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**“The Function of Gender Marked Words in English
Newspaper Advertisements”**

MA Paper

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Abstract

This study analyses the concepts of gender marked language, explores the derivation of this type of language, and presents guidelines on how gender-oriented language can be replaced by gender neutral one. The aim of the research is to identify gender marked words in the English language and to answer the question what function do they play while used in texts of advertisements. The objectives of my analysis are: to study the theoretical approaches and studies concerning gender – oriented and gender – neutral languages; to identify the influence of sexism in language; and to provide possible solutions how to neutralize the language. The research emerges from these perspectives: *qualitative* – as the research focuses on the meaning taking place in different situations; the research involves the context and the situation; and *quantitative* – this study is focused on the relationship between grammatical gender and sociolinguistic concept of gender role. Also, variability of language usage determined by gender and the shifting social constraints is analyzed in the work. The research methods used in this study are: descriptive method, content analysis, discourse analysis, and conversational analysis. The results of the research have shown that gender marked language appear in language through words, phrases and expressions, that differentiate between women and men, or exclude and diminish one or another gender. Furthermore, gender marked language and irrelevant distinction between sexes might reinforce the superiority of male gender role in language and society.

Introduction

The power of the word is very strong and influences our thoughts and behaviour. Therefore people should be aware of the language usage, which might sound inappropriate or offensive. Every occurrence of the generic usage in language is problematic, and its “use creates, constitutes, promotes, or exploits an unfair or irrelevant distinction between the sexes” (Mary Vetterling-Braggin, 1981, 3). That is why many linguists and scholars offer a set of suggestions, how to replace sexism from language, and use gender-neutral discourse.

The MA paper deals with the scholarly works concerning the social impact on gender roles, influenced by many psychological, philosophical, and historical factors. It is based on different scholarly approaches, including criticism and diversity of examples concerning sexist language, which is gender-oriented language, and non-sexist language, which is gender-neutral.

This study analyses the concepts of gender marked language, explores the derivation of this type of language, and presents guidelines on how gender-oriented language can be replaced by gender neutral one. The problem statement of the MA paper is: gender marked words appear in English newspaper advertisements and influence a reader.

The aim of the research is to identify gender marked words in the English language and to answer the question what function do they play while used in texts of advertisements. The objectives of this analysis are: to study the theoretical approaches and studies concerning gender-oriented and gender-neutral languages; to identify the influence of sexism in language; and to provide possible solutions how to neutralize the language. The research emerges from these perspectives: *qualitative* – as the research focuses on the meaning taking place in certain situations; the research involves the context and the situation; and *quantitative* – this study is focused on the relationship between grammatical gender and sociolinguistic concept of gender role. Also, variability of language usage determined by gender and the shifting social constraints is analyzed in the work.

The research methods used in this study are: descriptive method, content analysis, discourse analysis, and conversational analysis. The MA paper consists of abstract, introduction, 4 basic chapters, conclusions, summary, references and appendices. First of all, the paper will concentrate on grammatical gender classification in the English language. Secondly, there will be analysed the social impact on gender roles and examined the variability of language usage

determined by the shifting social constraints. Also, the scholarly work concerning sociolinguistics and the linguistic variation of language usage by male and female will be presented. Moreover, I will study different scholarly approaches and examples concerning gender-oriented language and gender neutral language. Furthermore, the psychological effect of the mass media and its depiction of gender roles will be discussed.

It is assumed that gender marked language can suggest that masculine is the norm; or simply, create masculine images in the mind of the reader or listener; also, it can limit perception of vocational options. Therefore, the MA paper aims at identification of such cases of stereotyping gender roles, and illustrates them with texts of newspaper advertisements. For a more detailed analysis 50 job advertisements, service offers, and product promotions will be taken and examined. The advertisements are collected from the following English newspapers: *The Guardian*, *The Times*, *The Sunday Times*, *The Telegraph*, and *The Daily Express*.

The research provided possible solutions, how gender-oriented language instances can be replaced by gender neutral ones, whilst escaping the inappropriate issues that are present in the English language.

I. Grammatical Gender in the English Language

In the first part of my theoretical discussion I will explore the linguistic definitions of grammatical gender and present its types from the linguistic point of view. Secondly, I will concentrate on the grammatical division of the masculine, feminine and neuter genders and their grammatical properties.

Gender is the grammatical category which divides nouns into different classes. These classes have such grammatical purposes as agreement or pronoun reference. According to Huddleston (1984), in Old English all nouns were brought under the division of masculine, feminine and neuter gender. A lot of masculine nouns in OE were not gender-specific, e.g. a word *mann* could be used to name any adult human being and was gender neutral, though it implied grammatically masculine form. To specify gender classification the word *wer* was used to refer to “man” (still preserving that gender-neutral form in certain cases, esp. in compounds), and the word *wif* meant “woman”.

A formal gender system was inherited by English from its Germanic parent language, which during the 10th – 14th centuries was replaced by natural gender system. The change in grammatical gender was related to the phonetic changes in the syllable. In the course of time, grammatical gender disappeared together with the loss of inflectional endings of most nouns. In Modern English the category of gender was naturally semantic. Though some endings showed a clear gender distinction (e.g. *-dom* masculine, *-ness* feminine), many suffixes were applied to more than one gender.

In the 19th century the application of Latin grammar rules to English caused the usage of feminine endings in certain nouns with ending *-or*. For example, “doctor – doctress”, “professor – professress” or “lawyer – lawyeress”. Most of these words disappeared, though such produced words as “waitress”, “stewardess”, “actress”, still exist in the English language. In the 20th century English was largely influenced by the concept of political correctness and the principle of linguistic relativity, developed by such linguist as Benjamin Whorf (Whorf, 1950) and others.

Grammatical gender is a noun class system, constructed of two or three classes. Generally, gender classes are based on natural sex distinction, and in different languages the number of genders varies from two to more than twenty. The most well-known gender

distinctions of Indo-European languages are: 1) masculine, feminine and neuter; and 2) masculine and feminine. According to the category of gender, nouns are divided into person nouns and non-person nouns. Person nouns denote human beings and are divided into masculine and feminine. Sometimes, grammatical gender refers to animate – inanimate distinction, instead of human – non-human (while some linguists prefer the term "noun classes" when one of the inflections in a language relate to gender, and other authors speak about grammatical gender and noun classes as the separate concepts).

Though, gender denotation in the English language is minimal in comparison with most of the Indo-European family, to which the English language belongs. Nouns, adjectives and articles have no gender distinction, except for the words with feminine ending *-ness* (manageress, actress, etc.). The English words, which are gender marked are typically loanwords from non-Germanic languages, such as Latin or French (the suffix *-ette* is of French origin and is seldom used with humorous purposes, e.g. *rockette*, *trollette*, etc.). Whereas, nouns can not be classified according to the grammatical gender. The category of gender is largely conveyed by the correlation with the personal pronouns. The gender of the subject is indicated by the pronoun: masculine gender denotes male persons and is expressed by the pronoun *he*; feminine gender signifies female persons and is expressed by the pronoun *she*; and neuter or non-personal gender is conveyed by the pronoun *it*, which is used to refer mostly to the objects, animals and abstractions. The usage of gender-specific pronouns, such as *he*, *she* and *it*, mainly depends on the natural distinction of meaning based on sex. Therefore, the English language has three gender specific pronouns: *he*, *she*, *it*. The other English pronouns, such as *I*, *you*, *they*, etc., do not make any gender distinction and that is why they are called “gender neutral” pronouns or “gender neutralizers”.

According to the Wikipedia website http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_gender, there are three main methods, by which natural languages categorize nouns into genders. They divide nouns:

- according to logical or symbolic similarities in their meaning (semantic criterion);
- grouping them with other nouns with similar form (morphology);
- applying arbitrary convention criterion (related to language’s history).

In general, all these three criteria are combined in the language usage, but one of these is prevailing. Modern English is a very clear example of a language, where grammatical

gender is determined mainly by semantic meaning. The choice between *he*, *she* and *it* invariably comes down to whether their referent is a male human, a female human, or something else.

Table 1 gives a complete list of the gender-specific English personal pronouns and their declined forms, with examples of their use.

Table 1. The list of the gender – specific English personal pronouns.

	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Object</u>	<u>Possessive Adjective</u>	<u>Possessive Pronoun</u>	<u>Reflexive</u>
masculine	<i>He</i> laughed.	I kissed <i>him</i> .	<i>His</i> leg hurts.	This house is <i>his</i> .	He can support <i>himself</i> .
feminine	<i>She</i> laughed.	I kissed <i>her</i> .	<i>Her</i> arm hurts.	This house is <i>hers</i> .	She can support <i>herself</i> .
neuter	<i>It</i> is a very nice house.	I have bought <i>it</i> .	<i>Its</i> yard is big.	That cage is <i>its</i> .	It sells <i>itself</i> .

In the English language a grammatical gender depends on the agreement between nouns and pronouns, usually based on sex and animateness.

According to D. Biber (1999, 312), “gender is not a simple reflection of reality; rather it is to some extent a matter of convention and speaker’s choice and special strategies may be used to avoid gender-specific reference at all”. D. Biber largely discusses pragmatic motivation for pronoun choice. For example, he claims that masculine terminology reflects larger occurrence of masculine forms, and the distribution of third person singular personal pronouns: “masculine forms are more frequent in all registers, occurring 1.5 to more than 3 times as frequently as feminine forms” (1999, 333).

Traditionally, when we can not distinguish the sex or we do not know it, we largely use masculine class of gender. For example, *If anybody calls, tell him I’m out.* (Valeika, Buitkienė, 2003). In this example, the pronoun *he* does not signifies masculine gender, it is rather used to refer to both, masculine and feminine, genders. The pronoun *he* has traditionally been used in formal English. Nowadays, linguists have different suggestions how to demonstrate gender neutralization technique (e.g. to replace the pronoun *he* by the pronouns *she/he* or *them* (*If anybody calls, tell them I’m out*), but it is still a problematic question). Moreover, scholars agree that the use of *he* represents one of the most obvious and central cases of sexism in

language. The alternative use of singular *they* equivalent goes back to Middle English and is nowadays generally used in other styles.

Also, the masculine gender is employed to refer to a mixed sex group of people in the plural. For example, a group of actors and actress would still be called as a group of “actors”. This phenomenon was prescribed by manuals of style and school textbooks from the early 19th century until the 1960s. It was called “generic” or “universal” use. Consider these examples:

*The customer brought **his** purchases to the cashier for checkout.*

*In a supermarket, everyone can buy anything **he** needs.*

*When a customer argues, always agree with **him**.*

The usage of the word *man* to humans in general is also widely usable:

*All **men** are created equal.*

*That's one small step for a man, one giant leap for **mankind**.*

***Man** cannot live by bread alone.*

Furthermore, traditionally the feminine pronouns are used to refer to ships, even though, they are named after men (e.g. Abraham Lincoln), countries, oceans and even machines. According to Wikipedia website, in March 2002, the British newspaper Lloyds List announced that it would start referring to all vessels as *it*, but subsequently reversed its decision after receiving letters of protest. The original usage of these forms are not clear, but in Modern English this gender use is minded to diminish; and the feminine pronoun *she* is used to refer to inanimate objects in an optional figure of speech.

When one could intend or presume that most members of some group are of the same gender, he/she could prescribe the gender – specific pronouns. For example:

*A secretary should keep **her** temper in check.*

*A janitor should respect and listen to **his** employers.*

*Every hairdresser has **her** own style.*

*A junior doctor is at the bottom of **his** profession.*

Also, we can observe and discuss another linguistic process: depersonalization or personalization. Generally, it is related to the usage of neuter gender, that is the non-personal pronoun *it*. Consider this example:

The baby is learning to walk, but it is still unsteady. (Valeika, Buitkiene, 2003)

According to L.Valeika, the noun “baby” is examined here as a non-personal, that is “baby” in this sentence is depersonalized. On the other hand, the pronoun *it* can also be treated

as gender neutralization, because we are not sure whether the “baby” is male (*he*) or female (*she*), and in this case *it* includes both genders. Depersonalization technique is based on the non-personal pronoun *it* usage instead of personal-gender *he* and *she*, when we talk about young children (“infant”, “baby”, “child”), or the sex of person is unknown or unimportant. Sometimes *it* tends to suggest resentment or antipathy and in this way the negative connotation is conveyed.

In general, neuter gender identifies non-person beings, but there are several exceptions, when non-human beings can be personified, that is treated as persons. They may acquire either masculine or feminine gender form (e.g. a cat = *he* or *she*). The personification process appears mainly when we want to identify pets, domestic animals and creatures ranked high in the kingdom of wild animals as *he* or *she*. Also, the use of masculine and feminine gender in this case indicates something of great interest or empathy in comparison with neuter gender *it*, because personal reference expresses greater familiarity and involvement.

Naturally we need to distinguish different categories of sex and gender in non-person animate nouns; which is rather clear in person nouns, which, as a rule, mutually are related (e.g. a woman – *she*, a boy – friend – *he*, a washer – man – *he*, a waitress – *she*, but a baby – *she*, *he*, *it*). Huddleston and Pullum in their work “Cambridge Grammar of the English Language” (2002, 484) state, that:

“... it is important to distinguish carefully between the grammatical terms masculine and feminine and the semantic or extralinguistic terms male and female. Until relatively recently it was usual to make a parallel distinction between gender (grammatical) and sex (extralinguistic). [...] In the social sciences, however, ‘sex’ came to be used to refer to biological attributes and ‘gender’ to the social construction of sex, and this usage has been incorporated into linguistics”.

Personification process (when human traits and qualities are given to non-humans) does not refer only to living beings, this strategy can also be used to identify non-living beings. For example, in literary English the pronoun *he* is used to refer to *sun*, *mountain*, *river*, *love*, *oak*, *death*, *time*, *war*, *etc.* *She* identifies *boat*, *ship*, *engine*, *train*, *balloon*, *aeroplane*, *moon*, *sea*, *earth*, *country*, *city*, *the church*, *nature*, *science*, *liberty*, *peace*, *mercy*, *etc.* Some linguists argue, that the choice of gender with non-living beings is mainly determined by the capability of a subject to exert force: that is why, entities of major power are masculine and entities of minor power are feminine.

In conclusion, nouns are classified by gender according to the gender of the pronoun that can substitute for them. In English, gender is directly indicated mainly by pronouns, which can be classified into masculine, feminine and neuter. Though, there is clear distinction between personal and non-personal gender class, the traditional gender descriptions and usage in modern reference grammars are highly insufficient in a number of respects. They either do not reflect the actual language use, or they mix traditional with modern interpretation, which more confuses than clarifies it. Moreover, the gender marked language and its problematic usage in respect to social constraints and values are analysed in the following sections of my MA paper theoretical part.

II. The Concept of Gender Roles in Sociology and Sociolinguistics

In the second part of my theoretical overview I will analyse the social impact on gender roles and concentrate on the variability of language usage determined by the shifting social constraints. Also, there will be presented the scholarly works concerning sociolinguistics and explore the linguistic variation of language usage by male and female. Moreover, different scholarly approaches and examples concerning gender-oriented language and gender neutral language will be examined.

1. Gender Roles from the Sociological Point of View

First of all, the social impact on the repartition of gender roles in modern society will be analysed. The paper will concentrate on how the social context determines the usage of the language, and will present a subfield of sociology “*Sociology of gender*”, which emerged in the middle of the 20th century. Moreover, this part will be divided into two sections. First of all, the public discourse use of *gender* will be explored. In this section the terms “masculinity” and “femininity” will be explained, and the modern perception of those two concepts will be discussed. Secondly, the paper will focus on Feminism theory and present Feminism as the most vivid and prime example of civil right manifestation concerned with the identification of feminine gender role in the society. Furthermore, the historical and social factors which determined the appearance of this trend will be provided.

Sociology is the social science which studies the relations between society and human social actions. The field of sociology is concerned with the development of human social life in different social groups, communities and institutions, and application of different social rules and constraints to the life of the members in a certain social community. The field of sociology studies the relationship between separate individuals as members of different communities, and global social processes in general.

The word *sociology* derives from Greek and means “the study of people”. This social science is a relatively new academic discipline which emerged in the early 19th century. Sociology deals with employment of social theories and research methods while analysing the behaviour of individuals within the society and social groups, and social interactions.

Moreover, sociology is very broad discipline that is why this social science is a collection of subfields that are responsible for the examination of different social dimensions. Professional sociologists distinguish such subfields of sociology as social stratification, demography studies, political sociology, criminology, sociology of gender, sociology of race, etc. While investigating the case studies, sociologists apply a set of research methods, such as historical research, interviewing, participant observation, social network analysis, survey research, statistical analysis, and many other approaches. The task of sociologists is to explore the commonly accepted social conventions, to base their origin and developmental issues. They observe the insights of social interactions, and social input on individual personalities.

Sociology of gender is a new subfield of sociology which emerged in 1950. It investigates gender cleavages in social groups and communities. During the 20th century there emerged the fair amount of academic researches where the public discourse used the term *gender* as the identification of the masculinity or femininity of a person. The term *gender* was introduced by sexologist John Money (1955):

“The term *gender role* is used to signify all those things that a person says or does to disclose himself or herself as having the status of boy or man, girl or woman, respectively. It includes, but is not restricted to, sexuality in the sense of eroticism.”

The development of the subfield was also influenced by sociological studies and theories during the 1950s and Feminist movement.

A gender of an individual discloses a complex of countless characteristics of appearance, speech, movement and other factors, which outreach the limited term of biological sex. In the English language, terms *sex* and *gender* are used in different discourses and can not replace one another. Societies have common categorization of gender system where is a binary division of male and female, but there are such communities which do not apply this gender partition and have their own gender specifications. Different sociologists discussed for a few decades, how to approach the term *gender*, and the final discussion led to the agreement to use *gender* just for socioculturally adapted traits, and not to biological notions.

1.1 Public Discourse Use of Gender: Self-Identification of a Person

Since 1950, the term *gender* was used to distinguish a social role (gender role) and a personal identity (gender identity). Some sociologists state that gender roles are simply stereotypes, arbitrary social constructions, or natural innate differences. But another group of scholars, such as the French feminist and philosopher Simone de Beauvoir (1969), argues, that gender self-identification isn't inborn characteristic of a person, but, rather, learned social behavior.

In sociological gender studies the term *gender* refers to the social and cultural constructions of masculinity and femininity. According to Webster's New Millennium Dictionary of English (2005), a gender role is "a set of behaviours that indicates one's gender, specifically, the image projected by a person that identifies their femaleness or maleness; an overt public presentation of gender identity". Moreover, a gender role of a person is self-identification and public expression of his/her gender identity. So, every social group or system dictates or requires certain behavioural norms and constraints which are associated with males or females. These social rules are perceived and consolidated by each individual in each society, where gender role system may be different. Most researchers state, that the behaviour of a concrete individual depends on both socially recognized rules and values, and individual position of a person, whether unconscious or conscious. Cultures and societies are used to dynamic changes, that is why the social constraints and values can change over time, too, and they can be influenced by different factors.

In 1955, the American scientist Talcott Parsons presented a model of "the nuclear family", which compared a strictly traditional view of gender roles with a more liberal view. Parsons stated that the feminine role was an expressive one, and the masculine role was instrumental. According to T.Parsons, expressive women's activities fulfill "internal" functions, that is to strengthen the relations between family members. Meanwhile, instrumental activities of the men were measured with "external" functions of family, such as providing monetary support. The Parsons's model was used to contrast and illustrate extreme positions on gender roles (the model is based on the American cultural and social context). Model *A* described total separation of male and female roles, while Model *B* described the complete dissolution of barriers between gender roles.

Table 2. The Parson's model of "the nuclear family".

	Model A - Total role segregation	Model B - Total disintegration of roles
Education	Gender-specific education; high professional qualification is important only for a man	Co-educative schools, same content of classes for girls and boys, same qualification for men and women.
Profession	The workplace is not the primary area of women; career and professional advancement is deemed unimportant for a woman	For women, career is just as important as for men; therefore equal professional opportunities for men and women are necessary.
Housework	Housekeeping and child care are the primary functions of a woman; participation of the man in these functions is only partially wanted.	All housework is done by both parties to the marriage in equal shares.
Decision making	In case of conflict, a man has the last say, for example in choosing the place to live, choice of school for children, buying decisions.	Neither partner dominates; solutions do not always follow the principle of finding a concerted decision; status quo is maintained if disagreement occurs.
Child care and education	A woman takes care of the largest part of these functions; she educates children and cares for them in every way	A man and a woman share these functions equally.

(Parsons, 1955).

Though, this striking division of gender roles is clearly stated in patriarchal societies, it is rarely found in reality, and behaviour of individuals is broadly spread in between those "standard" gender roles.

Socialization is the process through which the individual learns and accepts social roles, norms, values and social skills, appropriate to the social position an individual occupies. Through socialization process society encourages wanted and discourages unwanted behaviour of its individuals. There are agencies of socialization, such as family, schools, mass media, which dictate and clarify what behavioural norms the child is expected to follow. Socialization continues through all individual's life.

The academic field *Sociology of gender* was influenced a lot by different scholarly works and discussions, feminist writers and Michel Foucault's works. The idea of gender roles was especially grounded in the 1980s in sociology and cultural anthropology. In 1987, Connell

analyzed whether there is any relation between biology and gender role, and made a conclusion that there were none. So, according to this scientist, a person could be born with male genitals but still be feminine gender; and disorders in hormone level can cause the effect of intersex status. Though, these results were doubtful and were opposed by other researchers.

Some other scholars (like Bruce Lipton), believed that children accept gender role according to their parents' behavior. In 1994, Dr. Sandra Lipsitz Bem created the Ben Sex Role Inventory to measure how well a person fit to traditional gender role, and, according to the results of the research, a person spontaneously sorts behaviors and attributes into masculine and feminine categories. An individual processes the information and controls or regulates the behavior on his/her cultural and social base (Bem, 1994).

The historical development of gender role is analyzed by such academic fields as behavioural genetics, evolutionary psychology, human ecology and sociobiology. Gender roles are encouraged to develop by all human cultures, through literature, costume, song, etc. Some examples of this might include the epics of Homer, the King Arthur tales in English, the normative commentaries of Confucius or biographical studies of the prophet Muhammad.

Through ages, gender roles were traditionally divided into feminine and masculine. And, though, today these socially clear and strict gender roles have many acceptable alterations and diversions, however, they preserve those conventional social norms and constraints which vary from country to country. Gender role can even differ according to social group or community a person belongs to. Cultural identity influences gender role, too. Though not as strongly as in earlier decades, the portrayal of masculine and feminine gender roles is highly traditional and stereotypical.

Traditional concept of masculinity is specifically used to describe men and the characteristics of this gender role. Cicero wrote that “a man’s chief quality is courage”.

Moreover, Janet Saltzman Chafetz (1974) points out several ares of masculinity:

- Physical — virile, athletic, strong, brave. Unconcerned about appearance and aging;
- Functional — breadwinner, provider for family as much as mate;
- Sexual — sexually aggressive, experienced. Single status acceptable;
- Emotional — unemotional, stoic, the proverb says “*boys don't cry*”;
- Intellectual — logical, intellectual, rational, objective, practical;

- Interpersonal — leader, dominating; disciplinarian; independent, free, individualistic; demanding;
- Other Personal Characteristics — success-oriented, ambitious, aggressive, proud, egotistical; moral, trustworthy; decisive, competitive, uninhibited, adventurous.

Though, masculinity differs from culture to culture, this gender role preserves basic aspects that are common across societies. “Hegemonic masculinity” is the notion used to point out the dominant form of masculinity, which “embodies” all stereotypical or “ideal” characteristics of masculine fashion. Masculine culture has its own form – Machismo. It maintains such characteristics as assertiveness, standing up for one’s rights, responsibility, selflessness, general code of ethics, sincerity and respect, risk taking.

According to anthropological researches, masculinity has its own social status, which makes association with physical and moral strength. However, today, during socialization process, most men feel pressured to act according to masculine code. The content of it makes men feel that they have to demonstrate physical strength and calculated logics in various situations, and it is forbidden to demonstrate weakness, emotions, etc. The stereotypical status of a man results higher social validation and status in the society, if he is able to embody masculine characteristics.

According to Arran Stibbe (2004), nowadays, mass media promotes traditional and idealized masculine gender role in our culture. Hard physical work, idealized masculine physique, such “male” activities as fast cars, guns, etc., result certain health risks.

Traditionally, the following roles are associated with masculinity:

- Military/fighter: Royal Marine, soldier, warrior, airman, commando, knight, marine, mercenary, samurai, seaman, sailor, viking;
- Other uniformed professions: firefighter, fireman, park ranger, pilot, police officer, coastguard, engineer;
- Criminals: assassin, duellist, gun runner, mercenary, mobster, murderer, pirate;
- Superhero or supervillain;
- Manual laborers: construction worker, dock worker, foreman, lumberjack, mechanic, truck driver;
- Cowboy;
- Film director;

- Athlete: basketball, boxing, rugby, rowing, athletics, bodybuilding, weightlifting, football, martial arts, baseball, hockey, wrestling, lacrosse;
- Male nobility: emperor, king, prince, duke, count, earl, baron, lord, shogun;
- National leader in many nations.

On the contrary, femininity is a set of characteristics traditionally held to belong to female gender. Feminine qualities and behaviours are ideally associated with women and girls in different cultures, and this notion refers to socially acquired traits and secondary sex characteristics. Feminine attributes are generally recognized features, such as gentleness, patience, kindness, etc. The feminine gender role is regulated by social system and requires women to be traditionally associated with nurturing, life-giving, creativity, openness, obedience, sensibility, empathy, better verbal skills, etc. So, “good” women are those, who are submissive, sensitive and domesticated; on the other hand, “bad” women are often rebellious, independent and selfish. Cultural acknowledgement and socialization processes, traditionally, upraise the stereotypes of feminine appearance which indicates characteristic traits of femininity itself.

According to sociology researches, today gender roles become less segregated in Western societies. A woman is now free to choose her education and profession, to seek for better work position and carrier, to have her hair cut and to wear trousers. Nowadays, women can take more social occupations that were traditionally reserved for men. For example, the practice of medicine in West Europe and the United States was generally presented as male prerogative and practiced mostly by men. However in Russia and the former Soviet Union countries, and, also, in China, medical doctors and whole health care was more seen as a feminine role. But still, there are social occupations and positions, that are preserved for men, and it is often difficult to change the social outlook of gender roles.

In general, sociological research describes gender roles as social constructs which are rather learned than innate. People learn what kind of behavior and values are appropriate for males and females in their cultural context. Even masculinity and femininity can be described by various social groups in different way according to ethnicity, age, social class and sexuality. Not all men are *leaderlike, aggressive, assertive, independent, risk-taking*, and not all women are *affectionate, gentle, sympathetic, dependent, emotional, nurturing*, etc. All these qualities can be preserved in both gender roles in different degrees. But all feminine and masculine traits and

behaviour standards are prevailing as traditional gender stereotypes. Gender roles are affected by cultural expectations, social constraints and values.

1.2 Feminism: Women's Place in the Patriarchal Society

Most feminist writers argue that traditional gender role is oppressive for women and segregates them. According to them, the idealization of femininity was created as an opposite to an ideal male role, and helps to maintain the patriarchal system. The fight for equality of gender rights lasts for about 100 years, however, women's role and status in some societies is still weak and inferior. Gender discrimination, according to numerous studies and statistics, is widespread: for example, women earn less income than men, occupy lower-ranking job positions than men (heads of state, cabinet ministers and the top executives of major companies are still mostly men), and women do most of the housekeeping work. But some women, such as the editor of the Independent Women's Forum, disagree with these statements, and oppose that women actually earn 98 cents on the dollar when factors such as age, education and experience are taken into consideration. However, feminists believe, that these factors are not independent of gender. Feminists claim, that discrimination against working women is quite strong, and, in recent times, in Western countries feminine gender role has been described as either "a stay at home – mother" or "a career woman". In 1956, Myrdal and Klein introduced a scientific theory of "the double burden", which becomes very feasible nowadays. Women often face a dilemma: they need to balance job and child or family care, and this deprives women of spare time for further education, career, secondment, etc.

At the beginning of the 21st century, women already can choose whether to live in the classical role of the "stay at home – mother", or make the choice to pursue the higher education and career. Both ways are acceptable in the Western society. However, although, women gained their freedom of choice, there is still lasting prejudice and discrimination by certain religions or social communities against those women who choose the career, because those women are often accused of "trying to become a man" or "abandoning their children," if they seek for something more than the role of mother, mistress and maid. Women have had

lower status than men in most countries and societies, but the extent of the gap between the sexes varies across cultures and time.

Most forms of feminism theory challenged and accused patriarchy as a social system, where male physical strength and rational logics were in control of everything. The civil rights movement took place in the United States of America in the 20th century, when people fought against slavery, various corrupted social structures and discriminations, which resulted in the raise of the feminism movement. Actually, feminism movement consists of three waves, the first of which was in the 19th and early 20th centuries.

Feminism movement was a complex of many social, cultural and political movements, theories and moral philosophies, which approached gender inequalities and equal rights for women. Feminism movement consists of three waves, which has been concerned with women's right to vote, to own property, women's right to bodily integrity and autonomy, the right to abortion, contraception and quality prenatal care. Women's movement fought for protection from domestic violence, against sexual harassment and rape, for equal workplace rights, including maternity leave and equal pay, etc.

Feminist Theory developed from the feminist movement, and extends feminism into theoretical and philosophical ground. Feminist theory explores on a variety of disciplines, such as feminist geography, feminist history and feminist literary criticism. It discusses many problems including women's roles and feminist politics in anthropology, sociology, psychoanalyses, economics, etc. Feminism theory approaches the nature of inequality of gender roles and analyses power relations, gender politics and sexuality. This theory explored on discrimination, stereotyping, oppression and patriarchy, art history, aesthetics, and other social and cultural constructs. Feminist theory did not oppose masculism, but rather patriarchy. And most feminists did not propose to replace patriarchy with matriarchy, but rather they argue for equality.

Mary Wollstonecraft is regarded as the grandmother of British feminism, as she published the first feminist treatise "A Vindication of the Rights of Women" (1790), in which she propagated the social and moral equality of sexes, and opposes Rousseau's works and ideas. Other feminist leaders were Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, Lucy Stone, Olympia Brown, Helen Pitts, etc. In 1980, feminists extended their movement philosophy and addressed

such global and cultural issues as incest, rape, prostitution, etc., in order to analyze how gender inequality interacts with homophobia, classism, racism, etc.

Feminism movement views were highly criticized outside the movement. As the reaction or a response to feminism, in 1970s, in the United States a masculism movement appeared. The men's movement is a social movement that includes a number of organizations with philosophical and sociological views that advocate male gender role, and seek to support and improve men's rights in regard with marriage and child care, victims of domestic violence. The men's movement includes such movements as men's liberation, masculinism, men's health, pro-feminism, men's/fathers' rights, etc. This movement appeared in western societies, however, the number of such organizations has been growing in non-western countries in the 1990s. Men's movements explore such issues as human relationship, gender roles, sexuality (including gay rights), birth control, work, violence and even aspects of women's rights. The men's rights and fathers' rights movements differ, because men's rights relate more to civil law, and fathers' rights address more family law.

Views of gender and sexuality, masculinity and femininity, identity and selfhood, are all in slow but steady process of change and transformation. So, the changes in our cultural and social constructs, values and beliefs influence the changes in gender role specification and personal identity of an individual.

2. Sociolinguistics: Language and Gender Relations

This section of my work will present sociolinguistics as a subfield of linguistics. Its derivation will be analysed and the scholarly work concerning this academic subject will be explored. Also, I will concentrate on the linguistic variation and social function of gender, and present scholarly work concerning the Gender-Oriented Language within the field of sociolinguistics. Moreover, this section will concentrate on differences of language usage by male and female.

To begin with, Sociolinguistics is the study of language and linguistic behavior as influenced by social and cultural factors (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2000). Sociolinguistics analyses the effect of all aspects of society, such as cultural norms, context and beliefs. Also, it explores language usage differences between social groups, which are influenced by ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, social class, etc. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in respect that sociolinguistics explores the effect of the society on the language, meanwhile sociology of language focuses on how language effects the society.

The study emerged in the 1960s in the United States, and it was influenced by such linguists as William Labov (the US) and Basil Bernstein (the UK). The understanding that gender is an influential factor for language usage, came to sociolinguistic theory in the 1970s.

2.1 Scholarly Works Concerning the Gender-Oriented Language within the Field of Sociolinguistics

The feminism movement and theory brought the notion, that the social significance of gender is influenced by society and affects the language. Positive outcomes of experimental studies have given credibility, that linguistic variation and social function of gender is important factor of language studies. The feminist linguists raised questions concerning the gender specification through language: is there any difference in linguistic behavior between women and men; what is the nature of those differences in speaking and writing patterns; and how can we interpret them.

The study of relations between language and gender in terms of sociolinguistics brought a wide range of attention from different disciplines, such as anthropology, art history, cultural studies, education, linguistics, philosophy, psychology, psychoanalysis, and many others. And the diversity of theoretical perspectives created the notion of Gender Linguistics. Though, sociolinguists brought gender as the influential factor of language only in the 1970s, Otto Jespersen published his work in 1925, where he already discussed women's language. However, in 1975 Robin Lakoff ("Language and Women's Place) and Mary Ritchy Key ("Male/Female Language") with their works and academic researches laid the foundation for a new wave of examinations and analysis in the sphere of Gender Linguistics. R. Lakoff stated that women experience linguistic discrimination, and the losing women's linguistic society could be explained by the fact, that women perform subordinate roles and works in social communities. Social interaction reflects all the ambiguities of gender role perception in the society.

Though, Lakoff's methodological background was heavily criticised, it laid foundation to considerable interest in the relationship between language and gender. During the late 1970s and mid1980s two different approaches appeared and developed: the *power/dominance* approach and the *culture/difference* approach. Both these approaches assume the difference between male and female speech patterns, however, they differ in their examinations and explanations. Researchers who follow the *power/dominance* approach (such as Zimmerman and West, 1977; Spender, 1980), state that the considerable economic power men have over women in society penetrates into the language, resulting in male domination in spoken interaction. They assume, that this is the reason, why men's language is always more highly valued. Coates (1997) believes that *culture/difference* approach arose as a backlash to the *power/dominance* framework. The author argues that many researchers thought the dominance model had actually become a deficit model, portraying male speech as the norm and female speech as a deviance. Scholars who follow the *culture/difference* approach (eg. D.Tannen, 1990, 1994), state that men and women speak in a different way because of differences that are implemented during socialization process. But this approach have been criticised for ignoring the power constructs that function in the society.

The *power/dominance* and *cultural/difference* approaches have polarised gender, concluding that men speak in one way and women in another. They looked at the problematicity in a rather simplistic way, and while dichotomising the gender roles, they overlooked and

ignored the diversity of speech in groups of women or in groups of men, their cultural and social differences, age, class, ethnicity, etc. That is why critics of previous two approaches (Bergvall and Freed, 1996) have turned to Butler's (1990) view of gender as a performative social construct. The scholars argue, that men and women do not only learn the roles and mechanically reproduce them, but rather use a complex of strategies, performing their identification of femininity or masculinity. Some linguists argue that there are norms, which regulate people's perception of femininity and masculinity. But Butler (1990) opposes that men and women are capable of resisting these norms and applying them to their language behaviour.

Bergvall, Bing and Freed's (1996) point out, that language studies should go further from the power/dominance and cultural/difference approaches, and suggest to concentrate on the importance of social context of language communities, where individual practices his/her gendered identity, class, age, race, etc. Linguists believe that individuals and social communities undergo changes, and our gender sociolinguistic identities undergo transformations, too. That is why the relations between language and gender expand the notions of femininity and masculinity, and acquire broader terms.

Recently, language and gender theorists have paid their attention to the concept of gender as a performative social construct. Butler (1990) believes that masculinity and femininity are no traits, but rather the effects that we perform in the language. Moreover, gender is a performative social construct, which is identified by the individual personally, and this gendered identity of an individual will be performed or reflected in spoken interaction. Furthermore, individuals come together and perform their gendered identities in the special social discourse context, which is influenced by wider societal levels. This gendered interaction chain of social constructs is mainly reflected in the language.

Gender plays a powerful role in all facets of human communication and reflects the set of many profound social issues. The impact of gender in social interaction may be seen on both verbal messages (including speech, vocabulary), and the nonverbal patterns of communication such as vocal paralanguage, haptics (touch), kinesics (movement, gestures, mimics), proxemics (spatial behavior) and other "unwritten" language. Different signs in social interaction are transmitted through verbal interaction; and the nonverbal messages are transmitted within a social relationship and by the environment.

2.2 Differences in Language Usage by Male and Female

Men and women use slightly different language styles. The initial research on this issue was done by R.Lakoff (1975) and M.R.Key (1975). The basic differences between male and female language use tend to appear in vocabulary, grammar, stylistics, interaction behaviour, etc. Sociolinguists tend to make connections between our society and our language, suggesting that women talk less because it has been culturally acceptable through ages. Men were prescribed with more dominant role in societal constructs, and that is why, historically, women's language is regarded as non-powerful, because men had much more opportunities to demonstrate their speech. However, men tend to be more silent, when the situation requires to express emotion.

More detailed differentiation in language usage by female and male can be described as follows:

Conversation goals. According to D.Tannen (1990), men have report style, aiming to communicate factual information; and women have rapport style, more concerned with building and maintaining relationships. Such differences are pervasive across media, including face-to-face conversations, written essays, email activities, and even toilet graffiti.

Vocabulary. Women's vocabulary is more or less related to their interest spheres, such as household, fashion, relationship within the family, etc. Also, women tend to use more adjectives and diminutive words in their speech.

Minimal responses. Communicative competences of women and men differ in the use of minimal responses (eg., *mhm*, *yeah*, etc.). Traditionally, men use them less frequently to show the agreement while turn-taking in conversations.

Hedges. Women tend to soften the impact of their words or phrases by using similar phrases as "I was sort-of-wondering", "maybe if...", "I think that...", etc. It is less frequent within male conversations.

Questions. Male and female differ in conversations while asking questions. Men consider the question just as a genuine request for more information; while women treat questions as rhetorical means of engaging the contribution of others, and acquiring attention from the participants of conversation. Also, women use simple questions and tag questions more frequently, that is why it seems that they are unsure or hesitate while communicating. But in writing both genders use rhetorical questions equally.

Turn-taking. Female linguistic behaviour characteristically expresses a desire to take turns in conversation with others, though, it is men's tendency to center on their own point or remain silent when presented with such implicit offers of conversational turn-taking.

Changing the topic of conversation. Men tend to change the subject of conversation more frequently than women. This fact may be related to the assumption that women chatter and talk too much and still trigger the same thinking as males. (Historically, the attitude towards women as chatters arose from the idea that women talk too much in the patriarchal consideration of silence in many cultures.)

Self-disclosure. Female more often tend to share their problems and experiences or offer sympathy to the self-disclosure of others. Whereas, males tend to non-self disclosure, but rather to offer a professional advice or solution to the problems of others (Tannen, 1991).

Verbal aggression. Men tend to be more verbally aggressive. While using threats, profanities, yelling and name-calling, they try to uphold their hierarchical status in the conversation. Meanwhile, women tend to keep verbal aggression as a mean to disrupt the flow of conversation.

Listening and attentiveness. In conversation women are used to be more attentive listeners, while engaging the power connotation of listening with less interruption and increased number of minimal responses (Zimmerman and West, 1975). Meanwhile, men, in this case, interrupt more frequently with non related topics, or keep silence instead of the use of minimal responses to keep the conversation going. This fact implies the idea, that men interpret conversation as a tool to draw attention to themselves.

Dominance versus subjection. Though, women have higher verbal intelligence than men, men gain more attention in the classroom context and this can lead to their gaining more attention in scientific and technical subjects, which in turn can lead to their achieving better results in those areas, ultimately leading to their having more power to their technocratic society (Coates, 1997). There occurs a dichotomy between a male desire to dominate in the conversations, and female aspiration to group conversational participation.

Politeness. Politeness and awareness of positive/negative face of the speaker is used by women with great sensitivity (Brown and Levinson, 1987). That is why, we can indicate, that women are much more polite, because they take into consideration communicative rules of politeness, and use grammatically correct sentences.

According to Key (1975) and Lakoff (1975), women, in comparison with men, use more linguistic categories that connote uncertainty. Moreover, Lakoff indicated, that women use more linguistic forms that connote uncertainty when men are present than when men are absent; and men are more likely to interrupt women than women are likely to interrupt men. These results were examined from the perspective of women's role (supportive behaviour and minority status) and women's culture (interpersonal sensitivity and emotionality).

It is very important to notice, that language differences between women and men depend on a complex of different factors, such as social context of language communities, where an individual practices his/her gendered identity, class, age, race, etc. That is why language studies should go further analysing the complicated issue concerning male/female language use.

3. The Concepts of Gender Marked and Gender Neutral Languages

This section of the work will present two different types of language: sexist language, which is gender – oriented language, and non – sexist language, which is gender – neutral one. Moreover, different scholarly approaches to this study will be presented, and possible suggestions, how gender – oriented language can be replaced by gender neutral one, will be provided.

In the 20th century, the academic field of sociolinguistics was largely influenced by social effects of gender role. English speaking world was largely interested in the concept of politically correct language and the principle of linguistic relativity, which was introduced by Benjamin Worth (1950) and others. It was argued, that gender marked words influence the language, and sexual dichotomies exist in language (Sapir – Whorf hypothesis).

3.1 Sexism in Linguistics: Gender Marked Language

According to Parks and Robertson, Sexist Language includes: “words, phrases, and expressions that unnecessarily differentiate between women and men *or* exclude, trivialize, or diminish either gender” (1998, 455). Other linguists (such as Miller and Swift, 1998) state that the examples of sexist language are false generic use, such as *he* and *mankind*; hierarchic and separatist terms such as *man and wife*; and terms that influence women’s self-esteem or identity. Here is the list of other inappropriate issues that are present in sexist language:

- The use of gender-specific job titles;
- The use of “Miss” and “Mrs.” (as identification of woman’s status);
- Non-parallel usage, such as “man and wife”;
- Stereotypical words such as “virile” and “ladylike”;
- Words with stereotypical derivations such as “hysterical”;
- The word “woman” appears to include the word “man”, as though “man” were the default or normal form; etc.

It is assumed, that gender-marked language can suggest that masculine is the norm; or simply, create masculine images in the mind of the listener; also, it can limit perception of vocational options (Hamilton, 1991). Moreover, scientists have decided, that gender-marked language reinforces the superiority of male gender role, and enthrones male privilege in society (Kleinman, 2002). Of course, there are cases, when sexist language can be directed toward men; although, typically, its harmful effect influences women's role perception.

Sexist language controversy is interrelated with Benjamin Whorf's theory of relationship between language and culture. Whorf's principle of linguistic relativity says that language and cultural patterns have a *reciprocal* interrelationship: they "have grown up together and constantly influence each other" (1956). According to him, language is able to construct and reflect societal belief system, and influences our thought processes. Some linguists think that to eliminate sexism forms from our language means to eliminate sexism as notion from our culture and social thought. B. Whorf and his studies gave rise for many controversial studies of sexist language, which did not seek to solve the problematicity of gender marked language usage, but rather to oppose the concept of sexist language in general.

Many scholars examined the question, why sexist language exists. They concluded that the major reason was the gender gap, which was overlooked in numerous studies and academic researches in previous decades.

The attitude toward sexist language usage is affected by cultural phenomena such as gender role stereotypes and social identification of traditional patriarchal constructs. The gender marked language might diminish women's status and reflect male-dominant society. Also, it makes women invisible in language, which is the reflection of society and its members. Some scholars argue, that the usage of female adjectives or female characteristics for things' description, demeans the status of the woman (e.g., that car: "she's" a beauty; the "mother" land, etc.). Moreover, a lot of people believe, that the general usage of term *man* to indicate a "person", is inaccurate and offensive.

There have been drawn parallels between sexism evident in language structures, and sexism related to the understanding and awareness of gender roles in social constructs. Conflicting view emerged, because some writers stated that language reflects societal practices (Lakoff, 1975); and others have claimed, that before changing the language structures of sexist patterns, we should change the societal practices as inappropriate ones (Stanley, 1975).

The conflict arose between those, who want to replace the usage of sexism in the English language, and to avoid controversial writing and speaking; and those, who want to continue writing and speaking in a way they feel natural and comfortable to them, or to maintain traditional standards of grammatical usage. (In Old English *man* referred to “one”, “someone”, or “a persona”. This usage of the word was borrowed from German, where *man* means “one”, “they”, “people”, “we”, “you”, “a persona”, etc.)

The criticism, which advocated the use of gender marked language, gave birth to such statements as “It's much ado about nothing”, “It's political correctness gone mad”, and “It's unnecessarily ruining the English language”. It was stated that:

- Traditional use of the English language including using male pronouns when referring to both males and females, is not sexist; and the difference between, for example, “waiter” and “waitress”, is purely for specificity, not quality differentiation, and the difference is not synonymous with judgment.
- Men and women are different and speakers need not be afraid to admit that.
- There is no reason to assume that the traditional linguistic gender hierarchies reflect a bias against women. The female grammatical gender is simply marked and it could actually reflect women being “more” valued than men.
- Rewriting texts to eliminate gender – specific pronouns often results in an awkward and ugly writing style.
- So long as the speaker does not intend a derogatory meaning, then there is no issue and the remnants of the past need not be changed.
- A change in language should evolve organically from changing public attitudes towards gender issues, rather than be achieved either by enforcement or by persuasion.

Furthermore, the critics of gender – neutral language declared that language with gender – specific directions means what people use it to mean. They state that the meaning of the language use is created as the response in the mind of the interpreter, not in the mind of the speaker. Moreover, the Power relationship produces the concepts of language the people use, and what the people think they reflect in their own patterns; in this case, language is only an illusion.

The importance of language both as the reflection of society, and as influential

factor of socialization, led to the creation of the concept of Gender Neutral Language and numerous suggestions, how to replace inappropriate forms of sexist language.

3.2 The concept of Gender Neutral Language

The modern quest for gender-neutral language began in the early 1970s. Gender neutral language is a language, the usage of which is aimed to minimize assumptions related to the biological sex of human referents. The studies of gender neutral language were influenced by at least two different schools of thought:

- One is aimed at clarifying the inclusion of both genders (gender – inclusive language).
- The other proposes that gender as a category is rarely worth marking in language (gender – neutral language).

It is obvious, that removing gender marked words in language, automatically covers the issue of inclusion.

Marketing, institutional, education and advertising specialists claim that sexist language nowadays is bad for business, and they avoid using language, which might imply any kind of discrimination. A lot of different authorities and institutions, dictionaries and style books, etc., present the guidelines on how to use gender – neutral language. The policy of gender neutral language reflects the changes of gender role awareness in social system, which is becoming more frequent in written and spoken language these days. There are attempts made not to favour either of genders and use gender – neutral words.

The neutrality of language can be achieved through the use of gender – neutral or epicene words, instead of gender – specific ones, while speaking about people, whose gender is unknown, ambiguous or unimportant. Janicke Moulton advocates *The myth of the Neutral ‘Man’* (Vetterling-Braggin, 1981), and she provides us with some evidence, in which *man* and *he* unambiguously refer to all humanity, rather than to males alone.

She suggests to replace the word *man* by:

Examples:

Mankind
Man

Alternatives:

humanity, people, human beings
human being, person, individual

Man-made	synthetic, manufactured
The common man	the average person, ordinary people
Man the stockroom	staff the stockroom

To change gender-marked language we should eliminate the generic use of *he* by:

- using plural nouns;
- deleting *he*, *his*, and *him* altogether;
- substituting articles (*the*, *a*, *an*) for *his*; and *who* for *he*;
- substituting *one*, *we*, or *you*;
- minimizing use of indefinite pronouns (e.g., *everybody*, *someone*);
- using the passive voice;
- substituting nouns for pronouns.

Some words have changed more quickly than others, and a few of them dropped the suffix *-man* naturally (for example, anchorman to anchor, chairman to chair, etc.). Other words swap *-man* with standard English suffixes *-er* or *-or* (eg., sky patrolman to ski patroller). Other examples of gender-marked words, mainly related to professions and occupational terms, can be replaced in this way:

Examples:	Alternatives :
chairman	coordinator, moderator, presiding officer, head, chair
businessman	business executive
fireman	firefighter
mailman	mail carrier
steward and stewardess	flight attendant
policeman and policewoman	police officer
congressman	congressional representative

To write gender-neutral language:

- Use synonyms (eg., Congressman to legislator or a member of a Congress, salesman to sale agent, advertising man to advertising specialist, watchman to guard, spokesman to representative, etc.);
- Be more specific (eg., congressman to senator; newspaperman to reporter, editor; horseman to rider or breeder, etc);
- Drop the *-man* suffix (swap *-man*, *-ette*, *-ine* as suffixes);

- Use metonymy (the part standing for the whole).

Forms of address imply the attitudes towards the status or worth of a person. That is why, it is suggested to use the appropriate title for female professions and eliminate sexism when addressing persons formally by:

- using “Ms” instead of “Miss” or “Mrs”, even when a woman’s marital status is known;
- using a married woman’s first name instead of her husband’s (e.g., “Ms. Annabelle Lee” not “Mrs. Herman Lee”);
- using the corresponding title for females (“Ms.”, “Dr.”, “Prof.”) whenever a title is appropriate for males;
- using “Dear Colleague” or “Editor” or “Professor”, etc. in letters to unknown persons (instead of “Dear Sir”, “Gentlemen”).

To sound gender neutral, a person should eliminate sexual stereotyping of roles by:

1. using the same term (which avoids the generic *man*) for both females and males (e.g., “department chair” or “chairperson”), or by using the corresponding verb (e.g., “to chair”);
2. not calling attention to irrelevancies (e.g., “lady lawyer”, “male nurse”).

Moreover, according to Virginia L. Warren, Chapman College APA Committee on the Status of Women in the Profession, sexist context in the language can appear through: embodying explicit or implicit sexual stereotypes (e.g., by contrasting female beauty with male success); adopting a male perspective (when using the generic *man* or *he* leads one to say “his wife”); and through silence - the absence of examples explicitly referring to women. Also, it is inappropriate to label some occupation or profession as predominantly male or female (for example, secretaries – to refer to female job positions, military officer – male occupation).

To sum up, the power of word is very strong and influences our thoughts and behaviour, that is why we should be aware of the language usage, which might sound rude or offensive. That is why many linguists and scholars offer a set of suggestions, how to replace sexism from language, and use gender-neutral discourse.

III. The Psychological Effect of the Mass Media and Advertising

Nowadays, the psychological effect of the mass media is strongly discussed in various scientific researches and articles. A lot of characters conveyed through the mass media are still composed to be interpreted from a masculine perspective. The recipients usually perceive the subjectivity of male characters and objectivity of females. And this type of acquisition is called “the male gaze”. It is unmarked and invisible, and presents the masculine perspective as a “norm”. Though, the representatives of pop culture claim, that the conditions of gender roles has changed into the better side, the popular media sometimes still portrays men and women as psychologically different like two separate planets – Mars and Venus.

The mass media presents, what “norm” of behaviour should the society learn, and which values and beliefs are appropriate ones for a particular social group. Both gender groups are aware of the cultural constrains of traditional gender stereotypes, and the mass media contributes to this awareness. For example, the portrayal of men and women on television programmes is predominantly stereotypical and traditional. This serves to stimulate a polarization of gender roles. According to Craig (1992), the femininity is associated with such traits as emotionality, prudence, cooperation, a communal sense, and compliance; and masculinity, on the other hand, tends to reflect rationality, efficiency, competition, individualism and ruthlessness.

Moreover, on TV “good” women are presented as submissive, emotional, sensitive and even domesticated, meanwhile “bad” women are those who are rebellious, independent and selfish. The stereotypical and traditional ideal “dream-girl” has such traits as gentleness, modesty, submission, sensitivity, non-competition, sweet-nature and dependence. On the other hand, a male hero tends to be physically strong, aggressive, assertive, initiative, independent, competitive and very ambitious. Different TV heroes represent the good and the bad. The viewers like to follow those who represent goodness, power, control, confidence, competence and success. Mainly, they are male characters, who control the situation and secure the good to win. There are just few women in the heroic role, and usually men are more dominant, violent and more powerful than women. Created characters by men are allowed to drive, drink, smoke, do more athletic things and fulfill the plans “how to save the world”. So, naturally, men play

more powerful roles on TV and films, and in this way they transmit their dominant role in real life, too. Moreover, according to the statistics, women tend to be younger than men, traditionally under 30 years old. So, popular TV channels and films glorify the cult of physical appearance and stereotypical beauty of women, in this way discriminating females.

Consequently, popular mass media images traditionally reflect patriarchal notions of gender, specifically characteristic for certain cultures and social groups. Stereotypical masculinity is portrayed as natural, normal and universal, and women are portrayed as inferior and unequal. The economical, political, social, cultural, religious notions are built on these inequalities, and continue to flourish.

The gender gap is strongly reinforced by the mass media. For example, in newspapers men received three-quarters of the front page references, and appeared in two-thirds of the front-page pictures in the mid-1990s. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) included the quest of The United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women for the observation related to “continued projection of negative and degrading images of women in media communications – electronic, print, visual and audio – must be changed. Print and electronic media in most countries do not provide a balanced picture of women’s diverse lives and contributions to society in a changing world. In addition, violent and degrading or pornographic media products are also negatively affecting women and their participation in society.” (<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/media.htm>).

1.1 Stereotypical Depiction of Gender Roles in Television Advertisements

Advertising of television tends to dictate the strongest stereotyping notions, because TV plays the most important promotional role in people’s life. The target audience of TV programmes is either men or women. Of course, there are some exceptions and some lessing in recent years, but generally the problematicity of gendered advertisements remains. The portrayal of men still remains more autonomous and powerful.

According to recent linguistic studies, men are shown in more occupations in comparison with women, who are depicted mainly as housewives and mothers. Men are more

likely to be shown advertising cars or business products outdoors or in business settings, while women advertise domestic products in domestic settings. Moreover, men are mostly shown as authorities or the representatives of power, and the older the better, because men gain power or authority within age, whilst women seem to disappear. And even voice – overs are divided into powerful (represented by male voices) and non – powerful or less – powerful (represented by female voices). Voices of “authority” (about 94% represented by men) are associated with a wide range of products, while female voice – overs are used for advertising food, household products and feminine care products.

So, the question arises, if TV watching can influence an increase of pro – social or stereotypical behavior. Several researchers and their studies have proved, that it can. For example, Friedrich and Stein (1973) studied American preschool children, who watched a pro-social TV program called *Mister Rogers’ Neighbourhood*. The children who participated in the research remembered much information related to pro-social notions and beliefs. They became more helpful and co-operative. Hearold (1986) analyzed more than 100 studies on the effects of pro-social television programs on children behavior. And the author resulted in the notion that children do behave in a more helpful way. So, if “the beneficial effects of pro-social programs on pro-social behavior were almost twice as great as the adverse effects of television violence on aggressive behavior” (Hearold, 1986), there is no doubt, that television and its promotional programs effects children and other generations of the society in one or another way.

The book *Media, Gender and Identity* (Gauntlett, 2002) gives a new introduction to, and analysis of, the modern interface between the media and gender identities. There have been written lots of key texts and scientific works concerning gender inequality on television, and the situation has changed: there was the rise of “girl power” and better roles were given to women in TV films and advertisements. Moreover, there appeared a lot of magazines praising women and their role, resulting in the cry that “masculinity is in crisis”. But some traditional stereotypical images of gender roles still persist.

Recently there has been an interest in the possible contribution of the mass media to the discrimination of gender roles and their stereotypical portrayal. McArthur and Resko (1975) stated that time interval when men and women appear in television advertisements is in favor of men. Moreover, the authors found out that the main differences appear through these terms:

1. Credibility. Men are usually portrayed in the status of authority and women as users;
2. Role. Men are always independent, while women are interested in the relationship with others;
3. Location. Women are presented in the home location and men in occupational settings;
4. Persuasive arguments. Men use more scientific and political or economic terms than women;
5. Product type. Men create products and present them to women, or women use the products to please men.

McCulloch (1981) analyzed TV commercials in Great Britain and compared the results with McArthur and Resko's (1975) research, who assessed American analogous situation, the results were pretty much the same, except for cases, when the portrayal of men and women in British TV advertisements at the time were more gender role stereotyped.

No one could argue that popular culture is a visual culture nowadays, consequently, television images transmit significant coded messages about cultural and social beliefs and values, including norms of gender relations. Television, magazines, newspapers, radio, and especially the Internet forms the modern attitude towards gender roles and their identification, strongly presented and portrayed in advertisements.

1.2 Gender Stereotyping in Science Journalism

The study, which was published in *Psychological Science* (2004), provides us with different types of researches and works, related to gender marked words and particular gender oriented articles in the science journalism. The results of the experiments were as follows: Brescoll and LaFrance (2004) were interested in the articles, which presented biological explanations for sex differences reinforcing gender discrimination and stereotyping. Moreover, they proved, that the articles were coded with special gender marked words, and oriented to the sex differences providing explanations and comments celebrating one gender. Also, they noticed, that while studying gender gap problematicity in the journal articles, they could even say if the

newspaper was liberal or conservative, or they could determine the degree to which the newspaper worshiped traditional sex role beliefs through its pages.

Jon Franklin, a Pulitzer Prize-winning science writer opposes the work of Brescoll and LaFrance claiming that science writers sometimes just lack knowledge of what are they writing and they use sexist language not on purpose. Furthermore, the author states that it is only a case of reader's interpretation and social situation, and only that can result less objective articles, which are based on the science itself and not on the ideology. But the results of these two authors give evidences that there exist a gender marked language and gender – oriented articles in science journalism.

1.3 The Representation of Gender Roles in Magazine Advertisements

All kinds of advertisements in the mass media influence the society. Magazines and the advertising technique they use are the top one media tool to spread the social values and believes.

One of the most famous researchers of gender role perception in advertising was E.Goffman and his work *Gender Advertisements* (1979). His work was analyzed by many scholars from different approaches. Goffman's study contains relevance to feminism and mainly explores the gender differentiation by social construct system. Goffman analyzed 500 advertisements and new photographs, basically analyzing and commenting the photographs and pictures used in newspaper and magazine advertisements. But his work was criticized for being discriminatory and humiliating female status (while presenting pictures of women in an inappropriate way). Also, it is difficult to identify Goffman's gender display categories, because they do not correspond to standard forms of content analysis, and it is stronger on conceptual inspiration than methodological guidance. He concentrated on gender portrayals in pictured advertisements and basically focused his attention on the pictures rather than the text and words themselves. Consequently, his non-verbal displays in advertising became the classic guidance for future researches in this field. The author in this way presents non-verbal issues concerning advertising matter related to gender stereotyping business. Goffman classified the portrayal of women into six categories:

1. Women are shown as smaller or lower than men;

2. Women are shown caressing objects or touching themselves;
3. Women are shown in occupational positions subordinate to men;
4. Women are portrayed as mothers and caretakers;
5. Women are shown in flirtatious or childish poses;
6. Women are shown as distracted or not involved in their surroundings.

These categories are pretty much alike to the depiction of female by the modern promotional companies nowadays. The gendered advertisements usually do not present how men and female actually behave, but rather play a social purpose “introducing” the picture of who men and women are in our society, how they should look like or which role they assimilate. Normally the promotional companies present advertisements accompanying them with pictures that illustrate:

- A woman is taller than a man only when the man is her social inferior;
- A woman’s hands are seen just barely touching or caressing, but never grasping or manipulating;
- When a photograph illustrates instruction, the man is always instructing the woman;
- When an advertisement requires someone to sit or lie on a bed, the person is almost always a woman or a child;
- Women are repeatedly shown mentally drifting from the scene while in close physical touch with a man;
- Also, a woman is often posed acting or looking like a child;
- Finally, the author points out that whatever a man is wearing in an advertisement, he wears seriously, whereas woman is wearing something ordinary and dull.

So, Goffman depicted women often portrayed as mothers, or as childlike, or as sex objects. Goffman’s scheme was used in many others researches related to the field of gender role stereotyping.

1.4 Gender – biased Psychological Aspects of Newspaper Advertisements

In the 17th century advertisements started to appear in weekly newspapers in England. Though newspaper advertising technique is one of the oldest tools to promote a service, a product or an idea, nowadays the market of advertising is well – stocked by commercials transmitted by the radio, magazines, television and the Internet. Nevertheless, newspaper advertisements still fight their positions and remain a serious and powerful tool used for promotional purposes.

In 1996 researchers Gresko, Kennedy and Lesniak pointed out that the psychological aspects of newspaper advertising are effective tools to promote a product or a service. The authors stated that while presenting certain information advertisers use persuasion technique to strike the audience. The most persuasive models are transmitted through powerful authority characters and their statements, which, according to researches, are more often presented by male characters.

Another study in this field was made by Jacobson and Mazur (1995). In their work *Sexism and Sexuality in Advertising* they analysed women's insecurity and inferiority in our society “demonstrated” in advertisements and in promotional marketing processes in general. They addressed reinforced sexual imagery and the exploitation of female, and criticized the stereotypes of women being treated as sex violence objects.

Moreover, gendered advertising was explored as an important factor of self identification of a person, within the influence of a group. So, while being a member of a social group, an individual usually identifies oneself with it and overtakes its values and constraints, without discussing gender role equality or discrimination.

The marketplace embraced the social relations including the value of gender identification, the value of human life, and certain social groups' (especially in patriarchal society) readiness to convert their values and beliefs into a currency to pay the credit for popularity and recognition in a social group. Andrew Wernick's work (1994) serves as a critique of semiotic and textual study of advertisements. He depicts the examples of promotional texts which bear a social and ideological influence, and provides the reader with the explanations how the gendered advertising addresses and affects the consumer: “Ads endow products with a certain social significance so that they can function in our real social world as indexical signs

connoting the buyers good taste, trendiness, or some other ideologically valued quality” (Wernick, 1994).

Furthermore, there are obvious differences in male and female perception of the advertisements. According to Yarborough (1998), clear differences in the way women and men perceive and process information are obvious: men pay their attention to mental shortcuts, while women tend to rely on more different pieces of information. As the result publishers and advertisers use certain psychological, social and cultural notions while creating texts of advertisements to address certain gender audience while introducing certain product or service. Moreover, the author states that:

“For women, ads are often more detailed. Take for example toiletry ads. For one thing, women are more concerned about grooming and appearance. And they appreciate fine distinctions. For men, by contrast, toiletry ads focus on a single product. Men are likely to pick up one or two very salient and obvious kinds of clues. Men think in a more macro way, and need to be shown the big picture. Also, men are less likely to process complex metaphors” (1998, 246).

The media influence is subtle and indirect. Many researchers and theorists (such as J.Butler, D.Gauntlett, etc.) propose a new route while understanding the influence and power of popular media, which forms our social and cultural constructs of personal gender identification. David Gauntlett in his works combines all previous accounts and results concerning this item and relates them to new research and interviews, and analyses the gender identification through TV, magazine, and newspaper advertisements and even self-help books (2002).

IV. Gender Marked Words in English Newspaper Advertisements

Gender marked words in the English language and texts of advertisements have been documented by various linguists, psychologists, publishers and numerous other researchers, who are interested in the parallels between the sexism evident in language and the sexism and sex – role stereotyping that exist in social contracts (Blaubergs, 1978).

To illustrate the gender – oriented language, 50 classified and non-classified advertisements were analysed in this MA paper. The advertisements were picked out from the following English newspapers: *The Guardian*, *The Times*, *The Sunday Times*, *The Telegraph*, and *The Daily Express*. The advertisements were divided into three groups: job advertisements, product promotions, and service offers. Moreover, while analyzing texts of newspaper advertisements there will be provided several alternatives or guidelines how to escape gender marked language and use gender neutral one.

Gender Marked Words in Newspaper Advertisements Related to Job Offers

The English language underwent semantic shifts over time. The semantic field of the word *man* used to mean “a human being” or “a persona”. Though, nowadays it predominantly means “male adult”, still the occupational terms in sexist language are mainly related with the gender marked suffix *-man*. In the English language some words have changed more quickly than others, and a few of them dropped the suffix *-man* naturally (for example, anchorman to anchor, chairman to chair, etc.). Other words swap *-man* with standard English suffixes *-er* or *-or* (eg, a sky patrolman to a sky patroller).

The following advertisements illustrate how gender-specific words are used in job titles:

- “*Mechanical Draughtsman, the career engineer. A Mechanical Draughtsman is required for Cummins Stamford to manage and implement all mechanical and electrical design draughting and to check all engineering drawings for assembling and manufacturing at the direction of the VSIG Engineering Manager*”. (*The Guardian*, 4 May 2008).

A semantic group of the noun ‘draughtsman’ suggests that the job offer addresses representatives of both genders: male and female, but gender marking and orientation of this noun implicates, that this kind of job is dedicated only to a representative of the male gender. Rather, the advertisement creators should use more gender neutral words and replace ‘draughtsman’ by ‘delineator’ or ‘drawer’ in their texts, because women are able to work in the sphere of mechanics, too.

Another example of gender marked job title is as follows:

- “Since 1969 **Motorman** has been dedicated to providing fleet users with an unrivaled supply source of quality built”. (*The Guardian*, 3 April 2008)

The gender marked noun ‘motorman’ is strongly stereotypical because it implies a gender marked suffix *-man*, that is why this advertisement bears a strong link to male audience and requires that only men are needed for this work. To sound more gender neutral and not to diminish the female role, advertisers should replace ‘motorman’ by ‘driver’.

To avoid stereotyping by using gender marked occupational terms with the suffix *-man* can be replaced in this way:

Examples:

chairman
 businessman
 fireman
 mailman
 steward and stewardess
 policeman and policewoman
 congressman

Alternatives :

coordinator, moderator, presiding officer, head, chair
 business executive
 firefighter
 mail carrier
 flight attendant
 police officer
 congressional representative

Another job advertisement contains a female-marked noun:

- “Cabin **Stewardess**. 57 meter yacht owned by Egyptians requires 2 cabin **stewardesses**...Not necessary for the candidates to have previous experience on Yachts but must have previous **housekeeping/stewardess** experience”. (*The Guardian*, 6 April 2008)

The gender-specific job title ‘stewardess’ contains a gender-specific suffix *-ess*. This Latin suffix was applied to English in the 19th century and is indicated as strongly feminine one. Most of the words with the suffix *-ess* disappeared over time, though such produced words as “waitress”, “stewardess”, “actress”, still exist in the English language. The usage of this

feminine ending makes the noun gender marked and implies that the advertisement addresses women audience only. In this case, to escape gender – specific job title one should use ‘flight attendant’ or ‘cruise attendant’ instead of ‘stewardess’ or ‘steward’.

While escaping gender marked nouns in job titles, the advertising ‘guards’ failed in the texts of newspaper advertisements themselves. That is why the texts of print newspaper advertisements contain various gender marked words starting with adjectives and ending with clear gender discrimination when demanding only specific representative of a certain gender. Consider, please, these examples:

- “*Home Office Estimator, The Career Engineer. Our client is a leading global engineering, construction and services company supporting the energy, petrochemicals, government services and civil infrastructure sectors. Key Responsibilities Production of Home Office **man-hour driven engineering** a...*” (The Guardian, 04 May 2008).
- “*Human Factors Scientist, The Career Engineer. Job purpose to undertake Human Factors research and applied Human Factors Engineering projects on behalf of our client. Key responsibility areas applying human factors methods and tools in support of Human Factors analyses and **man-in-the-loop** experiments..*” (The Guardian, 04 May 2008).
- “*Rail Surveyor (Track and Structures). This role will involve night and weekend working in railway possessions, approximately 4 - 6 nights a week. The work will be located throughout the LNE territory, but north of Birmingham. Work comprises being part of a **3-man survey team** responsible for surveying track and structures within the LNE territory.*” (The Guardian, 06 April 2008).
- “*P3 Planner. Are you an experienced Project Planner with **man management experience**? Have you experience of working on infrastructure projects? The Agency are looking for a team worker who is flexible in their approach as well as aware of commercial time constraints and the need to complete projects within these. You will need to work as part of (and potentially head up) a **2-3 man Electronic Media Team** with a 4 man Design Studio supplying the concepts.*” (The Guardian, 25 April 2008).

These advertisements include gender marked adjectives, such as *man – hour, man – in – the – loop, 3 – man survey team, man management, 2-3 man Electronic Media Team*, the usage of which clearly illustrates gender oriented language. The semantic field of the adjectives

or adjectival groups with the separate word *man* or the suffix *-man* indicates, that these adjectives or adjectival groups might be used to characterise the representatives of both gender roles. Although, the problematic stereotypical usage of this suffix is wrong while it discriminates females and points out the dominant role of male characteristics. To sound gender-neutral the noun *man* should be replaced by: “a human”, “a human being”, “humankind”, “a man”, “a woman”, “women and men”, “an individual”, “a person”, etc. Moreover, the following expressions should be also avoided and replaced by more neutral examples:

the best man for the job	the best person for the job, the best woman or man for the job, the best candidate for the job
the man in the street	the average person, ordinary people, people in general
man of letters, men of science	scholar, academic, scientists
manpower	workforce, personnel, the staff, human resources, workers

The following advertisements include more examples of gender-specific noun *man* use, which is inappropriate and sounds in favor of masculinity:

- “*Operations Manager – London!!!!!! We need a person who is highly motivated, professional individual with experience at Area Management level; Client handling experience and distribution experience an advantage; Must have a good knowledge of food; Must be a **strong man manager**.*” (The Guardian, 10 April 2008).
- “*Site Services Manager – Cheshire!!!!!!The Person: A proven **man-manager** who is goals-orientated and has a proven track record of achieving results; Excellent organisational and communication skills; Experience of working within a similar contract caterer in B and I; Must have experience in managing budgets and profit and loss accounts.*” (The Guardian, 12 March 2008).
- “*Field Service Manager Office Equipment, The Career Engineer. Field Service Manager required by leading provider of office equipment in the Coventry area to manage a Midlands based team. Ideal applicants will have experience of **man management** in the photocopier / print solutions industry as well as excellent.*” (The Guardian, 04 May 2008).

- “Sales & Marketing Manager. Due to an exciting period of expansion, our client is looking for an experienced **man manager** to challenge the status quo and rebuild the Sales & Marketing team. Able to think on your feet and make decisions, the role will also be expected to pick up some existing accounts. The ideal candidate must have a proven track record of man management experience within the food & drink industry preferably from a foodservice background.” (The Guardian, 23 April 2008).

The stereotypical use of the gender specific noun *man*, while speaking about people, whose gender is unknown, ambiguous or unimportant can be also explained by the *power/dominance* approach, which emerged in the 20th century in the field of sociolinguistics. Such linguists as Zimmerman and West (1975), stated that the considerable economic power men have over women in society penetrates into the language, resulting in male and masculine forms domination. They assume, that this is the reason, why men’s language is always more highly valued, and why stereotypical masculine forms prevail in it.

Furthermore, a text of advertisement sounds stereotypical or discriminatory when is applied only to one of the sexes. This is clearly shown in the following examples of printed job advertisements:

- “Female PE, ITN Mark Education. A selective all girls school in South London is seeking a **female** PE teacher for one term initially. There is the potential for this role to be extended for the right candidate.” (The Guardian, 18 April 2008).
- “Volunteer, Westminster Social Services. We need a **female** volunteer to befriend Jenny, a 14 year old girl of Irish origins. Jenny is a looked after young person who is living in a residential unit in Gloucestershire.” (The Guardian, 08 April 2008).
- “Care Assistant, Staff Nurse. 3 care homes in Belfast central, Northern Ireland looking for **female** candidates .00 per hour, food on duty, accommodation approx 0 per week.” (The Guardian, 18 April 2008).

These three job advertisements clearly address female audience only, while using gender – specific adjective *female*, in this way discriminating male population. The opposite situation is pointed out in the following advertisements, which are dedicated to male audience:

- “Male Performer / Groupworker. **Male** Performer / Groupworker to become involved in all of our performance, workshop and groupwork programmes.” (The Guardian, 26 April 2008).

- “*Male Volunteers. Can you make a difference in a young person's life by giving a little of your time once a month? **Male** Volunteers Needed.*” (*The Guardian*, 8 April 2008).
- “*Male Support Workers Required In Lancaster, Staff Nurse. Experienced **Male** Support Workers - up to 30 hours a week available supporting clients living in their own homes in Carnforth and Lancaster. (Days, nights and weekend work available).*”(The *Guardian*, 2 May 2008).
- “*Volunteer. Could you be a **male** Role Model? Chance UK works with young boys (5-11) who often go through their early years without a positive **male** role model in their lives. You don't need a high flyer you just need to remember what it's like to be a **boy** growing up.*” (*The Guardian*, 8 April 2008).

The use of gender-specific adjective *male* in texts of newspaper advertisements indicate that the job offers are dedicated to male population only, and sounds discriminatory from the female point of view.

Moreover, to write gender-neutral language:

- Use synonyms (eg., Congressman to legislator or a member of a Congress, salesman to sale agent, advertising man to advertising specialist, watchman to guard, spokesman to representative, etc.);
- Be more specific (eg., congressman to senator; newspaperman to reporter, editor; horseman to rider or breeder, etc);
- Drop the *-man* suffix (swap *-man*, *-ette*, *-ine* as suffixes);
- Use metonymy (the part standing for the whole).

Recently the publishers of texts of newspaper advertisements have made efforts to escape sexism in job titles, and they obtained certain positive results, because the number of gender marked job titles decreased. More examples with gender marked job titles are presented in the *Appendix 4*.

Gender – oriented Language in Service Offers

Through ages, gender roles were traditionally divided into feminine and masculine. And, though, today these socially clear and strict gender roles have many acceptable alterations

and diversions, however, they preserve those conventional social norms and constraints which vary from country to country. In the newspapers there appear advertisements with clear stereotypical point of view, labeling certain characteristics to men and women and their behaviour. The following examples illustrate the social perception of women role while proposing special service offers:

- *“Leadership for Women, Guardian Online Courses. Leadership for **Women** provides you with an understanding of the issues that specifically face **women** in management, with special regard to **women** in executive positions and those who aspire to reach higher management. Designed for **Women** who are aspiring toward **leadership roles** or who are **relatively new to their roles in leading others**. It would suit **women** working in the corporate sector, public sector organisations, small businesses and those who may be running their own business. Learning outcomes. Understanding the issues that specifically face **women** in management, as well as the strategies you can employ to become a better leader and nurture your career can empower you to make strategic career decisions and **overcome the workplace challenges that are often faced by aspiring female leaders**”. (The Guardian, 12 March 2008).*

First of all, the language of the advertisement includes gender marked vocabulary: the use of gender – specific noun (eg. *women*) and adjective (eg. *female*). Moreover, the semantic interpretation of the advertisement, which offers leadership courses for women, that, according to the text, is new and unexplored field for female (“relatively new to their roles in leading others”), bears a clear illustration of gender – oriented language, which discloses a stereotypical perception of women gender role in the social constructs. While reading it, a question arises: why such courses are applied for women, not for men? Is the leadership known for them so well, or is it an inborn characteristic of theirs? It is clear, that even nowadays, female leaders experience discrimination while applying to the positions, which are initially prescribed as male privilege in business, corporative or public sector. Furthermore, female role remains strongly stereotypical, whilst their interests are still related to “domestic duties”, charity work, shopping; and women are often depicted unorganized, superficial, but “lovely”. Every social group or system dictates or requires certain behavioural norms and constraints which are associated with males or females. In this case, such gender-oriented language reinforces the superiority of male

gender role, and enthrones male privilege in society (Kleinman, 2002).

The following advertisements illustrate these notions practically:

- *“Entrepreneurial PA - London/Buckinghamshire. This leading “boutique” hotel entrepreneur is looking for an experienced private PA to manage **her** busy life. She is a really lovely lady but totally disorganised and needs someone who can take full responsibility for her private life but who is also business savvy and can get involved in hotel projects too. This is a fabulous role split between **her** house in Kensington and the hotel in Buckinghamshire so you must be flexible and in an ideal world own your own car. You can also work one day a week from home.” (The Guardian, 28 April 2008).*
- *“Self-Motivated and Loyal PA for Esteemed **Lady**. Supporting a **busy lady** in various aspects of **her** life and running the office. Firstly, you must be happy working on your own **she** travels quite a lot. Secondly, you need to be hands-on and **have bags** of common sense and initiative and, finally, you will need to show a degree of confidentiality. Along with all the traditional duties such as organising the **social diary**, extensive travel **arrangements**, assisting with **domestic duties** and **helping with her Charity**, you will be required to assist with her property portfolio in all aspects. If you enjoy working in a 1:1 position and have some solid PA experience, send your CV now.” (The Guardian, 29 April 2008).*

The texts of these two service advertisements contain gender marked noun (eg. *lady*), gender – specific pronouns (*she*, *her*) (the analysis of which will be provided in the following examples), and gender marked adjectives (*lovely*, *domestic*). In linguistic studies there are distinguished adjectives as more evident gender marked words used in print advertisements. Diane M. Turner-Bowker (1996) points out, that to describe a male characters there were used more powerful and stronger adjectives than those used to describe a female character (see *Appendix 1*). Moreover, the author states that men were shown more active. Also, Diamones (2006) collected more examples of gendered adjectives present in the English language, which may be used by publishers as the tool promoting certain product or service and addressing particular gender (see *Appendix 2* and *3*). Of course, different cultural and social variations influence the usage of these adjectives in the language and in texts of advertisements, and certain adjectives can be equally used to describe a man or a woman. But, generally, the distinction made by stereotypical gender marked words usage is evident in certain social constructs which is

based on masculinity and femininity notions, and which influence the language and advertising. For example, the adjective “pretty” is more often used to describe a “pretty woman”, “pretty girl”, but, on the other hand, the depiction of man as “pretty” one, might sound inappropriate and even offensive in this meaning of the word. Furthermore, a man is usually defined as “handsome” in the sense of “good looking”. And if a male and female languages exist, so we can believe that male and female words (including adjectives, pronouns, nouns, etc.) might also exist.

So, the “female” adjective *lovely* and the gender – specific noun *lady* makes the text gender – oriented one. Moreover, the adjective *domestic* is not prescribed as female one, but domestic duties and family relations are stereotypically indicated as the fields of women’s interest. As it is mentioned previously, though not as strongly as in earlier decades, the portrayal of masculine and feminine gender roles are highly traditional and stereotypical. Traditional concept of masculinity is specifically used to describe men and the characteristics of this gender role. Cicero wrote that “a man’s chief quality is courage”. More gender – oriented service offers are placed in *Appendix 6*. Furthermore, other gender role characteristics will be provided in the following chapter of this paper, which is related to product advertisements.

Gender Marked Product Advertisements

While illustrating the traditional concepts of masculinity and femininity present in newspaper advertisements, Janet Saltzman Chafetz (1974) points out several male characteristics: more often male appear to be virile, athletic, strong, brave, breadwinner, sexual, experienced, unemotional, stoic (the proverb says “*boys don't cry*”), logical, intellectual, rational, objective, practical, leader, dominating, independent, free, individualistic; demanding, powerful and so on. Usually these male characteristics are pointed out by “male” adjectives used in texts of advertisements.

To illustrate the Chafetz’s list of male characteristics, the practical research provides several examples of masculinity forms arriving in the texts of advertisements which promote certain products (in the following case – the car):

- “Mazda6. **Bigger**, more **powerful**, spacious and efficient than it's predecessor, while retaining its **sportiness**.” (*The Sunday Times*, 23 December 2007).

In this advertisement the gender marked vocabulary includes adjectives “bigger”, “powerful” (which are prescribed as predominantly male ones), and the gender – specific noun “sportiness”. The usage of this type of language might be interpreted as the allusion towards male characteristics prevailing in the patriarchal societies. Another advertisement demonstrates even stronger masculinity features:

- “A true Italian **stallion**. Maserati”. (*The Daily Express*, 13 April 2008).

The advertisement bears a strong link to male auditory only. The gender marked noun “stallion” bears the allusion towards the notion of masculinity which contains such characteristics as independence, freedom, physical strength, power, etc. Moreover, the car’s description and commentaries reflect strong feeling of sexism while using female adjectives and nouns to describe a car:

- “Maserati’s name comes from the Italian family that founded the company. But there’s always the sneaking suspicion that, if you looked it up in a dictionary, the translation would be “**bridesmaid**”. In Britain at least, Maserati always seems to be **bridesmaid** to Ferrari’s **bride**. Ask the average driver to name an Italian company that’s famed for building exotic and **powerful sports cars** and chances are that they’ll say Ferrari...”

Stereotypical usage of female nouns or female characteristics for description of things is one of the most common emergences of gender marked language in texts of newspaper advertisements. Such gender marked words as “bridesmaid” and “bride” are used in the English language to identify a woman, that is why it is inappropriate to use these words while talking about cars. Also, “sports”, according to some linguists, is decided to be male field of interest; furthermore, the adjective “powerful” is also prescribed as male characteristics in a patriarchal society, where male role is dominant. Consequently, one may consider this advertisement as strongly sexist, where gender marked language and its usage is inappropriate and even offensive. More advertisements offering and promoting cars are as follows:

- “Jaguar FX: A **Powerful Diesel Dream**.” (*The Daily Express*, 28 February 2008).

According to Arran Stibbe (2004), nowadays, mass media promotes traditional and idealized masculine gender role in our culture. Hard physical work, idealized masculine physique, such “male” activities as fast cars, guns, sports, illustrate the concept of masculinity.

As the result, advertising system is divided mainly to male and female audience: generally, cars advertisements are dedicated to male audience and the texts of advertisements use gender oriented language (eg. sometimes female characteristics or names are used to describe or address the car).

Consider the following example:

- *“Baby Fiat Comes Back With a Boom.” (The Daily Express, 18 January 2008).*

An advertised car appears with “boom” and shows its power: it seems that nothing is abnormal here, but the advertisement also contains a gender oriented noun “baby”, which does not suit to address the car or describe it, but rather males like to call females like that. This inappropriate usage of the noun might sound inaccurate and even offensive. On the other hand, one might indicate, that the car is offered to a female audience: it is small like “baby”, as thought indicating that it will be liked by women. Moreover, the use of the gender – oriented noun “baby” can be explained by one of the Goffman’s theories (1979). Goffman’s study contains relevance to feminism and mainly explores the gender differentiation by social construct system. The linguist analyzed 500 advertisements and classified the portrayal of women into six categories. These categories are pretty much alike to the depiction of female by the modern promotional companies nowadays. The gendered advertisements usually do not present how men and female actually behave, but rather they play a social purpose “introducing” the picture of who men and women are in our society, how they should look like or which role they assimilate. So, Goffman’s depicted women are often portrayed as mothers, or childlike. While considering all these gender – specific factors, we can indicate, that the text of this advertisement contains sexist language and is inappropriate or even offensive to use.

The next advertisement also proposes a car and contains a lot of gender oriented words:

- *“Audi’s **Big Gun** Has Loads in its Favour. Today, it must sell not on its novelty but on its **fashion** sense and **sporting** prowess and that’s why Mercedes has seen fit to inject the new, **facelifted** SLK with **a shot of testosterone**. This car now looks, more than ever before, like a scaled down version of the £313,565 Mercedes SLR McLaren. The **biggest** change at the front is the chin spoiler that’s supposed to hint at both the SLR and Lewis Hamilton’s Formula One car. Today’s SLK might not **look as elegant or as pure** as the original but it certainly makes more impact. **The extra aggression might***

even help Mercedes appeal to a slightly more masculine clientele (62 per cent of SLK owners are women).”(The Daily Express, 19 April 2008).

First of all, this text contains “female” gender marked words, such as “fashion” (which is said to be a field of women interest), “facelift” (women are tend to be more concerned with their appearance and cosmetic surgery), the adjectives “elegant” and “pure” are depicted by linguists as female ones (Diamones, 2006); but the advertisement obviously addresses male audience and one can depict certain “male” gendered words, for example such nouns as “gun”, “shot”, “testosterone”, “aggression” are semantically related nouns, which belong to male characterisation. Moreover, the adjectives used in the text also help to identify the addressee of this product promotion: “masculine”, “sporting”, “biggest”. So, the research clearly identifies this advertisement as gender – oriented one, and its function is to address the male audience.

Furthermore, according to anthropological researches, masculinity has its own social status, which makes association with physical and moral strength. On the other hand, femininity is a set of characteristics or traditionally recognized features, such as gentleness, patience, kindness, etc. The feminine gender role is regulated by social system and requires women to be traditionally associated with nurturing, life-giving, creativity, openness, obedience, sensibility, empathy, better verbal skills, etc. All feminine and masculine traits and behaviour standards are prevailing as traditional gender stereotypes and are pointed out in language, and, consequently, in texts of advertisements. D.Liu (2002) stated that the most common words that are used by female in advertisements are usually positive ones: new, good, soft, warm, free. These top five adjectives appear in female clothing advertisements. It is natural, that publishers and advertisers use special psychological and linguistic tools to promote their products and services. And despite the endeavour to escape sexism in the language of advertisements and stereotypical perception of gender roles in society, there still exist linguistic and social constructs which bear strong gendered identification of female and male.

Semantically related words to “female” vocabulary are more common in the advertisements, which “belong” to female sphere of interests, eg. cosmetics. Consider this example:

- *“Simply Gorgeous! When **you’re crazed (like, daily)**, these streamlined tips will make you **pretty**, pronto. Use **pretty** powder. The fine particles in mineral-based **makeup** can actually protect and soothe your skin and won’t clog pores. Dust on L’Oréal Bare*

*Naturale Soft-Focus Mineral Finish, \$15.25. The nice, satiny effect may be all you need for your low-key weekend look. Don't go crazy with tons of colors. Instead, invest in one great neutral eye-shadow palette. (We like the Bobbi Brown one.) Or pat on cream blush, like Nars Multiple in Orgasm \$36.50. The **rosy** color looks amazing on lips, cheeks, and lids. Easy evening tricks! To ramp it up at night, count on three things: dark lipstick, a **sexy** streak of violent eyeliner, and matte bronzer to warm your skin tone at dusk.*“ (The Daily Express, 8 April 2008).

A consumer may imply that the advertisement is directed to female audience, because it is full of female adjectives (eg. *pretty, rosy, sexy*, etc) (Diamones, 2006). Moreover, it advertises makeup products, which are concerned to be the female domain (*powder, eye-shadows, lipstick, eyeliner*, etc.). Also, this advertisement contains certain social implications, eg., female are allowed “to be crazed” almost every day, as though mood changes are the normal things evident in women’s life. This use of stereotyping in sexist language is inappropriate.

More product promotional advertisements are presented in this paper to illustrate the false use of gender – oriented language in texts of advertisements:

- “**Topman** launches its festival range **for the boy** about the field. This dapper straw trilby, £15, is fabulous for sunny days by the stage, but not so great if it pours with rain.” (The Times, 1 May 2008).

One should escape the false generic use of the suffix *-man*, it is discussed previously; and apparently this advertisement is dedicated to male audience only, because it uses a generic suffix *-man*, and gender – specific noun “boy”.

- “Keep warm around the campfire in this **sporty** hoodie, £30. Equally, hand it over to the **girl** who forgot to pack anything **sensible** and make a new friend.” (The Times, 1 May 2008).

The text of this particular advertisement suggests that the product is created only for “sporty” male person, whose “new girl friend” isn’t very “sensible” and forgot (maybe even intentionally) her own clothing. The advertisement bears a strong stereotypical point of view, that women are not so sensible as men. This usage of gender marked language may sound offensive for female audience. Moreover, it includes the gender specific noun “girl” and the male adjective “sporty”. More sample advertisements are listed bellow and in *Apendix 5*.

- “A *men's* fragrance with a **strong**, charismatic personality. The feeling of having **everything under control**, of fully enjoying **the thrill** of the moment. A **man** guided by a **passion** to pursue **the very best, perfection in everything he does**. **His winning outlook** inspires **a persuasive admiration and respect** in others. Ferrari Passion is a vibrant, fresh, woody fragrance, containing notes of Sicilian lemon, juniper berries, cardamom & cedarwood.” (*The Telegraph*, 03 June 2007).

The advertisement is strongly sexist one because it contains male gender – specific vocabulary: it includes gender marked nouns (“man”, “thrill”, “perfection”, “the very best”, “respect”, “passion”, “control”, “persuasive”, etc.) the semantic field of which belong to masculinity terms and implicates the superiority features of masculinism. Moreover, the text includes gender-specific adjectives (“strong”, “winning”) and gender – specific pronouns (“he”, “his”). Also, the advertisement presents notions in favour of male privilege in the patriarchal society, whilst using certain semantic phrases (eg., “everything under control”, “the very best”, “perfection in everything he does”, “his winning outlook inspires a persuasive admiration and respect in others”) indicating that male role is more powerful and dominant in comparison to female gender.

- “Unless a chap takes to wearing a utility belt, **he** will need a snazzy bag to keep **his** festival essentials in such as sun cream, camera and band schedule. This nifty number costs £20.” (*The Times*, 1 May 2008).

The language of this advertisement is gender – oriented one, because it contains a generic use of gender specific pronouns (*he*, *his*) and the gender – specific noun “chap” to indicate a young man. The use of these semantically related words is inappropriate in texts of advertisements because it demonstrate male role dominance in language and society in general. D. Biber (1999) largely discusses pragmatic motivation for pronoun choice. He claims that masculine terminology reflects larger occurrence of masculine forms, and the distribution of third person singular personal pronouns: “masculine forms are more frequent in all registers, occurring 1.5 to more than 3 times as frequently as feminine forms” (1999, 333). Also, the masculine gender is employed to refer to a mixed sex group of people in the plural. This phenomenon was described in manuals of style and school textbooks from the early 19th century until the 1960s. It was called “generic” or “universal” use. Moreover, L.Valeika (2003) states that sometimes the gender specific pronoun *he* does not signifies masculine gender, it is rather

used to refer to both, masculine and feminine, genders. The following advertisement illustrates this inappropriate use of the pronoun:

- “*Versace: A harmonious blend of woods, oriental balms and fresh citrus notes. A sophisticated perfume for a person, who knows **his** worth.*” (*The Telegraph*, 6 March 2008).

The text of this advertisement includes the use of gender – specific pronoun *he* to indicate a person of both genders. The false use of this pronoun bears strong sexism notion. Nowadays, linguists have different suggestions how to demonstrate gender neutralization technique (e.g. to replace the pronoun “he” by the pronouns “she and he” or “them”), but it is still a problematic question. Some linguists (Payne, Hudson, 2002) argue that the issue of the choice between “he” and “they” has concerned writers on usage for some 200 years, but since this the use of “he” represents one of the most obvious and central cases of sexism in language, the matter has received much more widespread attention since the early 1980s in the context of social changes in the status of woman. The alternative use of singular “they” equivalent goes back to Middle English.

Furthermore, according to Virginia L. Warren (1994), to change gender-marked language we should eliminate the generic use of the pronoun *he* by:

- using plural nouns;
- deleting *he*, *his*, and *him* altogether;
- substituting articles (*the*, *a*, *an*) for *his*; and *who* for *he*;
- substituting *one*, *we*, or *you*;
- minimizing use of indefinite pronouns (e.g., “everybody”, “someone”);
- using the passive voice;
- substituting nouns for pronouns.

As the example, a strongly gender – oriented advertisement is provided below, the text of which intentionally contains gender specific pronouns for promotional purposes:

- “*Scents That (Really!) **Seduce Him**. Think **he** doesn’t give a damn about your perfume? Think again. Cosmo polled hundreds of **hot-blooded men** to find out what your spritzes can do to their senses — trust us, it’s **wild!**”* (*The Daily Express*, 8 April 2008).

First of all, this promotional advertisement uses gender – specific noun *man* and pronouns (*him, he*), which may imply that the offered perfume is created for men “seduction” only (the interpretation of the advertisement, based on social constrains and attitudes, may suggest that women think only how to seduce men and be liked by them. Women do not need to smell good for others, and even for themselves). Furthermore, gender – oriented adjectives (*hot-blooded, wild*) are also used in the text to describe men, and their potential power characteristics.

Here are two examples of gendered advertisements, which include the false use of gender – specific pronoun *he* referring to both gender roles:

- “Chanel Platinum For **Him**. A joyful influence that captures all the senses. Energy, life and **masculinity**, for the dynamic self assured person.” (*The Telegraph*, 3 September 2007).
- “Hugo Deep Red is for the **independent**, modern, **sexy** person. For a person who is having more fun, who is more in **control** and who chooses what works for **him**.” (*The Telegraph*, 3 September 2007).

The texts of these two advertisements include the false use of gender – specific pronoun *him* to refer to both – male and female gender representatives. Though the product offers suggest that they address people without rendering their genders (*for a person*) the advertisements implicate that they are dedicated to male audience, because of the gender – specific pronouns (*him*), gender marked adjectives (*independent, sexy*) and nouns (*masculinity, control*). So, one can indicate that these advertisements are examples of gender – specific advertisements. More examples of gender – oriented advertisements related to product promotion are listed in *Appendix 5*.

Furthermore, there are obvious differences in male and female perception of the advertisements. According to Yarborough (1998), clear differences in the way women and men perceive and process information are obvious: men pay their attention to mental shortcuts, while women tend to rely on more different pieces of information. As the result publishers and advertisers use certain psychological, social and cultural notions while creating texts of advertisements to address certain gender audience and introduce different products or services. Moreover, the author states that “For women, ads are often more detailed. Take for example toiletry ads. For one thing, women are more concerned about grooming and appearance. And they appreciate fine distinctions. For men, by contrast, toiletry ads focus on a single product.

Men are likely to pick up one or two very salient and obvious kinds of clues. Men think in a more macro way, and need to be shown the big picture. Also, men are less likely to process complex metaphors” (1998). To illustrate the statements of Yarborough, there were analysed advertisements related to perfume promotion. Consider, please, these examples:

- “Chanel Antaeus For **Him**. Named in honour of an **invincible god of Greek mythology, for the provocative, bold man of action.**” (*The Telegraph*, 4 September 2007).
- “Armani code: This Asian inspired fragrance is simple yet **sophisticated. The orange flower melts into the ginger effortlessly and the basenotes give a light warmth, not heavy at all. Armani is for the sexy, femme fatale: ‘a woman’s mysterious code of seduction revealed’.**” (*The Telegraph*, 4 September 2007).

The texts of these two advertisements present perfume for men and women. The first advertisement addresses the male audience while containing gender – specific pronoun *he* and the semantic field of gendered adjectives (*invincible, provocative, bold*). Moreover, the text includes gender – specific nouns (*man, god, action*) which create semantic group applied to praise masculinity characteristics present in our society. Though, the advertisement bears a strong allusion to Greek mythology and the comparison of a man to “an invincible god of Greek mythology”, still the form of the presentation is not complex, but rather clear, strong and persuasive.

On the other hand, the second advertisement also includes semantic group of gendered vocabulary (adjectives: *sophisticated, light, sexy, mysterious*; nouns: *warmth, woman, femme fatale, seduction*) the usage of which together with the metaphor and personification (*The orange flower melts into the ginger effortlessly and the basenotes give a light warmth...*) make the text of the advertisement more complicated to process, and full of micro elements, which, according to Yarborough (1998), do not fit men’s competence to perceive the information. Moreover, this gender – oriented advertisement includes stereotypical female value – mystery (*‘a woman’s mysterious code of seduction revealed’*).

Newspaper advertisements often use common, more emotional literal words of higher value. Also, advertisements are full of personal pronouns and specific adjectives related to one or another aspect of group (gender, age or culture) the advertisement is dedicated to.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to analyze the concepts of gender marked language, to explore the derivation of this type of language, and to present guidelines on how gender-oriented language can be replaced by gender neutral one. The problem statement of the MA paper was: gender marked words appear in English newspaper advertisements and influence a reader. The problem statement was based and illustrated while analyzing 50 job, service and product advertisements, collected from the following English newspapers: *The Guardian*, *The Times*, *The Sunday Times*, *The Telegraph*, and *The Daily Express*.

The results of the research have shown that gender marked language appears in language through words, phrases and expressions, that differentiate between women and men, or exclude and diminish one or another gender. Furthermore, gender marked language and irrelevant distinction between sexes might suggest that male gender is the ‘norm’, and this notion reinforces the superiority of male gender role in language, and enthrones male privilege in society, diminishing female status.

Moreover, the study has demonstrated that gender marked words more often appear when addressing people, using terms, or in stereotypical usage of female adjectives or female characteristics for description of things. Also, the research has revealed that the general usage of the term *man* to indicate “a person”, inaccurate usage of personal pronouns embodying explicit or implicit sexual stereotypes are the most common examples of gender-oriented language usage in texts of advertisements.

Also, variability of language usage determined by gender and the shifting social constraints were analyzed in the work. The results of the research have shown, that the shifting social and cultural constraints affect the gendered identity of every language user and influence her/his language use and its perception. Therefore, the MA paper aimed at identification of gender roles stereotypical depiction cases, and illustrated them with the help of texts of newspaper advertisements.

To sum up, language and society interact, influence and reflect each other. So, if we want to remove inappropriate or offensive words and phrases from newspaper advertisement, and language in general, we have to move inadequate, unsuitable and incorrect forms of discriminatory and stereotypical point of views evident in the society.

Santrauka

Magistro darbe analizuojama giminės kategoriją turinčios kalbos sąvoka, nagrinėjamos šios kalbos kilmės ypatybės ir pateikiami pasiūlymai, kaip giminės kategoriją turintys žodžiai gali būti pakeisti neutralią giminę turinčiais žodžiais. Darbo tikslas – nustatyti giminės kategoriją turinčius žodžius anglų kalboje, atsakyti į klausimą, kokią funkciją jie atlieka laikraščių skelbimų tekstuose. Tikslui pasiekti iškelti šie uždaviniai: ištirti teorijas ir mokslinius darbus, aprašančius giminės kategoriją turinčią ir neutralią kalbas, nustatyti esančią kalboje diskriminaciją lyties požiūriu, pateikti galimus pasiūlymus, kaip pakeisti giminės kategoriją turinčius žodžius ir, tokiu būdu, neutralizuoti kalbą. Mokslinio darbo metu buvo naudojami šie metodai: aprašomasis metodas, turinio analizė, diskurso analizė ir pokalbio analizė. Darbe aprašytas kalbos kintamumas bei nepastovumas, atsižvelgiant į giminės suvokimą visuomenėje, bei pačios visuomenės požiūrių ir vertybių kaitą. Tyrinėjant medžiagą ir analizuojant pavyzdžius buvo įrodyta, jog giminės kategoriją turintys žodžiai sutinkami anglišku laikraščių skelbimuose, o tai įtakoja skaitytoją. Darbe išanalizuota 50 anglišku laikraščių skelbimų, kurie buvo suskirstyti į tris grupes: darbo pasiūlymai, paslaugų bei produktų reklamos. Tyrimo rezultatai parodė, kad giminės kategoriją turinti kalba reiškiasi per žodžius, frazes ir posakius, kurie skirti tik moterims arba vyrams, ar vienus išskiria, taip pažemindami kitos giminės atstovus. Nustatyta, jog vienos giminės kategoriją išskiriančių žodžių vartojimas anglų kalboje rodo, jog vyriškos giminės žodžiai ir posakiai dominuoja kalboje. Šis teiginys tik sustiprina vyrišką giminės kategoriją turinčių žodžių pranašumą kalboje, ir iškelia vyrų privilegijas visuomenėje. Kadangi, tyrimas parodė, kad anglišku laikraščių skelbimuose yra vartojami daiktavardžiai, įvardžiai, būdvardžiai, turintys tam tikrą giminės kategoriją, buvo pateiktos galimos rekomendacijos ir pakeitimų pavyzdžiai, padedantys išvengti šių posakių vartojimo.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Diane M. Turner-Bowker (1996) listed the most commonly used adjectives for female and for male characters:

Female Adjectives:	Male Adjectives:
old	little
little	old
beautiful	young
good	fat
frightened	big
poor	hungry
worthy	horrible
sweet	ugly
happy	fierce
dear	great
ugly	small
young	poor
weak	tired
angry	terrible
heart-loving	sad
wicked	furious
small	happy
sick	brave
kind	good
scared	proud

Diamones (2006) pointed out examples of gendered adjectives present in the English Language.

Here is the list of the most common ‘female’ adjectives in a given meaning (that are adjectives used by women or as the characteristic of female gender):

1. Amazonian (notably tall, physically strong, or strong – willed)
2. beautiful (referring to good looks)
3. blonde (who is blonde has pale or yellow hair)
4. blowsy, blowzy (fat and looks untidy)
5. bonny (attractive: pleasing to look at)
6. bosomy (having large breasts)
7. brassy (too loud, confident, or brightly dressed)
8. braw (beautiful, especially because big and strong)
9. brazen (behaving in an immoral way without being embarrassed or ashamed)
10. broody (wanting pregnancy)
11. bubbly (lively and cheerful and talks a lot)
12. buxom (healthy – looking and slightly fat, with large breasts)
13. chesty, busty (having large breasts)
14. coy (being or pretending to be shy, modest, childish or lacking in confidence)
15. curvaceous (having an attractively curved body shape)
16. curvy (or curvaceous)
17. demure (quiet and rather shy, usually in a way that you like and find appealing, and behave very correctly)
18. distraught (extremely worried, anxious or upset)
19. dowdy (wears dull or unfashionable clothes)
20. elegant (very beautiful and graceful)
21. expectant (pregnant)
22. flat-chested (has small breasts)
23. flighty (not responsible and likely to change activities, jobs, lovers, etc. frequently)
24. foxy (physically attractive, sexy)
25. frowsy (not very clean or tidy and smells bad)
26. frumpy or frumpish (unattractive)
27. girly (behaves in a silly way)
28. handsome (attractive in a strong healthy way)
29. leggy (long – legged)
30. luscious (very sexually attractive)
31. lush (voluptuously sensual in appearance or behavior)

32. matronly (fairly fat and no longer young, used to avoid saying this directly)
33. mountainous (very large in amount or size – in a figurative sense)
34. mousy (quiet and unattractive)
35. mumsy (with an old – fashioned appearance, like that of a traditional mother)
36. nubile (marriageable or sexually attractive)
37. petite (of small and dainty build)
38. plain (not beautiful)
39. pneumatic (having large breasts)
40. po-faced (having an unfriendly disapproving expression on your face)
41. pregnant (has a baby or babies developing in her body)
42. pretty (pleasant to look at, or attractive or charming in a delicate way); of a boy looks attractive in a way that is typical of a girl)
43. randy (sexually excited and eager to have sex)
44. ravishing (very beautiful)
45. sassy (behaves in a way that is intended to be attractive to men)
46. sensual (interested in or making you think of physical pleasure, especially sexual pleasure)
47. sexless (frigid)
48. shapely (has an attractive shape)
49. slutty (sexually promiscuous)
50. svelte (thin and graceful)
51. sylphlike (attractively thin and delicate)
52. sultry (makes other people feel strong sexual attraction to you)
53. tarty (vulgar, gaudy; promiscuous)
54. topless (not wearing any clothes on the upper part of her body, so that her breasts are bare)
55. vivacious (attractively energetic and enthusiastic)
56. voluptuous (has large breasts and a soft curved body)
57. well – endowed (has large breasts)
58. whorish (meaning characteristic of the behavior stereotypically ascribed to prostitutes)
59. willowy (graceful and thin).

The following adjectives are more often used to address or describe the male gender representatives (the given meaning is also very important) (Diamones, 2006):

1. beautiful (referring to his nature)
2. blokeish, blokish (behaves in the way people traditionally think ordinary men behave when they are together)
3. blond (who is blonde has pale or yellow hair)
4. burly (large and strong)
5. camp (behaving and dressing in a way that some people think is typical of a homosexual)
6. chivalrous (behaves in a polite, kind, generous, and honourable way)
7. cissy, sissy (considered not to exhibit or be characteristic of stereotypical masculinity)
8. dapper (dressed in a fashionable and tidy way)
9. debonair (fashionable and well dressed and behaves in an attractively confident way)
10. effeminate (behaves, looks, or sounds like a woman or girl)
11. effete (looking or behaving like a woman)
12. expectant (whose partner is pregnant)
13. galant (polite and kind towards women, especially when in public)
14. handsome (attractive; good looking)
15. henpecked (always being told what to do by his wife)
16. hulking (very big and often awkward)
17. hunky (attractive and strong – looking)
18. husky (big and strong)
19. impotent (unable to perform sexual intercourse)
20. limp – wristed (homosexual, effeminate)
21. macho (stereotypically masculine: having or showing characteristics conventionally regarded as male)
22. queer (homosexual)
23. portly (rather fat or stout)
24. potent (capable of sexual intercourse)
26. rugged (good – looking and has strong features which are often not perfect)
27. slobbish (a lazy, untidy and often rude person)
28. stocky (whose body is wide across the shoulders and chest and who is short)
29. suave (very polite, charming and usually attractive, often in a way that is slightly false)
30. tame (docile: habitually inclined to submit to the wishes of others)
31. urbane (confident, comfortable and polite in social situations, suave)

32. virile (full of sexual strength and energy in a way that is considered attractive)
33. virtuo(u)s (behaves in a moral and correct way).

Job Advertisements

Here is the list of job advertisements that contain gender marked adjectives and nouns, and directly address one or another gender representatives:

- “**Female** Carers required to support a young lady with disabilities. Bramhall. Personal care involved. Driver essential. Non smoker. Various shifts inc. Salary: £850 per hour.” (The Guardian, 1 April 2008).
- “Volunteer, Westminster Social Services. We need a **female** volunteer to befriend Jenny, a 14 year old girl of Irish origins. Jenny is a looked after young person who is living in a residential unit in Gloucestershire.” (The Guardian, 8 April 2008).
- “Cost Controller. Our prestigious Oil and Gas client currently requires a Cost Engineer to work in their London offices. The requirements for the ideal candidates: Maintenance of project **man-hour** control system and validation of charges to project (**Jobman**). Responsible for accuracy of **man-hour** and cost forecasts. Preparation of weekly and monthly **man-hour** reports.” (The Telegraph, 16 April 2008).
- “Site Manager. As site manager, you will report to a project manager or contracts manager depending on your level of experience and the size of the project. You will have overall responsibility for the day-to-day running of the site, including health and safety and **man management**.” (The Guardian, 26 April 2008).
- “Compass Project Coordinator. An exciting opportunity to lead the development of the COMPASS project, this post will combine direct delivery of counselling and group work to young refugees in secondary schools with liaison with schools and professionals to build the project and deliver better mental health outcomes for young refugees. We would particularly welcome applications from **male** counsellors due to the large numbers of young men in the refugee population.” (The Guardian, 24 March 2008).

Product Advertisements

The following product advertisements contain gender – oriented language (nouns and adjectives).

- “Hugo Boss: A **men's** fragrance that elegantly combines luxury, imagination and the spirit of **adventure**. Rich, earthy and euphoric, it is refined by the earthy note of the living patchouli flower.” (*The Telegraph*, 6 March 2008).
- “Boss **Femme**, the new interpretation of **femininity**, is a floral sheer oriental fragrance that represents ultra **feminine beauty**. Complimentary ingredients form a radiant cloud of **sophisticated femininity** that is further heightened by Rose petals for a radiating floral aura of utmost **femininity**. Fortification of the aura with a creamy musk-like accord gives the scent a silky-smooth finish.” (*The Telegraph*, 6 March 2008).
- “Boss in Motion is about exhilaration, not about hedonistic **physical perfection**. It is about finding the truth that sharpens the mind and challenges the body, about the **power** to evoke that same optimal performance in work, leisure and socialising. This fragrance will appeal to a person who is **self confident, masculine, in control** and aged 25 to 35 years old.” (*The Telegraph*, 6 March 2008).
- “Cars for **cowboys. Mustang.**” (*The Times*, 4 April 2008).
- “2008 Hummer H3 Reviews. Hummer's “**baby**“. H3 SUV finally gets a **power** boost in the form of three more cylinders.” (*The Sunday Times*, 12 April 2008).

Service Offers

Here are several service offers, which include generic usage of adjectives with the inappropriate use of the word *man*:

- “**Man-Made** Wood Products. In an ideal healthy home interior, there would probably be no **man-made** wood products.” (*The Guardian*, 15 March 2008).
- “Olive Oil : The Inside Story. Virgin olive oil is one of the few **man made** products that have remained uniquely unchanged through the centuries.” (*The Guardian*, 15 March 2008).

Abstract This paper presents an analytical study of the language features of English advertisements at lexical, syntactic and rhetorical levels. In order to conduct a data-driven study, varieties of English advertisements are examined and analyzed. Through a detailed survey of these advertisements advertising language features are summarized and possible reasons given in the light of the meaning and function of language. This paper is presented in six chapters. The First Chapter is the introduction and the last the conclusion. There are some other, though less marked, tendencies in news item writing of modifying well-established grammatical norms. Mention should be made of occasional disregard for the sequence of tenses rule, e.g. The principal function of advertisements and announcements, like that of brief news, is to inform the reader. There are two basic types of advertisements and announcements in the modern English newspaper: classified and non-classified. The functions and the peculiar nature of English headlines predetermine the choice of the language means used. The vocabulary groups considered in the analysis of brief news items are commonly found in headlines. But headlines also abound in emotionally coloured words and phrases, as the italicised words in the following