

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

1: HWS: History of Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell

Find helpful customer reviews and review ratings for Pioneer Work In Opening The Medical Profession To Women (Classics in Women's Studies) at www.enganchecubano.com Read honest and unbiased product reviews from our users.

Every member of the Blackwell family was involved in social reform movements. They believed in free and equal education for both sexes, which was radical thinking for that time period. Samuel Blackwell exerted a strong influence over the religious and practical education of his children. He believed that each child should be given the opportunity for unlimited development of his or her talents and abilities. Elizabeth had not only a governess, but also private tutors to supplement her intellectual development. In the 1790s, riots broke out in Bristol, and Mr. Blackwell suffered a series of business losses. In August he decided to try his luck in the United States. The family became deeply involved in the abolitionist movement, attending meetings and hiding an escaped slave in their home. These activities made her yearn for more economic and intellectual independence. In 1800, the refinery burned to the ground and was rebuilt, but Samuel Blackwell encountered business problems the following year. Blackwell became interested in making sugar from sugar beets instead of sugar cane, which required massive amounts of slave labor. However Samuel died unexpectedly in August 1801, leaving his family with no income. To support the family, Elizabeth and two of her sisters opened the Cincinnati English and French Academy for Young Ladies, a private boarding school. Elizabeth became an active member of St. However, after William Henry Channing, a charismatic Unitarian minister, arrived in Cincinnati in 1804 she began attending the Unitarian Church. The conservative Cincinnati community disapproved, and the Academy lost many students and was forced to close in 1805. Elizabeth began teaching privately. She worked at self-improvement by studying art, attending lectures, writing short stories, and attending religious services of all denominations. While living there she experienced the realities of slavery first hand. Six months later she returned to Cincinnati, determined to find a better way to make a living. An Independent Life In 1809, at age 24, Blackwell visited a friend who was suffering from terminal cancer of the uterus. The friend said that she would have been much more comfortable being treated by a female doctor. This meeting probably gave Blackwell the idea of pursuing a career in medicine, but she also hoped that it would allow her to be financially independent. Discreet inquiries to doctor friends concerning the possibility of acquiring a medical degree were met with incredulity or disgust, but she was not deterred. The following year, Blackwell was able to secure a post teaching in Asheville, North Carolina, where she studied medicine privately with Dr. By 1810, Blackwell was ready to begin applying to medical schools, knowing that no woman had ever been permitted to study medicine. She then returned to Philadelphia, where her friends were mostly Quaker liberals, abolitionists and other social reformers. She had some affairs with men, and feared that her romantic tendencies would lead her to marriage, but her determination to become a doctor soon became an obsession. However, she encountered nothing but resistance. She consulted male physicians, who advised her to study in Paris or to attend an American medical college disguised as a man. She was also told that women were intellectually inferior to men and incapable of mastering the study of medicine, and on the off chance that she might succeed she could not expect them to "furnish [her] with a stick to break our heads with. Her application was rejected by nineteen schools. The students thought it was a practical joke and voted to admit her. The boisterous young men soon became well-behaved gentlemen. However, she lived a solitary existence while at Geneva. Everyone considered her a oddity. They could not understand why she would want a medical career, when marriage and motherhood were much better goals for a woman. I had not the slightest idea of the commotion created by my appearance as a medical student in the little town. I afterwards found that I had so shocked Geneva propriety that the theory was fully established either that I was a bad woman, whose designs would gradually become evident, or that, being insane, an outbreak of insanity would soon be apparent. Feeling the unfriendliness of the people, though quite unaware of all this gossip, I never walked abroad, but hastening

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

daily to my college as to a sure refuge, I knew when I shut the great doors behind me that I shut out all unkindly criticism, and I soon felt perfectly at home amongst my fellow students. The summer after her first year at Geneva, Blackwell returned to Philadelphia and tried to find a job where she could gain clinical experience. She finally received permission to work for Guardians of the Poor, the city commission that ran Blockley Almshouse, but some young physicians there refused to work with her. Elizabeth Blackwell graduated first in her class on January 23, 1853, becoming the first American woman to receive a medical degree. However, the medical community was outraged, and Geneva Medical College again closed its doors to women. Blackwell traveled to Europe for additional training. Denied access to Parisian hospitals because of her gender, she enrolled instead at La Maternite, a highly regarded midwifery school. In the summer of 1854 she began her residency in midwifery and obstetrics - under the condition that she would be treated as a student midwife, not a physician. On November 4, 1854, while treating an infant with an eye infection, she spurted some contaminated solution into her own eye by accident. She lost sight in her left eye and thus lost all hope of becoming a surgeon. After recovery, she enrolled at St. Paul Dubois, the foremost obstetrician in his day, who voiced the opinion that she would make the best obstetrician in the United States, male or female. In 1855, Blackwell returned to the United States to begin her career, but no one would hire her. She had very few patients, but managed to get some media support from the New York Tribune. From these humble beginnings, Dr. Blackwell, her sister Dr. Emily Blackwell and German physician Dr. There they cared for pediatric, obstetric and gynecological patients, and women served on the board of trustees and as attending physicians. Poor women came from all boroughs of New York City to this first medical facility in the United States staffed by female physicians, and the patient load doubled in the second year. The institution also served as a nurse training facility. The sisters and Mary Livermore also played an important role in the development of the United States Sanitary Commission. Blackwell always promoted the importance of good hygiene. She also published two important books on the issue of women in medicine, including *Medicine as a Profession For Women* in 1852 and *Address on the Medical Education of Women* in 1853. In the New York Infirmary treated nearly 7,000 patients. She then turned her attention to her dream of establishing a medical college for women adjacent to the hospital. Blackwell had always planned to return to England to make her career, and in 1855 she left New York to spend the remaining 40 years of her life in Great Britain. As her health declined, Blackwell resigned this position in 1856, and officially retired from medicine. In *Social Reform In England* Blackwell diversified her interests, and was active both in social reform and authorship. She co-founded the National Health Society in 1859. She perceived herself as a wealthy gentlewoman who had the leisure to dabble in reform and in intellectual activities - the income from her American investments supported her. Her greatest period of reform activity came after her retirement, from 1856 to 1860. She was highly involved in a variety of social reform movements: She also contributed to the establishment of two Utopian communities in the 1840s. She became very close friends with Florence Nightingale, and remained lifelong friends with English feminist and activist Barbara Bodichon, and met Elizabeth Cady Stanton in 1840. She was close with her family, and visited her brothers and sisters whenever she could during her travels. Having decided not to marry, Dr. Blackwell adopted Kitty Barry, a seven-year-old Irish orphan in 1852. Diary entries at the time show that she adopted Barry half out of loneliness and a feeling of social obligation, and half out of a need for domestic help. Barry gradually became one of the family and lived with Blackwell until her death. Blackwell continued to be active in her retirement. She slowly disengaged from her reform work spent more time traveling. In 1860, she fell down a flight of stairs, and was left almost completely mentally and physically disabled. Elizabeth Blackwell died May 31, 1875, after suffering a stroke at her home, Rock House, in Hastings, England at age 72.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

2: Pioneer work in opening the medical profession to women in SearchWorks catalog

Practical work in America; England revisited; Return to England. Publisher's Summary Here is the story of Elizabeth Blackwell's dedicated, groundbreaking struggle to become a doctor, eloquently told in her own words.

Elizabeth Blackwell was of a large, prosperous, and cultured family and was well educated by private tutors. Soon after taking up residence in New York, her father, Samuel Blackwell, became active in abolitionist activities. During the latter period Blackwell undertook the study of medicine privately with sympathetic physicians, and in she began seeking admission to a medical school. All the leading schools rejected her application, but she was at length admitted, almost by fluke, to Geneva Medical College a forerunner of Hobart College in Geneva, New York. Her months there were extremely difficult. Townspeople and much of the male student body ostracized and harassed her, and she was at first even barred from classroom demonstration. She persevered, however, and in January , ranked first in her class, she became the first woman in the United States to graduate from medical school and the first modern-day woman doctor of medicine. Despite numerous challenges, including harassment from the male student body, Elizabeth Blackwell persevered and became the first American-trained woman to receive an M. While there she contracted an infectious eye disease that left her blind in one eye and forced her to abandon hope of becoming a surgeon. In October she returned to England and worked at St. Her private practice was very slow to develop, and in the meantime she wrote a series of lectures, published in as *The Laws of Life, with Special Reference to the Physical Education of Girls*. In Blackwell opened a small dispensary in a slum district. Within a few years she was joined by her younger sister, Dr. Emily Blackwell , and by Dr. Zakrzewska , and in May the dispensary, greatly enlarged, was incorporated as the New York Infirmary for Women and Children. In January , during a year-long lecture tour of Great Britain, she became the first woman to have her name placed on the British medical register. Sanitary Commission and worked mainly through the former to select and train nurses for war service. Elizabeth Blackwell set very high standards for admission, academic and clinical training, and certification for the school, which continued in operation for 31 years; she herself occupied the chair of hygiene. In Blackwell moved permanently to England. She established a successful private practice, helped organize the National Health Society in , and in was appointed professor of gynecology at the London School of Medicine for Women. She retained the latter position until , when an injury forced her to retire. Learn More in these related Britannica articles:

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

3: Elizabeth Blackwell | Biography & Facts | www.enganchecubano.com

After teaching school for more than a decade, the medical profession gradually became free shipping over \$ Buy a cheap copy of Pioneer Work In Opening The Medical book by Elizabeth Blackwell.

She was the third daughter among nine children. In this liberal family atmosphere, the Blackwell daughters and sons received their education at home from private tutors. Jefferson Medical College suggested she might attend classes disguised as a man, but Blackwell believed her moral crusade "must be pursued in the light of day, and with public sanction, in order to accomplish its end. The male students at Geneva had unanimously treated her application as a "joke" and Blackwell faced ridicule and discrimination in her classes. In the summer of 1847, however, she was given the opportunity to do work with patients at the Philadelphia Hospital of the Blockley Almshouse. There she treated typhus among Irish immigrants and became convinced of the need for sanitation and personal hygiene. Her convictions were recorded in her thesis, published in the Buffalo Medical Journal and Monthly. In 1849, graduating at the head of her class, Blackwell became the first woman in America to earn a degree from a medical college. Eager to increase her medical knowledge, Blackwell set out for study in Europe after becoming a naturalized American citizen. There she contracted purulent ophthalmia and lost sight in one eye; all hopes of becoming a surgeon were dashed. During work in England, she began a lifelong friendship with Florence Nightingale and shared interests in sanitation and hygiene. In 1853 Blackwell returned to New York but faced serious difficulties in establishing a private practice. She turned to lectures and writing on good hygiene. By 1854 Blackwell had a one-room dispensary in the tenement district of New York and in 1855 was renamed the New York Infirmary for Women and Children. Blackwell returned to England in 1859, leaving management of the infirmary and college to her sister. She resided there for the rest of her life with her adopted daughter. She established a successful practice in London and in 1860 helped found the National Health Society with the motto "Prevention is better than cure. Blackwell continued to write and lecture on moral reform. Her "Counsel to Parents on the Moral Education of Their Children" was rejected by 12 publishers as too controversial and had to be printed privately. In a plain and direct manner Blackwell argued that there was no physiological necessity for a double standard of morality, but Victorian England and America were shocked by her position. In the closing chapter she wrote of her "hope for the future: Essays in Medical Sociology 2 vols. Elizabeth Blackwell, Elizabeth Garrett Anderson A Ranking Past and Present A Biographical Dictionary No Women Need Apply: Sexual Barriers in the Medical Profession, The First Woman Doctor First Woman Doctor video, WARD Pick a style below, and copy the text for your bibliography. Retrieved November 15, from Encyclopedia. Then, copy and paste the text into your bibliography or works cited list. Because each style has its own formatting nuances that evolve over time and not all information is available for every reference entry or article, Encyclopedia.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

4: Elizabeth Blackwell - Wikipedia

About Pioneer Work In Opening The Medical Profession To Women. Born in England, she immigrated with her family to the United States in After teaching school for more than a decade, the medical profession gradually became an irresistible calling, and she began applying to medical schools.

They continued to practice without formal training or recognition in England and eventually North America for the next several centuries. These gains were sometimes tempered by setbacks; for instance, Mary Roth Walsh documented a decline in women physicians in the US in the first half of the twentieth century, such that there were fewer women physicians in than there were in Women have achieved parity in medical school in some industrialized countries, since forming the majority of the United States medical student body. In industrialized nations, the recent parity in gender of medical students has not yet trickled into parity in practice. In many developing nations, neither medical school nor practice approach gender parity. Moreover, there are skews within the medical profession: In the United States, female physicians outnumber male physicians in pediatrics and female residents outnumber male residents in family medicine, obstetrics and gynecology, pathology, and psychiatry. Research on this issue, called the "leaky pipeline" by the National Institutes of Health and other researchers, shows that while women have achieved parity with men in entering graduate school, a variety of discrimination causes them to drop out at each stage in the academic pipeline: Glass ceiling[edit] The glass ceiling is used as a metaphor to convey the undefined obstacles that women and minorities face in the workplace. One study surveyed physician mothers and their physician daughters in order to analyze the effect that discrimination and harassment have on the individual and their career. The authors of this study stated that discrimination in the medical field persisted after the title VII discrimination legislation was passed in This study also stated that both generations equally experienced gender discrimination within their work environments. This article provided an overview on the history of gender discrimination, claiming that gender initiated the systematic exclusion of women from medical schools. This was the case until , when the National Organization for Women NOW filed a class action lawsuit against all medical schools in the United States. More specifically, this lawsuit was successful in forcing medical schools to comply to the civil rights legislation. This success was seen by when the number of women in medicine had nearly tripled, and continued to grow as the years progressed. These women reported experiencing instances of exclusion from career opportunities as a result of their race and gender. According to this article, females tend to have lessened confidence in their abilities as a doctor, yet their performance is equivalent to that of their male counterparts. This study also commented on the impact of power dynamics within medical school, which is established as a hierarchy that ultimately shapes the educational experience. According to this article, this position holds females more accountable for their actions as a result of unrealistic expectations set forth by these gender roles, which expects female doctors to take on a nurturing and matronly persona when dealing with patients. On the topic of power dynamics, another study commented on the nature of sexual harassment, stating that it was most commonly perpetrated within career training stages, by people in positions of power. According to this article, instances of sexual harassment attribute to the high attrition rates of females in the STEM fields. A few women who provided knowledge were: She is most commonly known as the first female president of the American Heart Association [25] Taussig was diagnosed with Dyslexia when she was young. Around the same time, her mother, Edith Guild Taussig died. He was also known for creating the "Foundation of Modern Trade Theory". Taussig earned a A. B from University of California, Berkeley in The University was not accepting women at the time. In her 30s, Taussig grew deaf. Due to her inability to hear, Taussig found an alternative method to studying the heartbeat in children by feeling the beat with her hands. This method lead her to discover "Blue Baby Syndrome ", [27] which was termed so due to the cyanotic hue resembling babies who were thought to be ill. In , a surgeon named Alfred Blalock teamed up with Taussig and wrote an article called, [28] which explored their creation and alternative approach for a stunt-

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

Blalock-Taussig Shunt "- that would help circulate blood from the lungs to the heart. Taussig received multiple awards after In , Taussig received the Albert Lasker award, which is awarded for outstanding contributions to medicine. In , Taussig was acknowledged for being one of the first women who received full professorship to Johns Hopkins University. In , Taussig was awarded the medal of freedom from President Lyndon B. Finally, in , Taussig was known as the first women of the American Heart Association , for which she is so prominently known for. She was "responsible for investigating the epidemic of serious congenital limb malformations". This investigation focused on European children and Taussig had a theory that the malformations were caused by the use of Thalidomide. She resolved this ongoing issue by persuading the Food and Drug Administration to discontinue the use and sale of Thalidomide in the U. S Helen Flanders Dunbar: At this particular point in her life her interest in theology , philosophy , and medicine. Dunbar met James Henry Leuba at Bryn Mawr College , which sparked her interest due to his standing as a psychologist of religion at the college. This achievement was awarded primarily due to her thesis, "Methods Training in the Devotional Life Emphasized in the American Churches". From until the year before she died, Dunbar wrote an assortment of books including: During the year of her death, Dunbar wrote "Accidents of Life Experience", "Basic aspects and applications of the psychology of safety", and "Psychiatry in medicine specialties". She was found face down in her swimming pool. Out of the different occupations women took on around this time, midwifery was the best paid of them all. Benjamin Page who wanted to take over the delivery of babies completely; putting midwifery second. The education of women on the basis of midwifery was stunted by both physicians and public-health reformers, driving midwifery to be seen as out of practice.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

5: Elizabeth Blackwell | www.enganchecubano.com

Pioneer Work in Opening the Medical Profession to Women by Elizabeth Blackwell available in Trade Paperback on www.enganchecubano.com, also read synopsis and reviews. Born in England, she immigrated with her family to the United States in

A dedicated public health advocate, social reformer, and prolific writer, Blackwell changed the course of modern medicine, founding hospitals and medical colleges for women in the United States and England, pioneering in preventive medicine and infection control, and breaking prejudicial barriers against women in medicine on two continents. Elizabeth Blackwell was born in England, near Bristol on February 3, , the third of nine children, at a time when women had no access to higher education or the professions, and married women had no legal identities separate from their husbands. Both boys and girls were tutored at home. Nine years later everything changed. Life in Bristol became unstable. Cholera swept through the city. Riots began to break out and factories were burned. They settled in New York City in . Eleven year old Elizabeth continued her studies, reading everything, learning French and German, and studying music and art. Despite his best efforts, Samuel never regained the financial prosperity they had known in England. The family dismissed their servants and economized but found it necessary to start over once again and moved to Cincinnati, Ohio six years later. Three weeks after their move to Ohio however, Samuel died unexpectedly from biliary fever caused by a tick bite, leaving his family alone and impoverished. To support the family, Elizabeth, then 18, her mother Hannah, and two older sisters opened a private school: It became the primary source of income until the boys were old enough to go into business two years later in . At that point Hannah closed the school and Elizabeth tutored students privately. When she received an invitation to teach in Henderson, Kentucky, she left home for the first time. Though she enjoyed her students, Elizabeth found the realities of slavery and racism untenable, and she refused to accept the attitudes of the southern families paying her wage. She resigned her position and returned to Cincinnati within the year. She suggested that since Elizabeth loved to study, she should study medicine. I became impatient of the disturbing influence exercised by the other sex. I had always been extremely susceptible to this influence. The challenge of becoming a woman physician intrigued her, and she thought the pursuit of medical training would be the deterrent she sought to a stifling marriage. Since she had no idea how to become a physician, Elizabeth consulted several doctors known to her family, as well as close family friend Harriet Beecher Stowe. They said it was a good idea, but impossible suggesting there were strong prejudices and too many obstacles to overcome. It was commonly assumed women were morally unfit to practice medicine, that they were ignorant, inexact, untrustworthy, un-businesslike, lacking in sense and mental perception, and contemptuous of logic. Not to mention immodest. There was no education available to women and in addition, medical school was expensive. Elizabeth reasoned that if, as others advised, the idea had value, then there would be a way to do it. Elizabeth Blackwell In , at age 24, Elizabeth decided she was going to get a medical education. She found a job teaching music at an academy in Asheville, North Carolina. She lodged with the Reverend John Dickson, who had been a physician before becoming a clergyman. Samuel Dickson, a prominent Charleston physician. Within two years, Elizabeth achieved her financial goal. The summer of , Elizabeth sailed to Philadelphia because it was considered to have the best schooling. She applied to the four best medical colleges in Philadelphia and was rejected. She recorded in her diary that interviews with school officials were disappointing. While she continued to seek admission, Elizabeth began to study anatomy privately with a doctor sympathetic to her. She also found support in Dr. Joseph Warrington who allowed her to visit his patients, attend his lectures, and make use of his library. He spoke to various friends on her behalf. Though she eventually applied for admission to every medical college in Philadelphia and New York City all twenty nine schools rejected her. Refusing to give up, she then wrote to a number of lesser known colleges, including Geneva Medical College in western New York state. After her acceptance at Geneva Medical College, she found out the college

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

administrators let the students decide whether to allow a woman admission or not. The young men thought it was a good joke and said yes. She started classes in November facing prejudice and loneliness. A woman studying medicine was such an aberration, townspeople would stop and stare at her. They thought her insane, immoral, or both. She stayed strong in herself and kept sight of her goal. Even though she joined the class midterm, she caught up and became the head of her class. In the summer between school terms, Elizabeth returned to Philadelphia to work at the Blockley Almshouse where a typhus epidemic had broken out. There, she gained the clinical experiences she wanted, and her increasing interest in the disease later became the subject of her thesis at Geneva. In January, 1825, at the age of 28, Elizabeth Blackwell received her medical degree, at the top of her class. Though she had received the necessary training and credential, she was banned from practicing medicine by the medical community. Blackwell decided to continue her studies in Europe, only to find the hospitals of England closed to her as well. After a few months, she traveled to the Paris hospital, La Maternite, where she was admitted under the condition she be treated as a student midwife, not as a physician. She found support in a young resident physician who provided mentoring throughout her training in obstetrics. Her study was cut short when she contracted purulent ophthalmia resulting in one eye being removed, preventing her from fulfilling a dream of becoming a surgeon. During this time, she led an active social life, becoming friends with Anne Isabella Byron, the widow of Lord Byron. She also met young Florence Nightingale, just before she defied her family to study nursing. A year later Elizabeth returned to New York City determined to open her own practice. She found no male doctor would accept her as an associate. No landlord in the city would rent space. Eventually she rented a room in Jersey City. She hung out her shingle and waited, but very few patients came. She wrote articles on the importance of good hygiene as well as the importance of exercise and physical education for girls in school. After her sister Emily received her medical degree in 1847, she joined Elizabeth. Together they opened a clinic in the slums of New York City for women and children. Zakrzewska, a trained midwife from Berlin who had done her pre-med studies with Elizabeth before graduating from Cleveland. This facility still exists as the Beekman Downtown Hospital. It not only served the poor but provided a training facility and positions for female medical and nursing students. Zak served as chief resident and Dr. Emily as the chief of surgery. During this time, Elizabeth adopted an orphan Katherine Barry, who became a lifelong companion as well as an adopted daughter. She returned a year later after becoming the first woman to have her name entered on the Medical Register of the United Kingdom. When the Civil War broke out in 1862, Elizabeth contributed by training and organizing a unit of female field doctors and nurses. It was the first American medical school for women. It was one of the first medical schools in America to require four years of study. Emily Blackwell took over management of the college which freed Elizabeth to return to England and establish a medical college for women there. Elizabeth said, The first seven years of New York life were years of very difficult though steady, uphill work. It was carried on without cessation and without change from town, either summer or winter. Patients came very slowly to consult me. I had no medical companionship, the profession stood aloof, and society was distrustful of the innovation. Insolent letters occasionally came by post, and my pecuniary position was a source of constant anxiety. My keenest pleasure in those early days came from the encouraging letters received from the many valued English friends who extended across the ocean the warm sympathy they had shown in London. They strengthened that feeling of kinship to my native land which finally drew me back to it. Elizabeth Blackwell She sailed in 1851. Our New York centre was well organised under able guidance, and I determined to return to England for a temporary though prolonged residence, both to renew physical strength, which had been severely tried, and to enlarge my experience of life, as well as to assist in the pioneer work so bravely commencing in London, and which extended later to Edinburgh. She helped form the National Health Society of England in 1859 and three years later also participated in the creation and opening of the New Hospital and London School of Medicine for Women. Her health, however, gradually declined. In 1862, Elizabeth moved to the village of Hastings, on the English Channel. She gave up private practice and began a period of prolific writing on issues she felt needed reform. She received a steady stream of visitors, corresponded vigorously,

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

and actively wrote for publication. In , at age 86, Elizabeth took a serious fall from which she never recovered. She died on May 31, at her home, after suffering a stroke. She was buried in St. At the time of her death, America had over 7, practicing women physicians who had graduated with a medical diploma. Elizabeth Blackwell was not the first woman to practice medicine in America, she was the first to receive the same training as every other medically educated physician. Through her hard work, persistence, and determination, she achieved her personal goals and worked tirelessly to open doors for women following her. Elizabeth was a strong-willed woman who relied on inner counsel to manifest her dreams and to help others to do the same.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

6: Top shelves for Pioneer Work In Opening The Medical Profession To Women

This is the introduction from Pioneer Work in Opening the Medical Profession to Women: Autobiographical Sketches by Elizabeth Blackwell, reprint by Prometheus Books, Humanity Books Classics in Women's Studies Series (Amherst: Prometheus books,):

Talbot President of A. Twelve women enroll in the first class and graduate in . Renamed the New England Female Medical College, this school for midwives was expanded in to include a full medical curriculum, and began to grant medical degrees to women. Reaction by the Boston medical establishment was swift and condemnatory. Members of this group charged that women had insufficient stamina to deal with the tension of medical practice. During the years that it granted the medical degree, classes ran for 17 weeks, 30 hours per week of instruction. Few dissections were performed because embalming was not yet done, and it was illegal to obtain cadavers. Frequently, French part Auzomanikins and obstetric manikins were used for anatomy instructors. Sewall, MD, and Anita E. They are politely informed by Dean Shattuck that no provision has been made or exists for the education of women in any department of the University. Their application is turned down by a vote of seven to one of a Committee of the Faculty. They persist and reapply in . Jex-Blake even manages to get three women medical students to join her in attending the lectures of Dr. Hasket Derby at the medical school. The medical staff responds by informing the President that, "this faculty do not approve the admission of any female to the lectures of any professor. The building on the left is the original School building, erected in , The C Building and torn down in . To provide a clinical facility, the Homeopathic hospital was built in , with medical and surgical wings added over the years until completion in . It began as a response to the Massachusetts Medical Society being closed to women. The trustees explored affiliation with stronger institutions, including Harvard and Boston University. The trustees voted for union with Boston University, which was willing to take on the college and its debts without any money up front. The merger left the Female Medical College with a new name, a new faculty and a new adherence to the doctrine of homeopathy, which Boston University School of Medicine did not formally abandon until after World War I. In , more than a third of its students were female. At its founding, the School of Medicine absorbed the New England Female Medical College, which supported the homeopathic approach to medicine. The School therefore had a large proportion of female medical students, and homeopathy was practiced in addition to more conventional medical treatments. Fuller went on to become the first black psychiatrist in the United States. Mercy Ruggles Jackson Bisbee Marie Jackson was a homeopath who practiced without a degree in Plymouth, Massachusetts, for many years. In she applied for membership in the American Institute of Homeopathy headquartered in Philadelphia but was rejected on account of her sex. Her annual reapplications were similarly rejected until June , when the Institute admitted three women. Two years later she was admitted to both the Massachusetts and the Boston homeopathic societies. She received her M. In she was appointed adjunct professor of the diseases of children at the newly opened Boston University School of Medicine. She continued to practice medicine and to teach until her death. The Boston Female Medical College held its first classes in . A total of 98 women earned their degrees from the college over the next two decades, along with a larger number of midwives and other allied professionals. She worked from as a nurse in Massachusetts. Burroughs was born in Florence, Italy on 11 August, Her early life is not well-known, except that she lived for a short while in Skaneateles and Elmira. She then began practicing medicine in Lyons, and for many years she was the only female physician in Wayne County. In the Wayne County Directory, Dr. Burroughs is listed as an "eclectic physician. An interesting facet of this movement is that it actually encouraged women to study and practice medicine. Burroughs practiced in Lyons for nearly 30 years. She died of tuberculosis on 11 September , and is buried in the Lyons Rural Cemetery. Bertha Van Hoosen She liked reading and thinking and studying Latin. When the Civil War started, her father died, so she and her mother came to Boston from their home in North Carolina. When she was 17 she went to Europe to become a doctor. She died in a

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

shipwreck when she was only She was beloved by everyone. Boston has named a street in her honor. In New York, women were admitted to the state medical society in In Massachusetts the question first arose in with reference to the application of Dr. Longshore received her medical degree from the Female Medical College of Pennsylvania in The following year she was hired by the New England Female Medical College in Boston as the first female instructor of anatomy. Longshore Myers, one of the early woman physicians and mother of two children, enrolled at the age of thirty-one in the Female Medical College of Pennsylvania and received her M. Elizabeth Blackwell was also turned away from the Harvard Medical School as well as several others before finally being admitted in to the Geneva College of Medicine in Geneva, New York. Trained in her native Germany as a midwife and experienced as an instructor of midwifery, Zakrzewska immigrated to America in Elizabeth Blackwell arranged for Zakrzewska to attend Cleveland Medical College where she was among the first women in the country to obtain a medical degree. Returning to New York, Zakrzewska helped Blackwell build her new hospital. Offered a teaching position at the New England Female Medical College in Boston, Zakrzewska moved to Boston and was outraged to discover that the school was little more than a place to train midwives. She lead the effort to create a new teaching hospital, founding the New England Hospital for Women and Children in Her school was of such a high caliber that after , she only admitted women who had already earned an MD. Cordelia Agnes Greene She taught in country schools until her father opened a water-cure sanitarium in Castile, New York in Greene quit teaching and went to work for her father as a nurse in the sanitarium. She continued her studies in Cleveland, where she graduated with honors from Cleveland Medical College later Case Western Reserve in Greene returned to Upstate New York after her graduation and assumed a position as the assistant to Dr. Henry Foster, a fellow graduate of Cleveland Medical College who owned the water cure establishment in Clifton Springs. Cordelia Greene was a respected member of the medical community. She was also a member of the New York State Medical Association, and served as president of their Wyoming County branch, which often held their meetings at her facility. One of her assistants at the Sanitarium, Dr. Mary Corinna Putnam Jacobi, From the wealthy and well-connected Putnam publishing family, Putnam was determined to become a physician. Since she came of age just as the Civil War began, she expected greater opportunities than women who had come before her. She acquired her medical degree from the Female Medical College of Pennsylvania in After 2 years of efforts, she became the first woman of any nationality to be admitted to the prestigious Ecole de Medecine. She graduated with high honors and won an award for her thesis. When she returned to the US in , Putnam was better educated than most physicians of either sex. One by one, she was admitted to the most prestigious medical organizations. She continued her research, publishing over scientific papers. Unusual for her time, Jacobi continued her medical practice after she married and had 3 children. She organized the Advancement of the Medical Education of Women in and served as president for most of her life. An active suffragist, her "Common Sense" Applied to Woman Suffrage became a classic for the suffragist movement. Mary Harris Thompson, 1st American woman surgeon. She studied a year with Elizabeth Blackwell, the first American woman doctor. At the outset the hospital was fairly well sustained through private benefactions, and in largely through Dr. The hospital building was totally destroyed in the great fire of but temporary accommodations were provided in another section of the city. Mary Eliza Mahoney, Sixteen months later, she was one of four who completed the rigorous course of forty-two who started with her. She ended her nursing career as director of an orphanage in Long Island, New York, the position she had held for a decade. Samuel Gregory and his brother George issued pamphlets advocating the education and employment of women-physicians, and, in , Dr. Gregory delivered a series of lectures in Boston upon that subject, followed in by a school numbering twelve ladies, and as association entitled the "American Female Medical Education Society. That mindset, in addition to his attacks on male practitioners and the mediocre level of training offered at the school, led the college into controversy, even among women. But this and other all-female institutions helped women achieve a level of training that would not have been otherwise possible. In , Elizabeth Blackwell, who eight years earlier became the first woman to earn a medical degree in the United States, established the New York Infirmary for Women

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

and Children, the first American hospital staffed completely by women. Blackwell ran the facility with two other pioneering woman physicians, her sister Emily and Marie Zakrzewska. A professor of Medicine as well as the most well known female physician of her time in America, Dr. Zakrzewska specialized in obstetrics and gynecology. She was the first female physician in New England.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

7: Elizabeth Blackwell | Civil War Women

Note: Citations are based on reference standards. However, formatting rules can vary widely between applications and fields of interest or study. The specific requirements or preferences of your reviewing publisher, classroom teacher, institution or organization should be applied.

Inquiring into the Reception History of Dr. It is interesting how the presence of Elizabeth Blackwell at Geneva Medical College upset the women as much, if not more so, than the men. This is shown by two letters written by a male medical student, Samuel Craddock Jr. This leads us to believe that Mr. Blackwell were in the same class, or at least the same department. The second letter from Mr. This class includes Miss Elizabeth Blackwell. These are the same male students who agreed to allow Blackwell to study on the Geneva campus. Craddock notes that he admires the education of a woman and that it is important to him over their physical beauty Craddock, Oct. This supports a statement that Blackwell makes in Pioneer Work: In a newspaper article covering graduation day for the class of , which included Elizabeth Blackwell, the author portrays Blackwell as reserved or unassuming. He makes it seem as if the audience were very supportive, loving, and grateful. According to this author, the moment in which Blackwell received her diploma "proved too much for the audience, and quick as thought the building rang with applause" Geneva Medical College Commencement. There is, however, a different attitude from the elder women of the community who also attended commencement. Margaret DeLancey continuously makes derogatory comments about Blackwell as well as a woman in a choir who sang loudly and emphasized the anthem. This woman was, to DeLancey, "the most conspicuous individual" Letter, It is as though Ms. DeLancey does not appreciate a woman in the spotlight even though she herself is a woman. This is consistent with a statement that Blackwell makes in her autobiography: It is shocking to think that women would not be supportive of one another attempting to elevate the sex in society. Men may have portrayed Blackwell as unimportant or unassuming because they did not want to seem intimidated by Blackwell. To admit such would be admitting that a woman could succeed in the field of medicine and even become better than men in the same field. It seems that this portrayal of Blackwell as unimportant is very misogynistic. As we know, Blackwell is a very important woman and her achievements as a woman in the medical field are what made her such. Also, Blackwell does not represent herself as an unassuming person. In fact she seems the opposite, which is shown in a letter she writes to Ezra Cornell. Cornell had at some time prior to the letter proclaimed that he was interested in starting a medical school for women. In the letter Blackwell tells him, "I am very desirous of learning what your plan really is" Paragraph 2, Apr. In this letter, Blackwell portrays herself as an authoritative figure. By portraying herself in this way, Blackwell does not allow herself to get pushed around; instead she is the one doing the pushing in order to make sure Mr. Cornell keeps his word. Questions We have presented one reason why men may have down-played Blackwell as an important figure and a role model; what may some others be? Also, why were women judgmental and not supportive of Blackwell and her achievements, what might they have stood to lose by being such? The mere fact that the words "Hobart" and "First Woman" are in the title convey that this article was trying to attract attention from both sexes. She had become a public icon and a topic of discussion when this article was written in the early s, as seen through the sheer number of other articles about her more than ten available at the Geneva Historical Society from the s. For example, the article tells how Blackwell was voted into the medical college by the students as a joke, and that they covered up this mistake by stating, "a pretty girl would do a great deal to make medicine interesting" "Hobart" par. She was seen as a freak during her actual education, but was no longer viewed that way when "Hobart" was written almost a century later. The article takes the time to normalize her by explaining her acceptance socially into the Geneva medical community after her return from Pennsylvania where she fought typhoid. Blackwell is also constructed for a broad range of readers as a role model who achieved a career despite societal norms working against her. This further demonstrates how Blackwell had become a household name by the first half of the twentieth century.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

At the time that these articles were written, gender roles were beginning to be highly debated because of the roles women assumed during World War II. These articles were written at the end of the Great Depression, and people were in need of a role model. Elizabeth Blackwell provided the perfect success story that gave hope to women across the nation. During World War II, women had a chance to work in factories while the men were at war, but when the men returned they reclaimed their places in the factories, thus returning women to the homestead. Questions How did World War II change gender roles in a way that would inspire newspapers and other publishers to write about Elizabeth Blackwell, and further, to write in the way they did in an unbiased, informative style? Why would a newspaper choose to have a child-directed, prize-offering article about Elizabeth Blackwell such a long time after her graduation? Why were the articles about Blackwell much less biased in this later period than when she first became a doctor? Geneva College worked for the awarding of a medical diploma conferring the right to women to practice medicine and is considered "a pioneer in education" by Johnston. Interestingly, Johnston was affiliated with the Colleges when he wrote this so it can almost serve as a piece of propaganda along with being a historical account. Johnston seeks to fit Blackwell into the history of Geneva which he describes as "a place already dominated by the spirit and tradition of pioneers. Johnston does cite her tremendous effort, selflessness and the fact that she did not fully realize the antagonism she was up against until she graduated from Geneva. Johnston places emphasis on the role of the College, appropriately citing a letter describing it as "an institution which rises above popular prejudice of the day and confers its honors upon a highly educated and intellectual female. The audience seems to be meant for incoming applicants in , trying to promote the College and the town of Geneva. Blackwell was another addition to the already pioneer-filled history of Geneva. He describes her acceptance as the current students allowing it because they knew she could handle it. It seems like a very optimistic outlook considering the exclusively male student body. He also adds how the commencement ceremony was held in the small church she used to attend instead of the large Trinity church as a tribute to her. In this letter there are several descriptions of how the students and teachers were beyond kind to her and how much they supported her. While most of this is a factual document and must be true, the facts and documents that Johnston chooses are very interesting and most definitely promote the kindness of the college. Questions How vital was it for Blackwell to find a "pioneering medical institution"? How much credit should be given to Blackwell and how much to the institution? These recipients, like Blackwell, were rewarded for their determination to be an individual within an oppressive society. Her attempt to establish a hospital entirely operated by women was a struggle in itself: Each award was given to a remarkable woman who based her life upon bettering humanity. Blackwell was referred to as a "pioneer in preventive medicine and in the promotion of antisepsis and hygiene," indicating her outstanding contribution concerning fundamental advances in medicine "Sixth Award". In , the cover no longer was embossed with the replica of the medal received by each recipient. The lost feature of the embossed award was appalling since the award was named after Blackwell. It seems as time progressed, the Colleges wanted more recognition for their establishment of the award. This award was meant to acknowledge women for their individuality, but ironically the vase is quintessentially a feminine object. This suggests that throughout the s and s women were encouraged to be independent, but still to lead a domesticated lifestyle. Gwendolyn Grant Mellon was the first recipient of the award. Although her husband was recognized for the idea to build a hospital in Haiti, Gwendolyn was known for managing several facets of this innovative project Gwendolyn Grant Mellon. During the late s to mid s, there was an amalgamation of the "domesticated" role of women and their determination to become more involved in fulfilling a career. Mellon, like Blackwell, chose to "leave a subordinate position and seek to obtain a complete medical education" Blackwell, Pioneer Work The recipient had been a recovering alcoholic herself and had wanted the public to understand that alcoholism is a disease. Mann felt this subject should be taken seriously; it is not a matter that individuals should discriminate against if someone needs help or counseling. This was considered a bold step for any individual during this time period, especially for a woman. There is no doubt about losing many opportunities because of our sex, but you must also bear in mind the advantages all students labour under,

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

unless in exceptional cases" Pioneer Work Blackwell and each of the award recipients inspire society to follow their aspirations in enhancing opportunities for mankind without succumbing to gender boundaries. Today we see the evidence of these influential women in the decreasing disparity between men and women in society. Questions Did Blackwell and the recipients of her award use male assistance to aid their cause for humanity or were men considered a dominating force that inspired these women to make a name for themselves? The social changes going on in this particular time period, however, influenced the ways in which writers represented her then as opposed to now. She portrayed Blackwell with much warmth as she wrote, "Few perhaps realize what charm and self-control or poise she possessed. Her iron will made possible her unusual perseverance" Whittier 2. She described how the students at Geneva College voted her into the school as a joke and how many people viewed Blackwell as "mad or bad" after her first return from Europe Whittier 2. Regarding her accident, Whittier wrote, "The poison spread through her body. She became a very sick woman and eventually lost her left eye. This accident terminated her service at La Maternite, ended the possibility of her becoming a surgeon and brought to an end a romance with one of the men studying [at La Maternite] for a medical degree" Whittier 3. Blackwell left out the detail of these different struggles she faced. Whittier wrote with a different purpose: Her audience would have been the followers of the revived feminist movement of the s. In fact, Millicent G. This contrasts with Dr. Why is this term, also used in the reprint introduction, included on the most recent cover, but not on the cover? And how do those construct Blackwell during those years? In order to truly understand and encompass the times and events occurring during the early nineteen-seventies specifically highlighting surrounding Elizabeth Blackwell and the creation of her commemorative stamp, we chose to analyze the following pieces: In , the following major events occurred: In a ground-breaking court case, Corning Glass Works v. Supreme Court ruled that employers cannot justify paying women lower wages because that is what they traditionally received under the "going market rate.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

8: Elizabeth Blackwell, M.D., America's first female doctor - Amazing Women In History

Pioneer Work In Opening The Medical Profession To Women > Top Shelves Top shelves for Pioneer Work In Opening The Medical Profession To Women (showing of 31) to-read.

The professional theories have also been developed from a male perspective. Social work, on the other hand, is a female professional project, where women constitute a vast majority of the professionals. This article explores the process of social work professionalisation in Norway from a feminist perspective and by taking the historical position of women into consideration. According to the official account, social work in Norway is a product of the post-WWII welfare state. The development of the post-war welfare state did move Norwegian social work from the margins to a much more central position, but gender is still an important dimension through which to deconstruct professional development. A corps of executive officers was required to handle a series of social-political reforms regarding social support and economic services. During the anniversary celebrations, many emphasized that this state demand had given rise to a whole new kind of professional and contributed to continual growth in social work regarding knowledge production. The social work profession in Norway is the topic of this article, with a focus on two main concerns. I challenge the official understanding of the origin of Norwegian social work as a profession, claiming that there already existed a school of professional social work prior to the state school, although its existence has been made invisible and neglected in the official story. From a feminist perspective I explore the constitution of a professional field and the construction of the first school of social work, focusing on what these pioneering women tried to achieve, their working strategies, thought styles and motivations. Also I argue that our understanding of professions and professional growth is still overwhelmingly male biased. Among other things, gendering professional theories will produce new and richer understandings of the professions and allow us to comment on how the premises for becoming successful within the system of professions differ according to gender. In my view, social work provides an example of a profession where there is still a knowledge gap to fill and where there are silenced stories that need to be told. The article draws on earlier writings on social work by scholars and by social workers themselves, a series of white papers, annual reports, official statistics, biographies and Festschriften [1]. The article begins with a brief outline of professional theories and a feminist critique of these before touching on how the process of professionalization in social work has been accounted for internationally by different scholars, taking conventional and feminist interpretations into account. Unlike male professionals, women were confronted with obstacles and dilemmas related to their familial obligations and assumed place in society. Given their different positioning, they were guided by a different professional logic and articulated their strategic aims in accordance with the normative expectations towards women. A theoretical framework Professions in the form we know them today are inextricably linked to modernity Fauske, ; Larson, ; Slagstad, Some characteristics, however, seem to recur in the literature: In a recent article, Brante argues vigorously against a broadening of the definition and advocates a universal definition based on an approach that views professions as occupations that conduct interventions derived from the scientific knowledge of mechanisms, structures and contexts. Professions, he argues, are socially and politically significant parts of contextually conditioned truth regimes. According to Brante, a strict definition has an impact on research and the lack of a shared definition renders communication between scholars more difficult. Although all agree that professional work is knowledge-based, the knowledge question itself is a much debated issue. From the s onwards, the multitude of different knowledge forms in professions seems to have been more accepted and the assumption that abstract and scientific knowledge forms are always superior to practical and experience-based knowledge has been challenged Heggen and Engebretsen, Fundamental disagreements between scholars in the research field encourage further investigations from different perspectives. As many feminists have pointed out, autonomy and abstract thinking connote masculinity in our society, whereas practical work connotes femininity Dahle, ; Davies, ; Annandale, ;

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

Waerness, Hence, the professional work that many women do, such as nursing, social work, and teaching, is regularly associated with being practical, not theoretical. The idea that professions emerge in dynamic interaction with their environment and that professional politics are shaped through negotiation and power struggles have gained approval Larson, ; Abbott, ; Fauske, To prosper, actors must prove a societal need for their expert knowledge and, furthermore, strategic allies are required to support their professional claims. Those who succeed in promoting their self-interests obtain benefits and privileges on behalf of their group. They achieve sovereignty and jurisdiction over their knowledge, i. This mode of thought suggests that power is always involved. In his influential work, Abbott views the professions as a system of expert knowledge that, above all, is characterized by jurisdictional power struggles about turf, privileges and influence. Within this system, abstract theoretical knowledge confers an important advantage in the power struggles, while practical knowledge is devalued and subordinated. In his analysis, Abbott does not see an implicit gender order in the system of professions. He denies any gendered power differences and holds that, to the extent women engage in the professional game, they are likely to use the same power strategies as men. Feminization, he argues, seems to be the most familiar form of degraded recruitment. One of his examples is the move of medical care from home to hospital that destroyed the former independence of the private duty nurse and placed her in a subordinated division of labour. The move from the private to the public automatically ranked the nurses as subordinate assistants to the medical profession in line with the abstract-practical knowledge divide. In an early phase of theory building, often regarded as the era of the functionalist paradigm, Etzioni and his associates investigated professional development in three occupations – social work, nursing and teaching – and labelled them semi-professions. Stacey once characterized that term as mystifying and stigmatizing: The term still circulates [3], despite the lack of awareness about its original meaning. Firstly, it was an occupation located within a bureaucratic organization and one in which women predominated. Secondly, these occupations were characterized primarily by their shortcomings: Taking an implicit normative and masculine perspective, Etzioni concluded that achieving full professional status for these professions was unlikely and suggested that semi-professionals accepted rather than challenged this reality. From a feminist and critical perspective, Witz and Davies ; underline the need to include a gender perspective in the general theories of professions. Notably, the professions have historically been dominated by upper-class elite men. Hence, the study of professions deals with social classes; sometimes explicitly, but more often implicitly. Still, with a few exceptions, class issues, like gender issues, have mostly been ignored and understudied in mainstream research Witz, ; Dahle, ; ; In Norwegian social work, class relations played an important role in the formative period of the occupation. With this view in mind we start by locating social work in a broader, international context. Social work It is commonly held that the historical roots of social work lie in charity work that was directed towards social needs and poverty throughout the centuries. The theoretical foundations of social work rest on exploring human behaviour, social systems and principles of social justice Levin, The strong ties between professional social work, values of compassion and human support have made it difficult to delineate the boundaries of social work. According to conventional theories on professions, transparent boundaries limit the possibilities for professionalizing in a differentiated system of functions Stichweh, On the other hand, Levin holds that exactly this ambiguity provides a challenge or a starting point for critical reflection of and further development in professional social work. Bacchi reminds us that we always need to tease out and comment on the presuppositions and assumptions embedded in competing interpretations of an issue. She argues that any description of a problem is simultaneously an interpretation that involves judgment and choices. Regarding American social work, it is interesting to note how scholars have represented and interpreted its developmental process differently. Through their feminist gaze they observe how gender is structurally embedded in professional work from the very outset. All three agree that social work was constituted as a field of education in the second half of the 19th century in the US and in most European countries, but they depict these processes in different ways. Dresselt portrays the professional process in very different terms from Abbott. The American Civil War , she argues, created an increased need for social support and a rational, scientific

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

and administrative organization to deal with it. Until then, the charity model was the only option for helping those in need, and because women, who did most of such work, were more or less denied entrance to the paid labour market, it went unpaid. The above critique was explicitly directed at the benevolent upper-class women who organized the volunteer work. There was an attempt to make it more masculine. From that shift, states Dresselt, a whole new industry evolved. Dresselt notes, however, that in the 19th century, charity work was more highly valued than it is now, because it was felt that labours of love could not be performed for money. Regardless of that sentiment, or perhaps because of it, through several mechanisms, a gendered wage gap was structurally built into the profession. Exploring American social work from her position as a historical sociologist, Deegan connects the emergence of the profession more directly to the University of Chicago in the s. Later, many of them left the institution, saying they preferred to now apply their theoretical knowledge in concrete situations. Most of their male colleagues remained at the university, pursuing a life of the mind and scientific careers. The question of whether these women left academia voluntarily, or were excluded from scientific membership by the men through more or less subtle discriminatory strategies, warrants further exploration. Social worker Richmond worked for the US Charity Organization Society for nearly twenty years from the s, and instituted a method of casework that is still widely used. Notwithstanding the gender split, Deegan argues that American social work was the global pioneer and its ideas spread to most of Europe, including Norway. The year is recurrently marked as a starting point, when a female social worker was hired by the Royal Free Hospital in London for a one-year trial period and thereafter the hospital would be able to determine whether social work added to patient treatment. It apparently did; she was contracted to continue her work. In , Sweden was the first country in Scandinavia to establish privately financed social work education. The programme later became a separate institute, located at Stockholm University Pettersson, and became state financed in . Positioning social work within the Swedish university system gave it a unique educational standing among the Nordic countries. This brief comparative glance demonstrates that the development of social work as an educational and professional field has taken different routes in different countries and is accounted for in different ways. There has been no consistent pattern to define social problems across countries, nor is there an unequivocal definition of social work itself. Establishing social work as a profession in a country was dependent on the local context and on the cultural perspectives and presuppositions embedded in the subject. Social work development in Norway As already noted, the social work profession in Norway is publicly assumed to have a relatively brief history of 60 years. However, there are silenced aspects of the story that I now will give voice to. In this new culture, wage work the way we know it today was established, and a new political democracy and organizational life emerged. In her analysis of social work, Seip is deeply concerned with class-divided society and treats tensions between middle-class and working-class women as a social issue. The latter sometimes voiced their disgust for what they felt to be an encroachment on their way of life. One working-class woman wrote: Charity work "what a disgusting term. Let the upper class alone with their pities as other people are addicted to other things. The social work of upper- and middle-class women was carried out as top-down charity politics, and for working-class women such work was, without question or analysis, naturalized as female Seip, The quotation above indicates strong tension and conflicting views between the classes. Some middle-class women saw a need early on to develop a social work education programme, but there was no explicit goal to develop as a profession. Working-class women, on the other hand, had no aim to make an occupation out of their social work; their contributions were anchored in mutual solidarity. In , the University of Oslo the only university in Norway at that time opened its doors to women. By , women could hold a seat on civic guardian committees and in the school system allowed mixed-gender classes. Soon after , a formal decision was made to allow at least one female representative on every civic committee that dealt with all sorts of questions regarding support for the poor Agerholt, A small-scale education programme found form in , when the National League of Norwegian Women began teaching social courses as a private initiative.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

9: Gender and Women's Studies, Certificate < University of Wisconsin-Madison

Representations of Elizabeth Blackwell in Pioneer Work in Opening the Medical Profession to Women () and in the introduction to the reprint of her book The Laws of Life () could not be more different in tone, representational strategy, and intent.

Samuel and Hannah Blackwell were somewhat liberal in their attitudes towards not only child rearing, but also religion and social ideologies. For example, rather than beating the children for bad behavior, Barbara Blackwell recorded their trespasses in a black book. If the offences accumulated, the children might be exiled to the attic during dinner. Samuel Blackwell was a Congregationalist and exerted a strong influence over the religious and academic education of his children. He believed that each child, including his girls, should be given the opportunity for unlimited development of their talents and gifts. Blackwell had not only a governess, but private tutors to supplement her intellectual development. As a result, she was rather socially isolated from all but her family as she grew up. Pressed by financial need, the sisters Anna, Marian and Elizabeth started a school, The Cincinnati English and French Academy for Young Ladies, which provided instruction in most, if not all, subjects and charged for tuition and room and board. Channing, a charismatic Unitarian minister, introduced the ideas of transcendentalism to Blackwell, who started attending the Unitarian Church. A conservative backlash from the Cincinnati community ensued, and as a result, the academy lost many pupils and was abandoned in . Blackwell began teaching private pupils. She worked at intellectual self-improvement: Although she was pleased with her class, she found the accommodations and schoolhouse lacking. What disturbed her most was that this was her first real encounter with the realities of slavery. In Asheville, Blackwell lodged with the respected Reverend John Dickson, who happened to have been a physician before he became a clergyman. During this time, Blackwell soothed her own doubts about her choice and her loneliness with deep religious contemplation. She also renewed her antislavery interests, starting a slave Sunday school that was ultimately unsuccessful. She started teaching in at a boarding school in Charleston run by a Mrs. In , Blackwell left Charleston for Philadelphia and New York, with the aim of personally investigating the opportunities for medical study. I have not the slightest hesitation on the subject; the thorough study of medicine, I am quite resolved to go through with. The horrors and disgusts I have no doubt of vanquishing. I have overcome stronger distastes than any that now remain, and feel fully equal to the contest. William Elder and studied anatomy privately with Dr. Allen as she attempted to get her foot in the door at any medical school in Philadelphia. Most physicians recommended that she either go to Paris to study or that she take up a disguise as a man to study medicine. The main reasons offered for her rejection were that 1 she was a woman and therefore intellectually inferior, and 2 she might actually prove equal to the task, prove to be competition, and that she could not expect them to "furnish [her] with a stick to break our heads with". Out of desperation, she applied to twelve "country schools". Syracuse University Medical School collection. They put the issue up to a vote by the male students of the class with the stipulation that if one student objected, Blackwell would be turned away. The young men voted unanimously to accept her. She did not even know where to get her books. However, she soon found herself at home in medical school. She also rejected suitors and friends alike, preferring to isolate herself. In the summer between her two terms at Geneva, she returned to Philadelphia, stayed with Dr. Elder, and applied for medical positions in the area to gain clinical experience. The Guardians of the Poor, the city commission that ran Blockley Almshouse , granted her permission to work there, albeit not without some struggle. Blackwell slowly gained acceptance at Blockley, although some young resident physicians still would walk out and refuse to assist her in diagnosing and treating her patients. During her time there, Blackwell gained valuable clinical experience but was appalled by the syphilitic ward and those afflicted with typhus. Her graduating thesis at Geneva Medical College was on the topic of typhus. The local press reported her graduation favorably, and when the dean, Dr. Charles Lee, conferred her degree, he stood up and bowed to her. She visited a few hospitals in Britain and then headed to

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

Paris. Her experience there was similar to her experience in America; she was rejected by many hospitals because of her gender. She gained much medical experience through his mentoring and training. By the end of the year, Paul Dubois, the foremost obstetrician in his day, had voiced his opinion that she would make the best obstetrician in the United States, male or female. She lost sight in her left eye, causing her to have her eye surgically extracted and thus lost all hope of becoming a surgeon. She made a positive impression there, although she did meet some opposition when she tried to observe the wards. In , she began delivering lectures and published *The Laws of Life with Special Reference to the Physical Education of Girls*, her first work, a volume about the physical and mental development of girls that concerned itself with the preparation of young women for motherhood. In , Blackwell established a small dispensary near Tompkins Square. She also took Marie Zakrzewska , a Polish woman pursuing a medical education, under her wing, serving as her preceptor in her pre-medical studies. Women served on the board of trustees, on the executive committee and as attending physicians. The patient load doubled in the second year. Blackwell sympathized heavily with the North due to her abolitionist roots, and even went so far as to say she would have left the country if the North had compromised on the subject of slavery. The male physicians refused to help with the nurse education plan if it involved the Blackwells. By , nearly 7, patients were being treated per year at the New York Infirmary, and Blackwell was needed back in the United States. The parallel project fell through, but in , a medical college for women adjunct to the infirmary was established. Both were extremely headstrong, and a power struggle over the management of the infirmary and medical college ensued. In July , she sailed for Britain. Blackwell had doubts about Jex-Blake and thought that she was dangerous, belligerent, and tactless. Blackwell vehemently opposed the use of vivisections in the laboratory of the school. She resigned this position in , officially retiring from her medical career. At a deeper level of disagreement, Blackwell felt that women would succeed in medicine because of their humane female values, but Jacobi believed that women should participate as the equals of men in all medical specialties. After leaving for Britain in , Blackwell diversified her interests, and was active both in social reform and authorship. She co-founded the National Health Society in . Blackwell had a lofty, elusive and ultimately unattainable goal: All of her reform work was along this thread. She even contributed heavily to the founding of two utopian communities: Starnthwaite and Hadleigh in the s. She also was antimaterialist and did not believe in vivisections. She did not see the value of inoculation and thought it dangerous. She believed that bacteria were not the only important cause of disease and felt their importance was being exaggerated. Her *Counsel to Parents on the Moral Education of their Children* was an essay on prostitution and marriage arguing against the Contagious Diseases Acts. She was conservative in all senses except that she believed women to have sexual passions equal to those of men, and that men and women were equally responsible for controlling those passions. The book was controversial, being rejected by 12 publishers, before being printed by Hatchard and Company. Personal life[edit] Friends and family[edit] Blackwell was well connected, both in the United States and in the United Kingdom. She was close with her family, and visited her brothers and sisters whenever she could during her travels. Blackwell had a falling out with Florence Nightingale after Nightingale returned from the Crimean War. Nightingale wanted Blackwell to turn her focus to training nurses, and could not see the legitimacy of training female physicians. Among women at least, Blackwell was very assertive and found it difficult to play a subordinate role. Photograph of an older Elizabeth Blackwell with her adopted daughter Kitty and two dogs, Diary entries at the time show that she adopted Barry half out of loneliness and a feeling of obligation, and half out of a utilitarian need for domestic help. She even instructed Barry in gymnastics as a trial for the theories outlined in her publication, *The Laws of Life with Special Reference to the Physical Education of Girls*. Barry herself was rather shy, awkward and self-conscious about her slight deafness. On her deathbed, in , Barry called Blackwell her "true love", and requested that her ashes be buried with those of Elizabeth. Elizabeth thought courtship games were foolish early in her life, and prized her independence. He was very close with both Kitty Barry and Blackwell, and it was widely believed in that he was a suitor for Barry, who was 29 at the time. The reality was that Blackwell and Sachs were very close, so much so that Barry felt

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

uncomfortable being around the two of them. Sachs was very interested in Blackwell, then 55 years old. Barry was in love with Sachs, and was mildly jealous of Blackwell. In fact, the majority of her publication *Counsel to Parents on the Moral Education of the Children* was based on her conversations with Sachs. Blackwell stopped correspondence with Alfred Sachs after the publication of her book. It was not very successful, selling fewer than copies. She visited the United States in and took her first and last car ride.

PIONEER WORK IN OPENING THE MEDICAL PROFESSION TO WOMEN (CLASSICS IN WOMENS STUDIES) pdf

What Can I Do When it Rains? (Good Beginnings) A FRIEND AMONG THE SENECA The Welfare State: Privatization, Deregulation, Commercialization of Public Services Pt. 5A B. Migration tables Launder and Gilliat The secret diary of adrian mole 13 3 4 Pakistan express epaper Wade Hampton and the Negro Emi and the rhino scientist Is young Absalom safe in his youth group? Portrait of Berlin The secrets she carried lynne graham A Gladiator Dies Only Once School laws enacted by the General assemblies of 1913 and 1915. The peaceable kitchen cookbook The biocognitive model and human nature A secret revealed book Thirty Strange Stories Music theory for kids books Fate, Logic, and Time Plasma instabilities and nonlinear effects. The best of northern Italian cooking Lifetime fitness and wellness 5th edition Encyclopedia of machine learning and data mining The Unwilling Witch (The Accidental Vampires, No 2) V. 10. On the constitution of the church and state edited by J. Colmer Case studies in counseling and psychotherapy. Marketing research an applied approach 3rd edition The Convergent Series The painful irony of Rice v. Cayetano (2000) The Science Of Hypnotism Pamphlet Foreign Agents Registration Act Ronald I. Meltzer Marriage Tax Relief Reconciliation Act of 2000 Encyclopedia of bank robberies, heists, and capers Part 3 : Educational endeavors. The master in the grove of elders : early elderhood (stage 7) Atoms class 12 notes Marriage of Anansewa ; Edufa By Myself and Then Some CD Pat Greens dance halls dreamers