Gender is a part of our everyday lives. It is an integral part of who we are. We conduct ourselves and interact with others based on our gendered identities. We encounter our gendered selves in many ways. For example, while filling up an exam form or any other form, we are often required to tick a box which says sex ‘male’ or ‘female’. This is done as a matter of routine. We do it unthinkingly. Our gendered identity is an inherent part of who we are. Do we even think that the name we have is again gender specific? If we call someone Lata, Amira or Sarah, we know that it is a girl’s name. We know it will be a boy if we call someone Michael, Imran or Naveen. We may think that being a man or a woman is associated with the sex of the physical body we are born with. However, our interaction with individuals will again depend on whether they are men or women. All interactions, in some way or another other, are structured through this identity. If you read carefully, you will realise that the term ‘sex’ has been used somewhere and in other places, the term ‘gender’ has been used. What is the difference between the two? Are they linked to one another? If yes, then in what ways? These are some of the questions we will answer in this lesson.

**OUTCOMES**

After studying this lesson, learner:

- differentiates between sex and gender as biological and social categories;
- explains the social norms associated with the gendered identity as a male, female or transgender;
- explains masculinity and femininity in different cultures;
- describes gender socialisation and different agencies;
- understands the factors that shape our gender identity and
- explains sexuality and various types of sexual orientations.
2.1 UNDERSTANDING OF SEX AND GENDER – CHANGING PERCEPTIONS

One of the first lessons that we learn is that associated with gender. Placement in a sex category is achieved through primary sex characteristics or based on chromosomes XX for females and XY for males. Biologically, the presence of a XX chromosome will make a human being female, and an XY chromosome will make a human being male. However, the understanding of gender goes beyond the simple matter of the XX or the XY chromosome. In this chapter, we will understand gender from the perspective of society.

When a child is born, the doctor or the nurse will declare, “Congratulations! It is a boy (or a girl)”. This very declaration gives us our gendered identity. All our subsequent identities are based on this one identity. Our names, actions, and social relationships are all based on our gendered identity. There is also the question of those who do not fall into either male or female categories.

The earlier understanding of gender was that sex has to do with nature, and gender has to do with culture. This meant that for an individual, sex was biological, i.e. an individual was either a male with an XY chromosome or a female with XX chromosome. Sex refers to physical or physiological differences between males and females, including primary sex characteristics (the reproductive system) and secondary characteristics such as height and musculature, deep voice, facial hair, etc.

Gender was assumed to be a product of one’s sexual identity. It is generally assumed that those who have primary and secondary sexual characteristics will also fall into the gender category of a man or a woman. This means those with XX chromosomes and female primary and secondary characteristics will play the role of women, and those with XY chromosomes and male primary and secondary characteristics will play the role of men.

In a common sense understanding, ‘sex’ and ‘gender’ are assumed to coincide, i.e. those with the physical characteristics of females will be like women, and those with physical characteristics of males will be like men.

This also assumes that men will play the conventional social masculine roles and dress and behave accordingly. The same is assumed for women. We will discuss more on this in Section 2.2.

*Sex refers to physical or physiological differences between males and females, including both primary sex characteristics (the reproductive system) and secondary characteristics such as height and musculature, deep voice, facial hair etc.*
Understanding Relationship between Sex and Gender - Oakley

As individuals, we need to ask ourselves, is it so easy to classify the nature of maleness or femaleness? The term ‘sex’ itself is ambiguous. Do we mean ‘sexual activity’ by the term sex? Or are we referring to the physiological characteristics of being male or female?

In academic language, we generally use the term ‘sex’ to refer to the physiological characteristics of an individual and the term ‘gender’ to refer to the social, cultural and psychological differences between males and females. Gender is used to refer to socially constructed notions of masculinity or femininity.

Writers followed this understanding of sex and gender on gender, like Ann Oakley, a British sociologist. Oakley defined sex based on anatomical and physiological characteristics and gender as socially constructed masculinity and femininity. She said one becomes a man or a woman through social and cultural processes.

In this understanding of sex and gender, one assumes that gender will automatically follow from sex. This means that if you are a human being with XY chromosomes and primary and secondary sex characteristics of males, then your gender (social identity) will be that of a man. On the other hand, if you have XX chromosomes and the primary and secondary sex characteristics of a female, then your gender identity will be that of a woman. In this understanding of sex and gender, one assumes that gender will automatically follow from sex.

In everyday life, this categorisation as a male or female is established and sustained through socially recognised behaviour. There are specific normative criteria by which an individual is labelled as a male or a female. In addition, certain attitudes and activities are deemed appropriate for one’s sex category. These criteria are transmitted to us through the process of socialisation.

Our gendered identity is an integral part of our identity. We cannot imagine interacting with others without knowing their gender. Children become aware of gender roles in their earliest years. This awareness is generated through the process of socialisation. Section 2.2 will discuss this further. Through socialisation, society establishes a dominant and conventional standard about being a male or a female. The implications of establishing a dominant standard of masculinity or femininity will be discussed in Section 2.4.
This may not always be true, as we shall see in the next section (Section 2.2). Biological identity may not determine an individual’s gendered identity. We shall discuss more of this in the case of transgender in Section 2.5.

**IN-TEXT QUESTIONS 2.1**

1. What gives us our gendered identity?
2. What is the difference between sex and gender?
3. How does Ann Oakley explain sex and gender?

### 2.2 GENDER SOCIALISATION

Gender socialisation is the key to understanding how attitudes related to gender are internalised. Learning gender roles is important in understanding how one becomes a man or a woman. Through socialisation, one learns the norms associated with one’s gender. This implies that they understand and perform these roles through socialisation through agents like the family, peer group and mass media. Socialisation happens actively and passively. Actively, the children are consciously taught gender-appropriate ways of conducting themselves. However, a more powerful way of learning is passive learning which happens through observations and is unconsciously learnt.

**IN-TEXT QUESTIONS 2.2**

1. What is meant by gendered socialisation?
2. How does socialisation take place actively?
3. How does socialisation occur passively?

#### 2.2.1 The Family

The family is a primary agent of socialisation. Through the different ways they treat their children, parents have a powerful impact on gendered socialisation. Through a system of rewards and punishments, parents reinforce certain patterns of behaviour. This is visible in the toys, games and activities associated with girls and boys. For instance, in some societies, a girl is expected to play with toys like dolls, kitchen sets, etc. Conversely, a boy is expected to play with more masculine toys like guns and cars.
Any attempt by a boy to play with the 'girlish' toys or play 'girlish' games is discouraged. When boys play girlish games and behave like girls, and when girls behave and play like boys, this is referred to as cross-gender play. Cross-gender play in boys is punished. Even in activities and games, boys are supposed to indulge in more rough games. Boys are supposed to be tough. Girls, on the other hand, are supposed to be dainty and delicate. In girls' cross, gender play is not punished so severely, at least till they attain puberty. Apart from these, there are different ways in which a boy and girl are supposed to sit, talk, walk and generally conduct themselves.

The roles that women and men play within the family and society also have a powerful impact on gendered socialisation. Children observe their mother, father, and others in their extended families while growing up. They observe the roles that they play in the household and society. For instance, in some societies, women may be associated with child-rearing, caring and household activities. Men may be involved in more outdoor activities. Women may be more emotional and easily display emotions; Men, on the other hand, do not cry or generally display emotions. They also observe how men conduct themselves. The impact of parents is all the more potent since the parents are in a position of authority vis-à-vis the children.

**INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.3**

1. How do parents socialise their children?
2. How does the family act as a passive agent of socialisation?
3. What is cross-gender play?

**2.2.2 The Peer Group**

The role of the peer group in gendered socialisation is also quite prominent. Unlike in the case of parents, socialisation through peer groups is more dialogic and less authoritative. The peer group, too, influences the pattern of socialisation. It is visible in sex-segregated play, i.e. boys and girls do not typically play with one another and play separately. The pattern of games and activities again reinforces the norms of society. For instance, in a society discussed earlier, boys will be ridiculed and made fun of by their peer group if they behave like girls. This kind of interaction consciously and unconsciously again conveys to the children the norms associated with gender. Girls learn to behave as girls are supposed to behave, and the same is valid for boys.
INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.4

1. Explain the role of peer groups in socialisation.
2. How is peer group socialisation different from socialisation by parents?
3. What is sex-segregated play?

2.2.3 The Media

The media like television, films, computer games, newspapers, magazines and even stories again influence the pattern of gendered socialisation. Television, for example, often shows programmes where women are younger than men; women are shown as being traditional and doing household chores. Women are generally shown to be dependent on men and do not play an important role in decision-making. Conversely, men are shown as being more outward going, aggressive and authoritative. These unconsciously become role models for children, and they emulate these reel characters without realising them. The way that the reel characters dress and the way that they behave has a very powerful impact. Computer games, too, have become a source of socialisation. If a woman is in distress in a game and has to be rescued, then often reinforce the patterns where a man has to play the role of a hero. These, again, are patterns for emulation by both boys and girls. Television advertisements, too, become a source of socialisation where men and women play specific roles.

Famous stories like the Panchatantra, the Ramayana, or other folk tales may reinforce similar roles of men and women.

Thus we see that society, through socialisation, will try to train those with primary and secondary sex characteristics of men or women to behave and conduct themselves in a certain way. This will include how you dress, how you walk, and how you sit and generally conduct yourself in society. All the different sources of socialisation often reinforce each other. If they show similar roles being played by men and women, then conscious and unconscious men and women learn to follow specific behaviour patterns.

INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.5

1. Name the different kinds of media that influence socialisation.
2. Explain the impact of real characters on the people.
2.3 GENDERED SOCIALISATION: EXAMPLES FROM ACROSS THE WORLD

The examples given in Section 5.2 for all agents of socialisation have consciously been taken from societies similar in the roles men and women play. These may be societies that you are familiar with. However, these are examples of patriarchal societies where men are supposed to be aggressive, and women are passive.

B.B. Whiting and J.W.M Whiting, in their 1975 book Children of Six Cultures: A Social Psychological Analysis, compared child-rearing practices in six cultures- North America, Philippines, Mexico, India, Kenya and Japan. Their findings revealed that all parents' goals were to teach children how to survive, develop family attachment and learn appropriate gender roles. In all these societies, girls were encouraged to spend more time with their mothers and to learn household tasks. Boys were expected to do outside tasks like feeding and herding cattle so that they grow up to be men who are leaders, work outside their homes, manage family affairs and to be aggressive and confident. Girls were expected to grow up to be caretakers and look after the children and the family.

INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.6

1. What is the name of the book by B.B. Whiting and J.W.M. Whiting? What is the book about?

2. What were the findings of Whiting and Whiting?

2.3.1 Examples from Simple Societies: Margaret Mead

Margaret Mead, an anthropologist, studied gendered socialisation patterns that differed from the societies we have discussed so far. In her book, Sex and Temperament in Three Primitive Societies (1935) wrote about the cultural differences in maleness and femaleness in three societies in the Papua New Guinea region. All these three societies were located within a 100-mile radius. These societies were the Arapesh, Mundugumor and Tchambuli.

Amongst the Arapesh, men and women were equal. There were no clearly defined roles for both. Instead, there was a single-sex pattern. Men and women were both peaceful and nurturing. They were gentle, loving and cooperative. Men, for example, during childbirth, imitate their wives and took to bed. Both of them 'bear a child'. Boys and girls are raised to follow these traits.

The men and women amongst the Mundugumor were both aggressive and warlike. They were ex-cannibals and were arrogant, fierce and warrior-like. Pregnancy and child-rearing as activities were disliked. Both men and women were masculine.
Amongst the Tchambuli (also called Chambri), women are aggressive and dominant. The women caught fish and also travelled to trade fish. The men were not aggressive. Instead, they primed and preened and also emulated female maternal roles.

Mead's study was significant when published as it highlighted different cultures. However, Mead's study of the three tribes was later criticised. However, that will not be discussed here.

In this section, we discussed that there are variations between cultures as far as sex and gender roles are concerned. However, through the different examples, we have also shown that biological sex is not linked to social sex or gender. If it were linked, then the cultural variations we discussed would not have existed, and men and women would have been the same across cultures.

In the next section, we will discuss how, within a society, there may be variations.

### INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.7

1. What did Margaret Mead study?
2. What were the names of the three societies studied by Mead?
3. What were the traits of men and women in Arapesh?
4. How were the men and women socialised in Mundugumor?
5. What were the differences between men and women amongst the Tchambuli?

### 2.4 HEGEMONIC MASCULINITY & FEMININITY

In the discussion on socialisation, we saw that each society has a dominant pattern of behaviour for men and women. This means that all men are expected to behave in a particular manner. For example, in the book by Whiting and Whiting, Children of Six Cultures: A Social Psychological Analysis, all boys are expected to do outside tasks like feeding and herding cattle so that they grow up to be men who are aggressive and confident. Girls were expected to grow up to be caretakers and look after the children and the family.

Mead's study showed us an alternative pattern of masculinity and femininity. It is assumed that they follow the dominant norms and patterns of being a man or woman specific to their society. This form of dominant sexuality is known as hegemonic masculinity in the case of men and hegemonic femininity for women.

This becomes the dominant pattern of behaviours for men and women. Therefore, all socialisation is directed towards bringing up boys and girls in the expected way.
Nevertheless, all men and women do not necessarily follow the dominant or hegemonic patterns in society. Individuals may modify or reject expectations surrounding sex roles. For example, some men may like to cry and are not very aggressive, brave, or adventurous. They may not be 'typical' men. Some women, too, may not behave as per the expectations of the dominant forms of femininity. For example, some women may like to be brave and adventurous. They are referred to as tomboys. Such behaviour is tolerated till girls attain puberty. After that, through negative sanctions, they are forced to conform to the dominant norms of being a girl.

Some such individuals rebel against social norms and behaviour patterns. Sometimes, it may be a mild form of rebellion, and the individuals may outgrow this phase. In other cases, they may feel very strongly about this and decide to do something about it. They feel they are in the wrong body. We shall discuss more on this in Section 5.5.

**Hegemonic Masculinity**
- Dominant male characteristics of a culture. Like being aggressive, not crying, breadwinner, boys playing with cars etc.

**Hegemonic femininity**
- Dominant female characteristics of a culture like being nurturing, caring, emotional and soft, girls playing with dolls etc.

Figure 2.2: Dominant Masculinity & Femininity

**INTEX QUESTIONS 2.8**

1. What is hegemonic masculinity?
2. What is hegemonic femininity?
3. Who are tomboys?

**2.5 TRANSGENDER**

In some cases, an individual may be born a male with the primary and secondary physiological characteristics of a male. However, they may feel they are in the wrong body and need to be a female. Therefore, they may dress up as a woman and sometimes even undergo medical procedures to become a woman. The same may be the case with a biological woman. Such individuals change their 'gender' and do not go with the 'gender' they were born with. These individuals are called transgender.

The behaviour process according to a particular gender is called 'doing gender'. So, for example, a biological man can pass off as a woman and vice versa.
A transgender individual differs from their assigned sex (biological sex). For example, there are trans men and Trans women. Sometimes, they may undergo medical procedures like surgeries and/or hormone therapies to become a man or a woman. These may be from a biological male to a female (Mto F). It may also be from a biological female to a male (F to M). The opposite of transgender is cisgender, people whose gender identity matches their assigned sex.

Transgender, thus, are people whose gender does not follow their sex, i.e. their biology. Biological females, i.e. those with XX chromosomes, may choose to live in society following the gender norms of men. The vice versa is also true. They may even undergo a sex change medical procedure, thus challenging their natural sex. This is very different from what we discussed in Section 5.1.

**INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.9**

1. Who is transgender?
2. Who are cisgenders?
3. What does the term 'doing gender' mean?

### 2.5.1 Inter-Sex Individuals

Transgender is often confused with Intersexual people. Intersex people are individuals who have both male and female genitalia. Intersex people are born with sex characteristics that lie between those typical males and typical females. People with intersex conditions have anatomy that is not considered typically male or female. Older terms include the word hermaphrodite. Transgender or transsexuals are usually born with typical male or female anatomies but feel they are in the wrong body.

**The Case of Agnes**

Agnes was an individual born in 1939. Agnes was born with a penis and testes. She was raised as a male. As she grew up she began to develop female secondary characteristics like breasts. By age 17 Agnes started dressing up as a female. She behaved like a woman, dressed, walked and talked like a woman. She passed herself off as a woman. She even got married to a man. This was one of the first cases of ‘doing gender’ and also of an intersex person. She was studied by Harold Garfinkel, an American sociologist in 1960s. When Agnes met Garfinkel she believed herself to be a female.
Understanding Gender Studies: An Overview

Figure 2.3: Gender Does Not Always Follow Biological Sex

INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.10

1. Who are Intersex people?
2. What is the older term for intersex people?

2.6 SEXUAL ORIENTATION

Sexual orientation refers to a person's sexual and romantic attraction. There are four types of sexual orientations:

1. Heterosexuality
2. Homosexuality
3. Bisexuality
4. Asexuality

Heterosexuality

Heterosexuality is the dominant form of sexuality. In this, a person is attracted to the opposite gender.

Homosexuality

Homosexuality is an attraction to a person of the same gender. Homosexual men are referred to as gay. Homosexual women are commonly known as lesbians.

Bisexuality

Bisexuality refers to sexual attraction to both sexes. Men and women are attracted to both men and women.
Asexuality

Asexuality is the lack of sexual attraction to people of either sex.

Individuals who think of themselves as heterosexual may also have homosexual experiences, and the reverse is also true. Transgender does not refer to sexual orientation but to ways of behaving to challenge the dominant patterns of masculinity or femininity. They may be homosexuals, heterosexuals, bisexuals or asexuals. Their sexual orientation may be a combination of one or more types.
The Rainbow Flag

Also known as the Gay Pride Flag was designed by Gilbert Baker in 1978. It represents the diversity in the LGBT community. It does not represent the original colours of the rainbow. Each stripe stands for an issue like sex, life, healing, light etc. There are variations of the same.

Queer

The term Queer is used as a slang for the LGBT community. Delhi Queer Pride Parade is organized by members of the Delhi Queer Pride Committee every last Sunday of November since 2008.

Figure 2.6: LGBT or Queer

Figure 2.7: Rainbow Flag

Figure 2.8: Symbol of Queer Community
Lesbian Gay Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT)

This is a term that all of you may have heard very frequently. It refers to all of the above. The UN in 2011 passed a resolution stating that any discrimination against the LGBT community as a violation of human rights. Discrimination against homosexuals is also considered a violation of human rights.

As of March 2017, 23 countries, the overwhelming majority of which are developed democracies and the rest being developing democracies, recognize same-sex marriage.

As of August 2017, 73 countries as well as five sub-national jurisdictions have laws criminalizing homosexuality.

with effect from 6 September 2018 In India, Homo-sexuality is not a crime, However, same sex marriages are still illegal and the matter are still debated in the court.

The Lambda

A greek symbol was adopted as the official symbol of the gay and lesbian rights in 1974. It was selected for the first time in early 1970s by Tom Doerr to be the symbol of the New York chapter of the gays and lesbians.

The Black Ring of Asexuality

The Symbol of Bisexuality
Understanding Gender Studies: An Overview

INTEXT QUESTIONS 2.11

1. What is the meaning of the term sexual orientation?
2. What are the different types of sexual orientations?
3. What is the sexual orientation of transgender?

WHAT YOU HAVE LEARNT

In this lesson, we have learnt that sex and gender are different. Social gender does not follow biological sex. This we saw in the case of transgender.

We also learn how societies establish standards of behaviour for men and women through socialisation. Socialisation can be active or passive. Moreover, there are different agencies of socialisation.

We also discussed examples of socialisation in societies all over the world. Mead’s study highlighted different patterns of socialisation in their different societies.

Sexual orientation is also an important part of gender. There are different types of sexual orientations. An individual’s sexual orientation may change over time. The concept of masculinity and femininity may also vary in culture over some time. At the beginning of the twentieth century, a traditional family consisted of the father as the primary breadwinner and the mother as someone who stayed home and looked after the household and children. The men were supposed to be strong and brave at all times. Men were not supposed to do any work in the kitchen or in the household. These were considered to be a woman’s tasks. Masculinity depended on being a working man and on being the primary breadwinner. Even though women did start working outside the home, they were still expected to do the household chores. However, this dominant notion of masculinity and femininity has begun to change. We find many men who are soft, display emotion and may not be the primary breadwinners. Men and women have also started to share the household chores.

TERMINAL EXERCISE

1. What is the understanding of sex and gender according to Oakley?
2. Why was Oakley's understanding of sex and gender questioned?
3. What is the importance of gendered socialisation?
4. How do the roles men and women play in society lead to gendered socialisation? Give examples.

5. Write an essay on peer group socialisation.

6. Examine the role of media in socialisation.

7. What is the importance of the study by Whiting and Whiting?

8. What is the significance of Mead's study? Give examples from the societies studied by her.

9. What is hegemonic masculinity & femininity?

10. Who is transgender?

11. Explain the term, intersex people.

12. How are transgender different from intersex people?

13. What does the term doing gender mean? Where do you see it? Give examples.

14. What is sexual orientation? Explain the different types of sexual orientations.

15. Define the following terms:
   a. Transgenderisms
   b. Cisgenders
   c. Intersex People
   d. Homosexuality
   e. Heterosexuality
   f. Bisexuality
   g. Asexuality

**ANSWERS TO INTEXT QUESTIONS**

2.1

1. Our names, actions, and social relationships are all based on our gendered identity. This awareness is generated through the process of socialisation.

2. Sex is biological and natural, i.e. an individual is either a male with an XY
chromosome or a female with XX chromosome. Gender was assumed to be social and a product of one's natural (sexual) identity. It is generally assumed that those who have primary and secondary sexual characteristics will also fall into the gender category of a man or a woman.

3. In a common sense understanding, 'sex' and 'gender' are assumed to coincide, i.e. those with the physical characteristics of females will be like women, and those with physical characteristics of males will be like men.

4. Oakley defined sex based on anatomical and physiological characteristics and gender as socially constructed masculinity and femininity. She said one becomes a man or a woman through social and cultural processes. In this understanding of sex and gender, one assumes that gender will automatically follow from sex.

2.2

1. Gendered socialisation means the learning of gender roles. It is important to understand how one becomes a man or a woman. Through socialisation, one learns the norms associated with one's gender. This implies that they understand and perform these roles through socialisation through agents like the family, peer group and mass media.

2. Consciously, the children are taught gender-appropriate ways of conducting themselves.

3. Passive socialisation is powerful in learning gender roles. It takes place through observations and is unconsciously learnt.

2.3

1. Parents treat their children in different ways, have a very strong impact on gendered socialisation. Through a system of rewards and punishments, parents reinforce certain patterns of behaviour.

2. The roles that women and men play within the family and society also have a powerful impact on gendered socialisation. Children, while growing up, observe their mother and father and others in their extended families. Likewise, they observe their roles in the household and society.

3. When boys play girlish games and behave like girls, and when girls behave and play like boys, this is referred to as cross-gender play.
2.4

1. The peer group, too, influences the pattern of socialisation. For example, it is visible in sex-segregated play, i.e. boys and girls do not typically play with one another and play separately.

2. Socialisation through peer groups is more dialogic and less authoritative. However, on the other hand, socialisation by parents is more authoritative.

2.5

1. The media that influence socialisation are radio, television, computer games and films.

2.6

1. The name of the book by Whiting and Whiting is Children of Six Cultures: A Social Psychological Analysis. It compared child-rearing practices in six cultures - North America, the Philippines, Mexico, India, Kenya and Japan.

2. Whiting and Whiting's findings revealed that the goal of all parents was to teach children how to survive, develop family attachment and learn appropriate gender roles.

2.7


2. These societies were the Arapesh, Mundugumor and Tchambuli.

3. Amongst the Arapesh, men and women were equal. There were no clearly defined roles for both. There was a single-sex pattern. Men and women were both peaceful and nurturing. They were gentle, loving and cooperative. Men, for example, at the time of childbirth, imitate their wives and took to bed. Both of them 'bear a child'. Boys and girls are raised to follow these traits.

4. The men and women amongst the Mundugumor were both aggressive and warlike. They were ex-cannibals and were arrogant, fierce and warrior-like. Pregnancy and child-rearing as activities were disliked. Both men and women were masculine.

5. Women are aggressive and dominant among the Tchambuli (also called Chambri). The women caught fish and also travelled to trade fish. The men were not aggressive.
Instead, they primed and preened and also emulated female maternal roles.

2.8

1. In all societies, boys are expected to behave in a certain manner. For example, they are expected to be strong and aggressive. This form of dominant sexuality is known as hegemonic masculinity.

2. In all societies, women are expected to behave in a specific manner. For example, women are expected to be caregivers and perform roles inside the homes. This form of dominant sexuality is known as hegemonic femininity for women.

3. Girls who behave like boys in their society are called tomboys.

Some women, too, may not behave as per the expectations of the dominant forms of femininity. For example, some women may like to be brave and adventurous. As a result, they are referred to as tomboys. Such behaviour is tolerated till girls attain puberty; after that, through the negative sanctions, they are forced to conform to the dominant norms of being a girl.

2.9

1. A transgender person is an individual who differs from their assigned sex. For example, there are trans men and Trans women.

2. Cisgenders are people whose gender identity matches their assigned sex.

3. The behaviour process according to a particular gender is called 'doing gender'. So, for example, a biological man can pass off as a woman and vice versa.

2.10

1. Intersex people are individuals who have both male and female genitalia. Intersex people are born with sex characteristics that lie between those typical males and typical females.

2. Older terms include the word hermaphrodite.

2.11

1. Sexual orientation refers to a person's sexual and romantic attraction.

2. There are four types of sexual orientations:
   i. Heterosexuality
   ii. Homosexuality
iii. Bisexuality

iv. Asexuality

3. Transgender may be homosexuals, heterosexuals, bisexuals or asexuals. In addition, their sexual orientation may be a combination of one or more types.