

Women in Freshwater Science – Invisible Histories?

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1 Abstract. Women scientists have historically been subject to direct and indirect
2 discrimination. This opinion piece argues for a history of freshwater science that
3 recognises the scientific achievements of women. It suggests that lack of opportunity for
4 women scientists in the twentieth century is typified by the stereotype that women were
5 naturally predisposed to non-intellectual pursuits and, therefore, ill fitted to science.
6 Freshwater science in Britain possibly provided a distinctive space for women in science
7 in spite of widespread lack of opportunity. Over 20 women scientists were working in
8 one institution in the interwar period, and during and immediately after the Second
9 World War. Yet outside of that specific context their work is barely known. We give
10 examples of these women and their work and argue that the historical invisibility of
11 women in aquatic sciences needs to be more thoroughly addressed in order to understand
12 the work of women scientists as having historical, social, as well as scientific,
13 significance.

Additional keywords: gender, inequality, freshwater science, history of science.

14 Introduction.

15 It is a lamented truism that women in science, technology, engineering, mathematics
16 and medicine (STEMM) face barriers in their education and difficulties in breaking
17 through glass ceilings in their careers. Women also make up less of scientific
18 workforces. In the UK in 2017, for example, estimates of the percentage of STEMM
19 posts held by women range from 15-23% (Price Waterhouse Cooper 2017, WISE 2018).

20 This situation is paralleled in Australia, the wider European Union and North America
21 (Jones and Hawkins 2015). Moreover, this underrepresentation is greatest in later, more
22 senior career stages. For example, in natural and physical sciences in Australia a 2016
23 study found that at undergraduate level, women make up over 50 percent of students
24 (SAGE 2016). At PhD level, representation of women and men was about even.
25 However, in professional science grades, women were underrepresented: 47.1% of junior
26 academics were women and only 16.3% of senior positions were held by women (SAGE
27 2016). In the UK, women occupy 13% of management positions in STEMM (WISE
28 2018). This vertical segregation parallels other contexts such as in the European Union
29 (Caprile *et al.* 2012).

30
31 Women scientists should rightly be recognised because of the merit of their professional
32 achievements. However, for some women scientists, even the highest scientific
33 achievement does not necessarily correspond to academic career standing. A case in
34 point is Donna Strickland who became only the third woman in history to receive the
35 Nobel Prize for physics in 2018. Upon the announcement of this award for her work on
36 ultra-short laser pulses, a disproportionate amount of media attention seemed to focus on
37 her career grade rather than her scientific achievement (Stack 2018).

38
39 There are all sorts of reasons for this situation, ranging from scientific culture itself, to
40 the construction of gender within scientific roles; from the socialisation of young women
41 in education, to unequal pay, lack of opportunities, and relatively precarious and slow
42 career progression for women in STEMM professions. Yet, despite knowledge of these
43 reasons, women in the history of science are in the curious position of being either stand-

44 out geniuses, or invisible (Kass-Simon and Farnes 1990). The effect of this is an
45 acknowledgement that (super-talented, highly notable) women scientists are thin on the
46 ground, leading to a false conclusion that women are justifiably absent from the history
47 of science. Contrary to this, we suggest that we need to tell more ordinary ‘herstories’ of
48 science. We need, that is, to avoid searching the archives for uniquely talented women
49 scientists, and make more visible what we can glean about those women whose work has
50 been important, constructive and valuable within specific scientific contexts. Through
51 our ongoing research, “Gender and Science through the Archives of the Freshwater
52 Biological Association”, we are attempting to bring such narratives to light.

53

54 Lack of scientific opportunity for women.

55 We are not alone in suggesting that, historically, the research of women scientists has
56 frequently been conducted in the face of a general lack of opportunity and overt official
57 and unofficial discrimination much more prevalent than that which we witness today
58 (Des Jardins 2010, Abir-Am and Outram 1987). When women in the nineteenth and
59 early twentieth centuries, however, were given opportunities to access scientific
60 education and work they often seized it, sometimes in the face of opposition. One
61 example of this is the Balfour Biological Laboratory for Women, established at
62 Cambridge University between 1884-1914 which educated women who were directly
63 excluded from scientific education at Cambridge (Richmond 1997). A further example is
64 the range of hidden histories of women scientists who, during the First World War,
65 became doctors, chemists developing weapons, biologists studying pathogens and
66 mathematicians working in signals and ciphers (Fara 2015, 2018).

67

68 Of course, there is now awareness of examples of women scientists' work being ignored
69 and obscured from the historic record. The example of Eunice Foote from the nineteenth
70 century has become something of a cause celebre. Foote read a short paper about her
71 experiments on solar heat absorption by climate gases to the August 1856 meeting of the
72 American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS) (Foote 1856). This
73 presentation (women were not permitted to publish full papers), apparently received only
74 polite and patronizing acknowledgement, partly perhaps because she was, after all, not a
75 full AAAS Fellow; women's scientific status allowed them only membership (Warner
76 1978). John Tyndall's similar theory published a few years later, omitted to
77 acknowledge Foote's experimental and theoretical work, (Tyndall 1859, 1861). Tyndall
78 has subsequently gained recognition as the first theorist of climate change.

79
80 Research has revealed how women with scientific training and qualifications in the
81 twentieth century were subtly and not-so-subtly steered towards editing, teaching and
82 librarianship, and away from the laboratory and the field (Des Jardins 2010). They were
83 frequently relegated to scientific drudgery: repetitive, relatively low status scientific
84 tasks that would have frustrated men with comparable scientific training. Their careers
85 were also held back by the assumption that marriage required them to resign from their
86 scientific posts (this 'marriage bar' was official policy in the UK until 1946 and in
87 British colonies until the mid-1950s) (McCarthy 2009). If we recognise such women
88 scientists who managed to deal with and, even, flourish in such a climate and can tell
89 their stories, then we should reveal detailed and a more nuanced history of (women)
90 scientists.

91

92 Women in freshwater research

93 We now draw on our own research to pursue the arguments and suggestions made above
94 through the history of women in British freshwater science. Our archival research into
95 gender and science at the Freshwater Biological Association (FBA), founded in 1929,
96 shows that the freshwater sciences provided opportunity for women during the first half
97 of the twentieth century when science was widely segregated by gender. In the context of
98 the UK, at least 20 women were working or training at this institution in its early years
99 before and after the Second World War. The FBA was part of a network - of universities,
100 and of colonial and Commonwealth science organisations - that provided openings for
101 women scientists in the then novel aquatic sciences. Whilst there do exist some specific,
102 largely biographical, accounts of the history of particular aquatic sciences (see Balon et
103 al, 1994, for example), none of these focus on women scientists and the cultures of
104 research they entered and helped create. Hence we have the opportunity to bring to bear
105 new stories and insights about the role that women scientists played in this new scientific
106 institution.

107

108 We give examples of the work of several of these women here. Some of these instances
109 are of women who surmounted challenges and achieved success. Other individuals are
110 harder to assess than their contemporaries, having abandoned their scientific research.

111

112 One of the key conduits for affording these scientists opportunities in the Freshwater
113 Biological Association's early days was the annual "Easter class" held for students from
114 across the UK and beyond. Two of these young scientists in the 1930s, Maud Godward
115 and Carmel Humphries, went on to have notably distinguished academic careers.

116 Godward was a freshwater phycologist and carried out postgraduate research at Lake
117 Windermere with the FBA. This experience gained her employment as a lecturer at
118 Queen Mary College, University of London. She became a founding member of the
119 British Phycological Society in 1953 and went on to gain a Chair in Phycology at Queen
120 Mary's. A fellow of Godward's at the FBA was Carmel Humphries, who worked on
121 benthic fauna (Humphries 1936). She also benefitted from her experiences at the FBA,
122 becoming a lecturer at University College Dublin. She was made professor of zoology
123 there in 1957 and frequently returned to the FBA to conduct her research on
124 chironomids.

125

126 In 1939, Winifred Frost, an ichthyologist, became the second female full-time
127 professional naturalist at the FBA (FBA 1939). During her career she collaborated with
128 many other women scientists, devising innovative experiments and programmes of
129 research, and extending networks globally from her empirical sites around lake
130 Windermere. Together with her research assistant, Rosemary Lowe, she created an
131 innovative programme of research into eels (*Anguilla anguilla*) during the years 1939-
132 1944 (Frost 1945, 1946; Bagenal 1970). Their wartime experiments utilised a home-
133 made tank they called 'the River Styx' to investigate the young elvers' relationship to
134 different light sources and intensities. Winifred Frost was often the only permanent
135 member of scientific staff left at the FBA when male scientists were away serving in the
136 armed forces. She went on to collaborate with Charlotte Kipling and Margaret Brown on
137 Salmonidae (Frost and Brown 1967) and her experimental work on eels, including on
138 otoliths, produced a thorough understanding of the autecology of the species (Frost 1945,
139 1946, Lowe 1952). Rosemary Lowe went on to research tilapiids in tropical freshwater

140 systems. Her work is acknowledged to have “revolutionized global studies on freshwater
141 ecosystems and fish production” (Reid 2016, 443).

142

143 Penelope Jenkin, graduated from Cambridge University in freshwater biology in 1925 –
144 although she would have received a certificate rather than a degree as Cambridge did not
145 award degrees to women until 1948 (Dyhouse 1995). Supported by her supervisor at
146 Cambridge, John Saunders, who also was on the FBA Council (Anonymous 1933), she
147 began research on the zooplankton of Windermere in 1932. This was, in fact, the first
148 research undertaken at the FBA, yet, few details are yet known about her apparently
149 diverse career, her collaborations with other scientists and her contributions to life and
150 work at the FBA (Lund and Monaghan 2000, Jenkin 1942, 1962). We do know that she
151 was among the first women to get a postgraduate degree from Cambridge University
152 after 1948 when it finally awarded degrees to women. She also continued her work on
153 diatoms in the marine environment, going to work at the Marine Biological Association
154 in Plymouth in the late 1930s (Haines 2001).

155

156 Marie Rosenberg achieved her doctorate at the University of Vienna in May 1930. In
157 July 1932 she was appointed to a research post at the Institut für Strahlenforschung
158 (Institute of Radiation Research) at the University of Berlin where she conducted her
159 own independent research including into freshwater algae. A year later the Nazis were in
160 power and she, like many other academics of Jewish descent, received a seven-line
161 communication from the university declaring that she was ‘nichtarischen’ (non-Aryan)
162 and therefore her post would ‘aufgeben müssen’ (have to be given up). Marie stayed in
163 Berlin the rest of the summer of 1933. She made contact with the newly established

164 Academic Assistance Council (AAC) run by Tess Simpson, a pacifist Quaker from
165 Leeds (The Times 1996). The AAC made an award to Marie that allowed her to come to
166 London in October 1933. The AAC also functioned as an academic labour exchange of
167 sorts and, through that connection, Marie was invited by Professor Dame Helen Gwynne-
168 Vaughan to work in the Botany Department at Birkbeck College, University of London.
169 As luck would have it, Helen Gwynne-Vaughan was a life member of the FBA. This
170 connection facilitated Marie to first conduct research on freshwater algae, then to receive
171 a studentship (which she held between 1935 and 1937, working alongside Penelope
172 Jenkin) (Freshwater Biological Association 1936). In January 1938, she became the first
173 female to obtain a permanent paid Assistant Naturalist position, focusing on Algology.
174 After the outbreak of war, however, in June 1940, north Lancashire was declared a
175 ‘protected area’ and, consequently, and certainly paradoxically, Marie was interned as an
176 enemy alien. Campaigning by FBA colleagues and applications by the Royal Society and
177 the successor organisation to the AAC, the Society for the Protection of Science and
178 Learning, led to her release in January 1941. The freshwater science network supported
179 Marie throughout her ordeal. The occasion of her liberty was commemorated in doggerel
180 verse by her FBA colleague, Thomas Macan:

181 ‘Twas not for crime that Rosie was doing time;
182 I know it sounds tyrannic
183 But celebrated British phlegm
184 In times of stress deserted them,
185 They got into a panic
186
187 And gathered in the high and low
188 And locked them up both friend and foe,
189 Selection uninvited,
190 And as they shut the prison doors

191 They shouted ‘Freedom is our Cause’,
192 Oh, Albion Perfidious!
193 (Macan 1941, 23)

194

195 Although relatively little is yet known of Rosenberg’s career after 1941, it seems that she
196 was unable to continue work on the ecology of phytoplankton. She did not depart the
197 freshwater science network, however, and moved to the Botany School in Cambridge
198 laboratory in early 1942, publishing at least once more paper on freshwater algae before
199 – we think – retiring from freshwater research (Rosenberg 1942).

200

201 Another friend of Marie Rosenberg’s was the Cambridge marine biologist, Anna Bidder
202 whose father, George Bidder, was a FBA life member and also a marine biologist.
203 Bidder’s mother was Marion Greenwood, supervisor of the aforementioned Balfour
204 Biological Laboratory at Cambridge University. It seems likely that Anna Bidder and her
205 father provided assistance to Marie Rosenberg when she arrived in Cambridge from
206 Windermere. Anna Bidder also had another connection to FBA women scientists. One of
207 her many achievements was the co-founding in 1955 of Lucy Cavendish College at
208 Cambridge University, the only college for graduate women students. She became its
209 first President, 1965-1970, and her successor as the second President was the FBA
210 freshwater scientist, Kate Ricardo.

211

212 Winifred Pennington, who first came to the FBA in 1936 has received wider recognition
213 than the previously mentioned women scientists. Her early explorations of lake
214 sediments in Lake Windermere are reported to have become “the seedbed for the

215 flowering of British limnology" (Lund 1984, 2), and her later wartime and post-war work
216 on post-glacial vegetation changes was pioneering in the field of paleolimnology
217 (Pennington 1943, 1947). After a period at Cambridge University Pennington returned to
218 the FBA to serve on the FBA Council between 1958-1967. In 1967 she became a
219 permanent member of staff, founding the Quaternary Research Unit there.

220

221

222

223 Conclusion

224 We could continue to list more women freshwater scientists from the inter- and post-War
225 period who worked at the FBA, such as Hilda Canter, Vera Collins, Elizabeth Howarth,
226 Brenda Knudson, and Peggy Varley, who, outside of their specific fields are
227 unacknowledged and, importantly, whose roles as scientists and as women in a scientific
228 culture are generally unexplored. We do not know, for example, whether FBA women
229 scientists were subject to various phenomena described by the sociology of science. For
230 example, the 'Matthew effect' (Merton 1968), defines the way social and cultural process
231 in science confer cumulative advantages. For male scientists these have historically
232 conferred opportunity, recognition and enhancement, thereby disadvantaging women.
233 Another issue to explore is whether women freshwater scientists were subject to the
234 comparable 'Matilda effect' – in which male scientists take credit for women scientist
235 collaborators' work - impacting upon their achievement (Rossiter 1993). Lastly, and
236 perhaps the ultimate definition of historical invisibility, is the converse of the 'scientific
237 pipeline', the 'leaky pipeline', a metaphor that describes women who drop-out, or are
238 pushed out of scientific careers (Etzkowitz *et al.* 2000).

239

240 These scientific lives are increasingly gaining attention, yet the history of science still
241 tends to isolate women scientists, rather than think of women working in scientific
242 cultures. The aquatic sciences have, it seems, a rich history. It is about time to open these
243 up, to simultaneously consider science and women in the twentieth century, and more
244 recently, and to define their wider significance.

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250

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