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1 **Title page:**

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3 **Intellectually gifted, but inherently fragile – society's view of female**
4 **scientists as experienced by seismologist Inge Lehmann up to 1930.**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 *Celebrated for her 1936 discovery of the Earth's inner core, seismologist Inge Lehmann (1888-
14 1993) is often portrayed as a trailblazing female scientist with an impressive international career.
15 She is the inspiration behind Denmark's funding program designed to strengthen gender equality in
16 scientific research. Yet, newly discovered documents show that Lehmann's path to a career in
17 science was not at all straightforward. In a society where women were considered mentally and
18 physically unsuited to academic studies, let alone scientific careers, gender bias and discrimination
19 thwarted her ambitions and limited her early career options. Lehmann's letters to Niels Bohr
20 document the disappointment and frustration with restrictions on women at Cambridge University
21 that prompted her to return to Denmark. Her mental breakdown in the winter of 1912 likely
22 resulted from academic over-compensation in attempts to overcome gender bias. After obtaining a
23 Danish degree in mathematics, she became an underpaid clerical employee at the university. Only
24 by pragmatically changing her field from prestigious mathematics to little known seismology could
25 she establish herself as a successful scientist.*

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27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 The Danish seismologist Inge Lehmann (1888-1993) is best known for her 1936 discovery of the
30 Earth's inner core. Originally trained in mathematics, she began working as a seismologist in the
31 mid-1920s and continued in this field for fifty years, gaining international acclaim for her
32 meticulous seismic research. For twenty-four of those years, she headed the Seismology
33 Department of the Danish Geodetic Institute. When her career began, it was rare for women to hold
34 academic positions at all, let alone leadership positions. This is still true today: a 2015
35 governmental taskforce found that, despite constituting about half of Denmark's earned PhDs, only
36 18% of Danish professors were women (Anbefalinger 2015). Inspired by her trailblazing career, the
37 Danish Ministry of Higher Education and Science initiated the Inge Lehmann Research-funding
38 Program. To develop talent and promote more equal gender representation in academics and
39 research, the program prioritizes female over male applicants with similar qualifications.
40 Critics call the Lehmann Program biased and discriminatory. Recently, claims were made that her
41 scientific credentials were exaggerated, that she 'only' discovered the earth inner core. Further
42 arguments suggest that her impressive academic career means that she could not have experienced
43 gender discrimination. Hence, the Lehmann Program's rationale is based on a false narrative.

44 Whereas the first claim is easily dismissed based on scientific evidence, the second claim is more
45 difficult to disprove since little is known about her career before the 1930s (although see, for
46 example, Bolt and Hjortenberg, 1994).
47 This article fills this gap in our historical knowledge using newly discovered, unpublished
48 documents from Inge Lehmann's graduate and postgraduate years. It shows the degree to which
49 gender played a decisive role in her experiences, and suggests to what extent her experiences were
50 shared by contemporary female academics.
51 Inge Lehmann bequeathed her personal archive to her colleague, Erik Hjortenberg, who donated it
52 to the Danish National Archives in 2015. The collection consists of twenty-one boxes of notes,
53 letters, manuscripts and references. Additional letters from the 1910s and 1920s are held in the
54 archival collections of Niels Bohr and Niels Erik Nørlund. Newly discovered material in these
55 collections provides key insights into her early career (see Jacobsen, 2015). Recently, letters
56 between Inge and her family were discovered by Lotte Kaa Andersen, including correspondence
57 with her father about continuing her studies at Cambridge. These letters reveal the prevalent social
58 belief at that time, that academic aspirations destabilized women's fragile mental capabilities. They
59 also shed new light on Inge Lehmann's purported sickly constitution as a young woman and her
60 breakdown after Cambridge — precisely the opposite of characteristics attributed to her later in life
61 (see, for example, Jack Oliver's interview, 1997). I suggest that cultural perceptions of female
62 academics have changed over time, not Inge Lehmann's intellectual prowess and stalwart character.
63
64 Table 1, a timeline of women's rights in Denmark, and Table 2, a timeline of Danish women in
65 academia, display the historical context of Inge Lehmann's achievements. Together, they show that
66 women's entry in Danish academia predicated landmark rights legislation. Exceptions are positions of
67 university leadership and membership in the Royal Society, where women were slow to appear.
68 Rather than comprehensive lists of gender equality measures in Denmark, the tables capture the
69 female academic experience as background for the early years of Inge Lehmann's career.
70

71 **Table 1: Landmarks for women's rights in Denmark**

72	1875 Women gain university admittance (except in theology).
73	1899 Married women gain the same financial rights as unmarried women.
74	1903 Girls are permitted to attend high school on equal terms with boys.
75	1915 Women secure the right to vote.

76	1919 Legislation stipulates equal pay for equal work in civil service.
77	1921 Legislation insures Equal Access for Women to All Public Service and Occupations (except for clerical and military positions).
78	
79	1922 Married women share legal custody of their children (but not sole guardianship).
80	1924 Nina Bang becomes the first female Cabinet Minister (Minister for Education)

81

82 **Table 2: Firsts for women in Danish academia:**

1875 Studied at a university (medicine), Nielsine Nielsen.
1889 Obtained a degree in science, (entomology) Sofie Rostrup.
1893 Earned a scientific doctorate (history), Anna Hude.
1909 Earned a scientific doctorate in science (physics), Kristine Meyer.
1915 Gained an academic university position (calculator), Julie Marie Vinter Hansen.
1922 Founded the Danish Association of University Women.
1946 Becomes a university professor (history), Astrid Friis.
1958 Becomes a science professor (organic chemistry), Bodil Jerslev.
1968 Elected to the Danish Royal Academy of Science and Letters, Eli Fischer-Jørgensen (linguistics).

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84

85 **2. Childhood and schooldays**

86 Inge Lehmann was the elder of two sisters who grew up in Copenhagen in an intellectual family.
 87 Their mother, Ida ne Tørsleff (1866-1935), came from a family of booksellers. Several female
 88 Tørsleff family members were part of the Women Rights Movement and significant public figures.
 89 Inge's cousins served as head of the Danish Girl Scouts, chair of the Danish Women's Society, and
 90 the Minister of Trade. Famously, her younger sister Signe, a single mother, became a school
 91 superintendent.
 92 Inge's father, Alfred Lehmann (1858-1921), held a Masters Degree in Applied Science from
 93 Copenhagen Polytechnic. He established psychology as an independent research subject in
 94 Denmark after he set up a private Psychophysics Laboratory for experimental psychological
 95 research in 1886 (Moustgaard and Petersen, 1986). When the University of Copenhagen took over
 96 the laboratory in 1890, Alfred Lehmann was appointed interim 'docent' (a teaching post ranked just
 97 below professor). Financial constraints meant that he had to take on additional paid work until

98 1911, as a censor at a teachers' college, a librarian at the Royal Veterinary and Agricultural
99 University, and a technical drawing teacher. Not until 1910 was he appointed 'ekstraordinær
100 professor' (professor without chair). Nine years later he was elevated to a professorship with chair.
101 Alfred Lehmann's substantial number of scholarly publications on experimental and applied topics
102 range from how emotions influence blood circulation, and the existence of occult phenomena (of
103 which he was skeptical), to studies of the maximum yield of physical and intellectual work (for
104 detailed descriptions of Alfred Lehmann's work, see Funch, 1986; and Pind, 2019).

105 Inge's parents had progressive views on education. In 1894 they enrolled her, and later her sister
106 Harriet, at Hanna Adlers Fællesskole, the first co-educational school in Copenhagen where girls and
107 boys were taught the same subjects together. This was highly unusual – most schools had separate
108 academic tracks for boys and girls. For intellectually inclined girls, gender-segregation policies
109 went even further. Exposing girls to intellectual exhaustion and stress during puberty was
110 considered harmful. Hence, girls under seventeen years old were prohibited from taking the high
111 school entrance exam, whereas boys, who were considered better suited biologically for such
112 activities, could take the exam and enter upper-secondary school (high school) at age fifteen
113 (Larsen, 2010). This policy persisted until 1903.

114 The school was founded by Hanna Adlers and built upon her own experiences from academia. In
115 1892, seventeen years after the University of Copenhagen admitted its first women students, Adler
116 (1859-1947) and Kirstine Meyer (1861-1941) were the first two women to earn Master's Degrees in
117 Physics. Meyer was also the first woman to gain a habilitation in Physics, the traditional
118 prerequisite for a professorship. Inspired by advanced pedagogy in the USA, Adler opened her
119 school a year after completing her degree. As teachers, she hired several of her female co-graduates
120 who were excluded from many of the jobs open to their male counterparts. At that time, women
121 could not get university positions and, although their degrees qualified them to teach at the upper-
122 secondary school (high school) level, most female college graduates found work as primary
123 (elementary) schoolteachers. A trailblazing female academic, Hanna Adler firmly believed in
124 gender equality. She was also the aunt of physicist and Nobel laureate, Niels Bohr, and a frequent
125 guest in the Bohr household.

126 In autobiographical notes, Inge Lehmann described her schooldays as happy, marked by serious
127 study without differential treatment of boys and girls (RA: Lehmann autobiographical note, [ca
128 1970]: W84-258078). Inge showed considerable talent in mathematics and physics, and her father
129 was keen for her to pursue a degree in science. Kirstine Meyer taught her physics, and Thyra Eibe

130 (1886-1955), known for her expert translation of Euclid's *Elementes*, taught mathematics. These
 131 female scientists were uniquely qualified to support Inge's academic ambitions. With such role
 132 models, it is not surprising that the girl developed a strong sense of intellectual entitlement and
 133 belief in gender equality.

134

135 **Figure 1: Inge Lehmann (to the right) with fellow High School graduates, 1906 – the first-year**
 136 **women graduated on equal terms with the men (Anon [1918] Frk. H. Adlers Fællesskole 1893-**
 137 **1918. Khb.).**



138

139

140 After passing her upper-secondary school graduation exams in 1906, Inge Lehmann worked as a
 141 private tutor before beginning studies in mathematics in the Faculty of Sciences at the University of
 142 Copenhagen in autumn, 1907

143 Between 1875 and 1925, 369 women sat for final examination at the University. Of that total, 326
 144 did so after 1900, when the overall number of students also increased from between 2,100-2,300 at
 145 the turn of the century to approximately 4,500 in 1925. In the Faculty of Mathematical Sciences, the
 146 first precise student count dates from 1912, at which point 146 students were enrolled, 22 of them

147 women (for details on early female students at Copenhagen University, see Grane and Hørby, 1993;
148 Rosenbech, 2014; Phil, 1983). Thus, when Inge Lehmann started at the Faculty, female students
149 were no longer rare, but neither were they numerous.

150 So far, no sources have been found that describe Lehmann's university experiences in Copenhagen.
151 She is not mentioned in records linked with other leading students at the faculty, such as Niels Erik
152 Nørlund in mathematics or Niels Bohr in physics. Nor was she in the interdisciplinary study group,
153 *Ekliptika*, which had several women participants (Pind, 2014). Lehman lived at home, evidently
154 focusing entirely on her studies. She earned fine grades on the first part of her degree examination
155 in summer, 1910 (RA: Københavns Universitet, Karakterprotokol Matematik, [1908]: 2. del).

156

157 **2.1 Studies at Newham College, Cambridge University**

158 After graduation, Inge Lehmann was eager to study abroad. In the spring of 1911 she entered
159 Newnham College, one of two women's colleges at Cambridge University, UK. Cambridge was
160 renowned for excellence in mathematics. A form of examination unique to the university was
161 notorious for its scope and difficulty. The Mathematical Tripos covered theoretical and applied
162 mathematics, plus subjects in astronomy and physics. The exam was so challenging that preparation
163 traditionally involved equal parts theoretical study and physical activity – training both body and
164 mind in order to strengthen the intellect. Even after modification in 1909 to counter falling
165 enrollment and accommodate students' needs to specialize within a single subject, the Mathematical
166 Tripos remained equally prestigious and exceedingly demanding (Warwick, 2003). By choosing to
167 read mathematics at Cambridge, Lehmann revealed the depth of her ambition, but the English
168 university setting proved quite different from what she had known in Copenhagen.

169 Women had been eligible to sit for the Tripos since 1881. Yet, although women could attend
170 lectures, they could not matriculate, attain full university membership, or be appointed to academic
171 posts. Only in 1948 were women admitted to Cambridge on equal terms with men. Un-matriculated
172 female students were denied access to laboratories and libraries. Since individual tutoring at
173 Cambridge often occurred in conjunction with lab work, female students were, in effect, prohibited
174 from taking part in practical, hands-on experimentation, and could not be tutored by male lectures
175 (for further details on the experiences of female academics at Cambridge University, see, e.g.,
176 Evans, 2010; Richmond, 1997).

177 At Cambridge, the regular system of tutors, grants and student clubs was the prerogative of men.
178 This further marginalized female students. During the 1880s and 1890s, therefore, a parallel system

179 of laboratories, libraries and tutors exclusively for female students gradually built up around the two
 180 women-only colleges, Girton and Newham.

181 While Inge Lehmann knew about similar parallel systems in Denmark – the Women’s Reading
 182 Society (Kvindelig Læseforening), for example – she had not experienced the degree of gender
 183 segregation that prevailed in Cambridge. Even though Cambridge reformed its examination system
 184 in 1909, making a number of vital resources available to female students via their colleges, it was
 185 still difficult for women to study freely. In particular, restrictions imposed on socializing between
 186 students of different sexes were far more onerous in Cambridge than in Copenhagen, and posed a
 187 real obstacle to knowledge sharing. This was alien territory for Inge, who expressed frustration
 188 about her experiences in her correspondence with Niels Bohr, who was also coming to Cambridge.

189

190 **Figure 2: Newham College (Inge Lehmann Collection, The Danish National Archives)**



191

192
 193 Niels Bohr completed his doctoral dissertation – *Studies on the Electron Theory of Metals (Studier*
 194 *over Metallernes Elektronteori)* – in the spring of 1911 and planned to spend time at Cavendish
 195 Laboratory in order to follow the experimental work of J. J. Thomson, the physicist.

196 Bohr's interaction with Lehmann in Cambridge is detailed by Aaserud and Heibron (2013). In May
197 1911, he wrote asking for her help in finding out which physics lectures would be relevant to his
198 areas of interest, laid out in the enclosed copy of his doctoral dissertation. After reading the
199 manuscript, Lehmann briefly outlined the lectures he might find useful, ending her letter by
200 expressing hope that they could meet up when he came to Cambridge (NBA: I. Lehmann letter, 2.
201 Mai 1911). This proved considerably harder than she had envisaged.

202 Bohr arrived in Cambridge at the end of September 1911. By early October, he had found an
203 apartment with help from Lehmann and her network of friends. Over the next few months, Niels
204 Bohr and Inge Lehmann visited one another numerous times, although arranging these visits was
205 troublesome: according to university regulations, Inge had to be chaperoned when spending time in
206 the company of a man.

207 On one occasion, shortly after Niels arrived in Cambridge, he was invited to Peile Hall, where Inge
208 lived at Newnham College. Their meeting was possible because Newnham's Vice-Principal, Miss
209 Strachey, had agreed beforehand to be present (NBA: Lehmann letter, n.d. [1911]. Another visit
210 was cancelled because Inge couldn't find a suitable chaperone on a Sunday (NBA: I. Lehmann
211 letter, 13. October 1911).

212 A dinner party in early December 1911 proved particularly challenging. Inge was traveling to
213 Copenhagen to spend Christmas with her family, so Niels invited her, along with two male
214 mathematicians, to a farewell-dinner at his lodging. Before she could accept his invitation, Inge had
215 to ask him for the name of her chaperone. With that information, she could ask the principal of
216 Newnham Hall for permission to attend. She regretted the trouble, but wrote with resignation: "...
217 but Cambridge is Cambridge" (NBA: I. Lehmann letter, 5. December 1911b). Wise from
218 experience, Bohr had already arranged for a friend to attend the dinner party with his sister.
219 Unfortunately, Lehmann informed him, that sister was also a student at Newnham College, and her
220 presence would not fulfil the requirements of effective supervision (NBA: I. Lehmann letter, 5.
221 December 1911a). Eventually, the list of dinner guests grew so long that Bohr was afraid there
222 would be no room for them in his small apartment, or so he ironically wrote to Margrethe Nørlund,
223 his fiancée.

224 **Figur 3: Inge Lehmanns resigned note about the archaic idiosyncrasy of Cambridge. (Niels Bohr
225 Archive)**

men Cambridge, in Cambridge
 Ders hengine
 Inge Lehmann

228 This correspondence illustrates how the restrictive social conventions at Cambridge obstructed
 229 interactions between students of different genders – including the exchange of knowledge. Inge
 230 Lehmann unquestionably felt the restrictions most acutely, but Niels Bohr also grumbled about the
 231 University's strict code of conduct, which he found quite absurd. Although Bohr was likely
 232 influenced by his free-thinking aunt, Hanna Adler, there can be no doubt that social conventions
 233 between students of different sexes were far less cumbersome at the University of Copenhagen,
 234 where no formalized system of gender segregation ever existed and teaching and practicums were
 235 co-educational.

236 Lehmann went home for Christmas in 1911, expecting to return to Cambridge at the start of spring
 237 semester. In March 1912, Bohr decided he had nothing more to gain from staying in Cambridge and
 238 moved on to Professor Ernst Rutherford's laboratory in Manchester, where he spent the next six
 239 months developing his pioneering atomic theory.

240 It was during Christmas break that Lehmann decided not to return to Cambridge for the next
 241 semester. She was profoundly overworked. She had spent 1911 preparing for the Mathematical
 242 Tripos, and intended to sit for the exam in the spring of 1912. It has generally been assumed that
 243 Lehmann abandoned her studies altogether because her recovery from utter exhaustion was so slow.
 244 She was literally unable to resume her university studies for a long time (e.g. Bolt, 1997).

245 In reality, she was exhausted, but also keen to return to Cambridge. Recently discovered
 246 correspondence shows that Alfred Lehmann put a stop to her plans by refusing to fund them.
 247 Instead, he urged her to seek employment in Denmark and make a living outside academia. In a

248 letter to Inge written in March 1912, her father explained his reasoning at length. Practically
249 speaking, the rising cost of living made it impossible for him to finance her studies any longer.
250 Alfred's economic concerns seem genuine, given his precarious employment at the University and
251 his younger daughter Harriet's recent enrollment at the Danish Royal Theatre's acting school. Yet,
252 Inge's health was of primary importance. To protect his daughter, he could no longer in good
253 conscience support academic aspirations that were ruining her health. To Alfred and many of his
254 peers, it was a proven fact that, whereas women might be as intellectually gifted as men, they lack the
255 rigorous constitution necessary for academic pursuits. College was better suited to the male
256 disposition.

257 To argue his case Alfred Lehmann quoted several male professors of his acquaintance who strongly
258 believed that women did not have the mental stamina to meet the 'by no means unreasonable
259 requirements' for an MA in Copenhagen, let alone the more challenging studies in Cambridge. He
260 went on to relate "...a series of sad examples of how it went with intellectually gifted women who
261 wanted something more...". Their studies made them so ill that they were forever in and out of
262 nerve clinics, if not half insane. Not wanting the same fate for Inge, who already had shown signs of
263 fatigue, her father felt it would be irresponsible of him to let her continue with her studies. Instead,
264 he urged his daughter to seek practical clerical employment where she could undoubtedly rise to a
265 valuable and responsible administrative position in due time. Thus, there was no need for her to
266 complete her final exam (Private: A. Lehmann letter, 11. March 1912).

267 The biological argument that women were not equipped with enough energy and fortitude for
268 scientific studies likely originated in the rise of scientific medicine in the 19th century and, by
269 extension, the study of biological gender. From 1890 to the late 1910s, Doctor Leopold Meyer
270 published a series of influential medical texts in Denmark that problematized menstruation in
271 relation to physical and intellectual work: due to their female physiology, too much exertion of the
272 brain and nervous system would make women ill (Rosenbeck, 2014). Since Inge's father studied the
273 body's reaction to physical and intellectual work, he was most likely familiar with Meyer's ideas
274 and, therefore, concerned about his daughter's future in her chosen field.

275 Inge must have protested because Alfred – somewhat mollified – wrote again two weeks later to
276 suggest that she convalesce at home until September. Then, mindful of her health, she should
277 resume her studies at Copenhagen University. If her strength and her exam results were satisfactory
278 at the end of a year, he would find the necessary funds for another year at Cambridge, where she

279 could complete her MA-degree without sitting for the Mathematical Tripos. Ultimately, Alfred
280 thought it ill-advised for Inge to pursue a foreign degree when a degree from Copenhagen
281 University would better prepare her for employment in the Danish school system. To what degree
282 Alfred's own precarious experiences in academic influenced his advice to Inge is unknown, but as a
283 women her job opportunities would be limited in general and nearly non-existent at the university.

284

285 **3. Gap years**

286 Inge took her father's concerns to heart and did not return to Cambridge. The next six years of her
287 life are sporadically illuminated in recently discovered autobiographical notes, written much later in
288 hindsight. In them, she acknowledged that acute overwork and a lengthy recovery period led her to
289 provisionally abandon her studies for the typical life of a middle-class working woman.

290 In the fall of 1912, a friend of her father's secured her an actuarial job at the insurance company,
291 *Det Gjensidige Forsikringsselskab "Danmark"*. Her choice of employer was not unusual given that
292 the insurance business attracted many female academics with mathematical backgrounds. There,
293 they could use their statistical knowledge and calculating skills in office environments where
294 female clerks and typists had long been a common presence (Kragh, 2008). The notes do not
295 explain why Lehmann did not resume her studies as her father suggested. Possibly her fatigue
296 lingered longer than she had anticipated, or her family's financial needs were more pressing. In any
297 event, the outbreak of World War I in 1914 put an end to any thoughts of returning to Cambridge.

298 Inge Lehmann remained at the insurance company for a number of years but expressed little interest
299 in the business aspects of her work (RA: Lehmann, biographical notes [u.d.]: W84-258079). When
300 she was not promoted in step with her male colleagues, she recognized that gender was again the
301 restricting factor. Passed over for promotion, and with the prospect of a male boss she found
302 unacceptable, she considered relocating to Canada, but another bout of overexertion prevented her
303 from emigrating.

304 Unable to secure a managerial position, Lehmann considered marriage. In February 1917, at the age
305 of 29, she became engaged and resigned from *Danmark*, as employment was incompatible with
306 matrimony. Only a month later she broke off the engagement in order to resume her studies and
307 pursue an academic career (RA: I. Lehmann, biographical notes [u.d.]: W84-2580). Inge Lehmann's
308 decision to remain unmarried to further her academic ambitions was not an unusual choice at the

309 time. Abstaining from marriage was common for university women until the 1920s. Thereafter, the
310 number of married female academics increased but slowly (Rosenbeck, 2014). Lehmann embodied
311 this trend as she remained unmarried and without children all her life.

312

313 **4. Return to the University of Copenhagen**

314 In August 1918, Inge Lehmann finally resumed her studies at the Faculty of Mathematical Sciences
315 in Copenhagen. Two years later, she passed the second and final part of her examination with top
316 grades, earning her MA. It is worth noting that Lehmann's lengthy period of study manifested a
317 general tendency among female students at the Faculty. A survey of degrees completed between
318 1916-1920 at the Faculty of Mathematical Sciences shows that a number of female students were
319 enrolled for considerable lengths of time, and that female students in general were enrolled longer
320 than their male counterparts (Københavns Universitet, 1925).

321 Alfred Lehmann passed away in September of 1921. Among many other things, this meant that
322 Inge needed to secure a stable income. Also that year, an act was passed giving women equal access
323 to public sector employment, including all university positions. No longer forced to settle for public
324 school teaching, Inge Lehmann could now pursue a university career in mathematics with
325 concomitant salary, prestige and scholarly recognition.

326

327 **4.1 Assistant in the Faculty of Mathematical Sciences**

328 A small scholarship allowed Lehmann to study mathematics at the University of Hamburg for a
329 short period of time. After returning home again, she started work in March 1923 as assistant to
330 Professor Johan Frederik Steffensen in his Actuarial Mathematics Laboratory at the University of
331 Copenhagen. Inge's yearly income was DKK 700, plus a small bonus (RA: Københavns
332 Universitets Forsikringsmatematiske Laboratorium, Korrespondance: Konsistorium, letter 1. March
333 1923). For this modest salary, she had to tutor students, assist in practicum sessions and grade
334 assignments. Grading mathematical problems after the practicums ate up a disproportionate amount
335 of her time, and it quickly became obvious that her income was not commensurate with the
336 demands of her duties.

337 Realizing this, Professor Steffensen tried on several occasions to secure better pay and conditions
338 for his assistant. In December 1924 he tried to get a reduction in her workload. A few months later
339 he complained to the Minister for Education that Lehmann's pay was considerably inferior to that
340 of other (presumably male) scientific assistants at the University and requested that it be brought up

341 to the same level as the others (RA: Københavns Universitets Forsikringsmatematiske
342 Laboratorium Korrespondance: Steffensen, letter 16. February 1925). The gap between her salary
343 and that of the others must have been pitiful, because the Ministry of Education was quick to act: in
344 April her salary rose to almost three times its previous level! (RA: Københavns Universitets
345 Forsikringsmatematiske Laboratorium, Korrespondance: Konsistorium, letter 30 September 1925)
346 While working at the Laboratory of Actuarial Mathematics, Inge Lehmann had taken on part time
347 jobs, including translation and editing for another Mathematics Faculty member: Professor Niels
348 Erik Nørlund. In addition to his professorship, Nørlund had been appointed Director of the Danish
349 Geodetic Service (Den Danske Gradmåling) in 1923, with a mandate to reform and merge the
350 Service with the Topographic Division of the General Staff (Generalstabens Topografiske
351 Afdeling).
352 The role of teaching assistant and occasional secretary was traditionally the end of the line for many
353 women in academia, but Lehmann was not content in this station. Having worked as Niels Erik
354 Nørlund's occasional secretary, in June 1925 she cautiously pointed out to him that she wanted a
355 research job: "I believe that I would venture to undertake calculation work, if it does not involve too
356 great a theoretical foundation in areas with which I am not familiar, whereas I am not so certain that
357 you would be served by my assistance with correspondence, as I understood to be your plan." (RA:
358 N.E. Nørlund, letter (I. Lehmann) 17. June 1925)
359 Nørlund could not employ her as research assistant at the university, but he saw another opening for
360 her talent. He was in the process of reorganizing the Geodetic Service and needed to add
361 seismological stations to their activities. An annual contribution from the Carlsberg Foundation
362 made the project feasible, and for the next couple of years Inge Lehmann helped to set up the new
363 seismological stations. In 1926 she helped establish seismic stations in Copenhagen (COP) and
364 Ivittuut (IVI), Southwest Greenland, and in 1927 at Scoresbysund/ Ittoqqortoormiit (SCO), West
365 Greenland (for the early history of seismology in Denmark, see Lehmann 1987; Jacobsen 2017;
366 Dahl-Jensen, Jacobsen, Sølund, Larsen and Voss (submitted)).
367 Lehmann carried out the work of setting up and running the seismological stations in addition to her
368 work at the Laboratory of Actuarial Mathematics. In January 1927, restructuring the Geodetic
369 Service was so far advanced that she could resign from the Actuarial Laboratory and work
370 exclusively for Niels Erik Nørlund. The plan was for Inge to learn the science of seismology so she
371 could work in that field in the future.

372 As seismology in Denmark was in its infancy, Nørlund arranged for Lehmann to spend four months
373 abroad in the autumn of 1927 to immerse herself in the science. Part of her time was spent at the
374 precursor of the International Association of Seismology and Physics of the Earth's Interior
375 (IASPEI), then known as the International Seismology Association of the International Union of
376 Geodesy and Geophysics (IUGG) (for the history of IASPEI, see Rothé, 1981; Schweitzer and Lay,
377 2019). The IUGG bureau was located in Strasbourg; there, she spent several weeks learning to read
378 seismograms. After attending the IUGG General Assembly in Prague, she put this skill to good use
379 while studying with Beno Gutenberg at his home in Darmstadt, Germany. (Lehmann 1987).

380

381 **5. Director of the Seismology Department at the Danish Geodetic Institute**

382 In April 1928, Niels Erik Nørlund was appointed director of the newly formed Danish Geodetic
383 Institute (Geodætisk Institut). In May, Inge Lehmann was the second person in the country to sit for
384 the 'magisterkonferens' (equivalent to an MSc) in geodesy at the University of Copenhagen, a new
385 subject recently introduced at Nørlund's behest.

386 Her short apprenticeship abroad and her own studies were her only preparation for the examination,
387 which was tailored to her future job. In the written exam, she gave an 'Account of the key methods
388 for the determination of the epicenter of a seismic activity' (*Redegørelse for de vigtigste Metoder til
389 Bestemmelse af Epicentret for en seismisk Bevægelse*). Her final lecture considered cartographic
390 projection methods (Københavns Universitet, 1929), another essential area in the work of the
391 Danish Geodetic Institute.

392 By summer, Inge Lehmann was Director of the new Seismology Department at the Geodetic
393 Institute. She was responsible for running Denmark's seismological stations, along with a couple of
394 technical assistants. Although the job was mainly administrative and involved very little research, it
395 was a permanent position with the title and salary of a department head.

396

397 **Figure 3: Inge Lehman, Director of the Seismological Department of the Geodetic Institute, 1932**
398 **(Royal Danish Library)**



399

400

401 In a letter to Niels Erik Nørlund written that year, she expressed her pleasure and gratitude:
 402 “I do not think I thanked you properly for my appointment [...] I could not have wished for
 403 anything better. I have earlier been concerned that I was asking too much when refusing to be
 404 satisfied with working in order to earn money, but sought a job in which I could really take an
 405 interest. In my work here, I have [...] found more than I could ever have hoped. In return, I shall do
 406 my utmost. It is no small thing to have the opportunity and permission to use all one’s strengths.”

407 (RA: N.E. Nørlund, letter (I. Lehmann) November 1928)

408 Until she retired in 1953, Inge Lehmann was the only academic working at the Department of
 409 Seismology. Due to her administrative duties, most of her research was performed in her spare time.
 410 Overseeing stations in Denmark and Greenland gave her access to seismograms from several
 411 locations and a range of instruments. As department head, she kept in contact with an international
 412 network of colleagues. Her expertise in reading seismograms and vigorous correspondence with
 413 leading seismologists paved the way for her discovery of the Earth’s inner core in 1936, which
 414 earned her lasting international renown as one of the most influential seismologists of the 20th
 415 century (Hjortenberg 2009).

416

417 **6. Discussion**

418 As an early female scientist in Denmark, Inge Lehmann is virtually unsurpassed in the level of
419 employment she achieved and in the scientific recognition she received later in life. However, her
420 graduate and postgraduate experiences reflect common features shared by female academics of the
421 time.

422 In her study of Danish female academics from c.1875 to c.1925, Rosenbeck (2014) identified four
423 commonalities. These women mostly came from affluent families or academic families. Female
424 students had higher average grades than their male counterparts, even though this gendered
425 difference diminished as the number of female students increased around 1900. Female students
426 also started their coursework far later than male students, although average age difference also fell
427 over subsequent generations. Finally, the vast majority of women academics remained unmarried.
428 Of the eight women mentioned in table 2, only three was married. Sofie Rostrup and Bodil Jerslev
429 both had children while working as academics, while Anna Hude left her position at the Danish
430 National Archive to marry late in life. Inge Lehmann's background and experience precisely fit in
431 Rosenbeck's (2014) generalization of female academics of the period: she came from an intellectual
432 family, her grades were above average, she took longer to finish her studies than the male students,
433 and remained unmarried.

434 American historian of science, Margaret Rossiter, in her cardinal work *Women Scientists in*
435 *America* (1984) points out that many women turned to the “Madame Curie strategy”: instead of
436 addressing imbedded inequality in the workplace, women often internalized their struggle. Wanting
437 to prove their right to practice science, they tried to surpass male scientists’ achievements. As a
438 result, some women drove themselves to exhaustion or nervous breakdowns in their quest for
439 academic excellence. Margaret Rossiter’s studies were based on the condition of women in the US,
440 but many of the patterns she observed can reasonably be applied to the situations of Danish female
441 academics. Evidently, Inge Lehmann experienced a stressed-related breakdown in 1911 due to
442 overexertion, a pattern of behavior analogous to Margaret Rossiter’s observations about women’s
443 self-inflicted overcompensation. It is worth noting that the new material presented in this article
444 calls into question the severity of Inge Lehmann’s breakdown, and suggests that it’s allegedly
445 devastating impact on her psyche more likely reflected society’s self-fulfilling prophesy about the
446 fragility of the female intellect. Not surprisingly, intellectual insecurity was a common among
447 contemporary female scientists. In 1890, Anna Hude left her position as the National Archive’s first

448 female historian after only a year due to nerves. She was rehired the following year. When German
449 physicist Lise Meitner lectured at Niels Bohr's Institute for Theoretical Physics in 1922 she
450 confided to Bohr's wife that she was enormously reassured to know that he valued her work, for it
451 helped her overcome the insecurity that sometimes afflicted her (Sime 1997). At that time, Lise
452 Meitner had published over forty papers and discovered protactinium.

453 Despite the fact that women were making their way in science by the 1920s, women academics did
454 not participate on equal terms with men. A number of societal and institutional factors in the natural
455 sciences contributed to women's continued difficulty in making a career (Kragh, 2008). The 1921
456 law giving women access to public sector employment was crucial for opening academic
457 appointments to college educated women – although in pay and prestige, women still lagged behind
458 men. As a rule, women found employment in positions with a high turnover in male personnel, or in
459 newly established jobs. A good example of the latter is entomologist Sofie Rostrup (Table 2), who
460 first found work at a private experimental facility for plant pathology – a new discipline at the time.
461 Margaret Rossiter also observed that the prospects for promotion of women scientists were
462 considerably inferior to those of their male colleagues. In the private industrial sector, women
463 scientists were few and far between. There, a second strategy of cynical versatility and conformity
464 developed in the 1930s. Taking advantage of prevailing stereotypes, women deliberately sought
465 jobs considered more suitable to their gender, but close in proximity to their academic disciplines.
466 In fact, of the eight trailblazing women in Table 2 only the youngest four (Julie Marie Vinter
467 Hansen, Astrid Friis, Bodil Jerslev, and Eli Fischer-Jørgensen) obtained university positions. The
468 others were employed in positions related to their disciplines. In fact, Inge Lehmann never held a
469 senior position at a Danish university: in 1952, she was passed over for the new position of
470 Professor in Geophysics at Copenhagen University.
471 Lehmann's appointment as Director of the Department of Seismology can also be interpreted from a
472 gendered perspective similar to the cynical versatility Rossiter observed among female scientists in
473 US industry. Niels Erik Nørlund's selection of Lehmann to manage the seismological stations was
474 likely due to several factors in addition to her scientific qualifications. Firstly, there was no tradition
475 of seismological research in Denmark, so this research area was not prestigious. Secondly, due to
476 seismology's obscurity, there were no male candidates. Career prospects were limited in a country
477 where earthquakes are extremely rare. Thirdly, the job's responsibilities were mainly administrative
478 and the Department's research was not connected to the University of Copenhagen.

479 Nevertheless, some of the above mechanisms worked in Inge Lehmann's favor. By switching from
480 mathematics to seismology and accepting a job outside the University, she secured a permanent
481 appointment and realized her ambition of holding a senior scientific post at a time when faculty
482 positions for women were extremely rare.

483 To a 21st-century audience, Inge Lehmann experiences illustrate how gendered perceptions of
484 science, however well-meaning or seemly rooted in fact, become self-fulfilling prophesies. If we
485 want to learn from exceptional individuals, we need to look at their failures as well as successes,
486 and at the social mechanisms surrounding science. The long-term impact of the Inge Lehmann
487 Program on gender composition in Danish research is yet unknown, but it is one way of pushing
488 past such social mechanisms.

489

490

491 **7. Conclusion**

492 Among seismologists, Inge Lehmann is remembered for her uncompromising, sometimes
493 undiplomatic ways and as the recipient of many honors (Bolt and Hjortenberg, 1994). Despite her
494 successful international career, a close study of Lehmann's experiences before she became a
495 seismologist reveals that she also faced limitations. Gender bias, employment restrictions and
496 society's perception of female biology effectively limited her career options.

497 During her stay at Cambridge University in 1911, she first experienced institutionalized gender-
498 based restrictions. Her mental breakdown in the winter of 1912 can be construed as an attempt to
499 rectify gender bias via academic overcompensation. It is plausible that the severity of her
500 breakdown was exaggerated on her father's insistence. As a physiologist, Alfred Lehmann's own
501 work indicated that women like his daughter, Inge, were biologically unfit for academic studies
502 despite their substantial intellectual gifts.

503 In her work as an actuary and as a research assistant, Inge Lehmann found herself in a disagreeably
504 inferior position compared to her male colleagues. When she changed her field from mathematics to
505 seismology, she displayed a pragmatism that found hope in what was possible. By performing well
506 within narrow parameters, she made the best of things in order to move up the career ladder.

507 Inge Lehmann had a career in science because at decisive moments she conformed to social and
508 professional agendas – and because she was an exceptional talented scientist.

509

510

511 **Disclaimer**

512 This paper is a revised version, with new data of Jacobsen (2015).

513

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