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in the offer of a gift; acceptance implies a willingness to return a gift and a confirmation of the relationship. Gift exchange may also be the idiom [language] of competition and rivalry. There are many examples in which one person humiliates another by giving more than can be reciprocated. Some political systems, such as the Big Man systems of highland New Guinea, are based on exchange that is unequal on the material plane. An aspiring Big Man wants to give away more goods than can be reciprocated. He gets his return in political prestige.

Although both Mauss and Lévi-Strauss emphasize the solidary aspects of gift exchange, the other purposes [humiliating or getting prestige] served by gift-giving only strengthen the point that it is a ubiquitous means of social commerce. Mauss proposed that gifts were the threads of social discourse [communication], the means by which such societies were held together in the absence of specialized governmental institutions. "The gift is the primitive way of achieving the peace that in civil society is secured by the state.... Composing society, the gift was the liberation of culture." [that is, by creating a peaceful society, gift-exchange customs allowed culture to be free to develop]

Lévi-Strauss adds to the theory of primitive reciprocity [gift-giving] the idea that marriages are a most basic form of gift exchange, in which it is women who are the most precious gifts. He argues that the incest taboo should best be understood as a mechanism to insure that such exchanges take place between families and between groups. Since the existence of incest taboos is universal, but the content of their prohibitions variable, they cannot be explained as having the aim of preventing the occurrence of genetically close matings. Rather, the incest taboo imposes the social aim of exogamy [marriage outside the family or group] and alliance upon the biological events of sex and procreation. The incest taboo divides the universe of sexual choice into categories of permitted and prohibited sexual partners. Specifically, by forbidding unions within a group it enjoins [requires] marital exchange between groups.

The prohibition on the sexual use of a daughter or a sister compels them to be

given in marriage to another man, and at the same time it establishes a right to

the daughter or sister of this other man. . . . The woman whom one does not take

is, for that very reason, offered up. [Levi-Strauss]

The prohibition of incest is less a rule prohibiting marriage with the mother, sister,

or daughter, than a rule obliging the mother, sister, or daughter to be given to others.

It is the supreme rule of the gift. [Levi-Strauss]

The result of a gift of women is more profound than the result of other gift transactions, because the relationship thus established is not just one of reciprocity, but one of kinship. The exchange partners have become affines [in-laws], and their descendants will be related by blood: "Two people may meet in friendship and exchange gifts and yet quarrel and fight in later times, but intermarriage connects them in a permanent manner." As is the case with other gift-giving, marriages are not always simply activities to make peace. Marriages may be highly competitive, and there are plenty of affines [in-laws] who fight each other. Nevertheless, in a general sense the argument is that the taboo on incest results in a wide network of relations, a set of people whose connections with one another compose a kinship structure. All other levels, amounts, and directions of exchange —including hostile ones—are ordered by this structure. The marriage ceremonies recorded in the ethnographic literature are moments in a ceaseless and ordered procession in which women, children, shells, words, cattle, names, fish, ancestors, whale's teeth, pigs, yams, spells, dances, mats, and so on, pass from hand to hand, leaving as their tracks the ties that bind. Kinship is organization, and organization gives power.

But who is organized? If it is women who are being transacted, then it is the men who give and take them who are linked, the woman being a conduit of a relationship rather than a partner of it. The exchange of women does not necessarily imply that women are objectified, in the modern sense, since objects in the primitive world are imbued with highly personal qualities. But it does imply a distinction between gift and giver. If women are the gifts, then it is men who are the exchange partners [exchangers, traders]. And it is the partners, not the presents, upon whom reciprocal exchange confers its quasi-mystical [almost mystical] powers of social linkage. The relations of such a system are such that women are in no position to realize the benefits of their own circulation. As long as the relations specify that men exchange women, it is men who are the beneficiaries of the product of such exchanges—social organization. [that is, social organization is created]

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The total relationship of exchange which constitutes marriage is not established

between a man and a woman, but between two groups of men, and the woman

figures only as one of the objects in the exchange, not as one of the partners. . . .

This remains true even when the girl's feelings are taken into consideration,

as, moreover, is usually the case. In acquiescing to the proposed union, she

precipitates or allows the exchange to take place; she cannot alter its nature.

To enter into a gift exchange as a partner, one must have something to give. If women are for men to dispose of, they are in no position to give themselves away.

"What woman," mused [thought] a young Northern Melpa man, "is ever strong enough to get up and say, 'Let us make moka, let us find wives and pigs, let us give our daughters to men, let us wage war. Let us kill our enemies!' No, indeed not!

. . . they are little rubbish things who stay at home simply, don't you see?"

What women indeed! The Melpa women of whom the young man spoke cannot get wives; they are wives, and what they get are husbands, an entirely different matter. The Melpa women can't give their daughters to men, because they do not have the same rights in their daughters that their male kin have, rights of bestowal [transfer] (although not of ownership).

The "exchange of women" is a seductive and powerful concept. It is attractive in that it places the oppression of women within social systems, rather than in biology. Moreover, it suggests that we look for the ultimate locus of women's oppression within the traffic in women, rather than within the traffic of merchandise. It is certainly not difficult to find ethnographic and historical examples of trafficking in women. Women are given in marriage, taken in battle, exchanged for favors, sent as tribute, traded, bought, and sold. Far from being confined to the "primitive" world, these practices seem only to become more pronounced and commercialized in more "civilized" societies. Men are of course also trafficked—but as slaves, hustlers, athletic stars, serfs, or as some other catastrophic social status, rather than as men. Women are transacted [exchanged] as slaves, serfs, and prostitutes, but also simply as women. And if men have been sexual subjects exchangers—and women sexual semi-objects—gifts—for much of human history, then many customs, clichés, and personality traits seem to make a great deal of sense (among others, the curious custom by which a father gives away the bride).

The "exchange of women" is also a problematic concept. Since Lévi-Strauss argues that the incest taboo and the results of its application constitute the origin of culture, his analysis implies that the world-historical defeat of women [this is a famous phrase from Engel's book, mentioned above; it refers to the hypothesis view that at a point in history or prehistory, women were defeated by men and became oppressed for the first time] occurred with the origin of culture, and is a prerequisite [necessary basis] of culture. If his analysis is adopted in its pure form, the feminist program must include a task even more onerous [difficult] than the extermination of men; it must attempt to get rid of culture and substitute some entirely new phenomena on the face of the earth. However, it would be a dubious proposition at best to argue that if there were no exchange of women there would be no culture, if for no other reason than that culture is, by definition, inventive. It is even debatable that "exchange of women" adequately describes all of the empirical evidence of kinship systems. Some cultures, such as the Lele and the Kuma, exchange women explicitly and overtly. In other cultures, the exchange of women can be inferred. In some—particularly those hunters and gatherers excluded from Lévi-Strauss's sample [what he analyzed]—the efficacy [effectiveness] of the concept becomes altogether questionable. What are we to make of a concept which seems so useful and yet so difficult?

The "exchange of women" is neither a definition of culture nor a system in and of itself. The concept is an acute, but condensed, apprehension [understanding] of certain aspects of the social relations of sex and gender. A kinship system is an imposition [placing] of social ends [aims] upon a part of the natural world. It is therefore "production" in the most general sense of the term: a molding, a transformation of objects (in this case, people) to and by a subjective [e.g., prejudiced] purpose. It has its own relations of production, distribution, and exchange, which include certain "property" forms [e.g., rights] in people. These forms are not exclusive, private property rights, but rather different sorts of rights that various people have in other people. Marriage transactions—the gifts and material which circulate in the ceremonies marking a marriage—are a rich source of data for determining exactly who has which rights in whom. It is not difficult to deduce from such transactions that in most cases women's rights are considerably more residual [that is, secondary] than those of men.

Kinship systems do not merely exchange women. They exchange sexual access, genealogical statuses, lineage names and ancestors, rights, and *people* —men, women, and children — in concrete systems of social relationships. These relationships always include certain rights for men, others for women. "Exchange of women" is a shorthand expression for the social relations of kinship systems specifying that men have certain rights in their female kin, and that women do not have the same rights either to themselves or to their male kin. In this sense, the exchange of women is a profound perception of a system in which women do not have full rights to themselves. The exchange of women becomes an obfuscation [smokescreen] if it is seen as a cultural necessity and when it is used as the single tool with which an analysis of a particular kinship system is approached.

If Lévi-Strauss is correct in seeing the exchange of women as a fundamental principle of kinship, the subordination of women can be seen as a product of the relationships by which sex and gender are organized and produced. The economic oppression of women is derivative and secondary. But there is an "economics" of sex and gender, and what we need is a political economy [the study of the politics, power and laws of trade] of sexual systems. We need to study each society to determine the exact mechanisms by which particular conventions [codes, rules] of sexuality are produced and maintained. The "exchange of women" is an initial step toward building an arsenal [store, collection] of concepts with which sexual systems can be described.