The Representation of Social Actors In *Interchange Third Edition* Series: A Critical Discourse Analysis

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Abstract

This study takes a critical discourse analysis approach to investigate the linguistic representation of male and female social actors and construction of gender identities in the *Interchange Third Edition.* The analytical models used are van Leeuwen's (1996) framework and Halliday's transitivity model (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). The findings of this study indicated a differential representation of social actors in that females were portrayed as more prominent, successful, active, independent, expressive and assertive in comparison with males. Generally, it seems that attempts have been made to bring women from margin to the foreground. Moreover, females are associated with high status activities. This challenges traditional values that exclude and demean the value of women in society implying that women are as crucial as men to the community's function.

1. Introduction

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an interdisciplinary approach to the

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study of discourse, which views "language as a form of social practice" (Fairclough, 1989: 20) and focuses on the ways social and political domination is reproduced by text and talk. That is, language is viewed as both socially constitutive as well as "socially shaped" (Fairclough and Wodak, 1997: 258).

As one of its central objectives, CDA considers the linguistic choices a text producer makes as a potential medium through which the ideological import of a particular discourse situation can be reproduced. Fairclough and Wodak (1997) usefully translate this into the "working assumption" that "any part of any language text, spoken or written, is simultaneously constituting representations, relations, and identities" (275). That is, discourse represents particular world views, particular social relations between people, and particular social identities according to the purpose, context and addressees of the text.

The approach is founded on the idea that there is unequal access to linguistic and social resources, that are controlled institutionally. The pattern of access to discourse and communicative events is an essential element for CDA. In other words, CDA aims at investigating critically social inequality "as it is expressed, signaled, constituted, legitimized and so on by language use" (Wodak, 2001: 2).

CDA assumes from the outset that language is invested, that is language is not a neutral tool for transmitting a message but, that all "communicative events" (van Dijk, 1993: 250), constitute "a particular way of talking about and understanding the world (or an aspect of the world)" (Phillips and Jorgensen, 2002: 1) both on the part of the producer (the writer, the speaker) and on the part of the consumer (the reader, the audience). As such, discourse analysis references both a theory of language use - language use as not neutral but invested - and a method for analyzing language in use.

From a feminist perspective which assumes that gender is a central organizing principle of both knowledge and experience and that this principle expresses invested interests of diverse kinds, critical discourse analysis which shares that assumption of *investedness* is an ideal research tool since it reveals the articulation and operation of that investment

(Cameron, 2006). CDA as a research method, thus, centers on understanding the ideological machinations of discourse and aims to produce a critique of how discourse operates to affect certain agendas. In this respect, CDA has much in common with gender studies in that their objectives, too, involve uncovering ideological agendas which emerge from the discourses produced in formal and informal exchanges.

2. Curriculum, Ideology and CDA

On the influence of language on society, Lakoff (1973) argued that society is reflected in the language, with the values and assumptions held by society being mirrored in the language. Her studies were concerned with the manner in which women were depicted in written and spoken English and what values were unconsciously being passed on because of this.

Da Silva (1999: 1) maintains that a curriculum "is always [an] authorized representation", implicitly, legitimating and disseminating a certain ideology. If the influential role of textbooks on learners' mentality is accepted, then the way textbooks portray the various people in the target society and the way those people are shown to communicate will directly affect EFL students' worldview. CDA scholars contend that ideologies are constructed, naturalized and legitimized through language, more specifically through discourse, as a social practice (Fairclough, 1989, 1992; van Dijk, 2004) and CDA can provide researchers with effective analytical tools to analyze texts profoundly and uncover ideological underpinnings.

The norms of conduct, ideology, etc. are usually disseminated without the learner even being aware of being exposed to such norms. That is, s/he is exposed to a hidden curriculum, (Skelton, 1997). Evans and Davis (2000) assert that though researchers and publishers have agreed upon using positive characteristics of different genders in their textbooks, the achievements have not been so significant. Studies of the portrayal of women in EFL/ESL textbooks (Ansary and Babii 2003; Hartman and Judd 1978) have shown that the stereotypical role of women as mothers and homemakers is still being perpetuated in many current language textbooks. Otlowski (2003) in this regard, criticizes EFL/ESL textbooks for

contributing to the misinterpretation of women and minority groups and considers it as unacceptable in this day and age to perpetuate the image of women as homemakers when women make up such an integral part of the workforce in both the United States and the United Kingdom.

Armstrong (1998) views the basic function of a curriculum as the dissemination, as well as the imposition, of power relation in a community. Hence, being aware of such hidden notions in the texts will obviously provide learners with options to choose. Amalsaleh (2004) investigated the representation of social actors (in terms of social class, gender…) in EFL textbooks in Iran. The findings of the study revealed that all the books, irrespective of their goals and audience, mostly appeared to follow an almost similar trend. All, for instance, demonstrated a differential representation of social actors, showing males and females differently. It appeared to suggest that such a representation worked toward portraying the female social actors as belonging to home context or having limited job opportunities in the society.

Considering the possible effects of textbooks on constructing learners' views and ideologies, this study aims at investigating the possible inclusion and exclusion of such ideologies. That is to say, this study is to identify the principal ways through which social actors are represented in the texts under study and reveal the possible hidden discursive structures. Hence attempts are made to clarify the way male and female social actors are represented in the *Interchange Third Edition* (2005). The study draws on the work of van Leeuwen (1996) to formulate a framework which utilizes a socio-semantic inventory, in a systematic way. To further clarify the points under investigation the following three research questions are formulated:

1. Are social actors represented differently in the textbooks under study and, if so, how is this achieved linguistically?

2. Provided that social actors are represented differently, what ideological assumptions can account for the difference?

3. Are particular words or expressions used to represent the ideologies at work?

3. Method

3.1 Data for the study

The present study is an attempt to analyze the *Interchange Third Edition* series, a revised edition of *New Interchange,* under the rubric of CDA. The series includes 4 books all of which are considered for analysis. The series is one of the most successful ESL textbooks around the world and is very popular in Iran. The impetus for considering this series and not others was motivated by the claims made on Richards' homepage in an interview in August, 2007. Richards claims that:

> Teachers are now encouraged to examine and confront the underlying ideologies of texts and textbooks. Textbooks, no longer seen as indispensable tools, are viewed as controlling instruments, hindering the creativity of the teacher, maintained in place through the pressure of publishers, and may result in the deskilling of teachers through their recycling of old, but tried and tested teaching techniques. They are transmitters of a dominant and dominating ideology ... Content of books is carefully scrutinized to ensure that they represent diversity (Jackcrichards.com).

3.2 Procedures

In this study all the sentences of the reading passages (41 passages in total) have been critically analyzed according to the features introduced by van Leeuwen (1996) and Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) transitivity model. The reason for opting for van Leeuwen's model lies in the fact that this is the only comprehensive framework in CDA studies that lend itself very nicely to the analysis of discourse when representation of actors are looked at from a social standpoint. Furthermore, in order to analyze the type of activity male and female social actors are represented with, it is very much necessary to draw on Halliday & Matthiessen's work on the transitivity system.

As one type of discourse (here an ESL textbook) does not include all the categories and modes of representation, for practical purposes, the following elements of van Leeuwen's framework (1996) are considered to function as the criterion for the analysis: *Inclusion, Exclusion, Activation, Subjection,*

Beneficialization, Participation, Possessivation, Circumstantialization, Functionalization, Classification, Relational Identification, Formalization, Semiformalization, Informalization, Indetermination, Abstraction, Objectivation, Genericization, Individualization, Collectivization. All definitions below are very briefly presented based on van Leeuwen's own extensive elaborations.

Inclusion/ Exclusion. Social actors are sometimes omitted or backgrounded to serve certain purposes.

Activation/passivation. Social actors can be activated i.e. represented as the active, dynamic forces in an activity or passivated i.e. represented as undergoing the activity, or as being the *recipient*. Passivated social actors can be *subjected* (treated as objects in the representation) or *beneficialised* (positively or negatively, benefitting from the action).

Functionalization and identification: Functionalization occurs when social actors are referred to in terms of what they do. Identification occurs when social actors are defined in terms of what they are (including age, gender, provenance, class, wealth, ethnicity, religion and so on).

Relational identification represents social actors in terms of their personal, kinship or work relations to each other.

Impersonalization can be realized through abstraction or objectivation. The former occurs when social actors are represented by means of a quality assigned to them. The latter occurs when social actors are represented by means of reference to a place or thing closely associated either with their person or with the activity they are represented as being engaged in.

Nomination is typically realized by proper noun, which can be *formalization* (surname only, with or without honorifics), *semi-formalization* (given name and surname ...), or *informalization* (given name only).

Genericization occurs when social actors are represented as classes or as specific, identifiable individuals.

Indetermination occurs when social actors are represented as unspecified, anonymous individuals or groups.

Individualization occurs when social actors are referred to as

individuals.

Collectivization occurs when social actors are referred to as groups which are realized by plurality, by a mass noun or a noun denoting a group of people but not treated as statistics.

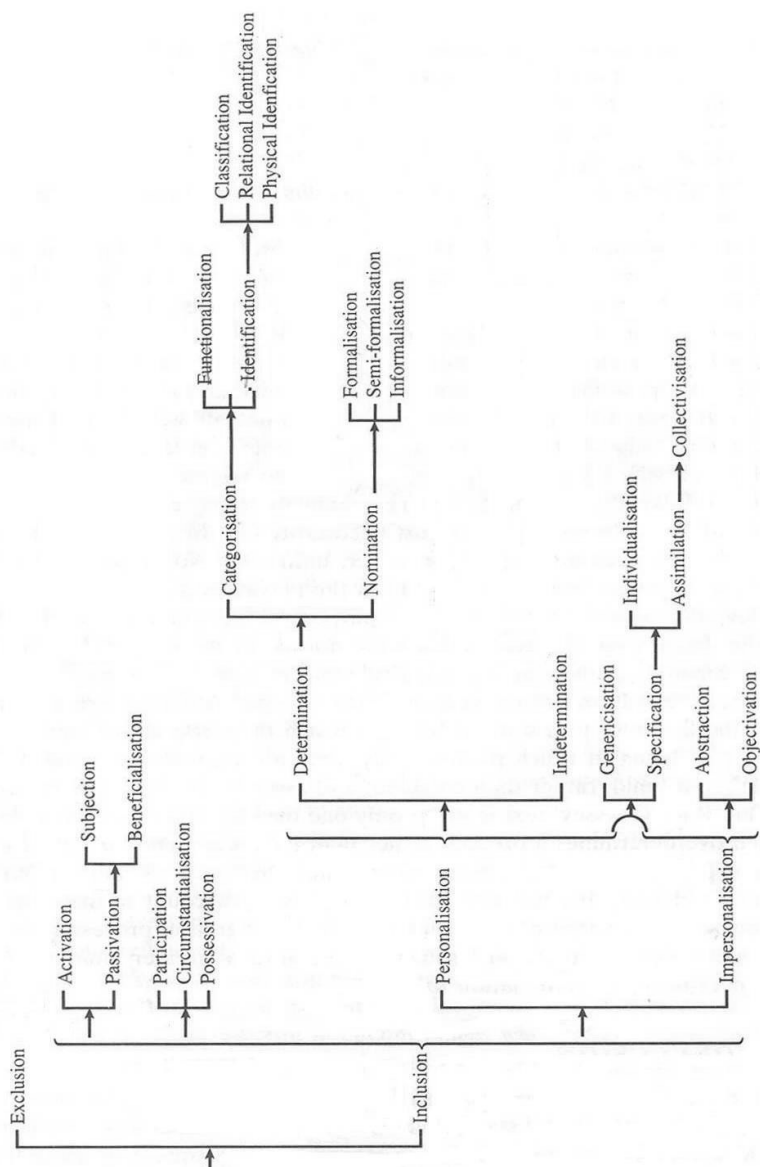The framework is schematically presented in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Analytical framework of the study.

The second model "construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 170), and codifies the actors of those processes as Actor in material processes, Behaver in behavioral processes or Senser in mental processes, Sayer in verbal process or Assigner in relational processes. In other words, this model identifies individuals' roles in their interaction with others and codifies them into these five categories.

Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) identify two forms of representation of experience: the "outer" experience, represented as actions or events; the "inner" experience, represented as reactions and reflection on the outer experience. *Material* process clauses construe the outer experience, as in: "During the European scramble for Africa, Nigeria *fell* to the British." (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.174). In this sentence the outer experience has been depicted in the performance of the verb 'fell' where it materializes the defeat of a country in the hands of another. This is what actually happened in the external world. *Mental* process clauses construe the inner experience as in "Do you *know* the city?" *(ibid.).* The verb 'know' is part of an inner process in the mind of the knower. Processes of identifying and classifying are called *relational* process clauses as in "Usually *means* mostly." *(ibid.). Behavioral* processes are on the borderline between material and mental processes. They represent actions that have to be experienced by a conscious being as in "People *are* laughing." *(ibid.) Verbal* processes represent verbal actions as in "so we *say* that…" (*ibid.*)

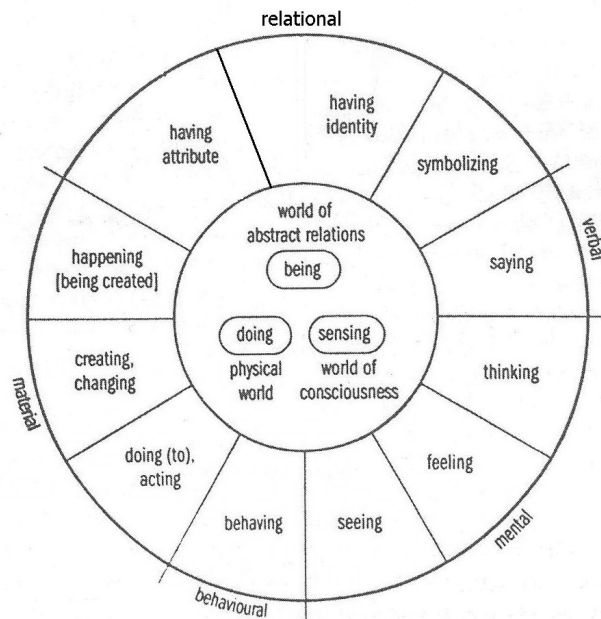Halliday's transitivity model is represented in Figure 2 below:

Figure 2: Types of process.
Source: Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 172)

The reading texts have been analyzed by three analyzers to account for reliability concerns. The inter-rater reliability index calculated was .87 which shows that the analysis is reasonably reliable. The procedure to calculate this was as follows: The texts analyzed by the raters were counted in terms of the categories identified. The resulting average figures were then correlated to find the index of reliability.

The features found in the texts have been examined to see if they follow an ideologically charged pattern and if so what the nature of this ideological move can be. To investigate the data statistically, chi-square tests have been used to determine whether the differences were significant.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Deletion

The process of inclusion/exclusion, categorized under deletion, is a central concern for critical discourse analysis. According to van Leeuwen

(1996: 38) "representations include or exclude social actors to suit their interests and purposes in relation to the readers for whom they are intended". Some exclusions may be innocent, details which readers assume to know already or which are deemed irrelevant to them; others impose certain ideologies on the readers especially EFL learners who are not competent enough to uncover the hidden ideologies. Table 1 summarizes the inclusion and exclusion of males and females and also presents chi square results. The reason for performing a chi square analysis is to investigate the significant differences between the observed frequencies of (in this case) inclusion and exclusion.

Table 1: $\chi 2$ results for inclusion and exclusion

Inclusion/ Exclusion	Female (Total=473)	Male (Total=298)	$\chi 2$	Asymp. Sig.
Inclusion	465 (98.31%)	289 (96.98%)	41.082	.000
Exclusion	8 (1.69%)	9 (3.02%)	.059	0.808

Table 1 indicates that the difference is statistically significant (x^2 = 41.08 p<0.001) for inclusion. This means that female social actors are included with considerably more frequency. Qualitative analysis, also lends support to such a claim. Out of 41 passages analyzed, 3 passages have been allocated to successful and famous women (J.K. Rowling) while only one to a male character (Ricky Martin). Furthermore, other less familiar characters such as Sandra Cisneros, a Mexican-American writer, Se Ri Pak, a Korean golf player, Kristina Ivanova, a gymnast, are introduced briefly in a paragraph while male characters such as Suketa Mehta, an Indian writer, is only named once at the end of the text, and his gender may remain unknown to learners since there is no reference to him through pronouns to determine his gender. The same story is not true for exclusion as the difference between males and females is not significant ($\chi 2$=.05 p<0.001).

The following examples reflect positive attitudes toward females and negative ones toward males. In a text in Book 2 page 69 a female social

actor is included as "a good example of making the right decision considering one's own personality". In the text mentioned she quits studying counseling and law for studying film which suits her personality and eventually she succeeds in her career. In another text, Book 3 page 13, a male social actor is introduced as an example of being a good worker but losing his job due to the company's policy to cut its workforce. What follow this opening paragraph are some hints for the readers in order not to lose their job in case of workforce cutbacks which implicitly reflects his inability to maintain his job.

4.2 Role allocation (rearrangement*)*

Role allocation is another discursive structure which also plays a significant part in CDA. Van Leeuwen (1996, p. 43) contends "representations can reallocate roles; rearrange the social relations between the participants". This study examines the representation of the two social actors with regard to their actions since they are inextricably related, especially considering the nature of actions in relation to which social actors are activated and passivated.

As Table 2 indicates both social actors are frequently activated (females: 90.32% and males: 93.08%) and in a few cases passivated (females: 9.68% and males: 6.92%). This may be due to the fact that the books are compiled for learners whose command of English is not supposed to be high.

Table 2: χ^2 results for role allocation

Role allocation	Female	Male	χ^2	Asymp. Sig.
Activation (Total= 574)	345(60.1%)	229(39.9%)	23.443	.000
Subjection (Total= 41)	28(68.29%)	13(31.71%)	5.488	.019
Beneficialization	9(69.23%)	4(30.77%)	1.923	.166

A comparison of male and female activation (39.9% and 60.1% respectively) demonstrates the fact that in the books analyzed females are

more frequently represented as the active and dynamic forces in the society. As Table 2 shows the difference for activation ($\chi2=23.4$) and subjection ($\chi2=5.488$) is significant but this is not the case with beneficialization ($\chi2=1.923$).

In order to explore the difference between males and females in Activation a chi-square test was run on the sub-components. The results appear in Table 3 below:

Table 3: $\chi2$ results for Activation

Activation	Female	Male	$\chi2$	Asymp. Sig.
Participation	338	225	22.680	.000
Possessivastion	6	3	1.00	0.317
Circumstantialization	1	1	.00	1.00

According to Table 3 the difference is statistically significant ($\chi2=23.44$ P<0.001) for participation only. In other words, female activation, in comparison to male activation, is more frequently realized by participation which contributes to foregrounding women more than men.

Activity can be more elucidated by analyzing the verbs in relation to social actors in light of Halliday & Matthiessen's (2004) transitivity model.

4.3 Transitivity

Concerning transitivity and the activity in which social actors are involved, as Table 4 indicates females are mostly activated in relation to material processes, mental processes and relational processes more significantly than males. The overall frequency of female activation in mental processes was found to be nearly twice as much as male activation.

Table 4: χ2 results for Transitivity

Transitivity	Female (Total=338)	Male (Total=225)	X^2	Asymp. Sig.
Material process	170(50.30%)	110(48.9%)	12.857	.000
Mental process	60(17.75%)	35(15.55%)	6.579	0.010
Verbal process	32(9.46%)	31(13.77%)	0.016	0.900
Relational process	69(20.42%)	43(19.11%)	6.036	.014
Behavioral process	7(2.07%)	6(2.67%)	0.077	0.782

Furthermore, the nature and sense of the actions involved are amazing. For instance, females are activated in relation to verbs such as 'parachuting', 'snorkeling'. These words depict them as adventurous and brave while in case of males similar verbs such as 'scuba diving' are changed into process nouns. The following examples illustrate the point further:

Example1. Jenny: I almost crashed but I *parachuted* away just in time. (Book 1: 69)
Example 2. Ray, have you ever experienced any dangers while *scuba diving?* (ibid)

Similarly female's *success* has been expressed through using verbs which give prominence to the action while male's success is linguistically realized through process nouns which in the following example is preceded by the demonstrative '*this*' instead of the possessive pronoun '*his*'.

Example 3. She *made* her *breakthrough*. (Book 2: 7)
Example 4. She *stared* in a number of high-profile movies. (Book 2: 7)
Example 5. After this *success*, he moved back to the U.S. (Intro: 105)

In another text, Book 3 page 105, a male social actor that is Martin Luther King, Jr. is activated in relation to 'plagiarizing' while a female social actor Christine Pelton, a biology teacher in Kansas is activated in relation to 'giving failing grades' to students who have 'plagiarized'. As this example shows, in addition to the statistically significant differences, the sense and nature of the action considered for each gender is very different.

Interestingly, female and male social actors are equally represented as

actors of 'earn' and "make salary" which considers equal access for women to economic independence and a rightful place in organizational life.

Example 6. She has become internationally famous and now *earns* around $40 million a year. (Book 2: 91)

Example 7. He *makes* a good *salary* but we don't save very much money. (Book 1: 13)

Likewise, females and males are equally involved in household chores. This is supported by the chi-square results that showed no significant difference for behavioral processes. The following examples illustrate the point further.

Example 8. Steve has to *help* her more *with the housework*. (Book 1: 35)

Example 9. He's also *doing* a few *household chores*. (Book 1: 35)

Example 10. A mother to a family counselor: I've been **cooking** his meals and *doing* his *laundry*. (Book 2: 105)

Example 11. My mother is going to *cook* noodles. (Intro: 11)

Females and males equally appear in creative, transformative clauses and also clauses indicating motion.

Creative type:

Example 12. As a child he *appeared* in TV commercials. (Intro: 105)

Example 13. Christina first *appears* on TV in star search-a TV talent show. (Book 1: 27)

Transformative type:

Example 14. Evan: when I was *growing up* I always thought I would become a teacher or maybe an artist. (Book 3: 77)

Example 15. Kidman *grew up* in a suburb of Sydney.

Indicating motion:

Example 16. Maya: I *go* to work at 10:00 p.m. (Intro: 41)

Example 17. Lamar: I *go* to school every day from 9:00 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. (Book 1: 13)

It seems that the writer has done this in order to reflect a gender neutral attitude; however, as it was observed, the texts tend to present a gender bias. This ideology is overtly and sometimes covertly represented in the textbooks. It seems attempts have been made to bring women from margin to the foreground.

With regard to activation in mental processes, Table 4 above showed that female activation was found to be nearly twice as much as male activation. A statistically Similarly, females are more frequently activated in relation to verbs including "know", and "learn" than men.

In book 3 unit 9, an attempt has been made to present a gender-neutral text in that the first paragraph describes a man and the second one a woman both failing to remember an important issue, the same phenomenon has been linguistically realized differently.

Example 18. He had *forgotten* the name. (Book 3: 63)
Example 19. She could not *remember* where she had put it. (ibid)

Although both statements reflect the same phenomenon, the woman is activated in relation to and associated with 'remembering' and the male with 'forgetting'. Obviously, the two verbs may have different effects on the reader/listener.

Interestingly, females appear 32 times as 'sayers' in verbal processes and males 31 times. They are, therefore, rather equally activated in relation to semiotic actions. This stands in sharp contrast to the popular stereotype that speaking is one of the most essential female activities.

Furthermore, females are activated in relational processes as many as 69 times and males 43 times. Moreover, the attribute possessed by female carrier (possessor) has mostly positive connotations while males are mostly carriers of attributes with negative connotations. The following examples illustrate the point further:

Example 20. Robert: I *had* an *awful weekend*. (Intro: 97)
Example 21. The doctors warned his parents that he might *have learning difficulties*. (Book 2, p. 83)

Example 22. Kelly: I had *a great weekend*. (Intro: 97)

Example 23. Brittany: I *have* a *job* at the library. (Intro: 41)

Both social actors are involved in behavioral processes in a few cases, females 7 times and males 6 times comprising 2.07% and 2.67% of the total, respectively.

4.4 Substitution

There are different discursive features through which social actors are represented as shown below:

Table 5: χ2 results for Substitution

	Personalization/ Impersonalization	Female (Total=263)	Male (Total=186)	χ2	Asymp. Sig.
Personalization	Functionalization	40 (15.21%)	33 (17.74%)	0.671	0.413
	Classification	45 (17.11%)	30 (16.13%)	3.00	0.083
	Relational identification	34 (12.93%)	12 (6.45%)	10.522	0.001
	Formalization	16 (6.08%)	8 (4.30%)	2.667	0.102
	Semiformalization	33 (12.55%)	32 (17.20%)	.015	0.901
	Informalization	63 (23.95%)	37 (19.9%)	6.760	0.009
	Indetermination	30 (11.41%)	32 (17.2%)	.065	0.799
Impersonalization	Objectivation	2 (0.76%)	2 (1.08%)	000	1.000
	Abstraction	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	—	—

Representations either personalize social actors, i.e. "represent them as human beings, whose meaning includes the feature human" (van Leeuwen

1996: 59) or impersonalize them. As Table 5 indicates in the text male and female social actors are almost always personalized. Only in two cases males and females are objectivated or rather semi-objectivated (0.76%, and 1.08% for females and males, respectively). A couple of examples from the textbooks will illustrate this further:

Example 24**.** *His lungs* can take in oxygen from smoky air. (Book 3: 27)
Example 25. *They* [her paintings] have sold for as much as $80,000. (Book 2: 83)

Furthermore, both social actors are frequently determined (represented through functionalization, classification, relational identification, formalization, semiformalization, and Informalization), females 88.51 and males 82.61. As Table 5 shows personalization is mostly realized by informalization (females 23.95%, and males 19.9%) followed by classification (females 17.11% and males 16.3%).

Concerning categorization, as Table 5 indicates, females and males are almost equally functionalized (15.21% and 17.74% respectively) and classified (17.11% and 16.13% respectively) statistically. Both social actors are mostly classified in terms of their age and provenance. Here are some examples:

Example 26. Ms. Cisneros is a **Mexican-American** writer. (Intro: 49)
Example 27. Her father, an **Australian**, was a student in Hawaii at the time. (Book 2: 7)
Moreover both social actors are rather equally functionalized (x^2=0.67, p>0.4) in that females as well as males are associated with high status activities which challenges traditional values that exclude and demean the value of women in society, implying that women are as vital as men for the community's function.

Example 28. Judy is working as a **hospital administrator**. (Book 1: 35)
Example 29. Evan: I was the head of the public relations department in a major telecommunication company. (Book 3: 77)

Females are more frequently identified in terms of their kinship and personal relations to other human beings than males. The difference is statistically significant (x^2 = 10.52, P<0.01). Moreover, in 13 cases males are identified in terms of their relations (kinship or personal) to a female while in only five cases females are introduced in terms of their relations with males. The textbooks under analysis tend to represent females as more independent actors.

Example 30. Mrs. Aoki: My husband is going to be 60 tomorrow. (Intro: 77)

Example 31. Kathyo: My father's working outside. (Intro: 35)

Van Leeuwen (1996) considers nominations an important factor in representing social actors. In the corpus, out of 189 instances of nomination 112 cases (including 16 formal, 33 semiformal, 63 informal) refer to females and 77 cases (including 8 for formal, 32 semiformal, 37 informal) to males. Females are more frequently referred to informally than males yielding a statistically significant difference ($\chi2$ = 6.76, P<0.0).

As Table 6 indicates, the two social actors are most frequently represented through specification and mostly individualization (females 96.74% and males 90.75%).

Table 6: Genericization / specification.

Genericization / Specification		Female (Total=460)	Male (Total=292)	$\chi2$	Asymp. Sig.
Genericization		4 (0.87%)	8 (2.74%)	1.333	0.248
Specification	Individualization	445 (96.74%)	265 (90.75%)	45.634	0.000
	Collectivation	11 (2.39%)	19 (6.51%)	2.133	0.144

According to Table 6, females are individualized more than males and this distinction is statistically significant ($\chi2$ = 45.63, P<0.001). The

difference for genericization and collectivation as Table 6 shows is not significant, however.

According to Van Leeuwen (1996) individualization is of primary significance in CDA. In the books analyzed, individuality of females has been emphasized and, therefore, females are depicted as more independent individuals than males.

With regard to the pronouns used to represent the actors, it is noticed that males are referred to in third person as many as 121 times versus 63 cases of first person pronouns in Table 7 below.

Table 7: χ2 results for personal pronouns

Personal pronouns	Female	male	χ2	Asymp. Sig.
1st person pronoun(Total=197)	134 (68.02%)	63 (31.98%)	25.589	0.000
2nd person pronoun (Total=30)	23 (76.66%)	7 (23.33%)	8.533	0.003
3rd person pronoun (Total=275)	154 (56%)	121 (44%)	3.960	0.047

According to Table 7 the overall percentage of female first person pronouns is more than twice as many as male first person pronouns, yielding a statistically significant difference (x^2= 25.58, P<0.001). This would lead to the prominence of women and would distance the men from the readers through greater reference to them in the third person. This, again, contributes to representation of women as independent, assertive and expressive social actors.

Moreover, it is observed that the proportion of second person pronouns referring to females to male cases is more than 3:1. Table 7 indicates that the difference is statistically significant (x^2 = 8.53, p<0.01). Hence, females are directly addressed more than males, further distancing the males from readers.

5. Conclusion
The first category under which the representation of male and female

social actors was compared was that of deletion. Concerning this discursive strategy, the books used 'inclusion' extensively for both genders. However, female social actors were more frequently represented. Furthermore, females were represented as more decisive and successful characters. This may reveal a female oriented ideology present throughout the text.

The next issue was the roles social actors were given to play in the representation. The texts under examination tended to depict women as actors of material processes and the sensers of mental processes more frequently than men. This is quite important in terms of exertion of power. Both were equally activated in relation to verbal process. This may stand in contrast to the popular stereotypical notion that talk is more associated with women. Besides, women were more frequently assigners of positive attributes in comparison to men. These differences are ideologically significant in the sense that women were portrayed as more powerful and intellectual social actors.

Under substitution, both social actors were almost always personalized and rarely impersonalized. Concerning categorization, both social actors were equally functionalized and classified. Women were depicted as holding high status jobs that previously were dominated by men. Under identification category, in which the actors "are defined not in terms of what they do, but what they are" (van Leeuwen, 1996: 54) males were represented more frequently than females through relational identification, mostly being related to females (e.g. my husband, her father). This feature was mostly realized through the use of possessive expressions. This disseminates the ideology that women are more independent, expressive, and assertive characters.

Furthermore, females were more extensively introduced via first person pronouns while males mostly through third person pronouns, distancing the males from the reader and confirming the above mentioned ideology. The results indicate that women are represented in *Interchange* series as more prominent, successful, powerful, intellectual, social actors, holding high status positions. This stands in sharp contrast to the findings of the previous studies in which women were represented as powerless social actors, mostly

associated with home context, house chores and having limited job opportunities reflecting misogyny view points (see Amalsaleh, 2004). Otlowsky (2003) argues that it is not acceptable in this day and age to perpetuate the image of women as homemakers when women make up such an integral part of the workforce in both the United States and the United Kingdom. This may be indicative of distortion of realities by writers. In contrast, the way women are represented in the textbooks under analysis is consistent with social structures of at least the above mentioned countries. This can be regarded as an achievement of CDA in bringing changes in the curriculum.

One of the important issues contributing to gender-role differentiation and gender inequality is the ways through which social actors are represented in the media including textbooks. Textbooks as a crucial tool in constructing social members' identities are used apparently to convey certain types of knowledge to the learners. However, in addition to transferring knowledge they may be used as influential tools to impose certain normative outlooks and identities on the members. However, the power values of this identity are not equal; rather some are observed to be more powerful than others. Power is the central concept for the ideologies conveyed because it is concerned with the question of which group or persons have the linguistic means of proper disputation. The powerful groups might disseminate this ideology that they are superior and others are inferior. The listener/reader may accept the massage with no resistance and therefore power relations are disseminated and reproduced in text and talk. Studies such as these are efforts to make inequalities in the textbooks more tangible and create the necessary grounds for realization to prevent injustice. As such this study can have important implications for Iranian language learners who innocently try to internalize the content of foreign works such as the Interchange which may be in for a particular ideology. If learners become fully aware of the subtleties involved, they may take appropriate precautions and this may eventually affect their learning strategies. The teachers and materials developers alike may be alerted to the hidden ideologies in the textbooks and would opt for teaching methodologies and materials that are more

neutral or present a fair inclusion of items in this regard.

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