

Political Theory: Feminist
Mary Lyndon Shanley and Uma
University Park, Pennsylvania:
iversity Press.

86. *Fireworks: The Best of Fire-*
Women's Press.

orrowed Beauty. Porters Lake,
Press.

ilking Woman. Lawrencetown
rsfield Press.

989. *Race, Class, Gender: Bonds*
onto: Between the Lines.

'he Pasts and Futures of Femi-
nism in Canada: Reviving the
n Political Economy 68: 55-83.

n Elusive Dichotomy: Explor-
ancies and Contradictions be-
'y' and 'Feminism' in Western
lished undergraduate thesis,
ciology, Queen's University.

9. "Pre-modern and Modern
and the Case of Domestic
4 (4): 1045-1066.

1. *The Alchemy of Race and*
: Harvard University Press.

192 [1792]. *A Vindication of the*
London: Penguin.

West, Candace and Don Zimmerman. "Doing Gender."
Gender Relations In Global Perspective. Ed. Nancy Cook
Toronto: Canadian Scholar's Press Inc, 2007. 61-71.

CHAPTER 6

DOING GENDER

Candace West and Don H. Zimmerman

Our purpose in this article is to propose an ethnomethodologically informed, and therefore distinctively sociological, understanding of gender as a routine, methodical, and recurring accomplishment. We contend that the "doing" of gender is undertaken by women and men whose competence as members of society is hostage to its production. Doing gender involves a complex of socially guided perceptual, interactional, and micropolitical activities that cast particular pursuits as expressions of masculine and feminine "natures."

When we view gender as an accomplishment, an achieved property of situated conduct, our attention shifts from matters internal to the individual and focuses on interactional and, ultimately, institutional arenas. In one sense, of course, it is individuals who "do" gender. But it is a situated doing, carried out in the virtual or real presence of others who are presumed to be oriented to its production. Rather than as a property of individuals, we conceive of gender as an emergent feature of social situations: both as an outcome of and a rationale for various social arrangements and as a means of legitimating one of the most fundamental divisions of society.

To elaborate our proposal, we suggest at the outset that important but often overlooked distinctions be observed among *sex*, *sex category*, and *gender*. Sex is a determination made through the application of socially agreed upon biological criteria for classifying persons as females or males. The criteria for classification can be genitalia at birth or chromosomal typing before birth, and they do not necessarily agree with one another. Placement in a sex category is achieved through application of the sex criteria, but in everyday life, categorization is established and sustained by the socially required identificatory displays that proclaim one's membership in one or the other category. In this sense, one's sex category presumes one's sex and stands as proxy for it in many situations, but sex and sex category can vary independently; that is, it is possible to claim membership in a sex category even when the sex criteria are lacking. *Gender*, in contrast, is the activity of managing situated conduct in light of normative conceptions of attitudes and activities appropriate for one's sex category. Gender activities emerge from and bolster claims to membership in a sex category.

PERSPECTIVES ON SEX AND GENDER

In Western societies, the accepted cultural perspective on gender views women and men as naturally and unequivocally defined categories of being [...] with distinctive psychological and behavioral propensities that can be predicted from their reproductive functions. Competent adult members of these societies see differences between the two as fundamental and enduring—differences seemingly supported by the division of labor into women's and men's work and an often elaborate differentiation of feminine and masculine attitudes and behaviors that are prominent features of social organization. Things are the way they are by virtue of the fact that men are men and women are women—a division perceived to be natural and rooted in biology, producing in turn profound psychological, behavioral, and social consequences. The structural arrangements of a society are presumed to be responsive to these differences.

Analyses of sex and gender in the social sciences, though less likely to accept uncritically the naive biological determinism of the view just presented, often retain a conception of sex-linked behaviors and traits as essential properties of individuals [...]. The "sex differences approach" [...] is more commonly attributed to psychologists than to sociologists, but the survey researcher who determines the "gender" of respondents on the basis of the sound of their voices over the telephone is also making trait-oriented assumptions. Reducing gender to a fixed set of psychological traits or to a unitary "variable" precludes serious consideration of the ways it is used to structure distinct domains of social experience [...].

Taking a different tack, role theory has attended to the social construction of gender categories, called "sex roles" or, more recently, "gender roles" and has analyzed how these are learned and enacted. Beginning with Linton (1936) and continuing through the works of Parsons (Parsons 1951; Parsons and Bales 1955) and Komarovsky (1946, 1950), role theory has emphasized the social and dynamic aspect of role construction and enactment [...]. But at the level of face-to-face interaction, the application

of role theory to gender poses problems of its own [...]. Roles are *situated* identities—assumed and relinquished as the situation demands—rather than *master identities* [...], such as sex category, that cut across situations. Unlike most roles, such as "nurse," "doctor," and "patient" or "professor" and "student," gender has no specific site or organizational context.

Moreover, many roles are already gender marked, so that special qualifiers—such as "female doctor" or "male nurse"—must be added to exceptions to the rule. Thorne (1980) observes that conceptualizing gender as a role makes it difficult to assess its influence on other roles and reduces its explanatory usefulness in discussions of power and inequality. Drawing on Rubin (1975), Thorne calls for a reconceptualization of women and men as distinct social groups, constituted in "concrete, historically changing—and generally unequal—social relationships" (Thorne 1980, p. 11).

We argue that gender is not a set of traits, nor a variable, nor a role, but the product of social doings of some sort. What then is the social doing of gender? It is more than the continuous creation of the meaning of gender through human actions [...]. We claim that gender itself is constituted through interaction. To develop the implications of our claim, we turn to Goffman's (1976) account of "gender display." Our object here is to explore how gender might be exhibited or portrayed through interaction, and thus be seen as "natural," while it is being produced as a socially organized achievement.

GENDER DISPLAY

Goffman contends that when human beings interact with others in their environment, they assume that each possesses an "essential nature"—a nature that can be discerned through the "natural signs given off or expressed by them" (1976, p. 75). Femininity and masculinity are regarded as "prototypes of essential expression—something that can be conveyed fleetingly in any social situation and yet something that strikes at the most basic characterization of the individual" (1976, p. 75). The means

ider poses problems of its
uated identities—assumed
the situation demands—
dentities [...], such as sex
ss situations. Unlike most
," "doctor," and "patient"
"student," gender has no
zational context.

roles are already gender
cial qualifiers—such as
"male nurse"—must be
o the rule. Thorne (1980)
ualizing gender as a role
ess its influence on other
xplanatory usefulness in
and inequality. Drawing
ne calls for a reconceptu-
nd men as distinct social
n "concrete, historically
lly unequal—social rela-
o, p. 11).

er is not a set of traits, nor
but the product of social
hat then is the social do-
ore than the continuous
g of gender through hu-
laim that gender itself is
teraction. To develop the
m, we turn to Goffman's
der display." Our object
gender might be exhib-
gh interaction, and thus
hile it is being produced
achievement.

t when human beings
their environment, they
esses an "essential na-
ne be discerned through
n off or expressed by
ninity and masculinity
pes of essential expres-
can be conveyed fleet-
ion and yet something
basic characterization
6, p. 75). The means

through which we provide such expressions
are "perfunctory, conventionalized acts" (1976,
p. 69), which convey to others our regard for
them, indicate our alignment in an encounter,
and tentatively establish the terms of contact for
that social situation. But they are also regarded
as expressive behavior, testimony to our "es-
sential natures."

Goffman (1976, pp. 69–70) sees *displays* as
highly conventionalized behaviors structured as
two-part exchanges of the statement-reply type,
in which the presence or absence of symmetry
can establish deference or dominance. These
rituals are viewed as distinct from but articu-
lated with more consequential activities, such
as performing tasks or engaging in discourse.
Hence, we have what he terms the "scheduling"
of displays at junctures in activities, such as
the beginning or end, to avoid interfering with
the activities themselves. Goffman (1976, p. 69)
formulates *gender display* as follows:

If gender be defined as the culturally
established correlates of sex (whether in
consequence of biology or learning), then
gender display refers to conventionalized
portrayals of these correlates.

These gendered expressions might reveal
clues to the underlying, fundamental dimen-
sions of the female and male, but they are, in
Goffman's view, optional performances. Mascu-
line courtesies may or may not be offered and, if
offered, may or may not be declined (1976, p. 71).
Moreover, human beings "themselves employ
the term 'expression', and conduct themselves
to fit their own notions of expressivity" (1976, p.
75). Gender depictions are less a consequence of
our "essential sexual natures" than interaction-
al portrayals of what we would like to convey
about sexual natures, using conventionalized
gestures. Our *human* nature gives us the ability
to learn to produce and recognize masculine
and feminine gender displays—"a capacity [we]
have by virtue of being persons, not males and
females" (1976, p. 76).

There are fundamental equivocations in
this perspective. By segregating gender display
from the serious business of interaction, Goff-
man obscures the effects of gender on a wide
range of human activities. Gender is not merely
something that happens in the nooks and cran-
nies of interaction, fitted in here and there and
not interfering with the serious business of life.
While it is plausible to contend that gender dis-
plays—construed as conventionalized expres-
sions—are optional, it does not seem plausible
to say that we have the option of being seen by
others as female or male.

It is necessary to move beyond the notion of
gender display to consider what is involved in
doing gender as an ongoing activity embedded
in everyday interaction. Toward this end, we
return to the distinctions among sex, sex cat-
egory, and gender introduced earlier.

SEX, SEX CATEGORY, AND GENDER

Garfinkel's (1967, pp. 118–40) case study of Ag-
nes, a transsexual raised as a boy who adopted
a female identity at age 17 and underwent a
sex reassignment operation several years later,
demonstrates how gender is created through
interaction and at the same time structures
interaction. Agnes, whom Garfinkel character-
ized as a "practical methodologist," developed a
number of procedures for passing as a "normal,
natural female" both prior to and after her sur-
gery. She had the practical task of managing the
fact that she possessed male genitalia and that
she lacked the social resources a girl's biography
would presumably provide in everyday interac-
tion. In short, she needed to display herself as a
woman, simultaneously learning what it was to
be a woman. Of necessity, this full-time pursuit
took place at a time when most people's gender
would be well accredited and routinized. Agnes
had to consciously contrive what the vast ma-
jority of women do without thinking. She was
not "faking" what "real" women do naturally.
She was obliged to analyze and figure out how
to act within socially structured circumstances
and conceptions of femininity that women born
with appropriate biological credentials come

to take for granted early on. As in the case of others who must "pass," [...] Agnes's case makes visible what culture has made invisible—the accomplishment of gender.

.....

Sex

Agnes did not possess the socially agreed upon biological criteria for classification as a member of the female sex. Still, Agnes regarded herself as a female, albeit a female with a penis, which a woman ought not to possess. The penis, she insisted, was a "mistake" in need of remedy (Garfinkel 1967, pp. 126–27, 131–32). Like other competent members of our culture, Agnes honored the notion that there are "essential" biological criteria that unequivocally distinguish females from males. However, if we move away from the commonsense viewpoint, we discover that the reliability of these criteria is not beyond question [...]. Moreover, other cultures have acknowledged the existence of "cross-genders" [...] and the possibility of more than two sexes [...].

More central to our argument is Kessler and McKenna's (1978, pp. 1–6) point that genitalia are conventionally hidden from public inspection in everyday life; yet we continue through our social rounds to "observe" a world of two naturally, normally sexed persons. It is the *presumption* that essential criteria exist and would or should be there if looked for that provides the basis for sex categorization. Drawing on Garfinkel, Kessler and McKenna argue that "female" and "male" are cultural events—products of what they term the "gender attribution process"—rather than some collection of traits, behaviors, or even physical attributes. Illustratively they cite the child who, viewing a picture of someone clad in a suit and a tie, contends, "It's a man, because he has a pee-pee" (Kessler and McKenna 1978, p. 154). Translation: "He must have a pee-pee [an essential characteristic] because I see the insignia of a suit and tie." Neither initial sex assignment (pronouncement at birth as a female or male) nor the actual ex-

istence of essential criteria for that assignment (possession of a clitoris and vagina or penis and testicles) has much—if anything—to do with the identification of sex category in everyday life. There, Kessler and McKenna note, we operate with a moral certainty of a world of two sexes. We do not think, "Most persons with penises are men, but some may not be" or "Most persons who dress as men have penises." Rather, we take it for granted that sex and sex category are congruent—that knowing the latter, we can deduce the rest.

Sex Categorization

.....

The categorization of members of society into indigenous categories such as "girl" or "boy," or "woman" or "man," operates in a distinctively social way. The act of categorization does not involve a positive test, in the sense of a well-defined set of criteria that must be explicitly satisfied prior to making an identification. Rather, the application of membership categories relies on an "if-can" test in everyday interaction [...]. This test stipulates that if people *can be seen as* members of relevant categories, *then categorize them that way*. That is, use the category that seems appropriate, except in the presence of discrepant information or obvious features that would rule out its use. This procedure is quite in keeping with the attitude of everyday life, which has us take appearances at face value unless we have special reason to doubt [...]. It should be added that it is precisely when we have special reason to doubt that the issue of applying rigorous criteria arises, but it is rare, outside legal or bureaucratic contexts, to encounter insistence on positive tests [...].

Agnes's initial resource was the predisposition of those she encountered to take her appearance (her figure, clothing, hair style, and so on), as the undoubted appearance of a normal female. Her further resource was our cultural perspective on the properties of "natural, normally sexed persons." Garfinkel (1967, pp. 122–28) notes that in everyday life, we

tial criteria for that assignment of clitoris and vagina or penis and such—if anything—to do with the notion of sex category in everyday life. Miller and McKenna note, with some operational certainty of a world of two sexes, that they do not think, “Most persons with penises but some may not be” or “Most persons with vaginas but some may not be.” Rather, they noted that sex and sex category are not the same, that knowing the latter, we can

tion

of members of society into categories such as “girl” or “boy,” or “heterosexual,” operates in a distinctively different way from that of categorization in the natural sciences. In the sense of a well-defined category, that must be explicitly satisfying an identification. Rather, membership categories relies on context in everyday interaction [...]. That is, that if people *can be seen as* belonging to a category, *then categorize* them as belonging to that category. That is, use the category that is most appropriate, except in the presence of obvious features that define the category. This procedure is quite in contrast with the attitude of everyday life, which values appearances at face value unless we have good reasons to doubt [...]. It should be noted that especially when we have special occasions, the issue of applying rigor to appearance is rare, outside legal or professional contexts, to encounter insistence

source was the predisposition encountered to take her appearance, clothing, hair style, and undoubted appearance of her further resource was derived from the properties of mixed persons.” Garfinkel notes that in everyday life, we

live in a world of two—and only two—sexes. This arrangement has a moral status, in that we include ourselves and others in it as “essentially, originally, in the first place, always have been, always will be, once and for all, in the final analysis, either ‘male’ or ‘female’” (Garfinkel 1967, p. 122).

[...] Not only do we want to know the sex category of those around us (to see it at a glance, perhaps), but we presume that others are displaying it for us, in as decisive a fashion as they can.

Gender

[...] Sex categorization and the accomplishment of gender are not the same. Agnes’s categorization could be secure or suspect, but did not depend on whether or not she lived up to some ideal conception of femininity. Women can be seen as unfeminine, but that does not make them “unfemale.” Agnes faced an ongoing task of being a woman—something beyond style of dress (an identificatory display) or allowing men to light her cigarette (a gender display). Her problem was to produce configurations of behavior that would be seen by others as normative gender behavior.

Popular culture abounds with books and magazines that compile idealized depictions of relations between women and men. Those focused on the etiquette of dating or prevailing standards of feminine comportment are meant to be of practical help in these matters. However, the use of any such source as a *manual of procedure* requires the assumption that doing gender merely involves making use of discrete, well-defined bundles of behavior that can simply be plugged into interactional situations to produce recognizable enactments of masculinity and femininity. The man “does” being masculine by, for example, taking the woman’s arm to guide her across a street, and she “does”

being feminine by consenting to be guided and not initiating such behavior with a man.

Agnes could perhaps have used such sources as manuals, but, we contend, doing gender is not so easily regimented [...]. Such sources may list and describe the sorts of behaviors that mark or display gender, but they are necessarily incomplete [...]. And to be successful, marking or displaying gender must be finely fitted to situations and modified or transformed as the occasion demands. Doing gender consists of managing such occasions so that, whatever the particulars, the outcome is seen and seeable in context as gender-appropriate or, as the case may be, gender-inappropriate, that is, *accountable*.

GENDER AND ACCOUNTABILITY

As Heritage (1984, pp. 136–37) notes, members of society regularly engage in “descriptive accountings of states of affairs to one another,” and such accounts are both serious and consequential. These descriptions name, characterize, formulate, explain, excuse, excoriate, or merely take notice of some circumstance or activity and thus place it within some social framework (locating it relative to other activities, like and unlike).

Such descriptions are themselves accountable, and societal members orient to the fact that their activities are subject to comment. Actions are often designed with an eye to their accountability, that is, how they might look and how they might be characterized. The notion of accountability also encompasses those actions undertaken so that they are specifically unremarkable and thus not worthy of more than a passing remark, because they are seen to be in accord with culturally approved standards.

If sex category is omnirelevant (or even approaches being so), then a person engaged in virtually any activity may be held accountable for performance of that activity as a woman or a man, and their incumbency in one or the other sex category can be used to legitimate or

discredit their other activities [...]. Accordingly, virtually any activity can be assessed as to its womanly or manly nature. And note, to "do" gender is not always to live up to normative conceptions of femininity or masculinity; it is to engage in behavior *at the risk of gender assessment*. While it is individuals who do gender, the enterprise is fundamentally interactional and institutional in character, for accountability is a feature of social relationships and its idiom is drawn from the institutional arena in which those relationships are enacted. If this be the case, can we ever *not* do gender? Insofar as a society is partitioned by "essential" differences between women and men and placement in a sex category is both relevant and enforced, doing gender is unavoidable.

RESOURCES FOR DOING GENDER

Doing gender means creating differences between girls and boys and women and men, differences that are not natural, essential, or biological. Once the differences have been constructed, they are used to reinforce the "essentialness" of gender. In a delightful account of the "arrangement between the sexes," Goffman (1977) observes the creation of a variety of institutionalized frameworks through which our "natural, normal sexedness" can be enacted. The physical features of social setting provide one obvious resource for the expression of our "essential" differences. For example, the sex segregation of North American public bathrooms distinguishes "ladies" from "gentlemen" in matters held to be fundamentally biological, even though both "are somewhat similar in the question of waste products and their elimination" (Goffman 1977, p. 315). These settings are furnished with dimorphic equipment (such as urinals for men or elaborate grooming facilities for women), even though both sexes may achieve the same ends through the same means (and apparently do so in the privacy of their own homes). [...]

Standardized social occasions also provide stages for evocations of the "essential female and male natures." Goffman cites organized sports as one such institutionalized framework for the expression of manliness. There, those qualities that ought "properly" to be associated with masculinity, such as endurance, strength, and competitive spirit, are celebrated by all parties concerned—participants, who may be seen to demonstrate such traits, and spectators, who applaud their demonstrations from the safety of the sidelines (1977, p. 322).

.....

Gender may be routinely fashioned in a variety of situations that seem conventionally expressive to begin with, such as those that present "helpless" women next to heavy objects or flat tires. But, as Goffman notes, heavy, messy, and precarious concerns can be constructed from any social situation, "even though by standards set in other settings, this may involve something that is light, clean, and safe" (Goffman 1977, p. 324). Given these resources, it is clear that *any* interactional situation sets the stage for depictions of "essential" sexual natures. In sum, these situations "do not so much allow for the expression of natural differences as for the production of that difference itself" (Goffman 1977, p. 324).

Many situations are not clearly sex categorized to begin with, nor is what transpires within them obviously gender relevant. Yet any social encounter can be pressed into service in the interests of doing gender. Thus, Fishman's (1978) research on casual conversations found an asymmetrical "division of labor" in talk between heterosexual intimates. Women had to ask more questions, fill more silences, and use more attention-getting beginnings in order to be heard. Her conclusions are particularly pertinent here:

Since interactional work is related to what constitutes being a woman, with what a woman is, the idea that it is work is obscured. The work is not seen as what women do, but as part of what they are. (Fishman 1978, p. 405)

red social occasions also provide occasions of the "essential female features." Goffman cites organized such institutionalized framework of manliness. There, those ought "properly" to be associated with, such as endurance, strength, and spirit, are celebrated by all participants, who may be seen as such traits, and spectators, who demonstrate from the safety of (1977, p. 322).

may be routinely fashioned in a variety of ways that seem conventionally expected, such as those that present men next to heavy objects or flat surfaces. Goffman notes, heavy, messy, and unattractive can be constructed from a variety of things, this may involve something clean, and safe" (Goffman 1977, p. 322). These resources, it is clear that any situation sets the stage for depictions of sexual natures. In sum, these situations do much allow for the expression of differences as for the production of that "sex" (Goffman 1977, p. 324).

Situations are not clearly sex categories, nor is what transpires obviously gender relevant. Yet any person can be pressed into service in the doing of gender. Thus, Fishman's observations on casual conversations found a "division of labor" in talk between heterosexual intimates. Women had questions, fill more silences, and conversation-getting beginnings in order for their conclusions are particularly

interactional work is related to the idea of being a woman, with man is, the idea that it is work. The work is not seen as what but as part of what they are. (1978, p. 405)

We would argue that it is precisely such labor that helps to constitute the essential nature of women as women in interactional contexts [...].

Individuals have many social identities that may be donned or shed, muted or made more salient, depending on the situation. One may be a friend, spouse, professional, citizen, and many other things to many different people—or, to the same person at different times. But we are always women or men—unless we shift into another sex category. What this means is that our identificatory displays will provide an ever-available resource for doing gender under an infinitely diverse set of circumstances.

[T]he heart of the matter is that [...] gender is still something one is accountable for. Thus a woman physician (notice the special qualifier in her case) may be accorded respect for her skill and even addressed by an appropriate title. Nonetheless, she is subject to evaluation in terms of normative conceptions of appropriate attitudes and activities for her sex category and under pressure to prove that she is an "essentially" feminine being, despite appearances to the contrary [...]. Her sex category is used to discredit her participation in important clinical activities [...], while her involvement in medicine is used to discredit her commitment to her responsibilities as a wife and mother [...]. Simultaneously, her exclusion from the physician colleague community is maintained and her accountability as a woman is ensured.

In this context, "role conflict" can be viewed as a dynamic aspect of our current "arrangement between the sexes" (Goffman 1977), an arrangement that provides for occasions on which persons of a particular sex category can "see" quite clearly that they are out of place and that if they were not there, their current troubles would not exist. What is at stake is, from the standpoint of interaction, the management of our "essential" natures, and from the standpoint of the individual, the continuing accomplishment of gender. If, as we have argued, sex category is omnirelevant,

then any occasion, conflicted or not, offers the resources for doing gender.

What are the consequences of this theoretical formulation? If, for example, individuals strive to achieve gender in encounters with others, how does a culture instill the need to achieve it? What is the relationship between the production of gender at the level of interaction and such institutional arrangements as the division of labor in society? And, perhaps most important, how does doing gender contribute to the subordination of women by men?

RESEARCH AGENDAS

To bring the social production of gender under empirical scrutiny, we might begin at the beginning, with a reconsideration of the process through which societal members acquire the requisite categorical apparatus and other skills to become gendered human beings.

Recruitment to Gender Identities

The conventional approach to the process of becoming girls and boys has been sex-role socialization. In recent years, recurring problems arising from this approach have been linked to inadequacies inherent in role theory per se—its emphasis on "consensus, stability and continuity" (Stacey and Thorne 1985, p. 307), its ahistorical and depoliticizing focus (Thorne 1980, p. 9; Stacey and Thorne 1985, p. 307), and the fact that its "social" dimension relies on "a general assumption that people choose to maintain existing customs" (Connell 1985, p. 263).

In contrast, Cahill (1982, 1986a, 1986b) analyzes the experiences of preschool children using a social model of recruitment into normally gendered identities. Cahill argues that categorization practices are fundamental to learning and displaying feminine and masculine behavior. Initially, he observes, children are primarily concerned with distinguishing

between themselves and others on the basis of social competence. Categorically, their concern resolves itself into the opposition of "girl/boy" classification versus "baby" classification (the latter designating children whose social behavior is problematic and who must be closely supervised). It is children's concern with being seen as socially competent that evokes their initial claims to gender identities.

Subsequently, little boys appropriate the gender ideal of "efficaciousness," that is, being able to affect the physical and social environment through the exercise of physical strength or appropriate skills. In contrast, little girls learn to value "appearance," that is, managing themselves as ornamental objects. Both classes of children learn that the recognition and use of sex categorization in interaction are not optional, but mandatory [...].

Being a "girl" or a "boy" then, is not only being more competent than a "baby," but also being competently female or male, that is, learning to produce behavioral displays of one's "essential" female or male identity. In this respect, the task of four- to five-year-old children is very similar to Agnes's:

For example, the following interaction occurred on a preschool playground. A 55-month-old boy (D) was attempting to unfasten the clasp of a necklace when a preschool aide walked over to him.

A: Do you want to put that on?

D: No. It's for girls.

A: You don't have to be a girl to wear things around your neck. Kings wear things around their necks. You could pretend you're a king.

D: I'm not a king. I'm a boy. (Cahill 1986a, p. 176)

As Cahill notes of this example, although D may have been unclear as to the sex status of a king's identity, he was obviously aware that necklaces are used to announce the identity

"girl." Having claimed the identity "boy" and having developed a behavioral commitment to it, he was leery of any display that might furnish grounds for questioning his claim.

In this way, new members of society come to be involved in a *self-regulating process* as they begin to monitor their own and others' conduct with regard to its gender implications. The "recruitment" process involves not only the appropriation of gender ideals (by the valuation of those ideals as proper ways of being and behaving) but also *gender identities* that are important to individuals and that they strive to maintain. Thus gender differences, or the sociocultural shaping of "essential female and male natures," achieve the status of objective facts. They are rendered normal, natural features of persons and provide the tacit rationale for differing fates of women and men within the social order.

Gender and the Division of Labor

Whenever people face issues of *allocation*—who is to do what, get what, plan or execute action, direct or be directed, incumbency in significant social categories such as "female" and "male" seems to become pointedly relevant. How such issues are resolved conditions the exhibition, dramatization, or celebration of one's "essential nature" as a woman or man.

Berk (1985) offers elegant demonstration of this point in her investigation of the allocation of household labor and the attitudes of married couples toward the division of household tasks. Berk found little variation in either the actual distribution of tasks or perceptions of equity in regard to that distribution. Wives, even when employed outside the home, do the vast majority of household and child-care tasks. Moreover, both wives and husbands tend to perceive this as a "fair" arrangement. Noting the failure of conventional sociological and economic theories to explain this seeming contradiction, Berk contends that something more complex is involved than rational arrangements for the production of household goods and services:

ing claimed the identity "boy" and developed a behavioral commitment to every of any display that might furnish questioning his claim.

way, new members of society come red in a *self-regulating process* as they monitor their own and others' conduct to its gender implications. The "it" process involves not only the appraisal of gender ideals (by the valuation of as proper ways of being and behavior) *gender identities* that are important to men and that they strive to maintain. Differences, or the sociocultural "essential female and male natures," status of objective facts. They are "natural, natural features of persons" the tacit rationale for differing fates of men within the social order.

the Division of Labor

ple face issues of *allocation*—who get what, plan or execute action, expected, incumbency in significant roles such as "female" and "male" are pointedly relevant. How such varied conditions the exhibition, or celebration of one's "essential" woman or man.

ffers elegant demonstration of investigation of the allocation of labor and the attitudes of married men and women to the division of household tasks. The variation in either the actual distribution or perceptions of equity in household tasks. Wives, even when at home, do the vast majority of child-care tasks. Moreover, husbands tend to perceive this arrangement. Noting the failure of sociological and economic analysis to resolve this seeming contradiction, it is something more complex than the current arrangements for the household goods and services:

Hardly a question simply of who has more time, or whose time is worth more, who has more skill or more power, it is clear that a complicated relationship between the structure of work imperatives and the structure of normative expectations attached to work as gendered determines the ultimate allocation of members' time to work and home. (Berk 1985, pp. 195–96)

She notes, for example, that the most important factor influencing wives' contribution of labor is the total amount of work demanded or expected by the household; such demands had no bearing on husbands' contributions. Wives reported various rationales (their own and their husbands') that justified their level of contribution and, as a general matter, underscored the presumption that wives are essentially responsible for household production.

Berk (1985, p. 201) contends that it is difficult to see how people "could rationally establish the arrangements that they do solely for the production of household goods and services"—much less, how people could consider them "fair." She argues that our current arrangements for the domestic division of labor support *two* production processes: household goods and services (meals, clean children, and so on) and, at the same time, gender. As she puts it:

Simultaneously, members "do" gender, as they "do" housework and child care, and what [has] been called the division of labor provides for the joint production of household labor and gender; it is the mechanism by which both the material and symbolic products of the household are realized. (1985, p. 201)

It is not simply that household labor is designated as "women's work," but that for a woman to engage in it and a man not to engage in it is to draw on and exhibit the "essential nature" of each. What is produced and reproduced is not merely the activity and artifact of domestic life, but the material embodiment of wifely and husbandly roles, and derivatively, of womanly and manly conduct [...]. What are also frequently

produced and reproduced are the dominant and subordinate statuses of the sex categories.

How does gender get done in work settings outside the home, where dominance and subordination are themes of overarching importance? Hochschild's (1983) analysis of the work of flight attendants offers some promising insights. She found that the occupation of flight attendant consisted of something altogether different for women than for men:

As the company's main shock absorbers against "mishandled" passengers, their own feelings are more frequently subjected to rough treatment. In addition, a day's exposure to people who resist authority in a woman is a different experience than it is for a man.... In this respect, it is a disadvantage to be a woman. And in this case, they are not simply women in the biological sense. They are also a highly visible distillation of middle-class American notions of femininity. They symbolize Woman. Insofar as the category "female" is mentally associated with having less status and authority, female flight attendants are more readily classified as "really" females than other females are. (Hochschild 1983, p. 175)

In performing what Hochschild terms the "emotional labor" necessary to maintain airline profits, women flight attendants simultaneously produce enactments of their "essential" femininity.

Sex and Sexuality

What is the relationship between doing gender and a culture's prescription of "obligatory heterosexuality" [...]? As Frye (1983, p. 22) observes, the monitoring of sexual feelings in relation to other appropriately sexed persons requires the ready recognition of such persons "before one can allow one's heart to beat or one's blood to flow in erotic enjoyment of that person." The appearance of heterosexuality is produced through emphatic and unambiguous indicators of one's sex, layered on in ever more conclusive

fashion (Frye 1983, p. 24). Thus, lesbians and gay men concerned with passing as heterosexuals can rely on these indicators for camouflage; in contrast, those who would avoid the assumption of heterosexuality may foster ambiguous indicators of their categorical status through their dress, behaviors, and style. But "ambiguous" sex indicators are sex indicators nonetheless. If one wishes to be recognized as a lesbian (or heterosexual woman), one must first establish a categorical status as female. Even as popular images portray lesbians as "females who are not feminine" (Frye 1983, p. 129), the accountability of persons for their "normal, natural sexedness" is preserved.

.....

GENDER, POWER, AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Let us return to the question: Can we avoid doing gender? Earlier, we proposed that insofar as sex category is used as a fundamental criterion for differentiation, doing gender is unavoidable. It is unavoidable because of the social consequences of sex-category membership: the allocation of power and resources not only in the domestic, economic, and political domains but also in the broad arena of interpersonal relations. In virtually any situation, one's sex category can be relevant, and one's performance as an incumbent of that category (i.e., gender) can be subjected to evaluation. Maintaining such pervasive and faithful assignment of lifetime status requires legitimation.

But doing gender also renders the social arrangements based on sex category accountable as normal and natural, that is, legitimate ways of organizing social life. Differences between women and men that are created by this process can then be portrayed as fundamental and enduring dispositions. In this light, the institutional arrangements of a society can be seen as responsive to the differences—the social order being merely an accommodation to the natural order. Thus if, in doing gender, men are also doing dominance and women are

doing deference [...], the resultant social order, which supposedly reflects "natural differences," is a powerful reinforcer and legitimator of hierarchical arrangements. [...]

.....

If we do gender appropriately, we simultaneously sustain, reproduce, and render legitimate the institutional arrangements that are based on sex category. If we fail to do gender appropriately, we as individuals—not the institutional arrangements—may be called to account (for our character, motives, and predispositions).

Social movements such as feminism can provide the ideology and impetus to question existing arrangements, and the social support for individuals to explore alternatives to them. Legislative changes, such as that proposed by the Equal Rights Amendment, can also weaken the accountability of conduct to sex category, thereby affording the possibility of more widespread loosening of accountability in general. [...] What such proposed changes can do is provide the warrant for asking why, if we wish to treat women and men as equals, there needs to be two sex categories at all [...].

The sex category/gender relationship links the institutional and interactional level [...]. Doing gender furnishes the interactional scaffolding of social structure [...]. In appreciating the institutional forces that maintain distinctions between women and men, we must not lose sight of the interactional validation of those distinctions that confers upon them their sense of "naturalness" and "rightness."

Social change, then, must be pursued both at the institutional and cultural level of sex category and at the interactional level of gender. [...] Reconceptualizing gender not as a simple property of individuals but as an integral dynamic of social orders implies a new perspective on the entire network of gender relations:

[T]he social subordination of women, and the cultural practices which help sustain it; the politics of sexual object-choice, and particularly the oppression of homosexual people; the sexual division of labor, the

ce [...], the resultant social order, dly reflects "natural differences," einforcer and legitimator of hier- gements. [...]

er appropriately, we simultane- produce, and render legitimate l arrangements that are based If we fail to do gender appropri- ividuals—not the institutional may be called to account (for otives, and predispositions). nents such as feminism can ology and impetus to question nents, and the social support explore alternatives to them. es, such as that proposed by Amendment, can also weaken of conduct to sex category, the possibility of more wide- of accountability in general. posed changes can do is pro- or asking why, if we wish to en as equals, there needs to is at all [...]. y/gender relationship links rd interactional level [...]. shes the interactional scaf- icture [...]. In appreciating ces that maintain distinc- n and men, we must not ictional validation of those fers upon them their sense "rightness." n, must be pursued both nd cultural level of sex ractional level of gender. g gender not as a simple ls but as an integral dy- mples a new perspective of gender relations:

ation of women, and s which help sustain al object-choice, and ssion of homosexual ivision of labor, the

formation of character and motive, so far as they are organized as femininity and masculinity; the role of the body in social relations, especially the politics of childbirth; and the nature of strategies of sexual liberation movements. (Connell 1985, p, 261)

Gender is a powerful ideological device, which produces, reproduces, and legitimates the choices and limits that are predicated on sex category. An understanding of how gender is produced in social situations will afford clarification of the interactional scaffolding of social structure and the social control processes that sustain it.

REFERENCES

Berk, Sarah F. 1985. *The Gender Factory: The Apportionment of Work in American Households*. New York: Plenum.

Cahill, Spencer E. 1982. "Becoming Boys and Girls." Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Sociology, University of California, Santa Barbara.

———. 1986a. "Childhood Socialization as Recruitment Process: Some Lessons from the Study of Gender Development." Pp. 163–86 in *Sociological Studies of Child Development*, edited by P. Adler and P. Adler. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

———. 1986b. "Language Practices and Self-Definition: The Case of Gender Identity Acquisition." *The Sociological Quarterly* 27:295–311.

Connell, R.W. 1985. "Theorizing Gender." *Sociology* 19:260–72.

Fishman, Pamela. 1978. "Interaction: The Work Women Do." *Social Problems* 25:397–406.

Frye, Marilyn. 1983. *The Politics of Reality: Essays in Feminist Theory*. Trumansburg, NY: The Crossing Press.

Garfinkel, Harold. 1967. *Studies in Ethnomethodology*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Goffman, Erving. 1976. "Gender Display." *Studies in the Anthropology of Visual Communication* 3:69–77.

———. 1977. "The Arrangement between the Sexes." *Theory and Society* 4:301–31.

Heritage, John. 1984. *Garfinkel and Ethnomethodology*. Cambridge, England: Polity Press.

Hochschild, Arlie R. 1983. *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Kessler, Suzanne J., and Wendy McKenna. 1978. *Gender: An Ethnomethodological Approach*. New York: Wiley.

Komarovsky, Mirra. 1946. "Cultural Contradictions and Sex Roles." *American Journal of Sociology* 52:184–89.

———. 1950. "Functional Analysis of Sex Roles." *American Sociological Review* 15:508–16.

Linton, Ralph. 1936. *The Study of Man*. New York: Appleton-Century.

Parsons, Talcott. 1951. *The Social System*. New York: Free Press.

———, and Robert F. Bales. 1955. *Family, Socialization and Interaction Process*. New York: Free Press.

Rubin, Gayle. 1975. "The Traffic in Women: Notes on the 'Political Economy' of Sex." Pp. 157–210 in *Toward an Anthropology of Women*, edited by R. Reiler. New York: Monthly Review Press.

Stacey, Judith, and Barrie Thorne. 1985. "The Missing Feminist Revolution in Sociology." *Social Problems* 32:301–16.

Thorne, Barrie. 1980. "Gender ... How Is It Best Conceptualized?" Unpublished manuscript.

WGST 100: Introduction to Women's & Gender Studies
Critical Review and Reflection due March 5, 2014, worth 20% of your grade

Assignment

Students are required to write a 4-to-5-page essay on "Doing Gender" by Candace West and Don H. Zimmerman. I will distribute this article in class.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is twofold: to accurately summarize the main arguments of the chapter and to present relevant examples from your own life experience that support the theory of gender performance. In other words, you are invoking the personal to respond to the theoretical. The purpose of this assignment is to help you make connections between your own life experience and an academic article. The assignment is also meant to get you thinking about the ways in which you, as a gendered being, socially construct gender through your interactions with others. Here is what I would like you to do:

- Pretend that I have never read the article. As such, you will need to explain the authors' thesis and briefly discuss the authors' main arguments as well as the significance of their arguments.
- Throughout the paper, reflect on how you do gender in order to help explain the authors' concept of "doing gender."
- In the final paragraph of the paper, succinctly present your analysis of the article.

For this paper, you will need to use first person when reflecting on how you do gender. However, this is **not** an opinion paper. You are to summarize the authors' arguments, present how you do gender and only in the final paragraph of the paper may you present your analysis/opinion.

For this paper, you will need to develop an understanding of the ways in which you "do" gender. Consider brainstorming the following questions:

- How are your everyday interactions with others gendered?
- How do you perform gender? i.e. what do you do to ensure you're placed in a male or female sex category? Or, how do you challenge your assigned gender?
- How are you held accountable to others for your gender performance? i.e. Are you rewarded for the ways in which you do gender? Are you ostracized or marginalized for the ways in which you do gender?
- How are your performances of gender influenced by your race, class and sexuality?
- If applicable, how does your gender performance intersect with your religious beliefs?
- How does your gender performance strengthen the gender binary or challenge gender norms?

Please only draw on the experiences you feel comfortable sharing.

How to write a Critical Review

INTRODUCTION

In the opening paragraph of your paper, summarize **in your own words** the thesis and central arguments of the chapter. Then, explain to the reader that you will draw on your own experiences to show how you do gender.

Be sure to identify the reading by its title and authors. For example:

In their groundbreaking article, "Doing Gender," Candace West and Don Zimmerman argue that...

BODY OF PAPER

Throughout the paper, elaborate on West and Zimmerman's main arguments and **be sure to discuss the significance of doing gender, according to West and Zimmerman.** Show me that you understand the article. It is also in the body of the paper where you will draw connections between the chapter and your own experience.

In your paper, you must insert at least 6, and no more than 10, relevant, direct quotes from the chapter. For example:

West and Zimmerman argue that "virtually any activity can be assessed as to its womanly or manly nature" (66). Furthermore, they argue that we hold one another accountable for performing gender in accordance with our biological makeup. Gender, therefore, is created and maintained through our daily interactions with others. According to West and Zimmerman, as long as we continue to place women and men into rigid sex categories, "doing gender is unavoidable" (66). In my own life... [describe how you 'do' gender].

CONCLUSION

In the final paragraphs of the paper, reflect on whether or not you agree with West and Zimmerman's thesis and/or central arguments. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the article? Is it possible to avoid doing gender? Is doing gender problematic? Why or why not? Your opinion should be confined to the last paragraph of the paper.

Suggestions

Read the chapter once and highlight the most important points. Read the chapter a second time and think of the ways in which you do gender. Reflect on how the arguments presented in the chapter apply to your own life. Make a list of the ways in which you do gender. Be specific and detailed.

Format

The paper should be no longer than 5 pages (not including the Works Cited page). All papers must be typed, double-spaced with 1-inch margins on white paper and stapled. Please use Times New Roman, 12-point font. All pages should be numbered.

Citations

Please use MLA format for citations. References to the authors' ideas and direct quotes from the article should be appropriately cited in the essay. The article should be appropriately listed in an attached Works Cited page. You are not required to use outside sources, but if you do, they should also be appropriately cited. If you quote from a lecture, or refer to something I said in a lecture, please include a citation for it.

Evaluation

Strong papers will discuss the significance of doing gender and be detailed. Give specific and concrete examples, as opposed to being vague and broad, of how you do gender in your daily life.

You will be evaluated based on the following:

- Technical writing skills, including spelling, grammar and sentence structure
 - Please proof read your paper and ensure that it is free of grammatical and structural errors.
- Competent engagement with the material
 - Have you engaged the ideas of the chapter?
 - Did you demonstrate that you understand the chapter?
 - Were you able to summarize the chapter's thesis and central arguments in your own words?
 - Did you discuss the significance of doing gender?
 - Did you select appropriate/strong quotes to support your paper?
- Detailed and appropriate reflection
 - Do you cite specific examples of how you do gender?
 - Are your examples relevant?
 - Did you address any questions from the list above regarding gender performance?
 - Do you demonstrate thoughtful self-reflection?
 - Do you reflect on the significance of your own gender performance?
- Logic coherence
 - Does your paper make sense?
 - Does it flow in a logical manner?
- Analysis
 - Are you able to support your analysis in the concluding paragraphs?
- Format

- Did you follow the guidelines regarding format, i.e. page numbers, Works Cited page, etc. Are your citations done correctly?

The paper is to be handed in at the beginning of class on the day it is due. I will not accept electronic papers. If your paper is late, you will lose 2 marks (not percentage points, but marks) per day. I will not accept a paper that is 5 days late.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is taken very seriously at the University of Regina. Your paper must be written by you and in your own words. It is not enough to change a couple of words in a sentence when paraphrasing someone else's work. When paraphrasing, rewrite the sentence in your own words and include a citation. Even if you are not quoting directly, but paraphrasing someone else's ideas, you must include a citation. If you have any questions, please ask me. I will provide you with information on how to properly cite sources.

Writing Services

Writing Services in the Riddell Centre Room 230 provides free 30-minute consultation for students. You may arrange appointments by calling 585-4076, or you may submit your work directly to write_on@uregina.ca