

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND GENDER  
WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE ZAMBIAN MEDIA**

by  
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THESIS  
2008


**A Thesis Submitted to the University of Zambia in Fulfilment of the  
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Linguistics**

**University of Zambia  
2008**



## DECLARATION

I, Gift Kaira, declare that this Thesis represents my own work and that it has never been submitted for a degree at this or any other University.

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027.630

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## APPROVAL

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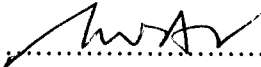
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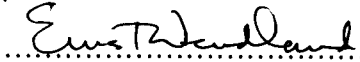
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## ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between language and gender in the Zambian media. The study focussed on the media because the media plays a crucial role in the development of language. The study was undertaken through a two-fold operation – qualitative and quantitative analysis of media items.

The study was based on five daily newspapers, four radio stations and one television station. Over a period of three months, thirty newspapers were procured and thirty one-hour transmissions from the electronic media were recorded. Results displayed notable discrepancies between male and female frequencies in both the print and electronic media.

The results presented in this document are very significant as they suggest that even several years after the adoption of the National Gender Policy, Zambian society, through the media, still uses the language to the distinct advantage of men.

This study contributes to knowledge in the field of language and gender, especially language use in the media and can be followed up by similar studies in other types of media such as language use in Government documents, correspondences, religious sermons, posters and billboards.

*To my children Towela, Emmanuel, Esther and Joshua  
Fides and Emmanuel  
My wife Jestina  
My father Mr J.C. Kaira and in memory of my mother Mrs Fides Muwowo Kaira.*

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACCRONYMS

BAM	Biased Against Men
BAW	Biased Against Women
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
FAWEZA	Forum for African Women Education in Zambia
GB	Gender-Biased
GF	Gender-Fair
MISA	Media Institute of Southern Africa
NCTE	National Council of Teachers of English
NGOCC	Non Governmental Organisation Coordinating Committee
NGP	National Gender Policy
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community*
YWCA	Young Women's Christian Association
ZNBC	Zambia National Broadcasting Corporation

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 General

This Chapter introduces study of the relationship between the English language and gender in the Zambian media. It opens with the background of the study and proceeds with the presentation of the problem under investigation. Thereafter, the rationale of the study, the purpose of the study and the objectives of the study are presented. The Chapter looks at the research questions with regard to these objectives. In the section that follows, the Chapter presents the methodological framework followed by the theoretical and conceptual framework. After discussing the scope of the study, the Chapter concludes with the structure of the thesis.

### 1.1 Background

Among the most notable practices in nearly all societies today is the allocation of roles on the basis of one either being male or female. This phenomenon is referred to as gender. As a social concept about rights of an individual, gender is viewed in terms of equality as well as fair representation of men and women. Dary (2004) describes gender as the social and cultural characteristics that society considers proper for men and women.

The National Gender Policy (NGP) defines gender as an analytical concept that stresses the roles and responsibilities and rights of women in relation to those of men.

The NGP is a policy document formulated to help Government attain full and equal participation of women and men at all levels of national development. In the media sector, it aims to redress gender imbalances by discouraging stereotyped portrayal of men and women.

Society's classification of men and women on the basis of expected roles is reflected in the different ways in which men and women use language as well as in the internal structure of language itself. Specifically, these roles are attested through the use of such linguistic features such as idioms, proverbs, songs and folktales.

According to Leech (1968), the relationship between language and gender emanates from the view that language is part of culture and that culture is predominantly shaped by men. This being the case, it is men who are at the centre of language construction, excluding women to the extent that ideas or input of women could not penetrate language. Schulz (1990) suggests that language was created by men because most cultures were created by men and these have been handed over to lower generations. This is the case because language, as Vigotsky (1962) observes, alongside someone's sociocultural experience, plays a vital role in shaping up thought. This is very cardinal to the notion of gender. In these contexts, the notion of gender is socially constructed and learnt. Traditionally, it is about how males and females are expected to behave. First among these is the family where gender differences are openly articulated by members who use language to assign different roles to girls and boys or males and females. Secondly, language is used in the wider community around us where men and women are expected to perform different roles. Above all, language serves the community through its use in the media to

communicate national and other issues to the people who are in contact with the media. Eysenck and Nias (1978) define the media as that which includes newspapers, magazines and advertising. Television and radio broadcasting are also part of the media.

The media, apart from being a socialising agent, are the leading information disseminators through language. The language used in the media is reflective of the language used in the society, which in turn is reflective of how society apportions roles and responsibility to men and women. The media constitute a credible form of communication between people and groups of people at different levels – between the government and the people, between business houses and their clientele and also between individuals and the rest of the nation. This is done on television, radio and in newspapers by way of advertisements, press statements, radio messages, or interviews. Musicians too communicate to their audience when their songs are played by media houses, in a language which can be gender-neutral or gender-biased.

As Devett and Sterenly (1938) point out, ideas that are expressed through language only represent the thoughts, beliefs, desires and attitudes of the speaker or writer. In this regard, whatever is expressed through language in the Zambian media is true of the Zambian society. While the observation that gender is reflected in language in general is widely acknowledged, the extent to which this applies to language in the media in Zambia has not been clearly established or determined. Therefore, the study seeks to establish the extent to which there is a relationship between language and gender in the English language as used in the media in Zambia.

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Although extensive research into the relationship between the English language and gender has been conducted in many countries worldwide, no such studies, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, have been done in Zambia yet. Research focussing on the relationship between language and gender in the media has been carried out in the United States, Britain, Canada and some African countries, where it has been established that the use of the English language by most media houses has gender implications.

The study of language and gender in relation to the media remains one area of inquiry that has not been given attention by researchers in Zambia even though the role played by the media in the Zambian society cannot be underestimated. Although large amounts of literature exist on the topic, no known research of this nature has been carried out so far, apart from a survey into gender portrayals carried out in 2003 which dwelt more on gender and the media, without special attention to language use. Therefore, there has not been any systematic study to determine the extent to which the English language as used in the Zambian media has gender implications. Stated as a question, the problem under investigation is: Does the English language as used in the Zambian media have gender implications or is there a relationship between language use and gender in Zambian media in English?

### 1.3 Rationale

The importance of this study is for us to determine whether or not the findings of the investigation will be generalised as being true of the Zambian society since the expectation is that language used in the media reflects what is obtaining in the society. The choice of the media in preference to other modes of communication was necessitated by the fact that, apart from every day face-to-face interpersonal conversation, the media are the leading form of communication in Zambia today. Most people, whether in rural or urban settings, are in contact with it. In places where newspapers are not accessible, at least radio transmission is received. The study of language and gender in relation to the media is one area that has not received attention from linguists in Zambia, yet the role played by the media cannot be underestimated. So far, available literature on the subject is only about the relationship between language and gender in foreign media like in the United States and Britain. For this reason, although the media play a central part in shaping the minds of its followers, there is no formal evidence that on the basis of the type of language used the media can be used as a conveyor belt of gender imbalance. In Zambia, very little has been done in terms of research to determine the role of language in promoting gender balance in the country.

This study sought to investigate this area of language in society in order to provide information on the gender dimension of language used in the media. The study is particularly relevant in that it will constitute an evaluative study of the National Gender Policy to establish the extent to which the policy is being implemented with regard to the use of gender-fair language. The study will also facilitate the evaluation

of gender sensitisation initiatives being undertaken by both government and non-governmental organisations.

This study is hence designed to fill this information gap. In addition, since most of the media houses use language in a similar way, the study of these can easily be extended to others and, in this way, will contribute to the scanty literature available on how language reflects gender in Zambia. It is further hoped that this study will attract human rights activists, in particular gender-sensitive organisations, which will develop ways of identifying linguistic features that are gender-neutral in the media in order to promote equality between women and men.

#### **1.4 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to establish the nature of the relationship between language and gender in the Zambian media with specific reference to usage of the English language.

#### **1.5 Objectives of the Study**

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- (i) To identify the most common linguistic expressions used by the media to refer to men and women.
- (ii) To classify the linguistic expressions as either gender-fair (GF) or gender-biased (GB)
- (iii) To relate both the GF and the GB to the gender of the referent.

- (iv) To relate both the GF and the GB to the gender of the communicator of the story or the message source.

## **1.6 Research Questions**

To address the four objectives stated in the previous section, four corresponding research questions were formulated as listed below:

- (i) Are there any specific linguistic expressions used by the media to refer to men and women?
- (ii) Can these linguistic expressions be classified as gender-fair (GF) or gender-biased (GB)?
- (iii) Can the GF and the GB expressions be related to the gender of the referent?
- (iv) Can the GF and the GB be related to the gender of the source of the message?

## **1.7 Methodological Framework**

The study employed a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches to arrive at a thorough analysis of the data collected. The sample for the study was drawn from both print and electronic media where daily newspapers and radio and television programmes were systematically selected during a period of three months.

Analysis of data began almost immediately after the commencement of data collection. This entailed undertaking a linguistic analysis of gendered language in all

articles in English from the print media. It further involved transcription of all recordings from radio and television broadcasts and carrying out a similar analysis of messages expressed in the English language.

## **1.8 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework**

The framework upon which the study was based was one influencing language and gender as has been established from past research. The study was designed to find out if any relationship existed between language and gender in the way the English language is used in the Zambian media. In this part of the study, linguistic and sociolinguistic concepts that are relevant to the study are going to be discussed.

### **1.8.1 Gender**

Gender is a critical concept that stresses the roles of women in relation to those of men. Kalabula et al (2001) look at gender as a notion with cultural and psychological connotations which form the basis of socio-cultural relationships between males and females. It is also viewed in terms of equality and the representation of men vis-à-vis women with specific emphasis on women.

Chigunta and Nambeye (2004) define gender as differences between men and women that are not inborn or biological but those that are socially determined. According to this definition, society expects men and women to behave in certain ways and these expectations have gained root in the minds of people. For instance, while men are expected to be hunters, women must stay at home to look after children and prepare meals for their families. Similarly, while men are expected to be

physically strong, society generally believes that women are weak and must generally submit to men. In the same vein, Kalabula et al. (ibid) state that there is a tendency to look at the roles attributed to women by society as inferior to those of men.

Society has attributed certain roles and responsibilities to females and others to males but this changes from one culture to another and from time to time. In Trudgill's opinion (1997), this is what makes men different from women, so language simply reflects this fact.

For Lowe-Morne (2002) gender describes differences that are socially constructed for men and women and these are liable to change with time and may be different from one society to another. She further observes that one's gender identity determines how one is perceived and is expected to behave as male or female.

The terms 'gender' and 'sex' are sometimes used interchangeably but there is a clear-cut demarcation in that 'gender' is cultural and is subjective whereas 'sex' is biological and its roles cannot be changed. The term 'gender' is also a linguistic term referring to masculine-feminine-neuter in German and also refers to the concept of masculine-feminine in French (Pettersson, 1988). On the other hand, sex has to do with differences between men and women and these are biological (Lowe-Morne, 2002), whereas gender is culturally constructed, and its attributes are not necessarily permanent but can change depending on time and society. Lowe-Morne (ibid) cites of biological differences between men and women such as childbearing and breastfeeding as pertaining to sex, and non-permanent roles like tree-cutting and

cooking as pertaining to gender. She emphasises that gender is not synonymous to women as many people are made to believe, but that it is also about men.

### **1.8.2 Language**

Hornby (2005) defines language as a system of communication in speech and writing, that is used by people of a particular country, but it also refers to the use of sounds and words in general by humans to enhance communication. Language is a system of words, symbols or sounds used to communicate thoughts or feelings.

Language, in the context of this study, refers to the English language as used in Zambian newspapers and on radio and television stations to communicate a message to readers, listeners or viewers.

Language, as stated by Giglioli (ed) (1972), is an integral part of culture and should not be considered in isolation but as a system that has a social function to fulfil.

### **1.8.3 Media**

The media encompass all modes of transmitting information and entertainment to large numbers of people. These are radio, television and newspapers (Hornby, 2005).

The media are becoming more and more dominant in the dissemination of information. Similarly, Manfred (1976) and Baran (2004) affirm that the media include, in general terms, radio, television, books, magazines, newspapers movies and recorded sounds which are used to disseminate information to the people.

#### **1.8.4 Sexism**

Sexism refers to usage of language to treat men or women, especially women, unfairly on the basis of their sex. Sexism in language is the use of language that glorifies men and treats women as second class beings. As Ansary and Babaii (2002) suggest, sexism also refers to the negative way women's roles and contributions are portrayed in a discourse.

These sexist attitudes are conveyed through language. All language that helps to emphasise male superiority and female inferiority is sexist. Klemens (2001) defines sexist language as the use of words that contain stereotyped gender roles or customised gender assumptions.

This study, though comprehensive and multifarious, is oriented towards a central task whose general objective is to establish the relationship between language usage and gender, with regard to male-female usage and possible bias.

#### **1.9 Scope of the Study**

The scope of this study is confined to the relationship between language and gender in the Zambian media in English, being the country's official language. The study investigated linguistic expressions in selected parts of the media and sidelined all data that was not sampled or which fell outside the sampling frame. Furthermore, the study was not extended to themes such as gender stereotyping and pictorial representations of men and women because these were not considered linguistic in nature.

It was not the goal of the study to dwell on technicalities of the media nor on intricacies of gender but rather to show the relationship between the two variables, though some theories about gender development will be discussed to give the reader some basic notions about the subject.

### **1.10 Structure of the Thesis**

This thesis comprises six chapters. The first chapter provides a background to the study by presenting the problem that is to be investigated and further gives the statement, the rationale, the purpose and objectives of the study. The chapter also outlines the specific research questions that were addressed during the investigation as well as the methodological framework used in the study. In addition, it deals with the theoretical framework and ends with the scope of the study.

The second chapter basically dwells on conceptual background and exemplifies several factors about the media in Zambia, followed by theories of gender development, factors of gender development as well as issues in language and gender. The chapter further discusses biases in language and exemplifies some of the biases that filtered into the linguistic expressions under investigation.

The third chapter is the review of literature that is related to the problem under investigation.

A full description of the methodology used in the investigation is presented in Chapter Four. This includes methods of data collection, sampling techniques and data analysis. The chapter also gives an outline of the limitations of the study.

Chapter Five is a presentation of results of the investigation. It begins with findings of the qualitative and quantitative study of media language and proceeds with findings of the classification of linguistic expressions in order to determine whether they are gender-fair or gender-biased and how they relate to the gender of the referent. The chapter also presents results of the investigation to relate the linguistic expressions to the gender of the message source.

The last chapter discusses all the findings in Chapter Five, following the data analysis. Apart from the discussion, the chapter draws conclusions and discusses the implications of the findings. In the final analysis, the Chapter makes some recommendations to all stakeholders, based on the findings regarding the use of language in the media.

The last chapter is followed by an appendix which is divided into 9 parts. The appendix for this study is long because it consists of all the relevant data drawn from the media for 90 days. It was found necessary to include all the data because the nature of the study demanded that the reader be given an opportunity to verify the information where necessary.

## **1.11 Summary**

The aim of this first chapter was to introduce the study of the relationship between the English language and gender bias in the Zambian media. After presenting the problem under investigation, the chapter highlighted various aspects, among them, the rationale, objectives of the study and the methodological framework. The chapter then surveyed the theoretical and conceptual framework before stating the scope of the study and ending with a brief description of the structure of the thesis.

In the next chapter we shall concentrate on the conceptual background, where we shall discuss several factors related to the media in Zambia. We shall also refer to theories and factors of gender development, language and gender, and gender biases in language.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND: THE MEDIA IN ZAMBIA, GENDER DEVELOPMENT AND LANGUAGE AND GENDER**

#### **2.0 General**

The previous chapter introduced the study by overviewing the relationship between language and gender in the media, highlighting various aspects of the study. The present chapter aims to highlight, in analytical terms, some theoretical concepts as presented by various scholars and linguists in the area of language and gender. For us to fully understand the subject we need to explore theories surrounding gender development. However, before a comprehensive account is given, we shall first trace the history of the media in Zambia

#### **2.1 The Media in Zambia**

As advocated by Kee (2005), the media constitute one of the primary institutions that help shape the world. The need for the media in Zambia began in the early 1900 when white settlers came to occupy the country. The settlers needed to communicate among themselves and thus established newspaper companies to serve the interests of the colonial government, particularly so along the line of rail. Despite this, they could not exclude the Africans completely from this facility. According to the National Media Policy (1999), the concept of broadcasting came up during the Second World War (1939-1945) for people to get information about events during

the war period (Mytton, 1978). In view of this, in 1960, the present day Zambia Daily Mail was established under the name 'African Mail' to serve the interests of the indigenous Africans. In 1961, the London Rhodesia Company set up a television station in Kitwe to serve the European community in the country and this was taken over by the Zambian government immediately after independence in 1964. Similarly, the native radio station which had been set up for the Africans by the colonialists became the nation's only radio station upon independence. This is the present day Zambian National Broadcasting Corporation, commonly known as ZNBC. During the colonial period, traces of racism were noted as the white settlers had their own media facilities or opted to tune in to stations abroad such the British Broadcasting Corporation or South African Broadcasting Corporation. At this stage, the only language policy in place was concerned with the languages that would be used for transmission. There was no evidence of any policy on language and gender.

The history of the media in Zambia took a new turn in the early 1990's when, in addition to the state newspapers and radio and television stations, a number of private media institutions emerged to support government effort in the dissemination of information. This saw the birth of institutions like the Post and, later in the decade, Radio Christian Voice, among others.

Today, the media in Zambia comprise many public and private radio and television stations that aim at reporting events, educating and entertaining members of the general public. In addition, there exist institutions that aim to train media personnel such as the University of Zambia, Evelyn Hone College, and the Zambia National Institute of Mass Communication.

There exists no official language policy regarding gender for the media today but the National Media Policy (1999) encourages media houses to be gender sensitive as they report about men and women in the media. More importantly, it urges them to be gender sensitive in the recruitment of employees in order to avoid a media team that comprises men or women only, as this might result in unfair portrayal of females or males. Despite this, as is the case in most countries in the world today, women in Southern Africa, of which Zambia is part, are not only under-represented, but they are also portrayed as victims of gender violence or as objects of sex, as reported by the Gender Links (2004). While the media are quick to challenge society on matters of general concern such as racism, corruption, educational standards, declining economies and violation of human rights, rarely does one hear them challenging their own failures such as sexism in their use of language. This is according to Mtintso (2001), who deplores the fact that the media have been raised so far in connection with sexism. However, Lowe-Morna ed. (2001) admits the fact that women do not only appear in a limited number of roles in the media but that they are also often out of coverage. These assertions by media sources and by women themselves bring us face to face with a survey conducted by MISA in 2000, which revealed that women constituted an average of only 17% of sources that provided news in the twelve Southern African countries where the research was conducted (Sikazwe and Chisala, 2005).

The women of Zambia, through women's organisations like the National Women's Lobby Group, The Forum for African Women Education in Zambia (FAWEZA), Women for Change and Non Governmental Organisation Coordinating Committee

(NGOCC) have formally raised their concerns about the stereotypical portrayal of women in the press and the lack of response to gender concerns in the 1996 Information Media Policy. They further demanded an equal representation of women in the media and decision making positions in order to expedite a change of attitude. Change of attitude would in turn facilitate a reduction of negative portrayal of women as well as gender imbalances.

## **2.2 Theories of Gender Development**

The opinion that society holds of women or men is deep-rooted in the Social Cognitive Theory of Gender Development and Differentiation (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). It comprises several different but interwoven theories and dwells on biological factors that render it possible for society to categorise male and female infants into adult males and females. Once this concept has been concretised in the individual, it shapes up the life of the individual and will determine how the individual will perceive themselves and how they will be perceived by others in society.

These theories have, over the years, attempted to clarify gender development in different ways. Although some of these put emphasis on the fact that gender development is confined to early childhood, according to social cognitive theory, it is a life long process. Some gender differences as seen above can be biologically motivated but most of the biases have to do with the cultural aspect. This is not a new observation because many have noted this before. As observed by Leech (1968), gender bias in language arises as a result of sexism in the society in which the

language operates as a tool of communication and this prompts us to deal with language from the cultural or sociological angle, where we take a look at factors of gender development.

### **2.3 Factors of Gender Development**

Some researchers have over the years tried to clarify gender development in different ways. Bussey and Bandura (1999) found that human beings develop gender conceptions from childhood, with socio-cognitive modes of influence at play. Their research proved that gender awareness is influenced in the family (Weisner & Mitchell, 1998), by peers (Leaper, 1994) and in schools or at places of work (Bussey & Bandura, 1999, Dweck et al 1978). In sociological circles, these are referred to as agents of socialisation (Musgrave, 1979). The last mode of influence, which forms the core of this study, is the mass media.

For the purpose of our study, the impact that the media has on gender development seems far more cardinal than those of the other factors of influence hitherto considered. Language used in the press and in electronic media can be gender-neutral or gender biased, and as people are constantly in touch with it, they are being exposed to gender-linked behaviour. Logically, people who are ardent viewers and keen newspaper readers have a higher likelihood of being exposed to a lot of stereotyped gender role modelling than those who spend less time with the media. Given that the media are an agent of socialisation, they convey a lot of knowledge about gender roles that affect the people who are in touch with it. The influence of the media is seen most in television programmes, where viewers are exposed to

information about gender roles (Bradway, n.d). Using social learning theory, Bradway further argues that children learn by imitation, through observing the type of behaviour that is rewarded or punished, depending on their sex. If this is done at a stage where children are eager to know what is appropriate for their sex, stereotypical views about male and female activities remain permanent in them (Ruble et al, 1981). Of the various forms of the media, television has been reported to be the most influential. Whereas people can read newspapers and listen to the radio with some literacy or at least some effort required, television viewers may watch a film with little or no attention (Dines and Humez, 1994). As viewers continuously watch television, they absorb the potentially acquired information and it becomes part of them.

Courtney & Wipple (1974) observe that in the media, men are often portrayed as authoritative, determined and adventurous, unlike their female counterparts who are seen to have no ambition but are rather dependent, emotional or portrayed as victims.

The foregoing state of affairs left women a muted lot and their silence, much to the displeasure of men, resulted in their ability to write. To suppress them, society expected them not to write for the consumption of men but for themselves or for fellow women. Kalplan (1978) shows how these negative experiences of intimidation and suppression worked on the minds of women to such an extent that when they put them on paper, they produced better pieces of writing than men, who lacked exposure to the art of writing.

The restriction imposed on women in view of writing confined them to writing diaries or articles for women's magazines but the few who wrote for the public did so under what was termed *noms de plumes* or male pseudonyms to facilitate positive judgement by readers and assessors. Some women apparently came to accept the view that theirs was to write not for the public but for fellow women, hence the present day tendency to have fewer women writing articles for the press.

With this development, a gender related stereotype cannot be averted especially where news writers and media decision makers are males. Where women's participation is excluded, there is a serious omission in information, leading to loss of knowledge. This is all the more reason why women should be allowed to participate in decision-making – old trends could be reversed and women could be portrayed positively in the media.

The view of Manstead & McCulloch (1981) is that a lot of change has taken place in Britain due to cultural and technological innovations. As a result, gender stereotyping is reducing, although occupational roles in the media for men and women still remain unchanged. In some cases, where these roles have changed, the desire of both men and women is to emulate men's roles. This is a very defeating state of affairs for women as it perpetuates the view that masculinity is superior to femininity.

Male superiority is further enhanced by tendencies of linking males to the positive and females to the negative. Qualities such as strength and adventure are normally associated with men in the media and emotions and fear with women. These are common practices in media portrayals, but Spender (1980) notes that similar

tendencies in language lead to male language being honoured as the standard language, hence reporting all events from a male point of view. In another argument, Spender plays on the morphology of the words 'female' and 'woman' and shows that since 'female' derives from 'male' and 'woman' from 'man', women are inferior to men.

The positive and negative elements referred to above are translated into 'minus male' and 'plus male' by Leech (1968) to distinguish between male and female. In Leech's view, all humans are measured from a male point of view and the weaker sex (the female) takes the negative or minus sign whereas the stronger of the two (the male) takes the positive or the plus sign, hence the notion of plus male and minus male. Logically, he argues, the 'plus male' is the standard. This gives an explanation for ideas like '*President Museveni's wife, Janet, is strongly involved in this programme.*' While the subject of this sentence is supposed to be the woman Janet and who should merit a 'plus', instead, we see the man 'President Museveni', who is totally irrelevant to the situation, intervening on the scene and scooping dominance. This earns him the 'plus' which was due to Janet who now gets a 'minus'. The truth of the matter here is that the business at hand concerns Janet and that Museveni really has nothing to do with it, but because the author does not identify Janet in her own right, Mr Museveni has to come in to provide her with his identity.

The world needs to see an end to gender imbalances where women are portrayed as silent, weak and un-innovative and men as visible, triumphant and active participants in all spheres of life including politics, sports and family affairs. This calls for intensified public awareness to expose and eradicate possible gender stereotyping

effects. All too often, these stereotypes escape the notice of the reader but humanity needs to sensitise the public and to fight negative trends. Among the possible tools that can be used to win this battle, the media is an effective weapon. It would help by itself putting an end to the use of gender stereotyped language where such has been the practice. This attitude would then be passed on to members of the public, who would in turn use language free of gender-bias.

Having looked at various theories regarding gender development and differentiation, and having considered factors leading to the same, it is worthwhile considering the relationship that exists between language and gender.

#### **2.4 Language and Gender**

Studies exploring the relationship between gender and language can be traced far back in history. Over the years, advocates of gender-fair language have burst into debate especially in foreign universities (Marlowe, 2001), where linguists picked up the struggle in favour of gender inclusive language in the early part of the 70's. Their major concern was to eradicate the use of genre-based language and establish a language that was non-sexist, to such an extent that Cushing (1987) reports about hardcore feminists who embarked on a degendrification campaign whose agenda was to eradicate any gender related morphemes from known words like 'man' in 'German' and 'son' in 'person'. The argument was that since 'man' represented male, a German national had better be called a Gerperson but after prolonged arguments, this was converted into 'Geroffspring' to get rid of 'son' (male child) in 'person'.

Tannen ed. (1993) pinpoints the year 1975 as being the turning point in the struggle for non-sexist language by feminists. Following this, scholars such as Weils (1977) and Trudgill (1997) have conducted research on language and gender to determine the relationship between the two. Sociolinguists such as Coarts (1986) look at different ways in which men and women use language and feel strongly that these differences are as a result of social variations like gender, ethnicity and social class. In fact, some major players on the sociological platform do not believe that gender imbalances exist. They claim that there are no difference between men and women which should merit all this debate and further assert that if these differences exist, they equally exist among men, just as they do among women. Classifying people into male and female, according to Spender (1980), is not necessary and there is really no need for human beings to be divided into men and women and suggests that better forms of classification would do.

Allport (1954) points out that differences between men and women show that that in many societies, language about men is different from that about women and cites the rich vocabulary describing women as prostitutes. Basanti (n.d), advanced further documents findings of his study on how language demeans women in the Indian community. In a similar manner, Yusuf (1997) reveals how language, expressed in Yoruba proverbs, is used to denigrate women by comparing them to animals, food, plants, property and trouble.

Some further remarks are appropriate about how unfair language is to women. Thorne and Henley (1975) refer to the term 'hag', originally designating a witch,

later came to mean 'an ugly woman', synonymous to 'prostitute'. More injustice against women has been highlighted by Schrutti (1993), who posits that a promiscuous woman is referred to as an uncommitted sexual freelancer, but a promiscuous man as a committed monogamist who is straying into infidelity.

The meaning of some words that are used for males and females tends to shift from positive to negative as the words concerned are used for men or women. Lakoff (1975) in *Language and Woman's Place* asserts that some words are likely to have a neutral meaning when they refer to men but they portray a negative picture when they are employed with a woman in mind. Such is the case with 'tramp', which means 'a man without a fixed home' but if the same word is used for a woman, it implies 'prostitute'. A word like 'prostitute' has a negative connotation because it refers to women and, in Schulz's language (1975), words, when used for females, tend to be pejorative, unlike when they are used for males. In the Bible, 'prostitute' is used for a woman who was almost stoned to death (John 8:1-8) for committing adultery with men but the Bible is silent about the men she committed adultery with. Were the men not guilty of prostitution and if they were, what were they called?

Lakoff (1975) goes further to suggest that women tend to display triviality in their language, lack influence and seem, unlike their male counterparts, whose language qualifies to be the standard, to have no confidence in the way they communicate their ideas. However, she admits that this kind of weakness is only a matter of language and that it has nothing to do with sex.

Other linguists like Flexner (1960) look at language as an entity that is predominantly male and invented by men, for use by men and women. This view was supported by Jespersen in Spender (1980) whose conviction is that language should never be left in the custody of women or it would be transformed adversely, though he does not seem to have any basis for his advice. In fact, language researchers such as Rowbotham (1973) suggest, in simple terms, that language, especially the English language, is predominantly a male language and that women are only borrowers of it. The cardinal point, following this declaration, is that if language is predominantly male, women are not at liberty to manipulate or transform it but should rather remain invisible in it and be content with the status of an end user. In a similar vein, Spender (1980) suggests that many women look at male supremacy as a myth which would be very difficult to eliminate.

This state of affairs emanates from the fact that society is highly patriarchal – a situation where men cling to the social, political, and economic power and exercise authority over women both in the home and in the public sphere (Lowe-Morne, C ed. 2002). As a consequence, language develops in a patriarchal society where it excludes women because they are largely confined to the private sphere on account of their purported inferiority (Spender, 1985).

The concept of patriarchal order filters into the media where control of what goes into it and what comes out of it is in the hands of men, with a kind of language that favours them. Mtintso (2001) notes that even when a story originated from a woman, it is transformed in such a way that it suits the male perspective because even women

in the editorial board will unconsciously have acquired the male writing style and perspective.

In the African set-up, Spender (1980) attempts to give an account of how some languages in Africa have put men at an advantage over women. Mukame (1995) claims that women have been relegated to second-class roles, a vice which has been facilitated by language.

In media circles language is used as though it were an innocent tool that only portrays what goes on in society, but we must understand that as language conveys social events, it also helps shape up the minds and ideas of its users. In films and plays, women serve as helpers, clerks or consumers, while men as commentators, directors or technicians (Furnham & Bilan 1993). In media houses, gender related stereotypes cannot be averted because the decision makers are often male. The view of Manstead McCulloch (1981) is that a lot of change has taken place due to cultural and technological innovations. As a result, gender stereotyping is reducing, though occupational roles in media for men and women still remain unchanged. Where these have changed the desire of both men and women is to emulate men's roles but this only perpetuates the view that masculinity is superior to femininity.

## **2.5 Theories of Difference and Dominance**

### **2.5.0 General**

This section is designed to present the theories of difference and dominance which attempt to explain, on one hand, the differences that arise between men and women

in terms of language use and, on the other hand, why men seem to have dominance over women in society. Researchers have noted a number of differences between the way women and men speak. Female speech, for example, has been labelled as 'more correct', more polite and more redundant compared to men's language, which has been found to be less polite and more informal. Such differences are explained by the two theories under review. We shall start with the difference theory and end with the dominance theory.

### **2.5.1 The Difference Theory**

The difference theory, according to Tannen (1990), emanates from the premise that boys and girls are brought up in two different cultures and therefore, as they grow up into men and women, they are in two different linguistic worlds. This leads to the difference in their language, hence the difference between men's and women's language.

Tannen's investigation further revealed that as early as childhood, the girl child gets more of language to do with feelings and emotions while the boy child gets more verbs. She further looks at language as a tool that men and women use differently, such as expression of facts, orders and arguments by men and emotions, indirect directives as well as diplomacy by women.

Tannen (ibid) also observes that while women overlap as they speak or choose to speak away from the public, men are public speakers, who tend to give one another a chance as they speak.

Apart from Tannen, other feminists who have studied language differences between men and women include Howe (n.d) whose study shows that differences in the way males and females speak begin at socialisation during the age of 3-4 years and that men, unlike women, are able to use language strategically to gain power. On the contrary, women are found to be passive speakers and more active listeners than men.

In the same vein, Weatherall and Pilkington (2000), after separate studies on language and gender concluded that men talk competitively while women's talk is cooperative as if they speak in solidarity. Kramer (1977) in Spender (1980) mentions English speakers' belief that men are more forceful as they speak and also speak more authoritatively and more seriously than their female counterpart, to whom opposite characteristics are attributed – weak, trivial and hesitant speech, usually characterised by gossip.

All these differences between men's and women's language culminate into what has been termed as the difference theory. The dominance theory takes a different perspective.

### **2.5.2 The Dominance Theory**

While the difference theory states that men and women live in different linguistic worlds, the dominance theory claims the opposite. Advocates maintain that, in fact, men and women are in the same cultural and linguistic world, except that this same world is characterised by unequal distribution of power and status, which are expressed by linguistic and cultural markers.

Dominance theorists like O'Barr and Atkins (1980) believe that men and women possess the same linguistic abilities, which are used in the same way but that these reflect different status and goals. In their research, they found that there is actually no difference between men's and women's language, but that it is the situation in which the two find themselves that brings about these differences and that in these situations, men tend to dominate women in many ways, ranging from home to places of work. For this reason, the two feminists argue that differences in language are due to the fact that women have been dominated to an extent that they have been relegated to domestic roles because of the dominance theory.

### **2.5.3 Summary**

Most of the past studies referred to in this section have been very helpful in the understanding of relationship between language and gender, but we need to restrict ourselves at this stage to the purpose of the study and so, the next section is designed to present and assess certain guidelines put forward by linguists on gender items used in writing and in speech.

## **2.6 Linguistic Markers of Gender Bias**

### **2.6.0 General**

This section is concerned with the identification of items of the English language as used in the *Zambian media* that have gender implications. It is also the objective of the section to propose ways of avoiding the use of discriminatory language in a text,

especially in media discourse. To do this, it is imperative to base the operation on well-established guidelines to avoid inconsistencies and false claims. In particular, the section examines the following linguistic features: word order, generic nouns and pronouns, gender-based vocabulary, patronising expressions, '-man' words and personal titles.

Instances of gender bias in the Zambian society can be located in the media, especially in the type of language used. One of the viewpoints that invite analysis and criticism is the traditional belief that the male sex is the norm. Some of the gender items whose review we are about to undertake are deep rooted in history. It is for this reason that a comprehensive study has been proposed, in which the researcher looks at various aspects of language use where gender bias occurs.

In order to curtail bias in spoken and written language, many anti-sexists recommend adherence to a style of writing that language reformers first proposed in the 1970's (Marlowe, 2001). This new usage gained ground in many institutions of learning, especially universities, which did not allow literature written with generic use of masculine words such as man, he, or his. The idea was to change the minds of language users and, consequently, of society so that people might become more gender sensitive in a bid that would make men aware of the existence of women as their equals.

Granted that there are no guidelines yet put in place by linguists in Zambia, partly because gender studies have not reached an advanced stage, we have decided to turn to foreign professional bodies that have vast experience in the area of linguistic

research. It must be stated from the outset that there are many scholars including, Miller and Swift (1980) who have proposed guidelines for non-sexist or gender-fair writing. Other guidelines are those designed by the American Psychological Association (1994) and those published by the National Council of Teachers of English (2002). This study will use the guidelines put in place by the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) where possible because, first and foremost, the Council comprises professionally qualified and competent teachers of English, whose expertise cannot be underestimated. Furthermore, the NCTE has a team of seasoned editors of journals. Secondly, their publication provides a good standard because they are professionals who handle business-writing courses (Nielsen, 1988). The NCTE is a Council of 8000 teachers, whose collective efforts give them authority as well as reputation. This state of affairs, coupled with the fact that our study is of a linguistic nature and that theirs is to deal with matters of language, gives us comfort as we begin to apply their guidelines. Of course, we shall bring in suggestions that other scholars not linked to the Council have put across as a check especially where there are similarities and differences with the intended guidelines.

Precision in expression gender relationships in a text can be achieved by applying certain strategies to help the writer or the speaker wipe out any form of textual bias. It is therefore the objective of this section to suggest solutions, with the help of textual situations retrieved from the print and electronic media in Zambia. Throughout the study, we shall proceed by discussing linguistic expressions in the following order:

- (i) Word Order
- (ii) Generic Nouns and Pronouns

- (iii) Gender-Related Vocabulary
- (iv) Patronising/Demeaning/Pejorative Expressions
- (v) '-man' Words
- (vi) Personal Titles

### 2.6.1 Word Order

Word order, in the context of this study, is not confined only to the arrangement of words but also embraces that of ideas. We are not looking at word order in terms of subject, verb and object (SVO) analysis but we consider it in terms of which concepts of maleness and femaleness comes first in a text or utterance. In the majority of cases where two gender terms are paired, the rules of coordination apply depending on how the two terms are linked. These rules insist that when words, groups of words or sentences are linked with conjunctions like 'and' or 'or' with the same grammatical functions, the two elements have equal syntactical status (Bescherelle, 1984) and neither of these elements is more important than the other nor depends on the other.

Notwithstanding the foregoing assertion, we must not forget that the manner in which words are arranged in an English sentence may have a story to tell about emphasis. Let us borrow an idea advanced by Leech and Svartvik (1975). The first position in a text meant for communication is very important because it is the topic of the speaker's message and in some cases the last second may be less so, if not a mere afterthought. However, this depends on the type of sentence construction. Where only one subject or object is involved, the question of emphasis and

*afterthought* does not arise. There are many instances in a text or utterance where the originator of the message alludes to a man and a woman at the same time but only one of these must come first. This is what, in their publication following a study on Sexism in EFL/ESL textbooks in Iran, Ansary and Babaii (2002) refer to as firstness. The researchers found out that in a great deal of expressions, men came first. In linguistics, male firstness dates back to the ninth century when grammarians, for unspecified reasons, thought that men were superior to women. Petersson (1998) asserts that this camp of linguists, among them Kirkby J, dismissed the use of the neutral pronoun 'they', 'them' and 'their' to replace the singular 'he' or 'she' as incorrect grammar. Patersson (ibid) further says that several centuries down the line, Wilson in 1553 and Poole in the mid-17<sup>th</sup> century came in full support of Kirkby that men should go before women in words such as 'brothers and sisters', 'husband and wife', 'boys and girls'. One is tempted to think that the creators of language considered alphabetical order in all the examples cited above, but 'ladies and gentlemen' is exception to word order reflecting male firstness, and no explanation has been given for the exception. Wilson probably found it only natural for a writer or a speaker to precede a woman with a man but his critics later argued that since he was writing for an educated male audience, only men were going to read his works and thus would not dispute his ideas against women. In other words, since women were illiterate, men could have done anything possible to achieve linguistic elimination of women and since they were in the driving seat, their opinions went unopposed. This exclusion of women as a result of their denied access to academic affairs resulted in loss of knowledge since the views of women who could have been instrumental in the usage of language have gone unrecorded (Spender, 1980).

In their study referred to above, Ansary and Babaii (2002) found that instructional materials for students in Iran portrayed an unfair and inexcusable picture of women. They note that given two nouns, one of each sex, the word denoting masculine sex always came first. They give examples of pairs such as uncle and aunt, brother and sister, and boys and girls. In these pairs, the masculine term came first.

One way to deal with problems of word order in a text and avoid criticism by non-sexist language advocates is to adopt the strategy of alternating gendered nouns and pronouns. Varying word order exonerates the writer or the speaker from the possible implication that women take precedence over men or vice versa (Hoffman, 2000). Perpetual use of the same word order, for example, male followed by female, does not ensure linguistic or semantic equality of the two sexes and can inculcate in the reader's mind that males take priority over women, hence the need to change the order.

The alphanumerical codes in brackets after each example are references to help us locate the data in the appendix. For instance, in P1, P stands for Print Media and 1 stands for item 1. Similarly, in E1620, E stands for Electronic Media and 1620 is the serial number of the data concerned. All examples used are drawn from the data in the appendix.

Let us consider an example or two to see how sexism can be removed from them. An advertisement that runs in a daily paper that has two sets of female and male words. The order is consistently male, then female as shown:

*Runaway husband/wife, boyfriend/girlfriend (P53, P75, P93...)*

The writer of this message is able to reconcile the order, given that s/he is dealing with two sets of nouns. Gender-sensitivity, in this case, entails maintaining the first pair of nouns and interchanging elements in the second one as below:

*Runaway husband/wife, girlfriend/boyfriend or*

Interchanging the elements in the first pair and maintaining the order in the last pair as in:

*Runaway wife/husband, boyfriend/girlfriend*

Doing away with the gendered nouns used, so long as the message being put across, can also attain gender-sensitivity in the above discourse. This implies employing terms that do not specify maleness or femaleness:

*Runaway spouse or lover.*

Where word order is understood to imply that the first item mentioned is the focus in opposition to the second one (Leech and Svartvik 1975), there is danger of inducing a sense of achievement by one party and one of failure by the other. Such is the case with the situation below where men might be perceived to be more cautious than women in matters relating to HIV and AIDS:

*Men and women take active measures to protect themselves from acquiring HIV/AIDS (E1627).*

The sense of achievement by men as a result of firstness may have implications. By virtue of taking the first position in the statement, one might presuppose that men are more careful about HIV/AIDS than women are, hence women, because they are less careful, are more responsible for the spread of the scourge than are men. To remedy the situation, the author could change the word order and come up with this sentence:

*Women and men take active measures to protect themselves from acquiring HIV/AIDS.*

This seems effective in ironing out the problem highlighted above especially where the gendered nouns are used several times in the same text. However, when we are dealing with an isolated statement or a single case of word order, alternating the order of nouns as we have done above may only help perpetrate the argument, except that this time men might feel accused for being less careful and more responsible for the scourge.

When the technique of alternating the gendered nouns does not seem to yield solutions, other options are available:

- (i) **Replace the gendered nouns with gender-neutral words**

*People take active measures to protect themselves from acquiring HIV/AIDS.*

This option, however, presupposes that children are included. True enough, even children would like to protect themselves from the scourge, but where they are too young to take measures to protect themselves, other options are still available to exclude the children, and it is up to the author to choose which one conveys the intended meaning:

- (ii) *Adults take active measures to protect themselves from acquiring HIV/AIDS.*
- (iii) *We take active measures to protect ourselves from acquiring HIV/AIDS.*
- (iv) *Individuals take active measures to protect themselves from acquiring HIV/AIDS.*
- (v) *Couples take active measures to protect themselves from acquiring HIV/AIDS.*

In a similar way, 'A woman and her husband were caught with stolen fish' might place the woman in more theft responsibility than with the order of the gendered nouns reversed. This can be avoided by using alternatives. The writer has many different options of dealing with word order but must judge the one that best suits the text.

### **2.6.2 Generic Nouns and Pronouns**

By simple definition, a noun is a word that that names a person, a place or a thing (Wren and Martin 1988). An appropriate example for this study is the word *man*, which names an adult male human being. In addition, a noun may name an activity

or a quality as is the case with *farming* and *intelligence* respectively. A pronoun, on the other hand, is a word that is used as a replacement for a noun. In English there exist pronoun options that can be used to replace a noun depending on the gender of the noun in question. If we refer to an adult human being called *man* for a second time, good grammar demands that we avoid repeating the noun by using any of the pronouns *he*, *him*, *his*, and *himself* as the case may be. Also, the rules of grammar demand that the male or female pronoun agree in number and gender with its antecedent. Feminine nouns like *woman*, *Jessie* or *matron* take the pronouns *she*, *her* and *herself* whereas things in the inanimate category are replaced by *it*, with an exception of ships, which are regarded as feminine, and countries when referred to by name (Thomson and Martinet, 1979). In recent years, however, ships have been referred to as neuter in line with many international business titles and, obviously, the use of the pronoun 'she' or 'he' for countries has fallen out of favour. All countries were referred to as 'she', except Germany, referred to using the masculine pronoun 'he' because of its strong military position. Today, this is no longer the case as all countries are referred to using the neutral pronoun 'it'.

The generic use of a word is where the word in question includes both female and male. A word used generically refers to all the members of a class Quirk and Greenbaum (1973). Certain nouns and pronouns can be used generically. Such is the case with the word 'man' in *All men are equal but some are more equal than others* by George Orwell in *Animal Farm*, also, in the sentence *Without man, God will not, without God, man cannot*'. Redfern (n.d) admits that the generic use of *man*, *he* or *his* is very misleading to the reader and attempts to highlight the sort of problems that are likely to be sparked by such usage. For instance, how can a reader imagine the

presence of a woman in an utterance like *The Adventures of Man*? Similarly, it is difficult to imagine the existence of female students in an institution where one of the regulations states ‘*A student should be informed of his progress at the end of each semester.*’

Today, the word *man* and its pronoun *he* and possessive adjective *his* are understood to mean a ‘mature male human being’. Historically *they* was used many centuries ago as a *singular pronoun when the sex of the referent was unknown or undefined.* *They* was deemed to be neutral in expressions such as *Anyone can be happy if they have enough food.* In the past, authors of the first English books wrote for learners who were predominantly male. This claim may seem unrealistic, but this was in the mid-sixteenth century when very few women attended school, and this left the authors with only a male readership in mind. For this audience, it was only normal to use *he* and this did not include women (Miller and Swift, 1988). Therefore, it was evident at the time that the masculine pronoun did not include women because when *he* was used, firstly it was used to target a male who was in the classroom and, secondly, it was used because of a culture of male dominance that was in place in that age. Consequently, grammarians who came after these authors built up the male concept in their minds and generalised the use of *man/he/his* to the female sex, hence the notion of generic masculine (Pettersson, 1998). This concept was extended to circumstances when the sex of the referent was not known. In such circumstances, the speaker would opt for *he* because *he* was taken to be a more comprehensive pronoun and was thought to include *she*. Grammmarians were satisfied with *he* as pronoun and did not tolerate the use of *they* as replacement for a singular noun.

The use of *he* as a generic pronoun was reinforced by an Act of British Parliament before the close of the nineteenth century, which was passed to promote the masculine gender as generic. This meant that *he* was to be taken to include females (Miller and Swift 1988). This tendency by grammarians saw an end to the use of *they*, which had been in use for a long time as a singular and neutral pronoun. These authors and grammarians of the period obviously had a point worth consideration because, logically, *they* is an indicator of plural and therefore, grammatically, does not agree with the singular. On the other hand, one could not dispute the use of the male pronoun *he* as in *Anyone can be happy if he has enough food*, but the question one often asks is; how certain it is that only males are implied in this situation.

Grammatically, gender in a language like English is quite an easy phenomenon. Unlike French and other languages where human beings and non-living things are either male or female, in English, the gender of a noun only affects its pronoun and possessive adjective (Thomson and Martinet, 1979). Male human beings and animals are regarded as masculine while female human beings and animals are regarded as feminine. All others outside these two classes fall under the neuter category.

Miller and Swift (1976) in Virginia (2000) cite a study in which a group of college students chose pictures of males and females to illustrate chapters of sociology textbooks about Society, Industrial Life and Political Behaviour. Strangely enough, when these titles were changed to 'Social Man', 'Industrial Man' and 'Political Man', both female and male students selected pictures of men only to illustrate the pictures. A reasonable conclusion was that generic 'he' is not necessarily understood to include female and that it should be avoided. However, care must be exercised

when 'man' is used and people should make a distinction between its generic use and its masculine use. *Man is a difficult animal* is the generic use and *I saw a man in a red suit* is the masculine use.

Further to the study by Miller and Swift above, Spender (1980) reports findings of a study by Harrison and Marlyna (n.d.) where a sample of both male and female respondents saw a male in the word *man*. While the former were found to form an image of themselves with the generic *man* or *he*, the latter confessed they did not see themselves in the term and that whenever they used it generically, it was only for grammatical purposes but they felt excluded. An important point that emerges from these findings is that the generic use of a noun may not at all times send the signals that it is intended to.

Arising from this view, when we look at '-man' words such as *chairman*, *businessman* or *barman*, we note that the use of *He is the chairman of the club* is not as sexist as *Any person wishing to stand for the position of chairman should pay a nomination fee of One Million Kwacha*. The first statement clearly refers to a male incumbent whereas the second one addresses males and females but risks being interpreted in a way that women cannot stand for election, or that it is an all man's race for chairmanship, or even that women are excluded unless we know that we are dealing with a committee comprising men only. It is therefore important to get rid of all these ambiguities by using linguistic tools that can be understood with ease. Two of these are hyponymy and synonymy. Lyons (1981) and Nida (1975) define hyponymy as the use of a word whose meaning is included in another word. Gender words like *woman*, *man*, *boy*, *girl* are all hyponyms of *human being* because the

umbrella term embraces them all. In short, a woman is a human being but a human being is not necessarily a woman. To make further clarification, if the a researcher talks to a woman, the researcher has talked to a human being, but talking to a human being does not entail talking to a woman. The principle of synonymy, according to Lyons (1981), Devitt and Sterelny (1987), Nida (1975) is applicable with reference to a word with similar meaning to a particular term or expression in use. A synonym is a word whose meaning is the same, or almost the same, as that of another, either from a global point of view or in a particular respect. Let us suppose, for instance, that in place of 'husband and wife', a writer or a speaker opts for a synonymous term 'couple'. Although these are not absolute synonyms, the meaning conveyed is more or less the same and one would not go wrong in its use in most contexts.

The use of terminologies such as *colonial masters* or *founding fathers* has not been spared from the wrath of anti-sexists. Concerned analysts take it as pure negligence that usually overlooks the contribution of, say, female whites in the colonialisation of Africa. It is not true that Africa had male colonialists only and that a nation only had male founders. Otherwise, insistence on such vocabulary entails that women have not made any contributions to history.

Gronberg (2001), in her study entitled '*Woman is also a Man*', notes an overuse of the masculine even when the referent is a woman. Attempting to do an analysis of the use of the masculine pronoun in Icelandic, she found that masculine nouns and pronouns appeared 310 times against 40 times that the feminine pronouns appeared and that in 9 cases, the male pronoun was used generically to refer to women but in none of the instances were feminine pronouns used to refer to men. To solve the

pronoun problem, some linguists have suggested inventing a new pronoun which is neutral and which can be used generically. One such a pronoun is *ey* or *tey*. Kuhn (1993) also supports the idea of coining a new and neutral pronoun but does not suggest any. In the meantime, she gives suggestions of what could be done while awaiting the new word: rewriting the sentence in the plural, in the second person or using the pronoun 'one', or eliminating the pronoun altogether. On the contrary, the invention of a new word does not seem feasible, particularly since pronouns, unlike nouns and adverbs, are in a closed class, where no more words should be added. What is essential is that people should learn to use language correctly to avoid misunderstanding.

Petersson (1998) concludes that the masculine rule is only used for ease of reference and that it is by no means intended to be sexist or discriminatory and should therefore not be a basis for debate. While this may be well meaning, modern language users need to face the situation with caution and avoid it, lest women feel they are second-class members of society.

There are various ways in which sexism can be eliminated in generic nouns and pronouns. When an author or a speaker is entangled in a gender-ambiguous circumstance and does not know whether the referent is male or female, tradition has long had that the male pronoun should be taken as the standard. It is easier to deal with the pronoun problem if the generic noun is given, but a neutral noun such as such as *student* or *police officer* can complicate matters for the originator of the message. Consider this:

*A policeman is at work. But when he goes on vacation, it's another story altogether* (E1897).

Since the referent of *policeman* is not defined in terms of sex, the first solution is to eliminate this generic term for a gender-neutral noun in order to create conditions that will enable us deal with the pronoun *he* that has been used generically.

*A police officer is at work.*

If this utterance must continue beyond this point, the term *police officer* needs to be replaced with a pronoun and we see various options at our disposal. One of these is the use of *they* (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973), granted that English lacks the sex-neutral pronoun for the third person singular. Take a look at this:

*A police officer is at work. But when they go on vacation, it's another story altogether.*

Traditional grammarians, who insist that the masculine pronoun *he* must be used in the event of an indefinite referent, reject the above strategy as incorrect or informal (Leech and Svartvik 1975). As far as traditional grammar is concerned, *they* is a plural pronoun and its use should be restricted to replacing a plural noun. We must therefore find a solution that will offend neither grammarians nor feminists. The plural form can be quite handy, as suggested in this sentence:

*Police officers are at work. But when they go on vacation, it's another story altogether.*

The use of the plural *police officers* therefore provides an alternative as it calls for the use of the plural *they* without bringing forth further protests by either grammarians or feminists.

Other options that can eliminate sexism from the statement include:

(i) the use of, **he or she** or **s/he** or **he/she**

- *A police officer is at work. But when s/he goes on vacation, it's another story.*
- *A police officer is at work. But when he or she go on vacation, it's another story.*
- *A police officer is at work. But when she or he go on vacation, it's another story.*

(ii) **Including both male and female gendered nouns.**

Where the referent is not clearly specific and can be either male or female, both gendered nouns can be used, but care should be taken with the word order.

*A policeman or woman is at work. But when he or she goes on vacation, it's another story altogether.*

(iii) **Eliminate the pronoun**

Sometimes, the writer should consider doing away with the pronoun altogether if this does not tamper with the meaning of the sentence:

*A police officer is at work. But when on vacation, it's another story.*

One thing that is clear after looking at all these options is that reliance on male options does not do justice to women. We do not expect *a policeman* or *he* to include *a policewoman* or *she* respectively. The adherence to a generic use of language can sometimes be funny or insulting as in, for instance, '*A policeman gave birth on duty.*' Therefore, the alternatives proposed above are important, and there should be no turning back although the use of *he/she* or *she/he* can be awkward, especially in formal discourse and Kuhn (1993) admits this.

### **2.6.3 Gender-Related Vocabulary**

Contrary to the misconception that vocabulary means big or bombastic words, or merely an alphabetical list of words, the term vocabulary generally means the use of the correct words for a particular purpose. Vocabulary refers to words that are used when people are talking about a particular subject. It can also imply all the words in a particular language or a set of words associated with a subject or area of activity, or used by an individual person (Hornby, 2003).

Vocabulary normally depends on context and user. A man in the street or one who spends half the time at a town centre market will have different vocabulary from a

member of the clergy. Correspondingly, a teacher has a very different vocabulary from a military officer. Whatever the definition, the underlying factor is 'the use of words' such as male or female words that are used to name humans, objects or concepts.

In this study, we define gender-based vocabulary as gender related terms used by either male or female speakers in certain situations. When gender-based vocabulary is used inappropriately, it may bring about sexism in language.

Advocates of gender-neutral language strongly oppose such usages as 'Kariba is the world's largest *man-made* lake' because, arguably, it is not true that not a single woman participated in any way in the creation of the lake. Others are equally opposed to the unjustified use of 'mother' in 'You need to replace the *motherboard* of your computer'. In fact, such criticisms are much deeper than that. Expressions such as 'The mob *manhandled* the suspected woman and launched a *manhunt* for another who had been convicted of *manslaughter*' or 'In his *maiden speech* presented just before midnight, he assured residents that he would develop the area in no time' can be very offensive to the ears of anti-sexist language users because there is no justification, for instance, for the use of *maiden* which has female traits rather than neutral expression like *first speech*. The National Coalition of Free Men (2004) further eliminate the use of words like 'history' in preference to 'itstory', the logic being that the word 'history contains the root 'his' which is similar to the masculine possessive adjective for the third person singular but we shall consider more examples as we look at '-man' words later.

Notwithstanding the morphology of words like *manhunt*, *manslaughter* or *manhandle* which contain the root 'man', certain words of the nature *manuscript*, *manage* and *human* are free of all gender related accusations and tendencies because they derive from the Latin word *manus* which means *hand*. In the English language, for instance, *manuscript* originally referred to a document written by hand before it was printed or before the art of printing was instituted. Therefore, the 'man' in *manuscript* means *hand* and is not tied to gender because it has nothing to do with *man* defined as an adult male human being.

Vocabulary looks at such uses of words as *maiden* name, *maiden* speech or *master* bedroom. Our interest in this regard only concerns those words tied to gender. What would we call the main bedroom of the house of an unmarried woman? What justification would one have for calling it a *master* bedroom when the occupant is female and there is nothing male about the room? It is hard to imagine how the notion of 'master' or 'maleness' intervenes in a woman's house. Other disputed and unjustified uses of gendered language include *king size* mattress, *manhole* and *motherland*. The use of gender indicators in these words and expressions constitutes bias in language and should be avoided where alternatives are on hand.

To eliminate sexism from gender-related vocabulary, the use of sexist terms like 'mankind', 'man made' and 'forefathers' tend to exclude women and give the impression that certain professions or activities are for men (Lowe-Morna: 2001) ed. Such words or expressions should be replaced with gender-neutral terms. Thus, if the Zambia Revenue Authority (ZRA) cannot cope with the backlog of work awaiting the attention of its officers, Management should consider employing men. This is the kind of message one gets when one reads or hears the following sentence:

*ZRA has limited manpower to undertake the task of ensuring all business enterprises had cash registers (P1112).*

All we have done here is to reformulate ideas of the various feminists hitherto referred to in the study. The use of words like *manpower*, *workmen's* compensation or *manning* a position shows the patriarchal nature of language and is commonplace in the media. But it is not only male-linked vocabulary that is used in this way. One often meets terms like *mother body* and *sister club* that are equally sexist. Devitt and Sterelny (1987) admit that it is easier to put to use words that are already in existence than to invent new ones. As a result, users prefer to do with such terms as *manpower* and other '-man' words. However, these terms should be avoided by using gender-neutral items like *labour force*, *personnel* or *human resources* for *manpower*, *workers'* for *workmen's*, *staffing* or *operating* in place of *manning*. Thus, if the author of the statement about ZRA had been gender-sensitive, the sentence should have taken a different shape with any of the suggestions provided:

*ZRA has limited human resources/workforce/personnel to undertake the task of ensuring all business enterprises had cash registers.*

Many languages, English in particular, have a rich vocabulary with countless alternatives, so there is no need for journalists to use sex-linked terms and stick to old ways of reporting. The use of such vocabulary perpetrates sexism in language but the media can help eliminate out such tendencies by adopting non-discriminatory language.

#### 2.6.4 Patronising/Demeaning/Pejorative Expressions

Patronising expressions or utterances are a kind of language where the speaker or author addresses another person in a seemingly friendly way; but, in fact, the speaker feels that the person is not intelligent or experienced. Patronising expressions are somewhat subjective because sometimes the speaker may not intend to patronise someone, just as the target may not feel patronised. In short, it depends on who is being patronised, and we need to be aware of the context in which it is done.

Cases of males patronising females usually outnumber those where women patronise men. In many cases, the intention is well meaning but behind the screen, women are demeaned in the majority of instances.

There are many instances when words said about women are rather demeaning or pejorative. For instance, the use of expressions like *baby*, *sweetie*, *girl*, *boy* needs to be checked for appropriateness. Many songs played in the media often allude to women as girls or babies. A girl is a person who is still at school, and this suggests that she should be spared of all talk about love and marriage. Furthermore, the use of the word 'baby' in 'I love you baby' not only demeans woman but also says something about the mentality of the man in love. By definition, a baby is an infant or simply a child. It can also mean a person who behaves like a child. 'Baby' can also refer to address a wife, husband or lover as an expression of affection, but this can be offensive unless someone approves of it (Hornby, 2003). Granted the first definition, it would be surprising for an adult male to propose love to a baby.

Language that tends to reduce women in one way or the other, or tends to trivialise their activities must equally be avoided. Thus, by referring to a musician as '*a sensational songbird*', one is likening the female artist to a bird, which can be denigrating. Demeaning and patronizing terms like 'songbird' do not dignify women and should be substituted for appropriate terms *songster*, *musician* or *singer*. Similarly, a song in which a man refers to a lady as *girlo wandi mpakafye nkamupe* (My girl, must marry her) reduces the woman that someone wants to marry to a girl. A man marries a woman, not a girl, so a parallel term 'woman' should be used. Worse still, the use of baby in *my baby, tushane, my lover* (E1768). The implication in this piece of music is that the man is in love with a woman that he is reducing to a baby. This is clearly disproving and should be avoided in preference to more appropriate vocabulary.

#### 2.6.5 '-man' words

Words that contain 'man' as suffix are commonly used in English texts. This study is preoccupied with functions of '-man' words like *chairman*, *chairwoman*, *spokesman*, *policeman* and *businessman*, which hardly escape the media on a daily basis. It must be pointed out here that in some instances, '-man' words in this study may overlap with generic nouns. The tradition for a long time has been one of using words like *chairman* when addressing a male or female. It was inappropriate to address a female chairing a meeting as 'chairman' or 'madam chairman'. Murphy and Hildebrandt (1988) wonder how a man would feel if addressed as 'sir chairwoman' but the debate on language and gender over the years has seen a restriction in the use of these

words, which are confined now to addressing males and 'chairwoman' for females. Better still, more neutral terminologies have been invented such as 'chairperson', 'chair' presider, 'convenor' or 'coordinator'

If the position of *cameraman* is advertised in a media firm, the question one tends to ask is whether applications are invited from male participants only or female job seekers too. It is wrong to assume that a particular job can only be taken by a person of one sex because one may be surprised to note that members of the opposite sex can do an even better job.

Spender (1980) records an inquiry in which a researcher tried to find words for males and females in an English dictionary. Her results showed that '-man' words were represented five times more than 'women' words. Even the few women words that appeared were associated with such demeaning vocabulary as 'chick', or 'peach' and usually assumed passive roles.

'-man' words can best be avoided by employing neutral terms like *chairperson* or *spokesperson*. In some cases, employing the corresponding verb such as *to chair* for *chairman* or *chairwoman* can redeem the situation. In the same way, a synonym like *trader* in place of *businesswoman/businessman* can be of help. In the situation with 'chairman' below, the use of the verb 'chair' can redeem the originator of the message thus

*Shortly after naming the bid winners, Libyan National Oil Company Chairman, Abdula al-Badri said Tripoli would offer 40 blocks in a second licensing round next month (P70).*

*Shortly after naming the bid winners, Abdula al-Badri, who chairs Libyan National Oil Company, said Tripoli would offer 40 blocks in a second licensing round next month.*

### **2.6.6 Personal Titles**

The title of a person is placed in front of a person's name and is essentially designed to show their rank or profession but it can also indicate their marital status. Titles that indicate rank or profession are not personal titles. Therefore, in this study we make an analysis of personal titles only, leaving out professional titles – *Professor, Doctor, Captain, Major* and so on – for the reason that these give us little to discuss in terms of gender distinction; a female or a male can be called Professor X or Dr Y, without leaving us any clues about the sex of the person in question, unless we have prior knowledge about her or him. It follows that the only titles which are of interest to this study are the personal titles *Mr, Mrs, Miss* and *Ms*. While *Mr* denotes that the subject is male, it makes him keep his original identity allotted to him at birth, without revealing to the public his marital status (Naughton, 2002). On the other hand, as confirmed by Infante (2001), *Mrs* identifies a woman in relation to a male. To explain this point on the local scene, if a woman whose birth names are *Dorica Chewe* marries *Paul Chilekwa*, she becomes *Dorica Chilekwa* and sacrifices her identity for the sake of marriage or of becoming a 'property' of *Mr Chilekwa*, hence the acquired name '*Mrs Chilekwa*' or *Mrs Dorica Chilekwa*. People who knew her

by her birth names would not easily identify her when the new name is used and this can be very damaging to the identity of a woman. Not only this, but it is also true that this title looks at a woman from her husband's point of view. Logically, when we think of Dorica Chewe in her married status, we are looking at Mr Chilekwa's wife, who is now called Mrs Chilekwa.

In addition to the title *Mr* for men, the English language has provision, in very rare cases, of the use of *Sir* as a personal title. This is essentially applicable to the British for men who have received honours, but it can also be used before the name of a baronet. For men, this is used in a positive way and has no sex connotations or connotations of marital status. For women, there seems to be no equivalent term to *Sir* in terms of personal titles. In Spender's view (1980), the lack of equivalent terms in such instances is a result of the fact that women have always been thought to be inferior to men due to historical subordination.

We can further construe the use of the title *Mrs* for married women as a way of modifying a woman's name or making her a 'property' of her man as payment for adopting his name. In the view of Miller and Swift (1976), since marriage does not affect men's names, men can maintain their family line but their female counterparts cannot in view of the loss of name, which does not allow them to carry on their traditions. Although some women strongly feel that there is a lot of security in marriage, let alone in adopting their spouse's names, Spender (1980) observes that looking at women from their husbands' point of view has sexist connotations in as much as they are represented as sex objects, 'owned' by men who themselves do not have their status made public.

The title *Miss* seems to overcome this aspect but, it is meant for women who are not married and are recognised under the umbrella of their father – not their mother. In the example of *Dorica Chewe* above, the family name *Chewe* in many cases is the family name of the father and not the mother, and one wonders whether the child belongs to the father alone. In addition, it exposes their single marital status, which can be offensive in a way especially for over-aged persons who are not married and would like to conceal their status. For this reason, many advocates such as Infante (2001) recommend the use of *Ms* as a parallel title for *Mr* because it is neutral, except its pronunciation cannot be determined by its spelling. After all, she claims, there is no law anywhere in the world that compels married women to use their husbands' names although the title *Ms* also identifies women through their fathers and leaves no room for the mother. Mukama (1995) is of this view and further reveals that the system of naming in African languages was imposed by colonialists, mainly in missionary schools where peoples' names were automatically changed to their fathers'. Only in Iceland, as noted by Gronberg (2001), is there the law allowing an offspring to use the mother's first name to form the root of the surname, which ends in 'dottir', meaning 'son'. This seems more transparent than what is obtaining in most parts of the world but still needs to be investigated further if the use of 'son' applicable to females as well and does not risk being taken for masculine bias. Also, the use of the mother's name does not alleviate the gender puzzle but merely shifts from masculinity to femininity. In some cases, says Spender (1980), people who are very conscious of gender imbalances have gone to the extent of using neutral names to avoid their husbands' names. They have adopted the name of a close friend or relative or have coined completely new names in order to avoid taking sides between their fathers and mothers.

The use of the personal titles *Mrs* and *Miss*, according to Spender, dates back to the early parts of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and was dependent on maturity rather than marital status. Below a certain age, women were addressed as *Miss* and after it as *Mrs*. Some readers may object to this kind of thinking, but there is a confirmation from Miller and Swift (1976) who, tracing down the history, speculate that these titles were coined for the purposes of employment during the industrial revolution so as to give employers an idea of which women were single or available for sex and which ones were married.

The personal title dilemma seems to favour men more than it does women and can be avoided by using neutral personal titles. In the statement 'Mrs Jeripati was speaking at the signing of the memorandum of understanding in the consultation of her country and Zambia' (E1781), the personal title not only reveals the marital status of the subject but also identifies her with the help of the identity of the husband, that is, from a man's point of view. This can be avoided by using 'Ms', which is the parallel title of the masculine 'Mr', as in 'Ms Muntemba said the man was admitted to the University Teaching hospital and that no arrests or recovery had been made'.

### 2.6.7 Summary

To overcome gender bias in language, the writer or the speaker needs to be vigilant at all times and use gender fair language that satisfies both women and men. All that is required is to avoid as far as possible gender-biased language as highlighted in the previous sections of this chapter. With these issues clarified, we can now move on to the next stage and consider what it takes to write or to speak in a gender fair way.

## **2.7 Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed many issues relating to gender. The chapter opened with a section on the media in Zambia where we looked at the history of the media in the country. The chapter also gave theories and factors relating to gender development and also some notions on language and gender. Next, the chapter discussed common biases in language and focussed on the six linguistic themes that are being studied – word order, generic nouns and pronouns, gender-related vocabulary, patronising expressions, ‘-man’ words and personal titles. As the themes were being discussed, ways of eliminating sexism from them were suggested.

Having looked at proposals by previous researchers and scholars regarding ways of reducing or eliminating gender-bias language, we can now turn to a review of the manner in which we conducted the current study. The review of the problem under study has familiarised us with concepts that will be very instrumental when we embark on the qualitative analysis of the study. The gender themes discussed above and many more works linked to language and gender will serve as a guide throughout this study, but before we go into actual analysis, we need to carry out a review of literature related to the study.

## CHAPTER THREE

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The previous chapter dealt with conceptual background in which various notions pertaining to language and gender were discussed. The presentation began with the history of the media in Zambia and examined its language policy. The presentation further looked at theories of gender development where we saw that gender development was a life long process. The chapter also embraced factors in gender development which included the agents of socialisation like the family, peers the school and the media. The presentation further looked at concepts relating to language and gender before considering gender bias in language. In this section, several linguistic items like word order, generic pronouns and nouns, and gender related vocabulary formed the core of the study. The chapter ended with proposed guidelines for gender-fair use of language which would help curtail gender bias in written and spoken language in the media.

The current chapter deals with studies that have been carried out in the field of language and gender in the media and will largely highlight past research, methodologies and the findings of such studies.

From evidence gathered during the study, not much has been written about Language and Gender in the Zambian media, a clear testimony that local researchers have hitherto paid very little attention to the matter. Yet, the way language is used in relation to matters of gender requires close attention. However, for the purposes of this study, we needed to confine ourselves to the relationship between language and

gender in the local and foreign media, although studies on language and gender in the media are very rare. Most of the relevant studies that have been tracked down so far are on language and gender, without the media aspect and others are on gender and the media, without the language aspect. In studies conducted in either of these cases, significant disparities between men and women have been revealed, with statistics, where available, in most cases being in favour of men. These studies, with or without the linguistic component, however, are based on language in one way or the other and this is what makes them relevant to our study.

A gender and media baseline survey, referred to earlier in the study, was conducted in Zambia in the year 2003 to determine the participation of women in the various sectors of the media. Findings of the survey were that only 13% of news sources were women against 87% who were men. In the same enquiry, it was found that 58% of women interviewed had access to radio, 31% to television and only 8% to newspapers but this study did not include the language aspect, thereby creating a gap in the research.

In Asia, Kee (2005) observes that although women were slowly finding their way into the media, they were under represented in most media houses, and the few that were in these institutions are not in decision-making positions. As a consequence, the patriarchal order still persists, leading to the stereotyped portrayal of women as victims or objects of sex and lack of appreciation for their contributions to the development of their societies.

Bradway (n.d) carried out a study on stereotypical gender roles portrayed in children's television. In this study, 80 children's television commercials were recorded on a weekly interval and the researcher created a data sheet roll where statistics of the number of males and females in the commercials were entered.

After this, each commercial was viewed and the researcher looked for the sex and the number of individuals, the form of the message and the roles as well as traits associated with the individual. The commercials were viewed very closely in order to determine statistics regarding males and females in comparison with the numbers of males and females in the society.

Bradway's findings were that there were more males than females on television in a ratio of 59 to 41. Although this research essentially made use of language to analyse the results, it differs from our study in that it ignored the linguistic aspect such as analysis of the content in terms of items like word order, the use of generic nouns and pronouns and personal titles.

Signorreli (1997) conducted a study on the reflection of girls in the media, in which she examined messages in four media focussing on six venues, among them television, theatre, music videos and teen magazines. From each of these, twelve samples were collected for two weeks during 1996, bringing the number of collected samples to 46.

After the collection and analysis of the data, simple statistics were arrived at. Whereas a sample television programme that was watched by adolescent girls was

found to have a better representation of women (45%), general investigation of all primetime broadcast was found to have a distribution of 60% males and 40% females. In other venues, women were equally underrepresented, with 42% in commercials, 37% in films and 22% in music videos. Only in pictures and advertisements were women highly represented, with values ranging from 70% to 82%.

Although the general investigation in this study was one of gender and the media, the study lacked the aspect of linguistic analysis of the type word order, generic nouns and pronouns, demeaning expressions and personal titles.

In a related study, Furnham and Schofield (1986), replicating a study they had conducted many years before, wanted to find out the extent of gender stereotyping in commercials on British radio and television. They got samples from London Broadcasting Company and Capital Radio at specific times of the day. The recordings were done over one week in the month of February 1995 and up to 100 advertisements from each radio station were also recorded for the study.

All the recorded clips were analysed by two native speakers of English and focussed on the central figure in the advertisement. A total of 128 central figures were found and out of these, 80% were males and the remaining 20% were females. The investigators reported that these results matched those they found in the previous study but like other studies quoted, the study did not focus on the linguistic aspect.

A study recently conducted in Malawi on the denigration of women in Malawian radio commercials revealed that women are represented as voices of little authority, dependent and confined to the domestic sphere (Chilimapunga, 1999).

A sample of 100 commercials of various products and services were tape-recorded, transcribed and analysed using content analysis method. The study aimed at finding out the extent to which women in Malawi were denigrated. The researcher constructed five pairs of images (one negative and the others positive) for each sex and examined each commercial for gender neutrality, for authority, dependence and competitiveness between the sexes. He also wanted to see who, between males and females, were seen as sex objects.

Of relevance to our study, the findings of Chilimapunga's study were that females were portrayed more negatively than males and that 80% of the commercials portrayed men as having authority as compared to 13% of the females. Furthermore, female voices were heard in fewer cases than male voices, whereas 58% of the commercials portrayed women as voices of little authority.

From the study, the researcher's conclusion was that many radio commercials in Malawi denigrate women, and he posits that perpetration of this view of women gives them a lower place in society. For this reason, the researcher recommended that issues of gender be presented in a balanced way and that women be seen to be presented in diverse occupations. Another recommendation was that journalists be trained on gender issues, specifically on non-sexist advertising methods, but in the

final analysis, the researcher admitted that problems of gender were ingrained in society's perception of women, not necessarily only in the media.

Although this study was not carried out along the same line as ours, the similarities are that it made use extracts from the media, and these extracts, based on language, were used to determine how women are denigrated in the media.

Another important study conducted in Malawi is a situational analysis commissioned by MISA on Gender and the Media. The analysis revealed that women were underrepresented in the media compared to men. In terms of television presenters, women were found constitute 42% of the total workforce. The study further found that women's radio representation was 28% while the print media had an even lower representation of 8% (SARDC, 2005). This picture sharply contrasts what was reported as obtaining in the media in Canada where a higher percentage of women was reported in the press than in the electronic media (Jeffrey, 1993).

As regards message sources, the study by MISA found that the media in Malawi obtained most of its information from men, who contributed 88% while women's contribution was only 12%. This was the trend in what the study referred to as 'hard news' such as politics, sports, education though with varying ratios. Only in matters do with topics like gender violence were women found to be in the majority as message sources, though, in terms of language, the study unveiled the existence of sexist reporting in the Malawian media. According to the report, women, whose professional lives and positive achievements were almost completely ignored, suffered unfair treatment as language used against them reinforced traditional roles

like that of mothers, wives or objects to do with beauty, sex and victimisation (ibid). Attributing roles of mothers and wives to women can be a very difficult stereotype to undo, as observed by Olczyk and Twardoska (n.d.) because it perpetuates gender imbalances in society.

In the field of sports, Duncan et al. (1990) carried out a study aimed at analysing the quality of women's sports coverage in comparison with the coverage of sports involving men. The researchers investigated local sports coverage on an American television station in Los Angeles during a six-week period in the year 1989 when a tournament was running in basketball and tennis for women and men. A considerable amount of sexism was found. For six weeks, sports news broadcasts on the selected television station were tape-recorded and then analysed in terms of airtime devoted to men's sports and airtime devoted to women's sports. This constituted the qualitative analysis but the researchers went further to analyse the coverage qualitatively in terms of visual and verbal commentary.

The researchers computed the totals by gender for the entire period, which were later converted into percentages. The computation included frequencies of verbal and graphic gender marking, strength and weakness descriptors and types of naming.

Qualitatively, the study found that male sports received coverage of 92% of airtime as opposed to 5% of female sports, with the remaining 3% being taken by gender-neutral topics. In terms of linguistic markers, women's games were generally marked as 'Women's National Championship' while men's games were never marked but were simply referred to as the National Championship games. It is noteworthy that

the study found the use of strength descriptors such as 'confident', 'smart', 'mature' and 'quick' common when referring to men's performance but weak descriptors like 'mental mistake', 'weary,' 'frustrated', 'losing concentration' and 'vulnerable' were applied by the commentator to refer to women's performance (Ibid).

Apart from these verbal attributions of strength and weakness, the study found that commentators often called female players 'girls' or 'young ladies' as opposed to 'men', 'young men' or 'fellas' for their male counterparts. This was in addition to calling female players by their first names only and male participants by full names or surnames. Overall findings of the study were that although televised sports were clearly biased against women, there was evidence of efforts by some media practitioners especially commentators to move towards non-sexist reporting with regard to women's sports. At the end of the study, the researchers recommended, from a linguistic viewpoint, the use of parallel words like 'men' and 'women' and that the word 'girl' be restricted to circumstances where 'boy' is used for a man. Further recommendations included standardisation in the use of the first and last names for males and females as well as standardising the use of gender markers for women's games and men's games.

Cooper (1984) in Pauwels (1988) reports findings of a study which aimed to investigate the impact of feminist language planning on the use of masculine generic pronouns and nouns which included occupational nouns. Occupational nouns are words describing a person's occupation such as 'cameraman', 'businessman' 'draftsman'. In this study, 500,000 words were extracted from various newspapers, current affairs publications and women's magazines in the United States of America

from 1971 to 1979. The corpus was analysed qualitatively and the researcher found that the use of the masculine generic such as 'man' had reduced from 12.3% in 1971 to 4.3% in 1979. In a similar study with similar findings, Meyerhoff (1984) carried out an investigation of sexist language in newspapers and magazines of different kinds for different audiences such as women and students in New Zealand. The corpus consisted of 150,000 words drawn from five papers. Meyerhoff's study found that the use of masculine generic nouns and pronouns was on the decrease especially in the students' newspaper. We must, however, take note that the study, like several others, does not give the statistics involved in the investigation and this makes the findings somewhat subjective.

Several years later, Spears and Seydegart (1993) reported results of a study was conducted by Media Watch in 1992, in which six Canadian newspapers were analysed between 1990 and 1992. The study sought to find out the frequencies of appearance in the media of men and women. Results showed that female reporters' representation was 30% in 1990 and 27% in 1992 but revealed an increase in women as news referents from 17% to 19% from 1990 to 1992 respectively. The study further looked at the language aspect and traced elements of sexism in that the word 'chairman' was used to address a female. Other forms of sexism included the use of 'female robber', but no statistics are given to show the occurrence of sexist language.

Gallagher (1995) reports of a global monitoring exercise in which women from 71 countries in different parts of the world undertook to study the contents of their news media on a selected day of January 1995. A total of 15,500 stories were available for analysis and overall results unveiled sharp differences between women and men,

*with women constituting only 17% of the people that were interviewed. The study also showed that only 11% of the news stories were dedicated to topics about women.*

Blinde et.al (1991) in Gniazdowski and Denham (2003) sampled 16 television sports programmes which they recorded. Out of these, six were men's games and 10 were women's. The games were played during two seasons between 1988 and 1990, with a motive which was linguistically oriented, targeting language used by the commentators. The researchers noted that commentators often compared female athletes to the likes of male basketball players, thereby basing their judgment on a male standard and consequently trivialising women. The investigators also noted that basketball games involving women were referred to as 'women's basketball' and games involving men were not gender-marked. Traces of generic terms like 'defenseman' and 'man-to-man' were heard in commentaries involving women's games and referring to women. Blinde et al. (ibid) also lamented failure by commentators to use parallel terminology such as 'ladies and gentlemen' as other researchers whose works have been referred to above have noted.

This chapter has presented a review of the literature that is related to the study that we undertook. The chapter looked at the baseline survey conducted in Zambia in 2003 and went further to look at other studies such as those by Signorrelly (1977), Furnham and Schofield (1986), and Chilimapunga (1999). Although these studies were not tailored exactly in the same way as the current study, they are based on gender and the media and make use of aspects of language. They also give us a rich background on the topic under study. During the review of this literature, it was

noted that the media favours men and under-represents women in most aspects of the studies carried out.

In the next chapter, we shall seek to explain the research procedures and techniques used in this study in an effort to provide solutions to the questions that were asked in earlier chapters. We shall proceed by giving a detailed presentation of the methodology used during the data collection process, the sampling procedures, sample size as well as the process of data analysis.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.0 General**

The previous Chapter was a presentation of the review of literature related to past studies on language, gender and the media. The Chapter focussed on major studies, how these studies were carried out as well as the findings. In most of these, it was found that the male gender took an upper hand over the female gender in whatever aspect was being investigated.

In the present chapter, the aim is to explain the various procedures and techniques that were used in order to come up with answers to the research questions in chapter One. The methodology used in the study will be reviewed and details of the type of research, the population and sample size and methods of data collection will be presented. The chapter will also give proceedings of data analysis.

This chapter first discusses various aspects of research and gives a description of its importance. It also tackles research methods and procedures followed as well as research design of the study. It is in this chapter that we shall look at ethical considerations before proceeding to data collection, sampling, sample size and sampling techniques.

#### 4.1. Research Paradigm

There are basically three models of research or research paradigms: qualitative research, quantitative research and the mixed research paradigm. Patton (1990) in Simwinga (2006) observes that recent developments in research require the researcher to consider not only methods that suit their studies but should employ those methods that will produce the best results. This calls for triangulation, a combination of two or more approaches such as the use of qualitative and quantitative methods in the same study.

This study was based on a mixture of the qualitative and quantitative methods, meaning that it made use of the mixed research method. This was preferred in view of the fact that each of the two methods above has its own strengths and weaknesses, as Johnson and Onweugbuzie (2004) put it. Advocates of the two research paradigms view their paradigms as the ideal one in the field of research and do not believe in the mixing of these two categories. However, it must be noted that despite the differences between the two camps, shortcomings from each camp are to be expected. This is the state of affairs that renders the concept of mixed research desirable. In mixed research:

*A qualitative study and a quantitative research study are conducted either concurrently (conducting both at roughly the same time) or sequentially (conducting one first and the other second) to address a research topic (Johnson and Christensen, n.d.)*

It naturally follows that mixed research reconciles the principles of both the qualitative and quantitative research in the research process in order to find a practical solution to the problem being investigated. Depending on the objectives of the study, the mixed research approach could be an ideal approach as it increases the quality of research.

A study of this magnitude required a multidimensional approach to bring all issues of gender and language in the Zambian media to the foreground. For this reason, the study made use of the mixed research approach because it makes use of both qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative aspect helped the researcher to carry out a linguistic analysis of the media discourse in English, whereas the quantitative approach helped to arrive at statistics of the occurrence of gendered language in the media.

#### **4.2. Ethical Considerations**

This study took into consideration all issues to do with ethics in research and ensured that none of the subjects or writers in the press suffered any harm to their integrity. Bless and Smith (1995) emphasise three forms of ethical consideration – firstly, privacy or voluntary participation, where the researcher invades the privacy of the participants and infringes on the rights of the participant. The second one is anonymity. Where the researcher and the participant have agreed to withhold the name of the participant, this must be done but, thirdly, where anonymity cannot be guaranteed because the researcher must inevitably know the names of the participants, confidentiality must be observed and the information disclosed be used for the purposes of research only.

This study aimed at the analysis of linguistic expressions and in no way went into discussions on subjects or participants of media programmes or texts. If any names were mentioned in the study, they were presented the way they appeared in the press and avoided at all costs going into the privacy of the participants.

Furthermore, as can be observed from the index, journalists are only identified as male or female rather than by name whereas papers and electronic media stations are collectively referred to as print media or electronic media. Where individual papers and stations are mentioned, our interest lie in statistics and other relevant data rather than on discussion of the media houses concerned.

In this way, the study respected the rights and integrity of the journalists, media houses as well as those of their subjects.

#### **4.3. Data Collection**

The study was conducted in three phases. The first phase involved consultation of secondary sources on linguistics and gender. In the University of Zambia Library, books, journals, newspapers, magazines, periodicals and internet sources were consulted to provide relevant facts in linguistics and gender. Non Governmental Organisations such as FAWEZA were also consulted for information relevant to the study. Other institutions where secondary data was obtained included the Nkrumah College of Education library in Kabwe.

The principal sources of data were local newspapers, radio and television stations whose articles and programmes were linguistically analysed to determine the amount of sexism in the language used. Five daily papers namely 'Times of Zambia', 'Sunday Times of Zambia', 'Zambia Daily Mail', 'Sunday Mail' and 'The Post' were used for this exercise as these form the larger part of the country's print media. The sample was reinforced by analysing programmes recorded from the national radio and television station, ZNBC, which was checked for sexist language. Electronic media samples included private radio stations - Radio Phoenix and QFM.

#### **4.4. Population and Sample Size**

The target population for the study comprised items of the media captured during a three month period from 20 January 2005 to 19 April 2005. These were Zambian daily newspapers and broadcasting material which was explicit enough to allow the researcher carry out the study within a well-defined time limit to such an extent that daily papers and broadcasting material coming before and after the specified dates would not be part of the population.

In the view of Kane (1995), it saves time and resources to work with a sample rather than to work with an entire population as long as the sampling procedure is properly carried out and the sample is representative of the population and can produce results that are similar to those that would be obtained if the entire population were used.

In terms of time, the research period was specified as 90 days or three months and on each day, a newspaper or a radio/TV broadcast was considered. In other words, 90

newspapers and 90 recorded broadcasts formed the database of the study. Out of the target population, a sample size of 30 newspapers and 30 recorded broadcasts were picked.

#### **4.5. Sampling Techniques**

Aggarwal (1988) suggests several sampling techniques. Among these are random sampling and stratified sampling. He suggests that a good sample should not only be representative but should also be sufficient to enhance confidence in the stability of its characteristics. He further suggests that the more the cases there are in a sample, the more reliable are the results.

Kalat (2002) recommends random sampling as a reliable technique of sampling in as much as it gives an equal chance to every individual of the population to be selected and therefore reduces chances of bias in the sample. On the other hand, stratified sampling ensures that the population is stratified or broken into sub populations called strata, each one with characteristics like those of the main population. This is done in order to raise the precision of the sample.

However, the technique used to obtain the samples from the selected population was a combination of the two and was called stratified random sampling, as proposed by Aggarwal (1988). Stratified random sampling was preferred because of its reliability in eliminating biases in the selection of media materials.

The newspapers and recorded broadcasts that were selected for analysis were spread over a period of three months. It entailed tracing them for three months after the commencement of data collection and this fell in the month of January 2005. This

date was pure coincidence with the beginning of data collection, and this helped eliminate possible bias in the selection of the date, as the researcher had no control over it. The researcher sampled the publications by using regular intervals in a systematic way, a technique referred to as systematic sampling. The process involved:

- (i) Listing the dates from the first day of month one to the last day of month three, the first day being 20 January 2005 and the last day being 19 April 2005.
- (ii) Determining the desired sampling fraction, in this case 30 days out of 90.
- (iii) Using the formula

$K = N/n$  proposed by Aggarwal, where  $n = 30$ ,  $N = 90$  and  $K$  being the constant,

$$K = 90/30$$

$$K = 3$$

This gave a sampling fraction of  $1/3$  which, in statistics, is good enough to yield reliable results.

- (iv) Listing the numbers between 1 and  $k$ , both being inclusive and  $k$  being the constant. In this study, the numbers 1 and  $k$  were 1, 2, 3.
- (v) One of these numbers was chosen randomly to avoid biased and doctored results. To choose the number, three pieces of paper labelled 1, 2 and 3 were folded and squeezed in order to conceal the labels. The three pieces of paper were then put in a tin which was closed and then shaken in order to ensure thorough mixing of the pieces. The researcher opened the tin and picked one piece of paper at random. This number picked happened to be 3 and, according to the formula, 3 would be the first day of data collection. This led to the following pattern:

3

$$3 + 3 = 6$$

$$6 + 3 = 9$$

$$9 + 3 = 12$$

$$12 + 3 = 15 \text{ etc.}$$

Therefore, the samples chosen for the collection of daily newspapers for the whole period, starting from the first day of month one, were the 3<sup>rd</sup> day, the 6<sup>th</sup> day, the 9<sup>th</sup>, the 12<sup>th</sup>, the 15<sup>th</sup> and so on up to the 90<sup>th</sup> day in accordance with the calendar. This gave a total of about 30 days and the sampled newspapers took the days in alternation after being arranged alphabetically. With this method, the researcher had no control over the sample or the newspapers that would be procured for the project as each one was predetermined.

The same sampling technique was used to sample recorded broadcasts, except that this time, although the sampling fraction was still 3, the choice remained between 1 and 2 since the third piece of paper had already been chosen. This precaution not to include number 3 during sampling as it had already been taken by the print media was very important, for its choice would have entailed having media recordings on the same days as newspaper collections. The aim was to spread the selection to as many days as possible but having media recordings and newspaper collections would have limited the number of days for data collection.

The same procedure for selecting was followed, where the researcher shook the tin and randomly picked a piece of paper to determine the number. This time number 1 was picked and the same formula applied thus:

1

$$1 + 3 = 4$$

$$4 + 3 = 7$$

$$7 + 3 = 10$$

$$10 + 3 = 13 \text{ etc.}$$

The researcher focussed on recordings made for three months following the commencement of data collection on selected channels, at selected times of the days and on the  $n^{\text{th}}$  day of the data collection period. Thus between 1 and 2, random sampling favoured the number 1, which meant that the first recording was on day 1, followed by day 4 and day 7, proceeding as with the print media and in accordance with the formula. The five channels constituted a sequence and in each sequence, the channels were arranged in alphabetical order and were assigned the dates in alternation. In each sequence, all the recordings were done at the same hour (e.g. 07:00 hrs – 08:00hrs) but on different days as stratified in the sampling. At the completion of a sequence, the recording time shifted to another hour (e.g. 10:00 hrs – 11:00 hrs) and so on, save for ZNBC TV due its hours of operation, which were different from those of the radio stations. The shift in hours helped to avoid meeting same announcers or same programmes in a later recording. The sampling procedure ensured a random selection of research material over which the researcher had no control. This meant collecting any data or recordings that came the researcher's way during the predetermined hours, regardless of the nature of programme or the language used, though the target language was English as used in the Zambian media.

A targeted collection of 30 newspapers coupled with 30 radio transmissions/television broadcasts within three months was a large enough source of information for the research.

#### **4.6 Data Analysis**

Data analysis for this study commenced soon after the beginning of data collection from the media samples, and it was a mixed method in that it analysed the data qualitatively as well as quantitatively. The qualitative aspect was based on the guidelines proposed by the National Council of Teachers of English referred to in the second chapter. This entailed analysing all gendered discourse that appeared in the media in the English language ascertaining the extent to which gendered discourse was gender-fair or gender-biased. The quantitative part dealt with statistics of the gendered language used in the media and paid special attention to the frequencies of occurrence of male terms in comparison with female terms, in line with the objectives set in Chapter One.

The researcher therefore analysed gendered language with special focus on word order, generic nouns and pronouns, gender-related vocabulary, patronising/demeaning/pejorative expressions, '-man' words and personal titles.

#### **4.7 Limitations**

The study targeted 30 newspapers and 30 recordings but due to circumstances beyond the researcher's control, 29 of each were collected. One newspaper was not circulated in the area on the day it was to be procured and efforts to procure it later

failed, while a sampled recording could not be captured because the radio station concerned was off air before, during and after the intended recording time.

#### **4.8 Conclusion**

The proceedings and methods of this research have the backing of many other studies that have been conducted in the past by renowned researchers and scholars. Some of these are quoted in Conceptual Background and Literature Review that we saw in the previous chapters. The methodologies suggested in this chapter are not the researcher's own but they are methods that have been applied in modern scientific or social science research.

Having analysed the data and obtained the findings using the methodology proposed, we now need to get an accurate picture of what is obtaining in the Zambian media by turning to the materials extracted from the media. In the next chapter, we shall therefore carry out the analysis.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### FINDINGS

#### 5.0 General

The previous chapter dealt with the methodology used to carry out the study on the relationship between language and gender in the Zambian media. The chapter focussed on the research procedures and techniques that were used to answer the research questions raised in the first chapter of the study. The chapter started with the definition of research and discussed the importance of research. It went further to look at the models of research and specifically discussed qualitative, quantitative and mixed research methods. The chapter also presented details pertaining to data collection and analysis, sampling techniques and sample size.

This chapter will present the findings of the study based on the objectives of the same study that were presented in Chapter One. The results are presented in four sections and each section answers the research questions asked in the first chapter.

These are:

- (i) are there any linguistic expressions used by the media to refer to men and women?
- (ii) can these linguistic expressions be classified as gender-fair (GF) or gender-biased (GB)?
- (iii) can the GF and the GB expressions be related to the gender of the referent?

- (iv) can the GF and the GB be related to the gender of the writer of the story or originator of the message?

The first section addresses the results of the qualitative and quantitative analyses of common linguistics expressions used by the media to refer to men and women. The second section presents findings of the classification of linguistic expressions as either gender-fair (GF) or gender-biased (GB), while the third section presents results after an attempt to relate gender-biased and the gender-neutral expressions to the gender of the referent. In the last section, the presentation will be based on findings that were arrived at after relating the gender-fair and the gender-biased expressions to the writer of the text or the message source, also called the Originator.

In each of the sections, the presentation is arranged under the six linguistic themes that were being investigated. These are:

- (i) Word order
- (ii) Generic nouns and pronouns
- (iii) Gender-linked vocabulary
- (iv) Patronising/demeaning/pejorative expressions
- (v) '-man' words
- (vi) Personal titles

All the examples referred to in these sections are drawn from the data in the appendix given at the end of the report. The alphanumeric figures given in the brackets at the

end of each example are reference codes to help us locate the examples in the appendices

## **5.1 Findings of Qualitative and Quantitative Analyses of Media Language**

### **5.1.0 General**

The study employed the triangulation method, where two approaches were used – the qualitative approach and the quantitative approach in order to come up with a more complete dimension of the given problem. This section begins with the presentation of the qualitative analysis of the data collected before undertaking the quantitative analysis. The qualitative analysis sought to undertake an in-depth understanding of the gender-related language used in the media with no emphasis on statistical figures. Statistical figures, as Wimmer and Dominick (1994) state, allow a precise way of reporting results. This kind of precision has been left for the quantitative part of the analysis.

#### **5.1.1 Qualitative Analysis of Media Language**

In this section, we shall discuss the content of the gender insensitive language that was extracted from both the print and electronic media and carry out a linguistic analysis of it and, where appropriate, suggest alternatives that send gender-fair messages to the audience. We shall proceed in the same order as in the previous sections, beginning with word order. Although the English language is said to be sexist, great care and caution must be taken in the analysis that the Zambian media

does not make use of the English language only, but that local languages too are used in transmission. However, local languages have been ignored and only those utterances or texts which embrace the English language and local languages have been considered for analysis.

#### 5.1.1.1 Word Order

The most relevant cases of female/male word order found in the print media included statement such as:

- (a) *Even great **men and women** in society have failed several tasks before (P26).*
- (b) *Mr Mulenga also indicated that out of ...20,877 were **boys** and 19,887 were **girls** (P79).*
- (c) *She gave examples of some HIV positive **women** who were afraid to tell their **husbands** their HIV status for fear of rejection.... Just as there are **men** who are afraid to tell their **wives** that they are HIV positive, or even that they are on treatment (P140).*
- (d) *What about the high rates of HIV/AIDS, which has continued to wipe out our productive people – the **mothers, fathers, brothers and sisters** including children? (P296)*
- (e) *The Kawambwa truck accident is indeed a very sad event. I mourn with the **fathers, mothers** and relatives of the deceased pupils (P396).*

- (f) *Instead of victimising the little **policemen and women** who are just doing what has been endorsed as being right by the authorities, the Police Chief Siakalima should resign (P398).*
- (g) *Mr John Chandwa and Ms Janet Mutambo said that the seminar was very helpful and they believed that they would be able to double their production after they had learnt (P620).*
- (h) *About 100 ruling party supporters, mostly **young men and women**, also gathered in a distant northern district ahead of their own march into the centre (P948).*
- (i) *The Zambia Army is looking for courageous able-bodied **men and women** to join the Zambia Army as officers (P1190).*
- (j) *In another development, police are looking for two unarmed criminals who, on February 21, around 21:00 hours, robbed a **man** and his girlfriend of*
- (k) *a wristwatch, shoes and a shirt in Lusaka's Kalingalinga area near Chainama Golf Club. **The criminals also raped the woman** and police have appealed to the public to stop walking unaccompanied at night (P1219).*

In the era of gender sensitivity, the authors of sentences (a), (b), (e), (i), among others, still stick to the tradition of male firstness which gender activists discourage. Traditionally, women were preceded by men in expressions like **he** or **she, men and women, Mr and Mrs** but this amounted to linguistic inequality. Gender savvy scholars propose that when women and men are described together, gender inequality should be eliminated and this can be done in various ways. The University of Tasmania Student Services (2002) suggests the reversing of word order by switching between **men and women** and **women and men** in (a), **or fathers,**

*mothers* to *mothers, fathers* (d), as the case may, be if the gendered terms cannot be done away with. However, it is also possible to eliminate the gendered terms if they are not necessary and their elimination does not infringe on the meaning or construction of the sentence. With the latter option, the authors of the sentences could have broken the tradition of male firstness either by changing the order *fathers, mothers* to *mothers, fathers* or simply by doing away with the gendered nouns in preference to a neutral noun *parents*. In the same vein, the gender elements 'men' and 'women' in *policewomen and men* could have been avoided in preference to *police officers*. The word 'officers' being a neutral term does not leave either of the parties involved with a feeling inferiority but treats both with equality.

The originator of the message, who gives statistics about examination results in (b), is justified to make his analysis by gender and can therefore not help citing boys separately from girls but also proves to be a traditionalist in that throughout his speech, he precedes girls with boys.

On the contrary, the idea about women precedes that of men in (c) above and this may seem to be a 'positive' for women. Whether the author or the speaker constructed this sentence with feminism in mind is one thing, but it could equally be true that this kind of firstness is derogatory because being a victim of HIV is not a pleasant thing, hence according this malady to women before talking about men. Evidently, the situation of men as having HIV only comes as an afterthought and presented as a 'by-the-way' because, as seen in the statement, *men* take the second position.

The 100 ruling party supporters (h) were simply mostly *youths, juveniles* or *adolescents* rather than young *men* and *women*. In the same way, the Zambia Army (i) does not need to look for courageous, able-bodied men and women but should courageous *citizens* or *nationals*, sometimes even *civilians*. When they put up an advertisement in such language, it becomes clear in the minds of the readership that these courageous, able-bodied citizens, nationals or civilians that the Army is looking for are actually *women* and *men*.

*Mr John Chandwa* and *Ms Janet Mutambo* cited in (g), as far as the story goes, were merely participants to a seminar on chicken rearing. The story does not give any details about their standing in terms of superiority, rank or position in relation to each other. Therefore, there is no justification for Mr Chandwa to precede his female counterpart.

Further analysis of the newspaper articles reveals that the woman and the man that were robbed in 'another development' in (j) have been portrayed from the man's point of view, even when the two existed as separate and independent entities with equal status at the time of the incident. Only the reporter knows why it was 'the man and his girlfriend' that were robbed and not 'the woman and her boyfriend'. This is a one sided analysis. When one puts the whole scenario into focus, one sees that the rape incident was more serious than the robbery. A case of sexism arises in the manner in which the matter is reported in as much as the reporter tends to award firstness to the matter that involves the man, overlooking a more serious crime committed against the woman - rape. Gender sensitive reporting would have avoided trivialising the offence committed against the woman by allowing it to take the first

position. This would have entailed recasting the entire article so that emphasis is placed on the woman, not for the sake of it but because of the nature of the circumstance in which she has been found:

⇒ *In another development, police are looking for two unarmed criminals who, on February 21, around 21:00 hours, **raped a woman** who was walking with her boyfriend in Lusaka's Kalingalinga area near Chainama Golf Club. The criminals **also** robbed the duo of a wristwatch, shoes and a shirt and police have appealed to the public to stop walking unaccompanied at night.*

The term 'duo' plays a double role in the recast sentence: partly to avoid repetition of the two nouns but mainly to help the author resolve the word order problem, i.e. starting with one sex rather than the other as in 'man and woman' or in 'woman and man'.

Sometimes, word order problems can be avoided by using general terms as pointed out earlier on. This is the case with the following situations extracted in the electronic media:

- (a) *My **father** would lift me high and my **mother** would spin me round (E1618).*
- (b) *Your **mum** is missing you, your **papa** is missing you (E1644).*
- (c) *The old people you see around, when you look at them, you can never imagine that at one time, they were so **beautiful and handsome**. Anyway, if you look at them carefully, they look so **handsome and beautiful**.(E1652)*
- (d) *Mr na Mrs Henry Chinyama (E1676).*

- (e) *Time for our club frics boys and girls...* (E1776)
- (f) *Your child may increase his or her risk of getting scabbies by borrowing other children's clothing* (E1800).
- (g) *I'm passing my greetings to all my family in Luanshya, mum and dad, Shima, Raphael... Mwaba* (E1821).

There seems to be no justification for male firstness in utterance (a) apart from the traditional belief that men are superior to women and that they must precede women. Of course, the utterance is an extract from a song not done by the media. This is one case where the media is an innocent tool but must share the responsibility in that it helps diffuse the message to the public by playing songs whose language is not gender sensitive. One may further want to assume that the 'strong' father is associated with the act of 'lifting someone high', which requires more energy than the act of merely spinning, associated with the 'weak' mother.

The two other utterances (b) and (g), make a difference in that the female noun used precedes the male noun, but again, this is a matter of tradition as in the popular 'ladies and gentlemen', whose order has never been justified. In some instances, the use of these gender nouns can be substituted with neutral nouns in order to avoid all polemics based on firstness. Thus, (b) and (g) can be recast as follows although this may have a negative bearing on the melody of the song:

- ⇒ *Your parents are missing you, your parents are missing you.*
- ⇒ *I'm passing my greetings to my whole family in Luanshya, my parents, Shima, Raphael, Mwaba*

Gender attributes seem to be well balanced in (c) in that the order has been interchanged the second time it is being referred to. The interlocutor is cautious to begin with the female attribute 'beautiful' and passes on to the male 'handsome'; in the second place, he begins with the masculine 'handsome' and ends with the feminine 'beautiful'. This is a fair way of making gender representations in a discourse, but the fact still remains that he makes an unnecessary distinction between women and men. A closer look at the utterance reveals that there is no need to use the feminine attribute 'beautiful' and the masculine 'handsome' when the referent 'old people' is itself neutral. The utterance could be expressed more simply as:

⇒ *The old people you see around, when you look at them, you can never imagine that at one time, they were so **good-looking**. Anyway, if you look at them carefully, they are so **good-looking***

Sentences of the type (d) will be treated in greater detail in a later section where we shall look at personal titles for the moment, we may conclude from the discussion that when a female is coupled with a male, the result is that the male takes the first place as tradition demands, hence the arrangement **Mr** and **Mrs** Henry Chinyama.

The two gender terms in (e) can either be interchanged as earlier proposed or can come under the umbrella of one neutral term **children** depending on the age of the parties involved.

The last utterance for consideration in this section is (f) where the originator of the message has done well to include both genders with the neutral noun 'child' rather than use the traditional generic possessive adjective 'his'. This is in cognisance of the fact that the child can be female or male. However, the word order that is used in the utterance still favours the male sex, hence the need to recast the sentence into a more gender-friendly one. Apart from interchanging the possessives 'his' and 'her', the sentence could be recast by dropping the possessive adjective altogether, then pluralising the nouns or by making use of the definite article, as in:

⇒ *Your child may increase **chances** of getting scabies by borrowing other children's' clothing.*

⇒ *Your child may increase **the risk** of getting scabies by borrowing other children's' clothing*

In this section, we have seen that the manner in which gendered nouns are ordered can send a negative message to the party whose noun has been preceded. It is therefore important to vary the order of these words when their presence is inevitable. On the other hand, we have also seen that sometimes, it is not necessary to have gendered words in a text or utterance. Where this is the case, we are advised to substitute them with equivalent gender neutral terms.

Having done an analysis of word order as used both in the print and electronic media, we now turn to the second theme lined up for analysis – the use of generic nouns and pronouns in the media.

### 5.1.1.2 Generic Nouns and Pronouns

Most of the sentences or utterances that were transcribed from the print media had to do with the generic noun 'man' and its pronoun 'he'. This may lead the reader or the listener to conclude that the media consider men the norm of the human race and sends women into the background of human activities. The sentences cited below could be considered thus:

- (a) *Ndola's Twapia township along the dual carriage way has spawned folk artists, craftsmen and salesmen.* (P120).
- (b) *The 1962 election was based on 'one man, one vote'* (P391).
- (c) *The entire government has failed to airlift poor men's children from Kawambwa to Lusaka's UTH. To people in charge, what do you think of the poor man in Zambia?* (P399)
- (d) *Reputable civil engineering firm is looking for self-motivated university degree holders... to take up appointment immediately. 08 No. Foreman... handsome remuneration package shall be offered* (P552).
- (e) *The Workman's Compensation Board audits the site annually and has raised no safety concerns* (P837).
- (f) *When most people book a safari, they do so to get into a bush and see wildlife. Often, it is only when they reach their destination and chat to their driver or the barman that they begin to wonder where and how the local people live* (P843).
- (g) *It has now become increasingly clear that it does not make a lot of sense for a man sitting in the Local Government office in a far flung and remote area*

*such as Shang'ombo to wait for instruction or to wait for a technocrat to assess damage from headquarters in Lusaka to institute repair work on a washed down bridge in his area (P878).*

- (h) KCM Training opportunities – Technicians and Craftsmen: candidates should have completed training in 2004, holding Technician or Craft Certificates (P985).*
- (i) If a man knew he would fall, he would spread straw there first - a Finnish proverb (P1211).*
- (j) Do not take advantage of a hired man who is poor and needy, whether he is a brother Israelite or an alien living in one of your towns (P1458).*
- (k) For those that have followed research into finding a cure into the last two or so decades, HIV/AIDS has no cure and continues to baffle scientists and traditional medicinemen (P1469).*

Understandably, in none of the above was it meant that women should be excluded. For instance, in sentences (b), (d), (g), (h) and (j) the originators of the message are merely being male-centred because there has never been a law in Zambia barring women from voting or stating that only men should vote (b). Whether the election was based on a 'one man one vote' or not, the fact of the matter is that even women participated in the 1962 election in question. The use of 'man' in the quotation only suppresses women and makes them silent in the whole election process, despite their right to vote. A general term 'person' is more appropriate because it embraces every member of the electorate.

Due to sensitisation on gender issues in the recent past, the *Workman's* Compensation Board alluded to in (e) has in actual fact been renamed as *Workers'* Compensation Board. This follows the interpretation that the term *workman's*, did not include women and kept women silent, although it was generically used. What is surprising, though, is that the media should continue to propagate such gender insensitive language despite the change of name which took place several years back. Even if the originator of the message had erred, it was the duty of the media to halt the use of the discarded term and employ a more gender-friendly term, in this case *Workers' Compensation Board*.

Let us consider the word 'man' as used in one of the sentences above. It is not true that the Local Government in Shang'ombo only employs men as is implied in (g). The use of the noun 'man' and its possessive adjective 'his' excludes the possibility that a woman could ever sit in a Local Government office in Shang'ombo. This usage further presupposes that women are virtually absent from government offices in far-flung areas like Shang'ombo. However, the idea in (g) can embrace women by becoming an *officer, an official, an employee, a person* or *someone*, whose possessive adjective should be replaced by the definite article 'the' as in:

⇒ *It has now become increasingly clear that it does not make a lot of sense for an officer/an official/ an employee/a person/someone sitting in the Local Government office in a far flung and remote area such as Shang'ombo to wait for instruction or to wait for a technocrat to assess damage from headquarters in Lusaka to institute repair work on a washed down bridge in the area.*

An author who was not part of the newspaper company concerned is the originator of the message in (c) above. It is an extract from the 'Letters to the Editor' column. The author has used the masculine term 'man' twice in the same sentence, making the reader, at first reading, wonder whether the Kawambwa children were brought up by men only and whether they have no mothers. Of course, it is understood that the term 'man' both in the singular and in the plural forms has been used generically, meaning that it refers to women as well. This usage is unwarranted and could be avoided with the help of hyponyms and synonyms on one hand and by recasting the sentence on the other, as in:

- ⇒ *The entire government has failed to airlift poor **people's** children from Kawambwa to Lusaka's UTH. To people in charge, what do you think of the poor in Zambia?*
- ⇒ *The entire government has failed to airlift **underprivileged** children from Kawambwa to Lusaka's UTH. To people in charge, what do you think of the people from **the lower class** in Zambia?*

In fact, since an outsider wrote this article, the editor had reserved the right to edit it in order to eliminate all the gender biased language and bring it to the level that will please both men and women. Similarly, the generic use of 'man' and its pronoun 'he' (i) can be bypassed by recasting the proverb and conveying its message in reported form. The researcher acknowledges the fact that a proverb, like a sentence in direct speech, is immune to alteration but the way round the situation is to put in reported speech so as to avoid, all gender linked trouble. For instance:

- ⇒ *There is a Finnish proverb that asserts that **people** who know that **they** would fall would spread straw there first.*
- ⇒ *There exist a Finnish proverb whose meaning is that **anyone** who knew that they would fall would spread **his/her** straw there first.*

Further arguments of a gender nature can be avoided by not allowing interested parties to use **his/her** as in the proposed sentence above. In this regard, the rules of language permit the user to use the definite article ‘the’ or the indefinite article ‘a’ before the noun ‘straw’. In this case, possession is implied.

- ⇒ *There exists a Finnish proverb whose meaning is that **anyone** who knew that they would fall would spread **a/the** straw there first.*

The use of ‘a hired man’ and its pronoun ‘he’ (j) encompasses women as well. This is a quotation from the Bible and, as is the case with proverbs, must stand as it is unless more recent versions of the Bible are used. What is written in the Bible cannot be altered, but there is a way to get round it. The author of the text or the editor could have changed matters by recasting the quotation as an indirect sentence so that women are openly included in the sentence, by making use of a hyponym of ‘man’ and omitting the generic pronoun ‘he’. This would also entail making further modification to the noun ‘brother’, which, understandably, includes ‘sister’. The term ‘brother’ can be substituted with ‘brother or sister’, ‘sister or brother’ or ‘fellow Israelite’ or simply ‘Israelite’. A possible complaint could arise for using ‘brother or sister’ or the interchanged option as one would have to justify the firstness of

whichever term comes first. With this, it is prudent to avoid it altogether and write in simpler style:

- ⇒ *The Bible tells us not to take advantage of a hired **person** who is poor and needy, whether **an Israelite** or an alien living in one of your towns.*
- ⇒ *The Bible tells us to refrain from taking advantage of hired **persons** who are poor or needy, whether **they** are **Israelites** or aliens living in one of your towns.*

Similar utterances were coded from the electronic media and can be analysed using the same criteria:

- (a) *A clever **man** commits no minor blunders* (E1620).
- (b) *Pour yourself a real **man's** drink* (E1641).
- (c) *Whisky Black – for the **man** who knows what **he** wants* (E1642).
- (d) *There are a lot of **businessmen** in Kasempa* (E1757).
- (e) *Who trusts paper these days? Most reports about football matches are simply a one **man's** opinion* (E1865).
- (f) *This is now your licence. If anyone comes, just show **him** this* (E1877).

In the first utterance (a), one is tempted to ask what kind of blunders a clever woman commits, since the utterance refers to men alone. Of course, the utterance is some kind of idiom or saying that has existed over many years and cannot be altered, but the announcer on duty has a part to play in order to avoid sending gender insensitive messages to the public. The message conveyed in the saying could have been put

across in an indirect way as earlier proposed for proverbs. One such paraphrase could be:

⇒ *A philosopher once suggested that **people** who are clever commit no minor blunders.*

⇒ *A **clever person** commits no minor blunders, as was suggested by scholar X.*

Sentence (f) is derived from an awareness documentary or advertisement on TV Licence by Zambia National Broadcasting Corporation, the nation's largest television station. While handing over the licence to a client at a residence, the TV station employee tells the client another employee or inspector might come some day or other and ask for the licence. If this is the case... '*Just show **him** this*', presupposing that the one coming is a man. This in turn presupposes that ZNBC has no female employees or inspectors who go to inspect TV licences in the townships. This not only excludes women but also trivialises them or suggests that women are not capable of being inspectors, unless one is very sure that the current establishment of the corporation has only men as inspectors. One way to remedy the situation is by recasting the statement as:

⇒ *This is now your licence. If anyone comes, just show **them** this.*

The use of the plural to express singular is acceptable in gender sensitive language but traditional grammarians dispute this as grammatically incorrect. Alternatively, this could be expressed as follows:

- ⇒ *This is now your licence. If anyone comes, just show **her or him** this.*
- ⇒ *This is now your licence. If anyone comes, just show **him or her** this.*
- ⇒ *This is now your licence. Show it to **anyone** who comes.*
- ⇒ *This is now your licence. It should be shown to **anyone** who comes.*

As regards the use of the generic noun 'man' in (b), (c) and (e), these can be avoided, together with the pronoun 'he' by replacing it with an antonym, a hyponym and, sometimes, the plural form. While (b) might suggest that only men take Whisky Black, there is no rule or instruction anywhere in the world that bars women from taking a drink that is on the market. Therefore, the use of 'man' in this advertisement is ill placed and the sentence should be changed by eliminating the noun or generalising it to *real people's* drink (b) and *for people who know what they want* (c).

In the same way, it is wrong to assume that only men can run newspaper companies or that only men can report events. This is the impression that one gets in the utterance 1865 where newspaper reports of these days are said to be a one *man's* opinion. Many women today are known to be reporters, therefore, the statement need's to be recast as follows:

- ⇒ *Who trusts paper these days? Most reports about football matches are simply **not public opinion.***
- ⇒ *Who trusts papers these days? Most reports about football matches are based on the opinion of a single **reporter or journalist.***

What we have been looking at in this section is the use of the generic nouns and pronouns as used in the Zambian media where we have seen tendencies by both media practitioners and the general public to use language generically to the disadvantage of women. We have seen that in some cases, even where the media houses concerned reserve the right to remedy matters, this is not done.

In the next section, we shall consider how the media use gendered-vocabulary and whether this is to the advantage of women, men or both.

### 5.1.1.3 Gender-Related Vocabulary

Gender-related vocabulary proved to be a very helpful tool in tracking down gender bias both in the press and in the electronic media. For the purpose of this study, by gender-related vocabulary is meant the use of gender-linked terminologies such as *man*, *sister* or *master* as verbs or nouns in contexts that do not merit these terms in that they do not refer to human beings. Let us take a look at the following samples:

- (a) *...we have already wasted a lot of talent that could have brought glory to Mother Zambia* (P17).
- (b) *PS threatens to manhandle civil servants* (P209).
- (c) *Virgin land for sale – Lower Zambezi ...* (P280).
- (d) *Mr Mwape said if progress and development were being hampered in Zambia due to lack of manpower in agriculture...*(P422)

- (e) *Once Zambia had been declared to have successfully passed the assessment, Zambia would then start the negotiations with **her** bilateral and multilateral creditors... (P548).*
- (f) *3 bed roomed house, wall fenced, **master bedroom** Chilenje South. K900,000 x 3 months. Contact 097...(P554).*
- (g) *This is in a case of Ackim Chibale, 35, minibus driver and Humphrey Mumba, 30, conductor, who are charged with **manslaughter** (P742).*
- (h) *Mr Chibalesa said that the 80 boxes of assorted second hand clothes (salaula) were given to the Rotary Club of Nkwazi by the **sister club** in Japan called the Rotary Club of Kani (P1216).*
- (i) *It took about 45 minutes to get to the stadium and as soon as the team got there, the woman **manning** the gate started locking it up (P1491).*
- (j) *He said the border was now safe as there were **military officers** who were **manning** the place daily (P1527).*

Gendered words relating to human beings are often generalised to ideas or concepts and used as nouns or verbs. Gender advocates realise that this kind of generalisation is linguistically offensive to either men or women and should therefore be checked. In (a), for instance, the word 'mother' in conjunction with 'Zambia', refers to a female parent. This is the basic meaning of the word and all other usages outside this biological frame must not be allowed. All the strong feelings that the author or speaker may have for their country such as Zambia do not warrant the use of the expression **mother Zambia** because, as gender activists would argue, the expression marginalises men.

The Permanent Secretary who threatens to *manhandle* civil servants in (b) does not intend to ill-treat, jostle or hustle male civil servants alone but also female ones. In a similar analysis, the woman *manning* the gate (i) and the officers who were *manning* the place daily (j) were, in gender-sensitive terms, *staffing* or *operating* at the work places mentioned. The reason why the use of this verb is discouraged is that the noun 'man' initially refers to an adult male human being. As a verb, however, it means to 'operate' or 'to be in charge of' but tends to embrace both males and females. The sentence above, where a 'woman' is said to 'man' the gate is not only paradoxical but also relegates women to the advantage of men. The idea in this sentence could be expressed otherwise, as in:

⇒ *It took about 45 minutes to get to the stadium and as soon as the team got there, the woman overseeing the gate started locking it up.*

Gender advocates feel that in many cases, the sex of a person need not be specified, unless it is really necessary for the writer to do so. Therefore, rather than specify 'the *woman* staffing the gate', a neutral term 'person' as a replacement for 'woman' could be used or the sentence recast as in the alternative below:

⇒ *It took about 45 minutes to get to the stadium and as soon as the team got there, the gatekeeper started locking up the gate.*

Where it is felt that the sex of the person must be stated, the author could express the idea as in the original sentence or find another way of doing it, for example:

⇒ *It took about 45 minutes to get to the stadium and as soon as the team got there, the gatekeeper, who was a woman, started locking up the gate.*

Biologically, the term 'virgin' (c) has sexual connotations and a virgin is a person who has never had sex before. Over the years, linguists have extended this meaning to other phenomena such as land and in particular, land that has not been used or developed. Of late, however, gender activists have been opposed to such usages. Therefore, in the eyes of activists, the advertisement in (c) could be recast without delay to read:

⇒ *New land/undeveloped land for sale – Lower Zambezi...*

Another term worth of consideration is 'master' as used in (f). 'Master' is predominantly a male term, in some cases opposed to 'mistress'. Its meaning ranges from one who has servants working for him to that of a skilled person or one who has a second university degree.

The relationship between 'master' and a 'bedroom', if expressed in gender terms, sparks off misunderstanding with gender advocates and one questions what is so 'master' about the bedroom, because, in the first place, a bedroom is a neutral entity. The so-called master bedroom, which in essence is the largest or most important bedroom in the house, could have been referred to as the 'main' bedroom and the advertisement read as follows:

⇒ *Accommodation offered – 3 bed roomed house, wall fenced, main bedroom  
Chilenje South. Contact 097...*

Where women are included in the situation given, it is not fair in gender terms to make use of a word with a masculine morpheme such as ‘man’. This is the case with ‘manpower’. In (d), it is not true that agriculture and other sectors mentioned lack the services of men or that women are readily available. What these sectors are lacking are both men and women to do the jobs that have to be done. The author should therefore have taken this into consideration and, in order to be gender neutral, should have replaced the word ‘manpower’ as follows:

⇒ *Mr Mwape said if progress and development were hampered in Zambia due to lack of trained **personnel** in agriculture, mining, medicine and other sectors, the clear answer to such a factor meant that all communities failed to deliver.*

⇒ *Mr Mwape said if progress and development were hampered in Zambia due to lack of trained **human resource** in agriculture, mining, medicine and other sectors, the clear answer to such a factor meant that all communities failed to deliver.*

A club is a neutral entity, without gender or sex (h). There is a tendency to use the term ‘sister’ for a thing that is of the same type as another such as ‘sister school’ or ‘sister company’. However, with the gender based debate in recent years, this use of the word ‘sister’ is being discouraged, just as is the case with ‘manpower’ ‘manhunt’, ‘mother body’ and others. A suggested way of expressing this sentence is:

- ⇒ *Mr Chibalesa said that the 80 boxes of assorted second hand clothes (salaula) were given to the Rotary Club of Nkwazi by **another club** in Japan called the Rotary Club of Kani*
- ⇒ *Mr Chibalesa said that the 80 boxes of assorted second hand clothes (salaula) were given to the Rotary Club of Nkwazi by **the twin club** in Japan called the Rotary Club of Kani*
- ⇒ *Mr Chibalesa said that the 80 boxes of assorted second hand clothes (salaula) were given to the Rotary Club of Nkwazi by **their counterparts** in Japan called the Rotary Club of Kani*

‘Manslaughter’ (g), like ‘manhunt’, does not exclude women. Used as a noun, ‘manslaughter’ is given to a crime or a charge against someone that for murder that has not been committed deliberately. Such is the case with the two men referred to in the sentence, but the reader may want to know that the convicted did not kill a man but that the victim was rather a woman. What is striking is that no equivalent ‘female’ term exists and so, ‘manslaughter’ must be used for both men and women. This promotes gender imbalance and is not accepted by feminists.

The editor of the strong should have found a more neutral term as is being proposed below:

- ⇒ *This is in a case of Ackim Chibale, 35, minibus driver and Humphrey Mumba, 30, conductor, who are charged **for causing the death of ...***

⇒ *This is in a case of Ackim Chibale, 35, minibus driver and Humphrey Mumba, 30, conductor, who are charged for causing death.*

As regards gender-linked vocabulary, the picture in the electronic media did not differ much from that in the press in that similar terms were identified, most of them along the lines of 'mother', 'master' or 'man-.' The sentences given below were utterances coded from the electronic media and are presented here for analysis:

- (a) *So far the Government has not even reacted. It's like everything is normal. Our union, our **mother body**, has given us up to...*(E1554).
- (b) *The time is 10:50 hrs on your **mother** station* (E1773).
- (c) *I've checked a few here – **Bachelor's** degrees here, *ma* Diploma, *ma* **Master's**...*(E1927).
- (d) *This is your **motherland** vibe with Danny Peddle* (E1648).
- (e) *Why didn't you write Cichewa, your **mother tongue**?* (E1944)

The practice of using gender linked terminologies like 'mother body', 'mother board' 'king size' has no proper justification amidst neutral situations and only ends up excluding either men or women. A mother being a female parent of a given species, the use of the noun in relation to a union is questionable. This is because the noun 'mother' is an exclusively female term. In the statement that follows, the 'union' is a neuter entity, comprising both men and women and the gendered noun put in place can be substituted with a simple, neuter term:

- ⇒ *So far the Government has not even reacted. It's like everything is normal.*  
*Our union, our **main organ**, has given us up to...*
- ⇒ *So far the Government has not even reacted. It's like everything is normal.*  
*Our union, our **central organ**, has given us up to...*

The same applies for the use of 'motherboard' in the computer where the gendered noun should be replaced with a neutral term 'main', hence computer 'main board'. Therefore, all other usages where gendered nouns appear with related functions such as mother country, motherland and mother tongue, might need to be changed as follows:

- ⇒ *mother country – country of origin, native country or colonial power.*
- ⇒ *motherland – country of origin or native country*
- ⇒ *mother tongue – first language or language spoken in the family.*

In this regard, the announcer on duty who uttered the statement in (b) above on radio could have referred to her radio the station as the 'main station', or 'the nation's number one radio station' by stating:

- ⇒ *The time is 10:50 hrs on the **nation's original radio** station.*
- ⇒ *The time is 10:50 hrs on the **nation's main radio** station*

Gender activists have of late met the academic use of 'bachelor' and 'master' with resistance. The argument is that these terms are not gender neutral; a bachelor is predominantly a man, as is a master. Their logic in this case is that these male terms

cannot be used to name qualifications that are obtained by both women and men because women might be affected in such a way that they may regard them as men's qualifications and take it as an excuse for failing to attain them. In short, Bachelor's degree' and Master's degree' are male orientated terms that tend to exclude women. Therefore, they must be changed and the following are the alternatives:

⇒ *I've checked a few here – first degrees here, ma Diploma, ma second degrees...*

⇒ *I've checked a few here – degrees here, ma Diploma, ma postgraduate degrees...*

Other statements could be recast as follows:

⇒ *Why didn't you write Cichewa, your native language/ your first language/ your own language? (e)*

⇒ *Local vibe for Motherland vibe (d)*

As we conclude this section, it is worth mentioning that gender bias in the media continues to be perpetrated by way of gender-related vocabulary where authors and journalists tend to use gender-linked terms as nouns or verbs in situations where they can easily be avoided. Such tendencies have an effect in one way or the other on either men or women and therefore there is need to curb their use.

As we continue in our analysis of the use of gendered language in the media, we now turn to expressions that people use and are consequently used by the media to demean or patronise either women or men.

#### 5.1.1.4 Patronising/Demeaning/Pejorative Expressions

Many terms that are used to show affection, closeness or are used as complements end up denigrating the referent although in many cases, the referent may not be aware of it. Instances of patronising and demeaning expressions were extracted from both the print and electronic media, with the latter recording far more than the former. One obvious reason for this is that these expressions are more frequent in oral language used in songs and plays, among others, which are transmitted on radio and television. Despite this, the following statements were identified in the press:

- (a) *I would like to appeal to Kalusha Bwalya to consider including Mutapa in the national soccer team as the **boy** has no doubt rediscovered his talent (P18).*
- (b) *I am 24 and I am going out with a 21 year old **girl** (P50).*
- (c) *Then, when he went back home, he remembered how his wife looked, when you look at her, she is like **a fresh leaf**, tender and soft speaking. When you look at her skin, the complexion is **like snow**, when you look at the way she walks, she walks **like a flamingo**, what a woman to lose (P59).*
- (d) *Whether a schoolgirl goes around with a **sugar daddy** because she wants to be his fourth wife or merely because she wants to buy chocolates from*

- Shoprite, she is vulnerable and society offers her little protection or support as demonstrated by the minister's ill prepared interview (P299)*
- (e) *Nkoya, who is well remembered for his role as Jeremiah Sokosi in the Mthangatambeta production 'It's My Turn' stars with Zimbabwe's own golden girl Eyahra Mathazia-Guzha in this two-character cast (P823).*
- (f) *Nyati said his boys were ready for this weekend's must win encounter and that the players were responding well to training and were confident of victor (P955).*
- (g) *The fledging romance between Nick, a playboy bachelor, and Suzanne, a divorced mother of two, is threatened by a particularly harrowing New Year's Eve (P1399).*
- (h) *Nyati, whose side lost to Swaziland 23-24 in Mbabane about two weeks ago, said his boys were set to make up for the loss they suffered in the first qualifier (P1407).*
- (i) *Sunday Girl: charming 20 year old Faneli Malambo graces the catwalk during a Miss Fan Beauty Pageant held in Lusaka recently (P1462).*
- (j) *Thank you honey (P1891).*

Many language users do not know it but it is trivialising to refer to grown up like Mutapa (a) and Nyati's players (f) as boys in as much as they are adults. By definition, a boy is a young male person, opposed to a girl who is a young female person. All other usages may be trivialising and even offensive. Mutapa and Nyati's 'boys' could therefore be referred to as players and sentence P955 recast as follows:

⇒ *Nyati said his **players/men** were ready for this weekend's must win encounter and that **they** were responding well to training and were confident of victory.*

In (g), unless Nick accepts being called a playboy, the term is highly derogatory. This is because a boy is a male who has not reached adulthood but a bachelor is an adult and so referring to him as a *playboy* is not only demeaning him but also offensive. The word 'suitor' or 'companion' or 'lover' is more appropriate for the situation.

In view of this, none of the 'girls' mentioned in (b), (e) and (i) deserve to be reduced to that stage in life because they have already gone passed it and are now adults. For this reason, the originator of the message in (b) should consider looking for a *21 year old partner* or a *21 year old marriage partner* in place of a girl. Similarly, the *golden girl* in (e), from a linguistic point of view, has not been treated with the dignity she deserves. By definition, a girl, as seen above, is a female child. It is looked at from the 'child' point of view and so any other use is in most cases offensive. This 'golden girl' is actually Zimbabwe's *golden woman* or better still, Zimbabwe's *golden actor*. Gender activists, of late, have been opposed to the use of such terms as 'actress', 'manageress' etc.

It may appear as a compliment to liken a woman to a fresh leaf or snow (c) but in actual fact this is not praise but a push down. A woman is a human being and cannot be associated with a *flower*, which does not have characteristics of a human, nor with *snow*, which has no life. Similarly, the association between the woman and a *flamingo* needs to be reviewed because it might be offensive to liken a human being

to a bird. One could argue that the speaker was merely looking at features but even then she/he could have found appropriate features of well-known humans to attribute to this woman. Such kind of praise, despite referring to a lover, should be avoided because in real sense they convey praise in the negative sense.

In sentence (d), the use of *sugar daddy* in all respects is pejorative because it looks at a person, in this case, old men, as people who are fond of enticing young women for sex. The media reports events of men who flirt around with schoolgirls but tends to overlook older women who go out with young schoolboys. The term 'sugar daddy' could be easily be replaced with a more neutral term 'lover' in order to make the sentence less offensive to men. Another option is to look at the situation from two points of view and report it in general terms:

⇒ *Whether a pupil goes around with a rich elderly person because s/he wants to be the fourth lover/spouse or merely because s/he wants to buy chocolates from Shoprite, s/he is vulnerable and society offers little protection or support as demonstrated by the minister's ill prepared interview.*

Sentences conveying related messages were coded from the electronic media. Most of them hovered around the words denigrating expressions like 'baby' (a), (b), 'girl' (f) and 'boy' (g) to mean adult men or women. In many instances, it is the man who wants to win the love of a woman as is the case in (b) who chooses to use the noun 'baby' to refer to the woman. Again, by definition, a baby is a very young child who cannot care for itself. Used for an adult, 'baby' may mean that someone behaves like a small child.

The use of these demeaning expressions such as baby cuts deeper than this if we opt to study qualities of a baby. Some of them are 'low thinking, inability to do something on their own, lack of initiative and so on. These are the characteristics we see in the woman that the man in (b) wants to make love to. If we go even deeper and explore utterances like these, we would not be wrong to say that they demean the man. The implication is that he himself is such a low thinker that he intends to make love with a little child, which is not only a disgrace but also an illegal act.

Other applications of the word are either disapproving or offensive. The following statements are testimony of this:

- (a) *My **baby**, you are the reason I feel so right I could fly (referring to a woman)* (E1586).
- (b) *I need you **baby** to make love* (E1615).
- (c) *My **honey**, tushane, my lover, tushane* (E1769).
- (d) Greetings to my beloved wife my ***peanut butter*** Mrs Elly Chipembele Sikulu (E1848).
- (e) *My **darling** husband, I went on a business trip again* (E1870).
- (f) *What's this I hear about you not liking white **girls**?* (E1893).
- (g) *Now, what's going on between you and that **boy** Mabize?* (E1942)

Some patronising expressions come in the form of endearments intended to flatter the addressee as in (e), where the wife is referring to the husband as 'darling' when she has actually just returned from a drinking spree with her male companions. Thus,

the use of 'darling' in '*My darling husband, I went on a business trip again*' to reiterate the speaker's love for the interlocutor is very questionable and the endearment in this case can only be accepted as flattery.

Finally, the singer in (c) and the caller in E1848, have their own style of addressing their partners. Whereas the former addresses her as *honey*, the latter prefers the term *peanut butter*. The speakers of these sentences are human beings and should not delight in calling their lovers and spouses as 'honey' or 'peanut butter'. Both of these terms, which have to do with foods, cannot be used to refer to humans. Comparing women or men to anything that is not human is depersonifying and dehumanising a human being.

It is clear from the discussion that gender bias in the media is perpetuated when terms that are believed to be used in an affectionate sense turn out to be derogatory and pejorative. One such a word, as we have seen, among others, is 'baby' and another is 'sugar daddy' or 'honey'. We realise, that journalists and members of the public who have access to the media tend to use gender-linked terms even in situations where they can easily be avoided. In the same section, we noticed that language which trivialises one sex does not treat members of that sex with dignity or respect.

In the next section, we shall discuss the use of '-man' words in both the print and electronic media and determine what extent they are gender-neutral or gender-bias.

### 5.1.1.5 '-man' Words

The use of '-man' words in the era where advocates are fighting gender imbalances is best avoided where possible. Most of the distinctions made in the data collected from both the print and the electronic media could have been done away with by avoiding all the gender related terms and replacing them with the neutral term 'person' or 'chair' in the case of 'chairman/chairwoman'. In the next ten sentences that were sampled for analysis, for example, *chairperson*, *chair*, *spokesperson*, could easily replace *chairman* and *spokeswoman* as *businessman* could be replaced by *traders* or *businesspersons*, *manufacturers*, *retailers* or *entrepreneurs* depending on the nature of activities the subject is involved in. The writers of these sentences could have used these options to fill up for the highlighted nouns below:

- (a) ...but *chairman* of committees Mkonge Lungu censured Kasongo (P5).
- (b) Whitehouse *spokeswoman* Clàire Buchan said Bush was told about the attack right after it happened and he reiterated his message that the US mission in Iraq would continue (P69).
- (c) FAZ *spokesman* Mwansa Mubulakulima said the game would be part of the launch while Midlands games will be played on Sunday... (P284).
- (d) The source said about 8 speakers, who included Lusaka Province MMD chairperson Geoffrey Chumbwe, a Mr Musakabantu and MMD Luaapula Province *chairman* Kennedy Sakeni, questioned Pastor Mumba's morality (P337).
- (e) This week alone, nearly 50 Iraqi soldiers, *policemen* and would be recruits have been killed by suicide bombs in cites of Baghdad (P602).

- (f) Notice – **Chairman's** statement – ZCCM Investment Holdings PLC (P785).
- (g) Two other candidates, a **businessman** and a leader of a small opposition party- have also asked that the vote be postponed (P949)
- (h) UK government has issued a travel ban on Kenyan ministers and **businessmen** (P1179)
- (i) He told the court that the National Campaign Committee of MMD, of which he was **chairman**, received 157 motor vehicles for distribution to constituencies (P1228).
- (j) The top seeded **Frenchwoman** advanced by beating 17 year-old Anna Ivanovic (P1402).

As can be noted, (d) and (i) make use of **chairman** for male referents, and the readership is able to tell that the referent is male. Therefore, this use of the word is free of gender-bias, except that, as we saw in our quantitative analysis, the media tends to have far more statistics of male '-man' terms than those for females. This picture, which marginalises women, can be corrected by avoiding the use of such '-man' words in preference to neutral expressions like **chairperson**. Similar observations are made for **spokeswoman** in (b) and **Frenchwoman** in (j) in which there is no doubt about the sex of the referents. However, misunderstandings may arise in (a), (c) where the gender identity of the **chairman** of committees and **spokesman** for FAZ are not obvious to the reader by virtue of their traditional names, unless the reader has prior knowledge about the sex of the referent. To explain further, if the reader is reading about Mkongé Lungu (a) and Kennedy Sakeni (d) for the first time, it is easier to assume that Sakeni is male by virtue of his English first name but many questions will be raised about the sex of Mkongé Lungu, whose

first name can refer to either a male or a female. Therefore, the use of the term 'chairman' for Mkonge Lungu may send misleading message to the reader, who is more likely to assume that the referent is male.

Another matter worth discussing as we look at '-man' words as used in the media concerns statements of the type (e) and (h). While the reports given may not be disputed, one wonders whether there was not a single *female police officer* killed in the Baghdad suicide bombing and whether the UK government has issued a travel ban on Kenyan *businessmen* to the UK but will continue to allow Kenyan *businesswomen* to visit the country.

Another observation made in the media, especially in the electronic media is the inconsistent use of '-man' words. The use of *chairman* is more common when the referent is male but with female referents, the term *chairperson* is more often used in place of *chairwoman*. In fact, the aspect of inconsistency is also present in the print media above (d) where, in the same sentence, one person is referred as 'chairperson' and another as 'chairman'. Cases of inconsistency that are cited in this section are those in the utterances in (b) and (c) below, which were made within the same news bulletin. The news editors' failure to use a parallel female term for *chairman* in (c), having used the word *chairman* in (b) raises great concern. In short, the use of the male term in the first sentence should have evoked the use of *chairwoman* though the activists refrain from the use of gender distinctive terms.

In the sentences (a), (b), (e) and (f) below, all the gender-related '-man' terms could be substituted with neutral terms such as 'chairperson' as used in (c) and (d). The use

of 'chairperson' for the subject is the correct way of referring to the subject but cannot be discussed in further detail since neutral terms are not part of the current discussion.

- (a) *Give me beer, **barman**. What are you drinking?* (E1578)
- (b) *UPND Publicity and Information **Chairman** Patrick Chisanga told Radio Phoenix that since the Supreme Court is the highest court, there is nothing UPND will do apart from not accepting the verdict of the presidential petition* (E1619).
- (c) *NGOCC **Chairperson** Lucy Muyoyeta told Radio Phoenix that following the landmark judgement on the presidential petition, there is need for the new deal leaders to remain focussed on developing the nation* (Recording No. 12).
- (d) *Earlier, Zambia Scrap Metal Recycling Association **Chairperson** David Roberts complained that fleets of trucks of scrape metal are still marooned at the border posts* (Recording No. 3)
- (e) *The **fishermen** drowned when their boat capsized as they were being pursued by Zambia Wildlife Authorities and police officers* (E1783).
- (f) *The MMD in Ndola District has warned of stern action against a party cadre posing as **Chairman** for a committee spearheading the campaign for President Mwanawasa* (E1811).

(Utterances in (c) and (d) have not been given codes because they deal with gender-neutral term 'chairperson', which is not part of the data collected for this study).

As we end this section, we continue to notice gender-biased terminologies presented in the media through the use of words ending in -man such as 'businesswoman and 'chairman'. We have noted tendencies by the media to prefer words which refer to males rather than to those that refer to females. We furthermore noted certain inconsistencies which favour men. In short, the general observation has been that the media uses '-man' words more to the advantage of men than to that of women.

In the last section of the qualitative analysis, which will deal with the use of personal titles both in the print and electronic media, I will try to establish whether the way personal titles are used in the media can in anyway lead to gender-biases of any kind.

#### 5.1.1.6 Personal Titles

Findings show the media further perpetrates gender differences by way of personal titles. Personal titles are opposed to professional titles in that while the latter in most cases apply to both sexes, such as Doctor, Professor as in *Dr Chibale* or *Professor Tembo*, the former makes clear distinction between men and women. This is all the more reason why some sectors of the media have resorted to what could be termed as 'zero title', where no title is attached to a named personality. This is the case with 'Telecel Southern Region Sales Manager Ethel Mulenga confirmed... Mulenga observed that ...' (Paper No. 19 page 9) and 'Kalulushi MMD MP Chitalu Sampa defended... Sampa said the ...'(Paper No. 22 page 9). One thought when the zero title is used is that the author aims to present the personality as a neutral figure, with no emphasis on gender or sex, whereas presentation with a personal title does not escape the possible allegation of putting emphasis on the sex or marital status of the

individual. A clearer picture of this assumption is obtained after analysis of the following extracts:

- (a) *For more information, contact Ms Viola Chipere on this number...(P2).*
- (b) *The Board, Management, Staff and Volunteers of the Zambia Red Cross Society wish to thank Miss Manana Burtikashivilli, Finance and Administration Delegate ...(P101).*
- (c) *Sir Alex Ferguson has urged his Manchester United defence to stand firm against AC Milan.... (P267).*
- (d) *Anyone interested can write to me at C/O Miss Annie Chungu, ...(P322)*
- (e) *We wish to congratulate Mrs Elizabeth Mutaka, Executive Director... (P339).*
- (f) *Ms Horn said the association would be able to demand transparency and accountability on the part of local government authorities (P637).*
- (g) *RSTA board chairman William Harrington said in Lusaka yesterday it was an offence under the Road traffic Act for any motorist to misuse or abuse hooting device. Mr Harrington said motorists would have themselves to blame if the road police... (P1013/1014).*
- (h) *Special Assistant Arthur Yoyo said in a statement released in Lusaka yesterday that Mr Kazenene's transfer was with immediate effect (P1018).*
- (i) *She echoed Mr Bonman's view that management felt touched by the love Mrs Simango had demonstrated for children (P1107).*

Whereas, with the help of the neutral *Ms*, the personalities in (a) and (f) are presented as females and without emphasis on marital status, those in (b) and (d) are revealed

to the reader as single women. Thus, use of *Miss* in the two sentences reveals to the reader the fact that the referent is not married, a matter that some women do not take kindly to because their marital status is not a public affair. On the contrary, the use of *Mrs* in (e) and (i) does not identify the referent as independent but rather as someone who is dependent on or is in the custody of another person, who is obviously male. This does not happen to men because the titles *Mr* and in rare cases, *Sir* have no connotations of marital status.

Extracts from the electronic media include the title 'Mr' used in (c) below that meet the expectations and demands of gender activists in that it is a neutral term. The parallel title, 'Ms' (b), (e), neither exposes the marital status of a woman nor puts emphasis on her dependence on a man unlike 'Mrs' (a), (d). 'Ms' is a courteous way of addressing a woman as an independent entity; just as 'Mr' identifies a man as independent.

- (a) *ZANA reports that Mrs Sachelo said it was also gratifying that the CRC had received so many recommendations from people with disabilities throughout the country (E1560).*
- (b) *Ms Muyoyeta said both the opposition and the ruling party spent 3 years on the petition case at the expense of the development of the nation (E1626).*
- (c) *Mr Mwanawasa is expected to address party and government officials at govt offices (E1780).*
- (d) *Mrs Mainza, can you tell us what we are going to learn today (E1795).*
- (e) *Ms Bangweta said a search was conducted at his house where immigration officers found official documents known as a Form 15 (E1907).*

The use of personal titles in the media, as we have noted in this section of the qualitative analysis present cases of gender-neutrality and gender-bias. In the event of gender-bias, women prove to be victims in instances when their marital status is exposed as in the title 'Mrs', but in other instances they are seen not to be independent because they have adopted the names of their spouses, under whose custody they seemingly are.

#### **5.1.1.7 Summary**

The factors discussed above are among those that are responsible for the perpetration gender differences in both the print and electronic media. It must be noted, however, as seen from the analysis, that sometimes the media cannot do much as it is merely a conveyor belt whose aim is only to disseminate information as it has been presented. For instance, if men precede women in a song or women are discriminated against in a play, it becomes rather tricky for the presenter on duty to intervene and change the word order. Similarly, for reports that only policemen were allowed to enter a particular premises and where a citizen writes to the editor appealing to 'Mr Government' to look into people's plight, it is the duty of the media personnel to regulate the kinds of songs to be played or simply to use her/his discretion to edit the article so that it is gender sensitive.

In the section that follows, we shall continue with the study by analysing the data that pertains to men and women in the press as well as the electronic media.

### 5.1.2 Quantitative Analysis of Media Language

In this part of the section, we shall comment on statistical figures computed in the study of the English language used in the media, making use of the frequencies to compute percentages. Statistical presentation of information is advantageous because it is able to summarise large quantities of data in an accurate way. In this presentation, we have tried to be as accurate as possible by rounding off to two decimal places. However, in rare circumstances, the figures may not add up to 100% due to the rounding off and it is hoped that the differences will not jeopardise the results. As in other sections, we shall proceed in the following sequence:

- (i) Word order
- (ii) Generic nouns and pronouns
- (iii) Gender-linked vocabulary
- (iv) Patronising/demeaning/pejorative expressions
- (v) '-man' words
- (vi) Personal titles

All the examples referred to in these sections are drawn from the data in the appendix given at the end of the report. The alphanumeric figures given in the brackets at the end of each example are reference codes to help us locate the examples in the appendices

### 5.1.2.1 Word Order

With reference to word order, the idea was to establish to what extent male terms precede female terms and vice-versa. In as far as the frequency is concerned, analysis of the data revealed that male terms such as nouns and pronouns predominated. In the following examples, men or ideas about them preceded women or ideas about women: 'he or she' (P62), 'husbands, wives, boyfriends, girlfriends' (P75), and 'Dad and mum' (E1655). This extended to situations in which women and men co-existed, for instance, 'Men are hunters while women are homemakers (P187).

The print media recorded a total of 165 female/male pairs. Out of these, male terms preceded female terms in 141 (85.45%) cases as opposed to 24 (14.55%) cases where female words assumed firstness ('Girls and boys' in 'Equal treatment of both girls and boys will help lessen the imbalances that have been created by ....' - P184 and 'mother...father' as in 'His mother is dead and his father has been out of work for ages - P135).

In the electronic media, the trend was equally unfair for women as male words continued to assume firstness, although this time, the gap seemed to close up, with women being presented first in 36.36% of the cases, and the percentage of male firstness dropping considerably to 63.74%. The reduction of the actual frequencies between the two media as regards word order and other items under investigation could be explained by the fact that while a whole daily newspaper was analysed, the recording from the electronic media was only an hour's extract on each particular day. Print and electronic media combined presents a total of 253 cases of

male/female firstness, with the male scooping 197 (77.87%) and the female only 56 (22.13%).

Table 1 below presents the frequencies of word order for female/male words in the print media and Table 2 represents the frequencies in the electronic media. Table 3 shows the overall picture for the two sectors of the media combined.

**Table 1. Frequencies of Female/Male Firstness in the Print Media**

Medium	Female First		Male First		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
Post	10	10.53	85	89.47	95
Times of Zambia	11	23.40	36	76.60	47
Zambia Daily Mail	3	15.0	20	85.0	23
<b>Total</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>14.55</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>85.45</b>	<b>165</b>

**Table 2. Frequencies of Female/Male Firstness in the Electronic Media**

Medium	Female First		Male First		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
QFM	2	100	0	0	2
Phoenix	4	44.44	5	56.56	9
ZNBC 1	0	0	28	100	28
ZNBC 2	24	66.67	12	33.33	36
ZNBC TV	2	18.18	11	81.82	13
<b>Total</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>36.36</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>63.64</b>	<b>88</b>

**Table 3. Frequencies of Female/Male Firstness in the Print and Electronic Media**

Medium	Female First		Male First		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
Print Media	24	14.55	141	85.45	165
Electronic Media	32	36.35	56	63.64	88
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>22.13</b>	<b>197</b>	<b>77.87</b>	<b>253</b>

### 5.1.2.2 Generic Nouns and Pronouns

The total number of male and female words used generically in each of the categories was calculated and percentages computed. Generic pronouns involved the use of terms such as 'Careers masters' in 'I strongly believe that this information comes mainly from careers masters and teachers' (P304) where teachers who are females are excluded from taking up careers duties or 'Businessmen' as in 'There are a lot of businessmen in Kasempa' (E1757) where one assumes that all entrepreneurs in Kasempa are males.

Results show that there are very few female terms that are used generically both in the print and electronic media. Only the 'Times' newspaper recorded 2 terms, translating to 4.76% as opposed to 40 (95.23%) male terms used generically. Even the term used generically (sisterhood, E792) in the 'Times' was used as an afterthought to the masculine term 'brotherhood' 'The Post' had a total of 75, among others, 'craftsmen, salesmen' (P120), 'his' (P194) and the use of 'man' which excluded women (P1393) and 'Zambia Daily Mail' 23 male generic nouns and pronouns and each of these constituted 100%. Apart from the 4.76% mentioned for

the 'Times', the pattern was the same in the electronic media where all the stations recorded only male terms that were used generically. The frequencies were combined and percentages were also calculated so that more general figures could be derived. Tables 4-5 give details of the frequencies of generic nouns and pronouns in the print and electronic media, whereas Table 6 shows the total number of terms used generically in the two sectors of the media combined. As can be seen, the number of male terms was 157 as opposed to only 2 female terms. This represents, in percentage terms, 98.74 and 1.26 respectively.

**Table 4. Frequencies of Generic Nouns and Pronouns in the Print Media**

Medium	Female Terms Used Generically		Male Terms Used Generically		Total
	f	%	f	%	
Post	0	0	75	100	75
Times of Zambia	2	4.76	40	95.23	42
Zambia Daily Mail	0	0	23	100	23
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1.43</b>	<b>138</b>	<b>98.57</b>	<b>140</b>

**Table 5. Frequencies of Generic Nouns and Pronouns in the Electronic Media**

Medium	Female Terms Used Generically		Male Terms Used Generically		Total
	f	%	f	%	
QFM	0	0	3	100	3
Phoenix	0	0	4	100	4
ZNBC 1	0	0	1	100	1
ZNBC 2	0	0	0	0	0
ZNBC TV	0	0	11	100	11
<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>19</b>

**Table 6. Frequencies of Generic Nouns and Pronouns in the Print and Electronic Media**

Medium	Female Terms Used Generically		Male Terms Used Generically		Total f
	f	%	f	%	
Print Media	2	1.43	138	98.57	140
Electronic Media	0	0	19	100	19
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1.26</b>	<b>157</b>	<b>98.74</b>	<b>159</b>

### 5.1.2.3 Gender-Related Vocabulary

In terms of vocabulary, the comparison between print media and electronic media in as far as the use of male and female terms for nouns or verbs is concerned presents an unbalanced trend.

Gender-related vocabulary included the use of verbs like ‘manning’ and ‘manpower’ in ‘...manning levels and manpower structures had consequently been reviewed (P593) and ‘manslaughter’ in ‘Lusaka High Court has sentenced to women to three years’ imprisonment for manslaughter (P1156). An example of gender-related vocabulary which was a female term used in the electronic media was ‘mother body’ in ‘Our Union, our mother body has given us up to... (E1554).

Whereas the print media recorded a total of 129 cases of which only 24 (18.60%) were female terms and 105 (81.40%) were male terms, the electronic media recorded 33.33% female terms and 66.67% male terms that were used as vocabulary for nouns, verbs and other parts of speech. For reasons explained earlier, the actual frequencies were comparatively low in relation to what was obtaining in the press,

with all the five stations giving a total of 6 female terms against 12 male terms used. The inadequacy in the female vocabulary is perpetrated when the total frequencies for the print and electronic media are computed and further reduced to a mere 20.41% against 79.59 % representing male terms. Tables 7 and 8 below give details of all the frequencies by newspaper and by radio station. Table 9 combines frequencies of the print and electronic media whose details have been given above.

**Table 7**      **Frequencies of Male/Female Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc. in the Print Media**

Medium	Female Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc		Male Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc		Total
	f	%	f	%	
Post	8	20	32	80	40
Times of Zambia	13	21.31	48	78.69	61
Zambia Daily Mail	3	10.71	25	89.29	28
<b>Total</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>18.60</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>81.40</b>	<b>129</b>

**Table 8**      **Frequencies of Male/Female Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc. in the Electronic Media**

Medium	Female Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc		Male Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc		Total
	f	%	f	%	
QFM	1	50	1	50	2
Phoenix	42	100	0	0	2
ZNBC 1	0	0	0	0	0
ZNBC 2	1	100	0	0	1
ZNBC TV	2	16.67	11	83.33	13
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>33.33</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>66.67</b>	<b>18</b>

**Table 9**      **Frequencies of Male/Female Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc. in the Print and Electronic Media**

Medium	Female Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc		Male Terms Used as Nouns, Verbs etc		Total
	f	%	f	%	
Print Media	24	18.60	105	81.40	129
Electronic Media	6	33.33	12	66.67	18
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>20.41</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>79.59</b>	<b>147</b>

#### 5.1.2.4 Patronising/Demeaning/Pejorative Expressions

Regarding the use of patronising expressions and demeaning language in the media, there was a marked difference between the findings in the press and those in the aired transmission, but before making any observations, it is worth noting that the electronic media had some data which was transcribed but had no voice indication which would guide the listener about the sex of the originator and that of the recipient of the message. This made it difficult to determine who was being demeaned or patronised between men and women, so such data was discarded.

From the print media (except for 'Zambia Daily Mail'), it is clear that there were more men than women for whom language was used negatively or in a pejorative way. Figures show that women are patronised against or demeaned in 32.56% of the cases against 67.44% of the cases for men. One example of a patronising/demeaning/pejorative expression in the print media is the use of the word 'girl' in 'I am 54 and I am looking for a 21 year old girl (P50) when the man concerned is searching for a life partner who is supposed to be an adult. Another is the use of 'sugar daddy', which is which has a pejorative sense, in 'Whether a school

girl goes around with a sugar daddy because she wants to be his fourth wife...'  
(P299).

Generally, cases in this category of the analysis are much fewer in the print media than they are in the electronic media where, as can be seen from Tables 10, 11 and 12, a total of 310 instances of patronisation or pejorative use of language were recorded. Of these, women are seen to be demeaned in 252 cases and this represents 81.29% against men who are treated in the same way in 58 cases (18.71%). Except for ZNBC Radio 1, which did not record a single item during the period of sampling, all the other media are seen to have anonymously discriminated against women by patronising against them or by using language which would not normally be acceptable to feminist advocates. One such instance was the use of the term 'peanut butter' by a man to refer to his wife (E1848) and a woman referring to a man as 'honey' (E1891). Likening someone to food or to an object is not only demeaning but also dehumanising and depriving her or him of human characteristics. Likewise, using the terms 'sweetie' and 'baby' in 'Super mama, my top sweetie (E1656) and 'Come on baby, I told you' (E1896) is like likening one's partner (in the latter case) to a little child who or someone who is young, childish or dependent.

Most of these languages items found expression in oral language especially songs that are played on radio and TV from time to time.

The tables below will help show statistical differences between the print and the electronic media as regards patronising or pejorative expressions.

**Table 10. Frequencies of Patronising/Demeaning/Pejorative Expressions in the Print Media**

Paper	Against Women		Against Men		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
Post	6	33.33	12	66.67	18
Times of Zambia	5	50.00	5	50.00	10
Zambia Daily Mail	3	25.00	12	75	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>32.56</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>67.44</b>	<b>43</b>

**Table 11. Frequencies of Patronising/Demeaning/Pejorative Expressions in the Electronic Media**

Medium	Against Women		Against Men		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
QFM	65	81.25	15	18.75	80
Phoenix	100	86.96	15	13.04	115
ZNBC 1	0	0	0	0	0
ZNBC 2	63	72.41	24	27.59	87
ZNBC TV	24	85.41	4	14.29	28
<b>Total</b>	<b>252</b>	<b>81.29</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>18.71</b>	<b>310</b>

**Table 12. Frequencies of Patronising/Demeaning/Pejorative Expressions in the Print and Electronic Media**

Medium	Against Women		Against Men		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
Print Media	14	32.56	29	67.44	43
Electronic Media	252	81.29	58	18.71	310
<b>Total</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>75.35</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>24.65</b>	<b>353</b>

#### 5.1.2.5 '-man' words

The distribution of 'man/woman' words in the sample generated from the newspapers under analysis favoured men with 95.05% in the Post, 92.30% in Times of Zambia and 97.27% in the Zambia Daily Mail. Statistics for the representation of 'woman' words can easily be found by finding the difference between 100 and each of the percentages given. On the average, a total of 319 words were used in the print media and of these, 307 (96.24%) represented male terms, with only 12 (3.76%) representing female terms. Male terms included words like 'clergyman' in 'A clergyman appealed to all Christians in the country to pray for peace (P454) while, among the female terms were statements like 'IOC spokeswoman, Giselle Davis, said' (P625).

Despite the lengthy period of the survey, broadcasting stations recorded only 15 cases, and all of these were inclined on masculinity, with the percentage of female terms being 0.

Considering the media as a whole, out of a total of 334 words identified, 322 (96.41%) were male terms and only 12 (3.59%) were female terms. Data extracted about 'man/woman' words is tabulated in Tables 13 - 15 as can be seen below.

**Table 13. Frequencies of '-man' Words in the Print Media**

Medium	Female Words		Male Words		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
Post	5	4.95	96	95.05	101
Times of Zambia	4	3.70	104	92.30	108
Zambia Daily Mail	3	2.73	107	97.27	110
<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>3.76</b>	<b>307</b>	<b>96.24</b>	<b>319</b>

**Table 14. Frequencies of '-man' Words in the Electronic Media**

Medium	Female Words		Male Words		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
QFM	0	0	2	100	2
Phoenix	0	0	5	100	5
ZNBC 1	0	0	0	0	0
ZNBC 2	0	0	8	100	8
ZNBC TV	0	0	0	100	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>15</b>

**Table 15. Frequencies of '-man' Words in the Print and Electronic Media**

Medium	Female Words		Male Words		Total
	f	%	f	%	f
Print Media	12	3.76	307	92.24	319
Electronic Media	0	0	15	100	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>3.59</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>96.41</b>	<b>334</b>

### 5.1.2.6 Personal Titles

As regards personal titles, we considered media subjects with personal titles only for male or female. Participants who appeared in the media without personal titles like 'Ms', 'Mrs' or 'Mr' were not considered because in some cases, it was not possible to deduce the sex of a person in the absence of contextual clues such as personal pronouns. This is normally the case with purely African or traditional names like Chanda Mulenga, Mabvuto Ndlobvu or Suwilanji Sinyangwe where the reader is unable to deduce the sex of the subject unless she or he has prior knowledge of the subject. In a word, the aim in this regard was to determine gender participation in the media through personal titles. Tables 15 shows the number of male titles used in the press during the period under review, in comparison with the number of female titles. 1889 personal titles were recorded in both the press and electronic media and 82% of these were male titles, predominantly 'Mr', as in 'Mr Kasaka said the union had done all it could to handle the situation' (P150). Occasionally, the researcher came across the word 'sir' used as a personal title. Such is the case with 'The bridge was designed by Sir Douglas Fox and was built by Cleveland Bridge Company' (P898) but the occurrence of this was restricted to one or two cases only. The total number of female titles 'Mrs', 'Ms' and 'Miss' constituted 18% of the total frequency of personal titles. Sentences in which these titles were found were of the type 'Mrs Gupta said children were the future of society' (P932), 'Miss Lute, give me a pair of shoes please – size 12' (P1105) and 'Ms Mwansa said for many years, people living on either side of Lule stream found it difficult to visit one another' (P1124).

The pattern at the level of each medium was more or less the same because each newspaper and station recorded a much higher frequency for male titles than female ones. For instance, as can be seen from the tables below, the Zambia Daily Mail recorded 704 (83.81%) male titles against 136 (16.19%) for women. Times of Zambia, with a total of 702 titles, had 585 (83.33%) male titles and 117 (16.67%) titles for women whereas the Post maintained this pattern by ratifying male dominance with 69 (78.41%) personal titles for males and of the 88 recorded.

In the electronic media, the number of titles used amounted to 259, with women, who had 68 (26.25%) titles used for them, trailing behind men who gathered 191 (73.74%) for themselves. The most striking difference between male and female titles was eminent in ZNBC TV transmissions where 30 (93.75%) out of 32 titles were used for men against 2 (6.25%) for women. Full statistical details on personal titles are in the three tables below.

**Table 16. Frequencies of Personal Titles in the Print Media**

Medium	Male Titles (Mr, Sir)		Female Titles (Mrs, Ms, Miss)		Total f
	f	%	f	%	
Post	69	78.41	19	21.59	88
Times of Zambia	585	83.33	117	16.67	702
Zambia Daily Mail	704	83.81	136	16.19	840
<b>Total</b>	<b>1358</b>	<b>83.31</b>	<b>272</b>	<b>16.69</b>	<b>1630</b>

**Table 17. Frequencies of Personal Titles in the Electronic Media**

Medium	Male Titles (Mr, Sir)		Female Titles (Mrs, Ms, Miss)		Total f
	f	%	f	%	
QFM	20	86.93	3	13.04	23
Phoenix	6	50	6	50	12
ZNBC 1	77	70.64	32	29.36	109
ZNBC 2	58	69.88	25	30.12	83
ZNBC TV	30	93.75	2	6.25	32
<b>Total</b>	<b>191</b>	<b>73.74</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>26.25</b>	<b>259</b>

**Table 18. Frequencies of Personal Titles in the Print and Electronic Media**

Medium	Male Titles (Mr, Sir)		Female Titles (Mrs, Ms, Miss)		Total f
	f	%	f	%	
Print Media	1358	83.31	272	16.69	1630
Electronic Media	191	73.74	68	26.25	259
<b>Total</b>	<b>1549</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>340</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>1889</b>

### 5.1.2.7 Female Personal Titles

After dealing with both male and female personal titles, it was found necessary to treat female titles independent of male titles in order to give detail that could not be accommodated in the preceding tables. The centre of interest in this regard was to come up with a comparison between the use of the masculine title 'Mr', which does not have any connotations of gender nature for males and the use of the feminine 'Ms', which has of late been accepted as the only female title that runs parallel to 'Mr'.

The total number of personal titles used in both the print and electronic media was 1889 and of these, men claimed a majority share of 1549 (82%) and women only 340 (18%) shared among three female titles i.e. 'Mrs', 'Ms' and 'Miss'. This represents 82% and 18% respectively. However, a comparison between the parallel titles for men and women reveals that while men's titles remain at 82%, the female parallel 'Ms' appears in 8.99% of the cases when 170 female titles under consideration are expressed as a percentage of the total 1889.

In the press alone, out of 19 titles in the Post, only 6 cases (31.68%) were noted as addressing women in a gender fair manner with the title 'Ms', for instance, 'Ms Luhila said the rural youth should be the primary target in agriculture' (P1283). In 12 cases (63.16%), women were referred to in relation to their husbands, for example When an irate Mrs Maria Kingolani, the pastors wife, entered her house, she was surprised to be greeted by a note lying on the table in the sitting-room (P1438) and in 1 instance (5.26%) women's marital status is revealed as single or unmarried (Anyone interested can write to me at C/O Miss Annie Chungu, ... (P322).

Compared with the frequencies of titles in the tables above, it is apparent that men in 69 (78.41%) of the cases enjoy the use of titles correctly and honourably used for them without any gender injustice caused to them. The comparison of immediate concern is between 69 (78.41%) cases out of 88 in Table 16 and 6 (6.82%) cases out of 88 that does not show in Table 17 but can be computed separately.

While the Post shows a low percentage for the use of the use of 'Ms', which is the recommended as a gender-neutral title for women, Times of Zambia and Zambia Daily Mail have comparatively high frequencies of the titles, with the former presenting 83 (70.94%) usages of the 'Ms', 33 (28.21%) for 'Mrs' and only 1 (0.85%) for 'Miss'. However, when compared with the use of the male title 'Mr', which prominently represented 585 (83.83%), the 83 cases out of 702 where women have been referred to with dignity translates into a mere 11.82%. On the average, the print media, as is evidenced from the tables, presents a total of 1630 personal titles, 1358 of which are for men and 272 (16.69%) for women. This therefore shows that men's names appear after personal titles in 83.31% of the cases and that these are titles that give honour to them. On the other hand, the frequency of 162 out of 1630 for women's title of 'Ms', which is the parallel of 'Mr', is indicative of the fact that only in 9.94% cases are women addressed in a way that identifies them as independent human beings, neither dependent on men nor having their marital status revealed.

The summary of the use of female titles in the electronic media shows a tendency by media houses to incline towards the use of 'Mrs' in 60 out of 68 instances. This translates into 88.24% as opposed to 11.76% for the neutral title. Considered with male titles included, the frequency of the neutral female titles drops even further. While that of male terms remains at 73.74% as in Table 17, the neutral female title records a decline to a negligible 3.09% in its 8 appearances out the total 259 personal titles coded.

Tables 19, 20 and 21 summarise all the statistical details regarding female personal titles in the print and electronic media and, as can be seen from the last of these tables, out of 340 female personal titles, in 50% of the cases women are addressed in a parallel way to men when addressed with the masculine title 'Mr'. In 48.82% of the cases, women are addressed with reference to their husbands and in the remaining 1.18 of the cases, their marital status is openly disclosed as single or unmarried by the use of the title 'Miss'

**Table 19. Frequencies of Female Personal Titles in the Print Media**

Medium	Mrs		Ms		Miss		Total
	f	%	f	%	f	%	
Post	12	63.16	6	31.58	1	5.26	19
Times of Zambia	33	28.21	83	70.94	7	0.85	117
Zambia Daily Mail	61	44.85	73	53.68	2	1.47	136
<b>Total</b>	<b>606</b>	<b>38.97</b>	<b>162</b>	<b>59.56</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.47</b>	<b>272</b>

**Table 20. Frequencies of Female Personal Titles in the Electronic Media**

Medium	Mrs		Ms		Miss		Total
	f	%	f	%	f	%	
QFM	3	100	0	0	0	0	3
Phoenix	5	83.33	1	16.67	0	0	6
ZNBC 1	28	87.50	4	12.50	0	0	32
ZNBC 2	23	92.00	2	8.00	0	0	25
ZNBC TV	1	50.00	1	50.00	0	0	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>88.24</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>11.76</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>68</b>

**Table 21. Frequencies of Female Personal Titles in the Print and Electronic Media**

Medium	Mrs		Ms		Miss		Total
	f	%	f	%	f	%	
Print Media	106	38.97	162	59.56	4	1.47	272
Electronic Media	60	88.24	8	11.76	0	0	68
<b>Total</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>48.82</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.18</b>	<b>340</b>

### 5.1.2.8 Summary

Linguistically, the representation of male terms in the media was found to be 83.19% and that of female language to be 16.81%. From the computation in each of the categories so far discussed, it is evident from the themes under investigation that they are in favour of men. The table below recapitulates the observation that the media is predominantly male in terms of linguistic items such as word order, generic nouns and pronouns and gender-linked vocabulary. It is equally true for the remaining three themes as indicated in the summary table below:

**Table 22. Frequencies of Female and Male Linguistic Items in the Media**

Linguistic Theme	In Favour of Men/Against Women		In Favour of Women/Against Men		Total
	f	%	f	%	
Word Order	197	77.87	56	22.13	253
Generic Nouns and Pronouns	157	98.74	2	1.26	159
Vocabulary	117	79.59	30	20.41	147
Patronising/Demeaning Expressions	266	75.35	87	24.65	353
Man/Woman Words	322	96.41	12	3.59	334
Personal Titles	1549	82	340	18	1889
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>2608</b>	<b>83.19</b>	<b>527</b>	<b>16.81</b>	<b>3135</b>

## **5.2 Classification of Media Linguistic Items as Gender-fair or Gender-biased**

### **5.2.0 General**

In the last section, we identified the most common linguistic expressions used by the media to refer to men and women. This was in line with the first objective of the study. A qualitative analysis of the sampled linguistic expressions was conducted and in most cases, alternatives to the use of gender-insensitive language were suggested. This was followed by a statistical presentation and analysis of the data in which a quantitative analysis of the linguistic items was carried out.

While the previous section was more like an inventory of the most common linguistic expressions, the current section, which is in line with the second objective, seeks to classify these expressions as either gender-fair or gender-biased. To achieve this objective, the total number of linguistic expressions in each category such as word order, generic nouns and pronouns was worked out as seen in the previous section. In each of these categories, a third of the expressions were randomly selected and this formed the sample for the analysis. Thus, from word order, 73 items were sampled and from the generic nouns and pronouns category, the researcher picked 46 expressions. Gender-related vocabulary and demeaning expressions each had 43 and 80 items respectively while the remaining two categories, '-man words' and personal titles contributed correspondingly 80 and 563 items each towards the corpus of the study. For each linguistic theme, two tables have been presented: one with data from the print media and another with data from the electronic media. The third table is a

summary of the two. It should be noted that the first and second tables also contain data which we shall refer to in Sections 5.3 and 5.4 as we attempt to address the remaining research questions. Data for Sections 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4 have been combined to avoid duplication of presentation on one hand and to avoid lengthening the report on the other hand.

We shall proceed in the following sequence, the way we have done in the previous sections:

- (i) Word Order
- (ii) Generic Nouns and Pronouns
- (iii) Gender-Related Vocabulary
- (iv) Demeaning/Patronising/Pejorative Expressions
- (v) '-man' Words
- (vi) Personal Titles

In most of these categories below, analysis showed that women suffered more than men, as can be seen from the findings presented:

### **5.2.1 Word Order**

Results revealed that only 2 (2.74%) out of the 73 selected linguistic expressions related to word order were deemed to be gender-fair (GF) while 64 (87.67%) were biased against women (BAW). This means that in these cases, male firstness dominated female firstness, while in the remaining 7 cases (9.58%), it is women that

preceded men (BAM). Tables 23 and 24 below give data about male/female firstness and Table 25 gives the actual frequencies of male/female word order in addition to frequencies of gender-fair expressions and classifies them as either gender-fair or gender-biased.

**Table 23. Classification of Expressions of Word Order as GF or GB in the Print Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
P26	Men and women		•		•	•		•
P28	Female or male			•	•	•	•	
P29	Male and female		•		•	•	•	
P32	Male and female		•		•	•		•
P41	Male or female		•		•	•	•	
P45	Men and women		•		•	•		
P53	<i>All in italics</i>		•		•	•		
P79	Boys...girls		•		•	•	•	•
P80	Boys...girls		•		•	•	•	•
P93	<i>All in italics</i>		•		•	•		
P94	Male/female		•		•	•		
P115	Men and women		•		•	•		•
P135	Mother...father			•	•	•		•
P143	Brothers and sisters		•		•	•		•
P149	Brothers...sister		•		•	•		•
P183	Men and women		•		•	•	•	
P185	Adam...Eve		•		•	•	•	
P191	Husbands/wives...		•		•	•		
P210	Brothers and sisters		•		•	•		•
P243	Men and women		•		•	•		

P302	Him/herself			•		•	•		•
P303	He/she			•		•	•	•	
P310	His/her			•		•	•		•
P315	His/her			•		•	•		•
P318	He/she			•		•	•		•
P329	<i>All in italics</i>			•		•	•		
P354	Men, women			•		•	•		
P376	<i>All in italics</i>			•		•	•		
P396	Fathers, mothers			•		•	•		
P409	<i>All in italics</i>			•		•	•		
P411	Men and women			•		•	•		•
P412	Men and women			•		•	•		•
P495	Himself or herself			•		•	•		
P622	Charles & Camilla			•		•	•		
P667	Males and females			•		•	•		
P830	He or she			•		•	•	•	
P841	Men and women			•		•	•		•
P845	Men and women			•		•	•	•	
P886	Men and women			•		•	•		•
P950	Men and women			•		•	•	•	
P952	Ladies and gentlemen				•	•	•		•
P1002	Men and women			•		•	•	•	
P1253	Men and women			•		•	•		•
P1346	Sons...daughter			•		•	•	•	•
P1347	Brothers...sister			•		•	•	•	•
P1448	Men and women			•		•	•		
P1465	Mother and father			•		•	•		
P1487	Mother, father			•		•	•	•	•

**Table 24: Classification of Expressions of Word Order as GF or GB in the Electronic Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
E1618	Father...mother		•		•	•		•
E1627	Men and women		•		•	•		•
E1644	Mum...papa			•	•	•		•
E1652	Beautiful ...handsome Handsome...beautiful	•			•	•		•
E1655	Dad...mum		•		•	•		•
E1659	Charles...Camilla		•		•	•	•	
E1763	Widows and widowers			•	•	•	•	
E1776	Boys and girls		•		•	•		•
E1777	Brothers and sisters		•		•	•		•
E1778	Boys and girls		•		•	•		•
E1779	Brothers and sisters		•		•	•		•
E1800	His or her		•		•	•		•
E1801	Him or her		•		•	•		•
E1820	Father ...mother		•		•	•		•
E1821	Mum and dad			•	•	•		•
E1837	Brothers and sisters		•		•	•		•
E1851	Father...mummy		•		•	•		•
E1852	Nephews ...nieces		•		•	•		•
E1853	Dad and mum		•		•	•	•	
E1856	Mother...father...			•	•	•	•	
E1859	Mamas and papas Boys and girls Ladies and gentlemen.	•			•	•		•
E1903	Brother ... sister		•		•	•		•
E1914	Male...female		•		•	•		•
E1920	Men...women		•		•	•		•
E1950	Brother and sisters		•		•	•		•

**Table 25: Summary of Classification of Expressions of Word Order as either GF or GB in the Media**

Media	GF	%	GB				Total
			BAW	%	BAM	%	
Print	0	0	45	93.75	3	6.25	48
Electronic	2	8	19	76	4	16	25
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.74</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>87.67</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>9.58</b>	<b>73</b>

### 5.2.2 Generic Nouns and Pronouns

An examination of generic nouns and pronouns revealed showed that 100% of the 46 linguistic expressions that were sampled were gender-biased. As seen in Tables 26, 27 and 28, not a single expression was used in a gender-fair way but were all exaggeratingly biased against women.

**Table 26. Classification of Generic Nouns and Pronouns as either GF or GB in the Print Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
P7	Tribesmen		•		•	•		
P9	Tribesmen		•		•	•		
P15	Man		•		•	•		•
P18	Masters		•		•	•		•
P19	Masters		•		•	•		•
P68	Sons		•		•	•		•
P120	Craftsmen, salesmen		•		•	•		•
P125	Clansmen		•		•	•		•
P132	Man		•		•	•		•
P171	Chairman		•		•	•		•

P193	Man		.		.	.		.
P195	Master		.		.	.		.
P196	Man		.		.	.		.
P200	Man		.		.	.		.
P201	Man		.		.	.		.
P204	Man		.		.	.		.
P293	Barman		.		.	.		
P305	Careers masters		.		.	.		.
P389	Headman		.		.	.	.	
P400	Man		.		.	.		.
P402	Policemen		.		.	.		
P415	Man		.		.	.		
P552	Foreman		.		.	.		
P556	Worksmen		.		.	.		
P577	Chairman		.		.	.		
P661	Foreman		.		.	.		
P778	Stockmanship		.		.	.		
P821	Man		.		.	.		.
P828	Man, him		.		.	.	.	
P837	Workman's		.		.	.		.
P885	Man		.		.	.		.
P954	Men		.		.	.		
P1017	Chairman		.		.	.		.
P1046	Tribesmen		.		.	.		
P1186	Businessmen		.		.	.		
P1211	Man		.		.	.		
P1338	Man		.		.	.		.
P1458	Man, brother		.		.	.		.
P1460	Man		.		.	.		.
P1494	Man		.		.	.		

**Table 27. Classification of Generic Nouns and Pronouns as either GF or GB in the electronic media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
E1620	Man		•		•	•		•
E1865	Man		•		•	•	•	
E1897	Policeman		•		•	•		•
E1902	Man		•		•	•		•
E1877	Him		•		•	•		•
E1949	Kinsmen		•		•	•		•

**Table 28: Summary of Classification of Generic Nouns and Pronouns as either GF or GB in the Media**

Media	GF	%	GB				Total
			BAW	%	BAM	%	
Print	0	0	40	100	0	0	40
Electronic	0	0	6	100	0	0	6
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>46</b>

### 5.2.3 Gender-Related Vocabulary

Results indicated that 3 (6.97%) of the 43 gender-related vocabulary items were used fairly for both men and women while 40 (93.03%) were used in a biased manner. Of these, 23 (53.48%) were biased against women and 17 (39.53%) against men as shown in Table 31. Details of information can be seen by referring to Tables 29-31.

**Table 29: Classification of Gender-Related Vocabulary as either GF or GB in the Print Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
P17	Mother			•				•
P30	Bachelors		•					•
P114	Masters		•		•			•
P165	Masters	•						•
P209	Manhandle		•		•	•		•
P290	Manpower		•		•	•		•
P360	Man-mountain		•					•
P385	Manhandled	•				•		•
P394	Motherland			•				
P395	Mother tongue			•				
P463	Masters			•				
P522	Manned		•					
P535	Mother			•				•
P538	Mother			•				•
P548	Her			•				•
P593	Manpower		•		•	•		
P704	Manhunt		•		•			
P727	Man		•		•	•		
P747	Manslaughter		•		•			
P851	Headmaster	•				•		
P883	Motherland			•				•
P897	Sister			•				•
P911	Masters		•					•
P912	Bachelors		•					
P943	Manslaughter		•		•			
P989	Manpower		•	•	•	•		

P1011	Mother body			•				
P1012	Manhandled			•		•		
P1030	Manpower		•		•	•	•	
P1156	Manslaughter		•				•	
P1194	Masters		•					
P1250	Mother body			•				•
P1292	Manhunt		•			•		•
P1351	Mother			•				•
P1416	Manned		•		•	•		•
P1491	Manning		•		•		•	
P1527	Manning		•		•	•		•

**Table 30: Classification of Gender-Related Vocabulary as either GF or GB in the Electronic Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
E1554	Mother body			•				•
E1569	Manpower		•		•	•	•	
E1648	Motherland			•				•
E1773	Mother station			•				•
E1927	Bachelors		•				•	
E1944	Mother tongue			•				•

**Table 31: Summary of Classification of Gender-Related Vocabulary as either GF or GB in the Media**

Media	GF	%	GB				Total
			BAW	%	BAM	%	
Print	3	8.11	21	56.75	13	35.13	37
Electronic	0	0	2	33.33	4	66.67	6
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6.97</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>53.48</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>39.53</b>	<b>43</b>

#### 5.2.4 Patronising/Demeaning /Pejorative Expressions

In relation to these linguistic expressions, none of the items that appeared either in the print or electronic media was used in a gender-fair way as seen in Table 34 below. However, results indicated a discrepancy in the ratio of the bias between the use of these expressions for men and for women. While the print media had far less demeaning or patronising expressions used for men and for women, the electronic media more than 5 times as many and most of these (71.25%) were found to be biased against women as opposed to a mere 23 (28.75) that were biased against men. See Tables 32 – 35 for further details.

**Table 32: Classification of Demeaning/Patronising/Pejorative Expressions as either GF or GB in the Print Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
P18	Boy			•		•		•
P50	Girl		•		•			•
P127	Songbird		•		•			•
P299	Sugar daddy			•		•		•
P362	Girl		•		•			
P363	Boy			•		•		
P569	Sugar daddies			•		•	•	
P787	Boys			•		•		
P796	Prostitutes		•		•			
P947	Honey			•		•	•	
P1001	Girl		•		•			•
P1066	Boy			•		•		
P1407	Boys			•		•		•

**Table 33: Classification of Demeaning/Patronising/Pejorative Expressions as either GF or GB in the Electronic Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
E1576	Baby		•		•			•
E1577	Honey		•		•			•
E1579	Girl		•		•			•
E1581	Girl		•		•			•
E1582	Girl		•		•			•
E1583	Baby		•		•			•
E1584	Baby			•		•	•	
E1585	Baby		•		•			•
E1586	Baby		•		•			•
E1588	Girl		•		•			•
E1589	Girl		•		•			•
E1592	Baby			•		•	•	
E1593	Baby		•		•			•
E1595	Girl		•		•			•
E1596	Baby		•		•			•
E1599	Girl		•		•			•
E1600	Baby		•		•			•
E1601	Baby			•		•	•	
E1602	Baby		•		•			•
E1603	Baby		•		•			•
E1605	Baby		•		•			•
E1606	Girl		•		•			•
E1607	Baby		•		•			•
E1608	Baby, boy			•		•	•	
E1612	Baby		•		•			•
E1614	Girl		•		•			•

E1615	Baby		.		.			.
E1621	Baby		.		.			.
E1622	Baby			.		.	.	
E1623	Baby		.		.			.
E1637	Girl, baby		.		.			.
E1638	Girl		.		.		.	
E1639	Baby			.		.	.	
E1640	Girl		.		.			.
E1646	Boys			.		.		.
E1647	Baby		.		.			.
E1649	Boys			.		.		.
E1656	Baby		.		.			.
E1657	Sweetie		.		.			.
E1660	Girl		.		.			.
E1661	Baby		.		.			.
E1662	Baby		.		.			.
E1663	Girl		.		.			.
E1664	Girl		.		.			.
E1765	Baby			.		.	.	
E1766	Girl		.		.			.
E1767	Baby		.		.			.
E1768	Baby		.		.			.
E1769	Honey		.		.			.
E1771	Baby		.		.			.
E1774	Baby		.		.			.
E1787	Boys			.		.		.
E1791	Baby		.		.			.
E1799	Sugar daddy			.		.	.	
E1806	Boys			.		.		.
E1814	Girls		.		.			.

E1841	Baby			•		•	•	
E1870	Darling			•		•	•	
E1879	Girls		•		•			•
E1880	Baby		•		•			•
E1892	Girl		•		•			•
E1893	Girls		•		•		•	
E1895	Baby		•		•			•
E1896	Baby		•		•			•
E1917	Baby		•		•			•
E1918	Sweetie		•		•			•
E1924	Boy			•		•		•

**Table 34: Summary of Classification of Demeaning/Patronising/Pejorative Expressions as either GF or GB in the Media**

Media	GF	%	GB				Total
			BAW	%	BAM	%	
Print	0	0	5	38.47	8	61.53	13
Electronic	0	0	52	77.61	15	22.39	67
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>71.25</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>28.75</b>	<b>80</b>

### 5.2.5 '-man' Words

As seen in Table 37 below, eighty words of the type 'chairman', 'spokesman' and 'businesswoman' were sampled for the study and findings were that all of them proved to have been used fairly for both men and women, giving a statistical value of 100%. This entails that, as far as samples were concerned, words like 'businessman' or 'chairlady', whenever they were used as '-man' words, referred to men or women respectively.

**Table 35: Classification of '-man Words as either GF or GB in the Print Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
P42	Businessman	•				•		
P70	Chairman	•				•		
P87	Watchman	•				•		•
P88	Chairman	•				•		•
P90	Chairman	•				•		
P91	Spokesman	•				•		
P97	Chairman	•				•		•
P106	Headman	•				•		•
P107	Fishermen	•				•		•
P118	Barman	•				•		•
P121	Craftsman	•				•		•
P123	Guardsmen							
P159	Businessmen	•				•		•
P162	Businessman	•				•		•
P163	Businessman	•				•		•
P170	Chairman	•				•		•
P242	Headman	•				•		•
P268	Spokesman	•				•		
P277	Gunmen	•				•		
P284	Spokesman	•				•		
P288	Chairman	•				•		•
P289	Businessman	•				•		
P338	Chairman	•				•		•
P345	Businessman	•				•		•
P352	Gunmen							
P355	Spokesman							

P362	Barman	.				.		
P364	Chairman	.				.		
P382	Chairlady	.			.			.
P410	Chairman	.				.		.
P434	Chairman	.				.		
P439	Chairman	.				.		
P458	Militiamen							
P460	Spokesman	.				.		
P494	Businessman	.				.		
P524	Gunmen							
P530	Businessman	.				.		.
P550	Spokesman	.				.		
P574	Vice-chairman	.				.		
P601	Gunmen							
P625	Spokeswoman	.			.			
P654	Chairman	.				.		
P737	Businessman	.				.		
P739	Businessman	.				.		
P768	Policemen							
P785	Chairman	.				.		.
P791	Frenchman	.				.		
P825	Cameramen							.
P834	Policeman	.				.		.
P868	Chairman	.				.		
P900	Frenchman	.				.		.
P914	Spokesman							
P915	Businessman	.				.		
P923	Chairman	.				.		
P949	Businessman							
P982	Spokesman							
P1008	Frenchman	.				.		

P1009	Englishmen	.				.		
P1050	Policemen							
P1052	Spokesman	.				.		
P1065	Targetman	.				.		.
P1082	Chairman	.				.		.
P1099	Gunmen							
P1100	Policeman	.				.		.
P1102	Policeman	.				.		
P1113	Businessman	.				.		.
P1121	Chairman	.				.		.
P1130	Strongman	.				.		
P1131	Irishman	.				.		
P1170	Militiamen							
P1184	Chairman	.				.		
P1202	Chairman	.				.		.
P1224	Chairman	.				.		.
P1236	Chairman	.				.		
P1248	Chairman	.				.		
P1249	Spokesman	.				.		.
P1274	Chairman	.				.		.
P1290	Chairman							.
P1370	Chairman	.				.		.
P1393	Spokesman							
P1402	Frenchwoman	.		.				
P1404	Spokesman	.				.		
P1406	Preacherman	.				.	.	
P1417	Chairman	.				.		.
P1433	Clergyman	.				.		.
P1435	Gunmen							
P1444	Salesman	.				.		
P1450	Chairman	.				.		

P1488	Frenchman	•				•		
P1492	Chairman	•				•	•	
P1507	Businessman	•				•	•	
P1524	Chairman	•				•		•
P1534	Chairman	•				•		

**Table 36: Classification of '-man Words as either GF or GB in the Electronic Media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
E1563	Chairman	•				•	•	
E1578	Barman	•				•		•
E1636	Businessman	•				•		
E1783	Fishermen							
E1803	Chairman	•				•		

**Table 37: Summary of classification of '-man Words as either GF or GB in the Media**

Media	GF	%	GB				Total
			BAW	%	BAM	%	
Print	76	100	0	0	0	0	76
Electronic	4	100	0	0	0	0	4
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>80</b>

### 5.2.6 Personal Titles

The last section of data collection for expressions to be classified as gender-fair or gender-biased involved personal titles for both men and women. The pattern

favouring the gender-fair category continued in the personal titles class but this time, with a reduced frequency of 501 (88.99%) out of 563 cases. There were only 62 (11.01%) cases of gender bias emanating from the use of personal titles. Therefore, while all men in both the print and electronic media were properly addressed in regard to personal titles, as is evident under BAM in the table below, all the biases were against women arising from the titles 'Mrs' or 'Miss'. In effect, taking the category GB as a separate entity subdivided into BAW and BAM, biases against women were at 100% as reflected in Table 40. See Tables 38 and 39 for other details not available in the summary table.

**Table 38: Classification of 'Personal Titles' as either GF or GB in the print media**

S/No.	Linguistic Expression	GF	GB		Gender of Referent		Gender of Originator	
			BAW	BAM	F	M	F	M
P2	Ms	•				•		
P3	Mr	•				•		•
P76	Sir	•				•		
P84	Ms	•				•		
P95	Mrs		•		•			
P96	Mrs		•		•		•	
P100	Mrs		•		•			
P112	Mrs		•		•			
P124	Ms	•			•			
P138	Sir	•				•		•
P145	Mr	•				•		•
P147	Mr	•				•		•
P148	Mr	•				•		•
P152	Mr	•				•		•
P155	Mr	•				•		•
P156	Mr	•				•		•
P160	Mr	•				•		•
P167	Mr	•				•		•
P168	Mr	•				•		•

P172	Mr	•				•		•
P173	Mr	•				•		•
P174	Mr	•				•		•
P176	Mr	•				•		•
P179	Mr	•				•		•
P188	Mrs		•		•			•
P189	Mr	•				•		•
P211	Mr	•				•		•
P226	Mr	•				•		•
P258	Mrs		•		•			
P259	Mr	•				•		
P267	Sir	•				•		
P309	Ms	•			•		•	
P322	Miss		•		•		•	
P339	Mrs		•		•			
P351	Ms	•			•			•
P387	Sir	•				•		•
P416	Ms	•			•			
P418	Mr	•				•		
P419	Mr	•				•		
P420	Mr	•				•		
P423	Mr	•				•		
P424	Mr	•				•		
P426	Mr	•				•		
P427	Ms	•			•			
P429	Ms	•			•			
P430	Ms	•			•			
P433	Ms	•			•			
P435	Ms	•			•			
P436	Ms	•			•			
P438	Mr	•				•		
P450	Mr	•				•		
P452	Mr	•				•		
P453	Mr	•				•		
P467	Mr	•				•		•
P470	Mr	•				•		
P471	Mr	•				•		
P478	Ms	•			•			

P485	Mr	•				•		
P487	Mr	•				•		
P489	Ms	•			•			
P490	Mr	•				•		
P492	Mr	•				•		
P496	Mr	•				•		
P499	Mr	•				•		
P500	Mr	•				•		
P501	Mr	•				•		
P504	Ms	•			•			
P505	Ms	•			•			
P506	Mr	•				•		
P507	Mr	•				•		
P509	Mr	•				•		
P512	Mr	•				•		
P514	Ms	•			•			
P516	Mr	•				•		
P517	Mr	•				•		
P518	Mr	•				•		
P525	Mr	•				•		•
P526	Mr	•				•		•
P533	Mr	•				•	•	
P541	Mrs		•		•			•
P542	Mr	•				•		
P544	Mr	•				•		
P545	Mr	•				•		
P547	Mr	•				•		
P559	Mr	•				•		•
P563	Mr	•				•		
P564	Mr	•				•		•
P567	Mrs		•		•			
P568	Ms	•			•			
P573	Mr	•				•		
P575	Mr	•				•		
P576	Mr	•				•		
P580	Mr	•				•		
P581	Mr	•				•		
P583	Mr	•				•		

P586	Mrs		•		•			
P591	Mr	•				•		
P592	Mr	•				•		
P594	Mr	•				•		
P598	Mr	•				•		
P599	Mr	•				•		
P600	Mr	•				•		
P612	Mr	•				•		•
P620	Mr	•				•		•
P621	Mr	•				•		•
P629	Mr	•				•		
P630	Mr	•				•		
P632	Mr	•				•		
P634	Mr	•				•		
P635	Mr	•				•		
P636	Mr	•				•		
P640	Mr	•				•		
P641	Mr	•				•		
P642	Mr	•				•		
P643	Mr	•				•		
P644	Mr	•				•		
P645	Mr	•				•		
P650	Mr	•				•		
P651	Mrs		•		•			
P655	Mr	•				•		•
P657	Mr	•				•		
P659	Mr	•				•		•
P662	Mr	•				•		•
P674	Mr	•				•		
P675	Ms	•			•			
P676	Mr	•				•		
P680	Mr	•				•		
P681	Mr	•				•		
P683	Mr	•				•		
P685	Mr	•				•		
P688	Mrs		•		•			
P690	Mrs	•			•			
P693	Ms	•			•			

P694	Mrs			•		•			
P695	Mrs			•		•			
P696	Mr	•					•		
P698	Mr	•					•		
P699	Mrs		•			•			
P701	Mr	•					•		
P703	Mr	•					•		
P705	Mr	•					•		
P706	Mr	•					•		
P707	Mr	•					•		
P708	Mr	•					•		
P709	Mr	•					•		
P710	Mr	•					•		
P711	Mr	•					•		
P715	Mr	•					•		
P717	Mr	•					•		
P718	Mr	•					•		
P719	Ms	•				•			
P720	Mr	•					•		
P721	Mr	•					•		
P723	Mr	•					•		
P724	Ms	•				•			
P726	Mr	•					•		
P736	Mr	•					•		
P738	Mr	•					•		
P740	Mr	•					•		
P741	Mr	•					•		
P742	Mr	•					•		
P745	Ms	•				•			
P748	Ms	•				•			
P749	Mr	•					•		
P750	Mr	•					•		
P752	Ms	•				•			
P755	Mr	•					•		
P756	Mrs		•			•			
P759	Mr	•					•		
P760	Mr	•					•		
P761	Mr	•					•		

P762	Ms	.			.			
P763	Mr	.				.		
P764	Mr	.				.		
P765	Mr	.				.		
P766	Mr	.				.		
P769	Mrs		.		.			
P771	Mr	.				.		
P773	Mr	.				.		
P784	Ms	.			.		.	
P794	Mr	.				.		
P797	Mr	.				.		.
P798	Mr	.				.		.
P799	Mr	.				.		.
P801	Mr	.				.		
P802	Mr	.				.		
P805	Mr	.				.		
P806	Ms	.				.		
P809	Mr	.				.		
P810	Mr	.				.		
P811	Mr	.				.		
P814	Mr	.				.		.
P818	Mr	.				.		.
P826	Mrs		.		.			
P835	Mr	.				.		.
P842	Mrs		.		.			.
P848	Mr	.				.		
P849	Mr	.				.		
P850	Mr	.				.		
P853	Mr	.				.		
P854	Mr	.				.		
P856	Ms	.			.			
P858	Mr	.				.		
P860	Mr	.				.		
P861	Mr	.				.		
P865	Mr	.				.		
P866	Mr	.				.		
P867	Mr	.				.		
P869	Mr	.				.		

P872	Mr	•				•		
P873	Mr	•				•		
P881	Mr	•				•		•
P882	Mr	•				•		•
P888	Mr	•				•		•
P891	Mr	•				•		
P895	Mr	•				•		
P898	Sir	•				•		•
P907	Mr	•				•		•
P909	Mrs		•		•		•	
P921	Mr	•				•		
P922	Mr	•				•		
P926	Mr	•				•	•	
P927	Ms	•			•		•	
P928	Mr	•				•		
P930	Mr	•				•		
P932	Mrs	•			•			
P935	Mr	•				•		
P936	Mr	•				•		
P939	Mr	•				•		
P940	Mr	•				•		
P942	Mr	•				•		
P944	Mr	•				•		
P945	Mr	•				•		
P946	Mr	•				•		
P958	Mr	•				•		
P960	Mr	•				•		
P962	Mr	•				•		
P963	Mr	•				•		
P964	Mr	•				•		
P965	Mr	•				•		
P966	Ms	•			•			•
P969	Mr	•				•		
P972	Ms	•			•			
P973	Mr	•				•		
P974	Mr	•				•		
P975	Mr	•				•		
P977	Mr	•				•		

P978	Mr	•				•		
P980	Mr	•				•		
P981	Ms	•			•			
P987	Mr	•				•	•	
P988	Ms	•			•		•	
P990	Mr	•				•		•
P996	Mr	•				•	•	
P999	Mr	•				•		•
P1014	Mr	•				•		
P1015	Mr	•				•	•	
P1018	Mr	•				•		•
P1020	Mrs		•		•			•
P1023	Mr	•				•		•
P1024	Mr	•				•		•
P1025	Mr	•				•		•
P1026	Mr	•				•		•
P1027	Mr	•				•		•
P1029	Mr	•				•	•	
P1032	Mrs		•		•		•	
P1034	Mr	•				•		•
P1035	Mr	•				•		•
P1040	Mr	•				•		•
P1043	Mr	•				•	•	
P1044	Mr	•				•	•	
P1047	Mr	•				•		
P1048	Mr	•				•		
P1049	Mr	•				•		
P1053	Ms	•			•		•	
P1054	Mr	•				•	•	
P1062	Mr	•				•		
P1063	Mrs		•		•			
P1070	Mr	•				•		
P1072	Mr	•				•		
P1073	Mr	•				•	•	
P1074	Mr	•				•		•
P1077	Mr	•				•		•
P1079	Mr	•				•		•
P1080	Mr	•				•		•

P1083	Mr	•				•		•
P1084	Mr	•				•		
P1085	Mr	•				•		
P1086	Ms	•			•			•
P1088	Mr	•				•		•
P1090	Mr	•				•		•
P1093	Mr	•				•		•
P1104	Mr	•				•		•
P1105	Miss		•		•			
P1107	Mr	•				•		•
P1109	Mrs		•		•			•
P1118	Mrs		•		•		•	
P1120	Mr	•				•		•
P1124	Ms	•			•			•
P1125	Mr	•				•		
P1133	Mr	•				•	•	
P1138	Mr	•				•		•
P1140	Mr	•				•		•
P1142	Mr	•				•		•
P1143	Mr	•				•		•
P1145	Mr	•				•		•
P1148	Mr	•				•	•	•
P1149	Ms	•			•		•	•
P1151	Mr	•				•		•
P1152	Mr	•				•	•	
P1154	Mr	•				•	•	•
P1157	Ms	•			•		•	
P1158	Ms	•			•		•	
P1161	Mr	•				•	•	
P1164	Mr	•				•		
P1165	Mr	•				•		
P1166	Mr	•				•	•	
P1171	Mr	•				•		
P1173	Mr	•				•		
P1174	Mr	•				•		
P1175	Mr	•				•		
P1176	Mr	•				•		
P1178	Mr	•				•		

P1183	Mr	•				•		
P1185	Mr	•				•		
P1187	Mr	•				•		
P1188	Mr	•				•		•
P1189	Mr	•				•		•
P1195	Mr	•				•		•
P1197	Mr	•				•		•
P1198	Mr	•				•	•	•
P1203	Mr	•				•		•
P1205	Mr	•				•		•
P1206	Mr	•				•		•
P1208	Mr	•				•		•
P1209	Mr	•				•	•	
P1210	Mr	•				•	•	
P1212	Mr	•				•	•	
P1215	Mrs		•		•		•	
P1216	Mr	•				•	•	
P1217	Mrs		•		•		•	
P1218	Mr	•				•	•	
P1222	Mr	•				•	•	
P1223	Mrs		•		•			•
P1226	Ms	•			•		•	
P1229	Mr	•				•		
P1230	Mr	•				•		
P1232	Mr	•				•		
P1233	Mr	•				•		
P1237	Mr	•				•		
P1238	Mr	•				•		
P1241	Mr	•				•		
P1243	Mr	•				•		
P1244	Mrs		•		•		•	
P1247	Mr	•				•		
P1251	Mr	•				•		•
P1255	Mr	•				•		•
P1258	Mr	•				•		•
P1259	Mr	•				•	•	
P1260	Mr	•				•		•
P1263	Mr	•				•		•

P1264	Mr	•				•		•
P1270	Mr	•				•		•
P1272	Mr	•				•		•
P1273	Mr	•				•		•
P1275	Mr	•				•		•
P1276	Mr	•				•		•
P1277	Mr	•				•		•
P1279	Mr	•				•		•
P1283	Ms	•		•				•
P1284	Mr	•				•		
P1285	Ms	•		•				
P1286	Mr	•				•		
P1287	Mr	•				•		
P1288	Mr	•				•		
P1291	Mr	•				•	•	•
P1295	Mr	•				•		•
P1301	Mr	•				•		•
P1303	Mr	•				•		•
P1304	Mr	•				•	•	
P1305	Mr	•				•	•	
P1306	Mr	•				•	•	
P1307	Mr	•				•	•	
P1308	Mr	•				•	•	
P1314	Mr	•				•	•	
P1316	Mr	•				•	•	
P1317	Mr	•				•	•	
P1318	Mr	•				•	•	
P1319	Mr	•				•		•
P1323	Ms	•		•			•	
P1324	Mr	•				•	•	
P1325	Mr	•				•	•	
P1327	Mr	•				•		•
P1328	Mr	•				•		•
P1332	Mr	•				•		•
P1333	Mr	•				•	•	
P1334	Mr	•				•	•	
P1337	Mr	•				•		•
P1340	Mrs		•		•		•	