Sex Equity and Sexuality in Education: Breaking the Barriers

Susan Shurberg Klein*

Sex equity and sexuality are not new topics to educators, but relatively little attention has been given to their combination. The contributors to *Sex Equity and Sexuality in Education* believe that it is necessary for educators to increase their understanding of ways in which sex education can be sex equitable and ways in which sexuality contributes to sex inequities in general education. The discussions in these chapters show why it is important to break the barriers of silence, confusion, and disunity to enable females and males of all ages to receive equal opportunities and outcomes in and through education.

Identifying the Barriers

*Silence* and *invisibility* are barriers to sex equity and sexuality. In her article on “Silencing in Public Schools,” Michelle Fine describes her reactions to being told that she could do research in a low-income urban high school if she didn’t mention the words “dropping out,” because the principal said, “I firmly believe that if you say it, you encourage them to do it.” In her field notes, Michelle Fine wrote, “I thought, adults should be so lucky, that adolescents wait for us to name dropping out, or sex, for them to do it.” She later observes “How could one continue to believe . . . that naming is dangerous and not naming safe?” (Fine 1987, 159). *Sex Equity and Sexuality in Education* is intended to name and identify important education issues that people have been afraid to mention in public or to take out of hiding. Some of these issues, such as “silencing,” are so subtle that only the astute ethnographic observers will see them. Both “breaking

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the silence" and the "asexual female" are used in chapter titles and throughout this book.

In addition to purposefully not paying attention to important sex equity and sexuality issues, there has been substantial confusion about what these concepts mean. Thus, the introductory chapters are intended to help break through the barrier of confusion by defining concepts, expanding our understanding of diverse contexts (historical, geographical, cultural, and philosophical), and identifying goals for sex equity and sexuality in education. All the chapters then build on these concepts as they cover their special topics, ranging from homosexuality to mentor-protege relationships.

The third barrier is disunity, even among those who agree that educational equity and effective sexuality education are important. Educators who work in sex equity and those who work in sexuality rarely work together. Similarly, they have not developed joint goals about what to teach students about the appropriateness of various types of sexual behaviors and if or how educators should try to change sex differences in these behaviors to create more equity in interactions and in how these interactions affect educational attainment. This book is an attempt to work toward unity and to establish consensus goals where none existed. A prime example of this is chapter 5, where Mariamne Whatley collaborated with the other authors to develop "Goals for Sex Equitable Sexuality Education." The chapters in Part IV provide examples of how educators can address sex equity and sexuality with united, simultaneous solutions.

There is substantial evidence that sex equity and sex education experts have gone their separate ways and generally either ignored or distanced themselves from each other. Most sex educators in the United States have not explicitly taught sex equitable sexual attitudes, knowledge, and behavior. Thus, they often reinforced the "double standard" or inaccurate stereotypes about females and males. Similarly, advocates of sex equity in education have generally avoided dealing with sexuality. This particularly disappointed one type of consumer. Myra Sadker found that adult bookstores returned many preordered copies of the first U. S. book on sex equity in education, Sexism in School and Society (Frazier and Sadker 1973), apparently because it lacked sexually explicit material. The lack of attention to sexuality was also noted in major syntheses of research on sex equity and education as recently as the 1985 Handbook for Achieving Sex Equity through Education (Klein) and the 1986 "Sex Equity and Education" issue of Theory into Practice (Klein). Neither of these compendiums of
research syntheses included an article on sex education, and about the only mention of the role of sexuality in sex discrimination in education was in conjunction with sexual harassment (Klein 1988a).

The "coupling" of sex education and sex equity experts is a natural development based on the evolution of each discipline area, some common experiences and interests, and heightened public awareness of problems dealing with both. In many respects, both sex education and sex equity are recent concerns of educators in the United States, have engendered some public controversy, and are sometimes confused with each other because of their common key word, sex. Many of the advocates of each are viewed as progressive or liberal educators, and both disciplines are based on research and practical policy and curriculum strategies to accomplish their respective goals.

Today, both fields have matured to the point that they have their own identities and are able to accommodate each other's goals and do not need to avoid each other to escape additional public controversy. In the 1970's teen pregnancy was rarely addressed by sex equity advocates who wanted to avoid public controversy related to sex education, but by 1986 the federal Women's Educational Equity Act Program announced teen pregnancy as a priority funding topic. Although there is no consensus on sex education or sex equity strategies, public pressure is increasing for educators to deal with both. This is particularly noticeable in regard to current "hot" issues. For example, there is more emphasis on providing quality childcare and instruction that protects children from sexual abuse in and outside the educational setting. Similarly, educators have discovered that many female students at risk of dropping out of school are, or will become, pregnant. Educators have also become aware of how sexual harassment limits female achievement, particularly in nontraditional careers. Finally, there is substantial concern about maintaining student health by avoiding AIDS and other sexuality-related problems such as improper nutrition caused by female students' excessive dieting to increase their sexual attractiveness.

To surmount the barrier of disunity within the ranks of educators likely to have compatible goals and interests,** this book will provide insights on

1. how sex educators are giving increased attention to sex equity goals as a way to use sex education to solve sexuality-related problems, and
2. how sex equity advocates attend to increasingly subtle aspects of sex discrimination related to the positive and negative effects of sexuality on females' and males' educational opportunities and achievement.

The Importance of Examining Old and New Sex Equity and Sexuality Issues

Sex equity and sexuality are important to both educators and students. Both topics are subjects of public debate in the United States. Both are becoming increasingly visible after many decades of invisibility, and many aspects of each are influenced more by opinions and beliefs than by "proven" solutions that will work with various populations in the current environment.

The following is an example of how sex equity and sexuality affect some educators. As Dr. Charol Shakeshaft, a professor of education administration, said,

In my own work, I've found that sexuality is a major barrier to women in administration. One of the main reasons male superintendents give for not hiring women into positions which would require them to work together closely is that they are afraid of what might happen sexually. Because males and females don't interact much after about 3rd grade until they start to be sexually attracted to each other, they don't learn how to work together or be with each other in a non-sexual way. Males find this a big problem, but women are the ones who are penalized. Thus, if we could educate students about sexuality in addition to getting them to interact as "friends", we might make the workplace a better environment for girls when they grow up and take jobs. (Shakeshaft 1987)

Two changes in U.S. society are pressuring educators to attend to sex equity and sex education. The first is the expectation that women will continue to combine motherhood and careers and thus no longer be so economically dependent on men or valued for their fertility. Instead, women are becoming valued for their equal contributions to society. Legal aspects of this pressure for sex equity in education should be reinforced by the 1988 passage of the Civil Rights Restoration Act, which maintained the broad scope of Title IX, the major U.S. law that prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in education programs or activities that receive federal financial assistance. Sec-
ond, the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) along with the acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) have increased attention to sex education. This parallels the initial emergence of sex education curricula in the early 1900s when there was no known cure for other sexually transmitted diseases such as gonorrhea and syphilis (Rury, chapter 3). Thus, advocates of sex equity see the 1990s as a perfect time to insure that sex equity goals are included in new sex education efforts and that inappropriate reactions to sexuality are recognized as all-to-frequent impediments to equitable education, particularly for females. It is also noteworthy that sex equitable solutions, such as prevention programs for AIDS, sexual abuse, and teen pregnancy that counteract sex stereotypes, are often more effective than sex inequitable programs and practices (Fine 1988; Klein 1988a; Scales 1989; Whatley and Trudell 1989; and many chapters in this volume).

Finally, this book is needed because everyone has a responsibility to help policymakers and educators use evidence rather than opinion to attain sex equitable outcomes that are most likely to benefit our diverse society. In many cases there is emotion-laden controversy about how to attain generally agreed-upon outcome goals such as decreasing teen pregnancy. After identifying consensus-based outcome goals, people with opposing beliefs about sex equity and sexuality treatments should reconsider their selection of process goals based on evidence of what works best to attain the consensus-based outcome goal.

The Nature of This Book

After attending Dr. Susan Klein’s Willystine Goodsell Award Address Panel, “The Intersection of Sex Equity and Sexuality in Education,” at the 1987 American Educational Research Association Annual (AERA) Meeting in Washington, D.C., Dr. Catherine Marshall asked Dr. Klein and her colleagues to submit a proposal for a special issue of the Peabody Journal of Education, of which she was editor. This special issue, “Sex Equity and Sexuality in Education,” was published in 1989 but numbered as volume 64, number 4, 1987. Lois Patton, an editor at SUNY Press, invited the authors to submit a proposal to convert this journal issue into a book. In creating this book we have added some new chapters, and many of the authors updated and expanded their original articles. The authors have also benefited from feedback and discussions with their colleagues at sessions on the topic at the National Women’s Studies Association and the 1986 and 1988 annual meetings of the American Educational
Research Association (AERA), Special Interest Group: Research on Women and Education. At the 1989 AERA annual meeting in San Francisco, Dr. Lee Etta Powell, superintendent of Cincinnati public schools, and Dr. Barrie Thorne, Barbara Streisand Professor of Intimacy and Sexuality at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, served as discussants at an association tape-recorded symposium on “Ending the Practitioner and Researcher Conspiracy to Ignore the Role of Sexuality in Creating Sex Equitable Education.” Dr. Heather Johnston Nicholson, director of research for Girls, Inc. (formerly known as Girls Clubs), provided a thoughtful review of the Peabody Journal of Education issue in Equity and Excellence: The University of Massachusetts School of Education Quarterly, published in 1990.

The contributors to this book have used it as an opportunity to increase their own knowledge of sex equity and sexuality in education within their specialty areas, to advance knowledge in their respective disciplines of sex education and sex equity, and to work together to improve educational opportunities for females and males as they relate to sexuality. In developing the chapters, the authors reviewed research and practice related to their topics and in some cases collected new information using surveys or critical incident techniques. Both sex education and sex equity experts contributed to or reviewed each chapter. Many contributors and reviewers helped the lead authors by sending them information and reviewing drafts. This collaborative strategy helped the authors locate information and develop some consensus understandings about the critical sex equity and sexuality issues and solutions related to their topics. As appropriate, the authors describe issues or problems in each of their areas in terms of sex equity goals; discuss policy, program, and curriculum solutions; and suggest priorities for follow-up research and evaluation.

This book is divided into the following five parts:

I. Introductory Chapters. Four chapters provide intellectual, historical, and international perspectives on the topic of sex equity and sexuality in education.

II. Sex Equitable Sex Education. Four chapters describe goals for sex equitable sex education and address both formal and informal aspects of sexual development, teen pregnancy, and sex education.

III. Sexuality as a Factor in Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Education. Six chapters explore equity aspects of sexuality topics such as homosexuality and sexual harassment, and the role of sexu-
ality as it affects specific groups such as students in a mentor relationship, latchkey children, minority students, and physically disabled students.

IV. Ways to Address Sexuality and Sex Equity Simultaneously. Two chapters provide examples of promising solutions—to select sexuality education materials, and to help universities discourage sexual harassment.

V. Summary Recommendations for Educations. This chapter examines sex, sexism, and the preparation of educators.

The Concepts of Sexuality, Sex Education, and Sex Equity

To obtain a common understanding of sexuality, sex education, and sex equity, each concept will be described separately and interactively. Sexuality includes attitudes, values, and behaviors relating to "private" parts of the female and male bodies and related functions such as menstruation, as well as making love (physical sexual activities) or reproduction. Sex or sexuality education includes both the formal and informal curriculum dealing with biological and psychological aspects of sexuality and human sexual relationships such as "sexual development, reproductive health, interpersonal relationships, affection and intimacy, body image, and sex and gender roles" (SIECUS 1988). Sex equity is described in terms of goals for reducing undesirable sex differences (discrimination) and stereotyping during the education process and in the desired educational and societal outcomes (Klein 1985, 1987a, 1987b, 1988b). Although some researchers define "sex roles" as biologically determined and "gender roles" as socially constructed, authors of this journal issue generally followed the more commonly used definition of "sex roles" as culturally and socially constructed.

Figure 1.1 shows the relationships between these concepts. It is derived from a process-outcome model designed to measure the attainment of sex-equity goals (Klein 1985).

Formal sex education in part (1) is defined broadly to mean a school-sanctioned, sexuality-related policy or practice as well as direct instruction. Thus, formal sex education would include an assembly designed to help students learn about AIDS or a school policy relating to avoiding sexual harassment. Other sexuality includes activities that may happen in school, but that are not considered official school practices. Such activities may range from informal sex education (Best 1983), where children explore each others' private body
parts, to older students’ discussing their sexual experiences with their school friends or discriminating against a classmate because of sexual orientation. In chapter 10 Karen Bogart and colleagues describe this discrimination as one type of “gender-based harassment.”

Unlike parts (1) and (3), which focus on sexuality process and outcome goals, other educational policies, activities, and achievement in parts (2) and (4) do not deal explicitly with sexuality. For example, although sex differences in course selection (2) may contribute to sex inequities in math test scores (4), these factors are generally not directly concerned with sexuality.

In measuring the processes and outcomes in each of the four parts of figure 1.1, it is important to remember that they are on a continuum from sex equitable to sex inequitable in intent or effect. Requiring boys to wear pants and girls to wear skirts would be classified as (2) a general educational policy that is inequitable because it treats each sex differently. However, it should be noted that not all sex-inequitable educational processes result in sex-in equitable outcomes and that not all sex-equitable processes result in sex-equitable outcomes (Klein 1987b, 1988b). For example, male and female teens may benefit more from separate and different instruction about the ways to avoid teen parenthood than they would from coeducational equal instruction (Kirby 1989).

The following links help explain the relationship between sex education, sexuality, and sex equity and are used in organizing the chapters in Parts II and III.
"Link A" is between (1) sex education and other aspects of sexuality activities and (3) sex-education outcomes related to sexual attitudes, knowledge, and behavior. Link A is primarily addressed in Part II, "Sex Equitable Sex Education."

"Link B" between (1) sex education and other aspects of sexuality and (4) the achievement of (non-sexuality-related) academic outcomes, shows that sex education and other aspects of sexuality may have important effects on a student’s academic achievement. Sexual and homophobic harassment exemplify this link, as recipients often suffer academically. Link B is covered in Parts II, III, and IV.

"Link C" between (2) other educational policies and activities and (3) outcomes related to sexual attitudes, knowledge, and behavior shows that even those school activities that don’t seem to have anything to do with sex education and sexuality may still affect sexual outcomes. For example, if schools and parents don’t provide after-school care, latchkey children are likely to participate in sexual activity. Link C is primarily addressed in Part III.

"Link D" is between (2) other (non-sexuality-related) educational policies and activities and (4) (non-sexuality-related) educational achievement outcomes as they relate to decreasing sex discrimination and sex stereotyping. This describes most previous sex-equity research in education, which neglected sex education and sexuality. Except for providing contextual information, the authors were asked to limit their discussions relating to this link.

Highlights of Findings

Background on Culturally Derived Sexual Inequities in Education

In the United States and in other societies there have been many culturally derived inequities relating to sexuality. They include the following.

Equating sex to reproduction and valuing females for their reproductive abilities. Many believed that "sexual activity that has no chance of leading to reproduction has been and continues to be illegal, ‘immoral’ or somehow ‘just not right’ "(Greenberg and Campbell, chapter 2, p. 28). This belief is related to seeing the woman as valued property because she produces children (Greenberg and Campbell) and to denying women sexual knowledge and discouraging women from controlling their reproduction through artificial contraception or abortion. Some of these views may have influenced American physicians in the 1800s to see adolescent girls' valuable sexual
(reproductive) functions as so fragile that they should not be strained by serious study, particularly during the menstrual period. This view of women as the vulnerable and often "weaker sex" because of their special role in the reproductive process" was primarily a middle-class concern (Rury, chapter 3, p. 43). In the United States and in many other countries, pregnant girls or mothers were expelled from school, and even now, relatively few countries provide support services to help these women stay in school (Stromquist, chapter 4).

Seeing the male as the instinctual sexual initiator and the female as the passive, morally pure sex object. Many societies have viewed males as having little control over their sexual instincts and assume that men, not women, should expect pleasure from sex. At the same time they view wedlock and sexual attractiveness as more important for most females than for males (Greenberg and Campbell, chapter 2; Rury, chapter 3). Nelly Stromquist (chapter 4) points out that there is a widespread belief all over the world that women are passive and submissive sexual partners, a belief linked to being a selfless mother who gives all her energies to her family. In some countries the objective of limiting females’ sexual desire is surgically reinforced by female circumcision or removal of all or part of the clitoris.

In Victorian America, "Education for men... often was designed to control or to redirect their supposed sexual energy, while women’s education was intended to shield or protect them from the corrupting or otherwise threatening influences of the male world" (Rury, chapter 3, p. 46). Even when sex education became popular in the early 1900s, the sex-segregated sex-education classes continued to teach the double standard of male sexual desire and female passiveness (Rury, chapter 3). Nelly Stromquist, Selma Greenberg, and Patricia Campbell point out that females have been encouraged to fear male sexual aggression. This limits women’s freedom both physically and psychologically, so they often avoid traveling to educational facilities in "unsafe" male-dominated areas or at night, "presumably when male [sexual] control is weakest" (Greenberg and Campbell, chapter 2, p. 30).

The Importance of female, but not male, virginity. Nelly Stromquist (chapter 4, p. 58) states that "the notion of virginity is a convoluted ideology that makes marriage the sine qua non of women’s life, holds women responsible for their family’s honor, and gives men the supervision of women’s sexuality." Emphasis on virginity is tied to females’ value as reproductive "property" and is still very important in predominantly Moslem or Catholic countries in the Middle East and
Latin America. In Africa, Indonesia, and Malaysia, risks of females losing their virginity before marriage lead to infibulation, an extreme type of female circumcision that involves removal of the clitoris and labia and fastening the vulva together until marriage (Boston Women's Health Book Collective 1984). In many parts of the world it leads to keeping sexually mature or maturing girls away from males by keeping them either at home or in single-sex schools. Another response is early marriage, which also may remove girls from schools (Stromquist, chapter 4).

Having the female be sexually naive, yet sensitive to male needs and able to restrain or support male sexual performance as the situation demands. In fact, “the author of an early sex education manual [wrote] we teach the girl repression, the boy expression” (Rury, chapter 3, p. 45). In the late 1800s when young women outnumbered and outachieved young men in secondary schools, educators felt that boys' masculinity was threatened. To help boys harness their sexual energy and to help girls assume their helpmate roles, school programs were designed to provide athletics as an outlet for males, and separate curricula such as home economics and commercial education for girls. Simultaneously, some coeducation advocates felt that all students were sexually naive and believed that coeducational schools provided a "desexualized" environment where boys and girls took little erotic interest in one another" (Tyack and Hansot 1990). But more recent analyses of coeducational schools and classes acknowledge sexual tensions that are particularly detrimental to females. Thus, Selma Greenberg and Patricia Campbell (chapter 2, p. 30) describe how the socialization of girls to "affirm the male need for sexual mastery while simultaneously inhibiting the onset of sexual attack" has made it necessary for girls to develop a greater sensitivity to people. An equitable distribution of sexual responsibility and power should help males acquire these valuable human relations skills as well.

Implications for Sex-Equitable Sex Education

As Margaret Stubbs (1988) points out, most educators have limited professional experience in dealing with sexuality or sex education. Thus, they are likely to be so concerned with immediate issues, such as incorporating some sex education in the curriculum, that they may not be ready to attend to the additional subtle issues of sex-equitable sex education. The authors of the four chapters in Part II have provided powerful evidence to demonstrate why it is important to deal with sex equity when starting new sex-education programs or
improving those in place. They show how traditional sex-role stereotyping (such as double standards for male and female sexual behavior) created inequities in the development of equitable sexual attitudes, knowledge, and behavior. Many of these sexual inequities also lead to additional inequities for girls, such as mental health problems (Brooks-Gunn, chapter 6) or dropping out of school due to pregnancy (Cusick, chapter 7). On the positive side, the authors found that sex-equitable sex education leads to accurate sex education and that it contributes to decreases in teen pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and so on. To enhance equity in sexuality-related outcomes, Mariamne Whatley (chapter 5) and Marilyn Myerson (chapter 8) also suggest recognizing that females’ sexual pleasure and desire is as powerful and important as that of males and that educators should try to eliminate the “heterosexual assumption” and consciously avoid discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation.

Implications for Eliminating Sexuality as a Factor in Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Education

It is probably unrealistic to eliminate the role of sexuality as a subtle contributor to sex inequities in education in the near future, but understanding the problem is part of the solution. The authors of the six chapters in Part III contribute to this understanding by showing how various aspects of sexuality affect specific populations inequitably. In many cases, the inequities have negative effects on a broader population than the specific group. For example, Dolores Grayson (chapter 9) points out that homophobia is harmful to heterosexuals as well as to homosexuals. This is clearly demonstrated by many instances where males and females refrain from participating in certain sports or vocations that they may otherwise be interested in because they fear being labeled homosexual. Similarly, Karen Bogart (chapter 10) describes how students who observe sexual harassment of others may lose confidence in their school’s ability to provide a safe, positive learning environment.

While there is significant variation within and among members of specific groups, such as mentors and proteges, latchkey children, minority students, and disabled students, there are also some prevalent sex-equity and sexuality issues that may affect many in each of these specific populations somewhat similarly. In the case of mentors and proteges, Marilyn Haring and Michele Paludi (chapter 11) describe three different mentoring models and show how one, networking mentoring, is less likely to result in sexuality-related activities detrimental to the mentored student. Thomas Long and Lynette
Long (chapter 12) report that major sexuality influences for many latchkey children include distorted information about sex from unsupervised television viewing to increased likelihood of sexual activity with their siblings and peers. Although Nelly Stromquist's chapter in Part I showed how different cultural views of sexuality affected educational equity internationally, Saundra Murray Nettles and Diane Scott-Jones (chapter 13) found that subtle differences related to sexuality among various minority populations in the United States are much more difficult to identify. Although myths about the sexuality of minority adolescents abound, little is known about how these myths, as well as real group differences, affect racial integration and equal educational opportunities today. While the "temporarily able-bodied" teens and others have significant concerns about having their body shapes meet society's ideal to be sexually attractive (Brooks-Gunn, chapter 6), Corbett Joan O'Toole and Jennifer Bregante (chapter 14) describe how permanently physically disabled women find this "goal" particularly troublesome. Often their sexuality is ignored. In other cases, physically dependent disabled women may become victims of sexual abuse, even from their caregivers. As with all other populations, the disabled need sex-equitable sex education. Although Corbett Joan O'Toole is a community activist for the disabled, she was unable to find such a program or curriculum.

All six chapters in Part III demonstrate links between responses to sexuality and sex inequities in educational outcomes (Link B in figure 1.1) and show how general school policies often have a negative effect on attitudes, knowledge, and behavior about sexuality (Link C). With a few exceptions, such as the faint possibility that a mentor and protege will marry and be happy everafter, or the discussion of the need to see the disabled as sexual, rather than nonsexual, individuals, aspects of sexuality were not seen as positive influences on students' educational opportunities and outcomes (Link B). Similarly, other (non-sex-education) educational activities, such as school dances or coeducational physical education, were not seen as having a positive, equitable effect on students' sexual attitudes, knowledge, and behavior (Link C). It is hoped that future researchers of sex equity and sexuality will identify positive aspects of all these interactions. For example, as suggested by Sadker, Sadker and Shakeshaft (chapter 17), they may explore the role of student "crushes" on motivation to do well in class to impress a favorite teacher or student (Link B). Or they may explore how schools can implement policies that will foster the trend for group dates, which are likely to deemphasize the heterosexual pairing that results in early sexual intercourse. It is also hoped that these explorations of positive and
negative aspects of sexuality will continue to pay attention to the specific needs of these six, as well as other, populations, such as young children, adult learners, incarcerated students, migrant families, and sexually abused students.

Overcoming the Barriers

The chapters in Part IV provide some examples of specific remedies that educators can use to simultaneously promote sex equity and sexuality education in the areas of textbook selection and counteract sexual harassment in postsecondary education. Subsequent books such as Sexuality and the Curriculum (Sears, in Press) will include additional information on other viable solutions.

In the final chapter, Myra Sadker, David Sadker, and Charol Shakeshaft describe how sexuality influences educators in their relations with each other and their students. They also distill the key recommendations from all the articles on how educators should consciously attend to sexuality to ensure that sex equity is advanced.

In summary, as you read this book you will see how we are starting to develop a research and solutions base to provide educators with guidance on integrating sex equity and sexuality. We need to take even greater advantage of the current interest in improving both the formal and informal aspects of sex education related to the national recognition of the detrimental effects of teen pregnancy, sexual harassment, sexual abuse, and the need for people to avoid contacting AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases. But our efforts to break through these barriers are not easy. Our authors Myerson, Trudell, and Whatley have noted that although many sex educators proclaim that they are nonsexist and espouse liberal views, the frameworks and textbooks in most common use often reflect inequitable paternalistic views dominant in our society. Other chapters also reveal many benefits from learning how to attain sex-equitable sexual attitudes, knowledge, and behavior, just as the attainment of nonsexuality-related sex-equity goals helps continue progress toward achieving equity in and through education.

As you think about how you can help break these barriers of silence, confusion, and disunity to achieve equal education opportunity and outcomes, please contact the authors with your suggestions and join in building the knowledge and practice base in this important emerging area of sex equity and sexuality in education. Also remember that as we substitute the term gender equity for sex equity, we should heed Kathleen Barry’s recent warning and not let gender and
sex become "two different things again: the physical, physiological, and biological were sex; everything else was gender." So that "gender no longer had anything to do with being sexual. And sex no longer had anything to do with how we use sex and how sex is used to shape us" (Barry 1991, 84).

Notes

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**The authors realize that some individuals do not share their interests in having educators assume any roles in promoting sex equity or in providing sexuality education but hope that their chapters will help clarify issues for everyone so that some areas of common interest can be identified.

References


