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**Language in the Press: Gender Bias
on Lexical Level in Broadsheets and Tabloids**

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Bachelor Paper

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**Language in the Press: Gender Bias
on Lexical Level in Broadsheets and Tabloids**

**Jazykové prostředky v tisku: Genderová
předpojatost na rovině lexikální v seriózním a
bulvárním tisku**

Bakalářská práce

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Abstract

This bachelor paper deals with gender bias on lexical level in the language of the press. The primary aim of this work is to analyze the occurrence of gender-marked expressions and compare their frequency in broadsheets and tabloids. The occurrence of gender-marked expressions is evaluated from sociolinguistic and stylistic viewpoint and the effectiveness of gender-marked expressions is compared with the means of neutral language. Both parts of this work are based on various sources relevant to the topic and on their basis the key factors influencing gender bias in the English language were chosen. As newspapers are determined for public reading, final part is devoted to the influence of the news on the reader and the reflection of society in the press. This bachelor paper may serve as a source of useful information related to the problems of gender bias and sexism in the language.

Abstrakt

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá problémem genderové předpojatosti na rovině lexikální v žurnalistickém jazyce. Cílem této práce je analýza výskytu příznakových jevů v seriózním a bulvárním tisku a dále porovnání jejich frekvence v obou typech tisku. Výskyt příznakových jevů je hodnocen z hlediska sociolingvistického a stylistického a jejich efektivita je porovnána s prostředky neutrálního jazyka. Obě části této práce jsou založeny na různých zdrojích, které jsou relevantní tomuto tématu, a na jejich základě byly vybrány klíčové faktory ovlivňující genderovou předpojatost v anglickém jazyce. Vzhledem k tomu, že noviny jsou určeny pro širokou veřejnost, poslední část této práce je věnována vlivu zpráv na čtenáře a reflexi společnosti v tisku. Tato bakalářská práce může sloužit jako zdroj užitečných informací týkajících se problému genderové předpojatosti a sexismu v jazyce.

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Introduction

This bachelor paper deals with the question of gender bias on lexical level in the language of the press. The aim of this paper is to examine the occurrence of gender-marked expressions and compare their frequency in broadsheets and tabloids. The key factors related to gender bias were chosen on the basis of various sources from linguistic and sociolinguistic.

This bachelor paper consists of four main parts. The first, entirely theoretical part is opened with a detailed explanation of the basic terminology and characteristics of language means used for expressing gender on lexical level. The fundamental linguistic means of expressing gender on lexical level, namely the use of personal titles and address forms, expressions with generic man and gender-marked suffixes, are discussed in detail as it is the basis of the analysis. Some other means of expressing gender bias, especially the over-lexicalization of women in the press, are also taken into consideration as it appeared to be one of the most interesting issues in the final analysis.

Concerning the content of chapters three and four, they are devoted to the problems of sexism in the language and ways of representing women as a special group separated from the society as a whole. As it is important for the practical analysis and better understanding of the issue, there is a detailed description of the problems related to sexist language in chapter four. Additionally, there is also a section discussing the origin of male domination and explanation of the most common terms, frequently included in the discussions about gender bias and sexism in language. Theoretical part is concluded by the presentation of British press and characteristic features of journalistic language. Special attention is also paid to the representation of women in the language of the press and forms of discrimination.

Practical part contains the results of the analysis and demonstrates the prevailing tendencies of using gender-marker expressions in broadsheets and tabloids. Contrastive analysis of gender bias was based on an assortment of random samples from both types of the press, collected routinely from printed as well as online British press. The main goal of the analysis, as written above, was to evaluate the occurrence of gender-marked expressions from stylistic and sociolinguistic viewpoint and compare their frequency in both types of the press. The effectiveness of gender-marked expressions was compared with the means of neutral language.

The analysis was based on an assumption that gender bias occurs in both types of the press and represents a significant linguistics issue. Moreover, there was an assumption that gender-marked expressions occur more frequently in the language of tabloids. The central part

of the analysis is focused on four crucial text demonstrating the main differences of broadsheets and tabloids in relation to gender bias on lexical level and representation of women in the press. Furthermore, there is a broad collection of supplementary examples provided to illustrate all the most important points of the analysis in more detail. All the analysed examples are attached in Appendices 2-5.

As we will see at the end of the analysis, linguistic problems related to gender bias appeared to be a noteworthy issue in the language of the press. Furthermore, a random selection of articles revealed that certain stereotypes are attributed to women in the press. According to the results of the analysis, a tendency to depict women in a limited set of roles is really noticeable.

The end of this bachelor paper evaluates the effectiveness of gender-marked expression in respect of neutral language and the possibilities of avoiding gender bias in the language. As news is aimed on the public, there is a part devoted to the reflection of society in the press and the influence on the reader. The question of gender bias attracts many linguists nowadays and there were many attempts on language reforms. Some suggestions of how to avoid sexism in the language are discussed in the last chapter of this bachelor paper.

1. Basic terminology

When examining gender bias on lexical level, it is necessary to start with the explanation of the basic terminology and also demonstrate the occurrence of this phenomenon in the English language. Thus, this chapter provides the definitions of the key terms that appeared to be *genderlect* and *gender bias*. As gender bias is examined on lexical level, there is also a brief introduction into lexicology as a part of linguistics at the end of this chapter.

1.1 Gender bias

According to Corbett, gender is one of the most confusing grammatical categories. It is a topic of a great interest for non-linguists as well as linguists and it becomes more motivating the more it is studied. In some languages gender is central and pervasive, while in others it is absolutely absent. One of its specialities for linguists is that there are interesting aspects of the study of gender in each of the core areas of linguistics. In this bachelor paper the most important areas of linguistics are lexicology and semantics. Work on examining gender bias usually promises practical benefits, even in the short term, in discovering the problems which gender causes, for example, in second-language learning. In the longer terms, research into gender will be important for at least two other areas. At first, such research can explain the way in which linguistic information is stored in the brain and thus demonstrate the reflection of the society in the language. Secondly, it has implications for natural language processing, especially for the elimination of local ambiguities in parsing. To understand what linguists mean by *gender*, a good initial point is Hockett's definition: "Gender are classes of nouns reflected in the behaviour of associated words" (1958: 231, cited by Corbett 1991:1). A language can have two or more such classes of genders. The classification frequently corresponds to a real-world distinction of sex but it is not a strict rule. Etymologically, gender derives from Latin *genus*, via Old French *gendre*, and originally meant *kind* or *sort*. The word *gender* is used not just for a group of nouns but also for the whole category; thus we can say that a particular language has three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter, and that the language has the category of gender (1991:1).

In *American Heritage Dictionary* gender is also defined as "classification of sex." In other words, it is the fact that a person is male or female. According to the same source, bias is defined as "preference or inclination that inhibits impartiality; prejudice" (*American Heritage Dictionary* 1996).

According to *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, it is also possible to classify bias as “a tendency to prefer one person or thing to another, and to favour that person or thing.” When we label process or system as biased, it treats someone or something unfairly as a result (Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners 2001). From the definitions provided, we can define the meaning of gender bias as a separation of gender in a way which prefers one sex over the other.

Concerning the meaning of the definitions above, the difference between sex and gender needs to be explained. The term *gender* was already explained, but Romaine also defines it as: “the socio-cultural dimension of the division of humans into male and female persons” while sex means their biological determinants (1994: 101).

The idea of gender appeared in the late 1960s when the post-war feminism began to develop. Contemporary feminism has focused the attention on the issues of socialisation into gender roles and of sexist discourse. There were some interesting changes that have taken place in the English language over the last 30 years. Those were driven mainly by the desire to avoid the usage of sexist expressions in the language (<http://www.bartleby.com/64/5.html>).

There were numerous books, studies and discussions written on this topic. Poynton (1985), for example, suggests comprehensive further reading divided into thematic sections. One of the best collections of texts in this area is *The Feminist Critique of Language* edited by Deborah Cameron (1998). It is both an established guide to the major debates and directions in current feminist thinking about language and a digest of the history of 20th century feminist ideas about language. It is highly readable source which takes account of new development in feminist thinking, including new material on sexist language and political correctness.

1.2 Genderlect

The meaning of *genderlect* is explicitly defined in *A dictionary of Stylistics* by Katie Wales. In short, the term *lect* was derived from the pattern of traditional words like *dialect* and *idiolect* and is used in sociolinguistics as “a generic term equivalent to a language variety for any set of features with a definite functional and situational identity” (Wales 2001). Thus, genderlect can be defined as a means which distinguishes male and female speech.

Concerning differences between men’s and women’s speech, Fowler describes women’s accent as hyper-corrected and over-reported. Women’s speech is also said to be more polite than men’s (euphemistic), to contain more emotive and aesthetic terms and to favour certain syntactic form (for example tag questions) and expressive phonetic forms

(namely rising intonation). All these claims were already said but the fact is that more empirical work needs to be done around them (1991: 96-97).

Nevertheless, genderlect is a topic of a great interest for many linguists. The set of features characterizing women's speech was originally identified by Robin Lakoff (1975) in terms of powerlessness. It means that women talk as they do because of their position of relative powerlessness both in the society as a whole and in the context of particular relationships. This topic is also widely discussed by Mc Connell-Ginet (1983) who also persuasively criticise some aspects of Lakoff's approach. For further reference about this topic, we can name Brown's and Levinson's work on politeness (1987), Edelsky's (1977) study of linguistic differences between men's and women's speech or the work of O'Barr (1982) and his colleagues on language in the courtroom (Poynton 1985: 68-70).

1.3 Lexicology and markedness

As far as the analysis is based on lexical level, it is essential to explain the most common terms from lexicology and present lexicology as a part of linguistics in more detail. Linguistic means used for expressing gender on lexical level are characterized in chapter two.

Wales describes *lexicology* as the branch of linguistics that studies vocabulary. The word *lexis*, meaning 'word', is used as a general term for vocabulary or diction. *Lexis* is the most important means we possess for expressing or encoding our ideas and experience (Wales 2001).

As Wales further explains, we learn and find new words all the time by variety of lexical processes (for example compounding, derivation or borrowing). The new words are added to the word-stock, and some other words fall archaic and thus are replaced. It means that lexical system is open-ended, whereas for example grammar and phonology present closed systems. The process of finding words for new concepts is commonly known as *lexicalization* (Wales 2001). While classifying gender bias in the press, the term *over-lexicalization of women* must be inevitably discussed. This term will be dealt with in more detail in the following chapter.

In Halliday's linguistic theory, cited by Fowler, vocabulary or *lexis* is a major determinant of ideational structure. In other words, the vocabulary of particular language reminds a map of the objects, concepts, processes and relationships about which the culture needs to communicate. It is common to consider vocabulary as a list of words, usually in alphabetical order. This image is supported by the existence and importance of dictionaries and other alphabetical compilations which provide exhaustive coverage of word-stock.

However, words also have semantic or cultural status that needs to be considered (1991: 80-81).

It means that vocabulary indeed possess structure, although not easily recognizable on the surface. There is a very useful traditional distinction in theoretical semantics which clarifies the status of word-meaning: the distinction between *reference* and *sense*. Reference can be defined as “a relationship between a word or phrase and some aspect of the material or mental world”. This definition can be demonstrated on a relationship between the word *dog* and some individual canine, for example Rover or Fido. It reveals that the relationship of reference exists only when the language is actually used; it is not an inherent part of the meaning of a word. In contrary, sense defines meaning as a relationship between particular words rather than between words and the world (Fowler 1991: 80-81). In the question of gender bias, it is, first of all, the semantic status that is of a major importance. Additionally, the cultural status is reflected in relation to the representation of women in the press.

As one of the most frequently used terms in the analysis is *gender-marked expression*, in this section the term *markedness* needs to be clarified.

According to Graddol et al., markedness is a typical characteristic of antonyms and means that “one member of the pair functions as the semantically unmarked”, in other words, is a neutral member. Furthermore, the other one carries additional meaning. For example, if we want to ask about someone’s age, we ask them how *old* they are. If the other member of the pair is used, however, then assumptions are made. If we ask how *young* someone is, then the suggestion is either that they are not young, or that they are too young. If we ask how old someone is, no assumptions about the age of the person are implied. In the same way, we can use the word *dog* to refer to an animal that is female as well as to one that is male. Similarly, a *bitch* is unquestionably a female animal. People sometimes speak of a *female dog*, but they would never say a *male bitch*. On the basis of these examples, we can already see gender bias implied to certain words (1994: 113).

As Young mentions in his presentation *Language and Gender*, men have historically held the power in many areas of life and this fact is reflected in the English language. Language reflects this social power by treating words to refer to women as marked, while unmarked are the words that refer first to men and also to both men and women. This markedness can be illustrated on such common words as *woman* and *mankind*. Mankind denotes both men and women, thus woman is only a part of mankind (<http://www.wisc.edu/english/rfyoung/336/gender.pdf>).

2. Gender bias on lexical level

To introduce the content of this chapter, Poynton's introductory words are the most convenient: "In English, the distorting effects of gender ideology on language as resource, as system, are most visible and blatant in lexis." This is the reason why lexis has received so much attention from those concerned with sexist language (Poynton 1985: 41). There are three main linguistic means of expressing gender on lexical level and several others, which are summarized in the last part of this chapter.

2.1 Personal titles and address forms

The question of personal titles and address forms is one of the small numbers of issues involving language and gender that has been widely discussed and where public awareness is really high.

The crucial problem is in the choice between *Mrs* and *Miss*. This choice forces a woman to declare her marital status (potentially sexual availability) where a man, whose only address form is *Mr*, does not have to do so (Fowler 1991: 96). The lack of parallelism in the choice of personal titles is one the most controversial issues nowadays.

This language system makes obvious that in choosing titles in English two pieces of information are needed to make a correct choice for women, namely gender and marital status, but only one for men: gender. The basis of the asymmetry is that males are identified purely in terms of gender; females are distinguished in terms of their relationship to a male. This issue was so problematic that the proposal to introduce a new term *Ms* appeared. This title form was introduced to parallel *Mr* in simply identifying the referent as female without reference to marital status (Poynton 1985: 42).

Poynton also points out that there have been suggestions to remove even that distinction. One possibility would be a universal *M* whenever a title is required for the sake of politeness or formality. The difficulty occurred in the fact that distinguishing people on the basis of sex/gender is so fundamental in this culture that introducing such a change is highly improbable. On the other hand, what seems to have happened instead is that new item (*Ms*) has been assimilated into the old system for women. Obviously, it is easy to suggest a change in a system, for example by adding or subtracting a term, but completely different thing is to propose to abolish one. It is simply easier to add new meanings or change old ones than to make meanings disappear (1985: 42).

Additionally, women are more likely to be addressed by their first names while men are usually addressed by a title and last name. It is quite common that women are called by their first names, for example, by their male doctors. However, to call the doctor by his first name would break the rules. This issue is also clearly demonstrated by the following story:

I recall being somewhat surprised to be addressed by first name in a letter written to me by the senior partner in an accounting firm, whom I had never met or spoken to before, even though I was a client of one of the junior female partners. So I wrote back to him and addressed him by his first name. The use of reciprocal first names in English-speaking countries and many other places too is indicative of intimacy and familiarity, while non-reciprocal use is indicative of unequal power (Romaine 1994: 111).

2.2 Generic man

Another significant issue in the question of gender bias is undoubtedly the use of male expressions with a generic meaning, for example *chairman* or *spokesman* (Fowler 1991: 96). In other words, there is a linguistic fact that certain male terms include females.

According to Wales, the term *generic* “is used in semantics and grammar for classes of objects as opposed to specific entities.” It means that for example *flower* and *animal* are words with generic meaning while *daisy*, *rose*, *cat* and *dog* have more specific meanings (Wales 2001).

Romaine raises a question of the consequences caused by using terms with generic meaning. Where gender-differentiated pair of words exists, such as *dog* and *bitch*, the male term can be used to refer to female too. Grammarians say that the male terms such as *mankind*, *manpower*, *man-made*, and also *man*, as in *prehistoric man*, cover women. Feminists are, however, of a different opinion. They claim that if such terms were really generic, we would not find such odd sentences as the following ones:

Man, being a mammal, breastfeeds his young. (Romaine 1994: 114)

Mary Brown was the first man to have a baby in that ward.

(Hudson 1999: 103)

Male terms used to include females are called *androcentric generics* (Romaine 1994: 114).

Hudson, however, applies this issue on the word *doctor*. This word seems to be sex-neutral, but if we examine this word more closely, we realize that the prototype doctor must be male. If the doctor’s sex is not directly specified, we are more likely to identify it as a male than a female. A similar situation is in most other names of professions. There are only a few noticeable exceptions, for example *nurse*, which is specifically woman’s occupation. The fact

is that this bias against females is in the concepts that the words express, not in the words themselves. Nevertheless, this conceptual inequality affects our speech and is obviously emphasized in it. Any time we use the term *woman doctor* or refer to a male simply as a *doctor*, we reinforce the bias (1999: 103).

Additionally, Young goes even further and provides a typical example illustrating clearly the problem that might be caused by using words with generic meaning:

A father and his son were both in a car accident. The father was killed, and the son was rushed to the hospital, where he needed an emergency operation to save his life. The surgeon examined the boy before the operation and said, "I can't operate on this child. He is my son."

(<http://www.wisc.edu/english/rfyoung/336/gender.pdf>)

After reading this short story, there appears a question of what really happened. The bias against women in this profession is so far-reaching that it is really difficult for the reader to realize that the surgeon could have been boy's mother.

Nevertheless, Crystal points out that special attention has been focused on the replacement of 'male' words with a generic meaning by neutral items – *chairman*, for example, becoming *chairperson* or only *chair*. In the same way, *salesman* can be converted into *sales assistant*. In some cases, for example job descriptions, the use of sexually neutral language has already become a legal requirement. There are just continuing arguments between linguistic extremists and moderates as to how far such modification should go. The most problematic issue is whether to include traditional idioms such as *man in the street* or *Neanderthal Man*. Very similar is also the issue of applying such revision to parts of words where the male meaning of man is no longer dominant. This is the case of *manhandle* and *woman* (1995: 368).

2.3 Suffixes

Other examples that show the markedness of females in relation to males can be found in the use of formally marked expressions containing extra morphemes or words referring to females. Such expressions imply deviance or irregularity or, at least, draw attention unnecessarily to the sex of the person they refer to. Typical endings used for female expressions are –*ess*, for example *actress*, *poetess* and *manageress*, or –*ette*, for example *usherette*, *suffragette* or *majorette* (Fowler 1991: 96).

The other technique used to indicate that a human referent is female is using a word explicitly indicating this, for example *woman*, *lady*, *female* or *girl*, in combination with the occupational or agent word. As a result, such forms as *lady doctor*, *female attendant*, and *girl reporter* are produced (Poynton 1985: 59). Such marked forms for man are almost non-

existent. They can occur only in context where the role is perceived as deviant, for example *male nurse*. (Fowler 1991: 96)

The fact that such suffixes are usually used pejoratively or even intend to trivialise women was already proved and can be demonstrated on the following examples: Miller and Swift refer to Gloria Steinen, founder and editor of *Ms* magazine, as an *editress* and Sylvia Plath as *poetess*. The pejorative intention is even more obvious in referring to some of those opposed to women's ordinations within the Christian church as to *priestesses* (Miller and Swift 1981, cited by Poynton 1985: 59)

The other, less commonly used suffix is *-ette*. Also this suffix is used generally pejoratively. Of all examples, we can name *suffragette*. The use of this word is particularly ironic since the women who fought for the suffrage in the late 19th and early 20th century referred to themselves as *suffragists* and the expression *suffragette* first appeared in 1906 in the Daily Mail as an intentional effort to trivialise these women and their aims (Miller and Swift, 1981: 107, cited by Poynton 1985: 59).

2.4 Other means of expressing gender on lexical level

Fowler further includes some other ways of how to express gender bias on lexical level. Among these, we can include the use of diminutives and juvenile forms to refer to or address women, for example *winnie*, *sweetie* or *girl*, and the over-lexicalization of women (Fowler 1991: 96).

Wales defines *over-lexicalization* as the existence of a stock of synonyms. Over-lexicalization in a language occurs when a particular notion or a set of notions are of essential concern to a culture. Old English poetry, for illustration, reveals many synonyms for notions such as *lord*, *battle* and *courage*. The jargons of certain trades or professions with their large amount of terms can also be examples (Wales 2001).

The over-lexicalization of women means that there are much more terms for women than for men. It therefore indicates that the culture regards women as having an abnormal status. Furthermore, many of these terms are sexually abusive, for example *slut* and *whore*, dehumanizing, for example *skirt* or *piece*, trivializing like *pet* and *chick*, or signify possession by a male, for example *wife* or *mistress* (Fowler 1991: 96).

The majority of these means is demonstrated on various examples and discussed in more detail in the practical analysis in chapter six.

3. Man-made language

To understand the term *man-made language*, it is necessary to realize the meaning of language itself. We can say that language itself is a human creation and many feminist nowadays argue that it is language made by men for men in order to represent their point of view and spread it (Romaine 1994: 105-106). If this was true, women would be seen only as deviant and incomplete gender.

As Romaine further explains, part of the problem is, even in biology, society's view about cultural position of women in relation to men. Men are commonly regarded as genetically superior to women. It is obvious that all these views are only a part of received wisdom handed down culturally, which suggests that women are derivative of men. We can find a proof of this opinion already in Bible, particularly in the account of God's creation of the two sexes, in which Adam is made first and Eve is formed later by God's taking a rib from Adam.

It is really interesting that this idea of women being only appendages to men finds a counterpart in many languages such as English, where many feminine occupational terms are formally derived from the male version, for example *manager/manageress*, and also many women's names are only diminutives of their men's version, for example *Henrietta*, *Georgette* or *Pauline* (1994: 103).

In addition, Romaine applies the logic always used by men that culture simply mirrors the natural situation between the sexes. If it was true, then it is not surprising that we refer to *mankind* instead of *womankind* and that it is always women who are labelled as *manageress*, *poetess* or *stewardess*. But naming habits are social practices and symbols of an order in which men come first. This can be seen in the conventional expressions such as *man and woman (potentially men and wife)*, *husband and wife*, *boys and girls*. A notable exception is expression *ladies and gentlemen* where women are mentioned in the first position. In all the other above mentioned examples woman is undoubtedly the second sex (Romaine 1994: 103).

Concerning the question of men's influence upon language, Romaine also demonstrates the prevailing world-view that everyone is male unless otherwise stated. This idea is manifested in various ways in language as well as in models of linguistic analysis. Some analyses assume that maleness is the basic semantic category and that females are therefore to be described as [- male]. As a result, if we divided nouns as *man*, *woman*, *boy* and *girl* into their semantic primitives; we would analyze them as follows (see Appendix 1: Table 1). All the terms share the feature of animacy, which distinguishes them from inanimate

objects such as tables or chairs, and the words *boy* and *girl* are also distinguished in terms both sex as well as age. From this table, we can see a bias expressed in the distinction [- male] which suggests that human male adult life form is more basic. It is obviously sexist because women have one negative feature and little girls have even two negative features against them where adult man is entirely positive (1994: 107-108).

4. Sexism in the language

Sexist language can be defined as language that expresses bias in favour of one sex. In general, sexist language degrades women to a dependent, subordinate position, which prevents the representation of women and men as different but equal human beings. The use of sexist language is inappropriate in a society that disapproves sex discrimination and promotes the equality of men and women in all spheres of life. Such use of language also means a barrier to the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women and fails to reflect adequately their position in society. In comparison, non-sexist language, called also gender-neutral language, refers to language which treats women and men equally (http://www.scu.edu.au/admin/equity/publications/watch_language.html). Guidelines, presented on the same web page, were designed to assist people to express themselves clearly without the use of sexist terms and are also used in the practical part of the paper. On their basis, gender-marked expressions found in the press are compared with the means of gender-neutral language.

The matter of sexism within the English language is further described by Romaine (1994: 106-107), accompanied by many practical examples. In this chapter, a selection of examples demonstrating bias against women in real language is provided.

Sexism in language can be demonstrated with many different kinds of evidence. Romaine starts with the fact that words for women have negative connotations, even there where the corresponding male terms appoint the same state of condition for men. Thus, *spinster* and *bachelor* both designate unmarried adult status. The problem lies in the negative overtone of the female term. Additionally, such a distinction reflects the importance of society's expectations about marriage, and more importantly, about marriageable age. The Pope is also technically a bachelor, but by convention, he is not referred to as one since he is required not to marry. A spinster is also unmarried but she is more than that. Labelling woman as a spinster implies that she is beyond the expected marrying age and therefore seen as rejected and undesirable (1994: 106). This is one of the most typical and discussed examples of cultural stereotypes nowadays.

Even in similar terms, such as *mother* and *father*, their meanings differ a lot. To say that a woman mothered her child is to draw attention to her nurturing role, but to say that a man fathered a child is to refer only to his original biological role. Consequently, the notion of mothering can be applied to people and children other than one's own, while fathering cannot (Romaine 1994: 106).

The disproportion between men and women in the terms of parenthood can be illustrated by the following example: there are many kinds of mothers, for example *biological mother*, *surrogate mother*, *unwed mother*, *single mother*, *birth mother*, *working mother*, and even *natural mother*. The fact that these notions differ from the widely known cultural stereotype of housewife-mother is emphasized linguistically by the use of special terms to refer to them. We make assumptions from such terms and use them in our thinking about men and women. There is no term *working father* because it is redundant. It is widely known that man is in charge of feeding the whole family and thus is logically working. In the same way, we do not normally talk of *single* or *unwed* fathers because there is no stigma attached to this status for men (Romaine 1994: 106).

Another interesting fact, observed also by Romaine, is that the word *woman* does not share equal status with *man*. It means that terms referring to women have undergone pejoration. If we examine pairs of gender-marked terms such as *lord/lady*, *baronet/dame*, *Sir/Madam* or *master/mistress*, we can see how the female terms started on an equal ground, but they become devalued over time. *Lord*, for instance, preserves its original meaning, while *lady* is no longer used exclusively for woman of high rank. *Baronet* also maintains its original meaning, but *dame* is used derogatorily, especially in American usage. Additionally, *Sir* is nowadays used as a title and a form of respect. *Madam*, on the other hand, is the person that runs a brothel. Similarly, *master* has not lost its original meaning, but *mistress* has been given sexual connotations and no longer refers to the woman who has control over the household. There is a considerable inconsistency between referring to someone as an *old master* as opposed to an *old mistress* (1994: 106-107).

Concerning the significant changes in meaning of certain words, we can illustrate the development on the word *tart* that has changed dramatically since it was first used as a term of favour. *Tart* means a small pie or pastry and was later extended to express affection. Then it was used to refer to a woman who was sexually desirable and to a woman of the street (Romaine 1994: 107). This sexual depiction of females is typical and appears frequently in the English language. As we will see later in the practical analysis, women are often depicted in terms of sexual and physical access.

In general, it seems that English has many more terms to refer to a sexually promiscuous female than to a sexually promiscuous male. According to one research mentioned by Hudson, North American English has no fewer than 220 words for such women, but only twenty for men. Equally, London school children have a rich vocabulary of insult terms for girls, all related to their sexual behaviour, but very few specifically to boys (1999:

103). Some of the more common derogatory terms applied to men, such as *bastard* and *son of the bitch*, in their basic meaning degrade women in their role as mothers (Romaine 1994: 107).

From the above mentioned examples, we can come to the conclusion that the question of sexism represents serious problem in the English language and the solution is almost impossible to find.

4.1 Discrimination and sexist language in the press

Nevertheless, after the illustration of the issue in general, the matter of sexism needs to be considered in relation to the language of the press. In this part, Mencher is extremely helpful. We can start with Mencher's claim that there are many kinds of assumptions and biases in everyday life and because the newspapers are considered to be mirrors of the life, therefore we can find bias in their language. The most serious problems appear in connection with race, age and gender. If we examine gender stereotypes used in newspapers more closely, we can see that these are extraordinarily powerful (1982: 380).

As Mencher continues, the word sexism was created to indicate how close discrimination based on gender is even to racism. The stereotypes begin already in infancy and, being carried through the whole life, are connected with all spheres of human life. Women are seen as weak, men as strong; women are passive, men aggressive. Women are destined for jobs as secretaries, nurses, teachers, and when woman becomes an engineer or a plumber; that is newsworthy (1982: 325).

Obviously, journalists not only are victims of gender stereotyping, but they are also its promoters when they write such phrases as the following:

- . . . his bride-to-be, attractive, blonde Claudette Fournier, 35 . . .
- . . . the cleaning lady said she . . . (Mencher 1982: 325)

Mencher also includes a mischievous compilation made by an anonymous but acute observer of the office scene who gathered a telling documentary called *How to Tell a Businessman from a Business Women* (see Appendix 1.2) (Mencher 1982: 324-325).

As Mencher talks about gender discrimination, it can be helpful to explain the meaning of *discrimination* in the discourse of the press. Fowler defines discrimination as follows:

Discrimination is a practice which affects individual subjects, providing unequal chances of jobs, higher education, money, attention by police and punishment by the courts, bestowing esteem unequally (1991:93).

Although the analysis is focused primarily on gender bias on lexical level, it should not be forgotten that all the individual expressions are always parts of particular field of discourse. Fowler points out that the power of discourse in facilitating and maintaining discrimination against individuals or members of groups is extremely big. In our case, women are the discriminated group. Language provides names for all categories, and so helps to set their limits and relationships. Additionally, discourse enables these names to be spoken and written frequently. It contributes to the evident reality and currency of the categories (1991: 94).

In addition, Poynton reminds that there is significant evidence that the fields of discourse tend to differ men and women. As a consequence of this, not only topics but also grammatical structures and, first of all, lexical choice differ a lot. Many fields are identifiable as male or female on the basis of both acknowledged and unacknowledged restricted access, which might be also labelled as discrimination. The main women's field, as seen by both men and women, are domestic and personal, for example human relationships, children, domestic work, and also fashion and beauty (1985:56-57).

The matter of discrimination in the press concludes chapter four and is followed by the chapter that briefly introduces different types of British newspapers and their distinguishing linguistic means.

5. Characteristics of the press

The British, according to Garwood et al., are a great nation of newspaper readers. Because of the small geographical area of the United Kingdom, and the good travel infrastructure, there are many national newspapers. There is completely different situation in the United States, where most newspapers are printed and published locally only. In Britain, the sales of national newspapers average around 15 million copies on weekdays and almost 18 million on Sundays (1992: 44). Such numbers clearly indicate that the power of the newspapers and, above all, the power of their language are extremely big.

According to Crystal and Davy, the central function of the newspapers is to inform. In the language of the press, more than in any other style, it is necessary to present new information in an interesting way. We can say that not only to inform but also to attract reader's interest is the primary aim of the press.

To briefly describe the most distinctive features of broadsheets and tabloids, graphetic and graphological variation is of great importance. In tabloids, we can find greater variety of shapes, sizes and colours of the letters. There are also many pictures and photographs, usually of enormous size and one of the most noticeable devices is graphetic highlighting of headlines.

Turning now to lexical and semantic level, the most striking and distinctive features can be found here. There are some common features like sensationalism, exaggeration, or word-plays. The main reason for using a wide range of vocabulary or even invention of new words is the endeavour for originality in both types of the press. On the other hand, it is a fact that all these common features are still more remarkable in the language of tabloids (1969: 173-191).

5.1 Types of press

Newspapers in the United Kingdom are generally divided into three, rather historical, groups: mass market tabloids or red-tops, the most typical example is The Sun, middle-market tabloids, for example the Daily Mail, and finally quality broadsheets, for example The Times.

The quality broadsheets, labelled also as qualities, are probably the most famous to readers overseas. The Times, which is the oldest national newspaper in Great Britain, is not the most popular. That honour falls to the Daily Telegraph, known tenderly as the Daily Torygraph because of the confirmed support to the Conservative Party. The Independent and The Guardian, together with financial newspaper The Financial Times, make up the rest of the

broadsheets in Great Britain. It is noteworthy to mention that The Financial Times is not related to The Times in any way.

Turning now to the middle-market tabloids, the Daily Mail and the Daily Express are concerned with a very different readership and those are mainly wealthy women. Middle market tabloids contain a great amount of weekend supplements and also carefully-placed sponsorship which ensure that these titles are a cheap alternative to a magazine. In addition, there are also various sports supplements aimed at the husband with the intention to broaden the readership. The Daily Mail is typical for its exaggerated headlines, which made the Daily Mail one of the most popular newspapers in the United Kingdom. The most significant fact is that the mass-market tabloids sell up to four times as many copies as the broadsheets.

Finally, the two most-popular newspapers from the category of tabloids are The Sun and the Daily Mirror. These two newspapers have ever been bitter rivals, holding very differing political views. The Sun is Conservative (right-wing) since the early 70's, while The Mirror is Labour (left-wing). Both now appear to support Labour. From the historical point of view, The Sun has ever seemed to support current government (<http://www.mediauk.com/article/4>).

5.2 News media English

Crystal reminds that the English language has been an important medium of the press for nearly 400 years. When the feature of sensationalism appeared in 19th century, it brought even larger sales, and newspaper empires grew. Newspapers are not simply international media: they also play a significant role in the identity of a local society. Most papers are for home circulation and therefore the position of the home language is extremely strong (2003: 91-92).

Crystal also mentions that the world of the media is an area where it is essential not to confuse the 'object' with the language. The media reflect all aspects of the human condition, and make many varieties of language available to the public. Once a publication has selected one particular style, it tends to stay with it, and apply it dynamically on its material. This has particularly been the case with the press. It is not difficult to identify certain features which characterize certain newspapers. Moreover, the papers themselves are well aware of what they are up to (1995: 380).

According to Mencher, there are several essential features of journalistic language: accuracy, attribution, verification, balance, brevity, clarity, and also objectivity, fairness and human interest (1982: 67). On the other hand, there are certain attitudes, stereotypes and

biases which people carry with them from an early age. People usually tend to see the world in the way their parents, friends and schools defined for them. People are also creatures of the culture that surrounds them. They are under the influence of television programmes, books and magazines they read, jobs they do every day, and the government they live under (Mencher 1982: 322).

As written above, newspapers are considered to be only mirrors of the society and reflect all its widely spread stereotypes and biases. On the other hand, as Verdonk observes, particular style, deliberately chosen by the newspapers, is a distinctive way of using language for some purpose and to some effect. Therefore, style is a matter of motivated choice on the part of the writer; designed to be noticed (2002: 5). This also raises a general question of the relationship between intention and interpretation, which is discussed in chapter seven.

The following chapter contains practical analysis of random samples, collected routinely from tabloids and broadsheets, and fully accepts the general claim that linguistic usage is sexist, and it is responding to some common stereotypes in discourse which assign women special, deviant status in certain aspects.

6. Contrastive analysis of random samples from broadsheets and tabloids

In this chapter the comparison of the results of the analysis is provided. At the beginning, there was an assumption that gender bias is highly obvious in the language of both types of the press and represents a significant linguistics issue. Moreover, there was an assumption that gender-marked expressions occur more frequently in the language of tabloids. This chapter also provides the illustration and analysis of the representation of women in the newspapers from stylistic and sociolinguistic viewpoint and demonstrates the impact on newspaper reading public. Even a random sample, collected routinely without hunting for particularly impressive examples, suggests that women are represented in discourse as a special group with its own characteristics and separated from the society as a whole.

6.1 Background of the analysis

All the articles, attached in Appendices 2-5, were analysed on the basis of Reah's study described in her book *The Language of Newspapers* (2003: 63-67). These articles were selected from the printed as well as online British press. At the beginning, there were more than thirty articles examined. Out of these, a sample of twenty representative articles for the analysis was selected. Concerning the proportion of broadsheets and tabloids, there are nine broadsheet and eleven tabloid articles analysed. The disproportion was caused by the number of gender-marked expression found in each type of the press. The assortment of samples represents a collection of the most striking and most interesting features related to gender bias.

Moreover, all these articles usually have women as their central figures, but the only other criterion in the selection process was that they should not be connected with the topics such as beauty, fashion or page three texts. Special attention was paid to the kind of words used to refer to women in the stories. Another significant question is what impression does the text give in relation to the roles these women play and the qualities they have. Distinctive gender-marked features used to refer to women in the following articles, especially direct naming, adjectival description, and the emphasized dependence on men are truly remarkable.

Nevertheless, there is one fashion text, taken from The Sun Online, evaluated separately in the final part of the analysis. This text is included deliberately to demonstrate that the occurrence of gender-marked expressions is even more frequent and gender bias more obvious in this type of articles. This particular text was selected as an effective example of representing women in a derogatory way.

Concerning the question of sexist language in the press in general, Poynton reminds that when we deal with the question of lexical choice in relation to gender, it has often been pointed out that women are frequently depicted in a limited range of attributes. Specifically, they are commonly depicted in terms of their physical appearance, marital status and familiar dependence. This is particularly style of newspaper description, used both for women coming to public attention because of some achievements of their own and for women who happened to be married to, or parent of, someone else in the news. There are frequently discussed objections based on the opinion that such characterisation is irrelevant, and therefore offensive, and that it supports a highly stereotyped view of women in terms of their youth, beauty, and motherhood syndrome. What is proposed instead is that women and men should be characterised in equivalent terms. It essentially means that only in the context where it is appropriate for a man's personal appearance or domestic arrangements to be referred to, there it should be appropriate to refer to a woman's too (1985: 57-58).

Typical examples of the sort of practice frequently objected to are the following:

The single brunette university student is convinced her fearsome antics on the pitch scares man off. (The Sun, June 29, 2005, Ladettes to Ladies)

At 4ft 10in (1.47m), 49-year-old Ms Blears is the joint shortest MP in the Commons... (The Times Online, December 29, 2005)

In the first sentence, the lady is described in terms of her physical appearance and marital status. This sort of description is highly improbable to be found in relation to men. The other example is even more striking as the protagonist lady has a significant position in the society. Being a member of British Parliament, she is described in terms of her physical appearance, which is considered to be, concerning her political status, unsuitable and irrelevant. Similar examples are analysed later in the text in more detail. Additionally, there are some other means of representing women in the press that are also repeatedly used in newspaper description. All these aspects are dealt with in section 6.2.3.4.

6.2 The evaluation of the results of the analysis

To clearly demonstrate the main differences in the language of tabloids and broadsheets, the analysis of the texts with the same topic is provided. The Sun is undoubtedly the best selling and the best known of all British tabloids. At the beginning of the analysis, there is a focus on the language of The Sun in comparison with the famous broadsheet The

Times. The other pair of articles was taken from the Daily Mail Online and The Guardian Online. All these texts are attached in Appendix 2.

Afterwards, there are some more interesting examples taken from some other significant newspapers included in Appendices 3 and 4.

The main purpose of the analysis was to find and explain the most noteworthy features of gender bias and representation of women in the press. The analysis also reveals the prevailing tendencies and illustrates the frequency of occurrence of gender-marked expressions.

6.2.1 The Sun versus The Times

In the first article (see Appendix 2), taken from The Sun, we can find remarkable differences in the naming forms. At first, the protagonist woman is mostly named by her first name only. There is a notable contrast between referring to the woman as to *Faria*; while men are referred to as *FA barrister Jeffrey Bacon*, *England coach Sven Goran Eriksson* or *FA chief executive Mark Palios* (lines 8, 25, 26). It means that while woman is referred to by her first name only; men are referred to by their titles and full name forms. In another case, the boss is referred to as *David Davies* or *Mr Davies* (lines 10, 18); but never by his first name only.

Looking at the headline of the article, the expression *left shaken* may indicate the powerlessness and uncertainty attributed to women. The main topic of the article is sexual harassment and verbs like *groped* and *pestered* (line 11) even support the assumption of women's weakness and sexual access; discussed also by Fowler (1991: 95).

Focusing on the personal information provided, the age of Faria Alam is given (line 19) even though the information is not relevant to the topic. In contrary, the age of any men is provided.

The last gender-marker feature appearing in this text is the reference to Mr Davies's wife (line 45). The fact is that this reference was not used deliberately by the author of the article but included as a citation of the protagonist woman. Nevertheless, such labelling indicates women's dependence and relationship to men and, above all, shows the position of women typically influenced by men. According to the guidelines introduced in chapter four, the term *wife* should be replaced by the term *partner* or *spouse* to completely avoid gender bias.

In comparison with the first article, the author of the second article (see Appendix 2), taken from The Times, refers to the protagonist woman by her formal title in the headline and

by the full name form in the first sentence of the article. Later in the text, she is always named as *Ms Alam*, which is the only gender-neutral form.

Turning to the main topic of the article, the choice of words describing sexual harassment (lines 22-23) is less expressive than in the previous text.

Nevertheless, there are some gender-marked features which appear in both articles. These two features are the age of Faria Alam (line 11) and the reference to Mr Davies's wife (line 68).

Concerning the obvious disproportion of gender-marked features in the above analysed samples, we can come to the conclusion that even if gender bias in broadsheets is not as remarkable as in the language of tabloids, we can find minor declines in neutral language. Furthermore, the most striking difference in the language of these two articles appeared in connection with the use of naming forms. As a result, gender bias in the language of The Sun is really apparent.

6.2.2 The Daily Mail Online versus The Guardian Online

Articles 3 and 4, attached also in Appendix 2, should appreciate a wide range of British women who have overcome various challenges or made a real mark in the world. Nevertheless, the use of sexist language is notable even in this kind of texts. We can find various examples of gender-marked practice in each paragraph. It is necessary to mention that there are not the entire articles as we can find them on the web, but only a selection of paragraphs with the most noticeable gender-marked features.

In the Daily Mail article, a problem already appears in the first sentence of the first section. The five women are named as *the sisters of Robert Mc Cartney*, which indicates their relationship to that man. Turning to the section about Paula Radcliffe, we can find various examples of direct naming, which is a frequent phenomenon in the language of tabloids. In the third section, the age of Gee Walker is included despite its relevancy to the topic. Moreover, the naming strategy refers to the lady in relation to her family. Familiar dependence and motherhood syndrome are, as written above, typically attributed to women. Finally, mentioning the religion or belief is also a common phenomenon related to the representation of women in the press (see also Appendix 4, sentence 18).

Observing the section about Carol Thatcher, she is labelled as the *unknown eccentric daughter of Britain's first female Prime Minister*. There is a broad adjectival description describing her character and position in the society. Furthermore, there is a reference to her mother who is labelled as the *first female Prime Minister*. Such labelling technique was

described in chapter 2.3 and inevitably attracts the attention towards gender. Moreover, this particular example indicates that the position of Prime Minister is very exceptional for women in our society. Finally, the last two gender-marked features worth mentioning are direct naming and the age provided.

In the section about Jill Hicks, we can recognize the emphasized dependence on family and men themselves. The compound *husband-to-be* could be replaced by the name of the man only. There is no danger of ambiguity as he is already labelled as her fiancée earlier in the text.

In the section about Camilla Parker-Bowles, we can find the expression *duchess* with gender-marked suffix –ess. Except the redundant reference to her age, we can also recognize the expressions like *married into royalty* or *tying the knot with Prince Charles*. Such expressions not only indicate her marital status but also emphasize familiar dependence and relationship to men. Moreover, she is labelled as *surprising fashionista* which describes her in terms of beauty and fashion; typically attributed to women. There are also many adjectives, for example *surprising*, *beautiful* or *graceful*, used to describe her fashion taste and physical appearance.

Finally, the last section provides us also with a great variety of gender-marked characteristics. At the beginning, we can notice gender-marked word *songstress* and also atypical adjectival description in the form of *soulful*. According to *Non-Discriminatory Language Guidelines*, gender-marked expression *songstress* should be replaced by the neutral word *singer* (http://www.scu.edu.au/admin/equity/publications/watch_language.html). The most remarkable phenomenon in this section is the number of references related to the age of the woman. She is named either as *a teenager* or as *a young star*. Both these expressions clearly attract the attention towards her age. The last point that we should observe is the emphasized familiar dependence. There are mentions about the *domestic drama* and *her half-brother* that both reveal her family relationships.

As mentioned above, similar article appeared also in The Guardian Online and thus serves as a counterpart to the previous article (see Appendix 2, Article 4). At the beginning, it is noteworthy that there are several different women in this article, but problems caused by the usage of sexist language remain the same.

Nevertheless, the first section describes the same story as the previous article and we can notice the same sort of gender-marked features. Primarily, a women's relationship to men is stressed again; not only in the case of his sisters but also his partner. On the other hand, what should be appreciated is the use of the expression *partner*. This expression is, according

to the above mentioned guidelines, considered to be gender-neutral form and thus avoids sexist assumptions. Finally, the adjectival description used in the last paragraph of the first section indicates women's weaknesses and feelings.

In contrary, there is the age of Marla Ruzicka included in the second section but, in this case, it is functional because the main intention was to stress out that she was killed very young. In addition, the expression *manned*, used in the third section, is explained and thus functional too.

In the text about Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf, there also appear some gender-marked expressions, for example *first female leader*. As a matter of fact, in this particular instance, they reflect the situation in Saudi Arabia and primarily the position of women there. Nevertheless, such labelling is considered to be distinctively biased and thus should be replaced by gender-neutral expression.

In the section describing the story of Rania al-Baz, the only problem that may appear is a detailed adjectival description. Evaluating women in terms of their youth and personal characteristics is a common feature in the language of the press.

Finally, the feature appearing in the last section is exactly the same as in the previous article as the lady is depicted in very similar way.

According to the comparison provided, we can sum up that there are several linguistic problems with the use of sexist language in both types of newspapers. Nevertheless, the occurrence of gender-marked expressions is obviously more remarkable and frequent in the language of tabloids. This claim is clearly proved by the number and length of the analysed samples. The Daily Mail article consists of seven sections selected for the analysis, while The Guardian article contains one section less. In addition, the number of gender-marker expressions found in each article differs a lot.

To clarify this in more detail, we can focus on three distinguishing attributes: the use of naming forms, age of women, and familiar dependence. As far as naming forms are concerned, we can notice direct naming used in each paragraph of the Daily Mail article; while The Guardian uses mostly last name (sections 2, 4, 5), full name form (section 1), and also title and full name form (section 3). Similar disproportion can be noticed in the occurrence of references to the age of women. In the Daily Mail article, there is the age irrelevantly provided in four sections (3, 4, 6, and 7); while there is no reference to the age included in the broadsheet article. The only exception, which appeared in section 2, was explained above. Observing the last point, familiar dependence is also emphasized in the

majority of the Daily Mail paragraphs (the only exception is section 2); but appears only two times in The Guardian (sections 1, 6).

6.2.3 Additional samples

The following part of the analysis discusses the points theoretically introduced in chapter two in more detail and also demonstrates their occurrence on particular examples from the press. All the analysed samples are attached in Appendices 3 and 4. Appendix 3 contains the samples taken from printed as well as online broadsheets and appendix 4 consists of newspapers corpus taken from tabloids.

6.2.3.1 Naming forms

The first issue to be discussed in particular is the question of naming forms as it came out to be one of the most interesting parts of the analysis. Reah (2003:56) provides us with a list of all possible naming forms. From the articles selected for the analysis, we can see that almost all these forms are likely to be found in the language of the newspapers.

We can name people by their first names only (Diana 4/2¹, Charlotte 4/12, Abigail 4/15), first and last name (Cherie Blair 3/4, Federico Perez 3/5), title and last name (Mrs Merkel 3/13, Mr Schröder 3/16), title only (Sir, Madam), last name only (Tautou 3/31, Marceau 3/33, Cazaly 4/16), nickname (Di 4/headline 1, Shara 4/headline 3), profession or trade (Dr Blackwell 3/3, Chief Superintendent Peter Brinkley 3/24), formal titles and name (President George W Bush 3/12, Chancellor Angela Merkel 3/12, Sir Bob Geldof 4/28), anonymous address (boy, girl), and other groups.

It is noteworthy that women are often named in an informal or casual way, for example by using their first names only. This is especially true in the language of tabloids as all the above mentioned examples of direct naming were found in The Sun. From the list above, we can also see that newspapers go even further by the frequent usage of nicknames referring to women. In the samples selected for the analysis, there was not any example of nickname referring to men discovered. On the other hand, according to Reah, the informal naming is not exclusive to women (2003: 63). Men are named informally in newspaper articles too but, according to the analysis, less frequently than women.

¹ Appendix 4, sentence 2

In general, broadsheets tend to use the title form Mr and last name for men; and the neutral form Ms and last name to refer to women. However, the Daily Telegraph Online and some other broadsheets occasionally use the gender-marked form Mrs and last name (3/5, 13) but, in comparison with the language of tabloids, the use of gender-marked forms is less frequent. Moreover, tabloids tend to avoid the use of any title form by using direct naming for women (4/2, 12, 15).

In addition, after a detailed study of all the samples attached in Appendices 3 and 4, we can see that men are mostly named in a formal way in both types of the press. There is only one exception in the form of direct naming referring to men (4/6) and two examples of the use of last name only (4/16, 30). Nevertheless, in the rest of examples we can find only combinations of titles, formal titles, last and full name forms used to refer to men.

6.2.3.2 Generic man

Linguistic problems related to the use of expressions with generic man were already described in chapter two, and therefore this part of the analysis is focused on some interesting examples found in the press.

It is noteworthy that all the examples of expressions with generic man were found in broadsheets, particularly in The Times (3/5, 7, 26). It does not suggest that such terms are used exclusively in broadsheets. The terms like *chairman* and *spokesman* are widespread and are thus used in all types of discourse frequently. It is significant that the Daily Mail Online avoids such terms by using the form *chair* (4/29). In the other sentence (4/31), there is passive verb form *will be chaired*, which might be one of the possible ways of how to avoid gender bias in connection with generic man.

6.2.3.3 Suffixes

As far as suffixes are concerned, we can find various examples of their usage in the analysed samples (3/28, 30; 4/1, 4, 24, 30). Their occurrence in the language of the press is not exceptional and we can find them frequently used in both types of the press. The most common examples are undoubtedly expressions like *actress* or *princess*. However, there are strong gender-marked forms, for instance *songstress*, already discussed in the previous part, which certainly attract the attention towards gender. Nevertheless, more examples occur apparently in tabloids and their effect from stylistic viewpoint was already discussed in chapter two.

6.2.3.4 Other means of representing women in the press

According to Reah, the naming strategies adopted commonly refer to women in relation to other people, especially their families, husbands and children. Women are always depicted as someone's mothers, sisters, or daughters. In addition, their marital status is often stressed out by labelling them as spouses, wives or even widows (2003:63). This claim is clearly proved by the number of examples found in the analysed samples.

At the beginning, we can start with the comparison of presenting men and women in one particular article. In the sentence 4/27, there is a gender-neutral form used to refer to man; while woman is referred to as a *widow*.

In addition, after analysing all the samples attached in appendices 3 and 4, we can find various examples of representing women in relation to men. One of the most striking examples is labelling politician Theresa May as *vicar's daughter* (3/10). Additionally, Cherie Blair is labelled as *a wife of Prime Minister* (3/4), which presents her position in relation to her prominent husband. In general, there are numerous references to women being depicted in relation to their men and their families (3/20, 23; 4/3, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 21, 23, 27). From the number of examples provided, we can notice a clear disproportion between the number of examples found in tabloids and broadsheet. Whereas the rate is two to nine, familiar dependence attributed to women is again more notable in tabloids.

The next problem that Reah points out is adjectival description as one of the outstanding features of newspaper language describing women. Adjectival description usually focuses on the domestic lives and also physical attributes of women (2003: 63). Especially in the tabloids, we can find many examples of adjectives depicting women's attitudes, moods, physical appearance and also their nature. In the sentences (4/5, 6, 8, 9, 17, 19), there are adjectives like *self-confessed*, *rowdy*, *beaming*, *smiling*, *glamorous*, or *adoring*, which evaluate women's personalities and feelings in redundant details.

Another interesting gender-marked feature is depicting women as weaker sex. To demonstrate this claim, the following sentence appeared in The Sun Online on January 21, 2005:

But ever since the April day Richard Cazaly held a knife to her toddler son's throat she has behaved with unbelievable courage and sheer, shining goodness.

The adjective *unbelievable* indicates that women are not supposed to be brave or courageous. In relation to this topic, Fowler includes, except the above mentioned attribute of powerlessness, also sexual and physical access as an aspect commonly predicated of women. Besides, women are commonly described as being influenced in their life choices via a male

contact (1991: 95). All these attributes are proved by means of sentences (4/1, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11). If we examine, for instance, the sentence 4/3 in more detail, we can see not only the stressed dependence of the protagonist woman on her husband but also his influence on her feelings; which may also indicate her powerlessness. Additionally, there is conversion of the word *bed* in the headline of the first article (Appendix 4). Conversion is the word formation when the form of the word is retained but the word class is changed (Wales 2001). Bed is normally used as a substantive, but in this case it is used as a verb. Such linguistic means are frequently used to attract reader's attention; especially in the language of tabloids. In addition, the expression *army of lovestruck male fans* (4/7) can be labelled as exaggerated but, as written in chapter five, exaggeration is one of the most typical features of tabloids.

As all these above analysed examples were found mostly in The Sun, it is apparent that such representation of women is more typical of the language of tabloids.

Furthermore, Poynton adds that the attributes of physical appearance, youth, beauty, and fashion are typically predicated of women in the press (1985: 57-58). Concerning all these attributes, the examples demonstrating this phenomenon can be found in both types of the press (3/6, 7, 8; 4/17, 19, 22).

The examples 3/6-8, which are presenting politician Theresa May, describe her in terms of fashion taste. Such description of politician is generally unsuitable. Exceptionally, it may be accepted in an ironical usage. Nevertheless, the description of politician in terms of fashion and beauty represents the person in an unfavourable light.

In general, the example (4/22) can be labelled as a pure example of representing women in terms of their physical appearance. Such descriptions of women are the sort of practice widely criticized by feminists and other writers on sexism in the language.

To compare the occurrence of such representation of women in broadsheets and tabloids, we can sum up that, considering the results of the analysis, this phenomenon occurs in both types of the press approximately on the same level. Concerning the total number of examples, including samples provided in appendix 2, we can find slightly more examples in tabloids.

The last remarkable point, mentioned also by Poynton, is the age of women provided in newspaper articles (1985: 57). The age is undoubtedly one of the most common gender-marker features in the language of the press. To prove this statement, we can find the age of women included in the majority of the analysed articles (3/1, 3, 19, 21, 27, 30; 4/8, 13, 26). In contrary, the age of men is provided occasionally only (3/18; 4/6, 14, 26). All these examples were chosen as a random sample to represent this phenomenon in the press. The analysis

revealed that the frequency of this phenomenon is approximately the same in both types of the press. There is only one noticeable feature in sentence 3/1. There is no direct reference to the age, but the author describes the doctor as *young*, which also presents her in terms of the youth.

6.2.4 Beauty and fashion texts

At the end of the analysis, there is one fashion-related text analysed. This particular text was chosen as an obvious example of the most offensive use of sexist language. In this single text, we can find almost all the possible ways of expressing gender bias on lexical level. It clearly demonstrates that in this type of articles women are depicted in apparently derogatory way.

Concerning the question of naming forms, we can find direct naming (5/3) as well as the use of nicknames (5/8). Inevitably, we can also find the age of the protagonist woman (5/3).

Nevertheless, as the question of beauty and woman's body is the most important in this article, we can notice many indications towards her physical appearance (5/1, 3, 4, 6). Furthermore, there is a wide range of adjectives, for example *curvy*, *international*, *blonde*, *sexy*, or *skinny*, which are provided to illustrate her physical appearance in more detail.

The most typical example of gender bias is the expression *the blonde actress*. It contains not only gender-marked suffix but also indicates her physical appearance. In addition, the entire sentence points out that woman's body helps to sell goods. This sort of description is also widely criticized by many feminists nowadays.

The last interesting point in this text is the use of diminutive form *babe* (5/7, 9). It is used to trivialize not only women in the early twenties but also the actress Carmen Electra who is named as *former Baywatch babe*.

6.3 Summary of results

Taken all the results into consideration, we can confirm Reah's viewpoint that even a random selection of stories suggests that certain stereotypes are adopted in the press in relation to women. There is a tendency to depict them as existing primarily in relation to their families and partners rather than as individuals in their own right. Women are also commonly

described in relation to their youth and physical appearance. Moreover, women are commonly depicted as weaker sex; they are presented as victims and they are usually on the receiving end of action rather than the performers of it. If this selection is really representative, it reveals that the newspaper reading public receives series of images that depict women in a narrow set of roles. (2003: 67).

In other words, this can be summed up by saying that women are valued positively when they are young, beloved, married, and the producers of children, but negatively when they are sexual, unmarried, verbally aggressive, demanding rights, or aspiring to govern themselves or others (Poynton 1985:52).

In conclusion, these are some aspects of the concept of women as a single group of society which have been found by many writers on sexism in language nowadays. Contemporary writers on the subject of sexism in language take this study much further. They demonstrate that even in languages such as English, which do not have obviously sex-differentiated varieties, gender is systematically encoded both in language used by women and, perhaps more so, in language used about women (Fowler 1991: 95).

7. The reflection of society in the newspapers

According to Fowler, objections to this kind of analysis would be of a rather rationalizing nature: for example in an article of women dancers, there are bound to be lots of references to the physical attributes of women. On the other hand, in a list of public rewards, male company directors and officials are prevailing. Language simply reflects the facts. This sort of objection comes mainly from the acceptance of the ideological status quo, but anyway it misses the point. The form of representation itself cannot be explained as a reflex of the facts of the represented content: “discourse and its realization in texts are themselves facts” (1991: 104-105).

Fowler further explains that news is a reflection of the world in language. It means that language is a semiotic code and inserts a structure of values on whatever is represented. It implies that news, like every discourse, constructively patterns that of which it speaks. News is a representation of this sense of construction; it is not a meaningless reflection of facts (1991: 4).

The final Fowler’s assumption is that each particular form of linguistic expression in a text has its reason. There are always different ways of saying the same thing, and they are not random, unintended alternatives. Differences in expression carry ideological distinction and thus differences in representation. The point is sometimes obvious: clearly it is significant whether a political leader is referred to as Maggie or Margaret Thatcher. But this grossly visible alternative and its meaning is only a small part of the ideological working of linguistic expression (1991: 4)

The majority of the above analysed samples revealed that women are, in comparison with men, frequently represented in an unfavourable light. Taken all together, the discourse of the newspaper media handles men and women in terms of different stereotypes. No doubt that this differentiation reflects society’s different ways of treating men and women (the majority of company directors are male, chorus girls are female), but it would be easy to accept that the relationship between language and society is simply reflective. It also seems very likely that discrimination in discourse helps to maintain intellectual habits that promote discrimination in practice (Fowler 1991: 104-105)

7.1 Influence on the reader

Concerning the apparent differences in the language of broadsheets and tabloids, it is not a question of calling one of these types of the press linguistically better or worse than the other. The crucial question is whether the articles succeed in what their authors wanted to say. We can see that any topic can be presented to the public in very different lights; and it is up to us to judge to what extent certain colouring is influencing the truth of a situation. There is always a danger of any bias in any writing and it is inevitable as the attitudes and aims of the writers towards their subjects tend to be included. But by paying careful attention to the language means they use for these attitudes, we can take care that we are not easily deceived (Crystal and Davy 1969: 190-191).

As Reah observes, language can be a powerful tool. Perhaps, it is most powerful when its role in presenting world to an audience is not explicit. In other words, it is easy to resist a particular viewpoint when you know it is being presented to you, but it is much more complicated to oppose when the viewpoint is concealed. In fact, newspapers can artificially construct an audience by the means of manipulating the actual audience into taking on role or attitude that they would not otherwise accept. Language can be used to represent particular groups; to promote particular attitudes; or to conform to an existing stereotype (2003: 54).

7.2 Language reforms

As already mentioned earlier in the paper, the question of sexist language attracts the attention of many writers nowadays. According to Romaine, many women have argued that all sexist words in the English language should be eliminated. However, this is apparently not possible as it would be necessary to eliminate almost all the words referring to men. As a result, the evident positive image of men in relation to women would also be ejected from the language and the linguistic equality would be finally achieved (1994:127-128).

Additionally, according to the same author, it is also not clear how to deal with seemingly gender-neutral words such as *aggressive* and *professional*, which have different connotation when applied to men as opposed to women. To call a man a professional make it acceptable and expected in society, but to be a woman and a professional is possibly to be a prostitute. To be an aggressive female is also undesirable because such a woman would pose a threat to men. Thus, the question is if these terms should be eliminated too (1994:127-128).

In this point, as Romaine continues, we are coming back to the role of society in the use of language as this makes obvious that society's perceptions of men and women must change in order for linguistic reform to be successful. But language is not only a passive reflector of culture, it also creates it. There is a constant interaction between society and

language. Otherwise, new terms which are introduced will become incorporated into the existing semantic bias in favour of males.

However, studies have shown that there is a bias in the usage of these supposedly sex-neutral terms that they are used in such a way as to maintain the inequalities expressed by the old gender-marked terms they are supposed to replace. Consequently, it has been shown that women are much more likely than men to be referred to as a *chairperson* or *salesperson* (note, however, *Madam Chairperson!*). This raises the question of how successful such reforms are likely to be (1994:127-128).

In conclusion, we can say that the study of gender bias is much more complicated than it at first appears. The influence of gender will differ from culture to culture and it may interact with many other social characteristics such as social class, age, or context. The existence of sexist language is not simply linguistics but a social problem. As such, any remedy will require change in both society and language (Romaine 1994: 131-132).

Conclusion

The primary aim of this bachelor paper was to examine gender bias on lexical level in broadsheets and tabloids. Theoretical part starts with a detailed explanation of the key terminology and the description of linguistic means used for expressing gender on lexical level. All the presented linguistic means served as a basis for the analysis and were supported by many examples in the practical part of the work. Furthermore, theoretical part contains chapters devoted to the problems of sexism in the English language and ways of representing women as a secluded group of society. There is also a brief introduction into the problem of discrimination in the press as it appeared to have a crucial position in the practical part of the work.

Concerning the main topic of this bachelor paper, it was inevitable to present both types of the press, namely broadsheets and tabloids, in more detail. Chapter five is though entirely dedicated to the characteristics of the newspapers and their distinguishing linguistic features. The evaluation of the language in news media concludes theoretical part and is directly followed by the contrastive analysis of random samples from broadsheets and tabloids. Various random samples were collected routinely from printed as well as online British press and the analysis itself was based on three main books dealing with the language in the news.

The main goal of the analysis was to evaluate the occurrence of gender-marked expression in the language of the press and compare their frequency in broadsheets and tabloids. The occurrence of gender-marked expressions was evaluated from stylistic and sociolinguistic viewpoint and compared with the means of neutral language.

The practical part includes the assessment of the results of the analysis. At the beginning, there was an assumption that gender bias occurs in both types of the press and represents a considerable linguistics issue. Besides, there was an assumption that gender-marked expressions occur more frequently in the language of tabloids. In the first part of the analysis, there were four crucial text analysed to clearly demonstrate the main differences of broadsheets and tabloids in connection with gender bias on lexical level and representation of women in the press. Furthermore, there is an extended selection of additional examples provided to illustrate particular points of the analysis in more detail.

Taken all the results of the analysis into consideration, it can be concluded that gender bias is a significant issue representing serious problem in the language of the press. Concerning the frequency of gender-marked expressions, it can be summed up that the

occurrence is more frequent in the language of tabloids. This statement was revealed by the disproportion of gender-marked features found in the analysed articles. Moreover, the proportion of samples taken from broadsheets and tabloids was also unequal since more samples were taken from tabloids. This inequality was caused by the amount of gender-marked expressions found in each type of the press. On the other hand, it does not indicate that the problem of sexist language is exclusive to the language of tabloids; there were several noteworthy declines found also in broadsheets.

Nevertheless, a random selection of articles showed that certain stereotypes are adopted in the press in relation to women. The analysis further revealed that there is a strong tendency to depict them only in a limited set of roles. There are certain attributes, typically predicated of women, which are frequently emphasized in the language of the press and indicate women's status in the society.

The last part of this bachelor paper evaluates the effectiveness of gender-marked expressions and their influence on newspaper reading public. As news is said to be a representation of the world in language, there is a part discussing the reflection of the society in the press and its real impacts on the reader. As the analysis confirmed gender bias to be a remarkable issue within the English language, there are some suggestions of how to avoid sexist expressions discussed in the last chapter. Nevertheless, the solution of this linguistic issue is not easy to find and the success of various language reforms appeared to be really uncertain.

Resumé

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá problematikou genderové předpojatosti na rovině lexikální v seriózním a bulvárním britském tisku. Hlavním cílem této bakalářské práce byla analýza výskytu příznakových jevů a porovnání jejich frekvence v obou typech tisku. Klíčové faktory ovlivňující výskyt příznakových jevů byly vybrány na základě relevantních publikací z oblasti lingvistiky a sociolingvistiky.

Teoretická část práce uvádí a podrobně vysvětluje základní terminologii spojenou s genderovou předpojatostí a dále charakterizuje distinktivní jazykové prostředky využívané k vyjádření gender na rovině lexikální. K těmto základním jazykovým prostředkům řadíme především formy oslovení a dále užívání výrazů s generickým významem a příznakovými příponami. Všechny tyto jevy jsou nejen podrobně definovány v teoretické části práce, ale také demonstrovány na praktických příkladech v analytické části. Dále teoretická část upozorňuje na další formy vyjadřování genderové předpojatosti a reprezentace žen v anglickém jazyce.

Zaměříme-li se na obsah kapitol 3 a 4, dostaneme se tak k problematice původu příznakových jevů v jazyce a dalším faktorům ovlivňujícím vývoj jazyka a jeho vliv na čtenáře. Zjistíme, že ženy jsou často prezentovány jako zvláštní skupina, oddělená od společnosti jako celku. Čtvrtá kapitola je zcela věnována problematice sexismů v jazyce a využívání příznakových jevů jako jedné z forem diskriminace žen v žurnalistickém jazyce. Obě kapitoly rovněž obsahují detailní vysvětlení základních pojmů, obvykle užívaných při posuzování sexismů v jazyce a jejich celkové efektivitě.

Kapitola 5 je věnována charakteristice britského tisku a rozlišení jeho základních skupin, tedy seriózního a bulvárního tisku. Kapitola dále popisuje primární distinktivní rysy obou typů tisku a charakterizuje základní rysy a využití jazykových prostředků žurnalistického jazyka s ohledem na výskyt příznakových jevů. Charakteristika obou typů britského tisku uzavírá teoretickou část práce a dále následuje kontrastivní analýza selektivních novinových článků z obou typů tisku.

Praktická část bakalářské práce obsahuje hodnocení výsledků analýzy a objasnění převažujících tendencí ve výskytu příznakových jevů v seriózním a bulvárním tisku. Vlastní analýza byla založena na souboru vzorků, které byly vybrány náhodně z tištěného i elektronického britského tisku. Hlavním cílem této analýzy bylo hodnocení a demonstrace výskytu příznakových jevů v žurnalistickém stylu z hlediska stylistického a

sociolingvistického a dále porovnání frekvence jejich výskytu v obou typech tisku. Efektivita příznakových jevů byla porovnáвана s jazykovými prostředky genderově neutrálního jazyka.

Hlavním předpokladem analýzy bylo, že příznakové jevy se čteně vyskytují v žurnalistickém jazyce a představují významný lingvistický problém. Dalším z předpokladů bylo, že příznakové jevy se budou častěji vyskytovat v jazyce bulvárního tisku. Klíčovou částí celé analýzy bylo porovnání čtyř základních textů se stejnou tematikou, které měly demonstrovat stěžejní rozdíly v jazyce obou typů tisku a také různé formy reprezentace žen. Dále byla provedena kontrastivní analýza dalších vybraných článků z obou typů tisku, které měly prokázat četnost výskytu příznakových jevů.

Zaměříme-li se na hodnocení výsledků analýzy, můžeme shrnout, že příznakové prostředky jsou nejen četným jevem v žurnalistickém jazyce, ale představují také výjimečný lingvistický problém a zároveň stanovují určitý status žen ve společnosti. Zvážíme-li četnost jejich výskytu, můžeme potvrdit hypotézu, že jsou skutečně častějším jevem v jazyce bulvárního tisku. Tato hypotéza byla potvrzena celkovým počtem definovaných jevů z vybraných článků. Reprezentativní vzorek analýzy se skládal z celkového počtu dvaceti článků, přičemž pouze devět reprezentovalo seriózní tisk. Tato disproporce byla způsobena počtem příznakových jevů nalezených v obou typech tisku.

Po dosažení těchto závěrů samozřejmě nelze říci, že problematika příznakových jevů a sexismu v jazyce by byla záležitostí pouze bulvárního tisku. Příznakové jevy a další formy diskriminace žen v jazyce se objevily i v mnoha člancích seriózního tisku. Nicméně porovnááme-li četnost jejich výskytu v obou typech tisku, analýza odhalila, že frekvence jejich využití je skutečně vyšší v tisku bulvárním.

Na závěr můžeme říci, že i náhodný výběr reprezentativních vzorků odhalil, že ženy jsou v britském tisku prezentovány pouze v úzce limitovaném okruhu rolí. Dále můžeme najít určité vlastnosti a distinktivní rysy, často využívané při prezentaci žen v tisku, které jsou snadno identifikovatelné a určují určitou pozici žen v moderní společnosti.

Poslední kapitola práce se zabývá jazykovou efektivitou příznakových prostředků a především vlivem zpráv na čtenáře. O novinách se také říká, že jsou zrcadly společnosti a pouze odráží skutečnou realitu. Poslední kapitola je proto věnována reflexi společnosti v tisku a možným dopadům užívaných jazykových prostředků na širokou veřejnost. Jak již analýza prokázala, příznakové jevy představují určitý problém v anglickém jazyce a tudíž nezůstávají bez povšimnutí jazykových odborníků i představitelů feministických hnutí. Poslední část práce tedy představuje některé z mnoha pokusů o jazykové reformy v této oblasti, nicméně

můžeme tuto otázku uzavřít s tím, že ačkoli bylo podáno mnoho návrhů na odstranění sexismů v jazyce, úspěch jakékoli jazykové reformy je v současné době velmi nejistý.

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Appendix 1

Table 1 Semantic-feature analysis of *man*, *woman*, *boy*, and *girl*

man	woman	boy	girl
+ animate	+ animate	+ animate	+ animate
+ human	+ human	+ human	+ human
+ adult	+ adult	- adult	- adult
+ male	- male	+ male	- male

Appendix 1.2

How to Tell a Businessman from a Businesswoman

An anonymous but acute and mischievous observer of the office scene compiled this telling commentary:

A businessman is aggressive; a businesswoman is pushy.
He is careful about details; she is picky.
He loses his temper because he is so involved in his job; she is bitchy.
He is depressed (or hung over), so everyone tiptoes past his office; she is moody, so it must be her time of the month.
He follows through; she does not know when to quit.
He is firm; she is stubborn.
He makes wise judgments; she reveals her prejudices.
He is a man of the world; she has been around.
He is not afraid to say what he thinks; she is opinionated.
He exercises authority; she is tyrannical.
He is discreet; she is secretive.
He is a stern taskmaster; she is difficult to work for.

Article 3

The Daily Mail Online, 2005 Women of the Year awards for 2005

1. Gemma, Paula, Donna, Catherine and Claire McCartney

The sisters of Robert McCartney - the Belfast man fatally stabbed outside a Belfast pub - have impressed people all over the world in their relentless campaign for justice. They maintain IRA members were involved in carrying out and covering up the killing on 30th January, and have bravely spoken out to the world's media despite receiving death threats.(incomplete paragraph)

2. Paula Radcliffe

Paula was watched by millions last year, crouching by the roadside as she watched her dreams of Olympic glory in Athens fall to pieces. However she picked herself up, put her running shoes back on and was back on form by 2005. The long distance runner destroyed her rivals to win her third London Marathon title in April. She then took the marathon title in August at the World Championships in Helsinki, Finland. Paula is set to run the London marathon in 2006 to see if she can come first for the fourth time.

3. Gee Walker

Gee Walker, 49, is the mother of murdered black teenager Anthony Walker. She impressed the public with her great dignity amid the furore over the trials.

After teenager Michael Barton, 17, and Paul Taylor, 20 were found guilty of Anthony's murder, fervent Christian Gee astonished many by declaring her forgiveness for the killers.

"I have got to forgive them," she said. "My family and I still stand by what I believe - forgiveness. It will be difficult but we have no choice but to live on for Anthony."

4. Carol Thatcher

She was the unknown eccentric daughter of Britain's first female Prime Minister, who proved she had the same winning mettle.

Carol Thatcher, 52, was crowned queen of the jungle on the TV show, I'm A Celebrity, Get Me Out of Here, after driving a car into a ravine, eating a kangaroo's testicle and grabbing plastic stars from the jaws of snakes.

Carole impressed viewers with her stoicism and 'can do' attitude over the two gruelling weeks, and has emerged as a persona in her own right.

5. Gill Hicks

On July 7th, Gill Hicks was late for work at The Design Council when she hurriedly boarded the Tube. Soon after both her legs were blown off after a suicide bomber detonated an explosive-laden rucksack. Twenty six people were killed around her.

Gill was the last person to be carried alive from the wreckage, and her heart stopped twice on the way to hospital. But Gill had vowed to survive and marry her fiancée Joe Kerr and against the odds she began to make a slow recovery.

On December 10th her fervent wish came true, and she walked the 35 steps up the aisle with prosthetic limbs to meet her husband-to-be.

Among the 150 wedding guests were many members of the rescue services and medical staff who helped save her life.

6. Camilla, Duchess of Cornwall

Camilla Parker-Bowles, 58, married into royalty this year, finally tying the knot with Prince Charles in a spring wedding.

The Duchess of Cornwall has been making headlines as a surprising fashionista, ever since she wore her beautiful Robinson Valentine wedding outfit.

Camilla has supported Charles on a number of daunting state occasions including their first official tour of America and has impressed many with her graceful charm.

In late November she made her first solo official visits to charities close to her heart. She is the patron of the National Osteoporosis Society and the Bobby Van Trust.

7. Joss Stone

Joss Stone turned 18 this year and what a year to start her adult life!

The soulful songstress trumped both Jamelia and Natasha Bedingfield to be named British Best Female Solo Artist and Best British Urban Act at the 2005 Brit Awards. The teenager has already earned millions and now has a lucrative contract with Gap.

However, Joss also has a caring side. She performed in the London Live 8 concert this summer, and supports both the Pink Ribbon Foundation (breast cancer) and the North Shore Animal League of America (caring for animals made homeless by Hurricane Katrina.)

The young star has also had domestic dramas. In 2000 her half-brother was imprisoned for attempted armed robbery and Joss penned a song about his life on her album Mind, Body and Soul.

Article 4

The Guardian Online, December 16th 2005

Those we have loved in 2005

1. The McCartney sisters

The murder of Robert McCartney, stabbed and beaten to death outside a pub after an argument with Republicans on January 30 this year, horrified the Short Strand district of Belfast and the world at large. But the police investigation was greeted with a wall of silence: despite the fact that the pub had been busy, there were few witnesses, and a hasty cleaning effort destroyed much forensic evidence. The belief that McCartney's murder had been

ordered by a commander in the Belfast brigade of the Provisional IRA, had ensured the community kept quiet.

It fell to McCartney's five sisters and his partner, Bridgeen Hagens, to campaign for justice - publicly stating their belief that IRA members were responsible for the silence surrounding the murder, and appealing for witnesses to come forward. One man has since been charged with the murder. But the McCartneys have said more people were involved, and want them all brought to justice.

The McCartney family had lived in the Short Strand area of Belfast for five generations. But the largely nationalist community, afraid of a burgeoning dispute with the IRA, has driven them all to leave by threats of violence.

But their campaign continues. Despite efforts to monopolise their status, they have avoided party politics. Their dignified grief and passionate resolution has made everyone else - from politicians to squabbling factions - look like petty, little boys. Did it really require five grieving women to show everyone they ought to grow up?

2. Marla Ruzicka

The American aid worker killed, aged 28, by a car bomber in Baghdad, was an extraordinary woman who had worked unflinchingly to gain compensation for victims of the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq. Ruzicka's campaigning began aged 15, when she was suspended from high school for leading a protest against the first Gulf war; by the time of her death she had created her own charity, Civic (Campaign for Innocent Victims in Conflict), comforting the bereaved, alerting the world to their presence and, through tireless lobbying, winning \$20m for victims in Iraq.

3. Eileen Collins

In the 45 years since manned (and yes, we mean manned) space flight began, nearly 450 people have travelled in space, but only 46 have been women. But Discovery commander Lt Col Eileen Collins, who blasted off in July, has blazed a trail for female astronauts. As the first woman to fly the shuttle and the first to command one, we say, "Come on, Eileen" etc.

4. Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf

Winning the election to become president of Liberia in November, Johnson-Sirleaf, a Harvard-educated economist, simultaneously became the first female leader of an African state. But hers is an unenviable position: Liberia has an unemployment rate of 85%, the capital has no electricity or running water, and a 14-year civil war ended just two years ago. "Liberia is a country on life support," Kofi Annan said. "She is the best opportunity it has had in decades."

5. Rania al-Baz

As presenter of The Kingdom this Morning, Al-Baz was one of the best-known faces on Saudi Arabian television: young, bold, flamboyant. So when she published pictures of her horrendously bruised and broken face after she was beaten, almost to death, by her husband in April 2004, she forced out the dark secret of domestic violence in the kingdom. (incomplete paragraph)

6. Gee Verona-Walker, mother of the murdered 18-year-old Anthony Walker, for her dignity in the most appalling circumstances. Her amazingly generous response to his killers' convictions was truly inspiring.

Appendix 3

Newspapers corpus

Broadsheets

The Times, June 29th 2005, p.12

War zone? No just A&E, says doctor who dared to rebel

1. A young doctor yesterday accused the Government of turning her hospital into a “war zone” when Patricia Hewitt became the first Health Secretary to address the British Medical Association in its 173-year history.
2. Jennie Blackwell, a senior house officer, told Ms Hewitt that she and her colleagues dreaded going to work because government targets had left her unit completely overwhelmed by patients.
3. Dr Blackwell, 27, took Ms Hewitt to task over the target that 98 per cent of accident and emergency patients should be seen and treated within four hours

The Times, June 29th 2005, p.23

‘British first lady’ speaks in Spain

4. Cherie Blair spoke at a conference in Spain on Monday as the “British first lady”, despite coming under increasing criticism for exploiting her position as wife of the Prime Minister.
5. Federico Perez, a spokesman for the cultural department of the regional government, said that Mrs Blair received travel and accommodation expenses, but he did not know whether she had received a fee.

The Times, June 29th 2005, p.31

‘We must be positive to overcome our nasty past’

6. Theresa May is famous not only for her passion for killer heels.
7. The former party chairman made her name when she aimed her stilettos at her own side, telling the Conservatives they were seen as the “nasty party”.
8. Three years on, the shoes (brown kitten heels) are even more fabulous but her verdict on the party is still damning.
9. But at the beginning of a long, hot summer of Tory soul-searching is Mrs May doomed to be the Cassandra of Conservatives, right but ignored?
10. This month the vicar’s daughter has not only become one of the only Tories known to utter the word orgasm in a policy speech...
11. She was elected in 1997 as MP for Maidenhead under John Major, promoted to the front bench under William Hague, was made party chairman by Iain Duncan Smith and was demoted to Shadow Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport by Michael Howard.

The Daily Telegraph Online, January 14th 2006

All smiles as Bush and Merkel find a new diplomacy

12. President George W Bush and Chancellor Angela Merkel laughed, joked and even gave homilies on diplomacy and friendship yesterday as they sought to make clear US-German acrimony over the Iraq invasion had ended.
13. The leaders had to agree to disagree over Guantanamo Bay, the US detention centre that Mrs Merkel said last week should be closed.
14. In a press conference at the White House after their meeting Mr Bush said Guantanamo was there to stay. "It is a necessary part of protecting the American people."

15. Mrs Merkel's predecessor, Gerhard Schröder, was even more loathed in the White House than that arch villain, the French president, Jacques Chirac, for having played the anti-war card to ensure his re-election in late 2002.

16. Administration officials felt betrayed by Mr Schröder, who they said had pledged not to tap his country's deep vein of anti-Americanism for political gain.

17. They also saw him as opportunistic for his attempts to cosy up to Russia's President Vladimir Putin and for his push to end the EU's arms embargo against China.

The Guardian Online, December 28th 2005

Man arrested after woman found shot dead at home

18. Police cordoned off the house in Audley in the early hours of yesterday after finding the body of the middle-aged woman. A 44-year-old local man is helping police with their inquiries.

19. The woman was named as Susan Rondel, 48. A post-mortem showed she died from a gunshot wound.

20. Neighbours said she had lived there alone for around eight years but had two grown-up sons, Philip and Dean, who live nearby.

21. Neighbours found the body of Ada McCabe, 83, at her home in Windle, St Helens. 22. Marion Dixon, a neighbour who knew her well, said Mrs McCabe had lived in the area for 35 years.

23. She was a widow who lost her husband seven years ago. "She was a lovely person. She knew everybody; she spoke to everybody," said Mrs Dixon.

24. Chief Superintendent Peter Brinkley said: "It's a quiet road and a close-knit community. We have been very encouraged by the response from the community, but would like to hear from anyone who heard anything at 3am or before."

The Times Online, December 29th 2005

Women to win as Blair reshuffles to foil advance of Cameron

25. The Prime Minister is set to promote Hazel Blears and is considering other candidates for an eighth woman at his Cabinet table in a rebuff to Mr Cameron's pledge merely to seek more female Tory MPs.

26. Ms Blears is likely to be blocked from the chairmanship by John Prescott, the Deputy Prime Minister, who believes that she is "too Blairite" for the role, which must satisfy all wings of the party and involves work with unions and activists.

27. At 4ft 10in (1.47m), 49-year-old Ms Blears is the joint shortest MP in the Commons with Sarah Teather, of the Liberal Democrats, and a motorcycling enthusiast who represents Salford.

28. Ms Blears appeared to be raising her profile yesterday when she appeared on The World At One on BBC Radio 4 to talk about a wide range of policies even though the duty minister for the Home Office was Baroness Scotland of Asthal.

The Times Online, December 29th 2005

Chirac fails to have his way on Da Vinci casting couch

29. The President also requested a bigger fee for Jean Reno, the French actor who is cast as the stubborn Gallic detective Bezu Fache in the film, according to Ron Howard, the director.

30. Alongside him, in the part of the young cryptologist Sophie Neveu, is the 27-year-old French actress Audrey Tautou.

31. Tautou is known to have beaten at least a dozen other French actresses to the coveted role in what is likely to be one of next year's biggest movies.

32. However, a French film industry source said that it was rumoured to be Sophie Marceau, 39, who was on the shortlist for The Da Vinci Code.

Appendix 4

Newspapers corpus

Tabloids

The Sun, June 29th 2005, p.11

Di would have been daft not to bed JFK Junior

1. Alternative therapist Simone Simmons says Princess Diana enjoyed a one night stand with John F Kennedy Junior.

2. Yet, as it is the norm when Diana revelations emerge, her self-appointed "rock" has crawled out from under his stone to cast doubt on them.

3. It's well documented that the princess – rejected by her husband and feeling desolated – turned to navel-gazing on a grand scale,...

The Sun, June 29th 2005, p.38-39

Ladettes to Ladies

4. Etiquette expert Jean Broke Smith, *inset right*, who appears on the show as the house mistress, taught actress Joanna Lumley and It Girl Lady Victoria Hervey all the tricks to ladylike behaviour.

5. Self-confessed beer monster Emma is desperate to ditch the denim before she heads up the aisle in November.

6. Rowdy Rachel is a constant embarrassment to her carpenter husband Simon, 26, and wants to mend her ways.

The Sun, June 29th 2005, p.54

Shara love loser

7. Maria Sharapova insists Wimbledon is a haven from her army of lovestruck male fans.

8. The glamorous defending champion, 18, breezed into a semi-final clash with Venus Williams tomorrow with a 7-6 6-3 win over fellow Russian Nadia Petrova.

9. But while an adoring female fan asked British kid Andy Murray to marry her, Sharapova has been spared a proposal by the shy men of SW19.

The Sun Online, 2005

Gav us a song, Henson

10. Charlotte Church's lover Gavin Henson is over the croon — after she bought him a karaoke machine for Christmas.

11. The rugby star will use the £100 gadget to practise belting out tunes with his girlfriend.

12. Charlotte often performs impromptu karaoke sessions when she is out — and we have mocked-up how she may look with her Welsh international love.

13. "He will get some stick from the boys in the dressing room for this." Charlotte spent Christmas with mum Maria, 39.

14. She split from Charlotte's step-dad James Church, 40, after he was exposed as a drug snorting love-rat.

The Sun Online, 2005

Women of the year

15. Abigail did not ask to be a heroine and could never have wished on herself the horrific experiences she has suffered over the last nine months.
16. She was opening a gate when Cazaly pounced.
17. Every photo of Abigail shows her beaming smile — unclouded and open.
18. She is a devout Catholic and I'm sure she puts much of her strength and survival down to her faith.

The Daily Mail Online, December 21st 2005

Sylvia's story - one year on

19. Last year her smiling face appeared in newspapers nationwide as she told her incredible story of survival in the Asian tsunami.
20. Twelve months on, that smile remains - only brighter and more confident.
21. Separated from her mother, brother and sister, she clung to a piece of wood in the swirling froth, determined to survive.
22. Wearing a floral orange dress, bright green flip-flops and with her hair cut short, she looked the definition of vitality.
23. For the anniversary of the tsunami she will go to the family's new home to mark the event with her sister, her mother and her mother's second husband.
24. Although grave at the thought, Sylvia cheered up instantly when asked about the future.
25. With that, she leapt from her place and rushed off to greet Sister Arulseeli, her former boarding mistress at the convent.

The Daily Mail Online, December 27th 2005

Man quizzed over pensioner's murder

26. Police are continuing to question a 26-year-old man over the murder of an 83-year-old widow.
27. She said Mrs McCabe had shared her house with her husband until his death seven years ago.

The Daily Mail Online, December 28th 2005

Cameron's coup as Geldof advises Tories

28. Sir Bob Geldof will act as a consultant to new Tory policy group on global poverty, announced by leader David Cameron today.
29. The Tory has already signed up maverick environmentalist Zac Goldsmith as joint chair of the group formulating green policies.
30. And it's proof Geldof has moved on too after famously clashing with former Conservative Prime Minister Baroness Thatcher in the 1980s over the VAT charge levied on the Band Aid single.
31. Mr Cameron made a direct link with the summer's anti-poverty crusade as he announced the new group, which will be chaired by Peter Lilley.

Appendix 5

The Sun Online, 2005

Is Nic new knickers girl?

1. NICOLLETTE SHERIDAN is in secret talks to take over from RACHEL HUNTER as the new face — and body — of Ultimo.
2. The Desperate Housewives star is hot favourite to replace Rachel after her contract with the lingerie giant ends in February.
3. Nicollette, 42, who plays man-eating Edie Britt in the hit US drama, is being wooed by bosses at Ultimo because of her curvy figure and international profile.
4. They believe the blonde actress has the perfect image to help sell their racy bras and knickers.
5. A source said: "Nicollette was one of the first names Ultimo came up with and they have been in intense negotiations with her agent.
6. "They like the fact she is very sexy without being too skinny and that she is famous all round the world thanks to Desperate Housewives.
7. "Ultimo is about real women rather than stick-thin babes in their teens and early twenties."
8. But British-born Nic is not the only well-known face in the frame to win the lucrative contract.
9. Ultimo chief Michelle Mone is also considering approaching former Baywatch babe CARMEN ELECTRA, Sex And The City's KIM CATTRALL and supermodels CINDY CRAWFORD and HEIDI KLUM.

ÚDAJE PRO KNIHOVNICKOU DATABÁZI

Název práce	Genderová předpojatost na rovině lexikální v seriózním a bulvárním tisku
Autor práce	Kateřina Víšková
Obor	Anglický jazyk pro hospodářskou praxi
Rok obhajoby	2006
Vedoucí práce	Mgr. Petra Huschová
Anotace	Práce analyzuje výskyt příznakových jevů na rovině lexikální v diskurzu novinových článků a porovnává jejich frekvenci v seriózním a bulvárním tisku
Klíčová slova	Angličtina, lingvistika, sociolingvistika, lexikologie, jazyk, textová analýzy, gender, média, noviny