



Integrating Intersectionality in Language, Gender, and Sexuality Research

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Abstract

In this paper, I argue for the need to integrate intersectionality theory more fully in language, gender, and sexuality research. I outline the basic principles of what an intersectional approach to identity and identity-linked speech entails, focusing particularly on the belief that an adequate description of lived experience, and hence social practice, requires us to consider the ways in which multiple systems of social categorization (e.g., gender and sexuality, race/ethnicity, social class, and place) intersect with one another in dynamic and mutually constitutive ways. I review research on the linguistic perception and production of gender and sexuality that has adopted an intersectional perspective to date and argue that while certain aspects of the theory have long had a foothold in work in this area, the field's engagement with the full ramifications of intersectionality as an analytical framework has been partial. I conclude with suggestions about how to anchor a more comprehensive approach to intersectionality in sociolinguistic research.

1. Introduction: *The Inadequacy of Isolated Categories in Sociolinguistic Analysis*

Sociolinguistic research over the past 20 years has been characterized by an increasingly sophisticated use of social theory and, as a result, the development of a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between individuals, society, and observed patterns of language variation and change (see, e.g., Carter 2013). Many (though certainly not all) of the theoretical innovations in this regard first appeared in work devoted to the study of language, gender, and sexuality before spreading to other areas of sociolinguistic inquiry (Queen 2014), including the argument that language variation can be a form of strategic social practice (Eckert 1989a, 1989b; Eckert and McConnell-Ginet 1992; Holmes and Meyerhoff 1999), that such practice is made possible by virtue of an already existing network of ideological links between linguistic forms and social meanings (Gal 1978; Ochs 1992; Barrett 1997), and that it is through engaging in this type of semiotic maneuvering that speakers materialize relevant presentations of self in interaction (Livia and Hall 1997; Cameron and Kulick 2003, 2005; Bucholtz and Hall 2004, 2005). In this paper, I discuss another more recent theoretical innovation that was first introduced to sociolinguistics in research on language, gender, and sexuality: *intersectionality theory*, or the belief that no one category (e.g., 'woman' or 'lesbian') is sufficient to account for individual experience or behavior. I describe how the adoption by an increasing number of language, gender, and sexuality researchers of an intersectionality perspective – a perspective that was itself originally developed in the 1980s by Black feminist scholars and others working on the sociology of gender and ethnic divisions (e.g., hooks 1981; Anthias and Yuval-Davis 1983) – has begun to allow work in this area to provide a more robust account of socially meaningful variation. I argue, moreover, that, like the innovations that came before it, an intersectionality approach stands to have broad ramifications for sociolinguistic theory more generally, well beyond the confines of research focusing specifically on gender and sexuality where it emerged.

As Carter (2013) notes, one of the principal benefits of sociolinguistics' engagement with contemporary social theorizing has been the ability to overcome a false dichotomy between 'structure' and 'agency' in our analyses. What this means is that we do not have to view linguistic practice *either* as a reflex of pre-determined social categories and forces *or* as resulting from the autonomous actions of individuals behaving solely in accordance with their own beliefs and desires. Rather, we can model the ways in which socially meaningful uses of language are the product of what Coupland (2007: 82) terms 'constrained freedom', determined by *both* the various predispositions about language and social life to which we have been socialized (i.e., our 'speech community norms') *and* the agentive choices we make about how to negotiate these normative expectations (e.g., Bourdieu 1979, 1991; Bell 2001; Coupland 2007; Levon 2009; see also Levon and Mendes, forthcoming). Yet despite this, our analyses have tended to remain relatively beholden to explanations grounded in unitary categories of lived experience (Trechter 2003; Morgan 2004, 2007; Lanehart 2009). Thus, while we have developed sophisticated accounts of how particular linguistic forms come to take on gendered meanings, for example, and of how those meanings are then recruited by speakers in interaction, we have been somewhat less attentive to the fact that those gendered meanings are also simultaneously classed, raced, and region- and age-specific (not to mention a host of other such 'specificities') and that when recruiting these forms in talk speakers draw on all of these underlying social connotations together. In other words, I suggest that the analysis of social meaning in much of sociolinguistics has been largely compartmentalized to date, separated into distinct foci of gender/sexuality, race/ethnicity, class, region, etc. While perhaps a useful heuristic early on, this analytical separation has ultimately become detrimental to the further development of the field since it obscures the ways in which different categories of experience (like 'gender' and 'ethnicity') inform and constitute one another (for a somewhat similar argument with regard to race/ethnicity, see Becker 2014; Blake 2014). It is this compartmentalization that intersectionality theory allows us to address by providing us with a framework for understanding the totality of inter-locking social forces that underlie linguistic practice.

In making these claims, I do not mean to imply that sociolinguistic research has been totally uninterested in the question of intersecting social categories. As I mentioned above, a number of language, gender, and sexuality researchers have already adopted an intersectional approach, and certain aspects of intersectionality theory have had a foothold in language and gender studies for some time (see, e.g., discussion in Mallinson 2009). Therefore, what I am arguing for is a fuller and more sustained engagement with intersectionality theoretic principles throughout the field. I should also note that my comments in this regard are focused primarily on work in the variationist paradigm, since research grounded in linguistic anthropological and (critical) discourse analytic perspectives has tended to be more amenable to intersectional considerations (e.g., Leap and Boellstorff 2004; McElhinny 2007; Mendoza-Denton 2008; Bucholtz 2011; Milani 2013, 2014). Finally, it is also important to distinguish between *intersections*, as I use the term here, and the concept of *interactions* as it is normally understood in (quantitative) sociolinguistics (e.g., Labov 1972; Trudgill 1974). To that end, and to help clarify my arguments more generally, I turn in the next section to a definition of intersectionality and a brief outline of intersectionality theory. In Section 3, I review a number of studies on the linguistic production and perception of gender and sexuality that have engaged with aspects of intersectionality in their analyses. I conclude in Section 4 with suggestions for how to integrate a more comprehensive approach to intersectionality in our research going forward, and I illustrate these proposals with a discussion of recent work that has been conducted on language and sexuality.

2. Intersectionality Theory

Intersectionality theory has been described as the 'most important theoretical contribution that women's studies has made' (McCall 2005: 1771) – it is a concept that has become a 'buzzword'

across the humanities and social sciences for how to understand and theorize individual experiences and the larger social structures within which those experiences are located (Davis 2008). This by no means implies that intersectionality is a unified social theory. There are numerous debates about the framework's key concepts, including discussions of how best to conceptualize intersections themselves and how to methodologically implement intersectional analyses (McCall 2005; Phoenix 2006; Yuval-Davis 2006; Hancock 2007; Weldon 2008; Choo and Ferree 2010). For purposes of the current discussion, I abstract away from some of this theoretical complexity and focus on the basic principles that all forms of intersectional analysis share.

At its core, intersectionality theory asserts that both our own, inner understandings of self and the kinds of access, opportunity and treatment we receive are the product of multiple and intersecting systems of social classification. This basic premise emerged in reaction to the perceived exclusionary and homogenizing tendencies of much second-wave feminist theorizing, which, while it purported to represent a collective 'woman's' perspective, principally reflected the preoccupations and experiences of White, middle-class, heterosexual women (Zack 2007; Ferree 2011). The notion that race, class, and national origin can combine with gender to produce a variety of different 'standpoints' (Collins 1990) thus began to gain currency in a number of fields (e.g., Davis 1981; hooks 1981; Hull, Scott, and Smith 1982; Anthias and Yuval-Davis 1983, 1992; Bryan, Dadzie, and Scafe 1985; James 1986). The term 'intersectionality' was itself coined by Crenshaw (1989), a legal theorist, in a discussion of the inadequacy of non-discrimination protections available to Black women. In her work, Crenshaw describes how Black women may occasionally suffer discrimination in ways analogous to all Black individuals and hence be protected by legislation that prohibits discrimination on the basis of race. In other cases, Black women may suffer discrimination in ways analogous to other women and hence be protected by legislation that prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex. But, crucially, Crenshaw argues that in certain instances, Black women experience discrimination as *Black women*, not as the additive effects of discrimination based on race and gender but as a specific instantiation of an irreducible intersection of the two categories together. According to Crenshaw, it is this kind of intersectional experience that anti-discrimination law is ill-equipped to handle. Though originally focused on principles of legal doctrine, Crenshaw's arguments in this regard helped to highlight intersectionality as a general and unavoidable fact of life, one which scholars have been trying to construct adequate models of ever since.

We can distill from the literature three basic underlying tenets of an intersectionality theoretic approach. The first tenet reflects Crenshaw's original insight and maintains that *lived experience* is ultimately intersectional in nature. If it is the goal of our research to understand how social forces inform and constrain observed practice, then it is incumbent upon us to place this intersectional complexity at the heart of our analyses. In practice, this is achieved by working to identify the multiplicity of categories, ideologies, and forces that undergird any observed social phenomenon, or as Matsuda (1991: 1189) puts it 'asking the other question':

When I see something that looks racist, I ask, "Where is the patriarchy in this?" When I see something that looks sexist, I ask, "Where is the heterosexism in this?" When I see something that looks homophobic, I ask, "Where are the class interests in this?"

A deceptively simple method on the surface (Davis 2008), the very fact of asking 'other questions' like these forces us to go beyond the analysis of categories in isolation and instead to consider how those categories intersect with equally important others.

The second tenet of intersectionality theory is that intersections are *dynamic*, and emerge in specific social, historical, and interactional configurations. This means that it is not possible to describe a stable or universal condition indicated by the intersection of gender and race, for

example, but rather that we must attend to the ways in which different social histories, interpersonal motivations, and local ideological expectations shape the imbrication of categories of experience in real-world empirical encounters. Methodologically, the principle of dynamism pushes us to adopt a process-centered approach to intersectionality, one in which we explore how practices (be they institutional or individual) contribute to the racializing and gendering, for instance, of specific individuals, activities, and representations (Staunæs 2003). The importance of dynamism has led some scholars to argue that ‘intersectionality’ itself is too static a metaphor for the process described and to propose alternative terms, such as social dynamics (Cooper 2004), axes of difference (Yuval-Davis 2006), and assemblages (Puar 2007). Despite these proposals, however, the term intersectionality has been largely retained since it intuitively captures the crux of the framework (Yuval-Davis 2011).

The final tenet of intersectionality theory is that these (dynamic) categories not only intersect but also *mutually constitute* one another (e.g., Choo and Ferree 2010). In certain respects, this is the boldest (and most contentious) aspect of the framework (cf. Crenshaw 2011) since it asserts that intersections are not to be viewed as ‘crossroads’ of two or more discrete and already existing categories but rather that intersections are themselves formative of the categories in question. In other words, mutual constitution maintains that constructs such as class, race, and gender do not exist as entities unto themselves. Instead, they crucially depend for their meaning on their relationship to the other categories with which they intersect. Thus, there is no ‘gender effect’ to be discovered and analyzed; there is only the effect of gender in relation to class, race, etc. This is an admittedly strong formulation of mutual constitution, and many scholars have argued for the need to adopt an ‘intersections-plus’ model (Weldon 2008), where we recognize the existence of unitary ‘main effects’ of categories in addition to the effects of their intersections (e.g., Walby 2009; Choo and Ferree 2010; Yuval-Davis 2011). Yet even with the retention of the main effects, the concept of mutual constitution remains one of the principal innovations of intersectionality theory since it forces us to go beyond an analysis of *interacting* categories and to look instead at *intersecting* ones (Shields 2008). The difference between an interaction and an intersection is that in the case of the former, there is a necessary assumption of independence between the categories in question. So while we can enter both gender and social class, for example, as predictors in a quantitative model, we are required to assume that each of these factors can (at least in theory) have an independent effect on whatever dependent variable we investigate. And though in our quantitative analyses, we may find evidence of a significant interaction between factors, the interaction only serves to pinpoint places where the two factors mutually effect the outcome of the dependent variable, and say nothing (and indeed cannot say anything) about how the factors themselves are inter-dependent on one another. In short then, the concept of mutual constitution pushes the envelope of intersectionality further and asks us to identify not only how a gendered act, for example, may also be raced or classed but also how gender as a system of social organization is itself ultimately articulated in race- or class-based terms.

Together, these three principles make intersectionality theory a powerful framework for the analysis of identity-linked practice. And while it is true that it can be challenging to implement intersectionality fully in behavioral research (Shields 2008; Choo and Ferree 2010), I have argued previously (Levon 2011) that recent developments in so-called ‘third wave’ sociolinguistic theorizing – particularly the belief that the social meanings of variable forms are under-specified and only emerge when recruited by speakers in the context of interactionally relevant styles (e.g., Eckert 2008, 2012) – make variationist sociolinguistics well-suited for doing so. In the remainder of this paper, I review some of the research by language, gender, and sexuality scholars that has engaged with intersectionality theory to date before turning to suggestions about how to anchor intersectionality theoretic principles more fully in our analyses.

3. *Approaching Intersectionality in Language, Gender, and Sexuality Research*

From very early on, certain strands of research on language, gender, and sexuality argued against the belief that gender or sexuality as a category has a uniform effect on language use. Milroy (1980), for example, describes how changes in the vowel system of Belfast in the 1970s were driven by the intersection of gender, ethnicity (Catholic versus Protestant), and occupation-linked social networks. Similarly, Nichols (1978) documents how the use of different morphosyntactic features among Black women in coastal South Carolina is constrained by the women's geographic location and the kinds of social and economic opportunities available to them in these places. This finding leads Nichols to argue that the key factor in accounting for the women's uses of language is not so much their gender *per se* as it is the roles and opportunities that their gender affords them in their local communities (for a similar argument in a different ethnographic context, see Gal 1978). Eckert's (1989a, 1989b) classic study of jocks and burnouts in a Detroit-area high school makes very much the same point, demonstrating how gender intersects with local, class-linked affiliations to determine the social and interactional goals that speakers have, and the types of language they use to achieve them.

Building on this foundational work, and taking advantage of the possibilities afforded by more socially nuanced theories of variation (e.g., Eckert and McConnell-Ginet 1992; Livia and Hall 1997), research in language, gender, and sexuality began to focus more explicitly on the interrelations between gender/sexuality and other relevant categorizations. The most extensive body of research in this area has been on the intersection of gender and race/ethnicity, though the majority of work on this topic has not been specifically variationist in nature. Nevertheless, a number of key studies have identified specific linguistic features and strategies that speakers use to position themselves at the junction of different gendered and racial/ethnic positions, including Barrett's (1995, 1997) research on appropriation and language play among African American drag queens; Morgan's (1996, 2004, 2007) work on African American women's speech practices; Bucholtz's (1999, 2001, 2011) discussions of gender and Whiteness; Pichler's (2008, 2009) ethnography of a group of young Bangladeshi girls in London; and Davis' (2014) recent analysis of gender, sexuality, and 'indigeneness' among two-spirit Native Americans. From a quantitative perspective, the most sustained engagement with language at the intersection of gender and ethnicity can be found in Mendoza-Denton's (e.g., 2008, 2011) long-term examination of language use among Latina gang members in Northern California. In this body of work, Mendoza-Denton has carefully documented how the girls she studies vary a number of linguistic features (in conjunction with other social practices) to construct and position gendered articulations of self that are themselves grounded in the girls' ethnic, classed, and gang-based affiliations (see also Fought 1999). Finally, work on the intersection of gender/sexuality and ethnicity has also begun to emerge in perception research. In a recent study, Pharo and colleagues (2014) discuss how the identification of a voice as sounding 'gay' in Danish depends on its perceived ethnicity, such that non-White-sounding voices are never perceived as 'gay' even when they contain the same sexuality-linked linguistic features as White-sounding voices.

Closely related to work on ethnicity is research that has explored the intersection of gender/sexuality and socio-political imaginings of place, and particularly the nation. Once again, there is far more work on this topic in linguistic anthropology than in (quantitative) sociolinguistics, including Kulick's (1993) work on language and gender among the Gapun in Papua New Guinea and his later work on Brazilian *travesti* (Kulick 1998); Besnier's (2002, 2003, 2004) analyses of *leiti* in Tonga; Inoue's (2002, 2006) historical genealogy of Japanese women's language; and Boellstorff's (2004, 2005) discussion of gays and lesbians in Indonesia. Nevertheless, there are a number of studies in this area from within sociolinguistics that deserve

mention. Wong (2005, 2008a, 2008b; Wong and Zhang 2000) has written extensively on the politics of labeling practices among lesbians and gays in Hong Kong, where he argues that the use of terms such as *tongzhi* emerges from a particular articulation of gender, power, and the politics of sexuality in the region. Similarly, my work on language and sexuality in Israel (Levon 2009, 2010, 2012, 2014a) demonstrates how lesbian and gay Israelis use patterns of prosodic and lexical variation to position themselves in relation to differing conceptualizations of Zionism and Israeli nationalism. Linguistic positionings of self in relation to different national and supra-national ideologies is also the focus of Zhang's (2005, 2007, 2008) research on gender, 'cosmopolitanism' and phonological variation in Beijing. On a sub-national level, a recent study by Podesva and Van Hofwegen (forthcoming) investigates /s/ variation among lesbian and gay speakers in rural Shasta County in Northern California. In that paper, they describe how local ideologies of what it means to be 'country' (Hall-Lew and Stephens 2012) lead lesbian and gay speakers in the area to avoid gender non-normative practices, including the acoustic fronting of /s/. Finally, there is a small but growing body of work on the perception of sexuality in different national and cultural contexts, including in Puerto Rico (Mack 2010), Hawaii (Drager 2011), the Southern US (Mann 2012), and Hungary (Rác and Schepács 2013; Rác and Papp forthcoming), among other locations.

Along with race/ethnicity and place, a third major intersection with gender and sexuality that has been explored in the literature is social class. Moore (2004, 2010) and Moore and Podesva (2009), for example, describe how girls in a high school in Bolton (in the north of England) selectively recruit both class- and gender-linked variants (e.g., non-standard subject-verb agreement and tag questions) so as to position themselves within different communities of practice. Moore's arguments in this regard are reminiscent of Eckert's (e.g., 1989a) discussion of the jock and burnout girls (mentioned above) as well as Kiesling's (1998) claims about how men in fraternities in the US draw on stereotypes of working-class speech to create hegemonically masculine presentations of self. Mallinson (2006) and Mallinson and Childs (2007) likewise discuss how two communities of Black women in rural Appalachia draw on different elements of African American English and Southern American English to differentiate themselves from one another along both class-based and religious lines. In her work on Glasgow, Stuart-Smith (2007) makes the converse claim, arguing that young working-class women produce more 'masculine' articulations of /s/ so as to display their working-class status and so distance themselves from their middle-class counterparts (see also Levon and Holmes-Elliott 2013). Hall's (2005, 2009) research on language use among *hijras*, *kotis*, and *boys* in India also highlights how the variable use of gendered linguistic forms and strategies enables speakers to divide themselves into separate groups in what are essentially class-based ways.

Finally, another prominent area in the field has been research on the intersection of gender, sex, and sexuality themselves. This issue has been central to much of the work in sociolinguistic perception, where scholars have investigated how language cues different gradations of the combination of gender and sexuality (e.g., Smyth, Jacobs, and Rogers 2003; Munson et al. 2006; Munson 2007; Mack and Munson 2012). There has been less research in this regard on the production side of things (Levon 2011), though Zimman's (2013, 2014a, 2014b) work on language variation among transmen is a notable exception. In a series of studies using ethnographic, variationist, and discourse analytic methods, Zimman details how categories of gender, sex, and sexuality come together for his participants in empirically distinct ways, and he traces the specific phonetic, prosodic, and textual strategies through which the transmen he studies take up and embody a variety of different masculine selves.

Though selective, the preceding review provides a flavor of the types of engagement with intersectionality theory we find in the language, gender, and sexuality literature (for more extensive reviews of work in this field beyond my specific focus on intersectionality, see Queen 2013, 2014). We see that scholars have investigated the relationship between language and

gender/sexuality in a variety of social, national, and cultural contexts and have been sensitive to how different aspects of social life (such as ethnicity and social class) can constrain and inform how people experience gender and sexuality. Despite this, I nevertheless argue that the field's engagement with intersectionality theory has been partial at best and that we have yet to fully embrace the implications of intersectionality as an analytical framework. In nearly all of the studies reviewed above, the approach to intersectionality that is adopted is one of 'content specialization' (Choo and Ferree 2010), or what McCall (2005) terms 'intra-categorical' intersectionality, whereby broader categorizations like 'woman' are rejected in favor of more specific articulations (e.g., Latina woman or working-class Latina woman). In other words, studies in the field of language, gender, and sexuality have tended to investigate the intersection of gender/sexuality and other categories by examining points of contacts between individual levels of the categories in question. So, gender and race, for example, are examined via a consideration of Black women's practice, or sexuality and region via an analysis of the language used by rural gay men. This type of intra-categorical approach is central to what intersectionality is about, and it serves a crucial theoretical, empirical, and political role in bringing to light a variety of lived experiences that would otherwise be obscured (Crenshaw 1989, 1991; Morgan 2004). But, this is not the entirety of what intersectionality has to offer. Though an intra-categorical approach succeeds in responding to the first principle of intersectionality described above (i.e., the need to examine the intersectional reality of lived experience), it risks paying less attention to the two remaining principles: the dynamic and mutually constitutive nature of intersections themselves (Davis 2008; Choo and Ferree 2010). I therefore suggest that the way to take intersectionality forward in language, gender, and sexuality research is to move beyond a solely intra-categorical approach and to turn our attention to dynamism and mutual constitution as equally important components of the theory.

Before describing what I have in mind in a bit more detail in the next section, I should reiterate that my comments about the state of intersectionality within the field are a generalization and that there are a number of studies that have integrated a more comprehensive understanding of the theory in their analyses (e.g., Mallinson 2006; Mendoza-Denton 2008; Bucholtz 2009). I nevertheless maintain that, on the whole, the critique still applies and particularly with respect to research on language and gender/sexuality within the variationist paradigm. I note, moreover, that my arguments echo recent comments by Eckert (2014) on the use of binary divisions when coding for gender and sexuality in quantitative research. There, Eckert describes the danger of 'fractal recursivity', or 'nesting the terms of the binary within each side of the binary', in language and gender studies, since 'fractals offer a magnification of the ideology that maintains the binary rather than a glimpse at the broader dynamics that constitute gender' (2014: 530). What Eckert is saying is that an intra-categorical approach (i.e., fractal recursivity) does not give us access to the ways in which categories themselves are constituted. Thus, though she does not cast it in these terms, Eckert essentially makes a very similar point to the one that I make here, and argues for a broader integration of intersectionality theoretic principles in our research.

4. *Intersectional Sociolinguistics: Future Directions*

I propose that we can achieve the goal of integrating intersectionality more fully by combining a focus on marginalized lived experiences with a sustained examination of the ways that linguistic practices linked to one category are used to constitute another. What I mean by this is that we need to go beyond an investigation of solely 'gendered' or 'sexual' features to also include an analysis of features normally associated with other social systems (e.g., race/ethnicity, social class, and place) and of how those features are recruited in the construction and perception of different

sexual and gendered positionings. I illustrate what this kind of approach entails with two brief examples, one drawn from work on perception and the other from a study of strategic stylistic production.

Campbell-Kibler (2011) considers how reactions to the ING variable in the US, a feature that is normally evaluated in terms of region, social class, and overt prestige (Campbell-Kibler 2007), intersects with perceptions of /s/-fronting, a variable that has been argued to index gay sexuality in men's voices (e.g., Munson 2007). As we would expect, Campbell-Kibler finds that listeners rate recordings of men using the velar [ɪŋ] variant as sounding more 'competent' than recordings with the alveolar [ɪn] form. Likewise, listeners also rate men producing fronter articulations of /s/ as sounding 'gayer' than recordings of those same men producing backer versions. In addition, Campbell-Kibler identifies a general negative correlation between perceptions of gayness and perceptions of competence in her sample, such that voices judged as sounding 'gayer' are, on average, also judged as sounding less 'competent'. But an interesting thing happens when listeners evaluate recordings that contain both /s/-fronting and the velar [ɪŋ] variant. In these cases, Campbell-Kibler discovers that some listeners rate the speaker as sounding both 'gay' and 'competent'. In other words, the general trend of judging gay-sounding voices as lacking in competence (and competent-sounding voices as not being 'gay') disappears for certain listeners when the two features are presented together. Campbell-Kibler interprets this pattern to indicate that the listeners in question are basing their evaluation on stereotypical representations of a particular type of man: the highly educated/competent gay man. In doing so, the listeners reject the more widespread correlation between competence and heterosexual masculinity and instead allow for the perceptual possibility of a man who is both gay and competent. This finding is interesting for the current discussion because it demonstrates how listeners use the evaluation of language on one dimension (perceived competence) to help constitute their evaluation of another (perceived sexuality). The point is that Campbell-Kibler does not find that [ɪŋ] is an index of gay male sexuality (or at least not directly). Rather, she finds that [ɪŋ] is an index of 'competence' and that, for certain listeners, sounding competent helps to constitute what it means to sound gay (see Levon 2014b for a similar investigation in a different context and Munson et al. 2006 for a discussion of other traits that may contribute to the perception of male sexuality).

Podesva (2011) provides another example of how gay male sexuality can be constituted via linguistic variables that are recruited from a different system of social categorization. For Podesva, this other category is region, specifically features associated with the California Vowel Shift (CVS). Four components of the CVS are considered: BOOT-fronting, BOAT-fronting, BAN-raising, and BAT-backing. Podesva examines these features in the speech of Regan, a 31-year-old gay Asian American man in San Francisco. Regan's speech is sampled in three contexts: at a 'boys night out' with other gay male friends in the Castro district of San Francisco; at dinner with Regan's close friend Anthony; and in a meeting with Regan's supervisor at work. Podesva finds a consistent pattern of variation across these three contexts. During the 'boys night out', Regan displays the most advanced realizations of the CVS features, with significantly fronted BOOT and BOAT, raised BAN, and backed BAT. In the meeting with his supervisor, in contrast, Regan's vowels are the most conservative; BOOT and BOAT are further back, BAN is not raised, and BAT sits well front of the BOT vowel. Finally, at dinner with his friend, Regan produces intermediate realizations of all four vowels – they are significantly more CVS-shifted than in the meeting with his supervisor but significantly less so than during the 'boys night out'. In analyzing this pattern, Podesva argues that we must consider the ways in which CVS features have become enregistered (Agha 2007) as indices of the 'fun', 'laidback', and 'carefree' personalities stereotypical of Californians. Despite the fact that the use of CVS features in Regan's speech tracks the general 'gayness' of the contexts (where more advanced CVS features are used

the more explicitly 'gay' the contexts get), Podesva maintains that establishing a link between these features and the indexation of a 'monolithic notion of gay identity is far too large a leap to make' (2011: 42). Instead, Podesva claims that the connection between the CVS and sexuality is grounded in Regan's drawing on the enregistered meanings of these features (e.g., 'fun' and 'laidback') to help him constitute a 'gay partier' persona in certain settings. In other words, Regan does not use the CVS to index his sexuality directly. Rather, the CVS (in combination with other relevant features, such as pitch and intonation) allows Regan to construct a 'gay partier' persona that is itself constituted by its intersection with ideologies of what it means to be 'Californian'.

Though not explicitly framed in terms of intersectionality theory by the author, Podesva's (2011) arguments, like those of Campbell-Kibler (2011), illustrate the kind of analytical focus on dynamism and mutual constitution that I am advocating for here. In both studies, the authors consider how linguistic features that are not directly related to gender or sexuality come to be used in the production and perception of sexual selves. By doing so, the studies are able to investigate how the relevant sexualities themselves are constituted by other categories at particular social and interactional moments – how there currently exists in the US a gay male persona that is defined, at least in part, by his 'competence' and a different gay male persona defined by his 'carefree' and 'laidback' nature. In short, the examples I give here allow us to understand not only *how* sexual personae are linguistically materialized (i.e., in terms of which linguistics features are used) but also *why* those variables participate in their emergence in the ways that they do.¹ And though both of the examples I give involve gay male sexuality, I believe that the analytical approach that they illustrate can (and should) be applied much more broadly.

This is not to say that the approach I am outlining should necessarily apply to all sociolinguistic research. I take it as a given that integrating intersectionality theory is part of a larger project of investigating the relationship between language and identity (however defined), and thus, my comments are directed to those for whom this is an analytical goal. Yet for those scholars who are interested in identity-linked speech, I am arguing that we need to take a more expansive approach to 'asking the other question' (Matsuda 1991) – that it is not enough to ask how a particular linguistic practice may be raced or classed, for example, in addition to be gendered, but that we also need to ask why the raced and classed meanings of certain forms make them available for the constitution of gender. In other words, I think we need to go beyond assuming that an African American English (AAE) feature, for example, will always (or only) be doing something that is race/ethnicity related, or that a 'country' feature will always (or only) be doing something related to place. We also need to be asking how speakers may use AAE or 'country' to enact gender and sexuality and consider what that use can tell us about the relationship between race/ethnicity or place and gender/sexuality more broadly. It is, therefore, not coincidental that the studies I use to illustrate the key concepts of dynamism and mutual constitution are both grounded in a third-wave approach to language variation. As I have argued previously (Levon 2011), a third-wave conceptualization of social meaning as indexically under-specified is what opens up an analytical space for intersectional analysis to proceed. Intersectional analysis itself then entails working to trace the links between the different elements of a variant's indexical field so as to understand how the different stances and social categories associated with a feature come to mutually constitute one another.²

Ultimately, I am arguing that language, gender, and sexuality scholars need to take race, class, and a host of other relevant categories seriously. I suggest that the way we should do this is not by simply adding these other categories into the empirical mix but instead by centering our analyses on the social, historical, ideological, and linguistic *relationships* between these categories and the different lived articulations of gender and sexuality we study. I believe that only once we have broadened our focus in this way will we be able to say that we have fully integrated intersectionality theory in language, gender, and sexuality research.

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Short Biography

Erez Levon is a Senior Lecturer in Linguistics at Queen Mary University of London. His work uses quantitative, qualitative, and experimental methods to examine patterns of socially meaningful variation in language. He primarily focuses on the relationship between language and gender/sexuality and the ways in which gender and sexuality intersect with other social categorizations (particularly nation and social class). He is the author of *Language and the politics of sexuality: Lesbians and gays in Israel* (Palgrave, 2010) and the co-editor of *Language, sexuality and power: Studies in intersectional sociolinguistics* (OUP, 2015).

Notes

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¹ A reviewer points out that the argument I am making here about features being recruited for the construction and presentation of sexual selves resonates in important ways with the literature on characterological figures in linguistic anthropology (e.g., Agha 2007; Bucholtz 2009; Johnstone 2013). That research suggests that linguistic features take on meaning in the context of broader ideologies about relevant social personae and that what listeners attend to in language are not disembodied identity categories but the indexation of known character types. This view is wholly consistent with the approach I advocate for here, though I would argue that what is needed to operationalize a focus on characterological figures is a method for teasing apart how those figures are constituted in the first place. In other words, while I agree that personae are the ideological vehicles through which beliefs about language circulate, I maintain that intersectionality helps us to look underneath the surface of personae to see their component parts and thus better understand how and why particular linguistic features come to be associated with these person types.

² Though I do not focus on it here, an important part of tracing the links between a variant's different social meanings is an analysis of the power relations that enable and/or constrain the formation of these links to begin with. A focus on the power relations involved in different intersectional configurations is also a central component an intersectionality theoretic approach. For more details on this point, see Levon and Mendes (forthcoming).

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