The 4-H Story

By FRANKLIN M. RECK

A History of 4-H Club Work

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4-H PEACE CORPS PROGRAM
NATIONAL 4-H CLUB FOUNDATION
7100 Connecticut Avenue
Washington 15, D. C.

The 4-H Story

THIS HISTORY IS DEDICATED TO VOLUNTEER 4-H CLUB LEADERS

"I teach the abundance of the fields, of flocks and herds,
the orderliness and peace of the home, the beauty of woods
and stream, the glory of work and of tasks accomplished. . .
I am known to but few. I serve without wages or price;
yet my reward is great for I am helping build a Nation.
I am the local leader of the Agricultural Extension Service and
4-H Club Work."

— C. B. SMITH

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FRANKLIN M. RECK

NATIONAL 4-H SERVICE COMMITTEE
Chicago, Illinois

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Foreword

FOR YEARS folks the country over have been asking how the 4-H Clubs started. This volume endeavors to give the answer.

A youth program which has had on its membership rolls more than 23,000,000 in its life span since the early 1900's and which now enrolls more than 2,000,000 annually, warrants a complete recorded history. This volume has been produced in order that there will be no further loss of facts due to the passing of time and events and also in order that the lessons which may be drawn from early struggles may become helpful traditions in the years to come.

The author has done a painstaking and masterly job in seeking, assembling, interpreting and telling the story of 4-H Clubs. Early in his work he found that nearly every state has taken some part in bringing 4-H Clubs to their present high acceptance. Rather than merely assembling these cases, the author has worked many of them into interesting epochs and episodes embracing experiences similar to many states'. It is fair to assume that he would not want it said that his efforts in this direction were complete and exhaustive. Certain limitations as to time and facilities had to apply as with all undertakings of this kind.

With the advice and assistance of numerous 4-H leaders and others, the author contacted and explored, as far as time and resources permitted, mainly these sources of information:

1. Examined all printed and written material available, including that furnished by states, by the files of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, by the National 4-H Service Committee and by documents in the hands of many individuals.

2. Visited personally eleven key states to study records and to interview early workers.
3. Contacted and interviewed most of the pioneers in the work who are still living.

As early as 1940, when several leaders discussed the need for a history of the 4-H Clubs, an advisory committee was formed and appointed by Director M. L. Wilson of the Federal Office of the Cooperative Extension Service. The committee drew up a preliminary outline covering the kind of history needed, probable sources of information, suggested uses and how the history could be produced. The beginning of World War II made further planning inadvisable then and the committee agreed that this undertaking should be postponed until the close of the war. The work of the committee began again early in 1946. Members of this committee were M. L. Wilson, Gertrude L. Warren, G. L. Noble, R. A. Turner, Hallie L. Hughes, the late C. B. Smith and the undersigned.

The advisory committee agreed with the author that all records for this history must be supported by reliable evidence. Readers will find all chapters well documented. It is regrettable that many gaps had to be left in the story of the development of the clubs in the early stages because conclusive evidence could not be uncovered. If later research reveals additional authentic information, it will be included in future editions.

The plan for the authorship and preparation of the history was arranged by the committee through an agreement between M. L. Wilson, then Director of the Cooperative Extension Service and G. L. Noble, then Director of the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work, now known as the National 4-H Service Committee.

The inspiring story of the beginnings and accomplishments of the 4-H Clubs as a great American contribution to education and progress should instill real pride and satisfaction in every reader.

PAUL C. TAFF
Chairman, 4-H History Committee

Introduction

SETTING DOWN the story of the 4-H Clubs of the United States is a challenging task. The 4-H emblem signifies an important social and educational development that is a part of the nation's cultural growth over the past fifty years.

The prime danger in attempting to write the 4-H story is oversimplification. The tendency to trace the story back to a few outstanding individuals must be resisted. So must the tendency to find the roots of the movement in a few simple causes.

This became apparent to the writer after a brief study of the rural scene around 1900 to 1910, the period when the 4-H idea germinated and threw out its first green sprouts. A little reading made clear that many forces were simultaneously at work to focus national attention on farm boys and girls. A few of these forces were:

A feeling on the part of educators that rural schools were inadequate and not related to farm living . . .

A growing sentiment for practical education in agriculture, manual arts, and homemaking . . .

The urge of colleges of agriculture to pass on new techniques to farm communities . . .

A growing desire on the part of farm families for the better things of life, as a result of the gradual conquest of frontier isolation . . .

A drive to lift rural cultural standards, reaching its national expression in President Theodore Roosevelt's Country Life Commission Report . . .

A concern for the needs of adolescents, which was to result

not only in 4-H but in such organizations as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts and Camp Fire Girls . . .

A worry (whether founded in fact or fancy) over the drift of farm youths to the cities . . .

The author has attempted to recognize these forces as they came into play, and to give them their proper emphasis. If his interpretation is found wanting, one reason may be that the story is still too recent to discover the proper perspective. In that case, this is humbly offered as a start for the future historian.

A characteristic of almost any history is that the formative years are more exciting than the later years. The early years produce the experimenters, the valiant pioneers groping in a wilderness, the missionaries of a new concept. The thrilling tale of Marconi's first attempt to bridge the Atlantic with wireless is more fascinating than an analysis of the world-wide system of radio communication now enclosing the earth. Likewise, the story of the first tomato canning bee makes a better story than a survey of the vital contributions made by a thousand home demonstration agents at a later date.

Throughout the book, the author has attempted to meet this challenge by frequently focusing the scene down to a boy, a girl, an agent, a single club or a single region. There are many stories and anecdotes, some of which may at first glance seem unimportant. Their purpose is to help the lay reader understand the significance of 4-H by seeing people in action in a specific setting.

The story of 4-H is a big one because it is this country's answer to the need of rural boys and girls for encouragement in the performance of those worth-while everyday tasks that make for better living and richer personalities. It is founded on the practical arts. It is rooted in the boy's and girl's environment. It wins its recruits by voluntary means. This has proved to be a powerful educational concept.

The most important point this history has to make is that the 4-H idea didn't happen all at once. It took shape slowly, step by hard-won step.

In one respect, the blossoming of 4-H seems to be another example of the phenomenon of "simultaneous discovery." Who

created the steamboat? Fulton? Hardly. Perhaps a dozen men put steam engines into hulls before Fulton. Who built the first dynamo? Faraday? This, too, is challenged.

In science and technical progress, it frequently happens that a new idea is discovered simultaneously in widely separated regions. The simplest explanation is that in scientific progress, when the "state of the art" reaches a certain point, the next logical application occurs to more than one person. There couldn't have been a steamboat or a dynamo until the "state of the art" had reached a certain level. Once reached, steamboats and dynamos were inevitable. This concept tends to eliminate heroes.

So it was with 4-H. Shortly after 1900, the "state of the art" — in this case the climate created by the colleges, farmers' institutes, school teachers and educational philosophers — was such that a youth phase of an Extension program was certain to come along. In this energy-giving climate, public-spirited people in many places began home project programs for rural youth. Thus many communities believe they are the authentic birthplace of the 4-H Clubs. Working out their ideas independently, they were unaware that their program was being "simultaneously discovered" elsewhere.

Research on the 4-H history began in April, 1948, and the book reached its present form in the summer of 1950. The author wishes to acknowledge the wholehearted cooperation and encouragement of the History Committee during all this period, and the willing help of Extension directors and agents, librarians, 4-H pioneers and the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work. These are so numerous that to list them would be to run the danger of omitting an important contributor to the facts and interpretations in the book. Liberal financial arrangements made it possible for the writer to spend time in eleven key states and to spend two months in Washington on the mass of historical data contained in the offices of the Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture, and Library of Congress.

Even so, the writer realizes the manifest gaps in the story, and in particular his inability to give every state and region its due. His only hope is that this book will stimulate enough

state and regional research to make possible at some future date a 4-H history in which no vital element will be lacking. When *that* history is written, it will be one of the most gripping chapters in the larger story of the nation's cultural growth.

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Manchester, Michigan

Table of Contents

Foreword v

Introduction vii

1. The Roots Go Deep 3
2. New Life in Rural Schools 11
3. Years of the Valiant Pioneers 23
4. The Cloverleaf Pin Appears 37
5. The Government Sponsors a Corn Club 48
6. Corn Clubs Take Hold in the South 56
7. Washington Meets the Corn Champions 68
8. Canning Clubs Get Under Way 77
9. The Cloverleaf Goes National 92
10. Club Work Grows in the North and West 105
11. Congress Passes the Smith-Lever Act 118
12. Club Work With Negroes Expands 133
13. Club Work Finds Itself 141

14. Signs of Maturity 156
15. The National Committee Is Formed 170
16. Early Days of the Club Congress 180
17. Club Work Proves Itself in a Depression 193
18. National Camp Established; 4-H Crosses the Seas . . 212
19. New Legislation for Extension 226
20. What 4-H Means to One County 240
21. Livestock in the South; Conservation Everywhere . . . 252
22. War, and the Bankhead-Flannagan Act 267
23. In Retrospect 282
24. Looking Ahead in 4-H 296
Staff Personnel 310
Bibliography 311
Index 317

1.

The Roots Go Deep

4-H CLUB WORK is too great a movement to be claimed by any one man.

Club work is one of the most unique educational programs of our time. It is voluntary. It dignifies the homely, practical arts of living, holding that scholarship can be applied to cooking, and creative intelligence to tilling the soil.

Based on everyday farm living, club work today engages the enthusiastic attention of two million farm boys and girls and two hundred thousand voluntary adult leaders. It is guided throughout the United States and its territories jointly by the Cooperative Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges.

The 4-H program, as it is known today, evolved from small beginnings. It was shaped by many influences. Like the tree that shades the farmhouse, it grew slowly and soundly, throwing out its branches, taking its character from the fertile soil in which it was so deeply rooted.

Some identify the beginning of club work with the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, which made Cooperative Extension Work nationwide. Yet the activities out of which club work grew antedated any federal legislation.

Some people date 4-H from the first federally sponsored corn growing contest in Mississippi in 1907, but this can hardly be called the beginning.

Club work began wherever a public-spirited man or woman did something to give rural boys and girls respect for themselves and their way of life.

Wherever leaders gave the stamp of public recognition to youthful achievements on farm and in home, there club work began. This kind of incident goes a long way back. . . .

At the Watertown, New York Fair, young Franklin B. Spaulding of East Otto, Cattaraugus county, stood beside his exhibit of Dutton Yellow corn. His pulse must have quickened with sudden, overwhelming triumph when the party of dignified judges, passing by the other exhibitors, walked up to him and handed him fifty dollars as first prize in the state corn contest.

For Spaulding, the reward was the climax of months of effort. He had plowed and dragged his land in April after manuring it well. On May 17, he had planted the seed in hills three feet apart, four kernels to the hill.

In September he had shocked his corn. Then had come a period of tense anxiety while impartial judges measured the yield and found that he had grown 152 bushels of ears per acre, or 76 bushels of shelled corn at 63 pounds per bushel. Spaulding must have wondered how many others had exceeded this yield.

According to the rules, he kept a careful record of expenses and income. There were three days of drawing manure with a team at $1.25 per day, and to this he added his own labor charge of 75 cents per day. Other expenses, such as seed, manure, land rental, and his own labor in cultivating and harvesting the crop, brought the total costs to $28.50.

Against this he listed as income $20 for the sale of five tons of stalks and $76 for the sale of his corn at eight shillings per bushel. This made a gross income of $96 and, after deducting expenses, a net profit of $67.50.

These details take on added interest when set against the date of the contest. Spaulding received his prize at Watertown the

first week in October, 1856, and the donor was Horace Greeley, famed newspaper editor. (104)

Horace Greeley's contest was not the only boys' crop contest being conducted in those days. In Iowa, a year later, sixteen-year-old Wilbert La Tourrette of Muscatine county won a premium by growing 95½ bushels of corn on a measured acre. Both land and yield were measured and sworn to by a surveyor. (52)

As early as 1828, the teacher of a boarding school in Butler county, Ohio, about twenty-five miles from Cincinnati, allotted parcels of land to his students and had them grow corn, cucumbers, radishes, tomatoes, shrubbery and flowers. These boys of club age were learning by doing under the stimulus of competition, just as do the club boys of today. (69)

The roots of club work go deep into the American past.

Instances of work with rural boys and girls may be found all through the nineteenth century. In the spring of 1882, Delaware College announced a state-wide corn contest for boys, each boy to plant a quarter acre according to instructions sent out from the college. Cash prizes, certificates, and subscriptions to the *American Agriculturist* were the reward. (5)

More instances could be cited. Yet, before 1900, contests for rural youth were scattered and seldom repeated for more than a year or two. There was little continuity of effort.

With the dawn of the new century, this pattern changed. Farm boys and girls suddenly became the object of national attention on the part of educators and leaders of thought. In many states, over a span of a few years, progressive county superintendents of education began to introduce out-of-school programs in agriculture and "home culture," while school fairs exhibiting corn, beets, flowers, ornamental stitches, aprons, bread, and other products of the farm home became common. These programs, all of them bearing some resemblance to present-day club work, were not limited to a single area, but were found in Texas, Georgia, Ohio, Iowa, Illinois, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, Kansas, Massachusetts, Indiana and elsewhere.

There were reasons for this fast-awakening interest in rural

boys and girls. The period from 1900 to 1910 was a period of rising farm prices, and therefore one of growing rural prosperity.

Farmers were not only making more money, they were emerging from frontier isolation. Mail was now coming to them by rural free delivery. The crank telephone, hanging on the hallway wall, was becoming more and more common. Electric interurbans, here and there, were bringing farmers closer to the city, picking up their milk and delivering their mail orders. The years following 1900 marked the beginning of the horseless carriage age and the great campaign to pull rural America out of the mud.

All of these factors aroused in farm people a growing discontent. They began to dream of some better fate than a lonely, unrewarding life of hard work. Comparing themselves to city folks, they too wanted better clothes, plumbing, home decorations, proper diets for their children, and a host of other things that improved communications brought into their orbit.

Nowhere was this dissatisfaction more keenly felt than in the one-room rural school. Farmers were beginning to realize that the small schools for which they paid taxes were not conditioning their children for life on the farm but leading them away from it.

Children attending rural schools in 1900 learned little about plants, farm animals, or domestic science. They learned the traditional three *R*'s — readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic — and little else. The examples in their arithmetic text dealt with banking rather than farm accounting. The tales of success in their readers were of city men. And these subjects were taught for the most part by town-trained ladies whose dress, manners and way of talking reflected their town upbringing.

Dr. Liberty Hyde Bailey, Cornell naturalist, stated the failure of the rural school to train for rural life in 1900. (165)

> How unrelated much of our teaching is to the daily life is well shown by inquiry recently made of the children of New Jersey by Prof. Earl Barnes. Inquiries were made of the country school children in two agricultural counties of the State as to what vocation they hoped to follow. As I recall the figures, of the children at seven years of age, 25 per cent desired to follow some occupation connected with country life. Of those at fourteen years, only 2 per cent desired such occupation.

Fig. 1.1 — Liberty Hyde Bailey's Nature Study clubs before 1900 had the underlying aim of helping rural young people to know and love their environment. Nature Study leaflets (inset), beginning in 1896, were immensely popular in New York State.

In other words, these children had come to school reasonably well disposed toward their own environment. After seven years in school, practically all identified their futures with the city.

Bailey explains this:

> This remarkable falling off Professor Barnes ascribes in part to the influence of the teachers in the country schools, usually town or city girls. The teacher measures everything in terms of the city. She talks of the city. She returns to the city at the end of the week. In the meantime, all the beauty and attractiveness of the country may be unsuggested. Unconsciously to both the teacher and pupil, the minds of the children are turned toward the city. There results a constant migration to the city, bringing about serious social and economic problems. But, from the educational point of view, the serious part of it is the fact that the school training may unfit the child to live in its normal and natural environment. It is often said that the agricultural college trains the youth away from the farm. The fact is, the mischief is done long before the youth enters college. (165)

Bailey himself helped to redirect the educational aims of the rural schools by writing and distributing nature study leaflets beginning in December, 1896.

Bailey wanted to counteract the idea that learning must be about remote things. He wanted to convince rural boys and girls that scholarship began in their back yards, in the grass underfoot, the tree that shaded the house, and the crops that grew in the fields. He used to say, "There is as much culture in the study of beet roots as in the study of Greek roots."

Rural boys and girls as a rule didn't believe that. If anything, they were ashamed of their farm environment. They protested in their hearts against the derisive title of "Rube" but felt the difference between themselves and their city cousins.

4-H boys and girls parading the streets of Chicago's Loop at the National Club Congress today brush elbows easily with city folk and sense no difference. They compare their futures in dairying, wheat growing, and homemaking with the city boy's future at a machine or behind a desk without a hint of inferiority. This wasn't true in 1900.

One farm boy in Springfield township, Ohio, who was later to become one of the leading farmers in his state largely through

the inspiration given him by club work, has told how he felt about farming in 1900. (113)

This boy, Charlie Schneider, went to Possum School, not far from Springfield. There were several factories near his father's farm. One of his friends worked in a cigar factory, wrapping cigars for fourteen dollars a week.

Charlie envied him his regular pay check, which totaled as much in a week as the farm hired man received in a month. When the whistle blew, his friend was through work for the day, whereas Charlie himself might have to work until dark, making hay. And after that, there were the chores.

When Charlie went to high school in Springfield, he dreamed of training himself for a career in town. He discovered very soon that city boys were "different." They wore their clothes differently, talked a different language, had their own codes of behavior and manners. Feeling himself an outcast, Charlie flunked a subject and returned to the farm, convinced that he was a failure.

Then, in 1902, the township superintendent of schools, A. B. Graham, called a meeting of boys and girls and showed Charlie and the others pieces of litmus paper and asked them to test the soil on their fathers' farms. This was perhaps young Schneider's first inkling that there was science in farming.

Then Schneider saw in the school library a book placed there by Graham, "Agriculture for Beginners," by Burket, Stevens and Hill. He hadn't known before that learned men ever wrote about the soil. This was a miracle worth meditating.

Charlie learned then what Bailey was trying to tell all the children of New York state, that culture and scholarship began at home. Years later, 4-H Club work was to drive home this point nationally. Few rural teachers in 1900 made these things clear.

To issue his nature study leaflets, Bailey called upon funds provided in an "Experiment Station Extension Bill," passed by the New York State Legislature in 1894 to extend the findings of the experiment station out to the rural districts. The first leaflets went to schools in December, 1896. (8)

To make sure that rural teachers used the leaflets, Cornell

called upon "Uncle John" Spencer, a grape grower who had a way with young people.

"Uncle John" organized Junior Naturalist Clubs, gave out membership buttons, issued club charters and required the members to write him a letter a week by way of dues. The leaflets were enlarged into a magazine called the *Junior Naturalist Monthly,* and this was eventually succeeded by the *Rural School Leaflet.*

The nature study work instituted by Bailey spread over the entire state and to other parts of the country. In a few years, the mailing list of the *Rural School Leaflet* climbed to 65,000. The work had no direct application to better farming or homemaking. After the first few years, club organization was not stressed, but was made optional with the teacher.

The leaflets were mainly a material for the school teacher, with which she could introduce to her rural students the wonders of their own environment. The importance of Bailey's work was that it encouraged educators to teach rural boys and girls to accept the challenge of the life around them. That, in essence, is what the 4-H Clubs do today.

The success of New York's nature study program had its effect. It was reported in the press and at educational meetings. Here and there, county superintendents of schools with vision and imagination began to devise ways of bringing new life into their own classrooms.

In the inspired, creative programs introduced by these scattered schoolmen may be found the materials out of which modern 4-H Club work was built.

2.

New Life in Rural Schools

SCATTERED throughout the nation are a half dozen communities that lay claim to being the birthplace of 4-H Club work. Still others believe themselves entitled to some "first" in the formative years of the movement. Here and there, communities have dedicated plaques saying that on this spot club work began.

Wherever one finds these claims and memorials one finds a brilliant teacher or citizen who gave his region new life and enthusiasm through a program of work with rural boys and girls. As these exceptional people undertook their programs, they had little idea that what they were doing would some day lead to a great educational movement.

Most of these men and women were trying to improve the one-room schools. Few farm boys went on to high school and only about one in five hundred went on to college. (166) Obviously, they found little in the rural school curriculum to excite them, nor did the parents who paid the taxes to support these schools feel any great enthusiasm for the one-room frame building.

Two men who did something about this problem at almost the same time were school superintendents in Springfield township, Clark county, Ohio, and Winnebago county, Illinois.

Albert B. Graham, a farm-raised boy with several years of

rural teaching experience, took over the superintendency of the rural schools in Springfield township in 1900. "Industrial education," meaning that kind of education that could be applied directly to the practical arts of living, interested him. He had seen a fellow teacher introduce manual training into his one-room school and had noted how work with hands — making things — had improved morale. He wondered if agriculture couldn't also be made a part of the schools, with similar results.

In 1901 he sounded out teachers and students on the idea of forming a boys' and girls' experiment club. The response was favorable enough so that he decided to call a meeting of interested youngsters.

Graham's office was in the county building at Springfield. Since he was uncertain of the attitude of his school board, he decided to have the meeting in the county building on a Saturday afternoon, when students' parents would be in town shopping.

He asked the county commissioner for a room and was told he could have space in the basement. He cleared out broken furniture, janitor's mops and buckets, and early in the winter of 1902, his first group of boys and girls met, wondering what their superintendent had in mind. Graham reports this first meeting as taking place on January 15, 1902. (110)

Graham told the boys and girls that they would meet once a month there in the basement of the county building. He showed them some litmus paper bought from the drugstore, and suggested that they test the soil from various parts of their fathers' farms. Later, he said, perhaps they might select the best corn from their fathers' crops and plant experimental plots. At later meetings he introduced rope splicing and knot tying and brought in a microscope with which he showed them the globules in milk and the circulation of blood in a frog's foot.

The program that first year was experimental, and with the start of 1903 he decided to ask for outside help in working up a more permanent schedule of events.

He appealed for help to Liberty Hyde Bailey at Cornell, who replied on January 21, 1903, that Cornell had done nothing along the line of boys' experiment clubs, though it had thousands

of children engaged in "true nature study." Bailey recommended that Graham get in touch with O. J. Kern, superintendent of schools in Winnebago county, Illinois. (109)

Graham had met Kern at a teachers' convention in Chicago two years before and knew that Kern was doing similar work, but decided to look closer to home. He got in touch with the

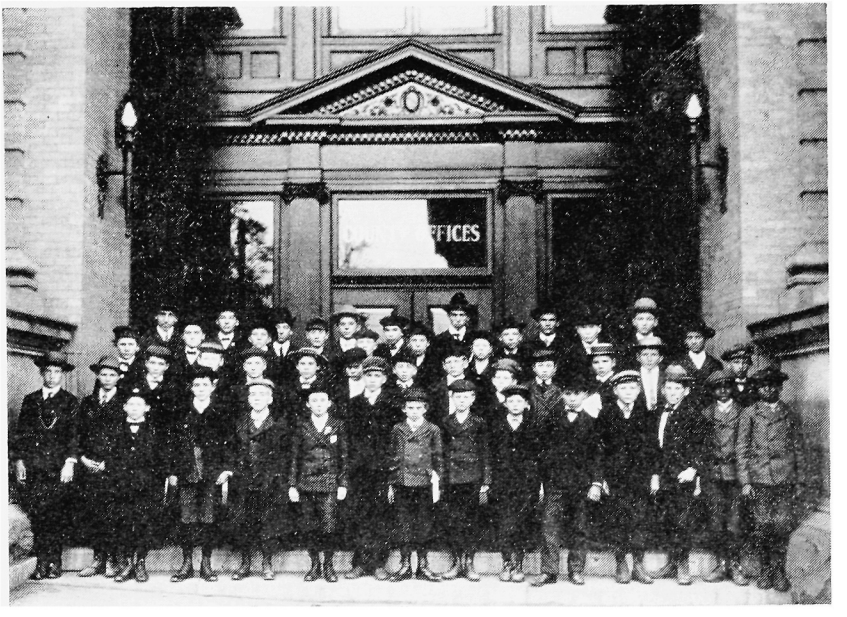


Fig. 2.1 — Graham's agricultural club of 1904 in front of the county building, Springfield, Ohio.

Agricultural Experiment Station at Wooster, Ohio, and Thomas F. Hunt, dean of agriculture at Ohio State University. (109)

Here Graham got help because college experiment stations were looking for ways of getting their new-found knowledge out to the farms. The college had formed an Agricultural Student Union consisting of former students who were putting into effect the new techniques developed at the experiment station. The Union was a link between station and farm, its object to conduct demonstrations, with the station bearing part of the expense.

With the aid of L. H. Goddard, secretary of the Union, Gra-

ham worked out a program for 1903. Goddard offered to supply sacks of four kinds of seed corn so that boys could compare yields of these varieties with the kind grown by their fathers. He also offered to supervise soil testing for acidity. Report forms for both these projects were devised.

Graham added a vegetable garden project, using seeds provided free by the federal government. The object of this project was to grow vegetables not only for home use but for sale. A fourth project was a flower garden activity developed principally for the girls.

That spring was a busy one for the superintendent. By March 1, 1903, he had eighty-one boys and girls enrolled in his township-wide club. (110) Early in May he was on the road, driving around to each rural school, distributing seed corn, mimeographed garden diagrams, and report forms.

On June 4, he loaded one hundred of his boys and girls on the interurban and took them to Columbus where they spent a day as guests of Dean Thomas F. Hunt, visiting barns and laboratories and eating a picnic dinner on the university grounds.

So amazed was the university at the phenomenon of one hundred enthusiastic young agriculturists working on home projects that Dean Hunt asked Graham for details. Graham described how he had organized his club, adding:

> The interest throughout the township is such that this work can be heard of among the parents as well as among the children. To have boys and girls know that agricultural pursuits are looked upon with favor elevates such pursuits to their proper plane. The foolish notions, "If my son can't be anything else he can be a farmer," or "My son doesn't need much more than an elementary education if he is to become a farmer," are passing away.
>
> The Boys' Experiment Club is now testing the soils for acid and alkali. This work is under the direction of the soils department of the Ohio Student Union. Many men not having children in school are becoming interested in this work. A map of this township where acid and alkali soils are found will soon be made. (110)

It was plain to see that here was a rural area coming to life under the driving inspiration of a teacher. The university published a bulletin on Graham's club entitled "Rural School Agriculture" and distributed it in 1903 to high schools, agricultural

papers, county newspapers, and members of the legislature. Graham's club received publicity not only in Ohio, but in other states. Before the end of the year, thirteen similar clubs were formed in nine Ohio counties, all of them township-wide clubs directed by the school superintendent. They elected officers and held periodic meetings under the Springfield plan. Local exhibits were held the following January.

Although these Ohio clubs were called "school agricultural clubs," they elected student officers and met more or less regularly outside of school. They conducted mainly the four projects already mentioned: corn growing, soil testing, vegetable garden growing, and flower garden growing. Other activities were collections of wild flowers, weed seeds, and insects. At the annual exhibits, almost any kind of agricultural or domestic science demonstration might be given. Club members conducted their projects at home and filled out regular reports on their work. Prizes were not stressed. There is no record that badges or membership cards were issued. Enrollment records, however, were kept.

A typical letter from a club member, written on November 13, 1903, reads:

> Dear Superintendent: I will now answer your letter I received Tuesday. Elza and I together planted tomatoes, radishes, lettuce, beans and watermelons.
>
> We planted tomatoes in the hotbed and set a row across the garden. The radishes were good. We sold sixty-eight cents worth on the market. The lettuce was better than any we ever had. The beans were not any better than the others.
>
> The watermelons were not any better than papa's but were just fine. We attended to these ourselves except getting the radishes ready for market.
>
> I enjoyed raising these vegetables. I helped gather fall flowers and weeds to press. I have read Bass's "Plant Life," Bass's "Animal Life," "Wings and Fins," "Feathers and Furs," "Birds and Bees," "Playtime and Seedtime," "On the Farm," and "Uncle Robert's Visit."
>
> I took the trip to Columbus and enjoyed it very much. Yours truly, Jessie Trout. (109)

So outstanding was Graham's work that in July, 1905, he was brought to the College of Agriculture as the first superintendent of Extension. Under his direction, school clubs reached a high of

sixty with an enrollment of 3,000 in 1906, after which they were gradually replaced by the introduction of agriculture into the rural school curriculum.

The Ohio county-wide clubs began as the effort of one man to vitalize his one-room schools. They were supported by the experiment station as a means of introducing new varieties of seed corn and encouraging the use of lime on acid soils. They were supported by the College of Agriculture because they tied in with the educational aims of the institution.

Strong college support was also a factor in the growth of the Illinois clubs. By this time, colleges had a growing fund of knowledge to pass on to farmers. It hadn't been such a long time that there had been anything important to teach. Only twenty years before, Liberty Hyde Bailey had reported that the curriculum at Michigan Agricultural College consisted of Greek and Roman agriculture and ditch digging.

In twenty short years a transformation had occurred. Through Farmers' Institutes, Grange meetings, short courses and other Extension devices, colleges were carrying on their missionary work. They were neglecting no avenue by which knowledge could be passed on, and one obvious avenue was Youth.

The farm boy and girl were becoming the object of attention of land-grant colleges. This attention centered itself on the one-room school because at the time this was the most effective institution through which to reach country boys and girls.

On February 22, 1902, about a month after Graham reports having held his first meeting for boys in Springfield, Ohio, O. J. Kern, county superintendent of schools in Winnebago county, assembled thirty-seven boys in his office in Rockford.

These boys, no doubt glad to get out of class, must have wondered what was in the wind as they listened to brief talks from Prof. C. A. Shamel of the Illinois College of Agriculture, and Superintendent Fred Rankin of the College Extension Work. (60)

Shamel and Rankin were carrying the banner of better seed corn. Under Prof. Perry G. Holden, Cyril G. Hopkins and Shamel, Illinois had made great strides in the scientific breeding of corn. The state Farmers' Institute was helping spread the gospel. The

thirty-seven volunteer students in Kern's office were to become partners in the crusade.

Kern himself was more interested in the development of his students than he was in corn. He wanted a more practical education for the farmer boy.

"Why not a course of training in the country school for the country boy which shall teach him more about the country life around him? Along with his study of the kangaroo, the bamboo and the cockatoo, why not study the animals on the farm and a proper feeding standard for them? . . . Instead of all the boy's arithmetic being devoted to problems on banking, stocks, exchange, brokerage, allegation and partnership, why not some practical problems with reference to farm economics?" (60)

Kern was also running into the difficulty of interesting the farmer in his school. The rural school had done little more than teach his children the three *R*'s, and the farmer was inclined to keep it going on that basis, without spending any more on it.

"The farmer must be met on his own grounds," was Kern's answer. "It is not enough to tell him of the shortcomings of the country schools, one must be able to tell him what is better. . . . And the reasons must appeal from the farmer's point of view."

So Kern welcomed the support of the college of agriculture and the Farmers' Institutes in forming a boys' experiment club as a means of helping the boy and interesting the parent at the same time. That first year, each boy corn grower received 500 grains of selected seed corn from the local Farmers' Institute and raised what he called "Institute corn." The college experiment station also sent each boy a quantity of sugar beet seed in a campaign to discover whether sugar beets could be profitably raised in northern Illinois. Circulars, bulletins, and forms were mailed to the boys to guide them, and rural teachers supervised the work at firsthand. (60)

In June, club members, their parents and other interested folks took an excursion to Urbana, two hundred and eighty strong, to study scientific agriculture.

The first year's work was highly successful. Under the direction of interested teachers and parents, boys tested seeds for vitality

and grew corn and sugar beets. Another activity was surveying oats for smut. Taking barrel hoops into the oat field, boys enclosed as many stalks as the hoop would contain, counted the stalks, recorded how many had smut and determined the percentage.

Fig. 2.2 — Beginning in 1899, Will Otwell organized a tremendous children's crusade for better corn in Illinois. This is his 1908 parade of corn growers.

Various fields recorded from three per cent to twenty-three per cent, and Kern noted with satisfaction in his annual report that this kind of arithmetic meant something to boys.

When one boy's careful report showed that his 45-square-rod field of sugar beets cost $19.75 for cultivation, harvesting, and rent of ground, or ten cents per bushel, Kern felt that, in a small way, the gap between textbook and practical application had been closed.

In February, 1903, the annual meeting of the county Farmers' Institute devoted a half-day session to the boys, during which

members of the experiment club gave their reports, fathers suggested how they might help and teachers pledged their support.

The work with boys resulted in a clamor for a similar organization for girls, with the result that a Girls' Home Culture Club was organized in September, 1903, with a membership of 216. These girls carried on projects in needlework and breadmaking and exhibited achievements at the next Farmers' Institute.

Kern lost few opportunities to promote his program. With an appropriation from the county board of supervisors, he arranged a lecture course that included such speakers as Prof. Perry G. Holden of Iowa State College, Dean Henry of Wisconsin College of Agriculture, and Dean Davenport of Illinois. In succeeding years, he took his parties on excursions to Iowa State College and Wisconsin. He carried on a campaign to beautify school grounds and instituted a system of school gardens.

His annual reports, filled with pictures and detailing the successful linking of the farm and home with the rural school, received attention in many states, and his book, "Among Country Schools," published in 1906, won widespread circulation over the nation, inspiring other superintendents to similar programs.

Winnebago was not the only county in Illinois to undertake a system of boys' and girls' clubs. The college of agriculture promoted similar ventures elsewhere at the same time it was encouraging Kern. The 1904 Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture reported that perhaps a dozen Illinois counties had started boys' clubs and that the state membership was not less than 2,000.

About the time Graham, Kern, and other country school teachers were beginning "industrial education" with boys and girls, there occurred a sensational event that focused the attention of the nation upon rural boys and the chief cereal crop — corn.

At the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, held in St. Louis in 1904, visitors came upon the sight of two huge pyramids of corn, one of yellow corn, the other of white, arranged neatly in ten-ear samples. Surmounting the pyramids were signs reading:

"Grown by the farmer boys of Illinois!" And on a huge banner were the words: "8,000 Farm Boys in Contest." (167)

Hundreds of the samples were adorned with the pictures of the boys who grew them.

This display was the main feature of the Illinois state exhibit. It attracted so much attention that the author of the display received offers from many foreign countries to stage similar contests there. All over the country, educators and leaders studied the phenomenon and pondered it.

The man responsible for the great display was Will B. Otwell, nurseryman and president of the Farmers' Institute in Macoupin county, Illinois.

In February, 1898, Otwell had been elected secretary of the newly formed Farmers' Institute in Macoupin county. For their first Institute day, later that month, the officers engaged speakers of state-wide reputation to talk on farm subjects, but when the doors of the courthouse opened, the only ones to enter the hall were the officers and the chaplain.

In preparation for the December, 1898, meeting, the officers decided to send out personal invitations to farmers, but the result wasn't much better. Otwell, now president of the Institute, decided that something drastic must be done to improve attendance. He made up his mind to ignore the parents and concentrate on the boys.

First he wrote to leading corn growers in Iowa, Indiana, and Illinois and procured twelve samples of first-class seed corn. He then called twelve farmers into the parlors of a local bank and asked them to select the variety best adapted to the soil of Macoupin county. This done, he bought the seed corn.

Next, he solicited forty dollars in cash and divided it into one-dollar premiums. A plow company gave a two-horse plow for a sweepstakes premium. Otwell then published a notice in the county papers that every boy under eighteen who would send in his name and address would receive a package of seed corn — all that could be mailed for one cent postage.

Five hundred boys sent for the corn, and during the summer these youthful contestants advertised the forthcoming Farmers' Institute as no other medium could have done. Otwell tells his own story of the result of his approach to farm youth:

I decided not to advertise the Institute in the papers any more than just to give the dates. The farmers were politely told they could stay away if they preferred. When I reached the courthouse on the morning of the Institute, there were scores of boys waiting for the doors to open. They had their prize corn with them, some of it in boxes, some of it in coffee sacks, tied up with binder twine, shoe strings, bed cord. . . . When I called the meeting to order at the appointed time, I was confronted by five hundred farmers. And Professor Stevenson of Champaign, who scored the corn, said he had never seen a nicer display of yellow corn. I knew I had solved the problem. . . . (167)

In 1901, more than 1,500 boys entered the contest, competing for prizes that included a bicycle, disc plow, riding cultivators, fanning mill, and even a windmill! (44) Attendance in 1901 set a record and that of 1902 surpassed it, with the result that Otwell and his county Institute became known all over the state.

Over Otwell's protest, Governor Richard Yates appointed him superintendent of the Illinois Agricultural Exhibit at the St. Louis Fair. The prospect appalled the farm-bred man from Carlinville. He knew that famed artists would create beautiful displays for other states. What could he do to match them?

Then he struck upon the idea of holding a boys' corn contest, this time state-wide. He sent out 50,000 packages of seed. In the fall of 1903, Otwell and his associates in Carlinville were busy opening ten-ear entries of corn, drying them out, and repacking them for shipment to the Agricultural Palace at St. Louis. They sent down 1,250 samples along with some 600 photographs of contestants. These samples, arranged in two great displays, literally stole the show from the other states.

Newspapermen at the Fair, learning that each morning Otwell was getting approximately a bushel basket full of mail from his youthful contestants, beseiged his exhibit for stories. Otwell told them to dig into the baskets and get them. About two thousand newspapers and many magazines carried special articles.

The climax of Otwell's work with boys came not at St. Louis but in his home town. Shortly after the World's Fair, he conceived the idea of having a big roundup of boys and girls in Carlinville. Before this, he had held county roundups, but this one would include farm youngsters from anywhere in the United States. He

broadcast his invitation, instructing his followers that they were to parade on horseback, the boys to wear a blue sash of crepe paper hanging from the shoulder, the girls to wear a sash of gold.

He invited the Vice-President of the United States, Adlai Stevenson, to review the parade, and Governor Richard Yates to head it. (112)

The results were astonishing; families migrated to Carlinville from forty counties in eight states, their saddle horses hitched to their buggies. When the parade was formed, Otwell recalls that it measured four miles in length, four horsemen abreast.

Mounted on a black charger, Yates led the Boys' Horseback Brigade past the reviewing stand. Vice-President Stevenson, with tears in his eyes, said it was the most inspiring sight he had ever seen.

Otwell's contests were not club work. He formed no local groups and required no regular meetings. He did, however, help create wide interest in better seed corn. Most important of all, from the standpoint of the future 4-H movement, he proved how wholeheartedly the hitherto neglected farm boy would respond to public recognition and encouragement.

3.

Years of the Valiant Pioneers

THE YEARS from 1902 to 1907 were the years of the valiant pioneers. They were the years when gifted men and women encouraged by colleges, Farmers' Institutes, and agricultural journals, were finding what could be done to interest and help farm boys and girls.

These enterprises in rural education were unrelated, except that the air was full of ideas, seemingly windborne, for tying the school to the home and farm, dignifying rural life, and keeping boys and girls on the farm.

It was as though the conscience of the nation had suddenly been awakened to the thought that rural children had been neglected, that the drift to the city had gone too far, and that it was time something was done about it.

These adventures in rural youth work followed no single design. Their programs were as different as the people creating them. They didn't occur mainly in one region, but all over the nation, without discernible pattern.

In general, however, two main types of promotion occurred.

In one, state-wide or region-wide programs of work were started, directed from above. These usually took the form of contests. Participation was on a state-wide or regional basis and little thought was given to local organization.

In the other type, a local leader, usually a county school superintendent, followed the Graham-Kern pattern.

One came down from the top. The other began in a rural locality and spread from there.

An example of the top-down promotion is found in the Farm Boys' and Girls' Progressive League formed in Texas in 1903. This was a crusade, by the *Farm and Ranch* magazine, published in Dallas, "to relieve the narrowness of farm life for our young people and to dignify and ennoble the agriculture of the future." (135)

In May, 1903, *Farm and Ranch* offered free seed and one thousand dollars in cash prizes for crops grown and butter made by young people between the ages of fourteen and twenty.

The Texas Farmers' Institute, under the direction of its president, J. H. Connell, suggested a state-wide organization, to be formed during the meeting of the Farmers' Congress at College Station, July 8, 1903. The plan was to encourage rural school teachers to supervise crop growing and domestic science work.

The League was formed in July and thrived for a number of years, its membership reaching 1,200 the second year. The A. and M. College provided free bulletins and *Farm and Ranch* ran a regular column devoted to the affairs of the League.

In Iowa, "Uncle Henry" Wallace, publisher of *Wallace's Farmer,* distributed superior seed corn to farm boys as early as 1904, instructing them to bring exhibits to the State Farm Institute in Des Moines, where prizes would be awarded.

Other top-down programs for rural boys and girls resulted from the desire of colleges of agriculture to distribute improved seed. In Wisconsin, about 1905, (13) R. A. Moore of the agronomy department of the college, took a supply of seed corn to Richland county and gave to each boy and girl willing to cooperate, enough seed to plant a quarter of an acre. The county fair association put

up around $250 in prizes, and that fall the fair had more corn exhibited than in any previous year.

The next year, five more counties conducted corn contests, and within four years' time, forty county school superintendents in Wisconsin were cooperating with the college. By this time the purebred seed campaign included barley and oats. There was little thought of club organization. Rural teachers distributed the seed and instructions, local fairs donated prizes, and judging was held at fair time.

"In this way," wrote R. A. Moore years later, "the Golden Glow, the Silver King, the Wisconsin No. 8 and the Murdock (seed corn varieties) were widely disseminated through the counties of Wisconsin and have retained their foothold since."

Another state-wide program for rural youth began in Nebraska in 1905. The fall before, Jasper L. McBrien, newly elected state superintendent of public instruction, appointed as his deputy a young school superintendent from York county. This man, E. C. Bishop, had introduced corn growing, sewing and baking as home projects in one of his schools, and had attracted considerable attention in the newspapers. McBrien wanted him to start similar work on a state-wide basis.

Early in the spring of 1905, Bishop sent out a letter to county superintendents offering 500 kernels of Reid's Yellow Dent seed corn to the first 500 boys who wrote in. (102)

The response surprised everyone. The 500 shipments of corn were gone in no time and many other entrants were admitted. The girls clamored for a part in the program and were admitted as "corn cookers" with success.

In some counties there were enough entries to permit a county contest to precede the state competition. In these counties, a second contest was added, in which boys were permitted to enter ten ears selected from the fields of their parents — this to teach them the value of good seed corn selection. Bulletins on seed selection were mailed them to guide them in the work. Nebraska boys and girls, supervised by their teachers, took to crop raising and cooking with a will.

That fall, some 700 boys and girls descended on Lincoln, traveling on excursion rates, for a three-day session of instruction, judging, speechmaking and banquets.

On the second day, the delegates assembled and formed two state youth organizations: The Nebraska Boys' Agricultural Association, and The Nebraska Girls' Domestic Science Association. That evening, these two new organizations crowded the Lincoln Hotel for a banquet consisting of corn products. (102)

The stated purpose of these two associations showed the same motives as had actuated all the other youth movements that began at this time, namely:

> To bring home and school into closer relation; to prepare young people for the fullest enjoyment of their environment; to dignify the farm life of the Twentieth Century; to educate the youth of the country, town and city to a knowledge of their dependence upon nature's resources, and to the value of the fullest development of hand, head and heart . . .

The phrase, "head, heart, and hand," later to become a part of the 4-H pledge, was already in 1905 a familiar phrase with public speakers. President W. M. Beardshear of Iowa State College, in his presidential address to the National Education Association in 1902, talked on the subject of the three *H*'s in education. In his talk, he referred to Buisson, who, in Chicago in 1893, had recommended building student character "not by means of the three *R*'s but rather by means of the three *H*'s — Head, Heart, and Hand — and make him fit for self-government, self-control, self-help; a living, thinking being." (99) Booker T. Washington, famed president of Tuskegee Institute, used the phrase often.

In a poem entitled "The Children's Song," written by Rudyard Kipling about that time, there appeared this stanza:

> Land of our Birth, our faith, our pride,
> For whose dear sake our fathers died;
> Oh Motherland, we pledge to thee,
> Head, heart, and hand through the years to be!

With those three expressive words, educators were liberalizing the conventional concepts of education to include practical arts.

Nebraska's two associations continued to grow and to broaden the scope to include many crop and domestic science projects.

Clipped from NEA Proceedings for 1902

ADDRESSES

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

THE THREE H'S IN EDUCATION

W. M. BEARDSHEAR, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, AMES, IOWA

The progress of education is akin to the evolution of thought in the history of the art of the Madonnas. The artist first placed the Madonna and the child in the consciousness of the Infinite, as suggested by a halo arising ground of mist and cloud, thereby sharing largely the mind in art, the enskylimitlessness of early myth, legend, and [illegible] generous beauty and expanse of Madonna as enthroned. The [illegible] picturing in the homes of earth the most costly enthronement preparing thru the master-love of the truth—all period the Madonna meanings have enwrought, under the magnanimous influhood of education, the primer of knowledge with which our youth is fed. By these we are coming to embody Buisson's definition of education in the International Congress of Education, at Chicago, in '93, and harmoniously build up the character of the child, "not by means of the three R's, but rather by means of the three H's—Head, Heart, and Hand—and make him fit for self-government, self-control, self-help: a living, thinking being."

Fig. 3.1 — The theme of "head, heart and hand" in education was the subject of an address by Doctor Beardshear in 1902. The phrase was not new, even then.

Just a year after Nebraska began, the Farmers' Institute of Kansas, under the secretary, J. H. Miller, inaugurated a state-wide corn contest for boys of twelve to eighteen years.

Contestants were to be organized into county-wide clubs sponsored locally by the county school superintendent and the

Farmers' Institute Committee or the Fair Committee. (45) Some forty seven counties had corn clubs in 1906 with a membership of nearly 5,000. (46)

In the fall of 1906, the program was broadened to include wheat, potatoes, other crops, and gardening for boys, and garden, baking, sewing, and canning for girls. Membership cards were issued upon payment of dues of ten cents.

While these state-wide programs were being pushed in Texas, Kansas, Nebraska, and Wisconsin, certain school superintendents were attracting national attention to their work with rural boys and girls. Among these individuals were Cap E. Miller, Jessie Field, and O. H. Benson of Iowa; G. C. Adams of Georgia, J. C. Hetler of North Dakota, J. F. Haines of Indiana, and Louis R. Alderman of Oregon.

On February 20, 1904, J. F. Haines, school superintendent of Hamilton county, Indiana, sent out a circular letter to his teachers asking them to announce to their classes that in April there would be a meeting for boys who would agree to raise a patch of corn from seed furnished them.

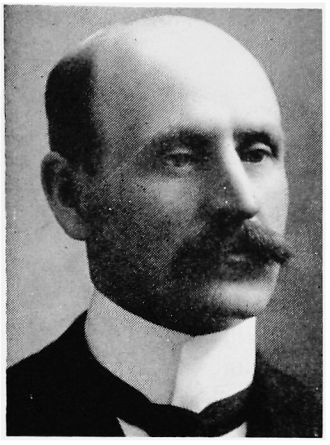
When the day arrived, ninety-three boys were present and received 1,200 grains of corn each. Township trustees and merchants provided cash and merchandise for prizes, and a show was held in December. (117)

From this familiar beginning, the rural counties in Indiana introduced agriculture, domestic science and manual training into their smaller schools, not as classroom subjects but home projects. Exhibits and prizes were incentives that made the work thrive. G. I. Christie, later superintendent of Extension for Indiana, observed the following results:

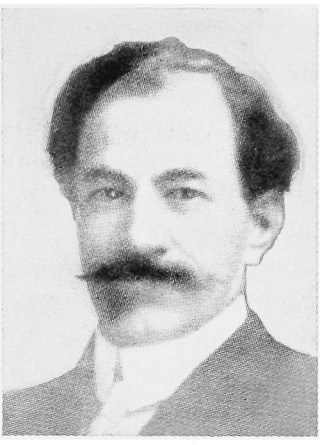
> These contests have not only interested the boys and girls and the teachers in industrial subjects, but they have secured the support of the patrons for the school work in general. The result of all this work is better schools, better pay for the teachers, more interested boys and girls, better farming, better homes, and a better country life.

In the same year that Haines was leading the way in Indiana, Cap E. Miller, a county superintendent of schools, began taking liberties with familiar ideas of education in Keokuk county, Iowa.

For several years after his election to the county superin-

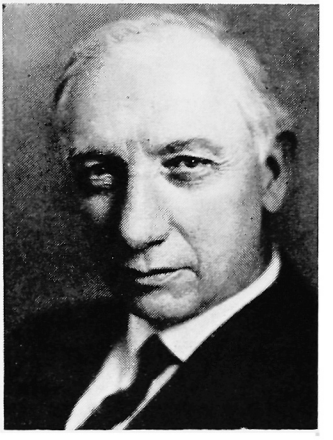


E. C. BISHOP
York county, Nebraska



J. C. HETLER
Hillsboro, North Dakota

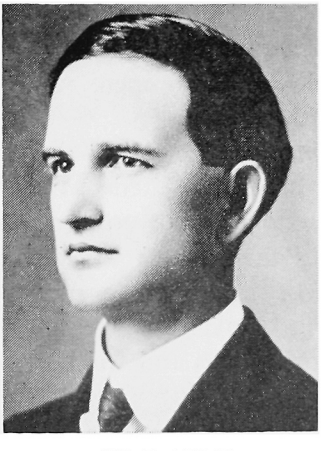
O. J. KERN
Rockford, Illinois



A. B. GRAHAM
Springfield, Ohio

Fig. 3.2 — School men who planted the seeds of the 4-H program long before there was such a thing.

L. R. ALDERMAN
Dayton, Oregon



CAP E. MILLER
Sigourney, Iowa

OSCAR H. BENSON
Clarion, Iowa

tendency in 1901, Miller experimented with various activities including spelling and essay contests. A born organizer, Miller arranged school contests, the school champions to compete in township contests, the township winners to meet in a grand championship at the county seat of Sigourney. He even promoted tourneys with neighboring counties. These events aroused such interest that Miller was encouraged to go ahead with bigger plans.

Miller had talked to A. B. Graham and learned what Graham was doing in Springfield township, Ohio. Professor Perry G. Holden of the agronomy department at Iowa State College, who was then crusading for better seed corn, gave encouragement.

In the spring of 1904, at the time of the Sigourney contests and school fair, Cap Miller announced to his students and teachers that during the coming months they would organize a boys' agricultural club and a girls' home culture club. Present at this meeting were Professor Holden and "Uncle Henry" Wallace, publisher of *Wallace's Farmer*. Noting the enthusiasm, Wallace wrote:

> It was the most delightful and inspiring meeting it was ever our privilege to attend. The roads were practically impassable. The condition may be imagined when we say that the bus driver wheeled trunks down to the station at Sigourney on wheelbarrows, and yet we found the large high school auditorium filled with boys and girls from 8 to 15 years of age, some of whom had come on the train, but most of whom had walked miles to attend the meeting. (51)

Superintendent Miller invited each boy and girl to grow some plant — any plant — and write a report on it entitled, "An Interesting Plant." The best of these reports were to be given at a township meeting and the survivors were to come to the big "county educational feast" in December.

The girls, he said, would compete with exhibits of sewing, canned fruit, bread and butter.

Miller's program was so broad that one might well doubt whether it would succeed. He invited youngsters to collect samples of rock, soils, woods and minerals, to draw maps of their districts locating farms, roads, creeks and woodlands; to take livestock censuses, to make records of farm products sold over a given period. It was almost a blanket ticket to the students and teachers to observe their surroundings and write up their findings.

The state never saw anything quite like the Sigourney school

fair that fall. Professor Holden, who was there to hold corn judging classes, estimated that there were almost 4,000 exhibits of all kinds. There were over one hundred exhibits of wood specimens, one collection containing 47 different kinds of wood. The program was studded with youthful orations on "Corn," "Sweet Pea," "Cabbage," "Aster," "Peanut," "Watermelon."

The idea of youngsters declaiming before a crowd-packed hall on such subjects greatly intrigued one Des Moines editor, Joe S. Trigg, who wrote:

> When a girl becomes eloquent over cabbages, peanuts, corn, tomatoes, pumpkins, or sweet peas, something valuable has been added to that girl's experience.

Uncle Henry Wallace's comment was:

> This is teaching agriculture in the public school on right lines. If the superintendents in the state wake up and follow the example . . . agriculture will be taught in the most effective way possible in every county in the state. Agriculture in the public schools will come in not as something from the outside, as information poured into the boys, or pounded into them, but as something from within, the boys and girls naturally taking hold and obtaining the first rudiments of agriculture in the only way in which they can be taught effectively, and that is by the boys and girls themselves. (51)

In June, Miller obtained excursion rates to take his students and their families to Iowa State College, at Ames. He told the railroad that they might expect 400, but before train time 1,500 had bought tickets.

Here was another case of a county being set afire through the inspired program of a teacher, giving new outlets to the energies of rural boys and girls.

The state of Iowa gave official recognition to Cap Miller in the Iowa School Reports of 1904–05. This report reveals that another Iowa county did similar work soon after Miller:

> Closely allied with the movement for teaching agriculture in rural schools is the organization for boys' agriculture clubs and girls' home culture clubs. This movement has gained considerable proportions in several states and is particularly praiseworthy since it requires personal effort out of school hours, and encourages observation and reflection by the boys and girls.
>
> In Iowa the first club was organized by County Superintendent Miller of Keokuk County. At present 511 boys in this county are

members of the Agriculture Club, and 407 girls are members of the home culture club. In Iowa County the boys' club numbers 141 and the girls' club 165, so far as reported, but the two counties mentioned above have these clubs in Iowa.

What these courageous teachers in Iowa, Illinois, Ohio, and elsewhere were doing was putting into practice the preaching of Liberty Hyde Bailey, Perry G. Holden, and all the others who were pounding away at the novel idea that culture begins at home, in the ground you walk on, the air you breathe, and the plants you grow and that boys and girls should learn of it.

While Miller was upsetting tradition in Keokuk county, a similar county-wide campaign for the practical arts was taking place in Traill county, North Dakota. There, in 1904, Superintendent of Schools J. C. Hetler had inaugurated a corn-growing contest among students, as part of a general campaign to interest others in the formal teaching of agriculture and home culture.

This campaign culminated in an enthusiastic "Farmers', Teachers' and Corn Growers' Institute," held at the Hillsboro Opera House on November 25 and 26, 1904, the very fall of Miller's Sigourney school fair. Here, cash prizes and subscriptions were awarded to the prize boy corn growers. The Hillsboro *Banner* of December 2, 1904, reported the event with a full consciousness of its historic importance.

The story reads:

Never before in the history of Traill county, never before in the annals of North Dakota, never before in the history of the world was there called together an assembly for a like purpose. It is absolutely the first of its kind. Although agriculture is one of the oldest of the practical arts, never before did the youth of a country attack an art in a like manner.

In the packed meeting house, Superintendent Hetler told his audience that agriculture was a subject that should be a part of modern education. Some of his county's teachers talked on the teaching of agriculture in their schools, and boys reported on their corn growing experiences.

In 1905 this experiment in boys' corn growing blossomed into a county-wide agricultural and home culture program encouraged

24PAGE EDITION

The Keokuk

FORTY-FIFTH YEAR — SIGOURNEY, IOWA, THURSDAY

What One Live Man Has

THE STORY OF "A CAPTAIN OF EDUCATION" By Charles

county were held at the fixed time and place, beginning on February 12 and closing on the evening of March 1. Mr. Miller was present at each and every entertainment, represent each township in a county historical contest, which was held in Sigourney.

Thought, composition, memory and delivery each counted one-fourth in the record of each contestant.

The two days of this county contest in 1904 will long be remembered by the boys and girls of Keokuk county. On the second day, a boys' convention for the purpose of organizing a boys' agricultural club was held in the forenoon, and in the afternoon a girls' convention to organize a girls' home culture club. These conventions were the first conventions of the kind ever held in Iowa. Professor F. G. Holden, Henry Wallace, John Cameron and Mrs. Alice Mendenhall were present and helped to organize the clubs.

These are in good working order today and show a membership of 300 boys and 250 girls.

sufficiently catching all o
we expect it to be. In f
will have to look out fo
the boys now in school
the farms and sending
town to rust out."

At the convention Mi
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ler began figuring on this
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advantage of the rates.
teen hundred. June 8, 190
a memorable day in the
county. On that day
alogued at Des Moines a
capitol building. The train
and contained a ba
building never had
did the agricultur
such an experience.

To interest the p
Mr. Miller got up an
fish pond in the nor
county. Here great
study the finny tribe.
excursion and Miller add
to his crown.

Later, he conceived a
idea of having a meeting a
big ranch. Here were four
big barns, filled with
which were imported

PRIZE WINNERS IN NEWTON COUNTY CORN CONTEST. OCT. 16, 1905 AT COVINGTON

Left to right:

MARION PAINE, 5th prize; weight of corn (2) ears) 23 lbs. 9 oz.

HENRY EDWARDS, 7th prize; weight of corn (2) ears) 22 lbs. 13 oz.

GEO. PLUNKETT, 1st prize

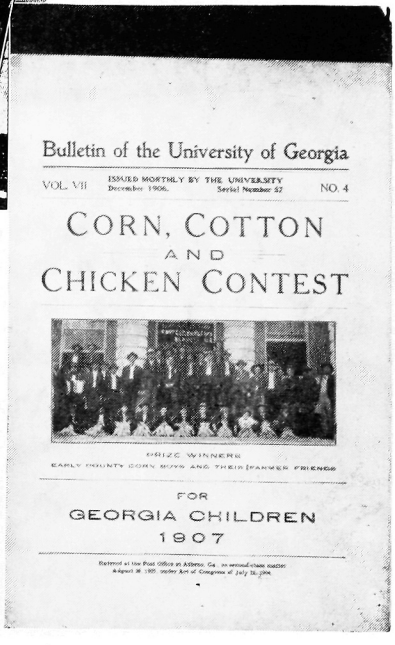


Fig. 3.3 — Miller's agriculture and "home culture" programs for students drew newspaper applause in 1905. Also, G. C. Adams' 1905 boys' corn contest in Georgia drew national attention. State-wide corn, cotton and chicken contests followed.

by the North Dakota Agricultural College. President John H. Worst of the college delegated Professor J. C. McDowell to organize the work on a state-wide basis, and McDowell succeeded in interesting some half dozen counties in 1905, although Traill county was the only one that carried through to a county-wide exhibit and contest.

The Traill county show was so successful that despite the failure of other counties to follow through, the college in December, 1905, placed Gordon Randlett in charge of the work, which was then called "industrial contest work." This led directly into organized Extension work at the college. (121)

On December 23, 1904, while Cap Miller and J. C. Hetler were studying the results of their first campaigns for practical education, a Georgia county school superintendent was launching an assault on the supremacy of cotton in the South with an announcement in the Covington *Enterprise*. It read: (38)

> A Corn Contest. It gives me pleasure to announce that during the coming spring there will be a contest among the school boys of Newton County as to who can make the best showing in corn culture. This will be a contest to interest the farmer boys and have them show their fathers how we can succeed on the farm, even when cotton is seven cents per pound. Several handsome prizes will be offered. Signed, G. C. Adams, County School Commissioner, Newton County.

Adams specified that the contest was open to boys from six to eighteen years, that the contestant must do all the work himself, and that a disinterested committee must husk and weigh the corn. Any amount could be planted, but the winner would be judged on the weight and excellence of a twenty-ear sample.

The state school commissioner, W. B. Merritt, watched the contest with interest, promising to make it state-wide if it succeeded in Newton county. National agricultural journals asked for details, and a Texas paper hailed the experiment as a means of stimulating corn production and eventually building up livestock in the South.

Thirty-two contestants exhibited their corn at Covington in October. The winner was George Plunkett, whose twenty ears, weighing 29.9 pounds, won him an Oliver chilled plow.

The next year, 1906, Professor Joseph Stewart of the University of Georgia, in charge of secondary education in the state, worked out a system of corn and cotton contests. He secured five hundred dollars in prizes from the State Fair Association, offering cash for the best ten ears of corn and the best five stalks of cotton exhibited at the State Fair in Macon. To be eligible to enter the state contest, boys had to win in their counties.

Some 800 boys in thirty-five counties entered the 1906 contests, competing for local prizes and the right to represent their counties in Macon. A specially written bulletin guided them in cultivating the corn and a scorecard was followed in judging the exhibits at the county contests. Georgia's first state corn champion was Roy M. Brown of Toccoa, Georgia, a boy who was compelled to leave school at the end of five months to work his father's farm, and who raised his prize-winning corn on sandy, gray land. (40)

Georgia was the first state to declare a state corn champion. Nebraska had held a state-wide corn-growing contest the year before, and had assembled its youthful growers in Lincoln, but the records do not show that the state declared a champion.

The following year, the university sponsored corn, cotton, and chicken contests. Once again, there was little attempt to form local club groups. These were primarily contests held under the supervision of the county school commissioner and his corps of teachers, the avowed object being to improve crop yields, teach young people the importance of good farming methods, and, through young people, to reach the parent.

In the Far West, other school superintendents were undertaking similar programs. In Oregon in 1905, Louis R. Alderman, superintendent of schools in Yamhill county, held a county children's fair at which there were exhibits of gardening, cooking, woodworking, and the care of farm animals.

Later, as state superintendent of schools, Alderman appealed to O. M. Plummer, secretary-manager of the Portland Union Stockyards, for help in spreading the rural school fair idea. Plummer generously responded by appointing a full-time man to travel the state organizing these fairs. This work was the forerunner of 4-H Club work in the Pacific Northwest. (128)

The mere recital of these many instances of work with rural boys and girls shows that in the early years of the century a kind of crusade was going on to "ennoble" the pursuits of agriculture and home economics. Inspired by leading educators and colleges of agriculture, school teachers everywhere were introducing school-connected programs of education in the practical arts.

Meanwhile, other valiant pioneers were blazing trails in Iowa, demonstrating to the educational world the value of homespun programs for country boys and girls. Two of these were Oscar H. Benson of Wright county and Jessie Field of Page county.

4.

The Cloverleaf Pin Appears

IOWANS who pioneered club work among boys and girls owed much to Perry G. Holden, who traveled about the state at a run, spreading the word of better agriculture.

Slight, energetic, burning with vision, "Seed Corn" Holden inspired everyone he met. A graduate of Michigan Agricultural College, he had come to Ames from Illinois, where he had earned a reputation for his work in corn breeding at the University of Illinois. As professor of agronomy at Iowa State, he carried on his campaign of corn evangelism with restless energy. His first Corn Gospel Train is an example of his crusading ardor.

In the fall of 1903, Iowa grain dealers were worried about seed corn for 1904 and turned to Holden for advice. His response had the simplicity of genius. He told each grain dealer to select three farmers and have them send him ten of their best ears. (55)

Holden tested this corn in germination boxes and found that less than sixty per cent of the kernels would germinate. And this was supposed to be carefully selected corn! At a banquet in Des Moines, he showed a germination box to his audience and shocked them into action. All he had to say was that even the best Iowa farmers were wasting forty per cent of their time cultivating corn that would never produce. All they had to do to avoid most of this

loss was to test each ear before they planted it, selecting two kernels from the tip, two from the center, two from the butt. Discard the bad ears, use the good ones, and watch Iowa's corn yield climb to new heights!

The result was a Corn Train that traveled the state in 1904, stopping at small towns where Holden let farmers through his cars, showed them charts and exhibits, bluntly scolded them, and left germination boxes to be displayed in the local bank window.

"Four weeks of seed corn testing at the proper time," he told his hearers, "will do more for Iowa than Congress, the Commerce Commission and the tariff will do in the next twenty years."

Under Holden's driving leadership, the college went out into the state and met the farmer on his own land. Corn trains, spectacular as they were, were not the only activity. In 1903 Holden inaugurated County Farm Demonstrations in Sioux county, in which farmers of a county planted plots of corn side by side and compared their yields at the end of the year. In 1905, the college instituted week-long off-campus short courses. (54)

These Extension activities created such a demand on the college staff that the legislature passed a law authorizing Extension Work and appropriating $15,000 to be used the first year, beginning in July, 1906. "Seed Corn" Holden was made the first superintendent of Extension.

From the beginning, the Extension Department set up as one of its objectives the encouraging of school superintendents in introducing agriculture into their schools. (41)

One of the counties prodded by Holden in 1906 was Page, where a young woman named Jessie Field had just been elected superintendent of the 130 schools of the county. With several years of rural school teaching and one year as principal of a high school in Helena, Montana, Miss Field entered upon her duties at Clarinda consumed with the desire to improve the schools under her direction.

Shortly after she took over, she heard P. G. Holden speak at a Farmers' Institute meeting in Clarinda, and like others, she caught fire from his evangelistic fervor. She recalls that she couldn't get a word with him until he was on his way to the train. Trotting

alongside, panting in the effort to keep up with the fast-moving man with a Van Dyke beard, she asked him what she could do in her schools to advance the cause of agriculture. His answer was ready: "Get your ten most influential rural teachers together and I'll meet with them."

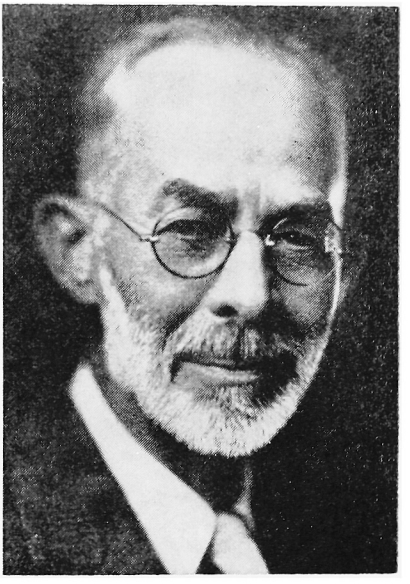


Fig. 4.1A — Perry G. Holden.

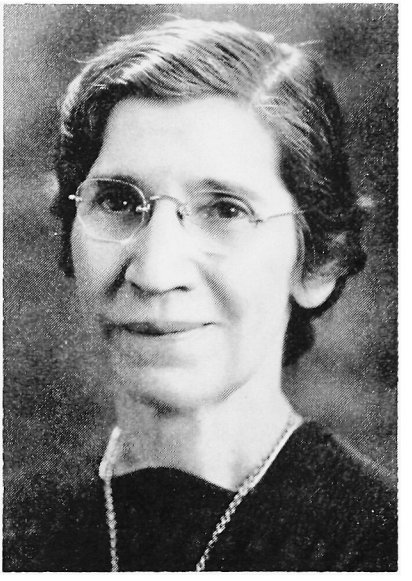


Fig. 4.1B — Jessie Field (Shambaugh).

Miss Field selected the teachers and Holden met with them in the spring of 1907. He taught them the rag doll method of germinating field corn and showed them how to test milk with a Babcock tester. Here were two simple attacks on the problem of better farming and greater yields that any teacher could understand and convey to her pupils. (14)

In August of that year, Holden was again present to give lessons in seed and milk testing to the entire membership of the Teachers' Institute. The ten teachers he had met earlier reported much enthusiasm for this kind of work among students.

There was nothing half-hearted about the way in which Page county took hold of agricultural and domestic science projects.

In 1908 the girls' program included baking, sewing, patching, darning and basketry. Boys planted a half-acre of corn, tested seed and milk, and dragged roads with a King road drag, competing for the best five miles. In November, 1908, students exhibited at the Farmers' Institute meeting in Clarinda, competing for emblems, cash and merchandise.

All the time Miss Field inspired her teachers to perform housekeeping miracles in their schools. Scrubbed floors, new curtains, drinking cups for each child, clean yards planted with shrubs — all these became so prevalent among her schools as to attract national attention. Dr. A. E. Winship, editor of the *Journal of Education,* published in Boston, wrote an article about Page county entitled: "The Best Rural Schools in America."

In October, 1909, superintendents of southern states visited the county. Superintendent J. Y. Joyner of North Carolina reported to a convention of state superintendents of education that "Page county has won a national reputation. Its schools are under the direction of an enthusiastic and consecrated county superintendent."

More triumphs were in store for Miss Field and her schools. In August, 1909, the agricultural and domestic science exhibits from Page county won first place at the Iowa State Fair. There followed a big Corn Show and Industrial Exposition in Clarinda in November, at which prizes were awarded boys and girls in the following contests: ten ears, Yellow Dent corn; ten ears, White Dent; single ear; twenty ears, white popcorn; best peck of wheat; best farm device; house dress; trimmed apron; work apron; sofa pillow cover; button holes; patching and darning. Prizes were given both to individuals and to schools making the best all-round showing. After the Clarinda show, the exhibits were packed and sent to the International Corn Show in Omaha that December.

There, the Page county collective exhibit won first place over all others, capturing prizes that included a Brush runabout valued at $550 and individual awards totaling about $200. Miss Field wrote her contestants asking them what should be done with the automobile and they voted unanimously to have her keep it and use it for her trips to the schools of the county. The *Clarinda*

Herald acclaimed the victory with the words, "No more worlds to conquer!" (50)

In 1910, Page county presaged the modern era of 4-H camps by holding a boys' agricultural camp in connection with the Teachers' Institute and Chautauqua held in August at Clarinda. R. K. Bliss of the Extension staff at Ames helped work out a

Fig. 4.2 — Perry G. Holden inspired Iowa schools to teach seed corn testing. Note the seed corn box and the date on the blackboard.

program that included horse judging, livestock and farm crops classes, military drill, and athletics.

During these early years, the work of such superintendents as Miss Field was stimulated by considerable help from Iowa State College. The college sent out crop experts to help school superintendents by training judging teams, advising young crop growers, and acting as judges of their exhibits. One of these traveling experts was Paul C. Taff, assistant under Holden, later to become Iowa's state club leader.

As early as 1909, the college Extension Service had announced the formation of a state-wide Junior Agricultural Union and had offered a list of premiums for junior crop growing. These premiums were awarded at the state short course held in January, 1910. The announcement for the following year reveals that the Extension Service sponsored contests in corn, oats, potato and garden growing, cooking, sewing, and home management. All these contests were conducted through local superintendents of schools, culminating in state awards at the state short course.

There can be little doubt that the work of Miss Field, and that of all the other superintendents who began home-project programs for teen-age rural youth, was influenced by educators who were awakening to the fact that little attention had been paid, up to now, to the problems of the teen-ager. It was at this time that G. Stanley Hall's two volumes on "Adolescence" was being studied by educators.

Earlier, much had been done for the kindergarten group, but now — in the early years of the new century — the attention of educators was directed to the teen-ager. This interest was soon to find expression in such organizations as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls. Rural club work, taking concrete form around 1900-1910, was the predecessor of young peoples' organizations. Wherever educators found inspired school teachers like Miss Field, they gave encouragement to the teacher's program.

Still another stimulus to the pioneers was the work of President Theodore Roosevelt's County Life Commission, a notable group of educational leaders who made a thoroughgoing study of the rural scene in 1908. The Commission studied the religion, education, health, recreation, and government of rural communities. It held state-wide meetings over the country and listened to the testimony of rural leaders. In the words of one of its members, Kenyon L. Butterfield, president of Massachusetts Agricultural College, its objective was, "An adequate civilization for those who till the soil and live in rural environment." Under the leadership of Liberty Hyde Bailey of Cornell, it sought long-range objectives for bettering rural America.

The report of the Commission was a prophetic declaration of

the farmer's social rights. In the field of rural education it found that the country school was not related closely enough to the boy's and girl's environment. It pointed out the need for a practical education in farming and homemaking and called for increased Extension activity on the part of the colleges.

All this gave high encouragement to those school superintendents who were not content with just routine duties.

Miss Field's work in Page county was paralleled by that of O. H. Benson in Wright county — work that had special significance

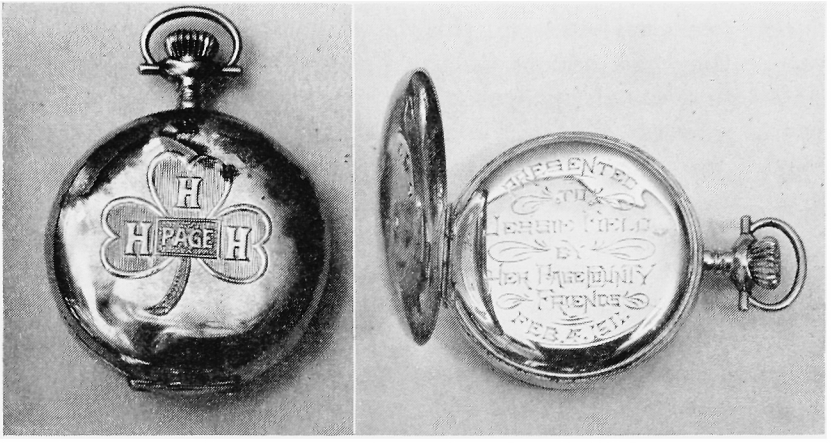


Fig. 4.3 — The cloverleaf emblem appeared in Iowa in 1909. In 1911, Jessie Field, school superintendent in Page county received a watch with a three-leaf clover, an H on each leaf. Both back and inner face of watch are shown.

to the future 4-H Clubs because out of his work came the present national emblem.

Benson became school superintendent of Wright county at the same time Miss Field took over her post in Page — the summer of 1906. Benson was born in Delaware county, Iowa, in 1875, the son of Swedish parents who had settled in Iowa in 1861. An accident with a wood-sawing rig that took two fingers off his right hand spurred in the young Benson a resolve to win a college education. Working his way through school, sandwiching in college courses with teaching, he collected his higher education from various schools, including those that were then known as

State Teacher's College at Cedar Falls, the University of Iowa, Iowa State College, and the Moody Bible Institute.

A born crusader and salesman, Benson brought inspiration to his teaching. After service in schools at Woolstock and Goldfield, where he experimented considerably in introducing agriculture and domestic science into the classroom, he came to Clarion as county school superintendent in 1906.

The influence of Holden had already made itself felt in the county. The principal of the Clarion schools, W. H. Blakely, had conducted successful school gardens and was currently introducing seed corn testing into his classes. (56) Benson himself, two years earlier, had induced Goldfield students to test seed corn.

As superintendent, Benson not only encouraged seed testing, but introduced elementary agricultural and domestic science courses into the regular classwork, gave examinations in both fields, and gave school credit for the work.

The Iowa Homestead of July 22, 1909, in describing this innovation, stated that examinations in home economics and agriculture were elective, in that they could be substituted for drawing or music. The magazine quoted some of the examinations, showing that they dealt with matters of crop rotation, soil conservation, handling of livestock, and the like. It also described how Benson had rewritten arithmetic problems in terms of crop yields and cash returns for the sale of farm products.

Benson did more than introduce these practical arts into the curriculum. One of his former students tells how he encouraged her and other students in sewing and cooking projects to be exhibited at the school fair, and how the students made curtains for the school and set out shrubs in the schoolyard.

Benson's township eighth-grade commencements were unique. Instead of holding them in a schoolroom, he erected a big tent in some attractive location and gave them the atmosphere of a county fair. Instead of the conventional commencement address, he had professors and others give agricultural demonstrations.

"The first time these lecture demonstrations were held," reports the *Iowa Homestead,* "there was a gasp of astonishment when the platform, recently vacated by the white-dressed girls

with their essays and exercises, was occupied by a farm horse, which a college professor used as a model in explaining how to judge and grade farm stock."

At these picnic commencements, boys and girls exhibited their collections of bugs and weeds, their sewing and baking products, and other handicraft. Corn judging contests were also a feature.

R. K. Bliss has described the enthusiasm that Benson's imaginative program aroused in the county. (14) Fathers and mothers crowded the school exhibits, examining and comparing the work of the different schools. The school and teacher assumed a larger place in the community. Teacher salaries were raised. Student morale was high. All this, because a county superintendent boldly revised his schools to meet the everyday needs of the people in the community.

It was in Wright and Page counties that the cloverleaf emblem, used both as a pin and a pennant, was given out to boys and girls, either for school attendance or for excellence in agricultural and domestic science work.

The cloverleaf design was not new, even before 1910. There is evidence that the design may have been copyrighted by a printing company as early as 1900, and there is little doubt that it was used before that.

However, its use in Wright and Page counties seems to have begun a train of events that continued into the present-day use of the 4-H clover emblem.

On September 16, 1909, in response to a query from Benson, the Union Emblem Company of Attleboro, Massachusetts, wrote the superintendent, submitting sketches of a cloverleaf pin with an ear of corn in the center. On each of three leaves was an *H*, the *H*'s standing for "head, heart and hand." The letter asked for a first order of at least thirty dollars in order to justify the making of tools to strike off the pins. Silver- and gold-plated pins were quoted at fifteen cents each, sterling silver at twenty-five cents.

In 1910, the Christian Finance Association of New York City provided pins for both counties, as proved by receipted bills for changing the tools in order to imprint "Page" on the stems instead of "Wright." During 1910, the use of cloverleaf pins was common

ORIGINATORS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL FLAG IDEA

UNION EMBLEM COMPANY

Manufacturers of

Rolled Plate, Sterling Silver and Solid Gold

Emblems

Attleboro, Mass. Sept. 16, 1909

O. H. Benson, Supt.,

Clarion, Ia.

Dear Sir:-

Replying to yours of recent date we are handing you herewith three sketches for your inspection.

#1 is meant to have the clover leaf enameled but the ear of corn will be modeled up and no enamel can be used.

#2 the triangle can be enameled in any one, two, or three colors and the clover leaf modeled.

#3 the kernel of corn will be modeled and the clover leaf enameled.

We will quote you on either one of the three of base metal either triple silver plated or electro gold plated 15¢ each. Sterling silver front 25¢ each, Sterling Silver 36¢ each, Rolled Gold Plate 75¢ each, Solid Gold Front $1.20 each, and Solid Gold $2.00 each. All prices subject to a discount of 33 1/3%.

We should require, however, a first order to amount to at least $30.00 or $40.00 as we would be obliged to make new tools we desire to get our original investment back and trust to future orders for profit. After we once have the tools, of course, we are willing to accept either small or large orders as the cost of producing is the same in proportion to any size of order.

Trust these designs meet your approval and that we may be favored with an order and beg to remain,

Respectfully,
UNION EMBLEM COMPANY
F E King

in both counties. Several of these pins from the two counties are still in existence.

Both O. H. Benson and Miss Field have stated that they used not only three-leaf clover pins, but four-leaf as well, Miss Field awarding the three-leaf pin for one year's work in agriculture or domestic science projects, and the four-leaf pin for the second year's work.

When Benson went to Washington in 1911 to enter the service of the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work, he took with him the idea of the cloverleaf emblem. This development is taken up fully in Chapter 9.

A study of the work of all the school superintendents and organizations who pioneered club work before 1910 shows that two main motives existed. On the part of the colleges and Farmers' Institutes there existed a desire to obtain higher crop yields and introduce better farm practices.

On the part of school teachers, here was a chance to make their schools more vital and useful to their pupils and to win better parent cooperation in solving school problems.

Most of the techniques used in club work today were tried by these experimenters in greater or lesser detail. There were contests and prizes for winners in many lines of agricultural and home economics work.

There were school fairs, institute days, and industrial expositions much like modern achievement days.

There were excursions to colleges and other places of interest for boys and girls.

There wasn't much in the line of local club organization. Most clubs were county-wide, with local supervision being left to the school teacher.

There was no national organization to direct activities or to make the experiences of one region available to others. It was in the South that the federal government first gave its cooperation to project work with rural youth.

Fig. 4.4 — Birth of a national emblem. A quotation for cloverleaf pins from a Massachusetts firm to O. H. Benson of Clarion, Iowa, in 1909.

5.

The Government Sponsors a Corn Club

THOSE VENTURES in agriculture and domestic science that took place throughout the Midwest, and in Texas and Georgia, had no direct connection with the federal government, though the Department of Agriculture, in its 1904 Yearbook, hailed the earliest pioneers with enthusiasm, crediting the clubs with improving yields, developing social instincts, bringing about better farm practices, and causing a "general upward trend to the thoughts and activities of the people." Succeeding Yearbooks took note of the progress of these individual efforts.

It was in Mississippi that the federal government first took a hand in sponsoring and directing club work. The first man to organize a corn club in Mississippi was William Hall Smith, superintendent of schools in Holmes county.

When Smith called a meeting of volunteer corn growers and their teachers in the courthouse in the county seat of Lexington, late in February, 1907, (130) he was spurred by the same motives that had prompted Graham, Kern, Adams, Benson, Field, and the others.

He wanted a system of schools that would not lose their hold on the boy when he reached the age of fourteen. This could be done, he felt, if school work were more closely tied with the farm.

Southern rural schools were in a more desperate state than those in the rest of the country. Although Holmes county schools were distinguished by having eight months of "free schooling," most school years in the South averaged downward from five months to as low as two months, while salaries of rural teachers averaged downward from $300 a year to $150, as compared to a national average of $516. (37)

Smith wanted more prosperous and effective schools, and the way to get them, he felt, was to interest the farmers in the schools. He proposed to do this with a corn contest for the boys and needlework, breadmaking and cake baking for the girls. The girls' organization he called a "home culture" club, as Cap Miller had done in Iowa three years before.

Smith knew that low-income farms could hardly support a good school system. "It has been demonstrated that our soil is capable of producing one hundred bushels of corn to the acre," he wrote in October, 1907, "yet our average production is less than twenty bushels per acre. . . .We have the best pasture and corn lands, but we are bringing our meat and corn from the West." (130)

Behind this condition was the initiative-destroying one-crop system of farming that was general in the Cotton Belt. Most Cotton-Belt farmers were in debt to the "supply store" for their stock feed and family food. The only commodity on which a farmer could get credit was cotton; therefore he must raise cotton to get square with the supply store. Few farmers raised a garden. Family diets were chiefly corn meal, side meat and molasses, bought on credit at the supply store. Few farmers raised feed for their mules — they bought it. When it came time to "settle up" in the fall, the farmer seldom had any money left over. All he could do was go back to raising cotton in order to assure himself more food and feed next year.

The tall, genial, hard-thinking William Hall Smith hoped to combat this condition in his own locality by encouraging

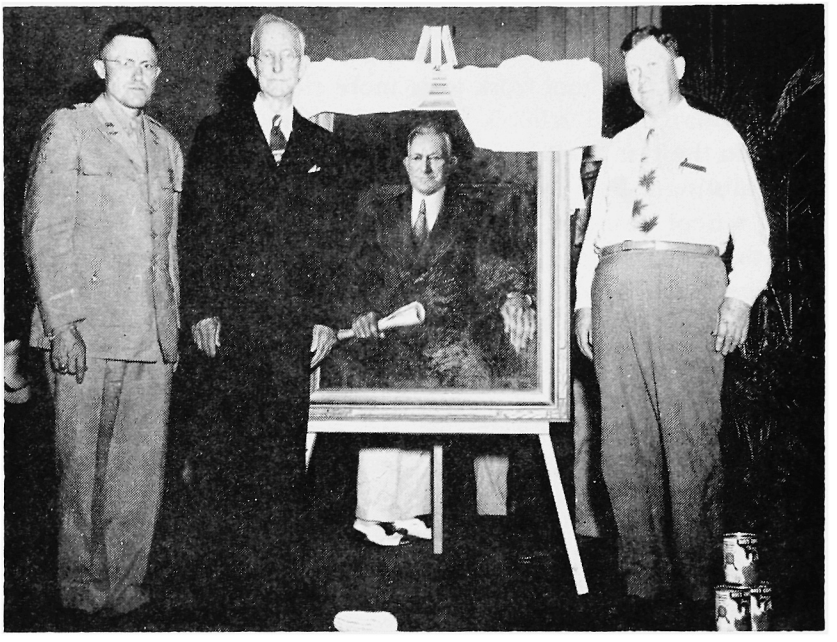


Fig. 5.1 — William Hall Smith's corn club in Holmes county, Mississippi, organized in 1907, was the first federally sponsored boys' agricultural club. **Left to right:** Lt. Col. W. W. Broom, Mr. Smith, D. C. Lundy. Broom and Lundy were members of the first corn club. Picture was taken at time of presentation of Smith's portrait to Mississippi State College by Mississippi 4-H Club members in July, 1944.

higher corn yields through better practices. Plenty of corn would make possible the raising of pigs and chickens and perhaps enable the family to keep a cow.

These ideas, of course, were not original with Smith. Both the college and the government, at that time, were making an assault on the one-crop, store-credit system of farming. At that first meeting in Lexington, Smith had Professor Perkins of Mississippi State College with him, and Perkins promised the boys seed of a tested variety for about half an acre. (130)

Present also was A. F. Meharg, one of Seaman A. Knapp's agents in Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work. By this time, Knapp's program to improve agriculture in the South had been going on for four years.

In 1903, the state of Texas had been literally thrown into

a panic by the ravages of the Mexican boll weevil. This pest, which had advanced across the Mexican border in the 1890's, had laid waste to cotton fields, reducing yields in some localities over 50 per cent. Farms had been abandoned and people had migrated before the scourge. Year by year, the weevil had advanced farther into the state, coming ever closer to the Mississippi, creating something like mass hysteria in the regions it overran.

There seemed no certain method of eliminating the pest, but the Department of Agriculture's Bureau of Entomology had discovered that weevil damage could be reduced by such methods as planting earlier varieties of cotton, fall-plowing, deeper and more frequent cultivation, and other practices that fitted in with good farming. Another defense was to raise something else besides cotton — corn, for example. Diversification, better seed, and better practices were the undramatic answers to the weevil threat.

How to get across these points to farmers was the rub. The government had established model farms, but these didn't seem to help much. "Sure," the farmer said, "I could do as much if I had the government behind me." He looked at the farm, shrugged his shoulders, and farmed as he had always done.

Knapp had found the answer in 1903, when he had induced the town of Terrell, Texas, to back one of its outstanding farmers in an experiment. This farmer, Walter Porter, promised to cultivate 70 acres of his farm according to the directions of the Department of Agriculture. If he lost money by it, the citizens agreed to make up the losses up to a certain amount. (7)

This idea differed from that of a model farm, because the farmer was trying out the new ideas himself, on his own land, with his own equipment, while his neighbors watched and formed their own judgments. If the farmer gained by his experiments, he was hardly likely to go back to his old practices.

Walter Porter found at the end of the year that he had gained a net of $700 over the income he would have made if he had followed his old methods. From that moment on he became a crusader for enlightened agriculture, and many of his neighbors caught fire from his enthusiasm.

Porter was enlisted as a cooperator and his farm was called a demonstration farm, and Knapp's branch of the U. S. Department of Agriculture eventually came to be known as the Office of the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work. Thus, by a slow process of trial and error, was the "learn by doing" principle established as the key to successful farm Extension work.

So popular did demonstration work become in the South that it soon spread to other states. Since the government could only spend its money in states infested by the weevil, however, those other than Texas had to be financed from some other source.

Luckily, the General Education Board, financed by Standard Oil Company money, was looking for ways to improve education in the South, and decided that Knapp's demonstration work was a logical approach. (37)

At the time of Smith's first corn club, Mississippi had a number of demonstration agents financed by the General Education Board. A. F. Meharg was one of these. He knew that in some areas where demonstration work with adults had failed, youngsters had taken over the task and shown the way. Naturally, then, he was eager to encourage the far-visioned Smith.

Smith's organization was similar to the various county-wide boys' and girls' clubs that had preceded him. A few months after he started his first club, he came across O. J. Kern's book, *Among Country Schools,* and this testimony gave him confidence that he was on the right track.

As the 1907 growing season progressed, 120 youthful corn growers received bulletins from the college and the Department of Agriculture. Through teachers and personal visits, Smith kept in touch with the progress of the half-acre plots. In October, he enthusiastically reported that some patches showed a yield of as high as 120 bushels per acre.

Late that month, eighty-two boys exhibited corn at a fair in Lexington, while girls displayed the products of needle and oven. Local merchants provided ribbons and prize money.

This show was in no way different from the many that had been held over the country during the five previous years. Its importance, from the standpoint of 4-H history, lies in the fact

that Knapp's men, representing the U. S. Department of Agriculture, were on hand to nurture it. Mississippi Extension pioneers are of the opinion that Knapp himself attended the show, but this has not been verified.

In any event, we can be sure that Meharg reported developments to Knapp. The great educator, who spent parts of his summers in Iowa, had already learned through Holden and others of the club work previously conducted in Iowa, Illinois and Ohio. By the time Smith's club was under way in Mississippi, Knapp was receptive to the idea of working with boys. Smith's club, therefore, happened to be the seed that was to grow into a South-wide system of Federal-State College cooperation in the development of boys' and girls' work.

Shortly after Smith's first show, Knapp took a significant step. On December 11, 1907, he appointed William Hall Smith a collaborator of the U.S.D.A. at a salary of one dollar per year. The appointment carried with it the franking privilege, which permitted the school superintendent to mail out circulars and instructions postage-free. Thus Smith became the first man to be federally named to do club work with rural boys and girls. (90)

In January, 1908, after the first successful year, there was a meeting in Durant, Holmes county, of a committee consisting of the state commissioner of agriculture, H. E. Blakeslee; Professor E. R. Lloyd, director of the experiment station, Mississippi State College; Meharg, representing Knapp; J. N. Powers, state superintendent of education; and Smith. This committee laid plans for spreading the clubs to other counties and issued an eight-page circular called "Mississippi School Boys' Experiment Club — Suggestions and Plans for Organization and Work."

College professors, demonstration agents, and state officials went to work with a will to make corn clubs state-wide. In April, Thomas A. Early, school superintendent in Yalobusha county, wrote Knapp that he had raised $250 in prize money among merchants and mailed contestants 150 packages of Knapp's seed. (28)

I am going to make a personal visit to every boy's plot during the spring and summer. This will give me a great opportunity to do a personal work among these boys and parents. I have noticed that a

number of the men are vying with the boys in their work. "I am not going to let the boys beat me raising corn," is a frequent expression. I hope to carry your idea of farming into every farm in the county and double the production per acre.

A few weeks later, H. E. Savely, Knapp's agent for Mississippi and Alabama wrote:

The county superintendents of education throughout the state of Mississippi have begun to organize boys' corn clubs along the line of our Demonstration Work, and by the close of the year 1908 there is a prospect of there being more than 4,000 boys in Mississippi enrolled in the Boys' Corn Club Demonstrations.

At the end of the year, he reported that 2,000 had actually taken part. During the year, other Mississippi school superintendents received appointments as U.S.D.A. collaborators.

It is interesting to note here that H. E. Savely had enrolled four boys in an acre corn-growing demonstration in Washington county two years before, as a part of Knapp's program to improve southern agriculture.

Knapp demonstrated his interest in the work by coming to Holmes county in the summer of 1908 to take active part in a combined teachers'-farmers' institute arranged by Smith.

Thus it was that Mississippi and the federal government cooperated in the promotion of work with boys and girls — primarily boys. The Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work of the Bureau of Plant Industry became the sponsor of club work. The year 1908 was an historic year in the story of 4-H.

A primary object of these workers was, of course, higher corn and cotton yields in a region that badly needed higher farm incomes, and there was the frank purpose of reaching the father through the son, and helping both of them.

But profit was far from the only incentive. This is shown in the purposes of club work as expressed by W. H. Smith when he organized his 1908 club. These were: (86)

To aid, through practical demonstration work, the State Agricultural College and the Extension Department at Washington in reaching the masses of people with their Extension work.

To make farm life more attractive and farming more profitable.

To make the study of agriculture in the public schools more practical and interesting.

To make the rural environment of the child minister to its education.

To enable the people, by making them more prosperous, to take better advantage of the public schools.

To encourage soil study, soil improvement, better cultivation, food selection, etc.

To enforce the idea that farmers need as thorough mental training as professional men.

In these objectives may be found the same thinking as that of Liberty Hyde Bailey, O. J. Kern, Adams, and others, as well as the author, Smith. Like these others, Smith was aiming at a general cultural uplift in rural life — an uplift that could occur only when farmers became more prosperous.

6.

Corn Clubs Take Hold in the South

CORN CLUBS on the Smith pattern quickly spread to other states. With Knapp's agents to carry the news, there was no delay in diffusing the idea through the South.

In Jacksboro, Texas, Thomas Meriwether Marks held a highly successful corn contest in 1908. Tom Marks was a newspaper editor who had for some years carried on a running campaign among his readers to grow more of their own stock feed instead of shipping it in from other regions. Because of his progressive ideas, he had been appointed a special agent in charge of adult demonstration work in four counties.

In 1907, in collaboration with W. D. Bentley, one of Knapp's men, and Captain F. S. White, horticultural commissioner of the Rock Island and Frisco Railroad Lines, Marks promoted a corn show for adults. In spite of considerable publicity in his Jacksboro *News,* only three exhibitors sent in corn, while only a score of indifferent spectators came in to see the show and listen to the speeches. (18)

At the hotel, later, Marks and his collaborators held a post-

mortem over the remains of their hopes. Captain White mentioned the success of boys' corn clubs in Mississippi. Another ventured that "you can't teach an old dog new tricks."

Marks put two and two together. "Then," he said, "next year we'll try the pups." (71)

Marks had reached the same conclusions as Otwell, in Illinois. If grown-ups wouldn't take readily to new methods of corn culture, he'd forget them and go after the boys.

The group enthusiastically made plans for a boy's contest in 1908. White offered to supply two bushels of his best Boone County White corn, Bentley offered two bushels of Laguna, and J. L. Quicksall, demonstration agent for Central and West Texas, offered some of his Bloody Butcher. The three farmers who had exhibited agreed to supply some of their best corn.

One hundred eleven boys (18) enrolled in the contest and received free seed and instructions, and in the show that fall about half these boys exhibited their corn, while many adults, spurred by the work of the boys, also sent in exhibits.

After this first successful show, J. L. Quicksall immediately made arrangements for corn contests in other Texas counties.

Louisiana also got under way in 1908. In January of that year, Victor L. Roy, superintendent of schools in Avoyelles parish, told the teachers asembled at the county teachers' institute to canvass their students and find out how many would like to grow corn if given free seed. There would be a meeting of volunteers in Moreauville, he said, in February.

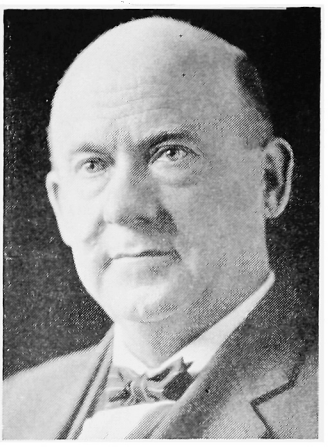
Roy took no chances on a poor attendance at this first meeting. His parish (county) was traversed by a railroad that ran U-shaped through the region, covering most of it. Roy went to his good friend, Pearsall, local manager of the railroad, and asked him if he would bring the boys to Moreauville.

Pearsall replied that he'd haul them in a special, free of charge. He'd send the special train around the county in the morning, collect the students, and deposit them in Moreauville. At night, he'd return them home. (124)

The free train ride put a gala touch on the event. For many country boys this was their first train ride. On February 8,

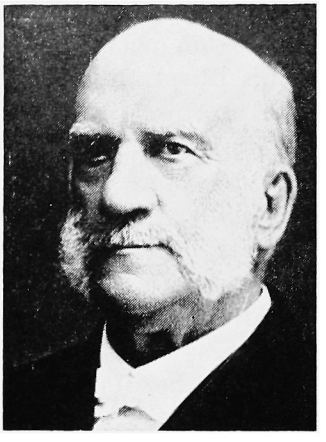
L. N. DUNCAN
Alabama

F. SOUTHHALL FARRAR
Virginia

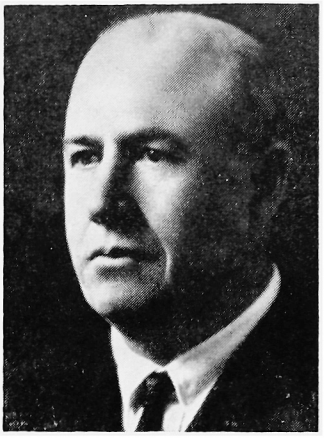


O. B. MARTIN
South Carolina

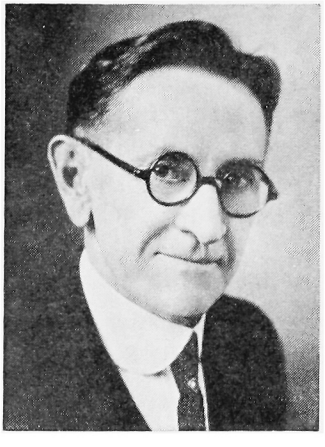
J. PHIL CAMPBELL
Georgia



SEAMAN A. KNAPP
under whose leadership were developed agreements forming "farmers' boys' clubs"

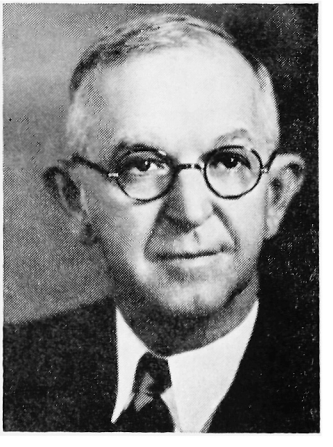


P. P. GARNER
Mississippi



VICTOR L. ROY
Louisiana

J. D. EGGLESTON
Virginia



I. O. SCHAUB
North Carolina

Fig. 6.1 — Pioneers in state club work.

some 300 eager volunteers crowded the coaches for the ride to Moreauville. (1)

There they listened to Professor W. R. Dodson, head of the Louisiana Experiment Station, and his assistants tell them how to plow, plant, and cultivate corn according to the latest and best practices. They stuffed leaflets in their pockets, to study when they got home. They were told that if they would plant a measured half acre, the state commissioner of agriculture would give them free a peck of Shaw's Improved seed, a big-eared white corn.

That summer, Roy traveled his parish in a horse and buggy, taking with him a number of ten-ear samples in order to show his contestants how to select corn for the fall fair.

"My horse, Tom, knew the route so well that he'd turn into farmyards without any guidance from me," Roy recalls. "And, of course, all the farm folks knew Tom. In fact they used to call him the assistant superintendent of schools."

While Roy was getting his contest under way, some fifteen other parishes in the state were doing the same, all of them guided by the college and the state department of agriculture.

The Avoyelles fair, held that fall in the parish seat of Marksville, was by far the most successful of the parish fairs. Some seventy-five boys brought in corn to be judged. The big ears of Shaw's Improved, a new variety to most farmers of that region, made an impressive sight. Farmers picked them up, ran their hands over them, compared them to the nubbins that they had grown themselves, and drew their own silent conclusions as to the merit of new seeds and new methods.

After the Marksville fair, Superintendent Roy personally wrapped every ear, boxed the samples, and shipped the best of them to the state fair at Shreveport. Other parishes also sent samples, and state fair visitors for the first time in Louisiana saw exhibits of boys' club corn. In that same year, Mississippi boys were also exhibiting at their state fair.

Louisiana's first state winner was Stephen D. Henry, who later was to become an Army general.

The following year, thirty-three Louisiana parishes organ-

ized corn clubs. The energetic Roy, small, dynamic and persuasive, once again induced the railroad to give him a free trip and took some four hundred of his club boys to the Louisiana State University campus. One of the boys to make this trip was Armand J. Laborde of Marksville, who later was to become a highly successful farmer. After Laborde began raising a family, his children for some thirty years regularly won prizes at the annual state short course. There was never a year but a Laborde was there, winning a ribbon for excellence in club work.

By the end of 1908, corn club work in the South was spreading so rapidly that it became apparent that some sort of over-all direction would be needed. Agents of Cooperative Demonstration Work had enough on their hands supervising adult demonstrators. Colleges, experiment stations, and state departments of agriculture were cooperating with school superintendents on an unofficial basis, but without adequate authority or financing. Someone was needed in Washington whose sole duty was to supervise boys' corn clubs. There also needed to be leadership in the states charged specifically with the promotion of club work.

The man Knapp selected to head up the work in Washington was Oscar B. Martin, state superintendent of education in South Carolina. A big, genial, inspired man, Martin had first met Knapp at a Conference for Education in the South, held at Lexington, Kentucky, in 1906. Knapp's discussion of what demonstration work could do for agriculture captured his imagination. (7)

There was, at the time, considerable doubt as to the part colleges should play in the demonstration work developed by Knapp. Knapp himself preferred to work with practical farmers.

As for club work, he wanted to conduct it entirely with county school superintendents rather than the colleges of agriculture. Yet the colleges had wholeheartedly backed Louisiana and Mississippi school superintendents in developing agricultural clubs, as they had done in Ohio, Illinois, Iowa and Georgia.

Martin became Knapp's disciple in South Carolina, preaching demonstration work wherever he went. He was appointed special agent in the Bureau of Plant Industry on March 5, 1909, with the specific duty of developing club work.

As corn clubs continued to spread in the spring of 1909, Knapp's hesitation to deal with the colleges seems to have disappeared. Perhaps the success of college-backed clubs in Mississippi and Louisiana had convinced him.

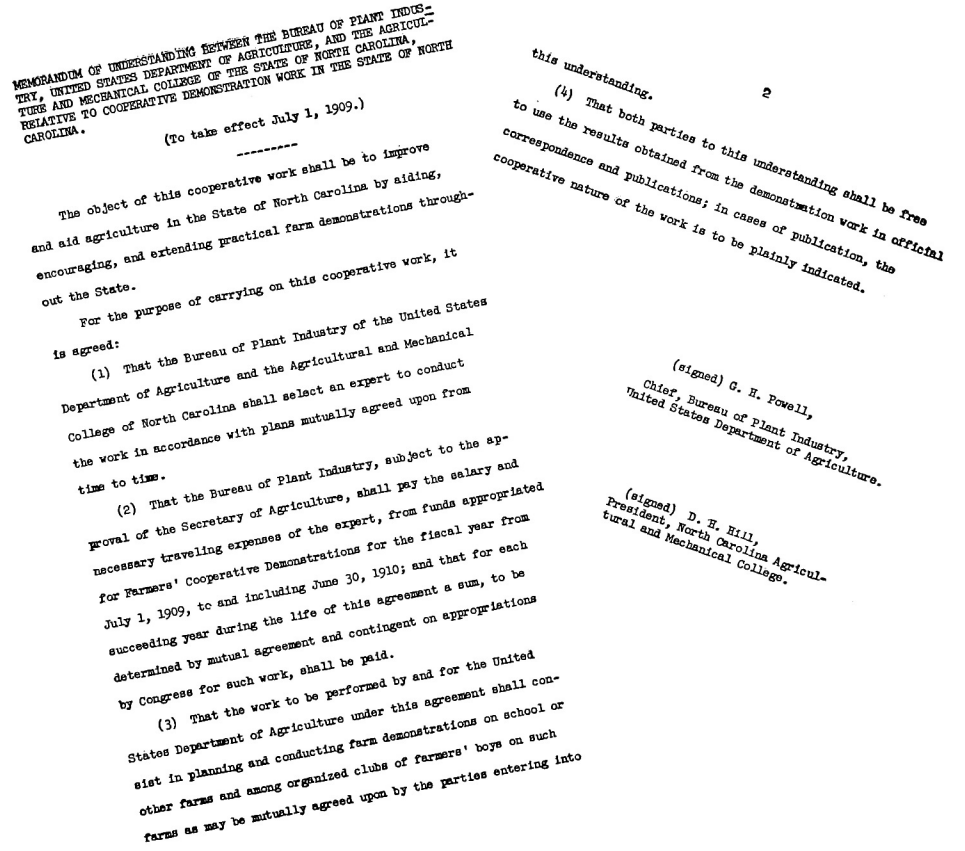
At any rate, in the spring of 1909 he told Martin to go ahead and arrange for the appointment of state club leaders in several states, these leaders to work under the joint direction of the state college and the Bureau of Plant Industry.

Today, all Extension work, both adult and youth, is conducted as a cooperative enterprise of the college, county and local community, and the Federal Extension Service, and this is the accepted order of things. Few realize that the boys' corn clubs paved the way for this cooperation.

Martin tells his own story of the preliminaries to the first college-Department agreements: (74)

> I had a number of conferences with Dr. Knapp in regard to cooperation with the agricultural colleges. He had been talking with some of the college presidents about the same time. We had hit upon the idea of having a state club man located at the college.
>
> One day Dr. Knapp seemed a little more enthusiastic on that proposition than usual, especially in discussing Alabama. He made a remark which indicated that he wanted me to go to Auburn, Alabama, conduct further negotiations, and, if possible, to complete the cooperative agreement. I suddenly interrupted the conversation and asked him when he thought he would like me to go. He said: "I think the train leaves at 10:45 tonight.
>
> It was then about 2 p.m. and I lived five miles from the Department of Agriculture. I told him that I would go out home and get ready. He said he would prepare a tentative agreement and send it to me at the Union Station that night.
>
> I arrived in Auburn on a Friday night, I conferred with Director Duggar nearly all day Saturday. At 5 p.m. we took our memorandum to President Thach. He glanced over it hurriedly, said the college had been given nice recognition and that he would submit the proposition to his board on Monday of the next week, together with the nomination of Mr. N. L. Duncan, who was the first cooperative club agent of an agricultural college and the U. S. Department of Agriculture in the country.
>
> Soon afterwards similar arrangements were made in North Carolina and Mr. I. O. Schaub was selected as agent. . . .

Actually, the Schaub agreement is dated July 1, 1909, (156)



MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING BETWEEN THE BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, AND THE AGRICULTURE AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE OF THE STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA, RELATIVE TO COOPERATIVE DEMONSTRATION WORK IN THE STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA.

(To take effect July 1, 1909.)

The object of this cooperative work shall be to improve and aid agriculture in the State of North Carolina by aiding, encouraging, and extending practical farm demonstrations throughout the State.

For the purpose of carrying on this cooperative work, it is agreed:

(1) That the Bureau of Plant Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture and the Agricultural and Mechanical College of North Carolina shall select an expert to conduct the work in accordance with plans mutually agreed upon from time to time.

(2) That the Bureau of Plant Industry, subject to the approval of the Secretary of Agriculture, shall pay the salary and necessary traveling expenses of the expert, from funds appropriated for Farmers' Cooperative Demonstrations for the fiscal year from July 1, 1909, to and including June 30, 1910; and that for each succeeding year during the life of this agreement a sum, to be determined by mutual agreement and contingent on appropriations by Congress for such work, shall be paid.

(3) That the work to be performed by and for the United States Department of Agriculture under this agreement shall consist in planning and conducting farm demonstrations on school or other farms and among organized clubs of farmers' boys on such farms as may be mutually agreed upon by the parties entering into this understanding. 2

(4) That both parties to this understanding shall be free to use the results obtained from the demonstration work in official correspondence and publications; in cases of publication, the cooperative nature of the work is to be plainly indicated.

(signed) G. H. Powell,
Chief, Bureau of Plant Industry,
United States Department of Agriculture.

(signed) D. H. Hill,
President, North Carolina Agricultural and Mechanical College.

Fig. 6.2 — Under the leadership of Seaman A. Knapp, agreements were made between the United States Department of Agriculture and Southern land-grant colleges jointly to sponsor "farmers' boys' clubs."

while that of Duncan is dated July 16, 1909. Other states to conclude cooperative agreements with the government in that year were Mississippi, Louisiana, Georgia and Arkansas.

That historic first agreement with North Carolina was called: *Memorandum of Understanding Between the Bureau of Plant Industry, United States Department of Agriculture, and the Agricultural and Mechanical College of the State of North Carolina, Relative to Cooperative Demonstration Work in the State of North Carolina.*

"The objective of this cooperative work," it stated, "shall be to improve and aid agriculture in the State of North Carolina by aiding, encouraging, and extending practical farm demonstrations throughout the State."

The memorandum went on to provide for the appointment of a club expert. The government would pay his salary and traveling expenses for the current year, and longer if Congress would give its approval.

The work to be performed was to consist in planning and conducting farm demonstrations on school or other farms and *among organized clubs of farmers' boys.*

The Georgia agreement, entered into on November 1, 1909, outlined a more specific and comprehensive program for the state club agent to follow.

According to the Georgia memorandum, the expert was to foster boys' demonstration plantings both on the home farm and at school, encourage school gardens and advise school teachers on courses of agriculture. He was to promote boys' demonstration work at farmers' institutes and college short courses.

One interesting provision of the Georgia memorandum was that the expert was under no circumstance to do regular teaching at the college, but must devote his whole time to demonstration work throughout the state.

In Georgia, the salary and traveling expenses of the expert were to be shared by the General Education Board and the college, while in North Carolina these expenses were assumed by the Bureau of Plant Industry.

Who were these first state club agents?

In North Carolina, I. O. Schaub was a graduate of North Carolina A & M and Johns Hopkins who had served his apprenticeship analyzing soils at the University of Illinois. At the St. Louis Exposition in 1904 Schaub ran a corn oil extractor for the University and incidentally had charge of Otwell's sensational exhibit of 1,250 ten-ear samples of corn grown by Illinois boys.

In 1905, he went to Iowa State College where he did soil and crop research and Extension work, became acquainted with Holden, and learned firsthand of the work of Cap Miller, and later of Jessie Field, Benson and others.

In the spring of 1909 he was called back to Raleigh to conduct research in the college of agriculture, but had barely made a start when he was informed by the president of the college that he had been selected to promote corn club work.

Schaub continued as state club leader until 1913, after which he served for a time as agricultural agent for the Frisco Lines, then served in the Department at Washington as Field Agent for Southern States, returning to Raleigh in 1924 to become Extension director.

In Alabama, the first state leader was L. N. Duncan, one of Knapp's demonstration agents, who went on to become state director of Extension in 1920, and president of Alabama Polytechnic Institute in 1935.

Mississippi's first state club leader was P. P. Garner, who had conducted a corn contest in his county in 1908. Garner was appointed on August 20, 1909, served one year, and resigned to become District Demonstration Agent for South Mississippi. He was succeeded in 1910 by Cully A. Cobb.

Victor L. Roy became Louisiana's first state leader on November 1, 1909, serving until 1911, when he accepted the presidency of Louisiana State Normal School. He was succeeded by E. S. Richardson, a parish school superintendent.

In Georgia, Thomas A. Early, the Mississippi school superintendent who had conducted corn clubs in Yalobusha county in 1908, was made state club leader and served one year. (27)

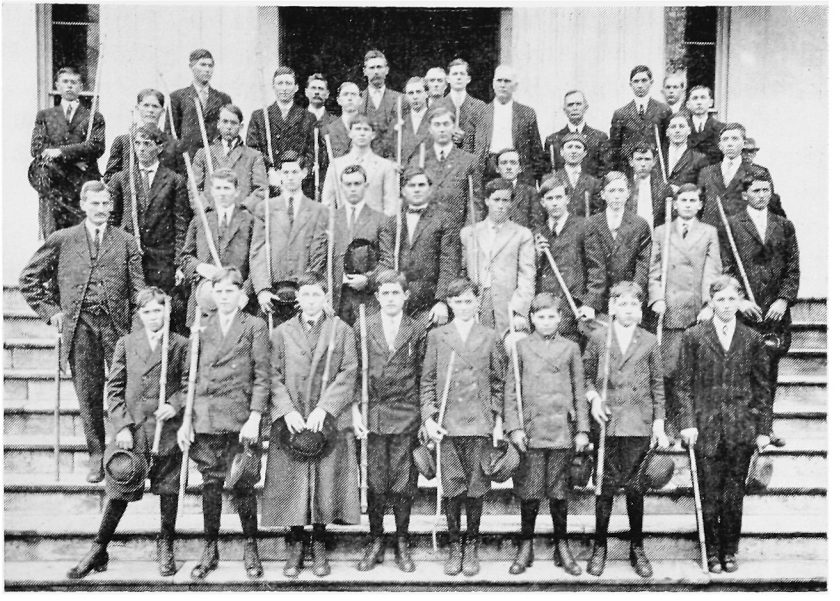


Fig. 6.3 — Alabama corn club boys invade the National Corn Exposition at Columbia, South Carolina, in 1912. Led by L. N. Duncan, state club leader, they bear stalks of corn.

In 1911, J. Phil Campbell, as "professor of school Extension," developed comprehensive boy and girl projects.

Virginia also had its state corn club leader in 1909, but unlike the states already mentioned, this man was not connected in any way with the state college. The situation was unique.

Two years before, Dr. J. D. Eggleston, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, had learned of Knapp's demonstration work from Dr. H. B. Frissell, principal of Hampton Institute. Eggleston had exclaimed: "This is the greatest thing that has come into the South in fifty years! How can we get it?" (33)

The two men invited Dr. Knapp to come to Richmond and talk to a group of leading citizens, including the governor of the state, several members of the legislature and others. As he did everywhere, Knapp electrified his small audience with his story of the possibilities of demonstration farms.

As a result of the meeting, arrangements were made in 1906

to start adult demonstration work in Virginia, Knapp to provide money from the General Education Board, the state to raise part of the expenses through an appropriation.

The man selected for state agent was T. O. Sandy, a practical farmer of outstanding ability. On the red clay and sandy soil of Nottaway county, where farmers for years had grown a single crop, tobacco. Sandy took a run-down farm and built it up into a first-class dairy farm.

In the fall of 1907, Sandy appointed as his assistant F. Southall Farrar, another outstanding farmer. For a year, Farrar supervised adult demonstrations, but, beginning in 1909, he began to organize boys' corn clubs, enrolling one hundred boys in two counties that first year.

Nowhere in these beginnings did Virginia Polytechnic Institute, the land-grant college, take part in the program. Dr. Eggleston, who later became president of V.P.I., explains this by saying that the college at that time was more interested in conventional means of disseminating agricultural information — short courses, bulletins, and meetings at the experiment station. Later, the V.P.I. was to cooperate heartily in developing Extension work, but at that time it hadn't grasped the educational value of supervised demonstrations on the farmer's own land.

Thus, in Virginia, corn clubs were first developed under the State Department of Public Instruction rather than the college. There, under the inspired leadership of Dr. J. D. Eggleston, they made rapid progress.

South Carolina had a state club agent beginning on January 1, 1911, with Clemson College as the cooperating institution. The first state agent was C. B. Haddon, who served until the spring of 1913.

These first state club leaders in the South all turned to the rural schools to put their programs into effect.

In North Carolina, Schaub set up an organization in which each rural school would form a School Boys' Farm Life Club and School Girls' Home Life Club, each club to elect its own officers, the teacher to be adviser. There would also be a county association with adult advisers and student officers. Over all,

there was to be a state association. Any public school pupil between twelve and twenty years old could be a member, and meetings were to be held as often as necessary for the good of the work. Schaub envisioned local, county and state contests.

Georgia was already well advanced with its Boys' Corn Clubs and Girls' Home Life Clubs, all under the direction of the state university. Membership in Georgia was limited to boys and girls from ten to eighteen. By 1909, boys were engaged in corn, cotton and poultry projects, while girls were competing in needlework, baking and preserves.

The national press greeted the corn clubs of 1909 with high enthusiasm. Not only farm magazines, but general magazines devoted features to the clubs. The *World's Work* stated:

> There is a county in the state of Mississippi where practically every white boy of school age is working a piece of ground with his own hands as a part of his education. . . .

The *Richmond Times-Dispatch* said that the first corn clubs had broken the ground for the "great task of the Twentieth Century, to improve country life in Virginia," and printed in a box on the front page, Dr. Eggleston's unique recipe for agricultural uplift. . . .

Formula for a Superintendent

From one parent willing to give his boy a chance, extract one acre of land.

To that boy add one demonstrator who will supply expert knowledge.

Use one teacher, sympathetic with this work and capable of guiding and encouraging the boy, to stir into the boy from time to time bulletins and circulars on corn raising.

Mix the boy and the acre of land regularly.

At the end of the year state the result in terms of social chemistry.

In the year 1909, the U. S. Department of Agriculture, the land-grant colleges, the states, and the one-room schools of the nation combined to work social chemistry on the boys and girls of rural America.

7.

Washington Meets the Corn Champions

CORN CLUBS spread through the South like an April grass fire and the tinder that touched off the conflagration was consistently high yield.

In Virginia, Farrar's first hundred corn growers, each cultivating an acre, did remarkably well.

"The instructions given these boys were so good and the work done by them so thorough that they made an average of sixty-five bushels of corn per acre on farms where the average production was only seventeen bushels per acre." (33)

The Virginia legislature had been reluctant to appropriate money for the first year of corn club work. Dr. Eggleston and Sandy had lobbied persistently, one of them being so rash as to mention the possibility of yields of one hundred bushels per acre.

The chairman of the legislature's finance committee viewed such optimistic statements with tolerant disbelief, saying:

"These gentlemen speak of one-hundred bushel corn as if it could be made an everyday occurrence. Up in Rockingham county we have excellent farms and we think we are fairly

good farmers, and I confess I've never seen one hundred bushels of corn to an acre; but we can overlook this exaggerated enthusiasm."

Nevertheless, the legislature voted Eggleston $3,000 for the corn clubs, and T. O. Sandy laid plans to make the skeptical lawmaker eat his words. Going up to the senator's own county, he organized a few boys into a corn club, one of the boys being the senator's own son. He provided selected and tested seed, had the boys plow their patches in the fall, and saw that they applied the proper fertilizers.

The senator's son won county prizes for the largest yield, the best ten-ear exhibit and the best single ear. He received thirty dollars in prize money. His yield, on one acre of the senator's own land, was 114 measured bushels. (33)

That first year of 1909, 10,543 boys joined corn clubs, (144) and while many of them merely went along with the crowd, some of them made records that surprised their communities.

On one of his trips to Mississippi, Dr. Knapp, highly pleased with the way boys' demonstration work was going, offered a trip to Washington to the Mississippi boy who made the best record with his corn crop. His offer started something. Following up the lead, O. B. Martin made a similar offer in his own state of South Carolina. Sandy, in Virginia, raised a purse to send the Virginia champion to the Capitol, and the bankers of Arkansas promised a trip to their champion. (74)

The Virginia champion, Ralph Bellwood, raised 125 bushels on his acre. South Carolina's champion, Bascom Usher of Marlboro county, produced 152½ bushels.

The other two state winners to make the trip were Dewitt C. Lundy, from "Corn Club" Smith's Holmes county, in Mississippi; and Elmer Halter of Conway, Arkansas.

These four teen-age boys honored for their proficiency in cultivating soil, were introduced to President Taft at the White House, and were awarded the first diplomas of their kind by the Secretary of Agriculture, "Tama Jim" Wilson. They became charter members of the All-Star Corn Club, a national honorary organization of champion growers.

Though this unprecedented glory must have dazzled these farmer boys, at least one of the champions was not blinded to the practical possibilities inherent in the money provided for the trip to the Capitol.

This boy, Elmer Halter of Arkansas, was greeted at his

Fig. 7.1 — Southern corn club champions of 1910 visit Washington. In the picture are Bradford Knapp (**back row, left**), O. B. Martin (**back row, right**), "Tama Jim" Wilson (**center, with hat**), Seaman A. Knapp (**beside Wilson**).

Washington hotel by an official of the Department of Agriculture, who asked him about his trip. (73)

"Did you sleep well on the train?" the official asked.

Halter admitted that he had refused to pay for a berth, catching his sleep in the day coach. "They wanted two dollars for a bed," he explained. As for food, "They charged over a dollar a meal," he reported, "so I didn't eat anything until I got a chicken sandwich at Charlottesville, Virginia, for fifteen cents."

"The Bankers' Association," Halter concluded, "gave me a hundred and fifty dollars to make the trip, and all I save belongs to me."

Before returning home, Halter bought food enough to fill a shoe box, and when he arrived home, he had saved enough of his travel money to buy himself a colt. He went on to become a prosperous farmer in partnership with his father.

Knapp's idea of giving prize trips to Washington was continued the following year, and the record made by these boys was more sensational than those of the 1909 winners. The hero of this trip was Jerry Moore, sixteen-year-old Winona, South Carolina, boy who had raised the amazing total of 228¾ bushels on his acre.

Jerry was headlined throughout the nation as the champion corn grower of all time. Newspapers and magazines carried his story in detail, picturing the slight, straw-hatted boy sitting on the edge of an immense mountain of husked corn — the product of his one-acre experiment.

Jerry must have been surprised and more than a little awed at the furore he caused. Yet his unheard-of yield was no accident.

He hadn't selected an exceptionally rich, virgin acre for his ground, but had measured off a piece of Norfolk sandy loam soil that had grown 1,200 pounds of seed cotton the previous year.

Jerry took to heart the advice of his local demonstration agent, a Mr. Willis, on the value of enough fertilizer. Before breaking his land, he applied about ten two-horse wagonloads of stable manure and about twenty one-horse cartloads of rich barnyard dirt. Then he plowed twice with a one-horse plow, ten inches deep the first time, somewhat deeper the second, harrowing between the two plowings.

Soon after, he duplicated his applications of manure and barnyard dirt and repeated his plowing and harrowing. All this was done early in March.

On March 29 he laid off the rows with a shovel plow and scattered 400 pounds of 16 per cent acid phosphate over the furrows, after which he ran a small V-shaped harrow over the rows to mix in the acid phosphate and draw soil into the furrows.

He planted Batts' Four-ear Prolific corn by hand, about three inches apart in the drill, and covered the rows with a one-horse turn-point plow.

In these labors, he had the encouragement of his father, a Methodist minister with an enthusiasm for farming, and the demonstration agent. He cultivated the corn every four days, and thinned the plants to about six inches when they were a half foot high. When the corn was a foot high, he barred it off lightly with a one-horse turn plow. Soon after that, he applied about 1,200 pounds of phosphorus-nitrogen-potassium fertilizer (8-3-3) on the side with a side distributor.

Throughout the growing season he added about 2,400 pounds more of the same fertilizer and 1,100 pounds of cottonseed meal, all this in the middle of the rows. He also made four applications of nitrate of soda, putting this on the side of the rows and harrowing it in.

Until June 15, the weather was very dry, but after that the showers were frequent. One storm blew down the corn just before tasseling, but the boy immediately set it back up and the damage was slight.

When harvest time came, Jerry found that his corn had averaged two ears to the stalk, with only three barren stalks in the entire acre. He gathered the corn when it was dry, stored it in a crib for about three weeks and then weighed it. (93)

By this time, word had got around that a boy near Winona was on his way to an all-time record, and the two state agents, Ira Williams and L. L. Baker, came around to see what was going on. They watched while Jerry took two hundred pounds of unshucked corn at random from his immense pile, shucked and shelled it, and weighed the kernels. After all the calculations, they discovered that Jerry had grown 228¾ bushels.

It was true that the costs were high — 43 cents per bushel of corn. Yet, even at this cost, the venture was a profitable one for the South Carolina boy. He sold fifty bushels as seed corn at three dollars. Valuing the rest at one dollar, his gross income from the acre was $328.75. Figuring the total costs at $100, his profit from the acre was $228.75. Had all the corn been sold at the market of one dollar, the profit would still have been $128.

The following year, on that thoroughly enriched acre, he produced 164½ bushels in spite of severe storm damage, and at much lower cost per bushel.

Jerry Moore's story is worth recalling in detail because news of his great yield arched over the nation like a rainbow, providing an apt object lesson for farmers whose yields were lower than they might have been.

The boy was well rewarded for his tireless hours of labor. He won many cups, ribbons and cash prizes. He attended the National Corn Show and won prizes there. He won a trip to the National Land Show in Chicago, another to the National Advertising Association Convention in Boston, one to the South Atlantic Exposition in Columbia, South Carolina. In addition to $200 in cash, he was awarded a $400 four-year scholarship

Fig. 7.2 — Jerry Moore of Winona, South Carolina, in 1910 raised 228.7 bushels of corn on one acre — through industry, intelligence and scientific farming. This stood as a record for other club members to shoot at for a number of years.

to Clemson College, a two-horse cultivator, a ton of fertilizer and many smaller articles.

The *Christian Observer* reporter who visited the champion's farm wrote that "Jerry might tip the beam at seventy-five pounds, but it would be close. He is modest, and doesn't seem to think it any big thing to be champion of the world. He showed us his pile of corn and what a pile it was. He had it shucked and planked off in one end of the crib, and overflowing into innumerable barrels and boxes besides. The North Carolina people are very proud of the fact that the seed used came from that state. It is what is known as Batts' Prolific."

Other 1910 trip winners weren't far behind Jerry. Archie Odom of Bennettsville, South Carolina, grew 177 bushels; Maurice Olgers, Sutherland, Virginia, 168. (142)

Joe Stone of Center, Georgia, made a yield of 102 bushels on yellow clay, and Steve Henry of Melrose, Louisiana, the 1908 champion, in his third year, raised 140 bushels on sand.

Then there was William Williams of Decatur, Mississippi, whose corn survived the drought and produced 146 bushels; Floyd Gayer, Tishomingo, Oklahoma, who had to water his corn by hand to get 95 bushels; and Ernest Starnes, of Hickory, North Carolina, who planted corn after plowing under clover, and got 146 bushels.

There was Hughey Harden, of Banks, Alabama, who grew 120 bushels of corn, tending his patch mornings before walking three miles to the country school, and evenings after walking back. Another was John Williams of Tuskaloosa, Alabama, who grew 84 bushels on land that had made only twelve bushels the previous planting.

These high producers sold seed corn at two dollars to four dollars per bushel and won such prizes as pigs, cows, chickens, harrows, cultivators, plows, wagons, a ton of fertilizer, a car of lime, a suit of clothes, gold watch, scholarships and anything else public-spirited grown-ups could think of. They received diplomas signed by the governors of their states, and best of all, they received a trip to the national capital free of charge.

These eleven champions of 1910 spent a week in Washington doing most of the things done by present delegates to the National 4-H Club Camp — visiting Mount Vernon and the government buildings, dropping in on the Senate and House, and shaking hands with the President.

The genial Taft asked one twelve-year-old contestant:

"Did you select the best acre on your father's farm?"

"No."

"Will you take another acre next year?"

"I've already picked it and plowed it." (The trip was in January, long after fall plowing.)

"Do you think you can do as well next year?"

"I think I can do better."

"I think I can do better." This was the unconquerable spirit of Youth, reacting to expert guidance and public recognition.

High yields were not limited to a few individuals. In one Mississippi county 48 club members averaged 92 bushels; in a South Carolina county 142 boys averaged 62 bushels. The hundred boys who sent corn from various parts of the South to the National Corn Exposition held in Columbia, South Carolina, averaged 133.7 bushels per acre. (143)

There were those who said of these early records that such yields were impractical. Anyone could make a high yield if he was willing to spend the money and the time in intensive cultivation. How could one afford to spend forty-three cents per bushel in labor, fertilizer and seed as Jerry Moore had done?

Yet, other contestants had grown their corn at costs as low as fifteen cents. No matter at what labor they were attained, the yields spoke for themselves. In regions where the average yield was inexcusably low, these young crusaders had shown how soil would react to good treatment and proper selection of seed.

More than one adult was inspired to reform, but most important, the boys themselves were given a vision of the possibilities of their own environments.

It wasn't yield alone that determined these local, county and state champions. The boy had to keep accurate records, and had

to be able to judge corn well enough to select his ten-ear exhibit. He was judged thirty per cent on yield, thirty per cent on his profit showing, twenty per cent on exhibit, and twenty per cent on his written records. Under expert guidance, boys were getting an all-round schooling in good farming.

Corn club work in 1910 had some of the fervor of a religious revival. Enrollment throughout the South leaped to 46,225, more than four times the enrollment of the year before. (43) In Georgia and elsewhere, corn clubbers paraded through towns on horseback.

In Texas, M. T. Payne, demonstration agent for five counties, with headquarters at Dublin, in Erath county, had fifteen hundred young demonstrators growing corn. In October, he loaded many of his boys into a seven-car special train and took them to the fair at Dallas, where they and other youthful corn growers, fifteen hundred strong, marched down the streets, carrying corn stalks and singing full-throated songs.

Seaman A. Knapp, now in the twilight of his career, was in Dallas for the spectacle, and in spite of his years, he shouldered a corn stalk and marched in the parade. (74) Had he entertained any doubts of the success of boys' demonstration work, they must have been dispelled on that crisp fall day. Emotionally he told O. B. Martin that leading the parade was one of the greatest honors of his career.

8.

Canning Clubs Get Under Way

With boys' corn clubs successfully under way, it was inevitable that the Washington office should sponsor a program for girls.

There was nothing new about the idea. "Home culture" clubs had been part of the program of those first school superintendents. "Corn Club" Smith had planned something for girls as well as boys. From the first, Schaub in North Carolina had planned "home life clubs" to go with "farm life clubs."

From all over the South came demands that girls' work be federally sponsored as the corn clubs were. In 1910, Martin wrote that everyone asked "What are you going to do for girls?"

Every conceivable girl activity had already been pioneered somewhere. School and county fairs and Farmers' Institute Days had featured exhibits of sewing, dressmaking, preserving, pickling, baking, and garden work. The question was, how much of this should Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work put into its program for the South?

Knapp was never in favor of scattering one's effort over so

wide a program that none of it made an impression. His idea was to begin by doing one thing, and doing it so well that the program would sell itself.

Not all of his associates agreed with this idea. J. Phil Campbell, who had organized farm demonstration work in South Carolina and was now in the Washington office, was in favor of promoting a comprehensive program. (20)

Knapp vetoed the idea. In the boys' program he had started with one crop — corn. The same method should be adopted for girls. Knapp, Martin, and Campbell discussed these ideas during the fall of 1909 with leading citizens in various states, and out of these discussions came the idea of having girls grow and can one vegetable — the tomato.

The tomato was selected because it was universally grown and appreciated. It wasn't too difficult to get a good crop. It was acid and therefore easy to can without danger of excessive spoilage. Each girl should be asked to plant a plot large enough to provide tomatoes not only for family use, but for sale. The plot agreed upon was a tenth of an acre.

During the Christmas holidays of 1909, Martin outlined these ideas tentatively to the school teachers assembled at the annual state educational association meeting in Columbia, South Carolina. He told them how a garden and canning project would tie the school more closely to the farm home. (74)

The teachers listened with interest, but only one of them caught the vision and put the plan into practice. Miss Marie S. Cromer, a country school teacher from Aiken county, went home and spent her Saturdays writing letters to girls, enlisting them in the project. When spring came, forty-six volunteers were setting out their tenth-acre plots in accordance with instructions from the Department of Agriculture.

Meanwhile another state, knowing that a domestic science program was in the wind, was making preparations for 1910. In Richmond, Virginia, the alert Dr. J. D. Eggleston, state superintendent of public instruction, asked the state demonstration agent, T. O. Sandy, where he could find a capable woman to develop such a program for the rural schools.

Sandy recommended Ella G. Agnew, a remarkable young Virginia woman who had served as a secretary at Paarl Seminary in South Africa during the Boer War, and was now a YWCA worker in Toledo, Ohio. Eggleston wrote her that if she would like to do something for rural girls there was a place for her in her home state.

Miss Agnew arrived in Richmond February 1, 1910, and was immediately put to work organizing cooking classes and garden work in several of the agricultural high schools. A little later, Eggleston promised, they'd have something else for her to do.

The nature of this "something else" became apparent when the young social worker was called to the state capitol on May 31.

Fig. 8.1 — Historic first girls' canning demonstration at Aiken, South Carolina, in 1910.

to meet Dr. Knapp, Governor William H. Mann, and various other officials and legislators. (3) There, Miss Agnew learned that she was to teach country girls to grow and can tomatoes. Knapp crisply outlined her duties:

She was to begin with only two counties, organize small, manageable groups, and concentrate on tomatoes. Her title was to be "State Agent of Girls' Tomato Clubs."

In Washington, Knapp had trouble persuading the Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson, to appoint a woman as field representative of the Department. There was no precedent for it. Field representatives were men. All the agents for Farmers' Co-operative Demonstration Work were men.

Knapp's ideas prevailed, however, and on June 3, 1910, Ella Agnew received her appointment as the Department's "State Agent of Girls' Tomato Clubs" — the first home demonstration agent ever appointed by the Department of Agriculture. (162)

Miss Agnew spent the month of June finishing up her cooking and garden classes in the high schools, then set about the job of learning something about tomatoes.

"Where," she asked Eggleston, "will I learn how to grow tomatoes?"

At the invitation of Dr. Hollis B. Frissell, principal of the Negro school, Hampton Institute, she went down to Hampton and took a short course in tomato culture.

Returning to Nottaway and Halifax counties, she traveled the country roads with the superintendents of schools, talking to farm girls, telling them what she wanted them to do. Because the season was late, she advised them to put out twenty-five plants rather than a tenth of an acre. The following year, there would be larger plantings and canning bees.

While Virginia was thus laying the groundwork for home demonstration, the tomatoes in the plots of Miss Cromer's school girls were getting ripe down in Aiken county, South Carolina, and it was up to Knapp's office to do something about it.

During the spring, the Department had mailed each of Miss Cromer's girls letters, instructional leaflets, and farmers' bulletins. On May 25, a letter was sent suggesting that the members of the club plant a few hills of cucumbers to be used for pickling.

While the gardens were growing, Miss Cromer, H. C. Seigler, county superintendent of schools, and Ira W. Williams, state farm demonstration agent, visited each girl. These three reported that the girls were studying their circulars and were enthusiastic about their plots. Teachers reported more interest in school work on the part of the tomato growers.

By July, however, the tomatoes were becoming full and red, and it was time to go ahead with the next step in the program — canning. The task fell to O. B. Martin, since the experiment was taking place in his home state.

The task was complicated by the fact that a public-spirited

woman had financed Miss Cromer to a summer of domestic science study in New England, and the young teacher had departed for the North soon after school closed. Thus the first experiment in canning had to be conducted without the services of the woman who led the club.

A meeting of the tomato club was called at Aiken on July 16. A big canning outfit, shipped from Illinois, was set up on the courthouse lawn. Since Martin knew next to nothing about canning, he had Miss Carrie Hyde, home economics teacher of Winthrop College, take charge of actual operations. (72)

Miss Hyde, however, knew little about canning in tin. The powers-that-be had decided to teach canning in tin because girls were going to sell their surplus, and housewives were used to buying tins rather than glass jars.

To help Miss Hyde with this phase of the work, Martin rounded up a tinner, and for good measure had a plumber and carpenter standing by.

The scene on the Aiken courthouse lawn was an historic one, forerunner of many more such scenes to take place in the next few years. There were long tables at which women worked blanching and peeling tomatoes. Clustered about their baskets filled with red fruit, were some twenty-five girls. Off to one side was the canner, "as large as a two-horse wagon body," with smoke pouring from the stack. There were eager parents watching and helping, and idle onlookers wondering what crazy idea the government was up to now.

The canning bee was to run three days, and on the second day some of the women asked Miss Hyde to show them how to put up other fruits and vegetables. She agreed. Martin and Mayor H. E. Gyles set out in the afternoon to collect the necessary materials, but when they returned to the hotel that night, they learned that Miss Hyde had been taken to her room ill.

Hurrying there, they found her under the care of a doctor and two nurses, delirious with a high fever. The strain of the demonstration, which had followed closely upon strenuous commencement exercises and an educational meeting, had been too much.

This calamity threw an unexpected burden upon the two

men, whose training in the arts of home economics was sketchy at best. There was nothing for them to do on the third day but handle the paring knives and scalding water themselves.

By this time enthusiasm for the canning demonstration was running high. Other communities in the county wanted to have sessions, so it was planned to move the canning outfit around the county, giving every girl a chance to put up her produce.

From Aiken the outfit moved by horse and wagon to the little town of Windsor, where the men again worked bareheaded under the July sun, paring, scalding, filling cans, tipping and soldering, setting cans in boiling water and taking them out.

After Windsor, Martin had to return to Washington. He left the outfit with Seigler and returned to the hotel at Aiken to make arrangements to have Miss Hyde taken to her home in Rock Hill.

For ambulance, Martin located an express wagon drawn by a sorrel mule, and in this makeshift conveyance he took Miss Hyde to the station. On the branch-line trip to Trenton, the home economics teacher rode on a stretcher placed in the baggage car. At Trenton she was transferred to a made-up berth on the main-line train for the trip to Rock Hill.

At Columbia, assured that she was better, Martin left the train and went to a hotel.

"My fingers were cut and blistered," he recalled, "and my face and hands sunburned. I was tired. It was evening. I went to my room and fell across the bed with my boots on. I didn't know a thing until five o'clock the next morning."

That was how the future Extension Service cut its teeth on home demonstration work for girls.

That first session at Aiken in July, 1910, produced a champion. One fourteen-year old girl named Katie Gunter came in every day, driving the two miles in a buggy, bringing in basket after basket of ripe tomatoes, all the products of her tenth-acre plot. When her pack was finished and counted, it was found that she had 512 No. 3 cans of tomatoes. (96) The profit from her venture was forty dollars.

She was declared county champion and later the state legislature recognized her achievement by passing an act giving her a

scholarship at Winthrop College. Later that same year, Jerry Moore, the corn champion, was to be similarly honored with a college scholarship.

When Martin returned to Washington, he wrote out a report for Dr. Knapp evaluating some of the results of that first canning bee. He pointed out that a number of corn club boys had attended the canning sessions, making themselves useful, bringing in wood and water and capping and tinning the cans. Mothers were on hand every day, showing great interest and no doubt learning much themselves.

The Aiken county canners had provided themselves with artistic labels bearing a picture of a tomato and the words: "South Carolina Tomatoes." On the other side were the words: "Grown and Packed by the Aiken County Girls' Tomato Club."

Most interesting of all, Martin reported that the event had aroused so much community interest that Aiken county had organized a fair, to be capitalized at $8,000, for the sole purpose of climaxing the annual labors of the boys' and girls' clubs. At the fair a horseback parade for members was planned.

As Knapp and his associates had suspected, the canning project was more than simple instruction in the art of putting up tomatoes. It brought members of the family together in a common enterprise, and the various families together into a welcome social event. As a climax, it aroused the community to progressive action for better farming.

Marie Cromer's appointment as an agent of the Department of Agriculture came on August 16, 1910, ten weeks after the appointment of Miss Agnew in Virginia. (162) In December of that year, Miss Virginia Moore was appointed canning club agent for Tennessee, and, about the same time, Miss Susie Powell became the agent for Mississippi.

That winter, these first state home demonstration agents were called to Washington to meet Knapp and plan the work for the coming year. Miss Powell recalls talking to the originator of the Demonstration Work at his desk near a snow-banked window in the old Agriculture Building.

"What does it all mean?" she asked him.

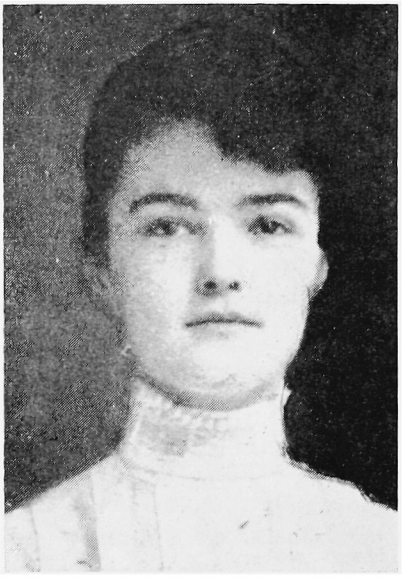


Fig. 8.2A — MARIE CROMER, Aiken county school teacher, organized the first girls' canning club

Fig. 8.2B — ELLA G. AGNEW, Virginia's first state canning club leader

Fig. 8.2C — JANE McKIMMON, North Carolina's first leader

Fig. 8.2D — SUSIE POWELL, first leader in Mississippi

"Cultivation of the tomato plant will take us into the home garden," he replied. "Canning the tomatoes will give us entrance to the farm kitchen. Tomatoes, fresh and canned, will be a valuable supplement to the family diet. The sale of the tomatoes will provide an income for the girls. What the program will do for the farm home depends on our interest, intelligence and perseverance." (116)

Knapp told them that he had arranged with the General Education Board to finance the canning club program. Where county workers were needed the Board would give $75, provided the counties would appropriate a like amount. It was assumed this would employ women agents for two summer months.

Knapp's last official act was to visit the General Education Board to arrange for this financing. On February 3, the Board appropriated $5,000 to carry on canning clubs in 1911. This money was stretched a long way. Supplementing state and county funds, it paid salaries to seventeen women, contributed $1,000 toward their traveling expenses, and provided $400 worth of supplies such as trucks, canners, labels and tins.

Inspired by their visit with Dr. Knapp, these trail-blazing demonstration agents, working for meager salaries and under unbelievable handicaps, battling rural suspicion and every-day human inertia, carried on crusades that would have done credit to a modern Joan of Arc.

As Miss Agnew drove a horse and buggy through four selected counties, trying to get the work started, she was handicapped by the feeling of the country people that no Virginia lady should make speeches in public. In one town, as she jumped down from a wagon after talking to a group, she overheard one woman say:

"No self-respecting woman would talk in public that way."

When she approached county supervisors to ask them to appropriate the necessary $75 to pay for a part-time demonstration agent, she frequently received the answer:

"What's the use trying to teach my daughter to cook? My wife can cook good enough for us."

But like the others, Miss Agnew was spurred on by what she saw in the rural areas. Most families had only the barest of spring

gardens, some none at all. In some regions, farmers were raising tobacco to the neglect of other crops. As a result, household diets were lacking in variety.

The one-crop farm families did little canning. Where housewives did can, they used preservatives to prevent vegetables from spoiling. "Embalming fluid," they called it. Most vegetables were "cooked to death" in the processing. (2)

The plight of many of the farm girls was enough to keep Miss Agnew to the task in spite of all obstacles. She found entirely too many of them poorly dressed, inadequately nourished, and lacking any chance for social contacts. Many of them never had any spending money of their own.

The greatest appeal for these girls, she discovered, was the promise that they could sell their tomatoes and make some money. Like Jane McKimmon of North Carolina, who was to start the work the following year, she found that cash income was the incentive that brought the girls around. Mrs. McKimmon agreed that the ultimate object of demonstration work was the uplift of rural life, but the first step in the uplift was to get a few dollars into the girl's purse so that she could buy a dress, a bit of finery, and a few school books.

In midsummer of 1911, with scores of tenth-acre plots ripening, Miss Agnew attended the first leaders' canning school at Greensboro, North Carolina. With her were two young assistants, Miss Hallie Hughes, who was later to become state girls' club agent for Virginia, and Miss Sadie Terry.

The canner used at Aiken the year before had been too large. At Greensboro, the assembled leaders were introduced to the Flowers canner, a small portable outfit consisting of a metal firebox and a water container large enough to hold a dozen cans. Here they learned to handle tipper and soldering iron, and discovered that when cans were too full the solder wouldn't hold.

It required a high degree of steadfastness and courage for these first women agents to travel country roads in remote rural districts, their buggies strangely loaded down with sacks of tin cans, the bulky canner, plus assorted tools and luggage.

One day Miss Agnew received an S.O.S. call from a county in the northern part of the state, saying: "Big demonstration on Wednesday but no cans – what can we do?"

In those days there were no standard procedures or time-proven equipment for situatons like this. For example, there were no cartons for cans. Miss Agnew resolved the difficulty by stuffing them in a burlap sack and had to argue with the station agent to induce him to accept the sack as baggage.

At the town of destination a buggy drawn by a lively horse had been left for her use, but she hadn't gone far before it became apparent that the load of cans and the horse were an incompatible combination. The horse insisted on moving either at a dead run or not at all. In this impasse a friendly farmer drove up, relieved her of the cans, and enabled her to get to the demonstration.

To reach mountain settlements not served by a wagon road, Miss Agnew more than once strapped her outfit to a horse and rode horseback to the canning bee. Home demonstration owes a special debt to these women who carried the message of home-making into America's backwoods before the days of hard roads and Extension Service automobiles.

Hampered by lack of funds, these pioneers had to work day and night to keep abreast of the enrollment in their clubs. In Raleigh, Jane McKimmon spent her evenings writing letters by hand to the clubs, sorting out and mailing hundreds of packets of seeds, gathering and sending out circulars and bulletins. She had no secretary and her home was her office. (79)

She noted with satisfaction, however, that in the first two years, all her club girls averaged a profit of $14.75. This sum, small as it may seem, represented an unaccustomed purchasing power for the farm girls of North Carolina.

To achieve this record, Mrs. McKimmon, in addition to all her other duties, had to teach clubs to market their packs. She handled the Raleigh area personally, selling canned tomatoes to the hotels, stores and the state college.

In other towns, local grocery stores were the usual outlet. In one town, the merchants refused to handle the pack and the local

home agent had on her hands some 6,000 cans valued at $625, with no outlet for them. In this emergency the local agent decided to bypass the reluctant merchants and go straight to the customers.

With the help of corn club boys, wagons were loaded with the cans and the parade descended on the town, the vehicles decorated with bunting and small pines, the club girls dressed in uniform, singing songs and shouting their wares.

People ran to their doors to see what was going on, and cans began to move at a dime apiece. The merchants, finding themselves ignored, held a hurried consultation and presently approached the girls with a proposition to buy the remainder of the stock at a dollar a dozen. The girls quickly accepted the offer, unloaded their cans at the stores, and returned home.

The salary was low and the work was unending, but the first agents found at least part of their reward in the sudden revelations of how much their work meant to some hitherto unnoticed and neglected youngster.

Miss Susie Powell remembers one small "Cajun" girl who had to load her baskets of tomatoes into a skiff, row across a bayou, then walk several miles with her load to a canning demonstration.

The girl won first prize in the demonstration, and was asked to choose her prize from the stock of the department store that had offered the award. After considerable inward struggle, she pointed her finger at a pink silk parasol with the words: "I've wanted one of those all my life."

This girl lived in a one-room cabin with a dirt floor. Proudly that night she walked up the path to her home, twirling an open parasol over her left shoulder.

These were the incidents that dramatized the significance of their labors for the pioneers. They never knew where they might discover and give outlet to an unexpected talent; in what unlikely locale they might bring a blinding vision of a happier future.

In its 1902–1914 report, the General Education Board, which supported the work up to the time of the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, noted the community spirit that prevailed:

> Canning day is a social occasion. Mother prepares something a little extra for luncheon, and asks the aid and instruction of the

Fig. 8.3 — Two state garden and canning club champions in Washington in 1913.

teacher in charge of the canning club. The home is 'tidied up,' tables are properly set out and decorated, bouquets of wild flowers appear here and there about the rooms. The boys come; mothers and fathers come; the neighborhood is there! Thus social interest is kindled about the doing of something worth while. There follows a spirit of mutual helpfulness, mutual concern, mutual affection. This sort of thing lays the foundation for cooperation in larger and more important things – in the church, in the school, in charities, in business.

Enrollment in girls' canning and poultry clubs (poultry work was introduced soon after the canning work) grew rapidly from a few hundred in 1910 to 3,000 in 1911 and 23,000 in 1912. (144)

As girls' clubs spread over the South, their supervision became too great a task for Bradford Knapp, who had succeeded his father in charge of Demonstration Work in the South, and his assistant O. B. Martin. In 1914 they called on Mary E. Cresswell.

Miss Cresswell, supervisor of home economics and school garden work at the Georgia State Normal School in Athens, had been made collaborator with the Department of Agriculture in 1911, at a salary of a dollar a year, to develop girls' canning work in Georgia. She was appointed an agent in Demonstration Work on July 1, 1914, thus becoming the first woman to serve on the Department staff in Washington. (162)

Miss Cresswell's chief task in Washington was to broaden the canning program into an all-round program for the farm home, and in this she had the help of Agnew, McKimmon, Powell, Moore and the other state canning club agents.

The transition was natural. As canning bees were held, it wasn't long before the farm families were asking for other services. Youngsters began asking: "When are you going to teach us to sew?" Their mothers wanted advice on the preserving of other vegetables. Kitchen arrangement, cooking, sewing and the use of fireless cookers were some of the lines that developed.

In Alabama, Madge Reese, a graduate of the University of Missouri, worked with experts at Alabama Polytechnic Institute to produce a series of unique plans for home improvements. These included a simple iceless refrigerator in which water was dripped through burlap to cause cooling by evaporation; a fire-

less cooker; and a waterworks system for the kitchen that consisted of a barrel mounted high enough to give a pressure at the faucets. Published later in a federal bulletin, these plans had a circulation of over a million copies. They form a vivid picture of what was needed in many of the homes visited by the pioneer canning club agents.

As these agents became general counselors in home economics for Southern farm families, their work demanded a name that was more descriptive of their duties than "canning club" or "canning and poultry club" agents. Miss Cresswell suggested to Martin and Knapp that since the work of the men was called "farm demonstration work," the work of the women should be called by the parallel term of "home demonstration work." In this way was born the term by which women Extension workers are known today, the country over. (122)

9.

The Cloverleaf Goes National

WHILE the girls' canning clubs were getting under way, Southern boys were undertaking projects in other crops besides the pioneer, corn.

Even before federal cooperation, certain states, notably Georgia, were supervising boys — and a few girls — in the growing of cotton and chickens. Under federal encouragement, it didn't take long for club agents, county superintendents of schools, and college specialists to find new fields for supervised demonstrations.

In the minds of these leaders, corn production in southern states wasn't an end in itself, but merely the first step in a campaign against one-crop store-credit farming. Corn was the beginning because it is a stock feed.

Our far-visioned pioneers dreamed of small southern farms that grew most of the food for the table and most of the feed for the livestock. The only livestock on most small farms, at that time, was a mule — perhaps a few chickens. The experts dreamed of a farm that had chickens, a few hogs, a cow, and a kitchen garden. The home economists thought of a better family diet.

Now that corn was successfully introduced to many farms, the next step was to introduce pigs. Pigs required a relatively small investment, made rapid gains, and could easily be butchered and cured for home consumption.

For the nation's first pig club of record, agriculture is once again indebted to a county superintendent of schools, this time W. H. Miller, superintendent in Oktibbeha county, Mississippi.

The idea of starting a pig club grew out of a conference held between Superintendent Miller and Hugh Critz, school superintendent in Starkville (later president of Mississippi State College). (19) In the fall of 1909, these two talked over the idea of making good use of the corn schoolboys were growing. Miller was a dollar-a-year collaborator in the demonstration work and had conducted a successful corn-growing contest the previous year.

They decided not to allow any boy to enter who hadn't grown corn the previous year, since there was no use starting a boy on pigs unless he had something to feed them. Boys were to secure pigs born on or after October 1, 1909, feed them according to college instructions, and show them at the county fair to be held in Starkville the following fall. (89) The pigs showing the greatest daily gains would win cash prizes provided by public-spirited citizens. These plans appeared in the *Starkville* (Miss.) *News* of December 17, 1909:

> The superintendent of education of Oktibbeha county has started a new plan for enforcing the farmer boys to take an interest in farm life, to wit: A registered pig club. The plan, briefly stated, is this: Any white child who is a pupil of some Oktibbeha county school and is under eighteen, may enter the contest. The pig must have been born on or since October 1, 1909, and must be registered. Pigs to be shown on first day of the county fair, when they are to be weighed, and their weight divided by the number of days in pig's age, the owner of the pig making the greatest gain per day to receive $25; second, $12.50; third, $7.50; fourth, $5.

This new project soon came to the attention of P. P. Garner, state agent in charge of Boys' Demonstration Work, who wrote Miller on January 6, 1910: (87)

> I have been noticing what you have been doing up here in Oktibbeha, and I wish to congratulate you. I saw your nice exhibit of corn at the State Fair; and I have gone very thoroughly into your plan for

a purebred pig-raising contest, and I give it my unqualified endorsement. I hope you will be able soon to inaugurate a poultry-raising contest among the girls.

The following fall, the *Starkville News* of October 7, 1910, reported the first county pig contest in these words:

> There was a display, by these boys and girls, of fine pigs, raised and fed by themselves, which could not be excelled in Illinois or Indiana. Pigs nine and ten months old, weighing over 300 pounds, and showing extra fine breeding.

The first prize winner in that historic first pig exhibit of club members was a girl, Miss Nannie Sikes, who was awarded twenty-five dollars in gold for a pig 255 days old weighing 328 pounds. (88)

The Sikes family also came in second, Hugh Sikes winning twelve-fifty for a pig of the same age, no doubt from the same litter, weighing just three pounds less than Nannie's.

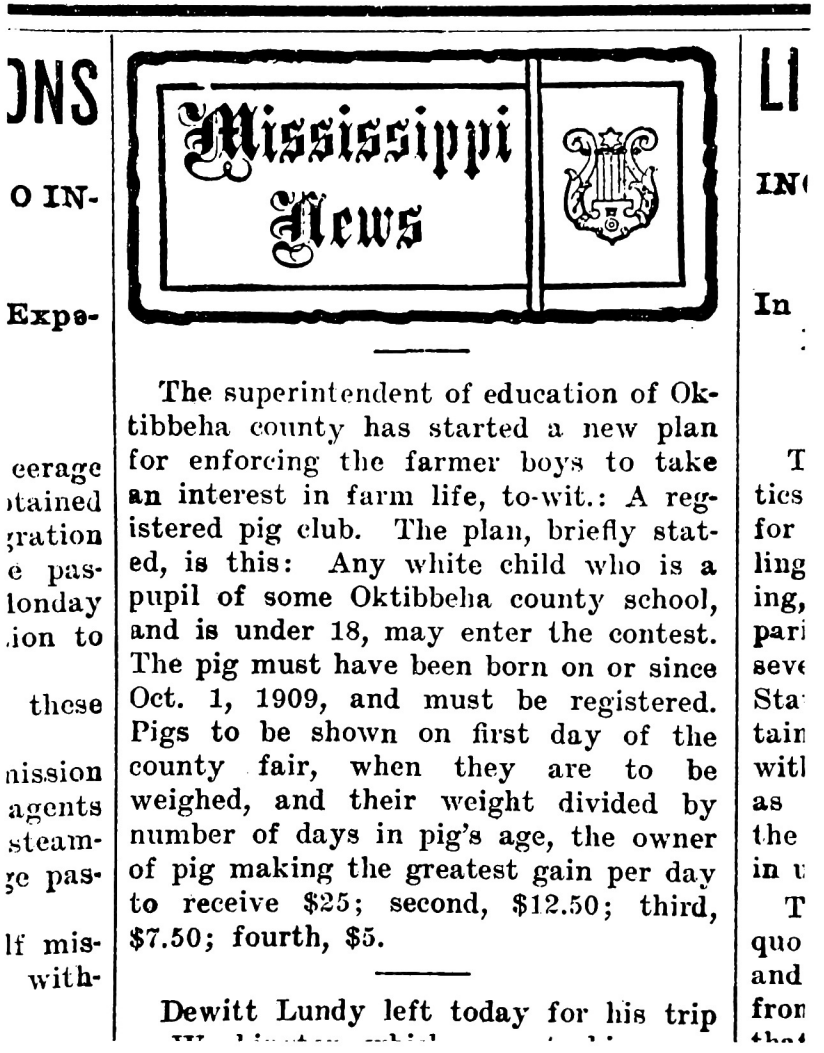
Third and fourth place winners were Sarah Kilpatrick and Carleton Carpenter.

The man who awarded the prizes was State Leader Garner, who immediately collected eighty-five dollars in cash from the audience for prizes for the following year.

That fall, Caddo parish, across the river in Louisiana, started a pig club. (168) There, E. W. Jones, superintendent of rural schools in the parish, discussed the idea with Colonel C. C. French, industrial agent of the Fort Worth stockyards, who heartily endorsed the plan. College officials gave the necessary technical help, and the parish got off to a flying start with a pig club of fifty-nine members.

These first two pig clubs demonstrated a characteristic that has been one of the strong points of club work down through the years — its ability to grow and adapt itself to local needs and conditions. The idea of having boys fatten pigs under supervision originated independently in two counties in two separate states, because the school superintendent in each county, after consulting livestock experts, decided it was needed. Each county wrote its own rules. Later, there were to be state pig club agents, and Washington was to write up a plan and offer it to all states, but the program first took form in communities.

Club work could develop in this way because it was unwritten. Behind club work in 1910 was the general objective to improve agriculture in the South. The leaders had started with corn growing for the boys and tomato growing and canning for girls.



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Mississippi News

The superintendent of education of Oktibbeha county has started a new plan for enforcing the farmer boys to take an interest in farm life, to-wit.: A registered pig club. The plan, briefly stated, is this: Any white child who is a pupil of some Oktibbeha county school, and is under 18, may enter the contest. The pig must have been born on or since Oct. 1, 1909, and must be registered. Pigs to be shown on first day of the county fair, when they are to be weighed, and their weight divided by number of days in pig's age, the owner of pig making the greatest gain per day to receive $25; second, $12.50; third, $7.50; fourth, $5.

Dewitt Lundy left today for his trip

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Fig. 9.1 — An announcement of first pig club in Mississippi newspaper. Note date of October 1, 1909.

Beyond this, their attitude was, "Let's see what develops." Now, new activities were developing, and these would be watched by the experts, evaluated, written up, and offered generally. As early as 1910, club work was beginning to write its program, not as a textbook handed down from above, but as a living story, starting at the grass roots. In the unwritten, experimental, evolutionary nature of club work lies its greatness.

These new activities and the rapidly mushrooming enrollment in boys' and girls' clubs called for more help in the Washington office of Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work.

During 1910, O. B. Martin had borne the main burden of ministering to the growing army of young demonstrators. During the year it became plain that he would need help.

The man selected was O. H. Benson, superintendent of schools in Wright county, Iowa. His selection was a natural one. Seaman A. Knapp's son, Bradford Knapp, had served for a time as county attorney in Wright county with offices near Benson's in the courthouse in Clarion. Seaman Knapp came frequently to visit him and therefore was familiar with Benson's work with boys and girls during the years 1906–1910. Furthermore, Perry Holden, the state's superintendent of Extension, highly recommended the energetic Benson to Knapp.

Benson was appointed agent in the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work on February 1, 1911, at the time girls' canning clubs were spreading from Virginia and South Carolina to Tennessee, North Carolina, and Mississippi. (162) He didn't have to wait around long to find out what his job was.

At the Department of Agriculture kitchen he studied the newest techniques in canning tomatoes. In March, he was on the road, visiting men and women agents in southern states. On March 23, he made a talk on "Rural Leadership," before the South Carolina Improvement Association, and like Beardshear, Buisson and others before him, said that education for leadership must be along the lines of four *H*'s rather than three *R*'s – suggesting that the four *H*'s stand for "head, heart, hands, and hustle!" (11)

"A leader," he said, "with head trained to think, plan, and

reason; with heart trained to be true, kind, and sympathetic; and with hands trained to be useful, helpful, and skillful; and the hustle to render ready service, to develop health and vitality. . . ."

In Tennessee, he called on the new state canning club leader, Virginia Moore, and together the two made the rounds of schools in Benton County. At Chalk Level school, after explaining the purposes of canning work, he said: (134)

"Now who will be the first girl in this school to be the first member of the first girls' canning club in Tennessee?"

A young girl named Myrtie Hardin raised her hand, thus becoming the state's first canning club girl. This girl made an outstanding record in club work, putting up 450 cans of tomatoes her first year, then taking up in succession poultry raising, dairying and gardening, and finally becoming a home demonstration agent before getting married and settling down on a farm.

In July, Benson was at Greensboro, North Carolina, along with canning club leaders from several states, helping to teach the mysteries of putting up tomatoes with a small, portable canner.

Almost at once, the question of a suitable emblem for club work came up. Since the farm girls of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Tennessee and Mississippi were putting up tomatoes in tin, to be sold in stores, some uniform label was needed. In addition, both boys and girls needed some kind of membership pin. Many of the corn club boys and girls were finding seed corn from their high-yielding plots much in demand. They, too, needed a label that would be identified with quality. Club work needed a distinctive badge.

Previous stories of the origin of the 4-H emblem have left the impression that the cloverleaf design was adopted in 1913, first as a label for canned tomatoes, then as a badge for members.

Records show, however, that the emblem was adopted both as a label and a badge in 1911, the first year Benson came to Washington. Both Benson and Jessie Field had used three-leaf and four-leaf pins as awards in their counties. Orders for Wright county pins in 1909 and Page county pins in 1910 were in Benson's possession in his personal files.

Benson brought the idea to Washington with him. He stated

that the emblem was adopted at a meeting of boys' and girls' club leaders in Washington in the spring of 1911, and that O. B. Martin suggested that the fourth *H* stand for "health."

Whether the decision was made at this exact time or not is now of no great importance. Records show that on September 13, 1911, O. B. Martin ordered from the Christian Finance Association, the same company that had sold Wright county clover-leaf pins to Benson in 1909, a number of gold and silver "Demonstrator Boys' Corn Club Pins." (10)

These demonstrator pins were fully described a few months later in a mimeographed circular signed jointly by Benson and Martin and sent to the various states on February 2, 1912. (146)

This circular described the parts of the emblem as consisting of an open book, four-leaf clover and the four *H*'s. At the top of the book appeared the word, "Demonstrator," and at the bottom one of the following: "Girls' C. & P. Club" (Canning and Poultry); "Boys' Corn Club," or "Boys' Cotton Club."

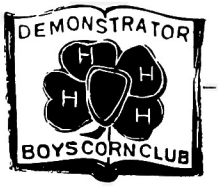
"The four *H*'s," stated the circular, "represent the equal training of the head, heart, hands, and health of every child."

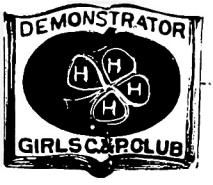
The head was to be trained to think, plan and reason; the heart to be kind, true, and sympathetic; the hands to be useful, helpful, and skillful. These were the exact adjectives used by Benson the year before in his South Carolina speech. Martin's addition of the health *H* was to resist disease, enjoy life, and make for efficiency, thus rounding out the four *H*'s.

The miniature book in the emblem signified the need for education in farm living, and the word "demonstrator" meant that each club member agreed to read and follow the instructions furnished by the Department of Agriculture and be a "demonstrator" of these methods.

The circular also specified that the kind of club work would be indicated by what was pictured in the center of the four-leaf clover — a tomato, a kernel of corn, or a boll of cotton.

The circular also announced an emblem consisting of a five-point star with an *H* on each point, the fifth *H* to stand for Home. The first four corn champions to win trips to Washington in 1909 were made members of an honorary organization called "The All-Star Corn Club." Subsequent state champions received





UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY,
FARMERS' COOPERATIVE DEMONSTRATION WORK.

STORY OF THE DEMONSTRATION EMBLEM.

Explanation and story of our Demonstration Emblem to be used in connection with the Boys' and Girls' Club Work.

The regular emblem of the girls' Club Work will also be the trade-mark of the "Girls' Demonstration Club", and will be found upon all lables used on canned products, grown and packed by regular members of the Club.

PARTS OF THE EMBLEM.

Book, four-leaf clover, tomato, and the four H's. In addition to this, at the top of book, appears the word, "Demonstrator" and at the bottom of the book, the words "Girls' ~~C. C. C.~~ Club", "Boys' Corn Club", or Boys' Cotton Club."

H. C

MEANING OR STORY OF DIVISIONS.

The Boys' and Girls' Demonstration Work represents a "four-Square" training of the members of the "Four-Square" needs of citizenship and home-life.

The four H's represent the equal training of the head, heart, hands, and health of every child.

Train head to:	Train heart to:	Train hands to:	Train health to:
a. Think	a. Be kind	a. Be useful	a. Resist disease
b. Plan	b. Be true	b. Be helpful	b. Enjoy life
c. Reason	c. Be sympathetic	c. Be skilful	c. Make for efficiency.

BOOK: The book, as a background, signifies the need of education and definite knowledge on farm and home interests in order to make for better rural life.

TOMATO: The tomato signifies the relation of the garden products to a happy and contented citizenship.

FOUR-LEAF CLOVER: The four-leaf clover represents the principles of scientific farming, rotation of crops, soil building and large production and greater profits for the common people.

"DEMONSTRATOR:" The word "demonstrator" means that ~~every~~ all club member~~s~~ are ~~to be~~ demonstrator~~s~~ of the best known methods in modern agriculture and that they have not only agreed to read the instructions furnished by the Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work of the Department of Agriculture, but have followed these instructions during a period of not less than one year on not less than one acre in the Corn Club Work and not less than 1/20 acre in the Girls' ~~Canning & Poultry~~ Home Demonstration Club Work.

BOYS' CORN AND COTTON CLUBS.

The emblem for the Boys' Corn Club Work will be the same as the one designed for the Girls' Work, with one exception: A kernel of corn will be used in the center of clover-leaf and the tomato will be removed.

For the cotton club emblem, the boll of cotton will be substituted for the kernel of corn used in the Corn Club Work.

The emblem used in the "All Star Corn Club" will be the same as the one used in the general Corn Club, except that a five point star will be used in place of the four-leaf clover, and upon each point the letter "H" will be found, signifying: Head, Heart, Hands, Health, and Home.

The same explanation given to the Girls' Emblem will, in a general way, apply to all four emblems.

The emblem will be national in its use, and by this sign, "Ye shall know them", the real demonstrators.

Respectfully submitted,

O. H. BENSON,
Ass't. in Demonstration Club Work.

O. B. MARTIN,
Ass't. in Charge of Boys' Demonstration Work.

February 2, 1912.

Fig. 9.2 — A letter to the states describing the pins and their use. The pins themselves are shown at lef

the same honor. The five-point star pin was devised for this select group. It is interesting to note that in the modern club program a number of states have formed an honorary All-Star organization to recognize all-round 4-H development, with the major emphasis on service.

Throughout 1911 and early in 1912, Benson was constantly on the go, giving canning demonstrations in southern states and

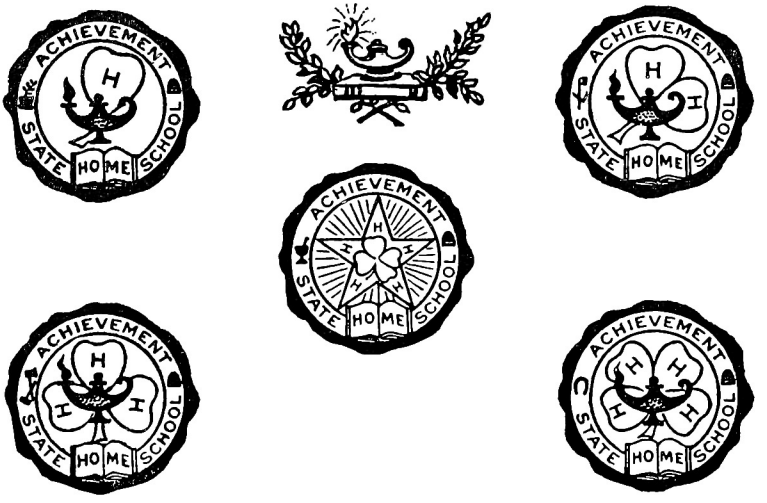


Fig. 9.3 — The "All-Star" series of pins, used in the awarding of premiums.

more particularly encouraging the newer club projects, such as the already-started pig clubs and cotton clubs.

Other localities, according to their needs, were taking up still newer lines. In Texas and Oklahoma, boys became demonstrators in the growing of kaffir corn and milo-maize, thereby helping introduce needed diversification in their regions. Elsewhere potato and poultry clubs were getting under way.

By 1912, with an enrollment of 73,000 boys and 23,000 girls, (144) membership was outstripping the ability of the understaffed leadership to supervise the work. There were few records in Washington or state headquarters to indicate how many

of this swelling membership were conducting and completing their projects satisfactorily.

These matters were introduced at a June, 1912, (141) meeting of state agents in Washington by Bradford Knapp, who had succeeded his father in charge of Demonstration Work in the South, and was showing great concern over the proper development of club work.

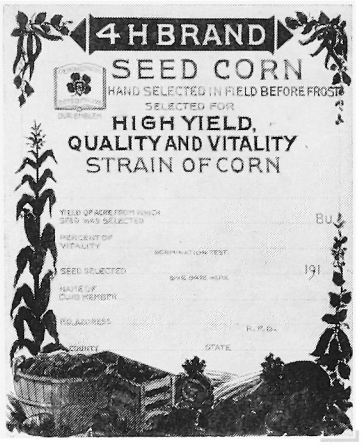
Under the prodding of Knapp, the leaders went to work standardizing the report forms that boys were to fill out. To make sure that a boy followed through on his project, they worked up three forms to be filled out by the member, one on the preparation and planting of his crop; a second on the cultivation of the crop; and a final report at the end of the growing season. Copies of all three reports were to go to the state office and to Washington. Similar forms were worked up for the girls' projects.

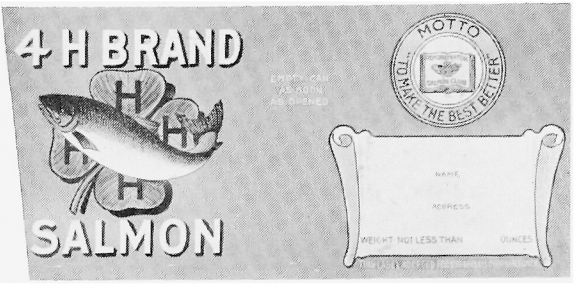
The leaders at this meeting realized the need for a more effective type of local organization if club work was to enjoy a healthy growth. Thomas A. Early, state leader in Tennessee, stated that club work was thriving because of its newness, but when the newness wore off and the enthusiasm began to wane there would be a serious drop in enrollment if steps were not taken to develop group consciousness in the counties.

Early suggested that counties be divided into six clubs, each club to meet once a month with the local adult agent. This agent could see that boys filled out and sent in their reports.

T. M. Jeffords of Arkansas suggested that efforts be made to keep the membership down, and L. N. Duncan stated that in Alabama local teachers were requested not to enroll boys who were not in earnest.

Thus, at the very beginning of club work, the leaders realized that a large enrollment meant little if boys and girls were not individually benefited. These men were making their first attack on the problem of any voluntary project — the indiscriminate enrolling of boys and girls, many of whom had little intention of carrying through their projects. The best check, these





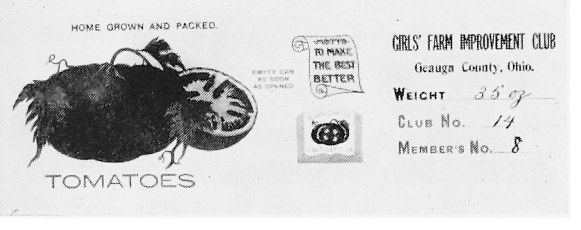


Fig. 9.4 — 4-H Brand Labels used for marketing various products.

leaders agreed, was a system of reports, periodically filled out, that would accurately picture the progress of the members, and the percentage who completed the work.

Interesting progress reports came from the various states. In Louisiana, an eleven-car demonstration train had toured the state that spring (1912), two of the cars containing exhibits of boys' and girls' work. A quarter of a million people had gone through the train, pausing to watch girls can tomatoes. In Texas, C. M. Evans and his assistant, H. H. Williamson, ran a number of demonstration trains over the state during the winter months, and parts of these trains were given over to boys' and girls' work.

In one Alabama county, J. B. Hobdy had enrolled 509 boys and 310 girls in various projects including, besides corn and tomatoes, sweet potato and nasturtium growing for girls, and Irish potato and onion clubs for boys. In this county Hobdy was planning an executive council composed of the adult demonstration agent, the county superintendent of schools and the canning club agent.

Cully Cobb reported a high enrollment in Mississsippi and a plan to employ rural teachers for twelve months in the year, so that they could spend the summers supervising club work.

The following February, the South was to have its earlier counterpart of the modern Club Congress by sending state delegations of boys and girls to the Fifth National Corn Exposition to be held at Columbia, South Carolina. Here, the club members would be honored and given short-course instruction. Out of the states represented, one state would be declared champion and awarded a life-size bust of Dr. S. A. Knapp, on the basis of the excellence of their project work. (145)

By this time, the Department of Agriculture's Bureau of Animal Industry was cooperating in promoting pig clubs, and George M. Rommell of that Bureau promised that with the cooperation of club agents, "We will have pigs squealing in every township in the South before we get through."

At this meeting of southern agents, held in June 1912, Martin had a new assistant in place of Benson, I. W. Hill of

Alabama. Hill, formerly state superintendent of education in Alabama, was called to Washington in the spring of 1912 when Benson was transferred to the Office of Farm Management.

In his new post, under the leadership of W. J. Spillman and C. B. Smith, Benson was charged with the duty of developing boys' and girls' clubs in the North and West.

10.

Club Work Grows in the North and West

When Oscar H. Benson was transferred to the Office of Farm Management on May 15, 1912, (162) he became the first federal agent employed to develop boys' and girls' club work in the North and West.

Here he found himself working under the general direction of W. J. Spillman, who had conducted government-managed diversification farms in the South, as part of the campaign against the boll weevil, and who was now engaged in encouraging better farm practices in the North and West.

Benson's immediate chief was Clarence Beaman Smith, who had entered government service in 1896 in the Office of Experiment Stations. Born and brought up in the Michigan jackpine country, Smith had worked his way to a master's degree at Michigan Agricultural College, paying his expenses by caring for a flock of sheep at forty cents a day, keeping books for boarding houses, running a bookstore concession, and teaching country school. One of his teachers was Perry G. Holden, who later was to encourage club work in Iowa and the nation. (113)

From the first, Smith was a man of inspiration and vision who devoted his talents and energies to the service of others. Shortly after graduation, he entered government service, and in 1907 he was transferred to Spillman's Office of Farm Management where Spillman put him to work on a unique idea for improving agriculture.

Spillman's idea was that, in any region, the government could learn much by studying the management methods of the better farmers of the region. Once these better practices had been studied and the results measured, they could be brought to the attention of neighboring farmers through field trips and meetings. Other farmers could then be induced to start demonstration plots to prove to themselves that these methods paid. (7)

The approach to federally encouraged Demonstration work was different in the North from that in the South. In the South, Demonstration had been evolved as a weapon in a campaign against the menace of the boll weevil. It was conducted with the fervor of a crusade. Where the boll weevil was not a menace, the crusade was directed with equal dedication against one-crop farming and low yields.

In the North, there was no threat of an all-destructive pest to spur the campaign, nor was agriculture so generally depressed. Here, the demonstration method became an all-round campaign to lift the level of farming practice. The Spillman-Smith idea of studying the practices of the better farmers and diffusing their methods was part of this broad campaign.

Into this hospitable atmosphere, Benson came in 1912 to do his share by promoting cooperative agreements between colleges and the Department for the development of work with boys and girls. In this campaign, he had for a precedent the college-Department agreements in Southern states.

There were many circumstances that led to Benson's transfer to the North in 1912. By this time, Extension work had made great strides in many states with little help from federal funds. Work with boys and girls, too, had gone ahead under the guidance of colleges of agriculture, state departments of public instruction, and Farmers' Institutes.

By 1912, a system of county agents was evolving in the North.

In 1910, Spillman had discovered a public-spirited man in Bedford county, Pennsylvania, A. B. Ross, who had devoted himself to aiding farmers by interpreting for them agricultural bulletins, buying and distributing seed corn, and experimenting with legumes. On March 1, 1910, Spillman appointed him a government agent at a nominal salary. Thus he became the first agricultural agent in a county in the North. (137)

A closer approach to the modern county agent occurred in Binghamton, New York, in 1910, when the Chamber of Commerce, the Lackawanna Railroad, the college, and C. B. Smith, representing Spillman, agreed between them to support an agricultural agent for Broome and neighboring counties. The Chamber of Commerce formed a "farm bureau" and employed John H. Barron on March 20, 1911. (137)

Soon, throughout the North, farmers and business leaders in various counties began to group themselves together for the purpose of employing a "county agent" to improve agriculture. This movement was speeded by the Council of Grain Exchanges of Chicago which made good use of a gift of $100,000 from the philanthropist Julius Rosenwald by offering $1,000 to each of one hundred counties that would organize to support a county agent. (108) Under this stimulus, a number of counties in the North banded together for agricultural betterment.

Meanwhile the land-grant colleges, beginning in 1909, had begun through their association to press the government for federal aid in their Extension programs, and under their urging various bills were being introduced into Congress.

It can be seen that when Benson went to work for Spillman and Smith, he wasn't beginning in a vacuum. The North was in a ferment of Extension activity. Counties in a number of states were employing county agents, the colleges were broadening their off-the-campus activities to the point where they needed federal help, and northern congressmen were beginning to ask themselves why money couldn't be appropriated for demonstration work in the North as well as in the South.

One of these congressmen was J. C. McLaughlin from Muskegon, Michigan, a member of the House Committee on Agriculture, who had organized corn contests in a half dozen

Michigan counties as early as 1908. (81) McLaughlin went to Spillman to question the expenditure of federal money for demonstration work in the South, and Spillman not only "sold" him on the program but induced him to push for appropriations to carry on similar work in the North.

As a result of these various pressures, Congress appropriated $161,000 in 1912 to the Office of Farm Management for the promotion of demonstration work in the North. (137) The appropriation was to take effect in August, and it was in anticipation that Benson was brought over to develop club work.

Although, up to 1912, national publicity was centered on the magnificent records made by southern corn club boys and canning club girls, many northern states had gone ahead with comprehensive programs for rural youth. A brief review of some of these activities will show that club work even in the North was widespread long before the Smith-Lever Act.

When Benson went out to Iowa in 1912 to talk to his friends R. K. Bliss and Perry Holden about signing an agreement to cooperate with the Office of Farm Management in promoting clubs, he found a state-wide boy-and-girl program in full swing.

Holden, he learned, had resigned as Superintendent of Extension to run for governor of Iowa. Bliss was acting director. As early as January, 1910, premiums had been given boy and girl crop exhibitors at the college short course, and since January 1, 1911, E. C. Bishop, former state superintendent of education in Nebraska, had worked up a comprehensive system of local contests ending in a Junior State Contest during the annual short course.

The Iowa program in 1912 consisted of acre corn contests, contests in growing the seed from a single ear, popcorn, potatoes, and a litter pig contest. For the girls, the state sponsored bread baking, sewing, home gardening, cooking, and poultry growing. These contests were open to boys and girls under twenty years old. There was a state-wide Iowa Boys' and Girls' Club with junior officers, and every effort was being made to encourage county clubs under the superintendents of education. (53)

Benson signed up Iowa to the first Federal-State College

DATES IN WHICH CLUB WORK WAS STARTED COOPERATIVELY IN THE DIFFERENT STATES IN THE NORTH AND WEST

Prepared May 16, 1916

1912	
Iowa	Aug. 16
Indiana	Sept. 1
1913	
Nebraska	Jan. 1
Massachusetts	July 1
Utah	Sept. 1
Michigan	Dec. 1
1914	
Oregon	April 1
Idaho	April 18
Minnesota	July 16
Rhode Island	Aug. 7
Connecticut	Aug. 16
South Dakota	Aug. 22
Kansas	Sept. 1
Montana	Sept. 1
New York	Sept. 1
(to June 30, 1915)	
Colorado	Sept. 2
Washington	Sept. 9
Wyoming	Sept. 9
Vermont	Oct. 1
Wisconsin	Oct. 1
New Mexico	Dec. 1
1915	
Arizona	Jan. 1
North Dakota	April 16
California	March 1
Illinois	June 1
New Jersey	June 1
Nevada	Nov. 1
1916	
Ohio	April 16

States in which we are not now cooperating: Maine, N. H., N. Y., Pa., Del., and Missouri.

agreement for the promotion of club work in the North and West. The date of the agreement was August 16, 1912. (156)

Benson's objective, at this time, was to induce the state to appoint two state agents, one to be in charge of club work and the other, a woman, to be an assistant in home economics. These two leaders, in cooperation with the Office of Farm Management,

Fig. 10.1A — Z. M. Smith, first state club agent for Indiana, appointment in 1912.

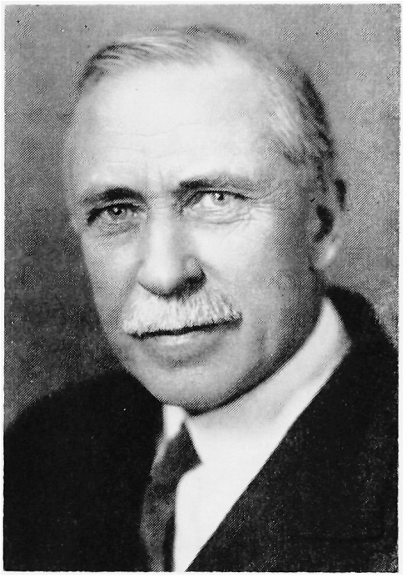


Fig. 10.1B — Clarence Beaman Smith, under whose Washington leadership club work was organized in Northern and Western States.

would plan a program and seek cooperation from teachers, granges, businessmen, county agricultural agents and others. (158)

It was estimated that it would cost the state about $3,000 to pay half the salaries and traveling expenses of the two agents. The government would pay the other half. Since thirty-three northern and western states were involved, the government contemplated an eventual expenditure of about $100,000 to promote club work over the entire North and West!

One hundred thousand dollars looks small against the mil-

lions being spent on club work today. In 1912 it was a magnificent objective — a goal that some day, the Fates and Congress willing, would be attained.

Benson next went to Indiana. At Purdue, he found an active Extension department under the leadership of Dr. G. I. Christie, who had been trained under Holden in Iowa, and a college-directed program consisting of corn growing, stock judging, bread baking, sewing and fruit canning. (118)

Indiana signed an agreement similar to Iowa's on September 1, 1912, and under the cooperative arrangement Z. M. Smith was appointed to be state club agent. (118) Smith, teacher of agriculture and principal of Jefferson township school, was fitted by temperament and training to work with rural youth.

The Indiana agreement, a copy of which is still in existence, is entitled: *Memorandum of Understanding Between Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana, and the Bureau of Plant Industry, United States Department of Agriculture, Relative to Boys' and Girls' Club Work in Indiana. (To take effect September 1, 1912.)*

The agreement made clear that club work would be cooperatively planned by the Bureau of Plant Industry and Purdue's Agricultural Extension Department. The government agreed to pay $100 a month toward the salary of an assistant state agent in charge of club work, and Purdue agreed to pay $33.33 per month toward his salary and $800 a year for his expenses.

The stated purpose of work under the memorandum was to encourage rural and village boys and girls to become interested and efficient in farm and home activities, to provide careful organization and field follow-up in such projects as growing field crops and gardens, canning, and finding markets. The agent was to seek the cooperation of schools, business interests and other organizations in the pursuance of these objectives.

These two states, Iowa and Indiana, were the only ones to sign cooperative agreements with the Office of Farm Management in the year 1912.

In other states, rural-youth programs were not lagging.

North Dakota had a unique program under way. In December, 1910, G. W. Randlett, Director of Extension, had gath-

The following information is copied from the records which are on file [May, 1913] in the office of the Director of Extension, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana:

MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING BETWEEN PURDUE UNIVERSITY, LAYFAYETTE, INDIANA AND THE BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, RELATIVE TO BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUB WORK IN INDIANA.

(To take effect September 1, 1912.)

The object of the work under this memorandum of understanding shall be to conduct boys' and girls' club work in the state of Indiana. The primary purposes will be to encourage rural and village boys and girls to become interested and efficient in farm and home activities; to furnish careful organization and field follow-up work in matters pertaining to the organization, promotion, direction and instruction of the boys and girls in the growing of field crops and the promotion of gardening and the canning of surplus products, finding markets, etc.; to seek cooperation by coordinating the work of the public schools, and through business interests, and other associations and organizations for the purpose of teaching better methods of farming, by the organization and direction of young people in the work of growing and handling of field and garden crops.

In performing this work it is understood that the following plan shall be pursued:

1. The Bureau of Plant Industry, subject to the approval of the Secretary of Agriculture, shall provide the sum of $1, beginning September 1, 1912, to be paid annually during the continuance of this memorandum as salary of a State Agent who will have general charge of all the boys' and girls' club work undertaken by the Bureau of Plant Industry and Purdue University in the State of Indiana.

2. The Bureau of Plant Industry will also provide the sum of $1,000, beginning September 1, 1912, to be paid at the rate of $100 per month for 10 months of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1913, and $1,200 annually at the rate of $100 per month of each fiscal year thereafter or during the continuance of this memorandum of understanding as salary of an Assistant State Agent in charge of boys' and girls' club work, who will devote his entire time to this work under the general direction of the State Agent.

3. Purdue University, subject to the approval of the Board of Trustees, will provide $333.33⅓, beginning September 1, 1912, to be paid at the rate of $33.33⅓ per month for 10 months of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1913, and $400 or more annually at the rate of $33.33⅓ per month of each fiscal year thereafter, toward the salary of the Assistant State Agent in charge of boys' and girls' club work, and in addition will pay $666.66⅔ or more of the total expenses of the Assistant State Agent for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1913, and $800 or more annually thereafter for the same purpose.

4. It is further understood that the Department of Agricultural Extension of Purdue University will provide the Assistant State Agent in charge of club work with adequate office facilities for conducting the work.

5. The general policy to be followed in planning and conducting the boys' and girls' club work under this memorandum of understanding will be determined by the accredited representatives of the cooperating parties. The actual direction and supervision of the work in the field will be vested in the Head of Agricultural Extension of Purdue University and the representative of the Office of Farm Management of the Bureau of Plant Industry.

6. In promoting the club work, the State Agent and Assistant State Agent in boys' and girls' club work will cooperate closely with the State Leader, supervisors and county agents cooperatively employed by the Bureau of Plant Industry and Purdue University in farm management field studies and demonstrations.

7. The Assistant State Agent in direct charge of the club work will be required to submit a report in duplicate at the close of each month on the work done and the results obtained, and a report at the close of each fiscal year, summarizing the work of the preceding year, one copy of each report to be filed with the Extension Department of Purdue University and the other with the Office of Farm Management of the Bureau of Plant Industry. All records made in pursuance of this work will be available to each party, who shall be free to use these results in official correspondence or in publications, subject to the approval of the other cooperating parties. In all publications of results, proper recognition will be made of the cooperative nature of the work and of the institutions concerned.

8. This memorandum will take effect September 1, 1912, and continue in force until such time as the exigencies of the work may necessitate a change.

(Date) 5/12/13 — G. I. Christie
For the Extension Department,
Purdue University.

(Date) May 15, 1913 — Wm. A. Taylor
Chief, Bureau of Plant Industry,
U. S. Department of Agriculture.

ered ninety-six boy and girl corn contest winners at the state college for a week's short course. This event, called the "Boys' and Girls' Institute" at that time, is now the "4-H Achievement Institute," and has been held continuously since 1910. While Benson was enlisting the cooperation of states in club work, North Dakota was moving ahead with state-wide crop growing, bread baking and sewing contests through the rural schools.

In Wisconsin, thousands of youngsters were growing corn, sugar beets and potatoes under college supervision.

In Minnesota, the tall, soft-spoken T. A. Erickson had been appointed Rural School Specialist at the University Farm, a post created two years before to help teachers work out agricultural programs in their schools.

Erickson, as superintendent of schools in Douglas county, had conducted a program of agricultural betterment equal to that of any of the pioneer superintendents whose stories have already been told. (82)

As early as 1905, with his own money, he had bought Minnesota 13 seed corn, and delivered it personally to boys and girls to grow and exhibit at the Alexandria carnival the next fall. The following year he had added potatoes to the program, buying superior seed with his own money. He wrote James J. Hill, president of the Great Northern Railroad, asking for a prize, and received a check for twenty-five dollars.

In 1909, he had his boys and girls plant and cultivate potatoes, corn, wheat, and fruit trees on a ten-acre school farm. Under his tireless guidance his rural schools blossomed out with trees, shrubs, and flowers. At some of his fairs, boys and girls showed as many as 2,300 exhibits.

He gave children settings of eggs from the best flocks in the state and had them exhibit their two best chickens and submit a poultry booklet. Along with Georgia's chicken contests in 1907, this was one of the earliest known examples of poultry work with boys and girls. He encouraged strawberry culture, and in 1911 had girls plant tomatoes and can them, drawing inspiration for this venture from the success of tomato clubs in the South. No activity to stimulate the minds of country boys and girls was too burdensome for Erickson to undertake.

In 1911, his Alexandria High School had the prize-winning exhibit at the state fair with an assortment of dresses, aprons, blouses, canned fruits and vegetables, corn, potatoes, and products of the woodworking art.

Erickson had no sooner taken his university post as rural school specialist than Benson came along to propose an alliance with the Office of Farm Management to develop club work.

No agreement was concluded in 1912, probably because funds

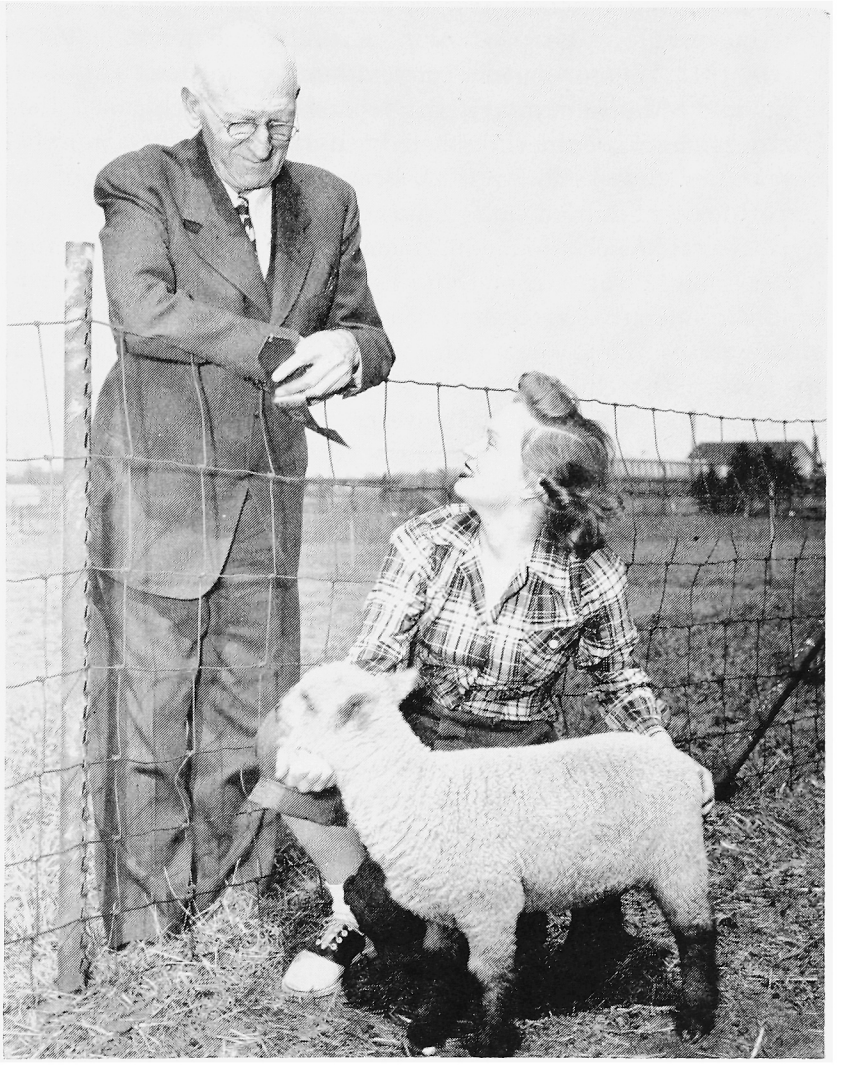


Fig. 10.2 — T. A. Erickson organized club work in Minnesota as early as 1905. Here he is shown with the Minnesota Champion 4-H Sheep Club member in 1946.

could not be allotted that fast, but Erickson was made a collaborator, given a dollar a year by the government, and permitted franking privileges for promotion of rural youth work. (30)

In 1913, Benson made cooperative agreements with four more states: Massachusetts, Utah, Nebraska, and Michigan. (156)

In Michigan, corn clubs had been conducted in a number of counties since 1908. By 1912, Professor Walter French of the Department of Agricultural Education had organized a Junior Agricultural Association, the members of which grew crops under college supervision. In 1913, according to the terms of the cooperative agreement, Dr. Eben Mumford was jointly employed by the college and the Office of Farm Management to develop the club program. (81)

Nebraska, since the early years under Bishop, had gone ahead with such activities as corn growing, corn husking and judging, potato growing, cookery, butter making, and sewing, all these projects taking place in counties under school supervision, the winning teams and individuals going to Lincoln for the Boys' and Girls' State Contest and Convention. (103)

Club work had begun in Massachusetts with a circular letter sent out by the department of agricultural education of the Massachusetts Agricultural College in the spring of 1908. This letter, going to the boys and girls of Hampshire county through their schoolteachers, invited them to become members of a potato club. About twenty bushels of potatoes were distributed to some 500 boys and girls, five potatoes each, along with instructions for planting and cultivating. (76)

In September a potato exhibit was held at the Agricultural Society Fair at Amherst and twenty-five dollars distributed in premiums. This event proved so popular that it was repeated in 1909 with an enrollment of a thousand.

In 1910, the potato contest was made state-wide and corn growing was added, each contestant planting one-half pint of corn. School superintendents, granges, women's clubs and agricultural societies took part in supervising the work, and some 8,000 youngsters participated.

By 1912, the state gave direct support to the program by

granting to the various agricultural societies the sum of $200 each, to be paid as premiums. In that year, Hampshire county awarded free trips to Washington, Boston, and the college for winners in a corn-acre and potato-half-acre contest.

The next year, the state blossomed out into a comprehensive program including tomato, market garden, canning, poultry, and school ground improvement clubs, claiming an enrollment of more than 20,000 in these activities.

It is interesting to note that in Massachusetts, with its heavy urban population, the membership in these agricultural and homemaking clubs was not confined to rural districts. Brockton and Worcester had more than 1,100 members each, and sixteen other cities had enrollments of from 200 to 600.

The man who developed home and school gardens in Brockton was the superintendent of schools, George L. Farley, whose work was so outstanding that in September, 1916, he was called to the Massachusetts Agricultural College at Amherst to become the state's second club leader, a position held with distinction until his death in 1941.

From 1913 on, Massachusetts' program of crop growing and home canning was carried on under the joint supervision of the State Board of Agriculture, the college, and the Bureau of Plant Industry, the government contributing $1,500 toward salary and travel expenses of state club agent, Orion A. Morton.

By 1914, the indefatigable Benson, traveling about the country, giving canning exhibitions and talking to college Extension officials, had made cooperative agreements with two more states, Oregon and Idaho, in both of which extensive rural youth programs were already under way. In many other states, dollar-a-year collaborators were designated.

From this brief recital of the progress of club work in the North, it becomes apparent that the Smith-Lever Act, which was about to take effect in 1914, did not create something new in the line of a boy-and-girl program. It merely gave a firm financial foundation, on a nationwide basis, to a work that had already made great strides both in the North and the South.

11.

Congress Passes the Smith-Lever Act

WHEN the Smith-Lever Act was finally passed in 1914, it was the climax of more than six years of effort on the part of our colleges, with the support of many organizations, to obtain federal aid for Extension work.

As early as 1908, the land-grant colleges had considered a plan for federal aid involving an outright grant to each state of $10,000 plus an additional amount, based on rural population, to be given each state if the state furnished a like amount. (137)

Beginning in December, 1909, many bills were introduced into Congress providing both for Extension work and for the teaching of vocational subjects in the schools. The first of this long parade was the bill introduced by Congressman J. C. McLaughlin of Michigan, the man who had promoted corn clubs in his state and later was instrumental in obtaining the appropriation that enabled Spillman, Smith, and Benson to promote Extension work in the North in 1912.

The McLaughlin bill, introduced into Congress on December 15, 1909, providing $10,000 per state plus added funds to be

matched by the states, followed the recommendations of the colleges; and it was this kind of bill that eventually became law under a different name. However, at the time, Congress wasn't at all sure just how it wanted to aid agriculture. Many interesting and conflicting ideas were presented in the years preceding 1914.

One bill, for example, called for a system of government-managed demonstration, or model, farms, even though it had already been proved that farmers paid little attention to model farms run by somebody else. It had been clearly shown in the South that the most effective demonstration was that conducted by the farmer himself. Had this bill passed, it is quite possible that club work as we know it today would have withered and died. Fortunately it didn't get far.

Another question at the time was whether the government should lend its help to vocational education in the schools, or to Extension work, or to both.

The Dolliver bill was introduced, providing both for the teaching of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics in high schools, and for Extension work, with the emphasis on the first.

Two schools of thought arose, one putting the emphasis on vocational education in the schools, the other on Extension work. Both ideas were worthy. Both were useful in the growth of a healthy, prosperous agriculture. The question seemed to be one of priority rather than an outright choice.

While this debate was waxing hot, control of Congress passed to the Democrats, with the result that A. F. Lever of South Carolina became chairman of the House Committee on Agriculture, while Senator Hoke Smith of Georgia became a member of the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.

Asbury Francis Lever had become a member of Congress in 1901, and in the succeeding years he had seen at first hand the success of Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work in South Carolina. He had watched the growth of corn clubs and noted the sensational yields made by boys from his own state. During these years he had become a devoted admirer of Dr. S. A. Knapp, thoroughly favoring the demonstration, or Extension, idea. (153)

Hoke Smith, formerly an Atlanta attorney and governor of

Georgia, was equally devoted to demonstration work. Early in his career he had proved his interest in rural life by providing wagons and workshop equipment to the first consolidated school in the state, and as governor he had promoted corn club work and approved appropriations for college Extension work. After he was elected senator in 1911, he was a strong backer of the Lever bill, which succeeded the McLaughlin bill in the House. (4)

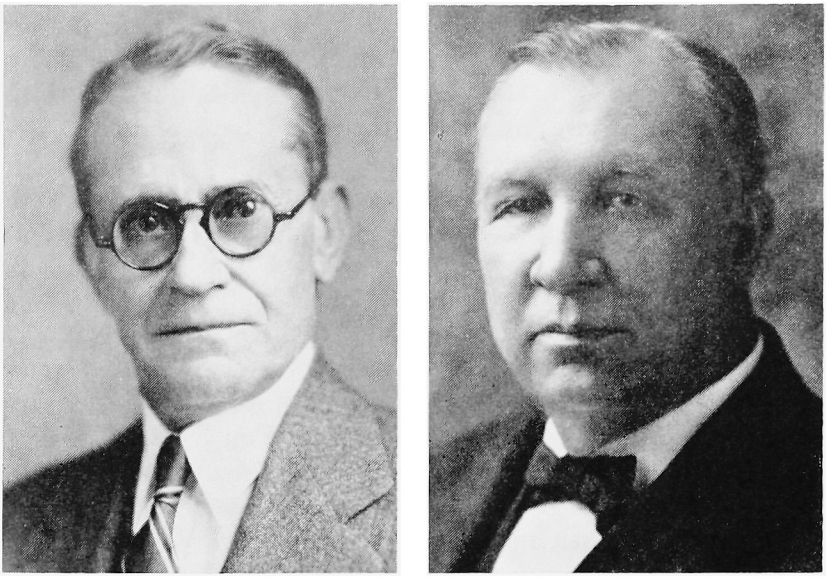


Fig. 11.1 — Smith and Lever, who pooled ideas to promote the legislation bearing their names.

Under the leadership of these two enthusiasts for demonstration work, the Extension idea gained priority and by 1913 the legislative highway was cleared for the bill that was finally to put Extension work on a nation-wide basis.

Today we take for granted the idea of organizing Extension work by counties. Extension offices at the county seat, often in the basement of the county building or the post-office building, are a familiar part of the rural scene.

But before 1914, our planners weren't sure that the county should be the unit of Extension work. W. J. Spillman of the Bureau of Plant Industry favored regional agents who would

cover a much larger area than a county. Dean Davenport of Illinois wanted a system of Extension work that would employ experts not limited to a county, but rather limited to a certain subject. These experts would cover wide territories in their particular lines of work.

Thus, various patterns were introduced, any one of which might have made a great difference to the future of club work. But, as usual, all the ideas of the planners had to come round to what was already being successfully practiced.

In the South, Knapp had established the county as the unit for his agents. The theory has been proposed that Knapp was forced to limit his agents' activities to a county when the railroads ceased giving free passes. Before then, traveling without expense, demonstration agents were able to go anywhere. Their territories usually paralleled a railroad line. Afterwards, their limited budgets dictated a briefer range of travel. This turned out to be the county.

Furthermore, club work at that time was being put into practice largely through county superintendents of schools. Club work owes much to the overworked, underpaid, idealistic school superintendents who added project programs to their already burdensome duties. One of these heritages is the present county-unit system of Extension work.

In the North, too, through the help of the Council of Grain Exchanges and through the natural trend of events, many county agents had been appointed. In Iowa, Indiana, Minnesota, and other northern states, the new state club agents appointed by Benson were developing club work through county superintendents of schools. Thus, all forces, everywhere, were working toward the county as the Extension unit.

To introduce some new system in 1914 might have had the effect of overturning much of the Extension groundwork already laid. It seemed the part of common sense to use and develop what was already existing.

For these reasons, all acts specifying some new pattern of Extension work were defeated in favor of an act which permitted Extension work to grow along lines already laid down.

These objectives were further guaranteed in a conference held

in May, 1913, between the Executive Committee of the Land-Grant College Association and the Secretary of Agriculture. The conference at this meeting agreed that the development of Extension work in the states would be a cooperative enterprise between the government and the state colleges. The program would be planned jointly. The precedent for making all Extension work, adult and youth, a joint enterprise of Department and college had been set in 1912 when Clemson College, South Carolina, agreed to joint supervision through a state agent stationed at the college. Similar cooperative arrangements were quickly made with other southern colleges. (108)

This arrangement, on a national scale, made certain that there would be no wholesale overturning of present personnel. This personnel consisted, in 1914, of 240 county agents, North and South, and 1,138 agents of Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work in the South. The work would simply go on, taking new life from the increased funds provided.

In marshaling sentiment for the bill, the colleges brought out the telling argument that the legislative programs for rural education was only two-thirds complete.

The first part of the program was the Morrill Act, signed by Abraham Lincoln in 1862, providing land grants to enable states to establish colleges of agriculture, mechanic arts and homemaking, with all phases of instruction.

The second part was the Hatch Act of 1887 establishing experiment stations for discovering new agricultural knowledge.

The colleges and the experiment stations had made immeasurable contributions to rural life. Yet, between the new techniques being discovered by the experiment stations and the actual practices on the farm, there was a serious lag. Through farmers' institutes, agricultural trains, off-campus short courses, demonstrations, and club work, some headway had been made in bringing science out to the farmer. Now it was time to bring all these Extension efforts into one system, adequately supported throughout the nation. It was time to put into effect the third part of the program.

Nowhere does the language of the Smith-Lever Act specifically mention boys and girls. It simply provides for:

> . . . the giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in said colleges . . . and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications and otherwise. . . .

Yet, in various discussions leading up to the passage of the bill, boys' and girls' clubs are frequently emphasized. Secretary "Tama Jim" Wilson, before retiring in favor of David F. Houston, gave his unqualified endorsement to club work in these words:

> If Congress cares to add to the very heavy and generous appropriation made for agricultural education in the past, I would have most hope of good coming from Extension work and demonstrations made on the farms of the country under intelligent direction and *practical instruction in the field given to boys of the farm and practical instruction in the homes given to the girls of the farm.* (137)

Mr. Lever, who expressively called his bill a means for providing "itinerant teaching," made certain that club work came within the scope of the measure by stating:

> One of the main features of this bill is that it is so flexible as to provide for the inauguration of a system of itinerant teaching for boys and girls. (147)

He made his point even more emphatic with these words:

> My efforts to secure the passage of the Smith-Lever Act had the most encouragement from the achievements of the members of the corn and tomato clubs and I hope sincerely that a large share of this money will be devoted to an expansion of the work with young folks.

A. F. Lever was a true friend and patron saint of the oncoming 4-H Club movement.

Corn clubs, tomato clubs, pig clubs, and bread-baking clubs were very much on the minds of the authors and sponsors of the Smith-Lever Act.

In fact the colleges and the Department agreed, shortly before the final approval of the act, that 25 per cent of the Smith-Lever funds should be earmarked for "movable schools, study clubs, or boys' and girls' clubs," and for printing, with only 5 per cent to be

devoted to printing. Thus, by deduction, it may be assumed that close to one-fifth of the money was to go to club work. (136)

Thus, through debate, the proposal and rejection of many ideas, and the reassuring of various groups who feared that the new law might affect their labors, the Smith-Lever Act took final form. It became a law through the signature of President Wilson on May 8, 1914. On that date, the most unique and distinctive system of voluntary, practical education ever devised was given the support that made it a permanent part of the American scene.

The law provided an outright grant of $10,000 per state for the first year, and for every year thereafter. The second year, an additional $600,000 was to be divided among the states according to their rural populations, and each year thereafter, for seven years, an additional $500,000 was to be divided up. Thus the total federal appropriation was to grow year by year until it reached $4,100,000 annually, in addition to the $10,000 per state. All except the $10,000 had to be matched, dollar for dollar, from sources within the state, whether by the state legislature, the college, counties, or by individual contributions.

One of the most unique features of the act is that it provides for mutual support between the federal government and state and local governments and even public-spirited individuals. Here was an educational program that was to get its ideas and inspiration from people at all levels, from Washington on down to the individual farm, and from these ideas to shape its program to fit the needs of rural groups.

Had this concept been thought up without previous experience, it would have been called daring, to put it mildly. Yet, in all its phases, the law merely recognized what was already going on. States, colleges, county and local governments, business organizations and individuals were already contributing financial support to Extension work. Now, under the law, they could get a dollar of federal money for their dollar — within certain limits. Local people had helped shape the program in the past. Under the law, they would continue to do so.

The Department of Agriculture created a new bureau to

handle Extension work after the passage of the Smith-Lever Act — The States Relations Service. Dr. A. C. True, then director of the Office of Experiment Stations, was put at its head. (137)

Under True, two Extension offices were created, one for the North and West, one for the South. True realized that it was not ideal to have two administrative offices existing side by side for two sections of the country, but felt that it was best.

The two sections felt at the time that they were developing different programs to suit different needs. The social and economic conditions of the two regions were different. The precise methods that might be used in one region would not suit the other. Neither group wanted to be dominated by the other. Therefore, for the time being, two Extension offices were set up.

The Office of Field Studies and Demonstrations in the Office of Farm Management became the Office of Extension North and West, and C. B. Smith remained in charge, while Benson continued to work under him to develop club work as he had for the past two years.

The Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration Work, under which club work had been developed in the South since 1908, became the Office of Extension South, and Bradford Knapp remained in charge, with J. A. Evans as his assistant; O. B. Martin and I. W. Hill continued in charge of club work.

Nothing actually was changed, except that, with greater funds assured, the two staffs could continue to organize club work at greater speed and spread its influence further.

The Northern office, which had got a later start than the South, began at once to enlarge its staff. Benson, who was working out cooperative agreements with a dozen or more states in 1914, needed an assistant. The December before, Benson had gone to Chicago to give a canning demonstration at the request of the Cook county country-life supervisor, George E. Farrell. (12)

Farrell, born on an Illinois farm and trained at Northwestern and Wisconsin Universities in rural community organization, seemed to Benson to be just the type of man to help him. During the canning demonstration, held in a downtown hotel, Benson

put an apron on the robust Farrell and put him to work blanching and peeling assorted vegetables. At the end of the demonstration he turned to Farrell and said abruptly:

"When are you coming to work for me?"

"Right away," Farrell replied.

Not long after, Farrell received a wire saying: "Come to Washington."

He went, without appointment. When he arrived in the capital, Benson was out of the city on one of his demonstration trips. The young man called on C. B. Smith, visited the home economics kitchens, found his way around, and waited for Benson.

Once his immediate chief arrived, leisure disappeared for the former Northwestern football player. Benson handed him a schedule and told him to pack up his canning outfit and begin work. As Farrell recalls it, that first year he was on the road 230 days, going everywhere, giving canning demonstrations before Extension conferences. The calls were endless and the new man was given few breathing spells.

Somehow, in the midst of all this, Farrell succeeded in writing a thesis, and receiving a temporary appointment in October, 1914. On January 1, 1915, his formal appointment came. (162)

These were the days when Benson was introducing the pressure cooker to his audiences and encountering considerable opposition from some home economics staffs. In this method, fruits and vegetables were packed cold in tins and processed in pressure cookers. This was the method being used commercially, but home economists weren't yet ready to accept it as a satisfactory method for home use.

The state club leaders ran head on into the opposition. In December, 1913, E. C. Bishop of Iowa and Z. M. Smith of Indiana had gone to Washington where, in company with southern leaders, they had learned this method of canning. (131)

Smith obtained a cooker, brought it back to Lafayette, and was told by the home economics department that its use wasn't approved. The open kettle method, they told him, was the only safe method for home use.

Smith disagreed and arranged with Benson to give a series of

Fig. 11.2 — Washington club leaders had to learn to can in tin. George Farrell, Benson's assistant in the North and West, traveled the country in 1914 teaching canning to state Extension workers.

Fig. 11.3 — Here is a typical early-day canning demonstration.

canning demonstrations in counties, in spite of warnings from the college experts. When the results from these demonstrations seemed to be good, the college graciously gave in.

With the passage of the Smith-Lever Act, state leaders in northern states began the serious task of improving project work by working on local supervision and a system of reports.

When Smith first became Indiana's club leader in 1912, he was put to work judging ten-ear exhibits at Farmers' Institutes. In many instances he was sure that the boy had not grown the corn himself, but had selected his ears from anywhere on the farm. This was a natural result where supervision was lacking. Before there could be effective supervision there had to be a good local organization tied to a college Extension department.

Smith wanted to make club work something more than an exhibit. In the very first memorandum covering the development of club work in Indiana, written for the year 1914–1915, (119) Smith and his chief, G. I. Christie, visualized a county organization

that would bring into close cooperation the county superintendent of schools, the county agricultural agent, the township trustee, and energetic men and women in each district in the township.

Without this type of local cohesion, club work was not likely to mean much. The state could provide bulletins to preach the best practice and report forms for the boy and girl to fill out, but unless there were local leaders to lend encouragement and advice, little was likely to happen.

This first memorandum specified that the state leader and his assistants were to employ such tools as cameras, lanterns and slides, canning outfits, charts, circulars and bulletins. Their transportation was to be by steam and electric lines, and by automobile or buggy furnished by county superintendent or county agricultural agent.

So Smith, armed with such tools, began working on the counties. He became an idea salesman, an "itinerant teacher," traveling the state by train, interurban, buggy, and afoot, carrying the message of club work. There were times when life was rugged for the state leader. Smith recalls slinging his equipment over his shoulder and walking ten miles to the town of West Point, Indiana, rather than taking the train the evening before and spending the night there.

He remembers another occasion when the local group promised faithfully to get him to the station in time for the afternoon train to Lafayette. His chauffeur, on that occasion, was a placid farmer driving a prized draft horse.

As the draft horse plodded deliberately toward the distant station, Smith politely urged his host to greater speed. "We'll git there," the farmer assured him, whipping up his horse to an elephantine jog. Then, as the horse slowed to a walk: "Don't want to overheat him."

The train pulled into the station as they neared the outskirts of the town. It pulled out when they were still half a block from the station, the farmer now whipping up his horse in earnest.

The train disappeared in the distance and Smith began looking for other means of transportation. He managed to get out of town by an interurban that went not to Lafayette but somewhere

else. He arrived home at three a.m., in time to snatch a couple of hours' sleep and be off by early train for another meeting in another part of the state.

Smith's travels to interest counties in sponsoring club work were duplicated in other northern and western states. The months following the passage of the act were months of intensive promotion in all states where cooperative agreements existed

Fig. 11.4 — This is one of the first-known visual education trucks. It was used in Louisiana to bring the story of club work to rural schools. The Model T engine ran a dynamo that generated current for the movie machine.

between the state college and the Department of Agriculture. By the end of 1914, such agreements were in effect in twenty-one of the northern states.

In Louisiana, club work was promoted by one of the earliest known instances of the use of motion pictures. In Baton Rouge, the enterprising E. S. Richardson, who had succeeded V. L. Roy as state club leader, braved the office of Thomas D. Boyd, president of Louisiana State, with an idea.

At that time — 1914 — there were few gas buggies in Baton Rouge. President Boyd had recently taken a trip by auto to Shreveport, and the journey, interrupted by tire changes and

mechanical troubles, had taken three days. As a result, the president took a dim view of the future of the automobile age.

To this man Richardson proposed a novel and untried scheme involving extensive use of an auto. He wanted to rig a generator to the engine of a flivver. The generator would provide current to operate a motion picture machine and lantern slide projector. With this outfit, plus a couple of shovels to dig the car out of the mud, he proposed to travel the gravel and gumbo roads of the state, bringing pictures of club work to one-room schools.

Much to his surprise, the president gave his assent, no doubt with certain mental reservations.

Richardson bought his car, dynamo, and projection equipment. With the help of Dean W. T. Atkinson of the college of engineering, he perfected the device, adding that marvel of modern invention, an electric stove, with which to give cooking demonstrations in the schools.

Bravely the visual-education automobile set out on its journey with a young photographer named Jasper Ewing at the wheel. Arriving at a country school, Ewing and Richardson, with the help of the local teacher and eager students — many of whom had never seen a motion picture — took the dynamo from the car and staked it firmly to the ground with long metal pins. They jacked up the rear wheels and slung a belt drive between generator pulley and axle.

Meanwhile, inside the school, others were hanging heavy curtains over the windows to keep out the light. Ewing then set up his movie projector and screen, and presently the hushed and awed youngsters were seeing with their own eyes the miracle for which their city cousins were paying a nickel in town.

This pioneering venture in visual education was a success from the start. "Louisiana School Work" reported in 1915 that "This contrivance combines two of the latest inventions — namely, the moving picture machine and the automobile."

As for results: "During the first seven months of 1915, the Junior Extension Service of the Louisiana State University visited one hundred and forty schools in seventeen parishes and rendered programs with autostereopticon and moving picture

machine to an estimated attendance of 23,340 school children, school patrons, and farmers. About one week was devoted to each of the seventeen parishes.

"In addition to several reels of educational pictures, there were shown at each school stereopticon slides depicting the various phases of corn, pig, poultry and canning club work.

"In addition to its use in the production of moving pictures and lantern slides, the current generated by the electric motor of this machine may be utilized to provide heat for cooking utensils. An electric stove has been added to the equipment of the automobile and successful cooking demonstrations have been made. This feature is expected to prove an important part of the Extension work in home economics." (68)

Throughout the country, with imagination and energy, pioneer state leaders were pushing club work. Although enrollment figures for the early years are at best only estimates, the accepted figures show an increase in members of 45,000 in 1915 over 1914, total membership leaping from 116,262 to 161,518. (29)

12.

Club Work With Negroes Expands

THROUGHOUT the years, work with Negro farm boys and girls has been an important part of the Negro Extension agent's program with the farm family. From the very first, Negro boys and girls were active partners with their parents in the campaign for a better rural life. In many instances where parents were unwilling to engage in new-fangled ideas proposed by a stranger, the agent found a more receptive pupil in the boy or girl, and through the youngster gained cooperation of the parent.

To trace the development of Negro club work, it is necessary to trace the growth of the entire Negro Extension program.

Negro Extension work in the South got an early start because such men as Booker T. Washington, head of Tuskegee Institute in Alabama, and Hollis B. Frissell, head of Hampton Institute in Virginia, had the vision to see that it was needed.

These leaders — Washington, a Negro, and Frissell, a white man — had watched the progress of Seaman A. Knapp's beginning work in Texas and other boll-weevil-threatened states, beginning in 1903. Knapp's early agents had enrolled many demonstrators

among the Negro farmers of Texas, Louisiana, and Mississippi. The reports of their success created a demand for demonstration work in other southern states, and this in turn called for the appointment of Negro demonstration agents.

The pioneer Negro agent was Thomas Campbell, a Georgia farm boy who ran away from home to seek an education at Tuskegee Institute, rather than face a life of "hiring out" to other farmers for meager wages.

Campbell's appointment as the first agent in Farmers' Co-operative Demonstration Work came in his final year at Tuskegee. He was out in a field breaking ground with a steel-beam turning plow when Dr. George W. Carver, the agricultural wizard who headed Tuskegee's experiment work, brought a large man out to see him. This man said, "I want to employ you to travel about and show the Negroes how to prepare land just as you are doing now."

The man was Seaman A. Knapp. The date was November 12, 1906, about three years after the beginning of Demonstration Work in Texas. (21)

The tall young student had already done Extension work of a kind. With Carver, he had traveled about the country showing farmers how to improve poor land by working in barnyard manure, then planting legumes and plowing them under. He had noted how Negro farmers planted cotton up to the cabin door-step, leaving no room for a garden. He had listened to Carver preach the gospel of the farm garden, and had lent a helping hand as the scientist, standing at a stove, showed housewives how to turn cowpeas, tomatoes, and turnips into palatable dishes.

Earlier that year, Tuskegee had sent out its first "movable school," called the Jesup Agricultural Wagon after the donor, Morris K. Jesup of New York. This wagon, fitted out with cream separator, milk tester, hand churn, two-horse steel-beam plow, cultivator, harrow and garden tools, went around the countryside putting on better-farming demonstrations, with all the neighbors in to help. Campbell had driven the Jesup Wagon, and the experience had well fitted him for his role as the first of all Negro demonstration agents.

Under Knapp, Campbell began a career as agricultural missionary that has continued down to the present. As a collaborator in the Bureau of Plant Industry, his beginning salary was $80 a month, paid by the General Education Board.

A month later, on December 14, 1906, Knapp appointed the quiet and precise John B. Pierce of Virginia as the second Negro

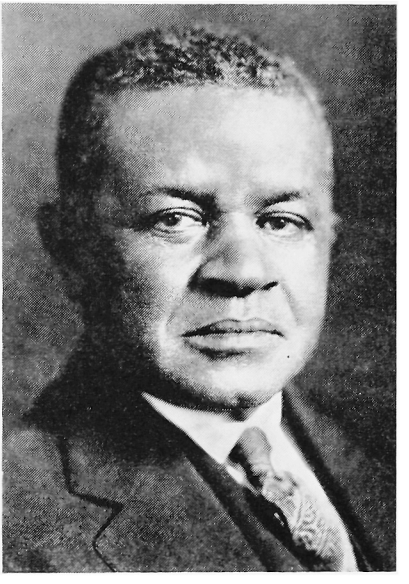


Fig. 12.1A — John B. Pierce was appointed to head Negro demonstration work in Virginia in December, 1914.

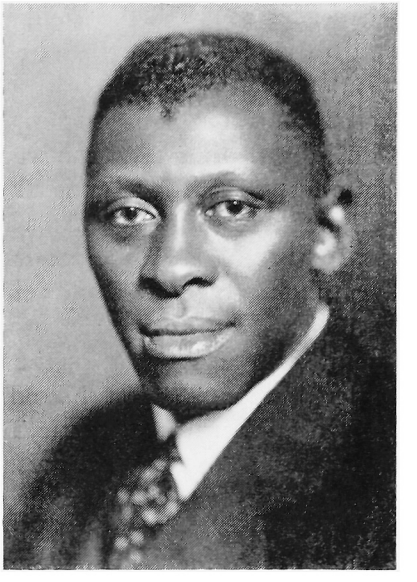


Fig. 12.1B — Tom Campbell of Tuskegee Institute was the first Negro demonstration agent.

demonstration agent, working from Hampton Institute. (162)

These men, and the pioneers who followed them, had to attack the most urgent needs in the most direct way possible.

Most of the farmers they visited raised only one crop — cotton in some states, tobacco in others. Booker T. Washington, head of Tuskegee, used to see farmers driving to town with empty wagons and returning with loads of purchased goods. He used to tell them: "Don't drive your wagon to town empty. Fill it with something to sell." But few of them had anything to sell beyond their annual crop.

"In our county the farmers raised tobacco," reported one of the pioneer Virginia agents under Pierce, Ned Morse of Mecklenburg county. "They bought all the food for the table and all the feed for the mule. They ran a race with the merchant all year, and when they sold their tobacco maybe they'd catch him and maybe they wouldn't.

"Raising tobacco is hard business. In the flue-cured kind, the farmer has to watch the fire day and night for weeks. If it gets too hot his whole crop goes up in smoke and he has no money to pay his debt at the store.

"I'd find a farmer lying on the ground, looking up the chimney and I'd tell him: 'You'll never find any feed looking up that chimney.' I was trying to get him to diversify, raise other crops to sell, not run up so many bills at the store." (94)

In these early attempts to induce farmers to improve their farming methods through undertaking demonstrations on their own farms, the agents had to overcome both suspicion and resentment. If there was a boy on the farm, they often induced the father to let the boy try what the old man refused to attempt.

On one farm in Virginia, Pierce found a litter of six pigs and tried to get the farmer to raise them according to demonstration methods. When the man proved indifferent, Pierce asked the farmer to give one pig to the boy to raise under Pierce's direction. Reluctantly the farmer agreed. Later, when the boy's pig weighed exactly twice as much as any other pig in the litter, the farmer decided there was something to demonstration methods. (114)

In Texas, one of the three pioneer agents, Jake Ford of Wharton, encountered one farmer who didn't believe a government agent could beat him at farming. Ford met the challenge by asking the farmer to let his son have one acre and permit him to cultivate it under Ford's directions. Father and son would then each raise and acre of corn and compare yields.

The farmer responded by allotting Ford and the boy one acre on top of a hill, while the farmer himself selected an acre at the bottom, thus deliberately handicapping the agent at the outset. The contest developed wide community interest, and at harvest time a gathering was present to help measure the corn.

The results were so conclusive they caused a farming reform over the entire region. The farmer's acre yielded twelve and a half bushels, the acre tended by Ford and the boy, fifty bushels. Though the farmer had used bottom land, he had taken a four-to-one beating. After the event, farmers crowded round Ford, signing up for demonstration work. (43)

J. A. Evans, when he was assistant chief of Extension in Washington, acknowledged the help of Negro youth in establishing demonstration work. Evans wrote:

> Agents find boys and girls more receptive, more willing to follow instructions, and, on the whole, better demonstrators than their parents. Often the best way, or the only way, to get the father or mother interested in the programs of Extension work is first to get their consent to enlist the boy or girl in some junior Extension work. (149)

The first Negro home demonstration agent was Annie Peters Hunter, who received her appointment January 23, 1912, in the town of Boley, Okfuskee county, Oklahoma. (162)

That same year, on May 24, Mattie Holmes was appointed collaborator in demonstration work in Hampton, Virginia, at a salary of $40 a month paid by the General Education Board. She served about three months, after which she resigned to get married.

Her successor, Lizzie A. Jenkins, appointed on May 5, 1913, remained in service until her retirement in 1945, thus encompassing in her own experience the entire development of the home demonstration program for Negro mothers and daughters. The appointment provided that she was to:

> . . . organize and conduct canning clubs among the colored girls in thickly settled colored sections of the southeastern counties of Virginia. She will be employed five months of the year. . . .

To those who think of work with girls in the light of the present complete homemaking program offered by 4-H, the levels on which Miss Jenkins began her work among girls and their mothers bring into sharp focus Negro farm conditions in 1913.

"What the farm homes needed was wood and water," she reports. "Enough wood to keep the house warm and do the cooking, and some way to get water without going to the well or

spring. I'd come on a farm with a spring in the hillside some distance away. Maybe there'd be some iron pipe handy. I'd tell the man he ought to run that pipe from the spring to the house so his wife wouldn't have to fetch the water all that way.

Miss Jenkins had already learned how to can with literally no equipment. A few years before she had studied canning under a Jeanes teacher. Through the Jeanes fund, teachers were employed to go around the country teaching domestic arts in homes and schools. The lack of equipment didn't deter them. They built ovens out of rocks, on which they'd put a lard bucket, and this was their canner. They taught farm wives to plant vegetables, showed them how to cook, and in between preached health, better schools and home ownership.

Miss Jenkins worked along the same lines, holding her meetings in the home rather than the school because it was the home that most needed help. Her happiest moments were when some farm woman would proudly show her a new stove or kitchen cabinet that her husband had bought her. "I told my husband we had to have it before you come, Miss Jenkins," she'd say.

Miss Jenkins didn't organize girls' clubs at first. She worked with mother-daughter teams in the home. (57) The girls' home economics program grew out of the needs of the home. It began with the tenth-acre tomato growing program, followed by canning, then spread to clothing, room beautification and other phases of home economics.

Beginning in Alabama and Virginia in 1906, Negro Demonstration Work spread to other states as more agents were appointed, until eventually it was under way in all sixteen southern states. In 1919, the growing importance of the Demonstration Work among Negroes was recognized by the appointment of Tom Campbell and J. B. Pierce as field agents, each to have charge of the work in about half the southern states.

The first report of Negro club enrollment was made in 1916, when it was estimated that the southern states had 2,551 club members. (164) Here and there, wherever there were enough boys and girls interested in the program, youth clubs were formed entirely apart from the adult work, the boys going by the name of Farm Makers' Clubs, and the girls, Home Makers' Clubs. By

the early 1920's, boys' and girls' clubs on the general pattern were becoming more common.

By 1923, when separate reports were made on Negro boy and girl projects, Extension Service records show that there were 3,001 clubs enrolling 21,893 boys and 34,078 girls.

Gradually, other features of club work came into the Negro program. Achievement days, camps, rallies, state short courses and roundups were instituted. (115)

In 1921, Virginia held a three-county rally in Powhatan county attended by 71 club members. Two years later, in 1923, Virginia had its first state short course at Hampton Institute, attended by 119 boys and 62 girls. Later, this event was moved to Virginia State College at Ettrick, near Petersburg.

West Virginia had its first state roundup for Negro members in 1924, in connection with the Kanawha Valley and State 4-H Fair. Two years later the site of the roundup was changed to the Greenbrier Valley Fair where facilities were better.

In 1922, West Virginia held a Negro club camp at Denmar, and today the state has its state-wide Camp Washington-Carver at Clifftop in Fayette county. In 1924, North Carolina held camps at Greensboro, New Bern, and Winton and several years later established a state short course at the A. and T. College, in Greensboro. Similarly in other southern states the Negro program and organization acquired the general pattern.

Throughout the years, club work for Negro boys and girls has been developed almost entirely by the agents in charge of adult work. Negro men agents on the federal payroll on December 31, 1949, consisted of 9 state leaders, 19 assistant state leaders, and 369 county workers. For women the figures were 2 state leaders, 20 assistant state leaders, and 387 county workers. Altogether there were 7 state leaders for club work (both men and women) 2 state assistants and 5 county club agents.

Enrollment in 1948, chiefly in the 16 southern states, was 141,244 boys and 176,944 girls, a grand total of 318,188. (163)

The response of Negro boys and girls to the club program has been enthusiastic throughout the years. The club program has been an important factor in increasing farm income, land ownership, and improved living. No doubt thousands of Negro farm

youths have since duplicated the experience reported by J. B. Pierce in 1916. Pierce wrote:

> One farmer's son left home because he couldn't see anything coming to him. Now the old man is doing demonstration work, his sons are at home and all are happy. One of the boys said to me, "This is the kind of life I like."

In 1948, the first regional camp for outstanding Negro boys and girls was held at Southern University in Baton Rouge,

Fig. 12.2 — The first regional camp for Negroes was held at Southern University, Baton Rouge, in 1948.

Louisiana. This camp was attended by eighty-two boys and girls from sixteen states. To this first all-South camp came Tom Campbell of Tuskegee, the first Negro demonstration agent in the United States. Outstanding Extension leaders guided the program, which included discussion of common problems by the young people, talks by outstanding agricultural leaders, a visit to New Orleans, a boat ride on the Mississippi, touring the Louisiana State Capitol, and studying experiment station research work.

Growing steadily throughout the years, club work has come of age as a force for the betterment of farm and home life among the Negro citizens of the United States.

13.

Club Work Finds Itself

CLUB WORK, down through the years, has opened the door of opportunity to many boys and girls who otherwise might have seen little hope in their surroundings. By offering the stimulus of public recognition, it has spurred many young people to the conquest of handicaps.

In the fall of 1915, T. A. Erickson, Minnesota's state club leader, was traveling the state, rechecking corn plots for the state-wide corn acre contest. He came to the Simpson farm near Northfield, a forty-acre plot run by a widow and two sons. One of the sons, Warren Simpson, was entered in the contest. (31)

The widow introduced her boys, one of whom had suffered an attack of polio that had reduced his left arm and leg to uselessness. Incredibly, the polio victim was the contestant.

"Are you Warren?" Erickson asked unbelievingly. "How do you cultivate your patch?"

Eagerly the boy told him. He had a short-handled hoe, small enough to be wielded with one hand. During the growing season he had crawled through the acre patch, hunching himself laboriously along, chopping out the weeds and aerating the soil with his good right hand.

Erickson marveled at the fortitude of a boy who could hardly

walk, yet found a way of cultivating his corn. The state leader husked the necessary samples of Simpson's corn, took them to the college, dried and weighed them. The boy's acre figured out 106 bushels, high enough to win first in the district and second in the state. Erickson went back to Northfield for a high school assembly. He told the students:

"I know if this were a football assembly and I were announcing a championship team, you'd give the winners a great reception. Well, I'm announcing a champion of another kind—Warren Simpson, district corn champion and state runner-up."

No football team received a more heart-warming reception than Warren did from his schoolmates.

The value of club work lies in the fact that it makes clear to young people that the community appreciates and applauds such unspectacular but fundamental activities as seed selection, weed chopping, and care of the soil. It awards high honor to the useful and the everyday tasks.

Inspired by his victory, Warren resolved to go to college. He worked his way through Minnesota caring for furnaces at University Farm, became a Smith-Hughes teacher and club leader, and trained a livestock judging team that won the state championship and fourth place at the International Live Stock Exposition. He wrote to G. L. Noble, managing director of the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work:

> I'm going to do club work because I want to give back some of the things I've got from club work myself.

Stories like those of Warren Simpson were the publicity banners under which club work grew in the years between the passage of the Smith-Lever Act and the first World War.

They were formative years. Under a broad charter to bring agricultural and home economics instruction out to the country, leaders in all parts of the country were working out varying patterns of club work.

There were few "clubs" as we know them today. Local clubs with officers, regular meetings, and a program with social objectives were rare.

The emphasis in the early Smith-Lever years was on projects. Clubs for the most part bore project names. There were corn clubs, pig clubs, canning and poultry clubs, garden clubs. The emphasis, therefore, was less on the social dividend of getting together than on raising a crop and making a profit.

As W. C. Abbott, former state agent for Louisiana, puts it:

> Club work was done with little or no organization in the communities. Boys and girls were informed of the different projects and they went to work. Sometimes parish-wide meetings were held but the principal incentives were prizes offered at fairs for club exhibits. (1)

Since the emphasis was on a crop and an exhibit to be prepared for a fair, club work tended to be seasonal, rising to a fever pitch for a time, then tapering off into inactivity. A year-round program was lacking.

The fact that most club work was organized through the schools was another barrier to a year-round program, since teachers generally went off on vacation, leaving boys and girls to carry on their projects with only the supervision the overworked county agent or the state club leaders might be able to give.

Nevertheless, enrollments increased and progress was steadily being made toward something more enduring. Club exhibits at county, state, and interstate fairs, the recognition of state champions by the President and Secretary of Agriculture in Washington, county rally and achievement days all made the public conscious of this blossoming work with rural youth.

It was in the years just before the war that the Demonstration teams became general. These teams were a natural outgrowth of the canning demonstrations being carried on all over the country by Benson, Martin, Farrell and others.

The sight of boys and girls, standing behind a white-clothed table, canning fruits and vegetables, while one of the team delivered a running description of the technique involved, became a common one. As war came closer, bread-baking demonstrations increased. Local, state, and interstate champions in the various Demonstration teams were declared.

These youngsters, performing in public, realized that they were getting an education that would mean much to them in later years. A Nebraska club girl, Grace Henderson, wrote:

If you never have talked extemporaneously in your life you probably will have to sometime. And my sincere advice to you is, try out for membership on a canning team this next summer. I know from

Fig. 13.1 — Through team demonstrations club members taught the art of canning to their communities. This is an Iowa team performing in Buchanan county in 1920.

experience it will be worth as much to you as several weeks of English work in school. (138)

This girl went on to tell how canning demonstrations had brought her school textbooks to life. Some of her school courses at the time were botany, physics and domestic science. Such textbook terms as *bacteria, fungi, tempering, annealing,* and *expansion of glass and steel,* formerly abstractions, suddenly became real to her. She understood what they meant by personal contact and experience.

Grace Henderson had learned that the best way to learn was to teach others. Demonstrations before the public were a fore-

runner of the modern educational idea of having students clinch their own knowledge by demonstrating that knowledge to others.

An Iowa club boy, Fred E. Ferguson, state pig club champion in 1916, found other dividends in club work besides his prize trip to the state short course at Ames.

"Lessons you teach yourself are effective," he reported, adding that before his pig club work he had been tired of farm life. Now he was enthusiastic about it.

Another club member, Stella Vernon of Utah, discovered that club work required independence of thought and action.

"You have no teacher to assign you a certain amount of work for the following day," she wrote, "and if you are not careful you are going to slough (*slacken up*). But in club work you are climbing toward a goal. Your heart's desire is to win, and it keeps you plodding cheerily onward."

Many stories of individual resourcefulness have come down to us from these formative years of club work. One of them is the tale of young Lorents See of Walkersville, West Virginia.

In the spring of 1914, William H. Kendrick, state leader, had organized two corn clubs in Upshur county. Each boy was to receive enough seed corn of a superior kind to plant 200 hills.

Lorents See received his precious corn. Eagerly studying the instructional material, he learned that the seed would germinate more quickly if it were soaked in water. He put his corn in a pan of water and set it down in the woodshed while he went to the garden to get a hoe.

When he returned, he found four or five chickens standing around the pan and not a single kernel left in it. Among the chickens was an old red rooster. Lorents decided that this culprit had dominated the table at the unexpected feast.

His mother came out and asked him what he was going to do. He replied grimly: "I'm not going to let that old rooster stand between me and success in life."

He killed the rooster and recovered 102 grains of corn from his crop, or enough for fifty-one hills. These he planted, and filled out this plot with other corn.

The ability to express yourself, self-taught knowledge, in-

dependent action, the ability to carry a project through without the lash of a disciplinary whip – these were some of the fruits of the enterprise known as club work.

Dr. P. P. Claxton, Federal Commissioner of Education, realized these things before the Smith-Lever law was two years old. Speaking to club leaders of northern states in December

Fig. 13.2 — A Frankfort, Indiana, team demonstrates seed corn testing at the Purdue University Round-up in 1919.

1915, he pointed out that schoolwork taught a student much knowledge but gave him little chance to apply it. (24)

> Your work goes farther than that. It results in the doing—and one who has done, and done intelligently, has a type of knowledge which others do not have. It is practical, real.

Club work, he went on to say, has begun to bridge the gap between classroom learning and the boy and girl on the farm. The schools, he regretted, had not bridged that gap.

Club work was making people in the country interested in, and intelligent about, the things they did. It was bringing educational leaders into the life of the community, combining education and living into a single framework.

Looking ahead to the coming era of vocational education, he concluded, "You are helping us make over the school."

Boys' and girls' clubs underwent an inflationary growth during World War I. The Extension forces of the country were an ideal army to marshal the farmers for increased food production and the entire country for conservation. With a wheat crop in 1916 only two-thirds that of the year before, and a potato crop only a little more than half, the United States entered the war in the midst of a food crisis heightened by ship sinkings in the Atlantic and the demand of armies in Europe.

The youth of the country was enlisted in the fight to grow and save food, and boys' and girls' clubs were the nucleus of a growing army of the soil. Membership leaped from 169,000 in 1916 to over half a million in 1918. (163)

Emergency funds provided by the Food Production Act of 1917 permitted a great expansion in the force of paid club leaders. In northern and western states, state and county leaders paid partly by federal funds increased from 391 on June 30, 1917, to 985 a year later. In addition some paid local leaders were employed entirely by local organizations. Leadership in southern states made a comparable increase. (147)

This young army of the soil and kitchen, equipped with hoes, paring knives and pressure cookers, marched to work flying the banners of the times.

"Can the Kaiser!" "Can or Collapse!" appeared on bulletins and billboards all over the country.

Girls gave cooking demonstrations under signs reading: "Why use butter in cooking? Bake, boil, stew — don't fry!"

Home, school and city gardens blossomed in every vacant lot, schoolyard, and farmyard, while headlines proclaimed: "Eat more fruits and vegetables and less bread."

At club demonstrations citizens saw tables bearing cans of corn syrup and sorghum, while a solitary sack of sugar reposed under a sign pleading: "Sugar — save me!"

Other clubs exhorted: "Eat more potatoes — ship the wheat!"

Canning, breadmaking, and cooking demonstrations flourished throughout the country. In many cities, boys and girls sold the surplus products from their home gardens in club markets, established in scores of towns.

Clubs throughout the country engaged in many special projects created by the war emergency. Fruit pits and nut shells were needed to manufacture carbon for gas masks, and in response to urging from the Chemical Warfare Service, club members collected tons of pits and shells. (147)

The shortage of wool, together with the demand for clothing by distressed families in Europe, gave rise to thousands of garment making clubs, in which girls learned how to repair their own clothes and fashion garments from scraps.

To ease the demand for meats, club members learned how to can game and fish. Rabbit clubs were organized.

To increase the supply of sugar, clubs were formed in northern states for the growing of sugar beets and the making of sugar beet syrup in the home.

The demand for meat caused a great increase in livestock

Fig. 13.3 — Delaware club girls demonstrate dressmaking shortly after World War I.

clubs in all parts of the country. These clubs were made possible through public-spirited individuals, banks, and railroads, which loaned money without security for purchase of purebred stock.

In Iowa, E. T. Meredith, publisher of *Successful Farming,* set up a fund eventually totaling $250,000 for this purpose, and as a result of this fund and others, baby beef, dairy and pig clubs sprang up in nearly every county in the state. Other states also benefited from the Meredith fund. (75)

In Arkansas, where banks had begun to finance the purchase of purebred hogs in 1915, the state, by 1918, was congratulating itself on the practical elimination of the razorback. In this campaign to improve livestock, some 1,800 club members had taken the lead, growing litters and selling the offspring in the neighborhood, placing purebreds on thousands of farms. (58)

In Utah, just before the war, the state club leader brought in eight carloads of purebred gilts for distribution to club members, with the result that by 1918, some 2,000 boys and girls had made a start in hog farming.

In Mississippi in 1916, the Illinois Central Railroad offered forty-seven purebred beef bulls to club members in counties bordering its railroad line, the bulls to be given outright to winners in baby beef contests. (85) This, and similar incentives, boosted beef production in Mississippi to the point where, during the war, the state was actually producing a surplus.

In Minnesota, livestock production by club members was stimulated by the Minnesota Livestock Breeders' Association, which began in 1917 to offer cash prizes to counties holding calf and colt shows.

This resulted in a unique enterprise in 1918. In that year, T. A. Erickson, state club leader, W. A. McKerrow, Extension livestock specialist, and the breeders' association got together to stage Minnesota's first Junior Livestock Show at South St. Paul. (30)

This show was not held in connection with the state fair or any other adult show. Club members alone participated. Instead of being an open show entries were limited to the three best baby beeves in each county. Some of the entries that first year were scrubby specimens, but the fact did not dismay Erickson

and his associates. They were seeking state-wide participation. Only by encouragement could the non-livestock counties be induced to improve their stock.

Later, lambs, pigs, geese, and other forms of livestock were added, and the Junior Livestock Show improved in number and quality, until its fame spread throughout the country.

Livestock project work by club members had begun long before the war, the first pig clubs dating back to 1909, but the war demand accounted for its rapid expansion from one end of the country to the other.

Another effect of the war was the invasion of cities by club work. There had been town and suburban clubs in New England from the beginning of club work, but not until World War I did the idea take hold in other parts of the country. Clubs in cities were the logical outgrowth of the hundreds of canning centers and thousands of gardens that flourished in all metropolitan centers throughout the war. For the most part, town and city club members dropped off after the Armistice, but here and there, city club work has endured down to the present day.

In Portland, Oregon, for example, the state leader, H. C. Seymour, established garden, canning, and similar clubs in connection with the city schools. This began in the war years.

The work was given permanence when the city council passed an act permitting the appropriation of funds to pay the salaries of city club agents for both boys and girls. Today, under the 4-H banner, these agents go into the schools and, with the help of the principals enroll boys and girls in clubs. The projects for girls are much the same as they are in rural areas, while boys engage in craft, hobby, and garden projects. Parents and interested citizens are club leaders and meetings are held the year 'round. (129)

In Detroit, a school garden program begun during the first World War under the club banner has continued down to modern times. In 1949, Detroit adopted an all-out 4-H Club program directed by urban 4-H Club agent Ray Lamb. (61).

Lamb was appointed to his post on January 17, 1949, and in his first year enrolled 1,588 boys and girls, of whom 1,500 completed their projects. Lamb enrolled members through schools,

churches, community centers and homes — wherever, in fact, a desire was present. Groups are organized into clubs with local leaders. Projects that have proved successful are electricity, handicraft, soil and water conservation, ceramics, plastics, clothing, foods, and other homemaking activities. One of the most successful activities is "good grooming," which involves clothes, manners and all-around health.

The Detroit urban program is a part of the Wayne County Extension organization, the county providing office equipment, clerical help, and mileage. Much support for the urban 4-H program comes from public-spirited citizens.

It may be noted here that World War II brought permanent 4-H Club work to still another city — this one, Denver, Colorado. During the second war, when the victory garden movement was at its height, a part-time club agent and a full-time home demonstration agent were established in Denver, and when the war ended, the state Extension staff and the Denver board of education agreed that 4-H Club work should be made a permanent enterprise.

An agreement was entered into between the Extension Service at Colorado A. & M. and the city and county of Denver for the establishment of an office in the city. At first the city and county agreed to furnish office facilities and 40 per cent of the total budget for personnel, but later the city and county assumed one-half of the total costs. From 1948 on, the Denver Extension personnel included an agricultural agent, assistant agent, home demonstration agent, home demonstration assistant, 4-H Club agent and two secretaries.

Denver's 4-H enrollment in 1949 was 1,800 in 252 clubs and there was assurance of continued growth.

Leaders found that the various home economics programs and projects planned for country girls were equally suitable for city girls. The program for boys was somewhat more difficult, since most crop and livestock projects were infeasible. The leaders, however, soon found suitable substitutes. Among the activities for boys are dog training, pigeon, rabbit and chicken raising, outdoor cookery, home mechanics, flower and vegetable gardens,

home improvements and grounds beautification. Many of these projects are suitable for girls as well.

The club program is introduced to boys and girls at the city schools, but enrollments are taken elsewhere. Club meetings are in members' homes, club activities are guided by voluntary local leaders, and over-all help is furnished by an advisory committee of interested businessmen.

An outgrowth of this activity is the Denver Fair, which began during the war as a victory food and flower show. The show might well have been discontinued after the war, but with the development of the city-county 4-H program the fair has been made permanent and has become an important civic attraction. (6)

One of the most unique examples of city club work occurred long before either World War in Elmira, New York. Here, a dedicated Y.M.C.A. secretary named Rufus Stanley organized boys into a handicraft and garden club. Stanley owned a farm outside the city. Inspired by Liberty Hyde Bailey's nature study bulletins, he conceived the idea of taking city boys out to the country, supervising them in garden work, and letting them both use and market the produce.

For the rural boy who envies the city boy, it will come as a revelation that Rufus Stanley was trying to give city boys some of the advantages that farm boys accept as a matter of course. Stanley stated this objective clearly in the outline of his Omega Club, organized in 1901. The first paragraph states:

> Object: The object of the club is to give city boys of limited means the opportunities of country boys — a chance to work; making things, and growing things, during out-of-school hours.

"Making and growing things out of school," of course, was the basic concept of club work, but the idea that city boys needed the privileges of country life was Stanley's own answer to the building of character in working town boys. After the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, Stanley became county club agent of Chemung county, in which Elmira is located, and the following year he helped O. H. Benson organize club work in various eastern states. One of his early followers was Albert Hoefer, later to become state club leader for New York.

Fig. 13.4 — Rufus Stanley and his Elmira, New York, group in Washington. Stanley, a leader of inspiration, is third from right in middle row.

The instruction of city boys and girls was never contemplated in the original Smith-Lever Act. During the first World War it was welcomed as an emergency measure. Today, although urban club work is gradually expanding, many people ask why more of these young people should not have the benefit of the 4-H program, with its emphasis on home projects in the practical arts and its stress on the cooperative pursuit of worth-while social objectives. If there are to be metropolitan 4-H Clubs, such cities as Portland (Ore.), Denver, Detroit, Indianapolis, and those in New England and Nassau County, N. Y., are case histories of what may be accomplished.

* * *

World War I brought out many inspiring stories of public spirit on the part of club members. In one war year, one of Minnesota's champion corn growers, named Ed Lenzmeier, happened to have some 1,500 bushels of purebred corn. There was a shortage of seed corn that year. The farmers in the champion's county were in worse shape than the run of farmers because of a freeze the previous fall.

A seed company offered the boy a high price for his corn. Though he was tempted to take it, he called his county agent for his suggestions and advice.

"If you'd like to do something worth-while with your corn," the agent said, "why not sell it to farmers in this area in small lots, so they can plant an acre and have seed corn the following year?"

The boy decided to do this. He sold out his corn in small lots at prices that netted him much less than he might have received. He sacrificed some thousands of dollars but the farmers in his county were enabled to build up their corn acreage. (148) After graduation from college, the public-spirited corn champion became a county agent, and at this writing, is headquartered in St. Cloud, Minnesota.

It was in the last month of the war that a group of Connecticut club boys, aided by college specialists, gave the state an object lesson in egg production that did much to stimulate the rapid expansion of the Connecticut poultry industry in postwar years.

In the fall of 1918, Connecticut's state club leader, A. J. Brundage, suggested to a club in Goshen, Litchfield county, that the members attempt to clear a profit of $1,000 on a flock of some 400 hens in a year's time.

Supervised by Extension poultryman R. E. Jones, these boys far exceeded their goal. On August 1, 1919, just nine months after the hens had started their race against time, the boys had cleared $1,437, or almost 50 per cent more than they had planned. At the end of the year their profits were $1,750. (17)

Meanwhile, a West Hartford club, with fewer birds, was doing almost as well, with a profit of $668 on 230 birds in the first nine months of operation.

These unique $1,000 poultry clubs gained wide attention and their success led to another original step. Learning that some of the members of the Goshen club were planning to go to college, Mr. Hendricks of the Washington Extension office suggested that the boys take their birds to college as a means of earning their way through school.

Three of the boys decided to take up the idea — Garry Miles, 18, Sherman Ives, 18, and Clarence Vaill, 19. Professor W. F.

Kirkpatrick of the college poultry department agreed to rent the boys the necessary space at the poultry plant, the boys agreeing to buy feed, care for their flocks and market the eggs.

One of the boys, Clarence Vaill, had to quit school in the spring to care for his father's farm, but the other two went on, their flocks contributing several hundred dollars annually toward their college expenses.

The success of the venture was so outstanding that money was raised through subscription to build houses at the college large enough to accommodate flocks of 100 birds. The plan continued until 1938, when a hurricane partly destroyed the three poultry houses.

Having hens help pay your way through college was a method, according to A. J. Brundage, "of bringing a two-hundred dollar job to college with you."

The experience gained by the pioneer clubs of Goshen and West Hartford enabled the state club staff to put poultry club work on a sound economic basis that has kept it the state's strongest project throughout the years.

The $1,000 poultry clubs were another example of the strength of a national program that has far-reaching objectives but not too many written rules. The club program is hospitable to variety. Scope is granted to the creative mind.

The emergency of war, with its increase in funds, stimulated a mushroom growth in club membership that could hardly be maintained after the Armistice. During the war, the stress of food production and conservation, and the necessity for enrolling young people in mass movements left little time for the serious tasks of improving local organization, or pursuing the lasting social objectives of club work.

Club work was conducted on a fervent, patriotic pitch, and the contribution made by farm boys and girls was impressive. With the ending of hostilities, the leaders were faced again with the task of building the structure of club work on a foundation that would stand the weathering of years.

14.

Signs of Maturity

AFTER the atmosphere of crisis and the mood of exalted dedication characteristic of the war years, the seeking of peacetime objectives for club work must have seemed humdrum business to the national and state leaders.

Yet there was no hint of a letdown at the meeting of northern and western leaders held in Kansas City, late in February, 1919. Here, representatives of the States Relations Service and thirty-three states attacked the long-range objectives with imagination and vigor characteristic of the program.

Club work hadn't yet suffered a cut in appropriations. Emergency funds would continue to be available until June 30. Membership and leadership were still close to the all-time high achieved the year before.

Dr. A. C. True, head of States Relations, was there from Washington to report that great efforts were being made to induce Congress to continue at least part of its emergency funds, so that personnel and programs could be maintained.

Yet, though funds were still plentiful, the leaders assembled in Kansas City realized the seriousness of the business at hand.

They knew that much of the war membership, which had reached 518,000 for the entire country in 1918, was insubstantial

and would evaporate during the coming months. Many of the members were from cities and could hardly be expected to remain in a program that was rural in objectives.

They knew also that with the inevitable reduction in funds and loss of wartime leaders, the problem of supervision would be heightened for those who remained.

They realized that the wartime program was not the kind that would succeed in peacetime. The war program had been a campaign for Production and Preservation. Its terms had been dictated from above. It was a military program, dressed in army togs and terminology, in which the club soldier took his orders from superiors. For the emergency this was fine, but for the long-range prospect something else was needed.

Furthermore, during the war, there had been little time to work on permanent forms of local organizations, permanent local leadership, or permanent local financing.

If club work was to continue to grow without the war stimulus, it must be built on basically sound objectives, on a program fitting the needs of the young people it was created to serve, and on good organization.

The discussions revealed that the leaders resolved these thoughts into two primary tasks:

First, to improve local organization.

Second, to return program control to the community.

In the matter of local organization, the record of the war years was not entirely dark. Just a year before, at the height of the war, these same leaders had recognized that the word "club" meant little, insofar as the term was supposed to imply regular meetings, elected officers, and a regular schedule of events and activities.

To attack this weakness, a committee of state leaders from the northern and western states, the year before, meeting in Washington, D. C., February 15–22, 1918, had drawn up requirements for a standard club. (25) As revised a few years later, the requirements called for a club that would be a club in fact as well as in name:

1. A standard club shall have a membership of at least five working

on the same project. (This was to enable one member to be stimulated by another, doing the same thing. In later years, this requirement became somewhat less important.)
2. A local club leader shall have charge during the club year.
3. A local club organization with necessary officers shall be formed.
4. A club program of work shall be developed, covering the period of demonstration activities.

If these four requirements were met, clubs would be issued a handsome charter signed by the United States Secretary of Agriculture, the State Director of Extension, and the state club leader. To earn the right to add a seal of achievement, the following additional requirements must be met:

The club must hold six regular meetings during the year; members shall hold an exhibit annually; a demonstration team representing the club shall give at least one public demonstration in the community; members shall judge products related to their project, at club meetings, either individually or by teams; at least 60 per cent of the members must complete their projects and make a final report; and finally, clubs shall hold an annual achievement day program.

These objectives could hardly be attained without the services of an alert adult leader. The duties of such a leader would be to supervise the young officers, help them stage competitions and achievement days, supervise projects and raise money.

Thus, even before the end of the war, state and national club leaders had made an attack on the problems of local organization by defining a "club" and setting certain standards for the club to live up to. Most of the northern and western states were quick to adopt the standard club ideals, and in time many southern states sought the same objectives in similar terms. That the standard club provisions remain practically unchanged to this day is proof that they were soundly conceived.

The leaders at Kansas City well realized that successful local organization would depend on local leadership, and here the group noted a historic shift from the school teacher to the voluntary leader, most often a farmer or farmer's wife.

From the days of Graham, Kern, Adams, Benson and the others, teachers and county superintendents had provided the leadership, and the school the headquarters. For several years, now, a change had been setting in.

This change was partly due to the rapid growth of county farm bureaus and other county Extension organizations. As these organizations expanded, they began to take club work more and more under their wing. (26) Idaho reported that during 1918 twelve county club leaders had been employed through county farm bureaus and these club leaders had the same standing as county agricultural and home demonstration agents. A dozen other states reported rapid organization of club work under county farm bureaus during 1919. Ohio and Michigan reported organization under farm bureaus in counties having a farm bureau, and under schools in the other counties. In a few states, Missouri for one, club work was still being organized in connection with the schools.

The influence of adult county bureaus was to relate the project work of boys and girls more closely to that of the adults, resulting in a more or less unified attack on community problems, whatever they might be. Boys and girls often became junior members of the farm bureaus. Dads and mothers became local leaders, rather than the teacher.

Maynard H. Coe, former club leader in Blue Earth county, Minnesota, has given his personal recollection of the shift from the schoolroom to the farm community.

Coe went to the county seat of Mankato in 1918, just after the formation of the county farm bureau. It is significant that he was employed because the local school superintendent convinced the farm bureau that a club leader was needed.

Coe began his work by traveling about the county with the superintendent, visiting rural schools and forming clubs. He made the local teacher "sponsor," then went hunting a farm man or woman to act as leader. He didn't get many volunteers from the farm community. More often than not, the teacher was not only "sponsor" but leader. Meetings were held at the school on school time, Friday afternoons.

When Coe left the county a few years later to become Kansas state club leader, most clubs had shifted from the school to the rural community, and the meeting place to the farm home, with rural men and women assuming the responsibility of leadership.

Part of the reason for this change, Coe recalls, is that schools were not in session in the summer, nor were the teachers usually available after school closed.

Another reason for the shift was that where teachers were the leaders, an element of compulsion was often present. Club

Fig. 14.1 — Studying poultry at first hand interests club members.

work often seemed to members to be merely more school work, with a "boss" in charge.

Yet in many states, notably in the South, to this day clubs are organized and successfully maintained through the rural schools, and in the North schools maintain an interest in 4-H.

At Kansas City in 1919, Washington's leaders were not entirely sure that the trend away from the school was a good thing.

Club work — home project work in agriculture and home economics — had been promoted originally by alert teachers for the purpose of vitalizing the curriculum and tying the school more firmly to rural life. Now, it was leaving the schools, thus

apparently deserting the goal for which it was originally designed. It was this that Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, G. I. Christie, had in mind in his message to the Kansas City meeting, relayed in person by Dr. True. Christie wrote:

> This work (boys' and girls' club work) is a fundamental part of Extension activities authorized by the Smith-Lever Act and accepted and supplemented by state legislation, but since much work is carried on with boys and girls in schools, there must be the closest cooperation with state boards of education and with county and local school organizations. School officials will play a large and important part in this work and should be recognized as co-workers and consulted and made a party to all plans and projects. . . . (26)

Christie wanted the schools to continue their earlier role in the guiding of club work. Dr. A. E. Winship, noted Boston educator, who addressed the Kansas City meeting, also wanted to see club work remain with the schools for the good it would do the schools. Winship wanted to see the schools related more closely and vitally to actual community life. This was the same thing Benson, Adams, Miller, Field, Graham and Kern had wanted from the beginning.

Instead, club work was becoming a community activity.

While the leaders were puzzling over this trend, they were also debating the question of how club work should be related to the growing Smith-Hughes work in rural high schools. Here were schools teaching agriculture and home economics in the classroom and laboratory and supervising activities along these lines on the farm. Could boys and girls carrying on these projects for the schools also be expected to carry on club work?

True's answer to this was that between them, club leaders and Smith-Hughes teachers were reaching only a small percentage of the rural boys and girls in any community. The field was large enough for the earnest effort of both.

"We must not," he said, "be put in the attitude of quarreling over the same children." (26)

True pointed out that the relatively new Smith-Hughes work had been able to get off to a running start because of the experience provided by club work. Agricultural teachers had studied Extension work, examined successful projects, and in-

corporated them into the school work without much change.

This didn't worry True. There was no chance that schools would supplant club work, because after all, schools would concern themselves with a relatively small part of the eligible youth in any rural community.

There was another fundamental difference. School work tended to reduce itself to a curriculum — to a teacher's outline that must be followed from year to year — to a body of knowledge that must be imparted according to schedule.

Club work remained more flexible. It was free to take up new projects as soon as creative minds conceived them, to meet new needs as they arose. It didn't have to guarantee its member a basic fund of knowledge, but could leap into any activity that seemed worth-while to active community leaders.

Dean Alfred Vivian of Ohio State University, speaking to the assembled leaders, recognized the contribution of club work to the educational ideal when he said:

> The school-room agriculture of the past (not Smith-Hughes) has been a deadening subject, so you have introduced club work as a method of vitalizing agriculture. (26)

This was the great contribution of club work to rural communities. Because it was voluntary, flexible, and blessed with imaginative leadership, it had "vitalized agriculture." No one who has attended a local 4-H fair, with dads and mothers strolling through exhibit halls and standing on the outer fringe of the show ring will doubt this.

True's conclusion in 1919 that there was plenty of work for both Smith-Hughes and club work to do is as true today as it was then. Club work has grown fivefold and Smith-Hughes teaching has spread across the nation, yet between them they are reaching only a minority of rural youth. The job may never be done. It will always remain a challenge to the best thinking of vocational teacher and 4-H leader.

Various other subjects dealing with the improvement of community organization for club work were discussed at Kansas City. Among them were the matters of records and report forms, the need for leader training and the desirability of full-time

club leaders in the county. Utah and Delaware expressed themselves in favor of full-time club leaders, rather than to leave the promotion of club work to county agent and home demonstration agent, and many states reported progress along this line.

By 1919, annual training sessions were being held in most states for club leaders, usually at the college.

The assemblage agreed that there was value in contests, provided the prizes were not too large, and were educational in nature — for example, excursions to the college rather than cash; and provided also that the interests of the entire club were not sacrificed to the few contestants.

These were the discussions of a group of men and women who were thinking of the long-term educational values of club work, and they all bore upon the central problem of improving local organization.

Perhaps the most emphatically discussed idea at the conference was the return of program control to the community.

True sounded the keynote in a discussion of democracy in education. The classroom, he said, tended to be autocratic. The curriculum was handed down from above, by professional groups. The move toward consolidation and increasing state control of education through state aid both tended to heighten

Fig. 14.2 — Club boys and girls learn what makes a good lamb.

the autocratic nature of the schools and widen the gap between local people and their school.

The Extension system, he pointed out, was bringing the farmer and his wife back into education.

"Through the farm bureau," he said, "we are to go back to the farming people themselves. . . . We are to take them into real partnership in the development of county Extension work. The program for the county and the community is to be made up of the thoughts and ideas of the people in the county. . . . That is getting back to a real democratic basis of education."

W. A. Lloyd, U.S.D.A. Extension agent in charge of county Extension work in the North and West, showed how this philosophy was actually working out.

"There must be some motive coming from the people themselves," he said, "rather than attempting to organize people according to plan. There are about 700 farm bureaus at the present time, and they are functioning. A dozen farmers and their wives are coming together some evening and talking over their problems. The county agent, home demonstration agent and the club leader, if there should happily be three of them in the county, are making very careful notes. If those leaders are real leaders they have doubtless given suggestions. Later, the community leaders come together at a central point and determine the things they would like to have done in that county. . . .

"The suggested program of the rural community is brought to the agricultural college, the people's college, and there they consult with the paid expert and he gives it the scientific point of view and says what the college of agriculture and the Department can contribute toward the program. Then the farm bureau president, and county agent, the club leader and home demonstration agent take back to the county that combination of common sense which the people themselves have developed and shown, with the trained scientific thought of the institutions, and we have a program of Extension work for the county."

Various state leaders at Kansas City reported that, in effect, this scheme of things was working out in their states. Club pro-

grams were being cooperatively planned by community leaders, state leaders, and state and Department subject-matter specialists. Only three months after the close of the war, the emergency program, dictated from on high, was rapidly being reformed into a democratic program arising from community needs.

It was at Kansas City, too, that steps were taken to organize the home economics program according to the genuine needs of farm girls. The leader in this creative educational task was Gertrude L. Warren, assistant in Boys' and Girls' Club Work in the Washington office.

Miss Warren had been brought up on a farm in New York State, and as a school girl, had belonged to a nature study group and become one of "Uncle John" Spencer's youthful followers. She had first come into contact with club work in 1915, when she was teaching foods and cookery at Teachers College, Columbia University, in New York. A student in home economics, Miss Warren was working toward a degree through teaching fellowships. (113)

Dean Russell of the Teachers College had asked the young teacher to prepare a course for rural teachers to be offered at summer school. With the war in Europe impending, canning was being emphasized, so it was selected.

Seeking material on the subject, she learned from Laura Comstock, state home demonstration leader in Massachusetts, that O. H Benson, head of club work North and West, had literature on a process called cold-pack canning.

Her letter to Benson received a characteristic reply from that energetic crusader for rural youth. He not only sent literature; he sent his assistant, George E. Farrell, to give a series of demonstrations. These demonstrations, conducted in the shimmering summer heat of Morningside Heights, were her introduction to the rapidly growing system of Extension education. While learning at firsthand the art of capping, soldering and pressure cooking, she discovered, as others had done, that college home economists were not in agreement on cold-pack canning.

A year later, in 1917, when Benson invited her to come to

Washington as an assistant in club work, the young home economics master met those who tried to throw cold water on her venture into anything as new and unscientific as Extension teaching.

These well-meaning friends warned her that she was throwing away her chances for a successful career in academic halls.

"Why spend your time teaching in a farm home or barn?" they asked her. "Why leave an honored career for meetings in a cornfield?"

Others, notably May B. Van Arsdale, Mary Swartz Rose, and Mary Schenk Woolman, all of Teachers College, Columbia University, encouraged her to go ahead.

Miss Warren accepted the challenge, mentally noting that one of her chief tasks would be to win for club work the respect and cooperation of the home economics profession.

During the war, there was little the new assistant could do to organize the home economics program. The battle cry was canning, and the great show was the canning demonstration held in schools, theaters, town halls, and on courthouse lawns.

At Kansas City in 1919, Miss Warren brought this out as she laid before the conference a plan for a broader 4-H Club home economics program.

Americans, she pointed out, had canned enough food to make a chain of cans reaching three times around the world at the equator, and this was accomplished mainly through the impetus given by club demonstrations.

Canning had proved immensely successful because it filled a need, appealed to reason, was put on in a distinctive way, and was what the people themselves wanted.

What new projects could fill these same specifications?

She suggested clothing conservation — garment making — as a possibility. The year 1919 marked the height of the postwar inflation and farm women were revolting against high prices. Under the conditions, intelligently planned projects to repair and restyle clothing would have appeal.

Committees were appointed at Kansas City to work up outlines for garment making, cooking, and bread clubs, these

outlines to be offered to all the states for their acceptance, rejection, or revision.

These and other homemaking activities had been conducted before in various regions. The function of Miss Warren and her committee members was to make the experience of the few available to the many, and to present the material in sound form.

In working up their outlines they followed certain criteria. The work should last throughout the year rather than coincide with the school year. Two- and three-year programs should be devised. No work should be planned beyond the ability of the girl to achieve. As far as possible, the tangible end result of any project should be a practical, useful article.

These leaders wisely decided that the program should be planned to please the girl, even though this might mean sacrificing completeness and logical order. In other words, the objective was not a thoroughgoing course in sewing or the art of baking, but rather a project or activity that would allow the girl to produce something useful in a relatively short time.

This type of thinking marked the difference between a voluntary program that must win the girl, and a school program that can compel work.

These committees of state leaders in girls' work didn't disband after the Kansas City conference, but under Miss Warren's leadership continued to function in the years that followed. A stream of material began to flow from the Washington office, offering the foregoing programs to all the northern and western states. This material was never offered as a "must," but as a suggestive program to be freely adapted to the needs of any locality.

It wasn't long before the home economics program began to broaden into new areas. A circular from Miss Warren's office, issued in 1919, noted that Connecticut was organizing clubs in which girls rearranged and improved their rooms. Presently, a well-thought-out "Own Your Own Room" project was offered to all states, in which girls — and boys as well — were guided in rearranging, decorating, and refurnishing their rooms. (105)

About the same time, Oregon began on a home beautification

program in which the attention of club members was turned to shrubs, lawns, gardens and fences. (105)

Along with these aesthetic, non-profit programs, certain states were undertaking a project of considerable social importance — the hot school lunch.

The object of this program was to improve diets in smaller schools. In some cases, clubs of boys and girls under adult leadership — with school and teacher cooperation — prepared one hot dish each school day. In other cases, the lunches were the responsibility of the mothers under the home demonstration agent, with boys and girls cooperating. In either case, lessons in diet and health were put across to communities.

T. A. Erickson reports in his history of club work in Minnesota that hot lunch programs were conducted in that state in the years 1907–09, with students preparing and serving hot dishes under the supervision of the teacher. In many cases, student committees had charge of the program. During the war, the hot lunch became a club program in a number of states. Michigan issued its first bulletin on the subject in 1918 and hot lunch clubs have continued in that state down to the present.

In 1920, Miss Warren issued a project outline for hot lunches to all states. The method of preparing this outline was typical of the method in which projects originating in certain states were offered to all. First, questionnaires went to all state leaders in charge of this type of work. This material was then organized by a committee of state leaders working with Miss Warren. Finally, the program was offered to all states, not as a final course of work, but as a "suggestive program," to be used as a guide only.

Back in 1910–11, the first home economics project — tomato growing and canning — had been started as a profit-maker for the farm girl, and as a wedge to open the kitchen door to the trained home economics expert. From that point on, according to Seaman A. Knapp, history would have to decide how the expert used her opportunity.

History was now making the decision. The program was branching out beyond money-earning, into activities with educational, aesthetic, and community-service objectives.

Fig. 14.3 — Boys' and girls' clubs provided hot lunches to rural schools in many states beginning in 1918.

It was well for club work that the state leaders were able to meet at Kansas City in 1919, for as it turned out, this was to be the last general leader meeting until the inauguration of the National 4-H Club Camp in 1927. On June 30, 1919, emergency war appropriations were terminated, funds available for club work were sharply reduced, personnel was reduced with it, and general conferences were dispensed with.

But the leaders at Kansas City had planned their work well. By clearly stating the needs of a lasting program — local club organization, local self-determination, community-state-national cooperation, programs with educational value designed to fit the abilities of youth — the leaders had laid the foundation for a structure of club work that would survive the winds of adversity.

15.

The National Committee Is Formed

At the Kansas City meeting in 1919, Milton Danziger, assistant to O. H. Benson in the North and West, had led a discussion on contests as a part of the club program. (26)

The conclusion was that contests were valuable not only as a spur to young people but as an advertisement of club work to the community and the nation. They were also a demonstration to the public of better ways of farming and homemaking. Well run, they would teach the lesson of good sportsmanship. Care must be taken that contests be fairly judged, that contestants do their own work, and that the prizes be not so large as to be out of proportion to the achievement. Educational trips were favored as prizes rather than large sums of cash.

While the contest was thus given the stamp of approval as an integral part of the club program, the question of the relationship between business concerns and club work was not one to be easily solved.

Since the very beginning, railroads, banks, packing companies and other business interests had supported club work with prizes, all-expense trips and cash support to the county program. Indeed, local business support had been contemplated in the Smith-Lever Act itself.

Yet state and national leaders felt that many contests were without sufficient state and national supervision.

George E. Farrell, Benson's assistant, noting this tendency, yet wishing to gain the full advantages of contests and business support, felt that some coordinating machinery was needed.

Two representatives of business were to take the lead in resolving the problem to the eventual satisfaction of both business and the Extension Service. These men were Guy L. Noble, in 1919 on the staff of Armour's Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and E. N. Hopkins, editor in charge of youth activities for the Meredith Publishing Company.

These two men, in cooperation with state and national leaders and public-spirited businessmen, were to organize the unique National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work. The story of how this organization came to be is one of natural evolution, arising from obvious necessities, just as the development of club work itself was an evolution dictated by rural needs.

E. N. Hopkins had become interested in club work in 1914, while he was editor of the *Arkansas Fruit and Farm,* published in Fort Smith, Arkansas. In that year, crusading Perry G. Holden, then representing the International Harvester Company, took a swing through the state on a speaking tour that roused the state to a fever of agricultural activity. (75)

Arkansas at the time was facing a serious problem. The market for cotton, her chief crop, was threatened by the war in Europe. The state lagged in livestock production. She had to import food from other states.

Into this situation the inspired Holden came, preaching higher yields and diversification. Such was the earnestness of his message that he convinced farm and business leaders that the state could feed itself by following his lead.

"Work with boys and girls!" he told them. "Finance them to the purchase of pigs, chickens, and seed. They'll show the way!" From his earliest days in Illinois and Iowa, Holden had had faith in the ability of youth to take hold of new ideas.

Hopkins listened and caught fire. With other civic leaders, he appointed a committee consisting of E. J. Bodman, Little Rock banker; H. D. Reed, mayor of Fort Smith, and himself. The newspapers blazoned forth with a ringing campaign slogan, "Let Arkansas Feed Herself."

Under the direction of Holden and Dean Martin Nelson of the Arkansas Agricultural College, teams of speakers were carried on whirlwind crusades among the counties of the state. Towns shut up shop and farmers gathered by the thousands to listen to the speakers. Booklets, leaflets, and special editions of newspapers carried the diversification plea.

Hopkins set up a loan plan, and very soon bankers and merchants had put out $25,000 at six per cent interest to finance club members in the purchase of pigs, calves, chickens, and seed.

Commenting on the objective, the *Banker-Farmer* stated: "If Arkansas feeds herself in 1915 and has cotton as her money crop, the full ambition of the men behind the movement will have been attained."

Arkansas had considerable success with her diversification campaign, and club boys and girls did valiant service to themselves and their state by introducing livestock and high-yielding grains to their farms.

Inspired by the vision of club work, Hopkins went in 1916 to Des Moines to interest publisher E. T. Meredith in active club promotion. Meredith responded by organizing a boys' and girls' club department and putting Hopkins in charge of it. The following January he announced, as a patriotic food-production measure, a loan fund of a quarter million dollars to help midwestern farm boys and girls get started on projects. Under Hopkin's active management over $200,000 was loaned out to enable club members to buy stock, seed, canning materials, and the like.

These loans were made purely on character, without security, and Meredith was able to say, a few years later, that he had lost a smaller proportion of money in his loans to more than 10,000 youngsters than the Des Moines bank of which he was a director had lost on secured loans to adults.

While Hopkins was thus representing the public-spirited Meredith in the encouragement of club work, Guy L. Noble was becoming interested in club work by another route. Noble, whose background included a boyhood in the village of State Center, Iowa, a degree in dairy husbandry from Iowa State College, and interims of work on railroads, Iowa farms, a Colorado ranch, and Washington and Alberta wheat fields, went to work for Armour and Company after graduation.

During the first World War he conducted Armour's campaign to save fats, and during the campaign demonstrated an inventive bent by developing and patenting a process for crystallizing stearin out of beef fats. In 1918 he was transferred to the company's bureau of agricultural economics, one of his functions being to reconcile the conflicting viewpoints of farmers and packers.

He hadn't been with the bureau long before he ran into a former college roommate named J. G. McMillan. Noble asked him what he was doing and McMillan replied, "I'm a pig club leader in Nebraska."

Noble had to ask what a pig club leader was, and was fascinated when he learned that it was part of a federal-state-county program to serve farm youth. It occurred to him at once that Armour could show its good will to the farming community in no better way than to offer prize trips to the International Live Stock Exposition to boy and girl club winners. (113)

He induced the company to appropriate $5,000 to sponsor approximately forty all-expense trips to Chicago for the 1919 Exposition, then wrote the state club leaders in the Armour procurement area, inviting them to cooperate in selecting winners.

Noble could hardly have suspected at the time that this act was to lead to a career devoted to the encouragement of club work and the working out of harmonious relationships between the business community and the Extension Service.

He got to work at once arranging entertainment for the Armour delegation. He rented a headquarters in a store front across the street from the Live Stock Exposition and arranged for tours through Marshall Field's, the International Harvester Company, and Armour, plus a night show by Armour's dramatic and glee clubs. To show how little rural club work was understood at that time, he had trouble inducing the exposition management to give him one-time passes for his delegates.

When International time rolled around, Noble found himself surrounded not only by the Armour delegation, but by about one hundred other boys and girls who were in Chicago as guests of their local communities, the railroads, and other sponsors. He cheerfully included them all in his tours and entertainment.

It was at the 1919 International that Noble met Hopkins, who had come to Chicago with the Iowa delegation. From

Hopkins he learned firsthand what Meredith was doing for club work. He met also E. C. Bishop and Paul C. Taff of Iowa, Ray Turner, Michigan state leader, T. A. Erickson of Minnesota, and many others with whom he was to work closely in later years.

The 1919 tour has been generally recognized as the first National Club Congress. State delegations had visited the International before, Iowa sending winners as early as 1916, but not until 1919 were the various delegations cared for as a group and given planned entertainment en masse.

Apparently Noble's idea of organized sightseeing tours for everyone was popular. The following year, 1920, Noble had on his hands no less than 475 boys and girls. The railroads had donated many trips. Armour had upped its contribution to $15,000, of which $6,000 was to be spent on a movie of the tour to be exhibited by state club leaders and others.

That year, arrangements for caring for the club members were made in great detail. Girls were housed at the New Southern Hotel at rates of seventy-five cents and a dollar a day. Boys were quartered at the YMCA. Meetings were held in the smoking room of the Y. To this crowded room, the honorable E. T. Meredith, Secretary of Agriculture, came from the swank Blackstone, to stand on a chair and address the young people.

"The Junior Club Song Book and Program," given out to club members with the compliments of Armour, listed a rally at the YMCA under the direction of Hopkins, with talks by J. R. Howard, president of the American Farm Bureau Federation and George E. Farrell, in charge of club work, North and West; and singing led by R. A. Turner of Michigan.

There were contests for club songs, club yelling, and vaudeville stunts, with Noble presenting prizes. The tours included trips to the Lincoln Park Zoo and a big downtown bank, as well as to International Harvester, Marshall Field's, and Armour. Headquarters at the stockyards were in Harry McNair's horse-barn, a room 12 by 14 feet, containing a stove, desk, and telephone — a primitive arrangement compared to the luxurious 4-H building to be provided later. All these arrangements, plus the welcome by officialdom at the stockyards, gave the trip winners a thrilling sense of public recognition.

One Georgia boy, James Morton, Jr., of Athens, a 1920 pig club winner, reported on his experience as follows: (39)

I had the best time on my trip to Chicago that I think I ever had. We left Athens Saturday night about eight o'clock. The weather was something fierce. It was raining and freezing as fast as it fell. The trip going was kinder dull because it was Sunday and we could not see any farming going on. But we could see the pretty fields and crops.

We got to Chicago the next morning about seven o'clock and went to a hotel, put up our grips, and took a car for the stockyards. Here we met the other people from all of the other states. Then, we started in the stock show led by Armour's band of about thirty girls. We marched around for a while so they could get some pictures of all the crowd. We stayed at the stock show all day.

That night we went to the horse show. First, they brought in the prize-winning horses, the Percherons and Belgians, some of them the largest and prettiest in the world. Then they brought in the horseback riders. They rode around until they picked out a winner and tied a blue ribbon on him. After these had all been taken out they brought in the cattle and marched them around, being led by a company of Scotch Highland players.

After describing Armour day with its tour of the slaughtering plant, he went on:

At 6:30 we assembled in the restaurant and had supper. All the different states were giving yells and singing songs. So the man in charge (Ray Turner) called on all the states for their favorite song in the little book they had given us. When it came our time we didn't have but four or five delegates but we made a desperate effort. . . . If I do not win a scholarship next year, I think I shall go anyway, for it sure is a fine trip.

Thus were the memories of metropolitan bigness and association with boys and girls from other states printed indelibly on the mind of one young farmer.

Even before the 1920 International, however, the idea of some kind of permanent organization to coordinate the contributions of business sponsors was in the wind. Two months before, during the National Swine Show in Des Moines, Iowa, Noble, Hopkins, and Farrell and Milton Danziger from the Washington office of the Extension Service, were talking over the subject of industry support of club work, and of the growing number of trips and prizes without any central coordination.

"There ought to be a national committee," Farrell said decisively to the group.

This was the first specific suggestion of something that eventually was to become the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work, then National 4-H Service Committee in May, 1960.

In Chicago, two months later, Noble and Hopkins happened to be walking across the Chicago River bridge to their hotels, after the strain of caring for 475 youngsters was over. Out of the silence, Noble asked:

"What happened to this committee that Farrell suggested to coordinate all this? Have you heard anything?"

Hopkins had not, so Noble said: "Let's start one." (113)

Hopkins agreed that action should be taken, so the two of them listed a tentative committee on paper. Since Farrell was in Chicago at the time, Noble brought up the subject to him. Farrell replied that since it was to be a citizens' committee, the Federal Extension Service should not take the lead. However, he urged Noble to go ahead.

For a time matters remained in the plan stage, but in May, 1921, Noble arranged for a leave of absence from Armour's to spend his entire time organizing the committee.

He spent the following summer corresponding with state leaders asking their advice on the place and functions of such a committee. To help pay expenses during this interim period, he took on the assignment of covering livestock shows for the *Breeders' Gazette,* and during his travels sounded out all the Extension people he met.

Meanwhile, with Hopkins' help, he began lining up the support of influential people. Meredith agreed to accept the chairmanship of the committee, provided Thomas E. Wilson of the Wilson Packing Company was interested.

Wilson wasn't hard to sell. At the 1918 International he had come across a group of eleven Iowa winners and upon learning that they were engaged in improving agriculture on their farms had invited them to his table to lunch, at the Wilson and Company Chicago plants. This was the forerunner of the Wilson dinners that have been held continuously since that time.

When Wilson learned that Noble had resigned his position with Armour in July, 1921, and was now giving his full time to club work, he consented to give the Committee his support.

The first official meeting called to consider the formation

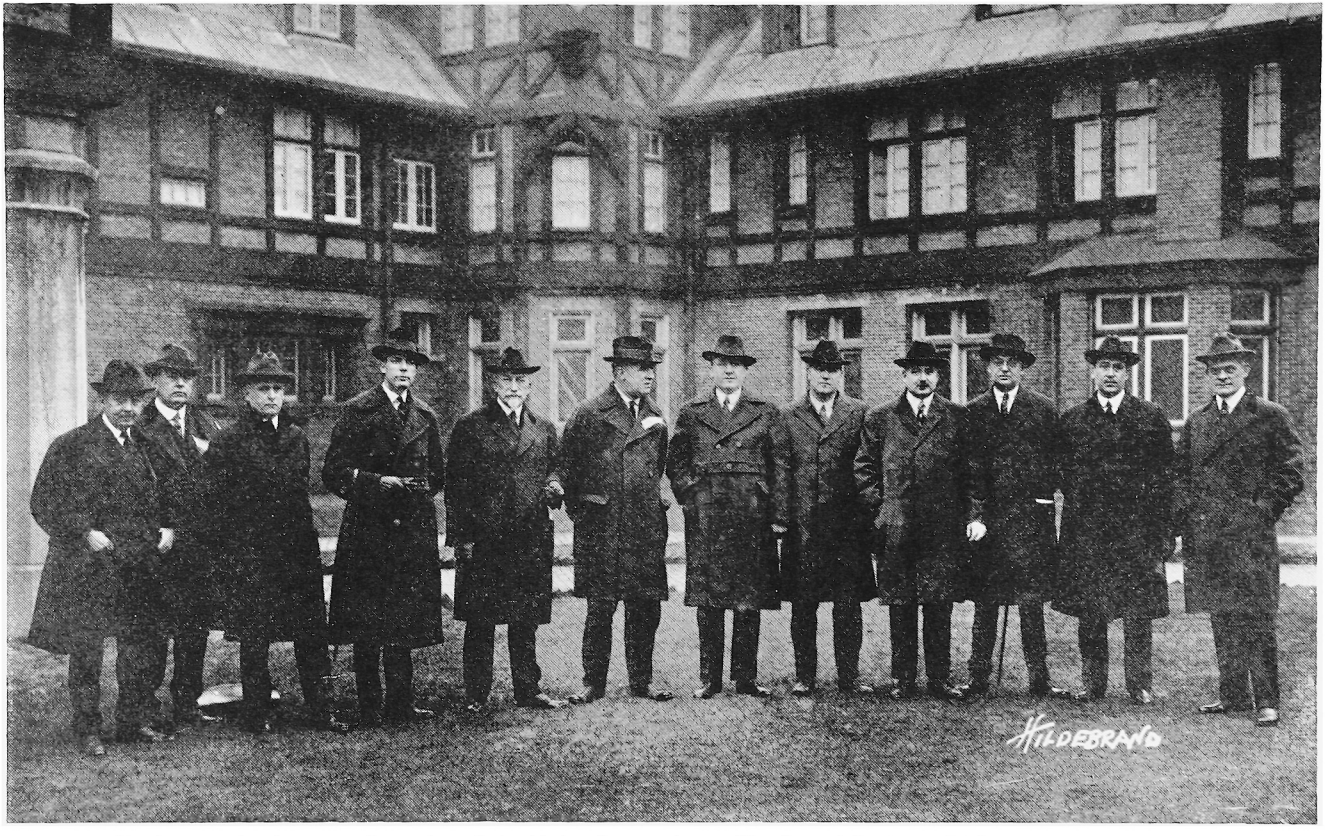
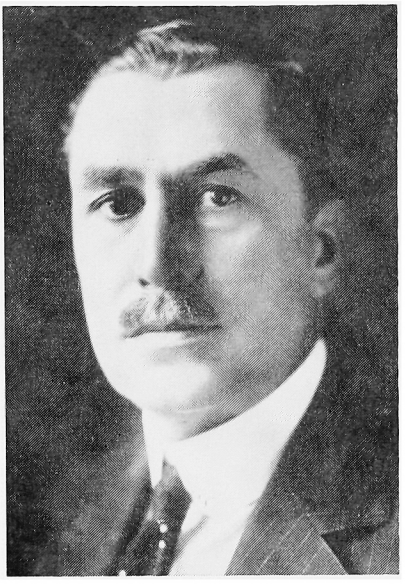
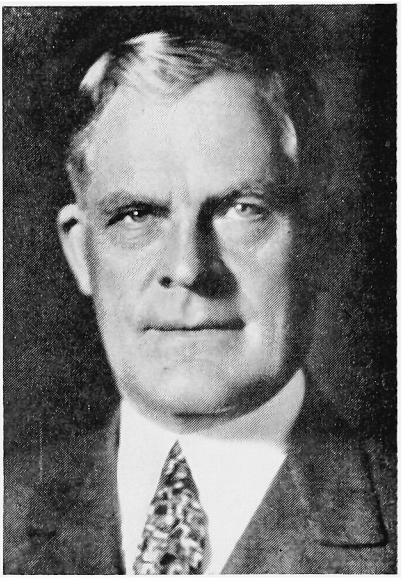


Fig. 15.1 — Members at the first annual meeting of the National Committee, 1921. From left: B. H. Heide, secretary International Live Stock Exposition; E. N. Hopkins, Successful Farming; O. M. Plummer, manager Pacific International Livestock Exposition; G. L. Noble, secretary National Committee; F. L. Eaton, president Interstate Fair Association; George E. Farrell, assistant in charge Boys' and Girls' Club Work, Washington, D. C.; R. M. Striplin, secretary Southeastern States Fair; J. W. Coverdale, secretary American Farm Bureau Federation; R. F. Eagle, Wilson & Co.; John C. Simpson, secretary Eastern States Exposition; E. T. Meredith, former Secretary of Agriculture, publisher of Successful Farming and chairman National Committee; Thomas E. Wilson, Wilson & Company.



E. T. Meredith



Thomas E. Wilson

G. L. Noble

Fig. 15.2 — Men who pioneered the National Committee

of a National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work was held on September 30, 1921, in the offices of J. C. Billingslea, Chicago advertising representative of *Successful Farming*. (97) Present besides Noble and Hopkins were E. T. Meredith, Barney H. Heide, secretary of the International Live Stock Exposition; John W. Coverdale, secretary of the American Farm Bureau Federation, and A. B. Drummond, representing Thomas E. Wilson.

Coverdale said that the Farm Bureau would donate stenographic help, office space, and financial support for money-raising campaigns. Heide moved and the group agreed that Noble should prepare letters and suitable literature to send to prospective contributors. The expenses of the committee were to be cared for by donations.

A second meeting was held at the Saddle and Sirloin Club just before the International, at which Farrell was present to represent the Extension Service, and the presidents and managers of various regional fairs were also on hand. These men agreed that the objectives of such a committee would be several:

To promote club demonstrations before state associations of commerce and the various fairs,
To get publicity for club work,
To encourage banker loans to young crop and livestock raisers,
To secure educational trips to college short courses and fairs,
And to coordinate all the contributions and efforts of industries now contributing to club work.

On December 1, 1921, the group met again and voted that the sum of $30,000 be raised to carry on the committee's work in 1922. Meredith was authorized to see Noble about accepting the secretaryship of the committee.

Noble at that time was conducting some 675 boys and girls through the McCormick works of the International Harvester Company on Blue Island Avenue. The group had watched the manufacture of farm machinery and at noon was assembled in the company's recreation hall to see a movie. Harold McCormick and Noble were on the platform when Hopkins hurried up to the head of the hall, asked the audience for attention, then announced that a National Committee had been formed and Noble was to be its first executive secretary.

A round of applause rang through the hall, and thus, with the enthusiastic approval of the boys and girls whom the committee was to serve, the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work was publicly launched.

16.

Early Days of the Club Congress

THE FIRST HEADQUARTERS of the National Committee consisted of one desk facing the wall in a large room on the eleventh floor of 58 East Washington Street, Chicago, where the American Farm Bureau Federation's transportation department functioned.

The entire working staff of the Committee consisted of Noble and one secretary loaned by the Farm Bureau on a part-time basis. This secretary, Mrs. Stasia Phee, was with the Committee at the time of this writing.

Noble went confidently ahead during 1922, soliciting money, publicizing club work, and laying plans for the 1922 Tour. At that time, the annual event was not called the Club Congress. With Mrs. Phee's help, Noble mimeographed a Club News on buff paper and mailed it out to some 2,000 county Extension agents, issued booklets and publicity, wrote letters and beat the pavements for donations.

His committee's estimate that $30,000 could be collected from business organizations proved to be somewhat ambitious. A broad-

side to banks and breed associations yielded little cash return. Initial donations by Wilson, International Harvester, and Montgomery Ward quickly melted away in a stream of expenses, and on June 1, with half the year gone, there was a balance of $43 against a debt to Noble for back salary amounting to $400. These figures came from a little red notebook, which was the Committee's entire bookkeeping system that first year. In midyear, the Chicago Board of Trade and E. T. Meredith came to the rescue with gifts of $500 and $250 respectively.

Noble was more than once tempted to give up. Searching a too-empty change pocket, he frequently invited himself to lunch with a Farm Bureau official, paying his host back later when a donation came in. Coverdale shook his head and advised him to get a job that included among its arrangements a regular pay day. Such suggestions merely stirred in Noble the resolution to stay with the thing he had started.

At the end of the first year, instead of $30,000 the Committee had collected $3,396 and had just $6.10 in the bank. (97)

But if the sledding was rough for the Committee, the 1922 Tour was a success. It was officially called the "Fourth Annual Boys and Girls Club Tour and First National Boys and Girls Club Exposition." The exposition consisted of exhibits from fifteen states showing the achievements of club work, all under F. M. Shanklin, assistant state club leader in Indiana.

Two new features resulted in wide publicity for club work at the 1922 Tour. These were the finals of the national canning and the health contests.

Earlier in the year, Bernice Carter Davis, educational director of the Hazel-Atlas Glass Company, and Noble had arranged a trip to France for the champion canners of the United States, the expenses of the trip to be donated by the American Committee for Devastated France, a committee headed by Anne Morgan, sister of J. Pierpont Morgan.

Five sectional contests had been set up, and the first and second place winners in each section were to compete at the International. Out of the 10 finalists, the first and second teams would be sent to France.

The decisive contest was held in the northwest corner of the old International Building at the end of the cattle barn. A board partition separated the girls from the cattle. Here the contestants, dressed in plain cotton uniforms, worked skillfully at tables, canning one fruit by either hot water or steam bath, one vegetable by either hot water or steam pressure, and one meat by steam pressure. The roving public, strolling past this spectacle of intent industry, noting the array of foods, kettles, and cookers, could hardly have suspected that this was a part of a nationwide system of voluntary practical education. To them, it must have seemed to be an advertising stunt.

The winners were the Iowa team, under Josephine Arnquist on the state club staff for girls, and the Colorado team under Maude Sheridan.

These winners, with their state and local leaders, toured France in June and July, 1923, giving demonstrations of their art, attending French schools of home economics, and sightseeing. Their trip did much to interest Europe in the new kind of youth Extension education being conducted in the United States.

The two Iowa girls who made the memorable trip were Beulah Rodgers and Kathryn Bolibaugh of Mahaska county. The Colorado girls were Bertha Boger and Elaine Hendricks of Kit Carson county.

Even more prolific of publicity at the 1922 Tour was the health contest. Several months earlier, at the Iowa State Fair, Noble had watched with great interest the state health contest conducted by Josephine Arnquist.

At Chicago the event was made national. State leaders were invited to have their youngsters select the boy and girl from their delegations whom they deemed healthiest. These candidates were thoroughly examined by physicians from the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, a health foundation. The idea of presenting a farm boy and farm girl as the "healthiest in the United States" had an appeal that fired journalistic imaginations and won headlines. The names and pictures of the first two winners, Joseph Isaken, of Springfield, Minnesota, and Marguerite Martin, of Shepard, Tennessee, were advertised from one end of

Fig. 16.1A — Bound for Europe! In 1923, the Iowa and Colorado canning teams won trips to Europe. In the group are Josephine Arnquist, Iowa girls' leader; Maude Sheridan, Colorado leader; and Secretary of Agriculture Henry C. Wallace.

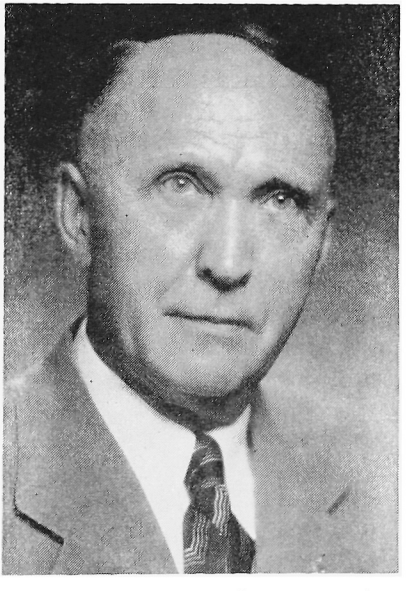


Fig. 16.1B — Paul C. Taff, superintendent of the Club Congress in 1923, its first big year.

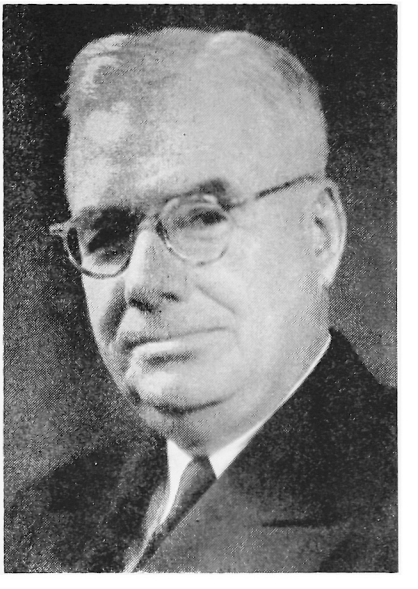


Fig. 16.1C — M. L. Wilson, director of the Extension Service, 1940 to 1953, long-time cooperator with the 4-H movement.

the nation to the other. In 1922 and for years thereafter, the health contest produced more newspaper and magazine space than any other single feature at the Congress, and in spite of its defects, the contest focused attention on the importance of health to boys and girls as well as the livestock being raised. "Be your own best exhibit," became a familiar club slogan.

Still suffering from growing pains, the Chicago event had its emergencies. Noble's secretary, Mrs. Phee, recalls taking dictation from Noble as he marched down Michigan Avenue at the head of a column of 700 youngsters. As he led his army toward the Field Museum, Mrs. Phee jotted down notes to remind speakers of their engagements, arrange transportation, and attend to all the other details that guarantee a smooth-running convention.

When the Tour was over and the club members safely on their way home, the Committee had a chance to evaluate the results of its first year of work. Among these were endorsements for club work from business groups, national publicity, demonstrations before civic groups arranged in cooperation with state leaders, and a well-managed Chicago tour. Among the stated objectives of the Committee that first year were the obtaining of larger federal and state appropriations for club work and the placing of more paid club agents in the counties. (97)

In spite of the slim state of its finances, the Committee went ahead with unquenchable optimism into the depression year of 1923. *The National Boys and Girls Club News* became a monthly printed publication instead of a mimeographed one.

Noble continued to haunt business offices for donations. Finances seemed just as hard to raise as the year before, but there was one bright spot when Montgomery Ward appropriated $5,000, of which $4,000 was to be used for educational trips, supervised by the National Committee, and the balance to cover Committee expenses. This appropriation developed into the girls' record award, a recognition of excellent all-round home economics club work, a continuous program since 1923.

The Committee continued to bring club work to the attention of business groups during the year, and one of the most dramatic bits of public relations work occurred before the

American Bankers' Association. Already Noble had interested J. H. Puelicher, Milwaukee banker and then president of the ABA, a self-made man who had made his first money getting up at five o'clock in the morning to clerk in a store, and therefore had a soft spot in his heart for the farm boy who understood early rising and manual labor.

In the spring of 1923, Noble arranged with two state leaders to have 4-H members give club demonstrations before the executive council of the banker group in order to let the bankers see with their own eyes what club work was all about.

The event took place at the swank Rye-Biltmore Country Club in the metropolitan suburb of Rye, New York. About 300 bankers were present. To this august meeting Miss Elsie Trabue, assistant state club leader in Connecticut, brought a team of two girls — Marion Eggleston and Elizabeth Perkins. As they rode into the grounds, their taxi driver asked them dubiously, "Front or rear door?"

The girls went in the front door, and in the large lounge with its velour drapes and paneled walls, the young ladies went to work cutting up chicken and canning it over an oil stove.

Nobody left the hall. This was a floor show with a different touch. The bankers looked on, fascinated. One of them was overheard murmuring, "My daughter is getting a fancy education at Vassar but, you know, I'd like to think that somewhere along the line she would get some of this kind of education."

Two young Pennsylvania club boys, selected by A. L. Baker, state club leader, introduced the bankers to the masculine side of club work. On the immaculately tailored and landscaped grounds of the Rye-Biltmore, they stood beside a purebred Ayrshire calf. After the manner of demonstrations, one club member introduced himself and his partner, then told in confident tones how he had bought the calf at what seemed to his neighbors an extravagant price, but how the calf's mother had set a milk record, with the result that the young owner had already been offered three times the purchase price of the calf.

After giving his simple tale of the profitableness of good stock, he yielded the floor to his partner, who proceeded to tell his

audience what points of conformation and temperament to look for in a milk cow.

To dramatize club work further, Noble had worked up beautifully done charts — one of them patterned after a bank statement — showing the activities and profits of club work.

Following the Rye-Biltmore demonstrations, the ABA endorsed club work as its top agricultural project and later, when the Capper-Ketcham bill was before Congress, gave its unqualified support to the legislation.

In many ways, 1923 was a memorable year for the National Committee and the Club Congress. Sometime earlier, G. L. Herrington, state club leader in Tennessee, had suggested to Noble that the Chicago event should not be a "Tour."

Out of this discussion evolved the idea of calling it a "Boys and Girls Club Congress." This name was used for the first time in 1923. However, since there had been previous tours, it didn't seem proper to call the 1923 gathering the *first* Congress. Therefore, the 1923 souvenir program came out reading:

Second National Boys and Girls
CLUB CONGRESS
and
Fifth Annual Tour

Thus was the name of the Club Congress born. (100)

A second memorable event that year was the opening of the new club headquarters at the International. As Noble began to receive from state leaders evidence of a record attendance in December, he knew that a small space at the end of the cattle barn would never be large enough to house the promised display of competitive exhibits. So, in September, he went out to see A. G. Leonard, president of the Union Stock Yard and Transit Company, to ask for more room.

After Noble had finished making his request, Leonard abruptly said, "Put on your hat and come with me."

They walked to Dexter Park Avenue, then south to where a new front was being added to a huge two-story structure 48 by

108 feet in size. Leonard pointed to the building with its English-style facing of brick and timbers.

"This is your new club building," he said. "Now, how do you want it arranged inside?"

Noble was stunned. This was a far cry, indeed, from a few years before, when the International had hesitated to issue one time passes to prize-winning farm boys and girls.

The year 1923 was the year of the deluge. The success of the well-planned tours of previous years had done its work. With more business houses than ever giving prize trips, over 1,600 youngsters descended upon the city, jamming the lobbies of the Morrison Hotel and YMCA where the delegates were housed.

In 1923, affairs at the Congress were guided by a committee of six state club leaders headed by Paul Taff of Iowa, who was designated superintendent of the Club Congress. State leaders were in charge of exhibits, demonstrations, stock judging, home economics and the national health contest. Among them were Lois P. Dowdle, Georgia; W. J. Jernigan, Arkansas; Maude Sheridan, Colorado; Allen L. Baker, Pennsylvania; and Elsie Trabue, Connecticut. Giving valiant service were such Federal Extension leaders as George Farrell and Gertrude Warren.

Even the day-and-night labors of these leaders hardly sufficed to care for the flood of delegates. The climax came at the banquet, held that year at the Morrison. As the delegates lined up at the door of the banquet hall, the column extended down two flights of stairs, back through the lobby, and out into Madison Street. Several hundred boys and girls never got inside the banquet hall.

It was then that the Committee and the state leaders got together and decided to limit delegations to fifty per state and to require advance notice of the size of delegations. As a result, attendance the next year was a little over a thousand, a more manageable number.

An important service of the Club Congress is the feeling of national recognition it gives the delegate, a feeling that reaches its height at the final banquet, at which national awards are presented. Here, with some 1,200 young farmers and homemakers assembled in the immense banquet hall, with notables of the

Fig. 16.2 — Club Congress of the 1920's. Delegates gather in front of the 4-H Building at the stock yards to be greeted by B. H. Heide, manager of the International Live Stock Exposition.

Extension and civic world at the speakers' table, with music, state yells and songs interrupting the buzz of talk, the sense of achievement reaches its peak, and the member's dedication to club work finds deep inner expression. After such an experience, one young member wrote:

> When I sat at the speakers' table at the annual banquet and heard the heart-warming applause when the national winners were presented their awards, I knew we were all for one and one for all. I felt a warmth of pride surge up in me because I belonged to them, too. I couldn't help thinking how cooperation and peace could be broadcast if we could all sow the seeds of our 4-H ideals throughout the land. I, for one, am determined to try.

These emotional experiences, at national and state and county achievement meetings, are the abiding sources of lifelong rural community leadership.

Another important service of the Club Congress to the general program, over the years, has been to bring club work before the

public. The Congress is a source of headlines, photos and radio and television time. For a week, farm boys and girls almost literally "take over" a great metropolitan center.

The publicity value of the Congress was never better illustrated than in 1924, on the Monday night of the International, at the first parade of club members in the arena. (106)

Earlier, M. S. Parkhurst of the Stock Yard Company had suggested the idea of a parade to Noble, who had immediately accepted. Large 4- by 10-foot signs were made carrying the messages of club work. Smaller signs bore the names of the states.

On Monday night, the boys and girls marched through a cold, drizzling rain the long mile from the Wilson Packing Company plant to the stockyards. At the club house they paused while Paul Taff, Ray Turner, L. I. Frisbie, and other state leaders hurried inside to get the signs and banners and distribute them to the state delegations.

The parade proceeded on to the large building where it paused for a while at the entrance to the arena. Then, as the exposition band struck up a march, the head of the parade started into the brilliantly lighted space.

Noble led the column completely around the oval until the head of the parade was back again at the entrance. Club members, in columns of fours, were still pouring in. A stockyards official leaped from the judge's stand and told Noble to head back again. Quickly comprehending, Noble doubled the column back on itself until it had reached the far end of the space once more, then returned again to the entrance.

Still the club members were marching in. Once again Noble led the unending column on a snake turn, until the entire expanse of tanbark was filled with representatives of America's outstanding young farmers and homemakers.

Meanwhile, the state delegations had taken matters into their own hands by bursting into club yells and state songs. The 8,000 or more spectators, reacting to the unrehearsed scene, began clapping, then stamping their feet, and finally, cheering.

The old arena, scene of many a dignified horse show, many a

sedate parade of blooded livestock, had never seen anything quite like this vast march of boys and girls committed to a richer farm life. The big hall literally quivered with emotion.

To those who understood the meaning of club work — to the Farrells, Warrens, Taffs, Abbotts, Farleys, Turners, Frisbies, Nobles, Ericksons — the march was a kind of promise for the future, a guarantee that agriculture would win its place as a way of life in spite of depression, unfavorable markets, and the blight of ignorance and indifference.

After the parade, with tears streaming down his face, Barney Heide, the quiet but dynamic manager of the International, burst out to the assembled newspapermen in the pressroom, "This is the greatest thing that has happened at the International since I've been manager!"

The 1924 Congress won further newspaper recognition from the first Congress style show. Under the direction of Maude E. Wallace, in charge of club work in North Carolina, girls paraded their creations on marble steps in the Drake Hotel ballroom, posing under an arch of roses while press cameras clicked. The winner of this first style show was Geneva Amundson, of Galesville, Wisconsin, later assistant state club leader there.

By 1924, the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work decided that it was time to form a non-profit corporation. The articles of incorporation dated May 5, 1924, named as directors E. T. Meredith of Des Moines, Iowa; J. W. Coverdale of Chicago; B. H. Heide of Chicago; Thomas E. Wilson of Chicago and Burton M. Smith, banker, of North Lake, Wisconsin.

At this time, E. T. Meredith resigned from the chairmanship of the Committee, after two years of leadership during which the Committee found its place in the scheme of things. Thomas E. Wilson became the new chairman. (97) From the beginning of his long career as charter member and chairman of the National Committee, Wilson was to give continuous support to club work, not only in the sponsorship of awards and the entertaining of delegates to the Congress, but in recruiting the support of business and civic leaders. His personal interest and enthusiasm for club

work have been such that his associates have called him "the businessman godfather of 4-H Club work."

As stated in the articles of incorporation the objects of the Committee "are to increase by all lawful means the amount of Boys and Girls Club Work as supervised by the agricultural colleges in conjunction with the United States Department of Agriculture, to cooperate in promoting this nationwide movement to give rural boys and girls an opportunity to develop themselves educationally, economically, morally and socially, through clubs, demonstrating all phases of agriculture and home eco-

Fig. 16.3 — Geneva Amundson of Galesville, Wisconsin, was winner of the first 4-H style show at the 1924 Club Congress. Her dress was navy blue pin-striped wool serge with red collar, cuffs, piping and buttons. Her hat was navy blue, trimmed with red.

nomics; to publish bulletins and magazines, to furnish news service to the press; to deliver speeches and addresses before other organizations; to conduct public demonstrations; to organize Junior Club Work Departments at fairs and expositions; to solicit prizes, such as educational trips, medals, and scholarships; and to provide funds for appropriations for leadership in clubs throughout the country."

During 1924, the National Committee had raised $18,000 for its own expenses and secured educational trips to the value of $45,000. It had distributed some 16,000 posters to local agents to stimulate community membership drives. It had encouraged many business associations to endorse club work and had enlisted the support of many influential people, among them H. A. Moses, president of the Strathmore Paper Mills, who did much in the 1920's to develop leadership among club boys and girls.

17.

Club Work Proves Itself in a Depression

JUST AS THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE proved its hardihood by attaining its first growth in the thin soil of hard times, so the entire club program had to find its way to mature educational objectives in depression times.

First there was the cutting off of emergency war funds in mid-year, 1919. This didn't result in as great a drop in Extension revenue as might be suspected, partly because income from the Smith-Lever fund was increasing by the sum of $500,000 each year, and partly because local and state support to some extent made up for the loss. In fact, club income from all sources dropped less than $50,000 from 1918-19 to 1919-20. The figures for the two years are: (165)

1918-19	$921,621
1919-20	883,615

Nevertheless, the spirit of retrenchment was in the air. Where there had been a thousand paid club agents in the North and West at the height of the war, there were only 137 permanent

county club agents on December 31, 1919. (150) Those figures aren't quite comparable, because many of the thousand agents were temporary wartime workers. Yet it is true that wherever counties had to retrench, the club agent was the first to go, and his duties assigned to the remaining Extension agents. In the South there was a similar contraction of personnel.

Enrollment also took a steep, though temporary, nosedive. The following figures show the extent of the drop: (163)

1918	518,154
1919	323,340
1920	222,137

While this must have seemed calamitous to state and national leaders at the time, much of the wartime enrollment consisted of boys and girls who had no permanent interest in rural living. Many of them lived in the city. It is safe to say that those who remained were bona fide rural boys and girls with a genuine interest in club objectives.

On top of the drop in funds and enrollment came the depression of the early 1920's, with its sharp drop in the price of farm products and over-all loss of farm values. In a talk before the Iowa Chamber of Commerce at Des Moines, in the spring of 1921, George E. Farrell, Washington chief of club work in the North and West, said that Iowa club members in the past year had taken a loss of $35,000 in baby beef club work alone. (49) The wartime demand for meat had greatly increased the number of livestock projects, and everywhere throughout the country, boys and girls were suffering from the price decline.

It was in this lean and hungry period of falling prices, low enrollment, and insufficient leadership, that boys' and girls' club work began its postwar growth to maturity.

One of the signs of growing up was the realization on the part of state and national leaders that club members must be given more responsibility in the managing of club affairs.

One of the early outstanding experiments in self-government took place in Arkansas shortly after the end of the war. Here, W. J. Jernigan, the state club leader, decided that since boys and

girls were the beneficiaries of the program, they should have more to say about the planning and financing of their own activities.

Under the current system, bankers and merchants donated prize money and the county agent drew up the contest rules. Boys and girls were handed the "package" and urged to take part.

"Why not," asked Jernigan, "let them handle such matters?"

He tried the idea out on one of the more active clubs. Eagerly taking the cue, the club officers outlined their year's program of activities and with adult help prepared a budget covering all necessary expenses. Then they proceeded to raise money.

The response was so good that the following season the plan was extended to the entire county. A county executive committee was formed composed of the presidents and secretaries of each local club. Between them, the officers combined the local programs into a county program, prepared a county budget, and drew up rules for all contests.

Each local club then assumed responsibility for raising its proportional share of the county budget. Most of the clubs continued to solicit the support of businessmen, but in addition they showed considerable ingenuity and initiative in raising money through entertainments and the sale of products raised by members. In some cases each member donated a bushel of corn or potatoes, or a chicken. Not a single club failed to raise its share of the total budget.

These young people, running their own show, also set up the prizes. These were not cash, but trips to the college and the fairs, phonographs and motion picture machines, and other articles that could be used by the entire club.

After observing the plan in action for a year, state leaders reported, "One of the greatest benefits from this type of organization has been the development of club and community spirit and the suppression of individual selfishness. Like the bee which works for the benefit of the whole colony, each club member soon began to work for the honor of the club and not just to win a prize for himself." (125)

In 1920, Arkansas published a circular describing its self-supporting plan and within a few years the scheme spread over

the entire state. It exists in modified form today, the important change being that county budgets are no longer made. Clubs continue to raise money for their activities and the county council plans the program with the county Extension agents.

Under adult guidance the plan has given young people excellent business training, social awareness, and an understanding of cooperative effort.

In most states, in one form or another, club members were given greater responsibility in running their affairs. The spread of the standard club with its stress on officers' duties was a step in this direction. Everywhere over the country, self-governing local clubs were being developed.

As state and national leaders paid more and more attention to local club organization, the importance of the voluntary local leader became more apparent. Already many states were holding training courses for these adult leaders, both in the county and at the college. These farm men and women of good will, working without pay, were the final point of contact with the boy and girl. It was their encouragement, guidance and example that brought to life for farm youth the opportunities in the club program.

As a logical next step, those in charge began exploring the possibilities of developing future leaders among older club members themselves. In the 1920's, junior leadership programs began to appear in a few places.

From the earliest days of club work, trips of winners to the state college could be interpreted as junior leader training courses of a sort. Wyoming, for example, began in 1918 to entertain from forty to sixty outstanding club members per year at the university and to give them leadership instruction.

Experiments in junior leadership in Massachusetts and California, as well as the experiment in Arkansas just described, convinced Extension officials that steps should be taken to put junior leader training on a formal basis.

The idea received great impetus when Horace A. Moses, philanthropic president of the Strathmore Paper Company, created the International 4-H Leader Training School at Springfield,

Fig. 17.1 — Staff and delegates to the first International 4-H Leadership Conference held at Camp Vail, Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1923. In this picture are many of the pioneers of 4-H.

Massachusetts. This school was inaugurated September 9 to 22, 1923, at the time of the Eastern States Exposition. (95)

The school had its inception when Moses called in Milton Danziger, who had recently left the Extension Service in Washington to work with the Eastern States Exposition, and asked him what he could do for farm boys and girls. Moses was aiding city boys and girls through a junior achievement program, and, being farm-raised himself, wanted to do something as well for rural youth. He had been actively interested in 4-H for a decade.

Danziger suggested that what club work most needed was leader training. He then outlined a plan by which Moses would pay the expenses of one outstanding club member from each of ten eastern states to Springfield. They were to be brought in one week before the Exposition and given a week's training in leadership, after which they would be kept on to help run club activities at the Exposition.

Moses offered $1,000 that first year to finance the plan and Danziger promptly invited A. J. Brundage, Connecticut state club leader, to become director of the training school, a position Brundage continued to fill during the life of the school.

That first year, the school provided all-expense trips to representatives of ten states, most of them New England states, but including Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia. In addition to Brundage, 4-H leaders who helped formulate the first year's program were Gertrude L. Warren, Elsie Trabue, assistant state club leader of Connecticut, and Ray Turner, Michigan leader.

The following year, trips were awarded to two delegates from each of twelve states, plus one from New York, and in succeeding years more and more states were included until the depression in 1930 brought an end to the school. At that time the training school was entertaining boy and girl delegates from thirty-eight states and five Canadian provinces. (47)

Minnesota was one of the early states to recognize officially the importance of junior leader training by offering such training as a definite project in 1923. In its second year, Minnesota trained 400 older club members in leadership.

In 1924, too, Horace A. Moses offered a national trophy to the boy or girl in the United States most outstanding in community service and junior leadership. The first winner was the rangy son of an Oklahoma renter, Ford Mercer, whose achievements included state championships in pig club and corn club work, activity in enrolling new members and coaching demonstration teams, presidency of the county federation of clubs, and such good farming that he converted his father to 4-H. (165)

The work in junior leadership, thus inaugurated in the 1920s', continued to grow until today club work draws heavily upon its graduates for local voluntary leadership.

The development of junior leadership activities was closely paralleled by the growth of the 4-H camping program. The early advocates of rural club work probably never suspected that some day there would be hundreds of permanent 4-H camps established throughout the country. Yet the urge to go camping was evident

from the earliest times. One of the first camps for farm boys on record is one conducted by S. M. Jordan of Columbia, Missouri, in 1907. At this "Farm Boys' Encampment," Mr. Jordan entertained 132 boys on his farm, giving them instruction in improved agricultural methods. (92)

As early as 1915, "camps" were established at state fairs and on college campuses to provide housing for club delegates.

Fig. 17.2 — The 4-H camping program helps build leaders. This waterfront scene was taken at Camp Shaw in the Upper Peninsula of Michigan.

Michigan, for example, put up some eighty boys in tents on the Michigan State College campus in 1915, and in the same year Wyoming had a state club camp at the state fair in Douglas. (22) Also in 1915, Camp Wewinit, a gathering that was eventually to develop into the state 4-H Club Week, was held at Massachusetts Agricultural College.

Contrasted with these ventures in housing were the efforts of county Extension agents to find inspiration and morale in natural settings. One of the first county agents to take to the woods was J. V. Shipman of Randolph county, West Virginia, who took twenty of his boys' and girls' club members for a three-day camp at Crouch in July, 1915. (23)

These club campers fished, swam, saw lantern slides, built a log raft, went boating, told ghost stories, experimented with camp cooking, and killed a rattler, the skin of which they presented to the state club leader, W. H. Kendrick.

The news of the fun at "Camp Good Luck," as the Crouch camp was called, inspired other counties to emulate Randolph, with the result that by 1919 some twenty-five West Virginia counties were holding camps. These camps developed a typical camp program combining mornings of class work with afternoons of sport and recreation and evenings around the council fire.

The success of county camps as a reward for superior club work and a training ground for leaders inspired the state club staff of West Virginia to greater achievements. In 1920 Kendrick and C. H. Hartley joined forces with Charles G. Burr of Virginia and E. G. Jenkins of Maryland to hold a tri-state camp for club members at the picturesque Grottoes in Virginia. Here, in a setting of woods, hills and caves, Kendrick and Hartley decided that West Virginia must have its own state camp, large enough to entertain delegates from neighboring states.

Their search for a site ended when Mrs. Arthur Rhodes, president of the Stonewall Jackson Farm Women's Club suggested the piece of land that had once been the boyhood home of General T. J. "Stonewall" Jackson. Here was a mill situated alongside the West Fork River, surrounded by hilly woodlands.

The Monongahela West Penn Public Service Company promised to donate the five acres that included Jackson's Mill to the Extension Service provided the state legislature would appropriate money to build a camp. This, the legislature did at its 1921 session.

Influential people rallied to the campaign, and day by day the scope of the enterprise grew. The state guaranteed enough money to build a dining and assembly hall. Before long, the county of Lewis donated thirty additional acres. Certain counties were to build county cottages on the grounds.

Out of these plans there developed, in time, an impressive plant consisting of a beautiful dining hall modeled after Mount Vernon, a 40- by 100-foot swimming pool, thirteen county cot-

Fig. 17.3 — The West Virginia State 4-H Camp at Jackson's Mill, outstanding among 4-H Camps.

tages capable of housing 350 people, a farm electrification building containing the latest in kitchen equipment and farm machinery, and livestock pavilions where shows and sales are held.

Visitors to Jackson's Mill who wonder at the similarity of the dining hall to Mount Vernon are told that the design of the hall was the result of the impulsive wish of a young club member. Sometime before the building was constructed West Virginia club leaders took a group of boys and girls to Washington. As they were standing, looking at Mount Vernon, one youngster exclaimed: "Wish we could have our own Mount Vernon!" The leaders remembered this and to them it seemed an appropriate answer to the question of an architectural theme for Jackson's Mill, a state camp that has proved an inspiration to 4-H people from all parts of the nation.

At this half million dollar camp, called a "training center for leaders," 4-H not only holds its own camp sessions and training

conferences for its county camp leaders but provides a meeting place for agricultural, civic, and religious groups. This state 4-H camp, busy not only in summer time but the year around, has done much to stimulate camping as a part of the 4-H program throughout the United States.

In 1937, the West Virginia legislature established a 4-H camp for Negroes at Clifftop in Fayette county. Dedicated in 1942, the camp is known as Camp Washington-Carver.

While certain leaders dubiously debated the basic question of the place of camping in a rural life program, counties and states went right ahead throughout the 1920's establishing 4-H camps. Mississippi began its camping career in 1916 when Fred Hurst of Pike county held a county camp, and by the 1920's camping was entrenched as part of the club program.

Minnesota's first venture was in 1919 when O. M. Olson, county agent of Roseau county, took sixty boys and their leaders to Spring Steel Island in the incomparably wild Lake of the Woods, where the boys slept on the ground, ate lake trout and wall-eyes, and enjoyed three days of sport.

Camping in North Carolina began in 1922 when fifty-one boys and girls of Buncombe county, with their leaders, rode into the mountains of Chimney Rock and outlived a thunderstorm, flood and electrical bombardment. "Our camp," they boasted, "had running water (the flood) and electricity (from the heavens)."

By 1920, Michigan had its Camp Shaw in the Upper Peninsula, and by the mid-1920's, Gaylord in the Lower Peninsula, while Wyoming had established a four-county recreation camp in the Big Horn Basin, where the program, from the first, included such varied items as grain and forage judging, rope splicing, leathercraft, and nature study.

Ohio held its first club camp in 1919, conducted many training camps during the 1920's and in 1928 took the first steps toward acquiring a state camp to be owned by the Extension Service, a move that resulted in Camp Ohio, in Licking county.

In 1923, Louisiana purchased some old army tents and several hundred cots and held six club camps with an attendance of 650. Eventually, Louisiana established its state camp, Grant Walker,

with houses and cottages to accommodate over 300, dining room, auditorium, pavilion, and a wildlife museum.

Virginia, after local and county camps had proved to be popular, established in 1928 its beautiful Jamestown 4-H camp on the James River, only a mile from historic Jamestown Island, where the first permanent English colony was established in 1607.

The growth of 4-H camps is yet another instance where the direction and scheme of 4-H teaching had to conform to the desires of local clubs. Let whoever wishes debate the propriety of camping as an instrument of education for rural living. County Extension agents and the club members wanted to go camping; so camping they went. In 1924, 4-H groups held a total of 1,774 camps, attended by 114,000 boys and girls. Many of these camps stressed leadership training. (165)

Today, leader training camps, conservation camps, and plain outdoor recreation camps on county, district and state levels are general throughout the land, and are a valued part of the 4-H program. They are an incentive to club members and a mecca for leaders. Lessons can be taught and enthusiasm aroused under a setting of trees and stars that sometimes cannot be gained in the more familiar locales of living room and schoolhouse.

During the 1920's, while these developments in camping and leader training were taking place, state leaders were finding ways of trading experiences and incorporating the best ideas of other states into their own programs. Club work, like the rest of the Extension program, is unique in that it is conducted more or less independently in each state. Though the work is cooperative between states and the Federal Extension Service, the states to a large extent work out their own destinies.

While this is an advantage in that it permits states to develop programs suited to their own needs and environment, it can be a disadvantage unless state leaders have ways of getting together and using the experience of their neighbors. Early in club work, state leaders found that the leading regional fairs of the country provided a valuable meeting ground where ideas for improving the club program could be generated. Among these fairs were the Eastern States Exposition at Springfield, Massachusetts;

the Interstate Fair at Sioux City, Iowa; the Pacific International Livestock Exposition at Portland, Oregon; the National Western Stock Show at Denver, Colorado; the Southwestern Exposition and Fat Stock Show at Fort Worth, Texas; and the Southeastern Fair at Atlanta, Georgia. The National Dairy Show, too, provided an interstate meeting ground for leaders and club members.

The first year in which club boys and girls took part in the Eastern States Exposition was 1916. In the spring of that year, a delegation of New England farm and business leaders went to Chicago to induce the National Dairy Show to come to Springfield, Massachusetts. To the objection that Springfield lacked the necessary buildings to house the show, the New England delegation promised to erect buildings that summer.

Learning of this, O. H. Benson, in charge of club work in the North and West, conceived the idea of holding a "Northern Atlantic Boys' and Girls' Club Exposition" at the same time. One of the buildings erected in a hurry that summer was a boys' and girls' building, a one-story brick structure with a dirt floor. This structure, later to be called Camp Vail, was headquarters of the first boys' and girls' exposition at Eastern States. (17)

Benson obtained $15,000 of federal money for the training of demonstration teams, and with this backing the club exposition got off to a flying start. The youth building was filled with A-shaped tables, the tables bearing exhibits of corn, potatoes, vegetables, clothing, canned goods, bread, and chickens. Youthful demonstration and judging teams performed before a public that for the most part was getting its first look at club work.

That first year, delegates were housed in private homes. In 1917, their headquarters were in a hotel. There was no show in 1918, but in 1919 the boys and girls lived in tents on the edge of the fair grounds, while state club leaders did sentry duty all night to keep prowlers and curious people at a distance.

The boys' and girls' exposition, familiarly known as "Camp Vail," was first managed by John A. Sherley for the Eastern States Exposition, while cooperative relationships with the Department of Agriculture and the states were handled first by Benson, then

by George E. Farrell, who succeeded Benson as the man in charge of club work in the North and West. For two years Milton Danziger, from the club office of the Department of Agriculture, was both manager of Camp Vail and contact man for the Department. Starting in 1923, A. J. Brundage, state leader from Connecticut, managed Camp Vail. In 1924, George L. Farley, state club leader in Massachusetts, assumed charge of the show and remained its director until his death in 1941.

Camp Vail dramatized club work to the public through a series of striking exhibits. One memorable exhibit was that of 15-year-old Peggy Keith, in 1923. Peggy was a club girl from Fauquier county, Virginia, who had been given her first pony when she was five years old. Through club work she had acquired a remarkable assortment of livestock by 1923 — an assortment that included three baby beeves, four Guernsey cows, flocks of Black Lanshang and Rhode Island Red chickens, and white collie dogs. Her ability to handle animals was proved when she bought a mean-tempered pony early in 1923, and at fair time won a ribbon with this same animal, handling it in such fashion that it was accorded the title of "best-mannered pony."

Other exhibits in other years featured the work, not of outstanding individuals, but of clubs, among them the "Thousand-Dollar Poultry Clubs" described in Chapter 13. Such exhibits not only publicized club work, but stimulated other club members to greater achievements.

Club work in the East owes much to Camp Vail. It was a show window through which the public caught glimpses of the 4-H program of rural youth education. It was a training ground for youthful exhibitors, demonstrators, and judges. It was a meeting place for leaders. After Camp Vail had got under way, New England club leaders became a closely knit group, planning their programs together and issuing joint bulletins on such programs as poultry, garden, dairy and canning.

Equally valuable was the Interstate Fair at Sioux City, Iowa, where club boys and girls held shows continuously from 1921 through 1926, except for 1923. (48) Here, boys and girls from

twelve states, plus delegates now and then from as far away as Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado, competed in all branches of farming and homemaking for an impressive list of awards.

Boys and girls were comfortably housed in two boat clubs on the Missouri River. Their program of competition and recreation was guided by a committee of national and state leaders, among them P. C. Taff and Josephine Arnquist of Iowa, T. A. Erickson of Minnesota, L. I. Frisbie and Mary Ellen Brown of Nebraska and Harry Rilling of North Dakota. Guy L. Noble, director of the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club work, handled publicity for the event, while George Farrell, Ivan Hobson, Ray Turner, Gertrude Warren and others of the federal Extension office did much to coordinate activities of regional 4-H events.

Thus Sioux City was the midwestern rallying point for club work during its period of rapid growth in the 1920's.

In the Far West, the Pacific International Livestock Exposition at Portland, Oregon, performed the same service to club work. Here rural boys and girls found their place in the sun through the enthusiastic cooperation of O. M. Plummer, manager of the Exposition, and H. C. Seymour, Oregon club agent. (123)

Youth participation in the Exposition began in 1918, and grew in importance throughout the 1920's. In 1925, the Pacific International was designated regional center for 4-H Club work, and an Extension committee headed by Madge Reese of the Washington office was formed to supervise the junior show. The following year Camp Plummer was officially dedicated and accepted by the Extension Service as the center of club work. A few years later, O. M. Plummer obtained a gift of $10,000 from J. C. Penney, West Coast merchant, and with this money J. C. Penney Hall was built to house youth activities at the Exposition.

Thus, in various parts of the country, regional fairs became the gathering points for club work, trading posts where leaders exchanged ideas, show cases where the public paused and looked on, arenas where young farmers and homemakers competitively demonstrated the results of their training.

Other notable events took place in the 1920's. At the beginning of the decade, club work won national headlines through the invasion of England with junior judging teams.

In 1920, H. H. Williamson, state club leader in Texas, Cully A. Cobb, editor of *The Southern Ruralist* at Atlanta, Georgia, and officials of the Southeastern Fair at Atlanta got together on a plan to hold a national livestock judging contest, the winning team to represent the United States against a team of English boys in London. In England, Lord Northcliffe, publisher of the *London Daily Mail,* offered a Gold Challenge Cup. (16)

Fig. 17.4 — The Michigan team practices for the first International Livestock Judging contest held in Atlanta in 1920. Ray Turner, state club leader, is holding the animal.

The contest was publicized among state club leaders with the result that nineteen state teams gathered in Atlanta on October 19 for the event. For three days, with pencils and scorecards, the club contestants judged beef cattle, dairy cattle, sheep and hogs in the stock pavilions, knowing that upon their placings depended a free trip abroad for the international contest.

When the returns were all in the Texas team had won. The club members who made the historic trip were Jack Turner of Hill county, Stephen Alva Debnam of Dawson, and Gilbert Weiting of Falls. With them went State Agent Williamson, County

Agent H. B. Ross, and I. W. Hill of the Washington Extension Service. In England the Texas team captured the Gold Challenge Cup by defeating the British team.

The Maryland team won the following year, and again defeated their English competitors. Thereafter, the Southeastern Fair no longer sponsored the International trip, but in 1922 the Maryland team placed first in club judging at the National Dairy Show held in St. Paul. The National Dairy Show had appropriated no money for a trip to England, but the state leaders managed to raise the necessary money within the state, and again Maryland traveled to England and won the international judging contest.

With a few missed years, the event continued up to 1939, when the impending war called a halt on international club judging. During that time, Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, and Oklahoma sent teams abroad. These friendly invasions under the 4-H banner, beginning in 1920, had their influence on the growth of the English counterpart of 4-H Club work, the Young Farmers' Club.

During the early 1920's, club work continued to prove its worth as a demonstration of improved agricultural methods. In the South, clubs gave their elders lessons in cotton production.

Early in 1923, James E. Tanner, Mississippi state club leader, went to A. D. Stewart, county agent in Simpson county, to discuss what could be done to boost cotton yield. Simpson was a hill county. Cotton production the year before had averaged only sixty-nine pounds of lint per acre, and even in good years seldom exceeded one hundred pounds. All varieties were being raised, and with the staple less than an inch long, buyers were indifferent and prices were low. (133)

Working with experts at the college, Tanner and Stewart decided to enlist club members in a one-variety experiment. They held mass meetings and presented the facts to the youngsters, permitting them to decide by vote which of several recommended varieties they would grow. Whatever variety the majority wanted would have to be grown by all. The boys also agreed to use the recommended fertilizer and cultivation methods.

In all, ninety-six boys enrolled in the one-variety project. They all used the same fertilizer. As the growing season pro-

gressed, the ninety-six club plots with their shoulder-high plants, green and luxuriant, struck the eye. They stood out among the fields of their elders like emeralds on a drab tablecloth.

When ginning time arrived, Stewart and Tanner induced the gin operator to set aside one day for the ginning of club cotton. In preparation for club day, the gin was swept clean and after ginning all the club seed was carefully saved.

When the returns were in, it was found that the ninety-six boys had grown ninety-six bales of lint — a bale an acre, or 500 pounds against the previous average of 100! Furthermore, the staple was an inch-plus in length. The seed was pooled and saved for sale to farmers. The cotton was pooled and sold at auction for two cents a pound higher than the market price on the date of sale.

The farmers could hardly ignore the results. That winter they came around to County Agent Stewart, asking for seed.

"What kind of seed do you want?" he asked.

"Same kind as the boys used."

"Want some fertilizer, too?" Stewart asked.

"Yep. Same kind as the boys."

The following year, more counties and communities engaged in one-variety cotton growing and soon the U.S.D.A. Bureau of Plant Industry sent a man to Mississippi to promote the plan throughout the state. Eventually, through this idea, first undertaken by club members under the guidance of Extension specialists, cotton production in the hill counties of Mississippi was substantially raised and its marketability improved.

It is interesting to note that in 1948 the average production of lint per acre for all cotton club boys in the state was 432 pounds, nearly three times what it was in 1920. Club members have kept up the good work through the years.

While Mississippi was engaged in this campaign, a similar and equally spectacular demonstration of better methods was going on in Alabama. In Tallapoosa and Coosa counties, in 1924, 150 boys undertook to grow a bale on a sample acre. When the season closed, 76 boys had achieved their objective. Enthusiastically the Birmingham *Age-Herald* wrote:

Seventy-six boys of Tallapoosa and Coosa Counties have made their respective trial acres produce a bale of cotton each this year. Next year it is the hope of the county agricultural agent to have 100 boys succeed in raising 100 bales of cotton on 100 individual acres. It can be done. And if on an acre, then on two, then on ten; and if on ten, why not on any amount of land properly planted, fertilized and tended? If the boys can do it, why not the fathers? Undoubtedly that is the question many an adult farmer of these two counties is asking himself as he visits the fair and gazes at the visible and incontestable proof of what seventy-six boys, ranging from eleven to eighteen have done. (165)

In Colorado, shortly after the war, the Extension Service in Washington noted that Boulder county, Colorado, had 300 silos where a few years before they had had only 57. This was the result of introducing, through clubs, Minnesota 13 corn, a variety that would grow well in Colorado's climate. As Minnesota 13 spread over the state, silos sprang up and Colorado had to import less livestock feed.

Throughout the nation, during those years of agricultural depression, clubs were proving the merit of better seeds, better stock, and better methods in the home.

During those same years, club work was finding a name by which it could be called. Such terms as "boys' and girls' clubs," "agricultural clubs," "home economics clubs," and the like were too lacking in distinction to be effective.

Here and there in the early 1920's people were beginning to call the clubs 4-H Clubs. 4-H had appeared on canning labels since 1913. Members' pins were a constant reminder of the four *H*'s. But for the most part, people spoke of cotton clubs, corn clubs, canning clubs, or boys' and girls' clubs.

The first written use of the term "4-H Club" in a federal document appeared in the 1918 "Organization and Results of Boys' and Girls' Club Work," by Gertrude Warren. On page 35, with deliberate intent, she wrote, ". . . other tasks of like nature are now performed by members of the 4-H Clubs with interest, pride, and efficiency."

Early in the 1920's a conference was held in the office of Dr. C. B. Smith in Washington to bring up the question of deciding on a distinctive name to be used nationally. Miss War-

ren and several others favored "4-H Club Work," which by this time was establishing itself through usage in various parts of the country. Others opposed this and suggested "Junior Extension Work," to remind the public that Club work was part of the Extension Service.

The argument, for a space, waxed hot, but Miss Warren's emphasis on the term "4-H" was in accordance with growing usage, and language develops more through usage than through arbitrary decisions. In U.S.D.A. *Circular 348* appears the title "Boys' and Girls' 4-H Club Work, 1923." About the same time, U.S.D.A. *Circular 85* appeared with the title, "Boys' and Girls' 4-H Club Work, 1914–1924."

By 1924, club work had acquired the name by which it would thereafter be known throughout the world.

A number of interesting things happened of significance to club work about this time.

On June 30, 1923, the States Relation Service with its separate offices of Extension Work North and West, and South, was abolished, and the Service was reorganized. The country was divided into four divisions — Eastern, North Central, Southern, and Western States — with leaders in county agent work, home demonstration work, and club work in each division. The new director of Extension, beginning on September 24, 1923, was C. W. Warburton, connected with the U.S.D.A. since 1903. (108)

Also on June 30, 1923, the Smith-Lever Act "matured," meaning that the annual increases in appropriations had ceased. Extension work — club work included — was now getting as much money as it ever would get under the Smith-Lever Act. No more money would be available for expansion without new legislation.

Club work had bounded back from its low of 222,137 members in 1920 with amazing rapidity. By 1924, membership had climbed to 511, 211, almost reaching the inflated high enrollment of the war years. In spite of an agricultural depression, 4-H Club work was on the climb.

18.

National Camp Established; 4-H Crosses the Seas

EARLY IN CLUB WORK, Gertrude Warren said that the ideal education would be one that would make unnecessary that frequent statement of commencement orators, "You are standing on the threshold of a new life."

Miss Warren was thinking in terms of an education that would so relate the academic program to the world of work and homemaking that graduation would not seem to be a complete break from one kind of life to another.

At the first Annual National Camp* in 1927, Dr. C. B. Smith was driving home the same point when he said to state leaders and delegates: "Education is not preparation for life but life itself." He said earlier in his address that the 4-H Clubs interested boys and girls in real life problems.

Between them, Warren and Smith defined the basic reason why 4-H Clubs have endured and grown. Where the school too often ends its ministrations to the needs of boys and girls at 3:45 in the afternoon, the 4-H leader and club agent bring

* Name changed to National 4-H Conference in 1957.

pedagogy out to the farm and the kitchen and apply the pedagogy to the special project then under way. This ties learning to living with the closest possible bond.

The boy lives his calf project and the girl her clothing work. These are immediate and understandable life experiences. To these life experiences, the club agent brings mathematics in the form of bookkeeping, chemistry in the form of soil and feed analysis, English in the form of record-keeping, and the most valid type of scholarship in the application of the latest and best techniques to achieve the results desired. In most 4-H activities there is a tangible result in the form of a superior calf or an attractive dress — and public recognition for work well done.

In schools, the relationship between living and learning is present, but it is not so apparent. Schools everywhere are attempting to bridge the gap through social studies, field trips, stress on citizenship, the kinds of examples in their textbooks, and a system of faculty advisers.

But the schools are too crowded. It is seldom that a school teacher can interrupt a course outline to take up the immediate problem of a specific boy or girl and apply pedagogy to it. There isn't time. A certain number of pages of the textbook must be covered. A certain amount of work must be accomplished before an examination can be given and a grade awarded. Thus, too often, the natural curiosity of the student about situations arising in his immediate environment is stifled at the outset by a teacher too busy to meet a challenge not covered in the standard course outline.

Club work in no sense replaces school work. It supplements it. It provides the missing element — a close and personal relationship between academic knowledge and life situations. Club work makes real the facts of mathematics, physics, chemistry, reading, and social living by applying these knowledges to the boys' and girls' interests in farm and home. That is why teachers have so often testified that when a boy or girl takes up a 4-H project, he becomes a better classroom student than before.

"Education is life itself," said Dr. C. B. Smith in 1927. In club work, education is indeed life itself for the boys and girls who engage in its programs.

The state and national leaders in club work understood from the beginning the basic educational nature of club work. At the first National Camp, held in Washington in 1927, they were simply reiterating again the principles upon which club work would continue to march forward.

The idea of a National 4-H Club Camp had been germinating for several years. There needed to be some form of national recognition of outstanding junior leaders. Then, too, there had been no national or sectional meeting of state leaders since the Kansas City meeting in 1919, and the need for one was becoming more urgent. Without such a meeting, the determination of national directions of policy was difficult. The leaders needed it, if only to restate their ideals and gain inspiration from each other.

Locally financed trips of state champions to Washington had tapered off with the approach of World War I, and had not been resumed to any extent after the war. Where the nation's Capital had been supremely conscious of club work between 1912 and World War I, through such ceremonies as the public awarding of certificates by the Secretary of Agriculture, the Capital was now inclined to take the program for granted or to forget it.

Washington's club leaders were aware of this lack. In 1925, state directors of Extension requested the U.S.D.A. to establish a national camp and in due time the plan was approved. (157) The three chief purposes of the camp were:

To reward and develop outstanding junior leaders in club work.
To acquaint club members with their government, and to acquaint Washington with club work.
To provide a convenient time and place for a meeting of all state leaders, both North and South.

Four delegates — two boys and two girls — were to be selected from each state. Washington recommended that they be chosen on the basis of over-all club record, participation on group activities, leadership, an essay on club work, and physical fitness.

The states used their own formulae for selecting delegates, following in general the Washington recommendation. In Arkansas, one outstanding boy and one girl were chosen in each county on the basis of a scorecard covering their club activities. These

county winners were sent to the state fair where the four top winners were chosen. Variants of this plan were used by the other states. Each state financed its own trips.

Eligibles had to be fifteen years old or older, with at least three years of club work behind them. For the sake of recognition while in Washington, the boys were to wear uniforms of khaki

Fig. 18.1 — The first National Camp was housed in tents on the United States Department of Agriculture grounds. This was in 1927.

and black ties; the girls jade green dresses with white collars and cuffs and a white cap. (157)

The 1927 National Camp was housed in pyramidal tents on the grounds in front of the West Wing of the Department of Agriculture, near the famous California redwood tree. Here were four rows of tents, two for girls and two for boys, and shorter rows for the leaders. Meetings were held in the auditorium of the National Museum on the Mall and meals were served in the various Washington restaurants.

The seven-day program, lasting from June 15 to 22, included

sightseeing tours, recreation, dinners, addresses by notables, leader meetings, and discussions by delegates. A regular camp routine was arranged, with reveille at six o'clock, followed by flag raising, setting-up exercises, and swimming — all before the hungry delegates assembled for breakfast.

The mimeographed camp newspaper, *4-H Forage,* reflected the high spirits in which the first camp was held. The Oklahoma delegation arrived in a Ford answering to the name of "Ambition," purchased for one dollar from a junk dealer and repaired by club members. The travelers reported no trouble on the trip, except for one hill so steep that "Ambition" had to be turned around and backed up to the top.

Nebraska, Iowa and Utah formed a caravan and toured Chicago, Niagara Falls and Philadelphia on the way to the camp.

The state leaders' club conference, held during the camp, consolidated and restated the objectives of club work and laid plans for the expansion of 4-H influence.

The objectives, as stated by Dr. C. B. Smith and approved by the leaders, stressed cooperative living and rural leadership, better farm and home practices and pride of occupation.

The conference recommended redoubled efforts to train voluntary leaders by county, district and state conferences.

To reduce membership turnover by interesting boys and girls in club work longer, the conference recommended steps to formulate programs that would attract older boys and girls. This called for the selection of leaders with qualities that would appeal to older boys and girls, and the planning of mature types of programs, some based on community needs, some with an economic appeal for youth. (160)

At the same time, more recreation and more social activities in the club program were urged.

At this first camp in 1927, the present 4-H pledge, worded first by Otis Hall, state leader of Kansas, was officially adopted. The Executive Committee of the Land-Grant College Association had requested Dr. R. A. Pearson, president of Iowa State College, and Dr. A. C. True of the federal Extension Service to write a pledge, and they had turned in the pledge substantially

as written by Hall. The wording adopted for the whole country by the leaders in 1927 is that of today:

> I pledge my head to clearer thinking,
> my heart to greater loyalty,
> my hands to larger service, and
> my health to better living,
> for my club, my community, and my country. (160)

Also in 1927, the club motto originally proposed by Miss Carrie Harrison, botanist in the Bureau of Plant Industry, was adopted by the leaders. This was the now familiar:

"To make the best better" (160)

The 1927 camp marked the beginning of a literature of music written especially for the 4-H Clubs. In that year Fannie R. Buchanan, rural life specialist of Iowa, introduced a song for 4-H girls. This song was entitled "Dreaming," with a melody reminiscent of Franz Liszt's *Liebestraum*. Beginning "My home must have a high tree above its open gate," it expresses in melody and lyrics the desire of every rural girl for a home where life would be blessed. At the same camp, Miss Buchanan introduced the popular "Plowing Song" for 4-H boys.

Other Buchanan songs followed, and in 1929 the first National 4-H Song Book appeared. In 1930 R. A. Turner of the Federal Extension Service arranged for a music hour on the monthly National 4-H Radio Program. Each year from 1930 to 1942 the United States Marine Band broadcast a program, each year's program built on a special theme. From 1932 on, a feature of these programs was the National 4-H March composed by Edwin Franko Goldman, entitled "Pride o' the Land." Printed programs, mailed in advance to the states, enabled clubs the country over to conduct music appreciation hours. These worthwhile programs were discontinued in January, 1942, when service bands were withdrawn from the air because of the war.

Nevertheless, beginning in 1927, the 4-H Clubs acquired a body of musical literature that has lifted high the morale of club work everywhere, and crystallized its ideals in the minds of millions of young people.

The first Annual National 4-H Club Camp was notable in that it marked the first time leaders of the South and North had come together jointly to plan the future of club work. Over the years, the two sections had developed differences in technique in working out the objectives of club work.

In the North, club work had to a large extent grown away from the schools and become organized under farm bureaus and local adult advisory groups, with voluntary leaders who were, for the most part, farm fathers and mothers.

In most of the South, the school was still the place of 4-H Club meetings, while the farm bureau played little part in Extension activities. The North, at the time, was pressing for county club agents whose sole function in the county would be to work with boys and girls, while the South preferred to assign the boy and girl program to an assistant who would work under the county Extension agent to develop a family approach to farm problems. Since both regions, in fact, believed in relating the junior work to the adult program, the differences were those of method rather than of purpose. Both groups learned to allow for regional variations and thus keep their minds jointly on the great objectives of the program.

A notable event at the 1931 National Camp was an announcement by S. Howard Evans, representing the Payne Fund, that beginning in 1931 fellowships would be provided for one 4-H young woman and one 4-H young man, selected from the country at large on the basis of activity, ability, personality and leadership qualities. The pair were to be college graduates and their program of study designed to lead to a Master's degree. Under the fellowship, the two designated 4-H members would spend about ten months in Washington, making a study of governmental activities, taking academic courses in the U.S.D.A. Graduate School and other universities, and pursuing a research problem of their own choosing.

From 1931 to 1939, the Payne Fund Fellowships, awarded each year, provided the Extension Service with many trained and skilled leaders. In 1939 the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work agreed to continue the two grants as the Na-

tional 4-H Fellowships. In 1953 four more grants were made available by an interested donor, making a total of six.

National Camps were held on the Department of Agriculture grounds for several years, after which they were moved to the shore of the Tidal Basin near the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, in the shadow of the Washington Monument. Here considerable money was spent on frame lavatories and other structures. During World War II, the construction of bridges eliminated the campsite and thus ended tented camps.

Resumed after the war, the Camp was held in 1946 at American University, in 1947 at Arlington Farms, and in 1948, '49 and '50 at the Raleigh Hotel with meetings in the impressive Departmental Auditorium.

Only once was the existence of the camp as a club institution threatened, and that was in 1933 when, in view of the change in administration from Hoover to Roosevelt, Director Warburton felt that it would be unwise to assume responsibility for holding the Camp. An Act of Congress would be necessary.

Fig. 18.2 — At the 1940 Camp, 4-H delegates present a bouquet of roses to Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt. The President smiles from the car.

In this emergency, George Farrell went to the Department of Agriculture solicitor and had him draft a two-line amendment to the current deficiency bill. Farrell submitted this amendment to Marvin Jones, chairman of the agricultural committee in the House, and to "Cotton" Ed Smith, chairman of the Senate committee. These men put the amendment through both houses, and thus a 1933 camp was assured. (35)

Every camp has had its lighter side, and the early camps were no exception. At one of them, Mrs. Herbert Hoover entertained the delegates at a tea in the White House. The uniformed boys and girls, sun-tanned from farm living and thrilled at the experience of meeting the First Lady, were lined up to be received by Mrs. Hoover.

Keeping a watchful eye on proceedings, Miss Warren noticed with some concern that the reception line was hardly moving at all. Evidently, there was some serious hitch at the front of the line. Hurrying forward, she discovered that each clubber was not only shaking Mrs. Hoover's hand, but politely thrusting forward a program and pencil and asking for her autograph.

Miss Warren rescued the First Lady from the threat of writer's cramp and the line speeded up. She then discovered that at the tea, instead of eating their cakes and cookies, the club guests were carefully wrapping pastry in handkerchiefs to take home as souvenirs — just as thousands of other visitors to the White House have done through the years.

As the National 4-H Camp grew into a permanent institution, leaders agreed that the Camp had more than realized its objectives of training leaders, acquainting rural boys and girls with their government, and providing a meeting place at which state leaders could make decisions on matters of national interest.

It was during the same period when the first National 4-H Camp was being planned and realized that the four-leaf clover and four *H*'s crossed the Atlantic to establish itself in Europe.

Club work had already crossed our northern border. In fact, club work in Canada had begun almost as early as in the United States. There were garden clubs and prize crop contests in Quebec as early as 1905, with the Provincial Department of Edu-

cation as sponsor, and within a few years other provinces were adopting the idea of providing incentives to rural young people.

By 1925, Canada could report that there were 1,000 clubs with a membership of 100,000 boys and girls. Their program of projects and demonstrations were similar to those of the United States. The administration was somewhat different since Canada did not organize a separate Extension Service, but rather incorporated the youth program in various existing provincial agencies, such as the departments of agriculture and education. (15)

The Young Farmers' Club movement in Great Britain came into being in 1921 as the result of a visit to this country by Lord Northcliffe, the energetic publisher of the London *Daily Mail.* He had seen the working of the boys' and girls' clubs in this country and felt that his nation should have something similar. For several years the Young Farmers' Clubs were an entirely voluntary organization supported by the *Daily Mail,* but from 1924 on, various forms of governmental assistance assured the permanence of the movement.

Denmark had been working with rural young people since 1913, when agricultural societies organized farm boys into groups to receive technical instruction. In 1921, Denmark became interested in club work in the United States and arrangements were made between this government and the Danes to cooperate in establishing 4-H Clubs over there under a financial grant from the International Education Board, a foundation interested in the promotion of better international relations.

Under the agreement, the U.S.D.A. Extension Service loaned Danish-born F. P. Lund to Denmark for the purpose of introducing 4-H work. Meetings were held with the Ministry of Agriculture and various agricultural societies in the fall and winter of 1923–24, and club work actively started in the spring of 1924.

During the first year, 700 boys and girls were enrolled, and by 1926–27, 6,600 young people were engaged in the work. They adopted the four-leaf clover and the four *H*'s, the letters in this case standing for *Hoved, Hjerte, Haand,* and *Helbred,* the Danish words for head, heart, hand and health. (34)

Finland became interested in club work through unique

circumstances. In 1920, the Finnish agricultural commissioner to the United States and Canada, Bertel Rockstrom, visited Minnesota where colonies of Finnish people had settled. While there, he learned from State Leader T. A. Erickson that a Finnish girl, Mayme Jyring of St. Louis county, north of Duluth, had won the state potato club championship with a yield of 83 bushels on one-eighth acre of land.

St. Louis county, with its short summer, its log houses, and its plowed fields with the north woods crowding the fence rows, was like Rockstrom's Finland. It must have thrilled him to learn that the daughter of one of his countrymen had won high honor in a new kind of agricultural movement for young people. He learned more about it, and when he returned to Helsinfors he brought with him the club plan, which he recommended to the Finnish government. Shortly thereafter, Finland published Rockstrom's 4-H report and on the cover appeared the picture of Mayme Jyring of Sandy, St. Louis county, Minnesota. (83)

In Finland, too, the International Education Board lent a hand, with the result that club work was officially established in 1926 under Baron Mannerheim. (77) By 1930, Finland had divided its country into 176 demonstration districts where 203 agricultural club agents supervised demonstration work. Baking, canning, raising livestock, and crops were the most popular projects. Nearly 21,000 young people completed demonstrations.

Sweden and Norway also introduced club work, with the result that in the late 1930's there was a 4-H Federation of Northern Countries of Europe, with meetings and exhibits held annually, usually in Copenhagen. (34)

It was an interesting train of circumstances that led to the introduction of club work in Latvia, the Baltic country now a part of the Soviet Union. At the time when Latvia was under the rule of Russia, a leader of the Latvian independence movement named Carl Ulmanis had to flee his country to escape the wrath of the Czar. He came to the United States and settled in Nebraska, eventually graduating in agriculture from the University of Nebraska. After graduation he taught for five years at the University, during which time he became well-acquainted with the Extension Service, especially 4-H.

When Latvia was given its independence after World War I, Ulmanis returned to his country and became its president. During his period of office, 4-H Clubs were established in both urban and rural centers. In time, this small country of two million population had enrolled more than 40,000 young people.

During these years, Latvia, as well as other European countries, received much help from the Club office in Washington,

Fig. 18.3A — Ray A. Turner.

Fig. 18.3B — Gertrude L. Warren.

particularly from Gertrude Warren, R. A. Turner and Dr. C. B. Smith, who took much time to advise foreign club leaders and supply them with teaching materials.

For this unstinted service, the government of Latvia conferred on these three leaders the Order of the Three Stars, the highest civil order conferred by the country. This entitled the leaders, along with the King of England and others of like distinction, to the right to wear the Maltese Cross of the Order. (159)

The growth of the 4-H idea in foreign countries during these years was stimulated by the program of 4-H poultry demonstrations held at the World's Poultry Congress, in Ottawa, Can-

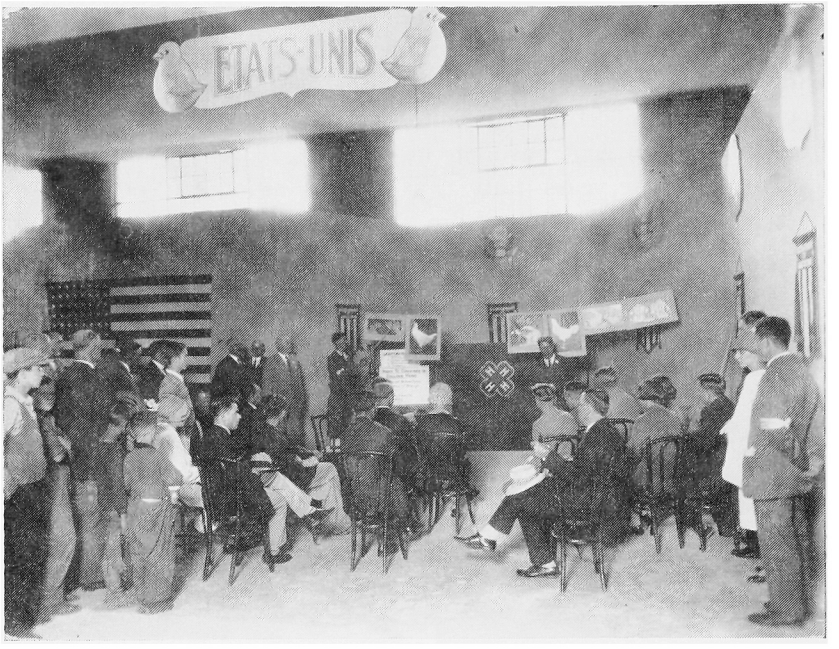


Fig. 18.4 — Poultry demonstrations by American teams at the 1927 World Poultry Congress in Ottawa advertised club work to the nations of the world.

ada, July 27 to August 4, 1927. This was the first Congress to be held in the Western Hemisphere.

Under the direction of R. A. Turner, former Michigan state club leader now in Washington in charge of club work for the North Central States, 4-H teams from Connecticut, Vermont, Nebraska and Michigan gave demonstrations on culling, grading and marketing eggs, brooding and sanitary management of young chicks, and housing the farm flock.

These skilled representatives gave their demonstrations before some 3,000 delegates from 43 countries, informing them at the same time that club work was an officially sponsored program of farm and home work for rural boys and girls.

Agricultural leaders from all parts of the world in this way gained first-hand evidence of the effectiveness of 4-H work.

4-H Club work officially began in a United States territory in 1923, when it was introduced into Hawaii on a territory-wide

scale. As early as 1919, Hawaii Agricultural Experiment Station reports had referred to work with boys and girls in pig, potato and corn clubs and school garden work.

In 1923, the Insular Division of the U. S. Experiment Stations, U.S.D.A., appropriated $10,000 for Hawaiian club work, and in April of that year, Miss Mabel Greene was appointed director in charge of youth work.

During 1923, club work was conducted on three islands, Oahu, Maui, and Hawaii. The work was correlated with the schools and placed under the direction of teachers trained in agriculture and home economics. Boys' projects included corn, dairy, fruit, garden, poultry, swine and rabbit. Girls' projects were canning with fireless cookers, home management, and foods.

Club work continued under the Experiment Station until 1928, when the passage of the Capper-Ketcham Act extended to Hawaii the support of federal Extension funds. At that time, a memorandum of understanding was signed between the University of Hawaii, a land-grant institution, and the U.S.D.A., whereby an Extension Service was created. William A. Lloyd, regional agent for the Western States and Territories served as director of Hawaii Extension for about a year, after which he was succeeded by F. G. Krauss.

Enrollment in Hawaiian 4-H Clubs steadily increased through the years, reaching a high of over 5,000 in 1948. Club organization is patterned after that in the United States, with standard clubs, voluntary leaders, county club leaders' councils, and county member federations. (132)

In Alaska, 4-H Club work began in 1930, when W. A. Lloyd of the U.S.D.A. Extension Service visited the territory and organized the Extension Service in the Alaska Agricultural College and School of Mines at Fairbanks. In succeeding years, Alaskan 4-H Club work, overcoming the obstacles of scattered population and lack of transportation, has built an effective program serving some 500 youth, many being Indians and Eskimos. (111)

Thus it was that during the 1920's club work was not only growing rapidly in the United States, but reaching out with its constructive program to many parts of the world.

19.

New Legislation for Extension

ONE RESULT of the first National Camp was to acquaint Congress with club work. This was important in view of the fact that the Smith-Lever Law had matured in 1923.

In 1915, the year after the passage of the Extension Law, the federal government had increased its initial appropriation by $600,000, and each year thereafter, for seven years, had added $500,000 to the total amount. Thus, the Smith-Lever appropriation became larger each year until it reached its maximum of $4,580,000 by June 30, 1923. All except $480,000 of this had to be offset, dollar for dollar, by the states.

This, however, was not all the money the government was paying for Extension work. It also provided about $1,300,000 in year-to-year appropriations and another million that continued appropriations made before passage of the Smith-Lever Act.

Thus, the total government support was about $6,800,000. Against this amount, state and local sources in 1926 were contributing $12,832,000, or nearly two dollars for every dollar supplied by the government. The fact that states and counties

were willing to contribute so much is ample proof of the high esteem in which farmers held Extension work. (169)

The total annual bill for Extension work, then, was around $20,000,000. For this amount of money, the Service was attempting to bring its program of adult and youth education into all 2,830 rural counties of the nation, and to reach an ever-increasing number in each county.

Obviously, with this support, the job would never be more than partly done. The sum of $20,000,000, impressive as it seemed, is only one-fourth of the amount the state of Michigan pays today in state aid to schools. It was not nearly enough to extend the benefits of Demonstration Work to all who wanted it.

How far was the money going? There were in the country in 1927 about 2,150 county agents to conduct men's work; 950 home demonstration agents for women's work; and only 160 boys' and girls' club agents. (169) Although the agents in adult work and their assistants were doing some club work, it was obvious that 4-H enrollment would not advance far beyond the 619,712 members of 1927 without an increase in personnel.

Before such an increase could take place, there had to be more funds. The lawmakers in Washington had to decide whether or not to expand the Extension Service.

The first National 4-H Camp in 1927 was especially timely in that it was held when Congress was considering the Capper-Ketcham Act providing new funds for Extension work. By dramatizing club work to Washington it helped pave the way to passage of the act.

Long before this, however, machinery for the new legislation had been set in motion. Many groups interested in rural progress had declared themselves for more Extension support, and Guy L. Noble, Executive Secretary of the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work, had been brought into the movement by certain state directors of Extension.

Noble made a practice of attending meetings of the Executive Committee of the Land-Grant College Association. Not long after the Smith-Lever Law had matured, the Executive Committee in Chicago debated the question of asking Congress for

more funds for Extension work. The feeling of some of the committee members was that it was time to place the emphasis on the expansion of engineering education rather than agriculture. It was the engineer's turn.

R. K. Bliss, Iowa's director of Extension, went to Noble and suggested that he take the leadership in appealing to Congress for new legislation. Noble was willing, but as a matter of precaution asked President R. A. Pearson, then head of the Land-Grant College Association, if he had any objections.

Somewhat noncommittally, Pearson replied: "You're a private organization. Do as you please." (113)

Noble took this to mean that the Land-Grant College Association would have no objections if someone else took the lead. He brought up the proposition before his own board of directors, and with their okay went to Washington in 1926 to see what he could do. There he found willing counsels in the Extension Service, particularly in the office of C. B. Smith, Chief of Cooperative Extension Work. Acting on Smith's advice he called on Senator Arthur Capper of Kansas, member of the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, who in turn sent him to the legislative drafting committee to have a bill drawn up.

This first bill, introduced into the Sixty-Ninth Congress early in 1927, was a bill to "provide for the further development of agricultural Extension work." It called for an annual appropriation of $10,000 per state, this amount to be given without requiring the states to match the amount. After the first year, it called for an annual increase of $500,000 until the total annual appropriation equalled $6,000,000, plus the $10,000 per state. These increments were to be offset dollar for dollar by state and county funds, and were to be apportioned between the states on a population formula.

To assure that too large a part of the appropriations would not be expended in "overhead," the bill provided that 80 per cent of the appropriations were to go to the salaries of "Extension agents in the counties."

Noble spent much time mustering support for the bill from bankers' associations, farm organizations and breed associations.

Not the least effective support for the bill was supplied by the young club members who testified before the Senate and House committees on agriculture.

One of these was Gladys Bull, (126) club girl from Worcester county, Maryland. Gladys had written a speech testifying to the value of club work, a speech with many worth-while statistics and observations, but on the recommendation of her coaches she tossed the prepared speech aside and told in simple terms how she had got into club work and what it meant to her.

In the august hearing room of the Senate, facing the friendly but dignified members of the Senate committee, Gladys walked to the end of the long table and told the legislators how she had come home from school one day when she was only ten years old and had met the county home demonstration agent.

Gladys had never heard of a 4-H Club, but she eagerly accepted the home demonstration agent's invitation to join. In her first few years she took up sewing, canning and poultry. Her mother, she said, had never been able to can vegetables so that they would keep through the winter, but as mother and daughter together learned the techniques of a pressure cooker they were able to put up their winter's supply without fear of spoilage.

Gladys went on to the more demanding projects, making enough money off poultry to pay most of her own expenses. Club work, she said, had given her the ambition to go to college.

Dissatisfied with her room, she had redecorated it as a part of her "own your own room" project, covering her wardrobe with cretonne, making a rag rug, and repainting furniture, until finally she was proud to invite guests to her room. Her own redecorating project had stimulated her mother to doing over the rest of the house, and now the whole family was much happier.

Year by year Gladys had become more skilled in sewing until she began to make her own dresses. She pointed to the dress she was wearing, a neatly tailored outfit with the waistline fullness of the mid-1920's.

"I would like to ask the gentlemen to estimate what this dress cost me," she said.

Senator Ellison D. Smith of South Carolina stated that by

Washington standards the dress would probably cost $150, while J. Thomas Heflin of Alabama gave an official estimate of $35.

"It cost me exactly $1.13," Gladys replied. "I have a coat here that I remade for $2.18."

The testimony of Gladys Bull, Charles Hines of Olney, Maryland, a pig club member, and Mrs. Nelson Beck, volunteer leader of Albemarle county, Virginia, brought home vividly to legislators the meaning of 4-H Club work in terms of individual adventures in richer, more purposeful rural living.

Fig. 19.1 — Gladys Bull of Maryland told lawmakers that the dress shown here cost her $1.13. In the group are, top row, left to right: H. J. Baker, Extension director in New Jersey; C. B. Smith, chief of the Office of Cooperative Extension; George E. Farrell, in charge of club work in North Central States. Lower row, left to right: Florence E. Ward, Washington Extension office; Gladys Bull; Gertrude L. Warren, in charge of Girls' club work, Washington.

Club work, the legislators learned, was a means of enabling youths to express their better natures by working intelligently with the materials immediately at hand.

There was little opposition in either House or Senate to the bill. Both committees unanimously voted it out and the House passed it at once. The bill was on the Senate unanimous consent calendar, but Senator King of Utah objected and voting was postponed. The bill then was held up by a filibuster, ran into adjournment, and was held over until the Seventieth Congress.

Discussions on the bill, resumed early in 1928, made clear the job yet to be done. Extension work in this country was only half completed. There were, Senator Capper told the Senate, 11,000,000 boys and girls between the ages of ten and eighteen in the rural districts of the United States. Out of this potential field, only 600,000, or one in twenty, were in club work. This country needed at least 1,650 club agents and assistant agents to make 4-H Club work available to all rural youths.

As passed on May 22, 1928, the Capper-Ketcham Act was greatly cut down. The sum of $980,000 was to go to the states and the Territory of Hawaii — $20,000 per state — without offset. The following year a half million more was to be divided among the states and Hawaii on a population formula, this sum to be matched by the states and the Territory. No further annual increments were provided for. Thus the bill increased federal support of Extension work by $1,480,000 a year — far less than was needed to perform a comprehensive service.

At the insistence of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, which feared that home economics work would be neglected, the act stated that funds should be so "expended that the Extension agents appointed under its provisions shall be men and women in fair and just proportions."

The act specifically mentioned work with boys and girls in the words, "to further develop the cooperative Extension system in agriculture and home economics, with men, women, boys and with girls." In the Smith-Lever Act, club work was implied. In the Capper-Ketcham Act it was part of the law.

A year after the passage of the act, a survey showed that

Fig. 19.2 — Senator Arthur Capper of Kansas, who co-sponsored the first bill to augment Extension funds, receives from Kansas members a plaque for outstanding service to 4-H. M. L. Wilson, director of Extension, is at right.

as a result of the act, states had employed 492 more agents, most of these being county agricultural and home demonstration agents. Some 69 new club agents and assistants had been added.

Although friends of the 4-H Clubs felt that a greater proportion of the funds should have been devoted to the clubs, 4-H enrollment grew at an accelerated rate after the passage of the Capper-Ketcham Act. These figures show the increase: (163)

1928.....663,940
1929.....756,096
1930.....822,714

For these 822,714 boys and girls there were 85,344 voluntary

local leaders, where a few years before, in 1924, there had been 37,905. Meanwhile, the true measure of the effectiveness of club work was improving. Where in 1924 only 55 per cent of the members completed the projects on which they started, by 1930 the percentage of completions was 67. Two out of three were carrying projects through to the finish. Eventually, a modern standard of three-fourths completions was to be achieved.

As club enrollment passed the 800,000 mark and gave every indication of continuing to grow at the rate of about 10 per cent a year, the land-grant colleges and the Federal Extension Service, which were jointly charged with the guiding of 4-H Club work, took note of the fact that the club program had become an educational movement of national significance. 4-H Club work was no longer a baby. It contained within itself the hormones of growth. It was becoming a larger and healthier member of the Extension family year by year.

This being so, the Land-Grant College Association felt that it was time to study present club trends and to chart a course for the future. There needed to be a set of policies by which club work could be steered.

The colleges and the Department sought answers on these five important points:

First, they wanted a clear statement of the objectives of club work.

Second, they wanted to know how club work fitted in with other educational forces, such as the public schools, the Smith-Hughes vocational schools, the Boy and Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls.

Third, they wanted a statement on the organization and methods by which club objectives could best be achieved.

Fourth, they asked how contests, prizes, scholarships, and trips fitted into club work.

Finally, they wanted to know how the effects of club work could be evaluated.

Under the general chairmanship of R. A. Pearson, president of the University of Maryland, with Dr. C. B. Smith and E. H. Shinn of the U.S.D.A. Extension Service as assistants, five subcommittees were set up to study the five points. Each subcom-

mittee had on it representatives of the land-grant colleges, the State and Federal Extension Services, and county club workers.

These committees went to work in 1931, and in the spring of 1935 published a statement of objectives that has served as a compass for 4-H Club work since that date. (98)

The subcommittee on objectives went back to first principles. It reminded its audience of the underlying purpose of all Extension work as stated in the Smith-Lever Act — to diffuse practical information relating to agriculture and home economics among people not attending college, by means of demonstrations, publications and otherwise. Under this charter, the subcommittee found 4-H Club work to be a specialized educational enterprise for rural youth and that therefore its objectives were concerned not only with developing individual abilities, but with the cultivation of character and citizenship as well.

The subcommittee then went on to list eight objectives remarkably similar to the objectives outlined by pioneers in the rural youth movement a generation before. One sees in them the thinking of Liberty Hyde Bailey before 1900, of O. J. Kern and A. B. Graham in 1902, of William Hall Smith in 1907, of Benson, Erickson and many others before 1910. Somewhat condensed, these objectives are:

1. To help rural boys and girls develop desirable standards of farming, homemaking and community life.
2. To give technical instruction — and in so doing give boys and girls a respect for agriculture and homemaking.
3. To use the "learn by doing" method, and give boys and girls a chance to demonstrate to others what they have learned.
4. To instill in young minds an appreciation of their rural environment.
5. To teach the value of research and develop the scientific attitude.
6. To train boys and girls in cooperative action for the solving of rural problems.
7. To cultivate habits of health and the wise use of leisure; to arouse the desire to keep on learning in order to live richer lives.
8. To teach better methods of farming and homemaking, to the end that farm incomes may be increased, standards of living improved, and the satisfactions of farm life enhanced.

These eight objectives were nothing less than the brave dreams of the pioneers, except that now the objectives were

gathered together and restated to remind the modern club worker of the shining goal to be unendingly sought.

The subcommittee on organization and method proposed the machinery by which these objectives could best be attained. It outlined the broad duties of the federal and state club staffs, stressed the need for an adult county 4-H Club council, and recommended a voluntary leader and adult advisory committee for each local club. It emphasized the importance of having 4-H members belong to an actual, organized club along the lines of the standard club outlined seventeen years before. It suggested that country staffs devise programs of interest to older youth.

The subcommittee dealing with the relationships between club work and other agencies suggested ways in which harmonious working relationships could be set up with the public schools, Smith-Hughes vocational work, the Boy Scouts, and with civic, social and business organizations.

This subcommittee recognized 4-H Club work as "an important educational supplement to the training of rural boys and girls and not a substitute for school work." Teachers might aid club work — as many had throughout the development of 4-H — by acting as leaders, permitting the use of school buildings for club work, and in some cases correlating club work with class work.

4-H Club work and Smith-Hughes work should hold conferences to avoid wasteful duplication and should cooperate in community programs. 4-H Clubs and the Boy Scouts could cooperate by the interchange of subject matter and, at camps and meetings, of workers.

The subcommittee on awards recognized that the scholarships, trips, cash, equipment, trophies and medals offered by many concerns throughout the country were valuable for two main reasons: first, as an incentive to arouse the interest and enthusiasm of club members; and, second, as a means of informing the public of club work, and demonstrating to the public better methods in agriculture and homemaking.

The subcommittee pointed out at the same time that in programs involving awards, the stress should be on the educational value of the work rather than the prize; that awards should be

in proportion to the achievement, to prevent the club member from gaining a false idea of the real value of a piece of work.

Two dangers of awards were pointed out — that victory might develop overconfidence in a member, and, conversely, losing might destroy self-confidence. These dangers could be minimized if many awards rather than a single award were offered in any program, and if boys and girls could be reminded that they learn more from their losses than from their victories. This would be the result if the work itself, instead of the award, were stressed.

The subcommittee on measuring results recommended that systematic research be undertaken, and periodic studies be made, to evaluate the results of 4-H Club work, in order to set up standards of achievement and accurately measure the effects of 4-H on lives of members and upon farm and home practices.

Thus the national committee of the land-grant colleges and the U.S.D.A. reported on the state of 4-H Club work in 1935 and charted the course it would travel in the years ahead. In essence, it was a course set by the pioneers, a gathering together of the dreams of all those who, a generation before, had devoted themselves to widening the horizons of rural youth.

In 1939, four years after the publication of the report on recommended policies, a permanent organization was set up to guarantee the proper continuity of policy-making. After several years of spade work by such state leaders as T. A. Erickson of Minnesota, M. H. Coe of Kansas, W. J. Jernigan of Arkansas, Hallie L. Hughes of Virginia, along with R. A. Turner and Gertrude L. Warren of the Washington office, an "Extension subcommittee on 4-H Club work" was formed, "to promote the future welfare of the 4-H Club work, to coordinate the national program, to facilitate the professional improvement of 4-H Club leaders, and to study the trends and tendencies of 4-H Club work." (140)

Club work had a chance to prove its vitality in the early 1930's. Progress up to 1930 had been steady and confident, but in 1930 economic disaster had struck the nation, and as the months sped by, all hopes of a speedy recovery had been blasted by the tobogganing of prices and employment, the lengthening of bread

lines and the shocking speed with which the fires of industry were banked and doors were closed.

The dismal months lengthened into 1931 and 1932, with farm prices dropping, foreclosures increasing, and crops rotting in the fields for lack of a market. Farm net incomes fell to $566 in 1930 and $342 in 1931. (108) Valiant efforts were made to stabilize prices through better marketing procedures, and to reduce unsellable surpluses through voluntary reduction programs. But all these programs failed in their purpose.

Then came the change in administration from Hoover to Roosevelt and on May 12, 1933, the passage of the Agricultural Adjustment Act providing a national plan for adjusting farm production to the reduced demand of the depression.

At this time there was a serious question whether the AAA should enlist the cooperation of Extension people in administering the act, or create an entirely separate field staff.

Certain economic advisers to President Roosevelt were in favor of steering clear of the Extension Service. They had little faith that the Extension Service would take part in a program to reduce production when the emphasis had always been to increase it. Some of the land-grant colleges were dubious over offering the services of their Extension agents to the AAA.

J. A. Evans, assistant chief, Cooperative Extension work, and Cully Cobb, cotton administrator and former state club leader in Mississippi, felt that Extension was at the crossroads. (108) If a separate staff were set up at this time to deal with farmers in all the counties of the country, who knows what duplications, confusions, and disruptions would occur? Would the Extension Service, by-passed during the farm crisis, suffer a loss of prestige and financial support?

Cobb and Evans fought vigorously for full cooperation between Extension and AAA, and this policy finally prevailed. As a result, during depression years, county Extension staffs helped put into effect the national farm relief program.

Through these black years, 4-H Club enrollment remained remarkably steady, as the following figures show:

1931.....	890,374	1934.....	916,062
1932.....	925,612	1935.....	997,744
1933.....	921,965	1936.....	1,145,508

Enrollment continued to gain through 1932. The only decreases were in 1933 and 1934, and these were slight indeed. In 1935 the upward climb began again, and in 1936 enrollment passed the million mark, a milestone in 4-H history.

It is remarkable that club work held its membership so faithfully from 1933 through 1935. County Extension staffs during this period were busy signing up farmers to crop control agreements and performing other emergency work. Such federal emergency measures as resettlement and farm credits also fell to the county staffs, and it is remarkable that they had any time in which to develop club work.

With farm incomes at a low level, county and state support of the Extension Service dropped year by year. Testimony before Congress in 1935 showed that the decrease in county, state, federal and farm organization funds between July 1, 1931, and July 1, 1934, was $5,684,000, and of this loss, nearly $5,000,000 was in county and state support. (42)

The government made up the loss by emergency appropriations, but by 1935 the need was felt for a law guaranteeing permanent support in place of year-to-year appropriations.

This support was provided by the Bankhead-Jones Act, providing funds for land-grant colleges, experiment stations, and the Extension Service. To the Extension Service went $8,000,000 the first year, and an additional million each year until the annual figure was $12,000,000. None required offset by the states.

Although the spirit of the time was one of crisis and emergency measures, the testimony of witnesses in favor of the Bankhead-Jones bill showed that friends of club work were still thinking of long-range objectives.

Mrs. Abbie C. Sargent, president of the Associated Women of the American Farm Bureau Federation, said: "In counties where there are county agents, county home demonstration agents, and boys' and girls' club specialists, you will find a better

rural atmosphere, more satisfactory conditions of farming and farm life, and a greater spirit of cooperation among the rural people. We have come to depend on these agencies. We believe these agencies should be provided for all rural counties."

R. K. Bliss, Iowa's director of Extension, asked the legislators if it was not worth while to place at least one Extension teacher in a county to care for the needs of some 3,000 farm youth.

G. L. Noble of the National Committee testified that he had been given to understand that the passage of the act would permit the employment of 2,000 county club agents in place of the 198 county club agents then employed, and that this would permit membership in 4-H Clubs to pass the two million mark.

The Bankhead-Jones Act, approved June 29, 1935, assured a steady income for club work in spite of the loss in local and state financial support.

20.

What 4-H Means to One County

A GOOD WAY in which to evaluate club work as an educational system that can be adapted to meet changing needs is to bring the focus down to a specific region.

For this purpose, let us take St. Louis county, Minnesota, which, in 1934, won first place in a national county progress activity. Counties were rated on their all-round 4-H growth over the years, and on the contributions made by 4-H to agriculture, homemaking and general community improvement. (84)

St. Louis county makes an especially appealing study because it is a mixture of the frontier and modern industrialism. An understanding of the background of the region is essential to an understanding of the contribution of Extension in general, and 4-H in particular, to its well-being.

St. Louis county is big. It measures 120 miles from north to south and 60 from east to west, and includes not only the famous Minnesota iron ranges but many lakes and great expanses of forest. The port of Duluth lies at its southeast corner, at the tip of Lake Superior, and Rainy Lake fringes its northwest border.

Through the county run waterways, along which the adventurous history of the United States may be traced. In succession, the fur traders, gold hunters, timber cruisers and iron prospectors canoed up its rivers and tramped its forests and hills, seeking wealth. It was in St. Louis county that John Jacob Astor, denied the use of the Grand Portage to Hudson Bay, explored a new waterway, following the St. Louis River up from Duluth, through the Embarrass Chain of Lakes, over the divide into Pike River and Vermilion Lake, and on into the wild region of the Hudson Bay watershed.

Astor's agents made their chief fabulously wealthy in the fur trade. The gold hunters, who pursued their vision of riches into the Rainy Lake country, found little to excite them. The timber cruisers, who followed, did better. But it was the iron prospectors, who kicked aside the thin overburden and uncovered the rich ore of the Mesabi Range, who made the greatest strike. On this red dust, America's industrial might was founded.

To this region came the Finns and Scandinavians, attracted by the promise of employment and by the climate so much like their own. They settled in the prosperous mining towns of the Range, in Hibbing, Chisolm, Virginia, Eveleth, Biwabik, and Aurora. They bought land on the edges of forests and built log dwellings, there to raise their families.

Here was a land that would not permit itself to be easily won over to agriculture. Even today, the borders of farms are thick wildernesses of spruce, pine, poplar and birch. Where the plowed land ends, forest begins. Before there could be farms, the red clay and sandy loam had to be cleared of stumps and the muck land of the swamps had to be drained.

The 1947 county Extension report gives striking evidence of the frontier nature of the region. It states that during the year, bear killed 952 sheep, 65 hogs, 69 heifers and innumerable poultry. To combat the menace, returned servicemen went on a grand hunt, bagging some 400 bear.

This brief indication of the rugged, frontier character of the region, suggests the nature of the job facing the county's Extension staff. St. Louis county had its first county agent in 1914

and its first home demonstration agent in 1918. Harold J. Aase, the present club agent, was appointed in 1923.

These workers and their assistants faced a challenging task. Crops suitable to the northern climate had to be found. Farmland had to be won from the wilderness. Incomes had to be raised. Diets needed improving. In the face of the long distances to be traveled between the widely scattered farms, a satisfying social life had to be developed.

When Aase arrived on the scene, he found that his predecessors had made a valiant start in 4-H work. Boys' and girls' clubs with a membership of about 1,800 had been set up in the county's 126 schools. These young people were working chiefly on sewing, baking and potato raising, and were exhibiting their wares at some forty school fairs. At that time, 4-H work was closely associated with the schools, and indeed Aase's appointment came largely on the insistence of the county superintendent of the schools. 4-H cooperation with schools is still strong in St. Louis county, though now the clubs are community clubs with parents as local leaders.

Extension's first point of attack on the problem of establishing agriculture in that northern region was potatoes, a crop well suited to the soil and climate. Potato raising at the time was haphazard and hardly scientific, with little thought given to seed selection, better varieties, spraying other than to kill bugs, or proper cultivation methods.

The Extension staff went to work on the problem of lifting the level of potato culture. As the 4-H share in the campaign, Aase, in 1924, outlined a project in which club members selected seed, planted one-eighth-acre plots, and exhibited their products at local and county fairs. At this time, no certified seed had been imported into the county. Some 200 members in twenty-five communities enrolled the first year. That was the beginning.

In 1925, 5,000 pounds of certified seed were shipped into the Biwabik area and distributed to boys and girls who planted it in seed plots. Following the best methods of culture, the young growers were able to show striking results to their elders in the

fall. Their average yield was 30 bushels per eighth-acre plot, or 240 bushels per acre, 90 bushels over the county average.

The leading club potato grower harvested 63 bushels from his plot, making a rate of over 500 bushels per acre. Parents who cooperated with their sons and daughters in these potato-growing enterprises incorporated the improved practices into their own operations, while the skeptics could hardly ignore the results as shown at the local and county fairs. By 1926, the county had a state potato champion and in 1928 another was named from there.

In 1929, the Biwabik American Legion brought in 150 bushels of certified Irish Cobbler seed from the Red River Valley and distributed three bushels apiece to fifty boys and girls. They were to return the seed in the fall and keep the balance to build up their own potato production. The returned seed would then be distributed to other members. The Eveleth Legion matched this enterprise by importing certified seed of a late variety of potato.

The distribution of Irish Cobbler seed brings out a story illustrating the determination that 4-H work instills in a young farmer. That first fall, one boy came to the fair with the tearful report that the grasshoppers had ruined his crop and he had obtained a yield of only nine bushels. Could he have more time in which to return the seed? Noting his earnestness, the Legion consented to give him another year.

The second year, more bad luck befell the boy when his land became flooded after planting time. Again the Legion, admiring his pluck, told him to keep what he had. The third year his crop came in and he returned the seed. With no little perseverance in the face of adversity, the boy had honored his debt and established himself as a potato grower.

So rapidly did the quality of St. Louis county potatoes rise through these years that hardly a year passed without St. Louis county 4-H members winning state and national awards. For two straight years in the 1930's, a St. Louis county boy won first place in the National Sweepstakes Potato Exhibit held at the International Grain and Hay Show in Chicago.

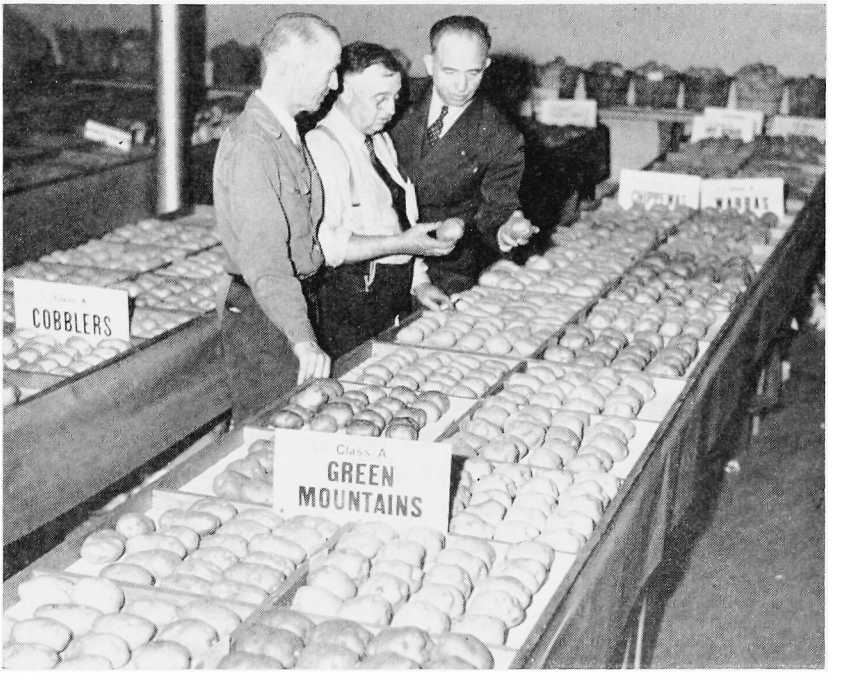


Fig. 20.1 — Through 4-H, St. Louis county, Minnesota, became a leading source of virus-free certified potato seed. Shown at the Biwabik show are (left to right): Harold Aase, county club agent, Ed Miners, president of the potato show and B. V. Beadle, state club agent.

Today, St. Louis county is one of the leading sources of virus-free certified seed potatoes for all the North country.

While the county was making progress toward becoming a seed potato center, it was also establishing a dairy industry. Beginning about 1925, the Aurora State Bank donated a purebred heifer, purchased from the University's Northeast Experiment Station, to the outstanding potato club member of that district in which the bank was located.

The Gilbert bank joined the campaign by presenting a purebred Guernsey bull to the potato winner of its area. In 1926, Aase went shopping for more purebred stock. Taking a truck donated by the Oliver Mining Company, he drove to Eau Claire and Chippewa Falls, Wisconsin, bought purebred Guernseys and brought them back to the mining town of Virginia.

The calves were put out with boys who signed notes at the bank to pay for them. During July and August, club members and their parents toured the farms, attending demonstrations on fitting animals for showing at fairs. Local calf shows were held in the fall, attended by hundreds of farmers. From these shows, the best of the calves went to the county fairs at Hibbing and at Proctor.

The Duluth Chamber of Commerce entered the movement through the inspiration of William C. Sargent, business leader, who went down the main street in 1929 and induced fifty businessmen to sponsor calves. Businessmen in Virginia established a $1,000 trust fund to buy more calves. The Chisolm businessmen did the same. The Duluth Rotary Club established another fund in 1930. As a result of all this financial backing, trucks and railroad cars of purebred dairy stock rolled into the county.

By 1931, such young farmers as Luke Dusek and Hilding Larson, who had begun with single calves in the early 1920's, now had tested herds and were sources of purebred stock for farmers throughout the region. Dairying became an established industry and more money was finding its way into farmers' pockets from this new source.

While dairying and potato raising were making such swift progress, other lines of agriculture were also marching ahead. In 1929, a Duluth packer set up a $1,000 revolving fund to buy pigs, but when it was apparent that pigs were not adapted to the climate and crops, the money was used to establish sheep.

Soon the packer increased the fund to $2,000, buying lambs and putting them out with club members on notes. To aid the young farmers in paying off the loans, a wool pool was established by the Duluth Chamber of Commerce. Fleece were brought to the Junior Wool Pool at Duluth, where they were judged and awards made. The three best fleece of the county were awarded the title of the Golden Fleece, the next three the Silver Fleece, and so on. These fleece were auctioned off, and the rest of them sold through the pool to the Cooperative Wool Association.

To facilitate the sale of sheep and other 4-H livestock, a Junior Livestock Show was established at Duluth in 1934. This later

grew from a county show to a fourteen-county show, selling $15,000 worth of 4-H livestock annually. From the sale of their sheep here, boys and girls paid debts and increased their flocks.

Out of the first sheep fund established by the Duluth packer, some three hundred sheep flocks were established in northeastern Minnesota. Before long, St. Louis county was producing more lambs than could be used in local consumption, and was assembling them and shipping them to the Duluth and South St. Paul markets, bringing more income to the pioneering farmer of the North country.

In turkey, poultry raising, and other lines, the county made similar strides toward a diversified agriculture suited to the region.

There was much to do along home economics lines in St. Louis county. With the passing of the timber industry and the slacking off in mining that occurred after 1929, more and more of the foreign-born workers — the Finns, Scandinavians and families of Balkan ancestry — took to farming. Their incomes were not high. Many of the farm homes were little more than log huts. Most of the graces and conveniences of good living were lacking.

Into this situation, the Extension home economics staff came with clothing, home furnishing, canning and food preparation projects, while club meetings and one-act play tournaments gave rural areas a new social life. How home economics projects improved rural living may be dramatized in the story of one Finnish girl, Gertrude Esteros.

When Gertrude was six, the forest fire of 1918 swept through the area, leaving her home in ruins. Clearing away the charred pieces, her parents built a small log cabin, and this was Gertrude's childhood home.

In 1924, Gertrude learned about 4-H Clubs from a neighbor, Mrs. M. C. Francisco, who was to serve as a local leader for more than thirty years. From Mrs. Francisco, the young school girl learned sewing, canning, and gardening. For the next ten years, she grew and preserved the family produce.

At the same time she began beautifying the family log home. She built furniture from native wood cut from the forest, wove

rugs for the plank floor, converted a Model T windshield into a mirror and hung organdie curtains over the windows.

As she grew older she became a leader for younger members, and her skill at demonstrations attracted county-wide attention. In 1928 she won the Caleb Doerr scholarship, giving her a year of tuition at the University of Minnesota School of Agriculture.

By working in her family garden and selling the produce, collecting fees from folks who took steam baths in her family's Finnish steam bath house, and doing housework for her board and room while at college, she put herself through college. She graduated with a scholarship record of 97.4 and was selected to make the students' response at the annual University of Minnesota Court of Honor dinner. In 1933 she was one of Minnesota's delegates to the National 4-H Club Camp in Washington, D. C.

It was natural that a girl of Gertrude's abilities should succeed in her adult career, which includes a professorship in home economics at the University of Minnesota, Red Cross Service in the South Pacific during the war, and service in Finland with the American Friend Service. But Miss Esteros never forgets that it was her introduction to the arts of home economics through Mrs. Francisco and 4-H that started her toward a life of achievement. Throughout all St. Louis county, the home economics program lifted standards of living in the pioneer homes of the area and gave new vision to the daughters of foreign-born parents.

These vigorous campaigns for better rural living resulted in a rapidly increasing club enrollment. By 1934, a depression year, St. Louis county had 3,500 members in 111 standard clubs. At this time, the county had almost one-tenth of the 4-H membership of the entire state and was completing four-fifths of its projects.

This record earned the county its well-deserved national recognition. In January, 1935, St. Louis county presented the unadorned facts of its 4-H record to the state Extension office, to be entered in the National 4-H County Progress Contest.

Sears, Roebuck and Company, cooperating with the National Committee, had worked out a contest to recognize county-wide progress in 4-H work. The award was to be $10,000, to be used

for the construction of a county 4-H Club building. No county was eligible unless at least ten per cent of the counties of that state submitted reports. State winners were to compete in four district contests, and district winners were to compete for the national award, the top winner to receive $10,000, the others $1,000 each.

When all the records were compared, it was found that St. Louis county, which had won its agriculture from forest, swamp, and cold, was the nation's leading 4-H county in progress made.

In the selection of a site and the erection of the proposed building, the Extension staff and all the civic and business groups of the county cooperated in the same wholehearted manner that had brought honor to the county in the first place.

The site selected was on Lake Eshquaguma, a forest-fringed lake running northward in a long, winding channel. Both building and site, in the minds of county leaders, must be worthy of the national status of the camp.

Many forces combined to create the National Prize 4-H Club Camp. The George E. Siegel Corporation contributed the site of forty acres. The Works Progress Administration and State Emergency Relief Administration gave liberal labor allowances, and the Federal Forestry Service contributed an architect who landscaped the grounds. A power line was extended to the site without charge.

It was decided to build the structure of logs. Here in St. Louis county were skilled Finnish axemen who could work wonders in wood. Club Leader Aase went to the Oliver Mining Company and told them that he would like to get the logs from the company's property near Ely.

Anticipating his request, the official replied that he already had the logs marked for 4-H.

"How much will they cost?" Aase asked.

"One hundred Mexican dollars," he humorously replied.

CCC labor cut the logs without charge. Some of the logs were 52 feet long — so long that the road had to be rebuilt to permit the logs to be transported to the campsite.

Built of Norway pine logs moored firmly to a full concrete basement, the club building measures 120 feet long by 80 feet wide, and is shaped something like a ship with its prow thrust forward

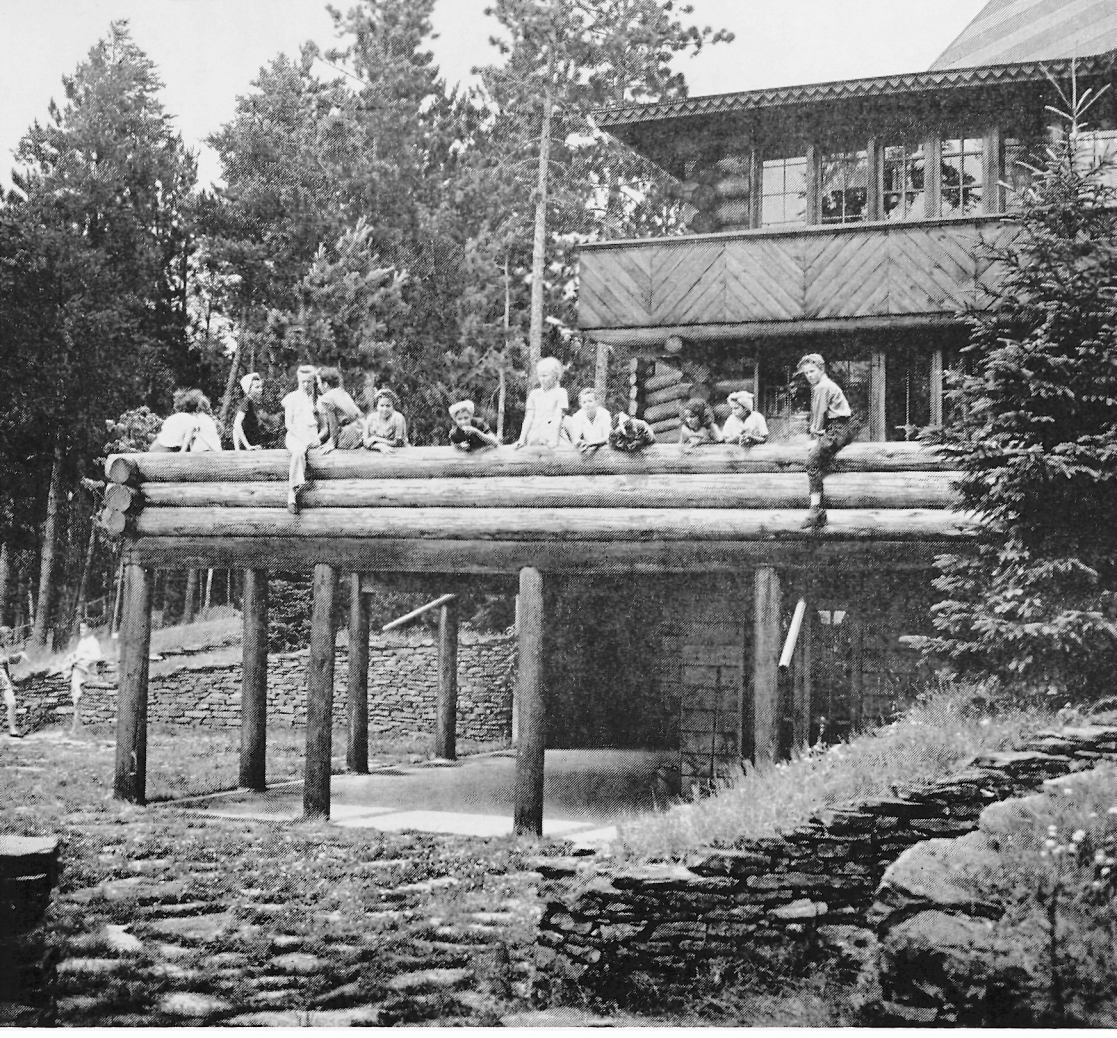


Fig. 20.2 — On Lake Eshquaguma stands the National Prize 4-H Club Camp, its main lodge a marvel of craftsmanship by expert Finnish axemen.

to the bluff overlooking the lake. On the main floor is a double fireplace built of native granite block. There is a spacious dining and assembly room. Upstairs are the dormitories, and in the basement are dressing and handicraft rooms, library and canteen. Behind the lodge are extra cabins for guests and councilors.

The visitor walks out of the lodge's entrance onto a broad stone balcony overlooking the terrace from which the flagpole rises. Below the terrace, stone steps take the stroller down to a natural amphitheater with a campfire in its center. Beyond the amphitheater is a sand bathing beach and diving platform.

To this lovely site, more than 600 4-H boys and girls come

each summer to play, swim and learn to live together, in one-week sessions beginning early in June and ending late in August.

The winding, green-bordered lake that stretches northward from the balcony of the prize building tells a story of America. The first travelers along this gleaming stretch of northern water were the Indians. Every summer, they came down this lake to trade and visit at the head of Lake Superior. Wipe out 150 years and you can see them coming round the bend in convoys, whole families of Chippewas, every member of the family wielding a paddle, their canoes loaded with furs and food. At the south end of the lake they unload their provisions and camp for the night. In the morning they slip their canoes into the Embarrass River and on to the St. Louis River, which leads them all the way to where Duluth now flourishes.

Flip the calendar to the beginning of the nineteenth century and you see a new traffic moving past the prize 4-H camp. Here are the fur traders of John Jacob Astor's American Fur Company, paddling up the lake to make deals with the Indians for fox, mink, beaver, otter and ermine.

Turn time a few decades later and the ill-fated gold hunters are coming up this waterway in search of wealth; then the timber seekers, the lumber barons, and finally the mining prospectors.

All this comes to life for the visitor as he stands on the balcony of the 4-H building and repopulates that highway of water with the people who built America. This, he knows, is the American story, for in all parts of our nation much the same transition from exploration, to fur trading, to the taking of virgin resources, to industrialism, has occurred.

There are a number of factors that account for the outstanding 4-H record of St. Louis county. One is the long-time service of the county's Extension staff. August Neubauer, the county agricultural agent, reached his thirtieth year of service in 1950. Harold Aase, club agent, has served continuously since 1923, and in 1948 was given a testimonial dinner on the occasion of his twenty-fifth anniversary of service. Mabel Fertig, assistant club agent, had fourteen years of service up to 1950 and her predecessor.

Elizabeth Spriestersbach, served for eighteen. Some of the local 4-H leaders have had a quarter century of continuous service.

Another important reason for the success of the program has been the hearty cooperation of all organized groups, made effective through a county-wide organization known as the St. Louis County Club and Farm Bureau Association. The organization has four sections — Agricultural, Home and Community, Civic and Commerce, and 4-H. Each section has a civilian chairman and committee.

Gathered into this single, yet four-sided, association are all the civic, business, and governmental groups in the county. They provide the funds with which to support the work and run the camp. They also provide money to boys and girls who have won trips to the state fair but cannot afford to pay the necessary costs.

Here, in a northern county still close to its pioneering days, peopled with citizens recently come from foreign lands, people still fighting back the forest, the stumps, and swamps, still keeping down the raiding bear with a handy rifle, one finds 4-H Club work at its best.

Yet, St. Louis county is only an example of what is happening in hundreds of counties throughout the nation. Singled out for detailed telling because of its winning record, it brings out the way in which the 4-H program adapts and changes itself to meet the changing needs of agriculture in all parts of the United States.

21.

Livestock in the South; Conservation Everywhere

In its long fight against one-crop store-credit farming, the South has found its 4-H Clubs to be effective shock troops down through the years.

The early corn and pig clubs in the days of the boll weevil menace were opening guns in the battle. In these clubs, the young people ranged themselves alongside their elders in demonstration work, and it was often the achievements of the young farmers that won the headlines and gained enthusiastic public support.

Canning clubs, with their emphasis on the garden and an improved family diet, were a flank attack in the campaign for diversification and higher income. Each time the 4-H program broadened, a new point of attack was created in the battle of freedom for the southern farmer, and each increase in club enrollment brought more troops into the fray.

One obvious opportunity for the southern farmer was cattle. During World War I, with its heavy demand for meat and dairy products, considerable progress was made in increasing beef and dairy cattle in southern states, but the war gains did not last,

partly because of depressed prices, but chiefly because of the Texas fever tick.

Cattle afflicted with the pest were lean and scrawny, and many of them sickened and died. In order to prevent the spread of the tick, the big stockyards quarantined southern cattle.

Because of these unfavorable conditions, few southern 4-H members undertook cattle raising or the improvement of herds. Even though a boy might keep his own herd free from the tick, the quarantine made marketing difficult and reduced the price.

To eradicate the tick, officials put on campaigns in the various states worthy of a Wild West novel. The Louisiana Extension Service tells how the state's Livestock Sanitary Board, in co-operation with the U.S.D.A. Bureau of Animal Industry, waged the campaign in that state. (66)

To get rid of the pest, these agencies undertook to dip all cattle in an arsenical solution and to continue the dipping until the tick disappeared. Dipping tanks were set up in strategic spots. Farmers were ordered to bring in their cattle and have them treated. As the cattle came out of the dipping vat, they were marked with paint.

To make certain that no cattle escaped treatment, range riders toured the area in search of cattle without the paint marking. All cattle not having the marking were driven to the nearest vat and dipped. These cattle were penned and the owner had to pay the charge for the service before his cattle were released. If the owner did not pay within a specified time the cattle were sold, the service charge deducted, and the balance remitted to the owner.

Many farmers objected to the program. It cost money and was an inconvenience. To many it seemed high-handed. No doubt many farmers had lived with the pest for so long that they had grown to tolerate it and perhaps many thought that the dipping did some harm to the animals, or at any rate did little good.

Whatever their objection, a war developed. Enraged stockmen blew up tanks. A few people were killed. Political battles raged at the state capital.

But the Sanitary Board and the B.A.I., in grim earnest, were not to be deterred by opposition. It was not easy to round up ani-

mals that were allowed to range freely in woods and swamp country, but the riders went into all parts of the state. In one almost impassable wilderness, Texas cowboys were hired to ride through the area and bring in the cattle. Those that could not be brought in were killed, to prevent them from becoming carriers.

These measures eventually resulted in the elimination of the

Fig. 21.1 — After the conquest of the fever tick, 4-H in Southern States spearheaded the campaign for better livestock. The judges are working on beef calves at Louisiana State University.

pest and the lifting of the quarantine. By 1936, Louisiana 4-H Clubs were ready to go ahead with beef and dairy cattle programs.

Louisiana's first state club livestock show was held in New Orleans in 1936. A meager 46 calves were exhibited, most of them sorry specimens — judged by present-day standards. The champion fat steer sold for twenty-six cents a pound. (65)

This showing caused no discouragement among the sponsors of the event. It was a beginning, the first recruitment of the youth power of 4-H in the campaign to lift the level of livestock production in the state.

In 1937 the show was moved to the Louisiana State University campus in Baton Rouge, and the following year the state legislature appropriated $4,000 to the show. Two years later, in 1940, the lawmakers appropriated $10,000, half to go to the state show and $1,000 to go to each of five district shows.

By 1948, state support had increased to $40,000, and in that year an impressive array of fine livestock was exhibited in the vast arena of the University's immense agricultural center. Club members showed 546 animals — 224 beef calves, 212 dairy heifers and 111 fat pigs — the cream of five district shows.

That year, some $16,000 in premiums were awarded at the district and state shows, and the total sales at the state auction were $41,500. (67)

Louisiana's system of judging livestock at parish (county) and district shows avoids the selection of individual champions. At the parish shows, individuals are placed in classes or groups designated as purple, blue, red, white and unclassified. All but the unclassified may go to the five district livestock shows, and from there only the purples, blues and reds may compete at Baton Rouge for state ribbons.

Louisiana's vigorously supported campaign to establish livestock, in which 4-H Clubs took a leading part, went a long way toward winning the battle of diversification. Where, in 1936, cotton had accounted for 43 per cent of the farmer's total annual cash income, while livestock and livestock products returned him only 16 per cent, by 1947 livestock and livestock products were returning the farmer 32.8 per cent of his cash income, pushing cotton down to 29.4 per cent. (64)

The part played by 4-H in the transformation is shown in the growth of livestock projects since 1936. The following table contrasts 4-H ownership of livestock in 1936 and 1947:

Year	*Dairy Calf*	*Beef Cattle*	*Pig*	*Poultry*
1936	776	219	2,745	3,624
1947	2,509	2,239	4,711	5,751

These figures, plus the general educational value of the six 4-H livestock shows, have impelled Dr. J. G. Lee, dean of agriculture at Louisiana State, to say:

"4-H work has been the most important single factor in the growth of livestock farming in our state."

King Cotton is still an important crop in Louisiana, but the farmer's well-being is no longer tied to the land with cotton lint. He has other income. 4-H boys and girls, standing beside their dairy calves and fat steers, hiding their disappointment when the judges pass them by, holding their heads a little higher when he stops to place a ribbon on the animal, these teen-age crusaders are a guarantee that livestock will thrive in Louisiana.

While Louisiana was thus establishing its cattle herds, Mississippi, across the river, was making similar strides. In 1938 the state legislature appropriated $12,000 for four district livestock shows, stipulating that at least 75 per cent of the money be spent on prizes and awards for junior exhibitors. From this beginning, Mississippi has developed a system of six spring livestock shows, the winners of which go to the state 4-H Club Congress at Mississippi State College. In Mississippi, and indeed most southern states, the supremacy of cotton has been dealt a body blow by the growing herds of livestock.

As with the development of livestock farming in southern states, 4-H has given the strength and inspiration of youth in the fight to conserve our natural resources. From small beginnings, the 4-H conservation program has taken more definite form year by year, until today it is an important agency in creating an understanding of conservation among the American people.

Liberty Hyde Bailey's Nature Study Clubs in New York State, early in the century, were a form of conservation education. Almost as long as there has been club work, nature hikes, tree identification tours, insect collections and the like have indirectly introduced the basic idea of conservation to young people.

In the 1920's, conservation work among club members began to take more concrete form. In the early 1920's, New York state's Conservation Department began offering trees to club members for planting on hillsides and in abandoned fields. The response was so satisfactory that in 1926 the state offered any club member, twelve years old or older, a thousand trees, provided he would

guarantee to plant and care for them. Since that time, 4-H members in the state have planted 21,000,000 trees. (63)

About this time, club members and high school students in Wisconsin began a notable contribution to conservation. When H. L. Russell, dean of the College of Agriculture, was traveling in New Zealand on a dairy study tour, he came across a few school forests established by the British government. He brought the idea back to Wisconsin.

Conditions in Wisconsin were favorable to the establishment of school forests. In the cut-over region in the northern part of the state, much tax-delinquent land had reverted to the counties with the result that many counties were land-poor. In 1927, the state, acting on Dean Russell's suggestions, passed a law permitting school boards to buy land for school forests. (80)

On April 26, 1928, two school forests were formally dedicated, one at Laona and one at Crandon. Since that day, more were established year by year, until today there are two hundred and fifty in operation. In these forests, students make annual plantings, take nature hikes, draw maps, build trails, establish bird sanctuaries, study forest protection, and otherwise use the plots as laboratories in the study of conservation, which is a compulsory course in Wisconsin schools.

Wisconsin 4-H Clubs actively joined the work in 1930 with their Junior Forest Ranger program. These farm boys and girls plant windbreaks and shelterbelts, improve woodlots, control erosion through tree plantings, and establish wildlife sanctuaries on their farms. It goes without saying that they participate actively in the school forest projects. Enrollment in the Junior Forest Rangers has averaged 1,500 members a year since the inception of the program.

The success of Wisconsin's forestry program has been due in large part to the inspired work of the state's club leader, Wakelin McNeel. In 1933, McNeel, a graduate forester, began a radio program entitled, "Afield With Ranger Mac." McNeel describes the objective of the program thus:

To help youth enjoy and respect Nature's gifts through an

understanding of how Nature has equipped each living thing to carry on the business of living; to have young, care for young, to find food and prevent being made food of.

McNeel's broadcasts are on Monday mornings, and are given in cooperation with the schools. His program calls for active participation on the part of listeners, and he mails out manuals that contain specific suggestions for field trips and nature-study activities. Each year the program is climaxed by a scrapbook contest in which the awards are bicycles, microscopes, field glasses, and nature books and magazines, rather than cash awards. Today his program enrolls an army of 45,000 boys and girls who pledge themselves to the ideals of conservation. In 1942, "Afield With Ranger Mac" was given the Peabody Award as the outstanding educational radio program of the nation.

4-H conservation work started to take on its national character in 1934. Early in that year, Minnesota's club leader T. A. Erickson called on Charles Horn, Minneapolis conservation enthusiast, to discuss a state wildlife conservation project. (32)

Horn had been brought up on an Iowa farm and for years had been identified with such adult conservation groups as the Isaac Walton League. As a result of the meeting between Horn and Erickson, the program was backed with $1,000, and Minnesota offered its 4-H members a conservation project in 1934.

Some 150 individual club members and many clubs engaged in the conservation project that first year. They carried on such activities as building bird houses, arranging for bird cover on their farms, planting trees, establishing feeding shelters, locating and saving pheasants' nests and hatching out the eggs. Winners were selected one-half on the basis of essays and one-half on their conservation activities.

Seventy-five county winners were awarded trips to the college forestry camp at Lake Itasca for a week of recreation and instruction, and in December six representatives of the project went to the National 4-H Club Congress in Chicago, where, for the first time, other states learned of the project.

In 1935, Horn's sponsorship and financial help in wildlife conservation was extended to other states, among them North

and South Dakota, Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska, and year by year more states adopted the program. As time went on, activities were broadened to include not only wildlife preservation but reforestation, planting windbreaks and other measures.

An integral part of the program in each state is the sending of winners to state conservation camps. There were 44 such camps in the country in 1948.

While most of these camps are state or regional, here and there county 4-H groups are setting up camps on a conservation theme. Jackson county, Michigan, for example, owns a 90-acre camp situated on a lake, with a remodeled farm house for a club building. This camp is dedicated to a fourfold objective: recreation, land use, reforestation, and wildlife. The local leaders have incorporated themselves into an association to own the camp, and clubs have raised money to build the camp by holding horse shows, bake sales and the like.

It is inspiring to realize that at such camps, in settings of natural beauty, farm boys and girls are dedicating themselves to the basic task of saving the nation's natural resources.

Beginning in 1945, 4-H brought more guns to bear on the nationwide campaign to save America's topsoil with a full-fledged "Soil Conservation Program." This program makes youth a partner with the parent, the Extension Service, and the U. S. Soil Conservation Service in all practices designed to save our farmlands — terracing, the building of waterways, contour farming, strip cropping, building farm ponds, tree planting, rotation of crops, use of pastures, fertilizing, and so on. Sponsored nationally, the program gives recognition to young conservationists through county and state awards, trips to the club congress and national scholarships.

The educational influence of these national 4-H conservation activities extends far beyond the members actually enrolled. At 4-H Club meetings all over the country, movies and talks bring home the importance of the subject to all members, whether enrolled in the program or not. Exhibits at county, regional, state and national shows introduce conservation not only to the ranks of 4-H, but to the public at large.

It is not too much to hope that through the activities of 4-H and similar agencies, tomorrow's rural leadership will meet and counteract the forces of soil depletion before they seriously endanger the national welfare.

Periodically, our 4-H conservationists affirm this pledge:

I give my pledge as an American
To save and faithfully to defend
From waste, the natural resources
Of my country, its soil and minerals
Its forests, waters and wildlife.

There could hardly be a more worth-while code to guide the thinking of tomorrow's rural leadership.

* * *

The last two chapters have shown how club work can contribute to the economic welfare of a region through enlisting boys in such projects as potato growing, dairy calves, and sheep in a northern county, and the introduction of beef herds in southern states. Through such programs as forestry and conservation, club work also contributes to the national well-being.

This indicates how the scope of club work has spread from the days when its chief activities were corn growing for boys and tomato growing and canning for girls. The simpler aims of an earlier day are gone. Club work will now undertake anything that contributes to rural betterment.

An idea of the scope of the modern club program may be gained by a glance at the national awards offered at the 1949 National Club Congress, held in the last days of November and the first days of December at Chicago. The line-up is impressive:

In homemaking activities, there were awards for superior performance in canning, preparing dairy foods, putting up frozen foods, designing and making garments suited to the individual, for health improvement, all-round performance in homemaking, and home improvement.

In the field of farm operations, honors were awarded to those excelling in dairy production, field crops, forestry, garden, meat animal and poultry production, and soil and water conservation.

Fig. 21.2 — An example of how far 4-H camping and conservation have come in recent years is the Rock Eagle 4-H Club Center in Putnam County, Georgia. Built on the banks of a huge lake, the camp includes fifty-four cottages, a dining hall accommodating 1,200, seven educational buildings, and an air-conditioned auditorium, to say nothing of agronomy plots, model garden, conservation demonstrations, managed forestry areas, and a vast expanse of backwoods where wild life abounds. All told, the project cost close to three million dollars. Donations ranged all the way from that of a 4-H Club whose members gave a nickel apiece to a gift of $1,000,000 from the State of Georgia.

The completion of the Camp took place in 1955, only five years after the land was acquired. Credit for making the dream come true belongs to W. A. (Bill) Sutton, former state 4-H Club leader who became Georgia's Extension Director in 1954 (shown inset, with Georgia 4-H members).

Fig. 21.3 — Interest in 4-H camps is great. This one is located in Essex county, Massachusetts

Aesthetics were recognized with awards for contributions to recreation and rural arts, and the beautification of the home grounds.

To recognize the gifted young people who served others in positions of responsibility, awards were given for leadership and citizenship. For exceptional all-round performance in projects, there were achievement awards presented.

In recognition of the mechanization of farming, there were national awards for the intelligent use of electricity on the farm and for tractor maintenance. As a corollary of mechanization, common sense and caution were encouraged through farm safety awards.

Thus, through national recognition in twenty-five fields of activity, tomorrow's farmers and homemakers in 1949 were stimu-

lated to meet the challenge of rural living on the social, economic, and aesthetic fronts.

For all but four of these awards, there were national commercial donors, generally companies interested in the rural community. Among the donors were packers, farm implement makers, manufacturers of processed foods, automobile companies, oil companies, mail order houses, home equipment manufacturers, and so on. The awards provided by the sponsoring companies were most generally medals to county winners, gold watches, savings bonds, and trips to the National Club Congress for state or sectional winners and college scholarships to those who won on the national level.

The National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work, on a non-profit basis, managed awards for a fee covering expenses.

The story of how the Extension Service, the state agricultural colleges, and commercial companies cooperate to conduct these awards, is a story of gradual development in which the National Committee plays a cooperating part.

From the earliest Club Congresses, Extension leaders themselves have taken a leading part in selecting and judging the awards and determining policies that guide the Congress.

Since 1924, for example, Ray Turner, senior agriculturist in charge of club work in the North Central States, has acted as chairman of the Extension Committee charged with judging the records on which the awards are made. From 1923 to 1939, activities at the Congress were managed on the spot by a committee of state club leaders, the first of which was headed by Paul Taff of Iowa.

With commercial cooperation growing year by year, the land-grant colleges, in 1924, laid down a code of ethics by which business organizations could aid club work, stating: (101)

> Boys' and Girls' Club Work is a recognized project in the Extension program of the United States Department of Agriculture and the state agricultural colleges. This work which deals with the youth of the country is now and should be maintained upon a definite educational basis. It is most undesirable to use boys' and girls' club projects for propaganda, advertising, or the furtherance of commercial enterprises.

In Boys' and Girls' Club Work there is opportunity and the need for cooperation of interested agencies. Individuals and organizations have given valuable assistance which should be continued. It is also important and necessary, however, that private individuals or organizations wishing to assist in boys' and girls' club work should act through the regularly constituted governmental institutions in charge of club work — the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges.

It should be evident to all that assistance given is primarily for the purpose of aiding boys and girls and not for commercial gain.

In the early days, awards were sometimes created on a spur-of-the-moment basis. For example, one fall day in 1928, Sir Thomas Lipton heard about club work and indicated that he would like to present cups for health winners.

G. L. Noble, managing director of the National Committee, feeling that a health contest would not be acceptable, consulted with George E. Farrell, of the federal club staff. These two evolved the idea of recognition for "general achievement." This was the inception of the present achievement program. (107)

In some instances, business concerns came to the National Committee with an idea for an award. In other instances, state club leaders suggested the activity and asked Noble to find a commercial sponsor.

The most popular of all award activities today, the dress revue, began in 1924 as a style show, as the result of the spontaneous enthusiasm of state 4-H home economics leaders and their girls. Noble found a sponsor, and it became nationwide.

Although from the beginning any award program, whether suggested by a business concern or a club leader, was the result of close cooperation between the National Committee and the Extension Service, it was felt that regular machinery was needed to approve and establish national 4-H contests and awards.

To this end, Director C. W. Warburton appointed a Committee on National 4-H Contests and Awards and made R. A. Turner chairman. Under this contest committee, all national awards were developed according to well-defined rules.

Currently, a request for a new 4-H award program is first presented to the Extension Subcommittee on 4-H Club Work. After

Fig. 21.4 — Among the many awards provided by business donors through the National Committee is a special trip to Washington, D. C., each spring for the three boys and three girls chosen from high-ranking Club Congress delegates in Achievement, Citizenship, and Leadership. During National 4-H Club Week, March, 1961, these young people presented to President John F. Kennedy a "4-H Report to the Nation" at the White House.

approval or adaptation, the program is next submitted to the Committee on Extension Organization and Policy of the National Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities for final approval.

The National Committee then makes financial arrangements with an interested donor and proceeds to handle the machinery of announcing and conducting the award program.

Through this system of cooperation between the Extension Service and donors, with the National Committee acting as the link connecting the two groups, large donations to club work have been made compatible with 4-H educational objectives.

The National Committee has performed many services as the agency through which the business world and the Extension Service can cooperate for the benefit of the 4-H program. It helps

bring club work to the attention of business and the public in general, stimulates 4-H achievement through 4-H awards and incentives such as educational trips and college scholarships, and provides funds to train 4-H leaders. In addition, donor organizations provide educational publications, films, posters, and other visual aids. And they also make available to 4-H the vast technical resources of their companies in helping boys and girls become proficient in 4-H projects.

In addition, the Committee conducts two specialized services expressly for 4-H. Both came into existence to fill a specific need of 4-H and the Extension Service.

One is *National 4-H News*, a monthly magazine published by the National Committee. Begun in 1923 as a brief mimeographed circular, it came out in printed form for the first time in March 1924. The only national magazine devoted exclusively to 4-H, it is designed primarily for volunteer adult and junior 4-H Club leaders but also finds wide readership among Extension personnel and 4-H members.

The second specialized operation is the National 4-H Supply Service, which offers quality merchandise to 4-H and Extension customers at nominal prices. This department came into being because there was an existing need for a central source of 4-H materials — a service which could be performed most appropriately by a nongovernmental agency.

Toward the end of the 1930's, steps had been taken by the U.S.D.A. to prevent the exploitation of the 4-H Club name and insignia. There had been several instances of commercial concerns putting out products bearing the 4-H and cloverleaf emblem. On June 5, 1939, Congress passed an act prohibiting such unauthorized use and providing fine and imprisonment for offenses.

Further to avoid exploitation, all 4-H supplies needed by members and clubs — jackets, sweaters, pins, scarves, medals, pennants, gavels, jewelry, and so on — have been made available for purchase from the National Committee. Supply Service staff members protect the 4-H emblem by using it only on quality merchandise to be used in connection with the 4-H program.

22.

War, and the Bankhead-Flannagan Act

THE RISE of aggressive expansionist governments in Europe in the 1930's, culminating in the outbreak of war in 1939, caused the American people to examine the values of a free, representative government.

When there is no crisis, people are inclined to take for granted such familiar privileges as the right to elect public servants, read newspapers of opposite ideas, and go to the church of their choice. When war threatens, these privileges become as personal as a warm kitchen when a storm rages outside.

For nearly two years before the United States was plunged into the war by the bombing of our warships in Pearl Harbor, the army of 1,400,000 4-H members pondered the meaning of democracy in a world engulfed by chaos. A flood of citizenship material issued from national and state Extension offices. In discussions, pageants and ceremonies, in solemn pledges of allegiance, 4-H Clubs everywhere pondered their coming duties as free citizens in a democracy.

In their club meetings they studied their local and state

governments, re-read the Magna Carta, the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights, and laid plans for cooperative action in case war should come.

At the National 4-H Club Camp in Washington and in the various states, the 4-H Citizenship Ceremonial focused the thoughts of the membership on their duties in the uncertain years ahead. By 1940, 4-H had a body of ritual . . . the beautiful Candle Lighting Ceremony in which the member solemnly passes on his talents to others; the Initiation Ceremony, with its theme of working together; the impressive Sunset Ceremonial with its thoughtful appreciation of the out-of-doors, of "the smell of flowers, and of the good brown earth. . . ."

All these helped dedicate the 4-H Clubs to the service of their country, but none more effectively than the 4-H Citizenship Ceremonial, first held at the National Camp in 1939. This ceremonial, simply written, quoting parts of the Declaration of Independence without embellishment, factually describing the government, and pledging the member to the ordinary duties of a citizen, is a condensed description of a dynamic democracy. For 4-H Clubs everywhere, it highlighted the meaning of the coming struggle.

When war actually broke out, 4-H was well prepared to make its contribution to ultimate victory. With their youth and idealism, club members were a potent force in unifying farm effort in support of the war.

The 4-H campaign consisted of salvage — collecting paper and scrap metal and saving fats; of conserving machinery, clothing and food; of selling and buying war bonds; of supplying hours of labor, and of undertaking enlarged crop and livestock projects to increase the production of food and the raw materials supplied by the farm. Some of these activities were new to 4-H members. Some were merely an intensification of what they had already learned to do as good farmers and homemakers.

The simple fact that there was a 4-H group was an asset in the prosecution of the war, since the type of training received by 4-H members was the kind needed for the emergency. Here were nearly a million and a half boys and girls, almost ten mil-

Fig. 22.1 — The 4-H Citizenship Ceremonial of the National 4-H Conference held on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial. The Ceremonial is for 4-H members at the Conference who have reached voting age during the current year.

lion former club members, 150,000 local leaders, and a capable Extension staff, all committed to the doctrine of farm efficiency.

These young people had been trained in using sound, scientific methods in their farm and home operations. They had learned to aim for high standards of work and accomplishment. Their program, being voluntary, was training in initiative. They had learned to work in groups, for common goals. All these qualities tended to promote efficient performance on the farm front. Had these young people merely gone ahead with their regular program, they would have aided the war effort. But they did much more.

Fig. 22.2 — As 4-H work moved ahead during the sixties, these were the key people supervising the program in the Federal Extension Service.

Dr. Lloyd H. Davis, former Associate Director of Extension in Maryland and later deputy administrator of the Federal Extension Service, was appointed administrator in October, 1963, succeeding Dr. E. T. York.

Mylo S. Downey, former assistant director of the Division of 4-H and Youth Development, was appointed director of the Division in January, 1961, succeeding Dr. E. W. Aiton.

Mrs. Fern S. Kelley, former program leader, Western States, was appointed assistant director, 4-H and Youth Development, in January, 1960.

John W. Banning, program leader, Central States, was appointed assistant director, 4-H and Youth Development, in November, 1960.

The week of April 5 to 11, 1942, was National Mobilization Week for farm youth. Announcing the mobilization, President Roosevelt said:

"Let your head, heart, hands and health truly be dedicated to your country, which needs them now as never before."

Food was the first all-important goal. Not only this country must be fed, but also the fighting forces of all the Allies. As countries were liberated, vast tonnages of food would be needed for the people of those countries. Furthermore, these needs must be met in the face of a labor shortage, as young men and women were called to the armed forces, and a machinery shortage, as farm equipment manufacturers converted the bulk of their production to war material.

That our food goals were reached in spite of these handicaps is a tribute to the enlightened state of farming in this country, and for this the entire system of Extension teaching, as practiced over the years, is entitled to much credit. 4-H, as a part of that Extension system, effectively integrated farm youth into the over-all campaign.

To dramatize food production, the Extension Service started a 4-H campaign to "Feed a Fighter." To measure the club member's production, a system of tables was worked out showing how much of any commodity must be produced to feed one fighter for a year. (154) A boy engaged in poultry raising could reach his objective by producing 500 broilers or 250 baking chickens. A meat-animal member could "feed a fighter" by producing four nine-months-old steers, a potato raiser by harvesting four tons of potatoes, a dairy member by producing 2,500 quarts of milk. A girl who tended a one-acre garden of mixed vegetables or put up 829 pints of food was also feeding a fighter.

Measured against these standards, 4-H boys and girls during the war produced or preserved enough food to care for a million fighting men for three years. (36) To be understood, this statistic must be focused down to individual scenes showing boys and girls hoeing gardens, feeding livestock, riding cultivators, or paring fruits and vegetables for the canner, each engaged inde-

pendently on his own project, apart from the general farm operation. This was one contribution to the war effort.

During the war, the farm labor shortage was acute, and here 4-H members did important service for their country. In Texas, for example, it was estimated that in one year 26,640 boys performed emergency farm labor beyond their regular duties. Missouri boys and girls volunteered to donate nine days of work per year on neighbors' farms and in their homes during rush seasons. In one year, 1942, this contribution of voluntary help added up to 43,490 days. (171) In Michigan, and some other states, 4-H Clubs enrolled village and town youth in farm labor battalions to help with the harvests. In all states, 4-H boys and girls and affiliated town young people rode hayracks and combines, wielded pitchforks and tended canners, by their labor helping to save the bumper crops of the war years.

A montage of 4-H at war would show many lively and varied scenes of activity — groups of girls patching and remaking clothes; boys studying farm machinery repair; New York club members canvassing the houses near New York City, finding out how many people could be accommodated on farms if the city had to be evacuated; air raid wardens, coast patrols, fire fighters making their rounds. In many states, farm boys and girls collected milkweed pods to provide floss for life jackets as a substitute for kapok. In one Illinois county, DuPage, 4-H workers collected five tons of milkweed floss, enough for 1,100 life jackets.

Throughout the nation, 4-H Clubs held money-raising benefits for the U.S.O., Red Cross, and other activities. Canning and preserving demonstration teams toured the towns and cities teaching housewives how to save food. 4-H Clubs everywhere invested in war bonds and took part in bond sales campaigns.

Midway in the war, the Extension Service in cooperation with the Maritime Commission worked out a unique incentive to 4-H achievement on the home front. It was proposed that states be permitted to name Liberty ships after a 4-H or Extension pioneer as a reward for bond sales and exceptional service in food production and conservation.

Liberty ships were the cargo carriers of the war. They were

standardized freighters, 441 feet long, with a beam of 57 feet, and of 10,800 tons capacity. Shipyards turned them out in three weeks from keel laying to launching. During the war, some 2,000 Liberty ships were built and put into service carrying foodstuffs and war material abroad, and bringing back such scarce items as chrome ore, balsa wood, copper, rubber, ivory, manganese, jute, burlap, hides, tea, coffee and quinine. They cost about $2,000,000 apiece and this was the goal of 4-H bond sales.

In response to the name-a-ship campaign, the state 4-H armies intensified their war activities. Georgia club members raised almost $10,000,000 in a war bond campaign and produced in one season enough food to fill a 10,000-ton ship. Their ship was launched and duly named *Hoke Smith,* in honor of the co-sponsor of the Smith-Lever Act.

In South Carolina, similar efforts resulted in the launching of the *A. Frank Lever,* thus commemorating on the high seas the other congressional sponsor of the original Extension Act. The Axis, sighting these names through submarine periscopes, may have wondered who these men were. Military heroes? Presidents? No. They were men with a dream of an independent, satisfying farm life, heroes of a working democracy.

4-H boys and girls in Washington State were credited with selling $3,370,000 worth of bonds in a single campaign. Their ship was named the *E. A. Bryan,* after the late president of Washington State College.

The names of other 4-H and Extension pioneers went to sea with these ships, names that typified democracy in action as tellingly as any that could be selected — *Otis E. Hall, Frank P. Reed, George L. Farley, Will B. Otwell, O. B. Martin, F. Southall Farrar, Ransom A. Moore, Willet M. Hays, Kenyon L. Butterfield.* In all, forty ships were christened in these 4-H "name-a-ship" campaigns. (70) In the cabin of each ship was placed a plaque stating that the ship was named by 4-H Club members of the state, and near the plaque was a history of the man for whom the ship was named, written on parchment and mounted under glass permanently.

Results of the campaign were twofold: to give deserved

Fig. 22.3 — State 4-H Clubs earned the price of a Liberty ship in bond drives. The W. C. Latta was Indiana's contribution to victory.

national recognition to 4-H pioneers, and to stimulate the war work of farm youth.

During the war, no National Camps were held. Many state 4-H Congresses were postponed for the duration, and all large gatherings were reduced to a minimum, in order to reduce the transportation load. Only the 4-H Club Congress in Chicago was held continuously throughout the war years, and the war Congresses were on a reduced basis, with smaller delegations.

Though the second World War, like the first, was a kind of interruption to the normal development of 4-H, the leaders

took time out from emergency duties to plan the future of 4-H in terms of the individual. These plans, formulated by a committee of state and federal leaders appointed by M. L. Wilson, director of Extension, were expressed in ten guideposts that would plainly mark the path to be taken into the unknowable future. The guideposts were goals in themselves, and end results to be sought through the member's week-to-week activity. (161) They were:

1. Developing talents for greater usefulness.
2. Joining with friends for work, fun and fellowship.
3. Learning to live in a changing world.
4. Choosing a way to earn a living.
5. Producing food and fiber for home and market.
6. Creating better homes for better living.
7. Conserving Nature's resources for security and happiness.
8. Building health for a strong America.
9. Sharing responsibilities for community improvement.
10. Serving as citizens in maintaining world peace.

These guideposts are rooted in the soil of America. A literate body of young people, blessed with freedom and opportunity, could hardly strive for less.

One outgrowth of World War II was the establishment of 4-H in the Orient. In 1946, Colonel Charles A. Anderson, military governor of Kyunggi Province, Korea, in casting about for ways to improve agricultural life, hit upon the idea of forming a Korean 4-H. Colonel Anderson owned a farm near Beatrice, Nebraska, and was familiar with the entire Extension program.

His Korean adviser and interpreter, Jim M. Lee, undertook to translate into the Korean language the various 4-H manuals and to introduce these to agricultural groups.

On April 7, 1947, Korea's first 4-H Club went into action at An-Yang, Kyunggi Province. Many of the American agricultural and homemaking projects proved entirely suitable to Korean farm youth. To these were added other programs distinctly Korean. For girls, there was a silkworm project, for both boys and girls a project calling for the making and use of strawbags, an important carryall for the Korean farmer.

Neither military funds nor American money supported the

Korean program. Rather, the support came from the Kyunggi Provincial Government. During 1948, club work spread throughout the province and by 1949 there were thirty-two 4-H Club agents in twenty-four governmental units corresponding to our counties. Enrollment climbed to 44,000 in 1,724 clubs. A Mr. I. S. Cho donated land to the movement and in September, 1949, a 4-H Foundation was incorporated.

Just as 4-H work in the United States reaches its climax at state fairs and roundups at the state college, so the work in Korea found its recognition in a great fair at Seoul, with the youths' agricultural and homemaking exhibits displayed on the palace grounds in a setting of oriental magnificence. (62)

The readiness with which the 4-H program "caught on" in Korea, as it has caught on in many parts of the world, is convincing proof of the universality of its appeal.

An example is its spread throughout Latin America. In Venezuela the work was started in 1939 by Luis Mata Sifontes of the Ministry of Agriculture, who studied the progress of 4-H Clubs in Puerto Rico, then adopted it for his own country. There, it flourishes under the banner of the 5-V's, the first V standing for *Venezuela,* the other four for *Valor, Vigor, Verdad* and *Verguenza,* their equivalents for the qualities of the 4-H's.

During World War II, other South American nations studied the 4-H program in Washington and elsewhere in the United States with a view to inaugurating it in their own countries. Among them were Brazil, Uruguay, Peru (170) and Chile.

In Cuba (9), 4-H flourishes as the 5-C's, the first standing for *Cuba,* the others for *Cerebro, Corazón, Cooperación,* and *Civismo* — Cuban equivalents of the sentiments of the 4-H's. These 5-C Clubs were first organized on February 24, 1931, by Dr. Clodaldo Arias of the Ministry of Agriculture.

Puerto Rico, which has served as a pattern for many Latin American countries, has had a 4-H program since 1934, when Mrs. Gloria L. González, home agent in Bayamon, established the first 4-H Club with twenty-five girls. That same year, Pedro Olivencia, agent in charge of the Vega Beja Demonstration Farm, organized the first boy's club with an enrollment of fourteen.

The first projects of these two clubs were clothing, plantains, tanniers, cotton, yams, poultry, and hog raising.

These first clubs were organized under the direction of Dr M. F. Barrus of Cornell University, who served as Extension director, and Miss Mary E. Keown of Florida, who had charge of the island's home demonstration work.

Fig. 22.4 — 4-H has spread beyond the shores of the United States. This is a Puerto Rican canning demonstration.

Later, A. E. Bowman, director of Extension in Wyoming, served as director in Puerto Rico, and in 1936 he obtained Lawrence O. Colebank of Tennessee, animal husbandry specialist and assistant 4-H leader, to organize 4-H work for the whole island. He was followed in 1939 by Adolpho Mayoral Reinat.

Since then, club work in Puerto Rico has followed closely the program in this country with 4-H camps, leader training sessions, achievement days, and a state fair. Club work in 1955

enrolled 26,000 members in 1,000 clubs. (120) In Puerto Rico, all Extension work is a cooperative program between the U.S.D.A. and the University of Puerto Rico.

During 1949, 4-H work was started in Germany, Greece, Austria and Japan. That same year, Robert L. Hannon inaugurated club work in the Virgin Islands under a United States Government appointment. The Virgin Islands had their first training conference for their professional workers on November 7, 1949, with Gertrude Warren of the Federal Extension Service giving her assistance.

In Jamaica, 4-H Club work, as such, was organized in 1939, spreading rapidly to several other British possessions in the Caribbean. In 1945, the British Ministry of Agriculture appointed a director of 4-H Club work for the Caribbean area. This development is of special interest, for in 1921 the Young Farmers' Clubs of Great Britain were organized according to the 4-H pattern, by the Duke of Norfolk. (172) He, too, was one to observe the 4-H Club work in the United States and to become enthusiastic while on an extensive visit here.

There can be little doubt that the 4-H idea has world-wide appeal. In fact, there are now some fifty countries* outside the continental United States which have rural youth clubs that are closely akin to 4-H in their pattern of operation. Through these groups more than three million young people benefit from training in farming and homemaking.

In the United States, there was not the great upsurge and dropoff in 4-H enrollment during and after World War II that there was in the case of World War I. In World War I, membership skyrocketed to over a half million, then dropped to a low of 220,000 shortly after the end of the war. This was because Extension was given large emergency funds during the war, and these funds were cut off in 1919.

During World War II, funds for 4-H continued at an even

* Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, British Guiana, Canada, Ceylon, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, England, Ethiopia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Korea, Liberia, Libya, The Netherlands, Norway, Pakistan, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Scotland, Sweden, Taiwan, Thailand, Ulster, Uruguay, Viet-Nam, and Wales.

level. Membership continued to grow at a gradual, uniform rate throughout the war years, rising from 1,420,297 in 1940, to 1,562,622 in 1945. The number of voluntary leaders also climbed slowly, growing from 154,542 in 1940 to 178,512 in 1945. (163) Although membership in 4-H had reached a million and a half boys and girls by the end of the war, Extension leaders realized that 4-H fell far short of reaching all farm youth who would benefit from the program.

Only about one-eighth of all rural youth between ten and twenty-one years of age were enrolled in any one year. Each year, about forty per cent of the membership dropped out of club work for one reason or another — moving from the farm, getting "too old," loss of effective local leaders, and the like. These losses were replaced by new members coming in.

During their entire period of eligibility, generally considered to be from ten to twenty-one years of age, less than half of all rural boys and girls had contact with club work. The average tenure of membership was 2.3 years. (152)

Enrollment during the war years indicated clearly that the rate of growth in club work was tapering off. From 1940 to 1945, the increase was only 160,000, an average increase of only 32,000 per year. From a high of 1,639,473 in 1943, there had actually been a reduction of 76,000 members during the next two-year period.

This seemed to indicate that the maximum membership that could be cared for with the leadership then available was about a million and a half. If 4-H was to continue to grow, more leadership would be needed. Before there could be more leadership, there had to be more money.

At the beginning of the war, at the suggestion of certain state Extension directors, the National Committee under Guy L. Noble had attempted to obtain adequate financing for club work by promoting the Fulmer bill — a measure entitled, "4-H Club and Rural Youth Act." Anticipating the need for farm production during the war and knowing how great a contribution 4-H farmers and homemakers could make to the war effort, Noble

envisioned a nationwide plan that would provide club leadership in every county. Sponsored by Hampton P. Fulmer of South Carolina, chairman of the House Committee on Agriculture, the bill called for annual appropriations rising from $4,000,000 the first year to $10,000,000 in the fourth year, and thereafter. The Fulmer bill was passed unanimously by the House Committee but was buried in the Rules Committee and lost in the confusion of war preparations.

At the end of the war, the need for more Extension funds again came to the fore and was brought before Congress in the form of the Bankhead-Flannagan Bill, described as "a bill to provide for the further development of cooperative agricultural Extension work."

This bill called for $4,500,000 additional funds for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1946, and each subsequent year. The following year this would be increased by $4,000,000 and the next year another $4,000,000. Two per cent of this amount would go to the Extension Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture — no more. Of the total amount, $500,000 would be a kind of floating fund to be allotted to any state or Hawaii on the basis of special need, the rest to be distributed on a farm population formula. Funds were to be matched dollar for dollar by the states.

Hearings before the House and Senate committees on agriculture, held in the spring of 1945, revealed the following facts about the state of Extension in this country: (127)

Total Extension income from all sources exclusive of Federal War Food and Farm Labor funds in the year ending June 30, 1945, was about $38,000,000. Of this amount just about half came from the federal government and half from sources within the states.

This money supported a nationwide Extension staff of some 8,900 cooperative Extension agents reaching into practically all rural counties in the nation.

Important to this history is the proportion of time devoted by this staff to 4-H work. J. W. Burch, director of Extension for the state of Missouri, testified that this amounted to 27 per cent. In his estimate of what the Bankhead-Flannagan funds could provide in additional county Extension workers, Director Burch indicated clearly that the great need in the counties was

more personnel devoted to club work. The funds, he testified, could provide the following personnel:

100 county agricultural agents.
1,010 county home demonstration agents.
2,365 assistant county agents or county 4-H Club agents.
652 assistant home demonstration agents or 4-H Club agents.

In other words, where only 100 rural counties in the United States had no county agent, over 1,800 counties had no agent employed to work primarily with youth and many of the larger counties were inadequately staffed.

In a letter to the Senate and House committees, H. P. Rusk, dean and director of the University of Illinois College of Agriculture, summed up the sentiment of the states favoring more club work. He wrote:

> The Extension Service in agriculture and home economics is often referred to as the most effective adult educational program anywhere in the world. I believe it is, but also that it is much more than an adult educational program. Its work with young people through its 4-H Club program and its activities with older rural youth have been just as important as its work with adults.
>
> But unfortunately the Extension Service in agriculture and home economics in Illinois has not had sufficient funds to prosecute the 4-H Club program and work with older rural youth as effectively as it should be done. For the most part this work with young people is carried on as a side line by overworked farm and home advisers.

This same condition was true throughout the country. It was time that the 4-H program be given the attention it deserved. In the 1945 hearings, the accent was on youth.

Sponsored by Representative John W. Flannagan in the House and Senator John H. Bankhead in the Senate, the bill had clear sailing and was approved on June 6, 1945.

With the passage, 4-H was given added impetus in the national Cooperative Extension program.

23.

In Retrospect

The meeting will come to order. We will begin the meeting by reciting in unison the 4-H Club pledge. . . . I pledge my head to clearer thinking. . . .

The scene could take place in any one of 90,000 spots in the United States. The setting might be the living room of a farm home, a room in the county building, a schoolroom, a community center, or a council ring at a camp.

For the Blueline 4-H Club in Geary county, Kansas, the setting is a stone one-room rural school building, no longer used for school purposes now that consolidation has taken place. Curtains on the windows, a range, cupboards holding dinnerware, and other innovations have converted the abandoned school into a rural community center. (59)

Here the Blueline Club meets once a month under its two volunteer adult leaders, Dan Zumbrunn and Mrs. L. W. Manz. Out of their meetings have come community service, personal achievement, and a heaping measure of fun and satisfaction.

The meeting moves forward under the practiced guidance of the club officers: *"The secretary will read the minutes of the last meeting. . . ."*

The officers who speak and the members who respond are

notable in their own right. Some are members of the state livestock judging team, boys to whom the purebred animals at the Kansas City Royal and Chicago International are no strangers. Over yonder sits the state sorghum champion. Near him is the boy who groomed the county grand champion baby beef. Across the aisle is a scholarship winner in the national 4-H safety program. Scattered through the room are members of blue ribbon demonstration teams, the blue ribbon club chorus, the cast of the blue ribbon one-act play, "The Bachelor's Baby."

The meeting continues. "*We'll now have a report on the Wheat Festival.*"

The report is more than good. It is an occasion for cheers. The clubs in Geary county undertook to collect wheat from members, the proceeds of the sale to go to the state 4-H camp fund. The Blueline Club collected more wheat than any other club in the county — 615½ bushels, one-fourth of all the wheat collected in Geary county.

The officers move on to a new item of business. "*Perhaps you'd like to hear about the latest developments in the club safety activity . . . .*"

The developments, it turns out, are anything but small-scale. It seems that over the year the club has stimulated community interest in safety through talks, round tables, movies and displays in store windows. A state highway patrolman has discussed safe driving at a club meeting. Each member has checked the hazards of his own farm and done something about them. The families of members have cleaned up rubbish, repaired ladders, cleaned out furnace flues, put lights in dark stairways, built railings, removed weeds and brush that interfered with vision where the farm drive entered the highway, and painted gasoline barrels red. The club has dug into its treasury to buy eighteen fire extinguishers for members' homes. The records show that the club has had no fatal accident in ten years and fewer than average minor accidents. It turns out, too, that Blueline was state champion in safety activity in 1948.

Presiding at the table with its small American flag, its green-and-white 4-H flag and its pedestal-mounted cloverleaf emblem

the officers carry on through the meeting, down through reports, a demonstration, a song by the club chorus, the closing ceremony and on to an afterglow of games and refreshments.

The Blueline Club is a champion, it is true, but there are the 90,000 other clubs, already mentioned, that are managing

Fig. 23.1 — The local club swings into action. The success of its program depends greatly on the farm men and women who provide inspiration and leadership.

their own affairs and conducting their own programs, serving their homes, themselves, and their communities through a guided program of activity. The very heart of modern 4-H Club work is the local club, and the soul of the local club is that unsung hero, the voluntary local leader.

Young people of club age, however exceptional they might be, would hardly carry on if left alone by their elders. Since it would be impossible to employ enough paid workers to supervise the work of the fast-growing 4-H Clubs over the entire nation, the

Extension Service soon discovered that the healthy expansion of the program depends on the creation of a corps of voluntary leaders. County Extension workers discovered long ago that club work would grow faster if they spent less time attending club meetings themselves and more time on training local leaders. As a result, county training programs over the years have doubled and redoubled, and the number of local club meetings attended by county Extension workers has steadily decreased — and club work is thriving as never before.

One high value of club work is that it provides an outlet for adults who want to pay back to Youth some of the advantages they have received from life. An example is Allie Messer of Gaithersburg, Maryland, an orphan who was inspired by a local leader to build up what today is a prosperous dairy farm, and who now is himself a local leader in a 4-H Club.

There's Mrs. Frank Converse, a teacher in a one-room school near Union City, Michigan, who in 1949 had completed 35 years as a local leader, supervising homemaking and guiding young 4-H members in the serving of hot lunches. There's Mrs. E. F. Wright of Portland, Oregon, who generates enthusiasm in young people in the arts of home beautification, dressmaking, furniture covering, and textile painting.

In any California county, one night a month, local leaders meet at someone's home for a potluck supper, to plan the program for the coming weeks. They sit around the table — the farmer's wife, the banker, the mail carrier, and the secretary of the co-op. A photograph of their meeting is a picture of democracy in action. Representing many walks of life, their common ground is an interest in young people. From their potluck supper they go out to the local club meeting, and, like Dan Zumbrunn and Mrs. Manz, they encourage their sons and daughters, and the sons and daughters of their neighbors, in the high endeavor of making the best a little bit better.

In 1944 the public-spirited service of these local leaders was recognized by instituting a system of awards based on length of service. The awards consist of a pin and an embossed certificate, presented within the states at appropriate occasions to lead-

ers who have completed 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, and 35 years of service. These highly valued awards are called the "Award of the Silver, Gold, Pearl, Diamond, Emerald, Ruby, and Sapphire Clovers."

Following World War II and the passage of the Bankhead-Flannagan Act, enrollment in the 4-H ranks began its march toward the two million mark, and leaders were confident that the leveling-off point was far in the future.

In this period, state and national leaders took up in a concerted way a task that had been approached experimentally before the war — the task of developing a program that would appeal to older youth. The agenda for boys and girls from 10 to 21 had been tested and proved. What about the young men and women above club age?

Even before the war, leadership-training programs had proved an effective means of holding the interest of older youth. One state, Mississippi, had made a survey as early as 1930 to find out what kind of activities appealed to older 4-H members. (91)

In that year, James E. Tanner, state club agent, handed out questionnaires to 300 young people over 16 years of age, who were attending the state Club Congress. This questionnaire listed the various projects and activities and requested the members to mark them in the order of their preferences.

He had expected that money-earning activities would rank first — the opportunity to own land and livestock and put cash in the bank. To his surprise, this factor ranked well below the top. The activities that ranked first were rallies, tours, and out-of-state educational trips. Mississippi youth voted for social life.

Following the survey, the state began to make additions to its program to suit the tastes of older youth. In his 1938 report, Tanner stated that many camps and tours had been added. During the year, seventy agents had conducted eighty-eight camps, with sound trucks visiting the camps and giving movies. There were sixty-five county tours, many other trips to government projects, historical sites, and industrial plants.

The results were measurable in terms of re-enrollment. Where, in 1935, only 56 per cent of club members re-enrolled, by 1940, 74 per cent were re-enrolling. The proportion of boys and girls

remaining in club work three years or more rose from a third to a half. It was apparent from this that the way to increase the length of tenure in 4-H Clubs was through a social agenda.

As early as 1927, several states had made a beginning in establishing Extension programs for older rural youth. (151) Following World War II, most states began to formulate older youth programs in greater detail. Such a program would have to take up subjects that appealed to young adults. The New York Extension Service listed these subjects as leadership, recreation, establishing a family, taking a place in the community, establishing a home, and getting started on one's life work. The means by which these subjects would be explored would be by social get-togethers, discussion groups, and actual cooperation in community activities.

States began working toward these objectives under various names. In Colorado, Tennessee and Massachusetts, older groups are called "Young Farmers and Home Makers," in Montana, "Young Adults," in Georgia, "Older Rural Youth," in Maryland, "Senior 4-H Council," in New Hampshire, "Young Farmers" and in Kentucky, "The Utopian Clubs."

The extent of the rural older youth program is given in recent Extension field studies, which show that in 1954 various programs (either organized by or in cooperation with Extension) enrolled some 290,000 young men and women between eighteen and thirty years old. (155)

Thus, the youth Extension program today envisions a long-term program of out-of-school education beginning with simple livestock, crop, and homemaking projects geared to the ability of the 10-to-12-year-old, going on to more ambitious programs involving not only money-earning activities but aesthetics, leadership and community service, and finally undertaking near-adult education in all the arts of rounded living.

One further development should be recorded before this book concludes its story with a summary of the contributions made by 4-H to the social scene. On November 18, 1949, the National 4-H Club Foundation of America was incorporated. Its charter empowers it to receive funds and endowments given

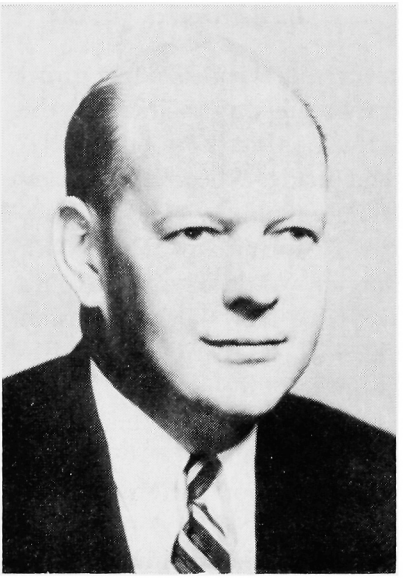


Fig. 23.2 — Norman C. Mindrum, former executive director of the National 4-H Club Foundation, became director of the National 4-H Service Committee in May, 1958.

Fig. 23.3 — Grant A. Shrum was appointed executive director of the National 4-H Club Foundation in May, 1958.

Fig. 23.4 — Kenneth H. Anderson joined the executive staff of the National 4-H Service Committee in 1938 and has been associate director since 1949.

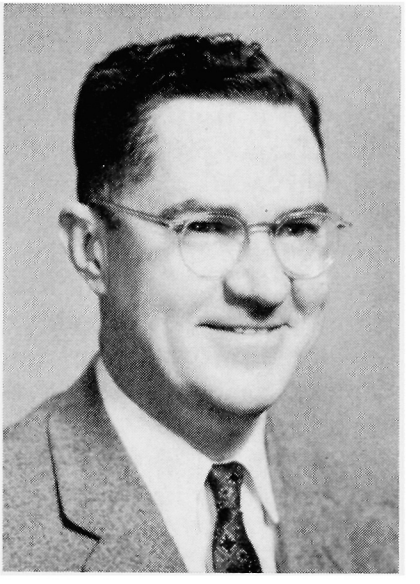


Fig. 23.5 — W. W. Eure was appointed associate director of the National 4-H Club Foundation in March, 1960.

to 4-H and to administer the money for educational purposes. One such use would be a National Center, built in or near Washington, which would serve as headquarters for the National Camp and a rallying point for 4-H activities.

This objective was attained when the stately twelve-acre campus of the Chevy Chase Junior College in the Washington area was purchased and dedicated as the National 4-H Club Center on February 14, 1951. 4-H Club members themselves took part in the dedication ceremonies which were climaxed by the signing of a scroll reading in part:

> Founded on faith in God and the democratic ideals of our republic and dedicated to the fourfold development of rural youth, this Center is established to contribute to knowledge, character, love, honor and dignity among people.

The six signers of the scroll were Clarence J. McCormick, then Undersecretary of Agriculture; E. W. Aiton, then executive director of the National 4-H Club Foundation; L. R. Harrill, North Carolina state club leader and 1951 chairman of the Extension Subcommittee on 4-H Club Work; Gertrude L. Warren, then secretary of the committee on the development of the Center (retired 1953); and A. G. Kettunen, then Michigan state club leader and chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Foundation (retired 1956).

The purpose of the Foundation, expressed in the scroll, of contributing to "knowledge . . . honor and dignity among people" finds expression in the International Farm Youth Exchange, an annual trading of young people across the oceans, sponsored by the Foundation. Through IFYE, farm youth of this country are sent to foreign countries for extended visits to the farms of those nations, while American farms in turn entertain youth from other countries. During the first fourteen years of the exchange, 1,325 delegates from the United States — selected by the various state Extension offices — have gone abroad. From 1948 through 1961, American families entertained 1,490 youths from abroad. Returning American young people have

spread the cause of international understanding with well-planned programs of public appearances, radio talks, and movies.

There are no accurate yardsticks by which to measure the contribution made by 4-H to American rural life. Through 1956, twenty million had been exposed to 4-H teaching. Each year some 750,000 more would enter their 4-H apprenticeship.

High school teachers have testified that boys and girls become better students after they have taken up 4-H work. State colleges have testified that 4-H has increased enrollment in college. An Extension Service study shows that in the college year of 1942-43, 34 per cent of the students enrolled in agriculture and home economics were former 4-H Club members. (139)

Throughout its history, 4-H Club work has been an instrument for bringing better agricultural and homemaking practices not only to individual farms but to entire rural communities. New seeds, improved strains, diversification, new techniques of food preparation and preserving — multiple streams of precious knowledge have flowed from the source of learning out to farms, there to be converted into practice by willing young hands and minds and hearts. What this has meant in terms of the enrichment of rural living no one can ever evaluate in concrete figures.

It is certain that 4-H work has revived literally hundreds of county fairs, and created many county and community fairs that didn't exist before. In many places, the 4-H program has returned the county fair to the farmer.

An example that could be duplicated in many parts of the United States is the county fair at Jackson, Michigan. Before the influence of 4-H was felt, the Jackson fair had gradually become a city show characterized mainly by horse races, grandstand entertainment and carnival attractions. As 4-H members began bringing in their exhibits, rural parents came along. Year by year, livestock, crop and home economics exhibits took on increasing importance, thus regaining the original purposes of the fair. In the estimate of county Extension agents, 4-H today accounts for 50 per cent of the attendance. Parents, friends and schoolmates of the young exhibitors crowd the gates. (78)

A tour of the fair gives a vivid picture of the modern 4-H

army in action. In the large exhibit building a loud-speaker is blaring out announcements:

> "4-H band members are requested to report under the grandstand at once."
>
> "A team from the Concord Hustlers is now about to give a cake-baking demonstration in the West Wing, entitled, 'Measure Accurately'."

In the long halls of this building are the indoor exhibits. On tables we find cookies and biscuits on paper plates, covered with cellophane to keep out the dust. Next to them are brown, crusty loaves of bread. On shelves are ranks of canned cherries, raspberries, tomatoes, and beans. Along one wall are bird houses, knife racks, magazine racks, mixing bowls, end tables — products of the home carpenter shop. Along the other wall hang dresses, smocks, aprons and skirts, and on tables, knitted mittens, stocking caps and scarves in gay designs.

In a glass case are photography books, a new project designed to aid the club member to make a better record of his other projects.

Out in the barns and sheds, boys and girls are grooming their livestock, standing guard over rabbits and poultry, waiting for the judging. In a nearby building are exhibits of grain and vegetables, all neatly arranged.

On opening night, before fifteen thousand people in the grandstand, the 4-H Clubs open the show with a parade. At the head marches the band of 44 pieces, the players dressed in 4-H uniforms. Next come more than one hundred riders on horseback, the members of Jackson county's new pleasure horse project. Following are nine floats mounted on large racks and drawn by tractors, telling in crepe paper and cleverly contrived models of the work of each club.

One float shows Little Boy Blue in a haystack, fast asleep, with the cow in the meadow and the sheep in the corn. Another shows a gigantic horn of plenty pouring out fruits and vege-

tables. Still another is the 4-H ship, plowing through the seas toward greater achievements, and another float displays four immense 4-H's, each growing from a flower pot and being watered by a club member.

After the floats march young men and women leading their dairy and beef cattle, and as they march past the grandstand, the audience doesn't sit on its hands or fail to voice approval.

The scene at Jackson isn't unique. Each fall it is duplicated in communities all over the United States. In hundreds of places 4-H has preserved the local and county fair for the modern generation to know and enjoy.

To a considerable degree 4-H work has helped not only county but state and regional fairs to regain their function as farm shows. Impressive evidence of this is found in the imposing 4-H buildings gracing many a state fair ground.

4-H has helped tie communities and counties together. In the formation of adult councils and boards, Extension agents, farmers, business and civic leaders have been brought together to pursue common aims for the common good. One Extension leader, commenting on the cohesive quality of 4-H work, had this to say on the subject: "Wherever there is a Township or Community 4-H Committee, we believe we have a higher percentage of all boys and girls enrolling in 4-H; they remain in 4-H longer; more capable leaders are obtained and they serve for longer periods of time; and there is more and better cooperation on the part of parents and, in fact, the community at large."

Through its formative years, 4-H has had the benefit of imaginative and often inspired leadership. Working at first with unknowns, the leaders developed a sound educational system along unorthodox lines. "You can't teach in a cowbarn or a kitchen," some people had predicted. 4-H leaders proved that it could be done.

Not the least valuable contribution to the success of the program has been that given by the volunteer local leader. Working without pay, the band of adult farm men and women, now numbering more than 255,000 have been the agents through which the programs of the educators have been made effective.

Hundreds have served continuously and unselfishly for a quarter century and more.

A valuable contribution of the educational system known as 4-H Club work is that it discovers and keeps on the farm the boy or girl whose interests naturally lie in that direction. It doesn't seek to keep all boys and girls on the farm, nor even the "best" of the crop. "Best" is hardly a scientific term. But by offering farm and homemaking activities on a volunteer basis, and by providing rewards and public recognition for tasks well performed, it provides vocational incentives for the boys and girls with farming and rural homemaking aptitudes.

From the beginning, 4-H work has given boys and girls the

high incentive of ownership. Where thoughtless parents may have exploited the labors of their children, club work has protected them in the ownership of a calf, a poultry flock, a garden, or the furniture in a room. This, too, has served to keep many boys and girls on farms who otherwise might have gone to the city. It has given them a "stake" in the home enterprise.

A summary of the various effects of 4-H Club work, then, might read something like this:

It has trained young men and women for leadership.
It has improved farms and rural communities through the introduction of better agricultural and homemaking practices.
It has helped build a finer rural home life.
It has improved scholarship in secondary schools.
It has increased attendance of rural young people at college.
It has revived community, county and state fairs.
It has encouraged cooperative community effort for the common good.
It has given adults an opportunity to work with young people.
It has provided boys and girls with the incentive of ownership.
It has implanted the concept of citizenship in young minds.
It has, through vocational incentive, helped keep the right boys and girls on the farm.

Many of these gains from the 4-H Club program verge on the intangible and unprovable. Yet, the evidence is there for all to see. All these effects are implicit in the program.

In the beginning club work was built on one simple, basic idea. This idea was that the member perform a worth-while piece of work at home in line with his own needs.

He — or she — volunteered to raise a calf, make a dress, beautify a room or plant shrubs around the farm home. The leader provided instructional material and supervision. The club member did the rest.

The objective was to induce the club member to do something in a better way. The purpose was not so much *to show the member,* but to get him to show himself. This concept actuated demonstration work from the beginning. "What he does himself he cannot doubt," Seaman A. Knapp, the father of demonstration, had told his first agents.

This concept still guides club work and, indeed, all Extension

Fig. 23.6 — The fiftieth anniversary of the founding of Extension was celebrated in 1953 in Terrell, Texas, where Seaman A. Knapp first sowed the seed of Extension work. Extension officials from all over the country celebrated the occasion, which included a speech by J. Earl Coke, then assistant Secretary of Agriculture, now vice-president of the Bank of America. He is shown here (at right) along with C. M. Ferguson, then administrator, Federal Extension Service (center); and Guy L. Noble, then director of the National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work (left).

work. But the idea has been broadened to place the emphasis not so much on the work the person performs as on the development of the person himself.

The brave dream of club work as it has been formulated down through the years might be stated thus:

To provide the arena and the means by which each rural boy and girl can develop to the utmost his special talents and abilities to the end that he may be faithful to himself, the soil on which he lives, and the society in which he moves.

In its unique, voluntary formula for achieving this goal may be found the significant contribution of 4-H Club work to the United States and to the world.

24.

Looking Ahead in 4-H

FROM THE BEGINNING, youth work in Extension has cut across all subject-matter fields. It occupies the same professional and organizational status as work with adults.

Therefore it was natural that youth work was one of nine program areas included in "A Statement of Scope and Responsibility, the Cooperative Extension Service Today," published in 1958. Known as the "Scope Report," it climaxed a two-year self-analysis of programs, policies, and objectives of the Extension Service.

Shortly after the Scope Report was published, the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy in 1958 appointed nine task forces of Extension administrators and specialists to amplify and study in detail the nine program areas outlined in the Scope Report. These task forces were asked to outline for each program area a statement on subject matter, clientele, and Extension responsibilities and objectives; it also included how the objectives were to be accomplished, and what this would require.

Members of the task force studying youth work included: E. W. Aiton, Federal Extension Service; W. H. Daughtrey, Virginia; Geraldine G. Fenn, Montana; Agnes M. Hansen, Wisconsin; Henry M. Hansen, Connecticut; H. W. Harshfield, Ohio; Anna

M. Sikes, Florida; W. G. Stucky, Nevada; W. S. Wilson, Maryland, and W. A. Sutton, Georgia, chairman.

In making their report, the task force stated: "The primary aim of the 4-H program and other Extension work with young people is to provide opportunities for mental, physical, and social growth. Informal education provided by the Extension Service uniquely supplements the training received in the home, church, school, and other youth-serving agencies."

Specifically, the task force said, the Extension youth program has the objectives of helping young people to:

1. Acquire knowledge, skills, and attitudes for a satisfying home and family life.
2. Enjoy a useful work experience, together with the responsibility and satisfaction of personal accomplishment.
3. Develop leadership talents and abilities to achieve their citizenship potential.
4. Appreciate the values of research and learn scientific methods of making decisions and solving problems.
5. Recognize the importance of scientific agriculture and home economics and their relationships to our total economy.
6. Explore career opportunities in agriculture, home economics, and related fields, and recognize the need for a continuing education.
7. Appreciate nature, understand conservation, and make wise use of natural resources.
8. Cultivate traits of healthful living, purposeful recreation, and intelligent use of leisure time.
9. Strengthen personal standards and philosophy of life based on lasting and satisfying values.
10. Gain attitudes, abilities, and understandings for working cooperatively with others.

Within a few years of the publishing of the Scope Report, a number of adjustments had been made in state 4-H programs throughout the country. Some of these changes included:

1. New programs for older 4-H youths and young adults.
2. Expansion of 4-H work in urban areas.

3. New programs designed to serve the "growing up" needs of youth.
4. More attention to producer-consumer relationships in the 4-H marketing project.
5. "Career Exploration" as a program area for older youth.
6. Health programs emphasizing physical fitness.
7. More older 4-H members serving as junior leaders.
8. More attention to the training of volunteer leaders.

CHANGE IS INEVITABLE

4-H Club work has been a successful method of working with young people for more than 50 years. But change is inevitable and so it is with youth work.

Population shifts and growths, changing educational requirements, and changing patterns of farm, home, and community — all these are having a vital effect upon American youth. Community boundaries are changing. Farmers and city workers live

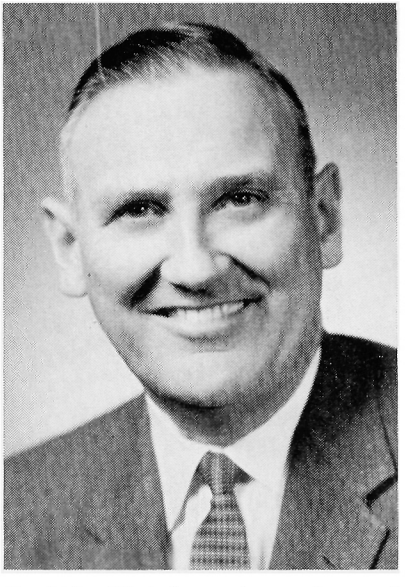


Fig. 24.1 — W. A. Sutton, former director of the Georgia Extension Service, served as chairman of the Subcommittee which prepared the Youth Development section of the Scope Report.

Fig. 24.2 — E. W. Aiton, former director of the Division of 4-H and YMW Programs, served as secretary of the Subcommittee on Youth Development for the Scope Report.

as neighbors in rural areas. Many farm people also have off-farm jobs.

Young people particularly sense the looseness of boundary lines between farm life and city employment. Fewer than 15 per cent of farm youth can expect to become owners or operators of commercial farms. More than 85 per cent will find their future in nonfarm work. Extension's help is being sought increasingly for youth programs with rural nonfarm, suburban, and urban families.

Therefore, changes in Extension youth programs necessarily reflect the changing needs of young people and the changing times in which they live.

Today's philosophy of youth work has departed from the early belief that knowledge about subject matter was an end in itself. Emphasis now is on how well the boy or girl learns to make intelligent decisions. 4-H programs concentrate on helping young people acquire cooperative attitudes, happy personalities, logical beliefs, and democratic spirits.

These goals suggest that the true measure of success in 4-H work will be found in the growth and development it brings to individual personalities.

DEVELOPMENT LEVELS

Extension recognizes that a youth program cannot help bring about the fullest growth and development of an individual unless it takes into consideration the different needs of youth at different stages of their development.

Successful experiences in several states indicate that it is practical to re-group youth education programs under these four general phases representing different developmental ages and needs:

1. When boys and girls enroll in 4-H, at about 10 years of age, they need to develop knowledge and skills. This need is met by projects or activities such as livestock production, garden and health.
2. At about 13 or 14 years, interests and needs begin to broaden. Group activities are more important. There is a strong pull to become adult-like. Boy-girl relationships become important.

More participation by youth in planning their own programs is imperative. Junior leadership activities are appropriate.

3. When formal schooling ends, another transition period begins. For these young adults, the dominant interests will be finding a job, getting married, and becoming established in farming, homemaking, or business and related activities. Under emphasis on elementary activities may delay their maturing process at this stage. Career exploration, group social activities, or farm and home developmental programs more nearly fit their basic needs. Co-educational group activities and programs are essential.
4. Young married couples are concerned with establishing a home, a family, and an income. Even community interests must usually take a back seat to these primary concerns. Extension can provide a significant service by expanding its farm and home development method to better serve these young people. Subject matter meetings, recreation and social activities, and discussion of public affairs will fill some of their needs. But primarily, the problems of young married couples grow out of their needs to make decisions and manage their new responsibilities.

ANOTHER DIMENSION

Living in our modern world demands that the 4-H program be current for today's young people. 4-H work is experiencing an expansion of a fundamental dimension of the program — an appreciation and understanding of the principles of the scientific method. The 4-H program began as a way of teaching young people and their families. But mastering skills is not enough these days.

The alert 4-H member is constantly inquiring, "Why?" In this modern day of science and technology, it is natural for the 4-H program to be upgraded to include the "why" as well as the "how." This is the reason much of our new 4-H literature encourages putting more basic science in projects.

Extension has been receiving help in shifting more emphasis to the "why." In 1959, the National Science Foundation cooperated with Extension in sponsoring the National Conference on

Science in 4-H Club Work. At this meeting, Extension workers and scientists from various fields pooled their ideas on the best ways to develop challenging projects that give 4-H Club members a greater appreciation and understanding of the scientific aspects of 4-H work.

New situations have demanded that club work be broadened far beyond the traditional calf-raising, dressmaking, and garden-growing projects. Many of the new projects are suitable for farm and nonfarm living. Some of the fastest growing projects are entomology, electrification, conservation, foods and nutrition, home management, child care, and junior leadership. Dog care and training and riding-horse projects are also coming into the picture and finding enthusiastic response in both urban and suburban as well as rural settings.

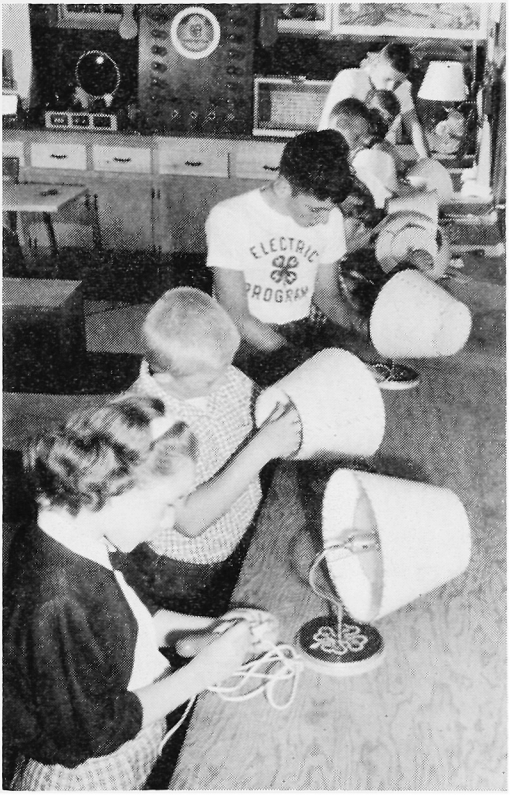


Fig. 24.3 — Electrification — one of the fastest growing new projects, attracts both boys and girls in an expression of creativity.

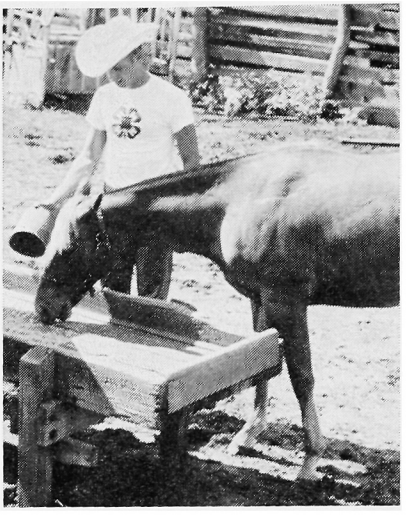


Fig. 24.4 — Food and nutrition proves appealing to girls, while the care and training of horses and dogs attracts both boys and girls.

Guiding young people toward their individual, educational, and vocational goals is a vital part of Cooperative Extension Service programs. Whether to attend college and prepare for a profession or take an immediate job in industry is a question facing many young people. The schools, the U. S. Employment Service, and other governmental and private groups are doing much in the career field, but there is also an important place for 4-H. In

1960, almost all State Extension Services held career exploration sessions.

In career exploration, young people learn about such things as the current farming situation, nonfarm job opportunities, jobs requiring college degrees, jobs requiring less than a college degree, and how to prepare for a job interview. And they are encouraged to analyze their own potentials in a particular field.

State Extension Services are trying a variety of approaches in career exploration.

The Iowa Extension Service has joined other agencies and organizations in this work. A career exploration workshop held in Des Moines in 1959 was attended by representatives of school administrators, guidance counselors, churches, organized labor, employment services, the Chamber of Commerce, the Boy Scouts, and Extension. The workshop served as a springboard for creating greater awareness and understanding of young people in choosing a vocation.

In Florida, tests showed that boys and girls who had participated in a career exploration project were much better informed about occupations open to them than other young people.

The Town and Country business program developed under contract by Pennsylvania State University for the Federal Extension Service also promises to be an effective method of teaching youth about opportunities in agricultural-related businesses. Under this program, youth study and then visit with key personnel in agricultural business firms to learn marketing and business problems and principles. This program was introduced on a nationwide basis in 1960.

Studies indicate that parents play a major role both in the careers young people choose and the amount of training or education they receive. For that and other reasons, Extension has found the "family unit approach" especially well adapted to young couples and to young adults who need intensive counseling on such problems as whether to go into farming, alternate opportunities for careers, how to get started in farming and homemaking, choosing and planning the business enterprises, and making home and family decisions.

FAMILY PLAN

Some family unit work with younger boys and girls is also appropriate. Often youth can be considered and involved in the family planning process, since their needs and goals are, after all, a part of the family plan. Even the individual 4-H project can often be made part of the total family plan.

Informal study and discussion groups can play a special role in youth development. For young adults and upper teenagers, the opportunity for "peer group" associations is important. They want and need to sample a wide range of subject matter.

In developing study and discussion groups, the Extension Service can draw upon many resources, but young people should carry a major share of responsibility for planning and conducting their programs. The capacity of young people to plan and carry out their own programs is often underestimated. Extension has done much of this but needs to do more involving of young people in all phases of Extension program planning.

Fig. 24.5 — Under the "family unit" plan, all members enter into discussions, help choose projects and work programs.

Fig. 24.6 — Volunteer leaders help guide youth in constructive experiences which build lives of purpose and understanding.

Extension recognizes that greater opportunities for more young people in 4-H Club work is possible only to the degree that volunteer local leaders are available. Such leaders must be armed with necessary skills, methods, and philosophy of conducting youth programs.

It has become obvious that youth leadership is an educational experience for the adult leader as well as for the young people concerned.

Providing opportunities for young people to serve as junior leaders also has twofold benefits. Their own groups gain from their help, and the junior leaders themselves enjoy priceless experiences for personal development.

Fig. 24.7 — An expanded and strengthened 4-H program provides useful outlets for the energies of young people, with the assistance of adult and junior leaders.

The Extension Service must give increasing attention to the job of training, supporting, and recognizing its volunteer leaders. Adult leaders working with youth need systematic help in becoming better informed and more competent in approaching the problems of young people, more understanding of themselves and others, and better prepared to plan and teach effectively.

Along this line, the Extension Subcommittee on 4-H Club Work has established a 4-H Leadership Development Committee to give nation-wide leadership to an over-all 4-H Local Leadership Development Program. The committee's trial program is being offered to states wanting to participate. The program will be a

joint effort of the State and Federal Extension Services and the 4-H Foundation. The 4-H Division of the Federal Extension Service will coordinate activities.

ACTIVITIES AFAR

International understanding has become increasingly important as a part of 4-H Club work. By 1961, 4-H or similar movements were being conducted in more than 50 countries.

A particularly significant feature of this overseas program is the International Farm Youth Exchange which has been operating since 1948. IFYE delegates live and work with farm families, learning the customs and traditions of their respective host countries. This exchange has had a wide influence in expanding our appreciation for peoples of other lands and is a positive influence for peace.

In 1961, 115 youths from 40 states embarked on IFYE trips to other countries. This brought the total number of outbound IFYE's in the past 13 years to 1,325 from 47 States and Puerto Rico. Those from other countries who visited the United States under the program totaled about 1,490 from 61 countries — with about 20,000 families at home and abroad serving as IFYE hosts.

Several states have developed an enlarged international study program with young people. Michigan has been successful with a program known as "Excursion." Montana, under the leadership of former IFYE's, has made an important contribution through public affairs and citizenship education study groups in 22 counties. And many local 4-H Clubs in other states carry on people-to-people activities with 4-H groups in other lands. These range from pen pals and sending seed packets, to providing purebred livestock and poultry to start special projects.

The IFYE program has achieved even wider attention as a potential instrument for world peace and understanding. Several phases of the IFYE program served as models for President Kennedy's Peace Corps.

There is no doubt that youth development activities offer positive constructive experiences which help build lives of purpose and understanding. Such activities also nurture the concept of continuing education as an ongoing need for everyone in a democratic society that is part of a changing world.

Fig. 24.8 — June 16, 1959, was a memorable date in 4-H history, for it marked the achievement of a cherished goal — the opening of the National 4-H Center at 7100 Connecticut Avenue, Washington, D. C. To many of the pioneers in 4-H Club work, it was the fruition of a dream dating back to 1927, when the first National 4-H Encampment was held on The Mall. The Center, maintained by the National 4-H Club Foundation, accommodates 4-H, IFYE, and other Extension-sponsored meetings throughout the year.

In summary, it should be said that an expanded and strengthened youth program can bring:

1. Increased personal income for its participants, as a result of better preparation for a life career.
2. Satisfying personal and family life for future citizens through application of improved skills and attitudes developed during youth.
3. Training in leadership for civic, educational, and economic life, as an outgrowth of democratic principles and skills learned.
4. Useful and constructive outlets for the energies and activities of young people.
5. Greater national productivity through the use of science, research, and technology by youth today and in the future.

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Index

A

Aase, Harold J., 242, 244, 248
Abbott, W. C., 143
Achievement program, 264
Adams, G. C., 28, 33, 34
Agnew, Ella G., 79, 80, 84, 85, 86, 87
Agricultural Extension Service of Puerto Rico photo, 277
Agriculture for Beginners, 9
Aiton, E. W., 289, 296, 298
Alabama
  corn champion, 74
  cotton growing contests, 209–10
  first state club leader, 64
  projects, 103
Alaska 4-H Club work, 225
Alderman, Louis R., 28, 29, 35
All-Star Corn Club, 69
Amundson, Geneva, 190, 191
Anderson, Charles A., 275
Anderson, Kenneth H., 288
Annual National Camp, first, 212, 218
Arizona, start of cooperative club work, 109
Arkansas
  corn champion, 69, 70–71
  diversification campaign, 172
  experiments in self-government, 194–95
  livestock improvement, 149
Arkansas Fruit and Farm, 171
Arnquist, Josephine, 182, 206
Astor, John Jacob, 241
Awards, 262–65
  for leaders, 285–86

B

Bailey, Liberty Hyde, 6, 12, 13, 16, 42, 256
Baker, A. L., 185, 187
Baker, H. J., 230
Baker, L. L., 72
Bankhead, John H., 281
Bankhead-Flannagan Bill, 280–81
Bankhead-Jones Act, 238–39
Banning, John W., 270
Barron, John H., 107
Barrus, M. F., 277
Beadle, B. V., 244
Beardshear, W. M., 26
Beck, Mrs. Nelson, 230
Bellwood, Ralph, 69
Benson, O. H., 28, 29, 36, 43, 44, 46, 47, 96, 97, 98, 100, 105, 110, 113, 114, 117, 121, 125, 126, 152, 165, 170, 204
Bentley, W. D., 56, 57
Billingslea, J. C., 179
Birmingham Age Herald, 209–10
Birthplace of 4-H Club work, 11–12
Bishop, E. C., 25, 29, 108, 126, 174
Blake, Josephine, 183
Blakely, W. H., 44
Blakeslee, H. E., 53
Bliss, R. K., 41, 45, 108, 228, 239
Bodman, E. J., 171
Boger, Bertha, 182
Bolibaugh, Kathryn, 182
Bond sales by 4-H members, 272–73
Bowman, A. E., 277
Boy Scouts, 42
Boyd, Thomas D., 130

Boys' and Girls' Club Congress, 186
Boys' and girls' experiment club, 12
Boys' and Girls' Institute, 113
Boys' demonstration work, 93–94
Brands and labels, 102
Brazil, 4-H program, 276
Breeders Gazette, 176
Broom, W. W., 50
Brown, Mary Ellen, 206
Brown, Roy M., 35
Brundage, A. J., 154, 155, 198, 205
Bryan, E. A., 273
Buchanan, Fannie R., 217
Bull, Gladys, 229, 230
Burch, J. W., 280
Burr, Charles G., 200
Butterfield, Kenyon L., 42, 273

C

Caleb Doerr scholarship, 247
California
  start of cooperative club work, 109
  typical club work, 285
Camp Fire Girls, 42
Camp Vail, 204–5
Campbell, J. Phil, 65, 78
Campbell, Thomas, 134, 135, 138, 140
Camping program, 198–203
Canadian youth program, 220–21
Candle Lighting Ceremony, 268
Canning clubs, 77–91
  campaign for diversification, 252
  marketing problems, 87–88
Canning contests, national, 181–82
Canning demonstrations, 126–29
Capper, Arthur, 228, 232
Capper-Ketcham Act, 225, 227–32
  provisions, 231
  results, 231–32
Carpenter, Carleton, 94
Carver, George W., 134
Cattle raising, tick eradication movement, 253–54
Chicken growing, 92
The Children's Song, 26
Chile, 4-H movement, 276
China, 4-H movement, 278
Cho, I. S.. 276
Christie, G. I., 28, 111, 113, 128, 161
Citizenship Ceremonial, 269
Claxton, P. P, 146
Club
  changes in organization, 158–60
  leadership, 158
  standard requirements, 157–58
  story of a typical club, 282–95
Club Congress
  articles of incorporation, 190
  first parade, 189–90
  first style show, 190
  important service, 187–88
  origin of name, 186
  purpose, 191–92
Club headquarters at International, 186–87
Club programs
  expansion of, 166–69
  planning, 164–65
  scope of, 261–62
Club trends, study of, 233
Club work
  becomes community activity, 161–62
  Capper-Ketcham Act, 227–32
  career exploration, 303
  changes in, 297–99
  dates started in different states, 109
  during the depression, 193–211
  early motives and techniques, 47
  effects on community, 287–95
  explained to Senate committee, 229–30
  first federal worker, 53
  formative years, 142
  leadership development, 306
  leaves the schools, 160–61
  in the North and West, 105–17
  organization, 143
  relation to Extension program, 203
  relation to Smith-Hughes work, 162
  report on, 236–37
  Smith-Lever Act, 3
  spread to cities, 150
  study of, in one county, 240–51
  success stories, 141–45
  supplement to school work, 213
  trends for future, 296–309
  value of, 142, 285
Clubs
  growth during World War I, 147
  wartime work, 147–48
Cobb, Cully, 103, 207, 237
Coe, Maynard H., 159, 160, 236
Coke, J. Earl, 295
Cold packing, 126–129
Colebank, Lawrence O., 277
Colorado
  Denver, 4-H becomes permanent, 151–52
  Kit Carson canning champion, 182
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Comstock, Laura, 165
Connecticut
  Own Your Own Room project, 167
  poultry clubs, 154
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Connell, J. H., 24
Conservation camps, 259
Conservation program, 256–66
Conservationists' pledge, 260

Contest, value of, 170
Contributions of 4-H to society, 287–89, 292–95
Converse, Mrs. Frank, 285
Cooperation with schools, 242
Corn champions, 68–75
Corn club
  college assistance, 61–67
  Michigan, 116
  role in boll weevil battle, 252
Corn contest
  enrollment, 76
  first federally sponsored, 4
  Georgia, 34, 35
  Illinois, 20–21
  Indiana, 28
  Iowa, 5, 28–31
  Kansas, 27–28
  Louisiana, 57, 59–60
  Louisiana Purchase Exposition, 19
  Mississippi, 49, 52–54
  Nebraska, 25–26
  North Dakota, 32
  regulations, 76
  Texas, 56–57
  Wisconsin, 24
Corn Gospel Train, 37–39
Corn testing program, 37–39
Cotton growing, 92
Cotton growing contest, 208–9
County agent, first, 107
"County fair" commencements, 44–45
Coverdale, J. W., 177, 179, 190
Cresswell, Mary E., 90, 91
Critz, Hugh, 93
Cromer, Marie S., 78, 83, 84
Crop contest, Ohio, 5

D

Dairy project, 244–45
Danziger, Milton, 170, 175, 197, 198, 205
Daughtrey, W. H., 296
Davenport, Dean, 19
Davis, Bernice Carter, 181
Debnam, Stephen Alva, 207
Demonstration work, federally encouraged, 106–8
Demonstrator pins, 98
Denmark, 4-H Clubs, 221
Dodson, W. R., 59
Doerr, Caleb, 247
Dolliver bill, 119
Dowdle, Lois P., 187
Downey, Mylo S., 270
Dress revue, 264
Drummond, A. B., 179
Duncan, L. N., 64, 101
Dusek, Luke, 245

E

Eagle, R. F., 177
Early, Thomas A., 53, 64, 101
Eaton, F. L., 177
Eggleston, J. D., 65, 66, 67, 68, 78
Eggleston, Marion, 185
English farm clubs, 208
English youth program, 221
Enrollment, 132
Erickson, T. A., 114, 115, 141, 168, 174, 206, 222, 236, 258
Esteros, Gertrude, 246, 247
Eure, W. W., 288
Evans, C. M., 103
Evans, J. A., 125, 137, 237
Evans, S. Howard, 218
Ewing, Jasper, 131
Extension
  encourages corn clubs, 59–67
  first demonstration farm, 50
  home demonstration agents, 77–91
  home demonstration work, 80–91
Extension subcommittee on 4-H Club work, 236
Extension work
  appropriations, 226–27
  cooperation with colleges, 122
  cotton growing, 208–9
  county-unit system, 120–21
  family approach, 303–4
  federal aid for, 118–32
  home demonstrations, 165–66
  with Negroes, 133–39
  purpose and objectives, 234–35
  with school clubs, 13–22
  with schools, 38–37
  soil conservation, 256–66
  study of, in one county, 240–51
  subcommittee on awards, 235
  subcommittee on measuring results, 236
  subcommittee on organization and method, 235
  subcommittee on youth development, 296

F

Farley, George L., 117, 205, 273
Farmers' cooperative demonstration work, 96
Farrar, F. Southall, 66, 273
Farrell, George E., 125, 127, 165, 174, 175, 176, 177, 187, 194, 205, 206, 220, 230, 264
Feed a Fighter campaign, 271–72
Fellowships, 4-H, 218
Fenn, Geraldine G., 296
Ferguson, C. M., 295
Ferguson, Fred E., 145
Fertig, Mabel, 250

Field, Jessie, 28, 36, 38, 39, 40, 41, 47, 97
Fifth National Corn Exhibition, 103
Finland's youth program, 221–22
First national boys' and girls' club exposition, 181
Flannagan, John W., 281
Florida
  career exploration, 303
Flower garden project, 14, 15
Ford, Jake, 136
4-H
  brands and labels, 102
  effect on community, 287–95
  fellowships, 218
  motto, 217
  music, 217
  National March, 217
  objectives, 234–35, 297
  pledge, 26, 216–17
  spreads to foreign lands, 276–78
  in wartime, 267–81
4-H Citizenship Ceremonial, 268–69
4-H Club, first official written use of term, 210–11
4-H Club and Rural Youth Act, 279
4-H Clubs, basic reason for growth, 212–13
4-H emblem
  adoption, 97
  design, 98–100
  first use of, 45
  meaning, 98
4-H emblem crosses the Atlantic, 220–25
4-H Federation of Northern Countries of Europe, 222
4-H Forage, 216
4-H pledge, 26, 216–17
4-H Song Book, 217
Fourth Annual Boys' and Girls' Club Tour, 181
Francisco, Mrs. M. C., 246
French, C. C., 94
French, Walter, 116
Frisbie, L. I., 189, 206
Frissell, H. B., 65, 80, 133
Fulmer, Hampton P., 279

G

Garment-making clubs, 148
Garner, P. P., 64, 93
Gayer, Floyd, 74
Georgia
  Athens pig club winner, 175
  boys' corn clubs, 67
  corn champion, 74
  Covington Enterprise, 34
  federal cooperation in club work, 63
  first state club leader, 64
  first state corn champion, 35
  Girls' Home Life Clubs, 67
  Macon State Fair, 35
  Newton county corn contest, 34
  war bond sales, 273
  Yalobusha county corn club, 64
Girl Scouts, 42
Girls' canning clubs, 77–91
Goddard, L. H., 13, 14
Goldman, Edwin Franko, 217
González, Gloria L, 276
Government sponsorship of corn clubs, 48–55
Government-university cooperation
  Idaho program, 117
  Indiana agreement, 111–13
  Iowa agreement, 108
  Michigan agreement, 116
  Minnesota program, 114
  North Dakota program, 113
  Oregon agreement, 117
  Wisconsin, 113
Graham, A. B., 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 29, 30
Greeley, Horace, 5
Greene, Mabel, 225
Guideposts for the future, 275
Gunter, Katie, 82
Gyles, H. E., 81

H

Haddon, C. B., 66
Haines, J. F., 28
Hall, G. Stanley, 42
Hall, Otis, 216, 273
Halter, Elmer, 69, 70, 71
Hannon, Robert L., 278
Hansen, Agnes M., 296
Hansen, Henry M., 296
Harden, Hughey, 74
Hardin, Myrtie. 97
Harrill, L. R., 289
Harshfield, H. W., 296
Hartley, C. H., 200
Hatch Act, 122
Hawaiian club work, 224–25
Hays, Willet M., 273
Health contest, national, 181–82, 184
Heide, B. H., 177, 179, 190
Henderson, Grace, 144
Hendricks, Elaine, 182
Henry, Dean, 19
Henry, Stephen D., 59, 74
Herrington, G. L., 186
Hetler, J. C., 28, 29, 32, 34
Hill, I. W., 103, 125, 208
Hines, Charles, 230
Hobdy, J. B., 103
Hobson, Ivan, 206
Hoefer, Albert, 152

Holden, Perry G., 16, 19, 30, 37, 39, 41, 96, 105, 108, 171, 172
Holmes, Mattie, 137
Home demonstration agent, first, 80
Home economics program, 165–68
Home economics projects, 246–47
Home projects, 14, 15
Hoover, Mrs. Herbert, 220
Hopkins, Cyril G., 16
Hopkins, E. N., 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 179
Horn, Charles, 258
Hot lunch programs, 168
Houston, David F., 123
Howard, J. R., 174
Hughes, Miss Hallie, 86, 236
Hunt, Thomas F., 13, 14
Hunter, Annie Peters, 137
Hurst, Fred, 202
Hyde, Carrie, 81, 82

I

Idaho, start of cooperative club work, 109
Illinois
  agricultural exhibits at St. Louis Fair, 21
  children's crusade, 18
  clubs, 16
  corn contests, 19–22
  Girls' Home Culture Club, 19
  start of cooperative club work, 109
  State Farmers' Institute, 16
  Urbana excursion, 17
  Winnebago county, beginning club work, 11–12
Indiana
  corn contests, 28
  development of club work, 128–29
  Frankfort, demonstration team, 146
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Industrial contest work, 34
Initiation Ceremony, 268
International Corn Show, 40
International Farm Youth Exchange, 289, 307
International Live Stock Exposition, prize trips, 173–75
International livestock judging contest, 207–8
International study program, 307
Iowa
  career exploration, 303
  Clarinda Herald, 41
  club program in 1912, 108
  corn contests, 28–31
  Junior Agricultural Union, 42
  Keokuk county educational innovations, 28, 30
  Mahaska county canning champions, 182
  Muscatine county boys' crop contest, 5
  Page county, development of 4-H emblem, 43–47
  Page county projects, 39–41
  Sigourney school fair, 30–31
  Sioux City Interstate Fair, 205–06
  Sioux county farm demonstrations, 38
  start of cooperative club work, 109
  Wright county, development of 4-H emblem, 43–47
Iowa Homestead, 44
Iowa State Fair, 182
Isaken, Joseph, 182
Ives, Sherman, 154

J

Jamaica, 4-H Club work, 278
Jeffords, T. M., 101
Jenkins, E. G., 200
Jenkins, Lizzie A., 137
Jernigan, W. J., 187, 194, 236
Jesup, Morris K., 134
Jones, E. W., 94
Jones, Marvin, 220
Jones, R. E., 154
Jordan, S. M., 199
Journal of Education, 40
Joyner, J. Y., 40
Junior Club Song Book and Program, 174
Junior leadership programs, 196
Junior Livestock Show, 245–46
Junior Naturalist Club, 9
Junior Naturalist Monthly, 9
Junior Wool Pool, 245
Jyring, Mayme, 222

K

Kansas
  corn contests, 27–28
  Geary county, the story of a typical club, 282–84
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Kansas City conference, 156–63
Kansas City home economics program, 165
Kelley, Fern S., 270
Kendrick, William H., 145, 200
Kennedy, John F., 265
Keown, Mary E., 277
Kern, O. J., 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 29, 52
Kettunen, A. G., 289
Kilpatrick, Sarah, 94
Kipling, Rudyard, 26
Kirkpatrick, W. F., 155
Knapp, Bradford, 70, 90, 91, 101, 121, 125

Knapp, Seaman A., 50, 52, 53, 62, 70, 76, 103, 134, 295
Korea, 4-H work, 275–76

L

Laborde, Armand J., 60
Lamb, Ray, 150
Land Grant College Association study of club trends, 233
Larson, Hilding, 245
La Tourrette, Wilbert, 5
Latvian club work, 222–23
Leaders honored, 272–74
Leadership training, 198
Lee, J. G., 255
Lee, Jim M., 275
Lenzmeier, Ed, 153
Leonard, A. G., 186
Lever, A. F., 119, 120
Liberty ships named for 4-H leaders, 272–74
Livestock clubs, 149
Livestock in the South, 252–66
Lloyd, E. R., 53
Lloyd, W. A., 164, 225
Louisiana
  Avoyelles corn contest, 59
  the battle of diversification, 255
  Caddo pig club, 94
  club work promoted with motion pictures, 130–32
  corn champion, 74
  demonstration train, 103
  first state club leader, 64
  4-H ownership of livestock, 255
  Moreauville corn contest, 57, 59
  state camp, 202
  state club livestock show, 254
Lund, F. P., 221
Lundy, D. C., 50, 69

M

Manz, Mrs. L. W., 282
March, National 4-H, 217
Marks, Thomas Meriwether, 56, 57
Martin, Marguerite, 182
Martin, O. B., 60, 69, 70, 80, 82, 83, 90, 91, 96, 98, 125, 273
Massachusetts, early club work, 109, 116, 117
McBrien, Jasper L., 25
McCormick, Clarence J., 289
McCormick, Harold, 179
McDowell, J. C., 34
McKimmon, Jane, 84, 86, 87
McLaughlin bill, 118–20
McLaughlin, J. C., 107–8, 118
McMillan, J. G., 173
McNeel, Wakelin, 257, 258
Meharg, A. F., 50, 52
Membership, 100–101, 132, 194, 211, 237–38, 278–79
Mercer, Ford, 198
Meredith, E. T., 149, 172, 174, 176, 177, 178, 179, 181, 190
Merritt, W. B., 34
Michigan
  club camp, 199, 202
  corn clubs, 116
  Detroit, school gardening program, 150–51
  "Excursion" program, 307
  hot lunch clubs, 168
  Jackson county fair, 290–92
  Junior Agricultural Association, 116
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Miles, Garry, 154
Miller, Cap E., 28, 29, 30, 31, 34
Miller, J. H., 27
Miller, W. H., 93
Mindrum, N. C., 288
Miners, Ed, 244
Minnesota
  first club camp, 202
  hot lunch programs, 168
  Junior Livestock Show, 149–50
  livestock production, 149
  Springfield, health champion, 182
  St. Louis county potato club, 222
  St. Louis county, study of club work, 240–51
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Mississippi
  beef production projects, 149
  boys' demonstration work, 69
  canning club agent, 83
  club camp, 202
  corn champion, 69, 74
  corn contest, 4, 49, 52, 54
  district livestock shows, 256
  first state club leader, 64
  Holmes county, first corn club, 48–50
  "Home Culture" Club, 49
  Oktibbeha county pig club, 93, 95
  Simpson county cotton growing contest, 208–9
  Starkville News, 93, 94
  Summer club work for teachers, 103
Missouri, farm boys' encampment, 199
Missouri Conservation Commission photo by Don Wooldridge, 260
Money-raising benefits by 4-H members, 272
Montana
  public affairs study groups, 307
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Moore, Jerry, 71, 72, 73, 83
Moore, R. A., 24, 25, 273
Moore, Virginia, 83, 97
Morgan, Anne, 181

Morrill Act, 122
Morse, Ned, 136
Morton, James Jr., 175
Morton, Orion A., 117
Moses, H. A., 192, 196, 198
Motion pictures, early use in club work, 130–32
Mumford, Eben, 116
Music, 4-H, 217

N

The National Boys' and Girls' Club News, 180, 184
National camps, 219–20
National Club Congress, 8
  early days, 181–190
  first, 174–75
National Committee on Boys and Girls Club Work (now National 4-H Service Committee)
  contributions to 4-H movement, 266
  early days, 180–92
  first headquarters, 180
  formation, 171–79
  objectives, 179, 191
National committee of land-grant colleges and USDA, report on 4-H club work, 236–37
National 4-H Club Camp (now National 4-H Conference)
  formation, 214
  location, 215
  newspaper, 216
  program, 216
  purposes, 214
  selection of delegates, 214–15
National 4-H Club Center, 289
National 4-H Club Foundation, 287–89, 308
National 4-H March, 217
National livestock judging contest, 207
National Prize 4-H Club Camp, 248–50
National roundup, 21–22
Nebraska
  corn contests, 25–26
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Nebraska Boys' Agricultural Association, 26
Nebraska Girls' Domestic Science Association, 26
Negro club work, 133–140
  camps, 139–40
  demonstration agents, 134–38
  enrollment, 138–39
Negro Extension program, 133–39
Nelson, Martin, 172
Neubauer, August, 250
Nevada, start of cooperative club work, 109
New Jersey, start of cooperative club work, 109
New Mexico, start of cooperative club work, 109
New York
  Elmira, handicraft and garden club, 152
  nature study program, 9–10
  start of cooperative club work, 109
  Watertown Fair, corn contest, 4
Noble, G. L., 142, 171, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 184, 186, 206, 227, 239, 264, 279, 295
North Carolina
  canning club agent appointed, 86
  corn champion, 74
  federal cooperation in club work, 63
  first club camp, 202
  first state club leader, 64
  girls' canning clubs, 96
  School Boys' Farm Life Club, 66
  School Girls' Home Life Club, 66
North Dakota
  Hillsboro Banner, 32
  start of cooperative club work, 109
  Traill county, corn contest, 32
Northern Atlantic boys' and girls' club exposition, 204
Norwegian club work, 222

O

Odom, Archie, 74
Office of Farm Management, 108
Ohio
  Butler county crop contest, 5
  Clark county beginning club work, 11–12
  county-wide clubs, 16
  first club camp, 202
  school agricultural clubs, 15
  Springfield, first meeting for boys, 16
  Springfield township club work, 8–9
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Oklahoma, corn champion, 74
Olgers, Maurice, 74
Olivencia, Pedro, 276
Olson, O. M., 202
Oregon
  home beautification program, 167–68
  Portland clubs, 150
  start of cooperative club work, 109
  Yamhill county children's fair, 35
Otwell, Will, 18, 20, 21, 273
Own Your Own Room project, 167

P

Pacific International Livestock Exposition, 206
Parkhurst, M. S., 189

Payne Fund Fellowships, 218
Payne, M. T., 76
Pearson, R. A., 216, 228, 233
Penney, J. C., 206
Pennsylvania
  town and country program, 303
Perkins, Elizabeth, 185
Peru, 4-H movement, 276
Phee, Stasia, 180
Pierce, John B., 135, 138, 140
Pig clubs, 93–94
  role in boll weevil battle, 252
Pins (*see* 4-H emblem)
Pledge, 4-H, 216–17
Plummer, O. M., 35, 176, 206
Plunkett, George, 34
Postwar planning, 156–63
Potato-growing project, 242–44
Poultry clubs help earn college expenses, 154–55
Poultry demonstrations at World Poultry Congress, 223
Powell, Susie, 83, 84
Powers, J. N., 53
Program for older members, 286–87
Puelicher, J. H., 185
Puerto Rico, 4-H movement, 276–78

Q

Quicksall, J. L., 57

R

Rabbit clubs, 148
Randlett, Gordon, 34, 111
Rankin, Fred, 16
Reed, Frank P., 273
Reed, H. D., 171
Reese, Madge, 90, 206
Reinat, Adolph Mayoral, 277
Report forms, standardizing, 101
Rhode Island, start of cooperative club work, 109
Rhodes, Mrs. Arthur, 200
Richardson, E. S., 64, 130, 131
Richmond Times-Dispatch, 67
Rilling, Harry, 206
Rockstrom, Bertel, 222
Rodgers, Beulah, 182
Rommell, George M., 103
Roosevelt, Eleanor, 219
Roosevelt, Franklin D., 271
Theodore Roosevelt's County Life Commission, 42
Rose, Mary Swartz, 166
Ross, A. B., 107
Ross, H. B., 208
Roy, Victor L., 57, 64, 130
Rural boys and girls, new interest in, 5–10
Rural School Agriculture, 14
Rural School Leaflet, 9–10
Rural schools, college assistance, 16–19
Rusk, H. P., 281
Russell, H L., 257

S

Sandy, T. O., 66, 69, 78
Sargent, Mrs. Abbie C., 238
Sargent, William C., 245
Savely, H. E., 54
Schaub, I. O., 64
Schneider, Charlie, 9
School fairs, 5
Scope Report, 296
Sears, Roebuck and Company award, 247–48
See, Lorents, 145
Seed testing, 44
Seigler, H. C., 80, 82
Seymour, H. C., 150, 206
Shamel, C. A., 16
Shanklin, F. M., 181
Sheridan, Maude, 182, 183, 187
Sherley, John A., 204
Shinn, E. H., 233
Shipman, J. V., 199
Shrum, Grant A., 288
Sifontes, Luis Mata, 276
Sikes, Anna M., 297
Sikes, Hugh, 94
Sikes, Nannie, 94
Simpson, John C., 177
Simpson, Warren, 141, 142
Smith, Burton M., 190
Smith, Clarence Beaman, 105–6, 110, 125, 126, 210, 212, 213, 223, 228, 230, 233
Smith, Ed ("Cotton"), 220
Smith, Ellison D., 229
Smith, Hoke, 119, 120
Smith-Lever Act, 118–32, 193
Smith, William Hall, 48, 49, 50, 53, 54
Smith, Z. M., 110, 111, 126, 128, 129
Soil conservation program, 259
Song Book, 4-H, 217
South Carolina
  Aiken county canning demonstrations, 78–82
  corn champions, 71–73, 74–75
  first state club leader, 66
  girls canning clubs, 96
South Dakota, start of cooperative club work, 109
The Southern Ruralist, 207
Spaulding, Franklin B., 4
Spencer, "Uncle John," 10
Spillman, W. J., 105–7, 120
Spriesterbach, Elizabeth, 251
Springfield plan, 15

Stanley, Rufus, 152
Starnes, Ernest, 74
State-wide contest, 24–36, 39–41
Stevenson, Adlai, 22
Stewart, A. D., 208
Stewart, Joseph, 35
Stone, Joe, 74
Striplin, R. M., 177
Stucky, W. G., 297
Successful Farming, 178
Sugar clubs, 148
Sunset Ceremonial, 268
Superintendent, formula for, 67
Sutton, W. A. (Bill), 261, 297, 298
Swedish club work, 222

T

Taff, Paul C., 41, 174, 183, 187, 189, 206, 263
Tanner, James E., 208, 286
Taylor, Wm. A., 113
Tennessee, canning clubs, 83, 96, 97
Terry, Sadie, 86
Texas
  demonstration train, 103
  Farm Boys' and Girls' Progressive League, 24
  farm demonstration work, 51–52
  Farmers' Institute, 24
  Jacksboro, corn contest, 56–57
  Mexican boll weevil test, 51
  Shepard, health champion, 182
  Terrell, model farm, 51
Tomato canning, 78–82
Trabue, Elsie, 185, 187, 198
Training sessions for club leaders, 163
Trigg, Joe S., 31
True, A. C., 125, 156, 162, 216
Turner, Jack, 207
Turner, Ray, 174, 189, 198, 206, 207, 217, 223, 236, 263, 264
Typical club, the story of, 282–95

U

Ulmanis, Carl, 222
U. S. Maritime Commission photo, 274
USDA-colleges sponsor farmers' boys' clubs, 61–67
USDA Extension Service photo by Ed Hunton, 219, 284
USDA Extension Service photo by G. W. Ackerman, 215, 269
Uruguay, 4-H movement, 276
Usher, Bascom, 69
Utah
  hog farming clubs, 149
  start of cooperative club work, 109

V

Vaill, Clarence, 154
Van Arsdale, May B., 166
Vegetable garden products, 14, 15
Venezuela, 5-V work, 276
Vermont, start of cooperative club work, 109
Vernon, Stella, 145
Virgin Islands, 4-H movement, 278
Virginia
  corn champion, 69
  corn club work, 68, 69
  first state club leader, 65
  girls' canning clubs, 96
  Jamestown 4-H camp, 203
  Nottaway county farm improvement, 66
Visual education for rural schools, 130–32
Vivian, Alfred, 162

W

Wallace, "Uncle Henry" (Henry C.), 24, 30, 31, 183
Wallace, Maude E., 190
Wallace's Farmer, 24
War bond sales by 4-H members, 272–73
Warburton, C. W., 211, 264
Ward, Florence E., 230
Warren, Gertrude, L., 165, 187, 198, 206, 210, 223, 230, 236, 278, 289
Wartime service by club members, 153–54
Wartime work by 4-H clubs, 267–81
Washington
  start of cooperative club work, 109
  war bond sales, 273
Washington, Booker T., 26, 133
Weiting, Gilbert, 207
West Virginia
  4-H camp for Negroes, 202
  Randolph county nature camp, 199–201
White, F. S., 56, 57
Williams, Ira, 72, 80
Williams, John, 74
Williams, William, 74
Williamson, H. H., 103, 207
Wilson, James (Tama Jim), 69, 70, 79, 123
Wilson, M. L., 183, 232
Wilson, Thomas E., 176, 177, 178, 179, 190
Winship, A. E., 40
Wisconsin
  corn contests, 24
  Junior Forest Ranger program, 257
  school forests, 257
  start of cooperative club work, 109
Woolman, Mary Schenk, 166

World's Work, 67
Worst, John H., 34
Wright, Mrs. E. F., 285
Wyoming
  club camp, 199
  junior leadership program, 196
  recreation camp, 202
  start of cooperative club work, 109

Y

Yates, Governor Richard, 21, 22
Yearbook, USDA, 19
York, E. T., 270
Young Farmers' Club, 208

Z

Zumbrunn, Dan, 282, 285

HUSEBY