Performing Gender Identity: 
Young Men's Talk and the 
Construction of Heterosexual Masculinity

Deborah Cameron

Introduction

In 1990, a 21-year-old student in a language and gender class I was teaching at a college in the southern USA tape-recorded a sequence of casual conversation among five men; himself and four friends. This young man, whom I will call 'Danny', had decided to investigate whether the informal talk of male friends would bear out generalizations about 'men's talk' that are often encountered in discussions of gender differences in conversational style - for example that it is competitive, hierarchically organized, centres on ' impersonal' topics and the exchange of information, and foregrounds speech genres such as joking, trading insults and sports statistics.

Danny reported that the stereotype of all-male interaction was borne out by the data he recorded. He gave his paper the title 'Wine, women, and sports'. Yet although I could agree that the data did contain the stereotypical features he reported, the more I looked at it, the more I saw other things in it too. Danny's analysis was not inaccurate, his conclusions were not unwarranted, but his description of the data was (in both senses) partial: it was shaped by expectations that caused some things to leap out of the record as 'significant', while other things went unremarked.

I am interested in the possibility that Danny's selective reading of his data was not just the understandable error of an inexperienced
analyst. Analysis is never done without preconceptions, we can never be absolutely non-selective in our observations, and where the object of observation and analysis has to do with gender it is extraordinarily difficult to subdue certain expectations.

One might speculate, for example, on why the vignettes of ‘typical’ masculine and feminine behaviour presented in popular books like Deborah Tannen’s You Just Don’t Understand (1990) are so often apprehended as immediately recognizable. Is it because we have actually witnessed these scenarios occurring in real life, or is it because we can so readily supply the cultural script that makes them meaningful and ‘typical’? One argument for the latter possibility is that if you reverse the genders in Tannen’s anecdotes, it is still possible to supply a script which makes sense of the alleged gender difference. For example, Tannen remarks on men’s reluctance to ask for directions while driving, and attributes it to men’s greater concern for status (inquiring for help suggests helplessness). But if, as an experiment, you tell people it is women rather than men who are more reluctant to ask for directions, they will have no difficulty coming up with a different and equally plausible explanation – for instance that the reluctance reflects a typically feminine desire to avoid imposing on others, or perhaps a well-founded fear of stopping to talk to strangers.

What this suggests is that the behaviour of men and women, whatever its substance may happen to be in any specific instance, is invariably read through a more general discourse on gender difference itself. That discourse is subsequently invoked to explain the pattern of gender differentiation in people’s behaviour; whereas it might be more enlightening to say the discourse constructs the differentiation, makes it visible as differentiation.

I want to propose that conversationists themselves often do the same thing I have just suggested analysts do. Analysts construct stories about other people’s behaviour, with a view to making it exemplify certain patterns of gender difference; conversationists construct stories about themselves and others, with a view to performing certain kinds of gender identity.

Identity and Performativity

In 1990, the philosopher Judith Butler published an influential book called Gender Trouble: Feminism and the Subversion of Identity. Butler’s essay is a postmodernist reconceptualization of gender, and it makes use of a concept familiar to linguists and discourse analysts from speech-act theory: performativity. For Butler, gender is performative – in her suggestive phrase, ‘constituting the identity it is purported to be’. Just as J. L. Austin (1961) maintained that illocutions like ‘I promise’ do not describe a pre-existing state of affairs but actually bring one into being, so Butler claims that feminine and masculine are not what we are, nor traits we have, but effects we produce by way of particular things we do: ‘Gender is the repeated stylization of the body, a set of repeated acts within a rigid regulatory frame which congeal over time to produce the appearance of substance, of a “natural” kind of being’ (p. 33).

This extends the traditional feminist account whereby gender is socially constructed rather than ‘natural’, famously expressed in Simone de Beauvoir’s dictum that ‘one is not born, but rather becomes a woman’. Butler is saying that ‘becoming a woman’ (or a man) is not something you accomplish once and for all at an early stage of life. Gender has constantly to be reaffirmed and publicly displayed by repeatedly performing particular acts in accordance with the cultural norms (themselves historically and socially constructed, and consequently variable) which define ‘masculinity’ and ‘femininity’.

This ‘performatve’ model sheds an interesting light on the phenomenon of gendered speech. Speech too is a ‘repeated stylization of the body’, the ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ styles of talking identified by researchers might be thought of as the ‘congealed’ result of repeated acts by social actors who are striving to constitute themselves as ‘proper’ men and women. Whereas sociolinguistics traditionally assumes that people talk the way they do because of who they (already) are, the postmodernist approach suggests that people are who they are because of (among other things) the way they talk. This shifts the focus away from a simple cataloguing of differences between men and women to a subtler and more complex inquiry into how people use linguistic resources to produce gender differentiation. It also obliges us to attend to the ‘rigid regulatory frame’ within which people must make their choices – the norms that define what kinds of language are possible, intelligible and appropriate resources for performing masculinity or femininity.

A further advantage of this approach is that it acknowledges the instability and variability of gender identities, and therefore of the behaviour in which those identities are performed. While Judith Butler rightly insists that gender is regulated and policed by rather rigid social norms, she does not reduce men and women to automata, programmed by their early socialization to repeat forever the
appropriate gendered behaviour, but treats them as conscious agents who may – albeit often at some social cost – engage in acts of transgression, subversion and resistance. As active producers rather than passive reproducers of gendered behaviour, men and women may use their awareness of the gendered meanings that attach to particular ways of speaking and acting to produce a variety of effects. This is important, because few, if any, analysts of data on men’s and women’s speech would maintain that the differences are as clear-cut and invariant as one might gather from such oft-cited dichotomies as ‘competitive/cooperative’ and ‘report talk/rapport talk’. People do perform gender differently in different contexts, and do sometimes behave in ways we would normally associate with the ‘other’ gender. The conversation to which we now turn is a notable case in point.

The Conversation: Wine, Women, Sports ... And Other Men

The five men who took part in the conversation, and to whom I will give the pseudonyms Al, Bryan, Carl, Danny and Ed, were demographically a homogeneous group: white, middle-class American suburbanites aged 21, who attended the same university and belonged to the same social network on campus. This particular conversation occurred in the context of one of their commonest shared leisure activities: watching sports at home on television.6

Throughout the period covered by the tape-recording there is a basketball game on screen, and participants regularly make reference to what is going on in the game. Sometimes these references are just brief interpolated comments, which do not disrupt the flow of ongoing talk on some other topic; sometimes they lead to extended discussion. At all times, however, it is a legitimate conversational move to comment on the basketball game. The student who collected the data drew attention to the status of sport as a resource for talk available to North American men of all classes and racial/ethnic groups, to strangers as well as friends, suggesting that ‘sports talk’ is a typically ‘masculine’ conversational genre in the US, something all culturally competent males know how to do.

But ‘sports talk’ is by no means the only kind of talk being done. The men also recount the events of their day – what classes they had and how these went; they discuss mundane details of their domestic arrangements, such as who is going to pick up groceries; there is a debate about the merits of a certain kind of wine; there are a couple of longer narratives, notably one about an incident when two men sharing a room each invited a girlfriend back without their roommate’s knowledge – and discovered this at the most embarrassing moment possible. Danny’s title ‘Wine, women, and sports’ is accurate insofar as all these subjects are discussed at some length.

When one examines the data, however, it becomes clear there is one very significant omission in Danny’s title. Apart from basketball, the single most prominent theme in the recorded conversation, as measured by the amount of time devoted to it, is ‘gossip’: discussion of several persons not present but known to the participants, with a strong focus on critically examining these individuals’ appearance, dress, social behaviour and sexual mores. Like the conversationalists themselves, the individuals under discussion are all men. Unlike the conversationalists, however, the individuals under discussion are identified as ‘gay’.

The topic of ‘gays’ is raised by Ed, only a few seconds into the tape-recorded conversation (6):6

---
Ex: Mugsy Bogues (...) my name is Lloyd Gompers I am a homosexual (...) you know what the (...) I saw the new Remnant I should have grabbed you know the title? Like the head thing?

‘Mugsy Bogues’ (the name of a basketball player) is an acknowledgment of the previous turn, which concerned the on-screen game. Ed’s next comment appears off-topic, but he immediately supplies a rationale for it, explaining that he ‘saw the new Remnant’ – The Remnant being a deliberately provocative right-wing campus newspaper whose main story that week had been an attack on the ‘Gay Ball’, a dance sponsored by the college’s Gay Society.

The next few turns are devoted to establishing a shared view of the Gay Ball and of homosexuality generally. Three of the men, Al, Bryan and Ed, are actively involved in this exchange. A typical sequence is the following (14–16):

---
Al: gays=
Ed: =gays why? that’s what it should read [gays why?]
Bryan: [gays]
[1 know]

What is being established as ‘shared’ here is a view of gays as alien (that is, the group defines itself as heterosexual and puzzled by homosexuality (‘gays, why?’)), and also to some extent comical.
Danny comments at one point, ‘it’s hilarious’, and Ed caps the sequence discussing the Gay Ball (23–5) with the witticism:

Ed: the question is who wears the boutonnière and who wears the corsage, flip for it? or do they both just wear flowers coz they’re fruits

It is at this point that Danny introduces the theme that will dominate the conversation for some time: gossip about individual men who are said to be gay. Referring to the only other man in his language and gender class, Danny begins (27):

DANNY: My boy Ronnie was uh speaking up on the male perspective today () way too much

The section following this contribution is structured around a series of references to other ‘gay’ individuals known to the participants as classmates. Bryan mentions ‘the most effeminate guy I’ve ever met’ (29) and ‘that really gay guy in our Age of Revolution class’ (34). Ed remarks that ‘you have never seen more homos than we have in our class. Homos, dykes, homos, dykes, everybody is a homo or a dyke’ (64). He then focuses on a ‘fat, queer, goofy guy ... [who’s] as gay as night [sic] (78–80), and on a ‘blond hair, snide little queer weird shit’ (98), who is further described as a ‘butt pirate’. Some of these references, but not all, initiate an extended discussion of the individual concerned. The content of these discussions will bear closer examination.

‘The Antithesis of Man’

One of the things I initially found most puzzling about the whole ‘gays’ sequence was that the group’s criteria for categorizing people as gay appeared to have little to do with those people’s known or suspected sexual preferences or practices. The terms ‘butt pirate’ and ‘butt cutter’ were used, but surprisingly seldom; it was unclear to me that the individuals referred to really were homosexual, and in the one case where I actually knew the subject of discussion, I seriously doubted it.

Most puzzling is an exchange between Bryan and Ed about the class where ‘everybody is a homo or a dyke’, in which they complain that ‘four homos’ are continually ‘hitting on’ [making sexual overtures to] one of the women, described as ‘the ugliest-ass bitch in the history of the world’ (82–9). One might have thought that a defining feature of a ‘homo’ would be his lack of interest in ‘hitting on’ women. Yet no one seems aware of any problem or contradiction in this exchange.

I think this is because the deviance indicated for this group by the term ‘gay’ is not so much sexual deviance as gender deviance. Being ‘gay’ means failing to measure up to the group’s standards of masculinity or femininity. This is why it makes sense to call someone ‘really gay’: unlike same- versus other-sex preference, conformity to gender norms can be a matter of degree. It is also why hitting on an ‘ugly-ass bitch’ can be classed as ‘homosexual’ behaviour – proper masculinity requires that the object of public sexual interest be not just female, but minimally attractive.

Applied by the group to men, ‘gay’ refers in particular to insufficiently masculine appearance, clothing and speech. To illustrate this I will reproduce a longer sequence of conversation about the ‘really gay guy in our Age of Revolution class’, which ends with Ed declaring: ‘he’s the antithesis of man’.

BRYAN: uh you know that really gay guy in our Age of Revolution class who sits in front of us? he wore shorts again, by the way, it's like 42 degrees out he wore shorts again [laughter] [Ed: That guy] it's like a speedo, he wears a speedo to class () he's got incredibly skinny legs [Ed: it's worse] you know= Ed: =you know

like those shorts women volleyball players wear? it's like those () it's like

BRYAN: [you know what's even more ridiculous? when Ed: [French cut spandex]]

BRYAN: you wear those shorts and like a parka on ... (5 lines omitted)

BRYAN: he's either got some condition that he's got to like have his legs exposed at all times or else he's got really good legs= Ed: =he's probably he's like Carl: [he really likes]

BRYAN: =he Ed: =he's like at home combing his leg hairs= Carl: his legs=
stereotypical notions of ‘men’s talk’ concern its formal features. Analyses of men’s and women’s speech style are commonly organized around a series of global oppositions, e.g. men’s talk is ‘competitive’, whereas women’s is ‘cooperative’; men talk to gain ‘status’, whereas women talk to forge ‘intimacy’ and ‘connection’; men do ‘report talk’ and women ‘rapport talk’. Analysts working with these oppositions typically identify certain formal or organizational features of talk as markers of ‘competition’ and ‘cooperation’ etc. The analyst then examines which kinds of features predominate in a set of conversational data, and how they are being used.

In the following discussion, I too will make use of the conventional oppositions as tools for describing data, but I will be trying to build up an argument that their use is problematic. The problem is not merely that the men in my data fail to fit their gender stereotype perfectly. More importantly, I think it is often the stereotype itself that underpins analytic judgements that a certain form is cooperative rather than competitive, or that people are seeking status rather than connection in their talk. As I observed about Deborah Tannen’s vignettes, many instances of behaviour will support either interpretation, or both; we use the speaker’s gender, and our beliefs about what sort of behaviour makes sense for members of that gender, to rule some interpretations in and others out.

Cooperation

Various scholars, notably Jennifer Coates (1989), have remarked on the ‘cooperative’ nature of informal talk among female friends, drawing attention to a number of linguistic features which are prominent in data on all-female groups. Some of these, like hedging and the use of epistemic modals, are signs of attention to others’ face, aimed at minimizing conflict and securing agreement. Others, such as latching of turns, simultaneous speech where this is not interpreted by participants as a violation of turn-taking rights (cf. Edelsky, 1981), and the repetition or recycling of lexical items and phrases across turns, are signals that a conversation is a ‘joint production’: that participants are building on one another’s contributions so that ideas are felt to be group property rather than the property of a single speaker.

On these criteria, the conversation here must be judged as highly cooperative. For example, in the extract reproduced above, a strikingly large number of turns (around half) begin with ‘you know’ and/or contain the marker ‘like’ (‘you know like those shorts women volleyball players wear?’). The functions of these items (especially
'like') in younger Americans' English are complex and multiple, and may include the cooperative, mitigating/face-protecting functions that Coates and Janet Holmes (1984a) associate with hedging. Even where they are not clearly hedges, however, in this interaction they function in ways that relate to the building of group involvement and consensus. They often seem to mark information as 'given' within the group's discourse (that is, 'you know', 'like', 'X' presupposes that the addressee is indeed familiar with X); 'you know' has the kind of hearer-oriented affective function (taking others into account or inviting their agreement) which Holmes attributes to certain tag-questions; while 'like' in addition seems to function for these speakers as a marker of high involvement. It appears most frequently at moments when the interactants are, by other criteria such as intonation, pitch, loudness, speech rate, incidence of simultaneous speech, and of 'strong' or taboo language, noticeably excited, such as the following (82-9):

ED: he's I mean he's like a real artsy fartsy laker he's like (indeciph) he's so gay he's got this like really high voice and wire rim glasses and he sits next to the ugliest-ass bitch in the history of the world

ED: [and]
BRYAN: [and they're all hitting on her too, like four

ED: [I know it's like four homos hitting on her
BRYAN: [guys (hitting on her

It is also noticeable throughout the long extract reproduced earlier how much latching and simultaneous speech there is, as compared to other forms of turn transition involving either short or long pauses and gaps, or interruptions which silence the interruptee. Latching – turn transition without pause or overlap – is often taken as a mark of cooperation because in order to latch a turn so precisely onto the preceding turn, the speaker has to attend closely to others' contributions.

The last part of the reproduced extract, discussing the 'really gay' guy's legs, is an excellent example of jointly produced discourse, as the speakers cooperate to build a detailed picture of the legs and what is worn on them, a picture which overall could not be attributed to any single speaker. This sequence contains many instances of latching, repetition of one speaker's words by another speaker (Ed recycles Carl's whole turn, 'he really likes his legs', with added emphasis), and it also contains something that is relatively rare in the conversation as a whole, repeated tokens of hearer support like 'yes' and 'that's right'.

There are, then, points of resemblance worth remarking on between these men's talk and similar talk among women as reported by previous studies. The question does arise, however, whether this male conversation has the other important hallmark of women's gossip, namely an egalitarian or non-hierarchical organization of the floor.

**Competition**

In purely quantitative terms, this conversation cannot be said to be egalitarian. The extracts reproduced so far are representative of the whole insofar as they show Ed and Bryan as the dominant speakers, while Al and Carl contribute fewer and shorter turns (Danny is variable; there are sequences where he contributes very little, but when he talks he often contributes turns as long as Ed's and Bryan's, and he also initiates topics). Evidence thus exists to support an argument that there is a hierarchy in this conversation, and there is competition, particularly between the two dominant speakers, Bryan and Ed (and to a lesser extent Ed and Danny). Let us pursue this by looking more closely at Ed's behaviour.

Ed introduces the topic of homosexuality, and initially attempts to keep 'ownership' of it. He cuts off Danny's first remark on the subject with a reference to *The Remnant*: 'what was the article? cause you know they bash 'em they were like'. At this point Danny interrupts: it is clearly an interruption because in this context the preferred interpretation of 'like' is quotative (see note 7) – Ed is about to repeat what the gay-bashing article in *The Remnant* said. In addition to interrupting so that Ed falls silent, Danny contradicts Ed, saying 'they didn't actually (.) cut into them big'. A little later on during the discussion of the Gay Ball, Ed makes use of a common competitive strategy, the joke or witty remark which 'caps' other contributions (the 'flowers and fruits' joke at 23-5, quoted above). This, however, elicits no laughter, no matching jokes and indeed no take-up of any kind. It is followed by a pause and a change of direction if not of subject, as Danny begins the gossip that will dominate talk for several minutes.

This immediately elicits a matching contribution from Bryan. As he and Danny talk, Ed makes two unsuccessful attempts to regain the floor. One, where he utters the prefatory remark 'I'm gonna be very honest' (20), is simply ignored. His second strategy is to ask (about
Performing Gender Identity

59

The global competitive/cooperative opposition also encourages the lumping together under one heading or the other of things that could in principle be distinguished. ‘Cooperation’ might refer to agreement on the aims of talk, respect for other speakers’ rights or support for their contributions; but there is not always perfect co-occurrence among these aspects, and the presence of any one of them need not rule out a ‘competitive’ element. Participants in a conversation or other speech event may compete with each other and at the same time be pursuing a shared project or common agenda (as in ritual insult sessions); they may be in severe disagreement but punctiliously observant of one another’s speaking rights (as in a formal debate, say); they may be overtly supportive, and at the same time covertly hoping to score points for their supportiveness.

This last point is strangely overlooked in some discussions of women’s talk. Women who pay solicitous attention to one another’s face are often said to be seeking connection or good social relations rather than status; yet one could surely argue that attending to others’ face and attending to one’s own are not mutually exclusive here. The ‘egalitarian’ norms of female friendship groups are, like all norms, to some degree coercive: the rewards and punishments precisely concern one’s status within the group (among women, however, this status is called ‘popularity’ rather than ‘dominance’). A woman may gain status by displaying the correct degree of concern for others, and lose status by displaying too little concern for others and too much for herself. Arguably, it is gender-stereotyping that causes us to miss or minimize the status-seeking element in women friends’ talk, and the connection-making dimension of men’s.

How to do Gender with Language

I hope it will be clear by now that my intention in analysing male gossip is not to suggest that the young men involved have adopted a ‘feminine’ conversational style. On the contrary, the main theoretical point I want to make concerns the folly of making any such claim. To characterize the conversation I have been considering as ‘feminine’ on the basis that it bears a significant resemblance to conversations among women friends would be to miss the most important point about it, that it is not only about masculinity, it is a sustained performance of masculinity. What is important in gendering talk is the ‘performative gender work’ the talk is doing; its role in constituting people as gendered subjects.

Deconstructing Oppositions

One response to the problem of competing interpretations raised above might be that the opposition I have been working with – ‘competitive’ versus ‘cooperative’ behaviour – is inherently problematic, particularly if one is taken to exclude the other. Conversation can and usually does contain both cooperative and competitive elements: one could argue (along with Grice, 1975) that talk must by definition involve a certain minimum of cooperation, and also that there will usually be some degree of competition among speakers, if not for the floor itself then for the attention or the approval of others (see also Hewitt, chapter 2).
To put matters in these terms is not to deny that there may be an empirically observable association between a certain genre or style of speech and speakers of a particular gender. In practice this is undeniable. But we do need to ask: in virtue of what does the association hold? Can we give an account that will not be vitiated by cases where it does not hold? For it seems to me that conversations like the one I have analysed, for example, are not mediated by the content of the speakers' conversation. Women do not do 'women's talk', because they simply do not know how, looking lame and unconvincing. If men rarely engage in a certain kind of talk, an explanation is called for; but if they do engage in it even very occasionally, an explanation in terms of pure ignorance will not do.

I suggest the following explanation. Men and women do not live on different planets, but are members of cultures in which a large amount of discourse about gender is constantly circulating. They do not only learn, and then mechanically reproduce, ways of speaking 'appropriately' to their own sex; they learn a much broader set of gendered meanings that attach in rather complex ways to different ways of speaking, and they produce their own behaviour in the light of those meanings.

This behaviour will vary. Even the individual who is most unambiguously committed to traditional notions of gender has a range of possible gender identities to draw on. Performing masculinity or femininity 'appropriately' cannot mean giving exactly the same performance regardless of the circumstances. It may involve different strategies in mixed and single-sex company, in private and in public settings, in the various social positions (parent, lover, professional, friend) that someone might regularly occupy in the course of everyday life.

Since gender is a relational term, and the minimal requirement for 'being a man' is 'not being a woman', we may find that in many circumstances, men are under pressure to constitute themselves as masculine linguistically by avoiding forms of talk whose primary association is with women/femininity. But this is not invariant, which begs the question: under what circumstances does the contrast with women lose its salience as a constraint on men's behaviour? When can men do so-called 'feminine' talk without threatening their constitution as men? Are there cases when it might actually be to their advantage to do this?

When and Why do Men Gossip?

Many researchers have reported that both sexes engage in gossip, since its social functions (like affirming group solidarity and serving as an unofficial conduit for information) are of universal relevance, but its cultural meaning (for us) is undeniably 'feminine'. Therefore we might expect to find most men avoiding it, or disguising it as something else, especially in mixed settings where they are concerned to mark their difference from women (see Johnson and Finlay, chapter 7). In the conversation discussed above, however, there are no women for the men to differentiate themselves from; whereas there is the perceived danger that so often accompanies Western male homosexuality: homosexuality. Under these circumstances perhaps it becomes acceptable to transgress one gender norm ('men don't gossip, gossip is for girls') in order to affirm what in this context is a more important norm ('men in all-male groups must unambiguously display their heterosexual orientation').

In these speakers' understanding of gender, gay men, like women who provide a contrast group against whom masculinity can be defined. This principle of contrast seems to set limits on the permissibility of gossip for these young men. Although they discuss other men besides the 'gays' - professional basketball players - they could not be said to gossip about them. They talk about the players' skills and their records, not their appearance, personal lives or sexual activities. Since the men admire the basketball players, identifying with them rather than against them, such talk would border dangerously on what for them is obviously taboo: desire for other men.

Ironically, it seems likely that the despised gay men are the only men about whom these male friends can legitimately talk among themselves in such intimate terms without compromising the heterosexual masculinity they are so anxious to display - though in a different context, say with their girlfriends, they might be able to discuss the basketball players differently. The presence of a woman, especially a heterosexual partner, displaces the dread spectre of homosexuality, and makes other kinds of talk possible; though by the same token her presence might make certain kinds of talk that take place among men impossible. What counts as acceptable talk for men is a complex matter in which all kinds of contextual variables play a part.

In this context - a private conversation among male friends - it could be argued that to gossip, either about your sexual exploits with women or about the repulsiveness of gay men (these speakers do both), is not just one way, but the most appropriate way to display heterosexual masculinity. In another context (in public, or with a larger and less close-knit group of men), the same objective might be achieved through explicitly agonistic strategies, such as yelling abuse at women or gays in the street, or exchanging sexist and homophobic jokes. Both strategies could be said to do performative
gender work: in terms of what they do for the speakers involved, one is not more ‘masculine’ than the other, they simply belong to different settings in which heterosexual masculinity may (or must) be put on display.

Conclusion

I hope that my discussion of the conversation I have analysed makes the point that it is unhelpful for linguists to continue to use models of gendered speech which imply that masculinity and femininity are monolithic constructs, automatically giving rise to predictable (and utterly different) patterns of verbal interaction. At the same time, I hope it might make us think twice about the sort of analysis that implicitly seeks the meaning (and sometimes the value) of an interaction among men or women primarily in the style, rather than the substance, of what is said. For although, as I noted earlier in relation to Judith Butler’s work, it is possible for men and women to performatively subvert or resist the prevailing codes of gender, there can surely be no convincing argument that this is what Danny and his friends are doing. Their conversation is animated by entirely traditional anxieties about being seen at all times as red-blooded heterosexual males: not women and not queers. Their skill as performers does not alter the fact that what they perform is the same old gendered script.

Transcription conventions

Horizontal sequencing of utterances represents (impressionistically) their relative arrangement in time.

Other symbols used:

= latching
[ turn onset overlaps previous turn
[ ] turn is completely contained within another speaker’s turn
? rising intonation on utterance
( ) short pause
(indeciph) indecipherable speech
itales emphatic stress on italicized item

Notes

1 Because the student concerned is one of the speakers in the conversation I analyse, and the nature of the conversation makes it desirable to conceal participants’ identities (indeed, this was one of the conditions on which the data were collected and subsequently passed on to me), I will not give his real name here, but I want to acknowledge his generosity in making his recording and transcript available to me, and to thank him for a number of insights I gained by discussing the data with him as well as by reading his paper. I am also grateful to the other young men who participated. All their names, and the names of other people they mention, have been changed, and all pseudonyms used are (I hope) entirely fictitious.

2 I base this assessment of reader response on my own research with readers of Tannen’s book (see Cameron, 1995a, ch. 5), on non-scholarly reviews of the book, and on reader studies of popular self-help generally (e.g. Lichterman, 1992; Simonds, 1992).

3 I am indebted to Penelope Eckert for describing this ‘thought experiment’, which she has used in her own teaching (though the specific details of the example are not an exact rendition of Eckert’s observations).

4 The German linguist Karsta Frank (1992) has provocatively argued that so-called gender differences in speech-style arise exclusively in reception: women and men are heard differently, as opposed to speaking differently. I do not entirely accept Frank’s very strong position on this point, but I do think she has drawn attention to a phenomenon of some importance.

5 I mention that this was ‘at home’ because in the United States it is also common for men, individually or in groups, to watch televised sports in public places such as bars and even laundromats; but this particular conversation would probably not have happened in a public setting with others present. It appears to be a recurrent feature of male friends’ talk that the men are engaged in some other activity as well as talking. The Swedish researcher Kerstin Nordenstam, who has an impressive corpus comprising data from twelve different single-sex friendship groups, has found that the men are far less likely than the women to treat conversation as the exclusive or primary purpose of a social gathering. Many of the women’s groups recorded for Nordenstam were ‘sewing circles’ — a traditional kind of informal social organization for women in Sweden — but they frequently did not sew, and defined their aim simply as ‘having fun’; whereas the men’s groups might meet under no particular rubric, but they still tended to organize their talk around an activity such as playing cards or games. (Thanks to Kerstin Nordenstam for this information.)

6 Numbers in parenthesis refer to the lines in the original transcript.

7 For example, like has a ‘quotative’ function among younger US speakers, as in ‘and she’s like [= she said], stop bugging me, and I’m like, what do you mean stop bugging you?’. This and other uses of the item have