# GENDER STEREOTYPE IN KURDISH JOURNALISM LITERATURE

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**Abstract**

*Recent gender researches identify that gender intersects with other social structures, including race, ethnicity, sexuality, citizenship, social class, age, and disability; and with various institutions, including family, the state, the economy, the media, and education. Studying the texts literature may help in exploring the inequality between male and female in an eastern society like Iraqi Kurdistan region, since the issue of gender inequality in this region has not got much attention of the linguists and literary researchers.The objective of this research is to present a framework for understanding the ways in which the salient identities of gender, class position, sexuality, and other demographic characteristics function simultaneously by the press to produce the outcomes we observe in the lives of individuals in order to further the understanding of gender and to promote the application of this understanding to the solution of social problems and the achievement of equality locally and globally.*

*This research tests the assumption that news story language has its own characteristics in every speech community. The study also concludes that the lexical and morph-syntactic choices of females are different from males. It further speculates influence of stories language on language of media. The study uses both qualitative and quantitative methods in analyzing the data. The data consists of six news stories text which is taken randomly from 48 issues of Xabat newspaper of one year (2013). The perceptions of 30 males and 30 females were recorded on the news stories in an ordinal scale for analysis. The text was analyzed to look into lexicology, morphology and syntactic levels of the texts.*

**Key words:** *stylistics, gender stereotype, media language, literature*

## INTRODUCTION

The study of gender informed by a variety of feminist frameworks and methodologies recognizes its interses with other social structures, despite of its branch including media too. Become the media and the press day of the Kurdish cause a bigger role in various fields and began to take big steps to embody the same by creating a discreet professional media takes it upon himself a great responsibility for the fact that the media and the press has now become a platform for the dissemination of social justice. The study seeks ways that explore these intersections, and encourages contributions and readership from scholars, researchers and practitioners in the world.

The research seeks well-written articles that place current or historical data in context, critically review the literature in gender-related subfields, provide new theoretical or methodological insights or assess the impact of social actions, programs or movements. The research includes articles that are theoretical, empirical or applied, dealing with Kurdish nation, taking a comparative perspective. The subject recognizes that research is increasingly theoretically and methodologically interdisciplinary and intersectional, and encourages and supports these trends. Its seeks to encourage empirical and theoretical gender scholarship worldwide in order to further the understanding of gender as integral forces in the maintenance of family and to promote the application of this understanding to the solution of social problems and the achievement of equality between male and female. The research presents new and original Intersectional perspectives on gender and the impact construction of text story featuring on Kurdish person including both quantitative and qualitative analyses.

Gender and racial stereotypes continue to pervade in Kurdish society and one context in which these stereotypes are perpetuated are the press. The study conducts systematic analysis on Kurdish news short stories which are published in the Kurdistan region newspapers. It examines the ways the topics

of the short stories are presented by inspecting first the writers characters first (including their race and gender) and then coding what actions these characters display between (1 tabloid space paper and 10sm space) of the paper. And then this analysis applied to a sample of males and females between the ages of groups (15-20, 20-25, 25-30). Although females and males were represented in equal numbers, gender stereotypes abound, physical appearance and nurturing roles were more likely to be the focus for female characters while occupational roles were more likely to be the focus for male characters.

## 1. GENDER GRAMMATICAL, CONCEPT AND MEANING

### *1.1 The concept of Gender meaning*

Gender is the range of physical, mental, and behavioral characteristics pertaining to, and differentiating between, masculinity and femininity [Hockett 1958, p. 231]. Depending on the context, the term may refer to biological sex (the state of being male, female or intersex), sex-based social structures or social roles (as in gender roles), or gender identity. The social sciences have a branch devoted to gender studies. Other sciences, such as psychology, sociology and neuroscience, are also interested in the subject. While the social sciences sometimes approach gender as a social construct, and gender studies particularly do, research in the natural sciences investigates whether biological differences in males and females influence the development of gender in humans; both inform debate about how far biological differences influence the formation of gender identity [Sandra 1981, p. 3]

In 1926, Henry Watson Fowler recommended that the word be restricted to this grammar-related meaning only: "Gender...is a grammatical term only. To talk of persons...of the masculine or feminine [gender], meaning of the male or female sex, is either (permissible or not according to context) or a blunder." [Henry 1926, p. 326]. The effectiveness of the medication appears to depend on the sex (not gender) of the patient. In peasant societies, gender (not sex) roles are likely to be more clearly defined. In the last two decades of the 20th century, the use of gender in academia increased greatly, outnumbering uses of (sex) in the social sciences. While the spread of the word in science publications can be attributed to the influence of feminism, its use as a euphemism for sex is attributed to the failure to grasp the distinction made in feminist theory, and the distinction has sometimes become blurred with the theory itself [Corbett 1991, p. 2].

In the English literature, the trichotomy between biological sex, psychological gender, and social sex role first appeared in a feminist paper on transsexualism in 1978 [Franceschina 2005, p. 72]. Some cultures have specific gender-related social roles that can be considered distinct from male and female. Among the reasons that working scientists have given me for choosing gender rather than sex in biological contexts are desires to signal sympathy with feminist goals, to use a more academic term, or to avoid the connotation of copulation, The Inexorable Rise of Gender and the Decline of Sex. However, many languages reduced the number of genders to two. Some lost the neuter, leaving masculine and feminine; these include most Romance languages (Loss of neuter; a few traces of the neuter remain), others merged feminine and the masculine into a common gender, but have retained neuter. Finally, some languages, such as English, have nearly completely lost grammatical gender retaining only some traces, such as the English pronouns he, she and it [Corbett 1991, p. 4].

### *1.2 Gender Grammatical, Historical summary*

The word gender comes from the Latin word (genus), gender /dʒe'ndə(r)/noun, [C/U] formal the fact of being either male or female = sex: the job is open to all applicants regardless of age, race, or gender. The study examines gender roles in Latin America. [C] all male people, or all female = sex: the entire male gender. [C/U] LINGUISTICS the gender of a word is whether it is masculine, feminine, or neuter. In English, only pronouns like <he> and <she> and possessive determiners like <his> and <her> have gender, but in other languages such as French all nouns, pronouns etc have gender [Macmillan, 2011, D., p. 623] also use for gender, in the english language gendre, a loanword from Norman-conquest-era Old French. This, in turn, both words mean (kind, type, or sort). And [a. OF Gen (d) re (F. genre) = Sp. género, Pg. gênero, It. genere, ad. L. gener- stem form of genus race, kind = Gr. γένος, Skr. jánas: OAryan -genes-, f. root γεν- to produce; cf. KIN [Franceschina 2005, p. 72].

Greek distinguishes biological from sociological in adjectives. They derive ultimately from a widely attested Proto-Indo-European (PIE) root gen, which is also the source of kin, kind, king, and many other English words [Corbett 1991, pp. 20–21]. Most uses of derivatives of this root in Indo-European languages refer either directly to what pertains to birth (for example pre-gn-ant) or, by extension, to natural, innate qualities and their consequent social distinctions (for example gentry, generation, gentile, genocide, and eugenics). It appears in the French in the word genre (type, kind, also genre sexuel) and is related to the Greek root gen- (to produce), appearing in gene, genesis, and oxygen [Bradley 2004, p. 18] In Greek, male biology and masculine grammatical inflection are denoted by arsenikos (αρσενικός), in distinction to sociological masculinit y, which is denoted by andrikos (ανδρικός). Likewise, female biology and feminine grammatical inflection are denoted by thēlukos (θηλυκός); and sociological femininity is denoted by gunaikeios (γυναικείος, compare English gynaecology). This distinction is at least as old as Aristotle [Bradley 2004, p. 27]. It is a different distinction to English, where 'female' and 'male' refer to animals as well as humans, but not to grammatical categories; whereas, 'feminine' and 'masculine' refer to grammatical categories as well as humans, but not properly to animals, except as anthropomorphism. The first edition of the Oxford English Dictionary (OED1, Volume 4, 1900) notes the original meaning of gender as "kind" had already become obsolete, kind, sort, class; also, genus as opposed to species (D). The general gender: the common sort (of people), to know of hir signifiaunce the gendres. As species and gendre, for suery shinyng is lyght, but not ayenwarde [Merriam-Webster Inc. 1994, p. 474]. The great loue the general gender beare him. Supplie it with one gender of Hearbes, or distract it with many.

French has no distinction in noun: "sexe", but the distinction is supplied by the neologistism coinage "genre". In French, the word sexe is most widely used for both "sex" and "gender" in everyday contexts (D). However, the word genre is increasingly used to refer to gender in queer or academic contexts, such as the word transgenre (transgender) or the translation of Judith Butler's book Gender Trouble as Trouble dans le genre. The term identité sexuelle was proposed for "gender" or "gender identity," although it can be confused with "sexual identity" (one's identity as it relates to one's sexual life) [Lukas 2002]. The word was still widely attested, however, in the specific sense of grammatical gender (the assignment of nouns to categories such as masculine, feminine and neuter). According to Aristotle, this concept was introduced by the Greek philosopher Protagoras. The classes (genē) of the nouns are males, females and things [Bradley 2004, p. 52]. The modern academic sense of the word, in the context of social roles of men and women, dates from the work of John Money (1955), and was popularized and developed by the feminist movement from the 1970s onwards [Franceschina 2005, p. 72]. The theory was that human nature is essentially epicene and social distinctions based on sex are arbitrarily constructed. Matters pertaining to this theoretical process of social construction were labelled matters of gender. The popular use of gender simply as an alternative to sex (as a biological category) is also widespread, although attempts are still made to preserve the distinction. The American Heritage Dictionary (2000) uses the following two sentences to illustrate the difference, noting that the distinction is useful in principle, but it is by no means widely observed, and considerable variation in usage occurs at all levels.

## 2. LITERATURE OF JOURNALISM (LANGUAGE AND STEREOTYPE)

Mass media is a significant role in a modern world, by broadcasting information in fast pace and giving entertainment to vast audiences. They consist of press, television, radio, books and the Internet. The latter is now the most developing medium however TV also has a wide field of influence. By creating a certain type of message, media can manipulate people’s attitude and opinions. The main aim of mass media is to be universal and suitable for everyone, in order to gather the largest possible audience. Thus television, responsible for providing the central social discourse, is supposed to be “a mirror of the society”. However, because of stereotypical way of explaining the reality, some groups are underrepresented or ignored, and therefore the society image is incomplete. Would like to focus on this problem by investigating news short stories text structure; also attempt to specify gender stereotypes, which are used in journalism text language [Bradley 2004, p. 52].

People organize their knowledge about the world around them by sorting and simplifying received information. Therefore, they create cognitive schemes, which are certain representations of the reality displaying its most typical and fundamental elements and properties. These schemes are responsible for defining the essence of our worldview and have a significant influence on social cognition – understanding, anticipation situation and emotion control. Gender is transfigured into a vehicle for the social division of power [Ibrahim 1973, pp. 27–28]. Gender difference is merely a construct of society used to enforce the distinctions made between what is assumed to be female and male, and allow for the domination of masculinity over femininity through the attribution of specific gender-related characteristics. Individuals are therefore socialised through their receipt of society's expectations of 'acceptable' gender attributes that are flaunted within institutions such as the family, the state and the media. Common gender divisions include masculine and feminine; masculine, feminine and neuter; or animate and inanimate.

*2.1 Langauge*

Languages often make gender distinctions. These may be of various kinds, more or less loosely associated by analogy with various actual or perceived differences between men and women. Most languages include terms that are used asymmetrically in reference to men and women. Concern that current language may be biased in favor of men has led some authors in recent times to argue for the use of a more Gender-neutral vocabulary in Kurdish and other languages. Several languages attest the use of different vocabulary by men and women, to differing degrees. These disciplines study gender and sexuality in the fields of literature and language [Hockett 1958, p. 231]. In literature, gender can be used to "animate and personify inanimate nouns". Many Indo-European language, provide archetypical examples of grammatical gender.

The construction of symbols and images such as language, ideology, dress and the media, that explain, express and reinforce, or sometimes oppose, those divisions. Interactions between men and women, involve any form of dominance and submission. Conversational theorists have studied the way that interruptions, turn taking and the setting of topics re-create gender inequality in the flow of ordinary talk. In linguistics, grammatical gender is a system of noun classification present in approximately one fourth of the world's languages. In these languages, every noun inherently carries one value of the grammatical category called gender; the values present in a given language are called the genders of that language. According to one definition: "Genders are classes of nouns reflected in the behaviour of associated words [Corbett 1994, p. 32].

In a few languages, the gender assignation of nouns is solely determined by their meaning or attributes, like biological sex, humanness, animacy. However, in most languages, this semantic division is only partially valid, and many nouns may belong to a gender category that contrasts with their meaning [Iturrioz 1986, 1. 1-3]. In this case, the gender assignation can also be influenced by the morphology or phonology of the nouns or in some cases can be apparently arbitrary. Grammatical gender manifests itself when words related to a noun like determiners, pronouns or adjectives change their form inflection according to the gender of noun they refer to agreement. The parts of speech affected by gender agreement, the circumstances in which it occurs, and the way words are marked for agender vary cross-linguistically. Gender inflection may interact with other grammatical categories like number or case. In some languages the declension pattern followed by the noun itself may be dependent on its gender. In languages with grammatical gender, each noun is assigned to one of the classes called genders, which form a closed set. Most such languages usually have from two to four different genders but some are attested with up to 20 [Mercier 2002, p. 474]. The division into genders usually correlates to some degree, at least for a certain set of nouns, with some property or properties of the things that particular nouns denote. Such properties include animate or inanimate, "humanness" or non-humanness, and biological sex. Few or no nouns can occur in more than one class [Pinker 1994]. Depending on the language and the word, this assignation might bear some relationship with the meaning of the noun for example "woman" is usually feminine, or may be arbitrary [Roscoe 1988] Gender is considered an inherent quality of nouns, and it affects the forms of other related words, a process called agreement. Nouns may be considered the "triggers" of the process, while other words will be the "target" of these changes [Franceschina 2005, p. 74] These related words can be, depending

on the language: determiners, pronouns, numerals, quantifiers, possessives, adjectives, past and passive participles, verbs, adverbs, complementizers, and adpositions. Gender class may be marked on the noun itself, but will also be marked on other constituents in a noun phrase or sentence. If the noun is explicitly marked, both trigger and target may feature similar alternations [Frances 2005, p. 78].

*2.1.1 News stories Language*

Most text stories are not in the form of standard written discourse, but users are very effective in describing written sounds what they want their readers to perceive in their stories. Through the new written conventions of news, texters have developed a written form of sounds that replaces the ability to hear spoken utterances [Karam, J.J 1992, p. 9]. The language used in text messaging has developed its own unique style languages. The technical restrictions of text messaging have led to the development of language short forms in news communication limited space allows one to organize story pragmatically as a common background exists [Jawad 2002, p. 80].

The story serve to tie the group together through the development of a common history for these reasons news communication allows for a reasonable use of syntactic and lexical short forms, which save character space, as compared with using the full forms of words. With this method of text production one saves time, money as well as effort and users are then more likely to use the service for subsequent story [Sharaf al-Din 1987, p. 46]. Also abbreviations and acronyms fulfil a collective identity function whereby they require a special shared knowledge to be able to understand the language and consequently be able to use it. The adept use of these personalized language short forms is an indicator of group affiliation and a component of group identity [Craig 1997, p. ]. The language specific to news users often does not relate to standard language and the mass media thus label news communication as the secret code of them as the big news action against long sentences.

As with much discourse, news stories text retains both written and spoken language characteristics speech and writing usually take place in very different contexts [Hamza 2001, p. 182]. Written language is more prescribed than spoken language: authors have the chance to edit the words they write. News users make different word choices when writing than when speaking, research indicates that all informational discourse has a high lexical variety in contrast to interactive, affective types of discourse [Abdulazez 1980, p. 13]. By studying language variations and uses, much of the conventions of text messaging language, a blurring of written and spoken discourse, can be better understood. In terms of its linguistic characteristics, stereotypical speech is interactive, and dependant on shared space, time, and background knowledge; stereotypical writing has the opposite characteristics. Text stories however, tend to have more akin with the former. Work examines how ‘reactive tokens an acknowledgement that one is following what the other is saying, is very widespread in Internet language [Bokaa 1990, p.p 9-12]. This feature is very common with news language it shows how news language conventions resemble speech in many of its prominent characteristics like normal speech [Matthews 2007, p. 57]. Text stories are structurally simple, fragmented, concrete, and conditional on situation-dependant reference and many parts of spoken speech are eliminated through the process of abbreviation Procedure [Jawad 1998, p.2]. The purpose of the study is to test news morpho-syntactic and lexical choices of males and females texters, it also investigates influence of news story language on language of media.

*2.2 Stereotype*

One of the most important types of schemes used for orientation in the social environment is the stereotypes, representing the opinions among members of a certain group about the other groups. They are internalized during the socialization. They can be a result of our own observations or be adopted from the influence of the significant others, such as family, friends, teachers and media. Because of many simplifications and generalizations that they produce, stereotypes present incomplete, subjective and sometimes false image of the reality. They are often based on tradition and are resistant to change. Although they can both have positive and negative undertone, the latter is much more common. Even if certain arguments allow to reffuse the stereotype facters, people would rather treat it as an exception that proves the rule, than change the way of thinking. Besides, social categorizations can lead to the effect of homogeneity of the foreign group. Stereotype is used to attribute the identical features to each

member of a certain group without taking the existing differences among the members into consideration [Pryor 1997].

News compressions written representations of the sounds and compressions are common phenomena in news language. The choice to create a verbal illustration of this name tends to indicate that, at least in part, the user may be thinking of this utterance in its spoken form even though every other part of the text story may well be created within a written framework. Create a written representation of what the user is physically doing as he/she texts. Emoticons are a representation of body language, which would otherwise be missing from non face-to-face communication [Durham 2006]. These can change the meaning of a text story just as much as body language can change the meaning of verbal communication in spoken discourse. Texters may also take advantage of different phonetic spellings in order to create different types of verbal effects in their story. Letters and numbers are also often combined (or used alone) for compression and convenience, If could expect these compressions to stabilize and become more widely known over a period of time [Lukas 2002]. The grammatical gender of a noun manifests itself in two principal ways: in the modifications that the noun itself undergoes, and in modifications of other related words (agreement). Sometimes, gender is reflected in more subtle ways. Gender marking is mostly lost it has the peculiar feature, where the first consonant of a word changes into another in certain conditions. For instance, if after the word (kic-girl) adjectives comes its will change to a different adjectives for the boy. Adjectives are affected by gender in a similar way:

*Figure 1*

| **Gender** | **Default** | | **After definite article** | | **With adjective** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Masculine singular** | Kur | "son" | *Kur aka* | "the son" | *Kura qozaka* | "the hansume son" |
| **Feminine singular** | *Kic* | "girl" | *Kic aka* | "the girl" | *Kica jwanaka* | "the beuateful girl" |

The gender of an English pronoun typically coincides with the sex (natural gender) of its referent, rather than with the grammatical gender of its antecedent. The choice between she, he and it comes down to whether the pronoun is intended to designate a female, a male, or something else. There are certain exceptions, however: Certain non-human things are referred to with the pronoun she (her, hers). This usage is considered an optional figure of speech; it is also in decline, and advised against by most journalistic style guides [Matthews 2007, pp. 515-525]. Additionally, in Kurdish languages, gender is often closely correlated with the basic unmodified form of the noun, and sometimes a noun can be modified to produce masculine and feminine words of similar meaning. See Correlation between gender and the form of a noun, below:

*Figure 2*

| **Gender** | **Default** | | **After definite article** | | **With adjective** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Masculine singular** | kur | "son" | *Kur aka* | "the son" | *Kura gawraka* | "the big son" |
| **Feminine singular** | *Kic* | "girl" | *Kic aka* | "the girl" | *Kica gawraka* | "the big girl" |

Agreement, or concord, is a grammatical process in which certain words change their form so that values of certain grammatical categories match those of related words. Gender is one of the categories which frequently require agreement. In this case, nouns may be considered the triggers of the process, because they have an inherent gender, whereas related words that change their form to match the gender of the noun can be considered the "target" of these changes [France 2005, p. 72]. These related words can be, depending on the language: determiners, pronouns, numerals, quantifiers, possessives, adjectives, past and passive participles, verbs, adverbs, complementizers, and adpositions. Gender

class may be marked on the noun itself, but can also be marked on other constituents in a noun phrase or sentence. If the noun is explicitly marked, both trigger and target may feature similar alternations.

*Figure 3*

| **Gender** | **Phrase** | **Gloss** | **Phrase** | **Gloss** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Masculine | ***Ba pera*** | "the grandfather" | ***Qapeka*** | "the dish" |
| Feminine | ***Da pera*** | "the grandmother" | ***Goraniyaka*** | "the song" |

However, every noun must belong to one of the two categories: nouns referring to sexless entities must also be either masculine or feminine, even though this assignment may appear arbitrary, correlation between gender and the form of a noun. In languages, nouns are assigned to gender largely without any semantic basis that is, not based on any feature such as sex of the person or thing that a noun represents. However in many languages there may be a correlation, to a greater or lesser degree, between gender and the form of a noun (such as the letter or syllable with which it ends). Nouns can sometimes vary their form to enable the derivation of differently gendered cognate nouns; to produce nouns with a similar meaning but referring to someone of a different sex. Although gender inflection may be used to construct nouns and names for people of opposite sexes in languages that have grammatical gender, this alone does not constitute grammatical gender. Distinct words and names for men and women are also common in languages which do not have a grammatical gender system for nouns in general. Kurdish, for example, one of these language no system distinguishes male and female personal names.

In Kurdish languages, any gender markers have been so eroded over time that they are no longer recognizable. Do not indicate their gender through either meaning or form. In such cases a noun's gender must simply be memorized, and gender can be regarded as an integral part of each noun when considered as an entry in the speaker's lexicon. Second-language learners are often encouraged to memorize a modifier, usually a definite article, in conjunction with each noun. It is relatively uncommon for a noun to have more than one possible gender. When this happens, it may be associated with a difference in the sex of the reference, or with some other difference in the meaning of the word. Sometimes a noun gender can change between plural and singular, all of which are masculine in the singular but feminine in the plural. Gender of pronouns, pronouns may agree in gender with the noun or noun phrase, however, there is no antecedent the referent of the pronoun is deduced indirectly from the context. In such cases, the pronoun is likely to agree with the natural gender of the referent. The personal pronouns he, she and it are used depending on whether the referent is male, female, or inanimate or non-human; this is in spite of the fact that Kurdish does not generally have grammatical gender: xoshim awe, "I love you", said to a male. xoshim awe, "I love you", said to a female.

Not all languages have gendered pronouns. In languages that never had grammatical gender, there is normally just one word for "he" and "she", the third person singular personal pronouns (and their possessive forms) are gender specific: he/him/his (masculine gender, used for males), she/her(s) (feminine gender, for females), and it/its (neuter gender, mainly for objects, abstractions and sometimes animals). There are also distinct personal and non-personal forms - though no differentiation by sex – in the case of certain interrogative and relative pronouns: who/whom for persons, corresponding to he/she and which corresponding to it. In Kurdish languag there is four basic deyalict for speak and each one of them are devided to many subdiyalict a cording to the earea. But the two basic diyalict which are delling in Kurdistan regian is (sorany and badini) and the formal language is the (sorani) one. In this language there is no grammatical gender in pronouns, (min, tu, aw, ema, ewa, awan). However, these are relatively insignificant features compared with a typical language with full grammatical gender. Kurdish nouns are not generally considered to belong to gender classes in the way that French, German or Russian nouns are. There is no gender agreement in kurdish between nouns and their modifiers (articles, other determiners, and adjectives - with the occasional exception, a spelling convention borrowed from english). Gender agreement applies in effect only to pronouns, and

here the choice of pronoun is determined based on semantics (perceived qualities of the thing being referred to) rather than on any conventional assignment of particular nouns to particular genders.

## 3. ANALYES GENDER STEREOTYPE OF KHABAT NEWSPAPER (2013):

### *3.1 Interodaction of Khabat Newspaper*

In the period (2013) was a newspaper Khabat a newspaper, which has a long history in the profession of journalism and familiarity publishing news and the development of the Kurdish language and methods of journalistic writing. It's more and broader Kurdish newspaper published and distributed in the Kurdistan region and the people circulated daily to see the most important news, So taken a newspaper as a model for research to address the most important issues related to the word sex and methods of writing stories in news reporting, so I'll offer a brief summary of their issuance and defined readers. Newspaper Khabat is the newspaper daily political mouthpiece of the Kurdistan Democratic Party issued in Iraqi Kurdistan headquarters in Erbil and its branches in the provinces of Kurdistan region Iilat, issued the first number in the April 4, 1959, after the fall of the monarchy in the revolution of July 14, 1958 in Iraq and the establishment of republican regime led by Abdul Karim Qassim region came democratic and progressive condition in Iraq in that period, won the support of all the political forces of Kurdish. The victory of the positives revolution of July 14, 1958, he was awarded the national rights of the Kurdish people and the recognition of Kurdish nationalism within the country's second national Article III of the Constitution of the Republic of Iraq [Jalil 1992, pp. 223-224].

And approved of the Democratic Party of Kurdistan's right to exercise its role and activities in the political and cultural life, social, and issuing newspaper spokeswoman for the Kurdistan Democratic Party was the newspaper (Khabat - struggle) and openly and officially issued in Baghdad and in Arabic and Kurdish, after getting the approval of the issuance of the Khabat newspaper in 11 February 1959 [d. K. M 1959]. But its canot be issued because of some technical problems and defect [Barzani 1991, p. 82]. Then, after the preparation of the angel and artistic media of the newspaper first issue was published in the fourth 4 April 1959 was the concessionaire Ibrahim Ahmed [Khabat 1959, N: 1]. Then the first Arabic issue was published in 8 Iayar 1959 [Khabat 1959, N: 6]. Qasim government reneged on its agreement with the Kurds and the worsening relationship between Abdul Karim and Barzani, the Kurdish political leadership arose to announce the start of a revolution in September atheist ten (11) of September 1961, the people of Kurdistan rose up in order to protect their legitimate rights. Then that the security services and the closure of the newspaper Khabat prevent issued formally in Baghdad were issued in secret. Then passed through several stages of the issuance of the newspaper and stop because of the political circumstances experienced by the Kurds are as follows [shawis 1998, pp. 56-58]: ((1959-1961), (1961-1966), (1966-1970), (1970-1974), (1975-1991), (1991-2003), (2003-2013)), until now going on Puplished. Number of pages between (8, 12, 16) average size (tabloid) newspaper its name and logo in red above Taataly page, occupies the most important news front page which is distributed while the rest of the threads on the rest of the pages. The editors in the khabat newspaper (Ibrahim Ahmed, Ali Abdullah, Falac religion khaki, Nzad Sorma Aziz, Abdullah peace).

### *3.2 Gender stereotype of Khabat Newspaper*

Difficulties in differentiating gender roles in the modern societies can be a perfect example of the negative social effects of using stereotypes. A division of gender roles is deeply rooted in the social archetypes. Through the ages men have been considered to be financial providers, career-focused, assertive and independent, where as women have been shown as low-position workers, loving wives and mothers, responsible for raising children and doing housework. Feminist environment had a significant impact on the change in this situation, Women’s liberation movement fought for the rights of women and for redefining traditional gender roles [Lippmann, 1922]. They claimed, that there should be no distinction between typical masculine and feminine occupations, and that traits of character should not be ascribed once and for all to one gender. Although females and males are still not equal, the differences between gender are not so vast anymore. Nevertheless, many social institutions, such as mass media, still use gender stereotypes, basing on the assumption, that they are well known to everyone and help the receivers to understand the content of the message [Lukas 2002].

Now I would like to focus on the attendance of gender stereotypes in the mass media, which nowadays has a great power and reaches large audiences. In order to create a medium which is universal, understandable and acceptable for numerous and diverse recipients, senders very often use stereotypes, which fill the social life and evoke certain associations. However, mass media not only gives people information and entertainment, but, according to a communication theorist Marshall McLuhan, it also affects people's lives by shaping their opinions, attitudes and beliefs (1964) [McLuhan, Marshall, 1964]. It controls social life by invisibly transferring the dominant hegemonic ideology. It can be formed by cultural and political consensus through institutions such as the church, schools or media. The last one creates a state of domination by focusing on the elites and the dominant ideologies, subsequently neglecting the subordinate groups [Durham, Kellner 2006]. In the case of gender roles, the societies have established the hegemony of males by institutionalizing of male dominance over women. As I mentioned above, men have been perceived as the head of the household and women were mainly housewives. Nowadays the differences between male and female roles is smaller, however mass media still perpetuates traditional gender stereotypes. Moreover, due to their great influence on people's attitudes, they can depict certain social groups in negative and unrealistic manner, they can be a very useful tool for those remaining power. By manipulating the message, media can create a certain image of reality, which is consistent with the policy of the dominant group [Lukas 2002]. As a result, the reflection of a real world is incomplete and distorted, people are aware of the unequal representation of certain social groups in mass media, it is hard to remain objective and insensitive to its influence.

*3.3 Analyes gender stereotype of Khabat Newspaper (1/1/2013-31/12/2013)*

This research tests the assumption that news stories language is like a pidgin in every speech community, examines the assumption that a great motor of text news story lives among females gender stereotype (lexical and morpho-syntactic) choices are different from males. It further speculates influence on language of media. Text Story Service news language tends to create a novice stereotype, which has become an integral part of the multilingual world. It pursues simple sentences structure for communication. It is assumed that news syntactic and lexical choices by the textures are not so different from traded language. (1- There is a relationship between lexical choices of males and females in story text. 2- There is a relationship between morpho-syntactic choices of males and females in story text).

Women and men communicate very differently in fact, it is sometimes stated that women and men communicate so differently from one another. Although at times differences in women's and men's communication styles seem to be constant and overwhelming, they are really quite minor. For example, both women and men can be nurturing, aggressive, task-focused, or sentimental. What is important to think about, however, is that women and men sometimes perceive the same stories to have different meanings. The question arises whether it is the difference of apperception or diverse linguistic choices that draws line between men and women communication approaches. However news language and gender have not received the same treatment. This is an endeavor to contribute in this domain. A sample of 48 subjects - 30 males and 30 females from university linguistics and applied linguistics disciplines from a university was taken for the administration of a questionnaire. From male and female groups 6 news story were taken for quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data.

*3.3.1 Quantitative analyes*

The items on the questionnaires were developed based on quantitative finding. We take one year 2013 that (48) number of xabat newspaper Issued daily and every week we take one time, means 4 times in one month. The empirical data shows how much the news story language over-looks orthographic and syntactic rules of a language with a great emphasis on written sounds and compressions, and go after simple sentences, written sound of words and bring code mixing in the news stories language, which is represinting stereotype investigates lexical, morpho-syntactic choices of males and females users.

*Table (1): Appearing the rate between lexical and morpho-syntactic choices of 6 texts*

| | **Date stereotype** | **lexical** | **%** | **morphology** | **%** | **Syntax** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1- | (3/1/2013): n:(4230) | 7 | 23.33% | 3 | 18.75% | 9 | 17.65% |
| 2- | (3/3/2013): n:(4278) | 5 | 16.67% | 2 | 12.5% | 11 | 21.58% |
| 3- | (3/5/2013): n:(4306) | 6 | 20% | 2 | 12.5% | 7 | 13.72% |
| 4- | (3/7/2013): n:(4355) | 5 | 16.67% | 3 | 18.75% | 8 | 15.68% |
| 5- | (3/9/2013): n:(4393) | 4 | 13.33% | 2 | 12.5% | 9 | 17.65% |
| 6- | (3/11/2013): n:(4429) | 3 | 10% | 4 | 25% | 7 | 13.72% |
| | Total | 30 | 100% | 16 | 100% | 51 | 100% |

This table shows that the a verage of appearing (lexical, morphology and Syntax) in each story separately of the 6 selected texts, shows that every story published on an 10 cm area consists one paragraph containing have (50-75) word, In this context, the researcher was able to determine the level of each of (L.M.S) By its appearance in every subject stories, (L. 30%) and (M. 16%) and (S. 51%). The second table shows a relationship between lexical and morpho-syntactic choices of texters, news text style and language of media are analyzed quantatively.

*Table (2): The sequence of stereotype language (lexical and morpho-syntactic)*

| | **Repeted** | **%** | **Sort** |
|---|---|---|---|
| lexical | 30 | 30.93% | Second |
| Morphology | 16 | 16.49% | Thired |
| Syntax | 51 | 52.58% | First |
| Total | 97 | 100% | |

In the second table shows the rate of (lexical and morpho-syntactic) in the six texts selected from among 48 issue, and compared the sequence appears between them, that syntax becomes in the first place by rate (52.58%) and lexical comes in the second place where it appears the rate in (30.93%), while the morphology comes in third place which its apear in rate (16.49%).

*Table (3): total of gender stereotypae applaied the degree of change in one year (2013)*

| Language date | **(1-31-28/1-2/2013)** | **(1-31-30/3-4/2013)** | **(1-31-30/5-6/2013)** | **(1-31-31/7-8/2013)** | **(1-30-31/9-10/2013)** | **(1-30-31/11-12/2013)** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| lexical | 28 | 20 | 24 | 20 | 16 | 12 | **1** |
| Morphology | 13 | 8 | 8 | 12 | 8 | 16 | **2** |
| Syntax | 36 | 44 | 28 | 32 | 36 | 28 | **3** |
| Total | 77 | 72 | 60 | 64 | 60 | 56 | |

The third table shows that the gender stereotype is At least gradually and becomes progressively less slowly since the first two months per one year after that doubled four times until it reaches the end of the year, as shown in the three standards together (lexical and morpho-syntactic) in the first two months at a rate of (77%) to the last two months at a rate of (56%).

*3.3.2 Qualitative analyes*

Qualitative data collection shows that news stereotype reflects abbreviations, capitalization and punctuation. Pronouns such as /you/, /we/, /why/ and /when/ are frequently abbreviated. Conjunctions such as /and/ and /because/ are also commonly shortened in news language. Similarly, at lexical level, the textes choice meaningful condensed forms e.g. /introduction/, /brother/, /sister/ etc. At syntactic level 'I am' for /am or m / is most currently used. Approximately 80% of the stories have no capitalization, another 12% had only first letter capitalization and the remaining 8% had complex capitalization. Qualitative data show that 30.85% lexical level and (16.71%) morphology and (52.44%) syntax different stereotype on text news stories applied in one year taken two month divided to six levels as shown in table 4 below:

*Table (4): Estimate the percentage of the rate of appearance the quality of each (L.M.S) at one year*

| Language date | 2 month (1-2) | 2 month (3-4) | 2 month (5-6) | 2 month (7-8) | 2 month (9-10) | 2 month (11-12) | total | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| lexical | 28 | 20 | 24 | 20 | 16 | 12 | 120 | 30.85% |
| Morphology | 13 | 8 | 8 | 12 | 8 | 16 | 65 | 16.71% |
| Syntax | 36 | 44 | 28 | 32 | 36 | 28 | 204 | 52.44% |
| Total | 77 | 72 | 60 | 64 | 60 | 56 | 389 | 100% |

The word "aw" "her/his" which is "pronouns" grammatically feminine/masculine, the adjectives "broad" and "good", as well as the pronouns "the/that" and "her", which referred, must also appear in their feminine forms. The Kurdish had three genders, masculine, feminine and neuter, but gender inflections (like many other types of inflection in English) were later greatly simplified by sound changes, and then completely lost. So show each species (L.M.S) to stereotypical image evenly, but at different levels over the six samples taken in one year.

*Table (5): total of gender stereotype in 6 text news stories between a lesser extent and more*

| | | **Lexical** | **Morphology** | **syntax** | **Total** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1- | More | (4230)/(4306) | - | (4230)/(4278)/(4306)/ (4355)/(4393)/(4429) | 8 |
| 2- | Ecoual | (4278)/(4355) | - | - | 2 |
| 3- | Less | (4393)/(4429) | (4230)/(4278)/(4306)/ (4355)/(4393)/(4429) | - | 8 |
| | Total | 6 | 6 | 6 | |

Independent sample test for equality of variances text test for equality of means factor LMS. At the (3-tailed) Lexicology equal variances assumed: (1.24, 0.27, 0.14, 1.64, 0.10, 0.94) of 6 text and the total rate is (4.33), Morphology equal variances assumed: (0.03, 0.87, 1.20, 1.90, 0.02, 0.19) of 6 text and the total rate is (4.21), and Syntax equal variances assumed: (0.95, 0.34, 1.19, 1.12, 0.89, 0.24), of 6

text and the total rate is (4.73). We note in the final average for the total species (L.M.S) shows close ratios as shown in table 6 below.

*Table (6): total of stereotype in final average for 6 text stories*

| | **Stereotype factors** | **Gender rate** | | | **%** | **Rate** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | **More** | **equal** | **Less** | | |
| 1- | **Lexical** | 2 | 2 | 2 | 25% -25%-25% | 4.33 |
| 2- | **Morphology** | 0 | 0 | 6 | - - 75% | 4.21 |
| 3- | **Syntax** | 6 | 0 | 0 | 75% - - | 4.73 |
| 4- | **Total** | 8 | 2 | 8 | 75% | 4.44 |

However, as we see every stereotype must belong to one of the two categories: (referring to sexless or sexiness) entities must also be either masculine or feminine, even though assignment dificalt correlation between gender and the form of stereotype. According to this as considered quantitative data show that 29% males and 21% femal prefer news text story for communication respectively Are closely but in difrent stereotype (L.M.S) as shown in table 7 below.

*Table (7): The relationship between lexical and morpho-syntactic choices of males and females*

| | **Gender** | **Stereotype** | **Gender rate** | | | **Assignment** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | **More** | **Equal** | **Less** | |
| 1- | **Masculine** | Lexical/Syntax | 8 | - | - | Proficianal |
| 2- | **Feminine** | Lexical/Morphology | - | - | 8 | Formal |
| | | Lexical | - | 2 | - | |
| total | | | 80% | 20% | 80% | |

Table (7) shows that there is mean score difference on lexical, morphological and syntactic choices between males and females news users; It shows that the (L.S) a large proportion of factors stereotyped images of masculinity about (80%), while the (L.M) show the same rate (80%) which that the percentage of female factors but in less presence in the text.

*3.3.3 Male and Female analys*

There is a mean score difference between males and females news users on the first three factors; that is to say, lexicology, morphology and syntax. The news stories text significantly females more likely to have complex capitalization, females between the age of 20-25 years, are most likely to use capitalization in any form and also most likely to use first letter capitalization. They are also the most likely to use punctuation in their news stories. Females use punctuation slightly more than male but the relationship does not appear to be significant. The data show that there is a significant gender based difference in the number of words per news stories and in the complexity of the stories. The data further show that females generally use lexically dense words in news stories, As More than 74% of the stories were taken by males were simple one sentence or one-clause stories, whereas 53.33% stories were agreed by females were consist of many clauses. In the table (8) below the percentage of male participants in the answer is (22), while the proportion of 30 percentage less than in the case of females to text newspaper, as it shows that the participation rate is (16) out of 30. And the table is apears the different respond for the text stories about (74%) for mal and (53.33%) for female.

*Table (8): Percentage of news users: shows that total of responding from male and female*

| **Gender** | **Total** | **Rate %** | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Male** | 22 | 74% | 30 |
| **Female** | 16 | 53.33% | 30 |
| Total | 38 | 63.34% | 60 |

In the formal Kurdish language, the neuter gender has grown to encompass most nouns, including many that were masculine or feminine in Kurdish language. If one were to replace the phrase "adjective-aza" with brave man or brave woman, and no change to the rest of the sentence or would be in the pronoun at the end, which would become him or her respectively. There is a mean score difference between males and females news users on the first three factors; that is to say, lexicology, morphology and syntax. On lexicology stereotype mean score of males are 4.85 with 2.04 Standard Deviation (SD); where as mean score of females are 2.68 with 3.64 SD as shown in table (9) below:

*Table (9): Percentage of news users different in stereotype*

| Gender stereotype | **Stereotype kind** | | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **Proficianal** | **Formal** | |
| Male | 4.85 | 2.04 | 6.89% |
| Female | 2.68 | 3.64 | 6.32% |
| Total | 7.53 | 5.68 | 0.57% |

Small size of Standard Error Mean (SEM) 0.57 on stereotype between males and females respectively shows approximation of sample mean to population mean. But note that the percentage receiving female texts appear in the factors of formal more than occupational- Proficianal factors as shown in the table (3.64) and (2.68), but note the opposite in males, where the percentage receiving the texts Vocational- Proficianal (4.85) more than the factors formal (2.04) as shown in the table also.

To anderstand how is this results become we will shows three analyses of table: There is very small mean score difference 0.08 between males and females perception about influence of news text story on language of comunication as its apear on table 10 below:

On lexicology mean score of males is 1.64 with 2.85 SD and 0.09 SEM; whereas mean score of females is 1.56 with 2.69 SD and 0.08 SEM. And mean score of males on morphology is 1.84 with 2.35 SD and mean score of females is 3.80 with 0.42 SD; whereas SEM is 0.20 and 0.09 between males and females respectively, there is mean score difference on syntactic choices by males and females story users, Mean score of males on syntax is 4.92 with 5.72 SD and 0.19 SEM; however mean score of females is 7.24 with 1.24 SD and 0.07 SEM.

*Table (10): Percentage of news users*

| Gender stereotype | **Stereotype factors** | | | | | | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Lexicology/SD** | **SEM** | **Morphology/SD** | **SEM** | **Syntax/SD** | **SEM** | |
| Male | 1.64 - 2.85 | 0.09 | 1.84 - 2.35 | 0.20 | 4.92 - 5.72 | 0.19 | 0.16% |
| Female | 1.56 - 2.69 | 0.08 | 3.80 - 0.42 | 0.09 | 7.24 - 1.24 | 0.07 | 0.08% |
| Total | | | | | | | 0.08% |

The items on the questionnaires were developed based on qualitative findings of this reaserch. The students were asked to indicate their gender. Three value ordinal scales and yes or no criterion was adopted over 15 questions, however 3 items were eliminated because they were reducing the reliability level of the instrument. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied to transfer the original variables into a smaller set of uncorrelated components. The instrument was catalogued into 3 factors-morphology, syntax, lexicology and influence of stories language at 0.69 reliability level. All these factors were considered to seek stories users perception on the questionnaire. However there is unanimous opinion of the news users that text mediated language is influencing language of media. News language has given a birth to a novice language, which reflects people's attitude to wards their mother tongue and regional languages. Group Statistics Table 11: The results show that 57% news lives among 25-29 years old population, whereas 40% stories lives in 20-25 years old age group as shown. It further shows that between 4% and 3 % news stories lives among rest of the age groups.

*Table (11): news users among different age male and female*

| **Age person** | **Student nember** | **Male – Female** | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| (25 – 30) | 34 | 19 – 15 | 57% |
| (20 – 25) | 24 | 14 – 10 | 40% |
| (15 – 20) | 2 | 2 – 0 | 3.3% |
| | 60 | 35 – 25 | |

In general age groups (15-20, 20-25, 25-30): Age Group Percentage in (15-20, 20-25, 25-30), Factor Gender mean Deviation line of Lexicology: 1.00 2.00 25/ 1.64 1.56 2.85 2.69 0.09 0.08. Morphology: 1.00 2.00 25/ 1.84 2.80 2.35 2.42 0.20 0.39. Syntax: 1.00 2.00 25/ 4.92 3.24 5.72 1.24 0.19 0.07. The results show that two tailed independent sample t-test and significant values with 20 degree of diferent between male and female. The ‘t’ value on lexicology is 0.62 and 1.24 between males and females respectively. Similarly, the ‘t’ value on morphology is 1.09 and 2.11 between males and females respectively. The ‘t’ value on syntax is 2.20 and 1.60 between males and females respectively. However on the fourth factor, there is no difference of ‘t’ value between males and females, which is 0.57. At the end great motor of news lives among males and females, although men were early adopters yet it is among the women that the great motor of news lives, but there is significant difference between males and females texters on lexicology, morphology and syntax; whereas there is no significant difference in their perception about influence of news language of media. Looking at particular age groups, it seems that 15 to 19 year old girls are particularly adept at writing complex and long news stories. Females write longer stories and have a more complex structure than males. The analysis shows that there is a significant gender based difference in the number of words per news story and in the complexity of the stories. At the same time boys in this age group are particularly oriented toward simple depending on meanings more “one thought” messages.

Although grammatical gender was a fully productive inflectional category in Kurdish has a much less pervasive gender system, primarily based on natural gender, and reflected essentially in how its been used with lexicology, morphology and syntax. It should also be noted that only a relatively small number of Kurdish nouns have distinct male and female forms; many of them are loanwords from languages. Kurdish has no live productive gender markers. An example of such a marker might be the suffix, but this is seldom used today, surviving mostly in either historical contexts or with disparaging.

## CONCLUSIONS

The researcher are gots many goals of this research:

1. There is difference between males and females lexical, morphology and syntactic choices in stereotype news stories text however there is no significant difference between their perceptions about influence of news language.
2. Females are more skillful in taking a complex writing, long and lexically dense stories than males. They have developed a unitary system of intelligible communication in the form of news language. It is also leaving backwash effects on Kurdish language and media language.
3. Male dell with news text structure is simplified in order to be understood by mass receivers contains dominant and well known characteristics of the reality. Therefore stereotypes are very often used in the stories text as one of the most popular techniques of persuasion.
4. The way in which male and female roles are presented in tend to be conformists and would rather submit to the dominant patterns than oppose them and risk a negative reception of such behavior from the others.
5. The level appearance average between the stereotype facte of each of three (L.M.S) in subject stories, shows Outweigh the factor (S. syntax) on each of the (L. lexical) and (M. morphology).
6. The gender stereotype is gradually becomes progressively less slowly since the begining first two months to the end of the same year per one year, in the three standards stertype gender (lexical, morphology-syntax).
7. The each of three factor of gender stereotype (lexical, morphology and syntax) Were more be reflection of the texts over the year and has been employed (syntax, lexical) more visible than Group (morphology) on all 6 text.
8. Stereotype gradually becomes progressively less slowly since the begining first two months to the end of the same year per one year, in the three standards stereotype (lexical, morphology-syntax).
9. The different respond for the text gender stereotype confirms The difference percentage between the accepted stereotype by males compared with females is a small percentage, but the difference shows in the quality of texts that receive them from where we note that the reception of the male more (profishinal) type while females are more accepting formal type.
10. Ranging from the reconstruction of receivers factors (lexical, morphology and syntax) and interested third parties between males and females, everything was growing up people age they are more affected by stereotype factors and whenever the youngest ages shows a lack of vulnerability gender stereotype factors.
11. Ratio of male to accept the gender stereotype factors appear multiplier for the participation rate for females and accept those same factors.

## SUGGESTIONS

There is a hope to change the current situation, if we become aware of the stereotypes and teach critical viewing skills to our children, perhaps we will become informed viewers instead of manipulate consumers. Moreover, the Language evolve along with the development of a society and are the answer to many social and political changes, such as emancipation of women, growing role of individualism, globalization and revaluation of patterns and social roles. More and more text story specialists produce non-stereotypical news stories. However, the attempts to break down the stereotypes threaten to reject the message; they affect well-established knowledge, Hence, a society has to achieve an adequate level of social readiness, so that messages breaking gender stereotypes could be effective.

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