LINGUISTIC SEXISM IN CURRENT UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEXTBOOKS: *TIẾNG ANH 10, TIẾNG ANH 11* AND *TIẾNG ANH 12*

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Abstract: This article reports my study on linguistic sexism in current Vietnamese upper secondary school English language textbooks: *Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12*. The study was aimed at finding out how often linguistic sexism occurs in these textbooks and uncovering the hidden messages conveyed through this linguistic sexism. The results of the study showed that linguistic sexism occurs rather often in the three English textbooks and through it the messages of women's low status are conveyed.

Keywords: linguistic sexism, textbook, frequency, hidden message

1. Introduction

Once I taught my 11ᵗʰ grade students about Neil Armstrong, a famous American astronaut, a student asked me: 'Why must it be MAN, but not WOMAN' when she read in Textbook *Tiếng Anh 11* Neil Armstrong's quotation: *'That's one small step for a man, one giant leap for mankind'* (*Tiếng Anh 11*, p. 174). Though I tried to explain to this girl that *a man* here in this sentence was not a particular man and that it was used to refer to all the human beings, she still did not accept. After the lesson, I thought more about her question and began to agree with her that the sentence was problematic because the quotation seems to reflect the invisibility of females by containing the words *man* and *mankind*. Neil Armstrong's use of such words as *man* and *mankind* for all the human beings may make people feel that women are not present in the achievement. This is a representation of sexism or sex discrimination in the English language.

Sexism in life is various in forms and different at levels. It is probably most readily associated with economic issues, such as equal pay for equal work. The fight for equality of both women and men in such domains as politics and economy has worked strongly and successfully but in language it seems to be much weaker and receive far less attention.

There are a variety of ways in which sexism can be defined. The definition of sexism in the Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (1995) is the belief that the members of one sex, usually women are less intelligent or less capable than those, of the other sex and need not be treated equally. This definition means that women suffer from sexism more often than men. Wardhaugh (1986) explains that sexism is any discrimination against women or men because of their sex, and made on irrelevant grounds. So according to this distinction, not only women but men can also be the victims of sexism. The Oxford English Dictionary (1989) defines sexism as the assumption that one sex is superior to the other and the resultant discrimination practiced against members of the supposed inferior sex, especially by men against women; also conformity with the traditional stereotyping of social roles on the bases of sex. From these

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definitions, it can be inferred that sexism is simply the overestimation of one sex and/ or the underestimation of the other sex. In other words, it is generally considered anything that conveys the idea that one sex is superior to the other.

Sexism may be found in many fields of life such as sexism in business (business sexism), sexism in politics (political sexism) and sexism in language (linguistic sexism). *Linguistic sexism* is also called with other terms like *sexist language*, *gender-bias language* or *sexism in language.*

Many linguists have investigated and given their viewpoints of sexism in language. Cameron (2005) has concluded that 'our languages are sexist: that is they represent or name the world from a masculine viewpoint and in accordance with stereotyped beliefs about the sexes'. This means that language encodes a culture's values, and in this way reflects sexist culture. According to Umera-Okeke (2012), sexist language is considered to be any language that is supposed to include all people, but, unintentionally (or not) excludes a gender - this can be either males or females. Sexist language is especially common in situations that describe jobs - common assumptions that all doctors are men, all nurses are women, all coaches are men, or all teachers are women. This definition seems to be too specific because it just gives one case of linguistics sexism - sex exclusiveness in language. Atkinson (1993) defines linguistic sexism as a wide range of verbal practices, including not only how women are labeled and referred to, but also how language strategies in mixed sex interaction may serve to silence or depreciate women as interactants. This definition appears to be too broad for the purpose of the present study because only the language in the upper secondary school English textbooks used in Vietnam now is investigated in this research.

If sexism refers to attitudes and/or behaviours that denigrate one sex to the exaltation of the other as being mentioned in the previous part, then it follows Miller and Swift's (1988) statement that 'sexist language is any language … that assumes the inherent superiority of one sex over the other.'

However, for the purposes of the study, it is interesting to note that these definitions have one thing in common: linguistic sexism is the portrayal of women and/or men that intentionally or unintentionally overvalues one sex and/or devalues the other. Any use of words, phrases, and expressions that unnecessarily differentiate between females and males or exclude, trivialize, or diminish one particular sex is clearly sexist in language. The unequal portrayal can be seen through linguistic features in terms of morphology, semantics, syntax and pragmatics.

In Vietnam, some researchers have been interested in the relation between language and gender since 1990s. Nguyễn Thị Thanh Bình (2000) studied some gender differences in children's language while Vũ Tiến Dũng (2002) demonstrated females' politeness in communication. Nguyễn Văn Khang (2000) argued that sex discrimination in language might be found in such categories as words with male factor showing male dominance in society, the use of *he/his* instead of *she/her*, the use of titles like *Mr, Mrs* and *Miss*, and stereotype attitudes in phrases like *unwed mother* and *unwed father*.

However, the first Vietnamese linguist who systematically has studied sexism in language is Trần Xuân Điệp (2002). In his works entitled *Sự kỳ thị giới tính trong ngôn ngữ qua cứ liệu tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt* (*Sexism in language through English and Vietnamese databases),* he points out that sexism in language can be found not only against females but also against males (2002: 9). However, sex bias against women received

more attention in his study and it was seen in the following categories.

i) Gender in grammar and its relation with sex in biology: there are some different points of view on the relation between gender in grammar and sex in terms of biology. Some agree that there must be some relation between them but others do not. But it is worth noting that sexism is displayed in the use of gender in language. The male pronouns like *he*, *his* and *him* are used to include both sexes in some cases. For example, *his* in the following sentence is used although we mention teachers in general: *The teacher is responsible for his own students*.

ii) Markedness of sex in language: Many words showing the jobs of females are derived from the words showing the jobs of males. For instance, *actress*, *waitress*, *princess* are formed by adding the suffix *ess* to *actor*, *waiter* and *prince*.

iii) Imbalance of words related to females and males in terms of meanings: Words can have different meanings when they are used to describe men or women. For example, the word *professional* has different meanings depending on sex: *he is a professional* means he is excellent in a particular aspect while *she is a professional* means she is a prostitute.

iv) Sexism in naming/ titles: names and titles are used to show sex and marital status. In the past, a married woman used to be entitled *Mrs.* while *Miss* was used for an unmarried one. However, thanks to the fight for equality in using titles, *Mrs.* and *Miss* are now replaced by *Ms.*

v) Stereotypes of sex in language: Stereotypes in describing females in English can be found in such words/ phrases as a gorgeous blonde, wives of, devoted to a husband, looking after husband and children.

Trần Xuân Điệp (2002) has provided a general view on sexism in language but there is a shortage of deep investigation into the phenomenon in a specific type of materials. This has urged me to perform the present research.

Sexism can be found in various materials, especially in teaching and learning materials such as textbooks. In Vietnamese English textbooks, to the author's knowledge, there has never been any study of sexism before. However, this study does not deal with sexism in all the Vietnamese English textbooks. Besides, the study can hardly cover a comprehensive analysis of sexism in these English textbooks because sexism in textbooks may be portrayed in other aspects such as images for illustration. Neither does the research deal with sexism at all levels of word, phrase, sentence and discourse. Therefore, this thesis only focuses on linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels in texts used in three current upper secondary school English language textbooks: *Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12* by Hoàng Văn Vân *et al*.

The main aim of the research is to investigate the issue of linguistic sexism in the three textbooks. The aim is specified into specific objectives of the research as follows: (1) to find out the frequencies of linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels exist in the current Vietnamese upper secondary English language textbooks: *Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12* and (2) to clarify the hidden message(s) conveyed via the linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels in these textbooks. The research questions central to my study are: (1) How often does linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels occur in the current Vietnamese upper secondary school English language textbooks: *Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12*? and (2) What message(s) is/ are conveyed via the

occurrence of linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels in these textbooks?

Hopefully, this study may urge Vietnamese educators and textbook designers take linguistic sexism into serious consideration. They will pay more attention to sexism in language in general and in Vietnamese English language textbooks in particular. The findings of the study could also be beneficial in the school environment because it will help raise awareness of learners and teachers on the issue of linguistic sexism and they will try to avoid sexist language in their lessons, language activities as well as language use.

2. Research methodology

This research is a case study on linguistic sexism in the current upper secondary English language textbooks in Vietnam. The textbooks that have been being used at Vietnamese schools now were officially introduced by Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in 2006. For upper secondary level, there are two sets of English textbooks being used along the country: the standard set, which was written by Hoàng Văn Vân *et al.* and published by Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in 2006 - 2007 and the advanced set, which was written by Tú Anh *et al.* and also published by MOET. Of the two sets, the standard one is in much more widespread use than the other.

Three Vietnamese upper secondary English language textbooks of the standard set were selected to serve as the corpus of the study, including *Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12* written by Hoang Van Van *et al.* and published by MOET in 2006 and 2007. For the present study the textbooks would be understood as being the actual books themselves. Thus the materials that were not in the written form, but on a CD, DVD or in a teacher's handbook, were excluded from the research.

This study was carried out by using mixed methods: both quantitative method and qualitative method of content analysis. Content analysis is a method of analysing written, verbal or visual communication messages (Cole, 1988). Content analysis can be used to code a text into categories on a variety of levels: word, phrase, sentence and theme. For example, to investigate a phenomenon in a text or a set of texts, the researcher can use content analysis to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within the text(s). Materials in content analysis can be books, book chapters, essays, interviews, discussions, newspaper headlines and articles, historical documents, speeches, conversations, advertisements, and like that. Following Busch *et al.* (2005), to conduct a content analysis on a text the researcher should take the following steps: (1) decide the phenomenon or topic to investigate in the material(s), (2) code or break down the text into manageable categories on a variety of levels - word, word sense, phrase, sentence, or theme, and (3) examine the text using the content analysis' basic methods: conceptual analysis and/ or relational analysis. Conceptual analysis is employed if the researcher intends to establish the existence and frequency of concepts, most often represented by words of phrases, in a text. For instance, for the purpose of finding evidence of sex discrimination in language in a reading passage, a researcher can determine how many times words such as *mankind, call girl* and *tomboy* appear in the passage. Relational analysis helps to do more than presence by exploring the relationships between the concepts identified.

The framework of content analysis created by Porreca (1984) who investigated how sexism is manifested in ESL textbooks has been most commonly followed in studies on the same topic. In a content analysis of 15 widely-used ESL textbooks, she focused on

the categories of omission (the ratio of females to males) in texts and illustrations, firstness (generally, when two nouns are mentioned, the male will be placed first, for example brothers and sisters), occupational visibility in text and illustrations, frequencies of male nouns to female nouns, female-exclusive masculine generic constructions, and types and frequencies of adjectives for men and women. However, for the purpose to deal with linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels in texts of the standard set of upper-secondary school English language textbook (*Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12*), I adapted the framework with a little change by examining the issue in three categories: in morphology, in semantics and in syntax. This set of the three categories serves as this study's types of linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels and as a starting point for data collection and analysis.

3. Findings and discussion

To achieve the findings for the first research question, the texts of the three textbooks: *Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12* were examined for the use of sexist language at word and phrase levels using content analysis. Each instance of sexist language at word and phrase levels was counted and placed in its appropriate category.

Linguistic sexism in morphology

The representation of linguistic sexism at the morpheme level can be seen in derived words with sex-marked morphemes like *ess*, *ette*, *man* and in words/ phrases with unnecessary elements or gender markers like *woman, women, lady, female, women's, men's*, which are added to mark that something is for one sex. There is a total of 73 times of words of the kind found in the three textbooks. Of the three books, *Tiếng Anh 11* contains the most instances of linguistic sexism in morphology, accounting for more than a half of the total with 41 instances. *Tiếng Anh 10* has the least with 10 times of occurrences. *Tiếng Anh 12* ranks the second with 22 instances. Words naming animals or things that are related to sexist uses were also found in the books. For example, *Tiếng Anh 10* uses the word *tiger* which means the male animal and can be used to refer to all members of a species. However, the word *tigress* is used only for female animals. Another example is the word *walkman* which is not a person, but with the element *man* in the word there seems to be the presence of male beings here. And what is special is that there is no word *walkwoman*. The results of analysis are reported in Table 1.

Table 1. Linguistic sexism in morphology by book

Textbook	Instances (times)	Total
Tiếng Anh 10	air-hostesses (1), firemen (1), hero (1), ambassador (1), fishermen (1), chairman (1), the Browns (1), walkman (1), women professor (1), man-made (1)	10
Tiếng Anh 11	headmaster (1), waitress (1), manned (2), director (1), tiger (1), hero (2), businesswoman (1), policeman (5), Women's World Cup (11), women's football (1), housewives (2), women's karatedo (1), postmen (1), chairman (1), man-made (3), manned (4), mankind (2), newspaperman (1)	41
Tiếng Anh 12	waiter (3), policeman (1), cowboy (1), businessman (2), walkman (1), postman (2), men's football (2), women's football (2), countrymen (2), sportsmanship (1), milkmaid (2), housewives (3)	22
Total	73	

Linguistic sexism in semantics

It can be seen from Table 2 that the frequency of occurrences violating linguistic equality in semantics in the three books is much lower than that in morphology. The total number of instances of this type is only 36 times. The numbers of instances of linguistic sexism in semantics in the three textbooks are slightly different. *Tiếng Anh 10* uses the most sexist terms with the frequency of 15 times. Each of the two other textbooks takes nearly the same number of occurrences: 10 times and 11 times for *Tiếng Anh 11* and *Tiếng Anh 12* respectively. In the three books, there are 8 instances using *Mrs.* to refer to a married woman and 12 instances of using *Miss* to refer to a single woman. And 3 times is the frequency that *Tiếng Anh 10* uses the title *Sir* in salutation although the letter receiver's sex is unknown. *Man* and *men* used as generic nouns to include all human beings are found in all the three books. There is only one word, *honey*, which *Tiếng Anh 10* employs to call a girl with a metaphorical meaning.

In the three textbooks, a total number of 23 instances of generic pronoun uses are found, averaging 8 instances per textbook. *Tiếng Anh 10* and *Tiếng Anh 12* have the highest number of generic pronoun occurrences: 9 times per each textbook. *Tiếng Anh 11* uses generic pronouns only 5 times.

As can be seen from Table 3, 22 out of 23 instances of generic pronouns are masculine. For example, *Tiếng Anh 10* writes '*A student who can do **his** homework in a quiet and comfortable room is in a much better position.*' It is clear that the word *student* in the sentence is used as a common noun. The student here can be anyone regardless of sexuality. It is hard to accept *his* being employed as a possessive adjective of the noun *student*. What will happen if *his* is replaced by *her* in the sentence?

Another portrayal of linguistic sexism in syntax is the arrangement of words naming the two sexes. As can be seen from Table 4, it is clearly shown that in the three books male nouns are placed first very often when

Table 2. Linguistic sexism in semantics by book

Textbook	Instances (times)	Total
Tiếng Anh 10	Mrs. (2), Miss (5), Sir (3), man (2), men (1), the Browns (1), honey (1)	15
Tiếng Anh 11	Mrs. (3), boy (1), man (6)	10
Tiếng Anh 12	Man (1), Mrs. (2), Miss (8)	11
Total	36	

Linguistic sexism in syntax

Linguistic sexism in the textbooks examined comprises two subtypes: generic pronouns and word orders. The use of generic pronouns can be regarded as the evidence for linguistic sexism in syntax. If generic pronouns such as *he*, *his*, *himself* and *him* are used to refer to everyone, this can be seen as the manifestation of linguistic sexism.

female and male nouns/pronouns are in a parallel structure. Some examples are *Mr. Vy and his wife, Mr. Vy and Mrs. Tuyet, his or her, Mr. and Mrs., John and his wife, men and women, Tom and Ann, Mark and Jenny, Keith and Sonia, a boy or a girl*. There is a total of 107 phrases like these, of which male-before-female structures are 82, accounting for 76.6% and female-before-male orders are only 25, accounting for 23.4%.

Table 3. Linguistic sexism in syntax (generic pronoun use) by book

Textbook	Instances (times)	Total
Tiếng Anh 10	he (4), his (4), him (1)	9
Tiếng Anh 11	his (3), he (2)	5
Tiếng Anh 12	her (2), him (3), he (2), his (1)	9
Total	23	

Table 4. Linguistic sexism in syntax (word order use) by book

Textbook		Male preceding female	Female preceding male	Total
Tiếng Anh 10	Instances	Mr. Vy and his wife (1), Mr. Vy and Mrs. Tuyet (2), his/her (2), he/she (2), Mr./Ms (2), him/her (2), Peter and Judy (1), Jack Dawson and Rose Dewitt Bukater (1), myself and my wife (1)	her/him (1), Lan and Minh (1), Hoa and Quan (1), Helen and her husband (1), Daisy and Tony (1)	19 (17.8%)
	Total	14	5	
Tiếng Anh 11	Instances	his or her (1), his or hers (1), him or her (3), his/her (6), he/she (4), he or she (1), him/her (3), husband and wife (1), the host and his wife (1), boys and girls (1), younger boys and girls (2), boys' and girls' (1), Sir/Madam (2), males and females (2), Hung, Thu and Nga (1), Mr. and Mrs. (1), John and his wife (1), men and women (1), Tom and Ann (1), Mark and Jenny (1)	she/he (1), Rosa and Luis (6), Helen and her husband (1), ladies and gentleman (1), my wife and myself (1), mum and dad (1),	46 (42.9%)
	Total	35	11	
Tiếng Anh 12	Instances	men and women (8), men & women (4), a man and a woman (1), his/her (3), Paul and Andrea (1) Paul's and Andrea's (1), a boy and a girl (1), the groom and the bride (3), a man and a woman (1), the groom, the bride and their parents (1), his or her (2), Tuan and Lan (1), him/her (2), Mr. and Mrs. (1), male or female (1), Keith and Sonia (1), a boy or a girl (1)	the bride and the groom (2), a wife or a husband (2), wives and husbands (1), mother and father (1), Lan, Tung (2), Sally and Kavin (1)	42 (39.3%)
	Total	33	9	
Total		82 (76.6%)	25 (23.4%)	107 (100%)

An overall look at linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels in the current Vietnamese upper secondary school English textbooks is illustrated in the table below. It can be seen from the data that the total number of occurrences of linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels is 239. The frequencies of linguistic sexism are greatly different among the textbooks and areas. *Tiếng Anh 11* is the most sexist textbook of all with the percentage of 42.7%. *Tiếng Anh 10* is the least sexist one with the percentage of 22.2%, which is about

half of *Tiếng Anh 11*. *Tiếng Anh 12* comprises a little more than one third of the total instances with 35.1%. Regarding areas, linguistic sexism in syntax is the most common and accounted for more than half of the sum of linguistic sexism instances (54.4%). Linguistic sexism in morphology ranks the second with the percentage of 30.5%. The least common area of linguistic sexism in the three textbooks is in semantics, which makes up the percentage of 15.1%, only about half of the occurrences in morphology.

*'That's one small step for **man**, one giant leap for **mankind'*** (*Tiếng Anh 11*, p.174)**,** and *'This historical event has proved that step by step **man** can conquer outer space'* (*Tiếng Anh 11*, p. 187).

Grammatically, *man and most animals* can be understood as *human beings and most animals* but it is hard to neglect the invisibility of women in the sentence above. May there be a feeling that women are not human beings? If considering linguistic sexism, how ridiculous it would be when we could imagine

Table 5. Linguistic sexism by book and category

Textbook	In morphology	In semantics	In syntax	Total
Tiếng Anh 10	10	15	28	53 (22.2%)
Tiếng Anh 11	41	10	51	102 (42.7%)
Tiếng Anh 12	22	11	51	84 (35.1%)
Total	73 (30.5%)	36 (15.1%)	130 (54.4%)	239 (100%)

To answer the second research question, the researcher used qualitative content analysis to examine how the status of the two sexes is reflected via linguistic sexism in the three textbooks. Here are the findings.

Women are exclusive and men are inclusive

The message that women are exclusive from human beings and men are inclusive of all people can be seen through the usage of language in which male words are representatives for both sexes. Generic nouns and pronouns employed in the textbooks can show this. It was found in the three textbooks that the word *man* is many times used as a representative for all people. Some typical examples are *'**Man** and most animals need a constant supply of water to live'* (*Tiếng Anh 10*, p.105)**,** *'**Man** is constantly doing harm to the environment'* (*Tiếng Anh 10*, p.106), *'The people of the United States share with the people of the Soviet Union their satisfaction for the safe flight of the astronaut in **man's** first venture into space'* (*Tiếng Anh 11*, p.167)**,**

a sentence saying: *Man is a mammal and he feeds his young with his own milk*. The three examples above taken from *Tiếng Anh 11* are about the achievement of bringing human into space. However, the usage of *man* as a generic noun makes people think that this success is of male human beings only and that women are not involved in the event, so they seem to be excluded. This book also uses the saying *'All work and no play makes Jack a dull **boy'*** (p.155) to imply that children need playing. The words *Jack* and *boy*, however, may give a feeling that all children are boys and that girls are not children and they may need no playing.

When male pronouns like *he, him, his and himself* are used, they are signals of including men and excluding women. The following examples can illustrate the point: *'**The TV viewer** needs to do nothing. **He** doesn't even use **his** legs. **He** makes no choices. **He** is completely passive and has everything presented to **him'*** (*Tiếng Anh 10*,

p.91), '*A student who can do **his** homework in a quiet and comfortable room is in a much better position than **a student** who does **his** homework in a small noisy room*' (*Tiếng Anh 10*, p.72), '*What did **an old farmer** say about the effect of the knowledge the young people brought home? What exactly did **he** tell **his** grandchildren?*' (*Tiếng Anh 10*, p.84), '*A person who is concerned only with **his** own interests and feelings cannot be a true friend*' (*Tiếng Anh 11*, p.13), '*Why does **the writer** admire **his** uncle?*' (*Tiếng Anh 11*, p.148), and '*If **someone** does phone, ask **him** to call back, or offer to call **him** when dinner's over*' (*Tiếng Anh 12*, p.35).

Looking at all of the sentences above, we may think that the world is all male human beings because there is no particular evidence from the texts of the three textbooks where the sentences appear that *the TV viewer, the student, the old farmer, the person, the writer* and *the someone* in the sentences mentioned are male.

The invisibility of women is also reflected in the vocabulary used in the textbooks such as *fishermen, walkman, fireman, man-made, countryman, manned* and *sportsmanship*. These words are used to mean all people of both sexes or being related to human beings. This shows the high frequency of the presence of men and makes women out from the world because there are no words like *fisherwomen, walkwoman, firewoman, woman-made, womaned* and *sportwomanship* or suppose if there any, they would not have the same connotations with the ones containing *man* elements.

Men are superior and women are secondary

The idea that men are superior and women are secondary is conveyed through the firstness and markedness of word phrases ultilised in the three textbooks. Looking at the order of feminine and masculine pronouns, the researcher realised only two instances with

female-before-male orders: *her/him* and *she/he*. The exceeding number of male-before-female orders is 32: *his/her, he/she, him/her, his or her, his or hers, him or her, his/her, he/she, he or she*. In terms of common nouns, there are 7 orders with female firstness: *ladies and gentleman, mum and dad, the bride and the groom, a wife or a husband, wives and husbands, mother and father* while the number of male firstness is 30. The most common pairs of words with male firstness used in the three textbooks are *husband and wife, the host and his wife, boys and girls, younger boys and girls, males and females, men and wome, the groom and the bride, male or female, a boy or a girl*. Proper nouns of males also come first very often in the textbooks: *Peter and Judy, Jack Dawson and Rose Dewitt Bukater, Hung, Thu and Nga, Tom and Ann, Mark and Jenny, Paul and Andrea, Paul's and Andrea's, Tuan and Lan, Keith and Sonia*. Additionally, some other word orders used in the textbooks can convey something. For instance, in a passage about a young couple's party, the sentence '***The host and his wife** moved around to make sure that everyone was having a good time*' (*Tiếng Anh 11*, p.44) may give a sense of the husband, the male host, is important and he is the real host of the party whereas the wife is not the host of the party and she is simply the male host's wife though they are a couple and the party is of them both.

Another manifestation of men's first place and women's second place is the employment of markedness for females. It seems that our language is men's because many words are for both sexes but they are prior used for men. For example, the three textbooks use the phrases like *World Cup* and *professor* repeatedly to imply they are *Men's World Cup* and *male professor*. When hearing the word *World Cup*, people might think about *Men's World Cup* immediately as if it belonged to men naturally, so when expressing *World Cup for women*,

people must mark it by adding *Women's* before the word to form *Women's World Cup*. Similarly, *professor* is used to refer to male so frequently that *woman* or *female* must be added to mark that a professor is not a male person but a female one.

Women are dependent and men are independent

The derivation of female words from male ones and the usage of titles in the textbooks evidently say that women are dependent and men are independent. The derived words or the original words from which the words derived used in the textbooks are *air-hostesses, hero, headmaster, waitress* and *ambassador*. It is ruled that *air-hostess* is formed by turning from *er* in *air-hoster* into *ess, heroin* from *hero, headmistress* from *headmaster, waitress* from *waiter* and *ambassadress* from *ambassador*. This way of forming words might show that men are the norm and never change but women are the variant and always change depending on men.

Beside sexist derived words, some titles employed in the three textbooks appear to support the point that women are dependent and men are independent. It is easy to see such titles as *Mr. Vy, Mr. Lam, Mr. Ha, Mr. King, Mr. Lee, Mrs. Tuyet, Mrs. Lien, Mrs. Smith, Miss Phuong, Miss June, Miss Moon, Miss White, Mr. Lee* in the textbooks. These instances of using titles indicate that women are somehow different from men because *Mrs.* is used to refer to a married woman and *Miss* to a single woman. That means women use titles to identify their marital status while men use the same title, *Mr.*, regardless of marital status. From the analysis, it is suggested that women's titles are dependent on their marital status while men's are not. When *Mr. and Mrs.* plus a proper name are placed together, they become a phrase addressing a married couple. For example, the phrases *Mr. and Mrs. Smith* in the sentences '***Mr. and Mrs. Smith** looked forward to meeting their children soon'* (*Tiếng*

Anh 11, p.75) and '***Mr. and Mrs. Smith** invited us to dinner'* (*Tiếng Anh 12*, p.95) describe a rule of naming which requires a wife to take her husband's name after marriage. This use of titles also illustrates for women's dependence on men.

4. Conclusion

First of all, there is evidence that linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels exists in all the three textbooks. This phenomenon occurs rather often in all of the three categories investigated: morphology, semantics and syntax. This shows that little attention was paid to linguistic sexism during the process of writing the books because many instances of linguistic sexism could have been avoided easily if the textbook writers had been really interested or always alert. Moreover, it is remarkable that the hidden messages conveyed via linguistic sexism at word and phrase levels in the books are much more against women than men. The messages found in the study also support the point that women's status in language has not been equal to men's yet although they are said to be equal to men in every field. Similar inferences could be made to their status in society because Fromkin and Rodman (1993) (cited in Bahiyah et al., 2008) assert that 'language reflects sexism in the society' (p.306).

The results of the current study also suggest that elimination of sexism in textbooks is of great importance. Porreca (1984) claims that the consequences of textbook bias may be serious for their users; they must be infinitely more so for younger ESL learners, whose limited experience gives them little basis for questioning what they read and who generally tend to trust the printed word more than adults do. However, the move to eliminate linguistic sexism not only requires linguistic reforms but also significant changes in the perception of what is to be masculine and feminine in all spheres of the society.

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KÌ THỊ GIỚI TÍNH VỀ NGÔN NGỮ TRONG SÁCH GIÁO KHOA TIẾNG ANH TRUNG HỌC PHỔ THÔNG HIỆN HÀNH: *TIẾNG ANH 10, TIẾNG ANH 11* VÀ *TIẾNG ANH 12*

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này đề cập đến vấn đề kì thị giới tính về mặt ngôn ngữ trong sách giáo khoa tiếng Anh THPT hiện hành: *Tiếng Anh 10, Tiếng Anh 11* và *Tiếng Anh 12,* nhằm tìm ra tần suất mà kì thị giới tính về ngôn ngữ xuất hiện trong các sách giáo khoa đã nêu, đồng thời hé mở những thông điệp ẩn giấu được truyền tải qua sự kì thị giới tính về ngôn ngữ. Kết quả nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng kì thị giới tính về ngôn ngữ xuất hiện khá thường xuyên trong các sách này và qua đó thông điệp về vị thế thấp hơn của phụ nữ đã hé lộ.

Từ khóa: kì thị giới tính về ngôn ngữ, sách giáo khoa, mức độ thường xuyên, thông điệp ẩn giấu

APPENDICES: DATA COLLECTION SHEETS

Sheet 1. Distribution of linguistic sexism in *Tiếng Anh 10*

Categories of linguistic sexism	Instances (times)	Page	Total (and notes)
In morphology	air-hostesses (1) firemen (1) fisherman (1) woman professor (1) chairman (1) man-made (satellite) (1) director (1) walkman (1) hero (1), ambassador (1)	17 18 20 33 41 61 71 126 147	10 (*walkman*: not a person but still shows women's invisibility with morpheme *man*)
In semantics	Mrs. Tuyet (1) Miss Phuong (1) Miss Phuong (1) Mrs. (1), Miss (1) (Dear) Sir (1) honey (1) (Dear) Sir (1) Miss June (1), Miss Moon (1) The Browns (1) (Dear) Sir (1) man (1): man and most animals need a constant supply of water to live. man (1): man is constantly doing harm to the environment. men (1): Quoc Tu Giam educated thousands of talented men for the country.	13 23 24 28 42 48 51 60 71 92 105 106 167	15 (*Dear Sir*: used though letter receiver's sex is unknown; *honey*: a boy uses to call a girl)
In syntax	his (2): A student who can do his homework in a quiet and comfortable room is in a much better position than a student who does his homework in a small noisy room with the TV on. he (1), his (1): What did an old farmer say about the effect of the knowledge the young people brought home? What exactly did he tell his grandchildren? he (3), his (1), him (1): The TV viewer needs to do nothing. He doesn't even use his legs. He makes no choices. He is completely passive and had everything presented to him. Mr. Vy and his wife (1), Mr. Vy and Mrs. Tuyet (2) his/her (1), he/she (1) Mr./Ms (1) Mr./Ms (1), him/her (1) Helen and her husband (1) him/her (1) Lan & Minh (1), Hoa & Quan (1) Peter and Judy (1) Daisy and Tony (1) her/him (1) his/her (1) Jack Dawson & Rose Dewitt Bukater (1) Myself and my wife (1) he/she (1)	72 84 91 14 35 37 38 39 50 80 102 109 115 119 137 139 154	28 (*an old farmer*: not sure whether this person is female or male but pronoun *he* is used)
Total			53

Sheet 2. Distribution of linguistic sexism in *Tiếng Anh 11*

Categories of linguistic sexism	Instances (times)	Page	Total (and notes)
In morphology	businesswoman (1)	27	41 (*World Cup* used many times to mean Men's Football World Cup; a lot of sexist terms are used in a single unit, unit 15 - grade 11)
	headmaster (1)	59	
	policeman (3)	75	
	Women's World Cup (4), World Cup (1)	77	
	Women's football (1), World Cup (1), Women's World Cup (7)	78	
	housewives (1)	95	
	housewives (1)	99	
	director (1)	107	
	waitress (1)	110	
	women's karatedo (1)	137	
	postman (1)	149	
	tiger (1)	150	
	policeman (1)	153	
	policeman (1)	162	
	hero (1)	167	
	hero (1)	168	
	manned (3)	170	
	chairman (1), mankind (1)	174	
	man-made (1)	178	
	man-made (2)	183	
	manned (spaceship) (1), mankind (1)	187	
	newspaperman (1)	189	
In semantics	Mrs. Lien (1)	67	10 (*Jack* and *boy*: representative not for boys only but also all children; *put a man on the moon*: women are excluded from the job)
	Mrs. White (1)	74	
	Mrs. Smith (1)	75	
	man (1): Yuri Gararin was the first man who flew into space.	132	
	boy (1): All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.	155	
	man (1): man's first adventure	167	
	man (1): US President Kennedy asked the nation to put a man on the moon.	173	
	man (1): That's one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind.	174	
	man (2): man in space, man can conquer outer space	187	
In syntax	his (1): A person who is concerned only with his own interests and feelings cannot be a true friend.	13	51 (many male-before-female pairs of words but some female-before-male pairs like *ladies and gentleman, my wife and myself, mum and dad*)
	His or her (1)	14	
	His or hers (1), she/he (1), him or her (1)	16	
	His/her (3), he/she (3), he or she (1), him/her (2), him or her (1), Lan and Long (1)	17	
	Him or her (2), his/her (2)	19	
	Him/her (1)	28	
	Rosa and Luis (4), husband and wife (1)	33	
	Rosa and Luis (2)	34	
	Helen and her husband (1)	39	
	The host and his wife (1)	44	
	(younger) boys and girls (2)	47	
	Boys' and girls' clubs (1), boys and girls (1)	48	
	Sir/Madam (1)	52	
	Males and females (2)	62	
	Hung, Thu and Nga (1)	67	

	He/she (1)	69	
	(Dear) Sir/Madam (1)	72	
	John and his wife (1)	75	
	Ladies and gentlemen (1), my wife and myself (1)	108	
	his (2), he (2): Why does the writer admire his uncle? How did he collect his fish? Where does he collect stamp?	148	
	Mum and dad (1)	149	
	Men and women (1)	155	
	Tom and Ann (1)	161	
	Her/him (1), Mark and Jenny (1)	177	
	His/her (1)	184	
Total			102

Sheet 3. Distribution of linguistic sexism in *Tiếng Anh 12*

Categories of linguistic sexism	Instances (times)	Page	Total (and notes)
In morphology	waiter (1)	31	22 (*cowboy*: used for men and both sexes but *cowgirl* for women only and its synonym is *female cowboy*)
	waiter (1)	32	
	waiter (1)	66	
	policeman (1)	66	
	cowboy (1)	71	
	businessman (1), walkman (1)	99	
	postman (1)	136	
	men's football (team) (1), women's football (team) (1), countrymen (1)	139	
	countrymen (1) men's football (team) (1), women's football (team) (1), sportsmanship (1)	140	
	milkmaid (1)	142	
	milkmaid (1)	143	
	postman (1)	150	
	businessman (1)	154	
	housewife (3)	166	
In semantics	Miss White (2)	43	11 (no need to use *a Swiss man*, *a Swiss* or *a Swiss person* is better)
	Mrs. Smith (1)	95	
	Mrs. Brown (1)	70	
	man (1): The initiative for the Read Cross came from a Swiss man called Jean Henri Dunant.	153	
		170	
	Miss Roke (4), Miss Robert (2)	178	

In syntax	her (2): If we are at a noisy party and see a friend come in the door about 20 metres away, we might raise our hand and wave to her as a signal that we see her.	31	51 (*he*: used to refer to the old dog, a baby; *choosing a wife or a husband* shows that the agent of the action as a male is thought first so the female-before-male order here needs looking at the deep structure but not the surface structure)
	him (2): If someone does phone, ask him to call back, or offer to call him when dinner's over.	35	
	him (1): The most impressive of them is the old dog. The journey was the most difficult for him.	124	
	he (2), his (1): What a lovely baby! He certainly… his father, doesn't he?	161	
	men and women (4)	14	
	his/her (2)	15	
	Paul and Andra (2)	17	
	a boy and a girl (1), the bride and the groom (1), (…when choosing) a wife or a husband (1), wives and husbands (1), (…choosing) a wife or a husband (1), a man and a woman (2)	21	
		22	
	the bride and the groom (1)	24	
	the groom and the bride (3), the groom, the bride and their parents (1)	25	
	his or her (2)	31	
	his or her (1)	32	
	mother and father (1)	36	
	Tuan and Lan (1), Lan, Tung (2)	39	
	him/her (1)	43	
	Mr. and Mrs (1)	95	
	him/her (2)	123	
	male or female (2)	163	
	men and women (2)	164	
	men & woman (4)	169	
	Sally and Kevin (1), Keith and Sonia (1)	171	
	(Is the baby) a boy or a girl? (1)	181	
Total			84