THE FUNCTIONAL ASPECT OF ONE TYPE OF WOMEN'S SPORTSWEAR FROM 1900 TO 1958 IN THE UNITED STATES

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Elaine Autumn Durst

1959

has been accepted towards fulfilment
of the requirements for

M. A. degree in Clothing & Textiles

Marion C. Nudyquam
Major professor

Date March 1, 1960

THE FUNCTIONAL ASPECT OF ONE TYPE OF WOMEN'S SPORTSWEAR FROM 1900 TO 1958 IN THE UNITED STATES

by

Elaine Autumn Durst

AN ABSTRACT

Submitted to the College of Home Economics
Michigan State University of Agriculture and
Applied Science in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Textiles, Clothing, and Related Arts

1959

Approved: Maria A. Nicholson

ELAINE AUTUMN DURST ABSTRACT

The following study concerns the functional aspect of women's swimwear in the United States, from 1900 to 1958. Specific criteria were established for functionalism and the style and design of bathing suits for this period were evaluated on this basis.

Investigation was also conducted in history and sociology with specific emphasis on the general conditions of the country, technology, women in the labor force, the changing role and status of women, and their increased leisure time. These factors were influential in the change in style and design of swimwear and the functional aspect of this particular garment.

It was concluded that over a period of fifty-eight years swimwear had become more functional due to better performance on the basis of style and design, the application of more suitable and durable fabrics, and better construction. By 1958, bathing suits had three functions: they were appropriate for active swimming, sunning, or lounging.

THE FUNCTIONAL ASPECT OF ONE TYPE OF WOMEN'S SPORTSWEAR FROM 1900 TO 1958 IN THE UNITED STATES

by

Elaine Autumn Durst

A THESIS

Submitted to the College of Home Economics
Michigan State University of Agriculture and
Applied Science in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Textiles, Clothing, and Related Arts

1959

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express her appreciation to Dr. Marion A. Niederpruem who acted in an advisory capacity for this thesis; Miss Hazel B. Strahan, Head of the Clothing, Textiles and Related Arts Department, for her encouragement; and Mrs. Mary L. Rosencranz for her helpful advice and suggestions.

Further gratitude is expressed to the following:

To Dr. Thomas A. Staudt, Head of the Marketing, Transportation Administration Department in the School of Business, for his encouragement.

To Dr. Mary L. Gephart and Miss Margaret E. Werner for their aid in outlining this study.

To Mrs. Sawyer of the Chicago Historical Society Library for her assistance in research.

To Miss Alice Klingensmith for the art work contained herein.

To Mr. Robert Reising and Mr. Jerry Sanford for their helpful editing advice.

To the many librarians and retailers for their assistance and suggestions.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF PLATES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Purpose

The following study concerns the functional aspect of women's swimwear from 1900 to 1958 in the United States. The purpose is to ascertain the existence of functionalism in women's swimwear and to evaluate the design of women's swimwear on this basis. Investigation has been conducted in history, sociology, and historic costume. Because of the extensive time period covered this study may be regarded as a general survey.

Justification of Study

Before the American woman attained recognition in the fields of economic and political endeavor she strived for individual rights and equality with men by persistently participating in various sports with members of both sexes. Her fight against the action-inhibiting mode of dress of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries paralleled her change in role and status. It has been said that

> . . . no greater change in all time has taken place than in the lives of women during the last half-century, and nowhere has this change found more obvious and outward expression than in the clothing

> they wear, which has done so much to free them from the bondage of absurd and ridiculous convention.[1]

In most phases of present day dress the modern woman enjoys functional garments, with freedom of movement due to natural lines, shorter skirts, and less material, as compared to cumbersome and restricting garments worn fifty to seventy-five years ago. Many such factors today are directly attributable to the early influence of the "sports" costume.

Today there is more intelligent appreciation of the values of real sport and there are more people of average ability participating in sports than ever before.

For these reasons, "Women's Sportswear in the United States from 1900 to 1958" has been selected for study. This topic will be limited in scope as discussed in the following paragraphs.

Delimitation of Study

This topic has been limited to the sport of swimming, because it is regarded as one of the more popular sports for women today. It is also one of the first sports in which women participated at the turn of the century. To date, no study has been made concerning this particular topic, although a wealth of information is available.

---

[1]Frederick W. Cozens and Florence Scovil Stumpf, Sports in American Life (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953), p. 132.

Various sociological factors of this period which may have influenced the functional aspect of women's swimsear will be discussed, with emphasis on:

1. Changing role and status of women
2. Increase in number of women in the labor force
3. Increased leisure time

Some of the technological advancements in the field of textiles including fiber content, finishes, and fabrication applicable to swimwear will also be discussed.

The following terminology will be used throughout succeeding pages as defined.

Sports refers to "that which diverts, and makes mirth; pastime; diversion. A diversion of the field, as hunting, fishing, racing, games, especially athletic games, etc."[1]

The word sportswear will be limited to any item of apparel worn by an individual participating in sports. The author is cognizant of the broad area of apparel which this term encompasses in the field of retailing today. However, the term in this instance will be taken literally.

The sport of swimming, according to Cummings, is "the sport of self-propulsion through the water."[2] The

---

[1]Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (Springfield, Massachusetts: G. and C. Merriam Company, 1946), p. 963.

[2]Parke Cummings, The Dictionary of Sports (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1949), p. 444.

word itself is a derivation of the old English word "swimin," and it was due to the British that this sport was introduced into America.[1]

Swimwear refers to any type of garment worn for the sport of swimming. The swimming suit and bathing suit are two terms used interchangeably by most people, and are thought to be synonymous. Technically, the former term is applied to a suit used in competition, as distinguished from one for casual bathing, referred to as a bathing suit.[2] The author will make no distinction between these two terms throughout the thesis, but will employ the general term of swimwear.

Leisure, which is expressed as "the opportunity for disinterested activity," easily becomes confused with "amusement" or "recreation." The last two terms can be thought of as sub-topics under the word leisure since they are both a means of utilizing leisure time.[3] Leisure should be taken in its most inclusive sense and, for the purpose of social analysis, the concept is usually both narrowed and broadened to mean "freedom from activities centering around the making of a livelihood."[4]

---

[1]Frank Menke, The New Encyclopedia of Sports (New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1947), p. 905.

[2]Cummings, op. cit., p. 445.

[3]"Leisure," Encyclopedia of Social Science (New York: Macmillan, 1933), Vol. V, p. 5.

[4]Ibid.

For the purpose of this study the various parts of leisure must be distinguished. "All time outside of work time may be divided into that part of life in which the basic needs are met, and that part in which entertainment, enjoyment, or 'luxury' are sought."[1] This paper will deal with the latter definition.

An attempt will not be made to discuss the "economics of leisure" but rather the change in social custom, in the tone of human intercourse, and in the type of prevalent character and outlook of the individual woman, which have helped to mold a new way of life. Such sociological factors are pertinent to this study.

Functionalism in conjunction with clothes, refers to the utilitarian nature of a garment--the fact that a garment is so designed and constructed to be readily adapted to the specific purpose for which it was intended.[2] As new building materials have given rise to new building techniques, so within the past half century have new fabrics been produced to meet the demand for simple,"functional" clothes. With the diversification of activities in the lives of women, clothes have been designed for a specific purpose. Any applied decoration which interferes with

---

[1]C. Delisle Burns, Leisure in the Modern World (New York: The Century Company, 1932), p. 14.

[2]James Laver, Clothes (New York: Horizon Press, 1953), p. 7.

that purpose is to be condemned. Construction inappropriate to the fabric or purpose of the garment is likewise to be condemned.

As this thesis progresses, less important definitions will be given either in the footnotes or the text.

General and Specific Objectives

The primary objective of this thesis is to study the functional aspect of women's swimwear in the United States from 1900 to 1958.

There are three specific objectives. The first, is to secure information concerning functionalism in swimwear on the basis of the following general requirements for "good design: a) performance, b) application of materials, and c) construction appropriate to the material."[1] The second objective, is to ascertain certain sociological factors of this period which may have influenced functionalism in swimwear. The following factors are to be examined: (a) number of women in the labor force, (b) changing role and status of women, and (c) increased leisure time. Thirdly, the author will attempt to determine some of the technological advancements in the field of textiles which have influenced dress for this particular sport.

---

[1]Walter Sobotka, The Principles of Design (Pittsburgh: School of Retailing, University of Pittsburgh, n. d.), p. 13.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

An analysis of some of the sociological and technological developments and trends influencing women's swimwear from 1900 to 1958 in the United States has been based on readings from these areas. Information regarding the number of women in the labor force and their status has been derived from government bulletins and publications.

The method of investigation relevant to the objectives of the study is divided into the following steps:

1. To establish clear definitions or nomenclature.[1] The first tool necessary for any analysis is an appropriate language: "one which was capable of describing the precise outline of the facts, while preserving the necessary flexibility to adapt itself to further discoveries, and above all, a language which was neither vacillating nor ambiguous."[2]

---

[1]Marc Bloch, The Historian's Craft (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1953), p. 157.

[2]Ibid.

2. To investigate primary and secondary historical sources for this period.[1] Primary sources are those which give the first information attainable of the fact or event investigated.[2] These have consisted mainly of periodicals. Secondary sources are derivations from primary sources which are known to exist or are discovered throughout the course of research.[3] This type of research has been employed in the following instances as recommended by Dr. Gottschalk: (a) to derive the setting into which the contemporary evidence can be placed, (b) to obtain additional bibliographical data, (c) to acquire quotations or citations from contemporary or other sources when not available elsewhere, and (d) to derive various interpretations of the problem at hand.[4] The main sources falling into this category are general survey history books.

According to Rev. H. B. George in his book, Historical Evidence, "everything conveying information is evidence."[5] On this basis the author has endeavored to glean as much evidence as possible, to weight it carefully,

---

[1]C. G. Crump, History and Historical Research (London: George Rutledge and Sons Limited, 1928), pp. 67-68.

[2]Ibid. [3]Ibid.

[4]Louis Gottschalk, Understanding History (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950), p. 116.

[5]Rev. H. B. George, Historical Evidence (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1909), p. 14.

and to ascertain the truth through primary and secondary historical cross references.

3. To survey pertinent literature dealing with the general social and cultural conditions at this time.[1] A considerable amount of material has been covered to gather not only the facts, but to determine sociological influences pertinent to the topic.[2]

A distinction can be made between sociology and history:

> Sociology is concerned with the constant and repetitive element in human affairs, past and present, while history is concerned not only with the constant element but still more largely with the unique and individual element; with the elements which can never repeat themselves or be arranged in a neat pattern.[3]

Both sociology and history are pertinent to changes in costume. Various sociological factors such as the change in role and status of women, their leisure time and activities, have affected the type of clothes they need and wear. Such elements have existed in the past and have continually repeated themselves to the present date. Historical events in the United States have affected the nation's economy,

---

[1] Ibid., p. 148.

[2] Gottschalk, op. cit., p. 233. Note: The term "Influences" refers to a "persistent shaping effect upon the thought and behavior of human beings, singly, or collectively."

[3] Allan Nevins, The Gateway to History (New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938), pp. 309-310.

standard of living, and way of life. These effects have likewise been reflected in costume.

The principal sources of information on social and professional activities consist mainly of the following periodicals: Collier's, Good Housekeeping, Ladies' Home Journal, and Woman's Home Companion.

4. To further categorize this period into four chronological periods of time. An arbitrary division into these periods has been based on significant social and historical events in the United States. Such events greatly affected the changing role and status of women and their participation in the field of sports which ultimately led to a change in their sports attire. The four periods are as follows:

1900-1918--a period of transition for women; their fight for equal rights and status; World War I and the influx of women in the labor force.

1919-1929--the "roaring twenties"; period of prosperity.

1930-1945--depression days through World War II.

1946-1958--post World War II period.

In presenting the analysis for each chronological period, some of the social and technological advancements and trends are discussed first to serve as a framework for the resultant fashions and styles of the period.

5. To obtain government census data showing the percentage of women in the labor force. This information

has been advantageous in determining the changing role and status of women from 1900 to 1958. Increased leisure time could also be determined on this basis. Census figures concerning women in the labor force have been obtained directly from United States government bulletins and publications. The increased importance of leisure throughout the years and the changing role and status of women have been obtained from secondary source materials.

6. To delineate some pertinent technological advancements during this period in textiles applicable to women's swimwear. Emphasis has been placed on the following: (a) fiber content, (b) finishes, and (c) fabrication. Because historic costumes are unobtainable for this period the only basis for an analysis lay in publications such as Sears, Roebuck and Company mail-order catalog and the Delineator. Fibers, fabrics, and finishes have undergone continual changes throughout the last half-century. Although the same name or term may be applied to a fabric today as in 1900, it does not necessarily mean that the fabrics are the same. For this reason a glossary can be found at the end of each chapter to aid the reader in understanding the terminology employed.

7. To establish specific criteria for the judgment of illustrative materials on the basis of the three requirements for functionalism. Information pertaining to the aspects of functionalism has been secured from secondary sources, and its exemplification in women's swimwear is

described on the basis of the three general requirements for "good design" as previously cited under the specific objectives. The criteria for these requirements has been difficult to establish due to the technological and social changes which have taken place during the past half-century. Out of necessity, partial fulfillment of this objective had to be done on a subjective basis. Attention has been given to available fabrics at a specified time in history, and to dressmaking and manufacturing techniques. The aspect of functionalism is evaluated for the individual periods in history as selected, and is also cross-evaluated with all periods to give an over-all picture from 1900 to 1958.

The author's perspective of costume history has been influenced by many periodicals, of which the Sears, Roebuck and Company mail-order catalogs is particularly representative of the fashions and styles actually worn by the "average" American woman.[1] Picture files in the Art Room of the Chicago Public Library containing artist's sketches and drawings, photographs, newspaper and magazine clippings, advertisements and articles, have been consulted.

To establish specific criteria for the judgment of illustrative materials on the basis of the requirements for functionalism has likewise been a difficult task. A general

---

[1]David L. Cohn, The Good Old Days (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1940), see Introductory chapter. Note: The "average" American woman refers to those in the upper-middle, lower-middle, and upper-lower social strata.

survey had been made before the selection of illustrations. The following factors have been considered in the selection of materials: (a) various fabrics employed and the style or design used in the employment of these fabrics, (b) styles which were worn by the "average" American woman--not "high" fashion, and (c) illustrations embodying the above two points which showed the evolution of women's swimwear.

The critical process has been employed in the evaluation of all research. This process consists of both external and internal criticism of all materials gathered. The external process is used to determine the authenticity of the materials, taking into account when and where the evidence originated, the author, and his source of information. Internal criticism questions the trustworthiness or probability of statements. This can be checked only through cross references.[1]

Through study and use of this process as advocated by historians, the author has attempted to keep the degree of error to a minimum. The evidence herewith presented is by no means infallible. Human neglect in exact adherence to the rules of evidence is possible. This could readily be caused by personal ignorance or superficiality of evidence.[2]

---

[1]John Martin Vincent, Historical Research (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1911), pp. 19-22.

[2]Ibid.

The next five chapters are taken in chronological order. Chapter III discusses various conditions prior to the turn of the twentieth century, and is designed to give the reader a better understanding of developments which took place from 1900 to 1958. Chapter IV starts the main body of the thesis and covers the first period from 1900 to 1918. Chapter V covers 1919 to 1929; Chapter VI, 1930 to 1945; and Chapter VII, 1946 to 1958. Each chapter is divided into approximately eight sections as follows:

1. General conditions of the period
2. Technological advancements
3. Women in the labor force
4. Changing role and status of women
5. Leisure time
6. Swimming as a sport for women
7. Women's swimwear
8. Functionalism in women's swimwear

Chapter VIII will summarize the previous chapters and conclusions will be drawn on the functional aspect of women's swimwear.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

General Conditions Prior to 1900

First Decades of the Eighteenth Century

During the first few decades of the eighteenth century only a handful of colonies existed along the Atlantic coast of the United States. Eventually, settlements began to spread inland over the Allegheny mountains and into the Ohio valley. They increased rapidly in population because of the continual immigration of European peoples. At this time approximately three million inhabitants resided in the thirteen colonies, Boston being the largest single city in the country, with a population of thirty thousand.[1] Nearly ninety-five per cent of the populace lived in rural areas. It was difficult for these people to get together because transportation was limited to foot, horse, and boat.[2]

---

[1] Emmet A. Rice, A Brief History of Physical Education (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958), p. 175.

[2] Ibid.

Desires and Goals of the Early Colonists

Despite the fact that there was difficulty in congregating, the colonists were bound together by common desires, the most important of which concerned freedom. Fearful of unfriendly Indians, French conquest, and unjust demands from the British Empire, the early settlers felt their only source of peace lay in the formation of a new government.[1] Through earnestness and perseverence they were able to endure the many hardships of colonial life and eventually attain this goal.

1830-1870

This strong desire for peace and freedom served as a magnet in drawing more and more people from Europe to the United States. Between the end of the Revolutionary War and 1830, the population increased from three million to ten million.

Westward expansion was forced by the tremendous influx of immigrants to the country. The discovery of gold in California, in 1848, served as an impetus in drawing people to the Pacific coast. The completion of the first transcontinental railroad in 1869 was a definite asset and influence in the settling of the West. Trade and transportation of materials between the East and West increased. Railroads permitted faster travel than coach or horseback.

---

[1] Ibid.

Ideas and ways of life were more quickly conveyed, thereby uniting the various settlers.[1]

The West was primarily a mining area and industries were sparse. The East, being the oldest settled portion of the country and being closely allied with Europe, soon yielded to industry. Those who had been previously engaged in agriculture turned to factory work, thereby materially changing the physical development and recreational needs of the people. This change was regarded as being desirable because a factory position assured the individual of a steady job with regular hours, in contrast to farm work with its fluctuating crop production and long, irregular hours.

1870 to 1900

The United States soon acquired the reputation of the "melting pot" of the nations due to the diversification of nationalities, religions, and occupations of its inhabitants.[2] A new person evolved--the American. Europeans looked upon the American way of life with envy, and many decided to make the United States their home. By 1870, the population had jumped to 38 million; by 1880 to 50 million;

---

[1]Rose Netzorg Kerr, 100 Years of Costume in America (Worcester, Massachusetts: David Press Inc., 1951), p. 15.

[2]Rice, op. cit., p. 212.

and by 1900, to 76 million.[1] Over thirteen million immigrants had been admitted to the country between 1865 and 1900. Factory work became more popular, even with the immigrants. In 1880 the rural population constituted seventy-one per cent of the total populace, but by 1890, only sixty-six per cent of the people were engaged in making their living from the soil.[2]

By this time there was evidence of the century to come. Cities were pressed for space because of the influx of immigrants and families from rural communities. Urban areas expanded to form suburbs, and the age of the commuter evolved with the invention of the electric trolley. The automobile, telephone, electric light, and typewriter were but a few of the inventions which came into prominent use during this period. Railroads formed a spider web pattern, with Chicago as its center, and radiated to virtucally all sections of the country.

Such were the general conditions at the beginning of the twentieth century. The United States had come a long way since the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth Rock. Transportation, communication, and trade systems had been established within the country; industrialization had set in; a new government had been formulated; and economic stability prevailed.

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Robert W. Smutz, Women and Work in America (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), p. 4.

Technological Developments and Advancements

Status of the Textile Industry in 1790

According to economic beliefs of the eighteenth century, monopoly rather than cheap production was the key to success.[1] On the basis of the above beliefs, Great Britain refused to share her industrial secrets with the American colonists. Consequently, the United States was forced to develop her own technology and industry, utilizing her own resources. In the following paragraphs some of these technological developments and advancements will be discussed.

One development of great significance was recorded in the year 1790, when fabric was first produced in mass quantities. A group of small hand-loom weavers was employed by William Almy, and proved capable of producing approximately eight thousand yards of material a year.[2] All work had to be done by hand, since no successful power spinners were in operation in the United States at this time.

The need for machinery within the textile industry became evident. To aid the industry, an organization known as the Pennsylvania Society for the Encouragement of Manufacturers and Useful Arts was founded. In 1789, Benjamin Franklin negotiated with this society to offer a prize for

---

[1]Allen Johnson (ed.), The Chronicles of America Series (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1921), pp. 84-85.

[2]Ibid., p. 86.

any invention which would be a boon to the textile industry.[1] Samuel Slater heard of the rewarding of inventive genius in the United States, and migrated from Milford, England, with the intention of capitalizing on his talents. This he succeeded in doing. By the end of 1790, Samuel Slater had devised, and put into operation, carding, drawing, and roving machines. Confronted with the problem of making the machinery run, he decided to utilize the power furnished by the waterwheel of an old mill. Thus, was the birth of the spinning industry in the United States.

Development of Factories

The first textile factory was built in 1793. By 1809, there were 62 spinning mills in the country with 31,000 spindles and 25 more mills in the process of being built.[2]

Yarn was sold to housewives for domestic use and to professional weavers to be made into cloth for sale. This has often been described in history as the "domestication of the factory system."[3]

Invention of the Power Loom

The power loom was invented to facilitate the conversion of yarn to cloth. In 1814, at Waltham, Massachusetts,

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 88.

[3] Edith Abbott, Women in Industry (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1926), p. 63.

Frances Cabot Lowell, Nathan Appleton, Patrick J. Johnson, and Paul Moody succeeded in establishing a mill which utilized this invention.[1] All operations necessary to convert raw fiber to fabric were contained within this mill. Such an enterprise was greatly needed because the War of 1812 had cut off the major portion of textile imports. To protect and aid the textile industry, Congress inaugurated tariffs in 1816, whereby a minimum duty of $0.065 a yard was levied on all imported cottons.[2]

Growth of Mills to 1850

In December, 1821, Jackson, Moody, and Appleton (Lowell died in 1817), executed the Articles of Association for the Merrimac Manufacturing Company. It was through this enterprise that women were to find themselves as part of the labor force.[3] Great numbers of young girls from the rural population of New England were hired as mill hands. Since they had left their homes to work in the mill, housing provisions were made close to the factory. The first mill was started on this basis in September, 1823, and within two years three more mills were in operation in the same area.

The efficiency of the New England mills was extraordinary for its day. James Montgomery, an English cotton

---

[1]Johnson, op. cit., p. 90.

[2]Ibid. [3]Abbott, op. cit., p. 47.

manufacturer, visited several mills in the United States. At the end of his tour, he claimed that he had never witnessed the production of such a great quantity of yarn and cloth per spindle and loom in any other factory throughout his world travels.[1] This statement would indicate that the United States textile industry was definitely "holding its own" with other leading countries.

Development of Garment Manufacturers

Turning to the actual construction of garments during this period, only a few small workshops existed in the United States wherein a number of tailors and seamstresses would congregate and laboriously sew garments by hand. This work was primarily performed by wives and daughters of farmers and sailors in and around Boston, New York, and Philadelphia. In other cities garments were cut and distributed among the poor to be sewn. As early as 1832, a shirt factory was established in New York City. California settlers, and Southern slaves and their families, provided an excellent market for ready-made garments.

Invention of the Sewing Machine

The development of the garment manufacturers forced increased development in technology. Mass production of clothing could not be done solely by hand. Various attempts were made to invent a sewing machine. The principle of the

---

[1]Johnson, op. cit., p. 96.

chainstitch had been invented and abandoned because it was wasteful of thread and could easily be raveled. Elias Howe succeeded in making a lockstitch machine. Although it was capable of sewing "more rapidly than five of the swiftest needle workers," it was far too expensive for either the dressmaker or the manufacturer to buy.[1] This machine lacked versatility and was not mechanically sound. Howe's second model was a great improvement and a patent was issued to him in September, 1846.

In 1851, Isaac M. Singer patented a machine which was more durable than Howe's. Several valuable features had been added: a presser foot held down by a spring, and a "treadly" or treadle, which allowed freedom of both hands for the operator.[2]

First Pattern for Garment Construction

Ready-made garments became more popular with the invention of the sewing machine. Until 1871, no patterns had been used in the cutting of garments, but in this year one Ebenezer Butterick designed and made a pattern for a "Garibaldi" suit for a young boy.[3] Although this pattern was made for one specific type of garment and for only one

---

[1]Ibid., p. 101. Note: This machine was being sold for $300.00.

[2]Ibid., p. 105.

[3]Arthur Train, The Story of Everyday Things (New York: Harper and Brother, 1941), p. 326.

size, it was a definite step forward in the field of construction.

The main characteristic of advanced technology is the continual gain in ability to produce more in a given time. This gain began in the United States with the Industrial Revolution in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.[1] When the early textile mills gave men and women the opportunity to work at spinning jennies, and later at power looms, they were able to produce a greater amount of yarn and cloth, at a given expenditure of labor hours than the hand spinners and weavers, thereby forcing them out of business.

Thus, it can readily be seen that by the turn of the century the textile industry and garment manufacturers were well established and advancing rapidly. Having found their own ways and means for industrial and technological gains, Americans were forging ahead and were recognized by other countries, as being outstanding in this field.

Women in the Labor Force

"Work outside the home has been a salient aspect of a broad and continuing effort to secure for women greater equality and freedom in all spheres of life."[2] Woman's changing role and status, and especially her employment,

---

[1]George Soule, Time for Living (New York: The Viking Press, 1955), p. 5.

[2]National Manpower Council, Womanpower (New York: Columbia University Press, 1957), p. 9.

have become an integral part in the basic ways of American life. To clarify the many factors applicable to this change in women's lives in the United States would require numerous volumes covering the entire history of the country. A few of the factors contributing to the revolution in women's employment in the last century are as follows: growth and change in American economy; scientific and technological advancements; decreasing rural and expanding urban and suburban populations; education; the role of the government as an employer; crisis situations caused by wars and depressions; social attitudes; values and desires; marriage patterns; childbearing; and life expectancy. It is the purpose of this section to briefly discuss some of the above mentioned factors.

Definition of "Work"

One distinguishing feature of working women, counted as members of the labor force by the United States Census Bureau, is money--they are only counted if they work for pay or profit.[1] The definitions for the word "work" vary considerably, but for the purpose of this thesis the author will employ the definition as established by the Census Bureau. All other definitions will be ignored.

Transition from Unpaid to Paid Employment

The transition from unpaid to paid employment is but one aspect of the continuing revolution in women's work.

---

[1]Smutz, op. cit., p. 2.

The change from paid work within the home to paid work outside the home also is significant. With the advent of mills, garment shops, printing offices, and the invention of the typewriter, women found themselves spending more time outside the home working for money. Their main purpose for working was the same as that of the men--to support themselves and their dependents.[1] Working was also a means for the younger woman to attain a small degree of independence although she was still expected to financially subsidize her family. (See Appendix B.)

Legislation and Unions

When women entered the labor force they worked long hours, under hazardous conditions and for little pay. Women's union organizations and interested citizens attempted to erase these conditions through legislation. When women first entered the ranks of industry,unions were influential in the struggle for economic equality and security. Two examples of their efforts are: a "tailoress" union strike in 1825, for higher wages in New York, and a similar strike in 1834, of cotton mill operatives in Massachusetts.[2] Women's labor reform organizations were active in textile industries throughout the Civil War period.

---

[1]Mabel A. Elliott and Frances E. Merrill, Social Disorganization (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941), p. 388.

[2]U. S. Department of Labor, Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, Women Who Work (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1939), No. 161, pp. 27-29.

In 1867, women were admitted to men's labor groups, the first being the cigar makers' union. Two years later women obtained membership in the typographical union. Shortly afterwards they founded a women's shoemaker union called the Daughters of St. Crispin, a national organization. The Knights of Labor, founded in 1878, was the first men's organization to recognize equal pay for equal work for women. This group reached its peak in power between 1880 and 1890, but was soon supplanted by the American Federation of Labor, established in 1881.[1]

Occupations

The Census of Occupations report of 1880, listed 2,647,157 women as being gainfully employed.[2] In the same report, 78.7% of the males of working age were classified as gainfully employed, as opposed to 14.7% of the women of working age.[3] Female workers constituted 15.2% of the total number of people engaged in gainful occupations during this year.[4]

Nearly one-half of all American women still lived on farms in 1890.[5] For those who lived in more urban areas,

---

[1] Ibid., p. 30.

[2] National Industrial Conference Board Studies, Women Workers and Labor Supply (New York: National Industrial Conference Board Inc., February, 1936), No. 220, p. 5.

[3] Ibid., p. 9. Also see Lorine Pruette (ed.), Women Workers Through the Depression (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934), p. 54.

[4] Ibid., p. 11.

[5] Smutz, op. cit., p. 6.

the most popular way to earn money was to take in boarders. According to Census reports, sewing placed second in order of importance as a source of income at home. Even the smallest towns were able to support at least one dressmaker and milliner. In a day when budgeting was a necessity and thrift was of prime importance, women tried to make money, as little as it may have been, by mending and making over various garments. The clothing industry at the time was undergoing a state of transition from the domestic to the factory system. Although this was a growing competitor for the many dressmakers, there were still thousands of women who preferred individual seamstresses with their "personalized touch."

There were many other ways in which urban housewives earned money during the 1890's. Among these was domestic service, which was probably one of the oldest occupations pursued by women outside of the home.[1] Because this was a type of work which required no new skills other than those which they had been taught from an early age in their own homes, positions were not difficult to obtain.

The largest portion of women workers outside the home was divided between unskilled and semi-skilled factory employment. With the growth of the factory system in the New England states, it was soon discovered that both women and young girls were well suited for factory work which

---

[1]Ibid. The Census reported at this time almost 1.2 million women engaged in domestic services.

required dexterity, speed, and precision, as well as patience. From that day, women have become an essential element in the manufacturing labor force.

The only other large group of employed women during this era was the schoolteachers, who numbered almost one quarter of a million.[1] At one time men were considered the only capable teachers, but as early as 1830, women invaded the field of education. By 1890, they outnumbered male teachers almost two to one.[2] Most teachers, like women employed in other occupations, were young and single. The majority of communities refused to employ married women. The following statement was declared in the New York City by-laws at this time: "Should a female teacher marry her place shall thereupon become vacant."[3] Although this policy created a constant turnover of teachers, it was generally felt that a single woman was able to devote more time to her position.

The field of nursing has always been a woman's occupation, but in 1890, it was not a paid occupation. Of more than 40,000 nurses and midwives recorded in the Census of 1890, only a few hundred had graduated from nursing school. Their training was inadequate, and consequently, their knowledge was negligible. During the 1890's,

---

[1]Smutz, op. cit., p. 19.

[2]Ibid.

[3]"Women as Teachers," Educational Review, II (1891), p. 391.

there were only three nursing schools in the country specifically intended for women. These schools had a total enrollment of three hundred and sixty. In the latter part of the decade, three medical schools, originally intended for men, broke the barrier and accepted female applicants.

A similar situation prevailed in the field of law. By 1890 there were over two hundred women lawyers who had been admitted to the bar.[1] It had taken twenty years for law schools, designed for men, to open their doors to the fairer sex.

At one time, men constituted the entire realm of commerce and white-collar workers. Following the Civil War women began to enter the field. By the end of the nineteenth century they could be found in virtually all offices and stores.

The previous paragraphs have discussed classifications of occupations as listed by the United States Bureau of the Census. These do not include all occupations in which women were active, but are merely general categories.

It is evident, that even during these few years, the entire structure of the female labor force in respect to occupations had changed. White-collar work had risen in importance in contrast to unskilled and semi-skilled manual labor. By the end of the last decade of the nineteenth century, one out of every one hundred women gainfully

---

[1]Smutz, op. cit., p. 21.

employed had a white-color job; one out of every five was an agricultural worker; eight out of ten women who were not employed on farms found work in domestic service, teaching, or in the clothing and textile industries.[1] This was the occupational status of women in the labor force at the turn of the century.

Education and Work

Most young girls were required to help their mothers around the house, but since this could be done after school hours, many were permitted to finish high school. In 1890, female graduates from public high schools outnumbered male graduates almost two to one. The majority of boys, unless they pursued a specific trade or vocation, were forced to drop out of school at an early age to work, thus supplementing the family income.[2] A few women continued their education for professional training. The more highly educated became characterized by their "disrespect for convention and determination to override all obstacles."[3] The feminist revolt for equal rights was due mainly to the efforts of these women.

---

[1]National Manpower Council, Womanpower, op. cit., p. 10.

[2]U. S. Office of Education, Biennial Survey, 1951-1952 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1954), Chapter V.

[3]Smutz, op. cit., p. 50.

Marital and Age Status

A study conducted by the Bureau of Labor within the United States government in 1887, revealed three-fourths of the 17,000 female factory workers in large cities to be under twenty-five years of age, and only four per cent to be married.[1] On the basis of these figures it is obvious that the female labor force in the last decade of the nineteenth century was composed almost one hundred per cent, of young, single women.

By the end of the nineteenth century there were four million women in paid employment, accounting for nearly one-sixth of the total working population. Out of every ten women who worked, seven were single, and five were under twenty-five years of age. Fifty per cent, or one-half of the adult women at the turn of the century never entered the field of employment. The remaining fifty per cent worked an average of eleven years.[2]

Wages

In 1891, C. D. Wright was delegated to investigate women's status in the labor force in respect to wages received. His survey included twenty-two cities and his findings were submitted in the Fourth Annual Report of the

---

[1]U. S. Commissioner of Labor, Working Women in Larger Cities, Fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1889), pp. 62-64.

[2]National Manpower Council, Womanpower, loc. cit.

United States Bureau of Labor entitled Working Women in Larger Cities.[1] On the basis of this study, Mr. Wright declared the average age in starting work to be fifteen years and four months. Salaries varied from $4.05 per week to $6.91 per week for skilled labor, with an average wage of $5.24 per week.[2] These salaries were fifty per cent lower than men's wages at the time.

Thus, at the turn of the century women could be found in many occupations. The fact that they were not treated on an equal basis with men incited the feminist revolt. This struggle became more intense as women desired greater freedom and equality.

Changing Role and Status of Women

Early Nineteenth Century

According to common law in the early days of the nineteenth century, "husband and wife were one and that one the husband."[3] A married woman was said to be "dead in law."[4] Men had absolute power over their wives and children. They

---

[1]U. S. Commissioner of Labor, loc. cit.

[2]Ibid. Note: The following wages for women were typical: Atlanta, Ga., $4.05; New Orleans, $4.31; Boston, $5.64; Chicago, $5.74; New York, $5.85; St. Paul, $6.02; and San Francisco, $6.91. For further figures see Helen Campbell, "The Working Women of Today," Arena, IV (August, 1891), p. 332.

[3]Mary Foulke Morrisson, "Votes for Women," Woman's Home Companion, No. 67 (November, 1940), p. 4.

[4]Ibid.

could collect and spend their wages, control their property, and legally beat them. On the whole, women in America were well treated. However, there was no legal action which could be taken against brutal husbands who took advantage of their wives and their property. Under these conditions, it was inevitable that women would revolt and lay claim to certain rights and a status more comparable to that of men.

Feminist Movement

The Feminist Movement was a primary factor in the changing role and status of women. The main objective of this movement was the attainment of a status more comparable to that of men. One phase of this movement concerned the change in traditional dress of both sexes. A primary cause of fashion reform lay in hygiene.[1] In 1860, the National Dress Association was organized in Boston for the purpose of teaching women the physical laws which pertained to their mode of dress. These laws concerned bodily injuries, which they were causing, themselves, due to the wearing of improper garments.[2] Both Elizabeth Phelps and Julia Ward Howe, who were active in the reform movement, believed that restrictive clothing hampered the intellectual development of women.

---

[1]"Fashion and Medicine," MD, Vol. II, No. 9 (September, 1958), pp. 72-80.

[2]Bernard Rudofsky, Are Clothes Modern? (Chicago: Paul Theobold, 1947), p. 182.

Julia Howe associated "constraint of the body" with "enslavement of the mind."[1]

Many new garments were posed to the public during these years which were thought, by the reformers, to be more hygienic and functional than the traditional mode of dress. Although most of these suggested garments were not appealing to women, they were a step in the right direction towards more functional dress.

These attempts and their influence on the functional aspect of dress will be discussed in greater detail in the section entitled "Functionalism."

At the same time a rustle of discontent was heard throughout America concerning women's clothes, excitement was caused by a few women who dared to speak from a public platform in behalf of causes in which they believed, such as anti-slavery. Angelina Grimke, Abby Kelley, and Lucretia Mott were among those women who made valiant attempts to bring about a change. In 1840 delegates were sent to an anti-slavery convention in London. Eight years later, at a similar convention in Seneca Falls, New York, a woman's Bill of Rights was passed. (See Appendix A.) Embodied within this Bill of Rights were the desires and goals of women at this time.

---

[1]Margaret L. Brew, "American Clothing Consumption, 1870-1909" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1945), p. 53.

One of the desires of women during the latter portion of the nineteenth century was the right to vote. Between 1850 and 1860 National Suffrage Conventions were held almost every year. Women temporarily dropped their suffrage movement with the commencement of the war in 1861, and did admirable work on behalf of the United States. Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell returned from England where she had done work under Florence Nightengale, and organized in this country, the Sanitary Commission--a forerunner of our present day Red Cross.[1] Josephine Griffing established the Freedman's Bureau in an effort to cope with the problem of Negro refugees.

Although it was through the efforts of women that Negro refugees were aided, it was this group which first received the right to vote. About 1860,the fourteenth amendment was passed to the Constitution which, for the first time, defined the rights of "male" citizens.[2] Thie amendment closed the doors on women as voters and opened them to Negroes, the majority of which were still in the complete ignorance of slavery. Protests were unavailing. By 1896, only four ststes had adopted universal suffrage. In 1869, the Territory of Wyoming gave women the right to vote. The Territory of Utah followed in 1870. Party splits in Colorado in 1893, and in Idaho in 1896,gave women suffrage in these

---

[1]Morrison, loc. cit.

[2]Ibid., p. 122.

states. By the turn of the century interest had declined in this movement and did not gain momentum until the second decade of the twentieth century.

Women in America had taken several steps forward in their goal towards greater equality with men. By the end of the nineteenth century although such achievements were seemingly insignificant as compared to those of the early twentieth century, they were important, since they marked the beginning of the change in role and status of women in the United States.

Leisure and Leisure Activities

Colonial Days

People of colonial days spent their leisure time in recreation with useful labor. Quilting parties, corn huskings, house and barn raisings are but a few examples. Even though the stern hand of the church was strongly felt throughout the colonies, the pious, who considered anything not connected with work or worship as a waste of time, could consciously join in fun and recreation.

A leisure class developed around the large plantations of the south where there were slaves to do the work. Fox-hunting and extravagant balls filled the leisure hours. British soldiers quartered in Philadelphia, in 1627, brought to that community a form of old English pageantry--the May-pole dance. Almost all the colonies, except those strongly controlled by the church, developed a form of festival, fair, or pageantry.

Shortly after the Revolutionary War, the Methodist church, fearing the trends of the day, issued the following statement on play for students attending schools under their management:

> . . . we prohibit play in the strongest terms. . . . The students shall rise at five o'clock . . . summer and winter. . . . Their recreation shall be gardening, walking, riding, and bathing without doors, and the carpenter's joiners and cabinet-maker's business within doors. . . . The students shall be indulged with nothing which the world calls play. Let this rule be observed with the strictest nicety; for those who play when they are young, will play when they are old.[1]

Early Nineteenth Century

As the early colonists conquered the wilderness they settled down to establish homes and form communities. A division of labor arose from group living which produced some semblance of leisure time. Only those still pushing westward had the hard life of the early colonists. New forms of physical activities developed to claim the attention of the people.

Recreation took on a new form with the coming of the steamboat and railroad. The New York Herald in 1838, advertised round-trip boat excursions to Coney and Staten Islands and Hudson River trips with dancing and band concerts.[2]

The Industrial Revolution had thrown many women out of jobs, depriving them of their vocational and creative

---

[1]Rice, op. cit., p. 181. [2]Ibid., p. 188.

roles. Since many had no release for their energy along useful or socially valuable lines, they consumed their leisure with useless or damaging activity. Such expenditure of effort was social waste.[1]

A Leisure Class

A leisure class evolved in the United States due to increased wealth and suburban living. Thorstein Veblen, in his book entitled The Theory of the Leisure Class, discussed the idea of "conspicuous leisure."[2] This was not leisure for its own sake, but leisure which could be contrasted with the hard work of others--leisure occupied in such showy ways that it set off the "privileged" from the "common" person.

"Conspicuous leisure" prevailed in the eastern states of America during the latter portion of the nineteenth century, and had a definite function: to provide a motive for the struggle for wealth.

Summary

Leisure time was new to most people during the nineteenth century. As the working day grew shorter, and technological and industrial advancements brought more conveniences into the home, people began to have more time to

---

[1]Note: This does not imply that leisure time was necessarily wasted, but merely that few used it creatively. See Elliott, op. cit., Chapter XXXI, "Leisure."

[2]Thorstein Veblen, The Theory of the Leisure Class (New York: Random House, 1931), Chapter VII.

themselves to do as they pleased. Women utilized this extra time in many ways. The spare hours were filled with new work within the home, such as interior decoration, personal care, et cetera, volunteer work for health, welfare, and other community agencies, recreational and social activities. Recent social movements, of which the Woman's or Feminist Movement is an example, have developed largely because of the extent of leisure time.

Physical recreation, however, has probably been one of the primary sources for the utilization of leisure time within the last half century. Sports have become a release for energy and tension and have proven a source of accomplishment and pleasure. The following section will discuss one phase of the sports world: swimming.

Swimming as a Sport for Women

Origin of Swimming and Seabathing

The art of swimming is almost as old as the human race, but the entrance of women into this sport is relatively recent.[1] Prior to the eighteenth century it never occurred to anyone to bathe in the sea, except by accident. Fishermen and boat builders were the only ones who went to sea. No one frequented the seashore for the sake of pleasure. Homes along the coast were built with their backs to the sea

---

[1]W. S. Rossiter, "Swimming," Tribune Book of Open Air Sports, ed. Henry Hall (New York: The Tribune Assoc., 1887), p. 285.

and residents regarded it as a necessary evil connected with an occupation.

In 1750, Dr. Russell, of England, established a Latin treatise on the uses of seawater, for internal and external application.[1] Four years later, he built a summer house at Brighton, England, facing the sea. This was the first step toward seaside resorts. Once established, they developed rapidly.

By 1770, swimming had become fairly popular in England, and resorts were "all the rage."[2] About this time a man named Benjamin Beale invented a bathing machine. An awning extended over the back of this machine or wagon and partially concealed the blushing bathers while entering and leaving the waves.[3] Bathing machines became abundant in England and later experienced a brief period of popularity in America. the following account gives a detailed description of such a machine:

> . . . Very rich and fine women enter these machines up by the promenade, and having horses hitched to the vehicles, are dragged down to the water's edge. Other women and men enter the machines whenever they

---

[1]James Laver, Taste and Fashion (New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1938), p. 217.

[2]"The Origin of Seabathing," American Review of Reviews, No. 74 (October, 1926), pp. 439-440.

[3]See Plate I.

> find one unoccupied, change their clothing in it and walk to the water. The bathing machines I saw in England were of wood, but most of those in Trouville are merely framed with wood and covered with canvas, that in turn often being hidden under painted or printed advertisements. A Trouville bathing machine is nothing but a box eight feet long and six feet high, with a roof like a barn, all perched upon four wheels. Within are seats and clothes hooks or pegs, and sometimes a mirror and comb and brush. Either before you dress for the water or while you are in the surf a woman brings a great wooden pitcher of fresh water to the machine, in which you find a pail to use as a washbowl.[1]

Since few women knew how to swim, then, or for years afterwards, the "guide" was an important adjunct. He would hold or submerge the individual as desired, and for a reasonable price, guarantee them from being drowned.

American Heritage of Sports

American heritage of sports, a significant feature of American life, comes almost entirely from the English people. Brought to America by the early colonists, this British love of sports has been carried down into modern times. Benjamin Franklin, as an individual, influenced the popularity of the sport of swimming. As a young boy he had become deeply interested in the skill of swimming and investigated various physiological effects of this sport. He became such an expert swimmer that when still a young man, he gave an exhibition of swimming in London. Franklin later gained an international reputation as an

---

[1]Julian Ralph, "At Trouville," Harper's Weekly, No. 34 (November, 1890), p. 850.

authority on the art of swimming because of a treatise he had written which had appeared in various magazines and papers prior to 1790.[1] One publication, entitled "Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania," advocated participation in various sports, including swimming, for both sexes.[2] The fact that Franklin had at one time been a swimming instructor, together with his treatise, added dignity to the sport.

Establishment and Development of Swimming Pools

The first swimming pool in America was built on the banks of the Schuylkill River, in Philadelphia, in 1791.[3] During the 1790's, baths were established throughout the countryside where people could bathe or swim. In the early 1800's, Philadelphia boasted of floating baths similar to those in France and England at the time. They were located in the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers and, according to Watson, ". . . lay upon the water like low houses with white and yellow sides and green Venetian shutters with boatmen at hand to convey bathers to the establishment."[4] The walls of these houses had openings through which the river water ran to make the pools. Some were elaborate, possessing several galleries and bathing chambers.

---

[1]Robert B. Weaver, Amusements and Sports in American Life (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939), p. 189.

[2]Thomas Woody, Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1931), pp.149-182.

[3]Rice, op. cit., p. 182. [4]Ibid.

Similar pools were established in all cities of importance at the time, including Boston, Salem, Hartford, New York, Philadelphia, Richmond, Washington, Charleston, and Savannah. Some of these pools were spacious, covering almost four thousand feet. Men and women were usually confined to separate compartments.

Sea-bathing and Summer Resorts

Sea-bathing was also practiced, and many people went to summer resorts where swimming was a healthful and delightful recreation. In 1810, New Yorkers journeyed by carriage to Far Rockaway Beach to sun and bathe themselves. Long Branch, along the New Jersey shore, was established for Philadelphians. With the construction of new hotels after the War of 1812, Cape Mary and Atlantic City gained outstanding reputations as excellent "watering places."[1] Sarasota Springs, New York, and White Sulphur Springs, Virginia, were exploited and their restorative properties were widely advertised after 1815.[2] The first Atlantic City Boardwalk was completed in 1870, and added a new attraction to the lengthy list of fashionable seaside resorts.[3] Thus,

---

[1] J. A. Krout, Annals of American Sport, Vol. XV: Pageant of America (New York: Derrydale, 1931), p. 289.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Chicago Sunday Tribune, August 23, 1959, Part 6, p. 4.

by the end of the nineteenth century, sea-bathing was well established in the United States. During the warm weather people flocked to the seashore to bask in the sun and refresh themselves in the ocean.

Swimming for Women

In a few instances records have been found of women participating in the sport of swimming as early as the first quarter of the nineteenth century. By 1850, this was still not recognized as an accepted sport for a lady. The following recommendation was found in the August, 1858 copy of Godey's Lady Book:

> Swimming was recommended for girls and women partly from the standpoint of cleanliness. Cleanliness, however obtained, was known to keep the pores of the skin open, thus bathing it in the sea was to an extent made desirable because of its effects upon the skin. The proper hours for swimming were indicated as those just preceding breakfast or supper, but if swimming must be done in the middle of the day the swimmer is urged to choose a shady spot and wear a straw hat. Corks, bladders, inflated life preservers, ropes or poles, were often used for beginning swimmers, altho the most approved method was that of having the teacher wade out into the water as far as possible and there support the learner in swimming position.[1]

Swimming, at this time, was not advocated as a source of pleasure, but a source of good health. This trend of thought was maintained until the last quarter of the century. With the advent of numerous pools and seaside resorts, women began to participate in the sport and regard swimming as a

---

[1]L. A. Godey, Godey's Lady Book, Vol. 57 (Philadelphia: August, 1858), p. 123.

source of enjoyment and pleasure. Many women believed that by participating in such a sport as swimming, which had heretofore been regarded as a "man's sport," they would force themselves to be accepted and would achieve a more equal status with men.

Swimming and Education

Aquatic activities spread to colleges and universities during the nineteenth century. As early as 1837, Mt. Holyoke Seminary in Massachusetts offered a physical education program, which included swimming. The first swimming pool to be built by a college was opened in 1848, at Girard College in Philadelphia. Harvard University put in the second college pool in 1880. In 1891, Bryn Mawyr (women's college) united its various sports clubs into one organization, giving birth to the first Women's Athletic Association. Goucher College constructed the first swimming pool for women in 1888, but did not list swimming as an activity for students until 1904. Vassar built the second pool in 1889; Smith installed a "swimming bath" in 1892, which could be used by two to five students at a time and was in use for over thirty years; Bryn Mawyr built its pool in 1894, and by the end of the century Radcliffe College had a swimming pool for women.[1]

---

[1]Rice, op. cit., pp. 245-246.

There were no swimming pools for women or men in any coeducational college of this era. Although many pools had been built in large cities, the physical education programs within large colleges and universities were not sufficiently developed so as to warrant swimming pools.

By the turn of the century the sport of swimming was recognized as being respectable for women. Educators became cognizant of the importance of a physical education program for students, and for this reason the private women's colleges of the East included swimming in their physical education programs. Although few women in America actually knew how to swim, they frequented seaside resorts and bathing pools as a source of relaxation, pleasure, and recreation.

Women's Swimwear

There is little evidence for the forms of bathing dress prior to 1800. It is difficult to say when they were first created.

During the first fifty years of the nineteenth century bathing suits were voluminous, consisting of large pantaloons and a thick loose dress with long sleeves. Nothing went uncovered. The dress extended from throat to ankles. Shoes, hat, and gloves were worn. The costume was weighted with decorative flowers and ruffles which, when wet, made it heavy and next to impossible for the wearer to indulge in any active water sports.

This style remained in "fashion" until 1865, when "the Zoave Marine" swimming suit was introduced.[1] This costume had a body and trousers cut in one, which gave more freedom of action while still concealing the figure. Its chief rival was a loose-buttoned blouse and knicker-bockers of stout brown Holland or blue serge trimmed with brightly colored braid.

The bathing dress gradually became "streamlined" in America as shown by the models in Plate I representative of the late 1860's. Fancy oil skin caps replaced hats, gloves were abandoned, and it was permissable, yet daring, to allow the ankles to show.

By the mid-seventies the bathing dress had become more stylized. A knee-length dress was worn over trouser-like bloomers reaching to the mid-calf, or below. There was no significant increase in decolletage, but slightly shorter sleeves. The entire suit was trimmed with braid and ribbons and was usually accompanied by a peculiarly shaped straw hat.

In 1880, bathing costumes, on the whole, were neat in appearance. The typical costume consisted of a loose blouse with elbow length sleeves, a collar, and wide drawers or bloomers reaching to the ankles. The suit could be worn with or without a skirt. The following year the first

---

[1]Cecil Willett Cunnington, The Perfect Lady (New York: Chanticleer Press Inc., 1948), p. 37.

sleeveless bathing suit appeared, revealing the bare arm. Trousers still extended to the ankles, concealing the lower limbs. (See Plate II.)

About 1886, women's swimwear acquired a one-piece look with detachable skirt over knickerbockers. Although such a design was more advantageous for swimming, the suits were impractical due to the heavy fabrics used.

There were always some women who wore more daring attire at the beach. In the summer of 1886, a young Southern woman vacationing at Narragansett Pier, Rhode Island, wrote the following letter to her cousin. This is a friendly, but "catty" letter giving an accurate description of one instance of the display of a "shocking" bathing costume.

Dear Cousin,

> I am snatching a few moments from the daily rush to again urge you to join Me . . . With the idea of enticing you, I will attempt to give a fleeting glimpse of the passing show.
>
> During the bathing hours at high tide . . . the beach and hotel verandas are crowded with onlookers. An hundred or more bathers--men and women--afford us no end of entertainment. Charlie Dudley is here and as you know, one permits him to say outrageous things. The combination of his charm and daring humor are disarming. He sat beside me today while all eyes were rivited on one Mrs. Gissing from Chicago. She is supposed to be beautiful. I make a guess that her auburn tresses have been assisted and her figure is described by Charlie as being roBUST and HYPnotic. Some say "divorcee", others "grass-widow." Well, no matter. In any case it would take a horse race to keep up with her. I, of course, know her only by sight, and sight she is! The men buzz around her like bees and gather about the bath rooms to see her pass, en route to the waves. She always lolls on the sand a bit before making a kittenish dash--she's surely in

> the thirties if a minute. Her costume and antics this morning were paramount to anything yet.
>
> Black silk bathing suit--very short skirt--very low neck. NO sleeves--transparent silk stockings. On her arm a gold bracelet, if you please! After she had done building sand hills (childish aspect) with several male bathers, she referred to the billows. Catching hands with a favored gentleman, they made a grand rush and sprauled. From then on, where her corset began and left off was very apparent.
>
> Mrs. G., with one exception, is the only good female swimmer, yet, with an arm around the man's shoulder, his arm around hers, swimming with one hand apiece, they made good headway to the deep water raft. Not satisfied with this, she mounted his back and pitched off head foremost. Some women seated next to me got up and left. I didn't feel that way about Mrs. Gissing. For all I care she may be as brazen as she likes.
>
> Charlie Dudley watched the whole performance through his field glasses--such remarks! He leaves next week for White Sulphur . . . All said and done, what a charming and entertaining man he is--wicked thing. . . .[1]

Both Charlie Dudley and the author of the letter were traditional in their thinking. Throughout the nineteenth century it was customary for men to watch women bathers through binoculars. It was likewise customary for women to deplore immodest bathing suits on other women. The description given in this letter is an exception to fashion at the time rather than the rule. It does illustrate, however, the concept of immodesty in swimwear. Only the bravest of women dared appear in such a manner. The majority who participated in swimming retained their knickerbockers or bloomers, sleeves to the elbow, high collars or necklines, and skirts to the knee or slightly below.

---

[1]Cohn, op. cit., pp. 391-392.

The following account of swimwear in the 1890's was extracted from an American magazine:

> The unbecoming appearance of many lady-bathers has led us to ask the particulars of the toilet of one whom we have remarked as looking equally well dressed, when in the water and on the shore. She first dons a thin woollen undergarment, and over this she wears a corset with most of the 'bones' removed. She then puts on a pair of black stockings, and the bathing dress, which should have an upper skirt reaching almost to the tops of the bathing shoes, which should be of white canvas. The bathing dress should be dark, blue or black, as it makes the figure look better than a light one. The details should be left to taste, but a few white embroidered anchors or a little white or red fringe will give lightness. She plaits her hair beneath a close-fitting bathing cap, but in order to avoid the unbecoming appearance which this lends to the head she fixes a false plait, pinned on below the hair, to fall below the bathing cap behind, and a few little curls, arranged in a neglige fashion, are sewn inside the bathing cap to fall over the forehead.[1]

In general, the bathing costume of the last half of the nineteenth century became more brief as the years progressed. The neckline became more decollete, sleeves became shorter, skirts were shorter or were totally absent, and knickerbockers and bloomers rose from ankle to knee length. Stockings, usually black, were worn with the bathing costumes, as were bathing shoes. Hats or caps adorned the heads.

The majority of bathing suits prior to 1900 were hand made. With the advent of the sewing machine in the 1860's, machine stitching could be used, making the seams

---

[1]"The Art of Social Bathing," Spectator, No. 73 (August 11, 1894), pp. 172-173.

of bathing suits more durable. Since women were not overly active in this sport at the time, such a factor was not of great importance. The most popular fabrics used were wool, alpaca, cashmere, cotton, linen, serge, Turkey Twill, and some silk. Trimmings of braid, tassels, ruching, and ribbons bedecked the costume, as well as embroidery and silk ties.

There had been no radical change in style over a period of fifty years, nor in use of fabrics. With the advent of women in sports and the increased popularity of swimming, bathing suits were destined to change in the future decades.

Functionalism in Women's Swimwear

Idealistically, a woman's garment should be practical and healthy and not hamper her movement. Dress reformers of the mid-nineteenth century continually advocated such garments, but to no avail. Training and voluminous skirts, tight waists and sleeves--were all detrimental to satisfactory movement.

Abba Goold Woolson wrote of dress reform from the aesthetic standpoint.

> Though it be as perfect in outline and ornament as classic taste can make it, as simple and serviceable as the most energetic worker can desire, a costume has no business to exist, is indeed an embodied crime, if it deforms or weakens or tortures the body it intends to serve. For that should be sacred: it is God's handiwork. He made it as He wished it to be; capable by wonderful mechanisms, or swift and easy motion; shaped in the contours which artists despair

> of reproducing; and so responsive to our will, so varied in its capacities, so lightly moved from place to place, by its own powers, that in its perfect state the soul which inhibits it is almost unconscious of its existence, and knows it only as a source of help and pleasure. A dress which prevents this human body from ever attaining its natural size and comeliness is not simply unhealthful; it is also inartistic, since the highest aspiration of art is to copy and idealize nature. The desired improvement in women's dress which art enjoins will surely come in time, if we can patiently wait for it. Such a general knowledge of beauty's laws, and such a deference to their behests as it implies, must be a slow growth; for it is nothing short of the enlightenment of the whole people as to what constitutes grace of form, harmony of color, and adaptability to conditions of life.[1]

This statement reveals the beginnings of a very disturbing influence which took place in the middle 1870's, the Aesthetic Movement.[2] In a material form this movement appeared as a rebellion against the restrictions of fashion together with a demand for greater physical freedom. The Aesthetic Movement lasted for nearly a half a century, while the "modern young women" unconsciously attempted to change the fundamental concept of the art of costume by introducing the new notion of greater mobility.[3] On the whole this reform was a failure due to the drastic suggestions of reformers for a new mode of dress.

It was not until the 1890's, that the idea of functionalism was promoted on the basis of design and freedom of movement.

---

[1]Mrs. Charles A. Hall, From Hoopskirts to Nudity (Caldwell, Idaho: Caxton Printers Ltd., 1938), p. 51.

[2]Cunnington, op. cit., p. 46. [3]Ibid., p. 35.

The simple invention of the bicycle brought to an end the tyranny of the corset, bustle, and trailing skirt, and started the wheels turning on the road to more functional garments.[1] Once the freedom and comfort of new sports clothes had been experienced, neither newspaper, ridicule, masculine disapproval, adverse legislation, nor ecclesiastical prohibition could stop women from adopting new fashions.

Various committees were established during this decade for the promotion of functional garments. Some committees were organized for a particular type of socio-economic group, such as women working in industry. Frances E. Russell in an article appearing in the Arena in 1891, expressed a desire for the working girl to have garments which would give her "freedom of lungs and limbs."[2] One committee, under the auspices of the National Council of Women, in 1893, expressed favor for an "improvement in women's dress which willgive her the free use of the organs of her body when working or taking exercise."[3]

Thus, women prior to 1900, were working towards a more practical design of garments, applicable to both every-day dress and sports attire. Because they had entered the sport of swimming and had found enjoyment and relaxation

---

[1]Gilbert Seldes, "Dress and Undress," Mentor, No. 17 (November, 1929), pp. 56-60.

[2]Frances E. Russell, "Woman's Dress," Arena, No. 3 (February, 1891), pp.352-360.

[3]Frances E. Russell, "Freedom in Dress for Woman," Arena, No. 8 (June, 1893), pp. 70-77.

through this sport, it was only natural that they would desire clothes which would give them more freedom of movement. Active participation in swimming was still frowned on to some degree in the last years of the nineteenth century. Modesty, of course, was of prime importance. The fact that women were not in possession of equal status with men was also influential.

There are three general requirements for good design, and it is on these bases that the principle of functionalism is exemplified: (1) performance, (2) application of materials, and (3) construction appropriate to the material.

1. Performance.--Plates I and II are illustrative of bathing suits prior to 1900. It is evident from these figures that women's bathing suits were cumbersome and impractical because of the voluminous amount of material employed. It is understandable that women could not swim in garments of this nature, but merely confine themselves to wading in shallow water or strolling along the beach. Attempts were made on the part of women to actively participate in this sport. Certainly they never became experts, since the long sleeves, skirts and bloomers or knickerbockers impeded their strokes. Superfluous decorations, tight waists, undergarments, and corsets were also detrimental to movement.

2. Application of materials.--The most popular fabrics used in swimwear were wool, cotton, linen, silk,

alpaca, and cashmere. Wool and alpaca were employed most frequently. Although both are good for warmth, they are not quick drying. They also become very heavy when wet, and when eight to ten yards constitute a bathing suit, one wonders how a woman could possibly swim under such a tremendous weight. Cashmere and silk were used mainly for decorative purposes, although many women of the upper classes possessed bathing suits made entirely of silk. At this time silk was the most expensive fabric available and was regarded as a "luxury" item. Linen lends itself readily to tailored garments, but like wool, is very heavy when wet. To take cotton by itself, one would say that this was a very practical fabric for swimwear. In the light of the styles of that era, however, it was impractical because it revealed the female figure, and, consequently, was in violation of the prevailing code of modesty.

3. Construction appropriate to the material.--The majority of bathing suits prior to the turn of the century were hand made. With the advent of the sewing machine in the 1860's, machine stitching could be used by dressmakers. Through use of this invention, swimwear became more durable, This factor was not of great importance, however, because women were not overly active in the sport. Dressmaking techniques, which consisted of sewing entirely by hand, were employed. With this type of labor, as inexpensive as it was, it was not uncommon to find many ruffles, frills,

ribbons, and ruchings on the garments. This fact, in conjunction with the heavy materials used, the quantity of material used, and the restricting style of garments, tended to make bathing suits, prior to 1900, unfunctional and impractical.

To properly understand function in sportswear at this time in American history, consideration must not be given solely to the tools and requirements of design, materials, and technology. The emotional satisfactions of women as manifested in their drive for equal rights and status were of comparable importance. It was impossible for women to have functional garments when the dictates of society frowned on their active participation in sports. Anything which detracted from the lady-like qualities expected of women during this era, was condemned. Having once achieved social, political, and economic equality, women sincerely believed they would also attain freedom of mind and body.

PLATE I

Figure 1 --- Costume of purple flannel with trimmings of white flannel. Bodice fastened with white buttons and white band and buckle. Bathing cap of oilskin, trimmed with red worsted braid.

Figure 2 --- Blouse and trousers of red flannel, trimmed with white. The blouse is ornamented with a ruche of white cashmere, and a cashmere scarf is tied around the waist forming a long sash in the back. Bathing cap of oilskin.

Figure 3 --- Bathing suit of white and lilac striped flannel. Blouse trimmed around bottom with border of white flannel, and caught up on each side with a tab of the same material. The collar, wrist, and waistbands are also white. Bathing cap of oilskin, with a pinked ruche of striped flannel.

Source: L. A. Godey, Godey's Lady's Book (Philadelphia: L. A. Godey, Vol. 66, July, 1868), n. p.

Plate I

PLATE II

Figure 1 --- 1870 : A daring bathing suit of the day--arms bared with the exception of the large sailor collar extending over the upper portion of the arm. Bustle effect to skirt. Shirring around base of skirt and bloomers. Made of light weight grey wool worsted.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1880 : Checked gingham bathing suit with black trim around neckline, ruffled collar, and at base of bloomers. A more daring suit of the day showing bloomers without an overskirt. Black stockings and bathing slippers.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1890 : Typical suit of this year in blue serge trimmed with bands of white wool worsted. Large puffed sleeves extended almost to elbow and skirt over full-length bloomers to knee. Canvas laced bathing slippers.[3]

---

[1]Illustration taken from November, 1958 issue of Esquire Magazine.

[2]"Yes, My Darling Daughter; Styles 1870-1944," Saturday Evening Post, No. 217 (August 5, 1944), pp. 24-25.

[3]Chicago Sunday Tribune, Magazine section, June 8, 1952, p. 12.

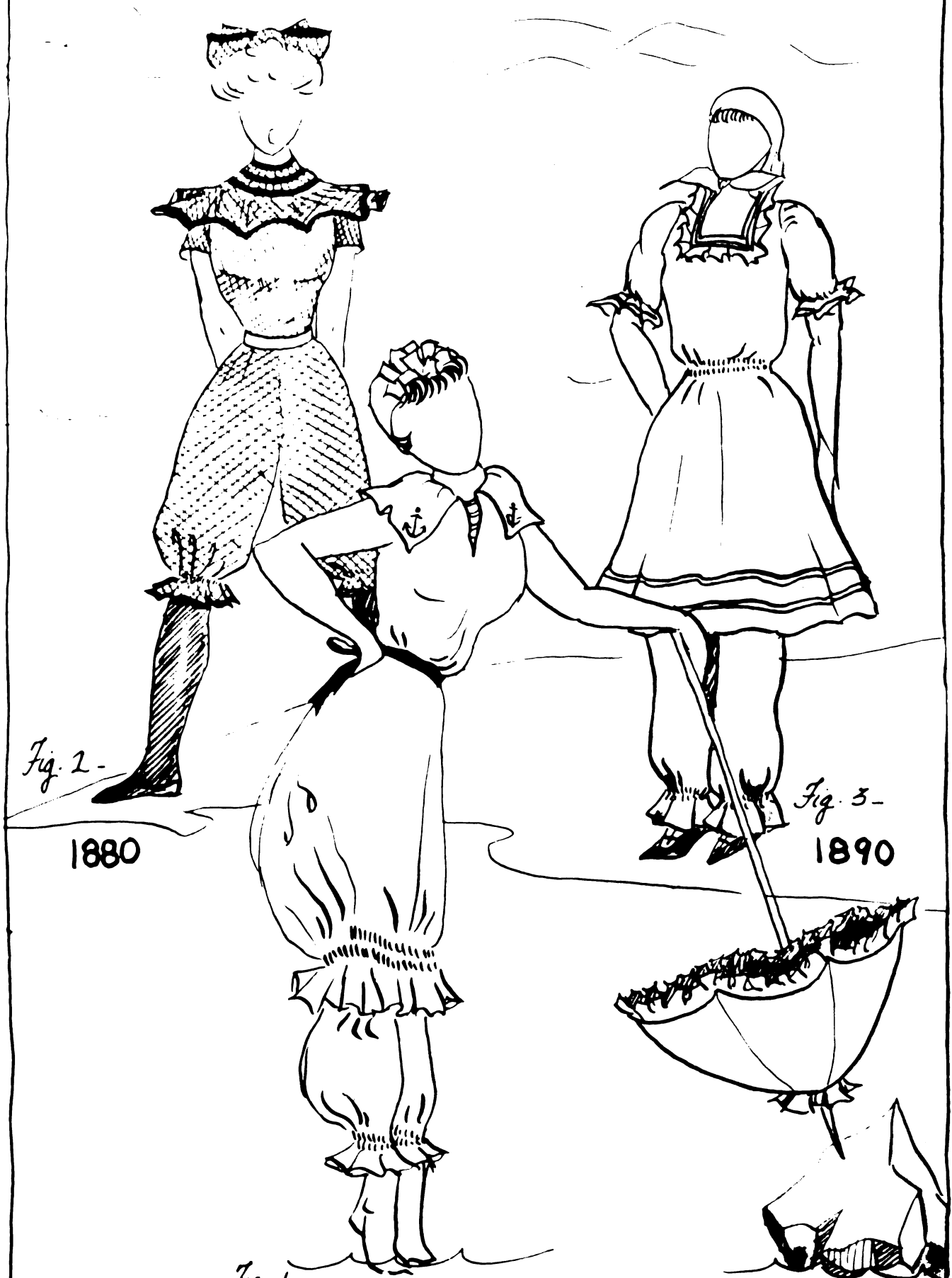


Fig. 2-

1880

Fig. 3-

1890

Fig. 1-

1870

Plate II

GLOSSARY

CASHMERE - fabric made of extremely soft wool of the Indian Kashmir goat.

FLANNEL - an all-wool fabric woven of woolen or worsted yarns, with a softly napped surface. Can also be made of cotton or synthetics.

GINGHAM - a yarn-dyed, plain-weave, cotton fabric with woven in stripes, plaids, or checks.

HOLLAND CLOTH - linen or cotton fabric in plain-weave; usually has heavy sizing or is glazed.

OILSKIN - fabric which has been soaked in boiled linseed oil and dried. Process makes the fabric waterproof and fairly pliable.

SERGE - a twill-weave fabric made of wool yarns with a characteristic forty-five degree diagonal wale on both sides of the cloth. Can also be made of cotton or rayon.

SILK - the natural fiber from the cocoon of the silkworm woven into fabric.

TAFFETA - a fine, plain-weave, stiffened fabric, smooth on both sides, usually with a sheen to its surface. Can be made of silk, rayon, cotton, or synthetic yarns.

TURKEY TWILL - a twill-weave cotton dyed a brilliant red.

VELVET - a pile fabric made of silk or snythetic fibers in which extra warps form the pile; usually made by the wire method.

WOOL - fibers from fleece of sheep which are spun, then woven, knitted, or felted into fabric.

WORSTED - worsted yarn is smooth-surfaced, spun from long staple, evenly combed wool. Worsted fabric is made from worsted yarns, and is tightly woven with a smooth, hard surface.

CHAPTER IV

1900 TO 1918

General Conditions of the Period

The two decades prior to World War I were ones of striking social and material advancement.[1] By the turn of the century the United States was rapidly becoming an industrialized nation. Urbanization took hold and cities grew in size. People had settled in all parts of the country. The population was steadily increasing--mainly due to immigration. Education flourished and children spent more hours in school and went to school for a longer duration of time. Social life outside the home was abundant. Telephones, electricity, automobiles, and motion pictures were rapidly transforming American way of life.

The narrowing gap between rich and poor was one outstanding characteristic of twentieth century America which started at the beginning of the century.[2] There was a constant rise in the standard of living for a greater number of people, an increase in the availability of public education,

---

[1]Harvey Wish, Contemporary America (New York: Harper and Bros. Publisher, 1945), p. 3.

[2]Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 19.

a standardization of dress and fashion, and the democratization of sports through various media. These factors tended to erase some of the long standing marks of class distinction.

The growth of newspaper and periodical publication and circulation brought knowledge of other ways of life to America, stimulating the average American to achieve those things which could be characterized as "the good things in life."

American foreign policy during this era reflected the strong feeling of nationalism evident in internal affairs. The nation developed the idea of international stewardship, and assumed an active position in the movement for world peace. International peace conferences were held--but to no avail. Europe became tense under the growing race for armaments. Hostilities finally broke in August, 1914. The first reaction of the American people was one of shock and horror. A state of neutrality was declared by the United States government, but in time it became more and more difficult to maintain. The first crisis in German and American relationships came with the sinking of the unarmed Lusitania on May 7, 1915. Protests were registered but remained unheeded. The Allies made continual appeals to the United States to join their ranks in an effort to bring the war to a close. In April, 1917, America conceded, although totally unprepared to meet this challenge. The government immediately organized industrial

resources to supply the Allied troops, and created overseas transportation. The crisis was met. When the armistice was signed on November 11, 1918, the United States emerged as one of the great powers of the world.

The Textile Industry

At the turn of the century the United States textile industry manufactured cotton, linen, silk, and wool. A combination of linen and cotton was made which passed for linen on the basis of appearance and texture. One-fifth of all existing cotton spindles in the world were possessed by United States manufacturers. Americans consumed virtually one-third of the world's production of cotton. It was also the only fabric, at this time, which the United States exported. Most of the wool made in this country was poor in quality, and consequently, finer grade woolens were imported from England and elsewhere. Two-thirds of the nation's total consumption of silk goods were manufactured within the country, and it was established that the United States used more silk than any other country in the world.[1]

As early as 1904, experiments were conducted on water-proof finishes for fabrics. The process employed at the time, was not attended with practical success. It had been hoped that an ordinary cotton fabric, so treated, would

---

[1]"The Textile Industry in the U. S.," Current Literature, No. 33 (November, 1902), p. 548.

become impervious to water, but this process was not perfected for several years.[1]

Turning specifically to the field of swimwear, there is evidence of the establishment of the Jantzen Company in 1909.[2] Their first attempt in the manufacturing of this type of garment was heavy rowing trunks, designed and made for a rowing team in Portland, Oregon. These were knit with a rib stitch much like that found on the cuffs of a sweater. The same knitting stitch was later applied to bathing suits.[3]

In 1916, the first American design contest for women's wear, promoted by Woman's Wear Daily, was held at the Art Alliance of America in New York City.[4] This fact illustrates the progressiveness of the fashion industry at this time.

Technological developments and advancements caused the expansion of the textile and garment manufacturing

---

[1]"A New Kind of Water-Proof Fabric," Scientific American Supplement, No. 57 (January 30, 1904), pp. 23471-23472.

[2]Dorothy L. Wallis, The Jantzen Story (New York: Fairchild Publications, Inc., 1959), pp. 7-11. Note: Although the firm was established at this time it did not cater originally to the manufacture of swimwear. The original products made were hosiery, heavy sweaters, knitted jackets and gloves. It was not until 1916 that the name "Jantzen" was adopted by this firm.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Katherine Morris Lester, Historic Costume (Peoria, Illinois: Charles A. Bennett and Co., 1942), p. 234.

industries. New fabrics, finishes, and weaves appeared on the market. American women demanded versatility and their demands were met.

Women in the Labor Force

The question arose at the turn of the century as to exactly what constituted support.[1] For the wage-earning class support in the weekly or monthly stipend was paid by the employer. Young women sought jobs outside the home until their own marriage gave them an opportunity for domestic employment.

Increase in Women Workers Compared to Increase in Female Population

The increase by decades in the number of women gainfully employed gives clearer evidence of trends when compared with the increase in female population.[2] The greatest increase during any ten year period after 1900 was during the first decade, with 47%. At that time, the female population of those sixteen and over increased only 24%. Between 1910 and 1920 female employment decreased by 16%, close to the 17% decrease in the female population. The retardation is accounted for in part by the cessation of immigration.

---

[1] W. L Bonney, "Women and the Wage System," Arena, No. 26 (August, 1901), pp. 172-177.

[2] U. S. President's Research Committee, Recent Social Trends in the United States, Vol. I (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933), p. 72.

The growing importance of women in occupations outside the home is strikingly shown by figures indicating the proportion which they constituted of all occupied persons.[1] In 1880, women constituted 14.5% of the occupied; 1900, 17.7%; 1910, 19.8%; and 1920, 20.1%. It is apparent from these figures that women were gradually beginning to assume a greater share of the responsibility for carrying on the work of the country.

Occupations

During and after the war there was a significant decrease in the amount of domestic work done by women.[2] The war opened many new pursuits for women. Between 1910 and 1920,women in the manufacturing and mechanical industries increased by 110,084; the transportation field went from 106,596 in 1910, to 214,262 in 1920. With the invention of the typewriter and labor saving office machines, calculating machines, comptometers, multigraphing, and other machines, increase in clerical positions for women between 1910 and 1920, was 140%. Women constituted 34% of all persons employed in clerical occupations in 1910, and 45% in 1920.[3] The progress of women in professions during

---

[1]Ibid., p. 713.

[2]Lorine Pruette, Women Workers Through the Depression (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1934), p. 54. Note: At this time there was also a decrease in female immigration.

[3]Sophinisba P. Breckinridge, Women in the Twentieth Century (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1933), p. 177.

this period sinks to insignificance beside her progress in industry and especially in business.[1] As the machine age advanced it was paralleled by an increase in women workers.

By February, 1919, approximately 1,413,000 women had replaced men in the labor force.[2] At the end of 1918, there were 4,700,000 women employed replacing 1,550,000 men.

Unions and Wages

Several women's unions were established during this period but had little voice in labor policies.[3] In 1903, the National Women's Trade Union League was organized for the purpose of aiding women in their fight for improved conditions.

State laws established minimum wages, allowed for industrial homework, permitted industrial night work, and restricted the number of hours a woman could work. The Supreme Court of the United States sustained the law of California establishing an eight hour day for women in certain occupations. To date (1915), this was the most advanced law on the subject of working hours.[4]

---

[1]Inez Haynes Irwin, Angels and Amazons (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Co., Inc., 1934), p. 303.

[2]George, op. cit., p. 15.

[3]Elliott, op. cit., Chapter XV.

[4]"Women Who Work," The Independent, No. 82 (April 19, 1915), p. 96.

Marital Status

According to census figures the number of married women in employment increased from 769,000 in 1900, to 1,891,000 in 1910. In 1900, 43.5% of the single women and 5.6% of all married women were gainfully employed. The latter constituted approximately 15% of all working women.[1]

By the end of the first two decades of the twentieth century women had entered many fields of employment which had previously been restricted to men. World War I was the main factor for this sudden change. The advent of women in the labor force during this era gave them more confidence and independence and greatly affected their role and status. (See Appendix C.)

Changing Role and Status of Women

Under the common law there was no distinction between the unmarried adult woman and man in 1900.[2] The difference of legal capacity for the married woman, however, was great. Her activities were mainly connected with the domestic organization, as wife, mother, daughter, and sister, or as a hired assistant in tasks of a domestic nature. With the development of the factory system and increased production, work was removed from the home. Both women and children were employed under new conditions.

---

[1]U. S. President's Research Committee, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 715.

[2]Breckinridge, op. cit., p. 99.

Formulation of Clubs and Organizations

It has been said, that "the woman's club has been the gateway by which women in large numbers have passed into civic life."[1]

One of the first organizations of importance was founded in 1903.[2] This was the National Woman's Trade Union League of America. Its membership consisted not only of women representatives of Trade Unions, but also women of leisure interested in its purposes. The first objective of the League was as follows:

> To assist in the organization of women wage earners into trade unions and thereby help them to secure conditions necessary for healthful and efficient work and to obtain a just return for such work.[3]

In 1904, at a meeting of the American Institute of Homeopathy, the Woman's Homeopathy fraternity was founded for social purposes. This was the first national organization for women in the medical profession.[4] The first women's athletic club was established in Chicago under the leadership of Mrs. John Astor in 1905.[5] The YWCA was founded in 1906. The year 1908, saw the beginnings of the American

---

[1]Mabel Potter Daggett, "The New Chapter in Woman's Progress," Good Housekeeping, No. 56 (February, 1913), p. 149.

[2]Breckinridge, op. cit., p. 27. Note: This was actually organized at the A.F.L. convention in 1903.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid., p. 27.

[5]Bertha Damaris Knobe, "Chicago's Women's Athletic Club," Harper's Bazaar, No. 39 (June, 1905), pp. 538-546.

Home Economics Association, the initial purpose of which was:

> . . . to bring together those concerned in developing the art of right living by the application of systemitized knowledge to the problems of the home and the community.[1]

The above mentioned organizations are but a few of those established during this time. Prior to 1917, the membership in such organizations was mainly composed of domestic women, married women whose club activities provided an escape from household and family cares. Following the entrance of the United States into World War I, the first of a group of five "service clubs for business women" was established.[2] These clubs gave gainfully employed women the opportunity of spending their spare time relaxing and associating with other women in comparable fields.

Woman Suffrage

Turning to the field of politics and the question of woman suffrage, only four victories, with the right to vote, could be claimed by women prior to 1910,despite a great improvement in their general status and the obvious justice of their claims.[3] The reason for so few victories lay in the fact that individual state constitutions, which

---

[1]Breckinridge, op. cit., p. 28.

[2]Ibid., p. 37.

[3]Morrisson, op. cit., p. 122.

were difficult to amend, established their own qualifications for voters. A constitutional amendment was the only means for achieving full woman suffrage in the United States. Such an amendment required the assent of the legislatures or state conventions of three-quarters of the states.[1]

In New York state, between 1909 and 1917, women were continuously campaigning for the right to vote. Six years were required for an amendment to be submitted and passed. The passing of this amendment did not come until forty-seven years after the passing of the fourteenth amendment. According to Mrs. Catt:

> To get that word "male" out of the constitution took 52 years of pauseless campaign, 56 campaigns of referenda, 480 campaigns to get Constitutional Conventions to include woman suffrage, 277 campaigns for planks in state party platforms, 30 campaigns for planks in national party platforms, 19 campaigns with 19 successive Congresses for the submission of the federal amendment and the final work of ratification. Millions of dollars were raised, mostly in very small sums, and spent with economic care. Hundreds of women gave their entire lives, thousands gave years of their lives, hundreds of thousands constant interest and such time as they could. It was a continuous, seemingly endless chain of activity. Young suffragists who helped to forge the last links were not born when it began. Old suffragists who forged the first links were dead when it ended.[2]

---

[1]"The Present Status of Woman Suffrage," Harper's Weekly, No. 51 (October 5, 1907), p. 1443.

[2]Morrisson, loc. cit.

In 1910, and 1911, the states of Washington and California, respectively, yielded to woman suffrage. In 1912, the Progressive Party was formed with its suffrage plank. These advocates of woman suffrage asserted the following:

1. The ballot would put women on an equality with men in education, wages, and the like.
2. It would purify politics, drive the saloon out of power, and clean up the coarser vices.
3. As women want it, and have a right to it, there is no reason why they shouldn't have it.[1]

Several other states slowly joined the "band wagon." Finally, in May, 1919, the United States Senate capitulated an amendment. On June 4, 1919, the Susan B. Anthony amendment (the nineteenth) was passed, granting women the right to vote.[2] Ratification required four years, but at last, women were able to vote on an equal basis with men.[3]

Social Effects of World War I

The war had a disturbing effect on women's organizations in at least two ways: it provided the opportunity for the development of new organizations with a patriotic motive, and with an influx of women in the labor force brought about a widening of their interests. The war meant

---

[1]"What is the Truth About Woman Suffrage?," Ladies Home Journal, No. 29 (October, 1912), p. 24.

[2]Irwin, op. cit., p. 391.

[3]Ibid., p. 406.

a dislocation in family life, in industry, and in the government. What it meant for the woman as an individual can only be suggested.

Increased urbanization made women more individualistic and independent. This attitude was reflected in the increased divorce rate and decreased birth rate of the era.

Economic pressure, the desire to fill the empty hours and ofttimes the empty minds, the liberating effects of the war--all worked to produce new mores, new standards, and a new type woman.

Leisure and Leisure Activities

In an article entitled "Women of Leisure" written in 1900, the author conveyed the feeling that due to the increase of women in the labor force they would no longer have any "leisure time."[1] It was thought at that time, that a woman who worked for a living, especially a married woman, would have so many things to do in the home after working hours that she would not have time to relax. The leisure time of the working girl was limited. However, for her own peace of mind and health, it became necessary for her to have some time for physical exercise and pleasure.[2]

---

[1]"Women of Leisure," Century, No. 60(August, 1900), pp. 632-633.

[2]Lenore Hanna Cox, "The Value of the Woman of Leisure," Journal of Home Economics, No. 8 (August, 1916), pp. 407-413.

Lenore Cox encouraged women to "use their leisure, not in mere time devouring pleasures, but to stimulate and increase their mental grasp."[1] Miss Cox believed that a woman could attain this goal and prove herself by her work, conversation, and most of all, by her voluntary activities.

Smaller families, smaller homes or apartments, numerous gadgets simplifying housework, commercial laundries, and shorter working hours meant more leisure for women and turned their interests outside of the home.

Swimming as a Sport for Women

Virtually all American sports were beginning to emerge from swaddling clothes in 1900.[2] There were many influencing factors which affected the sports, play activities, and over-all recreational life of the people. The majority of these were found in the realm of the social institutions within the American culture.[3] One or two of these factors are given in succeeding paragraphs.

Ecclesiastical Influence

The majority of church groups within the United States, regardless of denomination, underwent a tremendous change in attitude concerning sports during the last half century.

---

[1] Ibid.

[2] John Durant and Otto Bettman, Pictorial History of American Sports (New York: A. S. Barnes and Co., 1952), p.102.

[3] Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 14.

In 1900, most churches completely disapproved of vigorous physical activity. The church was not aware of the increase in standard of living and leisure time, which made it possible for more people to participate in recreational activities. Gradually the awareness came. The church realized that it was in competition for the time, thoughts, and energy of the individuals, and was therefore forced to change its attitude.

Governmental Influence

The government became more powerful and more centralized with the acceleration of industrialization and urbanization. One of its duties was to look after the welfare of the nation, as a whole, and to find solutions for any major problems which might affect the welfare of the people and the country. World War I forced the United States to recognize a need for increased recreation and physical education.[1] Of those men drafted for service in the armed forces, almost thirty-three per cent were rejected as physically unfit to serve.[2] Realizing the significance and possible future consequences of such a situation, the government expanded recreational facilities for both men and women and increased educational and recreational staffs.

---

[1]Douglas Gorsline, What People Wore (New York: The Viking Press,1952), p. 243.

[2]Rice, op. cit., p. 294.

Commercial Recreation

At the opening of the twentieth century there were three popular forms of commercial recreation: the amusement park, the trolley park, and the exposition.[1] Various forms of sport and physical recreation could be found at each of these enterprises.

The amusement park was perhaps the most popular source of pleasure and recreation to Americans. This unusual pastime drew many comments in newspapers and periodicals in the United States and Europe. Richard le Galliene wrote in the Cosmopolitan in 1905, of the "Human Need of Coney Island," calling it the "tom-tom" of America.[2] In attempting to analyze its relationship to American culture and life, he decided that "every nation had its need of orgiastic escape from respectability from the world of what-we-have-to-do into the world of what-we-would-like-to-do."[3] Another writer described the scene as follows:

> Here on the beach, wading, swimming, leaping, diving and shouting, was a myriad of human beings of all ages, forgetting everything but the joy of the riotous water, the battle with the lifting, toppling surf, the wild stimulus of the flying foam.[4]

---

[1]Cozens and Stumpf, op. cit., p. 35.

[2]Richard le Galliene, "Human Need of Coney Island," Cosmopolitan, No. 39 (1905), pp. 237-245.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Albert Bigelow Paine, "The New Coney Island," Century, No. 68 (August, 1904), p. 529.

Thousands of summer resorts and vacation spots also offered alluring playgrounds to Americans. In 1911, Good Housekeeping magazine published an article on "Where to Go."[1] Estes Park in the Rockies was recommended for mountain climbing and hiking. The Isles of the Sea, three miles from Boston, was advocated for swimming, boating, fishing, and sailing. Several resorts on the west coast were also recommended for similar sports and recreation.

Swimming for Women

Swimming was recognized as a good sport for women and was recommended by medical doctors.[2] According to medical authorities of this era, it was felt that the excellent health of college girls and young women was mainly due to their participation in athletics and other forms of recreation. No longer was a girl frowned on or acclaimed as being immodest, indecent, or unfeminine, for donning a bathing suit and plunging into a pool or the surf. By the end of the second decade of the twentieth century, both men and women fully participated in, and fully enjoyed the sport of swimming.

Swimwear for Women

Beachwear held more interest for more people than any other type of sportswear. It is no wonder that

---

[1]"Where to Go," Good Housekeeping, No. 52 (June, 1911), pp. 749-754.

[2]Dudley A. Sargent, M.D., "Are Athletics Making Girls Masculine?," Ladies Home Journal, No. 29 (March,1912), p. 11.

styles in this field are so interesting and have undergone so many changes.

The bathing suit of 1900, was of heavy wool serge. One of the most popular styles of this period was the sailor dress, originally designed by Peter Thomson.[1]

In 1904, Sears, Roebuck and Company offered bathing suits with attached bloomers and detachable skirts. All three suits illustrated in their catalog of this year bore sailor collars. Fabrics were alpaca, brilliantine, and flannel. Soutache or Hercules braid in red or white were used as trimmings. This provided a sharp contrast to the dark and conservative fabrics. Bathing caps were cotton sateen with pure rubber linings. The opera length hose, usually worn with this costume, were black wool or Egyptian cotton.

The sailor suit remained in style for many years. Bath robes followed the same design and were made of all wool eiderdown or ripple eiderdown and trimmed with satin.[2]

Granite cloth was featured for bathing suits by Sears, Roebuck in 1909. Bathing slippers were constructed of canvas with fiber soles and usually laced up the front. Bathing caps were made of rubber coated percale, sateen, or satin.

---

[1]Women's Wear Daily, Fifty Years of Fashion (New York: Fairchild Publications, Inc., 1950), p. 23.

[2]"Bathing Suits," Life, No. 19 (July 9, 1945), pp. 55-58.

According to the July, 1910 issue of Woman's Home Companion, women were advised to wear dark colored suits--preferably brown, blue, or black. It was felt that the foundation should be kept dark and any bright color be introduced through trimming. The same magazine advertised a bathing suit pattern which was accompanied by the following description:

> Easily slipped on and no danger of waist and skirt separating at the belt as both are attached to it. The suit fastens at the left side of the panel and opens from the square cut neck to the bottom of the skirt. And the skirt, though allowing plenty of room for the wearer to swim in, is not bulky around the hips as the plaits are attached to a yoke depth in quite a tailor made effect. Then there are two tucks in the waist, which also allow ease and comfort for the swimming girl. And last, but oh not least, the cap sleeves. Can unbutton them to make them free for swimming.[1]

Fabrics recommended for this particular pattern were a water-proof taffeta-silk, brilliantine, and silk trimming. (See Plate IV, Fig. 1.)

In 1910, Annette Kellerman, the first famous woman swimmer, became more famous for her rebellion against the existing fashions for this sport. She discarded ruffles and corsets. She adopted and popularized a one-piece knit suit which originated in Australia. This set a pattern for the design and style of swimwear to come.[2]

---

[1]"The Sea Shore Girl," Woman's Home Companion, No. 37 (July, 1910), p. 54. This pattern also included instruetions for bloomers. The pattern was cut for 32, 36, and 40 inch bust measurements--small, medium, and large. The quantity of material required for the medium size or 36 inch bust, was ten yards of 22 inch material or 7 yards of 36 inch material with 1 yard of contrasting material for trim.

[2]Women's Wear Daily, loc. cit.

Mohair bathing suits came into the realm of fashion in 1913. Skirts were raised slightly above the knee revealing bloomers, usually made of a closely woven cotton fabric. The first account of arrest on the basis of immodesty occurred in the summer of 1913, at the Jackson Park beach in Chicago. Women were arrested for detaching their skirts from their bathing suits. Protests went unheeded. Signs appeared in all dressing rooms at this beach, stating the following:

1. Women bathers should be supplied with skirts.
2. The manager of the beach has the right to request people to stay away from the beach.[1]

Essentially, there were no style changes until the war years. By 1917, the third year of the war, a woman's bathing suit consisted of a heavy wool chemise, the skirt of which reached to the knees, or slightly above, partially concealing the bloomers. Shoes and stockings were removed by a few.

V-neck, loose-fitting,slipover suits in wool, mohair, and light and heavy weight wool or cotton knits became fashionable toward the end of 1917. Colors were stressed, the predominent ones being red, blue, and green. The favorite bathing cap was the jockey style, made of pure rubber in brilliant colors. This cap, with its full crown and visor, was deemed serviceable, practical, and good looking.

---

[1]Rosalee M. Ladova, "About Bathing Suits," Harper's Weekly, No. 58 (September, 1913), p. 11.

The year 1917, marks the first year of specific costume regulations as posted by police and beach authorities. . The following rules were posted in bath houses in Chicago and Cleveland:

> Blouse and bloomer suits may be worn, with or without skirts, with or without stockings, provided the blouse has a one-quarter arm sleeve or close-fitting armholes, and provided bloomers are full and not shorter than four inches above the knee. Jersey knit suits may be worn with or without stockings, provided that suit has skirt or skirt effect, that one-quarter arm sleeves are used or close-fitting armholes, and trunks not shorter than four inches above the knee. The bottom of the skirt must not be shorter than two inches above the bottom of the trunks.
>
> All white or flesh-colored suits are prohibited. Any suit that exposes the chest lower than a line drawn level with the arm pits must not be worn.[1]

These rules were embodied in a set of twelve rules; also included were regulations on smoking, profanity, men's costumes, loitering, conduct of employees, and beach hours.

In 1918, skirts were shortened by one or two inches. Long stockings were completely discarded and replaced by cotton knit hose rolled slightly below the knee. Suits were mostly of jersey knit--either 100% wool or 50% wool and 50% cotton. Surf satin, a deep, rich lustered, good wearing, cotton fabric was also used. Suits were predominently of the slipover type with a sash or gathering at the waist. Sleeves were likely to be missing. Collars were of whimsical sizes and shapes. Trimmings consisted of coarse linen or silk. Straps or pipings of rubberized silk

---

[1]"Bathing Suit Regulations of 1917," American City, No. 61 (August, 1946), p. 137.

were featured as a novelty. Corsets had been abandoned. Undergarments and trunks were no longer stitched to the suit itself, but were made separately. The Sears, Roebuck catalog of 1918, featured a "Bather's brassiere," which extended to the waist. This garment had an elastic web back and an "open mesh sanitary front," and closed in the front with hooks and eyes.[1]

By the end of World War I, women's swimwear had assumed a loose, chemise silhouette. The slipover suit replaced those with front openings. Skirts and bloomers had become shorter. Sleeves disappeared. Long hose were replaced by knee length stockings. The more daring woman went bare legged. More fabrics were employed and knitted suits became popular.

Functionalism in Women's Swimwear

In 1900, the term "bathing" was applied to the water sport which, today, is referred to as swimming. This term was actually quite appropriate because the costumes of the first decade of the twentieth century were far too cumbersome to allow much physical freedom of movement.

J. Paret in the Woman's Book of Sports stated the following:

> It is particularly important that nothing tight should be worn while swimming, no matter how fashionable a dress may be for bathing. The exercise requires the

---

[1]Sears, Roebuck and Company Mail Order Catalog, No. 136 (Summer, 1918), p. 881.

> greatest freedom, and a swimming costume should never include corsets, tight sleeves, or a skirt below the knees. The freedom of the shoulders is the most important of all, but anything tight around the body interferes with the breathing and the muscles of the back, while a long skirt--even one a few inches below the knees-- binds the legs constantly in making their strokes.[1]

Annette Kellerman urged both girls and women to swim, since she felt that it was both a "pleasurable and a beneficial sport."[2] She recommended no more clothes than necessary to be worn, giving freedom of movement for active participation in the sport. In her opinion, many of the bathing costumes seen along the shore were inspired more by vanity than modesty.

During World War I, the trend was for simplicity and freedom of dress. This was mainly due to the fact that women had taken over men's jobs in the labor force, and consequently, desired "functional" clothing which would allow them complete freedom of action.

In cut, conservatism was the keynote because economy, at this time, was an essential factor in all ways of life.[3]

The following analysis for functionalism in women's swimwear for this period can be made:

---

[1]J. Paret, Woman's Book of Sports (New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1901), Chapter IV.

[2]Annette Kellerman, "Why and How Girls Should Swim," Ladies Home Journal, No. 27 (August, 1910), p. 11.

[3]"Conservation Rules the Waves," Good Housekeeping, No. 67 (July, 1918), p. 87.

1. Performance.--By the end of World War I, the design of swimwear had become more functional. Skirts had been shortened, knickerbockers and bloomers gave way to shorts, sleeves were discarded, necklines were slightly lowered, and long stockings were either completely dispensed with or were replaced by knee length stockings. There was a constant tendency to follow the main lines of contemporary dress. Looseness of garment was advocated and less material was employed. Women could actually swim in the new styles of swimwear which had evolved.

2. Application of materials.--Cotton and light weight wool were the most popular fabrics for bathing suits during the first decade of the twentieth century. These were great improvements over the heavy wools and serges of previous years. By the end of World War I, knitting machines had been invented and jersey knits came onto the fashion scene. These were of wool, cotton, or wool and cotton blends. Taffeta and silk, although still thought of as "luxury fabrics," were used mainly for trimmings. Materials during this era were appropriate for this type of garment. Women attained more freedom of action with the use of lighter weight fabrics and reduced yardage.

3. Construction appropriate to the materials.--Dressmaker suits had been popular prior to the war. During the war machine made jersey knits came on the market. At first, these knits were unable to withstand strenuous movement and had a tendency to snag and run. In time, the

knitting process was perfected and the knit suit acquired popularity. This type of swimwear was destined to remain in style for years to come.

Swimming had become a popular sport for women by the end of this period. More women were in the labor force as a consequence of the war, and therefore turned to sports as a source of recreation and relaxation. Women had gained greater freedom of movement and action in their sports attire. They were still limited in degree of activity, but it was not as difficult to move about. Within twenty years swimwear had become more practical. Women were no longer encased in ten to twelve yards of draped material. Styles and designs had become more suitable. This is, perhaps, the first time in the history of swimwear that the term "functionalism" can be applied.

PLATE III

Figure 1 --- 1902 : The "S curve" can be seen in this figure displaying a bathing suit of brilliantine. Note short sleeves, bloomers slightly below the knee, and a skirt reaching from mid-knee to slightly above. Stockings in ornate patterns were worn at this time.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1904-1908 : Sailor suit of navy blue wool serge with a short skirt reaching to mid-knee, concealing the still shorter bloomers. Trimmed in white flannel and boasting a sailor collar and red cotton tie. Dark stockings and bathing slippers.[2]

---

[1]Figure copied from illustration found in files in the Art Room, Chicago Public Library.

[2]Ibid.

Fig. 1 -

1902

Fig. 2 -

1904 - 1908

Plate III

PLATE IV

Figure 1 --- 1910 : Pattern No. 1565 featured by Woman's Home Companion. Slipover suit opening from left side of front panel, from square cut neckline to base of skirt. Tucks or darts in waist and shoulder for additional fit. Recommended fabrics were water-proof taffeta silk with a checked or striped silk trimming in black and white, or red and white, or brilliantine, which was less expensive.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1911 : Navy blue cotton bathing suit with skirt extending to mid-knee, concealing bloomers. Short puffed sleeves and square cut neckline trimmed with white braid. Front bodice pleated.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1913 : Black mohair suit trimmed with red and white silk collar and cording down front and around waist. Skirt extended to mid-knee revealing ribbed cuffs of bloomers. Polka dot sateen laced bathing shoes.[3]

---

[1]"The Sea-Shore Girl," Woman's Home Companion, No. 37 (July, 1910), p. 54.

[2]Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 122 (1911) p. 215.

[3]Ibid., No. 126 (1913), p. 260.

Plate IV

PLATE V

Figure 1 --- 1917 : Navy blue, V-neck, heavy wool slip-over chemise bathing suit. Neckline, armhole, pockets, base of skirt and bloomers trimmed in white wool. No stockings or shoes worn.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1917 : Mohair bathing suit trimmed with black and white silk and green buttons. Belted waistline with tuckings above and below belt. Loose cap sleeve effect attained with silk trimming. Bloomers extended over knees.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1918 : One-piece light weight wool jersey knit suit. Loose-fitting chemise style, with large sailor collar, laced front, and low sash or belt. Knitted underpiece sewed to skirt.[3]

---

[1]"Bathing Suits, 1917-1945," Life, No. 19 (July 9, 1945), pp. 55-58.

[2]Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 134 (1917), p. 927.

[3]Ibid., No. 136 (1918), p. 880.

PLATE VI

Figure 1 --- 1918 : Sleeveless, loose-fitting satin suit trimmed with whimsical silk collar and fringed sash. Stockings discarded and replaced by silk hose rolled below the knee.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1918 : Loose, slipover suit of navy blue linen. Deep V neckline accented by pointed collar. Suit buttons to belted waistline. Decorative buttons down side of skirt.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1919 : Pattern No. 1714, as featured by the Delineator. Slipover suit which could be closed at shoulder line. Skirt ended slightly above the knees, and separate bloomers hung loosely over the knees. Recommended fabrics for this model were surf satin, taffeta, serge, brilliantine, jersey cloth, foulard, or flannel.[3]

---

[1] "Conservation Rules the Waves; In Color Bathing Suits are Conservative," Good Housekeeping, No. 67 (July, 1918), p. 87.

[2] Ibid.

[3] "Bathing Suits Follow Land Styles--The Straight Effects and the Peg-top," Delineator, No. 94 (June, 1919), p. 93.

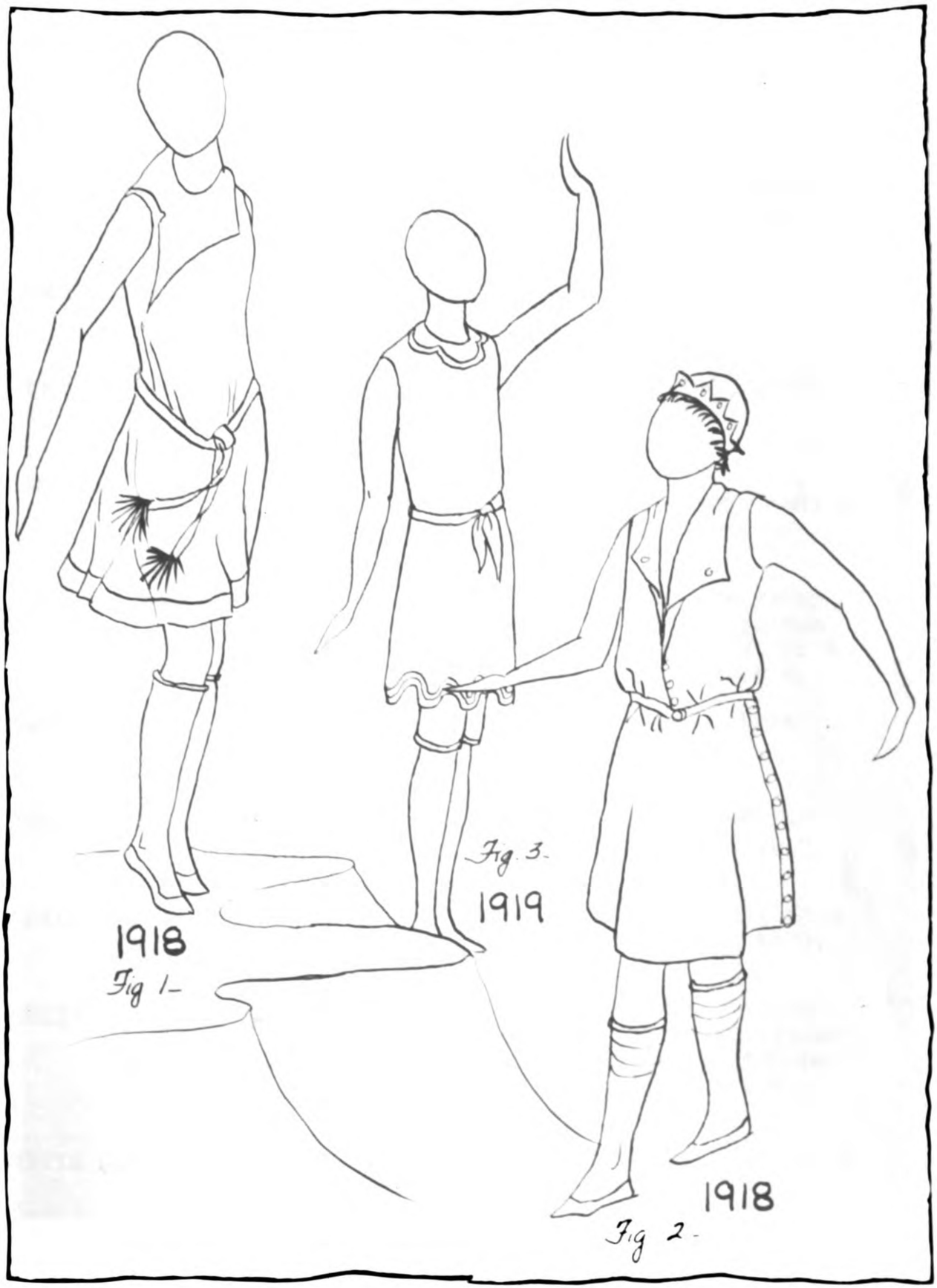


Plate VI.

GLOSSARY

ALPACA - long, lustrous hair from a mountain animal native to Peru and Bolivia; a pile fabric with cotton warp and alpaca filling.

BRILLIANTINE - smooth, fine, wiry fabric in plain or twill weave; cotton warp, worsted or mohair filling.

COTTON - soft fiber from the seed pod of the cotton plant, spun into yarn and thread, woven and knitted into fabrics.

EIDERDOWN - Name derived from the down of the eider duck. A light weight, warm, knitted fabric made of slackly twisted yarns; napped on one or both sides.

FOULARD - originally a light weight printed silk. In later years this was a highly mercerized cotton fabric, rayon fabric similar to silk, or a light, soft, twill-weave worsted fabric.

GRANITE CLOTH - a hard finished woolen or worsted fabric with a pebbled surface obtained by a certain twist of the yarn.

HERCULES BRAID - a heavily corded, worsted braid used for trimming, varying in width from 1/2 to 4 inches.

MOHAIR - a smooth, glossy, wiry fabric of mohair (hair from the Angora goat) filling and cotton warp. Often called BRILLIANTINE.

POPLIN - durable fabric in a plain-weave with fine, cross ribs made by having the warp threads finer than the weft or filling threads. Can be of rayon, silk, cotton, wool, or a combination of these yarns.

RIPPLE CLOTH - woolen fabric with a nap of long, silky hairs on one side.

SATIN - a type of weave; fabric usually of silk with a cotton filling, which has a smooth surface, a lustrous face, and a dull back.

SOUTACHE - narrow, rounded braid in a herringbone effect--used for trimming.

CHAPTER V

1919 TO 1929

General Conditions of the Period

As the 1920's dawned a new generation came on the scene and a new era began. This period calls to mind the era of the "flapper," with boyishly cut short bobbed hair, short skirts, smoking and drinking, beaver coats, the "charleston," gay times, and parties. During these years America was also characterized by unparalleled industrial expansion and a seemingly limitless prosperity.[1]

Economic

World War I was followed by a period of readjustment. The years 1920 to 1922,witnessed a recession--an inevitable consequence of wartime price rises. Many firms were forced into a state of bankruptcy. The government took hold and attempted to tighten the economy. By 1923, the economy had become more stable and there was a tremendous boom in business. More firms were established and the largest became monopolistic. The stock market was

---

[1]Foster Rhea Dulles, Twentieth Century America (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1945), p. 259.

continually on an upward trend and reached its peak in the later years of the twenties.[1]

Crime became big business in the early 1920's, and was seemingly as necessary to the economy as was industry.[2] It was illegal and unethical, but profitable. The mood of the American people had changed, and likewise had their folkways. They wanted to relax, enjoy themselves, forget the past, and make a great deal of money.

Political

Immediately after the war two important reforms were swept into effect: (1) women's suffrage, and (2) prohibition. The eighteenth amendment to the Constitution (prohibition amendment) aroused no organized opposition in the beginning since it was idealistic in nature. Once it went into effect, however, (July 16, 1920), the country began to rebel. Efforts were made to have this amendment repealed.[3]

Social

The American people were tired of war, responsibility, idealism, regulations, and duties. The barriers of

---

[1]Agnes Rogers and Frederick L. Allen, I Remember Distinctly (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947), p. 103.

[2]Lloyd Morris, Postscript to Yesterday (New York: Random House Publishers, 1947), p. 68.

[3]Paul Sann, The Lawless Decade (New York: Crown Publishers, Incorporated, 1957), p. 27.

tradition and custom were being broken; government, business, and people were no longer inhibited by the past. The youth of the country rebelled against the older generation. This rebellion was against both Puritanism and sentimentality.[1] Literature became hard and realistic; movies, radio, magazines, and other means of communication emphasized jazz and sex. The latter, formerly a "taboo" topic, was freely discussed during this era by Freud. The word neck ceased to be a noun and soon became a verb. Closed automobiles replaced the open car in popularity. According to a Muncee, Indiana judge of a juvenile court, "the family bus had become a house of prostitution on wheels."[2] The church progressively lost its hold on the younger generation and they could not be kept from "running wild."[3] Smoking, drinking, wild music and dance, night clubbing, joyriding in cars, necking and petting were all a way of life for America's youth.[4]

This revolution in manners and morals was due to the following causes:

1. cynicism about old standards which followed the war.
2. the rapid urbanization of a former rural society.

---

[1]Oliver Jensen, The Revolt of American Women (New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1952), p. 157.

[2]Morris, op. cit., p. 69.

[3]Frederick L. Allen, The Big Change (New York: Harper Brothers, 1952), p. 137.

[4]Stanley Walker, The Night Club Era (New York: Blue Ribbon Books, Incorporated, 1933), p. 78.

3. limiting of social classes.
4. increase in wealth and leisure.
5. the substitution of scientific for religious authority.
6. the growing independence of women.[1]

By the end of the decade drastic changes had taken place: morals and manners had changed, and long established values and ideals had collapsed. The new generation created a new way of American life.

Women in the Labor Force

Women were happy to know how keenly they were needed during the war.[2] They respected themselves for being workers--a sentiment which, as a class, had not been entertained before. They showed both perseverence and spirit in the labor force at this time.

Of approximately three million women who had gone into war work, five in every one hundred had previously been employed.[3] Women who had experienced economic independence wanted to continue working after the war, and herein, lay a big problem.

In 1920, of five hundred and seventy-two occupational titles listed by the United States Department of Commerce Census Bureau, women were listed in all but thirty-five.[4]

---

[1]Jensen, loc. cit.

[2]V. Barbour, "Ladies of Leisure," Unpopular Review, No. 11 (April, 1919), p. 294.

[3]Emily Newill Blair, "Where are we Women Going?," Ladies Home Journal, No. 36 (March, 1919), p. 37.

[4]Joseph A. Hill, Women in Gainful Occupations, 1870-1920 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1929), p. 46.

Between 1910 and 1920, there was a slight shifting of occupations within the nine general occupational divisions. The following list is ranked in accordance with the number of women engaged in a specified occupation:[1]

	1920	1910
1.	Domestic and personal servants	1
2.	Manufacturing and mechanical industries	2
3.	Clerical occupations	4
4.	Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	5
5.	Professional services	3
6.	Trade	6
7.	Transportation	7
8.	Public service	8
9.	Extraction of minerals	9

Several generalizations can be made regarding women in the labor force in the 1920's:

1. The number of women in gainful occupations increased.
2. The number of occupations in which women could be found, increased.
3. In some occupations the decline in the number of men increased the proportionate importance of women.
4. The large retention of women in employment following the war indicates their efficiency and their future status in the labor force.[2]

---

[1]U. S. Bureau of Census, Abstract of the Census (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1920).

[2]Pruette, op. cit., pp. 78-79.

Changing Role and Status of Women

Effects of World War I

According to a survey made immediately following World War I, the greatest gains of women due to the war, were: (1) a sense of being equal to an emergency and to large demands on short notice; and (2) the fact that every woman, not just "the best," had something to contribute to the war effort, and was expected to do so.[1] Confidence, independence, and satisfaction were gained by women through working. These facts also brought about a complete change in individual character.

The Woman as an Individual

The 1920's witnessed an accent on youth. In a sense this could be classified as a "pleasure loving" decade. The status and attitude of women underwent a complex and abrupt change. Having broken the bonds of traditional mannerisms, they became individuals and proceeded to enjoy their social and intellectual freedom. These changes were reflected in their appearance. There were three characteristic types of women during this era: the sophisticate, the flapper, and the career woman. Each represented striking impulses: the desire to be worldly, quest of

---

[1]Mary Austin, "Woman and Her War Loot," Sunset, February, 1919, p. 13.

sheer pleasure, and the ambition to attain personal success in a business or a profession.[1]

Rights of Women

By 1922, many rights had been attained by women. They were permitted to make their own wills, own their own clothes, collect their own wages, testify in court, own and operate their own business, speak in public, acquire as much education as desired, enter a chosen profession, hold office, and vote in political elections.[2]

Women in Politics

During the twenties, women were more than just a mere influence in politics. They were capable of exerting a power more nearly equal to that of men.[3] On the whole, they were appreciated and respected by the opposite sex for their work during the war. Once they began serving on a more equal basis with men in the world struggle, they were able to acquire equal suffrage.

If the ten year period following the passing of the Suffrage amendment to the Constitution is to be judged solely by the number of women in political office, it must

---

[1]Agnes Rogers, Women are Here to Stay (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949), p. 94.

[2]Carrie Chapman Catt, "Too Many Rights," Ladies Home Journal, No. 39 (November, 1922), p. 31.

[3]Gifford Pinchot, "The Influence of Women in Politics," Ladies Home Journal, No. 39 (September, 1922), p. 12.

be admitted that such a figure would be largely disappointing.[1] Many women were active, but in proportion to men, their political activities were negligible.

Women had changed considerably during this era. This was partially due to the change in society, norms, way of life, and thought. The unity of home life became unbalanced. Marriage no longer provided the only means of security, and consequently, the divorce rate was high. Women were confronted with a choice of interests, activities, and work opportunities.

Leisure and Its Source

In 1924, the Supreme Court of the United States gave all the states of the union the power to enact laws limiting the working hours of women. Eight hours were deemed as the minimum legal working day with a forty-eight hour week.[2] A shortened working day and week gave women more time to spend in leisure activities.

The 1920's was a "pleasure loving" period in the history of America. It was during this era that the participation in sports and social activities reached an all time high. Much of the newly acquired leisure time, however, was wasted. In 1927, Susan F. West wrote an article

---

[1]Frederick L. Collins, "The New Woman," Woman's Home Companion, No. 56 (June, 1929), p. 12.

[2]Florence Kelley, "Leisure by Statue for Women," The Woman Citizen, No. 8 (May 17, 1924), pp. 16-17.

in the Journal of Home Economics advocating an "educated leisure."[1] According to her, this should consist of the following: (1) a greater appreciation of the best in music, art, and literature; (2) a better preparation for political responsibility and community service; (3) training for self-support; and (4) training for parenthood and home-making. Few women followed such a program, but many continued on in the "happy-go-lucky" way of life of the twenties.

Swimming as a Sport for Women

Increased leisure time brought about increased participation in sports activities, especially that of swimming. By the second decade of the twentieth century women were completely free to do and act as they pleased. They were no longer looked down upon for their participation in sports.

Women swimmers won their place during the war as life guards when many of the expert male guards were in service.[2] Casual bathing became a relaxing and favorite summer pastime.

Swimming enjoyed a rapidly growing popularity due to the increased use of pools and beaches. Between 1905

---

[1]Susan F. West, "The Education of Women for Leisure," Journal of Home Economics, No. 19 (September, 1927), pp. 491-492.

[2]Commodore W. E. Longfellow, "Women Life-Savers," Ladies Home Journal, No. 37 (June, 1920), p. 45.

and 1923, the attendance increased six-fold, and between 1925 and 1930, it doubled.[1]

Swimwear for Women

At the close of World War I, bathing suits were more form-fitting but still did not reveal the female figure. The June, 1919 Delineator showed bare legs, tights, and stockings to mid-calf.[2] Slip-over chemise styles were still popular and in some instances a vestee was introduced. (See Plate VI, Fig. 3.)

Fabrics featured for swimwear in 1919, were satin, foulard, taffeta, mercerized cotton, serge, brilliantine, surf satin, flannel, and jersey knits.

The bathing cap, as we know it today, had made its appearance. However, it was not yet made of rubber and was not meant to be immersed in water.

The flapper era began with the shocking tight-fitted knit suit. The neckline was lower, the skirt shorter, and knitted knickers or tights extended to the knee. These tights worn under the suit were referred to as "Annette Kellerman's"--after the Australian swimmer who had originated them. (Plate VI, Fig. 1.)

In 1921, ruffles and frills were introduced in order to eliminate the boyish styles. The June issue of

---

[1]Weaver, op. cit., p. 190.

[2]"Bathing Suits Follow Land Styles," Delineator, No. 94 (June, 1919), p. 93.

Ladies Home Journal featured a suit of blue taffeta edged with orange linen and white cotton braid, and buttoned down the back with white pearl buttons.[1] (See Plate VII, Fig. 2.) Other "luxury" fabrics such as tussah and surah silk were also used. Caps had become fancy and ornate, bearing flowers and ruffles in all colors and proportions.

Bathing suits soon reverted to more conservative styles although bright colors, such as kelley green, red, copenhagen blue and orange were popular.

The year 1924, was a big year for the Jantzen Company. Their red diving girl insignia appeared on windshields of 3,000,000 cars in the United States. Models comparable to those of 1922, were featured by this firm. The cape soared into popularity and was often buttoned to the suit at the shoulder line. (Plate VIII, Fig. 1.) The particular example illustrated is extreme in contrast to those suits illustrated for the previous two or three years. Nonetheless, this was a common style for the more conservative woman. This dressmaker suit, patterned by Butterick, required four and three-quarter yards of fifty-four inch material for a thirty-six inch bust measurement. Wool jersey, surf satin, and surf silk were recommended fabrics with white pique or linen trimming. A boat motif was appliqued to both the cape and turban.[2]

---

[1] "You are Sure to Look Well in these Bathing Suits," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (June, 1921), pp.48-50.

[2] "Costumes for Seafaring Maids," Delineator, No. 104 (June, 1924), p. 40.

The shapelessness of daytime dress for the period was reflected in swimwear in the mid 1920's. Suits were tighter and more revealing because of their tubular silhouette. The year 1925, marked the advent of printed fabrics in swimwear. Brightly colored silks, foulards, and chintzes were used. The length of the skirt remained the same and cuffed bloomers showed at the knee. (Plate VIII, Fig. 2.)

The last three years of the 1920's witnessed a drastic change in style. In 1927, Cole of California startled the entire bathing suit industry by lowering the backs of knit swimsuits by eight inches. Sleeves were completely omitted and the armhole became deeper. Front necklines were lowered. Skirts were discarded and only tightly knit trunks, extending to six or eight inches above the knee, were visable. Chartreuse, fuchsia, and teal blue were acclaimed as "high fashion" colors during these years.

The change in American way of life was reflected in swimwear during the 1920's. As women became more daring in their mannerisms, they likewise became more daring in their mode of dress. Modesty was no longer of great importance, and consequently, bathing suits became tighter and more revealing. Compared to the previous decades they were very brief. Swimwear was at last being designed for a specific purpose--active participation in the sport itself.

Functionalism in Women's Swimwear

By the end of World War I in 1918, swimwear could be labeled as "functional." This statement is made on a comparative basis with the previous decades. Swimwear was destined to become more functional as time elapsed. Rebellion on the part of the youth of the country against manners and morals of this era was strongly reflected in bathing suits. Women had become more independent and had adapted mannish ways. Bathing suits at the beginning of the second decade of the twentieth century were straight in line and revealed more of the female figure. Between 1919 and 1929, necklines were lowered, armholes were increased in size, and skirts and trunks were shortened.

An evaluation of swimwear for functionalism can be made on the following bases:

1. Performance.--With the continual decrease in the amount of material employed in swimwear during the 1920's, women were given greater freedom for increased activity. In some instances a superfluous amount of fabric in the form of ruffles and frills was used which tended to hamper physical movement. Tight cuffs at the base of bloomers or trunks were also restrictive. However, by 1928, bathing suits were form-fitting and provided more physical freedom.

2. Application of materials.--The most popular fabrics for swimwear during this period were jersey knits of wool and cotton, mercerized cotton, light weight wools,

taffeta, and printed silk or cotton. Of those fabrics mentioned, the jersey knits were the most practical and suitable for the prevailing styles. Silks and taffetas were "luxury" fabrics and were not meant to be immersed in water. Bathing suits tended to fade in color due to the use of poor dyes. With the introduction of bright colors in swimwear it was soon discovered that the hot and intense sun, plus seawater, were detrimental to the preservation of color within the garment. This proved especially true with print materials--not only did they fade, but the colors ran. Prints were a novelty in 1925 and did not gain popularity until the late thirties.

3. Appropriate construction to the materials.--Few suits were home made during the twenties. It was only at the time of the depression, in the first few years of this decade, that women attempted to save money by making their own bathing suits. These were usually made of cotton or light weight wool. They were, of course, machine made, as opposed to hand made.

By this time several swimwear companies had been organized and their manufactured garments appeared on the market. Jantzen and Cole of California were perhaps the two main manufacturers in the country at that time. Their specialty line consisted of jersey knits. For the chemise silhouette suit a tubular jersey was used. It was not a firm fabric and the seams had a tendency to split easily. Jantzen Company originated the idea of a heavy ribbed

jersey knit. This proved to be a sturdier and more durable fabric for swimwear.

Although bathing suits became more brief, thereby allowing greater freedom of movement, they did not afford a good fit for the average female figure. From shoulder to waistline there were no darts, tucks, gathers, or pleats, and consequently, the suits were ill-fitting and unflattering. When wet, they naturally clung to the body. Because of excess material they had a tendency to bag, and did not give a smooth appearance compared to previous decades.

Swimwear was more functional in respect to style, material, and construction--but improvements were yet to be made in forthcoming years.

PLATE VII

Figure 1 --- 1920 : All wool worsted bathing suit in Hunter's green with royal blue trim. Skirt above knees revealing ribbed cuff of bloomers. High laced canvas shoes in black and white.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1921 : Blue taffeta suit trimmed with orange linen. Sleeveless, scooped neck, blouson top buttoned down back. Short skirt composed of two rows of ruffles and revealing puffed bloomers with a tight cuff around the knee.[2]

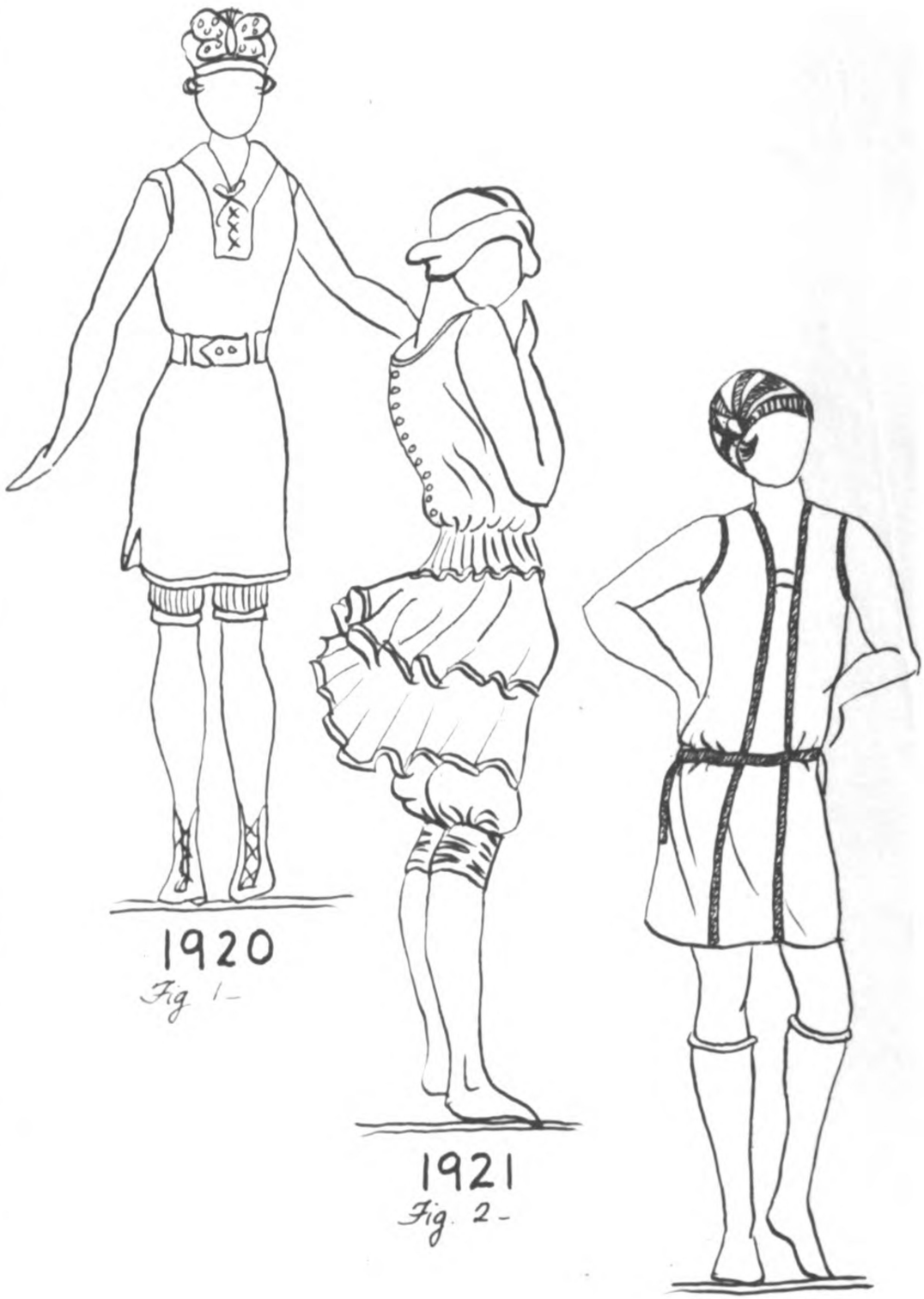
Figure 3 --- 1922 : One-piece slipover bathing suit of high luster, black surf cloth, piped in white, green, red, or copenhagen blue silk. Concealed buttons at shoulders provide opening. Tights worn underneath short skirt.[3]

---

[1] Sears, Roebuck Catalog, No. 140 (1920), p. 973.

[2] "You Are Sure to Look Well in These Bathing Suits," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (June, 1921), pp. 48-50.

[3] "Ready-Mades for Your Vacation," Woman's Home Companion, No. 48 (June, 1922), p. 64.



1920
Fig 1-

1921
Fig. 2-

1922
Fig. 3-

Plate VII

PLATE VIII

Figure 1 --- 1924 : Butterick pattern No. 5194, featured in the Delineator. Slipover chemise suit buttoning to waist in front. Low hip-line belt. Loose skirt to knees revealing ruffled bloomers. Cape buttoned on to suit at shoulders. Boat motif on both cape and turban. Recommended fabrics were wool or jersey, with pique or linen trimming.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1925 : Butterick pattern No. 6014, illustrated in the Delineator. Two-piece costume worn with handkerchief hat or turban. Straight, tubular overpiece of printed surf silk, satin foulard, or chintz, extended to knees. Separate bloomers in a solid color, with deep buttoned cuff over knee.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1928 : All wool, one-piece, tight-fitting bathing suit. Tailored band trimming around deep neckline, armholes, and legs. Decorative tabs across lower hip-line and down front of bodice.[3]

---

[1]"Costumes for Seafaring Maids," Delineator, No. 104 (June, 1924), p. 40.

[2]Delineator, No. 106 (May, 1925), p. 38.

[3]Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 156 (1928), p. 396.

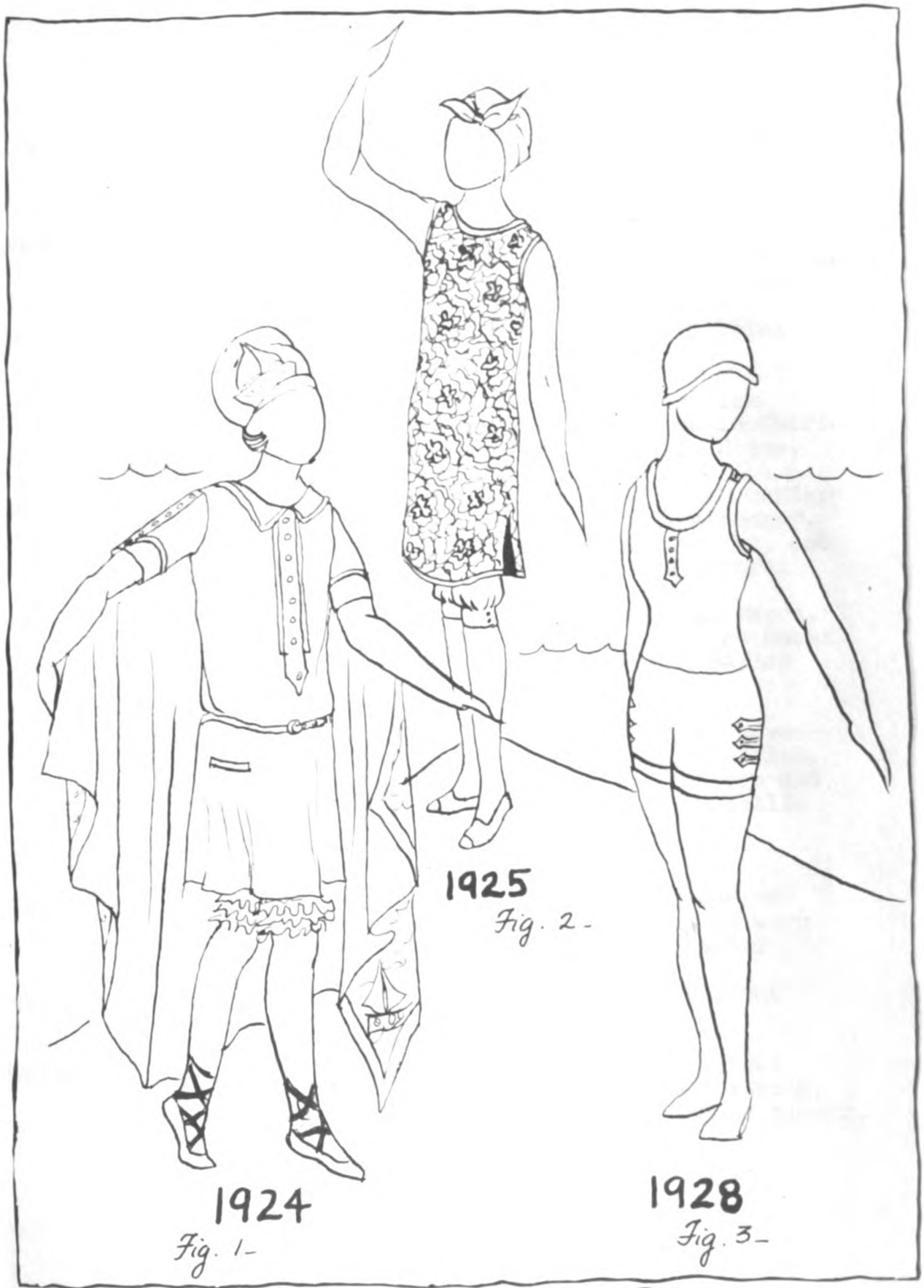


Plate VIII

GLOSSARY

CHINTZ - originally a printed cotton or calico fabric from India. Usually is glazed, and may be embossed or quilted.

JERSEY - elastic knitted fabric in stockinette stitch. Can be made in either wool, cotton, rayon, nylon, or a combination of these with other fibers.

JERSEY TUBING - jersey fabric made on a circular knitting frame; no seams.

LINEN - natural, vegetable fiber obtained from the flax plant. Strong, lustrous yarns used in fabric of plain, twill, Jacquard, or dobby weave.

MERCERIZATION - a physical and chemical process which renders cotton permanently more lustrous, stronger, more absorbent, more susceptible to dye, and holds color better than untreated cotton.

PIQUE - a fabric with warpwise wales made of cotton, rayon, silk, or synthetics. Honeycomb design known as "waffle pique"; diamond pattern called "birdseye pique."

SURAH - soft, twilled silk, rayon, or acetate fabric woven in plaids, stripes, solid colors, or prints. The diagonal of the wale has a flat top and is often described as a satin-faced twill.

SURF SATIN - heavy quality of satin.

TERRY CLOTH - cotton fabric covered with loops on one or both sides, made by using two sets of warp threads and one set of filling threads.

TRICOLETTE - knitted fabric resembling jersey cloth, but made of rayon, silk, or cotton.

TUSSAH - a silk fabric, the filament of which is derived from wild silkworms. It is coarse, strong, uneven, tan in color, and difficult to bleach.

CHAPTER VI

1930-1945

General Conditions of the Period

A wave of prosperity had permeated the country during the middle and later years of the 1920's. Americans were confident of the future of the United States. Trade was flourishing, industry was expanding, wages were high, and surpluses were being accumulated within the United States Treasury. People refused to believe that the foundations of the new found prosperity were weak and on the verge of collapsing. The fever of speculation spread to all classes. On October 29, 1929, the stock market broke and people flocked to their brokers in an attempt to sell what stocks they possessed before they should drop any lower in price.

By 1930, it was evident that the United States was in the worst state of depression in its history. The buying power of the people was paralyzed. Factories had closed by the hundreds, the lines of unemployed had lengthened, banks had closed, mortgages were foreclosed, and the prices of various commodities dropped sharply.

In January, 1932, President Hoover signed a bill establishing a Reconstruction Finance Corporation in an

effort to alleviate the economic situation. This corporation was given the power to extend loans to banks, building and loan associations, railroads, insurance companies, and agricultural associations.

In 1934, currency was devaluated for the purpose of raising prices of goods and helping foreign countries to purchase United States products with a cheaper currency.

The National Recovery Act was passed on June 16, 1933. There were six objectives to this program: (1) to encourage co-operation and planning in industry, (2) to maintain fair wages, (3) to eliminate child labor, (4) to increase the number of jobs available by spreading them out, (5) to strengthen labor unions, and (6) to abolish unfair methods of competition.

Farm relief programs were also devised in an effort to raise the economy of the nation. Long term planning based on the conservation of natural resources was evidenced in such projects as the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA).

Signs of returning prosperity could be seen by 1935. During the first five years of this decade, Americans had become more serious, more socially and more economically conscious. The gay, frivolous life of the 1920's had been greatly subdued.[1]

Because of the situation within this country at the time, the government had paid little attention to foreign

---

[1]Dulles, op. cit., p. 454.

affairs. Hitler had risen to power in Germany. Japan had started an undeclared war against Nanking in 1937. Bombing in China endangered the lives and property of foreigners, and for this reason the United States registered several protests against Japan. These protests were to no avail. On December 7, 1941, Pearl Harbor was attacked by Japan. The United States was once again at war.

Conditions within this country immediately changed. Factories were converted to war plants, more women entered the labor force, big business thrived, and farmers became wealthy. Americans experienced similar circumstances to those of World War I.

World War II lasted for several years. The final surrender and signing of terms took place on September 2, 1945. Untouched by war on the home front, the United States emerged as a rich and powerful nation.

Women in the Labor Force

Between 1930 and 1945, there were drastic shifts in the employment of women. This was a consequence of the depression and World War II. Taken on a comparative basis, there were more women working in 1930 than in 1870 or 1900. However, due to the depression, positions for women were difficult to acquire. With the advent of the second world war, women by the millions were again cast into the labor force.

Women Workers in Relation to the Total Number of Women

The number of gainfully employed women, sixteen years of age and over, increased from 1,701,000 in 1870, to 10,546,000 in 1930. This increase of nearly six-fold in sixty years assumes greater significance when compared with the slightly less than four-fold increase in the female population of the same age. During the 1930's, female employment increased 29%, as opposed to an increase of 22% in the entire female population. In 1930, of all gainfully occupied persons within the United States, 21.9%, or one out of five, were women.[1]

Marital Status

Between 1910 and 1930, the total number of women employed doubled. However, the number of employed married women increased four-fold. The ratio of married women who worked, compared to the total number of married women within the country, had doubled. Census figures revealed 5.6% of all married women in 1900 as gainfully employed as compared to 11.7% in 1930. This increase was six times that of single women for the same period of time. In 1900, 43.5% of the single women were gainfully employed and 50.5% in 1930--an increase of only 16% as opposed to an increase of more than 100% for married women.

---

[1] Recent Social Trends, op. cit., pp. 711-715.

Changes in Women's Employment During the War

From 1940 to 1944, the female population expanded 4% (women fourteen years of age and over). The proportion employed in 1940 was 22%; in 1944, 31.5%.

The heaviest net increase in employment for this period occurred in the manufacturing and clerical groups; each showing an addition of more than two million women. During this period there was also an addition of 460,000 women in the sales group and 390,000 in the service group, other than domestic. The exodus of 400,000 from domestic service is indicative of the unfavorable attitude of women workers towards this particular type of employment. The manufacturing industries differed greatly as to source of workers. In war industries, 49% of the women came from outside the labor force, and 26% from other industries. In the essential supply industries only 37% of the women came from outside the labor force and 54% were in the same industry as before the war. The war industries obtained almost equal numbers of women from home housework and from other industry groups--mainly trade, the domestic and personal services, and the essential supply industries--whereas, the supply industries obtained their women from home housework and the schools. (See Appendices D, E, and F.)

Postwar Employment

By the end of the war, over 20,000,000 American women were working.[1] Women in policy-making posts and other

[1]Cecil Brown, "What's Going to Happen to our Women

executive positions had increased in number. More women, ranging from technical workers in laboratories to accountants, were employed in professional jobs than previously.

Age and marital status were no longer discriminating factors in the securement of employment. However, women had still not achieved equality with men in the labor force since their salaries did not keep pace with their positions. According to Josephine Skinner, the success of women could be measured in three ways: (1) same salary advancement as men, (2) companies willing to employ women at all levels, and (3) an evaluation of the successfullness of the employment of women.[1]

Changing Role and Status of Women

The 1930's, was a decade of profound disallusion for women. They become less frivolous and more practical and feminine. A need for security and stability was urgently felt. To fulfill this need, women placed greater emphasis on family life and work.

Emancipation of Women

Women's emancipation produced new problems in their political and social lives. Ten years of voting merely showed that women behaved much like men in politics. Although

---

Workers?," Good Housekeeping, December, 1943, p. 42.

[1]Josephine Skinner, "Postwar Employment of Women," Independent Woman, No. 23 (September, 1944), p. 278.

they failed to keep their initial promises of "cleaning up" politics, sixty-seven per cent of the women in the country believed that women should hold public office.[1]

Concerning the emotional and social lives of women, Pearl Buck once said,

> American women do not, as a group, seem happy, priviliged as they are . . . . Women are not welcome outside the home except in subsidiary positions, doing on the whole, things men do not want to do.[2]

According to one survey at this time, 22% of the women in the country claimed to be superior to men; 15% admitted men were more intelligent; 63% agreed relative intelligence of men and women was equal; and 89% said women deserved the same salary as men--farm women (93%)being quite emphatic on this issue. These figures were derived from a cross-section of opinion of the United States' thirty-seven million women citizens--married, single, widowed, and divorced--of various income levels, and of all races and creeds. The statistical method employed in the forecasting of the Roosevelt-Landon presidential election of 1936, was used for this survey.[3]

Women and Work

The chief obstacle of equality was economic--not political.[4] Women continually fought for higher wages. In

---

[1]Henry F. Pringle, "What Do the Women of America Think About the Double Standard?," Ladies Home Journal, November, 1938, pp. 22-23.

[2]Ibid. [3]Ibid.

[4]"Ten Years of Woman," Collier's, May 17,1930, p. 94.

some instances a few women felt that since the men were the "breadwinners" for families, they should be given a higher salary. However, because of the increased independence of women as attained in the 1920's, many single women and divorcees were totally self-supporting. For this reason, they fought to be given an equal wage for equal work.

During the war, women had experienced the sweet power of financial independence, achievement, and satisfaction. They were reluctant to leave the labor force when soldiers returned to claim their old positions. The question then arose, as to who should be given the job: men or women. This often became a highly argumentative question, with valid reasons given on both sides. Women had definitely been an integral part of the war effort and were recognized and appreciated by men for their outstanding work. They wished to retain their careers or jobs which had given them financial independence. Men, on the other hand, felt that women should return to femininity and once again assume a domestic role. The issue, of course, was never settled, and in some instances, is still debated today.

Leisure and Its Source

"Leisure," according to Dr. Frank H. Vizetelly, "is freedom from necessary occupation; spare time; time available, as for some particular purpose."[1]

---

[1]Anna Steese Richardson, "Leisure for Women," Woman's Home Companion, October, 1930), p. 22.

Leisure can be acquired through simplified living, relaxation, recreation; through a machine age with labor saving devices; through some mechanical device or readjustment in management.

The main source of leisure time during this era lay in the shortened work week. This reduction has not been a straight line trend. The decline after 1900, was at a much greater rate than in the previous half century. In nonagricultural industries the hours of work declined by almost ten hours between 1850 and 1900--from sixty-six hours per week to fifty-six. The rate of decline appears to have been much greater between 1850 and 1870, than 1870 and 1900. In the next four decades, reduction in the work week was much sharper than in the previous half century. Between 1900 and 1940, the work week in nonagricultural industries declined from fifty-six to forty-one hours per week, an average of almost four hours per decade. The work week increased sharply during the war years, reaching its peak in 1943. By the following year, hours were once again being shortened.

There were several factors affecting trends in the working week:

1. During the nineteenth century state laws were passed protecting the health and welfare of women and children workers. Early trade union activity also helped to shorten the working week.

2. Beginning in the twentieth century, increased income was paralleled by an increased standard of living.

3. Reductions in the work week would have resulted in reduced output, rather than a rising productivity.

4. During the 1930's, the word "share" became the worker's philosophy. The forty hour work week became standard for much of industry at this time.

5. The number of part-time workers in industry has continually increased because of the number of older people being employed.

6. The 1930's also produced the trend of dual job-holding.

7. Paid vacations, holidays, and sick leaves gained impetus during the second World War.

These factors concerning working conditions were the basis for increased leisure time.

Swimming as a Sport for Women

Following the 1920's, there were several significant changes in sports. With paid vacations and holidays, increased leisure time was being spent in active participation in sports. Sports had become so popular, and the tempo had increased so much, that many of the old games were unrecognizable. There was little that anyone could do to change the sport ofswimming, However, new strokes and dives were introduced, as were water ballet and "Aqua Marine" shows.

The mid-twentieth century opened with 25% of all high schools and 1.2% of elementary schools in cities of over 100,000 population, equipped with swimming pools.

Cities with populations of 30,000 to 100,000 had pools in 23.9% of high schools, and 1% of the elementary schools; towns of 10,000 to 30,000 people had 14.8% of their high schools equipped with swimming pools; and cities below 10,000 people had no school pools. By 1937, there were 700 Y. M. C. A.'s in the United States that had swimming pools with 98% of them built since 1900, and the other two per cent built between 1885 and 1900. By 1940, there were 8,000 pools in the country, half of them outdoor and half indoor, with 50% of them built since 1925. Construction was at a standstill during the 1930's because of the depression, and during the 1940's, because of the war.[1]

Swimming was included in the majority of colleges throughout the country. It was, at this time, recognized as being a healthful and pleasurable sport.

Swimwear for Women

Since 1930, United States bathing suit manufacturers have made money by cutting something more off their suits each year. Neither sermons nor ordinances, nor arrests, could slow the steady progress from bloomers to one-piece knit suit, to bra and briefs.

Tightly knit, man-like suits were featured the first year of this period. Front necklines were lowered and sun backs were introduced. A heavy, elastic ribbed stitch was employed with all wool worsted yarns. Most suits had colored bands stitched across the chest line. The more

---

[1]Rice, op. cit., pp. 346-347.

popular colors were buff, Harding blue, jade green, and jockey red. (See Plate IX, Figure 1.)

The first really "slinky" bathing suit appeared in 1933, called the "maillot." The one-piece maillot is, by definition, a "tight fitting, one-piece swim suit."[1] American concept of this term is taken from the French word "maillot," meaning "tights." This suit had been borrowed from the Riviera and was much more brief than those featured in the United States. Police had to control crowds when it was first displayed in New York clothing stores.

By 1934, the skin-tight, low-cut maillot had been adapted in this country for popular use. It consisted of a tight fitting body with a low back and adjustable shoulder straps. (See Plate IX, Figure 2.)

In 1935, the maillot consisted of a halter top attached to high-waisted trunks in the front. This conservative suit was the forerunner of the two-piece bathing suit. (See Plate IX, Figure 3.) Latex bathing caps had been introduced and were labeled as possessing fine quality rubber with great strength.

Cole, of California, invented Matletex, in 1936. This was the first application of Lastex yarns used as a shirring in a cotton fabric.[2] Light weight fabrics with Matletex were featured by manufacturers. Styles remained

---

[1]Mary Brooks Picken, The Fashion Dictionary (New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1957), p. 218.

[2]Lastex is the registered trademark for an elastic

similar to those of 1935, with halter tops being the most popular. Midriff, or two-piece suits had entered the market but generally were not accepted.

The year 1937, witnessed the introduction of many new novelty stitches, of which zephyr wool in a ripple stitch was the most widely produced. Suits were form-fitting and for the first time, shirring was placed at the bustline for a better fit. (See Plate X, Figure 1.)

Manufacturers experimented with synthetics and blends in 1938. Rayon-satin and satin with lastex yarns were the main fabrics used. This was also the year of the clammy, easily torn rubber suit. Swimwear for women was form-fitting. Molded bra tops and pantie linings of light weight jersey were featured in almost every suit. The Sears, Roebuck catalog advertised strapless swim foundations and pantie girdles to be worn underneath the suit.

Dressmaker suits once again claimed popularity. These were made of fast-colored, pre-shrunk cotton twill. Fashion dictated the accompaniment of a beach coat of a similar or contrasting fabric. Front, rust-proof zippers were often used in the suits giving a tight fit across the midriff. Short skirts were paneled, pleated, or flared. (See Plate X, Figure 2, also Plate XI, Figure 1.)

Similar skirts were featured in bathing suits in 1940. Gores were piped, and ric-rac braid and rubber

---

yarn developed and manufactured by the United States Rubber Company. For further definition, see Glossary.

flowers were attached as decoration. (See Plate XI, Figure 2.)

The year 1941, saw the pronounced entrance of the two-piece bathing suit. The particular model illustrated in Plate XI, Figure 3, shows a well cut uplift bra accompanied by pleated and flared culotte shorts. Brief jersey knit panties were attached to the inside of the shorts. The bra was molded by boning.

The typical one-piece maillot, of 1942, was made of rayon bengaline woven with Lastex yarns. This was a smooth, princess line style with flared skirt and snap-in nylon bra. The suit was lined throughout with a cotton knit fabric. (Plate XII, Figure 1.)

Bathing suit styles were much the same in 1943 and 1944. Two-piece midriff styles shared equal popularity with the one-piece maillot. Such fabrics as rayon-satin, bengaline, and cotton seersucker were used. A rainbow of colors was available in prints, stripes, polka dots, and checks.

The year 1945, witnessed a slight change in the standard maillot. The basic design remained the same, but two different fabrics were used: one in the front, and another in the back. Boning was inserted in such a manner that the suit could be worn without straps. (See Plate XII, Figure 3.)

During this period, 1930 to 1945, women's swimwear became more negligible as to size, and more important as to

style, design, and construction. The three main suits of this era were the dressmaker suit, the one-piece maillot, and the two-piece suit. Dressmaker suits were patterned after prevailing styles of evening dress.[1] They maintained identical neck and shoulder lines and similar skirt effects in an abbreviated form. The maillot was very popular and was destined to remain for years to come. Two-piece suits made their entrance on the fashion scene and were immediately accepted. Many new synthetic fabrics and novelty weaves came on the market and were featured by various manufacturers. It was no longer common for women to have only one bathing suit, but many. Swimming had become a favored pastime, and women selected their costume for this sport with as much care as they selected a daytime or evening dress.

Functionalism in Women's Swimwear

The three main types of women's swimwear, the dressmaker suit, one-piece maillot, and two-piece bathing suit will be evaluated as follows:

1. Performance.--Style and design are the main factors contributing to the performance of a particular item of apparel. Style encompasses silhouette, fabric, trimming, decoration, and accessories. Design, more specifically, entails the line and cut of a garment. The

---

[1]Aileen Riggen, "In the Swim," Collier's, No. 87 (May 9, 1931), p. 16.

three predominent styles of this era have already been mentioned and are worthy of individual analysis. The silhouette of the dressmaker suit followed the natural line of the body giving freedom of movement. The natural shoulder line was retained, as were the hip and bust lines. This silhouette closely followed all body curves. Light weight wools and cottons were used in the manufacture of swimwear, and few trimmings and decorations were applied. Because of this, there were no superfluous materials, ruffles, ribbons, et cetera, to hamper physical movement.

The one-piece maillot is a tight fitting bathing suit which may be of different fabrics and of various designs. The style of the maillot and one of its variations, the two-piece suit, continually changed, while the basic design and cut of the garment remained the same--following the natural line of the body. Most bathing suits had a skirt with a slight flare introduced by panels, gores, pleats, or gathers. This design quality was usually more flattering to the female figure than a form fitting bathing suit with a brief skirt. As long as the flare was not excessive, it gave sufficient freedom of movement. However, when a skirt was too full, it tended to hamper activity.

The upper portion of all three types of swimwear mentioned was form fitting and was often re-enforced with boning. This gave additional uplift and support to the bust and provided a better fit of the garment. Because halter or shoulder straps were used, there was no fear, at

this time, of losing a bathing suit in the water or while playing on the beach.

During this period, women were able to participate actively in swimming provided bathing suits had a sufficient amount of ease,boning was properly placed, they gave a comfortable fit, and no decorations or trimmings were applied to hinder physical movement.

2. Application of materials.--A greater number of fabrics were employed between 1930 and 1945, than any previous periods in the history of swimwear. Materials ranged from luxury fabrics such as velvets, taffetas, and various silks and satins, to the more common fabrics of cotton, wool, and rayon, particularly poplin and broadcloth. Jersey knits decreased in popularity and were replaced by bengalines and failles. Possibly the only fabric, if it may so be called, which was regarded as a complete failure, was rubber. Although waterproof and impervious to most stains, rubber tore easily and was most uncomfortable to wear. Synthetic fibers were comparatively new in the field of textiles and had not yet been perfected. Research proved that these fibers were very strong, durable, harsh, and non-receptive to most dyes. It was discovered that yarns made by combining synthetics fibers with natural fibers could be woven or knitted into fabrics which would be durable and would also possess a "soft hand." A problem of dyeing these blended yarns existed. Advancements had been made

within the textile industry, but unfortunately, synthetics had been placed on the market too soon.

The creation of elasticized fabrics gave an impetus to the styling and volume of the swim suit industry. Lastex yarns were the first elastic yarns fine enough to be used in the needles of a knitting machine, and in the shuttle of a loom. Prior to the introduction of Lastex, form-fitting bathing suits had been made of a knitted fabric. Although pliable, the latter fabric lost most of its fitting quality when wet. Lastex yarns improved knitted fabrics and imparted a more permanent elasticity to the fabric making it ideal for waterwear.

Shirred and embroidered fabrics have also been an asset to the swimwear industry. Both fabrics have been developed for form-fit and dressmaker styling. Elastic shirring, in particular, has improved the fit and function of bathing suits.

Almost all fabrics used in swimwear at this time were appropriate to this particular type of garment. The luxury fabrics were employed in more expensive swimwear, and although they were in many cases made water-repellent, they were not really intended for active swimming. Most women possessing bathing suits of velvets or taffetas merely sunned themselves on the beach or took an occasional dip in a swimming pool. Less expensive and more durable fabrics were used in bathing suits for the average American

woman. Materials were suitable, long-wearing, comfortable, and required little care.

3. Appropriate construction to the materials.-- This period witnessed the first true fitting of swimwear. Bathing suits were molded to the figure by darts, tuckings, gathers, pleats, and curved seams. Boning was employed for the first time and was stitched to the inner portion of the bra giving an uplift to the bust. Incorrectly inserted, boning could be painful, and this was often the case since the idea was new. Separate brassieres could be worn underneath a suit, if desired, but were sometimes uncomfortable and failed to give a smooth line. One-piece suits were usually lined throughout with a light weight wool jersey or cotton knit fabric. This added lining gave warmth to the wearer when emerging from the water and since it was stitched directly to the inside of the suit, it gave greater comfort. Seams were re-enforced on most fabrics, especially the synthetics giving greater strength and durability to the garment.

Boning, darts, re-enforced and curved seams were all factors of importance in the construction of swimwear. Appropriate manufacturing techniques were employed during this period which gave a better fit to bathing suits.

Swimwear, at this time, upheld most of the principles of good design. Styles were functional providing freedom of movement, appropriate materials, on the whole,

were used, and methods of construction had improved. A woman could at last purchase an attractive and becoming bathing suit and be assured of a durable garment with a good fit, comfort, and freedom of action.

PLATE IX

Figure 1 --- 1930 : A popular, man-tailored suit in heavy, elastic ribbed all wool worsted. Belted shorts with separate shirt, trimmed in contrasting bands of wool.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1934 : One hundred per cent all wool zephyr yarn in elastic rib stitch knit. Sunback cut to waist with adjustable straps.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1935 : All wool zephyr, two-piece effect, backless and skirtless bathing suit. Striped, lined upper portion attached to high-waisted trunks. Tie around waist serves as belt.[3]

---

[1] Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 160 (1930), p. 367.

[2] Ibid., No. 168 (1934), p. 50.

[3] Ibid., No. 170 (1935), p. 60.

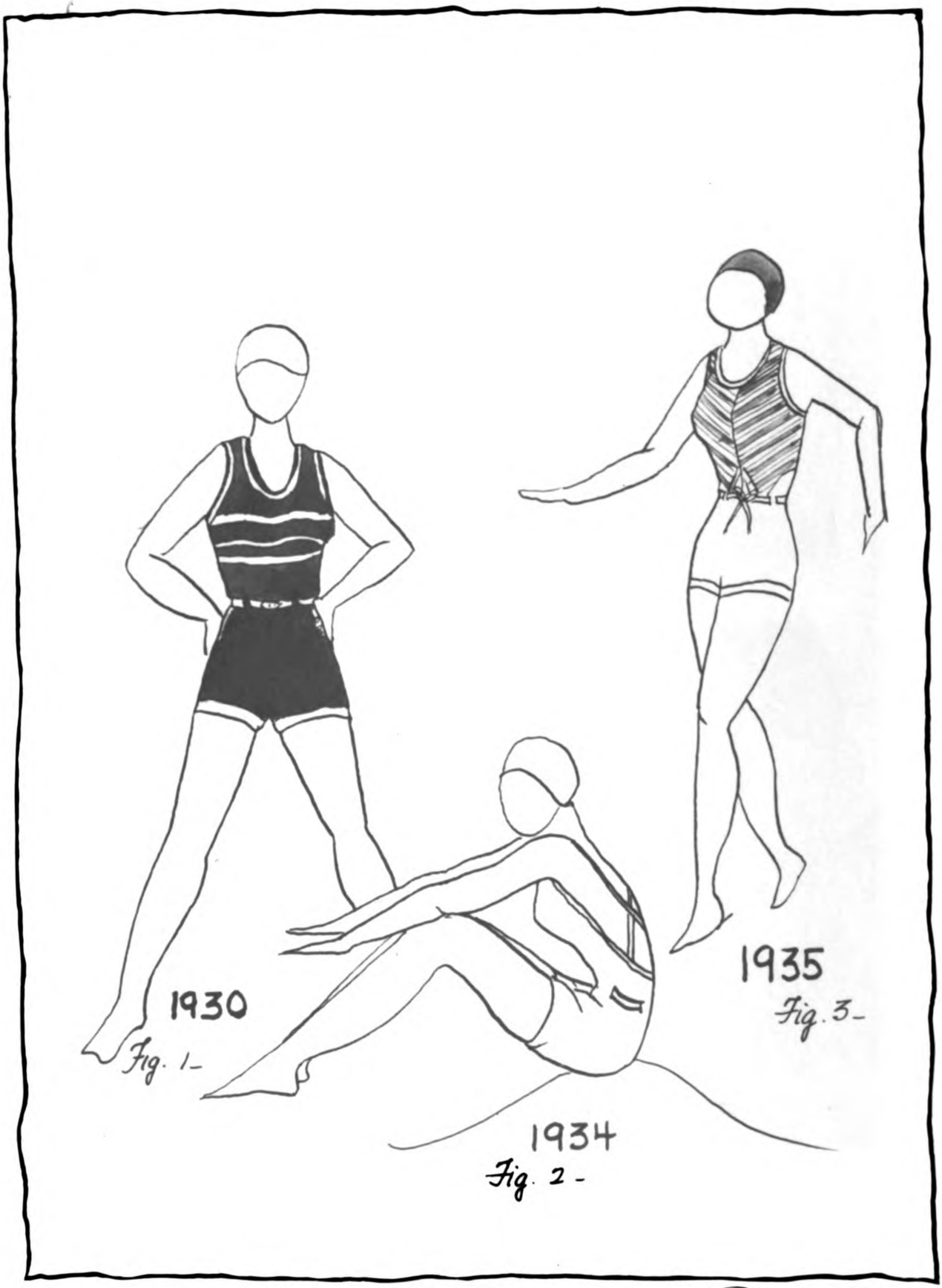


Plate IX

PLATE X

Figure 1 --- 1937 : Tight-fitting suit of zephyr wool with ripple stitch. Shirred bust for additional fit. Adjustable straps.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1938 : Dressmaker bathing suit and beach-coat of fast colored, pre-shrunk cotton twill in bright Tropical print. Promenade coat flares gracefully from fitted waist-line. Suit has skirt effect over wool jersey tights.[2]

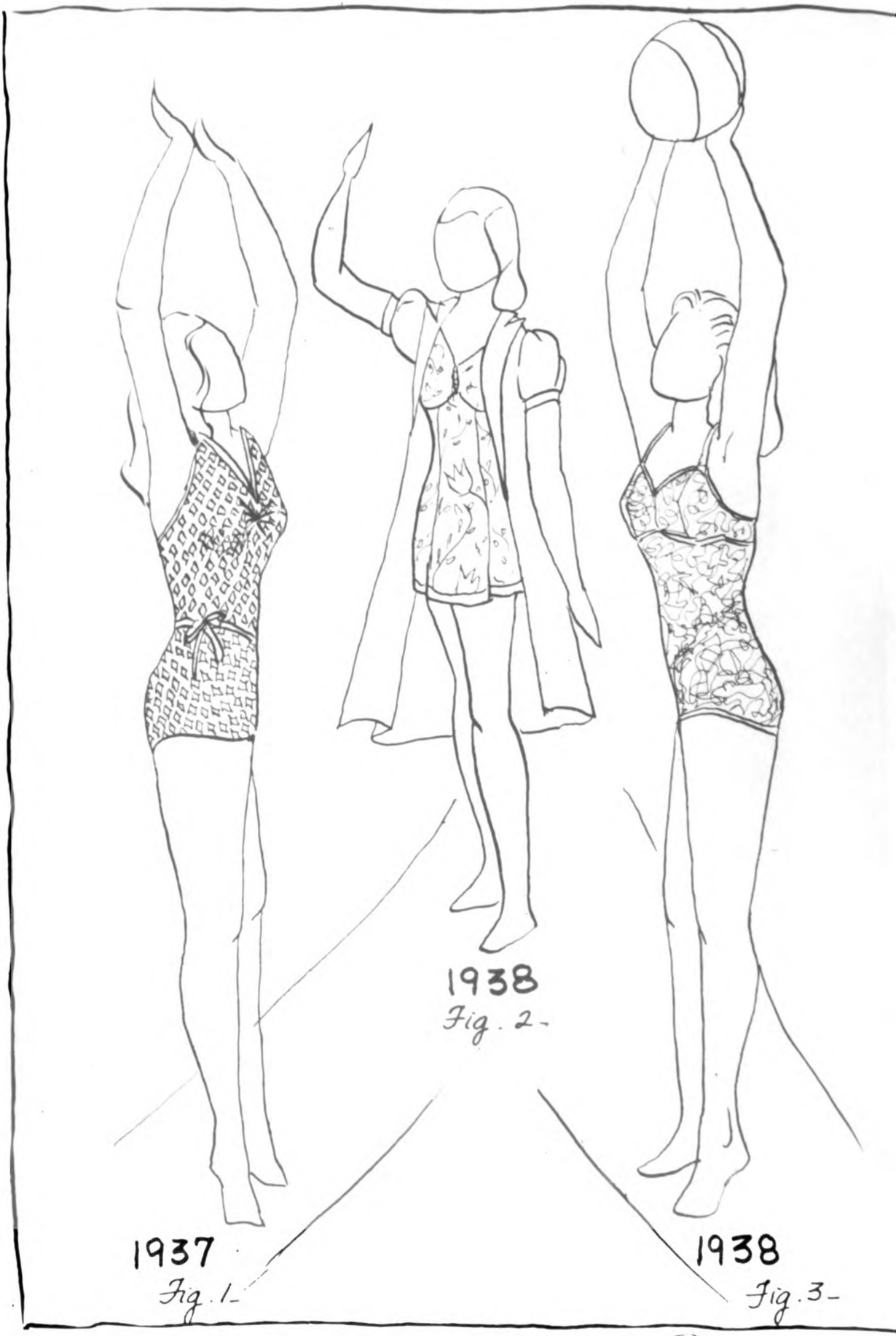
Figure 3 --- 1938 : Skirtless style of satin lastex (woven of rayon, lastex, and cotton, with crosswise stretch for figure control. Note sectioned bra for better fit. Suit lined with light weight cotton throughout.[3]

---

[1] Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 174 (1937), p. 93.

[2] Ibid., No. 176 (1938), p. 77.

[3] Ibid., No. 176 (1938), p. 78.



1937
Fig. 1.

1938
Fig. 2.

1938
Fig. 3.

Plate X

PLATE XI

Figure 1 --- 1938 : Dressmaker style in colorfast, Fruit-of-the-Loom cotton. Quick fastening, rustless, Talon zip-in front. Waistline darts for tighter fit, graceful pleated skirt for freedom of movement.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1940 : Suit of rayon sharkskin woven with lastex and backed with cotton. Skirt is gored, flared, swing style, with each gore piped with decorative braid. Rubber flowers on shoulder strap.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1941 : Two-piece, midriff style of rayon satin and lastex backed with cotton. Well cut uplift bra with halter straps. Culotte shorts are pleated and flared.[3]

---

[1] Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 176 (1938), p. 78.

[2] Ibid., No. 180 (1940), p. 50.

[3] Ibid., No. 182 (1941), p. 83.

PLATE XII

Figure 1 --- 1942 : Elasticized rayon bengaline woven with lastex yarns in princess-line, one-piece bathing suit. Print trim of lustrous rayon and cotton satin. Separate nylon snap-in bra. Knit cotton lining throughout suit.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1944 : Jacquard bengaline (rayon and cotton) in two-piece, open midriff suit. Flared skirt buttoned in back and bra tied in back and around neck.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1945 : Front portion of one-piece maillot in rayon jersey print. Back in rayon and cotton knit. Lastex yarns woven around base of leg for snug, trim fit.[3]

---

[1] Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 184 (1942), p. 189.

[2] Ibid., No. 188 (1944), p. 95.

[3] Ibid., No. 190 (1945), p. 97.

Plate XII

GLOSSARY

ACETATE - a man-made, textile fiber derived from cellulose. Acetate is resilient, has poor absorbency, is not receptive to dyes and resin finishes, and is sensitive to heat.

APPLIQUE - decoration in which material is cut out and sewed, embroidered or pasted on another material.

BENGALINE - a fabric similar to faille, only heavier, with a fine weave and widthwise cords. May be of silk, wool, or rayon warp with worsted or cotton filling.

BOUCLE - fabric woven or knitted with a looped or knotted surface. May be all wool, rayon, cotton, silk, linen, or a combination of fibers.

CELANESE - registered trade-mark for textile products of the Celanese Corporation of America. Common trade name for acetate.

CULOTTE - informal trouser-like garment having leg portions that are full and fall together to simulate a skirt.

FAILLE - soft, slightly glossy fabric in a rib weave, with a light, flat, crossgrain rib or cord made by using heavier yarns in the filling than in the warp. Can be rayon, acetate, cotton, wool, nylon, or a mixture of these fibers.

FRUIT OF THE LOOM - trade name for finished products of cotton and rayon under license from Fruit of the Loom, Inc.

JACQUARD WEAVE - a type of weave which makes intricate patterns. The Jacquard loom is employed and is so constructed that each warp can be raised or lowered to make the patterns.

KNITTING - the process of making fabric by interlocking series or loops of one or more yarns.

LASTEX - a trade-mark of the United States Rubber Company for its elastic yarn made by wrapping a filament of fine, rubber thread with cotton, rayon, nylon, silk, etc. Woven or knitted into fabrics or applied by stitching to impart stretch or create novel elastic fabrics.

LATEX - a milky fluid tapped from the bark of the Para rubber tree used in making the elastic core of LASTEX.

MATLETEX - original LASTEX shirring in cotton bathing suits made by Cole, of California.

NYLON - a man-made, polyamide fiber derived from coal, air, and water. This fiber is strong, durable, washable, quick-drying, elastic, and resistant to mildew, and insects. Nylon can be used alone or blended with other fibers to form yarns and fabrics.

RAJAH SILK - trade name for strong, rough, compact silk fabric of plain-weave.

RAYON - a manufactured textile fiber or yarn produced chemically from cellulose by one of three processes: viscose, cuprammonium, or nitrocellulose.

RUBBER - substance made of the sticky, milky sap of the rubber tree and processed for a specific purpose. RUBBERIZED FABRIC is any fabric with a rubberized coating on one or both sides making it waterproof, resistant to most stains, etc.

SEERSUCKER - a cotton, silk, or synthetic fabric made by alternating plain and crinkled stripes. WOVEN SEERSUCKER is a crinkled, striped fabric made by weaving some of the yarns in tighter tension than others.

SHARKSKIN - originally, a wool fabric with a twill-weave or of a herringbone construction. Yarns of two colors, light and dark, which are alternated lengthwise and crosswise to give its characteristic coloring. Fabrics of rayon and acetate in a dobby-weave with a smooth surface, resembling sharkskin leather.

SNAKESKIN - a rayon and acetate print fabric resembling snakeskin.

VELVA-SHEEN - trade name for a rayon and cotton fabric in a boucle-like stitch; soft and deep napped with a velvet appearance.

ZEPHYR WOOL - a finely woven wool worsted fabric.

CHAPTER VII

1946-1958

General Conditions of the Period

The first full year of peace following World War II, saw little progress toward the re-establishment of normal conditions at home. Prices of food, clothing, and fuel rose sharply. The administration in Washington, added to the confusion by first relaxing, then re-imposing, and finally removing all price controls.

To meet the rising cost of living, labor demanded increased wages. Unions had become strong and were responsible for many strikes, which, in some instances, crippled various phases of industry. They were continually successful in their efforts, and this made them more powerful.

In August, 1947, President Truman issued a report stating that the United States had reached its peak of economic prosperity. High prices were paralleled by a high standard of living. By the end of 1948, Americans were purchasing cars, radios, and television sets by the millions.

People of the United States had been sobered by World War II. Although many had made a great deal of money during these years, they did not spend as lavishly as did people following World War I. Their attitudes and values

were beginning to shift. More emphasis was being placed on the fine arts, education, religion, and travel.

Following the second World War, many efforts were made for world peace. The United Nations was established for this purpose. In an attempt to help war-devastated countries, the United States and the United Nations offered aid to Europe. Economically, materially, and industrially, European nations had been weak, but through this aid, began to display signs of life.

Over a period of years Russia had become a powerful nation with strong convictions. She opposed Capitalism and advocated Communism. The United States, felt it was important to protect the Western Democracies from Communism, and, therefore, took an active part in the formulation of the Marshall Plan and the Atlantic Pact.

Efforts for peace were to no avail. Russia, endeavoring to force her way of life on Korea, provoked the Korean War. Appeals were made, and the United Nations stepped forward, organized an international army, and finally succeeded in establishing peace.

The United States had once again experienced war but had been left untouched on the homeland. As has been characteristic throughout history, a brief period of depression swept the land following the war, but was soon followed by a period of prosperity. By 1958, the United States was one of the most powerful nations in the world.

Women in the Labor Force

Number of Gainfully Employed Women

From each census period in the United States to the next, the number of gainfully employed women has steadily increased. Seventeen million women constituted 28% of the total labor picture in 1948, three million more than 1940. Over 50% of women employed were thirty-five years of age or older. The census reports indicated women to be in all but nine of the 451 occupations listed.[1] Between March, 1940 and April, 1950, there was an increase of 5,500,000 women in employment. This was a 2,500,000 increase between 1948 and 1950. In 1951, 615,000 more women were added to the labor force due to the Korean War. By the end of this year, the total number had risen to twenty million and remained fairly constant for the next seven years.[2]

Marital and Age Status of Women

The most striking feature of this rising tide of women in the labor force was the growing number of married women who worked outside the home. In 1930, 11.5% of women were gainfully employed. Ten years later this figure had risen to almost 17%, and by 1950 it was 24%. Over 50%

---

[1]Elizabeth Morrissey, "The Status of Women," Vital Speeches, No. 15 (November 1, 1948), pp. 55-60.

[2]Alva Myrdal and Viola Klein, Women's Two Roles (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited, 1956), p. 34.

of the female labor force in 1950, consisted of married women. These figures can partially be accounted for by the increase in marriage rate and decrease in marriage age following the war. They are also due to the relatively low rate of employment of single women and the increased employment of older women. The proportion of single and married women employed between 1940 and 1950, was practically reversed. According to the census of 1950, more than 5,500,000 women over 45 years of age were working, the median being 36.6 years. Taken by individual categories, the median ages were: 25 years for single women; 47.7 years for married women living with their husbands; and 48.5 years for widows, divorcees, and women with absent husbands.

Rural and Urban Workers

The difference between rural and urban areas was significant and cannot be overlooked when average figures are given for a country as vast and varied as the United States. A relative lack of opportunities existed for employment in rural areas which affected both married and single women, but the disparity between the rural and urban was more marked in the case of single women. Only 25% of single women living on farms were employed as compared to 58% living in towns or cities. Percentages for married women were 17 in rural areas and 26 in urban. These figures do not imply that women living on farms were idle--much work

was performed by women in family businesses and on farms but was not counted by the census as employment because there were no wages involved. (These figures were taken from 1950 Government Census reports.)

Occupational Groups

In the United States, as elsewhere, the most conspicuous increase in the number of women employed in any occupational group took place among clerical and kindred workers. Women constituted almost 65% of all persons employed in this field in 1940. Within ten years, the number had increased from 2,530,000 to 4,539,000; by January, 1953, it had further increased to 5,288,000.

Clothing manufacturers employed the largest number of women in industry, 20.7%. The textiles field claimed 12.6%, food--11.4%, and electrical machinery,8.4%.

The largest number of women employed in 1950,were in manufacturing, and retailing. Occupations, commonly termed "feminine" because of the high percentage of women engaged, were personal service (69% women) and professional and related services (58%). Over 50% of all professional women were teachers, and 25% were nurses.

In both absolute numbers and percentages, married women outnumbered single women in almost all occupational groups in 1950. There were, of course, some exceptions. The main exception lay in the category of professional and semi-professional workers. It would be unjust to deduce

by this statement that women were prone to relinquish their careers upon marriage. This disproportion was a combined result of the long training necessary to qualify for entry to certain professions, and the lower marriage rate among university women.

The number of women gainfully employed in the United States in 1958, was greater than any other time in the history of the country. This was mainly due to the percentage increase of older women in the labor force. Jobs, on the whole, were plentiful, and there were no age or marital barriers to be overcome. The majority of women worked out of economic necessity while the minority worked for the love of working more than for money. Many problems for working women had been resolved--days and weeks had been shortened, paid vacations were given, and hazardous working conditions were abolished. Women still had several complaints: in many instances they did not receive the same wages as did men in similar occupations, they received fewer promotions, and were not given high administrative positions.

Changing Role and Status of Women

By the end of this period in the United States, women had achieved a status of equality more comparable to that of men. They possessed as much freedom and independence as men. Women could hold property, negotiate contracts, wills, et cetera, work in any position of their choosing, vote, and hold public office.

Their efforts in the 1952 Presidential campaign gave them increased respect as participants in party politics. Declaring that he would use the contributions of women to the fullest, President Eisenhower said: "I will do my best to find and appoint the individuals best qualified to serve our country, regardless of whether they are men or women."[1] He placed women in nine major posts during his first three months of administration.

Women had come a long way in their struggle for equal rights. They had often met with discouragement and defeat but had continually forged ahead. At last, their goals and desires were realized and women were granted more freedom to live, act, and do as they pleased.

Leisure and the Leisure Market

The great mechanization of life in America in the mid-twentieth century gave increased leisure to the people. The fourteen to sixteen hour work day of the 1880's,had changed to the six to eight hour day on a forty hour a week basis.

Perhaps the most predominent fact about the postwar leisure market is the growing preference for active participation in sports. Movies, for example, were no longer as popular as they had once been. The intake from this source

---

[1]U. S. Department of Labor, The Status of Women in the United States-1953, Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 249 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953).

of pleasure decreased some three hundred and seventy-five million dollars between 1947 and 1953, while all items related to active recreational pursuits showed gains ranging from the respectable to the spectacular.

The great trend in the leisure market from 1935 to 1955, had been foreshadowed by a 1934 report from the National Recreation Association, a professional group concerned primarily with standards of municipal parks and playgrounds. This report entitled "The Leisure Hours of 5,000 People," was concerned with those things which people liked to do in their leisure time, as opposed to that which they actually did.[1] The following orders of preference were listed:[2]

What They Did	What They Would Like to Have Done
1. Reading newspapers and magazines	1. Tennis
2. Listening to the radio	2. Swimming
3. Going to the movies	3. Boating
4. Visiting or entertaining	4. Golf
5. Reading fiction books	5. Camping
6. Automobile riding	6. Gardening
7. Swimming	7. Playing music
8. Writing letters	8. Automobile riding
9. Reading non-fiction books	9. Theater going
10. Conversation	10. Ice skating

This particular survey indicates that eight out of ten most common leisure activities were sedentary, while all but one of those aspired to, were active pursuits.

---

[1] Fortune Magazine (ed.), The Changing American Market (New York: Time, Inc., 1955), see Chapter X, "$30 Billion for Fun."

[2] Ibid.

Three conditions had to be met before Americans could satisfy their desire for active recreation: they had to have time off from work, money, and facilities.

Paid vacations have probably been the biggest boon to the leisure market. In 1937, 75% of all office and retail employees had them, but only 40% of production and industrial workers. During the war, this latter percentage increased, and by 1958, between 90 and 95% of all production workers were granted a paid vacation of approximately two weeks.

Throughout the years, gain in leisure time has come from the reduction of working hours, the five-day week, more holidays with pay, paid vacations, and the use of labor saving devices in the home. Because women are found in both the labor force and the home, on the basis of the above statement, it can be said that they experienced an increase in leisure time.

Swimming and Swimwear for Women

By the end of 1958, women were active in the sport of swimming. No restrictions were imposed on them as to their amount of activity in this sport, or the mode of dress required. They were free to select any type of bathing suit of their choice, and could swim almost whenever or wherever they pleased.

Between 1946 and 1948, there were no significant style changes in swimwear from those suits of the previous

era. However, various new fabrics were employed, among which were broadcloth, lame, matelasse, and shantung. These were made of wool, cotton, linen, silk, acetate, or rayon yarns, or a combination thereof. Lastiques, failles, and jerseys were also popular.

Emphasis in swimwear was placed on design with length and cut being the prominent factors. Shoulders and hips retained their natural lines, while the bosom and small waistline were accented.

Most bathing suits could be worn with or without straps. Suits were usually skin tight and cut with a deep neckline in both front and back. Fagoting and nylon lace inserts were used as a means of decoration. Bonings, stays, built-in wire brassieres, stretchable shoulder straps, and skirts which streamlined the hips like a girdle, were all a part of swimwear in 1947.

Bathing suits from 1948 to 1952, were predominantly the same, with one exception: the bikini. This was possibly the briefest suit inthe history of swimwear in the United States. It originally appeared on the French Riviera, but soon found its way to this country. This suit consisted of an abbreviated strapless bra top and separate briefs fastened below the hipline. The bikini was not a popular suit for the average American woman, but was worn only by the most daring. The majority of women, at this time, preferred the conventional one-piece maillot.

Nylon made its appearance in swimwear about 1950. This man-made fiber was usually combined with other fibers such as lastex, or cotton. Nylon lace was often used in more expensive suits for decorative purposes and also to give a touch of femininity.

Colors were both vivid and subdued--one extreme or the other. Royal blue, shocking pink, and Kelley green were featured side by side with pastels. Solid colors were preferred for synthetics and prints and polka dots for cottons.

Plate XIII, Figure 1, illustrates a typical bathing suit for 1953. Made of rayon satin with lastex yarns, this suit was definitely form-fitting. A brief skirt effect, gathered panels, and an elasticized band outlining a low back and forming adjustable straps were featured.

Shirred panels were very popular. The placement of these panels was most important and it was necessary for the individual woman to decide which position was most becoming to her figure. Hips or waistline could be emphasized or de-emphasized, depending on the width and locale of the gathers.

In 1953 and 1954, almost all bathing suits for women were strapless. Similar styles of the previous five or six years were fashionable.

Figure 2, Plate XIII, shows the use of nylon fagoting in swimwear. Seams of this nature were originally guaranteed to be durable and long wearing, but in time, it

was found that they had a tendency to rip and pull out. Cuffed shorts, without an overskirt effect, were popular. For most women this particular style was difficult to wear because the cuffs tended to emphasize leg size. Women with very thin legs found this style to be flattering.

In 1955, bloomer pants were introduced. (See Plate XIII, Figure 3.) This suit was made of cotton chintz and had a back bodice elasticized with lock stitches. It is obvious from the model, that hips were emphasized. Because of the style it was also possible to camoflage large hips. However, when wet, this bathing suit would cling to the body and lose its bouffant effect, thereby destroying the original design.

Rayon and acetate were used by manufacturers of swimwear in 1956. These fibers were made into yarns and combined with elasticized cotton yarns after which they were woven or knitted into fabrics providing a smooth and snug fit when employed in bathing suits. Lace, ric-rac, or braid were often stitched over the seams accenting the vertical lines. (See Plate XIV, Figure 1.) Styles remained strapless and skirtless. Loose-leg shorts, which increased the length of the suit by one or two inches, became fashionable. Cotton panties were attached to the inside of the bathing suit and were gathered with elastic around the leg. Boning was also stitched into this suit, as it was in most suits during these years. (See Plate XIV, Figure 2.)

During the latter years of this period, 1946 to 1958, dressmaker suits were revived. These suits were usually made of glazed cotton fabric, lame, matelasse, velvet or other luxury fabric, depending on the specific purpose for which the bathing suit was intended. Many women vacationing in Bermuda, Florida, California, or other warm climates, purchased these suits for resort wear. Beach jackets, skirts, and shorts were often made of the same fabric and designed to accompany the bathing suit. A complete sportswear ensemble of this nature was both popular and practical. More expensive swimwear made of luxury fabrics was sometimes accompanied by full length evening skirts. Social life had become more informal and diversified, and required greater versatility in dress. These bathing suit ensembles, the latter in particular, were more the exception than the rule. The average American woman still clung to some version of the maillot, provided she had a good figure. For those who did not, the dressmaker suit was more flattering.

Figure 3, Plate XIV, illustrates a Jacquard knit maillot suit which became fashionable in 1958. Orlon, nylon and Latex were combined in this snug-fitting, figure-revealing bathing suit. Knit fabrics emphasize every curvature of the body, as evidenced by this model. Vertical lines were used to make the figure appear more slender. Because of the softness of the fabric it was impossible to use boning without having it bulge or show on the surface.

To take its place, an inner bra of pellon was introduced, giving a smooth line with the necessary support.

The maillot, and its variations, and the dressmaker suit were the most prominent styles in swimwear between 1946 and 1958. Vertical lines were accented as designers became more figure conscious. Inner supports and construction were important because of the briefness of swimwear. New fabrics were introduced which had been chemically treated for colorfastness, shrinkage, and water resistence. In 1958, swimwear reverted to that of the 1920's and 1930's, with a revival of knits, although the new knits were usually synthetics, or blends of synthetic and natural fibers, rather than wool jerseys. By the end of this era it appeared that swimwear had reached its peak of briefness, unless manufacturers reverted to a two-piece version of the maillot or the bikini.

Functionalism in Women's Swimwear

Swimwear for the last period of this study, 1946 to 1958, will be evaluated on the previously established three point criteria for functionalism.

1. Performance.--Bathing suits of this era did, for the most part, follow the basic lines of the maillot and dressmaker suits of previous periods.

The three main variations of the maillot, were the "little boy shorts," bloomers, and the addition and later subtraction of a brief skirt effect which extended tightly

across the lower front of the body. These styles followed the natural line of the body, and being tight, were form-fitting. Briefness in swimwear was an asset for activity, but extreme tightness was detrimental. "Little boy shorts" were comfortable, did not restrict movement of the leg unless a tight cuff was applied, and were of a modest length. Bloomers were likewise comfortable, and gave freedom of movement to the wearer. Attractiveness of this particular style was a debatable issue, and depended solely on the individual figure. The abbreviated skirt effect across the lower portion of the bathing suit could or could not be binding, depending upon the construction of the garment. In some instances it was binding and had a tendency to "ride up" when the individual was swimming.

Dressmaker suits were usually made of cotton with elasticized bodices. These suits were particularly suitable for the older woman or for sunning and resort wear. Vertical lines were emphasized for a slenderizing effect and hips and heavy thighs were usually de-emphasized by the addition of a slightly flared skirt. Boning was inserted but, because of the lack of firmness of the cotton fabric, failed to give much support to the bust. These suits were not extremely practical for active swimming. The main purpose of dressmaker suits was for sunning and lounging, and in this respect they were functional.

With the advent of strapless styles, arms and shoulders could readily be moved. Previous styles with

straps over the shoulders or around the neck became tight and irritating to the wearer when wet. Strapless bathing suits eliminated this discomfort. These suits were good for sunbathing but were not functional for swimming. Manufacturers usually included straps (detachable) with such suits because women who participated actively in the sport of swimming discovered they were necessary--otherwise they ran the risk of losing their bathing suit when vigorously exercising.

Many bathing suits were extremely tight and form-fitting, to the point of hindering physical movement. To overcome this problem, manufacturers introduced shirred panels which molded the figure but gave ease and stretch under excessive strain. Elasticized yarns were also employed for increased durability and a better fit.

Perhaps one extreme in style which can be classified as totally unfunctional for active participation in the sport of swimming, was the bikini. Actress Esther Williams denounced these scanty suits as impractical: "Why, they come off in the water. If you can't swim in them what good are they?"[1] Seemingly the only purposes these suits served, were to attract men by displaying the female form, and to acquire an over-all sun-tan. It must be emphasized that this particular style was not worn by the average American

---

[1]"Formal Swim Suits," Life, No. 24 (June 7, 1948), pp. 155-156.

woman, but since there were a few women daring enough to wear the bikini, and since it caused such a commotion in conjunction with swimwear, the author felt it worth mentioning.

Women were able to be active in the conventional maillot and dressmaker suits of this period which closely followed the contours of the body, but which did not restrict physical movement. Styles and designs of swimwear had greatly improved allowing women to swim, and dive with freedom of motion. Bathing suits during this period, assumed two new prominent functions which were mainly due to a change in social life and an increase in leisure time; sunning and lounging or relaxing. For all three functions or purposes, swimwear was practical and suitable.

2. Application of materials.--Many fabrics used for swimwear between 1946 and 1958, were blends of synthetic and natural fibers. The most prominent fibers used were cotton, wool, linen, nylon, orlon, acetate, and rayon. These were woven or knit into lastique, failles, or other fabrics. Elasticized yarns were often used to give the necessary stretch and ease to synthetic yarns and fabrics. With increased use of synthetics dyeing had become a problem. Manufacturers discovered that many man-made fibers could not withstand the high temperatures required for most dyeing processes. The problem was surmounted by heat treatment before dyeing to shrink the fiber. Special dyestuffs also had to be developed for the new synthetic blends.

With these problems solved, man-made fibers and fabrics were placed in quantities on the market, and were widely used by swimwear manufacturers.

Most fabrics at this time were treated with chemical finishes for water-repellency, colorfastness, shrinkage, permanent crispness or glaze, mildew resistency, or crease or wrinkle resistency. Some of the trade names for the more popular finishes, were Everfast, Evershrunk, Fiberset, Sanforset, Sanforized, and Tebilized. (For definition of these and other trade names, see Glossary.) These are special finishes and can be regarded as functional since they contribute a specific, desired attribute to a fabric.

The use of elasticized yarns, stronger and more durable synthetic fibers and fabrics, better dyes, and new finishes aided in making materials more functional for swimwear.

3. Appropriate construction to the materials.--Construction of swimwear was at its best during this period. Due to the briefness of bathing suits some means of re-enforcement was required. Boning and stays were used throughout the upper portion of suits and were placed in such a manner that straps were not required, but the bust was still given the necessary support. Bonings were usually stitched into vertical seams, which gave better support to the figure and also served to re-enforce the seamlines.

Knit suits, which re-appeared on the fashion scene in 1958, were much better constructed than those of the 1920's and 1930's. Course and wale counts in these fabrics were much higher, thereby giving a tighter and closer knit and a firmer fabric. Seams in these suits were also re-enforced with extra rows of stitching to ensure strength.

When a soft, or thinly knit material was used in bathing suits, stiffening fabrics such as pellon, replaced bonings and stays. These newer bonded fabrics gave the necessary support and retained a smooth line.

The use of bonings and stays, stiffened fabrics, and re-enforced seams were all a part of better methods of construction applied to swimwear during this period, which aided in making this particular type of garment more functional.

Swimming was a popular sport for women, and bathing suits were as much a part of a lady's wardrobe as were dresses and other sports attire. Functionalism in swimwear was of vital importance. Women desired attractive and becoming swimwear made of durable fabrics. They required flattering designs, pleasing colors, novelty weaves, and a comfortable cut to the garment giving a natural line, good fit, and freedom of movement. These are the qualifying factors for functional swimwear. Over a period of more than fifty years women's bathing suits had finally reached a point where they could meet with the requirements and criteria for good design and functionalism.

PLATE XIII

Figure 1 --- 1952 : One-piece maillot of rayon satin with lastex yarns. Wide, elasticized band outlines top of low back and forms adjustable straps. Gathered panels on either side for additional freedom of movement.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1955 : Strapless faille (acetate, cotton and rubber) suit with "little-boy" shorts. Nylon fagoted seams used for extra strength and durability.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1955 : Sanforized, cotton chintz employed in strapless suit with bloomer pants. Back bodice elasticized with lock stitches. Entire suit lined with acetate jersey.[3]

---

[1] Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 204 (1952), p. 126.

[2] Ibid., No. 210 (1955), p. 126.

[3] Ibid.

Plate XIII

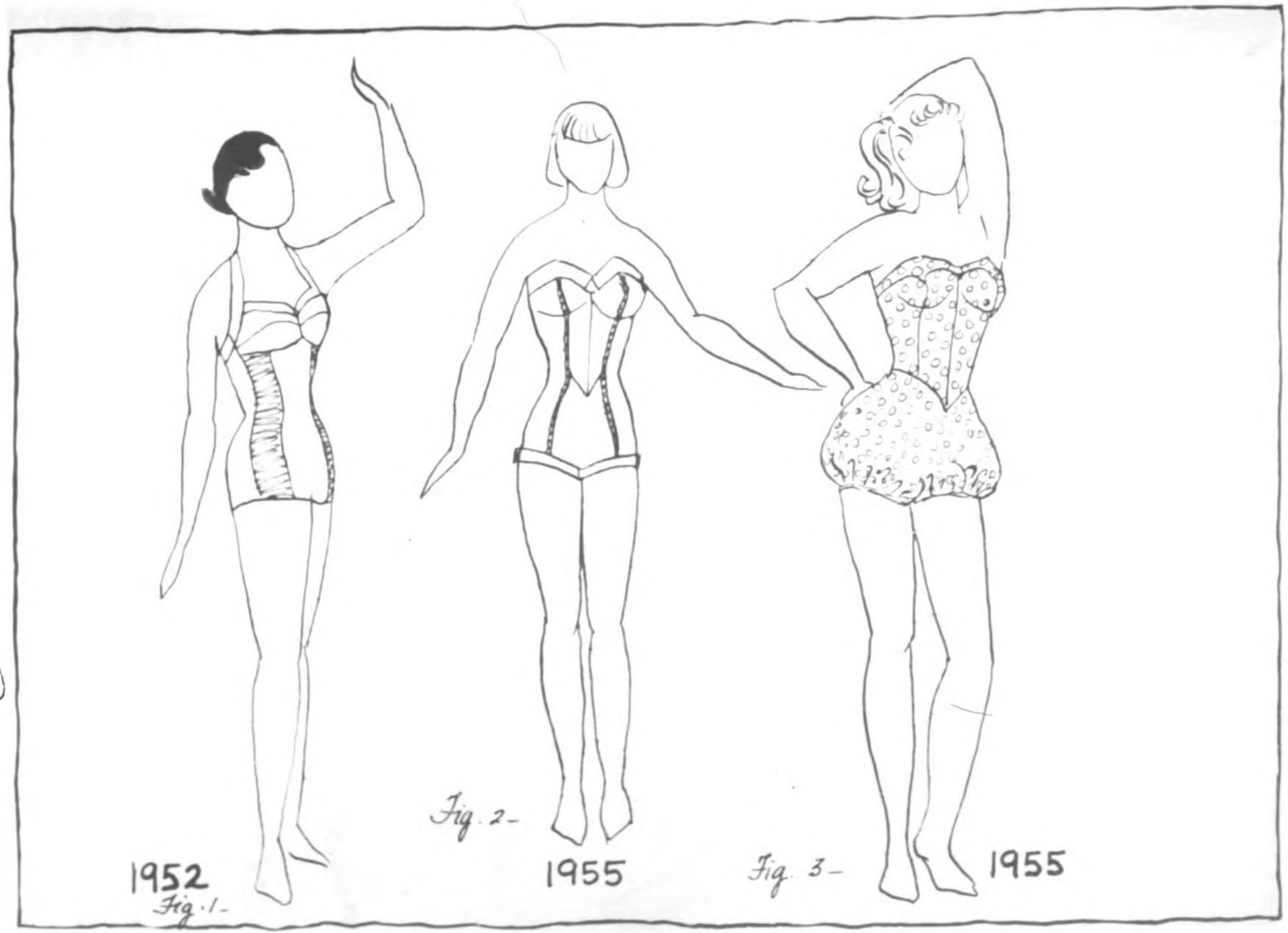


PLATE XIV

Figure 1 --- 1956 : One-piece, satin lastex bathing suit (acetate, cotton, and rubber) with nylon fagoted seams. Boning throughout upper portion of suit. Zipper in back.[1]

Figure 2 --- 1956 : Elasticized faille bathing suit. (Celaperm acetate, cotton, and rubber). Loose leg shorts, about two to three inches longer than conventional maillot.[2]

Figure 3 --- 1958 : Jacquard knit maillot in orlon, nylon, and rubber. Form-fitting suit with halter top and low back. Pellon inner bra used instead of boning.[3]

---

[1] Sears, Roebuck Catalog No. 212 (1956), pp. 90-91.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., No. 218 (1959), pp. 106-107.

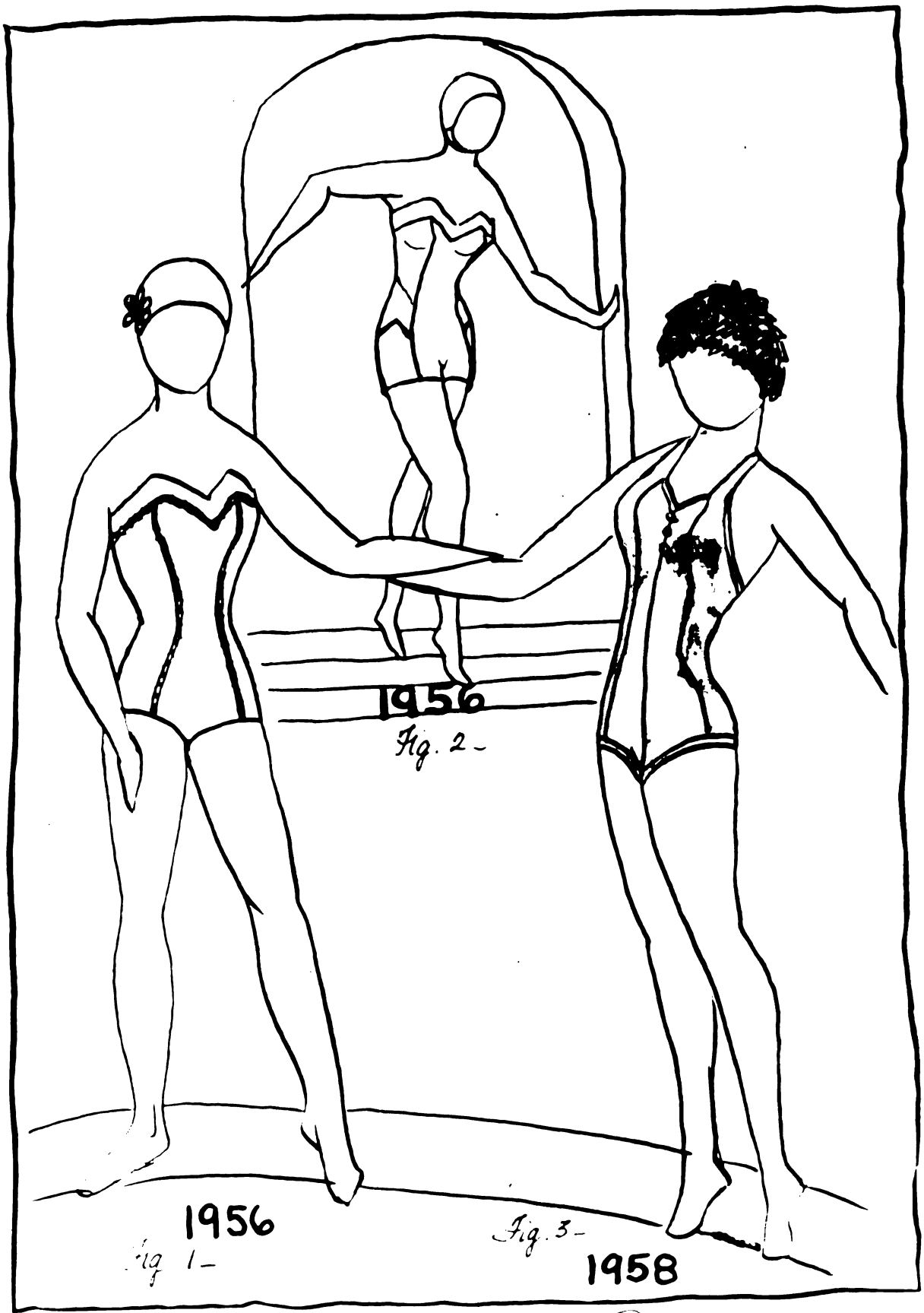


Plate XIV

GLOSSARY

AQUA PERM - finish for wrinkle resistancy and minimization of shrinkage and stretching.

AQUA-SEC - water repellent finish; also resists perspiration and stains.

BROADCLOTH - plain-weave cotton or silk fabric with fine, irregular, broken, crosswise rib; smooth, rich-looking woolen with twill back; plain-weave rayon fabric.

CELAPERM - trade-mark for acetate, "solution dyed" yarns produced by Celanese Corporation of America.

CHROMSPUN - registered trade-mark for acetate yarns produced by Tennessee Eastman Company.

DEFINIZE - shrinkage control for rayon and mixed fiber materials.

DELUSTERED - process which reduces the sheen or luster of rayon yarns.

EVERFAST - trade-mark for cotton and rayon fabrics which carry a guarantee for colorfastness to light, crocking, and washing.

EVERGLAZE - patented, resin finish applied to cottons which produces a more durable hand and glaze, and also stabilizes the fabric to a guaranteed shrinkage of less than 2%.

EVERSHRUNK - trade-mark for a finish resistant to shrinkage which will not exceed 2%.

FAGOTING - thread, yarn, ribbon, braid, etc., used straight or criss-crossed in open seam to form openwork trimming.

FIBERSET - trade-mark for stabilized finish on rayon fabrics.

FORTISAN - high-tenacity, rayon filament yarn produced by the Celanese Corporation of America.

LANASET - trade-mark for resin finish on woven or knitted wool fabrics for shrinkage control.

LAME - a silk or rayon fabric woven in designs with flat metal threads which form either the background or the pattern; most often done in gold or silver.

LASTIQUES - fabrics in which elastic yarns are used.

LATON - trade-mark of the United States Rubber Company for its soft, roving-covered elastic yarn made in fine sizes and soft tensions.

MATELASSE - type of weave with a quilted or padded texture; a soft, double or compound fabric in wool, silk, cotton, rayon, nylon, or various mixtures.

ORLON - Du Pont's trade-mark for its acrylic fiber possessing a high strength, good resistance to abrasion, sunlight, and weathering.

PELLON - a bonded fabric used as a stiffening agent in garments.

SANFORIZED - a trade-mark indicating that a particular fabric will not shrink more than 1% in either length or width, according to standard government tests.

SANFORLAN - shrinkage control finish for wool; no more than 1% shrinkage in either direction.

SANFORSET - trade-mark on rayon fabrics or garments, signifying that the fabric will not shrink more than 2% in accordance with the government's cotton wash test.

SHANTUNG - a plain-weave fabric woven with an elongated slub filling yarn; made of all silk, rayon, acetate, nylon, orlon, cotton, or wool, or mixtures of these yarns.

TEBILIZED - crease-resistant finish; also increases weight and strength of fabric when wet.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

One social achievement which has greatly affected women has been their entrance into the field of sports, accompanied by freedom from the types and quantities of clothing in which they had been imprisoned for years. The American cultural ideal of woman hood, regarding gentility, acceptable standards of modesty, and physical recreation, have influenced sports participation and sports attire.

American culture and way of life can more readily be understood when the sports life of the nation is examined. Sociologists would consider a successfully functioning culture to be one in which there is a balance between work and play, between the things which must be done to sustain life and the things people want to do to make life more worth living. It follows that a knowledge of these factors is of vital importance in the understanding of a given culture.

Sports are but one index to the cultural characteristics of the American people. The increasing popularity and growing importance of physical recreation and accompanying leisure time have greatly affected the way of living in the United States.

The most obvious proof of the revolutionary effect of sports life on the modern woman is to be found in the change in her manner of dress. Greater implications than her outward appearance exist when consideration is given to woman's change in role and status. If one examines the daily realities of life which lie behind the social, political, and economic events as recorded by historians, it is evident that throughout the history of the United States women have exercised a strong cultural influence. Prior to the nineteenth century this influence was exhibited only within the confines of the home and family life. With the emancipation of women in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries this circle of influence has widened.

The cultural shift which brought women on a more equal basis with men is cumulative, and is the result of a gradual but constant movement of events by individuals and groups of people, both men and women.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, women were regarded as being physically and mentally inferior to men, particularly in sports, business, and the labor force. There was a definite division of labors and of attitudes between men and women. Both sexes had their specific functions in society, the boundaries of which were established by the existing standards and mores of the day. By the second quarter of this century women began to voice their opinions demanding greater equality in politics, education, the labor force, and social life.

The era between the Industrial Revolution and the First World War, witnessed the gradual liberation of women in many respects. Women began to see freedom and equality as the abolition of restrictions and inequalities. New manners and customs, notions of propriety and virtue were invoked by the establishment of a capitalistic and democratic system within the United States. This also caused changes in the ideal of femininity, woman's own behavior, her appearance and attitudes. The function of the home receded as rival interests grew. The prestige of the single woman was raised. An expanding and rationalistic age had evolved opening new frontiers to women. Their circle of social and economic life widened as they strived for equality through politics and gainful employment.

Progressively, since the beginning of the twentieth century, men, women, and children have obtained more and more leisure time. Americans have developed a variety of ways of spending this leisure. Although political, economic, and philanthropic activities have absorbed much of the time, interests and energy of twentieth century peoples, men and women still sought to enjoy themselves in such leisure time as they had. The popularity of sports such as fishing, swimming, tennis, golf, et cetera, has persisted and grown and has, in time, taken the place of more sedentary forms of recreation.

One sport which has drawn increasing multitudes of people throughout the years, is swimming. Women first

entered this sport in the United States about the middle of the nineteenth century. One hundred years later, swimming was one of the more popular sports for women.

Swimming, along with other sports, required a particular type of dress. Sports clothes, which included the bathing suit, shorts, slacks, shirts, et cetera, evolved, and became symbolic of the new status of women.

> It was the final proof of their successful assertion of the right to enjoy whatever recreation they chose, costumed according to the demands of sport, rather than the tabus of an outworn prudery, and to enjoy it in free and natural association with men.[1]

The evolution of women's bathing suits is unique in one respect: instead of following the erratic course common to other trends, verring aimlessly along, regressing, or repeating itself, swimwear has followed one steady line which has continually gone forward toward a single goal--a brief, functional bathing suit. True, various types or styles of bathing suits have been revived over a period of years, but always in a more abbreviated and more functional form.

Between 1900 and 1958, bathing suits may be classified into four main categories: the dressmaker suit, chemise or tubular suit, one-piece maillot, and the two-piece bathing suit. Their popularity may be broken down by years as follows:

---

[1]Foster Rhea Dulles, America Learns to Play (New York: D. Appleton Century Co., 1940), p. 441.

1. Dressmaker suit: 1900 to 1915 predominently; occasionally revived until 1925; late 1930's and early 1940's; mid-1950's.

2. Chemise or tubular style: from 1916 through 1927.

3. One-piece maillot: about 1928 to 1958.

4. Two-piece bathing suit: late 1930's and early 1940's to mid-1940's.

Over a period of almost sixty years swimwear has evolved from full skirts extending to the knee or below, accompanied by bloomers, full length hose, blouses originally attached to the skirt which had full sleeves and high necklines, to tight-fitting, one-piece bathing suits with low necklines and backlines, and no straps. Swimwear had become more brief, more form-fitting, and more figure revealing.

As women participated more actively in the sport of swimming they desired functional swimwear. This aspect concerns the utilitarian nature of a garment--the fact that it is designed and constructed in a manner that it is readily adapted to the specific purpose for which it was intended.

Performance characteristics, mainly from the aspect of style and design or cut of the garment are important for functional swimwear. Throughout the years swimwear became more brief, constricting factors were eliminated, and bathing suits were designed for comfort, fit, and freedom of physical movement.

Proper use of materials is another determinent in the functional aspect of a particular garment. Innovations were introduced in swimwear which included various new weaves,

knitted fabrics, elasticized yarns in materials, synthetics, blends, special finishes, and dyes.

Methods of construction had improved giving a good fit, comfort to the wearer, and a more durable garment. Bathing suits, by 1958, were relatively serviceable and flattering to the female figure.

These functional aspects of women's swimwear from 1900 to 1958, in the United States have been influenced by significant historical events, technological developments, and social changes, such as war and depression, the invention of new textile machines for the processing and producing of cloth, the development of new fibers, yarns, fabrics, and finishes, the change in role and status of women, their entrance into the labor force, and their increased leisure time.

This study indicates a definite relationship between these factors and women's swimwear. However, facts and events are not the sole determinents of trends. Consideration should also be given to intangible factors, such as female attitudes and desires. Since these are rarely recorded, the true feelings of any era and the resultant situations, events, and social changes are not always clear or understandable.

Conclusions

An attempt has been made within this study, to give some of the highlights of the evolution of women's swimwear from 1900 to 1958, in the United States, and some of the influences within the history and society of the country

which have been pertinent to the functional aspect of women's swimwear.

On the basis of this study several conclusions can be drawn.

1. There have been definite, evolutionary changes in women's swimwear between 1900 and 1958.
2. Functionalism in swimwear has evolved, and the following statements can be made in this respect:
   a. Bathing suits have become more abbreviated throughout the years, allowing greater freedom of movement.
   b. They have become more form-fitting, closely following the natural curves of the body, thereby, giving greater comfort and ease of action.
   c. More durable and suitable materials have been employed for greater practicality.
   d. Fewer decorations have been applied, thereby eliminating superfluous materials which might hamper activity.
   e. Better methods of construction in bathing suits, appropriate to selected materials, have been used for increased durability and serviceability.
3. Various historical events and social changes within the country have influenced functionalism in women's swimwear. The most important factors

are; general conditions of the country, women in the labor force, change in role and status of women, and their increased leisure time.

4. Technological advancements and developments in the field of textiles have influenced clothing for this particular sport. Some of these are as follows:
   a. Invention of new machines.
   b. Development of synthetic fibers, yarns, and fabrics.
   c. Blending of various fibers and yarns into fabrics.
   d. New dyes and methods of dyeing.
   e. Use of new, special, functional finishes.
5. Functionalism is an important aspect of women's swimwear and is necessary, in a utilitarian respect, for adaptability to the specific purpose for which the garment is intended.

Recommendations

A wealth of information is available on this topic but there is no evidence of any studies having been conducted along these particular lines. It is therefore recommended that further research be done.

Other aspects of women's swimwear could be investigated, such as prices of swimwear and their relation to various economic conditions within the country; psychological

aspects concerning consumer attitudes and purchasing motivations; the manufacturing, marketing, and retailing of swimwear; methods of construction as applied to specific designs; a more detailed textile analysis; other sociological factors.

This study has proved interesting and informative to the author, and it is hoped that it will prove beneficial to other students.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DECLARATION OF SENTIMENTS--1848

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one portion of the family of man to assume among the people of the earth a position different from that which they have hitherto occupied, but one to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes that impel them to such a course.

We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men and women are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights governments are instituted, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. Whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of those who suffer from it to refuse allegiance to it, and to insist upon the institution of a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience has shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they were accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpation, pursuing invariably the same object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their duty to throw off such a government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of the women under this government, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to demand the equal station to which they are entitled.

The history of mankind is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations on the part of man toward woman, having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over her. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has never permitted her to exercise her inalienable right to the elective franchise.

He has compelled her to submit to laws, in the formation of which she had no voice.

He has withheld from her rights which are given to the most ignorant and degraded men--both natives and foreigners.

Having deprived her of this first right of a citizen, the elective franchise, thereby leaving her without representation in the halls of legislation, he has oppressed her on all sides.

He has made her, if married, in the eye of the law, civilly dead.

He has taken from her all right in property, even to the wages she earns.

He has made her, morally, an irresponsible being as she can commit many crimes with impunity, provided they be done in the presence of her husband. In the covenant of marriage, she is compelled to promise obedience to her husband, he becoming, to all intents and purposes, her master--the law giving him power to deprive her of liberty, and to administer chastisement.

He has so framed the laws of divorce, as to what shall be the proper causes, and in case of separation, to whom the guardianship of the children shall be given, as to be wholly regardless of the happiness of women--the law, in all cases, going upon a false supposition of the supremacy of man, and giving all power into his hands.

After depriving her of all rights as a married woman, if single, and the owner of property, he has taxed her to support a government which recognizes her only when her property can be made profitable to it.

He has monopolized nearly all the profitable employments, and from those she is permitted to follow, she receives but a scanty remuneration. He closes against her all the avenues to wealth and distinction which he considers most honorable to himself. As a teacher of theology, medicine or law, she is not known.

He has denied her the facilities for obtaining a thorough education, all colleges being closed against her.

He allows her in Church, as well as in State, but a subordinate position, claiming Apostolic authority for her exclusion from the ministry, and with some exception, from any public participation in the affairs of the church.

He has created a false public sentiment by giving to the world a different code of morals for men and women, by which moral delinquencies which exclude women from society, are not only tolerated, but deemed of little account in man.

He has usurped the prorogative of Jehovah himself, claiming it as his right to assign for her a sphere of action, when that belongs to her conscience and to her God.

He has endeavored, in every way that he could, to destroy her confidence in her own powers, to lessen her self-respect, and to make her willing to lead a dependent and abject life.

Now, in view of this entire disfranchisement of one-half the people of this country, their social and religious degradation--in view of the unjust laws above mentioned, and because women do feel themselves aggrieved, oppressed, and fraudently deprived of their most sacred rights, we insist

that they have immediate admission to all the rights and privileges which belong to them as citizens of the United States.

In entering upon the great work before us, we anticipate no small amount of misconception, misrepresentation, and ridicule; but we shall use every instrumentality within our power to effect our object. We shall employ agents, circulate contracts, petition the State and National legislatures, and endeavor to enlist the pulpit and the press in our behalf. We hope this Convention will be followed by a series of Conventions embracing every part of the country.

Resolutions

WHEREAS, The great precept of nature is conceded to be, that "man shall pursue his own true and substantial happiness." Blackstone in his Commentaries remarks, that this law of Nature being coeval with mankind, and dictate by God himself, is of course superior in obligation to any other. It is binding over all this globe, in all countries and at all times; no human laws are of any validity of contrary to this, and such of them as are valid, derive all their force, and all their validity, and all their authority, mediately and immedately, from this original; therefore,

RESOLVED, That such laws as conflict, in any way, with the true and substantial happiness of woman, are contrary to the great precept of nature and of no validity, for this is "superior in obligation to any other."

RESOLVED, That all laws which prevent woman from occupying such a station in society as her conscience shall dictate, or which place her in a position inferior to that of man, are contrary to the great precept of nature, and therefore of no force or authority.

RESOLVED, That woman is man's equal--was intended to be so by the Creator, and the highest good of the race demands that she should be recognized as such.

RESOLVED, That the women of this country ought to be enlightened in regard to the laws under which they live, that they may no longer publish their degradation by declaring themselves satisfied with their present position, nor their ignorance, by asserting that they have all the rights they want.

RESOLVED, That inasmuch as man, while claiming for himself intellectual superiority, does accord to women moral superiority, it is pre-eminently his duty to encourage her to speak and teach, as she has an opportunity, in all religious assemblies.

RESOLVED, That the same amount of virtue, delicacy, and refinement of behaviour that is required of woman in the social state, should also be required of man, and the same transgressions should be visited with equal severity on both man and woman.

RESOLVED, That the objection of indelicacy and impropriety, which is so often brought against woman when she addresses a public audience, comes with a very ill-grace from those who encourage, by their attendance, her appearance on the stage, in the concert, or in feats of the circus.

RESOLVED, That woman has too long rested satisfied in the circumscribed limits which corrupt customs and a perverted application of the Scriptures have marked out for her, and that it is time she should move in the enlarged sphere which her great Creator has assigned her.

RESOLVED, That it is the duty of the women of this country to secure themselves their sacred right to the elective franchise.

RESOLVED, That the equality of human rights results necessarily from the fact of the identity of the race in capabilities and responsibilities.

RESOLVED, THEREFORE, That, being invested by the Creator with the same capabilities, and the same consciousness of responsibility for their exercise, it is demonstrably the right and duty of woman, equally with man, to promote every righteous cause by every righteous means; and especially in regard to the great objects of morals and religion, it is self-evidently her right to participate with her brother in teaching them, both in private and in public, by writing and by speaking, by any instrumentalities proper to be used, and in any assemblies proper to be held; and this being a self-evident truth growing out of the divinely implanted principles of human nature, any custom or authority adverse to it, whether modern or wearing the hoary sanction of antiquity, is to be regarded as self-evident falsehood, and at war with mankind.

At the last session Lucretia Mott offered and spoke on the following resolution:

RESOLVED, That the speedy success of our cause depends upon the zealous and untiring efforts of both men and women, for the overthrow of the monopoly of the pulpit, and for the securing to woman an equal participation with men in the various trades, professions, and commerce.

The only resolution that was not unanimously adopted was the ninth, urging the women of the country to secure themselves to elective franchise. Those who took part in the debate feared a demand for the right to vote would defeat others they deemed more rational, and make the whole movement ridiculous.

Source: Breckinridge, op. cit., pp. 415+.

APPENDIX B

PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION GAINFULLY OCCUPIED, BY AGE AND SEX, 1890-1930[1]

Age	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930
Total population:					
10 - 15 yrs.	18.1	18.2	13.7	8.5	44.7
16 - 44 yrs.	57.1	58.3	61.8	60.7	59.5
45 yrs. and over	52.3	52.1	52.0	52.3	52.2
45 - 64 yrs.	55.5	55.9	--	58.2	58.0
64 yrs.and over	41.8	39.0	--	34.2	33.2
Males:					
10 - 15 yrs.	26.0	26.0	18.6	11.3	6.4
16 - 44 yrs.	90.6	91.4	93.3	92.4	89.2
45 yrs. and over	90.3	88.1	85.5	86.6	85.8
45 - 64 yrs.	95.2	93.5	--	93.8	94.1
65 yrs.and over	73.8	68.4	--	60.4	58.3
Females:					
10 - 15 yrs.	10.0	10.2	8.7	5.6	2.9
16 - 44 yrs.	21.7	23.5	28.1	28.3	29.7
45 yrs. and over	11.6	12.9	14.8	14.0	16.1
45 - 64 yrs.	12.5	14.1	--	17.1	18.7
65 yrs. and over	8.3	9.1	--	8.0	8.0

[1]Department of Commerce, Age of Gainful Workers, Bureau of the Census (Washington: Government Printing Office, September 28, 1932).

APPENDIX C

NUMBER AND PROPORTION OF WOMEN FIFTEEN YEARS AND OVER GAINFULLY OCCUPIED, BY MARITAL CONDITION, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1920 - 1930[1]

Year	Women Fifteen Years and Over			
	Total Number	Gainfully Occupied		
		Number	Per Cent of Total	Per Cent of Distribution
1910				
Total	30,047,325	7,639,828	25.4	100.0
Single and unknown	9,001,342	4,602,102	51.1	60.2
Married	17,684,687	1,890,661	10.7	24.7
Widowed and divorced	3,361,296	1,147,065	34.1	15.0
1920				
Total	35,177,515	8,346,796	23.7	100.0
Single, widowed, divorced and unknown[2]	13,858,582	6,426,515	46.4	77.0
Married	21,318,933	1,920,281	9.0	23.0
1930				
Total	42,837,149	10,632,227	24.8	100.0
Single and unknown	11,359,038	5,734,825	50.5	53.9
Married	26,170,756	3,071,302	11.7	28.9
Widowed and divorced	5,307,355	1,826,100	34.4	17.2

[1]Bureau of the Census, Occupation Statistics (Washington: Government Printing Office, June 28, 1932), p. 5.

[2]This group was not subdivided in 1920.

APPENDIX D

WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN WARTIME[1]

Item	Number or Per Cent
Employed in Dec. 1941, as reported March, 1944	12,090,000
Employed in March, 1944	16,480,000
Increase over Dec. 1941	36
In labor force before attack on Pearl Harbor	61
In the same occupation group as formerly	50
In labor force in both periods	10,230,000
20 - 44 yrs. of age	69
single	42
married, husband present	30
Women who left labor force	2,180,000
45 yrs. or older	21
married,husband present	62
returned to housework	93
New entrants to labor force	6,650,000
20 - 44 yrs. of age	55
single	44
married, husband present	36
home houseworkers	14
in school	34
Women not entering labor force	33,260,000
45 yrs. of age or older	43
under 20 yrs. of age	14
married, husband present	65

[1]"Changes in Women's Employment During the War," Monthly Labor Review, No. 59 (November, 1944), pp. 1029-1030.

APPENDIX E

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY AGE FOR THE U.S. RURAL AND URBAN, 1950 AND FOR THE U. S. 1940[1]

Age	1940	1950
Total 14+	25.8	29.0
14 - 17	7.9	11.4
18 - 19	40.1	43.7
20 - 24	45.6	42.9
25 - 29	35.5	32.6
30 - 34	30.9	31.0
35 - 39	28.3	33.8
40 - 44	26.0	36.4
45 - 49	23.7	34.0
50 - 54	21.2	30.8
55 - 59	18.5	25.9
60 - 64	14.8	20.6
65 - 69	9.5	13.0
70 - 74	5.1	6.4
75+	2.3	2.6

[1]1940 Statistics based on 5% sample and 1950 statistics 3-1/3% sample. Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Population for 1950: Employment and Personal Characteristics, Special Report No. 1A (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951).

APPENDIX F

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN 35 YRS. OLD AND OVER, AND PERCENTAGE HAVING PART-TIME JOBS,[1] ANNUAL AVERAGES: 1940, 1947, AND 1956

Labor Force	1940	1947	1956
Number in labor force (thousands)	5,755	8,373	12,878
% of female population in labor force	21.9	27.7	35.3
% of labor force	10.3	13.6	18.3
% of employed women working less than 35 hours	x	23.4	26.4

[1]U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census.
x--unavailable.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Abbott, Edith. Women in Industry. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1926.

Allen, Frederick Lewis. Only Yesterday. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931.

_____. Since Yesterday. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940.

_____. The Big Change. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952.

Baetjer, Anna M. Women in Industry. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1946.

Baker, Helen. Women in War Industries. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1942.

Beard, Mary R. America Through Women's Eyes. New York: Macmillan Company, 1933.

_____. Women as Force in History. New York: Macmillan Company, 1946.

Bernard, L. L. Introduction to Social Psychology. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1926.

Bloch, Marc. The Historian's Craft. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1953.

Bogart, Earnest Ludlow, and Thompson, Charles Manfred. The Industrial State, 1870-1893. Springfield: Illinois Centennial Commission, 1920.

Bragdon, Elizabeth. Women Today. New York: Bobbo-Merrill Company, Incorporated, 1953.

Breckinridge, Sophinisba P. Women in the Twentieth Century. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1933.

Burns, C. Delisle. Leisure in the Modern World. New York: The Century Company, 1932.

Cohn, David L. The Good Old Days. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1940.

Commager, Henry Steel (ed.). Living Ideas in America. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951.

Cooley, C. H. Social Organization. New York: C. Scribner's Sons, 1909.

Cozens, Frederick W., and Stumpf, Florence Scovil. Sports in American Life. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Crump, C. G. History and Historical Research. London: George Rutledge and Sons, Ltd., 1928.

Cummings, Parke. The Dictionary of Sports. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1949.

Cunnington, Cecil Willett. The Perfect Lady. New York: Chanticleer Press, Incorporated, 1948.

Dan River Mills, Inc., Dictionary of Textile Terms. Danville, Va.: Dan River Mills, Incorporated, 1951.

Denny, Grace G. Fabrics. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1953.

Dewhurst and Associates. America's Needs and Resources. New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1955.

Dulles, Foster Rhea. America Learns to Play. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1940.

_____. Twentieth Century America. Chicago: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945.

Durant, John, and Bettman, Otto. Pictorial History of American Sports. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1952.

Elliott, Mabel A., and Merrill, Francis E. Social Disorganization. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941.

Faulkner, Harold Underwood. American Political and Social History. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1948.

Gorsline, Douglas. What People Wore. New York: The Viking Press, 1952.

Gottschalk, Louis. Understanding History. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950.

Groves, Ernest. The American Woman. New York: Emerson Books Incorporated, 1944.

Gruenberg, Sidonie M., and Krech, Hilda Sidney. The Many Lives of Modern Woman. New York: Doubleday, 1952.

Hall, Mrs. Charles A. From Hoopskirts to Nudity. Caldwell Idaho: Caxton Printers, Ltd., 1938.

Henry, Alice. Women and the Labor Movement. New York: George H. Doran and Company, 1923.

Hess, Katherine Paddock. Textile Fibers and Their Use. New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1954.

Hollen, Norma, and Sadler, Jane. Modern Textiles. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Company, 1954.

Hurlock, Elizabeth. The Psychology of Dress. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1929.

Irwin, Inez Haynes. Angels and Amazons. New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, Incorporated, 1934.

Jensen, Oliver. The Revolt of American Women. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1952.

Johnson, Allen (ed.). The Chronicles of America Series. New Haven: Yale University Press,1921.

Kerr, Rose Netzorg. 100 Years of Costume in America. Worcester: The David Press, Incorporated, 1951.

Kettunen, Marietta. Fundamentals of Dress. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1951.

Lapiere, Richard T. Collective Behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938.

Lapiere, Richard T., and Farnsworth, P. Social Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1942.

Larrabee, Eric, and Meyersohn, Ralf (eds.). Mass Leisure. Glencoe: The Free Press, 1958.

Laver, James. Clothes. New York: Horizon Press, 1953.

_____. Dress. London: John Murray, 1950.

_____. Taste and Fashion. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1938.

Lee, Alfred McClung (ed.). Principles of Sociology. New York: Barnes and Noble Incorporated, 1955.

"Leisure," Encyclopedia of Social Science. Vol. V. New York: Macmillan, 1953.

Leonard, F. E., and McKenzie, R. Tait. A Brief History of Physical Education. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1923.

Lester, Katherine Morris. Historic Costume. Peoria: Charles A. Bennett and Company, 1942.

Linton, Ralph (ed.). The Science of Man in the World Crisis. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.

Luetkens, Charlotte. Women and a New Society. New York: Dull, Sloan, and Pearce Publishers, 1946.

Menke, Frank. The New Encyclopedia of Sports. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1947.

Moore, Doris Langley. The Woman in Fashion. New York: B. T. Batsford, Ltd., 1949.

Morris, Lloyd. Postcript to Yesterday. New York: Random House, 1947.

Muzzey, David Saville. A History of Our Country. Chicago: Ginn and Company, 1952.

Myrdal, Alva, and Klein, Viola. Women's Two Roles. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., 1956.

McKelvey, Thelma. Women in War Production. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942.

National Manpower Council. Womanpower. New York: Columbia University Press, 1957.

_____. Work in the Lives of Married Women. New York: Columbia University Press, 1958.

National Safety Council. The Woman on the Job. Chicago: National Safety Council, 1954.

Nearing, Scott. Woman and Social Progress. New York: Macmillan Company, 1914.

Nevins, Allan. The Gateway to History. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938.

Nichols, Roy F., Bagley, Wm. C., and Beard, Charles A. America--Yesterday and Today. New York: Macmillan Company, 1944.

Nixon, Eugene W., and Cozens, Frederick W. An Introduction to Physical Education. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1947.

Paret, J. Woman's Book of Sports. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1901.

Pegg, C. H. (ed.), et al. American Society and the Changing World. New York: Appleton Century Crofts Incorporated, 1947.

Picken, Mary Brooks. The Fashion Dictionary. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1957.

Pruette, Lorine. Women and Leisure. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1924.

Pruette, Lorine (ed.). Women Workers Through the Depression. New York: Macmillan Company, 1934.

Recent Social Trends in the United States. Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, Vol. I. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1933.

Rice, Emmet A., Hutchinson, John L., and Lee, Mabel A. (eds.). A Brief History of Physical Education. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958.

Rogers, Agnes. Women are Here to Stay. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.

Rogers, Agnes, and Allen, Frederick Lewis. I Remember Distinctly. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947.

Rudofsky, Bernard. Are Clothes Modern. Chicago: Paul Theobold, 1947.

Sann, Paul. The Lawless Decade. New York: Crown Publishers Incorporated, 1957.

Schwendener, Norma. A History of Physical Education in the United States. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1942.

Seldes, George. One Thousand Americans. New York: Boni and Gaer, 1947.

Smutz, Robert W. Women and Work in America. New York: Columbia University Press, 1959.

Soule, George. Time for Living. New York: The Viking Press, 1955.

Sumner, William G. Folkways. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1907.

Sumpton, Dorothy. Sports for Women. New York: Prentice-Hall Incorporated, 1940.

Temperley, Harold. Research and Modern History. London: Macmillan and Company, 1930.

Train, Arthur. The Story of Everyday Things. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941.

Veblen, Thorstein. The Theory of the Leisure Class. New York: Random House, 1931.

Vincent, John Martin. Aids to Historical Research. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1934.

_____. Historical Research. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1911.

Walker, Stanley. The Night Club Era. New York: Blue Ribbon Books Incorporated, 1933.

Wallis, Dorothy L. The Jantzen Story. New York: Fairchild Publishers Incorporated, 1959.

Weaver, Robert B. Amusements and Sports in American Life. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. Massachusetts: G. and C. Merriam Company, 1946.

Wendt, Lloyd, and Kogan, Herman. Give the Lady What She Wants. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1952.

Wilson, Carrie. Fashions Since Their Debut. Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1945.

Wingate, Isabel B. Textile Fabrics and Their Selection. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1955.

Wish, Harvey. Contemporary America. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945.

_____. Society and Thought in Modern America. New York: Longmans Green and Company, 1952.

Women's Wear Daily. Fifty Years of Fashion. New York: Fairchild Publishers Incorporated, 1950.

Woody, Thomas. Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Incorporated, 1931.

Young, Kimball. Social Psychology. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company Incorporated, 1945.

Young, Kimball. Source Book for Social Psychology. New York: A. A. Knopf, 1927.

Articles and Periodicals

Allen, Frances Anne. "Fig Leaves," American Mercury, No. 13 (January, 1928), pp. 59-66.

Austin, Mary. "Woman and Her War Loot," Sunset, No. 42 (February, 1919), pp. 13-16.

_____. "Women's Clubs Today and Tomorrow," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (June, 1921),pp. 27, 172, 175.

Banks, Barbara. "Ladies in Wading," Collier's, No. 121 (January 10, 1948), pp. 44-45.

Barbour, V. "Ladies of Labor and Leisure," Unpopular Review, No. 11 (April, 1919), pp. 294-301.

"Bathing Suit Regulations of 1917," American City, No. 61 (August, 1946), p. 137.

"Bathing Suits," Life, No. 22 (June 23, 1947), pp. 68-74.

"Bathing Suits, 1917-1945," Life, No. 19 (June 9, 1945), pp. 55-58.

"Bathing Suits and Bathing Beach Regulations," American City, No. 28 (June, 1923), pp. 569-570.

"Bathing Suits Follow Land Styles," Delineator, No. 94 (June, 1919), p. 93.

Bayles, James C. "Courage in Dress," Independent, No. 70 (May 11, 1911), pp. 956-957.

Belmont, Mrs. O. H. P. "Women as Dictators," Ladies Home Journal, No. 39 (September, 1922), pp. 7, 44.

Bigelow, William Frederick. "Women are People," Good Housekeeping, No. 105 (October, 1937), p. 4.

Blair, Emily Newell. "Where are we Women Going?," Ladies Home Journal, No. 36 (March, 1919), p. 37.

Bonney, Mrs. W. L. "Women and the Wage System," Arena, No. 26 (August, 1901), pp. 172-177.

Brown, Cecil. "What's Going to Happen to Our Women Workers?," Good Housekeeping, No. 117 (December, 1943), p. 42.

"But Don't Go Near the Water," Woman's Home Companion, No. 46 (June, 1920), p. 84.

Campbell, Helen. "Working Women of Today," Arena, No. 4 (August, 1891), pp. 329-339.

Carpenter, Niles. "Courtship Practices and Contemporary Social Change in America," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, No. 160 (March, 1932), pp. 38-44.

Catt, Carrie Chapman. "Too Many Rights," Ladies Home Journal, No. 39 (November, 1922), pp. 31, 168.

Chicago Sunday Tribune. August 23, 1959, Part 6, p. 4.

Collins, Frederick L. "The New Woman: What She Wanted and What She Got," Woman's Home Companion, No. 56 (June, 1919), p. 12.

"Conservation Rules the Waves; In Color Bathing Suits are Conservative," Good Housekeeping, No. 67 (July, 1918), p. 87.

"Costumes for Seafaring Maids," Delineator, No. 104 (June, 1924), p. 40.

"Costumes Worn by Bette Davis in the New George Arliss Picture 'The Working Man'," Delineator, No. 122 June, 1933), p. 63.

Cox, Lenore Hanna. "The Value of the Woman of Leisure," Journal of Home Economics, No. 8 (August, 1916), pp. 407-413.

Currie, Barton W. "To Save Prohibition--It's Your Job," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (January, 1921), p. 28.

_____. "Soft Morals," Ladies Home Journal, No. 40 (March, 1923), pp. 32, 154.

_____. "When Women Earn Money," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (July, 1921), p. 20.

Daggett, Mabel Potter. "The New Chapter in Woman's Progress," Good Housekeeping, No. 56 (February, 1913), p. 149.

_____. "Wanted: Women Voters to Vote," Good Housekeeping, No. 79 (July, 1924), pp. 40-41, 183-187.

Dauncey, Enid C. "The Function of Fashion," Living Age, Vol. 269 (1911), pp. 790-794.

Davenport, Eugene. "You Can Change the World," Ladies Home Journal, No. 39 (January, 1922), pp. 23, 129.

"Diverting Beach Days in Divers Colorful Ways," Ladies Home Journal, No. 48 (June, 1931), pp. 10-11.

Dix, Dorothy. "The Girl of Today," Good Housekeeping, No. 62 (March, 1916), pp. 288-291.

Dunlap, Knight. "The Development and Function of Clothing" Journal of General Psychology, No. 1 (1928), pp. 64-78.

Eastwood, Floyd. "Playing in the Water," Recreation, No. 27 (July, 1933), pp. 169-171.

"Evolution of the Bathing Suit," Chicago Sunday Tribune, Magazine Section, June 8, 1952, pp. 10-11.

"Fashion and Medicine," MD, Vol. 2, No. 9 (September, 1958), pp. 72-80.

Feld, Rose C. "Yes, My Darling Daughter," Collier's, No. 79 (June 25, 1927), p. 11.

"Formal Swim Suits," Life, No. 24 (June 7, 1948), pp. 155-156.

"Frostbite Medicine," Collier's, No. 125 (February 4, 1950), p. 48.

Furnas, J. C. "Woman Power," Ladies Home Journal, No. 59 (November, 1942), pp. 20-21.

George, W. L. "Is There a Change in Morals?," Good Housekeeping, No. 76 (February, 1923), pp. 78, 145, 147.

_____. "Women and Labor," Good Housekeeping, No. 68 (April, 1919), pp. 42-43.

Godey's Lady's Book, Vol. 57 (August, 1858), p. 123.

Godey's Lady's Book, Vol. 66 (July, 1868), n. p.

Harper, Ida Husted. "The Woman Suffrage Movement," Harper's Bazaar, No. 44 (March, 1910), p. 178.

Hurt, Helen Harrison. "Woman's Changing Role," Journal of Home Economics, No. 40 (May, 1948), p. 263.

Kellerman, Annette. "Why and How Girls Should Swim," Ladies Home Journal, No.27 (August, 1910), p. 11.

Kelley, Florence. "Leisure by Statute for Women," The Woman Citizen, No. 8 (May 17, 1924), pp. 16-17.

Koues, Helen (ed.). "Fashion-Conservation Rules the Waves," Good Housekeeping, No. 67 (July, 1918), p. 87.

Koues, Helen. "Fashions: Sports Clothes," Good Housekeeping, No. 84 (April, 1927), pp. 18-19.

Knobe, Bertha Damaris. "Chicago's Women's Athletic Club," Harper's Bazaar, No. 39 (June, 1905), pp. 538-546.

Ladova, Rosalee M. "About Bathing Suits," Harper's Weekly, No. 58 (September 13, 1913), p. 11.

Lape, Ester Everett. "What do Women Want With the Vote," Ladies Home Journal, No. 37 (March, 1920), pp. 39, 91-92, 94.

Larkin, Aimee. "Just for Sport," Collier's, No. 85 (June 28, 1930), p. 30.

le Galliene, Richard. "Human Need of Coney Island," Cosmopolitan, No. 39 (1905), pp. 237-245.

Longfellow, Commodore W. E. "Women Life-Savers," Ladies Home Journal, No. 37 (November, 1920), p. 45.

Mead, Margaret. "What Women Want," Fortune, No. 34 (December, 1946), p. 6.

Moore, Carl. "Splash!," Collier's, No. 51 (August 23, 1913), p. 27.

Morrissey, Elizabeth. "The Status of Women," Vital Speeches, No. 15 (November 1, 1948), pp. 55-60.

Morrisson, Mary Foulke. "Votes for Women," Woman's Home Companion, No. 67 (November, 1940), p. 8.

"New Freedom to Bask in the Sun," Literary Digest, No. 122 (August 29, 1936), p. 29.

"New Kind of Waterproof Fabric," Scientific American Supplement, No. 57 (January 30, 1904), pp. 23471-23472.

Paine, Albert Bigelow. "The New Coney Island," Century, No. 68 (August, 1904), p. 529.

Park, Maud Wood. "Why is the League of Women Voters?," Good Housekeeping, No. 76 (March, 1923), pp. 205-207.

Patten, Simon N. "The Standardization of Family Life," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, No. 48 (July, 1913), pp. 81-90.

Penfield, E. Hean Nelson. "The 20th Amendment," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (January, 1921), pp. 30, 102, 105.

Pinchot, Gifford. "The Influence of Women in Politics," Ladies Home Journal, No. 39 (September, 1922), p. 12.

Pringle, Henry F. "What do the Women of America Think About the Double Standard?." Ladies Home Journal, No. 55 (November, 1938), pp. 22-23.

Ralph, Julian. "At Trouville," Harper's Weekly, No. 34 (November, 1890), p. 850.

Ray, Marie Beynor. "The Sporting Thing," Collier's, No. 89 (January 30, 1932), p. 28.

"Ready-mades for Your Vacation," Woman's Home Companion, No. 48 (June, 1922), p. 64.

"Recent Achievements of Women," World's Work, No. 6 (August, 1903), p. 335.

Richardson, Anna Steese. "Leisure for Women," Woman's Home Companion, No. 57 (October, 1930), p. 22.

Riggen, Aileen. "In the Swim," Collier's, No. 87 (May 9, 1931), p. 16.

"Rights for Women," Newsweek, No. 28 (July 29, 1946), p. 17.

Rinehart, Mary Roberta. "A Home or a Career," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (April, 1921), pp. 25, 54-54.

Robin, Toni. "A Fine Figure of a Woman," Holiday, No. 5 (June, 1949), pp. 106-112.

Russell, Frances E. "American Dress Reform Movements of the Past, with View of Representative Women," Arena, No. 6 (August, 1892), pp. 325-339.

_____. "Freedom in Dress for Woman," Arena, No. 8 (June, 1893), pp. 70-77.

_____. "Woman's Dress," Arena, No. 3 (February, 1891), pp. 352-360.

Sanborn, H. C. "The Function of Clothing and Bodily Adornment," American Journal of Psychology, No. 38 (1927), pp. 1-20.

Sargent, Dudley A. "Are Athletics Making Girls Masculine?," Ladies Home Journal, No. 29 (March, 1912), p. 11.

Seldes, Gilbert. "Dress and Undress," Mentor, No. 17 (November, 1929), pp. 15, 56, 60.

Skinner, Josephine. "Postwar Employment of Women," Independent Woman, No. 23 (September, 1944), p. 278.

"The Art of Social Bathing," Spectator, No. 73 (August 11, 1894), pp. 172-173.

"The Origin of Sea-Bathing," American Review of Reviews, No. 74 (October, 1926), pp. 439-440.

"The Present Status of Woman Suffrage," Harper's Weekly, No. 51 (October 5, 1907), p. 1443.

"The Sea Shore Girl," Woman's Home Companion, No. 37 (July, 1910), p. 54.

"The Telescope on Next to Nothing," Esquire, November, 1958, pp. 127-131.

"Ten Years of Woman," Collier's, No. 85 (May 17, 1930), p. 94.

"The Textile Industry in the United States," Current Literature, No. 33 (November, 1902), p. 548.

Thompson, Dorothy. "The New Woman in the New America," Ladies Home Journal, No. 62 (January, 1945), p. 6.

"The Trouble With the Bikini," Life, No. 27 (September 12, 1949), pp. 65-66.

"You are Sure to Look Well in These Bathing Suits," Ladies Home Journal, No. 38 (June, 1921), pp. 48-50.

"Vacation Clothes Ready Made," Woman's Home Companion, No. 46 (June, 1920), p. 86.

Vogue, 108 (1946); 109 (1947); 110 (1947); 111 (1948); 115 (1950); 117 (1951); 127 (1956).

West, Susan F. "The Education of Women for Leisure," Journal of Home Economics, No. 19 (September, 1927), pp. 491-495.

"What is the Truth About Woman Suffrage?," Ladies Home Journal, No. 29 (October, 1912), p. 24.

"Where to Go," Good Housekeeping, No. 52 (June, 1911), pp. 749-754.

Wills, Helen. "Emancipated Legs Mean Better Sports," Ladies Home Journal, No. 44 (April, 1927), p. 33.

"Women as Teachers," Educational Review II, 1891, n. p.

"Women of Leisure," Century, No. 60 (August, 1900), pp. 632-633.

"Women Who Work," Independent, No. 82 (April 19, 1915), p. 96.

"Yes, My Daring Daughter: Styles 1870-1944," Saturday Evening Post, No. 217 (August 5, 1944), pp. 24-25.

Government Publications

Hill, Joseph A. Women in Gainful Occupations 1870-1920. Department of Commerce, Census Monographs IX. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1929.

U. S. Department of Commerce. Population-1950. Bureau of Census. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951.

U. S. Office of Education. Bienniel Survey, 1951-1952. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1954, Chapter 5.

U. S. Department of Labor. Women Who Work. Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, No. 161. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

U. S. Department of Labor. Working Women in Large Cities, Fourth Annual Report. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1889.

U. S. Department of Labor. The Status of Women in the United States-1953. Women's Bureau Bulletin, 249. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953.

Zeisel, Joseph S. The Workweek in American Industry, from the Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 81, No. 1 (January, 1958), pp. 23-29. Courtesy: U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Miscellaneous

Women Workers and Labor Supply. National Industrial Conference Board Studies No. 220. National Industrial Conference Board, February, 1936, New York, New York. [Pamphlet]

Sears, Roebuck and Company Catalogs. Copyright by Sears, Roebuck and Company, Chicago, Illinois. Vols. 112 (1904); 114 (1905); 116 (1906); 118 (1908); 119 (1909); 122 (1911); 124 (1912); 126 (1913); 128 (1914); 130 (1915); 134 (1917); 136 (1918); 138 (1919); 140 (1920); 142 (1921); 144 (1922); 146 (1923); 148 (1924); 150 (1925); 152 (1926); 154 (1927); 156 (1928); 160 (1930); 164 (1932); 168 (1934); 170 (1935); 172 (1936); 174 (1937); 176 (1938); 178 (1939); 180 (1940); 182 (1941); 184 (1942); 186 (1943); 188 (1944); 190 (1945);192 (1946); 204 (1952); 206 (1953); 208 (1954); 210 (1955); 212 (1956); 214 (1957); 216 (1958); 218 (1959).

Unpublished Materials

Brew, Margaret L. "American Clothing Consumption, 1879-1909." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, 1945.

Sobotka, Walter. "The Principles of Design." Pittsburgh: School of Retailing, University of Pittsburgh, n. d. (Mimoegraphed.)

"Textile Developments." Unpublished manual prepared by graduate seminar class in Recent Developments in Textiles as directed by Florence Gilmore. Corvallis, Oregon: Department of Clothing, Textiles and Related Arts, School of Home Economics, Oregon State College, Summer, 1947. (Mimeographed.)