

# DOWNLOAD PDF WOMEN IN SOCIAL SCIENCE IN THE EARLY 20TH CENTURY

## Chapter 1 : Black Women in Art and Literature - HISTORY

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A Social and Cultural History Book: University of Liverpool Citation: Dr Claire Jones, review of *Women in Science: A Social and Cultural History*, review no. Upon deeper investigation, however, Watts soon discovers that she is mistaken. Resulting from her comprehensive reading, review and research, this study brings together the work of scholars of gender and science from the s to the present, and displays their ideas in a form that is lucid and accessible to a wider audience. But the book goes beyond synthesis in a number of important ways too, extending the discussion and asking new questions of the connections between scientific knowledge, power and gender. Of special significance in this context is her case study on women and medicine in 20th-century Birmingham which features in chapter eight. Watts has set herself a very ambitious task. Not only does she chart the contributions of women to science, taken in its broadest sense to encompass medicine, mathematics and many levels of female participation; she also explores the antagonisms between femininity and science, and the social and cultural antecedents to the masculine colouring of the scientific enterprise which is still with us today. It is difficult to impose order on such a vast amount of subject matter without it appearing arbitrary or forced. Around this theme, Watts weaves discussions concerning the access of girls and women to scientific education and the implications of gendered curricula. She also gives examples of how natural philosophy and science have produced changing understandings of the female body and intellect which have had serious consequences for scientific women. All too often these theories of female inferiority have resulted in the closing of doors to women although, as Watts emphasises, women have always found cracks through which to negotiate a way in. Indeed, the book is particularly convincing when discussing the ways in which women have participated in science as a part of informal networks from within the domestic sphere, or have found a role at ease with their femininity as writers, translators, educators and popularisers of science. The implications of class, family, faith and attitudes to education are teased out alongside descriptions of the strategies that women used to succeed. These often required them to settle for part time or junior roles, sometimes pursuing a job or research without adequate pay or recognition. The way in which biography is interweaved skilfully into the text illuminates the theoretical discussions with immediacy, and sometimes, intimacy. Alice Stewart, from a privileged background and holder of a Cambridge Natural Sciences degree, became a consultant physician in . Nonetheless, she had to be content with low paid jobs which she combined with care of her family, until the Second World War changed everything. As a woman with children, Stewart could not be called up; instead, a temporary job at the Oxford Radcliffe Hospital led to a post as senior assistant at the Nuffield Hospital - an important teaching institution. Success on research projects allowed her, in , to become the first woman elected to the Association of Physicians; while she also helped found the *British Journal of Industrial Medicine*. Despite the professional respect she had earned, especially for her significant work on cancer, once the war had ended she was not awarded the chair that was the usual next step up. A chair was finally awarded to her by the University of Birmingham when she was 90 years of age. A pervasive question throughout the book is not just who makes science, but who owns science and why? Answers are explored in chapters that are presented chronologically, albeit arranged around specific themes. The focus is on Britain, especially England, although within the European context and with reference to America. The time period covered extends from the ancient Greeks through to the middle of the 20th century. The introductory chapter sets out the theoretical ideas and debates which underpin scholarship in this area with an overview of the literature to date. Here Watts provides explorations and definitions of her key concepts: The latter is important for a study with the partial aim of recovering the involvement of women who were, for the most part, operating from the margins of science. Here we find measured discussions of women such as Hypatia, the philosopher and mathematician of ancient Alexandria, and the 12th-century abbess Hildegard of

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Bingen. In the 15th century, however, such medical knowledge and skill and the presumption to authority that it implied could place a woman in danger of being accused of witchcraft. However, some women questioned these conceptions; Watts discusses, among others, the contributions to natural philosophy of Margaret Cavendish, duchess of Newcastle, and Anne Finch, viscountess Conway. Watts is persuasive in describing the informal settings in which women pursued their scientific interests to whatever extent they were able. Mary Evelyn, for example, was known for her education including mathematics and her household skills; she also had access through her husband to Oxford scholars who held her in admiration, yet she was still excluded from more profound learning and science. Her husband was a member of the Royal Society, but as a woman, she was excluded, despite joint work with him and her taste for the new experimental philosophy. Empirical science was jealous of its standing and even the emerging institutions strove to obtain and retain masculine credibility and status. Watts begins with an analysis of the intersections of science, culture and gender with reference to the work of scholars including Ludmilla Jordanova, Patricia Faro and Londa Schiebinger. In the 18th century, visual imagery in medicine and science was gendered to delineate the masculine and feminine in complex ways precisely because of new thinking which put so-called natural differences and sex roles into a state of fluidity. So, for example, astronomer Caroline Herschel is pictured serving tea while her brother, William, polishes a mirror in a lithograph of the siblings working together. Watts demonstrates how women from dissenting backgrounds, such as Quaker or Unitarian, whose families were typically more engaged with scientific thinking and reforming educational ideas, were often advantaged in receiving an education equal to their brothers. This gave such women the learning to engage with science; as teachers and writers, they could combine intellectual enquiry with womanly and religious ideals of service. Within this tradition, Watts provides a detailed discussion of Jane Marcet, in particular her *Conversations on Chemistry in Which the Elements of that Science are familiarly Explained and Illustrated by Experiments*. Directed explicitly to the ladies, this gave women the knowledge to appreciate and understand the public lectures on science which were becoming fashionable among the upper classes. The analytical strength of this chapter is that Watts engages with issues of class and masculinity too. Marcet belonged to the upper class yet could only advance a limited way in science because of her sex. Men of the lower to middle class, however, or men from the provinces, could find it equally difficult to gain a toehold in science, especially as scientific credibility and authority increasingly became associated with a manly, metropolitan masculinity. Networks of science c. During these decades a new map of science was emerging in Britain as new educational initiatives took root and learned institutions, such as the British Association for the Advancement of Science BAAS became established. Watts investigates the opportunities for women within this changing landscape, illustrating her conclusions with reference to the lives of individuals. The late 19th century to the early 20th century is the focus of chapter seven: *Male patriarchs and women serving science?* Watts argues that at best these initiatives produced only uneven progress for scientific women, although the emergence of new, as yet developing specialisms such as crystallography and biochemistry seemed to offer more opportunities for women. This chapter is based on meticulous, detailed research and contextualised with reference to the American experience. There is also a table detailing the achievements and brief life histories of women who achieved the highest honours in science in the first two-thirds of the 20th century, including three Nobel prize winners and other women who, controversially today, were not awarded this accolade. Professionalisation is a reason often cited as to why women became excluded from science in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. In Birmingham at least, networks of middle-class women, some of whom were engaged in local government, actively promoted educational and medical ventures which employed women. Nevertheless, Watts concludes that women had to be ready to take advantage of special circumstances and were largely appointed to gender stereotyped roles. She concludes that women have often contributed most to science when they were involved in activities not yet of a sufficiently high status or pay to exclude them. Women have frequently been teachers and disseminators of scientific knowledge and, from the French salons of the 18th century, to 20th-century Birmingham, membership of a formal or informal scientific network was vital. In a book this extensive in

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scope, it would be unreasonable and ungracious to expect that all topics of relevance to women and science could be addressed. Women published in Royal Society journals as lone or co-authors with relative frequency at the beginning of the 20th century. In addition, the growth of specialist scientific societies was in part fuelled by the exclusivity of the elite institutions and the need of women and other amateurs to find an alternative outlet for their work. But this is in no way a criticism of this book. Selection is all, and with *Women in Science* Watts provides an expertly crafted, comprehensive introduction to the subject, which readers can use as a platform for further research, while also highlighting much of interest for scholars investigating women, femininity and science. There is a short glossary at the front of the book, the contents of which are highlighted in the main text so that novices to the subject can easily refer back. The extensive bibliography, which includes a variety of sources, such as websites, will be particularly valuable to those new to the subject. She synthesises the significant literature, adds new knowledge and makes the whole accessible to a wide audience. This was sorely needed.

April Ruth Watts Posted: I am very pleased to see further work on aspects of this significant issue constantly emerging, and given that I am increasingly conscious that the hitherto under-explored area of female scientific history gives a new resonance to both scientific and gender history, I should like to use this opportunity to urge more such studies. Certainly, I finished my book very much aware of further areas that needed to be investigated. Added to this, there should be greater understanding of both the effects of imperialism on scientific endeavour and of racial barriers in science. Even within just British history, there is very little on the past experiences of women in science from minority groups. I did discover the disproportionate number of Jews among leading female scientists, as among male, in 20th-century western history and this too could do with closer examination. Generally, I hope that the book adds greater appreciation of women as knowledge-makers and -bearers and of the way that they have been part of a community of knowledge which is built up gradually and from all kinds of skills and experiences rather than just through single discoveries by one or two great minds at fixed points in time.

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## Chapter 2 : Historical Background - Gender in the Proceedings - Central Criminal Court

*Early twentieth century In the social sciences, several women contributed to the Japanese Evacuation and of women in science from early childhood interest.*

Despite that range, it is possible to discuss some common threads, beginning with Africa as a predominantly agricultural continent where between 65 and 80 percent of African women are engaged in cultivating food for their families. The centrality of agriculture influences the control of land and of labor by kin groups and clans, usually represented by male political and religious leadership. Africa had a high incidence of matrilineal descent, a social system that placed a woman and her female relations at the center of kinship and family, though male clan leaders influenced the arrangement of families through marriage. Europeans first arrived at coastal communities in Africa at the end of the 15th century, and their written observations offer some of the earliest documentation concerning African women, though more likely to include information on elite women. Along the West African coast, female market traders acted as arbiters between local societies and European traders. Slaves within Africa were more likely to be women, a reflection of their productive and reproductive contributions to their communities. Women were more vulnerable to enslavement, and women could be integrated into a new society while men were more likely to be traded away or killed as enemies. Women were also slave owners, especially in areas where they had the opportunity to accrue wealth through trading. The presence of European missionaries, traders, and officials increased throughout the 16th to 19th centuries, with many women losing power and economic autonomy with the arrival of cash crops, while continuing their work growing food for their families. Simultaneously, they found new ways of working and initiated new family forms as Christianity spread and urbanization accelerated. In areas with more entrenched white settler populations, Africans turned to sometimes protracted armed struggle, and women were centrally involved, though generally not as actual combatants. The 21st century finds women continuing their primary responsibility for agricultural labor and facing ongoing hindrances to gaining education and employment equal to African men. Women still have serious problems in the areas of polygyny, divorce, inheritance, and widowhood. The late 20th and early 21st centuries have been marked by localized wars in more than a dozen countries, with women frequently the victims. Yet the last half of the 20th century also brought expanded opportunities for education, new job possibilities, increased political involvement, and improved family expectations. Sheldon is the most recent and provides a comprehensive overview of essential topics. Berger and White, Coquery-Vidrovitch, and the article Johnson-Odim provide a narrative history of women in Africa, and together with the readings collected in Hafkin and Bay, are all good introductory sources. Berger, Iris, and E. *Women in Sub-Saharan Africa: Restoring Women to History*. Indiana University Press, Translated by Beth Gillian Raps. Presents material thematically within broad chronological categories, with chapters on slavery, peasant women, powerful women, prostitution, poverty, factory work, trade, schooling, and other similar topics. *Studies in Social and Economic Change*. Stanford University Press, *Engendering African Social Sciences*. Engendrer les sciences sociales africaines Paris: Edited by Bonnie G. University of Illinois Press, Johnson-Odim covers a lot of ground in a coherent manner. American Historical Association, *Gender in Southern Africa: Conceptual and Theoretical Issues*. The *Invention of Women: University of Minnesota Press, Early History to the 21st Century*. Users without a subscription are not able to see the full content on this page. Please subscribe or login. How to Subscribe Oxford Bibliographies Online is available by subscription and perpetual access to institutions. For more information or to contact an Oxford Sales Representative click here.

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## Chapter 3 : Successes Of The 20th Century | Pew Research Center

*The 20th century. What was seen in the 20th century was not only an intensification and spread of earlier tendencies in the social sciences but also the development of many new tendencies that, in the aggregate, made the 19th century seem by comparison one of quiet unity and simplicity in the social sciences.*

Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. The 20th century What was seen in the 20th century was not only an intensification and spread of earlier tendencies in the social sciences but also the development of many new tendencies that, in the aggregate , made the 19th century seem by comparison one of quiet unity and simplicity in the social sciences. In the 20th century the processes first generated by the democratic and industrial revolutions proceeded virtually unchecked in Western society, penetrating more and more spheres of once traditional morality and culture , leaving their impress on more and more countries, regions, and localities. Equally important, perhaps in the long run far more so, was the spread of these revolutionary processes to the non-Western areas of the world. The impact of industrialism, technology, secularism , and individualism upon peoples long accustomed to the ancient unities of tribe , local community , agriculture, and religion was first to be seen in the context of colonialism , an outgrowth of nationalism and capitalism in the West. So too were certain other consequences, or lineal episodes, of the two revolutions. The 20th century was the century of nationalism , mass democracy , large-scale industrialism, and developments in communication and information technology beyond the reach of any 19th-century imagination so far as magnitude is concerned. It was also the century of mass warfare , of two world wars with tolls in lives and property greater perhaps than the sum total of all preceding wars in history. It was the century too of totalitarianism: It was a century of affluence in the West, without precedent for the masses of people, evidenced in a constantly rising standard of living and a constantly rising level of expectations. The last is important. A great deal of the turbulence in the 20th centuryâ€™ political, economic, and socialâ€™ resulted from desires and aspirations that had been constantly escalating and that had been passing from relatively homogenous groups in the West to ethnic and racial minorities among them and, then, to whole continents elsewhere. Of all manifestations of revolution , the revolution of rising expectations is perhaps the most powerful in its consequences. For, once this revolution gets under way, each fresh victory in the struggle for rights, freedom, and security tends to magnify the importance of what has not been won. Once it was thought that, by solving the fundamental problems of production and large-scale organization, societies could ameliorate other problems, those of a social, moral , and psychological nature. What in fact occurred, on the testimony of a great deal of the most notable thought and writing, was a worsening of such problems. It would appear that as humans satisfy, relatively at least, the lower-order needs of food and shelter, their higher-order needs for purpose and meaning in life become ever more imperious. Thus, such philosophers of history as Arnold Toynbee , Pitirim Sorokin , and Oswald Spengler dealt with problems of purpose and meaning in history with a degree of learning and intensity of spirit not seen perhaps since St. Augustine wrote his monumental *The City of God* c. In the 20th century, the idea of progress, though it had certainly not disappeared, was rivalled by ideas of cyclical change and of degeneration of society. It is hard to miss the currency of ideas in modern timesâ€™ status, community, purpose, moral integration , on the one hand, and alienation, anomie, disintegration, breakdown on the otherâ€™ that reveal only too clearly the divided nature of the human spirit, the unease of the human mind. There is to be seen too, especially during later decades of the century, a questioning of the role of reason in human affairsâ€™ a questioning that stands in stark contrast to the ascendancy of rationalism in the two or three centuries preceding. Doctrines and philosophies stressing the inadequacy of reason, the subjective character of human commitment, and the primacy of faith rivalledâ€™ some would say conqueredâ€™ doctrines and philosophies descended from the Enlightenment. Existentialism , with its emphasis on the basic loneliness of the individual, on the impossibility of finding truth through intellectual decision, and on the irredeemably personal, subjective character of human life, proved to

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be a very influential philosophy in the 20th century, though it did not supplant the influence of religious belief in most parts of the world. Freedom, far from being the essence of hope and joy, can represent the source of human dread of the universe and of anxiety for oneself. Courtesy of the Royal Danish Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Copenhagen It might be thought that such intimations and presentiments as these have little to do with the social sciences. This is true in the direct sense perhaps but not true when one examines the matter in terms of contexts and ambiances. Ideas of alienation, anomie, identity crisis, and estrangement from norms are rife among the social sciences—particularly, of course, those most directly concerned with the nature of the social bond, such as sociology, social psychology, and political science. Between the larger interests of a culture and the social sciences there is never a wide gulf—only different ways of defining and approaching these interests. Marxist influences The influence of Marxism in the 20th century must not be missed. For hundreds of millions of persons, the ideas of Marx as communicated by Vladimir Ilich Lenin had profound moral, even bordering on religious, significance. But even in those parts of the world, the West foremost, where communism exerted little direct political impact, Marxism remained a potent source of ideas. Far more was this the case in the communist countries—the Soviet Union and the Soviet bloc countries, China, and even Asian countries in which no communist domination existed. But, though Marxism had relatively little direct impact on the social sciences as disciplines in the West, it had enormous influence on states of mind that were closely associated with the social sciences. Especially was this true during the 1930s, the decade of the Great Depression. Socialism remains for many an evocative symbol and creed. Marx remains a formidable name among intellectuals and is still, without any question, a principal intellectual source of radical movements in politics. Such a position cannot help but influence the contexts of even the most abstract of the social sciences. This hope, this image, proved a dominant one in the 20th century even where the influence of Marx and of socialism was at best small and indirect. It was this profound interest in central planning and governance that gave almost historic significance to the ideas of the English economist John Maynard Keynes. Of greater influence, however, than the strictly theoretical content of this general theory is the political impact that Keynesian ideas have had on Western democracies. For out of these ideas came the clear policy of governments dealing directly with the business cycle, of pumping money and credit into an economic system when the cycle threatens to turn downward, and of then lessening this infusion when the cycle moves upward. Above all other names in the West, that of Keynes became identified with such policy in the democracies and with the general movement of central governments toward ever more active and constant regulation of processes once thought best left to what the classical economists thought of as natural laws. True, the root ideas of the classical economists are found in modified form in the works of later economists such as the American Milton Friedman. His basic theories of the role of the unconscious or subconscious mind, of the lasting effects of infantile sexuality, and of the Oedipus complex extended far beyond the discipline of psychoanalysis and even the larger area of psychiatry to areas of several of the social sciences. In the 20th century, anthropologists applied Freudian concepts to their studies of indigenous cultures, seeking to assess comparatively the universality of states of the unconscious that Freud and his followers held to lie in the whole human race. Some political scientists used Freudian ideas to illuminate the nature of authority generally, and political power specifically, seeing in totalitarianism, for example, the thrust of a craving for the security that total power can give. Sociology and social psychology were influenced by Freudian ideas in their studies of social interaction and motivation. From Freud came the fruitful perspective that sees social behaviour and attitudes as generated not merely by the external situation but also by internal emotional needs springing from childhood—needs for recognition, authority, self-expression. Freud, Sigmund Sigmund Freud, Freud Specialization and cross-disciplinary approaches A major development in the social sciences of the 20th century was the vast increase in the number of social scientists involved, in the number of academic and other centres of teaching and research in the social sciences, and in their degree of both comprehensiveness and specialization. The explosion of the sciences generally in the 20th century included the explosion of the social sciences. Not only was there development and proliferation but there was also a spectacular diffusion of the

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social sciences. Beginning in a few places in western Europe and the United States in the 19th century, the social sciences, as bodies of ongoing research and centres of teaching, came to be found almost everywhere in the world. In considerable part this followed the spread of universities from the West to other parts of the world and, within universities, the very definite shift away from the hegemony once held by humanities alone to the near hegemony held today by the sciences, physical and social. In the 21st century, specialization has been as notable a tendency in the social sciences as in the biological and physical sciences. This is reflected not only in varieties of research but also in course offerings in academic departments. Whereas not very many years ago, a couple of dozen advanced courses in a social science reflected the specialization and diversity of the discipline even in major universities with graduate schools, today a hundred such courses are found to be not enough. Side by side with this strong trend toward specialization, however, is another, countering trend: At the beginning of the 20th century, in fact until World War II, the several disciplines existed each in a kind of splendid isolation from the others. That historians and sociologists, for example, might ever work together in curricula and research projects would have been scarcely conceivable prior to about 1900. Each social science tended to follow the course that emerged in the 19th century: Today, evidences are all around of cross-disciplinary work and of fusion within a single social science of elements drawn from other social sciences. Thus there are such vital areas of work as political sociology, economic anthropology, psychology of voting, and industrial sociology. The techniques of one social science can be seen consciously incorporated into another or into several social sciences. If history has provided much in the way of perspective to sociology or anthropology, each of these two has provided perspective, and also whole techniques, such as statistics and survey, to history. In short, specialization is by no means without some degree at least of countertendencies such as fusion and synthesis. Another outstanding characteristic of each of the social sciences in the 20th century was its professionalization. Without exception, the social sciences became bodies of not merely research and teaching but also practice, in the sense that this word has in medicine or engineering. Until about World War II, it was a rare sociologist or political scientist or anthropologist who was not a holder of academic position. There were economists and psychologists to be found in banks, industries, government, even in private consultancy, but the numbers were relatively tiny. Overwhelmingly the social sciences had visibility alone as academic disciplines, concerned essentially with teaching and with more or less basic, individual research. All of this changed profoundly, and on a vast scale, during the late 20th century. Today there are as many economists and psychologists outside academic departments as within, if not more. The number of sociologists, political scientists, and demographers to be found in government, industry, and private practice rises constantly. Equally important is the changed conception or image of the social sciences. Today, to a degree unknown before World War II, the social sciences are conceived as policy-making disciplines, concerned with matters of national welfare in their professional capacities in just as sure a sense as any of the physical sciences. Inevitably, tensions have arisen within the social sciences as the result of processes of professionalization. Those persons who are primarily academic can all too easily feel that those who are primarily professional have different and competing identifications of themselves and their disciplines. Nature of the research The emphasis upon research in the social sciences has become almost transcending within recent decades. This situation is not at all different from that which prevails in the physical sciences and the professions in this age. Prior to about 1900, the functions of teaching and research had approximately equal value in many universities and colleges. The idea of a social or physical scientist appointed to an academic institution for research alone, or with research preponderant, was scarcely known. Research bureaus and institutes in the social sciences were very few and did not rival traditional academic departments and colleges as prestige-bearing entities. All of that was changed decisively beginning with the period just after World War II. From governments and foundations, large sums of money passed into the universities—usually not to the universities as such, but rather to individuals or small groups of individuals, each eminent for research. Research became the uppermost value in the social sciences as in the physical and hence, of course, in the universities themselves. Probably the greatest single change in the social sciences

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during the second half of the 20th century was the widespread introduction of mathematical and other quantitative methods, all of which were aided by increasingly sophisticated computer technology. Without question, economics is the discipline in which the most spectacular changes of this kind have taken place. So great is the dominance of mathematical techniques here—resulting in the eruption of what is called econometrics to a commanding position in the discipline—that, to the outsider, economics today almost appears to be a branch of mathematics. But in sociology, political science, social psychology, and anthropology, the impact of quantitative methods, above all, of statistics, has also been notable. No longer does statistics stand alone, a separate discipline, as it did in effect during the 19th century. This area today is inseparable from each of the social sciences, though, in the field of mathematics, statistics still remains eminently distinguishable, the focus of highly specialized research and theory. The use of computers and the Internet and of all the complex techniques associated with them has become a staple of social science research and teaching. Through computer and online data storage and retrieval, social scientists are able to work with amounts and diversity of data that in an earlier age would have required the combined efforts of hundreds, even thousands, of technicians. The so-called computer revolution in modern thought has been, in short, as vivid a phase of the social as the physical sciences, not to mention other areas of modern life. The problem as it is stated by mature social scientists is to use computers in ways in which they are best fitted but without falling into the fallacy that they can alone guide, direct, and supply vital perspective in the study of human beings. Closely related to mathematical, computer, and other quantitative aspects of the social sciences is the vast increase in the empiricism of modern social science. Never in history has so much in the way of data been collected, examined, classified, and brought to the uses of social theory and social policy alike.

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Chapter 4 : [blog.quintoapp.com](http://blog.quintoapp.com): 20th Century Women - Women's Studies / Politics & Social Sciences: Book

*THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT IN THE 20TH CENTURY: INTRODUCTION*The feminist movement in the United States and abroad was a social and political movement that sought to establish equality for women.

Visit Website The first examples of literature written by African-American women appeared around 1845, as part of a general renaissance of black literature in the 19th century. The book described the sexual exploitation that all too often added to the oppression of slavery for black women; it also provided an early example of black female strength in the face of adversity. The Civil War era spawned some memorable autobiographical works by African-American women, such as the diaries of Charlotte Forten, the daughter of a Philadelphia civil rights activist. Early 20th Century and the Harlem Renaissance In the years following World War I, black visual artists produced an increasing amount of work influenced by the aesthetic traditions of Africa. One of the earliest artists to do so was Meta Warrick Fuller, who became the first black woman to receive a federal commission for her art. Prominent artists of this era included the sculptor Augusta Savage—renowned for her busts of black leaders W. Over the first two decades of the 20th century, continuing racial injustice and widespread reports of lynchings and other violence inspired a literature of protest, including the short stories, novels and commentary of Pauline E. The 1920s, of course, saw a flowering of African-American literature based in the New York City neighborhood of Harlem. In 1925, Chicago native Gwendolyn Brooks, whose work dealt with everyday life in black urban communities, became the first African-American poet to win the Pulitzer Prize. During the 1930s and 1940s, few black artists—and even fewer black women—were accepted into the mainstream of American art. Elizabeth Catlett, a sculptor and printmaker, spent much of her career as an expatriate in Mexico City in the 1930s; the activism of her life and work led in the 1950s to her investigation by the House Un-American Activities Committee. In 1967, at the age of 80, the abstract painter Alma Woodsey Thomas became the first African-American woman to have a solo exhibit of her paintings at the Whitney Museum. Artists and writers would play an active role in the civil rights movement of the late 1950s and 1960s. Poetry was also a central form of expression for the Black Arts movement, the artistic branch of the Black Power movement of the late 1960s and 1970s. Important female poets in this movement, which emphasized the solidarity of the African-American community, included Sonia Sanchez, Jayne Cortez, Carolyn M. Rodgers and Nikki Giovanni. The autobiography of the murdered black activist Malcolm X, written with Alex Haley and published in 1965, influenced similar memoirs by black female activists like Anne Moody and Angela Davis, who published her own autobiography in 1975. The Late 20th and Early 21st Centuries In more recent years, many African-American female artists have proved themselves unafraid of provoking controversy. More recently, the California-born artist Kara Walker was the subject of similar controversy over her use of intricate full-size cut-paper silhouettes depicting disturbing scenes of life in the antebellum South. Walker has earned widespread acclaim, but has also drawn criticism from some other African-American artists including Saar, who claim that her work depicts sexist and racist stereotypes albeit in the form of parody. The photographer Lorna Simpson also explores race and gender stereotypes—particularly those having to do with black women—in her work. In 1991, Simpson became the first African-American woman to exhibit at the prestigious Venice Biennale, and she was the subject of a year retrospective at the Whitney in

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## Chapter 5 : Social sciences – Te Ara Encyclopedia of New Zealand

*The women presented here have written books, discovered elements, explored the unknown, ruled countries and saved lives, plus so much more. Browse through this list of famous women from the 20th century and be amazed by their stories.*

Technology Triumphs, Morality Falters Successes Of The 20th Century The technological progress of the 20th century is a source of great pride for Americans, who place advancements in science and technology – especially the space program – at the top of the list of American achievements. A nearly unanimous public attributes U. Although agreement on the greatest failure of this era is less pronounced, when asked to judge the century, the public laments the use of force, a decline in morality and a breakdown in politics and governance. Overall, the single most-mentioned success is the space program. When asked to name the U. One-in-ten cite problems with politics and government. One-in-ten name a particular policy area e. Twenty-four years after the fall of Saigon, the shadow of Vietnam still looms large for America: The same number list it as the U. At this point, the Clinton-Lewinsky scandal also casts a historic pall for a striking minority. The public may be frustrated by how the system operates, but they like the design. The public also credits a century of national achievements to the resources that have sustained these accomplishments. A similar majority also gives credit to divine sources: Explanations that deal with specific religious values or the role of religion in American politics receive only lukewarm endorsement. Finally, the public is loathe to ascribe more than passing influence to accident: A Consensus View The overwhelming endorsement given to the building blocks of democracy and capitalism is shared by all Americans, regardless of age, race or gender. However, some groups express more enthusiasm than others. For example, although the Constitution receives resounding support as a key to American success, African Americans are slightly more temperate in their analysis: Of the three top reasons, some of the greatest differences between groups are in their evaluations of the free enterprise system, which draws relatively less support from blacks, women and Americans under age 35, although majorities of each group still label it a major reason. Black women are the least enthusiastic: Americans divide most sharply, however, on the credit they give divine intent. Women are also more supportive about the role of God: Again, African American women stand out: Seniors are especially enthusiastic about the importance of the two-party system and geographic isolation – two prominent theories of an earlier era. As the most ethnically and racially diverse age group, young adults express slightly more support for the importance of the cultural diversity of the American people as an explanation of national success. Seculars Stand Out Secular Americans, who do not affiliate with any religion, also differ from others in their evaluation of various reasons for American success in the 20th century. Instead, seculars give disproportionate credit to the cultural diversity of the American people:

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## Chapter 6 : Women Professionals --Places Where Women Made History Travel Itinerary

*Social science, any discipline or branch of science that deals with human behaviour in its social and cultural aspects. The social sciences include cultural (or social) anthropology, sociology, social psychology, political science, and economics.*

Women in the Early to Midth Century Social and Economic Conditions Feminism in Literature: In the following essay, Chafe provides an overview of the changes in the social and economic roles played by women during and immediately following the end of World War II. Few areas of American life demonstrated such rapid and dramatic change during World War II as the social and economic roles of women. Just a few months before Pearl Harbor, more than 80 percent of American men and women declared that it was wrong for wives to work outside the home if their husbands were employed. School systems throughout the country refused to hire women teachers if they were married, and fired them if they got married after being employed. Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins had denounced women as "pin money" workers for taking jobs away from needy men the charge had no basis in fact, and the federal government itself prohibited by law the employment of two members of the same family in the civil service. Now, suddenly, all that changed. Rosie the Riveter went back home when the soldiers returned, or at least moved to a less well-paying, less rewarding job. Others, including myself, have contended that despite the absence of progress toward sexual equality during the war, the behavioral changes that did occur played an important role in breaking previous patterns and setting in motion long-term, important shifts in employment patterns and sex role expectations. It begins by surveying briefly some of the highlights of the wartime experience and then examines three specific problem areas: At the end of only thirty-six women were involved in the construction of ships. Three years later the figure was, As men were called to war, women took their places on assembly lines and in offices. Between and the female labor force increased by more than six million, or approximately 55 percent. In Gary, Indiana, women operated giant overhead cranes and cleaned blast furnaces, while in the state of Washington, women took the place of men lumberjacks cutting down huge redwoods. As a result, public relations campaigns were mounted to persuade women to enter the work force. Men are needed with minds clear and steady. Women are needed with attention for their work undivided. The impact of such messages could be seen in public opinion polls. In, 60 percent of the American people declared that wives should be employed in war industries and 71 percent believed there was a need for more married women to take jobs—a striking contrast to the four out of five Americans who four years earlier had said that married women should not hold jobs if their husbands were employed. Naturally, the most startling changes occurred in areas where defense industries were concentrated. The female labor force doubled in San Francisco, growing from, to, while in Detroit, center of the automobile industry now converted to wartime production, the increase was from, to, Overall, the number of women serving as operatives in heavy industry climbed percent. Yet, other areas also showed considerable change. More than, women, for example, went to work for Uncle Sam, most of them doing clerical work with the War Department and other agencies. By the end of the war, women comprised almost 38 percent of all federal workers, more than double the percentage in. Indeed, gains in clerical fields turned out to be among the most permanent from the war years, with the ranks of women clerical workers 65 percent greater in than in. Significantly, millions of women took advantage of the war emergency to improve their economic situation. More than, war workers, for example, moved from other occupations, so that an assembly line at a typical aircraft plant consisted of former saleswomen, waitresses, stenographers, and seamstresses, as well as factory employees who had shifted from textiles to airplanes. Nor was the reason hard to find. In addition to the rhetoric of patriotism that existed everywhere, wages and benefits were a critical incentive. Employees in defense industries received 40 percent more than those in non-defense factories. It was not surprising, then, that more than half the women employed in Mobile in had changed jobs since. The most important change produced by the war, however, had less to do with the jobs women held and more to do

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with the identity of the women who went to work. It had become a sign of men reaching middle-class status if they could afford to support their families solely through their own work. If married women held jobs, they were seen as acting in an unseemly fashion—violating their primary and natural responsibility to their home and children. Women who wished to pursue careers ordinarily faced the necessity of foregoing marriage, since the majority of people saw the two as incompatible. It was true that most women worked at some point in their lives, but usually for just a few years, in their late teens or early twenties, before getting married. Now, however, the primary source of recruitment for employers consisted of women who were married and middle-aged, and who often came from middle-class backgrounds. By the end of the war, it was just as likely for a wife over forty to be employed as for a single woman under twenty-five. During the war, nearly three out of four of the new women workers were married. Sixty percent were over thirty-five. By 1945, married women, for the first time, comprised almost a majority of the female labor force. Nearly 4 million of the 6. They may have worked at an earlier point in their lives, but given the deep prejudice in society against married women working, especially in light of the intensification of that prejudice during the Depression, it seems highly unlikely that they would ever have gone back to work had it not been for the war. Despite such changes, there was little, if any, progress made on issues of sexual equality during World War II. Women may have done a thousand new jobs, but rarely, if ever, were they given supervisory responsibility or placed in executive positions. Women were also excluded from policy-making positions in the government, even on questions directly related to women workers. Women in the nurses corps fared better, but the army refused even to commission women doctors until 1945. Although the National War Labor Board announced a policy of equal pay for equal work in 1941, the policy was rarely implemented. Job segregation remained the primary source of poor wages for women, and notwithstanding some breakthroughs, job segregation actually increased overall during the war, as Ruth Milkman has shown. A number of employers did significantly improve the safety features in factories, creating, as well, better recreational and rest room facilities, which helped the morale of all employees. It was in this last area—broadly defined as community services—that absence of progress was most noticeable—and most harmful to the war effort. Virtually all women workers were being asked to do two full-time jobs simultaneously, working a forty-eight to sixty hour week in an office or factory while also managing a home. Central kitchens, take-away hot meals, communal laundries, easily accessible child care centers—all these were essential both to promote the war effort and to provide a greater possibility of securing sexual equality for women workers. Yet little was done to address these problems. Some private employers, such as Kaiser in Portland, Oregon, worked to develop high-quality day-care facilities and to provide such additional services as hot take-home meals. But these were the exception rather than the rule. Although the government estimated that two million youngsters needed some form of assistance, it was not until the end of the war that federal efforts to build and run child care centers went into high gear. The experience of women workers during the war thus seemed uneven. Because of their work in the war, [women have] come to feel that they are socially useful. They will want to continue that feeling of independence. More than 75 percent of women in war jobs indicated that they intended to keep their positions when the war ended. As one worker said: For some it is, for others it is not. What came after the war would ultimately say the most about what had been accomplished during the war itself. On that issue, however, the results were also ambiguous. Certainly in the immediate months after the war came to an end, demobilization proved disastrous for women workers who had wanted to continue in their war jobs. Layoff rates for women workers averaged 75 percent higher than those for men. Over 100,000 workers were terminated in the aircraft industry, most of them women. Under federal legislation, returning veterans had first claim on their old jobs, which by itself put women at a disadvantage. With the wartime crisis over, some companies even reinstated age requirements which threw women over forty-five out of work, or reimposed earlier restrictions against hiring married women. Congress, one Southern senator declared, should "force wives and mothers back to the kitchen" in order to assure jobs for returning veterans. Ironically, even some of the wartime propaganda to recruit women workers fed into the new campaign. In one ad, used at the end of the war, a daughter asks her working mother,

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dressed in overalls, "Mother, when will you stay home again? Within a few months, what Betty Friedan later dubbed "the feminine mystique" had come to dominate American popular culture. According to this constellation of values, women could only be happy if they devoted full time to the roles of housewife and mother. College newspapers described young coeds as distraught if they were not engaged by their senior year, and young women told pollsters that they looked forward to four or more children. According to *Modern Woman: The Lost Sex*, a popular best seller, the independent woman was a "contradiction in terms. Any woman who wanted a career must be "masculinized," neurotic, rejecting the path of "normal femininity. But on closer examination, the story is more complicated. Despite the seemingly frantic embrace of traditional values, many women seemed dissatisfied with their role in society. Employment statistics, meanwhile, belied the notion that all women had returned permanently to the home after their wartime experience. Many women went back to work after the immediate impact of demobilization. By the end of the decade the proportion of women at work had increased to 32 percent as opposed to 27 percent a decade earlier. The change was greater than that for the entire preceding thirty years. The proportion of married women workers had increased 50 percent. Moreover, the greatest change—77 percent—occurred among women forty-five to fifty-four years old, the group most committed to retaining wartime jobs. None of this suggested progress toward equality. Those who came back to work generally were forced to take jobs that were lower paying and less intrinsically rewarding than those they had held during the war. Although wartime clerical employees had for the most part stayed on the job, many munitions and durable good workers had now taken jobs as waitresses, saleswomen or service workers. Discrimination continued in professional positions as well. The number of women doctors and lawyers continued to decline. Still, millions of women were continuing to take jobs; in ever increasing numbers, they were middle-class and married. By twice as many women were employed as in , and the proportion of wives holding jobs had doubled from 15 percent in to 30 percent in . The employment rate for women in the s increased four times faster than that for men. Significantly, the greatest changes occurred among women who before World War II had not usually been employed.

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## Chapter 7 : Women in science - Wikipedia

*This is a historical list, intended to deal with the time period where it is believed that women working in science were rare. For this reason, this list ends with the 20th century.*

Women have created female-dominated professions and institutions when they perceived new needs or opportunities, or to challenge their exclusion from a professional field. In some cases, however, identification of a profession with women has been used to relegate that field to lower professional status and pay. Female business owners probably have the longest histories as professional women. Colonial women entrepreneurs ran hotels, taverns, stores, and craft shops. While industrialization tended to limit women to factory jobs, a small number of women such as Madame C. Walker created their own mass-marketing empires. By the 1800s, women had found their earliest, least controversial career opportunity in a profession perceived as an extension of traditional domestic roles--as school teachers. Female schoolteachers provided further justification for collegiate and graduate education for women at institutions such as Mount Holyoke College. Yet acceptance as college faculty and administrators was uncommon. Female academics also used traditional gender concepts as springboards to professional status in the gender-specific discipline of home economics. The 19th century also witnessed the advent of women into medicine. Despite opposition from the public in general and male doctors in particular, women nurses served on both sides. By 1880, women could attend 35 nursing schools and nursing was on its way to becoming a female-dominated profession. Women have created professions as well. A long tradition of female activism in private charitable and benevolent organizations laid the foundation for public action in the late nineteenth and early 20th century. Women have found that their traditional association with home and children justified career advancement in the "helping" professions such as teaching, nursing, or social work. For example, women were some of the most popular writers of the 19th century, and affluent women flocked into amateur arts organizations in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries; yet few female authors and artists received critical respect, while female architects frequently were limited to commissions for small-scale residential projects. At times, women found early acceptance in new professions but little advancement. Women were an integral part of the establishment of research science as a profession in the early 20th century, yet apart from those who held university appointments, women scientists soon found themselves limited to subordinate positions in research laboratories. Despite "glass ceilings" and lower average salaries, professional women continue to build on the legacy of women pioneers over a century ago.

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## Chapter 8 : New Women in Early 20th-Century America - Oxford Research Encyclopedia of American History

*New Women in Early 20th-Century America Summary and Keywords* In late 19th- and early 20th-century America, a new image of womanhood emerged that began to shape public views and understandings of women's role in society.

Students should understand that these rapid social changes were due to the growth of industry and cities at this time. While the wheels of change were turning at an incredibly rapid pace, many Americans clung to the old ways, fearing such overwhelming changes. Many grasped at old ideas and old social roles, especially the ones that pertained to women and African Americans. This unit is all about the changes that were taking place in the United States and how those changes affected life for everyone involved. You will find a fun project for your students that deals with changes in society. One particular change was the role of education. In the late 19th century, education was viewed as a luxury that only the wealthy and privileged could partake in. As the new century unfolded, however, so did ideas about education. More and more Americans realized the importance of education for all and it slowly became much more accessible to anyone who sought it. Since technology had changed much of how Americans lived their lives, there was more time available for entertainment. New forms of entertainment began to appear at the turn of the century. Baseball was born and with it the very first silent movies and vaudeville. Music also became more popular, such as ragtime and jazz. Americans were learning how to enjoy their leisure time! Sadly, though, African Americans continued to struggle for equality. Jim Crow laws became the norm in most parts of the United States. Despite these laws, African Americans continued to fight for civil rights and even rise to success in their lives. Finally, the biggest changes happened in the lives of women. New jobs became available as well as new educational opportunities and new roles in the home. I will be adding more activities plus a study guide and test soon, so keep checking for updates! A PowerPoint presentation containing 46 colorful, content-filled slides with images. A complete set of Fill-in-the-Notes for your students. This is a fun group activity where students are divided into groups and research all kinds of different inventions that occurred at this time. Groups then present their findings in a colorful, attractive, and informative display! In this project, your students construct books chronicling the changes our country has gone through in the last years and even predicting how things will change years from now. The project involves library and Internet research as well as creativity in putting together their books and making their predictions.

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## Chapter 9 : List of female scientists before the 20th century - Wikipedia

*century, key meanings of modernity have been worked out in public discussionsâ€”official, intellectual, pop-cultural, and overlappingâ€”about marriage, family, sexuality, and gender difference.*

Followed closely by the advent of World War I, these social shifts, which had been set in motion at the beginning of the century, developed further as women were propelled into the workforce, exposing them to previously male-dominated professional and political situations. The end of the nineteenth century saw tremendous growth in the suffrage movement in England and the United States, with women struggling to attain political equality. The suffragistsâ€”who were often militant in their expressions of protestâ€”presented a sometimes stark contrast to the feminine ideal of the era, which portrayed women as delicate, demure, and silent, confined to a domestic world that cocooned them from the harsh realities of the world. As men were called to war, companies that had previously limited employment in better-paying jobs to white males found themselves opening their doors to white women and women and men of color. As well as functioning in the workforce, women actively participated in the political and cultural life of England and the United States. The early decades of the twentieth century, often referred to as the Progressive Era, saw the emergence of a new image of women in society which had undergone a marked transformation from the demure, frail, female stereotype of the late Victorian Era. The women of the Progressive Era, according to Sarah Jane Deutsch, were portrayed as "women with short hair and short skirts â€” kicking up their legs and kicking off a century of social restrictions. However, Deutsch asserts that this image of the s "flapper" was restricted to certain portions of the population, namely white, young, and middle-class communities. Women elsewhere, particularly women from other ethnic backgrounds, such as African-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Hispanics, lived much differently, struggling in their new roles as mothers and professionals. The number of women who worked outside the home in the s rose almost 50 percent throughout the decade. While women still constituted a small number of the professional population, they were slowly increasing their participation in more significant occupations, including law, social work, engineering, and medicine. The presence of a large class of young working women after World War I was reflected in what had become a major cultural forceâ€”the film industry. While early cinematic storylines often featured poor women finding success and contentment through marriage to rich men, the films of the s depicted young, feisty working women who, like their predecessors, could attain true happiness only by marrying their bosses. Such plotlines helped many to cope with the growing fear that the domestic and family structure of society was being eroded by the emergence of the new, independent woman. Rarely did depictions of women in mass media, including film, radio, and theater, convey the true circumstances of working women. Instead, audiences were presented with images of flappers or visions of glorified motherhood and marriage. Women in the early twentieth century were perhaps most active and influential as writers and artists. Male authors such as D. Howells explored issues pertaining to sexuality and the newly redefined sexual politics between men and women. Women authors such as Dorothy Richardson, May Sinclair, and Katherine Mansfield focused on topics pertinent to women, bringing attention to the myriad difficulties they faced redefining their identities in a changing world. In the arena of art, the early twentieth century provided growing opportunities for women to exhibit their work. In , for example, the National Academy of Design first allowed women to attend anatomy lectures, thus providing them with a chance to study draftsmanship and develop drawing skills in a formal setting. Many female artistsâ€”among them Dorothea Lange and Claire Leightonâ€”used their talents to highlight the social realities of their times, and some of the most powerful images of this period, including stirring portrayals of coal miners and farmers, were produced by these women. By the mid-twentieth century, women throughout the Western world had completely redefined their roles in almost every social, political, and cultural sphere. While the fight for equal rights and recognition for women would continue into the s and beyond, the first major steps towards such changes began at the advent of the twentieth century, with women writers,

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photographers, artists, activists, and workers blazing a new trail for generations of women to follow.