The gender of the person you desire is a serious matter seemingly fundamental to the whole business of romance. And it isn't simply a matter of whether someone is male or female; how well the person fulfills a lover's expectations of masculinity or femininity is of great consequence. . . .

... Although sex is experienced as one of the most basic and biological of activities, in human beings it is profoundly affected by things other than the body's urges. Who we're attracted to and what we find sexually satisfying is not just a matter of the genital equipment we're born with... .

On one level, sex can be regarded as having both a biological and a social context. The biological (and physiological) refers to how people use their genital equipment to reproduce. In addition, as simple as it seems, bodies make the experience of sexual pleasure available—whether the pleasure involves other bodies or just one's own body and mind. It should be obvious, however, that people engage in sex even when they do not intend to reproduce. They have sex for fun, as a way to communicate their feelings to each other, as a way to satisfy their ego, and for any number of other reasons relating to the way they see themselves and interact with others.

Another dimension of sex involves both what we do and how we think about it. Sexual behavior refers to the sexual acts that people engage in. These acts involve not only petting and intercourse but also seduction and courtship. Sexual behavior also involves the things people do alone for pleasure and stimulation and the things they do with other people. Sexual desire, on the other hand, is the motivation to engage in sexual acts. It relates to what turns people on. A person's sexuality consists of both behavior and desire.

The most significant dimension of sexuality is gender. Gender relates both to the biological and social contexts of sexual behavior and desire. People tend to believe they know whether someone is a man or a woman not because we do a physical examination and determine that the person is biologically male or biologically female. Instead, we notice whether a person is masculine or feminine. Gender is a social characteristic of individuals in our society that is only sometimes consistent with biological sex. Thus, animals, like people, tend to be identified as male and female in accordance with the reproductive function, but only people are described by their gender, as a man or woman.

When we say something is gendered we mean that social processes have determined what is appropriately masculine and feminine and that gender has thereby become integral to the definition of the phenomenon. For example, marriage is a gendered institution: The definition of marriage involves a masculine part (husband) and a feminine part (wife). Gendered phenomena, like marriage, tend to appear "naturally" so. But, as recent debates about same-sex marriage underscore, the role of gender in marriage is the product of social processes and beliefs about men, women, and marriage. In examining how gender influences sexuality, moreover, you will see that gender rarely operates alone: Class, culture, race, and individual differences also combine to influence sexuality. . . .

DESIRE: ATTRACTION AND AROUSAL

The most salient fact about sex is that nearly everybody is interested in it. Most people like to have sex, and they talk about it, hear about it, and think about it. But some people are obsessed with sex and willing to have sex with anyone or anything. Others are aroused only by particular conditions and hold exacting criteria. For example, some people will have sex only if they are positive that they are in love, that their partner loves them, and that the act is sanctified by marriage. Others view sex as not much different from eating a sandwich. They neither love nor hate the sandwich; they are merely hungry, and they want something to satisfy that hunger. What we are talking about here are differences in desire. As you have undoubtedly noticed, people differ in what they find attractive, and they are also physically aroused by different things....

Many observers argue that when it comes to sex, men and women have fundamentally different biological wiring. Others use the evidence to argue that culture has produced marked sexual differences among men and women. We believe, however, that it is hard to tease apart biological differences and social differences. As soon as a baby enters the world, it receives messages
about gender and sexuality. In the United States, for example, disposable diapers come adorned in pink for girls and blue for boys. In case people aren't sure whether to treat the baby as masculine or feminine in its first years of life, the diaper signals them. The assumption is that girl babies really are different from boy babies and the difference ought to be displayed. This different treatment continues throughout life, and therefore a sex difference at birth becomes amplified into gender difference as people mature.

Gendered experiences have a great deal of influence on sexual desire. As a boy enters adolescence, he hears jokes about boys' uncontainable desire. Girls are told the same thing and told that their job is to resist. These gender messages have power not only over attitudes and behavior (such as whether a person grows up to prefer sex with a lover rather than a stranger) but also over physical and biological experience. For example, a girl may be discouraged from vigorous competitive activity, which will subsequently influence how she develops physically, how she feels about her body, and even how she relates to the adrenaline rush associated with physical competition.

THE BIOLOGY OF DESIRE: NATURE'S EXPLANATION

Biology is admittedly a critical factor in sexuality. Few human beings fall in love with fish or sexualize trees. Humans are designed to respond to other humans. And human activity is, to some extent, organized by the physical equipment humans are born with. Imagine if people had fins instead of arms or laid eggs instead of fertilizing them during intercourse. Romance would look quite different.

Although biology seems to be a constant (i.e., a component of sex that is fixed and unchanging), the social world tends to mold biology as much as biology shapes humans' sexuality. Each society has its own rules for sex. Therefore, how people experience their biology varies widely. In some societies, women act intensely aroused and active during sex; in others, they have no concept of orgasm. In fact, women in some settings, when told about orgasm, do not even believe it exists, as anthropologists discovered in some parts of Nepal. Clearly, culture—not biology—is at work, because we know that orgasm is physically possible, barring damage to or destruction of the sex organs. Even ejaculation is culturally dictated. In some countries, it is considered healthy to ejaculate early and often; in others, men are told to conserve semen and ejaculate as rarely as possible. The biological capacity may not be so different, but the way bodies behave during sex varies according to social beliefs.

Sometimes the dictates of culture are so rigid and powerful that the so-called laws of nature can be overridden. Infertility treatment provides an example: For couples who cannot produce children "naturally," a several billion dollar industry has provided technology that can, in a small proportion of cases, overcome this biological problem (Rutter 1996).

The Social Origins of Desire

Your own experience should indicate that biology and genetics alone do not shape human sexuality. From the moment you entered the world, cues from the environment were telling you which desires and behaviors were "normal" and which were not. The result is that people who grow up in different circumstances tend to have different sexualities. Who has not had their sexual behavior influenced by their parents' or guardians' explicit or implicit rules? You may break the rules or follow them, but you can't forget them. On a societal level, in Sweden, for example, premarital sex is accepted, and people are expected to be sexually knowledgeable and experienced. Swedes are likely to associate sex with pleasure in this "sex positive" society. In Ireland, however, Catholics are supposed to heed the Church's strict prohibitions against sex outside of marriage, birth control, and the expression of lust. In Ireland the experience of sexuality is different from the experience of sexuality in Sweden because the rules are different. Certainly, biology in Sweden is no different from biology in Ireland, nor is the physical capacity to experience pleasure different. But in Ireland, nonmarital sex is clandestine and shameful. Perhaps the taboo adds excitement to the experience. In Sweden, nonmarital sex is acceptable. In the absence of social constraint, it may even feel a bit mundane. These culturally specific sexual rules and experiences arise from different norms, the well-known, unwritten rules of society.

Another sign that social influences play a bigger role in shaping sexuality than does biology is the changing notions historically of male and female differences in desire. Throughout history, varied explanations of male and female desire have been popular. At times, woman was portrayed as the stormy temptress and man the reluctant participant, as in the Bible story of Adam and Eve. At other times, women were seen as pure in thought and deed while men were voracious sexual beasts, as the Victorians would have it.

These shifting ideas about gender are the social "clothing" for sexuality. The concept of gender typically relies on a dichotomy of male versus female sexual categories, just as the tradition of women wearing dresses and men wearing pants has in the past made the shape of men and women appear quite different. Consider high heels, an on-again-off-again Western fashion. Shoes have no innate sexual function, but high heels have often been understood to be "sexy" for women, even though (or perhaps because) they render women less physically agile. (Of course, women cope. As Ginger Rogers, the 1940s movie star and dancing partner to Fred Astaire, is said to have quipped, "I did everything Fred did, only backwards and in high heels.") Social norms of femininity have at times rendered high heels fashionable. So feminine are high
heels understood to be that a man in high heels, in some sort of visual comedy
gag, guarantees a laugh from the audience. Alternatively, high heels are a re-
quired emblem of femininity for cross-dressing men.

Such distinctions are an important tool of society; they provide guidance
to human beings about how to be a "culturally correct" male or female. The-
oretically, society could "clothe" its members with explicit norms of sexuality
that de-emphasize difference and emphasize similarity or even multiplicity.
Picture unisex hairstyles and men and women both free to wear skirts or
pants, norms that prevail from time to time in some subcultures. What is re-
markable about dichotomies is that even when distinctions, like male and fe-
male norms of fashion, are reduced, new ways to assert an ostensibly essential
difference between men and women arise. Societies' rules, like clothes, are
changeable. But societies' entrenched taste for constructing differences be-
tween men and women persists.

The Social Construction of Sexuality

… In a heterogeneous and individualistic culture like North America, sexual
socialization is complex. A society creates an "ideal" sexuality, but different
families and subcultures have their own values. For example, even though
contemporary society at large may now accept premarital sexuality, a given
family may lay down the law: Sex before marriage is against the family's reli-
gion and an offense against God's teaching. A teenager who grows up in such
a household may suppress feelings of sexual arousal or channel them into out-
lets that are more acceptable to the family. Or the teenager may react against
her or his background, reject parental and community opinion, and search for
what she or he perceives to be a more "authentic" self. Variables like birth or-
der or observations of a sibling's social and sexual expression can also influ-
ence a person's development.

As important as family and social background are, so are individual dif-
fferences in response to that background. In the abstract, people raised to cel-
brate their sexuality must surely have a different approach to enjoying their
bodies than those who are taught that their bodies will betray them and are a
venal part of human nature. Yet whether or not a person is raised to be at ease
with physicality does not always help predict adult sexual behavior. Sexual
sybarites and libertines may have grown up in sexually repressive environ-
ments, as did pop culture icon and Catholic-raised Madonna. Sometimes indi-
viduals whose families promoted sex education and free personal expression
are content with minimal sexual expression.

Even with the nearly infinite variety of sexuality that individual experi-
ence produces, social circumstances shape sexual patterns. For example, re-
search shows that people who have had more premarital sexual intercourse are
likely to have more extramarital intercourse, or sex with someone other than
their spouse (Blumstein and Schwartz 1983). Perhaps early experience creates
a desire for sexual variety and makes it harder for a person to be monogamous.
On the other hand, higher levels of sexual desire may generate both the
premarital and extramarital propensities. Or perhaps nonmonogamous, sexu-
ally active individuals are "rule breakers" in other areas also, and resist not
only the traditional rules of sex but also other social norms they encounter.
Sexual history is useful for predicting sexual future, but it does not provide a
complete explanation. …

Social Control of Sexuality

So powerful are norms as they are transmitted through both social structures
and everyday life that it is impossible to imagine the absence of norms that
control sexuality. In fact, most images of "liberated" sexuality involve break-
ing a social norm—say, having sex in public rather than in private. The social
norm is always the reference point. Because people are influenced from birth
by the social and physical contexts of sexuality, their desires are shaped by
those norms. There is no such thing as a truly free sexuality. For the past two
centuries in North America, people have sought "true love" through personal
choice in dating and mating (Freedman and D'Emilio 1988). Although this
form of sexual liberation has generated a small increase in the number of
mixed pairs—interracial, interethnic, interfaith pairs—the rule of homog-
amy, or marrying within one's class, religion, and ethnicity, still constitutes
one of the robust social facts of romantic life. Freedom to choose the person
one loves turns out not to be as free as one might suppose.

Despite the norm of true love currently accepted in our culture, personal
choice and indiscriminate sexuality have often been construed across cultures
and across history as socially disruptive. Disruptions to the social order in-
clude liaisons between poor and rich; between people of different races, eth-
icities, or faiths; and between members of the same sex. Traditional norms
of marriage and sexuality have maintained social order by keeping people in
familiar and "appropriate" categories. Offenders have been punished by os-
tracism, curtailed civil rights, or in some societies, death. Conformists are re-
warded with social approval and material advantages. Although it hardly
seems possible today, mixed-race marriage was against the law in the United
States until 1967. Committed same-sex couples continue to be denied legal
marriages,... income tax breaks, and health insurance benefits; heterosexual
couples take these social benefits for granted.

Some social theorists observe that societies control sexuality through
construction of a dichotomized or gendered (male-female) sexuality (Foucault
1978). Society's rules about pleasure seeking and procreating are enforced
by norms about appropriate male and female behavior. For example, saying
that masculinity is enhanced by sexual experimentation while femininity is
demeaned by it gives men sexual privilege (and pleasure) and denies it to
women. Furthermore, according to Foucault, sexual desire is fueled by the
experience of privilege and taboo regarding sexual pleasure. That is, the very
rules that control sexual desire shape it and even enhance it. The social world
could just as plausibly concentrate on how much alike are the ways that men
and women experience sex and emphasize how broadly dispersed sexual con-
duct is across genders. However, social control turns pleasure into a scarce re-
source and endows leaders who regulate the pleasure of others with power—

**Sexual Identity and Orientation**

... Sexual identity and sexual orientation... are used to mean a variety of
things. We use these terms to refer to how people tend to classify themselves
sexually—either as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or straight. Sexual behavior and sex-
ual desire may or may not be consistent with sexual identity. That is, people
may identify themselves as heterosexual, but desire people of the same sex—
or vice versa.

It is hard to argue with the observation that human desire is, after all, or-
ganized. Humans do not generally desire cows or horses (with, perhaps, the
exception of Catherine the Great, the Russian czarina who purportedly came
to her demise while copulating with a stallion). More to the point, humans are
usually quite specific about which sex is desirable to them and even whether
the object of their desire is short or tall, dark or light, hairy or sleek.

In the United States, people tend to be identified as either homosexual
or heterosexual. Other cultures (and prior eras in the United States) have not
distinguished between these two sexual orientations. However, our culture
embraces the perspective that, whether gay or straight, one has an essential,
inborn desire, and it cannot change. Many people seem convinced that homo-
sexuality is an essence rather than a sexual act.... People tend to assume that
the object of desire is a matter of the gender of the object. That is, they think
even homosexual men desire someone who is feminine and that homo-
sexual women desire someone who is masculine. In other words, even among
gay men and lesbians, it is assumed that they will desire opposite-gendered
people, even if they are of the same sex.

Historians have chronicled in Western culture the evolution of homosex-
uality from a behavior into an identity (e.g., Freedman and D’Emilio 1988).
In the past, people might engage in same-gender sexuality, but only in the
twentieth century has it become a well-defined (and diverse) lifestyle and self-
definition. Nevertheless, other evidence shows that homosexual identity has
existed for a long time. The distinguished historian John Boswell (1994) be-
lieves that homosexuals as a group and homosexuality as an identity have
existed from the very earliest of recorded history. He used evidence of
early Christian same-sex “marriage” to support his thesis. Social scientist

Fred Whitman (1983) has looked at homosexuality across cultures and de-
clared that the evidence of a social type, including men who use certain
effeminate gestures and have diverse sexual tastes, goes far beyond any one
culture. Geneticist Dean Hamer provides evidence that sexual attraction may
be genetically programmed, suggesting that it has persisted over time and
been passed down through generations.

On the other side of the debate is the idea that sexuality has always been
invented and that sexual orientations are socially created. A gay man’s or les-
bian’s sexual orientation has been created by a social context. Although this
creation takes place in a society that prefers dichotomous, polarized cate-
gories, the social constructionist vision of sexuality at least poses the possibil-
ity that sexuality could involve a continuum of behavior that is matched by a
continuum of fantasy, ability to love, and sense of self....

**References**


Freedman, E. and J. D. D’Emilio. 1988. *Intimate Matters: A History of Sexuality in


Whitman, F. 1983. “Culturally Invariable Properties of Male Homosexualities: Ten-
tative Conclusions from Cross-Cultural Research.” *Archives of Sexual Behavior* 12:
207-26.