different textbooks series used in primary school in Finland. A textbook corpus was constructed by using the AntConc software, and the textbooks were examined by combining quantitative and qualitative methods and by utilizing techniques from Corpus Linguistics. The textual aspects examined in the thesis were gendered pronouns and other gender-related words, parental words, the gender distribution of the characters and occupational roles. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) was chosen for the theoretical framework due to its suitability to uncover uneven power relations and to study discrimination and inequalities that are mediated, controlled and reproduced through discourses.

The quantitative examination discovered an underrepresentation of women and dominance of men in every studied category. Men even dominated the frequencies of parental roles, which contradicts the results of many previous studies. The examination of the gender distribution of the characters revealed the most equal representation of women and men from all the categories that were examined. The qualitative analysis uncovered mostly stereotypical portrayal of parental and occupational roles, even more so for men than for women. However, also some non-stereotypical descriptions of occupational and parental roles were discovered in the corpus.

The findings of the study suggest an unequal and stereotypical portrayal of the genders, at least regarding the frequencies. The qualitative findings suggest that some previously gendered textual aspects were acknowledged, for example male parental roles and female characters, but there are still improvements to be made in the future to ensure equal gender representations in primary school English language textbooks.

Keywords: Gender, Gender Discourse, Gender Development. Critical Discourse Analysis, Corpus Linguistics, Textbooks, Education
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List of abbreviations

CDA Critical Discourse Analysis
CL Corpus Linguistics
EFL English as a Foreign Language
1 Introduction

By January 2017, every comprehensive school in Finland had to draft an equality plan as a part of the Act on Equality between Women and Men (Jääskeläinen et al. 2015, 7-8). Finnish National Agency for Education also issued a guideline for schools to help in the equality planning teaching materials (Jääskeläinen et al. 2015). The guideline was, however, misconstrued in some cases and caused commotion over the internet and even received comments from the foreign minister (Lankinen, 2016). The aim of the equality plan is to ensure that educational institutions contribute to the promotion of gender equality by preventing discrimination and advancing egalitarianism in school environment.

In this thesis, I wanted to investigate if this striving for gender equality in schools could be detected in the teaching material. Thus, I studied four English language textbooks from two different textbook series for their textual contents to discover how equally the genders are presented and how stereotypical the contents of the books are. Consequently, the following research questions were formulated:

1. How gendered is the language used in Finnish primary school English language textbooks?
2. How do the studied female and male terms differ quantitatively and qualitatively?

Therefore, I examined the textbooks by combining quantitative and qualitative methods and utilized techniques from Corpus Linguistics after compiling a corpus from the textbooks. Hence, I was able to study, for example, frequencies of male and female terms in addition to the qualitative analysis. In this thesis I included studying gendered pronouns she, he, her, him, hers and his as well as other gender-related words such as woman and man. In addition, I studied parental words and the gender distribution of the characters, and finally I examined the occupational roles appearing in the textbooks both quantitatively and qualitatively. Critical Discourse Analysis was chosen for the theoretical framework due to its suitability to uncover uneven power relations and study discrimination and inequalities that are mediated, controlled and reproduced through discourses (Bloor and Bloor 2014, 191-192).

Research on gender issues in language use expanded after the second wave of the Feminist Movement arose in the 1970’s (Sunderland 2006, 10-11), and gendered
language in children’s literature has also been widely studied over the following decades (Sadker, Sadker and Klein 1991). Previous research has uncovered biased material, and the most common findings of previous studies on children’s literature have been the underrepresentation of women and the dominance of men as well as portraying stereotypical domestic and occupational roles and behavior (Sadker, Sadker and Klein 1991, 272-278). Since literature conveys the dominant and prevailing attitudes and beliefs in the society, I consider it to be beneficial to examine the current state of the language used in textbooks. Moreover, previous studies have discovered that presenting children with gender-fair and non-stereotypical reading material has the power to influence their overall gender views and their opinions about their abilities (e.g. Flerx, Fidler and Rogers 1976; Scott 1986; Trepanier-Street and Romatowski 1999). This emphasizes the importance to being aware of the contents presented for children through school books.

Primary school plays an important role in children’s gender development providing social contact with peers and teachers, as well as education through multiple mediums. The purpose of school is to educate and expand children’s intellectual resources as well as provide children with the skill sets needed to function in the society. However, the official curriculum does not cover everything learned in school environment, but the attitudes, beliefs and patterns of behavior are also taught through social interaction with peers and teachers and through institutional structures and practices. The self-reliance and competence obtained in school are especially important in forming children’s beliefs about their opportunities regarding occupational choices and progress (Bussey and Bandura 1999, 701). Therefore, teachers along with the reading material in schools play an important role in influencing children’s attitudes towards gender roles and stereotypes as well as validating their choices and dreams for the future. Textbooks are an essential part of the teaching provided in school environment and have the power to shape and maintain cultural values and beliefs (McCabe et al. 2011, 199). Foreign language textbooks also contain an explicit objective to teach the children aspects about different cultures and societies in addition to the apparent language teaching, and therefore it is crucial to consider the nature of the contents in the textbooks. Therefore, I find it to be important to present unbiased and gender-fair written material for children in school environment.
The present thesis is divided into seven sections. After the introduction, section 2 focuses on the theoretical background that forms the foundation behind the present study. In section 2.1 I will discuss children’s gender development and briefly introduce two theories regarding gender development, *gender schema theory* and *social-cognitive theory*. In section 2.1 I will also consider the role of education in children’s gender development. In 2.2, I will introduce *Critical Discourse Analysis*, which was selected as the theoretical framework for this thesis, and I will also present *Corpus Linguistics*, which provided the methodological tools for the research. Lastly, in section 3, I will review some previous research on gender issues in children’s reading material.

After the theoretical background section, I will move on to presenting the material and methods used in this thesis in section 4. Section 5 presents the results from the quantitative and qualitative analysis thematically organized in four sections: 5.1 covering gendered pronouns and other terms, 5.2 parental terms, 5.3 the main characters and 5.4 occupational roles. In section 6, I will deepen the analysis and interpret the results in comparison with previous studies as well as discuss possible limitations of the study. Finally, section 7 concludes the paper by providing a summary of the thesis and considering suggestions for any further studies.

## 2 Gender development and education

In this section, I will discuss the gender development of children and the importance of school, education and literature in the development process. However, before discussing children’s gender development, I must address the issue between sex and gender. Sex is often seen as biological and determined by reproductive organs and chromosomes whereas gender is seen more as a social construct (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet 2003, 10). The biological division into males and females is dichotomous in most societies, although not all people fall clearly into one of these two categories (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet 2003, 11). According to the more recent theories, gender is a continuum that includes different varieties of masculinities and femininities which can vary not only between societies, but also within individuals in different times and situations (Sunderland and Litosseliti 2002, 7-8). Gill, Esson and Yuen (2016, 96) summarize that “gender can be defined as a complex set of
institutional, social, and individual practices that are culturally reinforced, if not overdetermined, not necessarily conscious, and frequently contested.”

The connection between sex and gender is often exaggerated in societies, although there would be no biological reasons for differing behavioral patterns for women and men (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet 2003, 13). Even though men and women have distinct differences in their reproductive organs and brain functions for example, gender is formed, maintained and modified in social interaction (Wingrave 2018, 589-590). It is society and its dominant cultural and social values that plays an important role in constructing gender roles (Del-Teso-Craviotto 2006). However, research does not support unequivocal boundaries between biological and social factors, and differences between genders are products of these and other aspects combined (Bussey 2011, 603-604). Even differences that have been assumed being caused by biological determinants have been predisposed to change, and on the other hand, some gender-linked behavior can be caused by certain biological factors such as prenatal exposure to testosterone and other hormones (Hines 2011, 70). Therefore, in this thesis I will use the more inclusive term gender to describe both biological and social determinants since these two terms cannot be differentiated unequivocally. Now, I will move on to discussing children’s gender development and explain the role of school environment in gender development, which are both closely linked to the subject of my thesis and serve as a premise for my research questions.

2.1 Children’s gender development

Gender is a fundamental aspect of self-definition for individuals and the notion of gender is present in a person’s whole life time. Gender is also heavily embedded in today’s societies, and gender can influence how children are dressed and treated, how children choose their academic and later occupational paths and family life and what skills children wish to advance or leave undeveloped (Bussey 2014, 81). Gender stereotypes are presupposed views about behavior, appearance, skills, attributes and thought patterns associated with different genders (Bussey 2014, 84).

While children can also benefit from gender stereotypes by using them to reliably comprehend and process social contexts, stereotypes also have a negative effect on their views on social, educational and occupational roles (Hughes and Seta 2003, 685). Childhood is an important time for gender identity development (McCabe
Children can distinguish female and male voices from the early age of six months and 9-month-old children can already discern the pictures of women and men (Martin and Ruble 2004, 69). This means that children are likely to develop gender categories for women and men before they start to talk. Preschool children already categorize themselves and others according to their gender, but the development of gender schemas and gender identity and the understanding of their expectations continue throughout childhood (McCabe et al., 2011, 199). Books, along with peers, parents and teachers have an effect on forming and reinforcing children’s gender views and what is appropriate for women and men (ibid.).

Children’s development of gender has been widely studied over the years within different fields and many theories on gender development have been proposed (Bussey 2011, 604-608). The contemporary view on gender development is, that gender differences in behavior are caused by multifaceted combination of biological, social, environmental and cognitive causes (Hines 2011, 70). In addition, most contemporary theories on gender development see gender as a continuum rather than a dichotomous concept (Bussey and Bandura 1999, 683), but the distinction between the different agents is difficult.

2.2 The role of school environment in gender development

Finland as a country is very much invested in advancing equality and parity between genders and internationally Finland is considered a country where gender equality is well actualized (Jääskeläinen et al. 2015, 9). Nevertheless, according to a report by the Finnish Council of State, there are sectors where equality between genders has not been fully realized, such as in work life, wages and leadership positions, domestic and parental roles, media and advertising as well as in early childhood education and education (Jääskeläinen et al. 2015, 9-10). Differences between the genders in education can be detected early in the school life and attitudes and learning results become gendered early on, which in turn can be reflected in further education and in the working life (Jääskeläinen et al. 2015, 10-11). Thus, it is essential to aspire to prevent gender segregation as early as possible in basic education.

The purpose of school is to educate and expand children’s intellectual resources as well as provide children with the skill sets needed to function in the society. The self-reliance and competence obtained in school are especially important
in forming children’s beliefs about their opportunities regarding occupational choices and progress (Bussey and Bandura 1999, 701). The basic education in Finland is responsible for the all-round education that builds the foundation for common knowledge (Opetushallitus 2014, 12). Basic education has educational, social, cultural and future-looking tasks and it promotes for example life-long learning, equality, parity, justice, the knowledge and protection of human rights as well as cultural identity and cultural differences (Opetushallitus 2014, 18-19). The official curriculum is responsible for the implementation of these objectives in practice through teaching in the school environment. Jääskeläinen et al. (2015, 7) also state that basic education has a major role in advancing gender equality and raising knowledge about gender awareness. Basic education has a significant role in forming children’s perceptions about their abilities as well as their opportunities in further education and in their future career (Tainio and Teräs 2010, 4). These ideas and perceptions formed during primary education years are reflected later in the working life when prevailing beliefs and attitudes are more difficult to alter (ibid.) Hence, attempting to influence children’s attitudes and views is particularly important during the years of primary education.

However, affecting children’s beliefs and attitudes does not only occur through the official curriculum, but also more implicitly through, for example, social interaction with peers and teacher as well as school structures and practices. Therefore, primary school is an important agent in constructing children’s gender views. In school environment, children encounter other children in vast amounts and are susceptible to gender differences and gendered behavior (Paechter 2007, 76). School environment offers children a platform to experience social interaction and form relationships and therefore provides opportunities to develop social skills and self-knowledge as well as gender development (Gill, Esson and Yuen 2016, 40-42). In addition, school environment contains adults, teachers, in a powerful and educational role that can affect children’s gender views through their own persona and attitudes (Paechter 2007, 77). Moreover, the school as an institution contains different groupings and labeling of children, also according to gender (ibid.) Another aspect influencing the construction of gender in school environment is the knowledge that is being shared, for example, through literary material. Children tend to position themselves on the grounds of gender knowledge they obtain from school material (Paechter 2007, 85-86). In school, children compare the gender views they are exposed to at home against the gender views presented in teaching material, in teacher behavior and beliefs and in
the behavior of peers (Paecther 2007, 89-90). Therefore, teachers along with the reading material in schools play an important role in influencing children’s attitudes towards gender roles and stereotypes as well as validating their choices and dreams for the future.

As previously stated, school is an important component in children’s gender development providing social contact with peers and teachers, as well as education through multiple mediums. Textbooks are only one medium through which children learn about social conventions and constructions such as gender. For instance, the environment at home and in school combined with social and cultural background as well as geographical location have an effect on the children’s views of the characteristics and possible opportunities they can imagine for themselves in the future (Gill, Esson and Yuen 2016, 155). However, children’s books have been widely studied which implies the important role books have in children’s lives and the power books have in shaping and maintaining cultural values and beliefs (McCabe et al. 2011, 199). Textbooks and other teaching material have an essential role in education. The official curriculum is put into practice and supported through textbooks and books guide the learning process and the reader’s views (Tainio and Teräs 2010, 10). Moreover, studies have found that even adults’ attitudes and beliefs can be influenced by literature, and the effects could be even stronger for children due to their limitations in knowledge, in their abilities to distinguish reality from fiction and in their abilities to critically analyze information (Diekman and Murnen 2004, 373). Therefore, it is especially important to be aware of the literature and language that children are exposed to.

Stereotypical attitudes and gendered views can also affect the children’s educational and occupational paths. There are multiple factors generating gendered stereotyping and affecting children’s academic choices, such as stereotypical views on what is considered a gender appropriate profession and what males and females are good at, aspects of school environment such as teacher’s attitudes and behavior, class contents and literature, evaluation procedures and individual preferences such as educational experience and achievements, socio-economic background and gender attitudes (Colley 1998, 19). Therefore, it is important to advance equal opportunities and the range of choices for the future to ensure the possibilities for the children to reach their full potential (Colley 1998, 31). In this section I have presented some aspects of gender development and educational setting that are closely linked to my
research questions. Next, I will present the theoretical frameworks connected to this thesis.

3 Theoretical frameworks

In this section I will introduce aspects that constitute the theoretical background for the thesis. First, in section 3.1 I will briefly introduce two theories regarding children’s gender development; *gender schema theory* and *social cognitive theory* which act as frame of references regarding gender development in this thesis. In 3.2 I will discuss Critical Discourse Analysis (henceforth CDA) and corpus linguistics (CL) which provide some theoretical and analytical tools for my thesis. Lastly, in 3.3 I will also present some previous research on children’s reading material that form the basis for this thesis. First, I will direct my attention to two theories that underline the social nature of gender development, *gender schema theory* and *social cognitive theory*, which both underline the role of socialization in gender development.

3.1 Gender schema theory and social cognitive theory

*Gender schema theory* attempts to explain how children learn to behave accordingly to their gender (Bem 1983, 603). According to gender schema theory, children learn what it means to be a woman or a man in their culture through their gender schema. A schema is “a cognitive structure, a network of associations that organizes and guides an individual’s perception” (Bem 1981, 355). The prevailing views of different gender characteristics in the society affect the development of a gender schema, and this schema influences children’s attitudes, behavior and processing of social information (Bem 1983, 603). Gender schemas mold children’s interpretations since people interpret information through previous experiences and knowledge (McCabe et al. 2011, 200). Gender schema theory also suggests that children are active participants in their gender development by seeking gender-related information and that children are more prone to perceive information about their own gender and notice gender differences (Martin, Ruble and Szkrybalo 2002, 911).

Since society and cultural beliefs influence the gender schema through which children learn appropriate gender behavior, books as well as other forms of media can have an impact on children’s attitudes towards gender roles in their societies. Bem (1983, 609) argues that if the society did not provide children a profoundly
dichotomous and biased gender view, they would develop much less stereotyped attitudes towards genders. Gender schema theory acts as a frame of reference in my study, since according to the theory, literature can play a part in forming children’s gender schema and ensuring a non-biased and equal view of the world. Therefore, it is important to study what kind of gender roles school books are portraying and presenting for children. In addition, according to gender schema theory, since children are more likely to process information through the members of their own gender, it is important to provide versatile and multiple examples for all genders.

Social cognitive theory is another theory that outlines how gender awareness develops. Social cognitive theory acknowledges certain biological and evolutionary factors that affect gender behavior but emphasizes the environmental and social aspects in gender development, especially through modeling of parents, peers, teachers and mass media, for example (Bussey and Bandura 1999, 683-685). In addition to modeling, children often receive encouragement of gender appropriate behavior and are discouraged by inappropriate behavior, which strengthens the children’s gender stereotypes (Bussey and Bandura 1999, 685). Then, according to social cognitive theory, school, among other environments, is an important factor in children’s gender development where they receive patterns and encouragement for certain gender behavior through modeling of teachers and peers as well as through books.

3.2 Critical Discourse Analysis and corpus linguistics

In my thesis, I use Critical Discourse Analysis as a theoretical framework for my study and use methods from corpus linguistics. In this section I will briefly introduce CDA in section 3.1.1 and CL in 3.1.2 and explain how CDA can also benefit from using corpora in the research process, and at the end of the section 3.1.3 I will provide some examples on how corpus linguistics has been used to study gender issues.

3.2.1 Critical discourse analysis

CDA is a multidisciplinary approach that aims to uncover inequalities and hidden power structures in societies that are mediated, controlled and reproduced through discourses in social and political contexts (Bloor and Bloor 2014, 191-192). For instance, issues about race and gender along with discourses in media, politics and organizations and identity research form a significant part of research in CDA (Weiss
and Wodak 2003, 12). CDA differs from some other research branches in that CDA does not have any specific or uniform methodology or theory, but the research is manifold and utilizes many theories and methodologies, which results in open scientific discourse and innovations in research (Weiss and Wodak 2003, 12-13).

In order to explain CDA more thoroughly, I will now address the terms *discourse* and *critical* that are essential distinctive features of CDA along with the notion of *power*. First, I will concentrate on defining discourse from CDA’s point of view, since the definition of discourse varies between different researchers and academic cultures (Wodak and Meyer 2009, 6). CDA considers language to be a social practice and highlights the importance of context in language use (Wodak and Meyer 2009, 1). Discourses are constituted by the discourse event in relation to the situations, institutions and social structures surrounding them (Wodak and Meyer 2009, 5-6). Discourses are not only shaped by sociocultural practice, but also shape them through sustaining, producing and changing social structures (Wodak and Meyer 2009, 6).

The critical aspect of CDA refers to the nature of the research as raising awareness and revealing hidden power structures and not only describing and explaining the research issues (Wodak and Meyer 2009, 6-7). The aim of CDA is to critically analyze social practices and reveal the issues that reflect and construct social problems and raise awareness of the implications these issues might have in forming unequal power relations (Gee 2011, 28). The third distinctive aspect of CDA is the concept of power. Research in CDA often focuses on the inequalities and the language use of those in power who help to create these inequalities (Wodak and Meyer 2009, 9). CDA is interested in how social domination is produced and reconstructed and how the dominance can be obstructed (ibid.)

As one of the main objectives of CDA is to analyze how power, discrimination and control are demonstrated in language use, CDA is well suited to study gender issues. CDA is used to study for instance how language itself is gendered, how men and women are stereotypically manifested in discourse, differences in women’s and men’s discourse styles and characteristics of different specific language events (Bloor and Bloor 2014, 94). In my thesis, the textbooks I studied are an important component of the discourse in school that is constituted in relation to the institutional setting of the school environment and the discourse event itself. The textbooks are also written by adults, who hold power over the children, and the contents are also presented by the teacher, who is also in a powerful position compared to the pupils. The core subject
of my study, gender issues, is also a subject commonly studied in CDA and CDA is well suited to investigate inequalities and power disparities. These aspects combined made CDA a suitable theoretical framework for this thesis.

3.2.2 Corpus Linguistics

In this thesis, I examine a corpus of four English textbooks and use techniques from corpus linguistics to analyze the language in the textbooks in a more profound level than what could be achieved only with qualitative analysis. Therefore, I will explain how using corpora can benefit linguistic research and critical discourse analysis. Corpora are instances of naturally occurring language of specific type compiled into a set of texts usually in an electronic form (Baker 2006, 2), whereas Corpus linguistics means the study of language through real-life examples found in the corpora (Baker 2006, 1-2). Since corpora are electronic, using corpora can reveal linguistic information and patterns that would be counterintuitive or extremely time-consuming to discover by human labor (Baker 2006, 2).

Using CL methods in research has been considered as a mostly quantitative method, although the procedure actually involves a lot of human processing in all phases (Baker 2006, 175). The restrictions of using only quantitative methods can be reduced by combining them with more qualitative methods, and for example McEnery and Wilson (2001) suggest combining qualitative and quantitative methods to improve the accuracy of the qualitative methods and on the other hand improve the generalizability of the quantitative methods. Therefore, CDA as a quantitative approach can benefit from the quantitative methods and large research data that CL can offer.

CL can be divided into corpus-based and corpus-driven approaches. A corpus-based approach is deductive by nature, where the researcher uses the corpus as a source of language data to test pre-existing hypotheses and to receive evidence (Biber 2015, 4). Corpus-based approaches then use the corpus as supporting material and corpus linguistics is considered as a method of study (Tognini-Bonelli 2001, 66). Corpus-driven studies on the other hand are more inductive, where the researcher uses the corpus as linguistic data without prior assumptions and any rules or theories are formulated after analyzing and interpreting the corpus (Biber 2015, 4). When in corpus-based studies the corpus acts as a tool to test certain hypotheses or intuitions, corpus-driven studies use the corpus as the source of data after which hypotheses and
generalizations are made (Tognini-Bonelli 2001, 84-85). In this thesis, I used the corpus-driven approach, since no prior assumptions about the stereotypicality of the books’ contents were not made and all conclusions were drawn only after examining the corpus which acted as the only source of data.

There are multiple advantages in using corpora in linguistic research. Firstly, using corpus-based approaches can help to reduce researcher bias (Mautner 2009, 123). Although total objectivity as a researcher is probably impossible to achieve, using corpora can provide tools for analysis that are not susceptible to human error and bias (Baker 2006, 10-11). Researcher bias can occur on a conscious or subconscious level in different viewpoints and perspectives that can affect the research process or the interpretation of information (ibid.) In addition, bias can be created by cognitive factors that are not caused by personal traits, but the manner in which people process information (ibid.) Using CL also enables the researcher to examine vast amounts of textual data due to the electronic format compared to analyzing the data manually (Mautner 2009, 123). Corpus linguistics also offers tools for both quantitative and qualitative research such as investigating collocations, keywords, concordances, discourse patterns and functions to name a few (ibid.) Since as a part of this thesis, I was interested in studying the frequencies of gendered words and terms, using methods from corpus linguistics was a suitable choice. Using CL methods also allowed me to combine quantitative and qualitative methods and handle much more data than analyzing the books manually.

Another benefit of using corpora in discourse analysis according to Baker (2006, 13-14) is the ability to provide hard evidence for underlying discourse features that our intuition might already suggest. The incremental nature of discourses means that multiple examples of certain phenomena are better indications of existing discourses than individual instances, and by utilizing corpus analysis in their studies researchers can uncover these repeated discourse patterns and discover hegemonic discourses (ibid.) Contrary to this, corpus analysis can also help to recognize resistant discourses (Baker 2006, 14-15). Resistant discourses could be more difficult to differentiate from hegemonic discourses without corpus linguistics, and in addition to this, corpus analysis can be used to examine the temporal changes in the relationships of resistant and hegemonic discourses (ibid.)

Despite the numerous advantages of using corpus linguistics as a research method in discourse analysis, CL also has some limitations. Since corpus linguistics
concentrates mainly on spoken or written communication, a lot of other communicative information is being excluded, such as gestures or pictures (Baker 2006, 17-18). In my thesis, I took this restriction into consideration by also examining the pictures and illustrations in the textbooks to uncover information that was not available by only studying the written texts. Another limitation pointed out by Baker (ibid.) is that the wider social context is not necessarily recognized, and the researcher might not know who has produced the text, to whom and in what circumstances and therefore much relies on the researcher’s interpretation (idib.) However, in this thesis I used a specialized small-scale corpus where the wider context, intents, authors and recipients are all known, which helps in understanding and interpreting the findings of the study.

Other aspects that one should bear in mind when applying CL methods and interpreting the results, include the notion of division of power in society (Baker 2006, 19-20). CL tends to focus on frequencies, but the power possessed by the writer or speaker can have a more significant effect on molding discourses than frequent texts produced by less powerful people. The data of this thesis consists of texts whose authors possess clearly more power than the intended readers and have the power to shape the educational discourse. Also, evidence of frequent language patterns does not always denote dominating opinions and general knowledge (ibid.) Sometimes what is not said or what does not need to be said can reflect the dominant beliefs in the society. When making conclusions about the findings of a CL study, one should also take into consideration the fact that meanings can change and vary over time and also between different people (ibid.)

Some widely used analytical methods in corpus linguistics include investigating the frequencies, collocations and concordances in the corpus (Baker 2006), and in this thesis I have utilized these methods as well. Frequency is an important feature in CL. Since language use usually involves making choices between different expressions, studying frequencies can reveal information about hegemonic discourses and ideologies (Baker 2006, 47-48). In this thesis particularly, the authors of the textbooks are very aware of the linguistic choices and make conscious decisions about the language used in the books. Therefore, I consider frequencies to be an important factor affecting the stereotypicality of the language in the corpus. Collocation refers to the combination of co-occurrence of words that can be observed in natural language. Examining the collocations of words can therefore provide
information about the relationship between certain words and what types of words they often occur with (Baker 2006, 95-96). When using the methods of CL, it is also important to combine the quantitative methods with more qualitative ones and this is where concordance analysis can be an asset. Concordance analysis is the examination of a words in their contexts and investigation of the adjacent words or sentences of the node word that is under inspection, which allows for a more qualitative take on the research (Baker 2006, 71-72). In this thesis, I also implemented concordance analysis as a qualitative method to examine the contexts of the words and expressions to provide a more profound picture of the issues than what could have been achieved with only studying frequencies.

3.2.3 Corpus studies on gender issues

At the end of this section, I will provide some examples on how corpus linguistics has been utilized to uncover gender bias in written language. One advantage of using corpora in research is the possibility to reveal patterns and usage of language that can be counterintuitive. In her corpus study, Holmes (1999) examined the usage of the words lady/ladies and woman/women in two corpora, one in British and one in New Zealand English. The findings of the study suggested, that the terms lady and ladies have over time acquired a pseudo-polite usage and are no longer the polite form to replace the words woman/women, but they have obtained old-fashioned, patronizing, trivializing and conservative characteristics (Holmes 1999, 148). Although the terms lady and ladies are still used to express politeness as in the old days, the terms have also received negative connotations and are used to express social distance and in patronizing and trivializing contexts (Holmes 1999, 151). The usage of lady/ladies has been declining as has the usage of the male equivalent gentleman/gentlemen, which, however, have not received the negative connotations of their female counterparts (ibid.)

Another benefit of using corpora in research is the convenience to uncover information that would be otherwise laborious to attain. By using a corpus in their study, Twenge, Campbell and Gentile (2012) were able to study almost 1,2 million books to examine if the use of gendered pronouns would reflect the prevalent social status of women in a specific time. They studied US books from 1900 to 2008 and compared the frequencies of male and female pronouns (Twenge, Campbell and Gentile 2012, 490-491). The results indicated a congruence in the frequencies of the
pronouns and women’s status in the US society ranging from 3.5 male pronouns for every female pronoun before the Second World War to 4.5 male pronouns for every female pronoun in the postwar era before 1968 and then declining to 2 male pronouns for every female pronoun by the 2000s (Twenge, Campbell and Gentile 2012, 491-493). Their study is also an example of how corpus studies can benefit CDA and reveal underlying inequalities in a society.

In his corpus study on gender differences, Baker (2010) studied four million-word corpora for the frequencies and contexts of gender marked language. Baker examined four corpora from the years of 1931, 1961, 1991 and 2006 (Baker 2010, 129). In his study, Baker included examining gendered pronouns and nouns referring to males and females, such as man, men, woman and women, as well as certain occupational terms like the words related to the profession of police and words ending with -person (2010, 131-137). Baker also examined what sort of adjectives occurred with the words man and woman and studied the gendered titles Mr., Mrs., Miss and Ms. (2010, 137-139). The findings of the study suggested that male bias still exists, and males are, once again, overrepresented in the corpora, although the gap seems to have reduced to some extent over time (Baker 2010, 145). The qualitative analysis showed some change towards a more equal representation of men and women with, for example, the increase of describing men’s physical attractiveness and the decrease of describing women as gossiping and submissive (Baker 2010, 146). While some gender-neutral occupational terms, such as police officer, have increased over time, the generic use of man as in prehistoric man was still unfortunately prevalent even in contemporary academic writing (Baker 2010, 145-146). The findings of the study also suggested a decrease in male terms such as he and Mr. but instead of a notable increase in female terms, the gendered title system seems to be declining altogether (ibid.).

Next, I will move on to discussing some previous research on children’s reading material, first in literature and then in books for educational purposes.

3.3 Previous research on children’s reading material

In this section I will provide an overview of some previous research on gender issues in children’s reading material. Children’s books have been increasingly studied since the 1970’s after the second wave of feminism arose. Despite the increasing awareness of gender issues and growing number of studies on children’s reading material over
more than fifty years, progress towards egalitarian literature has been unfortunately slow, although some progress can be seen in certain topics. I will begin this section by discussing previous studies on children’s literature and picture books in 3.3.1 and then move on to covering the research on books for educational purposes in the subsequent section 3.3.2.

3.3.1 Children’s literature
Early studies have uncovered very biased and rigid portrayals of gender roles in children’s books. In their pioneering study, Weitzman et al. (1972) examined the gender roles in award winning picture books for preschool children from as early as 1938. The findings showed an overwhelming dominance of men and an underrepresentation of women in stories, central roles, titles and pictures (Weitzman et al. 1972, 1128). In addition, girls were portrayed being mostly passive and static whereas boys were portrayed being active and adventurous. The stereotypical attitude towards gender roles in the books could also be seen in the difference between girls’ and boys’ activities; boys were playing outdoors when girls were observing from the inside (Weitzman et al. 1972, 1131-1137). Also, girls tended to focus on nurturing, serving and pleasing the men, while men acted as the heroes in the stories (ibid.). The adult role models in the books were also portrayed very stereotypically; the women were depicted being passive housewives doing chores inside while the men had more varying roles and occupations (Weitzman et al. 1972, 1139-1141). The writers concluded that these stereotyped portrayals of women are harmful for girls since they can hinder their potential and only offer very limited possibilities for the future. The writers also argued that rigid gender role stereotypes are not only detrimental for girls but also for boys since they may feel pressured to always be brave and fearless and not allowed to show emotions (Weitzman et al. 1972, 1146-1147).

In another study Flerx, Fidler and Rogers (1976) examined how equal representations of men and women in literature affect children’s views on gender stereotypes. The findings suggested that predisposing children to egalitarian literature reduced gender stereotyping among the children and created more equal attitudes towards genders (Flerx, Fidler and Rogers 1976, 1005-1006). In addition, Flerx, Fidler and Rogers (1979, 1006) concluded that symbolic presentations in children’s books can play a role not only in developing children’s perceptions about genders, but also in changing the attitudes. However, the reduction of stereotypical attitudes was not as
prominent in the follow-up survey as in the original study so the results should be reviewed carefully. This could suggest that the predisposing to gender-fair literature should be continuous if children’s gender attitudes are to be influenced.

Scott and Feldman-Summers (1979), studied how presenting women in roles traditionally assigned to men affected children’s perceptions of gender roles. The participants were given eight short stories to read with the main characters varying between being mostly male or mostly female and an even number of male and female main characters (Scott and Feldman-Summers 1979, 397). The findings of the study suggested, that when the children were exposed to literature with women in non-traditional roles, the number of children who believed in girls’ possibilities to engage in the same activities as the female character increased significantly compared to the children who read only about male characters (Scott and Feldman-Summers 1979, 399-400). Scott and Feldman-Summers (1979, 401) then concluded that non-stereotypical representation of the genders in reading material can affect both girls’ and boys’ perceptions on gender roles and can contribute to forming an egalitarian view about genders. However, the children’s perceptions of women’s capabilities were not generalized in other roles and occupations than the ones mentioned in the study (Scott and Feldman-Summers 1979, 400), so again, the results of the study should be interpreted with caution, although the findings suggest that children’s gender views can be influenced by literature.

The previous studies were conducted in the 1970’s after the rise of the feminist movement and the increasing interest in gender issues in literature. However, research on gender issues in literature has continued throughout the years. In a study by Trepanier-Street and Romatowski (1999), a group of four to seven-year-old children were studied in order to find out how gendered their attitudes towards certain occupational roles were and if these attitudes could be altered by non-stereotypical reading material. The outcome was, that while the children’s initial views about the occupations’ suitability for both genders were more egalitarian than previous studies would suggest, the attitudes can be notably changed by exposing the children to gender fair literature (Trepanier-Street and Romatowski 1999, 157-158). The participants were asked to define each of 14 occupations as suitable to men, women, or both men and women. Over a period of two months, the participants then read six books containing non-stereotypical occupational settings and carried out activities related to the books (Trepanier-Street and Romatowski 1999, 156). In the pretest, the frequencies
of the children’s answers for the occupations being suitable for both women and men ranged from 34 to 68 percent. However, in the post-test, the frequencies varied from 63 to 92 percent (Trepanier-Street and Romatowski 1999, 157). The significant change in the frequencies of the occupations’ suitability for both genders is consistent with earlier research and suggests that the features in the reading material can affect children’s attitudes towards gender roles.

Hamilton et al. (2006) examined 200 top selling and award-winning children’s books in order to find out if improvements in gender equality could be detected between 1987 and 2002. Unfortunately, while the differences were not as prominent as before, the findings resembled those of earlier studies and showed that women were outnumbered by men, women were described as more nurturing than men, women appeared mostly indoors, and occupations were stereotyped as well (Hamilton et al. 2006, 761-763).

In his study, Frawley (2008) also examined Caldecott Award-winning picture books and his aim was to investigate how children use their gender schema in interpreting gender-inconsistent information in the books. Frawley studied if children would misconstrue and remember incorrectly information that would represent genders inconsistently (Frawley 2008, 293). The children read two Caldecott Award-winning picture books and were then asked to retell the stories and asked further questions if necessary and the responses were then analyzed (Frawley 2008, 294). The results indicated that children in fact distort and misrepresent information more to fit their beliefs about genders in situations where the behavior of the characters differed from their own views of gender roles (Frawley 2008, 301). This implies that gender schema affects children’s interpretations in ambiguous situations and can cause misremembering, misinterpreting and even distorting the information to fit their own gender schemas and stereotyped views.

Although research on gender fair language peaked after the feminist movement in the 1970s, the topic is still widely studied. In a more recent study, McCabe et al. (2011) studied some of the most obvious indicators of inequality in books; how frequently women and men were represented in the central roles and titles. They studied more than 5600 children’s books from the twentieth century published in the United States (McCabe et al. 2011, 203). Not surprisingly, the findings of the study showed a disparity in the representation of men and women, and in the titles men were presented almost twice as often as women and as ms 1,6 times more often (McCabe et
The most unequal representations were found in non-human characters since male animals were 2.5 times more frequent than female animal central characters (McCabe et al. 2011, 211). In addition, McCabe et al. (2011, 219) detected changes between different time periods but no consistent advancements in gender equality. The shifts in the representation of women and men were mostly coincidental with changes in the society and the rising of the feminist movement (McCabe et al. 2011, 219).

In their corpus study, Moser and Masterson (2014) studied gendered language in children’s books in the UK by investigating the relative frequencies of gendered terms. They used Children’s Printed Word Database as their source material, which contains a sample of children’s reading material in the UK (Moser and Masterson 2014, 77-78). Moser and Masterson concentrated on the frequencies of terms and language concerning gender, particularly on the frequencies of pronouns, role names, nouns referring to relatives, words ending with -man/men, fairy-tale characters, narrative content (i.e. boy, woman, gentleman) and gender-neutral language (i.e. firefighter instead of fireman) (2014, 79-80). The results, once again, supported earlier studies and showed a predominance of male terms, except with the words lady and gentleman and with kinship terms, and revealed an absence of gender-neutral language (Moser and Masterson 2014, 82-83). While the study by Moser and Masterson focused only on the frequencies of gendered terms, it provides a picture of the present situation in the UK and seems to support earlier studies in revealing the invisibility and limited opportunities for women.

While most of the research in the last four decades has focused on the invisibility of women and over-representation of men, Anderson and Hamilton (2005) took a different approach. In their study, Anderson and Hamilton studied if men were represented as absent and incompetent parents and if fathers were outnumbered by mothers in 200 award-winning and popular children’s picture books in the United States (Anderson and Hamilton 2005, 146). The hypotheses of the study were that fathers would not be mentioned as often and would be more absent compared to the mothers, fathers would be described more as practical and not nurturing and that fathers would show less stereotypically female emotions and more anger and would discipline their children more than their mothers (Anderson and Hamilton 2005, 146). The results of the study supported the hypotheses that fathers were largely outnumbered by mothers and mothers were also mentioned more often (Anderson and Hamilton 2005, 147). In addition, babies were more often nurtured by mothers than
fathers and mothers did express more emotions than fathers. However, mothers also were angry and disciplined their children more often than men (Anderson and Hamilton 2005, 148). Anderson and Hamilton concluded that since the spectrum of different types of families is vast in the present day, children should be provided with versatile examples to prevent stereotypical conceptions of gender roles (2005, 149-150). Although the research on gender issues has mostly focused on the inferior status of women after the feminist movement emerged in the 1970’s, it is also important to represent not only women, but also men in varying roles to ensure diverse examples of opportunities for the children.

In this section I have reviewed some previous research on gender issues in children’s literature. As the findings of the studies have illustrated, the main findings have been the underrepresentation of women and dominance of men in the books in the stories, titles and pictures as well as stereotypical descriptions of women and men regarding their behavior, occupations and parental roles. The studies also suggested that the contents and the stereotypicality of the books have an effect on the children’s gender attitudes and views. Next, I will present some previous studies on gender issues in books used in the school environment.

3.3.2 Research on books for educational purposes
In addition to studying children’s fiction and picture books, the presentation of gender roles has also been studied in school books. In the 1980’s, Porreca (1984) studied gender bias in the most popular English as a Second Language (ESL) textbooks in the United States. She examined the total number of occurrences of men and women and the concept of firstness (Porreca 1984, 712-713). She also studied different occupational roles and nouns appointed to women and men. Lastly, Porreca examined the adjectives occurring with male and female terms. The findings of the study indicated a strong presence of gender bias in all the categories since men were mentioned much more often and male firstness was notable. In addition, occupational roles for women were few and invariable and all other nouns, except the ones concerning family relationships and gender, were more common with men and the adjectives describing women tended to concentrate on physical attractiveness, gender, emotions and marriage whereas adjectives describing men focused on intellect, education and acclaim (Porreca 1984, 718-719). So, despite of the increasing research
and awareness of gender issues since the 1970s, the English textbooks continued to contain gender biased material and very little change could be detected.

Scott (1986) studied if exposing children to gender-fair reading material would affect their views on what women and men could and should do. In the study, 4th, 6th and 11th graders read a set of four narratives with non-traditional as well as traditional contents featuring both women and men, and were studied for their gender role attitudes, interest in the storyline and for their comprehension of the narratives (Scott 1986, 107-109). Studying men in non-traditional roles in the study was noteworthy, since more studies have focused on women in non-traditional roles and research seems to suggest more opposition for presenting men in non-traditional roles (Scott 1986, 106). The findings suggested, that when reading the non-traditional material, both girls and boys thought that both women and men could and should participate in the non-traditional activities, and reading the gendered narratives generated more gendered responses (Scott 1986, 113). In addition, a significant difference was detected in the degree of the stereotypicality of the gender role attitudes with 4th graders being the most flexible and 11th graders being the most rigid (ibid.) The findings also revealed, that including non-traditional content did not hinder the comprehension of the texts and therefore should not act as obstacle in using non-stereotyped material (Scott 1986, 114). Scott (1986,115) argued that using gender-neutral material will affect the children’s attitudes and knowledge about gender roles without decreasing their comprehension or interest in the texts.

Sadker, Sadker and Klein (1991) provided an overview of gender issues in education, including bias in teaching material from the 1970’s to the early 1990’s. The summary of the findings concluded that the most findings in previous studies included dominance of male characters and illustrations, stereotypical portrayal of occupational and domestic role and differences in how women and men were described regarding their attributes and behavior (Sadker, Sadker and Klein 1991, 272-274). However, the writers also reported studies from the 1980’s that discovered an equal number of female and male characters (Sadker, Sadker and Klein 1991, 275). In their paper, Sadker, Sadker and Klein also state that invisibility is a detrimental realization of bias and gender equality should always be taken into consideration in educational planning (1991, 315).

Jackson and Gee (2005) studied the illustrations in early school textbooks used in New Zealand from the 1950s to 2000. The findings again indicated that gender bias
was visible in all decades and that very little change in the stereotyped gender roles had occurred over the decades despite the changes in the society (Jackson and Gee 2005, 126-127). The main findings of the study included differences in the way children hold objects; girls were portrayed holding items close to them and cuddling them whereas boys held the items away from their bodies (Jackson and Gee 2005, 120). The findings also included gender differences in posture and stance; women were bend at the waist while men were crouching, and women sat legs crossed or feet together while men sat both feet apart on the ground (Jackson and Gee 2005, 121).

According to the study by Jackson and Gee (2005), changes in clothing and hair could be seen between the decades in some instances; in the 1950s and 1960s most women were illustrated wearing dresses, in the 1970’s more women were seen wearing pants, even though the majority still wore dresses, and from the 1980’s forward the amount of dresses and pants worn by women was balanced. However, men wore only trousers and shorts in all decades. In addition, men had predominantly short hair in all the books whereas women’s hair length varied between long and short, with the emphasis on long hair (Jackson and Gee 2005, 122-123). Unsurprisingly, women were most often depicted as mothers who cooked, served and nurtured the children and their husbands whereas men’s roles were more versatile, although rarely undertaking domestic chores. However, in children’s activities, the girls showed more variation and girls were illustrated doing activities traditionally assigned to girls and boys while the boys only participated in traditionally masculine activities (Jackson and Gee 2005, 124-125). Especially in the 1970’s after the new rise of feminism, the least amount of non-stereotypical activities was found in the books.

In a more recent study, Yang (2016) examined the visual representations of the characters in two popular English textbook series in Hong Kong. Yang (2016) studied how the characters’ gender was represented through illustrations, especially regarding hair length and clothing. The results of the study showed that men and women were still illustrated stereotypically with women having long hair and men having short, as well as women wearing dresses more often than anything else and men always wearing trousers (Yang 2016, 678-684).

Gender bias in English language textbooks has been studied in countries, where English is not the native language, too. For example, Rifkin (1998) studied the gender representations in twelve Russian EFL textbooks used on high school and university levels and set out to provide criteria that could be used to assess EFL textbooks’ gender
stereotypicality. Rifkin formulated eighteen criteria for comparing the gender representations of women and men including aspects such as the frequencies of mentions, occupational and domestic roles as well as subject/object positioning and adjectives (1998, 235-236). The findings of Rifkin’s study suggested that while the frequencies of female and male characters were somewhat equal, male characters received more attention compared to the female characters (1998, 227). In addition to this, Rifkin discovered that of the possible 312 scores 188 (60 per cent) uncovered a male bias whereas 80 scores (26 per cent) uncovered a female bias, so again, the male bias was dominant in the textbooks (1998, 227). According to the study, newly published textbooks tended to be more egalitarian than the older textbooks, although exceptions occurred (Rifkin 1998, 227). The qualitative analysis in Rifkin’s study revealed, among other things, stereotypical descriptions of men and women, such as men’s interest in sports and academic careers and concentrating on women’s looks, as well as stereotypical conversation patterns where men talk, and women ask questions mainly about the men (1998, 228-229).

In Israel, Karniol and Gal-Disegni (2009) studied how did gendered and gender-fair basal readers affect the children’s judgement of gender appropriateness of different activities. The findings of the study suggested that the children who read the gender-fair basal readers were more likely to judge the activities as being suitable for both men and women as well as assessed stereotypically female activities suitable for both men and women when compared to the children who read the gender-stereotyped basal readers (Karniol and Gal-Disegni 2009, 416-417). The findings showed significant differences in the children’s gender stereotypes depending on the gender fairness of the readers, and the results then suggest that reading material can, in fact, affect children’s attitudes on gender behavior.

Lee and Collins (2010) compared a total of 20 textbooks from Australia and Hong Kong in order to examine if the later development in gender awareness in Hong Kong compared to Australia would be reflected in the gender representations in the books. The main findings in both Australian and Hong Kongese textbooks showed an overrepresentation of men in frequencies of characters and mentions, more diverse social roles for men than for women, stereotypical occupations and domestic roles and male firstness (Lee and Collins 2010, 126-128). In addition, women were described weaker and more passive than men. The results were visible in texts as well as in illustrations (Lee and Collins 2010, 130).
In Finland, research on books for educational purposes has also been conducted. Tainio and Teräs (2010) provided an overview of previous studies on textbooks in Finland. Studies have focused on Finnish language and literature, mathematics, student counselling, biology and health education, history, religion and foreign languages, but many of the studies were MA theses and did not exemplify the most current knowledge of gender issues in textbooks (Tainio and Teräs 2010, 10-15). The main findings of the Finnish studies echoed the findings of previous research from other countries and uncovered biased and stereotypical portrayal of the genders and discovered a dominance of men and underrepresentation of women, men described as more capable and having more versatile social and occupational roles than women as well as stereotypically described domestic roles, although rare cases of non-stereotypical descriptions did occur (ibid.).

As did the studies on children’s literature, the findings of research on children’s school books also indicated a male dominance and an underrepresentation of women in multiple aspects. The findings also suggested more diverse roles for men than for women in occupational and social settings, differences in attributes assigned to women and men, as well as stereotypical portrayal of educational, domestic and occupational roles. In addition, some studies were conducted to examine the effects the books might have on the children, and these studies illustrated again that children’s gender views can be influenced by using non-stereotypical reading material. Next, after presenting the theoretical and methodological frameworks and reviewing some previous research on gender issues in children’s literature that form the foundation of my thesis, I will move on to discussing the material and methods used in this thesis as well as presenting the results and then analyzing them in the discussion section.

4 Material and Methods

In this section I will introduce the material and methods used in this thesis. First, I will discuss the material and then the methods used to analyze the material. In this thesis I studied how gendered is the language used in Finnish primary school English language textbooks and how do the studied female and male terms differ quantitatively and qualitatively. The reason for choosing primary school textbooks was, that during primary school years children are still forming their world views and attitudes towards genders, so textbooks can have an impact on children’s ideologies and world views.
including on the concept of gender (Blumberg 2008, 346). Moreover, every educational establishment in Finland must issue an equality plan, and for comprehensive schools the plans had to be issued by January 2017 (Jääskeläinen et al. 2015). The equality plan helps to ensure gender equality in the everyday life at school, but I wanted to investigate whether this egalitarianism could be detected in the teaching material as well. Finnish National Agency for Education has also issued a guideline for schools to help in the equality planning and provides guidelines for the writers of teaching materials (Jääskeläinen et al. 2015; Opetushallitus 2011). In section 4.1 I will introduce the material and in section 4.2. the methods used in this thesis.

4.1 Material

As stated previously, in my thesis I study how some widely used English language textbooks in Finland portray different gender roles. The material consists of four English as a Foreign Language (EFL) textbooks used in primary schools; Yippee! 3, Yippee! 5, Go for it! 3 and Go for it! 5. First, in order to find out which EFL textbook series are the most widely used, I contacted every primary school in Turku via e-mail and asked which book series they used for teaching English. I contacted 18 primary schools in Turku and 16 of them replied. A total of six different textbooks series were in use; Yippee!, Go for it!, Let’s go, High five, Wow and All stars. From these six series, Yippee!, Go for it!, Let’s go and Wow are from the educational publisher Sanoma Pro and High five and All stars from the publishing company Otava. I decided to study the two most widely used textbooks series in order to investigate what the majority of school children are predisposed to. The most popular textbooks series were Yippee! and Go for it!. Yippee! was used in five of the 16 schools that replied and Go for it! was used in four schools. I only contacted primary schools in the Turku area for convenience and therefore it is not possible to know which textbook series are most widely used on a national level. However, according to a Sanoma Pro’s representative, Go for it! and Yippee! are their most popular EFL textbook series in Finland, so it is very probable that the popularity of the textbooks in the Turku area reflects the popularity also on a national level. All the book series used in the primary schools in Turku are presented in Table 1.
Table 1. English as a Foreign Language textbook series used in Turku primary schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Name</th>
<th>Series</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lausteen koulu</td>
<td>Yippee!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aunelan koulu</td>
<td>Yippee!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luolavuoren koulu</td>
<td>Yippee!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nummenpakan koulu</td>
<td>Yippee!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hepokullan koulu</td>
<td>Yippee!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moision koulu</td>
<td>Go for it!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raunistulan koulu</td>
<td>Go for it!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katarinan koulu</td>
<td>Go for it!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jäkärlän koulu</td>
<td>Go for it!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haarlan koulu</td>
<td>Let’s go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varissuo koulu</td>
<td>Let’s go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pääaskyvuoren koulu</td>
<td>Let’s go and High five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luostarivuoren koulu</td>
<td>High five and Wow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kähärin koulu</td>
<td>High five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topeliuksen koulu</td>
<td>Wow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paattisten koulu</td>
<td>All stars</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yippee! and Go for it! both follow the new curriculum which came into effect in the fall of 2016.

In addition to investigating the two most popular EFL textbook series, I chose to examine two different books from each series to provide a more comprehensive picture of the gender issues by covering the beginners and somewhat more advanced language learners as well. Since in Finland English language teaching begins in the third grade in most schools, I studied the third-grade textbooks which is often the first English language textbook a student encounters. I also wanted to study somewhat more advanced English textbooks that were still used in primary school, and since Go for it! did not offer a book for the sixth grade at the time of this study, I chose to include the fifth-grade textbooks. Yippee! 3 is written by Kuja-Kyyyn-Pajula, Pelto, Turpeinen and Westlake (2014) and it is 117 pages long. Yippee! 3 follows the adventures of Whiz in the town of Sandy Bay and tries to uncover whether Whiz is a boy or a toy. Yippee! 5 is written by Paakkinen, Sarlin, Turpeinen and Westlake (2014) and it is
158 pages long. Yippee! 5 follows a British girl Millie and an American girl Hannah and introduces the readers to some differences between British and American cultures along with some other English-speaking countries.

Go for it! 3 is written by Kanervo, Laukkarinen, Paakkinen, Sarlin and Westlake (2016) and it is 144 pages long. Go for it! 3 follows the doings of the Nutty family which consists of Hazel, Chip and Coco and their parents Rosemary and Herb as well as their grandparents Honey and Basil. Also, the book introduces the Nutties’ neighbors Will and Kate Smith and their father Barney. Go for it! 5 is written by the same authors than Go for it! 3, it was published in 2017 and it is 160 pages long. Like Go for it! 3, Go for it! 5 follows the adventures of the Nutty family again and also introduces a rock band Spice Kids as the main characters. I excluded the table of contents and vocabulary pages from my analysis since I wanted to focus on the stories and how gender-fair the actual contents of the textbooks are. The textbook corpus consists of 31 196 words and 3514 words types. Yippee! 3 contains 4286 words and 905 word types, Yippee! 5 9129 words and 1688 word types, Go for it! 3 contains 6926 word and 1147 word types and Go for it! 5 10 855 words and 1904 word types.

Now, I will move on to describing the methods used to examine and analyze the aforementioned material.

4.2 Methods

In my thesis I combined mainly quantitative and qualitative corpus linguistics methods in analyzing the gender-fairness of the material. Using CL methods allowed me to examine the frequencies and analyze large amounts of data. To simplify the quantitative analysis, I formed a corpus of the four books after which I could analyze them with the corpus analysis tool AntConc. First, I had to convert the books into an electric form and into plain text files after which I could use the AntConc software to count frequencies and search for concordances and collocations of certain words.

When examining the collocations of certain words in order to receive qualitative information concerning the keywords, I examined up to three words before and after the keyword, if necessary. As the authors of the textbooks have most likely made conscious decisions about the language they have used, I considered it to be important to study frequencies since they can reveal much about the authors’ scheme of thoughts. In addition to this quantitative analysis on words, I also implemented some qualitative
analysis in my thesis in order to provide a deeper and more comprehensive picture of the possible gender issues in the textbooks that would not be possible to achieve by only studying the frequencies. Since using corpus studies only to examine frequencies can have its limitations as presented in section 3.2.2, I also implemented qualitative analysis in my thesis by using concordance analysis to examine the contexts of the words.

As a multitude of previous studies have uncovered a vast underrepresentation of women in children’s books (see Weitzman et al. 1972; Porreca 1984; Hamilton et al. 2006), I started by studying the frequencies of female and male occurrences in the textbooks. In order to do this, first I investigated the numbers of gendered pronouns she, he, her, him, hers and his. I used the AntConc software’s search tool to investigate the frequencies of the pronouns. Also, I examined other gender-related words based on previous studies by Baker (2010) and Moser and Masterson (2014). I used AntConc to search for the words man/men, woman/women, Mr/Mrs/Ms, mister, miss, boy(s)/girl(s), lady/ladies and gentleman/gentlemen and investigated their frequencies. Another aspect of my study was to investigate the possible inequalities in the frequencies of parental words and how stereotypically were the parental roles presented in the textbooks, since previous studies have also discovered stereotyped domestic and parental roles (i.e. Jackson and Gee 2005; Hamilton and Anderson 2006, Lee and Collins 2010). Therefore, I utilized the AntConc software and examined the frequencies of parental words mom/mum/mommy/mummy/mother, dad/daddy/father and stepparents with the search for step*.

I also studied the characters in the books and investigated the frequencies of female and male characters. I examined the frequency list provided by AntConc and collected all proper names. In addition, I investigated the textbooks to discover any additional characters appearing in the books that were not marked with proper names. I also added qualitative analysis of the characters to gain a thorough picture of the gender roles depicted in the books focusing on the main characters of the textbooks.

In addition to underrepresentation of women and rigid parental roles, a frequent outcome of previous studies has been the stereotypical and biased portrayal of occupational roles (i.e. Porreca 1984; Baker 2010; Moser and Masterson 2014) and therefore I also included studying occupational roles in my thesis. I used the lists provided by Kennison and Trofe (2003) and Gabriel et al. (2008) and examined by using the AntConc software which of the mentioned occupational roles appeared in
the corpus and how many times they occurred. Lastly, I studied the general gender stereotypicality and then investigated if the overall stereotypicality corresponded with the actual genders realized in the textbooks.

I made interpretations about the stereotypicality of the occupational roles by examining the results of Kennison and Trofe’s (2003) and Gabriel et al.’s (2008) studies. Kennison and Trofe (2003) studied the stereotypicality of 405 and Gabriel et al. (2008) of 131 role names, some of which overlapped. In Kennison and Trofe’s (2003) study, occupational roles were rated according to their stereotypicality in the scale of 1 to 7. In this thesis, I considered occupations with the mean rating between 1 and 3 to be mostly female, between 3 and 5 to be mostly neutral and between 5 and 7 mostly male dominant in order to make predictions about the stereotypicality of the occupations. I also used the mean ratings provided by Kennison and Trofe (2003) when examining the intensity of the stereotypicality of certain occupational roles found in the corpus and when counting mean values for occupational roles in order to make predictions about the degree of the stereotypicality. In their study, Gabriel et al. (2008) used a rating scale of 11 points with the mean rating varying between 0 and 100 with 0 being mostly female and 100 mostly male. Gabriel et al. (2008) studied different role names for their gender stereotypicality and provided a rating to be used in future studies. The study included 126 role names that were rated for their gender stereotypicality by English, French and German speaking university students (Gabriel et al. 2008, 207-208). When an occupational role appeared in both studies, there was a consensus about the stereotypicality in all cases. The complete list of the occupational role names and their ratings according to Kennison and Trofe (2003) and Gabriel et al. (2008) are presented in Appendix 1. All the studied frequencies along with the qualitative analysis are presented in the next analysis section.

5 Analysis

As stated previously, I studied the gender representations in two elementary school textbook series by combining both quantitative and qualitative methods. I formed my research questions after some common findings from previous studies and studied the frequencies of gendered pronouns and other gender-related words, parental words and the gender distribution of the characters in the books. In addition, I studied occupational roles and examined if the stereotypicality of the occupational roles
corresponds to the actual gender distribution in the corpus. I will begin this section by studying gendered pronouns and other gender-related words both quantitatively and qualitatively in 5.1. In 5.2 I will investigate parental words quantitatively and qualitatively, in 5.3 the gender distribution of the characters and in 5.4 I will discuss the occupational terms found in the textbooks.

5.1 Analysis of gendered pronouns and other gender-related words

First, I examined the gendered pronouns she, he, her, him, hers and his. The results of the AntConc search showed that the male word he appeared 311 times in the corpus when the female word she appeared 203 times. The possessive his appeared 64 times and the object pronoun him appeared 26 times in the corpus, whereas the feminine equivalent her appeared 49 times as a possessive and 21 times as an object. The possessive pronoun hers did not appear in the corpus. The frequencies of the gendered pronouns are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequencies of gendered pronouns in the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He/she (subject)</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His/her (object)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Him/her (possessive)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>674</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The search results therefore display that the male pronouns are higher in frequencies compared to their female counterparts in all cases. The subject pronoun he constitutes 60 per cent of the subject pronouns and the female subject she constitutes 40 per cent of the subject pronouns. The percentage of the object pronoun his was 57 per cent whereas the percentage of the female counterpart her was 43 per cent. The possessives constituted 55 per cent and 45 percent for him and her respectively. Therefore, 59 percent of the total number of gendered pronouns were male pronouns and 41 per cent were female pronouns and the number of male pronouns was roughly 1.5 times higher than the number of female pronouns.
Basing my research on previous research on children’s books (Moser and Masterson 2014), I also studied other gender-related words. I studied the numbers of the words woman/women, man/men, boy/boys, girl/girls, Mr/Mrs/Ms, lady/ladies and gentleman/gentlemen. The singular form man appeared 15 times in the corpus and the plural form men appeared 6 times. The incidences for woman and women were 2 and 5 times respectively. The word man was only once used to refer to people in general, which could be due to the fact that the language in the textbooks is designed for beginners and using man and men as a general indicator for human beings is a more advanced structure. In addition, the word man was used once as an exclamation But, man!. The singular form boy appeared 39 times and its plural form boys 7 times in the corpus. The singular words girl appeared 6 times and plural girls 12 times in the corpus. The abbreviations Mr and Mrs appeared in the corpus 19 and 9 times respectively. The abbreviation Ms., which does not define the person’s marital status, was not found in the corpus. The noun miss appeared 4 times. Lastly, I examined the frequencies of the words lady/ladies and gentleman/gentlemen. Lady appeared 8 times and ladies and gentlemen one time each in a phrase Ladies and Gentlemen. The singular form gentleman was not found in the corpus. The frequencies of these gendered words are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Frequencies of gender-related words in the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>male</th>
<th>female</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man/woman</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>men/women</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy/girl</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boys/girls</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr/Mrs</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miss</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gentleman/lady</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gentlemen/ladies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A total of 134 of the studied gendered words appeared in the corpus, and of those 134, 87 were words referring to men and 47 referring to women. This adds up to 65 per cent of the gendered words referring to men and 35 per cent referring to women with the male words occurring 1,85 times for every female word.

Since the numbers of male and female words differed notably, I wanted to examine them more closely and studied the context in which they appeared in the books. First, I examined the words *man, woman, men* and *women*. There are 15 instances of *man* and only two instances of the word *woman*. The word *woman* is once used when talking about a woman working with snakes, a *Snake woman*, and once in a phrase *A man or a woman?* The male word *man* shows more versatility with the phrases *a very clever man, young man, old man, local man, suddenly they spot a man, the man is waving* and as an unnamed character *Man* appearing four times as well as in an exclamation *But, man!* which does not refer to a specific gender. The plural forms *men* and *women* were more evenly distributed with 6 and 5 mentions respectively. However, *men* and *women* were often mentioned together as in the following examples.

(1) Wonder women and handsome men.
(2) She wanted to show that women were as brave as men.

The remaining mentions of *women* referred to a chapter about a women’s rugby team and discussed whether women play rugby or not as illustrated in example 3.

(3) Basil: Rugby? In the rain? It’s underwater rugby! Women don’t play rugby.
    Only men play rugby.
    Honey: Rubbish, Basil. Of course women play rugby!

The one remaining mention of *women* was in the phrase *New Zealand’s women’s national rugby team*. Men on the other hand showed a bit more versatility with three independent mentions in addition the three mentions in examples 1, 2 and 3. *Men* appeared in the phrases *all the rich men’s money, the men were thirty meters down and the men climbed out*. *Men* was also once used a generic expression to refer to people in general illustrated in example 4.

(4) Later, at the bank, they burn all the rich men's money. But they don't burn the poor people's money.
It is not unequivocally explicit that the phrase *all the rich men’s money* refers to people in general and not to male human beings, but since the phrase is juxtaposed with the phrase *the poor people’s money* and the conjunctive *but* is used, it can be assumed to refer to people as well. Next, I examined the words *boy, girl, boys and girls* more closely.

*Boy* appeared 39 times in the corpus whereas *girl* appeared only six times. The number of the word *boy* is 6.5 times higher than the number of the word *girl*. 17 of the 39 mentions, the word *boy* referred to a boy robot and 15 times appeared in a phrase *Boy robot*. Three times *boy* referred to a dog and seven times to the character of Whiz who was figuring out if he was a boy or not. The few remaining phrases are mentioned in examples 5, 6, 7 and 8.

(5) **Who’s that naughty boy?!**
(6) **That little boy can’t swim**
(7) **He is the fastest boy on the planet and can fly a helicopter.**
(8) **The boy wanted to kiss the girl.**

In addition to these phrases, *boy* was used as a generic seven times in exclamations, four times just as *Boy!* and three times in *Oh boy!* The exclamation was even used when referring to a female as in the phrase *Boy – she’s fast. Girl* referred to a girl robot twice. The remaining four phrases are illustrated in examples 9, 10, 11 and 12.

(9) **Is carrot really a girl?**
(10) **Thanks to a strange girl in green.**
(11) **Do you remember that girl who jumped on the stage?**
(12) **The boy wanted to kiss the girl.**

The plural form *boys* appeared seven times in the corpus. The phrases with the word *boys* varied from lists, such as *two boys and five girls*, to sentences where the boys are the subjects and doers (example 13), to sentences where girls are talking about boys (example 14).

(13) **The boys ran away even faster.**
(14) **Jacky: No boys?**

The plural form *girls* occurred 12 times in the textbooks and *girls* were mentioned in varying positions. Five times *girls* referred to the main characters and their friends in Yippee! 5, as illustrated in examples 15 and 16.
The girls often play at weekends. So, the girls were very excited.

*Girls* were also mentioned in lists such as *two boys and five girls* and were mentioned in a question presented by a male in *What are you girls doing?* as well as in four exclamations illustrated in examples 17, 18, 19 and 20.

Hey, girls!
OK girls!
Smile, girls!
Girls!

Unfortunately, *girls* was also used to refer to adult females in the corpus. Examples 16 and 17 illustrate these examples. The examples occur in a cartoon strip where the New Zealand’s national women’s rugby team Black Ferns are featured. Example 16 occurs when a member of the team communicates with the other members, and example 17 is uttered by Basil, one of the main characters in *Go for it!* when talking to the women’s team.

*Mr* and *Mrs* appeared in the textbooks 19 and 9 times respectively. Both *Mr* and *Mrs* referred to characters in the books, *Mr* to *Mr Young, Mr Duncan, Mr Bean, Mr Camel* and *Mr Everything, Mrs* to *Mrs White* and *Mrs Smith. Miss* was used when addressing a female as in examples 21 and 22.

No, Miss.
Does it belong to the EU, Miss?

Lastly, I investigated the words *lady* and *gentleman* as well as the plural forms *ladies* and *gentlemen.* *Lady* appeared once in a phrase *my fair lady* and as part of an occupation *lunch lady.* In addition, it was used twice when a beefeater was addressing a female character illustrated in examples 23 and 24.

No, young lady.
You can talk, young lady.

The remaining four times *lady* was used to refer to an unnamed salesperson in a grocery store. *Ladies* and *gentlemen* appeared together in a phrase *Ladies and Gentlemen* uttered during a song contest. *Gentleman* did not appear in the corpus in its singular form. In conclusion, the male terms dominated most of the categories and the
total number of the male gendered terms was considerably higher than the number of
female terms. Next, I will turn to examining the frequencies of parental words
discovered in the corpus.

5.2 Analysis of parental words
I also studied the frequencies of parental words and how parental roles are depicted in
the books. In order to investigate the frequencies of parental words, I searched the
corpus for the following words: mum, mom, mommy, mummy, mother, dad, daddy and
father. The search showed that the word mum appeared 25 times, mom 7 times, mummy
2 times and mother 5 times. The form mommy did not appear in the corpus. In addition,
dad appeared 48 times, daddy 6 times and father 4 times. Stepparents were present in
the books only on one occasion with the word stepdad. The results of the search for
parental words is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Frequencies of parental words in the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>male</th>
<th>female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dad/mum</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mom</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daddy/mummy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father/mother</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stepdad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Somewhat surprisingly, the male terms also dominated the frequencies of the parental
words. There was a total of 98 parental words mentioned in the textbooks, and 60 per
cent of those words referred to males and 40 per cent to females, and there were 1.5
times more parental words for males than for females. As mentioned, this result was
interesting and therefore I decided to study the parental words more qualitatively as
well.

Words referring to female parents appeared often, 13 times, in descriptive
phrases where someone was describing their parents. Examples from 25 to 29 illustrate
these situations.
(25) This is my mum. She’s funny.
(26) This is my mum. She has long curly hair. She's a stand-up comedian and she's very funny.
(27) My mum's great! She can dance, cook, play football and badminton.
(28) My mum is a nurse. Her name is June.
(29) My mother is a hairdresser and plays basketball.

Parental words referring to females also included references to the characters appearing in the books as in examples 30, 31 and 32.

(30) Everything’s fine, Mom.
(31) Didi didn’t do the dishes, Mom.

Words referring to mothers also occurred as other sentence elements as in examples 33 and 34 and as a character with lines Mom appearing once and Mother three times.

(33) I helped my mum.
(34) Hannah and John are on vacation in California with their mom and dad.

Some of the phrases describing female parents seem to try to provide a versatile and non-stereotypical picture of mothers, as in examples 27 and 29 where mothers are mentioned playing sports, which is stereotypically a male activity. Although, both these phrases also contain stereotypically female occupations and activities. In example 26, the mum is mentioned being a stand-up comedian, which is stereotypically a male profession, although the mother’s looks are also described. However, some phrases provide a more traditional views of female parents, like in example 28 where the mom’s occupation as a nurse is mentioned, and nothing else. Female parents are also mentioned cooking (example 35), overseeing the cleaning (example 36) and taking care of children when they are sick (example 37).

(35) His mum makes very tasty rolls.
(36) Is everything OK with you and your sisters? Did you clean up?
(37) Mom’s looking after her.

Examples 35 and 37 are also the few examples of female parents mentioned doing any activities in the corpus.

Descriptive phrases referring to male parents also appeared in the corpus as demonstrated in 38 to 41.
This is my dad. He's tall, handsome and kind. He's a fantastic cook and a great dad.

My dad can dance, cook and play badminton, too. He can't play football, though.

And this is my dad. He's very kind.

Millie's dad is a pilot.

Dad loves motocross.

The word Dad was used 11 times as a character with lines as in examples 42 and 43.

Dad: OK. Take it easy.
Dad: Turn it off, please!

Male parents occurred also in sentences uttered by children as in examples 44 to 48.

Maybe Dad can help.
Our dad wants a cheeseburger.
Dad! Can I have a surfboard, please?
Daddy did the dishes.
Can we buy this, Daddy?

A few sentences referring to male parents also provided a diverse picture about fathers, like in examples 38 and 39 where fathers are mentioned liking cooking which is usually seen as a female activity. However, words referring to male parents occurred also in more traditional settings as illustrated in examples 40, where the father’s occupation as a pilot is being established, and 41, where the father’s passion for motocross is mentioned. In addition to this, there were some phrases where both male and female parents were mentioned that demonstrated stereotypical portrayals as illustrated in examples 50, 51 and 52.

My dad's a fire fighter and my mom's a teacher. She has lovely, dark hair. She's real fun. Dad has strong arms. He's cool.
Did your dad play hockey? He sure did. He played for his local team. We all played hockey in my family, even my mother and sisters.
My mother is a hairdresser and plays basketball. My father is a mechanic and rides motorbikes.

In example 50, both parents are described stereotypically with respect to their occupations and how they are described; describing women’s looks and men’s physical strength. In example 51, playing hockey is seen as a male activity since the fact that also women played hockey was separately mentioned and the word even was
used to underline the women’s participation. In example 51, the mother is described in a more versatile manner since she plays sports, but the father’s occupation and hobby are very stereotypical. In the textbooks, the male parents are hardly mentioned doing any activities. They are mainly saying something, described or mentioned in a phrase uttered by someone else. The few times the male parents are mentioned doing any activities are illustrated in examples 53 and 54.

(53) My dad's great. He drives me to training.
(54) Daddy did the dishes.

In the next section I will present the findings regarding the gender distribution of the characters in the books.

5.3 The frequencies and gender distribution of the characters
I also examined the gender distribution of the characters mentioned in the books. I decided to study the frequencies of the characters one book at a time to make the results more comparable since Go for it! 3 and Go for it! 5 have the same main characters but Yippee! 3 and Yippee! 5 do not. Since the aim of my study is to find out how gendered the books are and how gender roles are depicted in the books, I decided to exclude characters, such as pets, whose genders were impossible to deduce from the context or pictures. The most common character in Go for it! 3, Hazel, appears 107 times. The next most frequent character is Kate and she appears 45 times. The third most frequently appearing characters are Basil and John and they appear 20 times each. The next most commonly mentioned characters are, Rosemary with 18 appearances, Herb and Honey with 17, boy robot with 15 and Coco with twelve appearances. Chip is mentioned ten times, Barney eight times, beefeater and host both 7 times, Anna, Sam and ticket seller each three times and Paul appears twice. So, in conclusion, there are sixteen characters mentioned in Go for it! 3, and of those sixteen characters six are female and eleven are male. Beefeater, host and ticket seller are men in Yippee! 3. However, the female characters are mentioned 202 times compared to the male characters’ 112.

In Go for it! 5, the most frequently appearing character is Basil with 48 mentions. Coco appears 38 times and Hazel 36 times. Honey appears 31 times, Mike 26 times and Chip 25 times. Cherry and Herb are both mentioned 19 times, Peter 17
times and Rosemary and Sally 15 times each. Sidney appears 13 times in the book, Ned and Amaroo both 9 times, Kiwi Ken and shop assistant eight times and Didi seven times. Kahukura appears six times, Mary and Gulliver five times and Bobby, Carol and Tom four times each. Grandpa and John are mentioned three times, Daniel, Ian and Tina each twice. April, Ben Down, Frida Fang, Grant, Hugo First, Iggy Izzard, Ivor Backache, Jack, Jonathan Swift, Nik, Pat Wave, Annie Taylor, Ona Ono, Sai Kling and Walter Melon are all mentioned once. In total 43 characters are mentioned by name in Go for it! 5, fourteen females and 27 males and two characters, Ona Ono and Sai Kling, with unknown genders. The female characters appeared 183 times whereas the male characters appeared 213 times in Go for it! 5.

The most commonly appearing character in Yippee! 3 is Whiz and he appears 97 times in total. Peter appears 47 times and Jane 45 times. The next most commonly appearing characters are Mary and Gadget with 19 appearances. Jeff appears 13 times, Teacher ten times, Guide appears seven times, Sparky five times, Bossy, Curly, Man, Mayor and Mr Duncan four times, Fluffy and Mrs White three times, Fiona, Marie, Pauli, Reporter and Sunil two times each and Cathy once in Yippee! 3. So, to summarize, there are 22 characters in Yippee! 3 of which 11 are female and 11 are male. Curly and Fluffy can be identified as female and Bossy and Sparky as male after investigating the illustrations in the book. The female characters appear 98 times in total and the male characters 201 times.

In Yippee! 5, the most common character is Hannah and she appears 80 times. The next most frequently appearing character, Millie, is mentioned 74 times. Alice appears 45 times, Tom 43 times and Mike 29 times. Sapphire and John appear both 20 times, Emerald 17 times, Ruby 14 times and Jessica eleven times. Jenny and Tony appear ten times each, Diamond and Jacky nine times and Mora and Ricky both seven times. Julia and Mrs Smith appear six times each, Oliver, Rachel and Tourist five times each and Niki, Ozzy, Queenie, Lady, Moody, Reporter, Pete and Sandra four times each. Chelsea, Justin, Lazy, Paula, Johnny Depp and Matt Damon appeared all three times, Major Miles, Abraham Lincoln, Goody, Belinda, Martha, Chloe, Jo, Henry, Maria, Noisy, Pamela, Rose, Steven, Terry and Trudy twice each. Auntie Helen, Bill, Fluffy, Mr Everything, Robert, Rocky, Steve and Zach are all mentioned once. To summarize, 58 characters are mentioned by name in Yippee! 5 and 27 of these characters are female and 29 are male. The female characters are mentioned 324 times
and males 191 times. The genders of Tourist and Guide could not be deduced. The gender distributions in all the textbooks are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. Gender distribution of the characters in the textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>female characters</th>
<th>male characters</th>
<th>female appearances</th>
<th>male appearances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go for it! 3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go for it! 5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yippee! 3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yippee! 5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>807</td>
<td>717</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the corpus, there were 78 male characters and 58 female characters. The male characters form 57 per cent of the total 136 characters whereas female characters form 43 per cent of the total number of gendered characters. However, the female characters were mentioned more often, 807 times compared to the male characters’ 717 times. Therefore, the female characters’ percentage was 53 percent and the male characters’ percentage 47 per cent from the total of 1524 appearances in the corpus. The number of female and male characters were somewhat even in Yippee! 3 and Yippee! 5, although all the books had more male than female characters. The number of appearances were more uneven in the books with Go for it! 3 and Yippee! 5 having clearly more female appearances and Go for it! 5 and Yippee! 3 having clearly more male appearances.

Lastly, I wanted to investigate the main characters of the books more closely, since a common finding of previous studies has been the uneven number of central characters with male characters being dominant (Weitzman et al. 1972; McCabe et al. 2011). In Go for it! 3, the main character, who appeared the most often and whose adventures are being followed is a female, Hazel. The other main characters appearing often are introduced in the first pages of the book; the four females Honey, Coco,
Rosemary, and Kate, and the five males Basil, Herb, Chip, Will and Barney. So, in Go for it! 3, there are five central female characters and five central male characters. In Go for it! 5, the main characters are again Hazel, Honey, Coco, Rosemary, Basil, Chip and Herb along with Mike Mustard, Cherry Chili, Peter Pepper and Sally salt. In conclusion, there are six central female characters and five central male characters in Go for it! 5.

In Yippee! 3, the main character, Whiz, whose activities are being observed is revealed to be male at the end of the book. Other central characters are Peter, Jane, Mary, Gadget and Jeff, so there are two female main characters and four male main characters in Yippee! 3. In Yippee! 5, the most often appearing characters are female, Millie and Hannah. Other often appearing characters are Millie’s friend Alice and Hannah’s brother John as well as their friends Tom and Mike. Yippee! 5 also has a side story about four superheroes, females Ruby and Emerald and males Diamond and Sapphire. In Yippee! 5, there are then five central female characters and five central male characters, although the main characters appearing in almost every story are both female. The distribution of the female and male characters is therefore quite even in all the books with 18 female main characters and 19 male main characters. Two out of the four books had clear female main characters around whom the storyline revolves, one book had a male main character and one of the books did not have any unequivocal main characters but included an even number of female and male main characters. The frequencies of female and male main characters are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. The frequencies of female and male main characters in the textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female main characters</th>
<th>Male main characters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go for it! 3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go for it! 5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yippee! 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yippee! 5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the last subsections of the analysis, I will discuss the occupational roles and their stereotypicality based on previous research and the actual representations present in the corpus.

5.4 Analysis of occupational roles

Another common feature of gendered language according to a multitude of previous studies has been a gendered and stereotypical presentation of occupational roles (see Weitzman et al. 1972, Porreca 1984, Hamilton et al. 2006). Therefore, I chose to include an analysis of occupational terms in my thesis. As mentioned previously, the occupational roles chosen for examination were based on the lists and ratings of different roles provided by Gabriel et al. (2008) and Kennison and Trofe (2003). First, in 5.4.1 I will present the findings relating to the frequencies of the occupational roles found in the corpus with regards to their overall stereotypicality and in the section 5.4.2 I will examine if the gender representations in the textbooks correspond with the previously studied gender stereotypicality of the occurring occupational roles.

5.4.1 The frequencies and stereotypicality of occupational roles in the corpus

In this subsection I will discuss the qualitative findings concerning the occupational roles and focus on the frequencies of the different roles and their stereotypicality based on previous research. The textbooks included 46 occupational roles listed in Gabriel et al. (2008) and Kennison and Trofe (2003). The 45 appearing roles in alphabetical order were as follows: acrobat, actor, artist, astronaut, basketball player, boxer, clown, coach, cook, dentist, doctor, driver, farmer, fire fighter, fisherman, guide, hairdresser, head teacher, hunter, manager, mayor, mechanic, musician, nurse, office worker, pilot, police, police officer, policeman, president, professor, reporter, sailor, scientist, singer, soldier, swimmer, shop assistant, stand-up comedian, student, teacher, vet, waiter, waitress and zookeeper. Of these 45 appearing occupational roles, 17 were rated as neutral, 23 as male dominant roles and five as female dominant roles. The occupational roles rated as neutral and appearing in the textbooks were as follows: acrobat, actor, artist, cook, doctor, guide, manager, musician, office worker, professor, reporter, scientist, singer, swimmer, student, vet and zookeeper. The
occupational roles rated as stereotypically male were: astronaut, basketball player, boxer, clown, coach, dentist, driver, farmer, fire fighter, fisherman, head teacher, hunter, mayor, mechanic, pilot, police, police officer, policeman, president, sailor, soldier, stand-up comedian and waiter. The five stereotypically female occupational roles were those of a hairdresser, nurse, shop assistant, teacher and waitress.

The examination of the number of appearances of the occupational roles showed that the most frequently mentioned roles were teacher, guide, reporter, police (officer, -men), shop assistant, farmer, coach and nurse. Teacher appeared in the books 28 times, guide 11 times, reporter 10 times, police, police officer, police chief and policemen 9 times combined, shop assistant 8 times, farmer 7 times and coach, dentist and nurse each 5 times. Occupational roles that were mentioned 4 times were fire fighter, mayor, musician and student. Roles appearing 3 times in the textbooks were artist, cook, doctor, driver, head teacher, hunter, pilot and swimmer. Roles that were mentioned twice were astronaut, hairdresser, mechanic, president, scientist, vet and waitress, and once mentioned were the roles of acrobat, actor, basketball player, boxer, clown, fisherman, manager, office worker, professor, sailor, singer, soldier, stand-up comedian, waiter and zookeeper.

The occupational roles that were rated as neutral appeared altogether 42 times in the textbooks. Stereotypically male dominant roles were mentioned 60 times and stereotypically female dominant roles 54 times in the corpus. The number of different roles and their appearances divided into neutral, male dominant and female dominant roles are summarized in Table 7. The full list of all the roles mentioned in the textbooks along with the number of their appearances and stereotypical gender dominance as well as the actual gender distribution in the textbooks can be found in Appendix 1.

Table 7. The number of different roles and appearances of stereotypically neutral, male and female dominant occupational roles in the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number of different roles</th>
<th>Number of appearances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The frequencies of appearances are dominated by male occupations with 60 mentions compared to the 44 mentions of female dominant occupations, but the number of different roles that are mentioned in the corpus are even more unevenly distributed. While there are 23 stereotypically male roles appearing in the textbooks, there are only five stereotypically female occupational roles occurring in the books, which means that there were 4.6 times more male dominant than female dominant roles presented in the corpus. The number of gender-neutral occupational roles in the corpus was 16. Therefore, the number of male dominant roles even exceeds the number of neutral and female dominant occupational roles combined. The percentage of male dominant roles in the corpus is 51 per cent, the percentage of neutral roles 37 per cent and the percentage of female dominant roles 11 per cent. The number of occurrences is distributed slightly more evenly with mentions of male dominant roles constituting 38 per cent, neutral roles 34 per cent and female dominant roles 28 per cent of the occurrences in the corpus.

Even though the frequencies and versatility of different roles in the corpus is an indication on the stereotypicality of the textbooks and what kind of future opportunities they convey for the children, it is also important to study the roles and their realizers more closely. In order to uncover how stereotyped the portrayal of different occupational roles and possible opportunities presented for the readers actually is, in the next subsection I will investigate if the stereotypical gender dominance of the occupational roles corresponds to the actual gender distribution in the textbooks. I will examine if the male dominant occupational roles, as well as the female dominant and neutral roles, are represented by men or women in the textbooks to uncover the actual proportions of the gender representation of different occupational roles presented in the corpus.

5.4.2 The gender distribution of occupational roles in the corpus
In this section I will examine if the stereotypicality of the appearing occupational roles corresponds to the actual genders found in the corpus in order to reveal the possible professional opportunities offered for the children and to better understand the stereotypicality of the presented occupational roles. I will examine the correspondence of the stereotypical gender dominance of an occupational role and it’s the gender of its representative in the textbooks one by one, starting from the most frequently occurring
role. The occupational role teacher was the most common role occurring in the corpus. This not a surprising result as children are reading these books in school environment. According to Kennison and Trofe (2003), teacher can be stereotypically seen as a female dominant or as a neutral occupation depending on the school level, since elementary school teachers are stereotypically considered to be female whereas high school teachers are seen as gender-neutral. In this thesis I treated teacher as a female dominant occupation since the teachers in the books are elementary school teachers. Teacher appeared in the books 27 times. Of these 27 appearances, teacher appeared twice in a word list, once as a part of an instruction and once in a plural form, and since no pictures were provided, it is impossible to draw conclusions about the genders. The remaining teachers could be identified as either male or female. One male teacher, Mr. Young, was mentioned in the books nine times. Female teachers were mentioned 14 times and there were four different female teachers mentioned in the corpus.

The next most commonly mentioned occupational roles was that of a guide, which is seen as a gender-neutral role. Guide appeared 11 times in the corpus and of these 11 mentions, two times the guide’s gender could not be clearly inferred. There were two different guides appearing in the corpus, one male and one female. The male guide appeared twice and the female guide seven times in the textbooks. The third most common occupational role in the corpus was reporter, which is stereotypically seen as a gender-neutral occupation. Reporter was mentioned 10 times in the corpus and the gender of the reporter was not apparent in four occasions. There were three reporters appearing in the books whose genders could be concluded, two females and one male. The female reporters appeared three times as did the male reporter. The next most common occupational role was the role of police with 9 mentions in different forms. The non-sexist term police officers occurred once, as did the term police chief. Policemen occurred twice in the corpus. On one occasion the gender could not be concluded from the context or the illustrations, but the rest of the eight roles could all be concluded as male by examining the text and the pictures. There were five different instances where the occupational role of police was mentioned in some of its form.

The fifth most commonly occurring occupational role in the corpus was shop assistant, which is stereotypically a female dominant occupation. The role of shop assistant was mentioned 8 times in the corpus. There were two different shop assistants mentioned in the books and they both could be identified as female by examining the pictures. The next most commonly mentioned occupational role in the corpus was
farmer and it appeared seven times. Once farmer appeared as plural farmers and their genders were not visible in the book. The remaining six mentions referred to two different male farmers and farmer is stereotypically seen as a male occupation. The next most common occupational role was coach. Coach appeared five times and on three different occasions. All five mentions referred clearly to a male. Dentist was also mentioned five times in the corpus. On two occasions the gender of the dentist could not be identified. One dentist was a male appearing once and two of dentists were female each appearing once. Dentists are stereotypically seen as dominantly male. Also, five times appearing was the role of a nurse. The occupation of a nurse is stereotypically seen as a female profession and that is the case in this corpus as well. The role of a nurse occurs five times in the corpus and on one occasion the gender of the nurse was not marked. On three occasions the nurse could be identified as female and the plural form nurses could also be identified as female after investigating the picture. There were four different nurse characters mentioned in the corpus.

The occupational role of a fire fighter occurred four times in the corpus. Fire fighter is a male dominant occupation and all the fire fighters described in the books are male. There are three different occasions where fire fighters are mentioned in the books. On one occasion, the term fire fighter appeared in a word list, but the illustration identifies him as a male as well. Also, the stereotypically male occupational role of a mayor was mentioned four times. The Mayor of Sandy Bay appeared four times and could be identified as a male after investigating the illustration. The gender-neutral occupational role of a musician was also mentioned four times in the corpus. On two occasions musicians referred to a band consisting of two males and to females, and on one occasion to a male and once to a female. Another role occurring four times was student. Student is stereotypically seen as a gender-neutral occupation. Three times out of the four the plural form students occurred and the genders could not be detected. On one occasion the student was female.

An occupational role occurring three times in the corpus was an artist. Artist is usually seen as a neutral occupation. In the corpus, two artists can be identified as male and one as female. Another occupational role appearing three times in the corpus is a cook, which is also stereotypically a neutral profession. However, in the textbooks the cooks are all male. The occupational term doctor appears also three times in the corpus and is also generally seen as a neutral profession. Doctor appears twice in a word list and once as plural doctors. One mention in a word list did not allow any
interpretations on the gender, but after examining the illustrations, one doctor could be identified as male and the plural doctors’ genders could be identified as one being male and two being female. Driver is stereotypically a male dominant profession, In the corpus, two times out of three the genders could not be detected and on one occasion the driver was male. Head teacher also appeared in the textbook three times, although once it was referred to only as teacher. Heads are stereotypically seen as more likely to be men and the head teacher, who is referred to three times in the textbooks is also male. The male dominant occupational role hunter occurs also three times in the corpus, all in the plural form hunters. The three mentions refer to the same three hunters who can all be identified as being male after examining the pictures. Pilot is another male dominant profession that is mentioned three times in the corpus. However, in the textbooks there are three different pilots and two of the pilots are female and only one is male. Swimmer is a gender-neutral occupational role and appears three times in the textbooks, once in a singular form and twice in a plural form. All the three swimmers appearing in the corpus are female.

Astronaut is a dominantly male profession and it appears two times in the corpus. The astronauts’ genders could not be detected from the text, but the illustrations reveal one astronaut being male and one female. Hairdresser appears also twice in the corpus and is stereotypically a female occupation. Both hairdressers mentioned in the textbooks are female. Mechanic is stereotypically seen as a male dominant profession. Mechanic occurs two times in the corpus and they can be both identified as male. President is also stereotypically a male dominant occupational role which appears twice in the corpus. On one occasion president refers to Abraham Lincoln, a male, and on the other occasion John is wondering what he would like to be when he grows up, so that refers to a male as well. Scientist is a gender-neutral occupation appearing two times in the textbooks. In both occasions, the gender could not be construed. Another gender-neutral occupational role mentioned twice in the corpus is vet. One of the mentions refers to a female and the other to a male. Waitress occurred also twice in the corpus and is unsurprisingly seen as a female profession and the waitress, who appears twice in the books is also female.

Occupational roles appearing once in the corpus include an acrobat, which is generally seen as a gender-neutral role, and the acrobat appearing in the corpus is female. Another role occurring once is a stereotypically neutral actor, which can be identified as a male in the corpus. Basketball player and boxer are both male dominant
roles occurring once, and in the corpus *basketball player* can be identified as male and *boxer* as a female. *Clown* appears also once and is stereotypically a male profession, but the gender of the clown mentioned in the books cannot be detected. Another male dominant profession appearing once is *fisherman*, who is also male in the corpus. *Manager, office worker* and *professor* are generally seen as neutral occupational roles and, in the corpus, all three can be identified as male. *Sailor* is a male dominant role which in the corpus can also be identified as male. *Singer* is a gender-neutral occupation occurring also once, but the gender of the singer is too ambiguous to interpret from the illustration. *Soldier, stand-up comedian* and *waiter* are all stereotypically seen as male dominant occupations and *soldier* and *waiter* are in fact male in the textbooks, but *stand-up comedian* refers to a female. The role of *zookeepers* appears once in the corpus and the genders of the zookeepers could not be construed even by examining the illustrations. The frequencies of the stereotypically neutral, male and female dominant occupations mentioned in the corpus along with the numbers of the actual gender realizations in the textbooks are summarized in Table 8.

**Table 8.** The actual gender distribution in the corpus compared to the frequencies of stereotypically neutral, male dominant and female dominant occupational roles appearing in the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Actually male</th>
<th>Actually female</th>
<th>Unknown</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stereotypically neutral</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stereotypically male</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stereotypically female</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>74</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>157</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, the occupational roles represented by men are the most common with 74 mentions. Females occur 57 times in the corpus and on 26 occasions the gender of the referent could not be defined. The gender-neutral occupations are evenly distributed between men and women with 20 appearances both, but the male dominant and female
dominant roles show again somewhat more variation. The majority of both stereotypically male and stereotypically female roles are represented by their respective genders. Stereotypically male dominant roles appear 59 times in total, and of those 59 mentions 45 are actually men, 7 women and on 7 occasions the gender was not mentioned. This means that 75 percent of the male dominant occupational roles are represented by men, 12 per cent by women and 12 per cent by unknown genders. Stereotypically female roles were mentioned 44 times in the textbooks and of those 44, 30 were actually women, 9 men and 5 of unknown gender. In percentages this means that women constitute 68 per cent, men 20 per cent and unknown gender 11 per cent of the stereotypically female occupational roles. Neutral roles appeared 54 times in the corpus and 20 of those were male, 20 female and 14 of unknown gender, which correspond to 37 per cent, 37 per cent and 26 per cent respectively. In conclusion, of the 158 mentions of occupational roles in the corpus 47 per cent were represented by men, 36 per cent by women and 16 per cent by members of unknown gender.

The number of different occupational roles represented by men was 30, whereas women appeared in 19 different roles in the textbooks. 13 occupations featured mentions where the gender was unknown. The 30 occupational roles that featured men were the following: teacher, guide, reporter, police, farmer, coach, dentist, fire fighter, mayor, musician, artist, cook, doctor, driver, head teacher, hunter, pilot, astronaut, mechanic, president, vet, actor, basketball player, fisherman, manager, sailor, office worker, professor, soldier and waiter. Of these 30 occupational roles featuring men 18 are stereotypically seen as male dominant occupations, 11 as gender-neutral and one as female dominant. The stereotypically male professions are police, farmer, coach, dentist, fire fighter, mayor, driver, head teacher, hunter, pilot, astronaut, mechanic, president, basketball player, fisherman, sailor, soldier and waiter. Stereotypically gender-neutral are guide, reporter, musician, artist, cook, doctor, vet, actor, manager, office worker and professor, and teacher is the only female dominant role featuring men. There were 20 roles appearing in the corpus that including only men, and they were the roles of actor, basketball player, coach, cook, driver, farmer, fire fighter, fisherman, head teacher, hunter, manager, mayor, mechanic, office worker, police, president, professor, sailor, soldier and waiter, and the 20 roles that featured only men are also considered male professions based on their stereotypicality.
The 19 occupational roles featuring women were as follows: teacher, guide, reporter, shop assistant, dentist, nurse, musician, student, artist, doctor, pilot, swimmer, astronaut, hairdresser, vet, waitress, acrobat, boxer and stand-up comedian. Of these 19 professions, 5 were female dominant, 9 gender-neutral and 5 male dominant occupations. The female dominant occupations included the roles of teacher, shop assistant, nurse, hairdresser and waitress. The stereotypically gender-neutral roles were guide, reporter, musician, student, artist, doctor, swimmer, vet and acrobat, and the male dominant roles were dentist, pilot, astronaut, boxer and stand-up comedian. Nine such occupational roles appeared that featured only women, and those roles included the following: acrobat, boxer, hairdresser, nurse, swimmer, shop assistant, stand-up comedian, student and waitress. Of the nine occupational roles that featured only women the roles of hairdresser, nurse, shop assistant and waitress are stereotypically also female dominant. Stereotypically gender-neutral occupations included acrobat, swimmer and student, and two stereotypically male dominant professions that featured only women appeared in the textbooks, boxer and stand-up comedian. Occupational roles that included both men and women were artist, astronaut, dentist, doctor, guide, musician, pilot, reporter, teacher and vet. Artist, doctor, guide, musician and reporter are usually seen as gender-neutral occupations whereas astronaut, dentist and pilot are stereotypically male dominant and teacher is stereotypically a female dominant role. Only unknown gender representatives featured the roles of clown, scientist, singer and zookeeper, of which clown is stereotypically a male dominant occupational role whereas scientist, singer and zookeeper are stereotypically gender-neutral professions. The frequencies of different occupational roles represented by men, women and members of unknown gender are summarized in Table 9.

Table 9. Different occupational roles appearing in the corpus represented by men, women and members of unknown gender compared with the stereotypicality of the occupational roles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stereotypically male</th>
<th>Stereotypically female</th>
<th>Stereotypically neutral</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupations represented by men</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupations represented by women</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupations represented by unknown gender</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the focus of this thesis is on the stereotypicality of gender representations, I wanted to study the intensity of the stereotypicality of the occupational roles in order to gain a more thorough picture of the gender stereotypes. Therefore, I used the stereotypicality scale provided by Kennison and Trofe (2003) to compare the gender stereotypicality of the professions represented by men and women. The examination revealed that the mean value for the occupational roles represented by men was 5,12 and the mean value for roles represented by women was 4,00. Interpreting Kennison and Trofe’s (2003) scale, the mean value of 5,12 signifies a stereotypically mostly male occupation whereas the mean value of 4 signifies a stereotypically neutral occupation. Now, I will move on to the discussion, where I will discuss the results even more and compare the results to the findings of previous studies as well as attempt to provide some explanations for the results and recognize the limitations of this thesis.

6 Discussion

In this section, I will review the results section by section and compare the results to the findings of previous studies. In addition, I will also provide some possible explanations for the results presented in the previous section and discuss the possible limitations of the present study. I will commence this section by discussing the gendered pronouns and other gender-related terms in 6.1, then parental terms in 6.2, the distribution of the characters in 6.3 and lastly the occupational terms in 6.4.
6.1 Gendered pronouns and other gender-related terms

First, I studied the number of gendered pronouns he, she, him, her, his and her in the subject, object and possessive forms. The results revealed an overrepresentation of male pronouns, which reflects the findings of previous studies (see Baker 2010; Twenge, Campbell and Gentile 2012; Moser and Masterson 2014). The male pronouns appeared more often in all subject, object and possessive positions compared to their female counterparts, and the ratio varied between 55 percent male and 45 per cent female to 60 per cent male and 40 per cent female. The most notable difference between the numbers of male and female pronouns was in the subject pronouns and the least noticeable in the possessive form, although the difference between the different positions was not substantial. However, this suggests that men appear more in the subject position compared to women and are more likely to be the active “doers” than women. The difference between men and women was smaller in the object pronouns and the least notable in the possessive form that demonstrates almost an equal distribution between men and women. In the corpus, there are roughly 1,5 male pronouns for every female pronoun. This ratio is not as notable as what the study of Twenge, Campbell and Gentile (2012) uncovered, which revealed a ratio of 2 male pronouns for every female pronoun, but still the results reveal a clear male dominance regarding gendered pronouns in the corpus, and thus contributing to the predominance of men and the lesser coverage of women.

I also examined other gender-related words based on the study by Moser and Masterson (2014). The words chosen for studying were woman/women, man/men, boy/boys, girl/girls, Mr/Mrs/Ms, lady/ladies and gentleman/gentlemen. Examining other gender-related words revealed even more notable male dominance than with gendered pronouns, since there were almost twice as many words referring to males than to females. The ratio was 1,85 males to every female in the textbook corpus. Male words were again higher in number in almost all categories, except with the plural form of boys/girls and singular form of lady/gentleman in which the female words were dominant.

Previous studies have discovered a decrease in the gap between the number of man/men and woman/women (Baker 2010), but in this corpus the difference is quite notable, especially with the singular form. The singular man appeared 15 times compared to only two appearances of woman. The overrepresentation of the male term
is in line with multiple previous studies, but the disproportion in this corpus is quite discouraging. It is difficult to discuss the qualitative aspects and possible differences between the words *man* and *woman* due to the low incidence of the female word. Consequently, the word *man* shows more versatility with different types of phrases since it occurs much more often than the word *woman*. *Man* appears in rather neutral contexts in phrases like *young man, old man* and *the man is waving* for example. The word *man* was unfortunately used once as a generic word referring to people in general. Using male words as generic terms has been a widely criticized feature of gendered language since the beginning of studying gendered language and it is very unfortunate to discover it being used today. The phrase is even uttered by a female character and could have easily been replaced with another, gender-fair expression. Again, this vast disparity between the frequencies of the words *man* and *woman* contributes to the dominance of men and invisibility of women and offers less examples for the female readers.

The distribution of the plural forms *men* and *women* was more even in the corpus compared to the singular forms, although the male terms dominated again. The plural *men* appeared six times and *women* five times. The qualitative analysis revealed that the male word showed a bit more versatility compared to the female word, since the remaining mentions of *women* referred to the same occurrence of a female rugby team and *men* appeared in three other phrases on two occasions. Unfortunately, *men* was also once used as a generic term for people, which was again an unnecessary decision from the authors. It could have been replaced with the word *people* for instance, in which case the language in the textbooks would have been less stereotyped.

The dominance of the singular *boy* over *girl* in the corpus is very notable, and very undesirable. The word *boy* appeared 39 times in the textbooks and the word *girl* only six times, and *boy* occurs a whopping 6.5 times more often than *girl*. This disparity is very unfortunate especially since a child of school age mostly identifies themselves with girls and boys as opposed to women and men. The majority of the occurrences of the word *boy*, 17 occurrences, referred to a boy robot. The boy robot was first introduced when parents were buying a birthday present for their daughter and chose to buy the boy robot and took it home. This was a conscious choice by the authors to include the boy robot in the storyline and they could have just as well have chosen the girl robot, who was also mentioned. However, even if the authors had
chosen to include the girl robot and it had appeared 17 times, the word boy would still have more mentions than the word girl in the corpus. Another unfortunate finding regarding the word boy was its use as a generic expression of amazement in exclamations Boy! and Oh, Boy! that appeared altogether seven times in the corpus. Particularly, since these exclamations could have easily been replaced with other gender-neutral expressions, and expressions with female words used as generics did not appear in the corpus. This is also a conscious decision by the authors that could have easily been rectified and that would not increase the stereotypicality of the language in the textbooks. The investigation of the plural forms boys and girls revealed a dominance of the female word over the male word. This was a positive finding that reflects the high frequency of female main characters in the textbooks, but hardly affects the disparity in the total number of male and female gendered terms. The female dominance in plural girls diverges from the findings of previous studies where boys was mostly dominant (i.e. Moser and Masterson 2014). The dominance of girls over boys could be explained by the main characters in the books, since girls most often appears in Yippee! 5 (8 times out of 12) where the main characters are girls, one from the US and two friends from Britain who are mentioned often together as girls.

The findings regarding the abbreviations Mr and Mrs and the title miss were consistent with the results of previous studies in revealing a dominance of the male term Mr. Mr appeared 19 times in the corpus compared to only 9 occurrences of Mrs and 4 of miss. Since Mr and Mrs were both used to refer to characters and they did not differ qualitatively, the dominance of the male term again contributes to the overall dominance of male terms and to the invisibility of females in the textbooks. The unjust system of abbreviations that reveals the marital status of women but not men has also been criticized since the beginning of studying gendered language. However, the abbreviation Ms. which does not reveal the marital status of women has also been established, and yet again the authors have chosen not to include teaching the abbreviation Ms. in their books but to provide them with the somewhat outdated system of using Mr and Mrs. Miss was used in the corpus when politely addressing to females, either when a beefeater was talking to the character Hazel or when a pupil was talking to the teacher. Miss was used by pupils to address the teacher, even if the teacher’s marital status as married was revealed through the abbreviation Mrs. However, this procedure is accepted with young children in school environment when addressing their teacher.
The preponderance of the female terms lady and ladies over the corresponding male terms gentleman and gentlemen is in light with previous studies regarding this subject (see Moser and Masterson 2014). In this case female dominance is a negative outcome, since the pseudo-polite term lady has received negative connotations over time and is often used in patronizing and trivializing contexts (Holmes 1999). Therefore, finding the words lady and plural ladies appearing 9 times combined is another adverse finding. Lady was used four times to refer to a female salesperson in a grocery store and could have easily been replaced with, for example, the word salesperson that would again decrease the stereotypicality of the language in the textbooks. The occupation lunch lady, which seems rather outdated and even trivializing, also appeared once in the corpus. This term could have also been replaced with a more modern term that does not reveal the person’s gender. The equivalent male term gentlemen appeared once in phrase ladies and gentlemen when a ringmaster was addressing the circus audience. The singular form gentleman did not occur in the corpus and again the composition can be construed as unfavorable for females.

In conclusion, gendered pronouns and terms revealed a preponderance of male terms and underrepresentation of female terms in all categories apart from the plural girls/boys and singular lady/gentleman where the female terms were the dominant ones. These are, however, in line with the findings of previous studies, except for the dominance of the word girls over boys, which can be explained by the main characters’ genders in the textbooks. The qualitative analysis revealed somewhat more versatile functions with the male terms, but this is probably a consequence of the uneven frequencies. The qualitative analysis also uncovered some dated language use, as in the title system, the use of the pseudo-polite word lady and in the use of male terms as generic expressions. Next, I will discuss the parental terms in the corpus.

6.2 Parental words

Somewhat surprisingly the male terms also dominated the frequencies of the parental words, which contradicts the results of previous studies (i.e. Anderson and Hamilton 2005). This could suggest a conscious effort from the authors to provide a versatile picture of men as parents and a non-stereotypical distribution of parental roles, which is a positive finding. However, at the same time the dominance of male parental words also contributes to the overall dominance of men in the textbooks and to lesser
occurrence of women. In addition, the qualitative analysis revealed a rather stereotypical treatment of male parents regarding their hobbies and occupations. There are instances in the corpus when the male parents are described doing stereotypically female activities such as cooking and doing the dishes in a few occasions, and even said not to be good at football, when sports are usually seen as a male activity. On one occasion, the male parent is visiting a clothing store with his children, which could be stereotypically seen as something a mother would do. The male parent in question is a single parent by interpretation, and thus provides a diverse picture of family relations of today. However, there are more occasions when fathers are described stereotypically. In the corpus, fathers are portrayed playing basketball, baseball and badminton, loving motocross, being tall and handsome, having strong arms and working as a fire fighter and a pilot (fortunately, the gender-neutral term fire fighter was used). The male parents did not have stereotypically female occupations and fathers were not described as being nurturing towards their children, which is in line with previous studies (Anderson and Hamilton 2005).

The female parents were described somewhat more diversely and non-stereotypically than the male parents. Mothers were described as playing sports in a few occasions, which is stereotypically a male hobby. Mothers were also described as funny, which is also usually an attribute associated with men. On one occasion, the female parent’s occupation was mentioned being a stand-up comedian, which is stereotypically a male occupation (Kennison and Trofe 2003). On a couple occasions, the mother was described versatility having both stereotypical male and female attributes such as being a hairdresser and playing basketball as well. However, the mothers were also described stereotypically with nurturing, overseeing household chores and working as a nurse.

To conclude, parents of both genders were described stereotypically and non-stereotypically, but the female parents were portrayed somewhat more diversely and non-stereotypically than the male parents in the corpus. Overall, the number of male parents exceeding the number of female parents was a positively surprising finding. This could be explained by the authors’ goal to provide a non-stereotypical picture of male parents and the presence of a single father as one of the main characters in Go for it! 3. Even though the fathers were portrayed often stereotypically, the male parents were also described doing some domestic chores and having stereotypically female hobbies.
6.3 Characters

A common finding of previous studies has been the dominance of male characters over female characters in frequencies (e.g. Lee and Collins 2010; McCabe et al. 2011), although some studies have also discovered an equal representation of male and female characters (Sadker, Sadker and Klein 1991, Rifkin 1998). In this thesis, the number of male characters was higher than the female characters and the male characters appeared 1.3 times more often than female characters. However, the difference in the frequencies is not as significant as in some previous studies and female characters even appeared more often in the corpus overall. Moreover, examining the main characters in the corpus revealed a more or less even number of female and male main characters, which is a positive and encouraging number. The qualitative analysis of the textbooks also revealed, that two out of the four books that were examined included females clearly as the most central characters, and one of the books did not have a clear central character(s) and included an even number of men and women.

The investigation of the characters illustrated the most equal representations of women and men, at least concerning the frequencies, compared to the other categories that were included in the study. This is a promising finding, since the characters are presumably one the most visible aspect in the textbooks for the readers. One could argue, that the children are more likely to notice the characters and their behavior than the numbers of gendered pronouns or parental roles, for example. The nearly equal number of female and male main characters could be a result of conscious efforts from the authors to introduce both female and male characters in the storylines, since the characters are a very visible and apparent component in the textbooks and are likely to draw attention from the authors. However, the equal representation of the main characters is not reflected in other frequencies in the corpus, and it would also be important to pay attention to the aspects besides the main characters, since the findings of the thesis illustrate a clear male dominance in the frequencies in other categories.

6.4 Occupational roles

I also studied the gender distribution of occupational roles in the corpus according to their stereotypical gender orientation as well as the actual gender distribution realized in the corpus. The findings revealed that the frequencies of stereotypical occupational roles were quite unevenly distributed between stereotypically male and female
occupations. While there were 23 stereotypically male occupations mentioned in the corpus, the number of different stereotypically female occupations was only five. The number of different neutral occupations was 17, which means that the number of male occupational roles exceeds the number of female and neutral roles combined, and the number of stereotypically male roles was 4.6 times higher than the number of female roles. This suggests that the different occupational roles presented for men are much higher in number and therefore more versatile compared to only five different stereotypically female roles appearing in the corpus. This is in line with previous studies that have revealed more versatile and multifaceted occupational and social roles presented for men than for women (i.e., Weitzman et al. 1972, Porreca 1984, Lee and Collins 2010).

The number of appearances was fortunately slightly more evenly distributed with stereotypically male occupations occurring 60 times, stereotypically female occupations 44 times and neutral occupations 54 times in the corpus. So, while men are represented with more versatile and diverse roles compared to women, the number of appearances of the occupational roles is more evenly distributed. Therefore, while males are provided with much more multifaceted and numerous roles than females, the male dominance regarding the frequency of appearances is not as significant as it might seem by examining the number of different roles.

However, the stereotypicality of the occupational roles is not necessarily implicit evidence of the stereotypicality of the language used in the textbooks. Therefore, I chose to examine the occupational roles in their contexts to see if the stereotypical genders of the occupational roles relate to the actual gender distribution of the occupational roles in the corpus. The investigation of the actualized roles revealed a more even distribution of the gendered occupational roles compared to the general stereotypicality of the roles, although the occupational roles represented by males were still dominant. The occupational roles represented by males were mentioned 74 times compared to the 57 mentions of females in occupational roles. On 26 occasions the gender could not be deduced. So, when the occupational roles were studied for their general stereotypicality, the male roles appeared almost four times as often as female roles, but when investigating the actual gender distribution in the corpus, men appeared 1.3 times more often than women.

The stereotypically gender-neutral roles were also even in their gender distribution in the corpus with 20 mentions of women and 20 mentions of men. In
addition, the majority of stereotypically male and stereotypically female occupations were represented by their respective gender, which provides evidence for the occupational roles being stereotyped overall. 75 per cent of the stereotypically male dominant occupational roles were represented by men and 12 per cent by women. The same numbers for stereotypically female occupational roles were 68 per cent female and 20 per cent male. The residual consists of representatives of unknown gender. The frequencies suggest that the occupational roles for men are again more versatile, since 20 per cent of stereotypically female occupations are actually represented by men compared to only 12 per cent of stereotypically male occupations being represented by women. Presenting more versatile occupational roles for men than for women is also supported by the numbers of different roles that women and men appear in, since there are 30 occupational roles featuring men and only 19 roles featuring women. Providing more versatile occupational roles for men than for women is a common finding of previous studies as well (i.e. Weitzman et al. 1972, Porreca 1984, Lee and Collins 2010).

The investigation of the corpus also revealed some gender-neutral and some gendered occupational terms. The gender-neutral terms included the terms police officers and fire fighters and the gendered terms included the terms policemen, lunch lady and fisherman. The presence of gender-neutral terms is a positive outcome and for example the gender-neutral term fire fighter was the only one to refer to fire fighters in the corpus. However, the gendered occupational terms could have easily been replaced with gender-neutral terms as well. Since the target readers of the books are learning the language and their language can be influenced, it would be important to offer them gender-neutral language from the beginning of their learning curve.

The qualitative investigation of the occupational terms uncovered a rather stereotypical portrayal of men in different occupational roles. Although the percentage for men in stereotypically female occupations is higher than for women in male occupations, men show less variation in the number of different occupations and the higher percentage results from multiple mentions of just one occupational role. Men appeared in only one stereotypically female occupation, nine times as a teacher. Women on the other hand appeared in five stereotypically male occupations, and the number of stereotypically female occupations featuring women was also five. Thus, women appeared as often in stereotypically male and female occupations, whereas the corresponding frequency for men was 18 stereotypically male occupations to only 1
female occupation. The mean values for the stereotypicality of the different occupations represented by men and women also suggests that the occupational roles for men are more stereotyped compared to the roles for women, since the mean value for men suggested a male dominance whereas the mean value for female occupations suggested gender neutrality. Therefore, the occupational roles represented by men are more stereotyped than the occupational roles represented by women in this corpus. This is also in line with previous studies that have discovered more resistance for men to be assigned non-traditional roles (Scott 1986).

So, to summarize, analyzing the frequencies of the occupational roles revealed a male dominance in all areas, once again. The number of different roles was the most uneven category with much more different occupational roles presented for men than for women, which replicates the findings of many previous studies. The number of appearances was more evenly distributed, but still dominated by men. However, the qualitative analysis suggests that the occupations featuring men were more stereotyped and gendered than the occupations featuring women.

At the very end of this discussion section I will make some general comments that emerged during the writing process and also acknowledge the possible limitations of the present study. According to the extensive corpus study by Baker (2010), using the gendered title system seems to be decreasing and the number of male terms such as Mr and he seems to be decreasing as well. However, in this corpus the number of male terms in almost all the categories was notably higher than the number of female terms excluding the number of characters in the textbooks, where more female characters appeared. The notably higher frequency of male terms compared to female terms in almost all categories included in this thesis is an unfortunate result that has been a common finding in previous studies from the 1970’s onward. This results in lesser coverage of women and lesser possibilities presented for the female readers about their prospects in life compared to male readers. The only categories where the female terms were higher in frequencies were the plural forms boys and girls and in characters.

However, the results also suggest some conscious effort from the authors to address gender stereotypes and provide versatile opportunities regarding for example career choices. For example, male parental terms were higher in frequencies compared to female parental terms, which is a rather surprising result as compared to previous studies regarding parental terms. Also, the authors made an effort to describe both male
and female parents in a versatile manner with describing both with male and female attributes. There were also instances where the authors chose to explicitly address some gender stereotypes, as when discussing whether or not women can play rugby. This example illustrated the effort to explicitly influence the readers’ gender perceptions and possible preconceptions about women’s ability to play rugby, a stereotypically male sport. This is a positive and powerful way to influence the readers, since the readers probably take more notice of these practices than for example the frequencies of male and female terms. Occupational terms represented by women were less stereotyped compared to the occupations represented by men in the corpus. This could indicate that the authors have deliberately chosen to present versatile career opportunities for women possibly due to coverage of the subject in studies and media.

Using corpus tools is a powerful way to reveal hidden structures and patterns that would be extremely difficult to achieve without the help of a computer. Also, in this thesis, using corpus tools has provided results that both confirm and contradict the findings of previous studies that would have been very time-consuming to achieve without corpus tools. Especially examining the frequencies of different terms would have been extremely difficult without corpus tools and studying the frequencies unveiled some stereotyped language in the corpus where the male terms were dominant in almost every category examined. Corpora are samples of naturally occurring language, but in this case the language is created for educational purposes and the authors have made very conscious decisions about what kind of language to use and therefore the stereotyped findings are especially disheartening.

Although the higher frequency of male terms in the corpus overall is a discouraging finding reflecting previous studies all the way from the 1970’s, the qualitative investigation fortunately revealed a versatile and gender-fair treatment of certain aspects, such as describing parental roles and occupational roles, especially for women. It is very likely, that the young readers of the books will remember the qualitative contents better than the frequencies and will remember for example having read about a female astronaut or a single father rather than counting the frequencies of gendered terms. Therefore, the qualitative contents of the books can probably influence the gender views of the children reading the books more than the asymmetrical frequencies, although the dominance of male terms is notable and discouraging.
In addition to teaching English language to the readers, the books that were studied in this thesis also attempt to teach aspects about different cultures for the readers and the story lines cover many different countries. Since the books clearly focus also on teaching other cultural aspects for the readers, it would also be important to take gender issues into consideration and provide the readers as gender-fair and versatile input as possible. It is understandable, that the language used in the textbooks must be simple enough for the language learners to learn and comprehend and some difficult structures cannot be taught, but there is no reason to use stereotyped and outdated language in the books. After all, the language learners using the textbooks now are future language users that are learning the foundations they use later in life, and it is important to teach the children non-stereotyped and contemporary language in order to advance.

6.5 Limitations of the present study
As in every study, this thesis also has its limitations. One of the main limitations of this study is the size of the corpus. Since the corpus is quite small in size, the frequencies are rather low in many of the categories that were studied, and the generalizability of the study can be affected by the low frequencies and caution must be maintained when making conclusions. However, the findings altogether are sufficient indication of the overall stereotypicality of the textbooks in question. In addition, although pictures were used to some extent to clarify certain ambiguous findings and to amplify the corpus analysis, the study could have benefited from examining the illustrations and pictures as well, especially since the third-grade textbooks contain a vast number of pictures. However, the scale of this thesis did not allow to examine every possible aspect and some features had to be omitted from the examination.

The scope of the thesis is also rather wide, and the analysis has potentially remained somewhat superficial and incomplete due to the scale of the thesis and could benefit from further studies. More linguistic features and textual and visual material could be added for the analysis endlessly, but the scale of the thesis compelled to make decisions about the most important aspects to include in the study based on previous studies. The textbooks comprising the corpus were published by the same company and included some same authors in both textbook series and could result in similar
contents and language used in the books. However, I do not consider this as a huge limitation in this thesis, since these are clearly the most commonly used textbooks in primary school and are therefore the books that the children are exposed to in the real world.

Another limitation of this thesis is the slight emphasis on the examination of frequencies. The scope of the thesis forced me to exclude some qualitative, and quantitative, aspects that could have aided in forming a clear overall picture of the gender issues. However, I saw the frequencies as an important starting point in the study of gender issues in English textbooks and I combined the quantitative analysis with qualitative examination as much as possible. It is possible, if not probable, that the pupils pay attention to the qualitative descriptions more than to the frequencies and therefore it would be important to perform the qualitative analysis in more depth. Nevertheless, frequencies are an important indication of inequality, and invisibility is a detrimental form of bias which justifies the premise of this thesis.

Although this study suggested unequal and stereotypical representations of many aspects that were studied, especially regarding the frequencies, it would be important to also investigate the real-life effects the books induce on the readers. Since the most noticeable inequalities were found in the frequencies, it would be interesting to examine if and how the readers are affected by the inequalities, and if the readers are more affected by the stereotypical contents than by the disproportionate frequencies, for example. Also including the pictures and illustrations in the study would be beneficial for future studied, since the textbooks contain plenty of visual material and on some occasions even rely on the visual material alone.

7 Conclusion
The aim of this study was to investigate, if the portrayal of genders was equal and how stereotypically the genders were described in four English language textbooks from two different textbook series used in primary school in Finland. I examined how gendered is the language used in Finnish primary school English language textbooks and how do the studied female and male terms differ quantitatively and qualitatively. The investigation was conducted by using both quantitative and qualitative methods and utilizing methods from Corpus Linguistics. The objects of the study were selected based on previous research on children’s literature and included the examination of
gendered pronouns and other gendered terms, parental roles, the gender distribution of the characters and occupational roles. Methods from corpus linguistics were used to study the frequencies, since the underrepresentation of women and the dominance of men has been a common finding of previous studies. In addition to the quantitative examination, qualitative analysis was also implemented to study particularly parental and occupational roles.

The findings of this thesis were consistent with previous studies in almost all categories. The underrepresentation of women and dominance of men in frequencies was apparent in every category that were studied. Men even dominated the frequencies of parental roles, which contradicts the results of previous studies where women are usually dominant in the frequencies of parental roles. The higher frequency of male parents compared to female parents was a positive outcome, but simultaneously it increases the overall dominance of men in the corpus. Inside the category of gendered terms, the plural form *girls* appeared more often than the equivalent male term *boys*, which is not in line with previous studies, and probably results from the contents of the textbook *Yippee! 5* with mainly girls as central characters. However, female dominance in this one small category hardly affects the overall clear dominance of men.

The examination of the characters revealed the most equal representation of women and men, at least regarding the frequencies. In the textbooks series *Yippee!*, the number of female and male characters were rather even and the number of female characters even exceeded the number of male characters in overall appearances. The main characters’ gender distribution was also quite equal, and two of the four books had females as the most central characters and one of the books had a very even representation of the most central characters, which is a positive finding not in agreement with previous studies. The quantitative analysis also revealed more different occupational roles assigned to men compared to women, which is also in line with previous studies on the subject.

The qualitative analysis also revealed congruence with previous studies on gender issues in children’s literature. For instance, the qualitative analysis revealed mostly stereotypical portrayal of parental and occupational roles, even more so for men than for women. There were instances, where male parents were described doing non-stereotypical activities such as doing the dishes, cooking or shopping, but the female parents were described slightly less stereotypically and more diversely than the
male parents. Additionally, even though the occupational roles for men were higher in frequency than the roles for women, the qualitative analysis uncovered more stereotypical portrayal of the occupational roles for men than for women. Whereas women represented several occupational roles that were stereotypically male dominant, men represented only one stereotypically female dominant occupation. The quantitative and qualitative analysis suggested stereotypical portrayal of women and men in most categories. However, the qualitative findings also suggest that some previously gendered textual aspects were acknowledged, for example male parental roles and female characters, but there are still improvements to be made in the future to ensure equal gender representations in primary school English language textbooks.

The scale of this thesis made it impossible to investigate all the quantitative and qualitative aspects impacting the overall genderedness of the textbooks. For the future, it would be profitable to study the illustrations and pictures in the books, since the books rely heavily on the visual material, especially the books for the lower grades. More linguistics features could be analyzed to help with the overall picture of the stereotypicality of the books. Also, the larger story lines could be studied for their contents to examine how stereotypically the events, as well as the characters and their behavior, are described. In addition to complementing the research on the contents of the books, it would be advantageous to study how the contents actually affect the children reading the textbooks. After all, the most important aspects to pay attention to in the future are the matters that have the most power to influence the attitudes, beliefs and genders of the readers. Finally, investigating the actions in the classroom could also be beneficial for future studies. For example, the teacher probably has a central role on the interpretation of the books and how the material is treated, and therefore can influence the children’s reactions.

The underrepresentation of women has been a common finding of studies since the 1970’s, and since invisibility is a detrimental form of bias, this issue should be addressed in the future concerning English language textbooks in Finland. In addition, since the contents of the books have the power to influence children’s gender views and attitudes, it would be important to pay attention to the textual contents and provide non-biased, non-stereotypical and diverse example for all genders. Fortunately, the quantitative analysis revealed an even gender distribution of the main characters in the textbooks, and the qualitative analysis revealed some non-stereotypical descriptions of occupational and parental roles, especially for women. Important matters connected to
the scope of this thesis would be to investigate, what are the actual effects of the textbooks on the readers and how does the learning situation and the teacher’s behavior influence the children.
References

Primary sources

Secondary sources


**Appendix 1.** List of role names, their frequencies, their ratings as mostly male, mostly female or mostly neutral and the actual gender distribution in the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role name</th>
<th>Number of appearances</th>
<th>Stereotypicality (M=mostly male, F=mostly female, N=mostly neutral)</th>
<th>Gender in the textbooks (M=male, F=female, U=unknown)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>acrobat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1 F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1 M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>artist</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>2M, 1F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>astronaut</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1M, 1F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basketball player</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1 M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boxer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1 F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clown</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coach</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cook</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>3M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dentist</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2U, 1M, 2F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doctor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1U, 1M, 1M&amp;F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>driver</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2U, 1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>farmer</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1U, 6M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fire fighter</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fisherman</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guide (tour guide)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>2 U, 2M, 7F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hairdresser</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>head (teacher)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hunter</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manager</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mayor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mechanic</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>musician</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1M, 1F, 2M&amp;F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nurse</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>1U, 4F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Overall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>office worker</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pilot</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1M, 2F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>police (officer, -man)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1U, 8M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>president</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reporter</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>4U, 3M, 3F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sailor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scientist</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>2U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soldier</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swimmer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shop assistant (sales assistant)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>8F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(stand-up) comedian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>3U, 1F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>4 U, 9 M, 14 F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1M, 1F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>waiter</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>waitress</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>2F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zookeeper (zoologist)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1U</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Johdanto

Tammikuuhun 2017 mennessä jokaisen suomalaisen peruskoulun on täytynyt laatia tasa-arvosuunnitelma osana tasa-arvolakia (Jääskeläinen ym. 2015, 7-8). Tasa-arvosuunnitelman tarkoituksena on varmistaa, että oppilaitokset edistävät sukupuolten välistä tasa-arvoa ehkäisemällä syrjintää ja edistämällä tasa-arvoa kouluympäristössä. Tässä Pro Gradu -tutkielmassa tutkittiin, onko tämä pyrkimys tasa-arvoon kouluissa havaittavissa myös oppimateriaaleissa. Tutkielmassa tutkittiin neljän eri englannin kielen oppikirjan sisältöä kahdesta kirjasarjasta, jotta nähtäisiin, kuinka tasa-arvoisesti sukupuolet on kirjoissa kuvattu ja kuinka stereotyyppistä kirjojen sisällöt ovat. Tämän saavuttamiseksi seuraavat tutkimuskysymykset muodostettiin:

1. Kuinka sukupuolittunutta suomalaisissa peruskoulun englannin kielen oppikirjoissa käytetty kieli on?
2. Kuinka tutkimuksen kohteena olette nais- ja miestermit eroavat määrällisesti ja laadullisesti?


sosiaalisten kontaktien ja opetuksen kautta. Koulussa opittu itseluottamus ja taidot ovat erityisen tärkeitä rakentamaan lapsen ajatuksia ja uskomuksia omista kyvyistään, joita tarvitaan ammatinvalinnassa ja työelämässä (Bussey ja Bandura 1999, 701).

Kirjallisuus puolestaan heijastaa yhteiskunnan vallitsevia asenteita sekä uskomuksia, ja oppikirjat ovat keskeinen osa opetusta peruskoulussa. Koska oppikirjat ovat siis tärkeässä roolissa kulttuuristen arvon luomisessa ja muokkauksessa, on tärkeää kiinnittää huomiota oppikirjoissa käytetyn kielen tasa-arvoisuuteen.

**Sukupuolen kehitys ja kouluympäristö**

Sukupuoli voidaan käsittää joko sosiaalisena tai fyysisenä ominaisuutena. Uusimpien tutkimusten mukaan sukupuoli voidaan käsittää jatkumona, joka sisältää erilaisia femininiisyyksiä ja maskuliinisuuksia, jotka voivat vaihdella sekä kulttuurien että yksilöiden välissä ja sisällä (Sunderland ja Litosseliti 2002, 7-8). Tässä tutkielmassa termi ”sukupuoli” käsittää sekä biologiset että sosiaaliset ulottuvuudet. Sukupuoli on tärkeä osa ihmisen identiteettiä ja se on myös juurtunut osaksi yhteiskuntaa. Lisäksi sukupuoli määrittelee usein, miten lapsia kohdellaan, miten he valitsevat koulutuksensa ja ammattinsa sekä perhe-elämänä ja mitä taitoja he haluavat kehittää. Lapsuus on tärkeä aika sukupuolen kehitykselle ja sukupuolen kehitystä on tutkittu laajasti ja sen pohjalta on esitetty monia teorioita (Bussey 2011, 604-608).

Nykyaikainen käsitys käyttäytymisen eroista sukupuolten välillä on se, että niihin vaikuttavat niin biologiset, sosiaaliset, ympäristöön liittyvät kognitiivisetkin tekijät (Hines 2011, 70).


**Teoreettiset viitekehykset**


Pro Gradu -tutkielmassa käytettiin teoreettisena viitekehyksenä *kriittistä diskursianalyyssia* ja hyödynnettiin *korpuslingvistiikan* metodeja. Kriittinen diskurssianalyysi on monitieteinen lähestymistapa, jonka avulla pyritään paljastamaan epätasa-arvoa ja piilotettuja valtarakenteita, joita välitetään, kontrolloidaan ja luodaan uudelleen sosiaalisissa ja poliittisissa konteksteissa (Bloor ja Bloor 2014, 191-192).


**Aikaisempi tutkimuksia lasten kirjallisuudesta**

**Materiaali ja metodit**

Tutkielman materiaali koostuu alakoulussa käytetystä neljästä englannin kielen oppikirjasta, jotka tulevat kahdesta eri kirjasarjasta. Tutkitut kirjat ovat *Yippee! 3*, *Yippee! 5*, *Go for it! 3* ja *Go for it! 5*. Kirjasarjat selvitettiin ottamalla yhteyttä turkulaisiin alakouluihin ja kysymällä, mitkä englannin kielen oppikirjasarjat heillä on käytössä. Joista valittiin yleisimmin käytössä olevat kirjasarjat. Tämän jälkeen kirjasarjoista valittiin kaksi kirjaa, kolmannen luokan ja kuudennen luokan oppikirjat, jotta tutkielma sisältäisi sekä kielenopiskelun alkuvaiheen että hieman edistyneemän tason kirjan.

Analyysi

Pro Gradu -tutkielmassa tutkittiin persoonapronominien *she, he, her, him, hers* ja *his* määrää ja sukupuolijakaumaa oppikirjoissa. Tulokset osoittivat, että miespronominit esiintyivät yhteensä noin 1,5 kertaa useammin kuin naispronominit. Tutkielmassa tarkasteltiin myös muita sukupuoleen liittyviä sanoja *woman, women, man, men, boy, boys, girl, girls, Mr, Mrs, Ms, lady, ladies, gentleman* ja *gentlemen*. Myös muut sukupuoleen liittyvät sanat osoittivat, että miehiin liittyvät termit esiintyivät korpuxessa 1,85 kertaa useammin kuin tutkitut naistermit. Tutkielmassa tarkasteltiin sukupuoleen liittyvää termejä myös laadullisesti ja tutkittiin konteksteja, joissa ne esiintyivät. Miehiin liittyvät termit esiintyivät korpuxessa naisia useammin lähes kaikissa kategorioissa lukuun ottamatta termejä *lady/ladies* ja *gentleman/gentlemen* sekä monikon muotoja *girls* ja *boys*, joissa naistermit olivat vallitsevia. Persoonapronominineja ja muita termejä tarkasteltaessa havaittiin myös joitakin sukupuolittuneen kielen piirteitä, kuten *man* käyttäminen suurimmilla osilla, ja termejä, joissa naistermit olivat vallitsevia. Perustelututkija esiintyi myös joitakin sukupuolituneen kielen muotoilla, kuten että naisista vanhemmin. Tutkielmassa tarkasteltiin myös kirjoissa esiintyvien hahmojen sukupuolijakaumaa ja päähenkilöiden piirteitä. Hahmojen määrällinen tarkastelutukielmassa osoittivat, että kirjoissa naishahmoja oli vähemmän kuin mieshahmoja, mutta naishahmot esiintyivät useammin kuin mieshahmot. Kirjojen päähenkilöiden sukupuolijakaumaa tarkasteltaessa nais- ja mieshenkilöiden määrät olivat kuitenkin tasaiset.

Lopuksi tutkielmassa tarkasteltiin ammattiroolien määrää ja verrattiin niiden stereotyyppistä sukupuolittuneisuutta kirjoissa esiintyiin sukupuoliin. Stereotyyppisiä ammattia esittyi kirjoissa enemmän, kuin stereotyyppisesti naisten ammatteja, ja tarkasteltaessa stereotyyppisten ammattien kaikkia mainintoja, oli ero vielä huomattavampi, sillä stereotyyppiset miesten ammatit mainittiin kirjoissa yhteensä useammin kuin neutraalit ja stereotyyppiset naisten ammatit yhteenlaskettuna. Jotta kirjojen ammattiroolien sukupuolittuneisuudesta saataisiin todennäköinen kuva, verrattiin seuraavaksi ammattien stereotyyppisyyyttä niiden kirjoissa esiintyvän henkilön sukupuoleen. Tämä tarkastelu osoitti, että miehet...
esiintyivät useammissa ammattirooleissa kuin naiset, mutta miesten esittämät ammattiroolit olivat korpoksessa stereotyyppisemmät kuin naisten roolit.

**Pohdinta**

Miehiin liittyvien persoonapronominien suurempi määrä korpoksessa heijastaa aikaisempien tutkimusten tuloksia. Mies- ja naispronomien välinen määrällinen ero ei kuitenkaan ole yhtä huomattava kuin erimerkiksi tutkimuksessa, jonka toteuttivat Twenge, Campbell ja Gentile (2012), mutta tutkielman tulokset kuitenkin osoittivat selvän miesten vallitsevuuuden ja naisten vähäisemmän esiintymisen. Muiden sukupuoleen liittyvien termien tarkastelu osoitti vielä suuremman miesteriän dominanssin kuin persoonapronomineissa oli havaittavissa, mikä taas osaltaan lisää miesten suurempaan esilläoloon tutkituissa oppikirjoissa. Laadullinen tarkastelu paljasti myös monipuolisempia toimintoja miehillä sekä joitakin muita sukupuolituneen kielen piirteitä, ja koska kirjoissa käytetty kieli on kirjoittajien tietoisesti valinnan tulos, olisi stereotyyppiset kielen piirteet olleet helposti korjattavissa.

Vanhemmuustomen lukumäärä tarkasteltaessa huomattiin yllättäen, että mihin liittyvät termit esiintyivät useammin, kuin naisiin liittyvät, mikä on ristiriidassa useiden aikaisempien tutkimusten kanssa. Tämä voi olla seurausta kirjoittajien tietoisesta tarjota miehille ei-stereotyyppisiä vanhemmuusrooleja, mutta samaan aikaan tämä lisää miesten yleistä suurempaa näkyvyyttä kirjoissa. Lisäksi laadullinen tutkimus paljasti melko stereotyyppiset kuvaukset miespuolisista vanhemmista, ja naispuoliset vanhemmat oli kirjoissa kuvattu hieman vähemmän stereotyyppisesti kuin miespuoliset.

Kirjoissa esiintyvien hahmojen sukupuolijakaumaa tarkasteltaessa huomattiin, että miesten ja naisten välinen määrällinen ero ei ollut yhtä huomattava kuin aikaisemmin tutkimuksissa, ja naishahmot esiintyivät korpoksessa jopa useammin kuin mieshahmot. Lisäksi kirjojen päähenkilöiden sukupuolijakauma oli hyvin tasainen, mikä oli positiivinen havainto, sillä kirjojen päähenkilöt ovat lukijojille näkyvässä roolissa. Hahmojen sukupuolijakauman tasaisuus ei kuitenkaan heijastunut muihin tutkielmassa tarkasteltuihin kategorioihin, ja siksi olisi tärkeää kiinnittää huomiota myös muihin tekijöihin.

Ammatillisten roolien tarkastelu osoitti stereotyyppisesti miesten ammattien esiintyvän korpoksessa useammin kuin stereotyyppisesti naisten ammattien.
Stereotyyppisten roolien esiintyminen ei kuitenkaan välttämättä kerro suoraan kirjojen sukupuolittuneisuudesta, ja kirjojen todellista sukupuolijakaumaa tarkasteltaessa naisten ja miesten välisten ammattien määrellinen ero ei ollut yhtä huomattava. Kuitenkin miehille on kirjoissa esitetty enemmän ja monipuolisempia ammatillisia rooleja verrattuna naisiin, mikä on ollut myös aikaisemmissa tutkimuksissa tehty havainto. Laadullisen tarkastelun avulla huomattiin, että naisille esitettiin useampia stereotyyppisiä ammateja kuin miehille. Positiivinen löydös ammattrooleihin liittyen oli myös mutamien sukupuolineutraalien termien esiintyminen korpuksessa, mikä heijastelee muutosta neutralimpaan kielenkäyttöön.

Miehiin liittyvien termien vallitsevuus ja naisten näkymättömyys on ollut tutkimusten havaintona jo 1970-luvulta lähtien, ja valitettavasti samat tulokset ovat havaittavissa tässäkin tutkielmassa. Kuitenkin tutkielman tulokset osoittavat myös tietoista pyrkimystä kirjan tekijöiltä käsitellä stereotypioita ja tarjota monipuolisia vaihtoehtoja lukijoille, ja laadullinen tarkastelu paljasti myös ei-stereotyyppisiä kuvauksia varsinkin vanhemmuuteen ja ammatteihin liittyen. Tämä on tärkeää, sillä on todennäköistä, että kirjojen lukijat kiinnittävät laadullisiin tekijöihin enemmän tietoisesti huomiota kuin määrellisiin tekijöihin, vaikka kielementen enemmän vallitseva sukupuolitekijä on ollut korpuksessa huomattava ja lannistava ominaisuus. Sukupuoleen liittyvien termeihin olisi myös huomattavaa, että oppikirjojen on tarkoitus olla mieleen kiinni esimerkiksi kielisesti, että oppikirjojen on tarkoitus opettaa lukijoille käyttämään ei-stereotyyppistä ja nykyaikaista kieltä.

Pro Gradu- tutkielmaan liittyi myös tiettyjä rajoitteita, joista yksi oli korpuksen pieni koko. Tästä syystä joidenkin tarkasteltavien termien määrit jäävät vähäisiksi, jolloin tulosten yleistettävyys heikkenee. Tämän lisäksi tutkielman tuloksia olisi voinut laajentaa lisäämällä kuva-analyysin osaksi tutkimusta. Tutkielman aihe-alue oli myös melko laaja, ja tutkimusta voisi syventää tutkimalla useampia kielellisiä ominaisuuksia, mikä ei nyt ollut mahdollista tutkielman laajuuden puitteissa. Tutkielma keskittyi myös melko pitkälti määrelliseen tarkasteluun ja laadullisen tarkastelun lisääminen voisi parantaa tutkimuksen laatua. Olisi myös mielenkiintoista tutkia, millaisia vaikutuksia kirjojen sisällöillä sen lukijoille oikeasti on.