Profiles of Nationally Distinguished Nebraskans: Index

Based on the success of E.A. Kral's "700 Famous Nebraskans," The Crete News publisher, John Reeves, initiated the production of monthly profiles of Nationally Distinguished Nebraskans. These profiles, written by E.A. Kral and Jean M. Sanders, began appearing in The Crete News in January 2004. With the permission of the publisher and authors, the Nebraska State Education Association offers these profiles on its website as a public service.

Henry M. Beachell: Leading 20th century rice breeder and co-pioneer of Asia's Green Revolution in rice

Many researchers in all fields of knowledge have offered humankind valuable contributions during long, successful careers. And a few, such as chemists Pierre and Marie Curie and physicist Albert Einstein, became renowned worldwide for enduring pioneer efforts.

For various reasons, exceptional contributors in the agricultural sciences are not often widely known outside their specialty. One example is Iowa native Norman E. Borlaug, a 1970 Nobel Prize recipient for increasing wheat production in many countries. Another is Nebraska native Henry M. Beachell, a rice breeder. Both were jointly featured in a centennial supplement to *Agronomy Journal*, Vol 100 (2008) as two giants in the American Society of Agronomy's first century.

While wheat is an important food crop in the world, especially in North America and Europe, rice is also one of the most important. As stated in the entry on rice in *World Book Encyclopedia*, Vol 16 (2005), "More than half the people of the world eat this grain as the main part of their meals. Nearly all the people who depend on rice for food live in Asia."

Agronomist Henry Beachell, during a career of more than 70 years, helped modernize rice breeding in the United States after 1931 with the U.S. Department of Agriculture based at the Texas A & M Research Station at Beaumont by development of nine varieties of rice and establishment of the nation's first rice research laboratory.

And after late 1963, while with the International Rice Research Institute in the Philippines and then Indonesia, he co-pioneered the high-yielding IR8 rice that substantially increased rice production in several Asian nations, and helped reduce the chances for widespread famine.

The significance of Beachell's contributions was confirmed by numerous honors, including the John Scott Award of the City of Philadelphia in 1969, the Bronze Tower Service Award of the Government of South Korea in 1978, and the Japan Prize in 1987. Additionally, he was co-recipient with IRRI colleague Gurdev S. Khush of the prestigious World Food Prize in 1996.

His early years had prepared him for an agronomy career. At first, he lived on family farms in eastern Nebraska near Waverly, where he was born, then near Valparaiso, where he had cultivated corn with a horse-drawn cultivator. About the age of eight, he became fascinated with a steam engine and other exhibits of the University of Nebraska College of Agriculture at the Nebraska State Fair in the capital city of Lincoln, and independently built toys, including small replicas of farm machines.

In 1917, the family relocated to a farm eight miles from Grant in southwestern Nebraska, where a small tractor was used for plowing and planting wheat. He attended Rural School District 84, and spent his spare time at home by reading and making toys from scrap lumber and rods. At Perkins County High School in Grant, he lived with families closer to school, and held many kinds of jobs. He took two years of vocational agriculture training as well as the usual school curriculum, then after graduation in 1924, worked on his father's farm for a year.

After enrolling in the UNL College of Agriculture in the fall of 1925, Henry took several courses in entomology, and worked in the animal pathology department, caring for experimental Guinea pigs, rabbits and chickens used by the distinguished veterinary scientist Leunis Van Es for the study of diseases. Two years later, he worked in the summer and fall for the U.S. Department of Agriculture, looking for corn borers in Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Wisconsin cornfields, then for a short time helped the Perkins County Agent at Grant.

With a letter of encouragement from Edgar A. Burnett, Dean of the UNL College of Agriculture, he returned to UNL in February 1928, worked at the agronomy farm on corn, wheat, and soils studies, and held a job as seed analyst at

the Nebraska State Seed Laboratory in the State Capitol. The following fall, he was a team member for grain judging, grading, and plant identification at the Chicago International Hay and Grain Show, where he placed first in grain judging. He was also a lab assistant for Prof T. H. Gooding in the Agronomy Department.

After earning his UNL bachelor's degree in 1930, Beachell began graduate work in the Agronomy Department at Kansas State University, studying under Prof John H. Parker, who he remembered had taught the valuable philosophy that "one must work with not only research associates, but with the farmer, the processor, and the ultimate consumer." And to be adaptable to environments at employment stations.

Accumulating sufficient coursework by March 1931, though not finishing his master's degree thesis in plant breeding until 1934, he applied for a wheat breeder position at Washington State College in Pullman. But the job was given to his friend and former UNL classmate Orville A. Vogel, who later earned major national awards for developing the first commercially successful semi-dwarf wheat in North America.

There were, however, three rice breeding jobs available along the Gulf Coast, so in 1931 Henry took a rice research position with the U.S. Department of Agriculture at the Texas A & M Research Station at Beaumont, where he remained for 32 years.

At the time, rice improvement mainly involved the testing and selecting of promising varieties from strains grown in foreign countries but introduced in the United States, with choices made for adaptability to local soil and climate, yield and quality.

Moreover, the Texas rice crop was harvested with binders, shocked in the field, threshed by stationary threshers, put into gunny sacks, and stored in open warehouses. But as the labor for this method became more expensive, farmers had difficulty making a profit from raising rice.

With the introduction of the combine to the rice-growing region in the 1940s, farmers wanted varieties more suitable to mechanized harvesting than the types earlier grown, thus adding another breeding factor.

It was Beachell who began the modern development of hybrid rice varieties by crossbreeding to obtain desired hereditary traits. Sometimes, about two to three hundred varieties were tested for economic and yield value. Typically, it took about seven years before seed reached the yield test, and 12 years or more before a variety could be considered a marketable seed. And after success in the field, it had to pass cooking and eating tests before finally reaching the market.

In the early 1940s, Henry released Texas Patna, the first rice variety developed from his breeding program, which was a cross between a variety grown in India and one of the old American rices, and could withstand punishment from bad weather. And until 1963, while he was director of breeding at Beaumont, a total of nine new varieties were eventually developed that had changed the U.S. rice industry, since early-maturing varieties were adapted to combine harvesting and the use of nitrogen fertilizer to increase per acre yield.

Funding for rice research was in short supply from state and federal sources, so in July 1943, Henry was instrumental in forming the Texas Rice Improvement Association through his relationships with farmers, farm organizations, millers, and other processors of rice. Also important was the establishment of the Rice Quality Laboratory at the Beaumont Research Station in 1955, the first of its kind in the nation. It was created to serve as a worldwide resource for rice quality evaluation, in addition to supporting rice breeding programs throughout the United States.

By the mid-l950s, Beachell's varieties comprised the vast majority of the estimated 50,000 acres of rice produced annually in Texas, and from 1954 until the late 1960s, his varieties were the basis for nearly 90 percent of all U.S. long-grain rice production. And a sizeable rice industry had been established as a result of local and foreign demand for high quality seed, which included Central and South America.

According to a September 18, 1955 *Houston Chronicle* news article, the Beaumont Research Station had international influence. A chief agronomist for Indonesia who had worked with Beachell reported more than 12 million acres of rice in that republic were being planted to a new variety which was a cross with Bluebonnet 50 (released by Henry in 1950) and one of the native Indonesia varieties. It produced a high yield and was a good tasting strain.

Beachell's involvement as a consultant internationally started during a 1949 visit to British Guiana, where farming methods remained from ancient times, with workers reaping and winnowing by hand. During a summer 1954 tour of South America, he obtained information about milling and cooking quality, disease resistance, and other traits of rice grown from seed furnished by Texas farmers. In 1955, he lectured at a convention in India attended by agricultural leaders from 26 Asiatic and European nations. And in March 1958, he hosted at the Beaumont Station a group of international agriculture experts that represented France, Greece, India, Pakistan, Spain, and Thailand.

An innovative experimenter, Henry had been aware of the concept of dwarfism established in other crops such as sorghum and wheat, and hoped the same could apply to rice for the benefit of farmers in Texas and other southern states. In 1955, he visited Orville Vogel at Washington State University, for Vogel was in the process of developing a semi-dwarf wheat variety that was released six years later. He had used genetic material from a Japanese wheat.

Application of the dwarf concept in rice research occurred after the Rockefeller and Ford Foundations jointly initiated in 1960 the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) headquartered in Los Banos, Philippines, about 40 miles south of Manila.

The first IRRI rice breeder was Peter Jennings, who had earlier spent several months learning about rice at the Beaumont Research Station. In the summer of 1962, he brought Henry to the Philippines for consultation, and that same year Jennings started experimentation with a short-statured variety from Taiwan. After discovery of potential for breeding an improved semi-dwarf rice, he informed his officials as well as Beachell in Beaumont.

Soon Henry Beachell was hired by IRRI to serve as its second rice breeder, then at 57 years of age, he relocated to the Philippines in October 1963, and received the genetic materials from Jennings, who departed for study leave.

In the early years, the IRRI demonstrated it had educational as well as research objectives, for plant breeders from other nations spent a year gaining practical experience and training in selection of improved varieties. Its staff represented some 14 countries, and they worked to catalog every known rice strain in the world, at the time an estimated ten thousand varieties from 73 nations. Those with promise were tested in laboratories and on its experimental farm, then tested all over Asia under varying local conditions.

Then, too, recalled Henry at a 1997 reunion, "We interviewed farmers and scientists across Asia to understand why rice yields in the tropics were so low. The main problem was the structure of the tropical rice plant–tall, with weak stems. When fertilized, the plant 'lodged' or fell over, and production ceased."

And just as he did at Beaumont, Henry established a rice quality laboratory at IRRI, and trained the technicians to manage it, a major contribution because people in different countries have varying preferences in cooking and eating, from sticky to drier-cooking. Such knowledge permitted elimination at the start of any genetic lines that possessed unacceptable qualities.

When Beachell began his rice research at Los Banos in late 1963, he selected from the third generation of plants earlier provided by Jennings almost 200 of the best individual plants. Seeds from each plant were sown in individual rows for the fourth generation, then for the fifth generation he selected a single plant from Row 288, which was the third one. It was a cross of an Indonesia variety called Peta, which had erect leaves and stood up well, and a semi-dwarf variety from Taiwan, called Dee-geo-won-gen.

Its seed was grown to produce the basic seed stock for the sixth generation, which was a semi-dwarf rice. It had a short, stiff straw, and its erect leaves allowed for more exposure to sunlight, making it less dependent on daylength and permitting fanners to grow it around the world. It ripened in much less time than previous varieties, was able to resist lodging when much fertilizer was applied, and there was more resistance to several types of diseases. Then two more generations were developed.

While the new strain more than doubled yield potential of traditional rice varieties, and was tested throughout Asia in 1965, much of the population did not like its eating quality. However, the IRRI seed committee met in 1966, called it IR8, and released it that November.

As Beachell recalled later, “We needed to move fast as possible. There was not enough rice to go around. Having rice was more important than grain quality....We knew its limitations, but also knew we had a plant type. IR8 would be the prototype for future varieties. We decided to spread it.”

The development of IR8 was significant for Asian agriculture, and it began the Green Revolution in rice. The press called it the miracle rice. But even more research was needed.

During his nine years at the Los Banos location, Beachell not only developed the high-yielding IR8 but it was a parent to his other varieties such as IR20, IR22, IR24, and IR28. He was also a consultant to scientists at other Asian nations, as well as a mentor to fellow IRRI colleagues such as Gurdev Khush, a native of India who trained at the University of California at Davis and arrived at Los Banos in 1967.

Khush continued the findings of Beachell by leading an almost ten-year effort in the development of IR36, which matured within 105 days, compared to 125 days for IR8 and 150 to 170 days for traditional types. Other IR36 improvements over the earlier semi-dwarf varieties included genetic resistance to a dozen insects and diseases, which reduced farmers’ reliance on pesticides, and resistance to such environmental obstacles as drought and nitrogen-deficient soils. Also, its slender grain was preferred in many countries.

After Henry reached age 65, he did not wish to abide by the mandatory retirement policy at Los Banos, so in July 1972, he was appointed a rice breeder on the staff of IRRI at Bogor, Indonesia, where he assisted the government in improving food crops and training young scientists in agricultural research until 1982. During this time, rice production in Indonesia increased more than 100 percent because of the adoption of early maturing, disease and insect resistant semi-dwarf rice varieties.

The improved varieties developed under Beachell and Khush became planted on about 70 percent of the world’s rice-growing land and not only doubled worldwide rice production but fed about 700 million more people than traditional varieties would feed. Moreover, an additional $1 billion income was provided to Asian farmers, who grow over 90 percent of the world’s rice. And it all happened while the population of rice consumers was growing more than two percent annually, and the availability of rice production land remained stable.

Upon returning to Texas in the spring of 1982, he remained active until beyond 95 years of age. He took a consulting position with a business in the community of Alvin that in a decade became RiceTec, the only firm in the United States engaged in the development of hybrid rice varieties. At the same time, he also collaborated with researchers at Cornell University at Ithaca, New York and the U.S. Department of Agriculture at Stuttgart, Arkansas in the development of a molecular genetic seed bank of rice.

His long career and enthusiasm was noted in newspaper articles. An April 13, 1987 *Houston Chronicle* article quoted him as saying, “The reason I’ve stayed with it this long is out of satisfaction of having helped the livelihood of people.” And a December 15, 1996 *Dallas Morning News* feature that mentioned his learning about the DNA of rice also stated, “Indeed, those who have known him well say Dr. Beachell, often called a walking encyclopedia of agriculture by his colleagues, doesn’t seem to want to stop learning.”

Aside from the previously-mentioned awards, Henry received many other noteworthy honors, including election as Fellow in the American Society of Agronomy in 1961 and the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1969, honorary doctorates from Seoul National University in 1971 and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1972, and distinguished service awards from Kansas State University in 1974 and Texas A & M University in 1981.

Endowed scholarships in Henry’s name were established at Kansas State University in 1997, Texas A & M University in 1997, the American Society of Agronomy in 1998, and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 2006. The Monsanto Corporation established an international fellowship program in honor of Henry Beachell and Norman Borlaug administered by Texas A & M University in 2009.

In addition to sources already cited, an important biographical account is Anwar Dil ed, *Rice to Feed the World: Life and Work of H. M. Beachell* (Intercultural Forum, 2001). Also helpful is a history of Beachell’s life in a privately

printed 158-page booklet in 2007 by nephew Roy F. Stohler of Concord, Nebraska. An obituary was published in the December 28, 2006 *New York Times*, and there is an entry in *Who Was Who in America*, Vol 18 (2007).

Archival materials about Henry M. Beachell may be found at the International Rice Research Institute at Los Banos, Philippines, the Godfrey Library of the Soil and Crop Department at Texas A & M University at College Station, the RiceTec at Alvin, Texas, and the Archives and Special Collections, the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Libraries.

Born on September 21, 1906 at Waverly, Nebraska, one of seven children of William and Alice Degler Beachell, Henry died December 13, 2006 at 100 years of age. Preceded in death by his parents and wives Ena Everton (l936-1982) and Edna Mary Payne (1983-2004), he was survived by a sister, a sister-in-law, two grandchildren, and many nieces and nephews. Interment was at South Park Cemetery in Pearland, Texas.

For more information, consult "900 Famous Nebraskans" on the Internet at www.nsea.org or www.gagecountymuseum.org or www.nebpress.com.

George W. Beadle: Nobel Prize-winning biologist initiated revolutionary changes in the study of heredity

Becoming a nationally significant researcher is uncommon, and receiving a Nobel Prize quite rare. But to achieve both *and* be credited with changing the direction of an entire field of knowledge for the long-range benefit of humankind is something few in history can claim.

Such were the accomplishments of Wahoo, Nebraska native George W. Beadle, whose career in the branch of biology known as genetics (the scientific study of heredity) and in college administration spanned the middle decades of the 20th century.

Prior to 1941, the year he and his Stanford University colleague Edward Tatum published the first results of their experiment on red bread mold which gave birth to the science of biochemical genetics, knowledge about transmission of hereditary traits from parents to offspring was primarily descriptive.

About 3000 BC, the Greek philosopher Aristotle thought that traits were inherited through the blood, an erroneous idea that endured about 1,000 years. Then in the late 1600s, it was believed that eggs and sperm contained a very small but completely-formed embryo that grew in size in the mother. By the 1800s, it was theorized that traits are passed along from parent to offspring.

The origins of the scientific study of heredity appeared in the 1866 published report by Gregor Mendel, an Augustinian monk at what is now Brno, Czech Republic. He had conducted experiments on garden peas.

Mendel's two principles, according to *World Book Encyclopedia*, included his finding that hereditary traits are specified by what he called factors. These, he inferred, occur in pairs in each of the cells in offspring and that the factors in each pair separate during the formation of the gametes, or sex cells. His other finding was that each pair of factors is inherited independently of the other pairs.

An important discovery of other scientists by 1900 was the structure and function of a human cell. Each cell contains a nucleus that contains structures called chromosomes, which were considered to be carriers of heredity.

During the early decades of the 20th century, scientists developed useful terminology. In 1909, Danish biologist Wilhelm Johannsen used the term "gene" (which replaced Mendel's term "factors") to describe the element of heredity, and discovered that changes in inheritance were due to mutations.

A theory of "gene action," or the physical basis of heredity, also emerged as a result of work by American scientists. It was suggested that genes were a part of chromosomes, that genes had locations on chromosomes, and that mutation of genes could be introduced by physical agents such as X rays.

But what is a gene and how does it work?

At the time, scientists knew that the basic unit of life is the cell (it carries out life's functions such as growth and reproduction), and in order to perform its work, the cell generates energy from metabolizing foodstuffs and makes proteins (substances made of amino acids) and enzymes (proteins that speed up chemical reactions).

They also know the cell's nucleus (its control center) contains chromosomes, the small thread-like structures on which genes are located. Yet, while they could say there is a gene for brown hair, the gene itself did not possess brown hair and it didn't make brown hair.

So Beadle and Tatum decided to test the idea that a gene could only give instructions (information) for the production of a particular chain of amino acids (proteins) that would then become the specific enzyme (protein) that would enable the production of a certain physical trait.

In their Stanford University Laboratory, they studied the nutritional requirements of a red bread mold in a series of experiments to support or refute their one gene--one enzyme theory.

They irradiated 5,000 spores of red bread mold to see if mutations (changes) produced mutations and altered the organisms' nutritional requirements. The 299th spore required a vitamin for growth that the normal mold cell could make.

Beadle and Tatum's break-through discovery showed that the purpose of the gene is to control a specific chemical reaction. That is, the way the gene operated was by producing or failing to produce an enzyme that made the reaction succeed or fail.

By showing that genes have a physiological role, Beadle and his colleagues caused geneticists to consider genes as units of function. And their strategy of identifying mutants that are affected in one of the steps of a particular biological process offered a new experimental approach.

Thus, while at Stanford University in the early 1940s, Beadle had helped to initiate the science of biochemical genetics. Then from 1946 to 1961, when he was chairman of the biology division at California Institute of Technology at Pasadena, he built what became one of the world's leading centers of molecular, cellular, and developmental biology.

Scientists in England had discovered in 1953 that the chromosomes within the nucleus of each cell in a person's body contains twisted, double strands of material called deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), a molecule that contains the genetic code,

The work of scientists at Cal Tech and elsewhere eventually led to the discovery that genes are segments of these DNA strands, and Beadle's original one gene--one enzyme theory became modified to the view that a single gene specifies one or more macromolecules.

Geneticists now agree that the function of a gene is to transfer the code of instructions (information) contained in the DNA, and thus direct the cell to produce another chemical, usually a protein, that has a specific task to do, such as determining the coloring of hair.

During Beadle's 15 years as chairman of Cal Tech's biology division, he implemented his vision of merging biochemistry and genetics, and attracted many brilliant minds as professors, researchers, and students.

At one time or another, there were at least 16 who were--or would become--elected to the prestigious National Academy of Sciences for their significant research. Five of them eventually earned Nobel Prizes, including Beadle himself in 1958, Renato Dulbecco in 1975, Edward Lewis in 1995, Roger Sperry in 1981, and James Watson in 1962. (Linus Pauling, Nobel winner in 1954 and 1962, was at Cal Tech before Beadle arrived.)

According to the distinguished biochemists Paul Berg and Maxine Singer, authors of the first book-length biography on Beadle, "the extraordinary advances that emerged from the marriage of biochemistry and biology in the second half of the 20th century affirm Beadle's view. Perhaps the most dramatic evidence is how advances in the chemistry and ease of manipulation of DNA made sequencing of the human and other genomes possible, thereby providing enormously productive new approaches to genetics."

While at Cal Tech, Beadle obtained funds for research and construction needs in his division, received frequent requests for participation in the development of science policy, and was committed to the integrity of science and interests of the universities.

As a consultant to the Atomic Energy Commission, he understood the importance of keeping United States' atomic secrets but had concerns about government procedures on security issues. He was a member of the National Research Council panel that studied genetic effects of atomic radiation, and served as president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

From 1961 to 1968, he served as the 7th president of the University of Chicago, where he worked to restore the campus to its previous reputation of intellectual and scholarly eminence, created $70 billion worth of new buildings, attracted some 250 new faculty members, and raised almost $160 million in a major fundraising campaign the final three years of his tenure.

During his retirement years, he investigated the origins of corn, and continued publishing. From 1927 to 1981, he authored or co-authored more than 90 research articles, books, and reviews.

As for honors, Beadle was elected to the National Academy of Sciences in 1944, and received 11 awards, including the Albert Lasker Award in 1950 and the Nobel Prize in 1958 in physiology or medicine, the latter shared with Edward Tatum and Joshua Lederberg.

Granted honorary doctorate degrees from 37 different institutions of higher learning, including the University of Nebraska in 1949, he was also the subject of a July 14, 1958 *Time* cover story.

His place in history has also been assured with biographical entries in *Notable Twentieth-Century Scientists,* Vol 1 (Gale, 1995) and *American National Biography,* Vol 2 (Oxford University Press, 1999).

An interesting, thorough biography that includes his Nebraska years is the book by Paul Berg and Maxine Singer, *George Beadle, An Uncommon Farmer: The Emergence of Genetics in the 20th Century* (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, 2003). Berg was recipient of the 1980 Nobel Prize in chemistry and Singer the 1992 National Medal of Science.

Born near Wahoo, Saunders County, Nebraska in 1903, one of three children of Chauncey and Hattie Albro Beadle, George lived on a farm, and attended a rural school. When he was four years of age, his mother died, and when he was eight years of age, his brother died. While attending Wahoo High School, where he graduated in 1922, he was encouraged by his science teacher Bess McDonald to attend college.

Beadle earned his bachelor and master degrees in agronomy from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1926 and 1927, respectively, and received his doctorate in plant genetics from Cornell University at Ithaca, New York in 1931.

From there he conducted research on fruit fly and corn genetics projects at California Institute of Technology, then spent one year in Paris, France with a research colleague, followed by one year as biology professor at Harvard University before relocating in 1937 to Stanford University.

Married twice, Beadle raised one son and a stepson, and remained connected to his Nebraska heritage through his hobby of growing corn in his private gardens, and occasional visits. As late as 1997, Wahoo had displayed at its town entrance a large billboard that featured the names of its most distinguished people: Beadle, C. W. Anderson, Sam Crawford, Howard Hanson, and Darryl Zanuck.

According to the October 6, 1977 *Wahoo Newspaper*, he and other donors established in honor of his former high school teacher the Bess McDonald Memorial Scholarship in Science Fund with the University of Nebraska Foundation, which has annually awarded a scholarship since the 1980-81 school year to a Wahoo High School graduate attending UNL.

Information about Bess McDonald's career and association with Beadle was published in the September 14 and October 31, 1958 *Lincoln Star.* In 1989, George W. Beadle died at the age of 85 at Pomona, California. The urn of his cremated remains was placed in the Rockefeller Chapel at the University of Chicago.

The Beadle Center at 19th & Vine on the UNL City Campus, which offers learning experiences in biochemistry, molecular biology, and other subjects related to the life sciences, was dedicated in his memory in 1995.

Don R. Benning: Pioneer African American university coach and innovative educator

Individuality and high achievement are among American ideals that educators strive to develop. And pursuing those goals for nearly 50 years while maintaining integrity and decency is not easy in any endeavor. But accomplishing them while performing national and state "firsts" despite ethnic prejudice, discrimination, and societal changes in the latter half of the 20th century is very rare indeed.

Such was the example set by Don R. Benning, an African American from Omaha who in 1963 became the first black head coach in wrestling at a predominantly white university, the first black head coach at a white university with significant longevity (1963-1971) in any major sport, and the first black head coach at a white university to earn a national championship (1970) in any major sport.

Afterwards, while an assistant superintendent of a large urban public school system, he developed several innovative programs, one of them the nationally recognized Adopt-A-School Business Partnership. And then as professor of education, he served as coordinator of urban education and senior lecturer in educational administration at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

His character was formed during his early years with his family near Fourteenth and Fort Streets in Omaha, a low-income white neighborhood at the time. Both parents had attended elementary school, with his mother subsequently devoted to raising five children and his father employed as a Union Pacific pullman porter until retirement. The family attended St. John A.M.E. Church, and emphasized work ethic and pride. While Benning was subjected to racial prejudice, his father urged him not to tolerate slurs and instead stand up for his rights, which years later he reported had resulted in an average of one fight a day during childhood.

Meanwhile, he had success in the classroom at Sherman Elementary, despite encountering a stereotypical bias of one teacher who advised him to accept his lot in life, he revealed in a Summer 1995 *UNO Alum* profile. He also participated on three city championship teams in as many sports—football, soccer and baseball, according to a lengthy feature in the February 23, 1969 Omaha *Sunday World Herald Magazine of the Midlands*, and worked at Kellom Community Center.

While at Omaha North High School, where he graduated in 1954, he participated in wrestling, and was state runner-up in his junior and senior years, and also lettered in football and baseball. In short, he was a talented athlete known on the state level.

The decade of the 1950s found black athletes more welcome than previously on college sports teams in Nebraska and elsewhere. During the first semester of his freshman year at Dana College in Blair, he was elected as class officer, and was on the football team that included Marion Hudson, one of Nebraska's legendary African American athletes.

In February 1955, Benning transferred to Omaha University, played football until injuries intervened, and excelled his senior year in wrestling, the first year that OU offered the sport. Upon receiving his bachelor's degree in history and physical education in 1958, he was on active duty with the Marine Corps Reserve for six months, and another 5 1/2 years in active reserves.

When Benning discovered the Omaha Public Schools was not at the time hiring blacks on the secondary level, he obtained a teaching contract with the Chicago Public Schools, stated an article in the October 29, 1987 *Omaha Star*. Before departing, he visited with friends at Omaha University, and encountered its President Milo Bail, who encouraged him to accept a graduate fellowship.

While serving as assistant football and wrestling coach, he earned his master's degree in education with a minor in counseling in 1961. Bail had also promised him a full-time position at the University as soon as one became available, so while waiting, Benning was acting executive director of the North Branch YMCA for two years.

In the fall of 1963, he became a full-time faculty member (the first black) at Omaha University (which became the University of Nebraska-Omaha in 1968), serving as head wrestling coach, a scout and assistant coach on the football team, instructor of physical education, instructor in the department of education teaching an introduction to education, and counselor for athletics, the latter an innovation on the university level. Soon, Benning endured an unexpected adversity with the loss of both his parents to illnesses.

That first year, his wrestling team had a record of 5 wins and 6 losses, the only losing season of his eight-year coaching career. He was, however, recognized in a three-page feature titled "Coach Cracks Color Barrier" in the March 1964 *Ebony*. (The magazine later presented him with its Pioneer in Education Award in 1969.)

Unknown to scholars and journalists elsewhere, the first black head coach in football at a predominantly white college was Matthew Washington Bullock of the University of Massachusetts at Amherst, where he was head coach in 1904, 1907, and 1908 before serving as head coach at what is now Morehouse College in Atlanta, Georgia, a black college. Bullock's achievement was reported in Jack W. Berryman, "Early Black Leadership in Collegiate Football: Massachusetts as a Pioneer," *Education in Massachusetts: Selected Essays*, eds Michael F. Konig and Martin Kaufman (Westfield State College, Institute for Massachusetts Studies, 1989).

But Arthur Ashe Jr., author of *A Hard Road To Glory: A History of the African American Athlete Since 1946,* Vol 3 (Amistad Press, 1988, 1993), reported in the section titled "Black Wrestlers at White Colleges" that "Don Benning was the first black head coach at a predominantly white college, Omaha University, in 1964."

Thus Benning had earned a place in our nation's sports history by becoming the first black head wrestling coach at a predominantly white university, and it can be claimed that he was the first black head coach at a white university to achieve significant longevity in any major sport.

In the early 1960s, aside from the task of developing the UNO wrestling program and assisting in football, Benning had to deal with society's long-term racial stereotypes and the barriers that minorities face. There was also a social revolution as well as passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act by the U.S. Congress that added even more challenges.

In the Summer 1995 *UNO Alum* article, he recalled it was a time when "authority was being threatened, where race riots were a reality, where we, as blacks, were rebelling against laws on the books that were discriminatory in nature. It was a time when the business community in North Omaha had almost been burned to the ground, black power was prevalent and the hippie movement was at its zenith."

Through it all, Benning had to not only win in wrestling but also demonstrate that he was part of the black community and that he recognized his responsibilities of having an obligation to be supportive. There were also other issues that affected coaching, such as the involvement of the United States in Vietnam, separatist movements, and marches on City Hall to demand fair employment practices. Moreover, as he noted, "all these young people were caught up in the process of deciding whether they wanted to participate in the system...and coaches—especially a black coach—had to make decisions as they related to their obligation to the movement for freedom and equity for all."

Decades later, in a December 30, 2004 *Omaha Weekly Reader* profile, he revealed his basic principle for coping with all obstacles and challenges: 'But the absolute key is recognizing that and saying 'I'm not going to allow that to deter me from reaching my goals.' That was already a motivating factor for me from the day I got the job. I knew good enough wasn't good enough—that I had to be better."

And he maintained his fundamental values. Upon his induction into the UNO Athletic Hall of Fame in 1982, he was quoted in the November 12, 1982 *Omaha World Herald* as saying, "I've never had a singular interest in just athletics. I've always been interested in athletes first as individuals. Maybe that's why I was successful in recruiting, even without scholarships," except his last two years.

Despite limited resources and minimal facilities for wrestling, he developed a winning team his second year at Omaha University (renamed UNO in 1968), which belonged to the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics. (Since 1973, UNO has belonged to NCAA Division II.)

For recruiting, he attended high school tournaments, looking "for the kid who really hates to lose. You measure him by speed, strength and agility... in college, you have to be superior on your feet, a superior pinner, and you have to be superior in getting escapes."

As part of a championship formula, he urged them to be in better shape mentally and physically than the other teams. He stressed running, rope climbing, and exercise, which included a short period of calisthenics that involved 150 jumping jacks, 60 pushups, 65 situps, and other drills.

Of course, his wrestlers represented diverse religions and ethnicity, and he urged them to get an education and graduate. But while competing elsewhere, various forms of prejudice were directed at Benning and his black athletes. Often his competitors, including Division I universities such as Arizona, Iowa, and Minnesota, initially assumed he was a student or manager, not a coach. And black wrestler Mel Washington was hung in effigy at a North Carolina school.

But team members developed a collective spirit to make diversity succeed despite hostile incidents. Of coach Benning, wrestler Bernie Hospodka, an NAIA champion at 190 pounds, noted, "He was always controlled, always dignified, always right, but he always got his point across," reported an article in the February 2003 *Omaha New Horizons*. And African American brothers Me1 and Roy Washington, five-time individual champions, stated, "He was a disciplinarian who made champions not only on the mat but out there in the public eye, too. He was more than a coach, he was a role model, a brother, a father figure.''

During Benning's eight years at UNO, attendance at home wrestling matches rose from only 200 in the beginning to an average of 1,700 later, with some crowds exceeding 3,000, and often more than attendance at football games.

Fan support was linked to the exceptional performances of Benning's teams. From 1963 to 1971, his dual meet record for eight seasons was 87 wins, 24 losses, and 4 ties. His last five seasons were especially impressive, with a record of 65-6-4 and teams that were runners-up to the NAIA national champions in 1968 and 1969, and third in 1971. Additionally, several of his wrestlers were individual national champions.

In March 1970, his UNO team won the NAIA national wrestling championship, the first for a black head coach at a predominantly white university in any sport. That same year his team even defeated NCAA Division I powerhouse Iowa University at its own invitational, and was recognized by *Amateur Wrestling News* as one of the three top teams in the nation, regardless of division.

In the previous year of 1969, he was honored as NAIA wrestling coach of the year, and became the first African American coach to become a member of the U.S. Olympic Wrestling Committee. Throughout the latter years of his career, he received offers from several prestigious Division I universities both in wrestling and football, but for various reasons decided to stay at UNO at that point. In 1971, he received his doctorate in secondary education and curriculum (with certification in administration) from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, the first black to do so at UNL in the field of education.

Benning also decided at the young age of 34 to leave the demanding job of coaching and counseling athletes for two reasons: family and service. He thought he could impact more people through public school education in bringing about changes necessary in society, and chose to become a public school administrator in Omaha, his hometown.

His 26-year career with the Omaha Public Schools began in the fall of 1971 as assistant principal at Central High School, where he had the responsibility for discipline, some teacher evaluation, and supervision of all extra-curricular activities. After three years, he noted in a December 12, 1974 *Omaha Sun* article that "there has to be a total commitment to encouraging multiracial schools and improving teacher training," and asserted that prejudices and stereotypes can be changed through communication and respect. He also urged "an account of minorities in American history and the growth of the nation should be incorporated into the regular curriculum at the earliest grades."

That same year, he had been the first recipient of the Nebraska High School Athletic Director of the Year Award for exemplary administration in high school athletics. With his previous coaching experience, he understood much can be learned about life from athletic participation, but also believed "there is a danger involved—especially for the black athlete. That danger is in using the black super-athlete as a model and then to forsake development in his other skills."

In 1975, Benning became director of the Department of Human-Community Relations Services for his District that two decades later was comprised of 80 schools, 44,000 students, and 3,000 teachers. Along with

other staff members, he helped install a desegregation plan via court-ordered busing, and later in 1984 chaired a committee to evaluate whether OPS met court-ordered requirements along with re-organization of schools.

Additionally, as he reported in a November 11, 1978 *Omaha World Herald* interview, an information center had been set up for parents and others to control rumors, workshops established for students to learn alternatives to physical confrontations and for teachers on human awareness and minority culture, student advisory committees organized to help reduce racial tension, and a Good News Committee of student leaders created to disseminate positive reports about accomplishments of students who usually receive little recognition.

Aside from being director of human-community relations, he assumed added responsibilities in 1979 as an assistant superintendent in which he oversaw crisis intervention and staff development, and initiated several innovative programs. By working to bring about change from within, he believed attitudes could be changed "by showing how excellence could be achieved through diversity."

One of the first was designed to help students blend athletics and education for a successful life. It involved the invitation of some 40 male and female athletes from Omaha and Lincoln campuses of the University of Nebraska to visit fifth and sixth-grade classes to provide testimony on the importance of school in their everyday lives.

Another series of efforts to encourage more racial equality involved a Pacesetter Academy, an after-school program for at-risk students, and a Minority Intern Program to increase more minority teachers in partnership with UNO. In the mid-1980s, he directed a school and community task force that recommended a three-year plan on student desegregation, school consolidation, and magnet schools.

A community involvement to advance racial equality was his co-leadership in a political education workshop "to acquaint blacks with the theory and actuality of politics on local, state and national levels," reported the December 21, 1980 *Sunday World Herald.* Serving as resource persons were various public and private sector leaders. Other important efforts included a tutoring program in the projects with the Omaha Housing Authority and the encouragement of family life with the Omaha Council PTA/PTSA.

His innovative Adopt-A-School Program begun in 1983 was among the first in the nation. It enabled both the schools and participating businesses to benefit, with the District serving as an intermediary. Typically, a business helped an elementary or secondary school in Omaha with management advice, provided grants, and offered resources in vocational and computer education. In return, they had helped students gain more education for use off campus and by serving the community. For its success, Benning and his colleagues received in 1985 the Exemplary Programming Award from U.S. President Ronald Reagan's Council on Private Sector Initiatives.

He also headed the OPS District's Youth Violence Task Force, comprised of more than 35 persons representing a broad segment of the community—parents, students, educators, and the Omaha Police Department. According to an article in the August 11, 1988 *Omaha Star,* its purpose was "to examine the extent to which youth violence is a problem in the schools, and to recommend what should be done." One of its missions was to study the issue by grade levels and to survey areas of the community to determine local perception of the problem.

National recognition for the efforts of the schools and community in education came from the Administration of U.S. President George H.W. Bush in the early 1990s. Omaha was one of only two cities nationwide selected, reported the August 29, 1991 *Omaha World Herald*, primarily "because of its strong public and private education systems and cooperation here among education, business and government officials to enhance education."

In 1997, after the OPS Board of Education decided upon a new superintendent, and plans for a re-organization were announced, Benning decided to retire after learning he was not a finalist for the superintendency and that the District's assistant superintendents would have to re-apply for the job.

"I could have continued as assistant superintendent, but I chose not to because who I am and what I am is not negotiable," he reported in the December 30, 2004 *Omaha Weekly Reader* article. He believed that with over 90 percent of the poor as well as minorities in Omaha located east of 72nd Street, their education was hindered; therefore, busing was still necessary. "I compromised on a lot of things, but not on those issues...The thing I've tried not to do and I don't think I have, is negotiate away my integrity, my beliefs, my values."

He also stated, "This still isn't a color-blind society. I don't say that bitterly—that's just a fact of life. But until we resolve the race issue, it will not allow us to be the best we can be as individuals and as a country." The same year he left the Omaha Public Schools, he became a member of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln faculty as an associate professor of educational administration, where he has served for more than a decade as a coordinator of urban education and senior lecturer at the College of Education and Human Sciences.

In addition to the national honors already mentioned, Benning was also recipient of several others, including induction into the Omaha North High School Hall of Fame in 1986, the Professional Development Award from the National Academy for School Executives of the American Association of School Administrators in 1988, the Familyness Award from the National Coalition for Parent Involvement in Education in 1989, the Prevention in Education Award from PRIDE Inc. in 1993, the UNO Distinguished Alumni Award in 1994, the African American Award from the Omaha Durham Western Heritage Museum in 1999, induction into the Nebraska High School Sports Hall of Fame in 2000, the Black Pioneer Award from the City of Omaha in 2001, and the UNL Alumni Education Achievement Award in 2007.

Much biography is offered about Benning in the newspaper articles and other publications previously cited. A chapter about him is scheduled for inclusion in John C. Walter, *Better Than The Best: Black Athletes Speak, 1920-2000* (University of Washington Press, 2010).

Born in 1936 in Omaha, one of five children of Erdie and Mary Williams Benning, he attended local schools, as stated previously, and graduated from Omaha North High School in 1954. Don was married in 1961 to Marcidene Williams (no relation to his mother), and they have raised five children.

For more information, consult "900 Famous Nebraskans" on the Internet at WWW.NSEA.ORG or WWW.GAGECOUNTYMUSEUM.ORG or WWW.NEBPRESS.COM.

Rose Gorelick Blumkin: Immigrant who founded America's largest volume furniture store ranked among greatest entrepreneurs

For over two centuries, countless immigrants have not only benefited from the freedoms and rights guaranteed by the U.S. Constitution but also succeeded despite various disadvantages, hardships, and prejudices encountered both before and after arriving in America. In the process, many contributed notable achievements while striving for their definition of the American Dream, and some reached the pinnacle of their chosen field.

For any woman—whether a natural-born citizen or an immigrant—to earn such a high degree of success in the field of business, usually regarded as a man's endeavor during much of the 20th century, was extremely

rare. But Rose Gorelick Blumkin of Omaha, Nebraska accomplished the feat, becoming a self-made multi-millionaire as well as earning recognition as one of the greatest entrepreneurs of her time.

In 1937, at the age of 43, she founded a merchandising store in the basement of a small shop in downtown Omaha that was gradually expanded by the 1980s to a large store on a 77-acre campus along 72nd Street in the west side of the city. Named the Nebraska Furniture Mart, it had an annual sales of $120 million in the early 1980s, and was regarded as having the largest volume of sales from one location in the nation.

In 1983, at the age of 89, Blumkin sold 80 percent of the business so that the profits could be divided among her children and the store could continue into the future. Multi-billionaire investor Warren Buffett of Omaha, owner of Berkshire Hathaway, which has a variety of business investments, made the $55 million purchase on the basis of a handshake and a two-page written agreement. He agreed to be an absentee owner so that Rose's children could continue managing the store.

A year later, she was granted an honorary doctorate in commercial science from New York University, "the first woman to receive the prize the school reserves for world-class captains of industry," reported a May 23, 1984 *Wall Street Journal* feature, which also stated that she created her furniture empire by working long hours and by following her motto: "Sell cheap, tell the truth, don't cheat nobody and don't take kickbacks. That's the world's worst."

And Warren Buffett was quoted as saying, "Put her up against the top graduates of the top business schools or chief executives of the Fortune 500 and, assuming an even start with the same resources, she'd run rings around them."

In a May 24, 1984 *Washington Post* article, the Nebraska Furniture Mart was called the country's largest single furniture store, which Blumkin herself reported as "three blocks long, 300,000 square feet display, 500,000 square feet warehouse, 25 acres parking." And her advice to college graduates was "First, honesty. Second, hard work. Next, if you don't get the job you want right away, tell them you'll take anything. If you're good, they'll keep you...you struggle, you work hard, you hope, sometimes your wishes come true, sometimes not..."

Her journey to America revealed the nature of her character and values as well as the background of her business wisdom, as described in various accounts, especially a lengthy, detailed obituary published in the August 14, 1998 *Omaha Jewish Press*. The 4 feet 10 inch lady had lived to age l04.

Rose was born in 1893 at a village near Minsk, Russia, a city not far from the country of Poland, one of eight children of Solomon and Chasia Gorelick. Her father was a rabbi, and her mother who had managed a grocery store in the daytime to support the family also worked at home during the night. At age six, Rose observed violent anti-Semitism, and eventually learned from various sources that life was better in America. At age 13, she found a job at a Minsk general store, became a success at sales, and supervised a staff of six married men. She also sent aid to her family.

In 1913, she married Isadore Blumkin, a shoe salesman who left for the United States three years later to avoid military conscription. Upon earning money by peddling, she left in 1917 to join him at Fort Dodge, Iowa, but since she had no passport, she had to tell a guard a fib to get past the Russian- Chinese border. Passage occurred via a peanut boat that took six weeks to arrive at Seattle.

While at Fort Dodge for two years, her husband had a dry cleaning business, then sold junk, Rose learned from friends how to cook, and the first of their four children was born. But she did not find the English

language easy to learn, so they moved to Omaha in 1919 to be around more people who could speak Yiddish and Russian. After the other children were born, and attended school, she began to learn English from them.

In Omaha, her husband started a used clothing store, and Rose managed to save enough money, which paid for the relocation of her family from Russia in 1922. During the economic depression of the 1930s, she helped her husband's business survive, printing 10,000 advertising sheets "offering to dress any man from head to toe for five dollars."

In 1937, after wanting to start a larger business, she borrowed $500 from her brother, ordered $12,000 worth of furniture from Chicago, and had it shipped to a 30 x 100 feet room at 1312 Farnam Street. To pay her suppliers, she advertised in the newspaper and sold most everything in her own home to satisfy her debts. Thus the Nebraska Furniture Mart was established.

While the business grew slowly, and in 1945 she moved to a larger building at 2205 Farnam Street, she encountered problems with brand-name manufacturers who refused to do business with her, objecting to her style of marketing. As reported in a lengthy September 28, 1977 *Omaha World Herald* feature, she traveled by train to Kansas City or Chicago, bought merchandise at 5 percent above wholesale and had it shipped to Omaha, where she sold for 10 percent above what she paid but still kept the price below what other stores charged. At the time, she believed "the retailers sold to her because they had sympathy for a tiny lady fighting against the odds."

Rose was aware of her business obstacles. In a lengthy July 9, 1967 *Omaha World Herald* interview, she stated, "I wasn't always well liked by some people. One time a competitor told me, 'You're nothing but a bootlegger.' And I said, 'You betcha. I'm the best bootlegger in town.'" Additionally, she was taken to court on several occasions because of Nebraska fair-trade laws that allowed manufacturers to force retailers to sell at certain prices. "Once, in a civil case, Mrs. B. was accused of selling carpeting at too low a price. She told the judge, 'Why should I charge a higher price? I'm making a fortune as it is.' The case was dismissed. Next day the judge came around and bought 14 hundred dollars worth of carpeting for his own home." A few years later, the fair-trade laws were declared unconstitutional.

In 1951, her husband Isadore died. He had operated his own clothing store, then a jewelry store apart from Rose's store. She did have the help of her son Louis and other relatives, however. The previous year when the Korean War began, the retail business suffered, causing Rose to accept a banker's 90-day personal loan for $50,000. Then she held a three-day sale at the City Auditorium that grossed $250,000, enabling her to repay the banker and other creditors. As a result, reported the May 23, 1984 *Wall Street Journal* article, "Nebraska Furniture Mart hasn't borrowed a cent since; the experience scared her into paying cash for everything."

Later that decade, Rose achieved her dream of becoming a U.S. citizen in 1958, and her devotion to her adopted country was publicly revealed during the 1962 Cuban Missile Crisis that brought the Soviet Union and the United States to the brink of war. In response to a lengthy interview about what she would tell Soviet dictator Khrushchev, published in the October 28, 1962 *Sunday World Herald*, she stated, in part, "In Russia, there was no friendship in growing up with each other. Now, about 50 bigshots in the Kremlin think all the time how many heads they can chop off."

She also commented, in part, "America is very friendly but everybody loves their country. And Americans will do everything they can to save their wonderful country. The only trouble with Americans is that they are too goodhearted. They treat the enemy too friendly....I would like to tell Khrushchev that I don't think

the Russians realize that some day they are going to lose their country." Thirty years later, Soviet Communism had indeed collapsed, and Rose's native land was re-organized under a more flexible system of government.

In 1970, another store was opened at 700 South 72nd Street on the west side of the city, while the downtown store was closed by the end of the decade. Some industry observers believed the Nebraska Furniture Mart owed some of its success due to the fact it bordered three states, though Rose had once stated, "We could be successful anywhere. It takes honesty, selection, and know-how to be successful, and we know what our customers want."

Though members of the family were all involved in its operation, Rose was chair of the board, and concentrated on sales in the carpet department. Both she and Louis valued frequent personal contact with customers, reported the September 28, 1977 *World Herald* feature. But Robert Philpott, president of the Burlington House Furniture at Lexington, North Carolina, was also quoted as saying, "The Blumkins have a knack for knowing what the public wants. It's something some people are born with—doing the right thing at the right time."

Shrewd judgment and perseverance certainly were family traits. Just before the 1973-75 recession, Rose thought it was time to reduce store inventory to only one-third of what normally was on hand. As a result, the business was able to purchase large amounts of merchandise at depressed prices. And after a devastating Category 5 tornado in May 1975 brought millions of dollars damage to the store on 72nd Street, which had to close for a year of repairs and expansion, it increased its business to match that of the downtown store within another year.

By the early 1980s, the store had 500 employees, and over the years, some were immigrants from several countries. Salesmen were on salaries instead of commissions so that customers would not feel pressured to buy. Both Rose and Louis worked 65 to 70 hours per week, arriving two hours before the store was open, including Sundays, and they retained much information in their mind, which included quantities of merchandise on hand, prices offered by many companies, and promises to customers.

Rose worked long hours her entire time in the furniture business, and when her legs became bothersome in her late 80s, she rode a motorized three-wheeled cart so she could continue selling of carpets, and kept working until age 102. According to the August 14, 1998 *Jewish Press* obituary, she believed that "people shouldn't retire as long as they're able to work. They have too much time to think about their aches and pains. They die fast that way."

She may also have become the oldest person ever to begin a business at the age of 95 after she quit working at the Nebraska Furniture Mart in May 1989 because of a dispute with some members of her family about the remodeling and running of the carpet department, reported Andrew Kilpatrick, author of the book titled *Of Permanent Values The Story of Warren Buffett* (AKPE, 1994), which contains a chapter on the Nebraska Furniture Mart.

In the fall of 1989, she had started her own 300,000 square-feet furniture store called Mrs. B's Warehouse at 7312 Jones Street, located directly north of the Nebraska Furniture Mart and a block west of 72nd Street. According to an October 1, 1989 *Sunday World Herald* article, she had an inventory worth $2 million, reported doing some 6 to 8 thousand dollars worth of business each day, which translated into about $2.5 million annually, had a dozen employees, and was assisted by daughter Cynthia Schneider.

While Harlan Sanders had begun his second career as founder of Kentucky Fried Chicken restaurants at age 64 and kept working until a year before he died at age 90, a representative of the American Association of

Retired Persons said AARP hadn't heard of anyone starting a business at age 95, reported the October 16, 1989 *World Herald*. At the time, several notables over the age of 90 had continued to pursue their careers, including comedian George Burns, age 91, Martha Graham, choreographer of modern dance, age 96, and Armand Hammer, chairman of Occidental Petroleum Corporation, age 91. The famous Grandma Moses was reported to have painted 25 pictures during the year she turned age 100.

In late 1992, Rose sold her Mrs. B's Warehouse to the Nebraska Furniture Mart, owned by Berkshire Hathaway, reported author Kilpatrick, but continued to operate the carpet business in the factory outlet store until beyond age 100, working seven days a week. And the April 23, 1993 *World Herald* reported that Rose and the family had undergone a reconciliation.

As for her decades of dedication, she was quoted as saying, "I went into the furniture business because it's a happiness business. When people buy furniture, it's a happy time. They're just married, or they've got a new baby. Or they're older people who are redoing their home and they're all excited about it."

Her mission in life was comprised of common sense and certain ideals. "If you live a happy life with your family, that gives you a lot of good health. Even if you're poor, you come home and see smiling faces from your kids and that alone makes you feel good," and she further noted, "I also always wanted my kids to have what I didn't have, and I wanted to show poor people there is a future in life. I don't get a thrill out of money."

Rose also had a history of generosity and caring for various issues, partly out of gratitude for a successful life she often said "could happen only in America." According to a January 23, 1981 *Omaha Jewish Press* article, she and her family donated one million dollars to the Jewish Federation of Omaha to help build a new home for the elderly adjacent to the Jewish Community Center at 333 South 132nd Street. The home opened in 1982.

The article reported not only expressions of gratitude from leaders of the community but also some of Rose's thoughts on the project. Among many of her significant quotes at the time were her statements that "I want elderly people to be treated right. So I want to give my love to the elderly people, especially those who have no one to care for them" and "A new home for the elderly will be like adding life to their years."

In recognition of the Blumkin family's thoughtfulness and spirit, the community named it the Rose Blumkin Jewish Home. In December 1987, Rose contributed another $500,000 for an addition to the facility, which increased its capacity to 119 beds.

Another of her large gifts was the preservation of the former Astro Theater in Omaha, which Rose had purchased in 1981 from Creighton University for over $200,000. This stopped plans for demolition of a memorable place where she attended movies earlier in her life, and she thought its beauty when restored could be a showcase for the city. Later, she gave the theater to the Emmy Gifford Theater Company, along with a donation of one million dollars to boost a fundraising campaign sponsored by a group called the Omaha Theater Company for Young People. It was later named the Rose Blumkin Performing Arts Center. Located at 2001 Farnam Street, it opened in November 1995.

For her many kindnesses and contributions, there were other honors. In 1959, she received the Sertoma Club's "Service to Mankind Award" for her "humility, straight-forwardness and deep love for her country, community, and fellow citizens whom she unassumingly serves with generous gifts of time, means and leadership."

In 1978, the Downtown Rotary Club of Omaha declared her "Free Enterprising Person of the Year," and in 1984, Creighton University granted her an honorary doctorate. In 1993, the Omaha Business Hall of Fame inducted her as one of the charter members.

On the state level, she became the first recipient of the Nebraska Service Association's Award to outstanding minority and women-owned businesses in 1982, and was recipient of the Pioneer Award from Nebraskaland Foundation in 1986.

On the national level, she received recognition from an entry on her in the book by A. David Silver titled *Entrepreneurial Megabucks: The 100 Greatest Entrepreneurs of the Last 25 Years* (John Wiley and Sons, 1985). And in 1994, she was inducted into the American Furniture Hall of Fame located at High Point, North Carolina. (Her son Louis was also inducted six years later.)

Aside from the previous publications cited, helpful also is *International Directory of Company Histories,* Vol 94 (St. James Press, 2008), with its four-page entry titled "Nebraska Furniture Mart". Valuable biographical materials preserved about Blumkin's life include a manuscript from a 1979 interview in the William E. Werner Oral History Collection now housed in the Dorot Jewish Division of the New York Public Library at 5th Avenue and 42nd Street in New York City. There are also 37 boxes of memorabilia and other materials donated by her family in the archives of the Nebraska Jewish Historical Society in Omaha.

After the death of Rose at age 104 in August 1998, obituaries appeared in the August 11 *Omaha World Herald* and the August 13 *New York Times*. There was also brief mention in the "Milestones" section of the August 24 issue of *Tim*e. As previously stated, a detailed, comprehensive obituary was published in the August 14 *Omaha Jewish Press*. Her funeral in Omaha was attended by more than 1,000 persons, including surviving family members comprised of a son, three daughters, their spouses, over a dozen grandchildren and 20 great grandchildren. Interment was at Golden Hill Cemetery.

Her business legacy continues with the Omaha store, which has undergone recent remodeling and expansion. In 2000, Nebraska Furniture Mart also acquired Homemakers store in Des Moines, Iowa, and in 2003 opened a new retail store in Kansas City, Kansas.

For more information, consult "900 Famous Nebraskans" on the Internet at www.nsea.org or www.gagecountymuseum.org or www.nebpress.com.

Glenn W. Burton: Agronomist thought to have saved millions from starvation

One of the world's foremost agricultural scientists was Glenn W. Burton, whose efforts in plant genetics from 1936 to the 1990s with colleagues at the U.S. Department of Agriculture and the University of Georgia at Tifton helped "feed the hungry, protect and beautify the environment, and provide recreation for millions."

His initial responsibility was improving the breeds of grasses used by farmers in the South. It was in 1943, after seven years of experimenting with more than 5,000 varieties, that he developed Coastal bermuda grass which enabled farmers to increase cattle production through grazing year-round and at the same time reduce soil erosion far better than common bermuda grasses.

Eventually, Burton developed more than 20 varieties of forage grasses, and today more than 10 million acres of pasture land from the Carolinas to central Texas have been planted with his grasses, notably the Coastal bermuda variety. A more recent improvement is Tifton 85, which covers more than one million acres in Brazil, where farmers raise many more cattle than in the U.S.

In 1946, he pioneered "golf grass" research after receiving encouragement and a grant from the United States Golf Association. From 1952, he perfected several bermuda turf grasses used on athletic fields, lawns, and golf courses. And his Tifton 419 released in 1960 is the most widely used bermuda grass in the world at the present time for such purposes.

Perhaps Burton's development of pearl millet in 1956 was his most significant research accomplishment. It allowed for development of hybrids that afforded almost 90 percent increased yield over the open-pollinated varieties then in use.

After these hybrids were first used in India, some 3 1/2 million tons were produced per year, but by 1970, its annual millet output increased to 8 million tons. This huge rise in India's food production is thought to have saved millions of people from starvation.

Throughout Burton's career, he published over 750 papers and book chapters, and credited the time he devoted to researching and answering questions from local farmers and producers as most valuable in transferring his grass research into practical application on the farms everywhere.

Of the more than 75 honors accorded him by organizations and institutions, his election in 1975 to the National Academy of Sciences was probably the most prestigious. Notable, too, was the John Scott Award in 1957, granted by the city of Philadelphia for Burton's "invention of coastal bermuda grass." Since 1834, it has been awarded to many inventors, including Thomas Edison, Madame Curie, the Wright Brothers, and Jonas Salk. Also significant was the National Medal of Science awarded in 1982, and induction into the Agricultural Research Service Science Hall of Fame in 1987.

His immortality was assured by an entry on his career in *Notable Twentieth-Century Scientists,* Vol 1 (Gale, 1995).

Born in 1910 near Clatonia, Gage County, Nebraska, an only child of Joseph and Nellie Rittenburg Burton, he relocated with his parents in 1915 to a farm near Bartley, a town about 20 miles east of McCook in Red Willow County.

There he helped his father with horse-drawn implements, and he conducted chores before and after school so he could participate in sports at Bartley High School, where he graduated in 1927.

Glenn W. Burton earned his bachelor's degree in 1932 from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, where he originally majored in agricultural education, but became an agronomist after encouragement from Professor F. D. Keim. Then he earned his master's and doctorate from Rutgers University in New Jersey, before he and his wife relocated to Tifton, Georgia, where they raised five children.

Burton died at the age of 95 on November 22, 2005, at Tifton, Georgia, and was survived by five children, eight grandchildren and seven great-grandchildren. His wife Helen Jeffryes Burton preceded him in death in 1995. For a lengthy obituary, see November 24, 2005 *Tifton Gazette.*

Guy Chamberlin: Farmer, notable athlete, and coach of four pro football championships with three different teams

Very few outstanding athletes in any sport become highly successful head coaches or managers. One notable exception was Nebraska native Guy Chamberlin, who was not only the state's first famous major college football star during the early years of the 20th century but also professional football's most successful coach during the pioneering years of the National Football League.

His natural athletic capabilities were enhanced with chores while growing up in Gage County on the family farm northeast of Blue Springs, a town with a 1900 population of 786 and located near the larger communities of Wymore and Beatrice. Guy and his five siblings helped the parents maintain nearly 1,000 acres of farmland in Blue Springs and Rockford Townships, and attended Rural School District 67, known as Valley Center, situated a half mile from the Big Blue River.

An aunt was a District 67 teacher who maintained strict discipline, reported Guy's niece Dorothy Chamberlin Savener in a May 23, 1996 interview. And she stated that Guy's father, who died in 1956 at the age of 95, was "a small-built person, the patriarch of the family, a progressive farmer ahead of his time, ambitious, a great believer in education and hard work with no foolishness." A story the patriarch often told was that his own father shortened the name Chamberlain to Chamberlin to get the name printed on a grain sack.

To attend Blue Springs High School, which had an enrollment of more than 50 students, Guy walked or sometimes traveled the 4 miles to school with a horse and buggy. School notes from 1908-10 in the *Blue Springs Weekly Sentinel* reveal there was a football team, of which Guy was listed as captain, and in the spring, baseball was played, though some members did not have uniforms.

In 1911, Guy was one of 11 graduates from Blue Springs High School, and during his senior year the superintendent was Franklin D. Keim, who shortly after became an agronomy professor at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, where one of his students in the 1920s was George Beadle, later a Nobel Prize-winning geneticist in 1958. It is also of interest that the superintendent at Blue Springs during the 1912-13 school year was Charles L. Littel, later known nationally for establishing the first junior college in the state of Washington in 1925 and the first coed junior college in New Jersey in 1933.

When Guy enrolled at Nebraska Wesleyan in the fall of 1911, his father decided that he and his brothers, while spending their college years in Lincoln, would reside in that city with their mother Anna, then return to the farm during summer vacations. This unusual parental effort also continued with his sibling twins a few years later.

Nebraska Wesleyan was founded as a liberal arts college in 1887 by representatives of the United Methodist Church, and at present remains affiliated with the Methodists, though chapel is no longer required, and students of any faith are admitted. It began allowing football on campus in 1893, though not as an organized program, then outlawed the game in 1898 after complaints about the violence, reported the college history by David H. Mickey titled *Of Sunflowers, Coyotes, and Plainsmen*, Vol 1 (1992).

Nationwide, Eastern colleges had begun offering Rugby-style football in the 1870s, according to *The World Book Encyclopedia*, Vol 7 (2005). The game evolved by 1900, but it consisted mainly of running, blocking, and tackling, uniforms offered little protection, and helmets were not used. Concerns about its safety were raised, and after U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt in 1905 urged changes be made in the game, numerous rules were adopted a year later in officiating, crossing the scrimmage line, and penalties for roughness. Also required was a gain of 10 yards, not 5, in three downs, and the forward pass was introduced, though the latter was not widely used until after 1913.

By this time, Nebraska Wesleyan had improved its athletic facilities, had begun organized programs in basketball, baseball, and track, and competed against teams in the Nebraska Intercollegiate Athletic Association and elsewhere. In 1908, a football program was resumed.

Arriving along with Chamberlin in the fall of 1911 was new athletic coach William G. Kline, who proceeded to develop championship teams in virtually all sports. At this time, the touchdown was still 5 points, and nearly everyone played the entire game on both offense and defense.

As a freshman, Guy was about 6 feet 2 inches tall and weighed 180 pounds. Despite beginning the season with minor injuries, he excelled as an end and a halfback for the Wesleyan team that was undefeated in 7 games, outscored opponents 93 to 10, and won the NIAA championship. Guy was one of the players chosen for the state college All-Nebraska team by

the *Omaha World Herald*.

The following spring, he was a baseball pitcher and outfielder, batted .316 in nine games, and Wesleyan won all its games in a championship season. He also competed on the championship track team and was selected as its captain for the following year. The May 31, 1912 *Wesleyan* noted Guy's track prowess and that "he is especially strong in the short distances and weights."

For the 1912 football season, rules changes included four downs, not three, for a gain of 10 yards, the forward pass may be made from anywhere for any distance, and a touchdown goes from 5 points to 6 points. Wesleyan lost that fall to the University of South Dakota and Colorado College, but won the rest.

Again Guy was among the players selected to the state team in the December 1, 1912 *World Herald*, which further commented, "Chamberlin is almost in a class by himself. He is a fierce and aggressive runner and adopts the system of bowling over the opposing tacklers in much the same style as the famous Coy of Yale. Chamberlin rarely used a stiff arm, and yet many times it was next to impossible to stop him."

Aside from sports, he also distinguished himself by belonging to the Everett Literary Society, and in March 1912 participated in a freshmen act during "College Night" by giving greetings. Two months later, he was chosen to serve in the cabinet of the Young Men's Christian Association.

In the fall of 1913, Chamberlin transferred to the University of Nebraska-Lincoln as a result of persuasion from various Cornhusker emissaries, though the rules did not permit him to play on the varsity that season. Football had been played at UNL since 1890, its team began performing in 1909 at the newly constructed Nebraska Field, which accommodated 8,000 spectators, and it hired its first full-time head coach in 1911.

From 1911 to 1915, the era of coach Ewald O. Stiehm, the UNL football teams compiled a record of 35 wins, two losses, and three ties. Moreover, each of the five years, the Cornhuskers won championships in the Missouri Valley Conference, and gained national recognition during 1914 and 1915, the years Chamberlin was their star player.

The young coach Stiehm, a University of Wisconsin graduate, "tolerated no nonsense, his instructions were carried out with punctuality and precision. He wanted execution, he wanted his players to be harder and tougher than anyone they played, and they played the best, including Minnesota and Notre Dame," according to the James Denney, Hollis Limprecht, and Howard S. Silber history *Go Big Red* (Kratville, 1966, 1971). He also started spring training in 1913, the same year that some colleges nationally began placing numbers on players' uniforms.

In the fall of 1914, Guy weighed over 190 pounds, and endured some soreness in an ankle and knee various times. He played right halfback, could toss a lefthanded forward pass, and scored 9 touchdowns. On October 24, when the Cornhuskers defeated Michigan State by a score of 24-0, he had run a kick-off back 90 yards and scored a touchdown on a 2-yard run, and while playing defensive end, he had broken through and spoiled many plays. The next day, the *World Herald* quoted the Michigan coach as saying, in part, "Nebraska has the making of one of the greatest football teams in the entire country."

That season, the team was undefeated except for one scoreless tie, tackle and team captain Vic Halligan was named to Walter Camp's All-America third team, while Chamberlin, who was mentioned by some national critics, was one of seven Nebraskans placed on the All-Missouri Valley team.

In 1915, his senior season, Chamberlin played left end, scored 15 touchdowns, and the team had an unbeaten record of 8 wins, no losses, no ties. It was not until 1965, exactly 50 years later, that the UNL football team enjoyed another unbeaten regular season, that time with Robert S. Devaney as head coach. Guy played a major role in the famous 20-19 defeat on October 23, 1915 of national powerhouse Notre Dame, which at the time had as an assistant coach Knute Rockne, who later became its legendary head coach from 1918 to 1930.

The next day, in a *World Herald* article under the full-page headline "It Was Two Much Chamberlin, Said Coach Harper," he was credited with scoring two touchdowns and passing for another. And it was further stated, in part, "His defensive stunts bordered upon the miraculous, while his open field running, in which he displayed that famous 'side walk trot' to the best advantage, brought victory to the colors of the Cornhuskers." Referee of the Notre Dame game was Walter Eckersall, a *Chicago Tribune* sportswriter who selected Guy for his All-America team at season's end. Guy was also selected for an All-America team by Frank G. Menke, sports editor for Hearst's International News Service, and he was placed on the All-Missouri Valley team.

While a student at UNL, Chamberlin affiliated with the social fraternity Beta Theta Pi, and played baseball in the spring semester of his senior year in what was called the Inter-Departmental League, since varsity baseball had been discontinued after 1913, according to the 1916 *Cornhusker*, the college annual. He pitched for the Academics team that won the championship that spring. On June 7, 1916, he received his bachelor's degree with a major in political economy.

Guy then helped his father with farming for more than a year. There were, however, various press reports that he might enter the local banking business, that he was preparing to play professional baseball for teams at Wichita or

Indianapolis, and that he was engaged in July 1916 to coach at Doane College in Crete that fall.

During the 1917-18 school year, he was principal and coach of athletics at Lexington High School, reported the October 12 and December 14, 1917 *Lexington Clipper-Citizen*. The 1910 U.S. Census reported the Dawson County town of Lexington had a population of 2,059.

From May 1918 to October 1919, he was in the U.S. Army, records with the Veteran's Administration reveal, and while achieving the rank of 2nd Lieutenant in the Field Artillery, he was stationed at Camp Zachary Taylor, Kentucky, then Fort Sill, Oklahoma, and finally Camp Kearny near San Diego, California, reported *Who's Who in Nebraska* (Nebraska Press Association, 1940).

Guy was married at San Diego on January 3, 1919 to Lucile B. Lees, who had previously graduated from UNL in August 1918. Her father James T. Lees (1889-1926) was UNL professor of ancient languages, and after he died, his cremated remains were placed near the Schiller Linden tree north of Architectural Hall on the City Campus, reported the May 25, 1955 *Daily Nebraskan*, the UNL student newspaper.

Upon discharge from the Army in 1919, Guy began playing professional football for the Canton, Ohio Bulldogs at the invitation of player-coach Jim Thorpe, the Native American athlete who had won two gold medals at the 1912 Olympics but preferred playing professional football, even though it was not well organized. Thorpe had been an idol of Chamberlin, who played the position of end during Canton's unofficial championship in 1919.

The following year, the professional sport became organized as the American Professional Football Association, and was comprised of 14 teams. In 1922, it was given its current name National Football League, and membership had increased to at least 20 teams. Guy most certainly participated as a player or player/coach from 1920 to 1926, then he retired and worked in Cleveland as a salesman of farm implements in 1927, though there are some accounts and records that erroneously report he was involved with the Chicago Cardinals in 1927-28.

In 1920 and 1921, he played left end for the Staleys, which were located the first year in Decatur, Illinois, then moved the next year to Chicago, and eventually became renamed the Bears. Chamberlin was discovered during a Midwest recruiting trip by head coach George S. Halas, who was one of the major organizers of the first professional circuit and at his death in 1983 had a professional career as player, coach and owner for 64 years. At the time, pro football players were dependent upon jobs outside the sport for their main income, so Chamberlin worked part-time in the A. E. Staley starch factory.

According to a Pro Football Hall or Fame biography, the two years Guy was with the Staleys resulted in a disputed championship in 1920 and the first official title in 1921, the latter occurring as a result of a crucial final game with Buffalo. The legendary George Halas, in the first of a three-part autobiographical article published in the November 23, 1957 *Saturday Evening Post*, recalled that "Chamberlin was the best 2-way end I've ever seen. He was a tremendous tackler on defense and a triple-threat performer on offense. He was the star of the day against Buffalo, running 70 yards with an intercepted pass to score our only touchdown in a 10-to-7 victory."

In 1922, Chamberlin began his exceptional years in the dual role of head coach and player by returning to Canton, where the Bulldogs were National Football League champions with a record of 10 wins, no losses, and two ties. In 1923, they were again champions with a record of 11 wins, no losses, and one tie. The following year, Guy and most of his players followed the relocation of the Bulldogs to Cleveland, where they were 1924 champions with a record of 7 wins, one loss, and one tie.

In George Sullivan, *Pro Football's All-Time Greats* (G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1968), one of the Bulldog players was quoted as saying, "Before Guy came to Cleveland, we just met on Sunday afternoons, ate lunch, and then played the game. But he made us work; he had us start practicing every day." In an article in the April 12, 1965 *Canton* /OH/ *Repository*, Chamberlin credited his team members, calling William "Link" Lyman and Wilbur "Fats" Henry "the two greatest tackles ever to play the pros," and further noted, "Lots of fans said they were responsible for our success and they were about right." He went on to name the remainder of the starting lineup, including himself as one end.

It is of interest that Lyman had played football at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1918, 1919, and 1921, was inducted into the Pro Football Hall of Fame in 1964, and "is credited with being the first defensive lineman to shift his position frequently, sometimes moving inside to play between the offensive guard and tackle, at other times moving out between the tackle and end," according to Ralph Hickok, *Sports Champions* (Houghton Mifflin, 1995).

In 1925, with the Cleveland team disbanded due to lack of finances, Chamberlin was hired to coach the Yellowjackets of Frankford, a suburb of Philadelphia. That fall, his team compiled a praiseworthy record of 13 wins and 7 losses, but finished in sixth place in the 20-team NFL.

In 1926, the Frankford Yellowjackets were league champions with a record of 14 wins, one loss, and one tie. In a deciding game against the Chicago Bears, Guy also played end, and made a difference in the Yellowjackets victory. In *Pro Football's All-Time Greats*, the author reported Guy "broke through to block Paddy Driscoll's try for an extra point

following a Chicago touchdown, and late in the game he blocked Driscoll's attempt at a field goal. Frankford scored in the dying minutes of the contest, then added the extra point, to eke out a 7-6 win."

Thus in five years as NFL head coach from 1922 to 1926, Chamberlin won four championships, and had a total coaching record of 55 wins, 9 losses, and 5 ties—which ranks as the highest winning percentage of any NFL coach with more than 50 victories. (Because of allegations that Guy was with the Chicago Cardinals in 1927 and 1928, some accounts report different won/loss records.)

It was George Halas who also observed in the previously cited November 23, 1957 autobiographical article, "Over five years Chamberlin won four championships with 3 different teams, a coaching record without parallel in National Football League history." It can also be stated that in the history of major North American professional sports, the only other coach to have won league championships with three different teams is Scotty Bowman, whose nine Stanley Cups were with the NHL's Pittsburgh Penguins, Montreal Canadiens, and Detroit Red Wings. (A little known fact is that Bowman coached the Omaha Knights for a brief time in 1963.)

In 1927, Guy ended his pro football career at the age of 32, then worked as a salesman for organizations in Cleveland, where he and Lucile divorced in a few years. In 1929, he applied—or was considered—for the position of head football coach at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, reported his niece Dorothy Savener. But D. X. Bible was hired, leaving Guy disappointed for years.

By 1932, he returned to Blue Springs to manage his father's large farm, and in the summers was visited by his daughter Patricia. Though Guy attended Cornhusker football games in Lincoln, he concentrated on his progressive farming practices, including the use of a bulldozer and terracing his father had initiated.

In 1941, he and Bernyce Weekes of Beatrice were married, and resided on the farm until June 1948 when they relocated to Nebraska City, where Guy had bought a Ford-Ferguson Agency. Meanwhile, his daughter Patricia, a 1945 UNL graduate, was married at Brooklyn Heights, New York in 1947 to Beatrice native Robert K. Sherwood, who worked for the U.S. Foreign Service. The mother of two sons, Patricia Sherwood later died of cancer in 1978 at the age of 55.

Guy sold the Nebraska City business after becoming ill, and in 1954-55 moved to Lincoln, where he was a guard/educator at the State Reformatory until at least 1962, the year its athletic field was named after him.

Chamberlin's major honors included his 1962 election to the College Football Hall of Fame at South Bend, Indiana and his 1965 induction into the Professional Hall of Fame at Canton, Ohio. An annual Guy Chamberlin Trophy was initiated in 1967 by the UNL Athletic Department to honor a senior Cornhusker football player who exhibits the same qualities Guy had while at UNL in 1914-15.

There is a display of Guy's Pro Hall of Fame certificate at the Beta Theta Pi house at 1515 R Street in Lincoln. And a permanent exhibit on Chamberlin was established in 1997 at the Gage County Historical Society Museum in Beatrice.

Aside from the previously cited sources, other useful biographical accounts include J. R. Johnson, *Representative Nebraskans* (Johnsen Publishing, 1954) 41-44 and *Biographical Dictionary of American Sports: Football* (Greenwood Press, 1987) 102-103 and Denis J. Harrington, *The Pro Football Hall of Fame* (Greenwood Press, 1991) 80-81 and *Beatrice Daily Sun*, September 13, 1997, pp. A-1, A-2, B-1 and *American National Biography,* Vol 4 (Oxford University Press, 1999) 638.

Born Berlin Guy Chamberlin in 1894 near Blue Springs, Gage County, one of six children of Elmer E. and Anna Tobyne Chamberlin, he died in Lincoln on April 4, 1967 at the age of 73. Among the survivors were his first wife Lucile, his second wife Bernyce, daughter Patricia Sherwood, two grandsons, and several nieces, nephews, and cousins.

For decades, Guy was called "The Champ" by the state's football enthusiasts, and the next day his obituary with a large headline was published in the *Lincoln Star* sports section. His cremated remains were placed by daughter Patricia on a prominent hill in pastureland previously owned by the family in the southeast quarter of Section 10 in Blue Springs Township. Present at the burial ceremony were University of Nebraska representatives and several relatives.

For more information, consult "700 Famous Nebraskans" on the Internet at www.nsea.org or www.gagecountymuseum.org or www.nebpress.com.

Henry Roe Cloud: Pioneering Native American educator

Henry Roe Cloud, born on the Winnebago Reservation in Northeast Nebraska, was the first Native American to graduate from Yale University. He was a distinguished educator and ordained Presbyterian minister whose leadership brought about improved social and educational opportunities for American Indians.

Cloud was born into the powerful Bird Clan on December 28, 1884. This clan could start or prevent wars, which may explain Cloud's Indian name: Wo-Na-Xi-Lay-Hunka (Wonah'ilayhunka) or "War Chief." His father was Na-Xi-Lay-Hunk-Kay or Nah'ilayhunkay. His mother was "Hard-To-See."

At age seven, Cloud was taken to the government dictated Genoa Indian School over a hundred miles west of Winnebago. His main memories of that time included herding sheep, flying kites and fighting with other boys. As a child he spoke a Sioux dialect, but later became fluent in English, Latin, and Greek.

Cloud credited an uncle as his first spiritual teacher when they sat by the Missouri River, lit a fire and sang sacred songs. The government transferred him to its Winnebago Reservation school where he learned about Jesus, his "spirit-friend." For Cloud, this meant soul searching and no more fighting. Some Indians considered this cowardice and cautioned him against adopting white men's ideas, but Cloud remained spiritually steadfast.

Some sources say Genoa school teachers named him Henry Clarence Cloud because they couldn't pronounce his Indian name. Others say he assumed the name Henry Cloud when he was baptized.

Cloud's parents died in 1896 and 1897 respectively. Soonafter, he went to the vocational Santee Mission School near the South Dakota border where he trained as a printer and blacksmith. After reading *Self Help* by Samuel Smiles, he determined to self-pay for further education and avoid government aid.

In 1902 Cloud entered Mount Hermon School in Northfield, Massachusetts which offered a work-study program. He financed his education by selling Indian crafts and working on a farm. He attached Greek grammar notes to the plow so he could study as he followed the mule team. In the summer of 1906 he graduated as class salutatorian. That fall he became the first Native American student admitted to Yale University.

During his freshman year Cloud attended a lecture by missionary Mary Wickham Roe. She spoke about American Indians' conversion to Christianity. Mary became his friend in faith. Cloud met her husband, Reverend Dr. Walter C. Roe, the following summer at the Fort Sill Reservation in Oklahoma.

Initially the Roes were his mentors, but a family-like relationship developed and the Roes adopted him formally. Cloud honored them by taking Roe as his middle name. Each summer Cloud joined their missionary work among the Southern Cheyenne and Arapaho at Colony, Oklahoma and, at his request, on the Winnebago Reservation.

At Yale, Cloud lectured, debated and wrote about deficiencies in government-run schools. He decried the prevailing attitude that Indians were best suited only to vocational training rather than being taught science, literature and philosophy.

He participated in the annual Lake Mohonk Conferences of Friends of the Indian, where action was taken to influence governmental policies. He also advocated the return and allotment of the Apache prisoners held at Fort Sill, Oklahoma.

Cloud received a Bachelor of Arts degree in psychology and philosophy in 1910 and a Master of Arts in

anthropology in 1912, both from Yale. From 1910-1911 he studied sociology at Oberlin College. He attended Auburn Theological Seminary in New York, where he earned a Bachelor of Divinity degree and was ordained as a Presbyterian minister in 1913. He returned to school and received a doctorate of divinity from Emporia College, Kansas in 1932.

Cloud was active in the Society of American Indians founded in 1911, precursor to the Pan-Indian National Council of American Indians. At the 1914 conference in Madison, Wisconsin, he met Elizabeth Bender, a Minnesota Ojibwa (part Chippewa). They were married on June 12, 1916. Subsequently, they had four daughters and a son, his namesake and youngest child, born in 1926.

Three years later the boy contracted pneumonia and died. According to Winnebago tradition, a mother whose child has died may adopt another child who is a family friend whether or not that child's parents are still living. Both families agree, but waive legal proceedings. A public announcement is made and the adoptee is included in all family activities. Elizabeth Cloud adopted Jay Hunter. Succeeding generations of both families remain close.

In 1912 and 1913, Cloud chaired a delegation of Winnebagos who met with U.S. President Taft. In 1914, he served on the federal government's Survey Commission on Indian Education. In 1914 and 1915, he investigated the Indian school system for the philanthropic Phelps-Stokes Fund.

The Roes and Cloud wanted to establish a college preparatory school for Indian boys but Walter Roe died before the plan reached fruition. Cloud carried on. In the fall of 1915, the Roe Indian Institute, renamed the American Indian Institute in 1920, opened in Wichita, Kansas as the only Indian-run high school in the country. It emphasized academics and leadership training. Cloud was superintendent and served as editor of *The Indian Outlook.*

In 1923, Cloud was appointed to serve on the federal "Committee of 100," an investigative and advisory group concerned with Indian affairs. Between 1926-1930, Cloud was part of a team that studied Indian problems for the Brookings Institute. In 1928 he coauthored the "Meriam Report," officially entitled *The Problem of Indian Administration.* It pointed out deplorable health, educational and general living conditions on Indian reservations and resulted in significant reforms.

In the early 1930s, Cloud was a representative to federal offices on Indian Affairs. In 1933 he was appointed superintendent of the Haskell Institute in Lawrence, Kansas, the country's largest Indian school. Melding science and scripture, he stated in his 1934 Baccalaureate Sermon, "A man's inspiration for life, however different a form it may take in him, nevertheless must come from one source and one only. The scientist who gives a whole lifetime over to the task of scientific discovery is merely delving into the manifestations of the wisdom of God."

Cloud was instrumental in winning acceptance of the Wheeler-Howard Act, known also as the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934. It proclaims the need ". . .to conserve and develop Indian lands and resources; to extend to Indians the right to form business and other organizations; to establish a credit system for Indians; to grant certain rights of home rule to Indians; to provide for vocational education for Indians . . ." Cloud helped tribes organize under its provisions. For this, in 1935 he was given the Indian Achievement Award, the Indian Council Fire's highest honor.

Cloud left Haskell in 1936 to supervise Indian education at the Bureau of Indian Affairs. In 1947 he was named superintendent of the Umatilla Indian Agency near Pendleton, Oregon. In 1948, he was appointed regional representative for the Grande Ronde and Siletz Indian Agencies in Oregon.

During these later years he helped tribes prepare for the impact that hydropower dams would have on salmon fishing. He also traced Indian genealogies; this determined their eligibility to share in a $16 million government settlement for prior illegal land seizures.

Cloud died of a heart attack in Siletz, Oregon, on February 9, 1950 and was buried in Beaverton, Oregon. In 1997 a new residence hall at Haskell Indian Nations University at Lawrence was named in his honor.

While Cloud felt that Native Americans had no choice but to assimilate into white society, he wanted to preserve their identity. Early in his career he was at odds with Bureau of Indian Affairs leaders, but over the years he came to respect them. John Collier, his colleague there, called Cloud "the most important living Indian."

An entry on Cloud is included in the prestigious *American National Biography,* Vol 5 (1999).

Mary P. Romero Zielke Cota & Rosabell Zielke Champion Fenstermaker: World's first mother-child supercentenarians had California and Nebraska roots

The world's first combination of a mother and her child to both become supercentenarians was Mary P. Romero Zielke Cota (1870- 1982), born at Montecito, California, and her daughter Rosabell Zielke Champion Fenstermaker (1893-2005), born at Carroll, Nebraska. Cota lived to the age of 112 years and 17 days, and Fenstermaker to the age of 111 years and 344 days.

Validation of their ages was accomplished by Robert D. Young of Atlanta, Georgia, a senior investigator for Gerontology Research Group, a Los Angeles-based worldwide association of scientists, scholars, and volunteers. As of October 15, 2006, its website at www.grg.org listed in Table BB over 1,000 persons validated to have reached age 110 or above for those who were born or resided in Australia and New Zealand, Europe and Japan, and Canada and the United States, where sufficient record-keeping is available.

The mother, Mary P. Cota, was born July 5, 1870 under the maiden name of Maria Filomena Romero, daughter of Pedro Romero and Viviana Sanchez, according to the Franciscans' baptismal entry # 3175 dated September 11, 1870 in Book III of the Baptisms at Presidio Chapel (which later became Our Lady of Sorrows Church), now housed at the Santa Barbara Mission Archive Library at Santa Barbara, California.

Her parents' marriage certificate, also housed at the Santa Barbara Mission, reveals that on July 10, 1869 Loreta Romero, bachelor of 26 years of age, natural and resident of Montecito, son of Pedro Romero and Josefa Rodriguez, was married to Viviana Sanchez, single of 15 years of age, and daughter of Ramon Sanchez and Refugio Hernandez. One of the witnesses was Jose de Jesus Cota.

Some descendants believe that Mary's parents had been forced into marriage, with her father being a short, handsome man who eventually died in a housefire, and her mother tall in stature. They also believe the father was a don with a land grant, and that the ancestry can be traced to the Basque region of Spain. According to granddaughter Elinor Champion, who once met Pedro Romero, he "drove a black carriage like a surrey with a fringe on top, and was a happy-go-lucky man with a walrus mustache."

Subsequent records sometimes offered varying facts, making validation of age and family history more difficult.

The 1880 U.S. Census for Montecito Precinct, Santa Barbara County, California, enumerated on June 7th, shows under Pedro and Viviana Romero, both born in California, that Mary P. was listed as Filomena, age 8. Her four siblings listed were brothers Francisco, Cliodo, and Alejandro and sister Kionancia, and her parents were recorded as laborer and housekeeper.

On February 9, 1889, Mary P. Romero was married to Edward Zielke in Los Angeles. On her marriage application, she listed herself as Mary Ruffoo, age 18, a native of Nebraska and a resident of Los Angeles, while her husband reported he was age 21, a native of Germany and a resident of Los Angeles.

A note on the application indicated that the groom's parents were both German, with only the father living, and that the bride's parents were of German descent, but it was not known if they were still living. Descendants report that Mary's family was unhappy that she selected a husband from outside her ethnic group. And that while Mary knew the Spanish language, she did not use it with her own children later on.

More than a century later, a Gerontology Research Group investigation in October 2005 found that on her Social

Security Administration application form, Mary P. Cota had listed her parents as Peter and Vivian Romero. And granddaughter Elinor Champion recalled visiting Mary P. Cota about 1918 when she owned a little house across the street from a Catholic Church in Montecito. However, she has no knowledge about Mary's siblings.

Less information has been found about the family history of Mary's first husband Edward E. Zielke, the father of her nine children. His parents Carl Ludwig and Albertine Manthey Zielke were both born at Tuchel, West Prussia, Germany in 1839 and 1843 respectively. Their son Edward was born on April 12, 1867 at Tuchel, where the family spoke German and had a Lutheran affiliation.

The Zielke family immigrated to the United States about 1868, and was comprised of Carl, who renamed himself Charles Lewis, his wife Albertine, and son Edward. According to the 1880 U.S. Census for Illinois, Albertine was recorded as living in the Chicago area with son William, born May 1880. Later information reveals the family was also comprised of daughters Bertha and Martha.

By 1889, the year Edward was married to Mary P. Romero, he had relocated to Los Angeles and his mother had died. Meanwhile, sometime after the marriage, Mary P. and Edward Zielke had moved to Seattle, Washington, where their first child was born in 1890.

They then lived more than a decade in northeastern Nebraska, helping to pioneer the village of Carroll in Wayne County, and raising at least seven more children while in Nebraska. At Carroll, which had an 1890 population of 68 and 1900 population of 252, Edward worked for the Pony Express, some descendants believe, and he became an innovative businessman.

According to the 1900 U.S. Census for the village of Carroll, Deer Creek Precinct, Wayne County, Nebraska, husband Edward was listed as age 33, born April 1867 in Germany, and wife Mary P. as age 27, born July 1872 in Nebraska. That latter information was inaccurate, since Mary P. was born July 1870 at Montecito, Santa Barbara County, California. Also listed as living with them was Edward's father Charles Lewis, age 60

The children listed were son Frank, age 10, born January 1890 in Washington; son Edward, age 9, born November 1891; daughter Edna, age 7, born August 1892; daughter Rosa, age 6, born November 1893; daughter Edith, age 4, born September 1895; son Joseph, age 3, born May 1897; and daughter Ruth, age 1, born May 1899, the latter six born in Wayne County, Nebraska, most in the town of Carroll. In March 1902, their daughter Marjorie Marie was also born at Carroll.

The School Census Report for District 52, Carroll, Wayne County, Nebraska in the summers of 1901, 1902, and 1903 reveal the names of their children of school age, and confirm Rosa's birthdate as November 4, 1893.

Descendants believe that Edward E. Zielke operated a highly respected tavern. Also, he constructed a new building in 1902, opened a combination bakery/butcher shop, and occasionally traveled to nearby towns on business, according to microfilm of *The Carroll Index* housed at the Nebraska State Historical Society in Lincoln.

In the fall of 1903, he had rented to a local person the Zielke building as a restaurant. And the October 23, 1903 issue of *The Carroll Index* stated: "E. E. Zielke and family leave tomorrow for Stanton [located in adjacent Stanton County], where Mrs. Zielke and children will remain with relatives, while Mr. Zielke goes to Los Angeles on business, after which the family will move to Oregon, where they have a large tract of land, partly cleared and part timberland in a rich lumber country. *The Index* joins their many friends in wishing them abundant success in their new home."

At the time, Edward's sister Bertha was living in Stanton with her husband Gottleib Meyer and father-in-law Louis Zielke, reported the 1900 U.S. Census for Nebraska. Bertha was listed as age 24, born September 1875 in Illinois. Six years later, there was mention in the March 22, 1906 *Stanton Weekly Picket* that "Miss Martha Zielke arrived Tuesday evening from Omaha, and will assist Mrs. Siedel in the millinary store."

The Zielke family probably settled in Oregon after leaving Nebraska. It is known that Edward's father Charles Lewis Zielke was listed in the 1910 U.S. Census as living at Salem, Oregon with daughter Martha, and in the 1920 Census as still living at Salem, at the time with his second wife. He had lived beyond the age of 80, but it is not known when or where his death occurred.

Meanwhile, Edward's sister Bertha Meyer remained in Stanton at least until the 1920 U.S. Census for Nebraska. There was no mention of her husband, but her sons were Irvin, age 19, Carl, age 17, and LaVere, age 13, all born in Nebraska. Bertha was listed as age 44, born in California.

Mary P. Romero Zielke did give birth to Ervin, her ninth child, born in December 1904, likely in Oregon. However, relative Jackie Salonisen has materials written later in life by Mary's daughter Edna, which report that while the family was traveling by train from Nebraska (or Oregon) to Los Angeles via the city of San Francisco in 1906, they decided to continue by boat from San Francisco. But just as they boarded, their journey was made difficult at first when the infamous April 18, 1906 earthquake occurred, causing the ocean current to spin the boat around several times, and family members becoming seasick.

While the family lived in Los Angeles at this time, Edward Zielke suffered a severe head injury after falling backwards out a second story window while helping a friend paint a house. This resulted in some sort of separation from the family, according to descendants. After authorities found Edward in a deranged condition, he was placed in what is now the Patton State Hospital at San Bernardino, where he died on August 6, 1907.

At about the same time, Mary had taken her children to live at Santa Barbara. Within a year after the death of her first husband, Mary met Antonio Cota, and they were either married or lived together at Santa Barbara, according to the 1910 U.S. Census. By then, some of Mary's children were living on their own, and the youngest continued to live with her.

Meanwhile, three of her daughters performed on stage at the La Petite Theatre in Santa Barbara under the name of "The Marleau Sisters." They were Edna, known as Dolly, Rosabell, known by the same name, and Ruth, known as Billie. While Rosabell left the stage, Edna and Ruth worked for the Flying A Studio until they went to Hollywood, where they got jobs as extras, played small parts, and doubled for various silent film stars such as Mary Pickford. Edna continued her career from 1922 to 1951 as a trick rider.

By World War I, the relationship between Mary P. Romero Zielke and Antonio Cota ended, descendants recall, so she lived in Los Angeles, supporting herself with housekeeping work and other jobs. It is thought that Antonio Cota died in 1941 but little else is known about him. Meanwhile, after many years at Los Angeles, Mary then lived about ten years at El Monte, and spent the final seven years of her life with daughter Marjorie Marie Richardson Pruitt Nast at Hemet in Riverside County.

After Mary Phil Cota died on July 22, 1982, the family reported her age as 107 in the obituary published in the *Hemet News* the next day. In actuality, she had lived 112 years and 17 days. Requiem Mass was celebrated at Our Lady of the Valley Catholic Church, with burial at Desert Lawn Park in Calimesa, San Bernardino County.

The vast majority of the nine children of Mary P. Romero Zielke and Edward E. Zielke achieved remarkable longevity not only for their own era but also by current standards.

According to the *National Vital Statistics Report,* Vol 17, No 28 (December 13, 1999), the life expectancy at birth for males in 1900 was 47.8, in 1950 it was 65.7, and in 1997 it was 73.6. For females in 1900 it was 50.7, in 1950 it was 70.9, and in 1997 it was 79.4.

Their sons, for the most part, exceeded life expectancies for men. Edward, age 27, died, in 1918, a victim of the Spanish flu epidemic. Frank, age 69, died April 13, 1959 at Los Molinos, California; Ervin, age 73, died October 24,

1977 at Juniper Springs; and Joseph, age 86, died January 21, 1984 at San Joaquin.

All of their daughters exceeded life expectancies for women, and four of them lived near or beyond the centenarian mark, a rare accomplishment for one family anywhere. Ruth Wilder, age 83, died May 12, 1982 at Riverside; Edna Sowards Baker, age 99, died November 28, 1991 at Hemet; Edith Keasler, age 100, died October 12, 1995 at Palm City; Marjorie Marie Richardson Pruitt Nast, age 102, died December 26, 2004 at Hemet; and as previously noted, Rosabell Champion Fenstermaker, just 21 days short of age 112, died October 14, 2005 at San Juan Capistrano.

Rosabell Zielke's birthdate of November 4, 1893 was validated, as previously stated, not only by means of the 1900 U.S. Census for the village of Carroll in Wayne County, Nebraska and the School Census Reports for District 52 for the summers of 1901-1903 but also by an 1897 baptism record.

She attended school through the 3rd grade and lived in a house with a basement for storaging containers of preserved vegetables, which her mother had prepared. After relocating from Nebraska to Oregon about 1903 and then to California about three years later, she was listed in the 1910 U.S. Census for Santa Barbara as living with her mother and Antonio Cota, and siblings Edna, Edith, Ruth, Marjorie Marie, and Ervin.

About that time, too, she performed on stage locally with her sisters Edna and Ruth as part of the act titled "The Marleau Sisters," and played the saxophone.

At the age of 18, Rosabell was married in Santa Ana to silent screen actor George J. Champion, a son of Christopher and Jennie T. Henry Champion. His mother's brother Charles D. Henry was the father of Lou K. Henry, the wife of Herbert Hoover, the 31st U.S. President. An entry on Lou K. Hoover in *American National Biography*, Vol 11 (1999) reports that Lou distinguished herself as a national Girl Scout leader, and her cultural interests during her husband's White House years from 1929 to 1933 gained her some renown.

While a young woman, the petite, dark-eyed Rosabell was a gifted seamstress who welcomed changes in style. She wore suits and dresses custom made in Europe, and made and sold creative hats. While married to George Champion from 1911 to 1917, she worked at a Los Angeles bank not far from where her mother Mary P. Cota lived.

The couple had two children--Irma Cook, who died at age 25, and Elinor Champion, who was born in 1913 at Glendale and has almost reached age 97 at this writing, continues to reside in southern California. Ex-husband George J. Champion became a businessman in charge of horses and their stables in the mountains of southern California for use by movie studios. He maintained a good relationship with Rosabell and her children until he died at age 67 in 1949 at Pearblossom, reported daughter Elinor.

Rosabell was remarried briefly to William Edwards, a government worker in Los Angeles, and to Henry Hifield, a commercial artist.

On October 4, 1922 she married printer Arthur Fenstermaker. At first, the couple lived in Los Angeles, where Rosabell ran the business, and gave birth in 1928 to son Arthur Fenstermaker Jr, who later died in 1986. They then resided from 1938 to the end of World War II in Glendale, and printed Series E war bonds. Afterwards, they lived in Arcadia, Flintridge, Pasadena, and finally the San Diego area, all the while enjoying their travels to Africa, Asia, and Russia. After 50 years of marriage, Arthur died in 1978.

Continuing her independent mindedness and believing "there was little a woman couldn't do," Rosabell shared a condominium with her daughter Elinor at nearby San Juan Capistrano. At age 104, she dug trenches and laid sprinkler pipe for a new watering system in their backyard, and after age 109 when her eyesight was failing, she still followed the news on radio and television, and participated in discussions about national and world events.

Throughout her life she was not ill, and offered no explanation for her longevity. Fond of gardening, she grew her own vegetables and ate little meat. Occasionally, she drank a margarita, but did not smoke.

After Rosabell Zielke Champion Fenstermaker died on October 14, 2005 in San Juan Capistrano at the age of 111 years and 344 days, a lengthy obituary was published in the October 19 *Orange County Register* at Santa Ana.

Private arrangements were made by the Neptune Society of Orange County at Costa Mesa, with the cremated remains of Rosabell placed in the Pacific Ocean near Dana Point, California.

According to Table BB as of January 30, 2006 on the website of Gerontology Research Group, mother Mary P. Romero Zielke Cota, a native of Montecito, California, ranked as the 243rd oldest person all-time, and her daughter Rosabell Zielke Champion Fenstermaker, a native of Carroll, Nebraska, tied as the 263rd. Consult its home page at www.grg.org and click on the sideheading "Centenarians."

While the rankings will change in the future as more persons become validated at age 110 or more, they will always remain known as the world's first validated combination of a mother and her child to both become supercentenarians.

Assisting the author in research for this article were relatives Elinor Champion of San Juan Capistrano, Karen Lyons of Dove Canyon, Reverend Richard Pruitt of Manhattan Beach, Jackie Salonisen of Placentia, and Thomas H. Zielke of Redwood City, all in California; Elizabeth Carlson of Wayne County Courthouse at Wayne, Nebraska and Lynn Bremer of Santa Barbara Mission Archive Library; and Gerontology Research Group investigators Louis Epstein of Carmel, New York and Robert D. Young of Atlanta, Georgia.

For more information about Nebraskans of unusual longevity, consult on the Internet the website of the Nebraska Health Care Association at www.nehca.org On its home page, click on the sideheading titled "Oldest Nebraskans." A major source online is the author's report titled "Nebraska's Centenarians Age 107 Or Above--1867 to 2001," originally published as a 44-page supplement to the April 24, 2002 *Crete News*

Carl T. Curtis: Champion of natural resource conservation, labor and social equity, fiscal reform, and the IRA during 40-year Congressional career

Former Minden farmboy, teacher and attorney Carl T. Curtis not only served longer than any other Nebraskan as a member of the U.S. Congress but also set a high standard of political integrity, achievement, and dedicated public service during an era of growing federal involvement nationwide and overseas.

In the decade of the 1930s, the Great Depression brought hard times to America. In a nation of 120 to 130 million, some eleven million became unemployed, and the national debt of $2.5 billion in 1933 rose to nearly $43 billion by 1940.

Moreover, a prolonged drought in the Great Plains forced farm families and other workers to relocate elsewhere, causing a decline of up to one-fourth of the population of some Nebraska counties. And a once-in-a century flood in the southwestern area of the state in the spring of 1935 resulted in the loss of a hundred lives and devastation of a hundred miles of farmland in the Republican Valley.

Curtis' character and values had been influenced by these and other experiences. And after his election to Kearney County Attorney in 1930 as a member of the Democratic Party, he observed first-hand the predicament of the state and the nation. When his four-year term ended, he switched to the Republican Party, and continued as private attorney in Minden.

He had noticed the slowness of the federal government's commencement of a loan-support program for wheat farmers, its unresponsiveness to flood relief needed in the Republican Valley, and the growing national debt.

He also believed that President Franklin D. Roosevelt's "New Deal" weakened local self-government and encouraged welfare dependency as a way of life. And he feared that the Neutrality Act passed in 1935 to avert American involvement in European conflicts might be disregarded, even though public opinion in general was opposed to foreign entanglements.

Consequently, Curtis wanted to work for changes on the national level, and was elected in 1938 to the U.S. House of Representatives from the Fourth Congressional District of Nebraska. His constituents were to be satisfied with his performance for four decades.

From January 3, 1939 to January 3, 1979, he was elected to the House of Representatives for eight terms (16 years) and to the Senate for four terms (24 years) for a combined total of 40 years and 12 days.

According to a March 10, 2005 Report of the Congressional Research Service, U.S. Library of Congress, his longevity surpassed that of Nebraskan George W. Norris, who from March 4, 1903 to January 3, 1943 served a total of 39 years, 10 months, and 10 days.

And Curtis is one of only 41 members of Congress with longevity of 40 years or more out of the 11,752 who have served since 1789.

During his tenure, he was engaged in many legislative and investigative issues, more than can be reported here. And in general, he would have preferred to concentrate on balancing the budget, but he also had to work on international affairs, labor disputes, flood control, and other worthwhile issues.

In the beginning, he advocated neutrality in foreign conflicts, and opposed what he called "the war crowd" in and out of the Roosevelt Administration. But after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, he voted for the declaration of war, and focused on removing obstacles to efficient war production in defense plants.

After industrial strikes appeared unjustifiable and detrimental to the nation's war effort and what Curtis thought was the Federal Government's partisanship toward the great labor unions, he offered a "right-to-work" proposal in 1942 that would have amended the National Labor Relations Act of 1935. His proposal lost at the time, but it foreshadowed the passage of the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947, which provided for restraining unfair labor union practices and for governmental intervention in a major strike harmful to the public interest.

In the 1950s, he participated in the McClellan Committee investigation of labor union abuses, and several of his recommendations were incorporated in the Landrum-Griffith Act of 1959, which gave more control to rank-and-file union members, protected their dues and pension funds, ended unreasonable control by union officials, and required accounting and reports.

Curtis was a leader in the successful efforts in 1965 and 1966 to prevent repeal of Section 14(b) of the Taft-Hartley Act, which outlawed the requirement of membership in a labor organization as a condition of employment in any state or territory where such a requirement is prohibited by law. And in the 1970s, he introduced legislation that gave working men and women the right to vote in a secret-ballot election to decide whether they want to be represented by a union in dealing with their employers, to initiate a strike, or decide whether or not an offer or settlement should be accepted.

While he was opposed to a general expansion of programs and costs of the federal government, he was in favor of public works which enabled individuals to function independently and were under the immediate control of the Congress and the President. Moreover, he believed public works can contribute to the economy of an entire region or the nation.

Upon entering Congress in 1939, he became a member of the Committee on Flood Control, and advocated water must be retained upstream, not at the mouth of a river, by use of smaller dams, which store water that could also be used for irrigation. And he offered a resolution--approved by the Committee--requiring the Corps of Engineers to study the needs of the Republican Valley.

During World War II, he worked closely with general Lewis Pick of the Corps of Engineers Office in Omaha. After Curtis introduced a resolution on May 6, 1943 to re-study the entire Missouri River Basin, Pick offered a proposal to construct large dams on the Missouri River itself and smaller dams to hold back water on its tributaries.

Curtis and the Committee developed an omnibus flood control bill, which became known as the Flood Control Act of 1944, and sometimes as the Pick-Sloan Plan. It was a landmark in river legislation because it was the first comprehensive plan that involved both the Corps of Engineers and the Bureau of Reclamation, and because it became the basis for future similar developments anywhere in the nation.

Its benefits extended to the lower Mississippi River Basin and the entire Missouri River Basin, the latter including a large portion of the states of Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, North and South Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado, and all of Nebraska--which comprise a sixth of the land area of the continental United States.

One significant provision of the 1944 Act allowed electricity revenues produced anywhere in the Missouri River Basin to be used to subsidize the building of irrigation districts anywhere in the Basin. Since then, hundreds of thousands of acres of land in the Mississippi Basin have gained irrigation, and some 800,000 acres in the Missouri Basin.

Curtis was a co-author of the Small Watershed Act of 1954, which authorized the Department of Agriculture with the Soil Conservation Districts to build projects which are too large for an individual farmer or an individual soil conservation district to manage alone. It involved ponds, retention dams, water courses, plus the terracing, contouring, and similar work on a smaller scale. The localities pay a part of the costs as well as the individual landowners and the federal government.

The Act of 1954 was initiated by 62 pilot projects for the nation, with four located in Nebraska. Since then, it has resulted in the installation of more than 880 dams and structures in Nebraska alone. Numerous benefits have included flood control, irrigation, wildlife habitat, and recreation, which have helped generate businesses and jobs in towns as well as cities.

Throughout his forty years, Curtis tried to convince national leaders to adopt a pay-as-you-go budgetary policy rather than continuing the trend of deficit financing and increasing the national debt. In 1951, he introduced a House Resolution to amend the Constitution to require a balanced budget, and his renewed effort in the Senate in 1978 included a provision that the requirement might be set aside in time of war or national emergency. Years later during President Clinton's Administration, an agreement with Congress in 1997 called for a balanced budget by fiscal year 2002. However, at this writing, the United States has a budget deficit. And the national debt is $8 trillion.

Because he rejected the belief that the role of the government was to provide individuals with material gain which had always been the reward of personal effort, he feared that governmental programs originally charitable in purpose might gradually become instruments for large social change. And after World War II, he worried that the time may come in America when the minority of citizens become self-supporting taxpayers and the majority become recipients of public assistance. Thus he opposed, for example, hot lunch, food stamp, and public housing programs.

With respect to the Social Security program begun in 1935, which was intended originally to assist the aged as a supplement to their private savings, assistance from relatives, and other sources of income for retirement, Curtis became an advocate of equity and fiscal reform after World War II, and attempted to establish Social Security on a sounder basis.

In the beginning, the Social Security Act did not cover all individuals but some jobs by classification. Those employees covered were workers under age 65 in commerce and industry (except railroads). Curtis worked to change the inequities so that benefits were extended to the self employed, including farmers, to public employees, including school teachers, and to members of the professions and the uniformed services. By the late 1960s, some 90 percent of the work force was covered.

Though Social Security was intended primarily to be a program for retirement, it was extended to provide benefits for survivors, the disabled, and a child's education. In the Medicare Act of 1965, another entitlement covered by Social Security, Curtis offered an amendment that would have given assistance to the needy rather than those people age 65 in the upper 20 percent income bracket.

And he proposed an alternative health plan that would have extended to all the nation's elderly the successful and long-established medical and hospital program provided for the retired government employees. Had these proposals been accepted by Congress, the costs of the Federal Government could have been reduced by half, Curtis asserted.

Though he voted for Social Security improvements in 1939, 1949, 1954, 1960, and 1961, and was chairman of a subcommittee that studied the programs in 1954, Curtis realized the benefits were not enough for various reasons. So he examined the operation of pension plans, and concluded the solution was to give an individual the same tax advantages in providing for his own retirement as is given to corporations when they provide retirement benefits for employees.

He supported the Keogh Plan adopted by Congress in 1962 that allowed the self-employed to set aside certain amounts from earned income, free from taxation, place the sums into a retirement fund, and protect the earnings from taxation. Because Keogh's tax relief plan covered only about half of the nation's work force, Curtis worked to extend the 1962 plan to all persons who had earned income. Though rejected by Congress, his idea was the beginning of what became known as the Individual Retirement Account (IRA).

Subsequent efforts also failed. But after the Nixon Administration in late 1970 agreed that revisions of the pension law were needed, Curtis again argued that an IRA would bring about equality before the law for the other half of the nation's workers. Finally, he successfully added the IRA to a pension plan under study in 1973 that ultimately gave the individual the freedom to decide how to manage his retirement fund, and the legislation was signed into law in September 1974.

The IRA was a supplement to the existing Social Security program, and after a 1981 Tax Act, the IRA program was enlarged so that an individual could participate even if already covered by a company pension. Unlike the Keogh Plan of 1962, the IRA Plan of 1974 was not named after its originator Carl T. Curtis.

Several other legislative efforts by Curtis ere less publicized but valuable to various sectors of society. Following the abolition of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation after the Truman Administration, he supported creation of the Small Business Administration, which provides loans to establish industries in the states. As author of a law that created the Welsh Commission during the Eisenhower Administration, he encouraged research and experimentation of farm surpluses for industrial uses, such as motor fuel, plastics, building materials, and many other items. He also worked to protect the nation's farmers from over-aggressive importing of foreign agricultural products.

In the field of education, he favored local control of elementary and secondary schools, but supported the federal aid to higher education bill in 1965, and authored legislation to spread the issuance of federal grants to colleges and universities in a manner that gave recognition to every region and section of the nation.

Curtis was a major supporter of veterans' legislation, beginning with the G.I. Bill of Rights in 1945. Of 258 public laws enacted relating to veterans through the Vietnam War era, he supported 251. And in 1965, even though some national officials attempted to have the Veterans Administration Hospital in Lincoln, Nebraska closed, he succeeded in keeping it open.

He had a sterling record in civil rights legislation, voting against segregation in the armed services in 1949 and opposing segregation in veterans hospitals in 1951. He voted for an important civil rights bill on August 29, 1957, voted for continuation of the Civil Rights Commission in 1959, for the civil rights bills of 1960 and 1964, and for the voting rights act of 1965.

A hallmark of Curtis' public service was his dedication to his constituents no matter what the issue was, and no task was too small or too large to perform. Often he sent personal notes on the occasion of a voter's marriage, wedding anniversary, or death. In the fall of 1944, Nebraska native Ben Kuroki asked Curtis during a visit to his Minden home to help overturn a regulation that forbid Japanese Americans from flying in the Pacific theater of operations during World War II.

After Curtis as well as other national leaders contacted the U.S. Secretary of War and two top generals, Kuroki was granted an exception, and he became known as the first Japanese American war hero, and in peacetime as a crusader

for racial equality.

Curtis did not have district offices in Nebraska (as a cost-cutting measure), rarely had need for political consultants or issuance of press releases, and did not seek out members of the media. His one re-election innovation first used in 1966 was the 30-minute film titled "The Man From Minden," narrated by Hollywood movie star Robert Taylor, a Nebraska native.

As for partisan politics, he did serve as floor manager of Barry Goldwater's campaign in July 1964 for the presidential nomination at the Republican National Convention at San Francisco. Curtis also advocated that the campaign that year be based on reasons and persuasion of voters, not merely travel and handshakes. And ten years later, despite criticism from his colleagues and others, he justified his defense of President Richard Nixon during the Watergate scandal as protection of the power of the nation's highest office.

His fondness and historical knowledge of Nebraska were revealed in his Congressional tribute to the state in recognition of its centennial year, which was also published in the Summer of 1967 issue of Nebraska History.

Various forms of recognition were accorded him. He received honorary doctorate degrees from Nebraska Wesleyan in 1958 and Creighton University in 1971, a medal from the mayor of Athens, Greece in 1974 and the Master Key to the Panama Canal in 1976, and U.S. Highway 6/34 in Kearney County, Nebraska designated as Carl T. Curtis Drive in 1998. He was posthumously honored by the U.S. Congress with the naming of the new Carl T. Curtis National Park Service Midwest Regional Headquarters near the Missouri River in Omaha in 2003.

Reliable sources for the author were Curtis' political autobiography (with Regis Courtemanche) titled *Forty Years Against the Tide* (Regnery, 1986) and the Carl T. Curtis Collection housed at the Nebraska State Historical Society in Lincoln. Other useful information may be found in articles in the Omaha *Sunday World Herald Magazine*, December 29, 1963 and December 30, 1984 and in George Douth, *Leaders in Profile: The United States Senate* (Sperr & Douth, 1975).

Born in 1905 near Minden, Kearney County, Nebraska, the youngest of eight children of Frank and Alberta Smith Curtis, he lived on his father's farm, attended nearby Rural School District 48 through the 5th grade, then moved to Minden, where he graduated from Minden High School in 1923. Carl taught for one year at Danbury in Red Willow County, then enrolled for a year at Nebraska Wesleyan. From 1925 to 1930, he taught at a Kearney County School and the Minden Elementary School, where he also served as principal. After attending summer school at Nebraska Wesleyan in 1927 and the University of Nebraska in 1928, he studied at a local law office part-time, and in 1930 was admitted to the Nebraska Bar.

He married local teacher Lois Wylie Atwater in 1931, and the couple adopted two children. Upon his first wife's death in 1970, he married Mildred Genier Baker two years later. After being associated with a Washington, DC law firm from 1979 to 1983, Curtis returned to Lincoln, where he died at the age of 94 on January 24, 2000, with interment in the Minden Cemetery.

Obituaries appeared in the January 26, 2000 *Lincoln Journal Star, Omaha World Herald*, and *New York Times*. Entries are in *Current Biography* (1954) and *American National Biography*, Supplement 1 (2002).

Frank W. Cyr: Father of yellow school bus and authority on rural education

For nearly the entire 20th century, educator Frank W. Cyr initiated changes in the quality of education in rural America, believing that all children should have opportunities for a well-rounded education, whether they attend rural or city schools.

The Franklin, Nebraska native became known for organizing the first national conference for developing minimum school bus standards in 1939, after which the states voluntarily adopted many standards, including the now famous orange-yellow color with black lettering of school buses for visibility and safety. He also helped implement federations of small school districts (sometimes called educational service units) as well as the use of technology to improve learning in small schools.

The life-long relationship of Cyr (pronounced "sear") to rural America began with his birth in a sod house on his family's south central Nebraska farm in the Republican River Valley just east of Franklin, a town with a 1900 population of 756 located a few miles from the Kansas border.

For his elementary education, he walked to nearby Rural School District 15, a one-room country school comprised of about 30 pupils enrolled in differing grades and taught by one teacher. Known as Sunny Slope School, which existed from 1873 to 1946, it was situated in Franklin Township just two miles west of the Republican River tributary Lovely Creek, mentioned in author Willa Cather's 1922 novel *One of Ours*, awarded the Pulitzer Prize a year later.

Frank Cyr graduated from the eighth grade in 1913, according to a District 15 history published in *Those Good Old Golden Rural Days, The Rural Schools of Franklin County, Nebraska 1872-1995* (Franklin County Historical Society, 1995). His high school years were spent at the local Franklin Academy, one of six Congregational Church-affiliated academies in Nebraska, participating in college preparatory studies and playing football.

After graduation in 1917, he worked on his parents' farm until fall harvest was completed, then visited relatives on the East Coast, experiencing the many cultural attractions he had read about in the New York City and Boston areas. On his return trip home, he visited a former Academy classmate at Grinnell College in Iowa, which was originally

founded by transplanted New Englanders with Congregational and social-reformer backgrounds.

In the fall of 1918, Cyr enrolled at Grinnell College, where he volunteered for Army Officer's Training until the end of World War I, and studied for three years. Then he attended the University of Nebraska-Lincoln from 1921 to January 1923, earning his bachelor's degree in agriculture. While at UNL, he was president of the Delian Literary Society and member of three other campus organizations, according to the college's 1923 annual.

After taking a teaching position at Winner, South Dakota that spring, he then became a teacher and principal during the 1923-24 school year at Deuel County High School at Chappell, Nebraska, a town with a 1920 population of 1,131 located in the panhandle area just a few miles from the Colorado border. There were 18 graduates in the Class of 1924.

In the summer of 1924, he pursued graduate studies at UNL, then became superintendent of Deuel County High School, reported the August 28, 1924 *Chappell Register*, serving in that capacity until 1930. During those six years, he broadened the curriculum by adding a music director to work with the primary grades through high school, and by introducing home economics and vocational agriculture, the latter requiring projects such as raising an animal or a plot of crops.

Cyr was also among a delegation of American professional people involved in agriculture who attended in 1926 the first International Country Life Conference held at Brussels, Belgium. Afterwards, the delegation toured rural Europe.

From the summer of 1925 onward, he took graduate coursework at Teachers College, Columbia University in New York City, which at the time fostered the "progressive education" theory based on the earlier ideas of the renowned educational philosopher John Dewey.

Originally established in 1887, Teachers College had become affiliated in 1898 with Columbia University while maintaining its legal and financial independence. According to historian Lawrence Cremin, primary author of *A History of Teachers College, Columbia University* (1954), it had become very influential in professional education until at least the mid-20th century, and had on its faculty not only major educational pioneers but also access to innovative staff members at Columbia University.

Among the more notable, aside from Dewey, were educational psychologist Edward L. Thorndike, who took a scientific approach to problems and solutions; William Kilpatrick, a popularizer of progressive education, the child-centered school, and the project method for all subjects (which Cyr described as "learning by doing"); and George D. Strayer, a co-pioneer of applied research in the field of educational administration.

In the fall of 1929, professor Paul R. Mort of Teachers College visited Cyr at his Chappell, Nebraska school, and offered him a position on the faculty to work on the consolidation of one-room elementary and four-year high schools. Mort was one of Cyr's instructors and advisors, and he was known for developing the first equalization formula for state aid adopted in 1922 by the State of New York and followed by other states in the nation, reported his obituary in the May 13, 1962 *New York Times*.

In 1930, Frank W. Cyr did join the faculty of Teachers College, and earned his doctorate degree in 1933, with his dissertation *Responsibility for Rural School Administration* published by the college the same year and reprinted in 1972 by AMC Press. During his career, he became author or co-author of 20 or more books and at least 38 articles (as listed in *Education Index*), most of which focused on issues involving small rural schools.

Of historical interest is the fact that there were also other notables with Nebraska connections on the faculty during Cyr's tenure from 1930 to 1965. Mentioned by Cremin in his 1954 history was educational psychologist Leta Stetter Hollingworth, who pioneered the field of gifted education. Others included child psychologist Arthur T. Jersild, who researched the emotional development of children and adolescents, and administrator Hollis L. Caswell, who argued

against a national standard curriculum for public schools but favored differentiation in teaching methods, and later served from 1954 to 1962 as president of Teachers College.

By the mid-1930s, Cyr became regarded as an authority on rural education. In 1937, upon invitation of the General Education Board, then a unit of the Rockefeller Foundation, he initiated the National Survey of Pupil Transportation to determine the status of pupil transportation at the time and to develop constructive recommendations regarding all aspects of the problem.

As a result of visiting state departments of education and rural schools in about 30 states, Cyr and his research associates found that the majority of states had established uniform standards, but in many cases the standards were set up by "hit and miss methods". There was also lack of agreement among the states concerning standards for school bus construction.

The conflicting standards not only caused confusion and frustration for district and state officials but also made the cost of school buses unnecessarily high without always increasing pupil safety. The differences in standards among the states caused manufacturers to engage in custom-built jobs. For example, one state wanted a front door 30 inches wide, while another state needed a 24-inch door.

Cyr also recollected fifty years later, reported an April 9, 1989 *Los Angeles Times* article, that "just about every color of paint was used on the vehicles that carried kids to class back in 1939." Moreover, some districts transported pupils in all kinds of vehicles, from wooden boxes atop pickup trucks to large flatbed types.

After learning that various agencies and organizations believed agreement could not be reached--and didn't want to become involved--in the establishment of uniform standards nationwide, Cyr took action. He and his colleagues prepared recommendations, then met with the National Council of Chief State School Officers on February 28, 1939 at Cleveland and held preliminary meetings during the 1939 Annual Convention of the American Association of School Administrators. Support was gained for cooperative development of standards at the first national conference on minimum standards for school buses held April 10-16, 1939 at Teachers College, Columbia University, which Cyr chaired.

Representatives from state departments of education of all 48 states at the time (Alaska and Hawaii became states in 1959), federal agencies, and various manufacturers and specialists attended, and came to an agreement that states voluntarily adopted. Afterwards, the results were published by Frank Cyr, M.C.S. Noble, and Frederick H. Dutcher in the 42-page booklet *Minimum Standards for School Buses* (International Textbook Company, 1939).

Not only were there specifications for school bus chassis--from axle to bumpers to weight distribution, and for school bus bodies--from aisles to doors to wiring, but also for the uniform color called National School Bus Chrome (a blend of orange-yellow) and the selection of school bus drivers.

According to a July-August 1981 *NRTA Journal* article, Cyr was quoted as recalling, "We agreed on two overriding purposes: safety and economy. A school bus should be sturdy enough to withstand a collision at 30 miles an hour. There should be a warning light system and the body color must be so distinctive that the vehicle would be instantly visible as a traffic light."

Within two years after the 1939 conference, most states had adopted versions of the standards, and except for the color, many of the original standards have been adjusted and others added over the decades, with compliance by all states since the early 1970s.

Cyr held leadership positions at subsequent national bus conferences held in 1945 and 1948, according to Ernest Farmer's *Accent on Safety: A History of the National Conference on School Transportation 1939-85*, a 198-page collection of articles and participant rosters made available from the Missouri Safety Center at the University of Central Missouri at Warrensburg. After others held in 1951, 1954, 1959, 1964, and 1970, they have been held every

five years from 1980 at the University of Central Missouri.

Three major organizations are among several conference co-sponsors. The National School Transportation Association, headquartered in Alexandria, Virginia and founded in 1964, represents private school transportation contractors and manufacturers. The National Association of State Directors of Pupil Transportation, based in Boise, Idaho and officially established in 1968, represents school industry state directors and suppliers. And the National Association for Pupil Transportation, located in Albany, New York and established in 1974, represents bus drivers and transportation directors nationwide.

The many changes in school bus standards since Frank Cyr organized the first national conference in 1939 are evident by those adopted through the 14th national conference held in 2005 and presented in a 450-page publication titled *National School Transportation Specifications & Procedures*, 2005 Revised Edition, available from the University of Central Missouri at Warrensburg. Included are nine sections from bus chassis to school bus inspection--along with seven lengthy appendices.

The color requirement states, in part, that "the chassis, including wheels and front bumper, shall be black. Body, cowl, hood and fenders shall be National School Bus Yellow (NSBY). The flat top surface of the hood may be non-reflective black or NSBY."

Currently, the three largest school bus manufacturing companies in the United States are Blue Bird Corporation of Fort&amp Valley, Georgia, Thomas Built Buses of High Point, North Carolina, and International Trucks & Engine Corporation of Warrensville, Illinois. There are several smaller companies, too.

Some school districts purchase school buses and manage their operations, while others contract with transportation companies such as Laidlaw and First Student that provide buses and their operation. School bus drivers are expected to complete a state-approved pre-service training program and subsequent recertification training under state control, and pass state motor vehicle tests to receive licensure.

It is of historical significance that there were more than 130,000 school districts in 1930 in the United States, but just over 13,500 in 2002.

At present, almost half of the nation's public school population uses the yellow school buses. According to the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, which requires all new school buses to meet safety standards in addition to those that apply to all other passenger motor vehicles, each year about 450,000 public school buses now transport 23.5 million children to and from school and school-related activities.

It is believed that the adoption of uniform standards nationwide for school buses has not only brought about a safer form of transportation for the nation's children but also aided the consolidation of school districts and their racial integration during the latter half of the 20th century.

And the importance of the yellow school bus to American education is recognized during National School Bus Safety Week held the third week of each October. Originally begun in 1963 by Dick Fischer of California, the tradition is now sponsored by the National Association for Pupil Transportation.

As for Cyr and his career after the landmark 1939 national conference on school bus standards, he continued to expand his influence on rural education and related innovative issues. In Cremin's 1954 history of Teachers College, it was noted that Dean William F. Russell in 1943 "urged the financial strengthening of three on-going research projects at the College," which included Frank Cyr's Program for Improvement of State School Administration.

That same year, as part of the nation's "Good Neighbor Policy" with South America, he was invited by the American Council on Education to be one of the authors of a series of publications about North American schools. The result was his 1943 brochure *Rural Education in the United States*, which was translated into Portuguese and Spanish, and

later German and Italian.

Aside from his continued authorship, he participated numerous times as a consultant and member of various important commissions and conferences, some of them sponsored by The White House, according to his entries over many years in *Who's Who in America*, including the 1972-73 edition, the last time his entry appeared in that prestigious reference.

Cyr was clearly dedicated to the improvement of rural school buildings and teachers. According to articles in the March 11, 1946, August 16, 1947, and October 2, 1949 *New York Times*, he studied the small building needs of rural America, urged more training for teachers to be prepared for the diverse demands upon them in rural communities, advocated changing the tendency among many teachers to regard small schools "as a stepping-stone to bigger and better things," and proposed raising salaries of rural teachers to the same level as their urban counterparts.

And after envisioning for many years the creation of a federation for small schools to improve instruction and curriculum without giving up local control, Cyr was encouraged in 1948 while conferring with Winfield Trainor, a district superintendent of Lewis County, New York, who wanted a law passed that would allow two or more local districts to contract together.

That same year the New York State Legislature did indeed pass a law that allowed creation of a Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES). It may or may not have been the nation's first, as over 30 states have passed similar legislation, some of which are called educational service units.

From 1957 to 1961, he was director of the Catskill Area Project for Small School Design to help prepare Teachers College students for rural education. And before his retirement, he had experimented with the use of instruction by telephone, reported an August 2, 1963 *New York Times* article, "to show that widely separated schools could make use of experts and specialists who ordinarily would not be available to the individual schools."

In 1965, retired educator Frank W. Cyr moved to the small community of Stamford in the Catskills region southwest of Albany. That same year he and former district superintendent Melvin Carpenter initiated through a federal grant the Rural Supplementary Educational Center (RSEC) to establish a television system for the rural schools of the area, which became operational in 1968, reported a February 3, 1976 article in the Oneonta, NY *Daily Star*. It became one of the departments of the Otsego Northern Catskills BOCES, which presently serves 19 schools in Otsego, Delaware, Greene, and Schoharie Counties.

In March 1976, the BOCES Center at the former Rexmere Hotel in Stamford was renamed the Frank W. Cyr Educational Center because of his local contributions to rural education. Previously, a history of the elegant Rexmere and description of the new technological activities credited to Cyr had been published in an article in *The Catskills*, Winter 1972-73. And in May 1988, the State University of New York at Oneonta awarded him an honorary doctorate.

In April 1989, he was honored for his contribution to the pupil transportation industry at a luncheon and ceremony at Teachers College, Columbia University in the same room the original 1939 conference was held. And a Frank W. Cyr Scholarship Fund was begun at Teachers College, which to date has not yet reached the minimum endowment principal.

There was coverage of this 50th anniversary celebration by many publications nationwide, including an article in the June/July *School Bus Fleet*, which stated, in part: "The yellow school bus is truly an American icon."

A year later at Cyr's native Franklin, Nebraska birthplace, a Franklin Academy Historical Marker was dedicated by state authorities on May 4, 1990 at the town's City Park, the site the school had previously occupied from 1881 to 1922. He was one of three of the school's distinguished alumni named in the Marker's inscription.

Presently, the Franklin County Historical Society in Franklin has an exhibit on him, and a collection housed at the Cyr Center in Stamford, New York contains many of his articles, books, writings, and artifacts. The Gottesman Libraries at Teachers College, Columbia University house a Frank Cyr Collection, which contains his books, articles, and other materials, and the *Teachers College Historical Timeline* includes Cyr's 1939 achievement.

Biographical accounts include obituaries published in the August 4, 1995 *New York Times* and August 8, 1995 *Franklin* /NE/ *County Chronicle* and *Columbia University Record*, Vol 21, No 1 (September 8, 1995). A recent profile appeared in the September 2-3, 2006 Oneonta, NY *Daily Star*.

A comprehensive history of Cyr's views on small school education and his autobiography are in a 240-page paperback book he co-authored before his death. Titled *Designing Small Schools of the Future Using High Tech Learning Communications*, it was published in 1995 by The Institute for Small School Design. It is available from the Catskill Mountains Educational Center, 159 West Main Street in Stamford, New York 12167.

Born in 1900 near Franklin in Franklin County, Nebraska, one of five children of Howard and Nellie Phoenix Cyr, he grew up on the farm of his father, a native of Canada. As stated previously, he attended a one-room country school, then graduated from Franklin Academy in 1917.

Married in August 1930 to Clay Center native Evelyn Fate, who had been a mathematics teacher at Deuel County High School the previous school year, he and his wife raised a daughter and a son. Frank W. Cyr died at age 95 on August 1, 1995 at Stamford, New York, with interment in Stamford Cemetery, located near the foot of Mt. Utsayantha.

Gladys Henry Dick: Biomedical researcher who co-discovered cause, treatment, and prevention of scarlet fever in the early 20th century ranked among female immortals in science

Prior to the 1920s, the contagious respiratory infection known as scarlet fever (also called scarlatina) appeared from time to time in epidemics in various regions of the world.

Primarily a childhood disease characterized by a sore throat, fever, lethargy, and body rash, it sometimes led to serious complications such as rheumatic fever (a heart disease), kidney inflammation, or arthritis. In severe cases, death occurred within 24 hours.

First described by English physician Thomas Sydenham in 1676, its causes and treatments were not well understood. According to *The Encyclopedia of Plague & Pestilence: From Ancient Times to the Present,* Rev Ed (Checkmark Books/Facts On File, 2001), epidemics of note occurred in the New England states from Vermont to Connecticut in the 1730s and 1790s and in the nations of Australia and New Zealand in the latter half of the 19th century,

"In the latter half of the 19th century, mortalities of 25 to 35 percent were common in the United States, Western Europe, and Scandinavia," reports the scarlet fever entry in *Cecil Textbook of Medicine,* 22nd. ed, Vol 2 (W. B. Saunders, 2004).

American magazines published articles on scarlet fever in Japan in 1893 and in the United States in 1901, 1903, and 1909. And the authoritative *Encyclopedia Britannica,* Vol 24 (1911) stated in its scarlet fever entry that one of the

first requirements in its treatment "is the isolation of the case, with the view of preventing the spread of the disease."

By 1911, the year that Pawnee City, Nebraska native Dr. Gladys R. Henry relocated to Chicago, where shortly afterwards she began to conduct with her husband Dr. George F. Dick the first successful research to control scarlet fever, there was very little the field of medicine could offer toward understanding the disease despite efforts of researchers worldwide to learn its causes and treatments.

Further complicating the task was the fact this was an era when women faced stereotypes and sex discrimination, according to Margaret W. Rossiter, author of *Women Scientists in America: Struggles and Strategies to 1940* (Johns Hopkins University Press, 1982), who wrote, in part: "If by 1910 women had succeeded in being allowed to earn degrees from almost all German and American universities granting them to men, they were far less successful in these years in gaining equal treatment in the world of employment."

Yet, Gladys Rowena Henry's family history and educational background as well as her ability and character had prepared her to become one of the notable female pioneer scientists.

Her mother Azelia Edson Henry, daughter of Oliver and Henrietta Alden Edson, was a direct descendant of the Mayflower passenger John Alden, one of the important founders of Plymouth Colony in New England in 1620, according to his entry in *American National Biography,* Vol 1(1999).

After marrying William C. Henry in Benton County, Iowa in 1873, Azelia lived in Wilber, Saline County, Nebraska from 1876 to 1879, where her husband owned a grain elevator, established a bank, and was among the town's original trustees.

W. C. Henry continued his grain and banking interests in Pawnee City, which had an 1880 population of 763 and an 1890 population of 1,550. He also purchased over 1,000 acres of farmland throughout Pawnee County, including Miles Township, where the village of Burchard was established.

Gladys, one of four children, was born in Pawnee City in December 1881, and attended the local elementary school. At the age of five, she acquired an interest in becoming a doctor when she was taken by her mother to see a neighbor's sick child who suffered a violent attack from a disorder during the visit, reported the lengthy article "Conquest of Scarlet Fever" in the December 1924 *Harper's Monthly.*

By 1893, the family relocated to 3090 R Street in Lincoln, which by 1900 had a population of 40,169. There, Gladys briefly attended local schools until the fall of 1895 when she enrolled in prep school at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, and completed her bachelor of science degree in 1900 at the age of 18.

Of the 188 graduates in her class, she was one of 21 who were elected to the prestigious Phi Beta Kappa honorary society. Alongside the photograph of Gladys Henry in the college annual was the editorial comment: "She's beautiful and therefore to be wooed."

According to some scholars, UNL enjoyed its "golden era" in academics during and after the 1890s, even though by 1900 it had an enrollment of only 2,000 students and 53 faculty members with professorial rank. (There were other teachers with differing, less prominent titles.)

Gladys wanted to enter medical school, but her mother objected, so she took graduate courses at UNL until 1902 in the fields of biology and zoology, then reportedly taught high school biology for one year at Kearney in central Nebraska.

During Gladys Henry's years on the UNL campus, there were several distinguished faculty members present, judging, for example, by entries in *American National Biography* decades later for Elisha B. Andrews, its chancellor from 1900 to 1908, Charles Bessey in botany, DeWitt Brace in physics, Frederic Clements in botany, Rollins

Emerson in horticulture, H. Winnett Orr in medical history, Louise Pound in English, Roscoe Pound in law, Edward A. Ross in sociology, Henry Baldwin Ward in zoology, and Harry K. Wolfe in philosophy/psychology.

Probably most influential in Gladys Henry's collegiate preparation was Professor Henry B. Ward, later called the "father" of American parasitology. He helped strengthen the UNL biological sciences program after 1893 and helped establish the new College of Medicine at the University of Nebraska in 1902. As its first Dean, Ward helped merge the basic science studies at UNL with the clinical training at the Omaha Medical College, the latter originally begun in 1881. The new College of Medicine was completely located in Omaha by 1914.

Gladys' family members also influenced the advancement of her career through their educational pursuits on the East Coast. Her brother Alden E. Henry earned degrees from UNL in 1897 and 1898, then graduated *cum laude* from law school at Harvard University in 1903, according to his entry in *Nebraskana* (Baldwin, 1932). After 1915, he resided in Pawnee City as an attorney and supervisor of the family farms in Pawnee County.

Her sister Margaret Edith Henry earned a bachelor's degree from UNL in 1898 with Phi Beta Kappa honors and a master's degree in 1900, then studied philosophy at Bryn Mawr College and Radcliffe College before earning a doctorate from Columbia University in 1906.

Beyond that, Edith was married in 1904 to Alvin Johnson, who had earned degrees from UNL in 1897 and 1898, then a doctorate from Columbia University in 1902. Their marriage was unusual in that Edith Henry Johnson home-schooled their seven children before they all attended college and earned their degrees.

Gladys' brother-in-law Alvin Johnson, who taught economics at several colleges, including UNL from 1906 to 1908, later became distinguished for co-founding in 1919 the New School for Social Research, helping to edit from 1926 to 1935 the 15-volume *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences,* and co-drafting for passage by the New York Legislature in the 1940s the first bill to ban discrimination in employment, reported his entry in *American National Biography,* Vol 12 (1999).

Another significant family event was the death of Gladys' father W. C. Henry at Lincoln in January 1903, resulting in the relocation of her mother to the Pawnee County village of Burchard, which in 1900 had a population of 297. (It was the birthplace in 1893 of Hollywood silent film comedian Harold Lloyd.) For over a decade, Azelia Henry managed the family estate, including the farmland throughout the county, from her Burchard home at Lot 7, Block 21, which was co-owned for several years with her children Alden and Gladys.

At about the same time, Gladys Henry left for Baltimore, Maryland to attend Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, where she earned her medical doctorate in 1907, and became the fourth woman to be elected to Alpha Omega Alpha, the oldest honor medical society in the world, currently claiming over 125 chapters in Canada, Puerto Rico, and the United States.

"Though Johns Hopkins admitted female students it provided no residences. Gladys Henry early demonstrated her independence and business acumen by organizing the women to buy their own house," states her entry in *Notable American Women: The Modern Period* (Belknap Press, 1980). After graduation, she served her internship at Johns Hopkins Hospital and was an assistant resident physician, gaining an introduction to biomedical research there and during a required year of foreign postgraduate training in Berlin, Germany.

After her 1911 relocation to Chicago, likely influenced by the fact her sister Edith was there with husband Alvin Johnson, who taught at the University of Chicago during the 1910-11 school year, Dr. Henry began work in the laboratory of Children's Memorial Hospital, reported the December 1924 *Harper's Monthly* article, where she studied scarlet fever cases and herself contracted the disease.

Published accounts vary, but she also affiliated with other local institutions, including Rush Medical College (the 1914 Chicago City Directory listed her as an instructor there) and Evanston Hospital. For a time, Gladys also held a

private practice in Evanston, the city of her residence until 1953.

During her early years in the Chicago area, she met Fort Wayne, Indiana native Dr. George F. Dick, a 1905 Rush Medical College graduate who engaged in research and private practice before serving as a pathology professor at Rush from 1918 to 1933, then as chairman of the University of Chicago Department of Medicine from 1933 to the late 1940s. (See *Chicago Medical Directory* for the years 1912 to 1953 and his obituary in the October 14, 1967 *New York Times*.)

At the time they met, he was affiliated with the John McCormick Institute of Infectious Diseases directed by Rush pathology professor Ludvig Hektoen from 1910 to 1937. The Institute had been founded by the philanthropy of Chicago's Harold and Edith Rockefeller McCormick, whose son had died of scarlet fever in 1901 at the age of five.

Both Gladys and George had pondered their mutual research interests, decided to study acute contagious diseases, especially scarlet fever, and began their collaboration after she joined him at McCormick Institute. She became Dr. Gladys Henry Dick after their marriage in January 1914, the year they began their search for the cause of the disease.

Within two years, they had verified the results of previous investigators regarding the association of hemolytic streptococcus with scarlet fever and the production of immune bodies. Then they attempted to produce experimental scarlet fever on animals in determining the cause.

But after another two years of testing various cultures of bacteria made from the throats, blood, organs, and secretions of scarlet-fever patients, the Dicks were forced to conclude that animals were not susceptible.

They then used human volunteers and appeared close to identification of the scarlet fever microbe, but there was some question about the purity of the culture. And they knew that less than one half of the persons exposed contract the disease.

At this time, their work was interrupted by World War I, when Gladys' husband went to a medical unit overseas. Moreover, her mother Azelia Henry, who had resided with the couple for more than two years, died due to failing health, so burial arrangements were made at the Burchard Cemetery in Pawnee County, Nebraska, reported the February 21, 1918 *Pawnee City Republican.* And Gladys was stricken with the Spanish flu that had spread that year throughout the world.

After the war ended, and their experimental cultures in the laboratory had dried up, the Dicks resumed their work, which included inoculating themselves with the materials before testing them on human volunteers.

Finally, in October 1923, a case of scarlet fever was obtained by inoculation with a pure culture of hemolytic streptococcus isolated from a lesion on the finger of a nurse who had acquired the disease while caring for a convalescent scarlet fever patient.

The Dicks had achieved a medical breakthrough after a decade of determined, painstaking scientific investigation and funding from various sources, including the Otho S. A. Sprague Memorial Institute and the McCormick Institute of Infectious Diseases. They had identified a specific toxin produced by the bacteria.

In 1924, they were able to develop a skin test to determine susceptibility, which became known worldwide as the Dick test. Then after injecting increasing amounts of the scarlet fever toxin into horses, they produced an antitoxin for those individuals who had already contracted scarlet fever. And later they formulated a vaccine to prevent the disease by subcutaneous injections of sterile scarlet fever toxin in a series of doses over a five-week period.

Though immunization was only temporarily effective with some people, the Dicks' research showed that over a period of 10 years, 90 percent remained immune.

Eventually, they developed a toxin administered by mouth. According to their easy-to-read 149-page book *Scarlet Fever* (Year Book Publishers, 1938), the oral method was useful for persons with hemophilia and in shortening the time required to get an institution, such as a school, out of quarantine in as little as 12 days. But there were practical difficulties involved.

At a June 1940 convention of the American Medical Association, they reported progress in developing a tablet for preventing and curing scarlet fever. And a February 17, 1945 *New York Times* article reported the Dicks were issued U.S. Patent 2,369,218 for a concentrate that could be formed easily into tablets or capsules for quicker immunization than by the hypodermic injection method.

Despite the Dicks' widespread publicity and success, they were subject to controversy because they patented their preparation and manufacture methods for the toxin and antitoxin discoveries in 1924 and beyond. Some researchers believed their patent protection seemed characteristic of commercialism, though the Dicks stated their concern was for the quality of serum production. In fact, their desire to retain control over the production process resulted in a lengthy but successful lawsuit against Lederle Laboratories in 1930.

As early as 1928, some authorities argued that private persons like the Dicks should not have patent rights over effective therapeutics like the streptococcus serum because it represented a monopoly and prevented other researchers from making improvements. In 1935, the League of Nations health organization asserted that their patent rights, which by then had extended beyond the United States to Canada, Ireland, and England, interfered with the League's efforts toward biological standardization.

By the end of the 20th century, however, it was more common for laboratory researchers to protect the integrity of their creations via patents, suggesting the Dicks were decades ahead of their time.

Aside from dedicating some 30 years to scarlet fever investigation with her husband, Gladys Henry Dick also contributed her biomedical expertise to the Cradle Society of Evanston, Illinois, founded principally by Mrs. Florence Walrath in 1923. Among its first board of directors were Mr. and Mrs. Charles Gates Dawes, whose residence at 225 Greenwood has housed the Evanston Historical Society since 1959. Dawes served as U.S. Vice President from 1925 to 1929, and was co-recipient of the 1925 Nobel Prize for peace.

The Cradle Society was not the first professional adoption agency in America, as erroneously reported in some sources. Research by the Evanston Historical Society and the Spring 1987 issue of *Chicago History* reveal that the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, founded in 1883, may have been the first, becoming professional in 1898. Another early institution is the Gladney Center for Adoption at Fort Worth, Texas, founded in 1887 and chartered by the Texas State Legislature inn 1904.

While babies are not born in the Cradle Society's facilities, they are usually brought to it shortly after birth, and several weeks later are adopted by interested families. Gladys Dick became involved with the Society shortly after an epidemic of intestinal infection in 1927-28 resulted in 27 deaths, forcing the Cradle to consider closing.

She found the babies' illnesses were due, in part, to a germ in the powdered milk, so manufacturers subsequently produced boilable powdered milk. And she discovered there was a cross infection in the nursery itself because the germs were carried from one youngster to another by nurses who had clean, but unsterilized hands. According to an April 9, 1938 *Saturday Evening Post* article titled "The Cradle," Gladys introduced and implemented what became known as the Dick Aseptic Nursery Technique--sterilization of items and use of aseptically clean hands.

Gladys was a member of its board of directors from 1928 to 1936 and a member of its medical advisory staff from 1937 to 1953. She personally set an example of the Cradle Society's objective in 1930 by adopting with her husband two children when she was almost 49 years of age.

While Gladys and her husband were nominated by the Gorgas Memorial Institute of Chicago for the Nobel Prize in

medicine in 1925, it was not awarded that year. Some scholars believe they were passed over due to what at the time was the Dicks' unorthodox practice of obtaining patents. On the other hand, Margaret W. Rossiter in her 1982 book noted that Nobel Prizes were given in only three fields of science--physics, chemistry, and medicine/physiology, "those fields that had been and were remaining the least receptive to women." Previously, the only woman to earn Nobel Prizes in these male-dominated fields was Marie Curie.

As for other recognition of their scientific achievements, both Gladys and her husband were awarded the Charles Mickle Fellowship in 1926 from the faculty of medicine at the University of Toronto in Canada, and the Cameron Prize in 1933 from the University of Edinburgh in Scotland for their contribution to practical therapeutics. (Just two years earlier, French physicist Marie Curie received the Cameron Prize for therapeutic advances resulting from her discovery of radium earlier in the century.)

Gladys did receive honorary doctorate degrees from Northwestern University in 1928 and from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1940. She was listed in the November 27, 1940 *New York Times* among 100 outstanding career women by the Woman's Centennial Congress, representing the fields of business, education, engineering, home economics, law, medicine, newspaper and publicity, public service, science, social service, theology, and miscellaneous. According to research by the Evanston Historical Society, an endowment in honor of Gladys Dick existed at the Evanston Northwestern Healthcare Hospital from 1965 to about 2000.

At present, scarlet fever is no longer the fearful disease it once was, as the efforts of the Dicks and others, such as Sir Alexander Fleming, the discoverer of penicillin, contributed to the significant lessening of its occurrence. And as reported by the *Cecil Textbook of Medicine,* cited earlier, those who do contract the disease can usually recover 4 to 5 days after penicillin treatment, with the rash disappearing in several weeks.

For her role in controlling scarlet fever for the first time in world history, Gladys Henry Dick is the subject of biographical entries in several leading references, such as *Notable Women in the Life Sciences: A Biographical Dictionary* (Greenwood Press, 1996) and *Notable Twentieth-Century Scientists,* Supplement (Gale, 1998) and *American National Biography,* Supplement 1 (Oxford University Press, 2002).

A short entry on her is also included in "Immortal Women: Essays in Medical Eponyms Part II," *American Journal of Surgical Pathology,* Vol 25 (October 2001) 1326-1333.

After 1953, the Dicks moved from their home at 1015 Greenwood Boulevard in Evanston, Illinois to Palo Alto, California, where Gladys suffered from declining health during her retirement years. An August 23, 1963 *Chicago Tribune* obituary reported she died on August 21 at the age of 81 at Menlo Park, California, and was survived by her husband, her daughter Rowena Kelley, and her son Roger H. Dick.

Gladys Henry Dick's cremated remains were interred alongside the gravesites of her parents in the Henry family lot in the Burchard, Nebraska Cemetery located in Section 18 of Plum Creek Township, Pawnee County, just half a mile south and half a mile west of Burchard, a village of 103 persons at the turn of the 21st century.

Val Logsdon Fitch: Basic research in 1964 by Nobel Prize-winning physicist may advance humankind's understanding of the universe

Even though most people on Earth probably have a religious or philosophical viewpoint on the existence of our universe and indeed on life itself, the scientific field of physics offers a rational explanation of its origins and evolution based on a fixed system of principles, or laws, tested by laboratory equipment and subsequent discoveries.

The field of physics, of course, is difficult for most of us to understand. It does involve the study of the physical properties of anything, and its major branches, according to the physics entry in *Encyclopedia Americana,* Vol 22 (2003), are "mechanics, optics, electricity, magnetism, acoustics, heat, and atomic physics," which are "linked by

such concepts as energy, mass, force, acceleration, and change."

Other sciences such as astronomy, physical chemistry, and plasma physics involve applications of physics and have contributed to the field's advancement. Mathematics is also fundamental in the formulation of its theories as is engineering in the development of its experimental equipment.

Present scientific theory is that the universe was created about 14 billion years ago with an explosive event called "the Big Bang" from matter in a "cosmic egg" as small as a needle point. And as author Charles Flowers wrote in one chapter of his book *Instability Rules: The Ten Most Amazing Ideas of Modern Science* (Wiley & Sons, 2002), "the universe almost instantaneously grew billions of times larger, at the same time releasing oceans of energy that created more matter."

Over a million years, "once matter was formed and hydrogen gas continued expanding outward, the stage was set for the birth of stars and galaxies." Once the first stars stabilized in a few billion years, some of them caused "the formation of heavy elements essential to our lives on Earth: iron, oxygen, and carbon, among others." Eventually, the elements spread out, resulting in the formation of several billion galaxies, including our Milky Way, each containing billions of stars like our own Sun.

Moreover, the elements led to the formation of planets in our solar system about 10 billion years after the "Big Bang" and contributed to the make-up of all known life, which in its lower forms on Earth began over 3 billion years ago.

At present, scientists believe the universe is open and continues to expand, and there is no center. They also calculate that our Sun will die in about 5 billion years, "joining billions of other stars in the Milky Way that have already suffered the same fate."

More about the evolution of the universe, the Earth, and life is in readable articles in the October 1994 issue of *Scientific American*.

Of course, research in theoretical physics by many individuals in recent history has led to much of our current knowledge of the universe. In the 20th century, for example, Danish physicist Niels Bohr proposed a theory of atomic structure, the renowned Albert Einstein conceived his general theory of relativity, and Werner Heisenberg in Germany developed quantum mechanics.

But science is a self-correcting process, and other mysteries about the universe need resolution. For example, after the Big Bang, an equal number of particles and antiparticles formed, and should have annihilated each other, resulting in virtual nothingness. Instead, more matter than antimatter remained in the universe. Why did that happen?

A significant discovery in 1964 by Val Logsdon Fitch, a native of Merriman, Nebraska, and James Cronin may eventually help scientists explain the mystery.

Preceding his career as a particle physicist and educator, Fitch had spent his formative years in northwestern Nebraska, where he was born in 1923 on his parents' 4-square-mile ranch about five miles northwest of Merriman, a village with a 1920 population of 346 in sparsely populated Cherry County, which on the north borders the state of South Dakota. His mother was a former local school teacher, and Val was the youngest of three children.

About 40 miles northwest of the Fitch ranch was Wounded Knee, South Dakota, and the culture of the Sioux Indians was part of his early environment. Because his father could, to some extent, speak their language, they made him an honorary chief in recognition of his friendly interest.

At the age of three, he moved with his family to the town of Merriman, after his father, who became badly injured after an accident while riding his horse, could not continue managing the ranch and its cattle. Two years later, the

family moved several miles west to Gordon, a town with a 1930 population of 1,958 in adjacent Sheridan County, where his father entered the insurance business.

Val attended the local public schools, graduating from Gordon High School in 1940. Out of a class of 67 graduates, he was named valedictorian. The May 23, 1940 *Gordon Journal* also reported he was voted the most outstanding boy in his class, and received a letter in the sport of track. Previously, he earned a letter in football.

Meanwhile, his parents had retained ownership of the ranch but left its operation mainly to others. As a youth, Val conducted electrical and chemical experiments in the basement of his parents' home at Gordon, and on the ranch the gasoline engine that powered his mother's washing machine was used by him to build go-carts and lifting devices, according to his brief autobiography in Marianna Cook, *Faces of Science* (W. W. Norton, 2005), a 175-page book that features autobiographies and photos of 77 scientists. Of these early experiences, he noted, in part, that "it was a rich life for one interested in how everything worked, in what made the world tick."

At the same time, his older brother Lyle had earned his bachelor's degree from nearby Chadron State Teachers College in 1935 and a master's degree from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1938. Lyle C. Fitch, who went on to earn his doctorate in economics from Columbia University in 1946, became distinguished as an administrator for New York City, as president of the Institute of Public Administration, and as a writer of articles, reviews, and books. His obituary appeared in the December 31, 1996 *New York Times.*

After high school, Val received a scholarship to attend Chadron State Teachers College at nearby Chadron in Dawes County, a town with a 1940 population of 4,262. He attended Chadron State from the fall of 1940 through the summer of 1942, which at the time had an enrollment of 400.

During the fall of 1942, he attended Northwestern University at Evanston, Illinois, enrolling in its Technological Institute for engineering training. According to the February 18, 1943 *Gordon Journal*, after completing three months of classroom work, he was assigned to shop work in the laboratories of Calco Chemical Company at Bound Brook, New Jersey, just west of New Brunswick.

In the spring of 1943, Val entered the U.S. Army during World War II, and about a year later was assigned to Los Alamos, New Mexico as part of the Special Engineer Detachment to serve in technician capacities on the Manhattan Project, the secret U.S. effort to build the atomic bomb.

As a result, his early interest in chemistry had changed to physics after working alongside some of the most renowned scientists in the world. In his autobiographical Chapter 11 of *All In Our Time: The Reminiscences of Twelve Nuclear Pioneers* (Bulletin of Atomic Scientists, 1975), Fitch reported that "many of us found our work in the laboratory intellectually stimulating... We considered this army assignment extraordinarily fortuitous," and concluded that being exposed to superb physicists "had a profound influence upon us."

One of Fitch's first tasks was to build "a mixing circuit for measuring the degree of simultaneity of several independently initiated explosive shock waves," and later gained first-hand experience "with the speed of propagation of detonations, Kerst's betatron at K-site, and the design and construction of better oscilloscopes for recording timing information." He was a member of the group that prepared a transmission cable over 10,000 yards used to trigger the detonation of the first bomb at Alamogordo on July 16, 1945, an event for which he was present.

During relaxed occasions, he and other soldiers in his detachment became acquainted during hiking, skiing, and skating excursions with such Nobel Prize-winning physicists as Niels Bohr (1922), James Chadwick (1935), Enrico Fermi (1938), and Isidor I. Rabi (1944). He also knew Los Alamos scientific director J. Robert Oppenheimer and other knowledgeable persons.

Years later, Fitch observed that the most accomplished experimentalists in physics at Los Alamos were also the ones who knew most about electronics and electronic techniques, and he learned "in approaching the measurement of new

phenomena, not just to consider using existing apparatus but to allow the mind to wander freely and invent new ways of doing the job."

After discharge from the Army in 1946, he attended McGill University in Montreal, Canada, earning a bachelor's degree in electrical engineering in 1948, then pursued graduate studies in physics at Columbia University, completing his doctorate in 1954.

While there, he worked under the supervision of physics professor James Rainwater, executive director of Columbia's Nevis Cyclotron Laboratory, and later recipient of the 1975 Nobel Prize. Both were featured in a May 25, 1953 *New York Times* article for designing and operating the detecting apparatus that revealed the nucleus of an atom is about twice as dense as physicists had believed the previous half century.

In 1954, Fitch began his career as a professor and researcher in the field of particle physics at Princeton University in Princeton, New Jersey, the fourth oldest college in the nation and one of the eight Ivy League universities that share common interests in scholarship and athletics. (It is not, however, part of the nearby Princeton-based Institute for Advanced Study, a private "think tank" which from 1933 to 1955 was the academic home of Albert Einstein.)

His direct association for over half a century with Princeton University Department of Physics was beneficial for both. For many decades, the Department has ranked among national leaders in basic research. And from 1927 to the present, 16 of its graduates and faculty members (including Fitch) have received the Nobel Prize in physics.

In the 1950s, the development of high-energy-equipment called accelerators aided particle physicists in the study of matter in the universe. All ordinary matter (defined as anything that occupies space) has an atomic structure comprised of atoms, which can be divided into smaller subatomic units (particles) called electrons, neutrons, and protons, and the latter two into even smaller particles called quarks.

For the general reader, the reference book *World of Physics*, Vol 2 (Gale, 2001) reminds us that "subatomic particles are very important in technology. Television sets use beams of electrons to create their pictures." More recently, some hospitals use a giant machine to bombard cancer tumors with beams of protons.

To date, the study of these basic elements of matter and the forces (electromagnetism, strong, weak, and gravitation) that act upon them, such as holding matter together, has resulted in the identification of more than 150 particles (the fundamental building blocks of matter). Some come through space as cosmic rays, others as manufactured in particle accelerators.

The same laws of physics operate everywhere because the universe is homogeneous (the galaxies are distributed uniformly throughout the universe) and isotropic (the same properties are found in all places and all directions).

Thus there is a symmetry of nature. And as reported in the previously cited *Encyclopedia Americana*, each individual particle or a many-particle system is linked to the rest of the universe, based on a mathematical equation from quantum mechanics.

Though the law of conservation of matter states that mass-energy cannot be created or destroyed, even though mass and energy are interchangeable, the existence of more matter than antimatter in the universe, as noted earlier, violates the law of conservation.

After the Big Bang 14 billion years ago, annihilation of an equal amount of particles and antiparticles should have resulted in an equal sum of mass-energy in the form of radiation, not in the elements that became stars, planets, and living beings.

Theorists believe the excess of matter came from "violations of a symmetry called charge-parity, or CP," reported the authors of "The Asymmetry between Matter and Antimatter," published in the October 1998 *Scientific American*.

Though it was earlier thought that nature obeyed three basic symmetry rules, researchers in the 1950s found that symmetry of parity (P) was "not absolutely conserved in the beta decay (electron emission) of certain radioactive nuclei because the nuclei emitted more lefthanded than righthanded electrons," and there was lack of conservation of charge conjugation symmetry(C) when some processes gave preference to particles over antiparticles.

Despite these problems, researchers were able to keep the physical laws intact by joining charge conjugation and parity into a combined CP conservation rule. But in 1964, Fitch and Cronin discovered a violation of the combined CP conservation rule.

When the two Princeton University professors decided to test CP symmetry, they found the opposite of what they had expected. While conducting their study at the Brookhaven National Laboratory on Long Island, New York for about a year, they used advanced equipment such as "a spark chamber that permitted precise determination of the tracks of decay products ....and a particle accelerator capable of imparting energies up to billions of electron volts," report the Fitch and Cronin entries in *Nobel Prize Winners* (H. W. Wilson, 1987).

They worked with beams of neutral K-mesons, now called kaons, which are composed of a quark (short-lived, which travels an average of only a few centimeters before decaying), and an anti-quark (long-lived, which travels tens of meters before decaying). The two quarks, however, do not annihilate each other because they are not the same types of quarks.

The hypothesis of CP conservation predicted certain properties for mesons (kaons) that are electrically neutral and decay by weak force. According to CP symmetry, a short-lived K-meson (quark) decays into two pi-mesons (pions), while a long-lived K-meson (anti-quark) decays into three pi-mesons (pions).

In 1964, Fitch and Cronin found that the long-lived K-mesons (anti-quarks) decay to two pi-mesons (pions) at a rate of about one out of every 500 decays. Under CP conservation, the anti-quarks should have decayed to three pions, not two.

According to the October 1998 *Scientific American* article previously cited, "Few experiments in particle physics have produced a result as surprising as this one. Theorists found it hard to see why CP symmetry should be broken at all and even harder to understand why any imperfection should be so small."

The experiment by Fitch and Cronin was the first to reveal that matter and antimatter do not always conform to CP conservation, Thus, because the anti-quarks decay a little faster than quarks, the result is that quarks do not have a partner to annihilate. Over a long period of time, the small difference in their decay increase means that eventually only quarks, or matter, remain.

For their discovery, Val Fitch and James Cronin were awarded the 1980 Nobel Prize in physics at Stockholm, Sweden for what a November 7, 1980 *Science* article described as "a textbook-perfect experiment." And a description of the ceremonies and Fitch's reactions was published in the February 22, 1981 *Omaha Sunday World Herald Magazine of the Midlands* by Val's brother Lyle.

New research on subatomic particles many years later by a multinational team of about 600 physicists and engineers showed that CP violation occurs in another type of particle, the B meson, reported a July 7, 2001 *New York Times* article. This verification of the original 1964 experiment will enable the scientific community to continue with its study of the relationship between CP violation and the existence of more matter than antimatter in the universe.

Val Fitch also made contributions through several leadership positions during his distinguished career of research and teaching. He served as member of the President's Science Advisory Committee from 1970 to 1973, as chairman of the Princeton University Physics Department from 1976 to 1981, as chairman of the Physics Advisory Committee to the National Science Foundation from 1980 to 1983, and as president of the American Physical Society in 1987-

88.

He was elected as a fellow and member of several organizations, including the prestigious National Academy of Sciences in 1966. His many honors include the Research Corporation Award in 1967, the Ernest O. Lawrence Award in 1968, and the John Price Witherill Medal of the Franklin Institute in 1976.

It is also noteworthy that Fitch received in 1984 the Distinguished Alumnus Award of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, representing Chadron State College, and that he returned to his former Nebraska home area in 1985 to receive Chadron State's Distinguished Service Award and speak at its 74th Annual Commencement.

According to the May 14, 1985 *Chadron Record*, he not only reminded members of the Class of 1985 that several major world problems remain to be solved but also complimented them by saying, "Less has been presented to you on a platter. You have to dig more for what you have, you are better able to cope with unexpected situations. As I like to say, you have a survival fitness coefficient that is very high."

Aside from the 1980 Nobel Prize, he also received the prestigious National Medal of Science in 1993 for his pioneering experiments in physics. There were also several other forms of recognition, including honorary doctorates from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1995 and Princeton University in 2000.

For biographical sources besides those previously mentioned, consult *Biographical Dictionary of Scientists--Physicists* (Blond Educational, 1981) and *Notable Twentieth-Century Scientists*, Vol 2 (Gale, 1995). There are also entries in *Encyclopedia Americana*, Vol 11 (2003) and *Who's Who in America*, Vol 1 (2006).

Born in 1923 near Merriman, Nebraska to Fred B. and Frances N. Logsdon Fitch, the youngest of three children, Val was married in 1949 to Elise Cunningham, with whom he had two sons. Four years after her death in 1972, he was remarried to Daisy Harper, and has three stepchildren. Since 1994, he has served as professor emeritus at Princeton University.

Jay W. Forrester: Electrical engineer laid foundation for modern personal computer

One of the major inventors in American history, Jay W. Forrester was the leader of researchers at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology from 1945 to 1956, credited not only with being a pioneer in the early development of the digital computer but also for laying the foundation of the modern personal computer.

As organizer of Project Whirlwind, funded under government contract, Forrester had to develop a flight-simulator with responses in real time for training pilots. Since an analog computer was not fast enough, he consulted with others, including University of Pennsylvania designers of the computer ENIAC, then embarked on a digital computer development program.

With a staff of 175 persons and an annual budget of $1 million, he improved the lifespan of vacuum tubes, but had to solve the problem of information storage. So in 1949 he invented a magnetic core memory in a three-dimensional array which allowed for high reliability and high speed at a lower cost.

His random-access, coincident-current magnetic storage technology was first used in a business computer marketed by IBM in 1955. And it became the standard memory device for digital computers until it was replaced in the mid-1970s by semiconductor memory chips.

Whirlwind was operational in 1951, and it proved its value to the military by running aircraft simulators, aiming missiles, and identifying hostile aircraft. Within two years it could track and identify 48 aircraft at the same time.

So it was employed for the highly advanced air defense system of the United States and fully implemented in 1958, performing its mission for another 25 years. And the military's production of a standard operator's console evolved into a modern desktop computer environment years later.

Whirlwind was also the world's first general-purpose real-time computer, reported an article in the December 2001 *Scientific American,* and individuals used it like a personal computer, sitting at the cathode-ray-tube display where they could "write code, run simulations or just play around" during short sessions.

To date, some one billion personal computers have been purchased worldwide, and they are now a strong competitor for television as far as leisure time spent at home.

From 1956 to 1989, Forrester devoted his career at MIT to creating system dynamics in the field of management as a way to combine practical knowledge about structure and policies in social systems with computer simulation to explain behavior, including an understanding of the national economy. Basically, it is a process for showing how alternative policies affect growth, stability, fluctuation, and changing behavior in corporations, cities, and countries.

He has been accorded many honors from various institutions and organizations, including election to the National Academy of Engineering in 1967 and induction into the National Inventors Hall of Fame at Akron, Ohio in 1979.

His place in history has also been assured with a biographical entry in *Notable Twentieth Century Scientists,* Vol 2 (Gale, 1995).

Born in 1918 on a cattle ranch west of Anselmo, Custer County, Nebraska to Marmaduke and Ethel Wright Forrester, he attended a one-room country school, and during high school at Anselmo, where he graduated in 1935, he designed a wind-driven electric plant that furnished power for the family home.

Jay W. Forrester earned his bachelor's degree in electrical engineering from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1939, finishing first in his class. After departing the state to engage in graduate work and various projects at MIT, he completed his master's degree in electrical engineering in 1945.

Since then, he and his wife have lived in the Boston area, where they raised three children. Among his many honorary degrees is a doctor of science from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1954.

Creighton J. Hale: Helmet and bat inventor who helped mold world's largest youth sports program

For nearly a half century, Hardy, Nebraska native Creighton J. Hale served as a major leader in the field of sports safety research on the amateur and professional levels. And he greatly contributed to molding Little League Baseball and Softball into the world's largest and most respected organized youth sports program.

An exercise physiologist, he first conducted a scientific study of professional baseball players while an associate professor at Springfield College in Massachusetts from 1951 to 1955 at the request of the renowned major league executive Branch Rickey.

Hale developed an electronic testing device to measure reaction times of major league players and various facets of the game. In 1960, he published his findings in *Roche Medical Image.*

Meanwhile, he had begun in 1955 his career as a researcher and later an executive with Little League Baseball, based in Williamsport, Pennsylvania, to study the effects of athletic competition on young boys. Two years earlier, after the organization's World Series was first televised, questions were raised about the healthiness of the sport for its participants.

His finding was that the emotional reaction of the parents and coaches was much higher than that of the players. Within minutes of a competition ending, the children were physiologically back to normal. However, the parents and coaches often showed elevated heart rates and other symptoms hours later.

Another research project involved the discovery that more young batters were hit by pitches than major league players. He electronically timed the reaction speed of batters, and learned that children had less time to react to a pitch.

So the Little League pitching mound was moved back from 44 feet to 46 feet, and the ratio of the bat speed to pitch speed was thus matched, and the chances of injuries were reduced significantly.

For several years Hale developed equipment to prevent injuries. Even though the National Federation of State High School Associations and the National Collegiate Athletic Association, both now headquartered in Indianapolis, Indiana, had mandated in 1955 and 1958 respectively that their baseball teams use fiber-glass helmets, the material did not withstand the impact of a pitched ball, and the design did not protect the temple area.

At the beginning of the decade, Pittsburgh Pirates' executive Charlie Muse, at the suggestion of Branch Rickey, had helped create a fiber-glass batting helmet that offered protection above the ears. According to Muse's obituary published in the May 20, 2005 *New York Times*, the Pirates were the first major league players to use the helmets in 1952 and 1953.

After Hale developed the double-earflap batter's helmet, originally made of polycarbonite (a light-weight plastic) but now may include a variety of light-weight plastics that withstand thrown balls and protect the temple area, Little League made its use mandatory by Little League players in 1961.

Eventually, the double or single flap batting helmet, based on his invention, became widely used on virtually all levels of baseball and softball. And thousands of serious injuries--as a result of batters or base runners hit by balls--have been prevented.

Its use was mandated by the National Federation of State High School Associations for baseball in 1970 and girls

softball in 1976, by the NCAA for baseball in 1980 and women's softball in 1986, and by the Major Leagues in 1983.

Hale pioneered other equipment that improved the safety of the game and the enjoyment of children. Wood bats could shatter when not handled properly, and they were expensive to maintain over a period of years.

So he co-developed with Alcoa Sports the aluminum bat, which was lighter and more durable than wood, and made the game easier for children to learn. First used by Little League in 1971, his bat was also used by the NCAA baseball and women's softball teams for a few years after 1975 and 1982 respectively until bats of other non-wood materials were allowed.

The non-wood bat is now widely used on almost all levels of amateur play. The National Federation of State High School Associations first permitted the aluminum bat for baseball in 1975 and for girls softball in 1981, but other material is now allowed, subject to approval by appropriate governing organizations.

Another of his innovations was a one-piece catcher's mask attached to a helmet that could be quickly removed. Made of lightweight plastic, it was produced after a previously used mask with magnesium bars led to injury.

Mandated for use by Little League in 1973, it became required--after sufficient testing by the National Operating Committee on Standards for Athletic Equipment --for use in high school baseball and girls softball in 2003, and the helmet must be dualflap.

A catcher's helmet was first required for girls high school softball in 1976, and a throat protector six years later. NCAA women's softball catchers were required to use a helmet with a mask in 2000. Some Major League Baseball catchers use a helmet of similar design while others use "skull" helmets without earflaps.

Hale's other safety developments were a catcher's chest protector with throat guard, rubber spiked baseball shoes (which for several years replaced the steel-spiked kind), and a portable nylon outfield fence that players could run into at full speed but not hurt themselves.

He donated his patents to Little League Baseball.

Outside of sports, he assisted in the development of the infantry pack in 1954 for use by the U.S. Army.

In 1976, he was elected chairman of a committee on consumer product safety standards for the American Society of Testing and Materials.

That same year he also became chairman of a group of scientists with the National Research Council of the National Academy of Sciences who were asked to develop a new military helmet, and later his research aided the development of a lightweight bullet-resistant vest used by the military and law enforcement personnel.

He co-designed a one-piece helmet made from a space-age plastic called Kevlar that offers more protection than the Army's old steel helmet which was worn over a helmet liner.

First used in combat during the U.S. liberation of Grenada in 1983, it resembles the shape of the German steel helmet of World War II. It is now standard issue of U. S. ground forces.

Aside from his work as a researcher, Creighton Hale also served as an innovative executive for Little League Baseball, with its mission set previously in 1939 by founder Carl E. Stotz as the development of good citizens rather than good athletes through "coaches teaching kids respect and discipline and sportsmanship and the desire to excel."

In the beginning, Little League involved players of ages 9-12, but in 1961 it added a Senior League for ages 13-15,

and in 1968 a Big League for ages 16-18.

Its first World Series in 1947 consisted primarily of teams from Pennsylvania, and eventually became annually televised. But ten years later, the first non-U.S. team to win the championship was from Monterrey, Mexico, and there were more than 4,000 leagues in the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

In the decade of the 1960s, the organization opened its new international headquarters building at Williamsport, opened regional headquarters offices in Canada, California, and Florida, and was granted a Charter of Federal Incorporation by the U.S. Congress.

Hale served as its third president from 1973 to 1994, and as chief executive of the board from 1983 to 1996. Under his leadership, the number of leagues enrolled increased from 10,006 to 21,711; teams from 90,000 to 198,347; participants from 370,000 to 3,125,205; and countries from 31 to 83.

He helped open additional regional headquarters offices in Connecticut, Indiana, and Texas, and international representative offices in Japan, Poland, and Puerto Rico.

In 1974, introduced for girls were Little League and Senior League Softball, and six years later Big League Softball. Added to baseball in 1979 was Junior League for 13-year-old boys.

Initiated also was Tee Ball for ages 5-7, which involves the use of a batting tee without a pitched ball, and Minor League for ages 7-12, which is for anyone who doesn't qualify for Little League.

The Challenger Division, intended for mentally and physically disabled children, was added in 1990. And among special projects Hale promoted were partnerships with federal agencies for drug and alcohol education, tobacco prevention, and traffic safety.

At the turn of the 21st century, Little League Baseball and Softball had become the world's largest youth sports program, serving boys and girls ages 5 to 18 in all 50 states and more than 100 countries. By 2001, the year Hale retired as its senior advisor, his impact had been amply recognized by his peers at all levels.

Among his numerous awards and honors have been the 1976 Robert J. Painter Memorial Award for "meritorious service in the field of standardization" of protective equipment of amateur and professional sports, the 1995 Rawlings Golden Glove Award for his service to Little League, and the 2000 James R. Andrews Award for Excellence in Baseball Sports Medicine. His entry is in *American Men & Women of Science,* Vol 3 (2003).

For Hale’s contributions to sports safety in baseball and softball as well as improving the safety of law enforcement and military personnel and for contributing to the development of good citizenship in boys and girls ages 5 to 18 through innovative Little League programs, he was recognized by Nebraska Congressman Tom Osborne on October 7, 2004 with an extension of remarks before the U.S. House of Representatives in Washington, DC.

Born in 1924 at Hardy, Nuckolls County, Nebraska, one of five children of Russell and Anita Fay Hale, both teachers, Creighton was raised on a nearby farm, and attended the Hardy Public Schools, where he graduated in 1942.

Active in athletics, he was quarterback of the school's state championship six-man football team, and was named in the December 7, 1941 Omaha *Sunday World Herald* as Nebraska's outstanding six-man quarterback of the year. The following spring he set a state record in the half-mile run, and was recognized by the Omaha newspaper as one of the state's two-sport stars.

After attending the University of Nebraska-Lincoln for one year, he spent a year at Doane College in the V-12 officers training program for the U.S. Navy. At both institutions he participated in athletics.

Following active duty during World War II, he earned his bachelor's degree from Colgate University at Hamilton, New York in 1948, his master's from Springfield College in 1949, and his doctorate from New York University in 1951.

Creighton J. Hale is married, raised three children, and resides at Williamsport.

Joyce C. Hall: Hallmark founder believed "When you care enough to send the very best"

The person who turned greeting cards into one of the most important means of personal communication in the 20th century was Joyce C. Hall, the Nebraska native who founded Hallmark Cards in 1910.

Along with the help of his family, he developed what became the world's largest greeting card company. Presently, it annually creates some 23,000 designs in over 30 languages and distributes them in more than 100 countries. Hallmark also offers other products such as gifts, gift wrap, party products, and stationery.

Known for innovations and practices ahead of his time, he believed that "good taste is good business" and that selling ideas is the most crucial of jobs.

Hall also felt that "we didn't start our business to see how much money we could make, but to see how good a job we could do."

His original experiences in business occurred as a youth in Nebraska. But after he relocated in 1910 to Kansas City, Missouri, he became a mail-order postcard distributor, and added greeting cards a year later when he was joined by his older brother, Rollie.

In 1914, the Hall brothers set up a retail store and sold cards and stationery. During World War I, they began manufacturing their own cards, and later introduced greeting cards that expressed friendship. Joyce also understood that a company's success is in direct ratio to its dealers' success.

Older brother, William, joined the partnership, and by 1923, the Hall Brothers Company built a new plant and opened their own employee cafeteria. The staff had grown from four in 1911 to some 120 employees at this time, with 16 salesmen doing business in all 48 states. Their 12 artists were creating 600 different designs per year.

A popular card contained lines from Edgar Guest's poem "A Friend's Greeting," and the company introduced decorative gift wrap. Begun also was a line of nonfolding flat cards and envelopes with heavy gold foil, which

reinforced Joyce's belief the public wanted quality products.

By the mid-1920s, the word "Hallmark" began appearing on the backs of cards, and it was one of the first companies to offer bonuses to employees. In 1928, its first national ad appeared in *Ladies Home Journal.*

In the 1930s, Walt Disney characters were used on cards, the welfare of company employees became a high priority, and display racks that made it convenient for customers to select cards were introduced at dealers' stores.

By 1940, Hallmark began advertising on radio, and four years later, it initiated its slogan "When You Care Enough to Send the Very Best," which at the time became the second most memorable behind Coca Cola's "The Pause That Refreshes."

Ever the innovator, Joyce visited various retail stores for ideas to expand his offerings. He had discovered the vast majority of greeting card buyers prefer verse to prose, and quotations and poetry from William Shakespeare to Ogden Nash were used.

After World War II, the company officially adopted as its logo a five-pointed crown, and among its staff of artists were individuals who represented 13 different nationalities.

A new line of Christmas cards introduced the public to works by such renowned artists as Leonardo da Vinci and Rembrandt. And former British prime minister Winston Churchill consented to use of his paintings on Christmas cards.

In 1954, the company name became Hallmark Cards, Inc. Also in the early 1950s, Hall wanted to showcase some of the world's greatest performers, so he sponsored the Hallmark Hall of Fame, which established the concept of a television special that pre-empted regularly scheduled programs. In more than 50 years, the Hallmark Hall of Fame has produced more than 200 shows and won more than 80 major awards.

About 1960, Hallmark introduced the Ambassador brand of cards to serve large, mass marketing stores, and soon new product offerings included albums, candles, gifts, party favors, stationery, and more.

After Joyce had served over 50 years as company leader, his son Donald assumed presidency in 1966. At that time, some 14,000 designs per year were produced by more than 300 artists and another 150 engaged in specialized graphic techniques.

In the later 1960s and 1970s, Joyce and Donald oversaw construction of Crown Center, a retail, office and residential complex surrounding Hallmark headquarters that became a city within Kansas City. While Joyce continued as chairman of the board until his death in 1982, his son began to diversify the company's operations, and several personal development industries became subsidiaries.

By the turn of the 21st century, Hallmark Cards, Inc. was the personal expression leader, with company cards sold under brand names such as Hallmark, Shoebox, Expressions From Hallmark, and Ambassador in more than 42,000 U.S. retail stores, more than 4,000 of which comprise the Hallmark Gold Crown store network. It also owns businesses in family entertainment, such as the Hallmark Channel cable network.

Its sales have reached some $4 billion annually, and Joyce's grandson Donald J. Hall, Jr. has served as chief executive since 2002.

The legacy of Joyce C. Hall was assured also by his many significant honors, such as the Horatio Alger Award

in 1957, an Emmy Award as sponsor in 1961, and honorary doctorate degrees granted by several institutions, including the University of Nebraska in 1968.

A comprehensive account of his life is his autobiography titled *When You Care Enough* (Hallmark, 1979) and an entry is included in the prestigious *American National Biography,* Vol 9 (1999). See also *Nebraska History,* Vol 89 (Spring 2008) 2-13.

Born in 1891 at David City, Butler County, Nebraska, one of five children of George and Nancy Houston Hall, Joyce attended the local elementary school. At the age of eight, he held various part-time jobs after his father abandoned the family. One summer he was a local door-to-door salesman for the California Perfume Company, later renamed Avon Products.

In 1902, he moved with his family to Norfolk, where his older brothers had purchased a bookstore. There he worked after school and on weekends. One summer he traveled with his brother, Rollie, to western Nebraska, Wyoming, and South Dakota selling candy.

Three years later, he and his brothers began a picture postcard business, and learned the importance of quality retailing, he reported later.

Joyce did not complete high school in Norfolk, but decades later he was granted a diploma from David City High School during a graduation ceremony held in May 1962, reported the May 25 *Lincoln Evening Journal.*

At the end of 1909, he was persuaded by a cigar salesman to move to Kansas City, where he attended Spalding's Commercial College for one year, and conducted his mail-order postcard business. He also developed an interest in the theater.

Joyce C. Hall and his wife, Elizabeth, raised three children, and were supporters of the community in many ways. He died in 1982 at nearby Leawood, Kansas.

He was posthumously inducted into the Emmy Hall of Fame in 1985.

Wynonie Harris: "Mr. Blues,"an American idol of his day

Wynonie Harris was known as "Mr. Blues,"-- a "blues shouter"--a singer who could project his voice clearly above a band in the days when singers did not wear personal mikes and headsets.

In some ways Harris can be compared to today's rappers due to his musicianship, showmanship, and lyrics. But his biggest influence was on the evolution of rock and roll. Young Elvis Presley was a fan who watched, listened to, and copied much of Harris' style and presentation.

That Harris had such an impact on the musical psyche is testament to his talent because in the first half of the twentieth century, much of America's musical history was as divided into white and black as its social history was--Caucasians on one side, African-Americans on the other.

Wynonie Harris was African-American, born in Omaha, Nebraska, August 24, 1913. His teenaged unmarried mother, Mallie Hood Anderson, was black. His father, probably an American Indian named Blue Jay, was from an unknown tribe. The parents never lived together and it has been reported that Harris only saw his birth father once when his mother pointed him out from afar.

Sometime before 1920, Wynonie's mother married Luther Harris; they had no more children. Wynonie took Harris as his last name.

The family moved within Omaha several times, each time requiring a school transfer. After attending two different high schools in as many years, Wynonie's indifference to learning turned into chronic absenteeism. In the spring of 1931, he abandoned school permanently, left home and moved in with relatives.

While an academic education was not Harris' priority, music was. In high school he had been part of a vocal group

that toured and recorded. He was an excellent ballroom dancer and partnered with his friend Velda Shannon. They performed exhibition ballroom dancing in various black-owned venues around town. Sometimes they were paid, sometimes not. Since Velda was a teenager, her mother generally forbade performances out of town. Once, however, Wynonie, Velda and a few friends hopped on a box car and went to Oklahoma City, where they stayed for two weeks and danced for pay at the Jewell Theatre.

When Jim Bell opened a club in Omaha and hired a big band, his entertainers attracted a racially mixed audience. At various times Wynonie sang, danced, and acted as MC. He also taught himself how to play drums and added that to his repertoire. Bell's club closed late in 1936 after being open only about a year, but it was long enough to establish Harris' musical reputation in the area.

Slim and handsome, Harris attracted his share of groupies, one in particular: Olive E. Goodlow. They met when she attended a performance at Bell's club. Their daughter, Adrianne Patricia (Pattie) was born on May 20, 1936. They were married December 11, 1936.

Ollie worked as a barmaid and nurse; Wynonie sang in clubs as well as taking on some odd jobs. Apparently Wynonie's mother was Pattie's main caretaker.

As 1940 approached, Harris decided to move to Los Angeles, where he felt there was more musical opportunity. He and Ollie went but left Pattie with her grandmother in Omaha.

Professionally the move was good. Harris appeared regularly at the Club Alabam on Central Avenue, the heartbeat of the black entertainment district. This club employed big bands, singers, and dancers and there was seating for five hundred people.

It was here that Harris became known as "Mr. Blues." He moved around the stage with ease, flirting with audience members and gesturing dramatically. He wrote many of his songs but his habitual use of "R" rated subject matter was shocking to audiences at the time.

Performing at the Alabam and other clubs, he often participated in a "battle of the blues" with other singers. Like the dueling banjos in the movie *Deliverance,* the singers would challenge each other with increasingly complex improvisation and accompanying body movements. This became a staple of his act for the rest of his career.

Although this was wartime (World War II) when the military depended on the draft, Wynonie received a medical deferment, probably due to a heart murmur. However, the war affected him in a different way. Shellac was the main ingredient used to make records. Much of it was imported from Southeast Asia and was banned from most non-military uses. That meant Harris could not pursue a recording career for several years. Instead, he had to depend on personal appearances.

He was, however, in Los Angeles and movies were an option. Although he would never achieve any great status in that realm, he did appear as a dancer in three all-black musicals during the early 1940s. Occasionally, he also worked in the San Francisco Bay Area.

Late in 1943, Harris performed at the Rhumboogie Club in Chicago. At that time, the premiere black big band was led by Lucky Millinder. Impressed with Harris, Millinder asked him to join the band's tour which went on to New York.

Fans of BET (Black Entertainment Television) will recognize the importance of their appearance at the Apollo Theatre in Harlem where they received warm reviews.

By this time the embargo on shellac was lessening and the Millinder band signed a contract with Decca records. Harris recorded two songs including "Who Threw The Whiskey In The Well?" but its release date was delayed.

Meanwhile, as the band toured around the country for six months, Harris' musical stature grew along with his ego. He left the band in a dispute over money and eventually returned to Los Angeles.

He and Ollie moved their daughter Pattie, his mother and her husband from Omaha to Los Angeles. Harris resumed working at the Club Alabam.

When "Who Threw The Whiskey In The Well?" was finally released in April 1945, it not only topped the black charts, it remained a hit for almost five months. It also became popular with white audiences, an unusual feat for a black musician of that era.

Record companies were now proliferating and this was a boon for Harris. His first solo session was for Philo records in July 1945. Although the recording failed to make the black music chart, it influenced future artists. Harris' rendition of "Around the Clock" inspired Chuck Berry's "Reelin, and Rockin" a decade later.

Besides recording and working at the Club Alabam, in late 1945 Harris took part in a Norma Miller revue in which he played an English ambassador. Although it showcased his dramatic and comedic ability, it also demonstrated that his husky voice and ability to sing melodic ballads did not match his affinity for shouting the blues.

How and why he finally left Club Alabam are uncertain, but in August 1945 he recorded for the new independent company, Apollo. This time "Wynonie's Blues" was a hit on the black music chart.

Due to his successful recording career, Wynonie attracted and hired hangers-on. His personal manager was Harold Oxley, who arranged for an extensive tour. In January 1946, Harris performed in Omaha for the first time since he left in 1940.

In October 1946 Oxley arranged a solo appearance for Wynonie at the Apollo Theatre in Harlem and negotiated a recording contract with Aladdin. Wynonie and Ollie moved to New York in November. Their daughter Pattie stayed in Los Angeles with her grandparents.

With New York as a home base, Wynonie continued to tour as well as perform in and around the New York area. His recording sessions were somewhat successful, but when his contract with Aladdin ended in 1947 it was not renewed. Evidently he had failed to produce a bonafide hit or finish recording the agreed-upon number of songs.

Harris hired a new manager, Jimmy Evans, who sent him on tour, followed by bookings in some of New York's top black nightclubs. Most important, Evans got Harris a three-year recording contract with King Records.

When "Good Rockin, Tonight" was released in March 1948, it topped the black music charts for six months. This song was a genuine forerunner of rock and roll. It was re-recorded by Elvis Presley in 1954 with later versions recorded by Jerry Lee Lewis, Ricky Nelson, Buddy Holly, Pat Boone, and Paul McCartney among others.

The musical scene was evolving. Segregated music was blending into new, more inclusive styles. In 1949, black music, which, until then, had been called "race records," was newly designated "rhythm and blues" in professional publications. The genre gained an increasingly mixed mainstream audience. Harris' recordings consistently made the charts' top ten. He played local clubs, and continued to tour.

Harris was finally a star and wanted to live like one--at least his perception of one. He bought a big expensive car, and planned to buy a house in New York, where his mother, daughter and stepfather could live. However, his stepfather did not want to leave Los Angeles. Before the argument was resolved, his mother had a stroke and died. She was only fifty.

Harris' stepfather moved to Portland, Oregon to live with a sister. His daughter, Pattie, stayed in Los Angeles for a

few months with an aunt. In June 1949 she joined Harris in New York but only stayed for six months before moving to Council Bluffs, Iowa to live with an aunt.

Wynonie's marriage to Ollie was troubled. He was seeing Gertrude Sloan, whose nickname was "Ice Cream." He and Ice Cream moved in together. Ollie continued to live in New York until 1952 when she divorced Wynonie and moved back to Los Angeles.

During the early 1950s, big bands were disappearing due to the economy. Harris was booked for a number of one-nighter tours as part of a package that included other entertainers. In his recording sessions he tried some alternate musical styles including country, but his heart and skill remained with the blues.

By 1954 white musicians and young mixed audiences were increasingly adopting the rhythm and blues style. One afficionado was a newly developing singer, Elvis Presley.

When Wynonie performed in Memphis, the shows were still segregated. Whites attended the matinees or early shows, blacks went at midnight. Harris' manager, Jimmy Evans, allowed Elvis to sneak in the back door and watch the late show from the balcony. Presley consciously copied Harris' style and moves.

Wynonie's records were gaining international attention. As often happens, audiences generally liked him more than the critics did.

He spent much of early 1954 touring around the country. In September the tour took him to Los Angeles, where he spent some time with his daughter Pattie, who now lived there with her new husband, Malcolm Vest.

Harris had fathered two children before meeting Ollie and had not married their mothers. His daughter Mickey (Stearns) was born on October 19, 1932 to Naomi Henderson. His son Wesley was born on August 13, 1933 to Laura Devereaux. Both children had remained with their mothers. Although Wynonie acknowledged them, they were not close.

In December 1954, Wesley Devereaux was twenty-one and working in Columbus, Ohio, singing with a vocal group from Omaha. Wynonie was working in Cleveland. He drove to Columbus and invited Wesley's group to meet him in New York. They stayed with Wynonie and Ice Cream in their home until May 1955, but by then it was clear that Harris' fortunes were in reversal. The gas was shut off and work was scarce.

There is much speculation about the sudden change. Some say that Harris at age forty-one did not change with the times and did not appeal to a younger audience. Some say he had always been arrogant and difficult to work with. Some say his personal lifestyle contributed; Harris had been a heavy smoker and drinker and it affected his voice. These may have been factors. One certainty is that Harris was financially irresponsible, spending his money as fast as he made it.

During the late 1950s, Harris found occasional work singing but had to develop other sources of income. He tried management and promotion. In May 1955 he and Wesley argued, Wesley and his friends moved out, and that was the last time they saw each other. The next year he lost the house. In 1958 he and Ice Cream separated after losing another house.

In 1963, Harris moved back to Los Angeles. Pattie and her husband lived there as did some old friends from Omaha. He performed for a week at the Hideaway Club, but according to reports it was less than stellar. Still, in August 1964, he recorded for Chess Records in Chicago although that, too, was only mildly successful.

In the mid-1960s, Harris owned and managed an after-hours club and continued to sing a little, but he developed cancer of the esophagus. On June 14, 1969 he died at the age of fifty-four.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, there has been a resurgence of interest in his music. Whatever Harris' personal faults, there is no doubt about his role in the evolution of popular music. Some of his recordings are being reissued and he has received recognition posthumously.

In 1994, he was inducted into the W.C. Handy Blues Hall of Fame by the Blues Foundation in Memphis, Tennessee.

In 1998, he was inducted into the Nebraska Rock N' Roll Hall of Fame at a ceremony in Lincoln.

In 2000, he was inducted into the High School Hall of Fame at Central High School in Omaha, Nebraska.

In 2005, he was among the charter inductees into the Omaha Black Music Hall of Fame.

Much misinformation has been printed about Wynonie Harris, especially in newspapers and concerning his education.

For additional reliable information, consult *The New Grove's Dictionary of Jazz,* Vol 2 (Macmillan Publishers, 2002) 183-184 and *The Encyclopedia of Jazz and Blues* (Quintet, 2001) p. 470 and Tony Collins, *Rock Mr. Blues: The Life & Music of Wynonie Harris* (Big Nickel Publications, 1995). While the Collins' book has been carefully researched and contains useful musical history, it should be rated "R" for language.

Leta Stetter Hollingworth: Psychologist challenged male superiority claims and founded the field of gifted education

One of the first Americans to challenge scientifically various claims of male superiority was Nebraska native Leta Stetter Hollingworth, the educational psychologist who became a major pioneer of the academic field of gifted education in the early decades of the 20th century. She also pioneered the setting of professional standards for clinical psychologists and their inclusion in the American Psychological Association during World War I.

While studying for her master and doctorate degrees at Teachers College, Columbia University in New York City from 1911 to 1916, she confronted centuries-old beliefs that women were similar to each other and that women were intellectually inferior to men. And it was thought that because variation from group average had survival advantages, men would more likely be eminent in endeavors of great achievement and leadership. Extreme variability in the intelligence of males (more were retarded and more were geniuses) allegedly proved they were superior to females.

Hollingworth, however, considered scientific research an effective way to counter the prejudices of her time. In 1917, after testing 1,000 people deemed mentally defective by New York authorities, she found that males

outnumbered females in the younger group, but the reverse was true in the older group.

The data also revealed more males were referred to institutions at an early age due to relatives' concerns they could not care for themselves, while females were kept at home to do housework until no longer needed, then they were sent to authorities for care.

And she observed there were really as many retarded females as males. There were only more institutionalized feebleminded males, which was not evidence of greater variability in male intelligence.

Hollingworth also studied the claim that eminence in achievement and leadership was identical to high intelligence, which allegedly proved the superiority of males, since the vast majority of those who had illustrious careers were males.

As early as 1914, she noted that the occupation of housekeeping, comprised exclusively of women who bear and raise children, was not a field where eminence was recognized. By the time she earned her doctorate, she had published six research articles on related subjects.

Over ten years later, she reported investigators of eminence agreed that nearly all great male achievers came from comfortable homes or parents with social and economic advantages. And she observed that few children of manual workers and few women become regarded as highly eminent. Her interpretation was that those considered socially inferior, such as the uncultured, most servants, and women, did not have the education and opportunity to achieve eminence.

In 1926, she reported there were as many highly intelligent females as males, based on results of the Stanford-Binet standardized measurement of the human intelligence quotient. And there were equal numbers of gifted females and males in childhood.

Thus the under-representation of women in the category of illustrious persons was due to environmental factors, not ability. And she believed a reform of attitudes rather than the political process could more likely bring change in the status of women in business, the professions, and public life.

Her interest in the educational and emotional development of gifted children emerged in 1916, the year she began her career as professor of educational psychology at Teachers College. That was also the same year that Lewis Terman had published his Stanford-Binet test, which became the standard intelligence measurement in English-speaking countries for at least three decades.

While Terman contributed to the gifted education field through his career in mental measurements, it was mainly as a description of giftedness as an inherited trait.

It was Leta Hollingworth who pioneered the academic field by devoting much of her career to education and opportunity for nurturing the gifted. Before her time, there had been scattered instances of attempts to offer services to able children in metropolitan areas. Strategies included curriculum enrichment, various groupings of high ability students, independent projects, and grade acceleration, typically by one or two years.

She taught the first academic course in gifted education in the spring of 1919, which formally began the field, and became one of the major pioneers on the Teachers College faculty, reported Lawrence Cremin, the primary author of *A History of Teachers College, Columbia University* (1954). An advocate of identifying the talented during the first 12 years of children's lives, she favored homogeneous grouping of the most able in special classes that emphasized enrichment rather than acceleration. She did not favor placement of all ability levels in groups, only those at the extreme levels to meet their needs.

Her first experimental research was conducted at Public School 165 in New York City from 1922 to 1925, with follow-up study for several years. Students remained together for three years, completed the required course of study, and received enrichment with various intellectual opportunities, such as more writing, the study of biography, and cultural attractions outside of school.

In 1926, she published her findings in *Gifted Children: Their Nature and Nurture* (Macmillan), the first textbook in the field, and noted that individual special talents are not easy to identify because some students gifted in academics might not be so in music, drawing, or mechanical concepts, and vice versa.

Two years later, she published *The Psychology of the Adolescent* (Appleton), which became a standard textbook for educators for about two decades. As she had also studied individuals with mental disabilities, she noticed many were actually normal but were suffering from adjustment difficulties. She also developed courses on mental adjustments during an individual's transition from elementary to secondary school.

In 1936, Hollingworth became director of research at the experimental Public School 500 in New York City, known as Speyer School, in which she developed a curriculum from student interests, and emphasized initiative and originality. With help from their teachers, students formulated their own questions, located sources of information themselves, and published their findings.

Thus during her career she laid the foundation for modern education of the gifted child, with its focus on student-centered curriculum, major concepts, independent study, creativity, and biographical studies.

In 1938, the year she and her husband received an honorary doctor of laws degree from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, she spoke of the high ranking of the state of Nebraska for producing notables in the intellectual and artistic life of the nation. Her talk was later repeated in published form in the UNL *Nebraska Alumnus* in March 1939. She was the first Nebraska-connected scholar to report on the national accomplishments of the state's natives or residents.

After her untimely death, the first conference on gifted education was held in 1940 at Teachers College, Columbia University as a memorial to her contributions. Her husband Harry Hollingworth, himself a nationally distinguished psychologist at Barnard College, Columbia University, saw to it her unfinished work titled *Children Above 180 IQ Stanford-Binet: Origin and Development* (World Book, 1942) was published. He also authored *Leta Stetter Hollingworth: A Biography* (University of Nebraska Press, 1943; reissued by Anker Publishing, 1990), which listed the half dozen authoritative books and nearly 100 scientific and popular articles she wrote, and noted "the difficulties, objections, and discouragements she encountered in endeavoring to carry forward educational experiments with gifted children...constitute an eloquent testimonial...to the social apathy toward and jealousy of the gifted, against which she always had to struggle."

The distinguished Lewis Terman, commenting about the little recognition Leta received during her lifetime, was quoted as saying, "Comparable productivity of a man would probably have been rewarded by election to the presidency of the American Psychological Association or even to membership in the National Academy of Sciences."

Her under-recognition--as was the case with the vast majority of women professionals in her time--was a result of various forms of discrimination in academia as well as society, a subject well documented by Margaret W. Rossiter in *Women Scientists in America: Struggles and Strategies to 1940* (Johns Hopkins University Press, 1982), and Rossiter quoted from an obituary on Hollingworth which stated, in part, that "she gave most generously of her time and personal funds for the support of research when institutions delayed or refused financial support."

During recent decades, scholars have published articles and books about her contributions to society, including Linda Peavy and Ursula Smith, *Women Who Changed Things* (Scribner's, 1983) 79-99 and *Women In Psychology: A Bio-Bibliographic Sourcebook* (Greenwood Press, 1990) 173-183. There are also entries in the prestigious *Notable American Women 1607-1950,* Vol 2 (Belknap, 1971) 206-208 and *American National Biography,* Vol 21 (Oxford University Press, 1999) 67-68.

A complete account of her career and life is offered in the book by Ann G. Klein, *A Forgotten Voice: A Biography of Leta Stetter Hollingworth* (Great Potential Press, 2002).

Housed at the Archives of the History of American Psychology at the University of Akron in Akron, Ohio are the Harry and Leta Hollingworth Papers.

Leta was posthumously honored with establishment of the Leta Stetter Hollingworth Fellowship, begun by her husband with an initial endowment of $51,000, which was accepted on October 2, 1944 by the Trustees of Columbia University. The existence of the Fellowship was later reported in the September 18, 1956 *New York Times* obituary of Harry Hollingworth. And it is mentioned in Ludy T. Benjamin's scholarly article "The Pioneering Work of Leta Holingworth in the Psychology of Women" published in the Winter 1975 issue of *Nebraska History.*

At this writing, the endowment for her Fellowship held by the Columbia University Development Office has a principal of $594,000. Between 4-5 percent of the principal is made available each year for student recipients.

The Leta Stetter Holingworth Fellowship is a need-based interschool fellowship awarded annually to women students who wish to pursue any field of graduate study at Columbia University in New York City. Preference is given to women who have or will earn a bachelor's degree from the undergraduate programs of the University of Nebraska at its campuses in Kearney, Lincoln, and Omaha.

To apply for the Fellowship, students may contact the financial aid offices at any one of the 15 colleges of Columbia University and at the three campuses of the University of Nebraska. Needed with their application are a letter of reference from a University of Nebraska faculty member and a copy of their transcript from the Kearney, Lincoln, or Omaha campus.

Selection of interschool fellowship recipients at Columbia University is administered by the Office of the Provost, located in 401 Low Library at 535 West 116th Street.

She was also posthumously recognized in 1981 by establishment of the Hollingworth Center within the Department of Curriculum and Teaching at Teachers College, Columbia University. Located in 309 Main Hall at 525 West 120th Street, the Center provides "internship and training opportunities for graduate students of Teachers College, develop model programs in early childhood education, and offer enriched educational services for children, families, and educators." The Center's primary concern is nurturing the talent development of all young children.

In 2005, the Nebraska Association for the Gifted inaugurated the Leta Hollingworth Student Award, which is annually presented to a student between grades 7-12 who is recognized as distinguished "through outstanding achievement, accomplishment, or unusual ability." Initial funding for this award was contributed by Ann G. Klein, author of *A Forgotten Voice: A Biography of Leta Stetter Hollingworth.*

Born near Chadron, Dawes County, Nebraska in 1886, one of three daughters of John C. and Margaret Danley Stetter, Leta was raised until age 10 on the farm of her maternal grandparents after her mother died when Leta

was three years old.

After the following two years spent in Chadron and Colorado, she returned to reside in Valentine, Cherry County, where her father lived with his second wife. Leta persisted despite unhappiness with her stepmother, and graduated from Valentine High School in 1902.

She attended the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, where she majored in literature and writing, and met UNL classmate Harry Hollingworth, a DeWitt, Nebraska native who she married in late 1908. There were no children.

After graduation from UNL in 1906, she taught English at DeWitt in Saline County for one year, then at McCook in Red Willow County the following year before relocating to New York City in 1908, where Leta Stetter Hollingworth remained until her death in November 1939 at the age of 53 from inoperable abdominal cancer. Interment was at Wyuka Cemetery in Lincoln.

It is of historical interest that Leta's first cousin Helen Stetter, a daughter of Henry and Mary Schwalm Stetter, died in 2007 at the age of 113 years and 195 days after residing her entire life at Chadron and Valentine. See article and obituary published in the *Valentine Midland News*, June 13, 2007, pp. 1, 4, 6. At the time, Helen Stetter was validated among the world's 100 oldest persons all time by Gerontology Research Group, a Los Angeles-based worldwide association of scientists, scholars, and volunteer investigators.

Catherine Hughes: A pioneer radio entrepreneur

During her journey from teenaged mother to corporate executive, Catherine Hughes has proven that determination, hard work and reliance on inner strength can create success. Founder of the African-American radio network, Radio One, Hughes has been called the most powerful woman in radio. She is the first woman owner of a radio station ranked #1 in any major market and is the first African-American woman to head a publicly traded company.

Catherine Elizabeth Woods (later Hughes) was born April 22, 1947, in Omaha, Nebraska, the oldest of four children. Her father, William Alfred Woods, an accountant, and her mother, Helen Jones Woods, a registered nurse, lived modestly in a public housing project. When she was nine, her parents gave her a transistor radio. Her incessant listening was a portent of things to come.

Smart and studious, she was the first African-American to attend Duchesne Academy of the Sacred Heart, a prestigious Catholic girls' school in Omaha. At age fourteen, she sold classified ads for the African-American-owned *Omaha Star.* She has credited that experience as shaping her philosophy about "the responsibility of black-owned media." She has also attributed part of her success to her Omaha upbringing, emphasizing black pride, and a Midwestern work ethic.

Surprised at sixteen to learn she was pregnant, she was depressed and in denial. She dropped out of school and married the baby's father. Two years later they divorced, making her another sad statistic--single black teenaged mother with an unfinished education and few prospects.

Today she emphasizes the value of having vision, which she defines as a combination of imagination and preparation. Her vision then inspired her to secure a good future for her son, Alfred Liggins. She returned to Duchesne Academy and graduated in 1964.

Her formal education continued sporadically thereafter. She attended the University of Nebraska-Omaha in the fall

semester of 1968 and records reveal she took some additional courses there and one course at Creighton University in 1972.

Her principal education, however, was in the "School of Experience." Among several jobs, she worked for Reverend Leon H. Sullivan at the Opportunities in Industrialization Center in Omaha and, in the early 1970s, helped an African-American group buy and manage an Omaha radio station, which the Ford Foundation helped fund.

Her work ethic was rewarded in 1972 when Tony Brown, Dean of Howard University's new School of Communications in Washington, DC, hired her to lecture there.

In 1973 Hughes was appointed general sales manager of its radio station, WHUR-FM. In 1975 she became vice president and general manager, the first woman to attain that rank in the Washington, DC area. She created *The Quiet Storm,* a variation on rhythm and blues that featured romantic, sultry sounds. She asked Howard University to license the format but was refused with the reasoning that it wasn't "commercially viable." Ironically, due to *The Quiet Storm,* ratings and revenue rose dramatically. Today it is standard nationwide.

In 1978 she left WHUR-FM to become general manager at WYCB-AM in Washington, DC. Six months later, frustrated at being stifled creatively, she decided to pursue owning her own station. By that time she had married television producer Dewey Hughes.

In 1979, WOL-AM was a small station with a big problem. It was undergoing a federal investigation and being forced into sale. Hughes and her husband decided to buy it. They found investors who guaranteed $450,000. They put up $100,000 of their own money and tried to secure a bank loan for the remainder of the $950,000 asking price. Thirty-two banks turned them down, but persistence paid off. Thanks to a Puerto Rican female loan officer new on her job, they purchased the station in 1980. It was the genesis of Radio One. Their slogan was "Where information is power."

Upon arriving in Washington, DC, Hughes had been astonished to discover there was no black-owned radio station, or any that targeted black listeners in the area, so she instituted an all news and talk format presenting issues from a black perspective. The station was moved from Georgetown to a black neighborhood. A glass booth was installed so the public could observe. Money for additional staff was unavailable, so Hughes became the talk show host, outspoken in her advocacy for black issues. She was accused of racism and prejudice.

The station lost money. Debt and marital tension rose. Dewey Hughes moved to California to further his career. Catherine Hughes refused to go. They divorced and she bought his share of the station. Faltering finances forced Catherine and her son to lose their house and car. They lived in the station with sleeping bags for beds and a hot plate for cooking.

Eventually they fashioned an apartment out of office space. Hughes sold a precious heirloom that had belonged to her great-grandmother--a rare white-gold pocket watch made by slaves--and received $50,000. She contacted her creditors to update them regularly, and paid them a little at a time. Almost seven years later, the station began to show a profit.

Early in 1982 the bank's loan officers threatened to cut off funds unless she included music in the format. She compromised by keeping talk in the morning and playing music the rest of the day. Ratings dropped, proving once again that Hughes knew her core audience. After a year and a half, she was able to return WOL to all talk, and ratings rose.

In 1986 the *Washington Post* published what Hughes considered to be a biased and insensitive story about a rap artist accused of murder. Using her talk show as a platform for protest, for thirteen weeks she demanded reform in reporting. Finally, both the publisher and editor of the powerful *Post* appeared on her program to apologize.

Another instance of controversy ensued when, in 1990, Hughes held a fund-raiser for Mayor Marion Barry. Barry was convicted on drug-related charges, and Hughes later regretted her stance which, originally, she had perceived as support for the black community.

By 1987 it was time to expand. FM had become the dominant venue for music and was deemed essential to any radio owner's survival. To provide that tie-in, Hughes purchased WMMJ-FM. A new federal law in 1992 made it possible to expand her burgeoning radio empire across the country. Her pattern was to buy troubled stations and turn them around.

In 1994 a challenging incident occurred when Hughes' remarks about Hispanics working in black neighborhoods were misconstrued. She explained that she had intended to compliment Hispanics for their initiative and cooperation with the black community.

In 1995 she quit hosting her talk show. In 1998, she returned a $500,000 loan from the state of Maryland and denounced the state legislature because they had expelled Larry Young, a black state senator, for alleged ethics violations.

Hughes' dream of providing a good life for her son has become a reality. Alfred Liggins began working for Radio One full time when he was twenty-one. Today he is president and chief executive officer of the network based at Lanham, Maryland.

The pinnacle of their success was reached when, in 1999, Radio One, with an estimated value of $924 million, was traded publicly for the first time, making Catherine Hughes the first African-American woman with a company on the stock exchange. Radio One now has over sixty stations in urban areas and is still growing.

One of Hughes' hallmarks is her willingness to take big risks. There is no doubt that BET dominates--almost monopolizes--black television broadcasting. Still, Hughes believes there is room for another network aimed at African-Americans.

Radio One, Inc., partnering with Comcast Corporation, started the subsidiary TV One early in 2004, targeting a slightly older demographic. Some market analysts are skeptical, but Hughes has proven repeatedly that her ventures can survive and thrive.

Hughes' commitment to community involvement has been unwavering. Foremost is her sponsorship of the Piney Woods Summer Camp, where inner-city youths can attend an African-American boarding school in Mississippi.

She has received much national recognition. In 1995 she received an honorary doctorate from Sojourner-Douglass College in Baltimore, and in 1998 was the first woman to receive the Lifetime Achievement Award from the Achievement in Radio Awards. Other honors include the first annual Black History Hall of Fame Award and the Prudential Media Black Woman on Wall Street Award. She has also been named by *Essence* as one of "100 Who Have Changed the World."

Hughes advises young people to persevere, be willing to do any job asked of them, believe in God and work hard.

Among several published accounts of her career are entries in *Current Biography* (2000) and *Notable Black American Women*, Vol. 3 (2003). See also an entry in *Who's Who in America,* Vol 1 (2008) and a lengthy feature in the *Omaha World Herald*, February 4, 2008.

Colfax County, Nebraska native Clara Herling Huhn ranked among world's longest-lived persons

To date, validated cases of supercentenarians (people who reach age 110 or above) primarily represent persons born or resided in Australia and New Zealand, Europe and Japan, and Canada and the United States.

And as record-keeping becomes more reliable in other nations and as more cases become known and validated, the number of supercentenarians in the history of the world will increase.

At present, it is accurate to report that among the 70 longest-lived persons in the world, and validated as the oldest Nebraskan in the history of the state, is Clara Herling Huhn, a native of Colfax County, who lived 113 years and 327 days, and died in 2000.

The second longest-lived Nebraskan is Helen Stetter of Valentine in Cherry County, who died in 2007 at the age of 113 years and 195 days, and presently ranks among the 115 oldest persons in world history. She lived her entire life in Nebraska.

The third longest-lived Nebraskan is Betsy Russell Baker of Tecumseh in Johnson County, who died in 1955 at 113 years and 65 days. At the time, she was the oldest person in the world. At present, she ranks among the 115 longest-lived persons in the world history.

Clara Herling Huhn was born January 28, 1887 on the family farm located 7 1/2 miles south and 1/2 mile west of the town of Clarkson in Section 20 of Midland Precinct in Colfax County.

She died December 20, 2000 at La Mesa, California, with interment in Glen Abbey Cemetery at Bonita.

Her parents were among the early pioneers of Colfax County, settling on a homestead in Midland Precinct by early 1885 after emigrating from Germany in 1883 and living for a short time near Greenbush, Warren County, Illinois

Her father John Henry Herling was born February 27, 1839 at Erntebruch, Westfalen region, and died August 23, 1918 at age 79 near Schuyler, while her mother Katherine Meusborn Herling was born September 5, 1845 at Vornwald, near Hilchenbach, Westfalen region, and died April 22, 1917 at age 71 near Clarkson.

Both parents were interred at what is now called Schroeder Cemetery located in the northwest corner of Section 28 in Midland Precinct. Previously it was the site of the German Lutheran Church and cemetery.

Clara was the youngest of eight children. Her brother William, a farmer and carpenter, lived to age 70, and brother Henry Jr., a farmer, to age 94. Both resided in Colfax County.

Her sisters Mrs. Louis (Louisa) Hahn lived to age 62, Mrs. Reinhold (Emma) Held to age 94, Mrs. Gustave (Anna) Hahn to age 89, Mrs. Paul (Katherine) Held to age 101, and Mrs. C. Otto (Alvina) Hahn to age 67.

Louisa and Anna lived in Colfax County, but Emma relocated to Omaha, Katherine to Iowa, Idaho, and Oregon, and Alvina to Idaho.

During childhood on the Herling farm, Clara reported in a January 30, 1997 *San Diego Union-Tribune* article that "the children slept in a loft divided by a blanket--boys on one side, girls on the other."

She walked two miles each way to nearby Rural School District 21 north of the farm "from the end of the fall harvest

to the beginning of spring planting, until she completed the eighth grade."

There was no electricity, and it was the era of horse-drawn implements. Family members depended upon each other, and her chores included working in the fields, planting crops or herding the livestock, and from time to time she took care of the young children of other relatives.

Her social life involved attending barn dances and the nearby Lutheran Church, and living with her parents and brother William until she was married at the age of 29 to farmer John F. Huhn on December 6, 1916.

From 1916 to 1938, Clara and her husband lived on a farm in Section 28, Grant Precinct, located from the center of Schuyler three miles north, one mile west, and one-half mi1e north on land now owned by Dan Kramer.

They raised four children: daughters Mrs. Albert (Mayrene) DePuydt and Mrs. Chester (Margaretha) Good and sons Dale and Wayne, with Mayrene and Dale graduating from Schuyler High School, and Wayne attending Emanuel Lutheran School.

After her husband suffered a disabling injury during a farm accident, Clara decided to move her family to California for John's health, and to be near his brother who had relocated there during the decade of drought and economic depression.

While living in San Diego, she worked at Convair's aircraft factory during World War II, and her children Margaretha and Wayne graduated from San Diego High School.

After husband John Huhn died in 1948, Clara supported herself with domestic kinds of work until reaching age 80. She resided in the North Park and Normal Heights areas of San Diego, living independently until age 103, and using a bus to do her shopping.

For two years she lived with daughter Mayrene until her death in 1996 at age 78, then lived with son Wayne and his wife Corrine at Campo, California, taking care of herself and doing housework until age 113. For the last six months of her life, she resided at a La Mesa care center.

During the prime of her life, Clara's height was about 5 feet 2 inches and she maintained a weight of about 125 pounds, her son Wayne remembered.

She ate light, was quoted as saying, "Usually I just have fruit and toast for breakfast" and had what she termed "regular food" for lunch and dinner. Clara did drink three cups of coffee daily, and occasionally took a glass of wine,

During nearly all her life, she remained healthy, needing only gallbladder surgery at age 95, and years later began taking medicine for high blood pressure and shortness of breath. At age 113, she began experiencing heart troubles.

Clara enjoyed camping and remained active, once volunteering at a local tuberculosis clinic during an era when there were no antibiotics, reported daughter-in-law Corrine Kolterman Huhn. After age 80, she helped others, taking them to church services on Sunday.

In a December 30, 1999 article in the *Alpine* /CA/ *Sun,* Clara was quoted at the age of 112 as saying the reasons for her longevity were "No stress, no worries, no TV." As a devout Christian she believed putting her trust in her Lord would offer guidance and help resolve problems, thus providing "no worries" and subsequent lack of stress.

As for television, she stated, "It causes worry and stress, so much sadness and things you have no control over, yet you wish you did."

In Clara's obituary published in the December 25, 2000 *San Diego Union-Tribune,* Corrine Huhn noted, "She was a

person who accepted things--good or bad. She always said we have to accept whatever it is and go on with the Lord's help. She was very upbeat and never gave up, no matter what the situation was."

At her death, Clara was survived by daughter Margaretha Good of Arkansas and son Wayne Huhn of Campo, California, along with 8 grandchildren, 13 great grandchildren, and 13 great great grandchildren.

A brief obituary in the January 31, 2001 *Colfax County Press* reported surviving relatives in Nebraska included niece Alice Balzer of Clarkson and nieces Marcella Ernst, Genelle Waak, and Joan Wachal of Schuyler.

Recently, the longevity accomplishment of Clara Herling Huhn was brought to the attention of the author by Robert D. Young of Atlanta, Georgia, who records validation studies for worldwide volunteer scholars and scientists affiliated with Gerontology Research Group. Its website offers the public periodic updates on validated supercentenarians.

Clara's age was validated with the assistance of Wayne and Corrine Huhn for the Herling family bible, which contains notes in the German language, with the assistance of Colfax County Clerk Sharon K. Bohaboj for rural school census records of 1895 and 1901 and the marriage certificate of December 6, 1916, and the author's examination of U.S. Census records for Colfax County, Nebraska revealed Clara was listed in 1910, 1920 and 1930, but was not found in the 1900 Census.

Data from three different records during the first 20 years of Clara's life, along with corroboration from later records, met the validation standards of Gerontology Research Group.

For history, consult *San Diego Union-Tribune,* January 30 and May 5, 1997 and December 25, 2000 and *Alpine* /CA/ *Sun*, December 30, 1999. For a lengthy study, see the 44-page supplement "Nebraska's Centenarians Age 107 Or Above--1867 to 2001" published with the April 24, 2002 *Crete News.*

Readers may consult the 44-page supplement as well as other documents on longest living Nebraskans age 107+ on the website of the Nebraska Health Care Association.

At this writing there have been 27 validated supercentenarians (age 110 or above) with Nebraska connections by birth or by residence in the history of the state.

Joseph McVicker Hunt: Psychologist stimulated America's mid-20th century focus on children's intellectual development and helped influence educational research and Project Head Start

by E. A. Kral

Prior to the 1950s and early 1960s, the beliefs that intelligence was fixed at childbirth and unchangeable and that an individual's abilities to react was predetermined by his heredity dominated the thought of a significant majority of America's intellectual leaders.

Among those who revealed in the mid-20th century that environmental experiences may affect the development of human infants was Nebraska native Joseph McVicker Hunt, whose *Intelligence and Experience* (Ronald Press, 1961) became a landmark in the fields of psychology and education.

His conclusion that "experience programs the development of the brain" countered the prevailing view that parents should leave children to their own ways and "avoid excessive stimulation" during child rearing. And his argument that French psychologist Jean Piaget's theories on intellectual development held promise for the field of child development helped initiate a new direction for educational research.

Moreover, Hunt's findings, along with the views and research of several others, had an impact on public policy, for they coincided with the efforts of the John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson Administrations to more sufficiently meet society's responsibility to children in the 1960s.

His career as an educator, developmental psychologist, and theoretician began after his early years on a farm near Scottsbluff and attendance at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, where his interest in psychology emerged under Professor Joy P. Guilford, who later became known for inspiring the beginnings of informational-operational psychology and was ranked among the world's 100 most eminent psychologists of the 20th century in *Review of General Psychology*, Vol 6, No 2 (2002). With Guilford, he published his first article in 1931 titled "Some further experimental tests of McDougall's theory of introversion-extroversion."

Hunt's interest in behavior occurred under Madison Bentley while working on a doctorate at Cornell University, then he conducted studies while at the New York Psychiatric Institute and at Worcester State Hospital and Clark University, and learned how to conduct demonstration-interviews. While teaching at Brown University from 1936 to 1946, he performed experiments on "the effects of infantile feeding frustration upon adult hoarding in rats," and achieved the major professional accomplishment of organizing and editing *Personality and the Behavior Disorders* (Ronald Press, 1944), which became a virtual handbook of contemporary clinical psychology.

For the following five years, he was Director of the Welfare Research Institute of the Community Service Society of New York, where with Leonard Kogan he set up an assessment of social casework, which became not only one of the earliest efforts to evaluate psychotherapy results objectively but also award-winning research excellence. While working with this social agency, he realized the need to examine behavioral sciences literature "for evidence relevant to the various beliefs about child rearing," and became more aware of the potential value of research for political decision-makers.

Hunt returned to academia as professor of psychology at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign from 1951 to 1974, where he was also professor of elementary education after 1967. At first, he continued as editor of the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* from 1949 to 1955, and made additional contributions to his profession by serving as president of the American Psychological Association and by working to establish the American Psychological Foundation, the Gold Medal, and the Distinguished Contribution Awards.

In the latter 1950s, he pursued an examination of the literature of the behavioral sciences regarding child rearing and early childhood education from a historical and cultural perspective. The result was publication of his 416-page *Intelligence and Experience* (1961), which presented "the possibility of raising intellectual attainment through appropriate arrangement of educational experiences" and "was extremely important for crystallizing and highlighting a major shift in the thinking of American psychologists," according to his obituary in the *American Journal of Psychology* (Fall 1992).

Indeed, shortly after its publication, a review by P. E. Vernon in the *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol 33 (June 1963) stated, in part, "This is an important book on two counts. First, Professor Hunt puts forward the strongest case yet made for discarding the conception of intelligence as inborn potential which is predetermined by the genes and which matures regardless of environmental conditions. Secondly, he provides the most complete exposition available in English of the whole corpus of Jean Piaget's theories and experiments on mental development."

According to *Educational Psychology: A Century of Contributions* (Lawrence Erlbaum, 2003), Hunt's book served as an introduction to Piaget for American academics, along with John Flavell's *Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget* (Van Nostrand, 1963). As a consequence, there were many studies of Piaget's theories during the following decades, and the new research emphasis in education was placed on the theory and application of intellectual development.

For example, Piaget had identified stages in the development of procedural knowledge—from sensory-motor to preoperational to concrete operational to formal operational—which described the differences between childlike to adultlike thinking, the latter called hypothetical-deductive thought by Arizona State University science educator Anton E. Lawson.

In his *Science Teaching and The Development of Thinking* (Wadsworth, 1995), Lawson reported the key abilities of adults involve thinking about a theory rather than thinking only with a theory, considering the evidence to be evaluated as distinct from the theories themselves, and setting aside one's own acceptance or rejection of a theory in order to evaluate it objectively in terms of its predictions and the evidence.

Among others nationwide who studied and applied Piaget's theories of learning were several academics at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. As described in UNL *Nebraska Alumnus* (March/April 1978), it was a multidisciplinary approach for college freshmen called Project ADAPT, directed by physics professor Robert G. Fuller.

The author of this profile benefited from the efforts at UNL, and with Lawson's assistance, conducted experimental work on scientific reasoning and achievement in a high school English course at Grand Island, Nebraska from 1982 to 1991. Its curriculum was described in *Educational Forum*, Vol 49 (Winter 1985) and its evaluation by use of American College Testing (ACT) reported in The *Skeptical Inquirer*, Vol 21 (May/June 1997).

After Hunt's landmark book was published in 1961, he continued his academic investigations in the areas of personality, infancy, and preschool children throughout the 1960s, early 1970s, and well into retirement years, which included working with Ina C. Uzgiris and others on the construction of ordinal scales of psychological development inspired by Piaget's observations, and studying "the effects of early environmental enrichment carried out in orphanages in Iran and Greece." By the time he ended his productive career in the late 1980s, he had edited, authored, or coauthored nearly ten books and 200 articles in psychological, psychiatric, and social work journals.

His investigations in early childhood education also began to make a contribution to public policy. By the early fall of 1962, Martin Deutsch of the Institute for Developmental Studies at New York Medical College had read *Intelligence and Experience* (as many others had), and invited Hunt to give the first presentation at a conference on preschool enrichment of socially disadvantaged children held that December at Arden House, the Columbia

University satellite facility near Woodbury, New York. Published under the title "The Psychological Basis for Using Pre-School Enrichment As An Antidote for Cultural Deprivation" in *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development*, Vol 10 (1964) and more than a dozen other publications, it brought Hunt many lecture invitations.

Coincidentally, the federal government was about to become more active in early childhood education during the Kennedy Administration. Previously, the federal government resisted most requests for funding public education, but it had begun involvement in early childhood for the economically disadvantaged in 1933 by funding emergency public nursery schools, then during World War II many child care centers for working women. During the Truman Administration, funding of the GI Bill primarily aided the colleges, and under the Eisenhower Administration, the National Defense Education Act of 1958 was intended to improve science, mathematics, and foreign language instruction at all grade levels.

In late 1962, the Bureau of the Budget staff proposed "the federal government assist individuals from childhood to old age rather than institutions....and conceive of education as something that goes beyond the confines of school," reported Maris A. Vinovskis, author of *The Birth of Head Start: Preschool Education Policies in the Kennedy and Johnson Administrations* (University of Chicago Press, 2005).

The concept of a war on poverty was developed a year later, and after the Kennedy assassination, it was President Lyndon B. Johnson who took action. In January 1964, he selected as antipoverty director Sargent Shriver, head of the popular Peace Corps, who after passage of the Economic Opportunity Act in August 1964 became head of the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO). And he created task forces to make legislative recommendations to the White House.

Among the first thirteen task forces was a blue-ribbon Education Task Force, led by John W. Gardner, which that November sent to the White House its report that "described how preschool programs can help disadvantaged children."

After Johnson advocated federal support for preschools the following January, the first Head Start, an eight-week summer program, was implemented in the summer of 1965 by the OEO's Community Action Program. While it became a popular program, there arose criticisms of the OEO, concerns by some educators that Head Start ought to be offered year-around, and requests for a national evaluation.

In 1966, *The Reader's Digest* published in April the article "A Head Start for America' s Youngsters" and in May its interview of Hunt titled "Can We Make Human Beings More Intelligent?" And while Hunt had a manuscript started for a book on early experience and had spent the summer in Tehran to set up studies on orphanage-reared infants, Joseph A. Califano Jr., Special Assistant to President Johnson, asked him in the fall "to chair a Task Force to recommend what the role of the federal government should be in early child development."

It was on October 10th that Hunt met with John Gardner, Doug Cater, Sargent Shriver, and Joseph Califano to complete plans for a work schedule and membership of the White House Task Force on Early Childhood Development, comprised of 14 distinguished members, an executive secretary, and staff members from the OEO and U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW). Among the notables were Jerome Bruner and John Goodlad, along with Robert E. Cooke and Urie Bronfenbrenner, the two original members of the Cooke Head Start Planning Committee in 1965.

After several meetings from October 15th until December and a process in which members kept the discussions confidential, a preliminary report for critique was submitted to the Johnson Administration and to Task Force members before Christmas. Hunt completed on January 14, 1967 the 157-page final report titled "A Bill of Rights for Children: Report of the President's Task Force on Early Childhood Development," which is now housed at the Lyndon Baines Johnson Library at Austin, Texas.

It was a comprehensive, detailed, in-depth review, with the stated overall goal of "improving the quality of American life," along with seven broad recommendations: establishment of a federal office for children in the U.S. Department of HEW, an increase in the priority of children's needs in community and state governments, various neighborhood programs, a continuation of Head Start, federal matching of state funds for child welfare services, the training of staff for the future, and research and development for children of the future.

In his autobiographical article published in *The Psychologists*, Vol 2 (Oxford University Press, 1974), Hunt reported "great satisfaction" upon learning that Johnson's February 8, 1967 message to Congress contained "two of our most important recommendations, (1) an extension of the Project Head Start upward in the age range as the Follow-Through Program and (2) an extension of the project downward in the age range through the establishment of a limited number of Parent and Child Centers." He also noted that the recommendation for establishment of the Office of Children reporting directly to the Secretary of HEW was implemented later during the Nixon Administration.

Correspondence on file at the LBJ Library at Austin reveals that Hunt had written on May 22, 1967 to Joseph Califano in response to receiving copies of the working papers with the criteria for the Centers for Children and Parents, noting, in part, "I am delighted with these signs of progress," and cautioning "We are woefully ignorant about the period from about one year of age to about four years when children have, in the past, made their first appearance in nursery schools." Also on file are letters of appreciation to Hunt from President Johnson dated March 24, 1967 and Joseph Califano dated January 9, 1969.

Hunt had also expanded his involvement with the welfare of children when he had become a member of a committee in 1966 for selection of centers to be incorporated into a new National Laboratory for Early Childhood Education, and became chairman of the National Advisory Board. Then when the Office of Education located the Coordination Center to the University of Illinois, he became its director in 1967-68.

In 1968, after serving during the previous two decades in an advisory capacity on more than ten projects, Hunt became a member of the board of advisors for the Children's Television Workshop, which a year later initiated its popular *Sesame Street*, an educational series for preschoolers. Telecast by the Public Broadcasting Service, it has become one of the longest-running American television shows in history. In 1976, he became a member of the board of advisors for the Archives of the History of American Psychology at the University of Akron in Ohio.

More task forces were formed during the Johnson Administration, several individuals were involved in the advancement of Head Start, and in subsequent years there were various funding initiatives and studies. In addition to Maris Vinovskis' book *The Birth of Head Start* (2005), other useful histories of the program's development, including mention of Hunt's contributions, appear in Gilbert Y. Steiner, *The Children's Cause* (Brookings Institutions, 1976) and in Harold Silver and Pamela Silver, *An Educational War on Poverty: American and British Policy-Making 1960-1980* (Cambridge University Press, 1991).

In 1994, with the reauthorization of the Head Start program, Congress included a new program known as Early Head Start for low-income families involving pregnant women and children under three years of age. Since its beginning in 1965, more than 24 million preschool-aged children have participated.

At present, the Office of Head Start is under the Administration for Children and Families within the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Its stated mission, in part, is to promote school readiness by "enhancing the social and cognitive development of children through the provision of educational, health, nutritional, social and other services."

The annual budget of Head Start for Fiscal Year 2007 was just over $6.8 billion, with services provided to over 900,000 children, the vast majority 3 to 4 years of age.

Despite some misgivings about Head Start during its initial two decades, Hunt was optimistic overall about the progress made for preschool children, reported the article "A Head Start in The Nursery" in *Psychology Today*, September 1979. He also emphasized that "the key problem in education is the problem of the match—finding circumstances that are sufficiently stimulating but not too demanding for each child at each point in his development," and asserted that parents and teachers can provide such a match "by knowing precisely what each child can and can't do at any stage."

During his career, Hunt was recipient of many honors, most notably the Distinguished Contributions Award in 1973, the G. Stanley Hall Award in 1976, and the prestigious Gold Medal in 1979, all from the American Psychological Association, as well as the Kurt Lewin Memorial Award in 1981 from the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues. Honorary doctorates were awarded by Brown University in 1958, the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1967, and Ohio State University in 1984.

The J. McVicker Hunt Papers are housed at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Archives Record Series Number 39/2/26.

Aside from the previously cited autobiography published in 1974 and obituary in 1992, other valuable biographical information appeared in *American Psychologist* (January 1980) as well as entries in *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, Vol 18 (1979) and *Biographical Dictionary of Psychology* (1997) and *Encyclopedia of Psychology*, Vol 4 (2000).

There was an obituary in the January 11, 1991 *New York Times* and an entry in *Who Was Who in America*, Vol 10 (1993).

Born in 1906 near Scottsbluff, Scotts Bluff County, Nebraska to Robert and Carrie Loughborough McVicker Hunt, he grew up on his father's farm, attended a one-room country school until the 2nd grade, then the Scottsbluff Public Schools, where he graduated from Scottsbluff High in 1924. After farming for one year, he attended the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, earning a bachelor's degree in 1929 and a master's degree in 1930. He also taught at UNL for one semester in the fall of 1935.

Married in 1929 to Seward native Esther Dahms, he and his wife raised two daughters. Joseph McVicker Hunt died at age 84 on January 9, 1991 at Urbana-Champaign, Illinois.

Charlotte Buettenback Johnson: Art teacher who co-designed first Barbie doll and was also its wardrobe director

Barbie doll, the world's best-known and best-selling toy in history, created by Ruth Handler and first marketed by Mattel in 1959, was co-designed by Omaha native Charlotte Buettenback Johnson.

A freelance women's clothing designer and teacher at Chouinard Art School in Los Angeles, she was hired as the personal clothing designer of Barbie dolls. Working for the Hawthorne, California-based Mattel with a company in Japan in 1957 and 1958, Charlotte developed the original image of Barbie in accord with Handler's general specifications.

The doll had an adult body and clothes like those that little girls see on adult women and teenage girls. Charlotte used her hands to show the sculptor how to position the doll's hands, and they were designed so that clothing could be easily put on and off. The facial contour was pattered after Charlotte's face.

She searched for commercially available fabrics that were of the proper weight and had small enough designs to be proportioned to Barbie's size, and she worked with the Japanese manufacturers to produce materials specifically to meet her standards.

First sold in 1959, Barbie was a slender, shapely doll, 11 1/2 inches tall, made of flesh-toned vinylplastic, with movable head, arms and legs, and dressed in a black and white striped jersey swimsuit, sunglasses, and high-heeled shoes.

Her hair was made of soft, silky material styled in a ponytail with curly bangs, either blonde or brunette. She had bright red lips and nails, heavy eyeliner and pointed eyebrows, and eyes with white irises.

Johnson insisted the body sculpting and size remain the same while allowing for innovations with fashions. Since clothing styles change from one year to the next, the doll's clothing reflected the influential styles of the period for girls of each generation.

As director of Barbie's wardrobe for Mattel from 1957 to 1980, Charlotte kept the doll's clothing styles current by observing trends in catalogs and other publications, and visiting Europe to learn the latest from the great fashion houses.

Over more than four decades, countless fashions have been created for the doll that has had more than 75 careers, ranging from nurse, teacher, astronaut, surgeon, rock star to businesswoman, disco dancer, and professional basketball player. And she has represented some 45 different nationalities.

In that time, nearly every American girl between ages 5 and 10 has owned at least one Barbie, along with several wardrobes. And at the turn of the 21st century, annual sales of the doll and its accessories grossed almost $2 billion.

Regarded as a powerful representation of popular culture, the Barbie doll was included in the National Toy Hall of Fame in 1998, now housed at the Strong Museum in Rochester, New York, which recognizes toys that have achieved longevity and national significance in the world of play and imagination. And in 1999, the image of Barbie was featured on a new postage stamp issued by the U.S. Postal Service.

A published account of Charlotte Johnson's role in the design and development of the doll is Kitturach B. Westenhouser, *The Story of Barbie* (Collector books, a Division of Schroeder Publishing, 1994).

Articles which report on Charlotte's involvement with the doll were published in the *Los Angeles Times,* May 13, 1964 and September 8, 1974.

Born in Omaha in 1917, Charlotte was the only child who survived to adulthood of Frank and Charlotte Holub Buettenback. While growing up in the Benson area, she graduated from Omaha Central High School in 1934.

She was active in art and dramatic activities, was a talented art student and pianist, and won a Carnegie Award sponsored by *Scholastic Magazine* for her design of a crayfish for placement on a bracelet, necklace, or candlestick holder.

With a scholarship, she attended Kansas City Art Institute for three years, then married sculptor Edgar Johnson Jr. and lived in New York, where he made ceramic products and she painted them.

After the marriage ended, with no children, she moved to California, owning a business that designed and sewed children's clothes, and teaching fashion design at Chouinard Art School.

Charlotte Buettenback Johnson died in Santa Monica in 1997 and in accord with her wishes, her remains were cremated, and the ashes laid to rest at Holy Sepulchre Cemetery in Omaha. An obituary was published in the March 4, 1997 *Omaha World Herald.*

Philip M. Klutznick: Jewish Leader, Visionary Developer, and Humanitarian Negotiator

Philip M. Klutznick was a many-faceted man who seemingly led parallel lives as a Jewish leader, visionary developer, and global peacemaker. He was courageous, caring, sometimes controversial and often unconventional. He was devoted to faith, family, peace, politics, and humanitarianism.

"I never changed. I never was a follower of the routine. People suddenly discovered I had ideas that to them were outlandish," Klutznick stated in an interview with Estelle Gilson. His "outlandish" ideas led to unique housing developments and productive peace negotiations while serving seven U.S. presidents.

Klutznick was born July 9, 1907, in Kansas City, Missouri, the second of four children. His parents, Morris and Minnie Spindler Klutznick, were Orthodox Jews who had emigrated from Eastern Europe in 1905. Morris Klutznick, who later became a furniture dealer and then a grocer, was first a cobbler. He owned a shoe store which the family lived above for several years.

From an early age Klutznick was unafraid to voice strong opinions. When he was ten he engaged in a fist fight with a boy who blamed Jews for causing World War I. The other, bigger, boy won. Klutznick claimed it was his only fist fight. Thereafter, he became adept at winning fights with words. A lifelong Democrat, he was a pre-teen when he made a speech lauding Harry Truman who, then, was a county judge candidate.

At Manual High School he was on the varsity debate team, graduating in 1924 with a gold medal in oratory. He was also editor of the *Manualite,* which, during his senior year, was judged Missouri's best high school newspaper.

He was vice president of the YMCA's Hi-Y Boys Club but, as a Jew, could not become president. Recognizing the value of religious-based youth organizations, he founded the second chapter of Aleph Zadik Aleph (AZA), a Jewish youth branch of B'nai B'rith.

In January 1925, he entered the University of Kansas but when the Klutznick family moved to Omaha, Nebraska, Philip transferred to the University of Nebraska at Lincoln. After a year there, he enrolled in Omaha's Creighton University. He earned a bachelor of law degree from Creighton in February 1930.

Throughout his collegiate career he honed his communicative skills. He was on the Creighton debate squad and the advisory council of Creighton's literary magazine, *Shadows.*

He traveled nationwide, organizing AZA chapters and was president from 1925-1926. In 1928, he joined B'nai B'rith and was president of the Omaha lodge at age twenty-three. While in law school he was executive secretary of AZA and managing editor of *The Shofer,* its monthly publication. He was also a member of the synagogue board of trustees, and once substituted for a rabbi.

Klutznick married Ethel Riekes on June 8, 1930. Their first child, Betty Lu, was born in 1932. They had five more children, but one was stillborn. Of those who lived, the others were boys.

Klutznick credited two men as his favorite early advisers. Mordecai Kaplan was a philosopher who stressed that "an

American Jew who willingly lives in two civilizations--that of his people and their needs, and that of America and its needs. . . . has multiple loyalties [and] his task is to try to do justice to all." Klutznick exemplified this theory and expounded on it in his 1961 book about Jewish problems and proposed solutions, *No Easy Answers.*

In it Klutznick suggested that Protestants and Jews share fundamental values but express them differently because no one expression is right for everyone. He asserted that "rabbis are not psychiatrists, investment counselors . . . drama coaches . . . but should be 'religious specialist[s]'." He maintained that no matter what sect of Judaism, "religion is its essence."

The other most influential man in Klutznick's early professional years was a Catholic law professor, Louis Te Poel, who was also corporation counsel for Omaha in 1933. Te Poel chose the inexperienced Klutznick as his assistant because Klutznick's strength was his ability to see both sides of an issue and find points of agreement. Years later Klutznick declared, "There is no greater service a lawyer can render than to bring peaceful adjustment between conflicting claims. I have tried to live that way in all walks of life ever since."

In 1933, as part of his New Deal programs, President Franklin D. Roosevelt convinced Congress to establish the Federal Administration of Public Works. At the time, Klutznick was an assistant city attorney for Omaha. He went to Washington, D.C. to request federal aid and returned with funds for two housing projects. This was pivotal in his career because, as he said, "housing became a kind of obsession with me."

Several months later, he went into private practice. In 1938 he was instrumental in creating the Omaha Housing Authority and was its general counsel for three years. He authored the Nebraska Housing Authorities Law, making Nebraska the first state west of the Mississippi to enact such legislation. Later, he argued its constitutionality successfully before the Nebraska Supreme Court.

Klutznick's frequent trips to Washington on behalf of public housing issues were noticed by federal officials. In 1941 they asked him to consult on federal housing projects for civilian defense workers. Klutznick agreed to what he thought would be a temporary position.

Temporary became permanent. In 1944, President Roosevelt appointed Klutznick as Federal Public Housing Administrator. In this position he arranged for houses by the hundreds to be dismantled in some parts of the country and shipped elsewhere to be rebuilt wherever defense factory workers needed them. He also urged home owners who lived near defense plants to: (1) take in "war guests" as roomers, (2) convert single units into multiplexes, and (3) lease houses, commercial and industrial buildings using government money.

When Roosevelt died in 1945, Klutznick, as a presidential appointee, submitted his resignation to President Truman, who rejected it summarily, stating that Klutznick was more than a presidential appointee; they were friends.

He finally resigned in 1946 so he could return to private practice in Omaha. However, he changed his mind about Omaha when opportunity arose in Chicago.

Carron F. Sweet, Sr., a Chicago banker, wanted to create a new city for returning war veterans. Along with builder Nathan Manilow, Klutznick was intrigued. Park Forest would be a "satellite city," twenty-seven miles from Chicago.

They broke ground in 1947. Aimed at middle-income families, rental units were built first, then houses and "non-nuisance industry," shopping and commercial centers, and park areas. A natural greenbelt already existed "in the form of a forest preserve." Park Forest was often called "a model of intelligent planning." Klutznick was its first renter and lived there thirteen years.

In 1948, Governor Adlai Stevenson appointed Klutznick vice chairman of the Illinois Housing Authority.

Meanwhile, all this activity with housing did not distract Klutznick from his involvement with Judaism. With

Truman's approval, he and Leon Keyserling had organized an informal campaign to seek contributions from federal employees for the United Jewish Appeal.

He was president of B'nai B'rith from 1953-1959. He was a board member of the Conference on Jewish Material Claims Against Germany in 1953 and helped to establish the Conference of Presidents of Major American Jewish Organizations in 1954. He journeyed to Morocco in 1956 to secure the release of 8,500 Moroccan Jews.

Klutznick served President Eisenhower as a delegate to the United Nations for three months in 1957. From 1961-63 he was ambassador to the United Nations Economic and Social Council under President Kennedy's appointment.

Meanwhile, in 1957 Klutznick began planning another new city: Ashdod, Israel. This was to be a major seaport south of Tel Aviv. Oved Ben Ami, founder and mayor of Nathanya, Israel, had visited Klutznick during the development of Park Forest. They planned to build Ashdod on ten thousand acres of sand dunes, using a labor force comprised mainly of Arabs from the West Bank. Today, Ashdod is a thriving city of nearly 200,000.

Klutznick was elected president of the United Jewish Appeal in 1960. During that decade he was also president of the American Friends of the Hebrew University, and vice president of the Jewish Welfare Board.

In 1963 he was appointed national chairman of the Founder's Fund of the Eleanor Roosevelt Memorial Foundation. In 1964, Klutznick surveyed housing problems in Brazil for President Lyndon B. Johnson. He continued to serve in various capacities at the United Nations throughout the 1970s.

In 1974, at age sixty-five, he stepped down as the chairman and CEO of his business, but he did not retire. Instead, he undertook another large real estate development: Chicago's Water Tower Place, a seventy-four-story complex, which included the Ritz-Carlton Hotel, 150 shops, and condominiums. Since he both lived and worked there, Klutznick liked to joke that once again he was living over the store.

In 1975, President Ford appointed him to serve on an advisory committee that facilitated resettlement of Vietnamese and Cambodians in the United States.

He was elected president of the World Jewish Congress in 1977. Two highlights of that term were his meeting Egyptian president Anwar Sadat and heading a delegation that met with Pope John Paul II.

Klutznick, the world famous Jew, remained loyal to his Jesuit alma mater. He had served on Creighton University's first board of directors to include laymen and was a member of its Board of Regents. November 14, 1979, he was awarded Creighton University's highest non-academic award: the Manressa Medal.

November 16, 1979, his nomination as Secretary of Commerce was announced by President Jimmy Carter. He took a leave from the World Jewish Congress and, at age 72, became the oldest member of Carter's Cabinet. He oversaw the 1980 U.S. Census and established the Office for Productivity, Technology, and Innovation. When Carter was not reelected, Klutznick returned to Chicago.

Whether or not they agreed with him, many Jews credited Klutznick with the ability and courage to address their controversial issues. It was stated that "Few people could have said what Klutznick did and have continued to serve that community."

One example was his 1981 meeting in Paris with Dr. Nahum Goldmann and former French Prime Minister Pierre Mendes-France shortly after Israel invaded Lebanon. In a statement known as "The Paris Declaration," the three called for immediate withdrawal and urged negotiations with the Palestine Liberation Organization. They also advocated a separate Palestinian homeland.

In 1986, Philip and Ethel Klutznick established the Philip M. and Ethel Klutznick Chair in Jewish Civilization at the

College of Arts and Sciences at Northwestern University in Chicago.

One year later they established The Klutznick Endowed Chair in Jewish Civilization at Creighton University in Omaha, Nebraska. At the time, it seemed a radical idea to have a Jewish studies chair at a Jesuit school. But, as explained by chair holder Leonard J. Greenspoon, civilization is the key word. "Klutznick wanted to use the inclusive term 'civilization' to describe his all-encompassing view of Judaism as more than theology, more than ritual practice. Judaism, in Klutznick's vision, incorporates all aspects of life, including the arts, literature, politics, history, and the social sciences."

"If there is anything I have learned at all," Klutznick declared, "it is that everything is temporary in this world, and there isn't much difference between peoples."

Klutznick died August 14, 1999 in Chicago, Illinois, having suffered from Alzheimer's disease.

He received honorary degrees from Creighton University, Wilberforce College, Dropsie College, Hebrew Union College, Chicago Medical School, the College of Jewish Studies, Hebrew Theological College, Brandeis University, Yeshiva University, and Jewish Theological Seminary.

Other honors included:

- 1947--President Truman awarded him the Certificate of Merit for "rapid-fire construction of half-a-million housing units."
- 1951--First recipient of the Sam Beber Award.
- 1957--B'nai B'rith named part of its new headquarters in Washington, D.C. for him. In 1976 the name was changed to B'nai B'rith Klutznick Museum. The word "national" was added in 1991.
- 1970--Creighton University's law library was named for him.
- 1987--Recipient of the M. Justin Herman Memorial Award from the National Association of Housing and Redevelopment Officials

Among several published accounts of his career are an essay by Estelle Gilson in Murray Polner's *Jewish Profiles: Great Jewish Personalities and Institutions of the Twentieth Century* (1991) and obituaries in the *Washington Post, Omaha World-Herald, New York Times* and *Chicago Sun-Times* (all in August 1999). Refer also to Philip Klutznick, *No Easy Answers* (Farrar, Straus & Cudahy, 1961) and Philip Klutznick with Sidney Hyman, *Angles of Vision: A Memoir of My Lives* (Chicago: I. R. Dee, 1991).

Ben Kuroki: First Japanese-American war hero, crusader for racial equality, and newspaper publisher

In a democratic society, an individual has the freedom and responsibility to set the limits for his or her relationship with a group. And a group is expected to protect an individual from abuses by the majority.

For his exemplary involvement with both concepts, Ben Kuroki, a Hershey, Nebraska native whose parents were Japanese immigrants, became recognized as one of America's outstanding military and civilian heroes.

While growing up on a vegetable farm near the small town located 14 miles west of North Platte, Ben was assimilated into American culture through school attendance, participation in community customs, and cooperation with neighbors. He did not experience discrimination.

After the Empire of Japan waged its surprise attack on the U. S. naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii on December 7, 1941, and World War II began, tension existed between national security and civil liberty issues.

"U.S. intelligence in late 1941 and early 1942 was unequivocal in warning of large ongoing espionage operations controlled by the Japanese government on the West Coast," wrote former National Security Agency intelligence officer David D. Lowman, who decades later studied declassified documents.

And in his book *MAGIC: The Untold Story of U.S. Intelligence and Evacuation of Japanese Residents From The West Coast During WW II* (Athena Press, 2000), author Lowman also stated: "Most of the many rumors about the Japanese living along the West Coast turned out to be untrue, but practically everybody at the time believed them."

Concerns about the loyalty of residents of Japanese descent along the West Coast, where U.S. military facilities existed, resulted in the forced evacuation of Japanese Americans as well as some of German and Italian ancestry to relocation, or internment, centers in several western states.

Some critics several decades later, believing the wartime removal was not necessary, asserted there were other reasons for the treatment of Japanese Americans. For example, Peter Irons, a legal historian and author of *Justice at War* (Oxford University Press, 1983), argued they were interned because of "racism, war hysteria, and failure of leadership at the highest levels of government." He also asserted legal sanction of removal occurred because of failure of our nation's legal system.

Whether one terms their removal as evacuation, detention, relocation, or internment, the centers were barbed-wire compounds with guards (soldiers) carrying rifles with bayonets. Food and shelter were provided by the War

Relocation Authority, and wages were paid to those who wished to work. Of more than 110,000 persons of Japanese descent held in the centers, or camps, from 1942 to 1945, over 30,000 voluntarily left to engage in outside employment.

And another 4,000 left to attend college. While they were denied admittance by some institutions of higher learning, others accepted as many as 50 evacuees. It is a matter of public record that the University of Nebraska--under Chancellor Chauncey Boucher's Administration--exceeded its quota by welcoming more than 100 Japanese Americans to its student body during World War II.

Over half a century later, out of gratitude for their treatment, about 30 of them returned in April 1999 to dedicate Nisei Plaza north of Kimball Hall on the Lincoln campus.

Japanese Americans who resided outside the states of California, Oregon, and Washington were not subject to internment. But they were frequently victims of resentment, suspicion, and discrimination once the war started.

The day of the Pearl Harbor attack, Kuroki's father urged him and his brother Fred to volunteer immediately, so they drove to Grand Island, some 150 miles to the east, and were among the first Japanese Americans to enlist in the U.S. armed forces. A week later, noted the December 18, 1941 *New York Times,* the Kuroki brothers recited the pledge of allegiance, and in early January 1942 departed for basic training at Sheppard Field, Texas.

In a speech 50 years later at the Museum of Nebraska History in Lincoln, Kuroki stated, "Pearl Harbor was like double jeopardy to me. I deplored the sneak attack and the heavy casualties of American servicemen. And secondly, I felt deeply ashamed of what the enemy had done and I developed a strange guilt complex." His parents had taught their cultural belief to the children: "Never do anything to bring shame onto oneself or family. Pearl Harbor was major shame."

There were some Japanese Americans who actively participated in the war effort on the side of the United States. Of about 19,000 military-aged males in the internment centers, over 1,000 volunteered to serve in the military forces. And more than 20,000 others were inducted.

The 442nd Regimental Combat Team, comprised entirely of Japanese Americans, became the most decorated unit for its size and length of service in American military history. It distinguished itself in Europe, and was involved in the 1944 liberation of the Nazi concentration camp at Dachau, Germany.

In the Pacific, more than 6,000 Japanese Americans served in military intelligence, saving countless lives and shortening the war by two years, according to the intelligence chief for U.S. Army General Douglas MacArthur.

Ben Kuroki became the first Japanese-American war hero, and in the process overcame various obstacles as well as racial intolerance. After basic training, he attended clerk-typist school at Ft. Logan, Colorado, followed later by assignment to the 93rd Bombardment Group at Ft. Myers, Florida.

In August 1942, the 409th Squadron of the 93rd Group was ordered overseas, but Japanese Americans in the Air Corps were to be left behind in the states. So Kuroki begged his squadron adjutant Lt. Charles Brannan to arrange for him to be included for overseas duty at a base in England. Even as a clerk, he was elated to be part of the first B-24 Liberator bomb group, and a part of the U.S. Army 8th Air Force.

When his squadron badly needed aerial gunners, he volunteered and was sent to gunnery school for two weeks, learning how to use .50 caliber machine guns. Then on December 12 of that year he was assigned to a B-24 combat crew piloted by Lt. Jake Epting of Tupelo, Mississippi. Thereafter, Kuroki served as tail turret gunner for the duration of the war.

Fifty years later, Ben recalled, "For the first time since Pearl Harbor, I felt that I belonged. Words cannot describe

how great it felt to be accepted and respected. There was no bigotry among crewmen. Nobody questioned your religion or your ancestry."

A combat tour of 25 missions was the usual limit for bomber crews during World War II before rotation home occurred. But due to the danger during the early years of the war in Europe, life expectancy for crewmen was about 11 to 15 missions.

On one mission in North Africa, Ben's plane ran low on fuel and crash-landed in Spanish Morocco, and the entire crew was captured by Spanish native police and interned. Kuroki escaped but was recaptured, then flown to Madrid, where U.S. State Department authorities obtained his release and returned him to his base in England.

Not long after, Ben volunteered to participate in the longest and largest mass low-level bombing attack in air history on August 1, 1943. From a base in Libya, a force of 178 unescorted B-24 Liberators flew 1,200 miles to bomb German oil resources at Ploesti, Romania. Nearly one-third failed to return during the 13-hour round-trip mission, and only two out of nine planes in Ben's squadron returned safely.

The task of turret gunners was very dangerous and uncomfortable, reported historian Stephen E. Ambrose in his book *The Wild Blue: The Men and Boys Who Flew The B-24's Over Germany* (Simon & Schuster, 2001). There was not enough room for them to wear a parachute, the bitter cold and wind sometimes "covered them and their guns with a thin veil of frost," and because their electrically heated flight suits sometimes malfunctioned, they wore additional layers of bulky clothing, making for awkward and slow movement.

His tour of 25 missions completed, Kuroki returned to England. But he requested another tour of duty. Doctors finally agreed he could fly only five more missions--which he did in honor of his brother Fred, who could not serve overseas.

On his 30th mission in the European theater of operations, flak blasted open his turret, the plexiglas cut his face, and the oxygen mask was punctured. Ben reported a crew member from Superior, Wisconsin then held a new oxygen mask to his face until safe return to England.

Kuroki was sent home to Nebraska for rehabilitation leave in December 1943, was appreciated and respected for what he had done, and was subject of a War Department-approved feature in the December 21 *North Platte Daily Bulletin.*

In early 1944, he was on rest assignment with other airmen in California. A scheduled appearance on the NBC radio network's *Ginny Simms Show* was cancelled at the last minute, but he did appear on the program several weeks later.

On February 4 he spoke before a large gathering of the exclusive Commonwealth Club in San Francisco, where at the close he received a standing ovation for almost ten minutes. Some historians believe his speech was the turning point in West Coast bitterness.

The next day, an Associated Press release reported he had asked this country to respect loyal Americans of Japanese ancestry, and quoted him as saying that despite his uniform and medals "I don't know for sure if it's safe to walk the streets of my own country." It also reported he had asked military officials for an assignment in the Pacific.

Kuroki was subject of a February 7 article in *Time* magazine as an American war hero, and was one of several airmen featured in Bud Hutton and Andy Rooney's *Air Gunner* published by Farrar and Rinehart in 1944. And as part of a public relations assignment for the War Department, he visited internment centers in Idaho, Utah, and Wyoming to encourage volunteers and draftees to join all-Nisei units.

By the end of that summer, he began training at a B-29 Superfortress air base at Harvard, Nebraska, and requested help from important national leaders because regulations forbid Japanese Americans from flying in the Pacific

theater of operations. Telegrams were sent on his behalf from Monroe Deutsch, vice president of the University of California, Chester Howell, editor of the *San Francisco Chronicle,* and Ray Lyman Wilbur, former president of Stanford University, all of whom had been present during Ben's Commonwealth Club speech. Kuroki also asked for help from Carl Curtis, U.S. Senator from Nebraska, when at his home in Minden.

Telegrams were sent to Secretary of War Henry Stimson and two top generals. Finally, after Secretary Stimson made an exception to the regulation in November 1944 "by reason of his splendid record," Kuroki became the first and only Japanese American to serve in active combat with the Air Corps in the Pacific.

Based at Tinian Island, he was a turret gunner on a B-29 nicknamed "Honorable Sad Saki," and piloted by Lt. James Jenkins. While with the 484th Squadron, 505th Bombardment Group, 20th U.S. Army Air Force, he participated in 28 missions over cities on mainland Japan.

While in the Army Air Corps barracks at Tinian, he nearly lost his life in July 1945 when a drunken squadron member shouted "Tojo and Kuroki...damned Japs" and stabbed him with an Army-issue knife. Master sergeant Russell Olsen of New York stepped between the assailant and Kuroki, who was then taken to the hospital for two dozen stitches to his scalp. Sixty years later, in an August 13, 2005 *Lincoln* /NE/ *Journal Star* article, Kuroki was quoted as concluding, "Olsen prevented further attacks and probably saved my life."

By war's end, he had completed 58 missions in air combat, and had achieved the rank of Technical Sergeant. He had also been awarded the Distinguished Flying Cross three times and the Air Medal with five oak leaf clusters. In September 1945, he returned to the United States, and after a short visit with his family and friends at Hershey, he met with several top military leaders at New York City, and gained the attention of the media.

In an address on October 29th at the *New York Herald Tribune* Forum on Current Affairs held at the famed Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, Ben stated, in part, "Not only did I go to war to fight the fascist ideas of Germany and Japan but also to fight against a few Americans who fail to understand the principles of freedom and equality upon which this country was founded." His speech was later reprinted in the January 1946 *Reader's Digest.* During a nationwide radio broadcast of American Town Meeting of the Air on November 22nd, he also stated, in part, "I've got one more mission to go. There is still the fight against prejudice and race hatred. I call it my 59th mission, and I have a hunch I won't be fighting alone."

By coincidence, present during the American Town Meeting was Carroll "Cal" Stewart, the Nebraska native who had served as public relations officer for the 93rd Bombardment Group and had known Ben for about one year. After the war, Cal became a long-time journalist in the state.

After Kuroki was discharged on February 10, 1946 at Ft. Dix, New Jersey, he continued his crusade--with assistance from the Pearl S. Buck East West Association, founded in 1942 to improve cultural exchange and understanding between Asia and the United States--by staging a one-man nationwide speaking tour to various organizations and schools. It was financed by his savings from military pay and some proceeds from biographer Ralph G. Martin's book *Boy From Nebraska: The Story of Ben Kuroki* (Harper Brothers, 1946). Later, Martin became author and co-author of over 25 books, many of them biographies of politicians and celebrities such as Franklin D. Roosevelt, Winston Churchill's mother, John F. Kennedy, and Helen Keller.

During his lectures in Idaho, Ben met his future wife Shige Tanabe, and they married August 9, 1946 at Pocatello. After depleting his personal funds for his 1 1/2-year crusade, he attended the University of Nebraska-Lincoln from June 1947 to June 1950, earning his bachelor's degree in journalism in three years.

With money borrowed from his brother Fred, he owned-edited-published the weekly *York* [NE] *Republican* from June 8, 1950 to January 10, 1952. Members of at least a dozen newspapers, including Cal Stewart of O'Neill, helped Ben publish his first issue, a 40-page edition titled "Operation Democracy." In a June 12, 1950 *Time* article about his journalistic venture, he was quoted as saying, "This couldn't happen in any other country."

A month later, his publishing business was damaged after a record 13-inch rainfall on July 8th created the worst flood in the history of York, the only time high water from the nearby Big Blue River has reached the downtown area. After newspaper friends helped during the recovery, he expressed appreciation in subsequent editions, and published letters of support received from individuals statewide and worldwide.

From January 1952 to November 1954, he was editor of the *Daily Bulletin* at Blackfoot, Idaho, then worked as a reporter for the *North Platte* [NE] *Telegraph-Bulletin* for one year.

For the next ten years, he distinguished himself as owner-editor-publisher of the weekly *Williamstown* [MI] *Enterprise,* and earned a "best editorial" award from the Michigan Press Association. From 1965 to 1984, he worked for the *Star-Free Press* at Ventura, California, becoming its first Sunday editor and news editor before retirement.

It is thought that Ben was the first Japanese American to publish a newspaper intended only for English-language readers.

After World War II ended, the United States occupied Japan and portions of Germany for several years, helping both nations rebuild and establish a democratic form of government. In Japan, women were also given the right to vote for the first time in its history.

In early 1945, the War Relocation Authority began to release internees from the centers, and in 1948, President Harry S. Truman signed the Japanese American Evacuation Claims Act to compensate those who had suffered economic losses. About $28 million was eventually paid through provisions of this Act.

In 1952, the United States law prohibiting Japanese aliens from becoming naturalized citizens was changed, and Ben Kuroki's father became naturalized at the age of 80 because "it added to his dream, the American dream," stated Ben.

In August 1988, President Ronald Reagan signed HR 442, a reparations act approved by the U.S. Congress that provided payment of $20,000 to each of the surviving Japanese Americans who was evacuated, relocated, or interned during World War II--along with a signed apology from the U.S. President on behalf of the American people. More than $1.6 billion was expended for this purpose until the period of reparations ended in 1998.

To date, no reparations have been granted to the smaller number of German and Italian Americans who also were interned at centers.

During his December 6, 1991 speech at the Museum of Nebraska History, Kuroki had given reasons why the war against bigotry still goes on. And in his closing remarks, he applauded the reparations act of 1988 which, he noted, came at a time when a large federal budget deficit existed. And he said, "I believe this could not have happened in any other country in the world. Congress did not just give lip service to the meaning of democracy."

The next day, exactly 50 years after Pearl Harbor, a *New York Times* editorial titled "Hidden Heroes" argued that a special tribute is owed to the largely unremembered Americans of Japanese descent who exhibited uncommon courage and sacrifice during World War II. Prominently reviewed were the accomplishments of the famed 442nd Regimental Combat Team and of Hershey, Nebraska native Ben Kuroki, who was called "an authentic hero."

Sixty years almost to the day after the Japanese government surrendered to end World War II, Ben Kuroki received the U.S. Army Distinguished Service Medal, which is awarded for exceptionally meritorious service to the government in a duty of great responsibility.

After a two-year effort nationally by many persons, including significant involvement by the staff of E. Benjamin Nelson, U.S. Senator from Nebraska, he was presented the Medal in an August 12, 2005 ceremony at Lincoln, Nebraska. In part, the citation stated, "Technical Sergeant Kuroki's service during the period 1 August 1942 to 1

August 1945 was above and beyond the call of duty, accomplished in both combat theaters of World War II, while serving with four separate Air Forces, totaling 58 combat missions ...Throughout this entire period, he overcame many acts of prejudice and earned the nickname 'Most Honorable Son'."

At the ceremony, he responded, "Receiving this Medal so many decades after the fact is truly incredible. I had to fight like hell to fight for my country, and now I feel completely vindicated."

It is the third highest-ranking military honor behind the Congressional Medal of Honor and the Distinguished Service Cross. Among the first recipients of the Distinguished Service Medal in 1918 was General John J. Pershing, Commanding General of the American Expeditionary Forces in Europe during World War I.

Kuroki also received an honorary doctorate degree from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln on August 13, 2005, a day after the DSM ceremony. He was honored by U.S. President George W. Bush at the White House on June 29, 2006 and on May 1, 2008. The Ben Kuroki Scholarship Fund #10074 with the University of Nebraska Foundation was established in 2006. His war memorabilia are preserved at the Smithsonian Instutution in Washington, D.C.

Aside from sources already cited for readers are lengthy profiles by Cal Stewart published in the February 24, 1946 Omaha *Sunday World Herald Magazine* and the June 8, 1950 *York* [NE] *Republican* and the Winter 2004 issue of *Bomber Legends,* the latter published in Ramona, California and his booklet *The Most Honorable Son: Ben Kuroki* (Nebraska Printing Center, 2008). Helpful also are articles in the January 1992 *Nebraska State Historical Society Newsletter,* the December 7, 1991 and August 11, 2005 *Omaha World Herald,* and August 11, 2005 *Los Angeles Times*, and the August 13, 2005 and August 2, 2007 *Lincoln Journal Star*, and the September/October 2007 *Nebraska Life.*

And a one-hour documentary about Ben Kuroki's war years, which was produced by William Kubota and titled *Most Honorable Son* (KDN Films and Nebraska Educational Telecommunications, 2007), was telecast nationwide by PBS on September 17, 2007.

Born at Gothenburg, Dawson County, Nebraska in 1917, one of ten children of Shosuke "Sam" and Naka Yokoyama Kuroki, he moved a year later with his family to a farm near Hershey in Lincoln County, where he attended the Hershey Public Schools, graduating from Hershey High in 1936, where he was vice president of his senior class. From 1934 to 1939, he was a member of the Japanese-American baseball team at North Platte, and helped with the family farm until joining the military service at age 24.

Ben and his wife, now residents of Camarillo, California, have raised three daughters, two of whom became kindergarten teachers and the other a college librarian, and enjoy their four grandchildren.

Mabel Lee: Pioneering physical education innovator, women's advocate, and author

Ahead of her time in the field of physical education, Mabel Lee felt women could accomplish physical feats that were deemed either impossible or inappropriate. She also felt that physical education programs should be available to everyone, not just a favored few who seemed to have special skills.

Up through the first part of the twentieth century, women were generally considered to be, or were treated as, "the weaker sex." For instance, women's basketball rules limited the movements of each player to half court. School athletic departments often required women to refrain from physical exercise during "that time of the month" because it might affect their health negatively. Many sports were dominated by, or considered to be, for men only. Mabel Lee strove to change those foolish attitudes and rules.

Born August 18, 1886 in Clearfield, Iowa to David Alexander and Jennie Aikman Lee, Mabel was the second of four daughters. As a child she was small, underweight and often ill. Regardless, she enjoyed participating in physical games and activities. Although there were few organized children's sports, there was also no TV and, therefore, few couch potatoes. As Mabel described her childhood in *Memories of a Bloomer Girl,* "We children of the 1890s had a rich play life, full of physical activity. Even home chores added to our physical development." She cited climbing trees, swinging on wild grape vines, and walking to school as "natural gymnastics."

A favorite childhood memory involved her fourth grade teacher, Mr. Brower, a Civil War veteran. He had his students march around the school, swinging their arms and singing. Sometimes they would sing the multiplication tables to the tune of *Yankee Doodle.* Mr. Brower felt "this was good exercise and an antidote to natural restlessness."

The first children's bikes were manufactured during the 1890s and Mabel won one in a contest. Because it was the first child's bike in the neighborhood, her parents insisted she share its use with other children so all could benefit from the exercise.

One of Mabel's childhood friends was Hygiene Sawyers (yes, Hygiene was really her name). Hygiene's father, a doctor, purchased and installed some exercise machines, including a rowing machine and pulley weights, in the basement playroom of his home. Several times a week, the girls worked out on them, experimenting with and inventing various exercises.

By 1893, the Lee family had moved to Centerville, Iowa. It was there that Mabel graduated from high school in 1904.

She attended Coe College in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, partly because Coe had a girls' basketball team and a new gymnasium was under construction. She majored in psychology, minored in biology, and took courses in anatomy and physiology, which were fairly new to college curricula then. During her senior year she taught gymnastics to girls at Marion High School, located in a town six miles from Cedar Rapids just a trolley ride away.

Lee wanted to teach physical education, so after graduation magna cum laude from Coe in 1908, she enrolled in the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics (BNSG). Here she was introduced to new ideas that were not being taught in most schools.

One of these was the study of health and hygiene and their potential impact on physical fitness. Following a physical examination, Mabel was told she needed "corrective exercises" for spinal curvature and a slight difference in the length of her legs. Because of this, "correctives" became a focus for her own teaching, especially in the areas of posture and special needs.

Lee had little interest in dance as a physical education activity until she studied with an instructor who required his students to choreograph and perform for his classes. Then she began to appreciate its educational value and later, as a teacher, she developed and presented pageants.

She also formed definite ideas about the overall purpose of physical education. In today's highly competitive sports-minded environment, her philosophies seem somewhat out of sync. She was adamantly opposed to intercollegiate sports and their emphasis on developing a few elite players. In her opinion, intramural sports were fine as long as all students who desired could participate equally. She felt strongly that sports were essential for improving individual physical fitness and should be engaged in by people of all abilities.

In 1909, at the end of her first year, the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics became part of Wellesley College. Upon graduation in 1910, Lee accepted a teaching position at Coe College. There, due to the straitlaced climate of the times, she withstood controversy when she instituted health and hygiene courses as requirements for freshmen women, and insisted that they take comprehensive physical examinations so she could classify them for "corrective" work. However, she was forced to discontinue the examinations temporarily until she could convince parents, students and faculty that they were necessary and would be conducted with privacy and modesty.

In 1911, Lee started a tradition of pageants at Coe that incorporated dance in spite of public outcry that dance was immoral in any form. Especially notable was the first annual May Queen celebration that almost didn't happen. Just as the orchestra was ready to play, the sheriff came to arrest her because a Grand Army of the Republic commander complained that she was dishonoring Memorial Day. Following a meeting with the sheriff and college president, the show was allowed to continue.

Two years later the pageant was halted temporarily because the girls wore silk hosiery instead of cotton. Another year the show was interrupted because a girl wore a leopard skin costume. Each time Lee was called to the

president's office and reprimanded before the performance could continue.

Lured by a better salary, Lee accepted a position with the Oregon Agricultural College in Corvallis (now Oregon State University). It seemed like a good idea, but because World War I troop training was being held on some college campuses, Lee's physical education classes were relegated to the basement laundry room of the home economics building. There faculty and students had to work around large immovable laundry tubs.

With the onset of the 1919 flu epidemic, the campus health service also headquartered in the laundry room. When Lee became seriously ill, she resigned and moved to her parents' home, which was then in Des Moines, Iowa.

Ready to resume work in1920, Lee spent four years as Director of Physical Education for Women at Beloit College in Beloit, Wisconsin, where she reorganized the department and instituted new programs.

Then she received an offer from the University of Nebraska and, in 1924, Lincoln became her home. At first, Lee had to cope with faculty and alumni who felt good athletes should be given special treatment and that intercollegiate sports should be a priority. This was antithetical to her philosophy that sports were essential for improving individual physical fitness, they should be engaged in by people of all abilities, and all students should earn their grades through their own hard work.

By reorganizing and innovating, Lee's work ethic and standards became those of the department. Again, controversy ensued. She turned a previously three-day-a-week class schedule into a five-or-six-day schedule, annoying some instructors who had liked their relatively work-free days.

Under her guidance, a program that had consisted mainly of gymnastics expanded to include a variety of activities including team and individual sports, corrective exercises, and a program for special needs. Some of her critics considered Lee to be a hard taskmaster, but she always took a personal interest in her students, listening to and counseling them about health issues, professional goal setting, and proper deportment for young ladies. She was an outspoken crusader against smoking, arguing from a health standpoint years before the general public was aware of its hazards.

Lee had no use for bigotry. During the 1920s, the Ku Klux Klan not only terrorized blacks, it also targeted and threatened Catholics. When Lee, who was not Catholic, accepted a bid for a new women's gymnasium from a Catholic-owned firm, Klan members harassed her with phone calls and letters.

It was during this decade that Lee began her long affiliation with professional physical education organizations, becoming recognized as an authority on the organization and administration of physical education departments. Serving as president of local, regional, and national groups, she reached a pinnacle when, in 1931, she became the first woman president of the American Physical Education Association.

Due to a paucity of written guidance on the subject of physical education, Lee wrote a book that her students could use as a teacher's manual. Her *Conduct of Physical Education* was an immediate success, became a textbook in colleges and universities nationwide, was translated into several foreign languages, and was acclaimed by the National Education Association as one of the sixty best educational books published in 1937.

Lee's influence on regional and national physical education was also underscored by her involvement as a committee member of numerous government-sponsored physical fitness programs. From 1941-1943, she served as a volunteer regional director of physical fitness for a national program established by President Franklin Roosevelt. In 1942, she became the first woman president of the American Academy of Physical Education. She was also active in the American Youth Hostel, serving as a member of the national board in 1944, served on the Board of Directors of the National Amateur Athletic Federation with Mrs. Herbert Hoover, and later General George Marshall appointed her to his civilian advisory committee for the first Women's Army Corps.

In 1948, the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (AAHPER) awarded her its prestigious Luther Halsey Award for outstanding service to the profession.

Her second textbook, *Fundamentals of Body Mechanics and Conditioning,* co-authored with Miriam Wagner, was published in 1949.

Lee retired from the University of Nebraska in 1952 and spent that summer as a visiting professor at the University of Southern California. Then, as a Fulbright Professor, she was physical education consultant for the Iraq Ministry of Education in Baghdad in 1952-1953.

Throughout her life, Lee kept copious notes about her work and the historical aspects of the physical education movement in the United States. No longer teaching, the ever energetic Lee sorted through boxes and boxes, files and files. For years, she had urged AAHPER to establish archives. Finally, she was offered the position of volunteer archivist. She accepted, stipulating that she be provided with necessary research and travel expenses. She served as AAHPER's first archivist from July 1960 to December 1969.

For the remainder of her life, Lee maintained an active schedule of speaking and writing. In May 1976, she was invited to her alma mater, Coe College, where she was crowned "May Queen" in honor of her work as a physical education instructor and to honor the tradition which she had helped to establish.

An Amy Morris Homans Fellowship Award from Wellesley College resulted in two books: *Memories of a Bloomer Girl* (1977) and *Beyond Bloomers* (1978). They are simultaneously autobiographies and histories of the physical education movement in the United States. A draft of another memoir, From Bloomers to Bikinis, remains unpublished. She also completed several other books and articles about physical education. Her book *A History of Physical Education and Sport in the U.S.A.* was published in 1983 when she was age 97.

It may appear that Lee's life was one long series of work-related activities and that she had no personal or social life. This was only partially true. With friends she enjoyed hiking, mountain climbing, cycling, canoeing, reading, gardening and travel. She was devoted to her family and after her father died, her mother joined her in Lincoln.

Because Lee defended her ideals steadfastly, and because those ideals did not always fit the public norm, she had detractors. One notable ongoing feud was with Louise Pound. A renowned English professor, Pound was another strong-minded woman who also excelled in athletics, triumphing over men as well as women in tennis and golf. Pound had played and coached intercollegiate basketball at the University of Nebraska before Lee arrived and was an avid proponent of intercollegiate competition. Pound's goals for physical education differed sharply from Lee's. At one point Pound tried to get Lee fired. As Lee reminisced in a 1977 interview with E. K. Casaccio, "She [Pound] thought I was going to revive the great games she put on in her day. She was not interested in those who did not excel, she had no time for them. She was a coach, rather than a sportswoman." In Lee's autobiographical books, she referred to Pound as "that woman."

Some of Lee's other writings include *A Brief History of Physical Education,* 4th Executive Director (with Emmett A. Rice and John L. Hutchinson, 1958); *History of Middle West Society of Physical Education 1912-1960* (1963); *History of Central AAHPER 1933-1963* (1966); *75-Year History of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation* (with Bruce L. Bennett, 1960); *A Brief History of Physical Education,* 5th Executive Director (with Emmett A. Rice and John L. Hutchinson, 1969); *Seventy-five Years of Professional Preparation in Physical Education for Women at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln: 1898-1973,* Parts I-II (with Dudley Ashton and Madge Phillips, 1973).

In spite of instances where people with negative agendas attempted to thwart or destroy positive outcomes, educators universally respected Lee for her knowledge, tenacity, and ability. She received many honors, including an LL.D. Degree from Coe College (1939); Honorary Doctor of Physical Education from George Williams College, Chicago (1956); and Honorary Doctor of Humanities, Beloit College (1977).

Other honors included the Hetherington Award (1957) of the American Academy of Physical Education and the R. Tait McKenzie Award (1968) of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. An AAHPER Mabel Lee Award was established in 1975 to be given to women under age 36 who showed unusual promise in the field of physical education. In May, 1977 the University of Nebraska Department of Physical Education's new building was named Mabel Lee Hall.

She died December 3, 1985, at the age of 99.

Posthumous honors include induction into the Coe College Sports Hall of Fame in October 1997 and an entry in *American National Biography,* Supplement 1 (2002).

Preston Love: Internationally Renowned Band Leader, Musical Manager and Author

Preston Love played lead alto saxophone with the best in the business, including Count Basie, Ray Charles and Stevie Wonder. An African American, Preston led his own integrated orchestra when that was a rarity. He managed the west coast operation of Motown Records for several years. He taught classes in black music history and was an artist-in-residence who conducted numerous jazz clinics. He wrote a well received book and was a columnist for the *Omaha World Herald.* This gifted man embodied "the whole musical package."

Preston was born April 21, 1921, the youngest of Mexie and Thomas Love's nine children. His mother was by then a widow who raised the children on her own. Their home in Omaha, Nebraska, often referred to as the "Love Mansion," was described by Preston as "dilapidated," but its nickname aptly described the closely knit family within.

Preston was ten years old when his brother Tommy (a.k.a. "Dude") bought a used alto saxophone and made it his mission to convert his family and friends into musicians. When a neighbor donated an old trumpet to the family, Dude decided brothers Norman and Preston should learn to play it. Preston was not enthusiastic. As he explained,

"My interest in the trumpet waned soon after I learned the C-scale and a portion of a few easy melodies."

Eventually, their brother Phillip (a.k.a. "Dodda") acquired a tenor saxophone, but he cared more about experimenting with mechanical devices than practicing music, so the instrument often rested unused under the bed.

Preston and Norman listened to musical radio programs, and one night in 1935, for the first time, they heard Count Basie and His Orchestra. From then on, their fascination with Basie grew.

The next year Dude got a job playing with a regional band, Webb and His Spiders. While they were on tour, Preston began to practice on Dodda's tenor saxophone secretly so as not to be embarrassed. When Dodda discovered this, he began coaching his brother.

One day the Spiders needed a substitute for a drummer who was ill. Preston suggested himself as an able timekeeper. When no alternative appeared, the Spiders acquiesced. The gig was at the Aeroplane Inn, a combination filling station, cafe, and dance hall in the tiny town of Honey Creek, Iowa. Preston was fifteen and this was his first paying job as a musician. He received two dollars!

After leaving Webb and the Spiders, Dude continued to work with other bands around Omaha. At that time, Omaha was a thriving center for black bands. There were two local music unions, one white and one black. Black bands could play on the concert stage, but black patrons were relegated to the balconies. However, black nightclubs were popular, proliferated, and provided performers and dancers with music indigenous to African American culture. This meant blues and jazz, the most authentically American musical expression.

Preston and his friends took advantage of every opportunity to listen to these bands. Too young to enter bars legally, they often huddled by open windows to absorb the sounds they loved and wanted to emulate.

In 1937, Norman bought a new recording of Count Basie. Preston listened intently and wanted to produce a sound just like the unidentified lead alto saxophone player.

Preston graduated from Omaha North High School in June 1938. He worked as a bellhop in a local men's club and saved money to buy an alto saxophone. He had lost interest in tenor saxophone, although he continued to practice it. Then he learned two wonderful things: Count Basie and His Orchestra would appear at Omaha's Dreamland Ballroom in August and the alto saxophone player he idolized was Earle Warren.

Meanwhile, Preston was nineteen and beginning to develop a positive reputation among musicians in Omaha when Claude "Buster" Coates asked him to join a new orchestra that would play in St. Paul, Minnesota. Organizer and financier for the venture was Ed Lippert, who rented a large home in St. Paul, where the musicians lived. Lippert paid household expenses and union dues. When the musicians started working steadily, Lippert withheld money from their paychecks to reimburse himself. The musicians had little leftover. After a few months, Preston decided to return to Omaha, where he felt he could do better financially. He was also in love and wanted to marry Betty Riggs, who lived there. Just before Christmas 1940, he came home.

Norman and Billy were drafted into the Army in March 1941. Preston replaced Norman on his job as porter at the local office of the MGM film distributors. In June, Preston joined the Lloyd Hunter band which left for four weeks to play at the College Inn in Boulder, Colorado.

Benny Hooper's Bar in Boulder was a popular hangout for musicians and there were nightly jam sessions. Preston met Johnny Otis, who usually either sat in on drums or vibraphones. A lasting friendship developed. Johnny was another Basie and Earle Warren devotee.

When the Boulder job ended, the Hunter band toured several Midwestern states, playing one night stands.

On August 11, 1941, Preston and Betty Riggs were married. In April 1942, Preston left Lloyd Hunter and joined the Nat Towles band. In July, Preston and Betty became parents for the first time when Preston Jr. (a.k.a. "Sandy") was born.

In June 1943, Preston began playing at the Barrel House in Omaha, the first place in Omaha that integrated races and musical styles. In August that year, Count Basie and his band performed for a week at the Orpheum Theater. Shortly thereafter, Preston began working at Sloppy Joe's Tavern. On September 6th, Basie appeared at the Dreamland Ballroom and Preston went to listen. Earle Warren was soon to undergo surgery and he asked Preston to replace him temporarily. Preston toured with Basie to St. Louis, Chicago and the Apollo Theater in New York City. When Earle Warren returned, Preston went back to Omaha.

On January 4, 1944, Preston went to New York to join the Lucky Millinder band. However, dissatisfied with working conditions, he soon after rejoined the Nat Towles band. That, too, was short lived. Preston returned to Millinder and toured throughout New York and California. In April 1945, he went home to Omaha.

In late May 1945, Count Basie contacted Preston. Earle Warren intended to form his own band, and Basie offered Preston the first alto saxophone position permanently.

Preston later wrote, "Nineteen forty-six . . . was really the last glory year for the Basie band." Musical tastes were changing and crowds dwindled. In 1947, they spent the summer at the Club Paradise in Atlantic City, New Jersey. After that, Preston decided to form his own group, so in January 1948, he went back to Omaha where, for a couple of years, he played with local orchestras.

In the spring of 1950, Preston finally started his orchestra, contacted the Howard White Booking Agency of Omaha, had brochures and posters printed, and scheduled a gig for the night before Easter at the Glovera Ballroom in Grand Island, Nebraska.

Life as a traveling musician is expensive and the financial burden was daunting. Making payroll, which included the booking agent and union dues, was difficult. Added to that, motoring long distances in an old unreliable band bus and playing in "actual barns and dilapidated, makeshift ballrooms" was exhausting.

Over the next few months, the band toured most of the central states from North Dakota to Texas, but multiple mechanical problems with the bus diminished profits further and crowds were often fewer than anticipated.

It became necessary to stick close to Omaha. In October, Preston signed with a new booking agency and was handled by Royce Stoenner. Bookings and venues improved immediately. Now they played fine black ballrooms, black country clubs, schools, and military bases.

However, reliable transportation remained a problem. Again, the necessity to pay continual repair bills lessened the ability to pay other bills. The U.S. Internal Revenue Service added to the woes. Preston was unable to meet arrangements he had made to pay his taxes, and agents began seizing his pay on the job.

Stoenner advised Preston to take a year off from the band business so he could work somewhere for steady wages and pay down his debt. Reluctantly, Preston agreed.

Johnny Otis called from Los Angeles to remind Preston that King Records owed him some work. While there, Preston was able to play a few extra jobs before returning to Omaha. When his fortunes did not get better, Preston moved the family to Los Angeles in June 1952.

Since his union dues were still unpaid, Preston took a job at Douglas Aircraft in Santa Monica as an assembler, and Betty worked at a clerical job. Finances improved significantly. Although Preston was able to play two Christmas parties, he seldom practiced for a year.

On June 3, 1953, the Loves returned to Omaha with money and hope. Preston decided to limit his new orchestra to seven or eight pieces. Eventually, he reconnected with Royce Stoenner and bookings rose.

In the spring of 1954, Stoenner announced his agency's merger with National Orchestra Service (NOS). This was good news. Preston got bigger and better bookings that expanded as far as Minnesota, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina and New Mexico. His was one of only a few black orchestras performing regularly on military bases. From 1958-1959, tours included stops in Canada, Bermuda, Puerto Rico and Panama.

In September 1959, Preston learned that Royce Stoenner had left the NOS agency with no notice or explanation given by agency executives. In February 1960, the NOS folded. This was devastating financially. The Loves now had two small children, Portia and Norman, and were expecting another, Richie.

At the same time, Preston Jr. (Sandy) was attending Northwestern University on a football and track scholarship, though he eventually transferred to the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, where he lettered in football in 1963 and 1964.

Although the band worked occasional jobs, they were not enough to support the Loves. Personal debts escalated, union dues were unpaid, and once again the IRS attached their meager earnings.

In the spring of 1962, Johnny Otis convinced Preston that he should move to Los Angeles, where work was plentiful. The big band era was over, replaced by small combos, lead singers and instrumentalists who needed backup musicians, and a burgeoning TV industry that required much background music. Work was steady and, during his years there, Preston was finally able to become debt free.

When Preston played backup to Marvin Gaye one night in 1962, he was unaware of Gaye's connection to Motown and its musical significance. Nevertheless, Preston had been noticed. Four years later he was called to provide backup for The Temptations, another group whose work he didn't know, but as he said, by the end of the evening he was a "Temptations addict."

A few days later he played flute during a paid rehearsal for Frank Zappa. Then he toured as first alto saxophone player for Ray Charles. Preston left Charles and returned to Los Angeles in July.

Preston became the west coast bandleader/contractor who handled all of the backup music for Motown artists when they played in that area. He asserted that "The recordings of Motown artists during those years are probably the last important pure and unspoiled or undiluted black music that will occur in the history of this country."

In August 1971, the Loves moved back to Omaha, which they had always considered home. In the ensuing years, Preston maintained a rigorous schedule of performing, teaching and writing. In 1975, he became the first jazz artist-in-residence for the Iowa Arts Council.

In October 1983, Preston joined some original and early members of the Basie orchestra for a three-week European tour, where they enjoyed great success. On December 7, 1983, Preston's mother died at the age of 103.

For seventeen years Preston taught courses at the University of Nebraska-Omaha that included "Black Music in Social Perspective" and "The History of Jazz." He also continued doing jazz clinics and residencies in Nebraska and Iowa.

He expounded definite ideas about the current state of jazz instruction. He felt that jazz couldn't be taught properly in an academic setting because it requires an innate ability to improvise. He said that jazz is best learned during jam sessions where players are not constrained by written scores. They must be innovative and creative.

As well as performing regularly with his small combo, lecturing and doing musical residency programs, Preston was featured on a weekly radio program, he worked as advertising manager for the African American-owned *Omaha Star,* and he wrote a semi-regular column for the *Omaha World-Herald* called "Love Notes." His writing also appeared in European publications.

In 1992, he received an honorary doctorate from Creighton University. In 2003, at age 82, he was recognized by the Omaha Press Club as part of their "Face on the Barroom Floor" series that honors notable newsmakers, although he was unable to attend the ceremony due to his fight with lung cancer. He succumbed to that on February 12, 2004.

Preston felt that we must never forget the black roots of jazz and blues and should honor its best performers. As he explained, "I once lectured to a class of approximately thirty young black children in a Waterloo, Iowa, high school, and not one of them had ever heard of Count Basie, Earl Hines, Charlie Parker, Jimmy Smith, Sarah Vaughan, or Billy Eckstine. This was a *black history* class!"

Therefore, it is fitting that the non-profit Loves Jazz and Arts Center (LJAC) in Omaha now exists. Located less than a block from the old Dreamland Ballroom, it is "dedicated to showcasing, collection, documentation, preservation, study and the dissemination of the history and culture of African Americans in the arts." Its mission is "To preserve and promote the unique history and cultural talents of local and national African American artists."

Preston Love left a legacy of important recordings and writings. His book *A Thousand Honey Creeks Later: My Life in Music From Basie to Motown,* simultaneously an autobiography and historical perspective of African American music, received national critical acclaim. The quotes herein, except the LJAC descriptions, are from that book.

A music scholarship has been established in Preston's name at Creighton University. At Omaha North High School, he is honored in the school's Hall of Fame. And he is among the charter inductees into the Omaha Black Music Hall of Fame, which opened in 2005.

For reliable sources, read Preston Love, *A Thousand Honey Creeks Later: My Life in Music from Basie to Motown,* (Hanover, NH: Wesleyan University Press, 1997) and the Omaha *Sunday World Herald,* July 15, 1990, pp. F-1, F-3 and December 14, 1997, pp. E-1, E-8 and *New York Times,* April 5, 1998, Sec. 2, p. 28 and *The New Grove Dictionary of Jazz,* 2nd ed, Vol 2 (2002) 628.

Frank B. Morrison, Sr.: Originator of first tourist attraction in the nation to span an Interstate Highway, progressive political leader, and visionary

Frank Brenner Morrison, Nebraska's governor from 1961-1967, had a lifelong love of and dedication to education and history. His father, Frank, was a widower with two daughters when he married Viva Brenner. Frank Brenner Morrison was born May 20, 1905 in Golden, Colorado, followed a year later by his sister, Eva Hope. Frank was only two when his father died in 1907, leaving Viva to raise the merged family's four children. At first Viva followed her

husband's plan to homestead in eastern Colorado but in 1911 she moved her family to Manhattan, Kansas so she could care for her ailing parents who lived there.

Frank's childhood provided a rich foundation for this future lawyer and politician. His maternal grandparents, Jacob and Charlotte Brenner, were staunch Republicans. Jacob was a Civil War veteran who was county commissioner for many years and later served in the Kansas Legislature where he helped write the first women's suffrage plank for the Republican Party's platform. Charlotte, according to Frank, "introduced me to the social sciences, political life, and the Bible." As he put it, "[In her mind] an earthly trinity consisted of the U.S. government, the Methodist Church, and the Republican Party."

Frank's responsible work ethic became ingrained early. The summer he was twelve, relatives hired him to help on their farm in Colorado for $12 a month, a good sum for a boy in 1917. During junior high he had a newspaper route, sold newspapers on the street, and worked as a janitor in a local dance hall. When another summer arrived, he hoed weeds at Kansas State University's agricultural station in Manhattan, then known as Kansas State Agricultural College.

Jacob Brenner's death in 1919 affected Frank profoundly. Until then he had loved learning and was an honor student, but in the ensuing two years his interest in schooling flagged and he failed some classes. However, in one area of life he excelled. Jacob Brenner had instilled in his grandson a love of gardening or, in a word--tomatoes. Young Frank built a thriving business growing tomatoes on vacant lots near the family home. At fifteen, he borrowed money to buy a greenhouse and sold tomatoes to both wholesalers and retailers. Later, he expanded the business to include cabbage, asters and sweet peas.

Then, in his junior year of high school, he met a teacher who had a law degree and taught debate. Frank was fascinated by the facile use of words and exciting exchange of ideas. With renewed enthusiasm and inspired by the idea that he could become a lawyer, too, Frank's grades soared.

In those days a student could enter law school after only two years of college, but Frank's mother was adamant that he should earn an undergraduate degree first. Kansas State was the logical choice because Frank could live at home and help finance his education with his gardening business.

During those undergraduate years he studied both natural and social sciences, including chemistry, physics, history and debate. Indeed, Frank credited his experience with intercollegiate debate as "the start of my dedication to substituting reason for war." And although he advocated for pro-peace causes throughout his lifetime, he was never anti-military. In college he served as a student infantry cadet and was commissioned a second lieutenant in the United States Infantry Reserves upon graduation.

His first foray into politics occurred during his senior year when a quasi-girlfriend convinced him to run for student body president to represent independents and some fraternity members who were disenchanted with the Greek monopoly of campus leadership. He lost by a landslide.

Frank graduated in 1927 with a Bachelor of Science Degree and a teaching certificate in hand. The decision about where to attend law school was simplified when a widowed aunt invited him to live with her in Lincoln, Nebraska, where she was to begin teaching at the University.

After completing his first year, Frank wanted to pay off some debts, so he spent a year teaching high school physics and history at Farwell, Nebraska. Then he returned to Lincoln and completed law school.

An unexpected opportunity presented itself when C. K. Morris, superintendent of the University of Nebraska School of Agriculture at Curtis, asked Frank if he knew someone who would be a good history teacher for the coming year there. It was 1931 and considering the salary offered, practicality answered the question. Frank taught history, algebra, and coached debate. He loved the challenge and always maintained that teaching is the most important

profession. Nevertheless, Frank's inner lawyer lurked within, so he could not resist when a Maywood, Nebraska civic leader, Harry Hall, offered him free office space to practice law there.

The 1930s were hard for nearly everyone. There was a nationwide financial depression compounded in the agriculturally dependent Midwest by devastating drought and dust storms. Frank was appointed local attorney to help prevent foreclosures and handle refinancing through the new Federal Home Owners Loan Act, which had been created as part of President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal program to aid national fiscal recovery.

Thus began Frank's transformation into a true Democratic political activist--a bold conversion in a strongly Republican state. As Frank put it, "I became a Roosevelt Democrat and supporter of the New Deal. I believed the government should support the price of farm products, liberalize credit, create public works, insure employment and bank deposits, bring electricity to the rural areas, check water and soil erosion, and regulate irresponsible gambling on Wall Street."

In 1934 Frank decided to run for Frontier County Attorney. He won, was sworn in January 1935, moved to Stockville, Nebraska and served two terms. During his tenure he organized the first rural co-op in the state.

Meanwhile, in July 1935, Frank met Maxine Elizabeth Hepp, a young teacher from Greeley, Nebraska. Ten years his junior, beautiful and vivacious, it was almost love-at-first-sight. They were wed June 28, 1936. Subsequently they had three children: Frank Jr. (known as Biff), Jean Marie and David Jon. Their happy union lasted until Maxine's death sixty-eight years later.

In 1940, Frank was elected National Committeeman of the Young Democrats and was an alternate to the Democratic National Convention. When the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor in 1941, he wanted to renew his commission in the U.S. Infantry but was rejected due to remnants of an old ulcer.

In 1942, Frank partnered with attorney Frank Butler and moved to McCook, Nebraska. Soon his law practice expanded throughout southwest Nebraska and northwest Kansas. During the mid-forties he also became involved with the presidential campaign of Tennessee Senator Estes Kefauver and spent some time in South Dakota, where he helped set up the South Dakota organization. While there, he met young J. James Exon, who would become a close friend, advisor and future governor of Nebraska.

Now thoroughly immersed in the political process and determined to influence public policy on a national level, Frank decided to run for Congress in 1954. Estes Kefauver visited Nebraska to help him campaign. Frank lost, but his interest in forming public policy endured and his stature within the Democratic Party grew.

In 1955, the Morrisons moved to Lincoln, where Frank joined John "Dugie" Doyle in a law partnership. During the next few years, Frank's political participation continued. He ran for lieutenant governor somewhat reluctantly while insisting that his primary interest was national policy. After losing that race, he campaigned vigorously to become a U.S. Senator. This resulted in another loss, so he was surprised when, in 1959, J. James Exon urged him to run for governor. Exon now owned an office supply store in Lincoln and had become a dynamic force in Nebraska's Democratic Party.

Frank was fifty-five years old, had a thriving law practice, and still wanted to influence national policy, so his initial impulse was to say no, but Exon was persuasive and agreed to be his campaign manager. This time Frank was victorious! It was the first time that the Nebraska votes for U.S. President--in this case Nixon--were not for the same party as the votes for governor. In fact, Frank was the only Democrat elected on a statewide ticket in 1960.

Earlier in 1958, Frank and Maxine had met young Massachusetts Senator John F. Kennedy and his wife Jackie when Kennedy spoke at the annual Democratic Jefferson-Jackson Day dinner in Omaha. A lasting friendship was formed and Kennedy had, at Frank's invitation, addressed the local Rotary Club in Lincoln. When Kennedy was elected U.S. President, the Morrisons were invited to the inauguration. Because this was more than a superficial political

friendship, Frank finally had the attention and respect of national leaders of both major political parties--a respect that included future presidents and international leaders.

In January 1961, Frank B. Morrison, Sr. was sworn into office, eventually becoming the last Nebraska governor to serve three terms. His accomplishments during that time are a testament to his vision, persistence and salesmanship. There was never any question about his priorities. Quality education was vital. During his administration, University of Nebraska programs were improved and expanded, a statewide Educational Television Network was created, and a Center for Continuing Education was built that served as a home base for lifelong learning and emphasized programs for people over age fifty. A Committee on Gifted Children was also implemented.

Economic development was another high priority. Agricultural and business leaders met with peers in other states and countries to exchange ideas and encourage doing business with Nebraska. This type of interdependent cooperation was a fairly new concept at the time and proved to be successful.

Another facet of economic development was to combine tourist promotion with historical education, eventually earning Frank the unofficial title of "Father of Nebraska Tourism." In a joint venture with Wyoming, Montana, North and South Dakota, the Old West Trail Commission was created and bus tours were instituted.

Some of Nebraska's small towns were recognized officially as ethnic capitals in order to spotlight cultural heritage and diversity. Annual festivals began. Loup City was the Polish Capital, Wilber was the Czech Capital, and Stromsburg was the Swede Capital.

A Hall of Fame Commission was formed to honor outstanding Nebraskans who achieved prominence for their accomplishments.

One idea that intrigued then Governor Morrison, who had laid out the route for I-80 through Nebraska, was the fact that all the major historic trails passed through the state. Three of them--the Oregon, California, and Mormon Trails--followed the Platte River and met midway across the state near Kearney. The concept that some sort of commemorative monument should be constructed was born, but it would take another thirty-plus years for him to see it become a reality.

To establish pride in Nebraska's culture and beauty, programs instituted included the Nebraskaland Foundation, Nebraska Arts Council, Community Betterment Contests, and the Keep Nebraska Beautiful Commission. Mel Steen, head of the Game and Parks Commission, convinced the governor that a chain of lakes along the new Interstate would be beneficial.

Social reforms included the state's first retirement pension program for all state employees, a merit plan for the selection of state judges, the first medical assistance program, the Fair Employment Practices Act, a Commission on the Status of Women, a Commission on Equal Rights, and the Commission on Aging.

During his third term as governor, Frank decided to try again for a seat in the U.S. Senate. This proved to be ill-advised. However, his status as a Democratic Party leader and his position as a respected attorney were assured. In January 1967, Frank moved to Omaha to join his son, Biff, in a law firm. Frank also served on the Mayor's Committee on Jail Reform, taught state government at University of Nebraska at Omaha and Creighton University, lectured at the International Institute in Taiwan, and, in 1968, spent time in India as an advisor for the Agency for International Development.

He tried for a Senate seat again in 1970, but when he lost, he accepted an appointment as Douglas County Defender. Meanwhile, Biff had moved to Montana and was a trial lawyer there.

In 1976, Frank was 71 years old and, due to his many years of public service at a relatively low salary, he felt it would be financially prudent to join his son in private law practice, so he and Maxine moved to Montana.

Nearing his eightieth birthday, Frank was seduced by the idea of retirement in warm Arizona. Life there was leisurely, his home and yard were beautiful, and he and Maxine enjoyed good health. It should have been an ideal existence, but for a man whose need for mental stimulation and involvement with social issues was essential, life became increasingly boring. The Morrisons moved back to Lincoln, Nebraska in 1990, where there were causes and projects dear to their hearts.

At the age of ninety, when most men would be reveling in retirement, Frank Morrison was busy planning for the future. The time finally seemed right to convince people that the Great Platte River Road Archway Monument should be built. It would be an exciting educational tool for exploring the evolution of transportation and communication.

As he had envisioned years earlier, Frank felt Kearney was the perfect site. Besides being located where the major overland trails met, Ft. Kearny, an important historic army outpost, was nearby, and other important tourist attractions were within a two-hour or less drive. Also, Kearney is in the path of the great sandhill crane migration, an event that draws thousands of visitors to the area from around the world. The potential for attracting people to an historical monument there and educating them about their heritage seemed limitless.

The goal was to build a structure that would inspire people to appreciate and learn from their history. It could educate and entertain simultaneously. It would require major funding and first-rate imaginative designers, so Frank assembled a nationwide team of advisors to develop a plan. When it was suggested that the monument should be an archway spanning I-80, they met with then Governor E. Benjamin Nelson, who supported the concept enthusiastically. However, building a tourist attraction over a major national highway had never been done, so there were major obstacles to overcome, including architectural controversy and the need to raise $60 million.

Undaunted, Frank and his supporters persisted. They organized a statewide Educational Advisory Committee. They also established working alliances with Kearney's City Council, its Chamber of Commerce and the University of Nebraska at Kearney. Out of this, the Great Plattte River Road Archway Monument dream became reality. Using state of the art technology in construction and interior presentation, the evolution of transportation and communication emerged. Frank, the teacher, had founded an unique educational legacy. It was built beside the road and, in one night, it was rolled over the highway--the largest object ever to have been rolled over a highway in Nebraska's history and the only historic monument ever to bridge an Interstate Highway.

It opened to the public June 9, 2000. Since then President Clinton visited the Archway when he gave a major speech at the University of Nebraska at Kearney, and screenwriters Alexander Payne and Jim Taylor featured it in their movie *About Schmidt* starring Jack Nicholson. The Archway also won the THEA Award for outstanding achievement in the attractions industry--the industry's equivalent of the Oscar.

Never one to rest on his laurels or to be involved with only one project, Frank Morrison, in his nineties, did not appear to slow down. He wrote his autobiography *My Journey Through the Twentieth Century,* spoke at numerous civic and political events, promoted international peace, opposed the death penalty, and testified frequently in legislative hearings. He was appointed co-chairman of the Governor's Task Force on Prison Overcrowding and Alternatives to Incarceration.

He wrote an unpublished treatise entitled "Life, Liberty and Security in a Troubled and Dangerous World" in which he advocated peaceful solutions to world problems. In it he stated, "Human civilization, if not human survival, hangs in the balance. A combination of hate, paranoia, lawlessness, a rising tide of religious fanaticism, and self-righteousness superimposed on weapons of mass destruction culminating in nuclear bombs have created an unprecedented threat to human life and security. Moral and political responsibility demand that we solve this threat. To not do so stamps us as traitors to our country, our civilization and our creator."

With his wife and son Biff, he helped create an historic district in McCook named Heritage Square. McCook had

been home to three Nebraska governors: Ralph Brooks, Frank Morrison and E. Benjamin Nelson. It was also home to George W. Norris, longtime U.S. Senator who had been instrumental in bringing electric power to rural America. The Frank B. Morrison Family Educational Foundation was created to help promote Heritage Square and other educational programs.

At age 98, only a few months before his death, former Governor Frank B. Morrison was interviewed on public television by former Nebraska governor and U.S. Senator Bob Kerrey at the Nebraska Educational Telecommunications studio in Lincoln, Nebraska in a three hour, wide-ranging conversation.

Maxine Morrison died March 18, 2004. Just a month later, Frank Morrison succumbed to cancer.

Among his many honors received, some of Frank's favorites included being a research assistant on President Hoover's Wickersham Commission on Law Enforcement while in law school; the Nebraska State Bar Foundation's Lifetime Achievement Award in 1997; Rotary Club #14 of Lincoln Nebraskan of the Year in 1998; and an Honorary Doctorate Degree in Humanities from the University of Nebraska at Kearney in 2003.

Frank Brenner Morrison Sr. held public office for seventeen years, but his influence on public policy lasted well beyond his lifetime.

Valuable sources to study include Frank B. Morrison, *My Journey Through the Twentieth Century* (Lincoln, NE: Media Publications & Marketing Inc., 2001) and *Nebraska Life,* May/June 2001, pp. 49-54 and *New York Times,* June 27, 2003, pp. D-1, D-8 and *Frank Morrison and Bob Kerrey: A Conversation* (NETV, 2004).

Mary Lois Murphy: Medical researcher pioneered use of chemotherapy for children and advanced the field of pediatrics

Among the early pioneers in cancer research and the field of pediatrics in the mid-20th century was Dr. Mary Lois Murphy, a native of Sioux County, Nebraska. For almost five decades, she worked not only to discover the use of chemical treatments for children's cancer but also to raise the status of her profession.

After earning her bachelor's degree from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1939, the petite, 5-foot-tall Murphy embarked on graduate studies in chemistry, at the time the only woman to do so. While taking a course in physiological chemistry, she decided to pursue a career in medicine. And from 1941 to 1944, she was one of only two women in a class of 100 medical students to study in a war-time accelerated program at the University of Nebraska Medical Center (UNMC) in Omaha.

Upon graduation, Dr. Murphy could not practice her internship in the state of Nebraska because its hospitals at the time did not have living quarters for women interns. So Dr. C.W. Poynter, Dean of the UNMC, helped her obtain an internship at Women's Medical College at Pennsylvania which had been founded in 1850 by a group of male Quaker reformers to educate women as doctors and was at first called Women's Medical Hospital. The institution closed in 2003.

At this college, she decided to pursue a career in pediatrics (the medical science concerned with the hygiene and diseases of children), and applied for residency at children's hospitals in Boston and Philadelphia. But the open positions were reserved for men returning from World War II.

After reading American Medical Association want-ads, she noticed a pathology residency was available at Children's Hospital in Washington, DC, applied for the position, and was resident there for a year.

On one occasion, the distinguished Harvard Medical School pediatric pathologist Dr. Sidney Farber gave a lecture, and upon her speaking with him afterwards, he said, "Dr. Murphy, there's no pediatrician who has your interest in cancer. Keep it up!" This inspired her to begin work in the field of pathology (the science of studying the causes of disease) at Washington, DC.

Farber was to become nationally known for founding in 1947 what eventually became the Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, and for his pioneering work in using drugs for treating malignancies in children, he was presented with the prestigious Albert Lasker Award in 1966.

This was still the era before society seriously addressed inequality and sex discrimination issues, according to Margaret W. Rossiter, author of *Women Scientists in America: Struggles and Strategies to 1940* (Johns Hopkins University Press, 1982).

In a recent interview, Dr. Murphy recalled she did not realize at the time that these particular discriminatory obstacles had existed, partly because of her early background in Nebraska and partly because of intensely pursuing her interests in finding solutions. And she worked in an environment where possibilities for professional advancement developed with outstanding, innovative male researchers.

From 1947 to 1951, she continued her residency at the Children's Hospital in Philadelphia, under Dr. T. F. McNair Scott. On occasion, she also assisted C. Everett Koop, who later became Surgeon General of the United States from 1982 to 1989, and gained fame for promoting awareness of such issues as tobacco danger, AIDS, organ transplantation, and the rights of the disabled.

During the late 1940s, interest in malignant tumors rested in the field of surgical pathology, and the use of chemotherapy was virtually unknown. Moreover, pediatricians--who had no cancer treatments available--were inclined to refer patients to surgeons or radiation therapists.

Aside from Murphy's affiliation with Children's Hospital in Philadelphia for one year, she was chief resident at the nearby Camden, New Jersey, Municipal Hospital for Contagious Diseases, where she cared for many patients with polio and other infectious diseases, and participated in clinical trials of several new antibiotics and adrenal hormones.

After she had to treat members of a high school football team that had contracted polio, she found the work too burdensome for her physical stature. At that point, Dr. Scott recommended her to Dr. Joe Burchenal at Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center in New York City.

This became a turning point in her career. It was during World War II that Dr. David A. Karnofsky worked in chemical warfare, conducting secret experiments. On one occasion, an accident occurred where a tank of mustard gas dropped on the floor, and spilled on the workers. The doctors noticed the nitrogen-based chemical decreased the lymph nodes on the affected workers.

In 1947, Karnofsky was allowed to publish a research article about this discovery, but no one paid much attention until Murphy read it in the early 1950s.

By 1952, she began pioneering work at Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center (MSKCC) in clinical trials of cancer chemotherapy in children, a newly developing field at the time when leukemia was a 99 percent fatal disease. (The disease causes derangement of the blood-making organs, resulting in excess formation of white blood corpuscles.)

Under the direction of Burchenal, Karnofsky, and others, she soon took a leading role in tests of several new drugs for childhood leukemias. One of her responsibilities was to gain permission from parents to give their children drugs not previously administered to humans.

In 1953, she treated the three-year-old daughter of George H. W. Bush (later the 41st U. S. President) for leukemia. "Despite the best treatment, she lived only five or six months. Nobody lived any longer than that until the mid-1960s," Murphy stated in an interview for a profile published in the *UNMC Alumni News,* Fall 2006.

Aside from procedures established for patient/parent informed consent, Murphy discussed with MSKCC researchers appropriate and necessary changes in doses. Many test drugs were used in mice growing transplanted cancer cells to learn if drugs would suppress cancer cell growth. After toxicity studies in many animals, "if the drug was working, we would select one of the drugs to be tried in humans."

In 1956, she and Burchenal initiated the organization of a nationwide cooperative effort against childhood cancer. At first, this multi-institutional group was called Acute Leukemia Group A, and after Murphy succeeded Burchenal as its chairperson from 1958 to 1965, it expanded its scope to include the spread of solid tumors in children. Ultimately, it became known as the Children's Cancer Study Group, considered decades later as a highly productive advancement in medicine and pediatric care.

Aside from her interest in soft-tissue cancers, she also became a pioneer in teratology, the study of birth abnormalities. Researchers under the direction of Karnofsky had injected experimental chemicals into chicken eggs. After administering various drugs and doses, Karnofsky found some chicken eggs had embryos with abnormal feet and wings.

So Murphy established a rat laboratory with Karnofsky to test varying doses of chemicals on pregnant rat fetuses. After showing that single doses of chemical agents in the rats could pass through the placenta, causing birth defects,

she developed cancer-inhibiting chemicals on the embryonic tissue in the pregnant rats.

As a result, the genetics laboratory at Bar Harbor, Maine invited her to be a summer investigator because she had the chemicals to conduct the experiments. She became known worldwide as an expert in teratology, and organized and hosted with her MSKCC colleagues the first meeting of the Teratology Society in New York City in 1961.

From 1965 to 1976, she served as chairperson of the Department of Pediatrics at MSKCC, where she initiated a revolution in the field of pediatric oncology (the study of tumors). Not only did she recruit a staff of pediatricians and specialists in surgery, diagnostic radiology, neurology, cardiology, anesthesiology, and nursing, but she also raised the status of pediatricians.

Murphy also created and implemented in 1968 the first pediatric day hospital at MSKCC, and helped develop treatment guidelines that increasingly allowed children with cancer to play, to learn, and to lead normal lives. Visits to the day hospital doubled in five years, and the cure rate of most solid tumors reached 70 to 80 percent.

The multidisciplinary rules established under her direction to treat all solid tumors in children as well as leukemia became a model for other departments of pediatric oncology nationally and internationally, and correlated with treatment of cancers in adults.

After 1976, she served as professor of pediatrics in Therapeutic Research at MSKCC and at Cornell University Medical College. Upon her retirement in 1992 from Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, Dr. Murphy was honored with a one-day symposium in which speakers credited her with providing the groundwork for the present-day high cure rates for children with cancer. She was with MSKCC for 41 years.

During her career, she was invited to lecture in many countries of the world, and was author or co-author of 125 published research articles, 25 book chapters, and 105 abstracts.

Also significant was her work with research colleagues in the 1950s and 1960s who became recognized nationally for their achievements.

Dr. David A. Karnofsky, who died in September 1969 at the age of 55, was called by *Time* as "one of the world's outstanding researchers in the discovery and development of drugs for the treatment of cancer," and was posthumously honored by the American Society of Clinical Oncology in 1970 by establishment of its annual Karnofsky Memorial Award and Lecture.

And Dr. Joseph A. Burchenal, who died in March 2006 at the age of 93, was considered a pioneer in the field of chemotherapy, and became co-recipient of the Albert Lasker Award in 1972.

Murphy's notable recognition was inclusion of her profile/photo in an article titled "American Women: The Doers," published in the May 1967 *Vogue Magazine.* She was among 100 women of distinction so honored, with her photograph taken by the distinguished New York City photographer Horst P. Horst.

In 1973, she was recipient of an honorary doctor of science degree from the University of Nebraska Medical Center.

Murphy was also one of the doctors featured in the article "Good News! Meet The First Generation of Kids Who Beat Cancer," published in the March 1990 issue of *Good Housekeeping.*

One of her former patients was Michelle Merklinghaus Natali, who as a high school junior in 1981 received treatments from Dr. Murphy for two years at MSK, followed by complete recovery. As a child before becoming ill, Michelle performed under the stage name Shelley Bruce in the starring role of the Broadway musical *Annie* from 1977 to 1979.

In January 1981, George and Barbara Bush made special arrangements for Dr. Murphy to attend the inauguration of Ronald Reagan, the 40th U.S. President. After seeing Reagan riding a horse down the street on the way to the Nation's Capitol for the ceremony, Murphy realized she could for the first time discuss her early years on a western Nebraska cattle ranch with her medical colleagues without diminishing her accomplishments in the medical sciences.

Born in 1916 on a ranch three miles west of Curly, Sheep Creek Township in Sioux County, the northwest corner of Nebraska, one of five children (three daughters and two sons) of John C. and Mattie Bocock Murphy, the petite Mary Lois rode horseback to the nearby rural school through the 3rd grade.

Of those early years, she also recalled that "neither of my parents had gone to any school of significance. They had established my father's ranch and his two brothers' adjoining ranches. They dug their own well--100 or 200 feet--and it had a pump and a windmill. We got water for ourselves out of an elevated metal container (the tanks were for cattle). They also built their own sod house, and they never saw a doctor, to my knowledge."

After her family moved to Alliance, she attended St. Agnes Academy boarding school as a day pupil, then in the ninth grade, the Murphys moved to Lincoln. While attending Lincoln High School, the city's largest public high school with an enrollment of 1,500, she took numerous courses, including history, mathematics, chemistry, and physics. She recalled, "While I was in high school, I filled myself with as much as I could. It was the greatest experience. There were athletics and after-school clubs like photography and art. I was really lucky."

She was the financial manager for the student newspaper, and her homeroom teacher was Elsie Cather, who not only helped her with developing friendships but was also the sister of renowned author Willa Cather, who had earned the 1923 Pulitzer Prize for fiction, and later was inducted into the National Women's Hall of Fame at Seneca Falls, New York.

After graduating from Lincoln High in 1935, she tried to get a job to help her parents, for her father was a carver of tombstones and her mother sewed items for neighbors and others. After applying for several jobs "by walking around and going in to apply, I didn't get any. Finally, I just decided that because I was too little to get a job, I might as well go to college." And, of course, she earned her bachelor's degree from UNL in 1939.

When Murphy wanted to pursue graduate courses in chemistry at UNL, she was accepted but could not receive any of the money that came from oil companies, she recalled, so "the head of chemistry at Lincoln High, Mariel C. Gere, gave me a job once or twice a week to supervise the students who were taking chemistry there. That's how I paid my college chemistry laboratory fees."

Gere, who retired in 1941 after teaching more than 40 years, was a daughter of pioneer Lincoln business and cultural leader Charles H. Gere, who was posthumously honored in 1969 by the Lincoln City Libraries with a branch library named after him.

Profiles of Mary Lois Murphy's career may be found in the *American Journal of Pediatric Hematology / Oncology,* Vol 8 (Spring 1986) 58-62 and in the *UNMC Alumni News*, Vol 139 (Fall 2006) 12, 14. There is also an entry in *American Men and Women of Science,* Vol 5 (2005) 571.

Dr. Murphy died at age 91 on April 8, 2008 in New York City, her home since 1952. Though retired from active practice since 1992, she continued to attend weekly meetings at MSK, and at the age of 89 applauded the improved training pediatricians now receive that helps them make an early diagnosis of cancer so that children can be referred sooner to an established treatment center. She remained in communication with the UNMC and relatives in Nebraska. An obituary was published in April 27, 2008 *New York Times.*

Ada Patterson: Co-pioneer of gender equity in American journalism and human interest feature reporting

In 1900, the field of journalism in America was dominated by men, with slightly more than 300 women regularly employed as reporters nationwide, according to Ishbel Ross, *Ladies of the Press* (Harper, 1936; Arno Press, 1974). Some of these women, however, demonstrated an ability to conduct interviews and write in-depth features about people and events, which gradually led to a trend of more women working in all departments of a newspaper. Among the early leading female reporters in the nation was Ada Patterson, who had previously resided in Franklin County, Nebraska from 1877 to 1889 as a student and a teacher.

The first notable woman in journalism was Nellie Bly, whose career with various newspapers endured from the 1880s until her death in 1922. While with the *New York World*, she became a national celebrity in 1890 after her trip around the world in 72 days, and later for publishing major features and interviews, often exposing corruption in various fields and supporting causes of neglected people.

Other significant female journalists during this era were Nixola Greeley-Smith and Winifred Black, who wrote for New York newspapers owned by the renowned Joseph Pulitzer and William Randolph Hearst, along with Dorothy Dix, who began her career in the 1890s, and from 1901 to 1949 worked for the *New York Journal* (renamed *New York American* and later *Journal-American*). Dix became "one of the first personal advice columnists in America," states her entry in *American National Biography*, Vol 6 (1999).

Ada Patterson also began her journalism career in the 1890s. After a summer vacation trip in 1891 to the West Coast and Alaska, she left her Nebraska teaching position at the age of 24 to work as a reporter for the *Salt Lake City Herald*. While on its staff for two years, she became its society page editor, conducted an interview of a notorious murderer, and reported on the activities of the upper house of the Utah Legislature, an unusual assignment for a woman at the time.

In the summer of 1893, at the suggestion of relatives in California, she took a position with the *San Francisco Call*, a major daily in that city, and gained recognition as one of its leading writers. In one feature, after she applied for work at a fruit cannery and spent a day of sorting, peeling, and cutting fruit, she revealed to the public how many poor women employed at the large fruit canneries were treated, the amount earned in a day of hard labor, and other facts. In another, she reported the philanthropic work done under the auspices of the French Christian Union of California, which not only offered instruction in French but also an institution for young girls who were leaving home, needed proper influences, and could learn sewing and other skills in its industrial classes. She also gained attention with her interview of wife-murderer Enoch Davis when he was on death watch, an assignment usually thought better suited for male reporters.

By 1896, Patterson had relocated to the *St. Louis Republic*, was given some very challenging projects, and became known for her character studies. Eventually, she was given the nickname "Nellie Bly of the West" from co-workers and readers. One of her first assignments required her to walk on a plank 90 feet over the St. Louis City Hall under construction, and write about the view. That summer, she attended the national political conventions held in St. Louis and Chicago, and published an article headlined "Big Politicians as Seen by a Little Woman". In another, she was the first to predict the nomination of William Jennings Bryan.

Her human interest features included the work of a St. Louis astronomer at his observatory, a revelation of experiences of poor people who survived by sorting through discards at a half dozen acres of low ground near the river, exposure of conditions at a house of ill repute, and a profile of the most aged pastor in the city, who stated after spending fifty years studying how to reach the human heart that "I have found that kindness is one of the avenues. I have tried never to add a drop of bitterness to any one's cup."

An early assignment had a long-term advantage despite its risk. Patterson had to drive a locomotive at night from St. Louis to Chicago, though the engineer did stand by her as she operated the throttle. Later that year, she became the only reporter to secure an interview with Judge Isaac Charles Parker of Fort Smith, Arkansas, who at the time was thought to have sentenced more men to death than any other judge. He had agreed to her request because he himself had once driven a locomotive, and wanted to meet the girl who had duplicated his feat. In her September 1, 1896 *St. Louis Republic* feature, she quoted Parker as saying, in part, "I never hung a man. It is the law." And he asserted he was actually against capital punishment, "provided there is a certainty of punishment, whatever that punishment may be."

On February 16, 1897, Patterson became the first woman journalist to witness an execution, standing on the gallows next to Arthur Duestrow at his hanging in Union, Missouri. The son of a mining millionaire, he had killed his wife and child, and during a sensational trial, his defense counsel had argued a plea of insanity. While Duestrow was in jail, she had interviewed him on several occasions, and when a *Republic* co-worker could not carry out his duties, she was asked to take his place at the execution, reported author Ishbel Ross. As a result of the publicity nationwide, Patterson was invited to work for a New York City newspaper several months later.

From late 1897 to 1924, she was a feature reporter, specializing in theatrical matters, and an occasional editorial page columnist for the Hearst newspapers and syndicate, with her work appearing in various editions of the *New York Journal*, which was renamed the *New York American* about 1901 and later the *New York Journal*-American, which ceased publication in 1966. Many of her features were carried by other newspapers nationwide.

Patterson was also a prolific author of articles and stories for many magazines and periodicals, co-authored with Victory Bateman a book of short stories titled *By the Stage Door* (Grafton Press, 1902) and authored *Maude Adams: A Biography* (Meyer Brothers, 1907). For some time, she lived in the same building where actresses Maude Adams, Ethel Barrymore, and other notable persons resided. Her early reporting assignments involved taking a dangerous trip to the bottom of the river to see men building the East River bridge, and riding with daredevil race car driver Joe Tracy at the then-highest speed of ninety miles an hour on the Vanderbilt cup course. She was also the first woman to take a ride in the Argonaut, a new U.S. submarine, to the bottom of the Patapsco River at Baltimore.

On July 21, 1899, she published a feature about the hardships of the women and children of striking men who wanted more than $2 per day from their jobs. On another occasion, she wrote about Christina Oertling, who took her life after 21 years of marriage and five children because of the monotony and family discipline. Her husband had expected silence in the home and lack of affection, and she labored on a schedule from 7 am to 10 pm every day.

The first of her coverage of sensational murder trials in New York City occurred in 1904 after Nan Patterson (no relation), an attractive show girl, was charged with killing her bookmaker lover Caesar Young in a cab while accompanying him to the dock where he was scheduled to sail for Europe and a meeting with his wife. Ada was required to testify at the trial about an interview she had with the defendant in jail.

Though Nan Patterson was acquitted, since the jury decided the death of Young a probable suicide, the case became memorable because women at the time were not allowed entrance to the trial because it was thought the courtroom was not a place for "the weaker sex". However, many women forced their way into the courtroom, and their conduct became the subject of newspapers the next day.

In 1907, Ada was asked by her editor to cover the Harry K. Thaw murder trial, which became a nationwide media event. Some authors have called it the trial of the century. Sitting at the press table across from men who reported "straight news" stories were Winifred Black, Dorothy Dix, Nixola Greeley-Smith, and Ada Patterson, who did features of human interest to women and men readers.

As the trial progressed, the men reporters nicknamed the four women feature writers as the "sympathy brigade," then the "sympathy squad," and finally "sob sisters". The latter term resulted in stereotypes for the role of women in American journalism for subsequent decades, and human interest reporting was sometimes characterized

as "yellow journalism" during the early decades of the 20th century. But the importance of human interest features for the public attracted the attention of more editors nationwide as a result of the work of these four female reporters.

Thaw was an heir to the fortune of his father William Thaw, a transportation executive and philanthropist. He had become enamored with and married to theatrical performer Evelyn Nesbit, and when in June 1906 he saw her prior suitor Stanford White at the rooftop theater of the Old Madison Square Garden, he shot White dead. Patterson had interviewed Thaw while he was imprisoned. During the trials held in 1907 and 1908, she had written on one occasion, in part, "The worst had been told. Nothing else could ever approach the horror of that story of a poor, beautiful, foolish, ignorant girl of sixteen pursued with the wealth and ferocity of a panther, by a man old enough to be her grandfather."

Found not guilty by reason of insanity, Thaw was committed to a state hospital for five years, then a jury found him sane and he was released in 1915. According to an entry in *American National Biography*, Vol 21 (1999), Thaw then divorced Evelyn Nesbit, was embroiled in another legal incident, attempted suicide, and was committed to a mental institution for seven more years. After various unsuccessful projects, including an autobiography, he died in 1947.

Another murder trial of note covered by Patterson was that of New York City police lieutenant Charles Becker in 1912 and 1914 for his involvement in the death of gambler Herman Rosenthal. After the gambler had reported to a New York newspaper in July 1912 that his casinos were damaged by the greed of Becker and his colleagues, he was murdered. It was determined that Becker had commanded others to carry out the killing, and he was sentenced to death, likely the first American police officer to receive the death penalty for a killing. Many had wondered what happened to his wife, but on the night of his execution on July 30, 1915, Patterson interviewed at her apartment Mrs. Becker, the only reporter to do so.

Her career as a general contributor of articles to more than 60 leisure magazines was noteworthy, too, not only while she was with the Hearst syndicate but also after retirement from newspaper work in 1924. By her own admission, she wrote most often about subjects related to health, the theater, and life building, that is, constructive or inspirational living. Some of her articles appeared in lesser-known publications. For example, there was an in-depth series of her articles in *The Mooseheart Weekly* during 1920-21 about the home of the orphaned or half-orphaned children of the members of the Loyal Order of Moose located west of Chicago in the Illinois town of Mooseheart.

Many of her articles were published in magazines with national circulation such *as Liberty, Screenland, Ladies Home Journal, American, Saturday Evening Post, Cosmopolitan, Harper's Bazaar,* and *Theatre Magazine*. As an example, in her article titled "The Bravest Woman I Ever Knew" published in the May 1928 P*sychology Magazine,* she described the efforts of Nebraska native Dr. Olga Stastny, who during and after World War I in Europe had treated and helped prevent diseases, most notably at a quarantine station for refugees at Macronissi Island near the mainland of Greece.

In addition to her books of 1902 and 1907 previously mentioned, she was credited for writing with Robert Edeson the play *Love's Lightning*, produced in 1918, and with George Nelson another play titled *The Bonfire* in 1927, according to *American Women Playwrights 1900-1930* (Greenwood Press, 1992).

It is also of interest that Ada maintained a close friendship for nearly 40 years with the famous advice columnist Dorothy Dix, which began during their employment with the *New York Journal*. Dix had written a letter in 1920 to Ada's parents in Franklin, Nebraska, where they had resided after 1901 in a house on 14th Avenue adjacent to the Franklin Academy from which Ada was its first graduate in 1885. After the deaths of Ada's mother in 1926 and father in 1930, the Jesse H. Naden family rented from Ada the home of her parents for several years, and according to records from their daughter Beth Naden Kellar, Dix had sent a tribute about Ada in July 1939 to Mrs. Naden for reading at a banquet in Franklin.

Presently, some information about Ada Patterson's connection to Franklin County is housed at the Franklin County Historical Society Museum. And on May 4, 1990, a Franklin Academy Historical Marker was dedicated by

state authorities at Franklin's City Park, the site the school had previously occupied from 1881 to 1922. She was one of three of the school's distinguished alumni named in the Marker's inscription.

A repository that contains almost 100 sheets of clippings of Patterson's work in Salt Lake City, San Francisco, St. Louis, and New York exists in the morgue of the *New York Journal-American* housed at the Center of American History at the University of Texas in Austin, the institution that originally received the morgue from the Hearst Corporation in 1968. In the clippings there is also an autobiographical article of hers published in an undated issue of *True Story Magazine.* And there are a few brief news items about her from Franklin County, Nebraska newspapers along with a copy of her 1885 Franklin Academy valedictory commencement address in which she emphasized the importance of ideality in the world, stating, in part, "Lives of great men have proven to us the wisdom of having a high and worthy aim, and of striving toward that as the object of existence."

Entries on Patterson were published in *Who's Who in America*. Vol 19 (1936-37) and *Who's Who Among North American Authors* (Golden Syndicate, 1939) and articles appeared in *The Journalist*, July 1, 1905 and *The Editor and Publisher and Journalist*. November 15, 1913 and *Tampa* /FL/ *Sunday Tribune*, June 4, 1939. Her work is also described in Ishbel Ross, *Ladies of the Press* (Harper, 1936; Arno Press, 1974) and Phyllis L. Abramson, *Sob Sister Journalism* (Greenwood Press, 1990) and *Editor & Publisher*, October 14, 1995. There is an entry in the prestigious *American National Biography*, Sup 1 (Oxford University Press, 2002).

Born in 1867 in Mount Joy, Pennsylvania, the daughter of John M. and Elizabeth E. McDannel Patterson, Ada lived with her family also at Mount Pleasant, Ohio until 1877 when the family moved to Franklin County, Nebraska, according to *Biographical Souvenir* (Franklin County, Nebraska, 1890). Soon the family settled on a farm along Lohff Creek south of Riverton, where she attended school, then the Franklin Academy in Franklin from 1883 to 1885. She then taught the intermediate level of elementary school at Riverton for four years, and the Lincoln Public Schools in Lancaster County, Nebraska for two more years.

Ada Patterson remained unmarried. She died at age 71 in June 1939 at her retirement home in Sarasota, Florida, with her cremated remains placed in Luke Wood Park at nearby Longboat Key. Her obituary in the June 27, 1939 *New York Journal-American* stated, in part, "She was acknowledged by all as America's foremost newspaper woman of her day."

Edwin E. Perkins: Inventor and Entrepreneur—Kool-Aid King

Do you believe a 5¢ packet of flavored powder could become the basis of a multi-million dollar industry? Do you believe that a young boy could develop his business acumen while growing up in a tiny south central Nebraska town? Do you believe this same inventive entrepreneur could mastermind and market many useful and unique products? Well, it's all true! Fascinating trivia games can be derived from the facts surrounding Edwin Perkins and his most famous idea—Kool-Aid.

Edwin Elijah Perkins, the oldest son of David and Kizandra (Kizzie) Haymaker Perkins, was born in Lewis, Iowa on January 8, 1889. Lewis, a small town farming community about fifty miles east of Omaha, Nebraska, was the original county seat of Cass County, Iowa.

When Edwin was four, the family moved to a farm about ten miles from Beaver City, Furnas County, in south central Nebraska. Their home was a three-room sod house, upscale for the times due to its hardwood floors and calcimined walls coated with a combination of glue, whiting and water. The family did, however, have to travel a mile for well water, and the children walked three miles to attend a one-room schoolhouse.

The weather those days was harsh. Summers brought drought and grasshoppers that decimated farms. Yet the Perkins family persevered and prevailed. David planted and harvested the crops, raised dairy cows and bred pedigreed Poland China hogs. Kizzie made weekly trips into nearby Beaver City to sell butter, cheese, eggs, and other produce.

This lifestyle continued until 1900 when David purchased a general merchandise store in the small town of Hendley, also in Furnas County, a community that in 1910 had a population of 238. For the family, this made school more accessible. David and Kizzie eventually had ten children but two died while still infants. The family living quarters were in the back of the store, a practical arrangement because this was truly a family business wherein each member shared responsibility for its success.

Eleven-year-old Edwin clerked in the store after school. He bought a junior chemistry set through mail order and, in the family kitchen, experimented with potions and lotions, making flavoring extracts, healing ointments and perfumes.

As he grew, so did his ambition and eagerness to learn. He ordered a pamphlet entitled "How to Become a Manufacturer" and put its principles into practice. Then this burgeoning young businessman ordered labels that proclaimed "Manufactured by Perkins Products Co."

When he read an ad suggesting one could earn money using a home print shop, the ever enterprising Edwin purchased a small hand press, made his own labels, and hired out his printing services to others—all while still a teenager.

Edwin was impressed when a young friend, Kitty Shoemaker, showed him Jell-O, a packaged food powder product she discovered while traveling with her father. When one added water to Jell-O and let it set, it reconstituted into what was then considered to be a dessert. Jell-O came in "six delicious flavors" and Edwin convinced his father to sell it in the store.

Edwin graduated from Hendley High School in 1905 at age 16. From that time onward, he was an entrepreneur in earnest, involving other family members in his multiple enterprises.

When he was barely twenty, Edwin began publishing a weekly newspaper, the *Hendley Delphic*. The first issue appeared February 12, 1909 and publication continued for four years.

Edwin, a prodigious multitasker, served as the town postmaster from August 10, 1914 to 1918 and he also opened the Hendley Telephone Exchange. Meanwhile, by age 25, he had set up his printing equipment in the back of the post office and started a mail order business for his Perkins Products Company. Business thrived.

On September 30, 1918, Edwin married his schooldays sweetheart, Kathryn (Kitty) M. Shoemaker, in Pocatello, Idaho. The daughter of Dr. George and Mary Johnson Shoemaker, Kitty was born at nearby Wilsonville in 1891. When she was two years old, her family relocated to Hendley, where she graduated from

high school in 1908. Kitty had moved to Arco, Idaho in 1917 to teach school, but Edwin's persuasive and persistent letters convinced her to marry him, return to Nebraska and become part of the family business.

As a businessman, Edwin was mostly self-taught. He never attended college or formal business school, but he read and researched continually and was always willing to try new ideas. He printed catalogs that he sent out to potential customers across the nation. His penchant for hyphenated product names was represented by Motor-Vigor, Glos-Comb and Jel-Aid. One of his most successful products was Nix-O-Tine, a concoction formulated to help people stop smoking. This cure was composed of herbs, chemicals, mouthwash with silver nitrate, and a laxative. Surprisingly, it remained a best seller for many years.

Business was booming, necessitating a better location for distribution. Moving to southern California seemed like a good idea until Edwin had a bout with bleeding ulcers. Wanting to remain closer to his extended family, on February 14, 1920, Edwin and Kitty, his parents and several siblings moved to Hastings in Adams County, a central Nebraska city with a population of 11,647 at the time.

In the summer of 1921, Edwin worked for a month in a small St. Louis, Missouri company to learn more about business practices similar to his. Upon returning home, Edwin started a product line called "Onor-Maid" (pronounced "honor"). Eventually there were over a hundred creams, lotions, ointments, household cleansers, perfumes and food items.

Mail order was a major part of the business, but this was also a time when door-to-door sales were common. Salespeople were usually welcomed into homes to demonstrate their wares. Edwin instituted a sales method he had read about known as a "trust scheme" whereby he entrusted salespeople with merchandise and paid them their share when they sent in the money from sales.

In April 1922, the company moved to larger quarters in Hastings, and Edwin hired his first chemist Orval Adcock. Although Adcock's formal schooling had ended after the seventh grade, he, like Edwin, was a naturally curious self-taught inventor.

In May 1922, Edwin started an in-house publication titled *The Onor-Maid Herald*.

The first Onor-Maid order was received in September 1922. The most popular product was Fruit-Smack, a bottled drink concentrate. However, the glass bottles were fragile, heavy, often leaked and were expensive to ship. Edwin needed a practical solution. His continuing fascination with the Jell-O concept of using a powder that could be reconstituted resulted in his decision to develop a powdered drink mix. This required time and money. He had time but needed money.

Bankers were reluctant to finance his experimentation, so in 1923, Edwin's parents mortgaged their home by obtaining a loan from Hastings College, while Edwin found private funding and mortgaged his first factory building.

In 1927, Edwin was finally able to dehydrate Fruit Smack. He packaged the powder into envelopes and named it Kool-Ade, later renamed Kool-Aid. In June 1928, like Jell-O, it was sold in "six delicious flavors." By the next year, Kool-Aid appeared on grocery shelves nationwide, selling for 10¢ a packet.

Edwin's marketing tactics were often innovative. For instance, envelopes were printed in both English and Spanish anticipating international sales in Latin America. Today, Kool-Aid is sold worldwide with packets printed in many languages, including Russian, Chinese and Japanese.

Another new marketing idea was the "Cash Bonus Plan." In April 1929, Edwin provided food wholesalers a sample package of Kool-Aid along with literature explaining that they could earn five percent for distribution to grocers and other food vendors. He also used a "self-selling silent salesman," a countertop display box holding forty envelopes of assorted Kool-Aid flavors.

The growing Perkins Products Company again needed more space and a better location for national and international distribution. Edwin formed a partnership with his Milwaukee sales manager Fred Schmitt, and on New Year's Day of 1931, they moved most of the business to Chicago, where Kool-Aid became the prime product.

Meanwhile, some family members—brothers, sisters, and parents—remained in Hastings, where production of Nix-O-Tine, Motor-Vigor and other products continued.

The move to Chicago was good but the timing could have been better. During most of the 1930s, the country was experiencing a major economic depression, so Edwin cut the price of Kool-Aid from 10¢ to 5¢ a

packet. The price ploy worked. Kool-Aid sold so well that Edwin quit manufacturing all Perkins Products except food items.

Again, Edwin's marketing skills triumphed. In 1931, he began advertising Kool-Aid on a network radio show. During the decade he also used celebrity spokespersons, started children's "Aviator Clubs" with Trans World Airlines, used comic strip characters named Nancy and Don for his adopted daughter and a nephew, and invented a "Kool-Aid Kid."

In 1934, Edwin developed four dehydrated powdered pie fillings. Lemon-flavored Lemix in a four-ounce package was his best seller. Another product was a 5¢ one-ounce packet of ice cream powder to which one added enough milk to make a quart of ice cream.

Edwin also sold Korlix pudding mix, Kool-Aid bubble gum, and Kool-Aid soda pop, but they were eventually discontinued to concentrate on Kool-Aid. By doing so, Perkins Products prospered. Within the next few years, Edwin bought out his partner Schmitt and paid off the mortgages in Hastings.

As additional space was needed for the ever-growing business, the physical plant was expanded from 13,000 to 66,000 square feet. In 1937, Edwin opened a subsidiary, the Packit Envelope and Bag Company, that produced all the packaging materials needed for Kool-Aid.

During and post-World War II, many food ingredients were rationed or in short supply, so growth during most of the 1940s was limited. However, in June 1949, a move to larger quarters was possible, and by 1950, production of Kool-Aid was expanding rapidly. That year, over 300 employees produced 323 million packets of Kool-Aid, which resulted in over $10 million in net sales, according to a company report.

On February 16, 1953, Edwin announced that he had sold Perkins Products to General Foods, which also owned Jell-O, and on May 15th he would retire. (General Foods merged with Kraft Foods in 1989.)

At age 64, he had spent more than fifty years inventing and manufacturing. Then Edwin and Kitty often traveled between homes they owned in the Chicago suburb of River Forest, and Miami Beach, Florida, where their daughter Nancy O'Neil lived, though she eventually relocated to California. They also visited family and friends in Hastings frequently.

After retirement from business, Edwin and Kitty established a philanthropic foundation, the Kitty M. Perkins Foundation, which is of particular interest to Nebraskans because, as stated on the Foundation Web site, "The Kitty M. Perkins Foundation . . . will attempt to satisfy needs and requests as possible which are received from within the State of Nebraska, particularly the Southwestern portion of that State from which the benefactor came. Consideration will also be given to worthy charities in the area of Chicago, Illinois. Applications for medical and educational purposes will receive priority."

Following these guidelines, the Foundation, based in the Furnas County town of Cambridge, has provided major funding to Hastings College, including Perkins Recital Hall named for Edwin's parents, David and Kizandra Perkins; the Perkins Library; Perkins Hall in the Fuhr Fine Arts building and numerous scholarships.

Other Nebraska recipients of the Foundation's funds include the Perkins Library and Rall Art Gallery at Doane College in Crete; Memorial Hospital in Cambridge; Mary Lanning Memorial Hospital in Hastings; a doctors' clinic in Beaver City; Perkins Pavilion at Good Samaritan Village in Hastings; and Madonna Rehabilitation Hospital in Lincoln.

Of special note are the Foundation's contributions to the Hastings Museum and its Imax Theater. Both Hastings College and the Hastings Museum house memorabilia and displays of Perkins Products and Kool-Aid.

Daughter Nancy's move to California possibly explains why a second philanthropic Perkins foundation, the Edwin E. Perkins Foundation, although administered by a Chicago bank, specializes in "Giving for animal welfare, human services, and the economically disadvantaged; primarily on the West Coast," according to the National Recreation and Park Association - Grants for Programs for Children and Youth Web site.

Edwin died of cancer at the age of 72 on July 3, 1961 in Rochester, Minnesota. Kitty continued with the philanthropic work. She received an honorary doctorate from Hastings College in 1961, and served on the college board of trustees from 1966 until her death on March 27, 1977 in Chicago. Both she and Edwin were buried in Parkview Cemetery at Hastings.

An annual Kool-Aid Days celebration in the month of August held in Hastings was made an officially recognized State of Nebraska event in 1998 by then-Governor Ben Nelson, and Kool-Aid was proclaimed Nebraska's official soft drink. Four Kraft Foods representatives attended the inaugural celebration. On October 19, 2006, Kool-Aid Days won a Nebraska Department of Economic Development tourism award.

In February 2002, Edwin E. Perkins was inducted into the Nebraska Business Hall of Fame. His life and work were summarized perfectly by Hayes M. Fuhr, Director of Music at Hastings College, in his obituary and tribute when he wrote, ". . . the very name, Edwin, connotes eminence, distinction, power and romance; but more intimately, the name mirrors the soul, solace and solicitude of a patriarch. His was the type of service and generosity that gives for the joy of giving and for which there can be no adequate return."

Useful readings about Edwin Perkins include Paige Noel Richardson, *Edwin E. Perkins 1889-1961*, a 35-page manuscript housed at the Nebraska State Historical Society Index # 1990.388L and "Edwin Perkins and the Kool-Aid Story," *Historical News,* Vol 31, No 4 (Adams County Historical Society, 1998) 1-15 and "E.E. Perkins Family," *History of Furnas County, Nebraska*, Vol 1 (1987) 436 and obituary in *Hastings Daily Tribune*, July 3, 1961, p. 9 and an article in *Chicago Daily News*, November 25, 1961 that mentions the size of his estate.

For more information, consult "900 Famous Nebraskans" on the Internet at WWW.NSEA.ORG or WWW.GAGECOUNTYMUSEUM.ORG or WWW.NEBPRESS.COM.

Charles H. Purcell: Chief engineer of San Francisco-Oakland Bay Bridge helped pioneer interstate highway system

One of the most distinguished civil engineers of the 20th century was Charles H. Purcell, a native of North Bend, Nebraska. He became renowned as the chief engineer of California's monumental San Francisco-Oakland Bay Bridge, the first ever to cross San Francisco Bay.

And during his career from 1906 to 1951, the era in which the automobile emerged as a prominent factor in American society, he also was a national highway authority who helped initiate the development of the Interstate Highway System.

At first, he held ten different positions designing or supervising construction of bridges and highways in several states, mostly in the Pacific Northwest.

Notable achievements included completion in 1914 of Oregon's first paved highway, and three years later his innovative 170-foot-long concrete arch bridge on the Columbia River Highway near Portland. He was also district engineer for the U.S. Bureau of Public Roads for seven years.

In 1928, Purcell became California State Highway Engineer, and was responsible for the design and construction of the $78 million double-deck 8 1/4-mile-long bridge between San Francisco and Oakland, completed ahead of schedule in November 1936 and realization of local dreams since 1850.

The western portion of the Bay Bridge--from San Francisco to Yerba Buena Island--consists of four towers and two main suspension spans joined end-to-end and connected with a massive central anchorage. Each tower extends nearly 500 feet above water, more than the height of the Nebraska State Capitol.

Unprecedented is the depth of the central anchorage, a 500-foot-tall structure, 220 feet of which lie below the surface of the water. It is the world's largest pier.

It crosses Yerba Buena Island through a 540-foot-long tunnel, and at the time was the largest bore tunnel in the world. The dirt from the tunnel formed the landfill for adjacent Treasure Island.

The eastern portion continued to Oakland with one cantilever span 1400 feet long (regarded at present as the sixth longest cantilever span in the world) and a series of trusses.

Because of damage during the 1989 earthquake, the eastern span is now being replaced with a newly designed suspension span. The $6 billion project, a joint venture headed by Peter Kiewit Company of Omaha, may be completed by 2013.

As State Highway Engineer and later Director of Public Works, he also transformed the California Highway System from 4,800 miles of rural main roads in 1928 to 14,000 miles of vastly improved rural and urban highways by 1950.

Included among the 640 miles of metropolitan freeways at the time were the Pasadena Freeway, completed in 1940 and considered the first freeway in the West, and the world's first four-level interchange in 1953 in Los Angeles.

Thus Purcell had established California as a pioneer in metropolitan freeway development that anticipated interstate highway design standards by at least a decade.

He was also a national highway authority, serving from 1928 to 1951 as a member of the executive committee of the American Association of State Highway Officials, which worked closely with the U.S. Bureau of Public Roads, now called the Federal Highway Administration.

In 1937, he was appointed by the U.S. Secretary of Agriculture to the twelve-person Committee on Planning and Design Policies. And in 1941 he was selected by U.S. President Franklin Roosevelt to serve on a seven-man National Interregional Highway Committee, whose final report in 1944 influenced Congress that year to authorize establishment of the national system of interstate highways.

During President Dwight Eisenhower's Administration, federal funding of a 41,000-mile network of limited access expressways was authorized in 1956.

Honors were accorded to Purcell, including posthumous recognition. In November 1955, the American Society of Civil Engineers selected the Bay Bridge as one of the seven modern civil engineering wonders of the United States.

A review of the construction of the Bay Bridge may be found in Richard H. Dillon, *High Steel: Building Bridges Across San Francisco Bay* (Celestial Arts Publishing, 1979). A lengthy biography was published in the June 2, 1999 *Wilber* /NE/ *Republican,* pp. 5-6.

An entry on Purcell appeared in *American National Biography,* Supplement 1 (Oxford University Press, 2002) 493-494. And an article was published in the August 19, 2003 *Omaha World Herald.*

Born in 1883 at North Bend, Dodge County, Nebraska, he was one of two children who survived to adulthood of John and Mary Gillis Purcell. Though his father died three years later, Charles remained in North Bend, where he liked to draw pictures, especially bridges, and graduated from North Bend High School in 1900.

He attended the University of Nebraska-Lincoln for his freshman year, followed by one year of employment near his uncles in Chicago, then one semester at Stanford University.

After his mother's death in January 1903, he returned to the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, and earned his bachelor's degree in 1906.

In 1914, he married Minnie Pullen, daughter of a Portland, Oregon farmer. The couple had no children. Charles Henry Purcell died in Sacramento, California in 1951, just five weeks after his retirement due to ill health. His cremated remains were placed at East Lawn Memorial Park in that city.

J. Lee Rankin: Nation's leading lawyer played key role in school desegregation and other significant historic cases

In the mid-20th century, J. Lee Rankin, the Hartington, Nebraska native who grew up and resided in Lincoln, became our nation's leading lawyer.

A quiet man of wisdom, talent and integrity, he was considered a writer-attorney "who gets things done," and respected for his lack of partisanship.

He played key roles in desegregation of schools, determination of federal cases before the U.S. Supreme Court, resolution of significant historic cases, and representation of New York City as its city attorney.

During the early years of a law career that spanned nearly half a century, Rankin practiced law in Lincoln from 1930 to 1952. And he reported in a December 1, 1985 feature in the Omaha *Sunday World Herald* that he "had no ambition for a political job."

Yet he did serve as Nebraska primary campaign manager for New York attorney--and later governor--Thomas E. Dewey's unsuccessful effort as a 1940 presidential candidate and his successful 1948 presidential nomination. He was also Nebraska campaign manager for Dwight Eisenhower's successful 1952 presidential bid.

Rankin held views compatible with the progressive wing of the Republican Party. Moreover, his longtime friend and Nebraska native Herbert Brownell Jr., an attorney in New York and close advisor and national manager of Dewey's presidential campaigns in 1944 and 1948 and Eisenhower's in 1952, became U.S. Attorney General. In January 1953, Rankin agreed to serve under Brownell in the U.S. Department of Justice as Assistant Attorney General in charge of the Office of Legal Counsel. During his three years in this position, he participated in negotiations for the St. Lawrence Seaway (constructed from 1954 to 1959), and argued in Kinsella v Krueger, a companion case to Reid v Covert in May 1956, that civilian dependents of military personnel could not be tried before court martial for crimes committed during times of peace. The U.S. Supreme Court decided that courts of law alone are given power to try civilians for their offenses against the United States.

After President Eisenhower's heart attack in 1955, Rankin also studied with Brownell a plan to adopt a constitutional amendment establishing the line of succession in the event of presidential disability. The proposal, which was initially rejected by Congress in 1956 but later formed the basis of the 25th Amendment approved in 1967, included provision for the Vice President becoming Acting President when the President himself determines his inability to discharge his duties or when a majority of the Cabinet with the Vice President determines the fact of disability. (Sometime between 1956 and 1967, a change in the latter provision allowed Congress to designate "another body" in place of the Cabinet.)

By far the most profound of Rankin's tasks as Assistant Attorney General--and which continued during his subsequent years as U.S. Solicitor General--was his major role in helping to resolve one of the most important constitutional questions in modern times--the issue of school desegregation.

In 1896, the Supreme Court had decided in Plessy v Ferguson that states could provide separate schools for white and black children as long as they are equal, that is, the same education is offered to both. Thus the "separate but equal" concept did not violate the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment adopted in 1868. However, various legal actions after the mid-1930s, for example, brought decisions that segregation in colleges was not valid and that school segregation treats black children as inferior.

Because the U.S. Supreme Court had not ruled on school desegregation arguments presented in December 1952, it asked the U.S. Attorney General in June 1953 to respond to five specific questions and participate in reargument of the case the following fall as a "friend of the court."

So Brownell designated Rankin to lead an extensive four-month study of the history of the 14th Amendment as well as the constitutional questions raised in the case. And he was placed in charge of the actual writing of the brief.

Meanwhile, when a Supreme Court vacancy occurred during the first year of the Eisenhower Administration, California governor Earl Warren was appointed as chief justice. From October 1953 to June 1969, the Warren Court was to become remembered for several significant decisions that advanced civil liberties, even though this was the era of the Cold War between Soviet Communism and American democracy when a variety of national security and domestic issues were a high priority.

On December 9, 1953, arguments were presented by the plaintiffs in the historic case known as Brown v Topeka Board of Education. At age 46, Rankin represented the U.S. Department of Justice and stated in his 184-page brief that public school segregation was unconstitutional. This position basically supported the contention of the plaintiff's chief lawyer Thurgood Marshall.

Among those in the audience to hear the presentations was Brownell, who reported in his 1993 memoirs that Rankin's "preparation and argument were first class." The Supreme Court on May 17, 1954 upheld Rankin's argument in a unanimous decision but did not rule on enforcement powers.

During the second Brown v Topeka Board of Education case decided on May 31, 1955, Rankin was a member of the Justice Department team that favored a plan to require each school district to submit a desegregation plan to the local federal court for approval and that school districts be required to submit a plan within ninety days. The Court decided to give power of enforcement to federal district courts but with no timeline for presentation or completion of plans.

Thus the executive branch of the federal government was given no direct enforcement powers, though President Eisenhower, who had authority over the District of Columbia public schools, immediately asked and obtained desegregation for them.

Rankin was appointed the 31st Solicitor General in August 1956 (confirmed by the Senate in May 1957), and remained in that capacity until January 1961. He and his assistants had the major responsibility of determining the cases and positions the federal government would take before the Supreme Court. During his tenure of more than four years, he was a party in 1,892 cases argued before the Court, which represents about two-thirds of the cases he asked it to hear.

In general, about 1,800 cases each year involving the government in some way came to him and his assistants for a decision. Many of the cases involved amounts up to one billion dollars. Rankin was credited as being a major factor in resolving conflicts among Western states to Colorado River water and in obtaining a balance of state and federal jurisdictions in offshore oil drilling.

More work on his original desegregation arguments became necessary after the governor of Arkansas in September 1957 openly resisted the Supreme Court's decisions of 1954 and 1955. President Eisenhower, at the request of local

officials to end the violence in Little Rock and to uphold the Constitution, ordered the use of federal troops.

After the Little Rock school board in June 1958 suspended integration plans until January 1961, Rankin argued in Cooper v Aaron the first legal test of enforcement of Brown v Topeka on August 28, 1958. He presented the successful government case that postponing plans for desegregation in good faith would violate black students' rights and that Arkansas officials were bound by federal court orders that rested on the 1954 and 1955 decisions.

In his brief published in the August 29, 1958 *New York Times,* Rankin stated, in part, "There must be some kind of start...that there isn't a place in the country, if they have the will, cannot make some kind of start, even if it is the smallest kind, toward solving this problem, granting these rights and working them out." And in his conclusion, he noted "that if you teach these children in Little Rock or any other place in the country that as soon as you get some force and violence, the courts of law in this country are going to bow to it...I think that you destroy the whole educational process then and there."

While change in obtaining equal rights for blacks and others was gradual, the beginning occurred during Rankin's service from 1953 to 1961. Congress had passed Civil Rights Acts in 1957 and 1960 and Voting Rights Acts in 1957.

Moreover, Rankin filed as a friend of the court in 1960 a brief in Gomillion v Lightfoot involving Tuskegee, Alabama, which had changed city boundaries that excluded virtually all the blacks who formerly voted in city elections. In 1962, Rankin's successor argued a Tennessee legislative reapportionment case in Baker v Carr that resulted in the Supreme Court decision that federal courts could address legislative reapportionment issues.

In 1964, the Supreme Court ruled in Reynolds v Sims that a state must construct districts as nearly of equal population as practicable. Thus the "one person, one vote" concept, which Rankin initiated in 1960, eventually resulted in more equal rights for blacks and others.

There is general agreement at present that improvement in social conditions was fostered by activism in the 1950s and 1960s, but "it is doubtful that a major breakthrough in the struggle to attain equal rights for blacks could have been achieved had not the U.S. Supreme Court handed down a watershed school desegregation decision in 1954," wrote the authors of the entry on "Civil Rights Movement" in *Encyclopedia Americana,* Vol 6 (2003).

From 1961 to 1963, Rankin engaged in an independent law practice in New York City. He had gained admission to the New York Bar on motion, for his record was considered so outstanding that the usual requirement of a bar examination was waived. During this time, he was engaged in a variety of cases, including a lawsuit between Trans World Airlines and Hughes Aircraft.

His most notable achievement was his involvement as a friend of the court in the 1963 case Gideon v Wainwright, which became the basis for the fact-crime book *Gideon's Trumpet* (Random House, 1964) by journalist Anthony Lewis, who had earned Pulitzer Prizes in 1955 and 1963 for national reporting. It also inspired the April 30, 1980 CBS television movie "Gideon's Trumpet," starring Nebraska native Henry Fonda.

This landmark case involved Florida resident Clarence Gideon, who was charged with a felony for breaking and entering, but lacked the funds to hire a lawyer. After the Florida state court did not appoint an attorney for him, stating it only had to do so for indigent defendants in capital cases, he defended himself at trial, was convicted and sentenced to five years in a state prison.

While in prison, Gideon asked the U.S. Supreme Court to review the case. It assigned attorney Abe Fortas to plead his right to counsel. During arguments heard on January 14, 1963, Rankin, who had been invited by the American Civil Liberties Union to serve as a friend of the court, emphasized the larger issue facing the legal profession. According to Lewis' book, he stated, in part: "We know a man cannot get a fair trial when he represents himself. It is enough of a fiction to claim that an ordinary lawyer can present a case as well as the prosecutor with all his

experience in Court. But when you take a layman and put him at odds, you can't have a fair trial except by accident."

Lewis wrote that Rankin's point was that the 1942 Betts v Brady decision had "the generalization backward--it assumed that only in the special case did a man need a lawyer, while the truth was that it was the rare case where one did not need counsel." The Court ruled on March 18, 1963 that the 1942 Betts v Brady must be overturned because the 6th Amendment's guarantee of counsel was essential to a fair trial in state as well as federal cases through the due process clause of the 14th Amendment.

Upon retrial in Florida, Clarence Gideon was represented by an appointed attorney, and he was acquitted. According to the *Oxford Companion to the Supreme Court* (1992), the Gideon v Wainwright decision was often interpreted as applying only to felony cases, but after the 1972 case Argersinger v Hamlin, the Court expanded on the 1963 Gideon ruling and "extended the right to appointed counsel to misdemeanors when the defendant is sentenced to imprisonment." At present, where some cities and states do not have public defender offices to provide assistance to indigents in criminal cases, trial court judges appoint private attorneys.

Rankin returned to public service from December 15, 1963 to September 24, 1964 as general counsel for a commission of seven distinguished public servants, including Nebraska native Gerald Ford, appointed by President Lyndon Johnson to investigate the November 22, 1963 assassination of President John F. Kennedy. Led by Supreme Court Chief Justice Earl Warren, the Commission unanimously appointed him as its general counsel.

In charge of investigation as well as the writing of the final report, Rankin "assembled much of the panel's staff, examined and acted as the liaison between the Warren Commission and other government agencies and between Commission members and the staff," reported an entry in *Political Profiles: The Johnson Years* (Facts On File, 1976).

Among his assistants were 15 lawyers who took testimony from 552 witnesses and gathered evidence nationwide, but he was credited with redrafting and editing of the historic final report comprised of 26 volumes and an 800-page summary .

Although the conclusions that the assassin acted alone and that Kennedy and Texas governor John Connally were struck by the same bullet were well received at the time, thousands of articles and books published subsequently promoted various other theories.

Rankin rarely spoke publicly about his work for the Warren Commission, according to a June 30, 1996 *New York Times* obituary, but he "had no doubt that the panel had come to the proper conclusions in finding that there had been no conspiracy. "

And his deputy counsel Norman Redlich was quoted as saying, "I can tell you that he was extremely anguished at the distortions and the phony theories developed as people tried to make money out of what was essentially a national tragedy."

West's Encyclopedia of American Law, 2nd ed (Gale, 2005) reported "a 1979 special committee of the House of Representatives reexamined the evidence and concluded that Kennedy 'was probably assassinated as a result of a conspiracy'." Claims that federal agencies withheld evidence also caused Congress in 1992 to create the Assassination Records Review Board, an independent federal agency, to oversee the identification and release of records pertaining to the 1963 murder.

After release of the Warren Report in September 1964, Rankin resumed his private practice. But on January 1, 1966 he re-entered public service as corporation counsel for New York City after appointment by Mayor John V. Lindsey, and continued in that capacity until August 1972.

He was responsible for all litigation the city had to prosecute or defend, for giving legal opinions to city entities, and

for supervising any legislation submitted to the city council and the state legislature. In an August 31, 1967 *Lincoln Evening Journal* article, he reported, "We have a budget of $7.5 or $8 million with a staff of 350 lawyers. Only the U.S. Justice Department is larger in the entire world. One-seventh of all court cases in the state are from New York City."

In a notable case, he argued before the U.S. Supreme Court on November 19, 1969 in Walz v Tax Commission of New York that property tax exemptions for churches did not violate the Establishment Clause of the 1st Amendment. The Court decided in his favor on May 4, 1970, ruling that "benevolent neutrality" toward churches and religions is a basic value of our nation.

As an innovative city attorney, he also began a program under which graduates of law schools worked in his office for a year or two that provided them with experience before moving on to employment at law firms

Upon returning to private practice in 1972, he set up a partnership with his son James Lee Rankin Jr, which was later terminated on March l, 1979 because his son's practice in Santa Cruz, California became so large that he could not effectively participate in New York City.

Rankin lived at Weston, Connecticut after 1977, where he practiced law. In 1983, he accepted the newly created position of Solicitor General for the National Institute of Municipal Law Officers, an organization he had earlier served in several leadership capacities.

Among various forms of recognition for Rankin were at least 110 citations in the personal names index of the *New York Times* between 1952 and 1972. And his June 2, 1959 commencement address at Nebraska Wesleyan University titled "The Search for Truth" was published in the July 15, 1959 *Vital Speeches of The Day.* He received honorary doctorates from Nebraska Wesleyan in 1959 and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1961.

Rankin's papers are housed at the National Archives in Washington, DC. There are also 30 large boxes of memorabilia and papers at the Schmid Law Library at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln College of Law, where on file is an unsigned June 25, 1957 letter of tribute to the Solicitor General from a Supreme Court Law Clerk.

It states, in part, "I have gained the feeling that you and your associates are interested in a sound, fair and common-sense solution to difficult problems of law and law-enforcement as much as in any short-term victory in an individual case. This is an impressive thing, because it teaches that the Government realizes that Justice is as much its business as the courts'."

Published accounts of his career are in *Current Biography* (1959) and a June 30, 1996 *New York Times* obituary and *American National Biography,* Supplement 1 (2002). Some references to him are in Herbert Brownell and John P. Burke, *Advising Ike: The Memoirs of Attorney General Herbert Brownell* (University Press of Kansas, 1993). A relevant history of Rankin's era is David A. Nichols, *A Matter of Justice: Eisenhower and the Beginning of the Civil Rights Revolution* (Simon & Schuster, 2007).

Born in 1907 at Hartington, Cedar County, Nebraska, one of five children of Herman and Lois Gable Rankin, he moved with his family at age three to Lincoln. His father was editor, owner, or manager of various printing companies. After graduation from Lincoln High School in 1924, he earned bachelor and law degrees from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1928 and 1930. He practiced law shortly afterward, and in 1935 became a member of Beghtol and Foe at 714 Stuart Building. Eventually, it became Beghtol and Rankin.

He was married on September 4, 1931 to Gertrude Carpenter, the daughter of a prominent Lincoln family that owned a large paper company. The couple had sent 550 wedding invitations, and among the performers at the ceremony was noted Nebraska music educator Wilbur Chenoweth, who five years later composed the music for "Hail Varsity," which became the UNL fight song at sports events.

James Lee Rankin and his wife raised two sons and a daughter. He died at age 88 on June 26, 1996 at Santa Cruz, California.

Grant T. Reynard: Artist of many talents and achievements also taught others to create from true inner desire

Some artists gain a reputation for specializing in one area of their field, not mingling with other artists, and taking more than they have shared, while others have given more of their talent and themselves than is often known by the public.

An example of the latter was Nebraska native Grant T. Reynard, who became not only one of the prominent artists of the 20th century but also had a significant career as a teacher, reported a feature on Reynard published in the November 1961 *American Artist*. And it is thought that he became the first artist to serve as president of a museum.

Furthermore, Harlan E. Knautz, author of the book-length biography *Grant Reynard, N. A.: An American Painter* (Baldwin-Wallace, 1974), asserted that "his various talents as a painter, illustrator, etcher, lithographer and musician make his cultural contributions to American life varied and significant, because he has revealed through these various mediums his heightened sensitivity to nature, music, and American life, enriching the quality of the lives of many of those who have heard his lectures or who have appreciated his work."

During his lengthy career, he produced a few thousand creations ranging from figure studies to landscape, displayed his work in more than 90 exhibitions, had more than 200 illustrations published in books and magazines, and lectured at more than 90 colleges and other institutions. Among several forms of recognition was his election to the National Academy of Design in 1940 as an associate and in 1965 as national academician.

Born in 1887 at Grand Island in central Nebraska, one of two children of Stephen and Jennie Bacon Reynard, he learned to play the piano, sang with his family in the First Presbyterian Church choir, participated in several church events, and worked at his father's music store. Grant also began to make sketches of local people as well as Gibson girls from magazines while working in the Elks Club bowling alleys, and made drawings on school papers that impressed his teachers.

After his father became manager of the opera house, he attended various performances, and at the age of 14 made sketches of visiting celebrities such as entertainer William "Buffalo Bill" Cody, orator William Jennings Bryan, and U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt. He also experienced duck hunting with his father on the nearby Platte River, participated in Christmas tree parties, and watched people who attended a camp meeting in a large tent.

Grant also took a correspondence course consisting of 12 lessons from an artist employed with the *Chicago Tribune*. Shortly after graduation from Grand Island Senior High in 1905, he attended the Chicago Art Institute Academy of Fine Arts in the evenings, hoping to become a cartoonist, and worked in the daytime as a clerk-typist at Marshall Field Department Store.

Failing as a cartoonist, he returned to Grand Island for two years to work at his father's music store. He also spent time working on his brother's celery ranch in California.

Then he returned to Chicago to attend the Academy of Fine Arts, where he completed his formal education in 1911, and began work as an illustrator for *Redbook*, a monthly publication, because his various other drawing jobs did not succeed. Soon he was invited to serve as the magazine's art editor, and gained experience in working with authors for three years.

Though continuing to illustrate for *Redbook* each month for ten years, he left Chicago in 1914 to live at Leonia, New Jersey to gain further training that would help him illustrate for the larger magazine publishers in New York and Philadelphia. He studied under the respected teacher Harvey Dunn, became acquainted with a few experienced painters, and learned how to make charcoal illustrations. At the same time, he was permitted to sketch local villagers and make drawings from life and nature.

After his marriage to Gwendolyn Crawford in 1917, his interest in becoming an independent painter and etcher emerged. An important event in Grant's career was his 1923 trip to Europe, where he made sketches in Paris and observed various scenes that captured his imagination, and in London, where he continued his work and also visited museums. During almost a year in Europe, he was inspired by the work of such famed artists as Rembrandt and Cezanne .

Upon his return to Leonia, he built a studio behind his home, using it for the remainder of his life. And he continued charcoal illustrations for another five years with many leading magazines, such as *The Saturday Evening-Post*, *Ladies Home Journal, Harpers Bazaar*, and *Colliers*. Among about 150 short stories requiring illustrations were those authored by the renowned F. Scott Fitzgerald and John P. Marquand. According to biographer Knautz, subjects chosen for illustration "ranged from pianists with attentive listeners to formal dinner parties, dinner conversations, hospital operations, love affairs, and family scenes."

About 1928, he and his family, which included two daughters, began to attend the First Baptist Church at nearby Hackensack, and his Christian art revealed skies with "a silver light lining the edges of the moving clouds." And on a sketching trip to New England, he stopped at the MacDowell Colony in Peterborough, New Hampshire, which was known for providing a retreat with ideal working conditions for composers, poets, novelists, painters and sculptors.

During his first visit, two significant events occurred. Grant was invited to return to MacDowell, and for the following eight summers he performed not only his own work but also mingled with such notables as poet Edwin Arlington Robinson, composer Aaron Copland, author Thornton Wilder, and others.

And he had a chance meeting with Nebraska author Willa Cather, recipient of the 1923 Pulitzer Prize in fiction for her novel *My Antonia*, who inspired him by reviewing her own career and her early experiences in Nebraska that helped her find herself as a writer. Of that brief encounter, Reynard had written letters in 1948 to Mildred Bennett of Red Cloud, Nebraska, who became a major founder of the Willa Cather Pioneer Memorial in the community.

Biographer Knautz examined the letters, and reported that Cather had told Grant, in part, "the great thing was desire in art. That a desire to express ourselves be a clear compelling thing that must out...No thought of editors, opinions, galleries—just a great urge to write or compose, or paint coming freely through a great compelling desire."

The next summer he began to write, paint, and illustrate about subjects related to his own background and interests, including landscapes, musical people, the prairie, New York City characters, and more. "Willa Cather had uncovered the native honesty that Reynard had partially smothered. This was the turning point of his career," stated Knautz, an observation that reflected the content of Grant's memoirs titled "Willa Cather's Advice to a Young Artist" that was posthumously published in the Summer 1972 issue of *The Prairie Schooner*.

And he decided—at the age of 43—to end his successful career as a commercial illustrator for magazines and instead become an independent painter, art teacher, and lecturer in the 1930s and beyond.

As an independent painter, his work appeared in many exhibitions, including several one-man exhibitions in New York City, which received favorable reviews in its newspapers. Among the many kinds of art work he pursued were watercolors, which numbered more than 500 in his career, reported biographer Knautz, and subjects ranged from nature to sites to structures and sometimes people nationwide. Examples were Platte River Hunters, Nebraska in 1930, New Hampshire Pasture in 1933, Mexican Quarters, California in 1936, Wyoming High Country in 1943,

West Kentucky Mine in 1947, The Chemistry Lab in 1953, Brooklyn Bridge in 1957, Women on Beach in 1963, and From Library of Congress in 1966.

Among over 150 oil paintings that covered a wide variety of interests were his Daughters in Party Costumes in 1934, Town of Barnard, Vermont in 1938, Nebraska Pheasant in 1943, The Blue-Eyed Cowhand in 1950, Milkman, Paterson, New Jersey in 1954, Julie's Flowers in 1956, and Atlantic Coastal Scene in 1959.

As for his drawings, Reynard believed in constant practice, according to the November 1961 *American Artist* feature, which reported "he makes hundreds of them every year in a variety of media that include pencil, pen and ink, wash, crayon, carbon, pastel, and in large and small scale." Though he did not intend them for exhibitions, "many have been sold to patrons who own his paintings and many others represent him in national exhibitions." His subjects were comprised of famous musicians and artists, including his self portraits in 1920 and 1930, ordinary persons in all walks of life, rural settings, and street scenes in American and European cities.

The majority of his prints (drypoint, etching, and lithograph) were made in the 1930s, and also reflected his broad interests, such as Berry Pickers, The Pianist, and Edwin Arlington Robinson in 1930, Alley Cats in 1931, A Modern Opera in 1933, The Teeter Totter, New Jersey in 1936, Dover Church Spire in 1947, Head of Robert Frost in 1966, and The Old Farm, Nebraska in 1967. About 100 of Reynard's prints were listed by biographer Knautz.

His art work reflected a native American vision, and according to a 1969 interview of his widow Gwen by biographer Knautz, he had painted "the good side of life because there was too much of the bad side" during the conditions of the 1930s, the Depression, and war. And appropriately, he designed materials for the "Artists for Victory" project that supported the nation's efforts against fascist enemies during World War II.

Reynard did not, however, completely abandon his talent for illustrations while being an independent painter, for he created 33 illustrations for Theodore Dreiser's *An American Tragedy* (World Publishing, 1948). And he continued his own interest in writing, with over a dozen articles published in such periodicals as *Saturday Evening Post*, *Scribner's Magazine* and *American Artist* and in a few books.

Throughout his life, he often recorded his thoughts in poetic narrative, some of which were published in his book of poetry *Rattling Home for Christmas* (American Artists Group, 1941), which contained a description of his travel from California to Grand Island before resuming his education at the Chicago Academy of Fine Arts.

Many of his other writings, or poetic narratives, were posthumously published (with some revision by Harry Hoffman) in the 116-page book titled *The Colors of My Life: Memoirs of A Nebraska Artist* (Kearney State College, 1986), which included recollections of his years in Grand Island, Chicago, and Leonia, and reinforced what his art expressed—a love for ordinary people, the beauty of nature, and the freedom of the prairie.

Another aspect of his career that began shortly after he became an independent painter was that of an art teacher and lecturer. At first, he taught at the Grand Central School of Art from 1930 to 1932, then at the Millbrook School in New York once a week from 1936 to 1944. He also taught during the summers of 1938 and 1939 at West Texas State College at Canyon, Texas and in the summers of 1941 and 1942 served as artist-in-residence at the University of Wyoming.

In his philosophy of art, Reynard believed that students need to become disciplined in the use of materials, formulas, and methods so that their command of them became instinctive, reported biographer Knautz, but he also considered each student as an artist from the beginning (instead of always trying to be an artist), and that the student should proceed with enthusiasm at his own speed.

In an article published in *The Texas Outlook* in 1940, he stated, in part, "The young artist should believe in, and be, himself, for there is room for every type of artist, every color sense, and every style. Find life exciting and paint the familiar—homes, towns, cities, dads, and mothers." In short, follow your true inner desire and be aware that "beauty to be painted could be found in your own backyard."

In the 1930s, he held a few exhibitions elsewhere and made an effort to visit such Nebraska communities as Columbus, Grand Island, Hastings, Lincoln, North Platte, and Omaha. His interest in the majority of Americans, especially those in the rural areas, needing and wanting art, grew progressively, according to Knautz. And after a 1946 workshop on rural education held at Columbia University, he decided—at 59 years of age—to increase the visitor-lecturer-teacher phase of his life nationwide for the remaining 22 years of his life.

With arrangements made as part of an arts program of the Association of American Colleges, he lectured in the fall, winter and spring of every year until 1968, often painting during his visits to more than 90 colleges in 25 states from New York to Wyoming and Minnesota to Texas, with many return visits to such institutions as Baldwin-Wallace College at Berea, Ohio. Reynard also made presentations at more than 30 women's clubs and many museums, covering such topics as the enjoyment of art and great American painters. He also tried to stimulate his audiences by incorporating the human factors of reason, emotion, will, and spirit. And he was known to offer humorous comments.

While on his summer visit at South Dakota State College at Brookings in 1954, where he was an artist-in-residence, he also traveled over 6,500 miles in his car, transporting paintings not only to Brookings but also to Pittsburgh, Grand Island, Denver, and Trinidad, Colorado. In the summer of 1962, he traveled almost 6,000 miles to seven southern states.

His Nebraska visits included Doane College, Hastings College, and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. In September 1967, he gained much satisfaction from lecturing and holding an exhibition at the opening of the Stuhr Museum of the Prairie Pioneer at his former hometown of Grand Island. Aside from his busy career as a traveling lecturer-painter, he also became president of the Montclair Art Museum in Montclair, New Jersey in September 1955, serving in that capacity for the next decade. He was the first known artist to be a museum president, according to biographer Knautz.

He took pride in the newly remodeled building, participated in meetings and committee work, and helped acquire works by reputable American painters. And he was on occasion an art critic, with much respect for Christian art.

Various forms of recognition were accorded during Reynard's career, aside from the prestigious honors in 1940 and 1965 from the National Academy of Design. His Degas Portrait was selected as one of 50 prints of the year in 1932 for an exhibition sponsored by the American Institute of Graphic Arts. The Beach was selected by the American Society of Etchers for its *One Hundred Selected Prints of 1936*.

His Wind and Rain, shown at the World's Fair in 1939, was published in the 1938 edition of *Fine Prints of the Year,* and Down The Hill received the Pennell Prize at the Library of Congress National Exhibition of Prints in 1944. And he received an honorary doctorate from Baldwin-Wallace College in 1955.

As is customary, the creations of renowned artists are preserved in various locations. Nearly 20 major institutions house Grant's art work, including Baldwin-Wallace College, the Library of Congress, the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City, Montclair Art Museum, and the New York Public Library.

In Nebraska, some of his works are preserved at the Sheldon Memorial Art Gallery at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln and the Willa Cather Pioneer Memorial at Red Cloud. More than 60 of his original pieces of art as well as much archival information are at Stuhr Museum of the Prairie Pioneer in Grand Island.

Likely the largest collection in the nation is located at the Museum of Nebraska Art (MONA) at Kearney. Because of a large donation by Jane Wilcox, more than 3,000 pieces of Reynard's work, including oils, watercolors, pastels, charcoal, graphite, and etchings, were obtained for housing at MONA in 1981, along with his entire studio and many archival papers.

A feature article in the September 19, 1982 Omaha *Sunday World Herald Magazine of the Midlands* reported his widow Gwen Reynard willingly contributed belongings to MONA, and quoted her as saying, "Now, Grant is going back to Nebraska."

Of the biographical sources previously cited, the most comprehensive is Harlan E. Knautz' book *Grant Reynard, N. A. : An American Painter* (Baldwin-wallace, 1974). An obituary was published in the August 14, 1968 *New York Times*, and there is an entry in *Who Was Who in America*, Vol 5 (1973).

Born October 20, 1887 at Grand Island, Nebraska, one of two children of Stephen and Jennie Bacon Reynard, Grant died August 13, 1968 at the age of 80 from complications after cancer surgery earlier that year. He was survived by his wife and two children. Interment was at George Washington Memorial Park at Paramus, New Jersey.

For more information, consult "900 Famous Nebraskans" on the Internet at WWW.NSEA.ORG or WWW.GAGECOUNTYMUSEUM.ORG or WWW.NEBPRESS.COM.

Ann Ronell: Woman of Musical Firsts--Who's Afraid of the Little Lady Songwriter?

Ann Ronell brought music to the proverbial everyman through innovation and humor. Her compositions encompassed many styles, including classical, pop and jazz. She was a petite, energetic force—the first woman to score background music for major motion pictures. Ironically, this little Jewish girl born in Omaha, Nebraska on Christmas Day, December 25, 1905, died eighty-eight years later on Christmas Day, December 25, 1993.

Ann (birth name Anya) was the second of four children born to Mollie Rabinovitz Rosenblatt and Morris Moses Rosenblatt. Her siblings were brothers Sol Ariah, Herman Samuel and sister Leah Gussie.

Ann's father emigrated from Russia to Chicago in 1895 at age seventeen. He later moved to Davenport, Iowa, where he met Mollie Rabinowitz while boarding with her family. They were married in 1899 when Mollie was sixteen and Morris was twenty-one. In a few years, the couple settled in Omaha, Nebraska, where Morris eventually became owner of the Consumers Coal and Supply Company.

Ann's early years included piano, organ, and dancing lessons with an emphasis on ballet. She began writing songs while still in grade school. She wrote songs for school productions and her class song as a student at Omaha's Central High School, where she graduated in 1923.

Ann continued her formal education at Wheaton College in Norton, Massachusetts, where her courses included religion, languages and arts. Among other school-sponsored activities, she took part in the Wheaton Dramatic Club, was assistant editor of the campus newspaper *Wheaton Record,* and won a prize for writing the song "Love's Like a Rose."

However, Wheaton lacked a music department at the time, so after two years she transferred to Radcliffe College at Cambridge, Massachusetts. There she immersed herself in musical pursuits, although she majored in English. She wrote songs and background music for some of the college plays. Her song "Oh, College is the Place for Me" won a prize, was performed by the Choral Society in a New York City concert, and was published in the *Radcliffe Songbook.* She was in the Radcliffe Choral Society, president of the Music Club, and was music editor of *The Radcliffe News* from 1925-27. She also reviewed musical performances and interviewed nationally known composers for *The Radcliffe News*.

This activity led to a life-changing event when Ann interviewed composer George Gershwin. During their conversation she praised his work. He inquired about her studies. She expressed her passion for composition. He played the piano for her. She played the piano and then danced the Charleston for him. He encouraged her to work in New York

as a rehearsal pianist or as a dancer in musical theater. A symbiotic working relationship developed between the two, and George became her friend and mentor.

Upon graduation in 1927, Ann went home to Omaha but soon received a letter from George Gershwin stating that if she moved to New York, he would help establish her music career.

Ann knew she would not be alone in the big city. Her brother Sol, who had graduated from Harvard Law School, was living and working in the Manhattan district of New York City. So Ann became George Gershwin's protégé. Her association with Gershwin proved to be invaluable. He kept his promise. George, who was ten years her senior, helped her find work as a rehearsal pianist and vocal coach. He introduced her to important people in the music business, and suggested that for professional reasons she should change her last name from Rosenblatt to Ronell just as he had changed his own name from Gershovitz to Gershwin.

While working in New York City, Ann attended the New School for Social Research in Manhattan where, during composer Aaron Copland's lectures, she took notes for the school's archives in lieu of paying tuition.

Those early years were filled with the same determination that became a lifelong habit. Years later, during an interview, she claimed that for a long time she would write "one song a day and present them to publishers." At the time, there was a paucity of women songwriters, composers and lyricists, but Ann's persistence paid off. By 1929, her song "Down by the River" was performed in a Radio City Music Hall revue, and her first published song "Love and I" was used in the 1929 *Ziegfeld Show* .

Her first big success came with the publication of "Baby's Birthday Party" in 1930. Inspired by her nephew's first birthday, her humor was evident as the beginning of the song seems to describe a child's party but then segues into a steadily pounding boogie beat. This song also marked a first for Paramount Pictures' Famous Music, which had never published a song without a movie tie-in.

The following year, Ann wrote another humorous hit "The Candy Parade," a fox-trot whose lyrics referenced chocolate soldiers carrying lollipop guns. Also in 1931, her song "Let's Go Out in the Open Air" was used in the Broadway musical revue *Shoot the Works*.

In the spring of 1932, on her first trip out of the country, Ann combined business and vacation. While touring France, Italy and Switzerland, she wrote some music that was included in the *Ile de France Revue* at the Theatre Champs-Elysses in Paris.

At home, 1932 continued to be a banner year for her. Her fox-trot "Rain on the Roof" was published by Famous Music Corporation. But most important, she broke through another musical barrier. Ann wanted Irving Berlin to publish her blues song "Willow Weep For Me," inspired by the willows she had seen at Radcliffe. Ann first met with Berlin's partner Saul Bornstein, but he didn't like the song, citing its style, tempo changes, and the fact that she had dedicated it to George Gershwin. Bornstein told her that dedicating a popular song to anyone was inappropriate and unacceptable. Undeterred, Ann persisted in her quest to meet with Irving Berlin himself. Eventually she succeeded. Berlin liked the song, published it with the dedication to George Gershwin intact, and "Willow" remains a standard in jazz repertoire today.

Another significant career change came when she moved to California in 1933. The Walt Disney Studios wanted a song to celebrate Mickey Mouse's fifth birthday. Ann submitted "Mickey Mouse and Minnie's in Town," and it was chosen as the official Mickey Mouse birthday song.

This led to work for Disney's new cartoon series called *Silly Symphonies*, which were based on nursery rhymes and folk tales. Up to this time, Disney had developed cartoons first and then added music. In the *Silly Symphonies,* the music came first and the animation was added to fit. For that series, Ann wrote the theme "In a Silly Symphony."

One of the *Silly Symphonies* was "The Three Little Pigs." Ann was involved, but sources, including the participants themselves, have disagreed about exactly how much each contributed to the finished product. And the product? The song "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf?"

It is generally agreed that Disney's employees Frank Churchill wrote background music while Ted Sears and Pinto Colvig wrote the story and lyrics. Although snippets of song were placed throughout, there was no one cohesive song suitable for sale on its own. This did not concern Walt Disney at the time because he failed to recognize the marketing possibilities. Ann did. According to her, she insisted a salable song could be fashioned by adding lyrics and more music. When she made these changes, the result was the now famous "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf?" which Disney subsequently sold to music publisher Irving Berlin.

Meanwhile, as always, Ann worked on multiple projects simultaneously. She wrote lyrics and other special arrangements for individual artists. She was introduced to producers Fanchon and Marco, who hired her to compose a show for principal ballerina Patricia Bowman. For this, Ann invented a new genre that combined ballet with singing. She called it "ballet with songs," "ballet-sing," or "ballet-operetta." The one-hour show *The Magic of Spring* was performed in Los Angeles in March 1934, and later toured in several Midwestern cities. One of these was Omaha, where Ann also gave some solo performances that included her own and others' hit songs.

Also in 1934, Ann's work with the RKO Radio Pictures movie studio resulted in another first—the first time a film included songs with both music and lyrics written by a woman. The movie was *Down to Their Last Yacht* and Ann's songs were "Funny Little World," "South Sea Bolero," and "Beach Boy."

A momentous meeting occurred the next year when Lester Cowan went to Washington, DC to testify at a hearing as a representative of the Academy of Motion Picture Arts & Sciences (AMPAS). (In 1928, he had been instrumental in establishing the Academy Awards ceremonies, and was known as the "Father of the Oscars.") Ann happened to be in Washington at the same time, visiting her brother Sol, who was one of the attorneys representing the opposition. When they met, Lester did not know Ann and Sol were related.

The growing friendship between Ann and Lester continued after both returned to California and they were married November 6, 1935. From that day on, their careers were largely intertwined. Still, there were projects that were hers alone. For instance, prior to her marriage, Ann joined the faculty of the University of Southern California in August 1935, and lectured on "Music in Motion Pictures."

In 1937, Ann started working on Walter Wanger's movie *The River is Blue*. Not long after, noted composer Kurt Weill joined the team. Ann co-wrote lyrics for two songs. The movie went through several metamorphoses, was finally titled *Blockade*, and opened in 1938.

Ann's first attempted Broadway experience was in 1938-39 writing songs for an Otto Preminger production *The King with the Umbrella.* However, it all never materialized.

Then she went to Paris to work with Oskar Straus on his *The Chocolate Soldier.* She also visited noted musicians in England, Holland, and Belgium to present new songs for inclusion in their performances.

Ann's interest in adding lyrics to popular classical music resulted in the publication of songbooks touting two of Hollywood's biggest female singing stars. The first, published in 1939, was the *Deanna Durbin Album of Favorite Songs and Arias*. The second, published in 1940, was *In the Judy Garland Manner*.

Another of Ann's 1939 solo projects was to write the title song for Walter Lantz' cartoon movie series *Andy Panda*.

During their Hollywood years, Ann and Lester kept an apartment there, but they also owned a working ranch in Canoga Park, California, where they rode horses, relaxed and entertained friends.

Lester Cowan's first movie as an independent producer was *Ladies in Retirement,* which opened in 1941; Ann assisted composer Ernst Toch but was not listed on the credits. She was also involved with making the first complete film score recording (*Ladies in Retirement*) by a Hollywood producer.

In early 1941, Ann worked on another show meant for Broadway that combined ballet and singing—*Ship South*. She contributed music and lyrics, and this time she called the genre "ballet-sing." Unfortunately, just before completion in December, due to negative financial conditions caused by the U.S. entrance into World War II, her Broadway hopes were dashed. Over the next twenty years only a few amateur groups performed *Ship South*.

A better year for Ann's Broadway ambitions was 1942, although it began in an unusual venue. Walter Kerr and Leo Brady, then connected with The Catholic University of America, told Ann they wanted to produce a musical tied to the war efforts. The show *Count Me In* ran for a week on campus. Then it moved to Boston and finally landed on Broadway. This seems to have made Ann the first woman to have written both words and music for a Broadway musical. The war effort connection was fulfilled when a USO touring company spent several weeks in the South Pacific, performing the musical.

Ann also assisted composer Louis Gruenberg on Lester Cowan's movie production *Commandoes Strike at Dawn.* Again she was not credited on the movie, but did receive credit on two of the film's published songs.

In a different vein, Ann advocated translating traditional opera into English, an idea not popular with many diehard afficionados and performers. Convinced, however, that translation would extend opera's appeal to wider audiences, Ann pursued these projects. Probably her most successful were Friedrich Flotow's *Martha* with Vicki Baum (1940), Johann Strauss, Jr.'s *The Gypsy Baron* with George Marion, Jr. (1943), and Oskar Straus' *The Chocolate Soldier* (1943).

Ann visited the National Music Camp at Interlochen, Michigan for the first time in 1939 as a teacher. Thus began an alliance that eventually led to Ann providing scholarships and serving on its national advisory board.

In 1944, Lester, as a producer of *Tomorrow The World,* hired Ann to be the first woman music director of a feature film.

The next year, Ann, with Louis Applebaum, scored the music for producer Lester's film *The Story of G.I. Joe* (1945). This marked the first time a theme song was sung over the title credits. Both the movie's score and the song "Linda" received Oscar nominations, making Ann the first woman to earn an Academy Award nomination for a song and musical score.

Ann's "Linda" is sometimes confused with another "Linda" that was also published in 1945. The latter, written by Jack Lawrence, became more well known. The main problem was that while song music and lyrics can be copyrighted, their titles cannot. Since Ann's "Linda" preceded the Lawrence one, the duplicate title caused Ann and Lester to consider a lawsuit. However, their attorney advised against it.

In 1947, Ann began work on *Oh! Susanna*, a play whose story had been written two years earlier by Florence Ryerson and Colin Clements. Originally, it was intended for Broadway, but when that failed, Ryerson and Clements contacted Ann. The story revolved around folk songwriter Stephen Foster and his fictionalized romance. Ann planned to use twenty-five of Foster's songs and add some of her own music, intending the resultant show to be performed in high schools, colleges and community theaters. It ultimately had some success in those venues but, although later it was revised for other audiences, including television, it never worked out elsewhere.

In 1945, a movie was to be made from Kurt Weill's hit musical *One Touch of Venus.* As sometimes happens, the finished movie bore little resemblance to the original but that was not due to Ann's involvement. In fact, Ann wrote the lyrics for two of Weill's songs and fought to maintain the show's musical integrity. However, the script was rewritten to showcase non-singing actors, and the only professional singing star Dick Haymes was given his choice of songs to perform.

Ann's next important honor occurred in 1949. Her husband produced the Marx Brothers' movie *Love Happy* for which she wrote the score and songs. Later that year, *Film Music Magazine* chose it as the best film score. This was especially meaningful because at the time Ann was the only woman composing scores for Hollywood films.

In 1951, Lester Cowan produced the movie *Main Street to Broadway* and chose Ann as composer and music director. In 1953, Ann wrote the lyrics for the main theme from *Hondo* starring John Wayne. In 1955, Ann wrote the theme for a Swedish nature documentary *The Great Adventure*.

In January 1954, Walt Disney appeared on Ed Sullivan's television variety show *The Toast of the Town,* where he described the making of *Three Little Pigs.* This was followed by a short film depicting the creation of "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf?" but Ann was not shown or mentioned as being part of the process. The short film was repeated

February 16, 1955 on ABC television's *Disneyland*. Ann and Lester had not seen the original televising of the film, but when they became aware of it, they sued, claiming Ann's right to credit for her part in writing "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf?" On the original sheet music, the credits read "Words and music by Frank E. Churchill and Ann Ronell." When Disney had objected, a new printing credited Churchill as composer with "additional lyrics by Ann Ronell." When the trial ended on December 3, 1958, the judge dismissed the complaint.

As a lifelong Democrat, Ann wanted to help her favorite candidates. As a professional musician, she had a unique way of trying to do that. In 1942, she had written a campaign song for Massachusetts Governor Leverett Saltonstall.

In 1956, Democrat Adlai Stevenson ran for President. One Democratic strategy was to attack Republican Vice-Presidential candidate Richard Nixon. To that end, Ann wrote the song "Too Big a Price." Her idea was to use it at the convention opening, then change the lyrics daily to fit current happenings acting as a news "song reporter." However, a campaign song was apparently not a Democratic priority, and it was never used at the convention, although it was sung at some later Democratic political rallies.

Edward Albee's play *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* opened in 1962. Albee wanted to use the music of "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf?" in two different scenes, substituting the words "Virginia Woolf" for "the big bad." However, the rights were too expensive so instead he used the tune "Here We Go Round the Mulberry Bush," which was in the public domain. Some European productions used the "Who's Afraid of the Big Bad Wolf?" melody so Ann considered another lawsuit, but it came to naught.

Ann and Lester Cowan's last film collaboration was *Meeting at a Far Meridian (1964),* based on a book by Mitchell A. Wilson. The story detailed relationships and conflicts surrounding the Cold War between the United States and the USSR that existed after World War II. In connection with this, both Ann and Lester made several trips to Russia. In 1964, they traveled to Moscow on the Cultural Exchange program. While there, Ann presented piano recitals at the Soviet Composers Union and the American Embassy.

In 1964, Ann supported Democratic candidate Lyndon Johnson for President. Republican Barry Goldwater was the opposition. Again Ann felt a campaign song was needed. This time she wrote "Backward Ho! With Barry," a sentiment espoused by many Democrats. Still, it remained mostly unsung. Ann also wrote a campaign song for Robert Kennedy's Senate campaign, but it, too, received little attention.

In their later years, Ann and Lester lived in New York City. Ann served on the boards of the National Academy of Popular Music, the American Guild of Authors and Composers, the Dramatists Guild, and the American Society of Composers, Authors and Publishers (ASCAP). She wrote Jewish liturgical music and started a recording project of remembrances of the great songwriters of her era.

In 1991, Ann received a Song Citation at an awards dinner of the Songwriter's Hall of Fame for her 1932 classic "Willow Weep for Me," which placed her among the revered American composers in history.

Posthumous recognition came in 1999 when she was one of four songwriters featured in the Public Broadcasting System special *Yours for a Song: The Women of Tin Pan Alley* as part of its American Masters series. The others featured in the special were Dorothy Fields, Dana Suesse, and Kay Swift. Shortly afterward, an entry on Ronell appeared in the prestigious *American National Biography*, Sup 1 (Oxford University Press, 2002) 525-526.

The most comprehensive source available about Ronell's life and career is the book-length treatment by Tighe E. Zimmers titled *Tin Pan Alley Girl: A Biography of Ann Ronell* (McFarland, 2009), which also offers in its Appendix a lengthy listing of her songs, film credits, and other accomplishments. A helpful article titled "Ann Ronell" was privately published by music authority Ben Sears of Oakton Productions in Boston.

Informative also are articles published in the November 28, 1948 Omaha *Sunday World-Herald Magazine*, the January 3, 1955 *Christian Science Monitor*, and *Nebraska Life*, Vol 1, No 4 (Fall 1997). Brief entries appear in several references, notably *The New Grove Dictionary of Music and Musicians*, 2nd ed, Vol 21 (Macmillan Ltd, 2001) 656-657.

Ann Ronell Collections are housed at the New York Public Library for the Performing Arts in New York City and the Nebraska Jewish Historical Society in Omaha, with the latter including 25 boxes of papers and memorabilia contributed by author Tighe Zimmers.

Ronell's husband Lester Cowan died October 21, 1990 of a heart attack at the age of 83. They had been married almost 55 years. After a fall in 1991, Ann was wheelchair-bound, but kept on writing and doing charitable work. She died on December 25, 1993. Obituaries appeared in the December 29 *New York Times*, the December 30 *Los Angeles Times*, and the January 5, 1994 issue of *Variety*.

For more information, consult "900 Famous Nebraskans" on the Internet at WWW.NSEA.ORG or WWW.GAGECOUNTYMUSEUIM.ORG or WWW.NEBPRESS.COM.

Roland Schaffert: Physicist credited with developing first practical dry-process photocopy machine

The first successful experiment using electrophotography was conducted in 1938 by Chester F. Carlson, considered the "father" of the process that led to the modern copy machine.

But it was the former Hayes County, Nebraska resident Roland M. Schaffert who formed the research team that pioneered development of the world's first practical, dry-process photocopy machine, an event that gave birth to the photocopier industry.

For several centuries, the printing press could duplicate many copies, of course, though it required specially prepared originals. And the cost of hiring publishers or printers was not affordable for making only a handful of copies.

Available in the 1940s were copying equipment and processes that offered a few copies for the consumer, but they required moist paper or chemicals, involved cost and time factors, and reproduced with variable quality.

In 1944, to find someone who could envision usefulness in his idea for a copier and help in its development, Carlson met with officials at Battelle Memorial Institute, a research organization at Columbus Ohio.

As supervisor of Battelle's graphic arts department, Roland Schaffert was among the small group that evaluated the idea. Upon his recommendation, work conducted by his research team culminated in the first public demonstration of the dry-copy process on October 22, 1948. It produced a clear copy in 60 seconds, and was termed xerography.

From 1944 to 1948, researchers at Battelle developed some of the most important basic technological advances, and Schaffert summarized them as lead author of a paper published in the *Journal of the Optical Society of America* in December 1948.

According to a dictionary definition, "xerography is the formation of pictures or copies of graphic matter by the action of light on an electrically charged photoconductive insulating surface in which the latent image usually is developed with powders." It is also a positive-to-positive process, something not normally seen in photographic processing.

One of the discoveries by Schaffert and his team was that, by use of the attractive forces of electric charges, the image to be copied is transferred to a plate without direct contact. Another was that by careful selection of materials, it was possible to produce developers in which fine powder (toner) was charged by contact with larger (carrier)

granules that could be tumbled over a xerographic plate or drum to deposit the toner on the electrostatic image and leave a clean background.

Still another key discovery was that selenium, a non-metallic element having electrical resistance that varies with the influence of light, was the most effective and most light-sensitive photoconductor, provided one used it in dim light.

Of course, subsequent refinements were made over a period of years before the Schaffert-led discoveries became the fundamentals of successful commercial equipment.

By agreement with Battelle, the Haloid Company of Rochester, New York, later renamed the Xerox Corporation, had obtained commercial rights in 1947 to develop the copy machine.

In 1950, the Xerox Model A Copier was introduced. Because of its bulk, it was leased rather than sold to large companies, and it offered the advantages of saving time, money and materials in the offset printing field. In 1959, the Xerox 914, the first marketable copying machine for office use, was introduced.

By 1965, an estimated 500,000 business offices in the United States had dry-process copiers, and they duplicated some 10 billion copies annually. At the turn of the 21st century, with more improvements in copy machine technology, some dry process copiers can duplicate 60 copies in one minute.

Meanwhile, Schaffert relocated from Battelle and its affiliation with Haloid-Xerox Corporation to work with International Business Machines in San Jose, California until his retirement in 1970.

When his book *Electrophotography* was published in 1965 by Halsted Press, a division of John Wiley & Sons, he was known as the authority in the field. And his book, which was revised in 1975, was considered the "bible" by his peers worldwide. By invitation, he presented a paper at the International Congress of Photographic Science at Moscow, Soviet Union.

He was holder of almost 20 patents, according to the *U.S. Index of Patents,* including the electrostatic transfer of a toner image. And he was also co-inventor of xeroradiography in 1954, a system used to produce mammograms in many U.S. hospitals.

Publications that reported on Schaffert's contributions include *Fortune Magazine,* June 1949, and the book by John Dessauer titled *My Years With Xerox* (Doubleday, 1971).

Other sources include *American Men & Women of Science,* Vol 5 (1976) and a memoriam by research colleague William E. Bixby in the *Journal of Imaging Science and Technology,* Vol 36 (March/April 1992).

Among his many awards for his scientific achievements was an honorary doctor of science degree from Doane College in 1978. And the Royal Society of Science in London, England presented him an award in 1983 in recognition of his lifelong contributions to applied science.

Born in 1905 at Minden, Iowa, the oldest boy of 14 children of Michael and Elizabeth Miller Schaffert, Roland moved at a young age to a farm near the village of White in Hayes County, Nebraska.

After attending rural school through the 8th grade, he helped his father on the farm for nearly five years, then moved to Hayes Center, graduating in three years with straight A's from Hayes County High School in 1926.

While attending high school, he supported himself by working at a local restaurant, and was on the staff of the *Hayes Center Times-Republican,* reported the May 27, 1926 issue, learning from tasks with advertisements, composition, linotype and press work, and becoming shop foreman. He saved money to enter college, with plans to specialize in journalism.

Schaffert attended Doane College, and worked in a print shop at night, likely *The Crete News.* He found time to participate in orchestra and pep band, and was on the college newspaper staff in the spring semesters of his freshman and sophomore years.

During his senior year, he was business manager for the Doane Players drama group, which at the time included Spangler Arlington Brugh, later the famous Hollywood movie star Robert Taylor. He earned his bachelor's degree in physics in 1930.

With the help of a scholarship offer, he then attended the University of Cincinnati, where he received his master's degree in 1931 and his doctorate in physics in 1933. The following two years Schaffert taught at Duquesne University in Pittsburgh.

His printing background helped him gain a position as research physicist for Mergenthaler Linotype Company in New York from 1936 to 1941, then he began employment with Battelle at Columbus, Ohio.

Roland M. Schaffert married Isabelle Krehbiel, and the couple raised two daughters. According to an obituary in the August 22, 1991 Curtis, Nebraska *Hi-Line Enterprise and Eustis News*, he died at Santa Cruz, California on July 26th of that year, with interment at the Curtis Cemetery. He was survived by his wife, daughters, five grandchildren, one great-grandchild, and several siblings.

Rae Wilson Sleight: Originator of renowned North Platte Canteen that served over six million military personnel

One of the most outstanding volunteer efforts in history was the canteen for servicemen and women at the Union Pacific railroad station in North Platte, Nebraska during World War II and seven months afterwards. From December 25, 1941 to April 1, 1946, more than six million--both enlisted and officers--were provided food, magazines, recreation, and a boost in morale on their way to the combat zone or home at war's end.

The impact of the l0-minute canteen stops has endured for decades, and its contribution to their morale has been documented by their letters of gratitude as well as national publicity and recognition.

Perhaps the most eloquent and insightful testimony to the canteen's value was a letter from a wounded serviceman who visited on a hospital train in September 1945. Excerpts from his letter published in the April 3, 1946 *North Platte Telegraph* follow.

"Upon stopping at North Platte, we were invaded by a swarm of angels--beautiful girls and charming women, all with a smile and cheery word--and food and drinks and candy bars and all the other things we needed. I guess you thought we were pretty hard or stupid--but it wasn't that. We were dumfounded.

To think that you people, to whom we all were strangers, would do all you did for us. I can tell you there weren't many dry eyes in those cars when we left, and do you know why? Because you people, such a small part of our country, had really brought home back to us. You showed us that this was the real America; this was what we had fought and worked for and wanted to come back to....

We know you call us 'your boys' but I wonder if you realize whom we saw in you? We saw our mothers, our wives, our sisters and daughters and sweethearts--but above all this, we saw--America."

National recognition of the canteen's contribution while in progress was the U.S. War Department' s Meritorious Wartime Service Award presented during a nationwide NBC radio network broadcast on December 19, 1943. And in August 1945 the Army Signal Corps included the canteen story in a documentary about Nebraska for viewing overseas.

Its enduring effects were recognized three decades later when Charles Kuralt's CBS television program *Who's Who* on January 25, 1977 featured the canteen. It generated more than 300 letters sent by former servicemen to North Platte residents.

Testimony in a Pennsylvanian's letter stated, in part: "I am 60 years old, but I can still remember as if it was yesterday--the whistle of the train, a half of a lifetime ago, we found a group of kind and generous people waiting for us....Your little group became a legend in the Pacific. I heard all about 'the happy stop in North Platte' on camps in Hawaii, Okinawa, Korea, and Japan."

In 1986, it became the subject of railroad historian James J. Reisdorff's booklet *North Platte Canteen,* which was reprinted several times afterwards.

And six decades later in 2002 came nationally-known journalist Bob Greene's book *Once Upon A Town: The Miracle of the North Platte Canteen.* In 2004, the Nebraska Educational Television Network produced the one-hour documentary *The Canteen Spirit* shown on PBS. And the same year, the U.S. House of Representatives on September 22 and the U.S. Senate on September 27 approved a resolution recognizing the canteen for its contributions during World War II. Tom Osborne, U.S. Congressman from Nebraska and the resolution sponsor,

presented on October 25 the official proclamation in North Platte.

The origins of the canteen clearly illustrate the appropriateness of 20th century Canadian historian Donald Creighton's observation that "history is the record of an encounter between character and circumstance."

After the December 7, 1941 attack on Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, and the decision days later to confront Nazi Germany, which had engaged in armed aggression in Europe after 1938, the American people felt at great risk. Strong patriotism emerged immediately.

With the 1940 population of just over 132 million, America was to contribute 16 million armed forces personnel before war's end. Of that number, some 1.2 million died, were missing, or wounded.

On the homefront, trains were the major mode of transportation for equipment and troops. Civilians, including women, held jobs in various war industries. Everyone was subject to rationing of such items as tires, gasoline, meat, sugar, butter, and articles of clothing in order to provide adequate supplies for the military overseas.

In 1940, the population of North Platte was only 12,429. But it was located along the first western transcontinental railroad line, and was an important Union Pacific terminal for servicing steam locomotives and more. And its brick passenger station, built in 1918, had a large public lunchroom which, after being closed by 1940, had vacant space when World War II occurred.

Rae Wilson, a North Platte native and 25-year-old local pharmacy clerk, knew the passenger station was the site of an American Red Cross canteen during World War I.

Shortly after the Pearl Harbor attack, a rumor circulated that Company D of the Nebraska National Guard, whose commander was Rae's brother Denver Wilson, was scheduled to pass through the city on a troop train.

On December 17, 1941, some 500 residents with treats gathered at the train depot. Though the troops turned out to be from the Kansas National Guard instead, Rae was the first to present gifts to them, followed by everyone else. While returning home from the event with her mother, Rae learned that at the World War I canteen local women all folded bandages, so she formed the idea of giving food to soldiers.

The next day, Rae reported in her letter published in the *North Platte Daily Bulletin* that appreciation showed on the faces of 300 Kansas guardsmen the night before, and that "an officer told me it was the first time anyone had met their train and that North Platte had helped the boys keep up their spirits." And she urged support of "our sons and other mothers' sons 100 percent. Let's do something and do it in a hurry! We can help this way when we can't help any other way."

At a public meeting held four days later, Wilson was named chairperson of the group, with an executive committee formed to help create a permanent organization for the duration of the war. The first day of canteen operation was December 25th. Originally, workers prepared food at the nearby Cody Hotel and stored it in a maintenance shed near the railroad station.

Rae contacted North Platte native William M. Jeffers, who served as Union Pacific president from 1937 to 1946, and he consented to the use of the vacant lunchroom area in the passenger station--which by January 1, 1942 served military personnel after each troop train arrival. Jeffers later gained national recognition for his role as director of U.S. rubber production, and was featured on the cover of *Time,* July 30, 1945.

According to author Reisdorff, the Union Pacific provided the canteen with kitchen utensils, and its employees, including Rae's father, helped with custodial work.

During the early days of secrecy about troop movements, advance notice of train arrival was given by Union Pacific

agents to canteen leaders who would then telephone other volunteers to appear at the depot by saying, "The coffee pot's on!" Conductors on troop trains would also notify servicemen about the North Platte 10-minute stop when they were miles away.

The canteen leaders requested donations of money, magazines, food items, and sometimes even blankets and razors. "It didn't matter what we'd ask for. People brought it in," recalled Wilson in a 1985 interview. "It started to build up, word got around and it just kept running and running." A local department store even donated slacks to each of the 15-20 volunteers who worked fulltime at the depot, "something that was pretty new for women to be wearing" at the time.

After March 1942, Rae Wilson became ill from the stress and responsibility of leading volunteers fulltime, and in a few weeks relocated for health reasons to Los Angeles, California. Her replacement as general chairperson for the duration of the canteen was Helen Martin Christ, whose husband Adam was a Union Pacific conductor.

For 51 months, the canteen operated in all weather conditions, and was never closed for one day during its existence. *Every day* from early morning until the last troop train at night, volunteer workers served a daily average of 3,000 to 5,000 military personnel. Toward the end of the war, almost 10,000 were served on some days, and more than 20 troop trains in one day.

Among the volunteer workers were farmers, ranchers, businessmen and housewives who took time from their own work to devote a monthly day-long session, making sandwiches, serving food, or doing what was necessary. Except for fruit and small bottles of milk and candy bars, all food was homemade. Up to 20 cakes were given each day to servicemen who stopped on their birthday.

Girls age 16 or older worked on the station platform during train time, and greeted servicemen on their way inside. They also distributed baskets of fruit, candies, and other items to those not wanting or unable to go inside. And they provided responses to questions about the canteen and Nebraska.

By Christmas of 1943, more than 55 towns had monthly work-dates, with Ogallala the first outside the city of North Platte to send volunteers, and many traveled by car or train provided by the Union Pacific from towns as much as 200 miles away. By war's end, almost 125 communities in the western half of Nebraska, the northeastern portion of Colorado, and the northwestern area of Kansas contributed a total of 55,000 volunteers at one time or another during the 51 months.

Canteen officers, assisted by an executive committee, met on a regular basis and operated in a business-like manner. Expenses were audited monthly. In 1943, monthly costs amounted to $1,000, but by July 1945 it was $5,000. Voluntary cash donations during its entire existence were about $137,000 (an amount estimated to be equal to $1.3 million in the year 2000). The value of donated food items equaled or exceeded the cash donations.

"Canteen workers were proud to note that not one cent in funding came from any city, state, or federal government source," reported author Reisdorff.

Pride was evident, too, by the existence of a 15-minute program from the canteen broadcast over local radio station KODY at 11 am from Monday to Saturday, beginning in February 1944 and ending in September 1945. Daisy Hinman, one of the canteen officers, published an article about its activities in the April-June 1944 issue of *Nebraska History.*

Rae Wilson returned from California for a visit in September 1945 and was present with Helen Christ for the official canteen closing on April 1, 1946. On August 14 of that same year, the city of North Platte held a canteen reunion for workers from the surrounding area--an estimated 20,000 attended. And both North Platte newspapers also published photos, history, and a list of some 125 towns that sent volunteers during canteen operations.

Rae married Frank H. Sleight, who spent most of his four years of war service in the European Theater of Operations. They lived in North Platte, where she raised her son Gary and her husband was employed with the Nebraska Game Commission. In 1955 they moved to Lincoln, then in 1964 to Ulysses in Butler County, where she and her husband operated the Little Diner Cafe for several years. She also contributed news items to the David City newspaper. Her husband died in 1970, and Rae returned to live in North Platte after 1982.

Meanwhile, Helen Christ died of cancer in 1956 after being ill for four years. Born in 1899 at Madrid, Perkins County, she was one of seven children of Louis and Marie Baccus Martin. After 1918, she and her husband lived in North Platte, and they raised a son and daughter. According to an obituary in the October 25, 1956 *North Platte Telegraph*, Helen was a member of the Catholic Church, other organizations, and was credited as canteen president during World War II. She was survived by her husband, two children, eight grandchildren, and six siblings. Interment was at North Platte Cemetery.

Rae Sleight, while living in Ulysses, was recognized as canteen founder in a series of reunions held in North Platte in the summer of 1967 as part of Nebraska's statehood centennial. May 28th of that year was designated as Rae Wilson Sleight Day, and she was subject of a lengthy *Telegraph* feature a day later. Years later, after Rae had returned to live in her hometown, she was honored by the City of North Platte with the Cody Scout Award on June 1, 1985.

Born in 1916 at North Platte, one of three children of George and Blanche Welliver Wilson, Rae graduated from North Platte High School in 1933, and was a member of the Messiah Lutheran Church. After her death on August 5, 1986 at age 70, interment was at North Platte Cemetery. She was survived by her son and two grandchildren.

A tribute to Rae was offered in an August 7, 1986 *Telegraph* editorial which concluded: "The reality of the seemingly impossible and idealistic concept that one woman was daring enough to propose and the commitment that hundreds of other canteen workers were willing to make, was--and still remains--something rare, indeed."

The legacy of the canteen, its originator and the volunteers from almost 125 communities has been kept alive locally through occasional reunions. And after the Union Pacific ended its passenger train service in 1971 and demolished the depot two years later, the company built a public mini-park with a historical marker at the canteen site.

Moreover, the Lincoln County Historical Museum, constructed in 1973, has housed photographs, various artifacts, and thousands of letters related to the canteen.

And a bronze statue of the Canteen Lady, which offers a tribute to the volunteers from 125 communities that kept the Canteen in operation from December 25, 1941 to April 1, 1946, and which resembles Rae Wilson Sleight, was dedicated at the 20th Century Veterans Memorial in North Platte on September 27, 2009. For more details about the event, see September 23, 2009 *McCook Daily Gazette* and the September 30, 2009 *North Platte Telegraph.*

Major published sources include the North Platte newspapers of August 14, 1946 and James J. Reisdorff, *North Platte Canteen* (South Platte Press, 1986) and Bob Greene, *Once Upon A Town: The Miracle of the North Platte Canteen* (William Morrow, 2002).

Also helpful are the NETV-produced documentary *The Canteen Spirit* shown on PBS in 2004 and Congressman Tom Osborne's report in the September 29, 2004 *Crete News.* Communities that contributed to the canteen are listed in the chart below.

Community Contributors to North Platte Canteen 1941 to 1946

(Taken from August 14, 1946 North Platte Daily Bulletin)

Amherst, Colo.	Arnold	Berwyn	Brady
Anselmo	Arthur	Bignell	Brandon
Ansley	Atkinson	Big Springs	Bridgeport
Arcadia	Bayard	Birdwood	Broadwater

Broken Bow
Brownlee
Brule
Bucktail
Buffalo Grove
Burwell
Bushnell
Callaway
Champion
Chappell
Comstock
Cozad
Curtis
Dalton
Dickens
Dix
Dry Valley
Eddyville
Elm Creek
Elsie
Elwood
Elyria
Eustis
Farnam
Flats
Franklin
Gandy
Gering
Gibbon
Gothenburg
Grainton
Grand Island
Grant
Gurley
Haxtun, Colo.
Hayes Center
Hershey
Holbrook
Holdrege
Holyoke, Colo.
Imperial
Ingham
Johnstown
Julesburg, Colo.
Kearney
Keystone
Kimball
Lamar
Lemoyne
Lewellen
Lexington
Lillian
Lisco
Lodgepole
Lyman
Madrid
Mason City
Maxwell
Maywood
Merna
McGrew
Mitchell
Moorefield
Morrill
Newman Grove
Nichols
North Loup
North Platte
Northport
Oconto
O'Fallons
Ogallala
O'Neill
Ord
Orleans
Oshkosh
Overton
Ovid, Colo.
Paxton
Potter
Red Cloud
Ringgold
Roscoe
Sarben
Sargent
Scottsbluff
Sedgwick, Colo.
Shelton
Sidney
Stapleton
Stockville
Sumner
Sunol
Sutherland
Tallin Table
Taylor
Thedford
Thune
Trumball
Tryon
Valentine
Venango
Wallace
Wauneta
Weissert
Wellfleet
Westerville
Willow Island

Reuben A. Snake, Jr.: Native American Civil Rights Leader

Reuben A. Snake, Jr. was a deeply spiritual man devoted to helping indigenous people worldwide. He was born January 12, 1937 at Winnebago, Nebraska, the youngest child of Reuben Harold and Virginia Greyhair Snake.

Reuben's parents divorced when he was four. His mother remarried a year later and the family moved to Sioux City, Iowa. Soon after, his stepfather was drafted into the army, his mother had to work, his siblings were placed in mission schools, and Reuben was sent to live with his father in Black River Falls, Wisconsin. Due to his father's excessive drinking, Reuben was often shuffled from place to place to live with other relatives.

After a year, Reuben's mother retrieved the children and enrolled them in an Indian mission boarding school at Neillsville, Wisconsin. The school stressed assimilation, did not teach Indian culture, and presented history from a white man's viewpoint. As Reuben recalled, "I used to contemplate about how we were taught in American History that George Washington was the father of our country. . . . I couldn't fathom how this White guy with his big nose and his powdered wig could be my father."

More moves ensued as his mother changed jobs. In 1945, Reuben's stepfather returned from the war and the family went to live on the Winnebago Reservation in Nebraska. However, unable to find work, the parents placed the children in the Reformed Church Mission Home on the Reservation and moved to Hastings, Minnesota. When their situation improved, the children rejoined them.

In 1950, at age thirteen, Reuben entered the Haskell Institute in Lawrence, Kansas. In this Indian boarding school, he met people from diverse tribes and participated in athletics. Those were the positive aspects. Reuben described the negatives: "I was thirteen years old the first time I tried alcohol. By the time I left Haskell, the drinking that I had been drawn to . . . though only on an occasional basis, was beginning to affect my life."

When his drinking led to repeated problems at Haskell, he returned to Minnesota. He dropped out of school at sixteen. At seventeen he lied about his age and joined the Army. He was sent to Fort Bragg, North Carolina, completed training as a Special Forces Operative, and was assigned to a tour of duty in Berlin, Germany. In February 1958, he received an honorable discharge.

Reuben went to live with his mother and brother in Waterloo, Iowa but couldn't find work, so he moved to the Winnebago Reservation in Nebraska. This, too, didn't last long. He continued drifting from place to place and job to job as his drinking escalated.

In 1960, his sister, who had married, invited him to her home in Cleveland, Ohio. While there, Reuben met Kathy McKee, who was originally from the Winnebago Reservation in Nebraska. Married at eighteen, she had a daughter but had left her abusive alcoholic husband and was staying with relatives. That summer she returned to Nebraska. Then Reuben's sister became ill and she, too, returned to the Winnebago Reservation to recuperate.

Reuben, his brother-in-law, and some male cousins remained in Cleveland. Soon the men were drinking and carousing more than they were working. They lost their housing and lived on the streets. Another episode of drifting from state to state, literally and figuratively, followed. Reuben Snake appeared to be no one going nowhere. Then, when things seemed bleakest, he sobered enough to visit his mother in Winnebago. While there, he asked about Kathy McKee. As if fate had intervened, it turned out that Kathy lived across the street.

Love may not conquer all, but it can change behavior. Reuben began to feel a sense of responsibility. He was twenty-three years old when he married Kathy. For a while they lived with relatives in Winnebago, but moved to Omaha seeking better jobs. Working in a store fixture manufacturing plant, Reuben set many production standards. He also enrolled at the University of Omaha and started night courses in mechanical engineering. His family grew to include four daughters and two sons. Unfortunately, two important problems still existed: occasional drinking to excess and ignoring much of his spiritual upbringing. He finally quit drinking in 1965. His spiritual journey took longer.

When his third daughter had multiple medical problems, Reuben quit school and took a second job to pay the bills. In 1966, he was hired by the Greater Omaha Community Action Council. He also met Eugene Crawford, a Sioux Indian from South Dakota, who suggested organizing an Indian center in Omaha.

In 1967, when the Department of Economic Opportunity set up work and Head Start programs on the Winnebago reservation, Reuben moved back. Eventually his duties expanded to include programs in five counties. He was elected president of the All Nations Club, a cultural organization that made presentations around the eastern part of the state. He also took courses in business administration, child psychology, and early childhood development.

Reuben's prominence as an activist leader emerged in late 1969 with an incident at Walthill, Nebraska. Walthill was a small white community whose economic survival depended largely on the surrounding Indian reservations. A young white woman was raped by some Indian men from the Omaha Reservation who had been drinking. Walthill citizens reacted by circulating a petition condemning all Indians. As a way to address this injustice, area Indians organized a boycott of Walthill businesses and alerted the media. A few weeks later, Walthill's mayor apologized publicly for circulating the petition.

For many years Reuben and Kathy were involved with Mormonism. Reuben had attended Mormon mission schools as a child. As an adult, he led youth activities for the all-Indian branch of the church. However, as time passed, this faith didn't fully satisfy his spiritual needs as an Indian.

Slowly, during the early 1970s, he began to renew his ties with the Native American Church. Partly this was due to dealing with his brother's fatal illness. Partly it was due to his oldest daughter. One day she asked him why a teacher had remarked that "Indians have weird beliefs."

As a baby, Reuben had been given a Snake Clan name, Kikawa Unga (to rise up), in a Native American Church ceremony that carries the religious significance of baptism in other faiths. His children, too, had been named in the Native American Church, but now he realized they needed to strengthen their spiritual and cultural heritage.

Reuben has explained that "In the Native American Church, we pray to God in Jesus' name and we emphasize the life of Christ as a model. . . . [There is no] great conflict between Christianity and traditional Native American religions. . . . We are taught that the Native American Church way of life is family-oriented."

In 1970, the Army Corps of Engineers tried to condemn land in Iowa adjacent to the Missouri River just across from the Winnebago Reservation so a water recreation complex could be built. This land was protected by an 1865 treaty. Reuben led the protests by forming the "Winnebago Navy." No Winnebago Indian owned a boat, so they borrowed a fourteen-foot runabout and a twelve-foot aluminum rowboat from friends. They then "sailed" their Navy's two-boat fleet across the Missouri in defense of the "invasion." Two federal lawsuits later, the Winnebago tribe won the right to the land which, today, is home to the Winnebago tribal casino.

In the spring of 1970, Reuben moved his family to Rapid City, South Dakota to work in the community action agency. That fall the national American Indian Movement (AIM) held its first conference, and Reuben was elected vice-chairman.

Two major events occurred that year. Reuben was involved with the first Indian occupation of Mount Rushmore in 1970 in order to publicize the fact that the Oglala Sioux had never been paid for their sacred land. He also organized an event to honor the living survivors of the 1890 massacre at Wounded Knee, South Dakota.

In 1971, he returned to the Winnebago Reservation to oversee education programs for the Nebraska Indian Inter-Tribal Development Corporation. It became the first Indian organization in the country that controlled the federal funds earmarked for Indian education.

Reuben's mother died that year. In August, Reuben moved his family to Albuquerque, New Mexico to head the Indian Education Training program. His main responsibility was to travel and train Indian organizations across the country.

In the summer of 1972, Reuben was appointed national chairman of AIM. During his tenure several major demonstrations took place publicizing Indian issues and rights. One of these concerned the protection of Chippewa fishing rights in Minnesota that had been guaranteed by treaty.

Another time, the Minneapolis Naval Air Station was scheduled for closure and was to be declared excess federal property. Legally, Indian tribes had the right of acquisition. AIM applied but was rejected, so about 150 Indians entered, occupied the Station, and declared it to be AIM Headquarters. The occupation lasted several days in an effort to draw attention to Indian rights.

Yet another demonstration occurred when Raymond Yellowthunder, an Oglala Sioux, was beaten, stripped naked and abandoned in the American Legion Hall by drunken white men in Gordon, Nebraska. Subsequently, he died from the abuse. Following a national meeting of AIM, a large contingent of Indians drove to Gordon, occupied the American Legion Hall and much of the town. This drew national attention and eventually the perpetrators of the crime were convicted of third-degree manslaughter.

In the summer of 1972, Reuben attended a meeting where a walk called the "Trail of Broken Treaties" was planned to coincide with the national elections. Reuben chaired the national meeting in Minneapolis. A twenty-point position paper was prepared. A family emergency prevented him from joining the demonstration in Washington, DC but the Indians who went delivered their paper.

In 1974, Reuben moved to Sioux City, Iowa to implement an educational program he designed for the Sioux City American Indian Center. One of the men he hired was a Roadman in the Native American Church--a spiritual leader who presides over sacred meetings. Together they instituted Native American Church services and prayer meetings. In the fall of 1974, a Snake Clan elder entrusted Reuben with "the care and keeping" of Native American Church sacred instruments and he, too, was ordained as a Roadman.

In the fall of 1977, Reuben was elected chairman of the Winnebago tribe. At the time the tribe was poor and largely dependent on government grants and contracts. Reuben met with LaDonna Harris of Oklahoma, founder of Americans for Indian Opportunity. She recommended a review of federal guidelines that governed most of the

Winnebago programs. With her help, the tribe was able to combine programs, create a centralized administration, improve funding and accountability. Reuben also obtained grants from private organizations. Programs were instituted for revolving credit, land acquisition, health, alcoholism treatment, and Winnebago culture.

In the early 1970s, Reuben was part of the group that planned the Nebraska Indian Community College. Initially it was a state-run school, but by the end of the decade it was accredited, and entirely controlled by Nebraska's three tribes: Omaha, Santee, and Winnebago.

When the Nebraska Public Power District wanted to condemn land in order to build a line across the reservation, the Winnebago tribe sued because tribal approval was needed for such an action. A settlement was negotiated, and the money allotted was used to develop small businesses.

Reuben attended the first organizational meeting of the National Tribal Chairman's Association (NTCA). During the 1970s, he served on the education committees of the National Congress of American Indians (NCAI) and the NTCA. He became NCAI's president in September 1985.

In the fall of 1980, he was one of fifteen Indians selected by the U.S. State Department and the U.S. Department of the Interior to serve as a delegate to the Eighth Congress of the Inter-American Indian Institute, Merida, Mexico. This was the first time Indians were included. Internationally, more than a hundred Indians represented tribes throughout Central and South America.

In 1982, he spoke on the health needs of Indian people at the World Assembly of First Nations in Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada.

Also during the 1980s, he traveled extensively throughout the country as a Roadman for the Native American Church. He served on the boards of directors of national and international organizations, including the First Nations Development Institute, the Seventh Generation Fund, the American Indian Law Resource Center, the Native Lands Institute, and the Americans for Indian Opportunity.

In May 1985, he went to Bogota, Colombia to observe negotiations between the Nicaraguan Indians and the Sandinistas.

The 1985 Ninth Congress of the Inter-American Indian Institute in Santa Fe was significant because one of the major issues concerned the importation of peyote from Mexico. Peyote is a button-shaped cactus, considered legally to be an hallucinogen and, therefore, a controlled substance. However, as used in the Native American Church, it is considered to be "divine medicine" and is an integral part of sacred rituals. Its use has been compared to the use of sacramental wine in other religious ceremonies. For centuries, Indians from many countries have used and regarded as sacred similar types of plants, so this was an international issue. At the Santa Fe meeting, a resolution was adopted, calling for an international conference to address this issue. Later, U.S. Senator Daniel Inouye from Hawaii championed the cause and relied heavily on Reuben's advice as the issue made its way through judicial battles and Senate hearings.

In the summer of 1986, Reuben and his son went to Bad Segeberg, Germany to participate in a pageant based on the writings of Karl May, who had never been to the United States but was fascinated by American Indians. May communicated these feelings effectively to his fellow Germans. For the event, the Germans constructed a building called the Nebraska House, where they sold genuine Indian arts and crafts. Reuben's involvement bolstered international friendship and tourism. For this he was honored by the State of Nebraska.

In October 1986, Reuben suffered a major heart attack, followed two weeks later by cardiac arrest and heart surgery.

In 1989, Reuben was invited to attend the "Earth Walk" near Sydney, Australia. Indigenous people from different places in the world addressed environmental issues. Reuben opened the conference by conducting a pipe ceremony.

In 1990, the United States Supreme Court ruled that the sacred use of peyote was not protected by the Constitution. Reuben became the official spokesperson of the Native American Church to educate the public about church philosophy and history. He organized the Native American Religious Freedom Project to lobby for national legislation that would amend and strengthen the American Indian Religious Freedom Act. Unfortunately, his health worsened steadily and he did not live to see the results of his hard work. He died on June 28, 1993.

On October 6, 1994, President Clinton signed into law the American Indian Religious Freedom Act Amendments that protected the religious use of peyote by Indians.

Reuben A. Snake, Jr. was an innovator who practiced what he preached. He overcame early hardships and addictions to become an honored leader. In the November 28, 1999 *Omaha Sunday World-Herald* supplement "Celebrating A Century: 100 Extraordinary People of Nebraska," he was one of only three Native Americans included.

His awards included the Nebraska Indian Commission Citizenship Award, the Distinguished Nebraskan Award, and the U.S. Secretary of the Interior's Certificate of Recognition.

He described himself as a "militant teddy bear" or "Your Humble Serpent." In explaining his activism he said, "Everything we did was geared to establishing the civil and human rights of Indian people within this country. We didn't do something just to show off or just to agitate people. Everything we did had a purpose."

All quotes are from *Reuben Snake: Your Humble Serpent* as told to Jay C. Fikes (Clear Light Publishers, 1996). For insight into the use of sacred peyote in the Native American Church, read *One Nation Under God: The Triumph of the Native American Church,* compiled and edited by Huston Smith and Reuben Snake (Clear Light Publishers, 1996).

Helpful profiles can be found in the May 25, 1968 and December 20, 1986 *Omaha World-Herald* and *Notable Native Americans* (Gale, 1995) 405-407.

Lillian St. Cyr (Princess Red Wing) and James Young Deer: First Native American Silent Movie "Power Couple"

Actress Lillian St. Cyr, known as Princess Red Wing, and her actor/director/writer husband, James Young Deer, were the first Native American Hollywood "power couple." Silent movies, particularly Westerns, were their milieu.

Lillian St. Cyr--not to be misidentified with the exotic dancer who used the name Lili St. Cyr during the 1940s-1950s--was born February 13, 1883 on Nebraska's Winnebago Reservation. Lillian's father, Michael St. Cyr, who was white, reportedly belonged to an old wealthy family. Her mother, Julia Decora, was a Winnebago Indian. Lillian had four siblings--Julia, David, Levi, and Louis.

When Lillian was four years old, her mother died. Family circumstances at that time are unknown. Records are scant and contradictory. Andrew Brodie Smith, in his book *Shooting Cowboys and Indians*, reports that Lillian "grew up on the Omaha Winnebago reservation in the home of her older brother, David St. Cyr, living with his wife and their seven children." However, several other sources state that she was sent to live with a family in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where she entered kindergarten. If so, the Philadelphia family either had some connection with U.S. Senator Chester I. Long from Kansas, or Lillian actually lived with the Long family for a while.

At some point Lillian was enrolled in the Carlisle Indian Industrial School at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. She graduated from the school in 1902.

A report in *The Red Man and Helper,* September 26, 1902, stated that "Miss Lillie St. Cyr, class '02, who is at her home in Nebraska, is expecting to return East this Fall, to take a post-graduate course somewhere."

Another account appeared in *The Red Man and Helper,* January 2, 1903: "Lilian [sic] St. Cyr, . . . is in Kansas, with Ella Romero who is ill. Lillian has remainded [sic] out of school this winter on account of her own health. She says

she is enjoying her freedom from school duties, but has not given up the idea of taking a higher course. She reads considerably, takes music lessons, and has recently united with the Church."

After graduation, Lillian lived with the family of U.S. Senator Long in Washington, DC. On April 9, 1906 she married James Young Deer, a.k.a. J. Younger Johnston. According to Andrew Brodie Smith, "Young Deer was born in Dakota City, Nebraska, just north of the Omaha Winnebago reservation." No birth date is given. Smith says that Young Deer began his entertainment career in the 1890s with the Barnum and Bailey Circus and continued with the Miller Brothers' 101 Ranch Wild West Show.

The marriage of Red Wing [Lillian] and Young Deer was both a personal and professional collaboration. Exactly how and why they arrived in New York and became involved with the film industry is uncertain, but Red Wing was twenty-four in 1908 when she appeared in her first film, *The White Squaw.* Young Deer began acting and directing in 1909, completing several one-reeler Westerns that year.

During the early silent movie era, Indians were generally portrayed in a positive way. Directors often sought out real Indians to act as Indians on film. Movie historian William K. Everson, in *American Silent Film,* suggests that "during this period the Indian became accepted as a symbol of integrity, stoicism, and reliability . . ." As such, Red Wing and Young Deer were an asset to any movie-making company.

At first, Red Wing and Young Deer worked mainly with the New York Motion Picture Company, founded in 1909 by Adam Kessel, Charles Baumann and Fred J. Balshofer. When Balshofer moved to Bison Pictures, Red Wing and Young Deer joined him there.

During his early years as a director, Young Deer was praised for his depiction of complex, strong, heroic Indians. His movies addressed racism, prejudice, miscegenation, and assimilation. Unfortunately, as the twentieth century entered its teens, changing social mores and increasing censorship eroded the film industry's earlier values so that Young Deer's later works began to reflect watered-down values.

Red Wing was in great demand as an actress. She was beautiful, vibrant, and sympathetic. Audiences liked her brave sacrifices on film. Furthermore, she frequently performed her own stunts--everything from riding horses at breakneck speed to being trapped in burning buildings. At the time, it was also common practice for actors to serve as crew members, designing and building sets, placing props, and doing any other necessary production work.

Film Western stories often revolved around inter-racial marriage. Usually a white man wed an Indian woman, although occasionally the roles were reversed. The tales involved family issues and society's reaction to the marriage. Often there were tragic endings.

The French-owned Pathe Company had been criticized for producing Westerns that were not authentic, so in 1910 they hired Red Wing and Young Deer to improve their image. This proved beneficial to everyone. At first, the couple worked mostly in New Jersey. Later they moved to Pathe West Coast studio in Los Angeles, where Young Deer became studio head. However, this was sometimes frustrating as J. A. Berst, in charge of American operations, continually tried to micro-manage from New York City.

The highlight of Red Wing's career occurred when director Cecil B. DeMille chose her to star in his 1913 movie version of Edwin Milton Royle's popular stage play, *The Squaw Man.* This was the first full-length feature film made in Hollywood. It was six reels and predated DeMille's *Birth of a Nation* by two years.

In *The Squaw Man,* DeMille, who co-directed with Oscar Apfel, cast Red Wing as the noble Indian maiden Nat-u-Rich. In the story, a white Englishman, Captain James Wynnegate, accepts blame for embezzlement in order to protect the real wrongdoer's family. Then he goes to America. Later, during a fight scene, Nat-u-Rich saves his life. They marry and have a child. Eventually, proof of his innocence surfaces. James then wants his son to have a European education but opts to stay with Nat-u-Rich. Reminiscent of Shakespearean-like melodrama, Nat-u-Rich

kills herself, believing the father and son would be better off assimilated into European white civilization.

The story represented current attitudes. Some whites believed that Indians were inferior, could not change, should hold only menial jobs, and that inter-racial marriage was not practical. Some whites and Indians believed assimilation was desirable and inevitable. Red Wing and two of her siblings had been educated at pro-assimilation schools. She went to Carlisle; her siblings Julia and David attended Hampton University in Hampton, Virginia. One source states that Young Deer had also attended Hampton.

Red Wing and Young Deer were somewhat ambivalent about assimilation and miscegenation, which could explain why their overall body of film work at times depicted both points of view. According to Smith, "On New Year's Day 1913, Young Deer entered a float in the Tournament of Roses Parade for the Pathe Company. The entry reflected his support for Indian assimilation at the highest social levels, . . ."

Prevailing stereotypes appear in an article written by Margaret Price for the *Grand Rapids* [MI] *Press*, April 25, 1913. While Price probably meant to flatter Red Wing, she seemed surprised to find her civilized.

"Red Wing is . . . young, well educated and ambitious. She . . . is the little wife of busy Young Deer, . . . I found Red Wing sitting cross-kneed on his bed, half wrapped in a wonderful Indian blanket, her raven hair falling in 2 thick braids, one on either shoulder. . . She has traveled extensively and she is as used to life in a big New York hotel as she is to the back of a Pinto on the barren plains out west. . . ."

"Red Wing's home is a delightful mixture of Americanism and Indinism [sic]. She has a gas stove and a bathroom and regular dining room furniture, etc., just as there might be in a regular American home. But her walls are dotted with all sorts of Indian trophies. Her portieres are wonderful Indian beadwork. Her rugs are Indian and scores of her ornaments on table and walls are Indian, too."

Red Wing and Young Deer's major involvement with movie making was almost finished by the 1920s. Young Deer made documentaries in France during World War I, but upon his return to America in 1919, he was no longer in demand. During the 1930s he worked occasionally as a second-unit director on independently produced low budget B-movies and serials. Young Deer died in New York City in April 1946.

Princess Red Wing continued acting into the 1920s. Then she became an advocate for Native American rights until her death in New York on March 13, 1974 at age 91.

It is believed that Red Wing inspired the song, *Red Wing* -- words by Thurland Chattaway, music by Kerry Mills-- copyrighted in 1907. Now in the public domain, the song has achieved a folk song-like status and has several variations.

Lillian St. Cyr sang *Red Wing* publicly at the Hippodrome Theater in New York about 1914. She also performed it in July 1964 during an inter-tribal powwow held at the Native American Historic Site, Wyalusing Rocks, Pennsylvania.

Unrelated to the song performances, the *Omaha World-Herald* in 1965 chronicled some of Red Wing's visits to Nebraska. "Some people living in Thurston County recall that she appeared personally in local theaters while on a visit to her home folks, in conjunction with a picture in which she was a supporting player. This was, I believe, in the early Twenties."

"Mrs. R. R. Reed, Omaha, writes that Redwing has visited my grandmother's home many times. The last time I saw her was 30 years ago. I remember she was dressed in a long, white buckskin dress, hat and boots. Diamonds on three fingers of both hands. Quite fat but still beautiful."

"Margie Carson, Herman, Neb., quotes from a letter received from Miss St. Cyr...I don't travel around as much as I used to, but New York is my headquarters and I make costumes (Indian) and headdresses or war bonnets for

theatrical trade and television...I haven't been to Nebraska since the Powwow at Winnebago..."

Red Wing and Young Deer certainly deserve recognition and remembrance for their outstanding contributions to the film industry.

See Chapter 3 in Andrew Brodie Smith, *Shooting Cowboys and Indians: Silent Western Films, American Culture, and The Birth of Hollywood* (University Press of Colorado, 2003) and obituary in *New York Times,* March 14, 1974. See also filmography below.

Princess Red Wing and James Young Deer Filmography

- 1908
  - Red Wing acted in *The White Squaw*, director unknown.
- 1909
  - Young Deer directed and they both acted in *Red Wing's Gratitude*.
  - Young Deer directed and Red Wing acted in *For Her Sale*, or *Two Sailors and a Girl*; and *The Falling Arrow.*
  - They both acted in *The True Heart of an Indian* a.k.a. *A True Indian's Heart*, directed by Fred J. Balshofer and Charles Inslee.
  - Young Deer acted in *Young Deer's Bravery*, directed by Fred J. Balshofer.
  - Red Wing acted in *A Cowboy's Narrow Escape*, directed by Fred J. Balshofer.
- 1910
  - Young Deer directed and they both acted in *The Red Girl and The Child.*
  - Young Deer directed *A Cheyenne Brave.*
  - Young Deer wrote and directed *White Fawn's Devotion* but was not given screen credit for the writing.
  - They both acted in *The Cowboy and The Schoolmarm*, directed by Fred J. Balshofer.
  - Young Deer acted in *Young Deer's Return; The Indian and The Cowgirl; Young Deer's Gratitude*; and *The Ten of Spades*, or *A Western Raffle*, all directed by Fred J. Balshofer.
  - Red Wing acted in *The Flight of Red Wing, Red Wing and The White Girl, For The Love of Red Wing, The Mexican's Jealousy, Love and Money, The Adventures of A Cowpuncher, Red Wing's Constancy, Red Wing's Loyalty*, and *The Indian and The Cowgirl*, all directed by Fred J. Balshofer.
- 1911
  - Young Deer directed *Yaqui Girl*.
  - Young Deer directed and they both acted in *Red Deer's Devotion.*
  - They both acted in *Little Dove's Romance*, directed by Fred J. Balshofer.
- 1912
  - Young Deer directed and they both acted in *Unwilling Bride.*
  - Young Deer directed and Red Wing acted in *The Squaw Man's Sweetheart.*
  - Red Wing acted in *The Penalty Paid,* director unknown; *The Wooing of White Fawn* (unconfirmed) director unknown; *A Redskin's Appeal*, director unknown, and *As Told by Princess Bess,* directed by Frank Montgomery.
- 1913
  - Red Wing acted in *The Struggle*, directed by Jack Conway and Frank Montgomery; *The Pioneer's Recompense*, director unknown; and *The Frame-Up*, director unknown.
- 1914
  - Young Deer acted in *Against Heavy Odds*, director unknown.
  - Red Wing acted in *The Squaw Man* a.k.a. *The White Man*, directed by Oscar Apfel and Cecil B. DeMille; and *In the Days of The Thundering Herd* a.k.a. *The Thundering Herd*, directed by Colin Campbell.
- 1915
  - Red Wing acted in *Fighting Bob*, directed by John W. Noble.

- 1916
  - Red Wing acted in *Ramona*, directed by Donald Crisp.
- 1917
  - Young Deer acted in *Under Handicap*, directed by Fred J. Balshofer.
- 1920
  - Young Deer directed *Who Laughs Last* and *The Stranger*.
- 1921
  - Red Wing (uncredited) acted in *White Oak*, directed by Lambert Hillyer.
- 1922
  - Young Deer acted in *Man of Courage*, directed by E. K. Lincoln.
- 1924
  - Young Deer co-wrote and co-directed *Lieutenant Daring RN and The Water Rats*. Co-directors were Edward Gordon and Percy Moran; co-writer was Percy Moran.

Alexander J. Stoddard: America's innovative public school leader in the 20th century and a pioneer of instructional television

The concept of public schools in America began in 1837 after Horace Mann influenced the Massachusetts legislature to establish a state board of education. He wanted to organize the common schools of his time into a system of public schools that were free, nonsectarian, and accessible to all children. By the end of the 19th century, the nation' s population did begin to grow, in part, because of immigration from Europe and elsewhere, but the economy was primarily based on agriculture, and 41 percent of the population resided on farms. Work habits and moral values were largely taught in the homes.

Though Massachusetts was the first to pass a compulsory school attendance law in 1852, every state had done so by World War I. In 1900, one of ten youth aged fourteen to seventeen was enrolled in high schools nationwide. The proportion that graduated from high school was 8 percent, with only a minority of the graduates going on to college.

At the turn of the 20th century, American schools traditionally concentrated on subject matter, which typically involved courses such as reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and history. Teaching methods were comprised of lectures and dictation, while students memorized from notes taken, and recited what they had learned. They sat in rows of desks fixed to the floor, and teachers usually maintained strict discipline.

This was the era from which Auburn, Nebraska, native Alexander J. Stoddard began his career of more than four decades as an innovative superintendent of schools--starting with three in Nebraska and going on to six more nationally, including Philadelphia and Los Angeles--who also published several articles and books and probably spoke to more audiences in more parts of the nation than any Nebraskan since orator William Jennings Bryan.

By mid-20th century, he ranked among America's foremost educational leaders. He had also participated in reform proposals for Japan's schools and the programs of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). And he was a pioneer of instructional television.

In 1905, A. J. Stoddard began at the age of 16 to teach at the one-room Grand Prairie Rural School District 20, located two miles west and one mile north of Auburn, population 2,729 in southeastern Nebraska. This was followed by two years as principal and teacher at Athens Elementary School in the town. He then studied for one year at nearby Peru State College to earn his administrative certificate in August 1910.

For the next five years, he was superintendent at Newman Grove, population 850, in northern Nebraska's Madison County, then began thinking about becoming a lawyer, so he attended law school at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor in the summer of 1915. After enrolling at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in February 1916, he again attended law school at Ann Arbor the following summer, then returned to Lincoln to serve as superintendent for one year at the adjacent village of Havelock.

From 1917 to 1922, his career began to expand during his superintendency in the Gage County community of Beatrice, at the time Nebraska's 5th largest city with a population of 9,664. This was also an era of great expansion of public schooling nationwide, and that is what excited and challenged Stoddard.

In Beatrice, he oversaw construction of a new elementary school and enlargement of another, and the high school earned championships in athletics and debating. He also dealt with the frustrations of the large local German American population during World War I, took part in chamber of commerce activities, coached basketball, and occasionally umpired baseball games.

Elsewhere, he served as president of the Nebraska State Teachers Association in 1920 and completed coursework at UNL, only 40 miles north, for his bachelor's degree issued in June 1922. That summer he attended the renowned Teachers College of Columbia University, then resigned to become head of the schools at the New York City suburb of Bronxville.

According to the August 8, 1922 *Beatrice Daily Sun,* local school board members released Stoddard from his contract with "keen disappointment" because under his administration "the Beatrice system has been called the best in any city of similar size in this section of the West,...and the work of both the high school and the grades has been broadened along modern lines."

Relocation to Bronxville was a turning point in his career. During the school year as well as summer vacations, he was allowed to attend classes at nearby Teachers College of Columbia University, where he earned his master's degree in 1924. On its faculty were several progressive education leaders who influenced their graduates to help spread school reform nationwide.

Among the most prominent at the time, reported historian Lawrence Cremin in *The Transformation of The School* (Alfred A. Knopf, 1961), were John Dewey, who proposed ideas that were incorporated into "progressive education" theory; William H. Kilpatrick, a popularizer of progressive education, the child-centered school, and the project method for all subjects in the curriculum, the latter considered a large change in 1915; and George D. Strayer, a co-pioneer of applied research in educational administration.

Progressive education was a composite of theories related to socialization, activity, independence, and child-centered as well as developmental instruction. Its leaders believed that public schools must prepare pupils for a variety of

needs essential to society rather than simply the minority that go on to college.

Moreover, emphasis must be placed on the individual child (rather than pupils as a group), on materials that interest the child (rather than forced memorization of facts), on active involvement with objects, locations, and people in addition to reading and hearing about them. In short, the focus of education should be on learning by doing.

Some at Columbia University, such as Kilpatrick and Strayer, were members of a nationwide, exclusive group that combined in trust-like effort, or networks of administrative progressives, according to David Tyack, primary author of *Managers of Virtue: Public School Leadership in America 1820-1980* (Basic Books, 1982) and of *Tinkering Toward Utopia: A Century of Public School Reform* (Harvard University Press, 1995).

A few networks concentrated on influencing federal or state legislation, some on training and placement systems, some on professional organizations such as the National Education Association (NEA), and others on textbooks, tests, school design and consultations.

"In school districts, the individual leaders who exerted the most influence on public schools were the local superintendents. Most of these administrators came in contact with the program of the educational trust, and it was the superintendents who served as conduits for the new professional norms in communities scattered across the nation."

From 1922 to 1926, Stoddard laid the foundation for a model progressive school system at Bronxville, population 6,387, a residential suburb of business and professional leaders who commuted to nearby New York City. He introduced individualized instruction adapted from the Dalton Plan, founded in 1918 by Helen Parkhurst, and insisted "on conferring with experts Engelhardt and Strayer" of Columbia University, reported Claudia J. Keenan, author of *Portrait of A Lighthouse School,* published in 1997 on the 75th anniversary of the accreditation of the Bronxville Public Schools.

To help the faculty implement the new methods, he took the unusual step of hiring for one year Marion Carswell, a teacher from the school district of Winnetka, Illinois, at the time the nation's leading progressive public school system. He had also encouraged teachers to buy records and play music.

According to Keenan, "he purchased film projectors and stereopticons, and some Bronxville alumni recall that Stoddard brought radios into the classrooms so students could listen to President Calvin Coolidge's inaugural address."

In a lengthy article published in the March 1926 issue of *Education,* he not only described local specific procedures of individualization, but also concluded, in part, "From the kindergarten through college, boys and girls have been told, instead of being allowed to do for themselves. If the Individual Method contributes to the development of men and women that are able to stand on their own feet, it will have done much in a democracy where every individual must think for himself."

While planning to leave in the spring of 1926 to pursue professional advancement, he helped arrange that his successor be hired from Winnetka. It was Willard W. Beatty, who became renowned for advancing the Bronxville Schools during the following ten years.

As superintendent the next three years at Schenectady, New York, population 88,723, he "subscribed to the best in the new educational policies... and the Schenectady schools under his stewardship embarked upon new and venturesome educational explorations," wrote Jeanette G. Neisuler, author of *The History of Education in Schenectady,* published in 1964 by the school district.

He implemented all the classic features of "progressive education" such as child-centered education at Elmer Avenue Elementary School, with chairs and desks unbolted from the floor, and emphasis on children's freedom to ask

questions and offer suggestions, occasional trips off campus, and health activities. At Oneida Intermediate School, more time was scheduled for industrial, manual training, and homemaking arts, and other features added for a junior high program, including a library. The high school gained its first guidance counselor.

According to Neisuler, "in 1927, Schenectady became the third in the state to adopt a program of visual instruction, and one of the very first of the smaller cities in the country to do so." Lantern slides and motion pictures were used, and the local General Electric Company loaned films for social and general science classes.
Stoddard attended meetings at nearby Albany and elsewhere. And in March 1928, the *NEA Journal* published his article on qualities needed by superintendents and the development of professional courses in administration, with references to Columbia University professor George Strayer, lead author of a new textbook on the subject as well as a 1923 survey of the Providence, Rhode Island, Schools.

At the age of 40, he became superintendent at Providence, population 252,981, and while there from 1929 to 1937 he not only implemented several changes ahead of his time but also his career on the national level emerged.

He had taken the position at Providence, knowing about the previous Strayer study and believing the local school system sought expert advice to make improvements. Thus he proceeded to make several changes in school design, classroom instruction, the quality of teaching and administration, and salary scale. The essence of his core values was captured in the October 21, 1934 *Providence Journal* article titled "School should fit itself to the pupil instead of the pupil to the school."

Stoddard introduced a demonstration school where teachers from Providence and other communities could observe teachers and students involved in the use of the latest techniques of teaching and learning. And he started a cooperative group plan for elementary schools where teachers became proficient in one or two subjects and could discuss their teaching and student progress in group sessions, which encouraged improved ways to assist a child's learning.

Another innovation involved setting up a committee of teachers that met with the superintendent's staff to develop a salary scale that would recognize special training or proficiency, and would assign all teachers and supervisors to a three-schedule program with no differentiation for age or sex. A clause allowed lowering the salary for poor performance after a year's notice and other stipulations. Eventually, most new teachers to the Providence Schools had four-year college degrees, and were better qualified than their predecessors.

During the eight years, he also added a school for the visually impaired, a school for ungraded students, a Fresh Air School (windows were kept open to invigorate classroom atmosphere), and evening and day programs to serve those who wanted to continue their education while they worked, according to former educator Donald E. Leonard's research of local school records and newspapers.

A strong advocate of the junior high school, he also proposed adoption of a democratic rather than autocratic classroom climate, correlated physical education and health work, enriched the curriculum with radio and talking movies, and advised inclusion of civics. He developed the use of radio broadcasts through cooperation with local radio stations to bring learning and information about the schools and their programs into the home.

Nationally, he gradually became part of what Tyack called "the educational trust" by engaging in policy talk and even policy action through appointments to positions of influence, speeches, and publications.

In December 1929, he was appointed by President Herbert Hoover to the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, and served as chairman of the 41-page subcommittee report titled *The Administration of The School Health Program* (Century, 1932).

He also began in 1929 his 18 years as an advisor to Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., and as a result of a previous friendship with Bronxville mayor Frederick Devereux, became involved with Erpi Picture Consultants.

With Devereux and two Columbia University professors, he collaborated to publish a 222-page book *The Educational Talking Picture* (University of Chicago Press, 1933). Its foreword was written by Robert Hutchins, who became a renowned university administrator, foundation executive, and public intellectual.

His first venture in public school textbooks was as secondary co-author with Columbia University researcher William H. Coleman and college presidents Herman L. Donovan and George W. Frasier of *Learning To Spell,* published by Hall and McCreary in 1931 as a 213-page volume for the second to sixth grades and as a 96-page volume for the seventh and eighth grades.

He presented speeches locally and throughout the New England area, and addressed the NEA and the American Council on Education at annual meetings in 1930 and 1936, respectively. There were also lectures in the summers at Yale University, Columbia University, and the University of Panama.

Among his lengthy professional articles were those published in the November 30, 1930 and March 1933 *NEA Journal* as well as the August 24, 1935 and March 6, 1937 *School and Society.*

Most significant during the eight years was his election in February 1935 as president of the NEA's Department of Superintendence for one year, which led in January 1936 to his appointment as the first chairman of the newly created Educational Policies Commission, co-sponsored by the NEA and the American Association of School Administrators (AASA). He was its chairman until 1946.

Stoddard's address titled "Planning Educational Progress" was published by the Commission in 1936 because it presented the traits of policy-making endorsed as basic to its work. It was included with "We Chart Our Future Policies" by fellow Commission member Frederick M. Hunter, a 1905 University of Nebraska-Lincoln graduate, a public school administrator in the state until 1917, a recipient of a master's degree from Columbia University in 1919, and later a college chancellor in Colorado and Oregon. They most likely knew each other while in Nebraska.

His next two years were spent as superintendent at Denver, Colorado, population 322,412 by decade's end, where the school system was nationally known for progressivism since World War I, according to historian Cremin.

Locally, he set an example of a democratic (not autocratic) administration by establishing a policies council of principals, teachers, clerks, and janitors that met monthly to consider ideas from 1,700 school employees. Teacher representatives, elected by their members, were the majority, and the superintendent did not have veto power.

Aside from analyzing homework assignments, class size, and retirement age, committees proposed, among many projects, a new experiment to replace textbooks with project guides, reported an article in tbe December 12, 1938 *Time,* "and 50,000 pupils are to make daily trips to factories, department stores, libraries, police stations, Government buildings."

Elsewhere, many of his speaking engagements in various parts of the nation required travel by airplane. At an Atlantic City, New Jersey, meeting of school administrators, he reviewed major education issues and warned of the dangers of complacency. That address was published in the March 5, 1938 *School and Society.*

It was also in 1938 that the Educational Policies Commission, chaired by Stoddard and comprised of 20 members, including Prof Strayer, published its milestone 157-page report titled *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.*

The report regarded democracy as the established social policy of America (its method of living) and asserted that schools can play an important role in "correcting social ills and building a democracy."

The Commission used the ideals of democracy--general welfare, civil liberties, appeal to reason, consent of the

governed, pursuit of happiness--to form the basis of a new school program. To help accomplish these ideals, the four major purposes of schools are related to personal growth of the individual, getting along with other people, earning and spending of an income, and participation in civic affairs.

Years later, the Commission's 1961 update titled *The Central Purpose of Education* focused on the appeal to reason, stating the main purpose was the development of the freedom to think and to choose, which involves various reasoning processes which can be fostered in the schools and applied elsewhere.

From 1939 to 1948, while superintendent at Philadelphia, the nation's 3rd largest city with a 1940 population of 1,931,334, he became more influential, and demonstrated vision on international issues.

Local innovations were limited during World War II, but afterwards, Stoddard presented a plan for the establishment of "college centers in Philadelphia high schools to help students and many war veterans receive more preparation to qualify for college," reported the January 12, 1946 *New York Times.* He advised against the long-term creation of a city college.

An unprecedented civic strain at the time was an influx of immigrants from the South. A controversy by teachers at the local Olney High School on May 22, 1947 caused an investigation of charges that the superintendent and board aides allowed development of a general policy of "social promotion" in the elementary schools, that is, pupils advanced from grade to grade because of age, regardless of academic readiness.

Months later, a committee report was issued, placing the blame on lack of funds, and "recommended smaller classes, more teachers, and remedial classes in all schools," reported a July 23, 1948 *Philadelphia Inquirer* article reprinted a day later in the *Los Angeles Times.*

Elsewhere, he was very active in the field of publishing and in promoting the importance of education. As chairman of a study committee invited by the Kansas City, Missouri, Board of Education to evaluate its school system, he and his committee published a 35-page report on February 9, 1940. His address before the AASA convention at Atlantic City that asked all educators to respond to critics who charged the schools with being disloyal and subversive was published in the April 1941 *NEA Journal.*

Toward the end of World War II, he presented his lengthy address "Education and the People's Peace" at meetings of many state and local teachers associations as well as lay groups in various sections of the nation, which was included in the prestigious *Representative American Speeches 1944-45* (H. W. Wilson, 1945).

In it, he warned that our nation must not make the same mistake of assuming (as was done after World War I) that the inevitable consequence of war is peace, called for the direct involvement of educators and laymen in peace initiatives, and promoted "support for the establishment of an international office of education as part of the peace machinery."

Meanwhile, as chairman of the Educational Policies Commission, whose 20 members at this time included presidents of Harvard and Cornell Universities, he participated in several publications, including the 421-page *Education for All American Youth* in 1944.

According to historian Cremin, "since its creation in 1936, the Commission had spoken boldly and authoritatively as the responsible voice of the teaching profession," and it had helped to advance the view that "progressivism had become conventional wisdom in education by the end of World War II."

Stoddard engaged in his second venture in public school publications, too. Along with educators Matilda Bailey and William D. Lewis, he was author of a series of 300-page textbooks intended as a complete elementary program in the field of language arts. Published by the American Book Company in 1944, they were titled *English One* through *English Six,* used from grades three to eight.

The program not only presented the usual written and spoken concepts and skills, with many everyday activity suggestions, it also included numerous color illustrations of diverse cultural and work experiences, national and international, rural and urban, including a family watching television.

In 1948, the editions for grades seven and eight were reissued under the title *Junior English One* and *Junior English Two.* The entire series was widely used in the United States and in Canada for at least 12 years, and accompanying workbooks were reprinted by Litton Educational Publishing as late as 1974.

He also authored the introduction to the mid-1940s edition of the *Book of Knowledge: The Children's Encyclopedia That Leads to Love of Learning,* a set of 20 volumes published by Grolier of New York City.

During United States efforts to help Japan rebuild after World War II, he was one of 27 members of the United States Education Mission to Japan in March 1946--the result of a request by General Douglas MacArthur and selection by the U.S. Department of State--charged with helping to create a comprehensive plan for the development of a democratic educational system for Japan.

Its recommendations for changes in the aims and content of Japanese education, administration of education at the primary and secondary levels, teaching and education of teachers, language reform, adult education, and higher education appeared in a 62-page document titled *Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan,* released in Tokyo on March 30, 1946 and published by the U.S. Government Printing Office that same year as Department of State Publication 2579, Far Eastern Series 11.

The impact of the report aimed at demilitarization, democratization, and localization of its schools was profound. Even though a central ministry of education emerged in Japan in the 1950s to influence curriculum, buildings, textbooks, and teacher salaries, according to the entry on education in *Encyclopedia Americana,* Vol 15 (2003), "local governments, however, continue to have an important role in personnel selection and everyday management of schools." And to date, the pressure to do well has resulted in "some outstanding achievements of the Japanese school system."

In late 1946, Stoddard was appointed a member of the U.S. National Commission for the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), founded that year to help prevent wars by overcoming ignorance and prejudice through improved International cooperation and understanding.

Meanwhile, he had been listed among four finalists for the superintendency of the New York City Public Schools as a result of recommendations from an advisory group headed by Columbia University professor emeritus William Kilpatrick. However, the November 6, 1946 *New York Times* reported he was "not interested in leaving Philadelphia," but did supply names of possible candidates when contacted several months earlier.

Two years later, however, while he was not a candidate, he did accept an offer to become superintendent at Los Angeles, at the time the nation's 4th largest city with a 1950 population of 1,970,358. And by 1953, the city school system's geographic area, comprised of elementary, high school, and junior college districts, covering 824 square miles, was the largest in the nation.

"Billed as one of America's top six educators," reported the July 24, 1948 *Los Angeles Daily News,* he was intrigued by "the challenge of the problems of this important community" along with a district of 300,000 enrollment, over 20,000 school personnel, and four junior colleges. Also in 1948, George D. Strayer's survey of the needs of California higher education presented what historians called the first comprehensive state higher education plan in the nation, which recommended master degree programs for state colleges, restriction of doctoral degree programs to the University of California, and addition of new state colleges in Los Angeles, Sacramento, and Long Beach.

The rapidly increasing birth rate after World War II, the granting of federal funds to military veterans to attend

colleges, and the passage of local bond issues helped expand the Los Angeles City School Districts and indeed many others nationwide.

In 1946, local voters passed a $75 million bond issue, of which 60 percent was spent for new elementary, junior high, and senior high buildings, many constructed during Stoddard's years of service. And with the help of state funds, the Districts built three new junior colleges. Opened in 1949 were Harbor Junior College in Wilmington and Los Angeles Valley Junior College at Van Nuys and in 1950 Los Angeles Metropolitan Junior College in the city itself.

In 1952, a bond issue of $130 million was approved, permitting construction of 49 new elementary, 10 junior high, and 3 senior high buildings along with many additional classrooms and other features at existing facilities.

At the same time, the Cold War between Communism and democracy affected the schools. In one local speech, reported the November 7, 1949 *Los Angeles School Journal,* Stoddard acknowledged that the schools, churches, homes, and other institutions are major factors in protecting youth from propaganda, and "they must leave our schools prepared to answer the insidious questioner, prepared to stand straight and tall in the pride of their American heritage."

He also notified parents that atomic bombing drills would be a regular part of the 1950-51 school program, according to the September 25, 1950 *Time*, so that pupils could "drop immediately to the ground or floor, face down," though "we sincerely hope that all of our plans and procedures will never have to be put into actual use."

In an AASA address reprinted in the April 1951 *NEA Journal,* he argued that ideas are more powerful than bombs, and identified six concerns that could affect "our continued existence as a free nation."

In October 1950, he met with a representative of the National Association of School Secretaries, and agreed to help employees form what became the California Association of Educational Office Employees the following summer. He was also involved with local publication, for under his direction a 137-page *Music Experiences for Children in the Fifth and Sixth Grades With An Aural Approach to Music Reading* was published in 1950 by the Los Angeles City School Districts for use in its basic institute sessions.

And as an outcome of his attendance at seven meetings of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO between September 1948 and May 1951, he authored a teacher handbook titled *The "E" in UNESCO* in 1951 for use in the local school system.

Some local individuals objected to teaching students how to separate propaganda from fact and to Stoddard's initiation of his UNESCO program, according to a November 2, 1951 editorial in the University of California at Los Angeles *Daily Bruin.* And after several months of protesting his "internationalism," critics convinced the board of education to withdraw from use his teacher handbook, reported the September 17, 1952 *Christian Century.*
The following year he planned to use a Ford Foundation grant "to set up special examinations to select each year 90 qualified men and women with B. A. degrees who might make good teachers" to cope with the continued increase of new students. But it was criticized as a way of bringing back UNESCO into the local school system, reported the July 27, 1953 *Time,* so he withdrew the plan.

In 1954, A. J. Stoddard retired from his position at the age of 65, completing 47 years as a public school educator. A one-page editorial titled "Portrait of An American" in the May 18, 1954 *Los Angeles School Journal* noted, in part, that "he, like our Country itself, has weathered many storms, for he speaks rather than shouts, and is more concerned with acts than with busyness," and closed with appreciation "for making it possible for others to know why he believes so strongly in the traditions of the past, and the rich heritage of the future."

The July 12, 1954 *Time* article titled "The Optimist" reviewed his career and praised his accomplishments, and the same month, *Nation's Schools* reported on the eve of his retirement that "Los Angeles school employees contributed

$10,000 in his name to the local Parent Teacher Association dental clinic."

During and after Stoddard's career, there had been a large increase of students enrolled and graduating from high schools nationwide. According to historian Tyack, by 1940, seven of ten were enrolled, and by 1980, it became nine of ten. As for graduation, in 1920, it was 17 percent; in 1940, 51 percent; in 1960, 69 percent, and in 1980, 71 percent.

Despite criticisms of the "life adjustment emphasis" of the progressive era in the 1950s, some of the reforms endured in various ways in American education. Most visible was the widespread adoption of vocational and general education offerings as well as academics in the curriculum. There were also guidance counselors and the design of the new high schools, often single story like elementary schools, which "were less austere than the fortresses they replaced," wrote Robert L. Hampel, author of *The Last Little Citadel: American High Schools Since 1940* (Houghton Mifflin, 1986).

Later on, particularly after the 1960s, changes that resembled what progressives had advocated did occur. In general, they involved relationships between school administrators and teachers (the latter had gained the power to negotiate salaries and other issues), relationships between teachers and students, commitment "to more responsive, flexible, and unprejudiced schools," partnerships with the workplace, and flexible schedules, to name a few. Individualized instruction was a continuing priority, along with the encouragement of students to inquire and think on their own.

Meanwhile, Stoddard maintained his innovative influence on American education, even though he had suffered a mild heart attack in October 1954 during a visit to Lincoln, Nebraska. After months of rest at his California home, he was ready to do more.

In 1956, at the invitation of the Fund for the Advancement of Education, an independent philanthropic organization established in 1951 by the Ford Foundation, he studied educational programs at large city school systems by visiting 72 communities nationwide and talking to over 1,000 people interested in education to "submit suggestions on ways of meeting the critical shortages of teachers and buildings."

His 62-page report *Schools For Tomorrow: An Educator's Blueprint,* published in January 1957, offered several proposals, including the use of "television as an integral part of the school program," and provided examples of its use already being experimentally conducted.

And his October 1957 *NEA Journal* article advocated more experimentation to determine "practical ways to incorporate television into the school program to lessen the regular load of teachers so they can work more effectively," which types of learning are best suited to television, and whether it "will make possible effective instruction of large classes in some subject-matter areas."

This was known as the Stoddard Plan. Teachers at the time generally misunderstood his proposal as a way to reduce staff, but they had overlooked his argument that any money saved should be used to raise teachers' salaries, hire nonprofessional aides to help with various tasks, and pay the cost of television instruction.

According to a lengthy profile titled "Alexander J. Stoddard: Man of Action" in the May 20, 1961 *Saturday Review,* "he did not answer his critics publicly, except to point out that the object of his plan was not to save teachers or classrooms or the taxpayers' money, but to save thousands of American boys and girls from getting a poor education."

In the 1960s, more public schools began to use television. Originally supported by the Ford Foundation in 1952, educational television was encouraged for classroom use by passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958, and by legislation of the U.S. Congress in 1962 for the construction of ETV stations with federal funds matched by state or local sources.

As for A. J. Stoddard's legacy, he was clearly a leader ahead of his time who set a standard of achievement few in public school administration ever match. While many do excel in day-to-day management, staffing, building construction, and public relations, very few also implement lasting innovations such as individualized instruction, the use of technology, and the encouragement of free inquiry and thinking. And it is even rarer to author or co-author many publications and serve in national positions of broad influence.

He also promoted the ideals of democracy and freedom through education worldwide in enduring ways. Not only did he aid in the development of Japan's schools after World War II but his early advocacy helped involve the United States in the founding of UNESCO, which now has 150 member nations headquartered in Paris, France, that focus on educational programs to eliminate illiteracy and improve basic skills.

And he went beyond achieving the American dream by starting his career as a one-room country school teacher and finishing as a leader of the nation's teachers and administrators. For in his November 1930 *NEA Journal* profile of the "father" of America's schools, he indicated the educator's mission has a higher purpose when he closed with Horace Mann's essential belief: "Be ashamed to die until after you have won some victory for humanity."

Among various forms of recognition for Stoddard were almost 40 citations in the personal names index of the *New York Times* between 1937 and 1958. He received honorary doctorates from Rhode Island College in 1933, Beaver College and Temple University in 1939, the University of Nebraska and University of Pennsylvania in 1940, Bucknell University in 1947, Occidental College in 1949, and the College of Osteopathic Physicians and Surgeons in 1954.

Columbia University granted him the prestigious Butler Medal in 1938, and he was named Kappa Delta Pi International Honor Society of Education Laureate in 1947. He also received the first Disinguished Educational Service Award from Peru State College in 1960 and the Distinguished Service Award from the AASA in 1962.

Two schools in the nation were named after him. Opened in the fall of 1956, Stoddard Elementary School at 400 South 7th Street in Beatrice, Nebraska, was named by the board of education "in honor of an outstanding school administrator who once served in Beatrice." The following February, he was honored at a local chamber of commerce dinner and toured the facility, reported articles in the February 6-7, 1957 *Beatrice Daily Sun.* In his address, he called his visit "one of the happiest moments of my life," reiterated the importance of good schooling, and stated, in part, "Freedom is not free....We must be willing to pay the price. We must be willing to give up prejudice, bigotry and intolerance and be willing to give the other man a right to his freedom."

And in the fall of 1967, the Alexander J. Stoddard Elementary School was opened at 1841 South 9th Street in Anaheim, California. He was so honored because he was not only instrumental in planning its ITV concept of instruction and the use of skills and resource rooms in the fifth and sixth grades but he also helped obtain a Ford Foundation grant for the establishment of Instructional Television in the schools of the City of Anaheim. Stoddard's widow was present for the April 5, 1968 dedication, according to records housed at the school.

Housed at the Archives of the University of Southern California in Los Angeles are nine boxes of Stoddard's speeches, testimonials, personal and business correspondence, and several books he read. And copies of his published articles and other materials are preserved at the Gage County Historical Society Museum in Beatrice, Nebraska.

Aside from sources previously mentioned, other published accounts are an obituary in the October 19, 1965 *New York Times* and his son's autobiography *From There and Then...To Here and Now: The Recollections of Hudson Stoddard As told to Jane Stoddard Williams* (New Canaan, CT: Benchmark Publications, 1997). An entry is in *Who Was Who in America*, Vol 4 (1968).

Born in 1889 near Auburn, Nemaha County, Nebraska, one of six children of Alexander B. and Mary Newman Stoddard, he grew up on the farm of his father, a Scottish immigrant, farmer, and builder of roads and bridges in the

area. He attended nearby Grand Prairie Rural School District 20, then graduated in 1905 from Auburn High School.

Married at Auburn on August 6, 1913 to Sadie Gillan, a high school classmate, he and his wife raised a daughter and a son. Alexander J. Stoddard died at age 76 on October 18, 1965 in Los Angeles, with interment at its Westwood Village Cemetery.

Charles E. Taylor: Mechanic built engine for Wright brothers' 1903 flyer

The fourth most important news story of the 20th century was the 1903 flight of Wilbur and Orville Wright, according to a survey of journalists and scholars in February 1999.

Overlooked in this famous event is the fact that the person who built the engine for the world's first successful powered, heavier-than-air manned flight was Charles E. Taylor, a resident of Nebraska for almost two decades.

He not only built the experimental engines for all the Wright airplanes between 1903 and 1911 but also helped develop testing equipment and in 1909 the first military airplane. And he is considered the world's first aviation mechanic.

Taylor's employment at the Wright brothers' bicycle shop in Dayton, Ohio began in 1901 when he was age 33, and it allowed the brothers to devote more time to their hobby of developing gliders.

He helped them construct a wind tunnel to measure aeronautical features of the glider. Then they decided to build a powered flyer, and created specifications for an eight-horsepower engine weighing no more than 180 pounds. They contacted several automobile and motor builders, none of whom could supply a suitable engine.

So Charles Taylor, using shop machinery such as a lathe, drill press, bench grinder, and hand tools, designed and built the aluminum engine with four cylinders lying horizontally and water-cooled.

Gasoline was injected by gravity from a tank attached to a bar near the upper wing of the flyer, and spark was created by two contact points in each 4-inch cylinder.

Built in six weeks in early 1903, though tested and improved in the shop for a few more months, the engine weighed almost 180 pounds, producing 12 horsepower and more than 1,000 revolutions per minute. Chains attached to sprockets connected the engine to the propellers.

The flyer had a wingspan of 40 feet, a length of 21 feet, a weight of more than 600 pounds, and a maximum speed of 30 miles per hour. The craft had runners, not wheels.

On December 17, 1903, the Wright brothers made four trial flights at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, the longest lasting 59 seconds and covering a distance of 852 feet.

Taylor had remained at the Dayton shop during this famous event, but he assisted with other subsequent flights, including the September 1909 demonstration of their military flyer at New York before nearly one million spectators.

He also assisted with the Wright brothers' flying school near Dayton in 1910, then served as chief mechanic for a portion of Cal Rodgers' 4,000-mile transcontinental flight in 1911, followed by about a year in California, working with several pioneer aviators.

After the death of Wilbur Wright in 1912, Taylor returned to Dayton to work in Orville's laboratory until 1928, when he again relocated to California, invested in real estate, and held several jobs in the Los Angeles area.

From 1937 to 1941, he helped Henry Ford restore the shop of the Wright Cycle Company and made a duplicate of the 1903 flyer engine for preservation in Greenfield Village at Dearborn, Michigan. Afterwards, he returned to

California, and worked until age 77.

Taylor's interview with editor Robert S. Hall was published in the December 25, 1948 *Collier's Magazine.* He was posthumously inducted into the National Aviation Hall of Fame at Dayton in 1965.

The Federal Aviation Administration honored Taylor in 1993 by initiating an award in his name to recognize mechanics who have been in aviation maintenance for 50 years or more.

He was also the subject of a lengthy biographical treatment in Howard DuFour and Peter Unitt, *Charles E. Taylor, 1868-1956: The Wright Brothers Mechanician,* published by Wright State University Libraries in 2009.

Born near Cerro Gordo, Piatt County, Illinois in 1868, the youngest of three children of Willet and Elmira Gulick Taylor, he relocated to Lincoln, Nebraska by 1878, where his father worked at first in the bakery of brother-in-law Peter Gulick, then later as a traveling salesman and state weighmaster.

After the 7th grade, Charles worked for the Nebraska State Journal Company, then reportedly graduated in 1887 from Lincoln High School. After working as a surveyor in Los Angeles, he returned by the end of that year to work as a stampmaker and then a watchman and switchman, according to the Lincoln City Directory.

He then moved to Kearney, making metal house numbers from 1891 to 1893, and marrying Henrietta Webbert, whose family had previously lived in Dayton, Ohio, had been acquainted with the father of the Wright brothers, and returned there in the mid-1890s.

From 1894 to 1897, he lived in Lincoln at 921 F Street, and worked as a machinist until he and Henrietta moved to Dayton, where they raised three children. However, his wife was hospitalized from 1912 until her death in 1930.

Charles E. Taylor died in San Fernando, California in 1956, and his remains were interred at Pierce Brothers Valhalla Memorial Park in North Hollywood.

Robert Taylor: Glamorous movie star of Hollywood's golden era, role model of decency, and world patriot

One of Hollywood's most glamorous movie stars in history was Nebraska native Robert Taylor, who appeared in over 80 motion picture and television films from 1934 to 1969. Known for his leading roles opposite many of the most renowned actresses in show business, including Joan Crawford, Greta Garbo, Katharine Hepburn, Vivien Leigh, Elizabeth Taylor, and Lana Turner, he also starred from 1959 to 1962 in his own television series *The Detectives*.

And he was not only narrator of two Academy Award-winning documentaries but also co-recipient with Alan Ladd of the Golden Globe for 1953 as world's male film favorite, the same year Marilyn Monroe was world's female film favorite.

Within three years after signing a contract as a professional actor, he had risen to stardom and achieved high Box Office rankings, prompting the *London Observer* to assert that "1936 will go on record as the year of Edward VIII, the Spanish War, and Robert Tay1or." And the January 18, 1937 *Time* magazine called him "cinema's most passionately admired matinee idol since the late Rudolph Valentino."

In January 1937, he and actress Jean Harlow attended the birthday celebration of U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt, and by year's end, Taylor placed second to legendary Clark Gable in a "King of Hollywood" poll. The February 19, 1938 issue of *Saturday Evening Post* featured a Norman Rockwell cover illustration that showed two college girls admiring a photograph of Taylor, the same year Edgar Guest's poem "Valentine" closed with a reference to him.

Despite his success and worldwide fame at 25 years of age and beyond, Taylor remained a unique individual in the entertainment industry, for he had kept his character traits and values from his formative years in Gage County, Nebraska, where he was born Spangler Arlington Brugh on August 5, 1911 in Filley, a village of 194 persons. An only child, he grew up in nearby Beatrice, population 9,664, where his father was an osteopath. His mother suffered from occasional illness, but his parents' relationship based on mutual love and respect set a lasting example for Arlington, or Arly, as he was known.

The family belonged to the Centenary United Methodist Church, though Arlington also joined the Order of DeMolay, a nonsectarian group that promotes moral teachings. His work ethic and responsibility were also fostered by parental discipline, home chores, and summer jobs. For almost ten years, he kept his pony at the Anthony and Rose Tyser Shimerda farm on the south edge of the city, where the Brughs sometimes stayed in a cabin, hunted, and fished.

In the Beatrice Public Schools, he had normal playground experiences, but also spent time at his father's medical office, and read books at home. At the age of ten, he started piano lessons, and music supervisor B. P. Osborn convinced him "the cello was the instrument for a gentleman." His mother arranged for his traveling 40 miles to Lincoln for private cello lessons with Herbert E. Gray from 1925 to 1929.

While participating in school music activities and a community orchestra, he appeared before various groups after election as the first student body president in Junior High. In dramatics class, he had important roles in two productions, and took part in a play staged by adults in the community. At the annual state drama contest, he was state champion in the oratorical category, and locally excelled in academics. Upon graduation from Beatrice High School in 1929, Arlington attended Doane College at Crete, about 33 miles from home.

During his two years at Doane, he registered with the Department of Music, where Gray was a part-time teacher, and played the cello in a string quartet and the orchestra. After becoming part of a trio called "The Harmony Boys",

he performed in the summers of 1930 and 1931 at radio station KMMJ in Clay Center, located 65 miles west of Crete.

While regarding dramatics as a hobby, he played various roles in several plays directed by speech instructor Mary Ellen Inglis, who he later complimented for the part she had in starting him toward his career. Despite advantages other Doane students did not have, Arlington maintained a conservative lifestyle, was well-liked, and remained in close contact with his parents. More about his formative years may be found in a 48-page supplement published with the October 8, 1993 *Beatrice Daily Sun* and a cover article in *Nebraska History*, Vol 75 (Winter 1994).

When Herbert Gray decided to fill a teaching vacancy at Pomona College in Claremont, California in the fall of 1931, Arlington also transferred to Pomona, and prepared for a business career. Notable participation in college plays at Pomona included his December 1932 role in R. C. Sheriff's World War I drama *Journey's End*, which was observed by Ben Piazza, a talent scout for Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studio. It resulted in his dramatic instruction from MGM coach Oliver Hinsdell before earning a bachelor's degree in June 1933.

After his father had unexpectedly died in October 1933, Arlington and his mother settled in Hollywood, where he re-enrolled in the MGM dramatic school, and on February 6, 1934 signed a contract with MGM for $35 per week, which made him the lowest-paid actor in Hollywood history, where he remained for 25 years, longer than any other star at any Hollywood studio. He was also given the name Robert Taylor to increase his general appeal to more Americans.

It was Taylor's good fortune to work for MGM, which became the most renowned of eight major motion picture companies in Hollywood, making well over 1,000 films during the golden era from about 1925 to 1960. According to John D. Eames, author of *The MGM Story*, 2nd Rev Ed (Crown, 1982), the studio in Culver City "grew from its original 22 acres to more than 275, with its own police force, fire department, and post office."

Under Louis B. Mayer, its chief executive from 1924 to 1951, the vision of MGM movies not only offered escape from such hardships as the economic depression of the 1930s and the World War II years but also clean, wholesome entertainment with respect for family values.

During this era, too, the enforcement of the Production Code after June 1934 helped define what was morally acceptable content for United States motion pictures. Peter Hay, author of *MGM: When The Lion Roars* (Turner, 1991), reported that production standards were partly due to an increase in sex and sensationalism in the movies of the 1920s and the formation of the Roman Catholic church's Legion of Decency for the purpose of rating films.

Taylor's career began when "motion pictures were the leading mass entertainment... but the mounting rivalry of radio had to be met by making pictures bigger," reported Eames. So MGM, known for developing a star system as well as quality and glamour, followed the motto "make it good...make it big... give it class!" By the mid-1930s, it had about 4,000 employees, and made an average of 40 to 50 films a year. And some of its productions over the decades such as *Gone with the Wind* and *The Wizard of Oz* and *An American in Paris* and *Singin' in the Rain* and *Ben Hur* became enduring classics.

MGM was also famous for its stable of stars, often proclaiming it had "more stars than there are in heaven." By its 25th anniversary in 1949, it had included in various movies some 80 stars and featured players, many of whom were the biggest in Hollywood history, such as Joan Crawford, Greta Garbo, Judy Garland, Katharine Hepburn, Clark Gable, Mickey Rooney, Spencer Tracy, and Taylor.

Several were featured in Hollywood biographer Jane Ellen Wayne's *The Golden Girls of MGM* (Carroll and Graf, 2003) and *The Leading Men of MGM* (Carroll and Graf, 2005), the latter including a chapter on Taylor. Also author of *The Life of Robert Taylor* (Warner, 1973; Robson, 1987; St. Martin's Press, 1989), the first book-length biography of him, Wayne eventually used the subtitle "the man with the perfect face."

Taylor had minor roles until 1935 when he gained attention for his performance in *Society Doctor*, then achieved stardom almost overnight upon playing opposite Irene Dunne in the Universal Studio production *Magnificent Obsession* that same year. He had leading roles in four succeeding MGM films in 1936, the same year the studio arranged his homecoming celebration in Beatrice on October 28, which attracted an estimated 20,000 people from Nebraska and surrounding states, and was reported by the national press.

One of his most notable performances occurred in the poignant MGM romance *Camille*, released in 1937, in which he played opposite the legendary Greta Garbo, who received an Oscar nomination for her part. According to author Wayne, one reviewer wrote, in part, "Mr. Taylor, inexperienced, is good. His Armand is dashing and well-tempered and his love scenes are certainly making the pulses beat more quickly."

Appearing in so many tender love stories, however, created a stereotype, and he had grown irritated with ridicule from some male members of the press as well as the mob-like behavior of fans. And Mayer decided to attract a larger portion of males by giving Taylor more "he-man" roles. In 1938, he was the star of the first American film made in England. In *A Yank at Oxford*, he played a conceited American student at a British university, inspiring one reviewer to assert that "he runs, rows and throws a mean right with scarcely a trace of the posturing matinee idol." Others noticed his hairy chest, which sparked talk about a fashion trend.

That year he also appeared as a boxer in *The Crowd Roars* after previously taking some sparring lessons from Nebraska-born Max Baer, who was the heavyweight boxing champion of the world in 1934. Wayne quoted a reviewer as stating, "One of the greatest prize fight pictures ever to hit the screen puts Taylor in the fore. As a human hero, he takes his place with Gable among the screen greats." Indeed, his Box Office ranking was fourth in 1936, third in 1937, and sixth in 1938.

Among Taylor's 1939 films was *Lady of the Tropics* in which he starred opposite Hedy Lamarr, forming what some critics consider the most glamorous couple in any Hollywood movie ever. A year later, after playing a young, unpopular Navy officer who gained respect from the squadron upon rescuing their commander in the drama *Flight Command*, he learned to fly airplanes in his private life.

In 1940, he was involved in not only one of his most notable performances but also his own favorite film. In the sensitive romance *Waterloo Bridge*, he played a World War I Army officer who falls in love with a ballerina played by Vivien Leigh, who had previously won an Oscar for her role in the classic *Gone with the Wind*. Author Wayne quoted a critic who believed that *Waterloo Bridge* has solid acting throughout, and Eames reported it was one of MGM's major successes that year.

His first Western came in the title role of the 1941 technicolor *Billy the Kid,* which some authors consider the best of all versions made of this film. And he strengthened his reputation as an action star. A year later, he played opposite the photogenic Lana Turner in the title role of *Johnny Eager*, a cruel and ruthless gangster who is killed by his enemies at the end. In this melodrama, which is one of Taylor's notable films, co-cast member Van Heflin won an Oscar as best supporting actor for 1942.

In the 1943 war movie *Bataan*, he played a tough sergeant of a diverse group of American soldiers who lose their lives on a desperate mission against the Japanese. Eames considered it the best of that year's battle movies. And Lawrence J. Quirk, author of *The Films of Robert Taylor* (Citadel Press, 1975), asserted that it was "one film that many Robert Taylor fans felt should have earned an Academy Award nomination."

While serving in the U.S. Navy for the next two years during World War II, he was considered too old for overseas duty, despite holding a civilian pilot's license, so as an instructor he made 17 training films and narrated an Academy Award-winning feature-length documentary about an aircraft carrier titled *The Fighting Lady*, released in early 1945.

His postwar years with MGM resumed at a slower pace, though in 1946 he appeared in the suspense-filled melodrama *Undercurren*t with co-star Katharine Hepburn, who reported that "Robert Taylor was a highly underrated actor with a much bigger talent than suspected." He also narrated the Academy Award-winning documentary about the 1946-47 expedition to Antarctica by Admiral Richard E. Byrd titled *The Secret Land*, released in 1948.

In the decade of the 1950s, however, he appeared in 22 movies released while under contract with MGM, some of which rated as top ten grossing films, especially those in which he had leading roles as medieval heroes.

The 1951 *Quo Vadis?* was a costume spectacular that became the most expensive movie produced up to that time ($7 million versus $4 million for the 1939 classic *Gone with the Wind)*. Filmed in Rome, it starred Deborah Kerr opposite Taylor, and grossed over $12 million with popularity on television afterwards. According to Hay, it received eight Oscar nominations,

The 1952 *Ivanhoe* with Elizabeth Taylor and the 1954 *Knights of the Round Table* with Ava Gardner were top grossing films. The 1954 *Valley of the Kings* with Eleanor Parker, the first American movie made in Egypt, led one critic to comment that "Taylor has a role with a bit of meat on it." And the 1955 *Quentin Durward* with Kay Kendall was considered by Quirk as a fine representative of the medieval costume melodrama that garnered more attention on television in the mid-1970s.

Taylor's performance in *The Hunt* in 1956 with Debra Paget made it his most notable Western, which Quirk called a landmark film because "it demonstrated what he could accomplish with the right juxtaposition of elements." And Wayne quoted one reviewer as stating that it "is an unusual Western because its characters have some depth—Taylor plays his role well as the—not so much villain—but as a psychopath."

The best performance of his career, according to various critics and authors, occurred in the 1953 *Above and Beyond* with Eleanor Parker, a semi-documentary of Paul Tibbets, the airman in charge of dropping the first atomic bomb on Japan in 1945, which prompted an end to World War II. And many believed he should have received an Oscar nomination if not the award. Author Wayne also reported he had volunteered to promote this movie for MGM, even though he usually disliked public appearances, and became the first Hollywood contract player to appear on television when a guest on Ed Sullivan's *Toast of the Town*.

Upon leaving MGM in 1958, he spent the next decade performing in about a dozen independent films and on television. From 1959 to 1962, he starred in his own weekly television series *The Detectives*, and from 1966 to 1968 was host and occasional star for the syndicated weekly *Death Valley Days*.

Both Wayne and Quirk reported that he had refused some scripts because he had believed he was too old for the roles and he did not want to play opposite a woman who was—or looked—twenty years younger.

Throughout his career, he was also appreciated by well-informed members of the film industry. From a Joe Hyams article about Taylor in the April 6, 1957 *New York Herald Tribune*, author Wayne quoted producer Edwin Knopf as saying, in part, that "he's a fine artist, a no-nonsense guy who studies his script more thoroughly than any actor I know." In agreement was director Richard Thorpe, who added, "He's a rarity. A lot of the big stars are really heels off screen ... But Bob is really a nice guy and it comes through on the screen."

Taylor himself revealed another side of his uniqueness to Hyams in the comment: "Acting is the easiest job in the world, and I'm the luckiest guy. All I have to do is be at the studio on time, and know my lines. The wardrobe department tells me what to wear, the assistant director tells me where to go, and the director tells me what to do. What could be easier?"

An astute summarization of his character came in a simple quote from a Utah farmer who had talked with Taylor while on location: "That's one man who never growed himself an ego!"

As for his private life, he avoided the limelight and admitted he was not very gregarious. His first marriage in 1939 to actress Barbara Stanwyck, a Brooklyn, New York native who had an adopted son from her previous

marriage to an abusive husband, ended in divorce 12 years later. They had no children. As reported by Jane Ellen Wayne's *The Life and Loves of Barbara Stanwyck* (JR Books Ltd, 2009), she had a distinguished career with a 1982 Oscar for lifetime achievement. But they spent time apart due to their filming locations, and she was not enamored with his flying and outdoor interests. Her only visit to his home state was on April 28, 1939 to attend the premiere of her movie *Union Pacific* in Omaha.

His limited political activity began with the Motion Picture Alliance for the Preservation of American Ideals, founded in 1944 by film colony conservatives worried about Communist influence, and with the Screen Actors Guild. As suspected by national leaders, a variety of individuals in the film industry had succumbed to Communist influence, reported Kenneth Lloyd Billingsley, *Hollywood Party* (Forum/Prima, 1998, 2000) and Ronald Radosh and Allis Radosh, *Red Star over Hollywood* (Encounter Books, 2006).

Though Taylor became unhappy with the House Un-American Activities Committee in May 1947 after investigators unexpectedly revealed his private testimony to the media, reported Linda J. Alexander in *Reluctant Witness: Robert Taylor, Hollywood and Communism* (Tease, 2008), he and several others cooperated in HUAC's public hearings on Communism at Washington, DC that October.

Seemingly unaware that Soviet dictator Josef Stalin had murdered millions of his own people, according to historian Robert Conquest in 1968 and others thereafter, some liberals in the industry protested what they deemed as abuses, and victimized cooperative witnesses until well beyond the collapse of Communism in Europe and Russia itself by the early 1990s.

In the late 1940s, Taylor had become acquainted with British-born Ivy Ellis Pearson Mooring, who had brought her son and husband to America. He set her up in his home free of charge for five years, enabling Ivy to earn a living to pay for the health care of her husband who had a malignant tumor. After that, she remained a close family friend.

His second marriage in 1954 to German-born actress Ursula Schmidt Thiess fulfilled his desire for a family, serving as a father to her two children from a previous marriage as well as two of their own—Terry and Tessa. Much is described in Ursula Thiess' privately published autobiography in 2003 titled *"... but I have promises to keep": my life before, with & after Robert Taylor,* as he took pride in caring for his family and their 113-acre ranch in the San Fernando Valley near Los Angeles, where he kept some farm animals. As he had done since 1946, he flew to hunting and fishing locations in the West, including Nebraska, where he visited occasionally and had a business interest. He exchanged letters with old friends, too.

In 1966, some California Republican Party members invited Taylor to run for governor, reported Alexander, but he didn't want the job. Instead, his close friend Ronald Reagan ran, and later became the 40th U.S. President.

Robert Taylor died of lung cancer at the age of 57 on June 8, 1969, and in the funeral eulogy delivered by Governor Reagan, he was called "one of the truly great and most enduring stars in the golden era of Hollywood." Indeed, his movies are in the MGM film library purchased in 1985 by Ted Turner for viewing on television.

While his star was placed on the Hollywood Walk of Fame in 1960 at 1500 Vine Street, and Doane College awarded him an honorary doctorate in 1963, there were forms of posthumous recognition, such as the 1970 induction into the Cowboy Hall of Fame at Oklahoma City, and an imprint of his 1943 role in *Bataan* on a postage stamp issued in 1991 by Comoro Island near Africa.

In 1994, the Nebraska State Highway Commission designated the portion of U.S. Highway 136 between Filley and Beatrice as the Robert Taylor Memorial Highway, and in the mid-1990s there was creation of a permanent exhibit on him at the Gage County Museum in Beatrice as well as the holding of two national conferences in the community. In May 2007, the first annual Robert Taylor Scholarship was awarded to a graduating senior at Beatrice High School.

The previously cited biographical sources by Wayne, Quirk, Alexander, and others are suggested as well as the obituary that began on the front page of the June 9, 1969 *New York Times*. And the fourth book-length biography of him, scheduled to be published about 2010 by Charles Tranberg, is titled *Robert Taylor: The Last Movie Star*.

Ralph Winfred Tyler: Curriculum, instruction, and evaluation reformer ranked among world's fifty modern thinkers on education.

At the turn of the 20th century, most American public schools offered a curriculum designed to meet college entrance requirements, teachers primarily lectured and dictated with discussion usually between the teacher and class or teacher and individual student (not students among themselves), and students concentrated on memorization, note taking, and recitation.

With the focus on a formal atmosphere of work and very little play, passive learning activities, and a philosophy of "culling" the able from the less able, only one of ten youth aged fourteen to seventeen were enrolled in high school. Nationwide, about 8 percent earned diplomas, with a minority attending college.

From this background emerged Ralph Winfred Tyler, a Chicago native educated at Peru, Crete, and Lincoln, Nebraska who during a 70-year career devoted himself to innovation, scientific research, assessment, practicality, and simplicity in ways that brought enduring improvements to the public schools. And he has been ranked by his peers as one of the world's leading thinkers in the field of education.

Among his many contributions was leadership in three projects of historic significance: the evaluation of the Eight-Year Study in the 1930s that helped schools adjust their curriculum to local learners and their community, the formulation of procedures in the 1940s to help schools develop learning objectives for students, and the creation of a uniform method of evaluation in the 1960s that resulted in the first "nation's report card" for Congress and the public.

During his formative years in Nebraska, he developed an exceptional work ethic, a desire to achieve, and an interest in serving humankind. In one interview he recalled, "I find myself, ever since a child when I was carrying newspapers when it would be freezing and my nose and eyes would be running, to say, 'Well, this has to be done.' The world is like this. You can't change it so let's go ahead and do something with it."

From the example of his father who had given up a successful medical practice to become a minister, Tyler observed that helping others seemed more valuable than wealth, and years later, he reported, "To me, the important thing is not salary but doing things that are important to be done."

In his early elementary school years at Peru, he was friends with Samuel Brownell, who became U.S. Commissioner of Education, and Herbert Brownell Jr., who served as U.S. Attorney General, both during the Eisenhower Administration.

From 1911 to 1913, he attended school in Hastings, then lived in Crete, working at a creamery and graduating from Crete High School in 1917.

While attending Doane College, he worked as a telegrapher for the Burlington Railroad, majored in science, mathematics and philosophy, participated in debate, took it upon himself during his senior year to organize a state intercollegiate forensic league, and graduated with honors in 1921.

As a teacher of science for one year at Pierre High School in Pierre, South Dakota, he liked the diversity of the student body and the challenge of teaching, then decided against medical school in favor of education.

Tyler earned a master's degree from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1923, with research emphasizing statistics in testing, then was a teacher and assistant supervisor of science at its University High School until 1926.

After UNL secondary education professor Herbert Brownell Sr. offered him a loan--and encouraged study at the University of Chicago, where the head of education was Charles H. Judd, he earned his doctorate in educational psychology from there in 1927.

He was influenced by Prof Judd, who applied scientific principles to school issues, advocated understanding education from direct observation of schools rather than books, and concluded that students can learn how to generalize while acquiring facts. Judd also believed school practices and policies should be based on facts and tested principles.

At the same time, he had worked as a statistician for a Chicago project directed by W. W. Charters, who influenced him in several ways, including the use of systematic procedures for leading large projects. After Tyler taught for two years at the University of North Carolina, he was hired in 1929 by Charters to serve in the division of accomplishment testing at Ohio State University.

Tyler had become well aware of the emerging theories of progressive education leaders such as John Dewey, George Counts, and others who advocated that public schools should place emphasis on the individual child and on learning by doing. And he was sympathetic with the view that schools should prepare students for a variety of essential societal needs rather than simply concentrating on the minority that go on to college.

In October 1930, the Progressive Education Association established the Commission on the Relation of School to College to conduct a lengthy study to determine if the traditional college entrance requirements were actually related to success. Two years later, the Commission found 300 colleges and universities and 30 high schools nationwide to take part, and by 1933 innovative experimental curricula in accord with progressive theories were in place in the high schools.

After the first year, the high schools threatened to quit participating because of the belief that traditional standardized tests would not measure what they were trying to accomplish with their new curricula. Upon suggestion by Ohio State University education professor Boyd H. Bode that his colleague Ralph Tyler had a scientific attitude and some innovative ideas on testing, Commission leaders interviewed him, then hired Tyler in July 1934 as research director of the evaluation staff for what became known as the landmark Eight-Year Study, which concluded in 1942.

Since World War I, standardized tests had been designed by "experts" largely to measure what had been memorized. And their purpose was to rank or classify test-takers' scores along a line of normal distribution, or bell-shaped curve.

However, Tyler's view was that evaluation in education does not exist to create a normal distribution among test scores but rather to offer a way to improve the curriculum and to determine if students have reached its objectives. And he advocated that instructional objectives ought not emphasize what a child memorizes but rather his or her understanding and use of the materials studied.

There were three parts involving evaluation for the Eight-Year Study. First, records about student performance would help colleges make wise admission selections; second, there would be an appraisal of what students were learning year after year in the high school so that the school could determine if they were gaining important learnings; and third, there would be follow-up after graduation to learn how students performed in college or in other post-high school areas such as employment, etc.

At the time, the term "test" usually meant a collection of memory items, so Tyler encouraged the use of the term "evaluation" for investigating what students were actually learning. And in the summer of 1936, he decided the best way to help schools improve their evaluation was by use of what he termed a "workshop," a gathering of teachers to solve problems or increase understanding. (This innovation replaced the profession's prevailing practice of holding "teacher institutes" which involved little more than passive listening.)

Two years later, after the Study's curriculum staff under professor Harold Alberty reported high schools wanted

more help with curriculum development, Tyler outlined for them his "Curriculum Rationale," which, in part, stated, "In deciding what the school should help students learn, one must look at the society in which they are going to use what they learn...to learn something that you can't use means that in the end it will be forgotten. One must also consider the learner--what he has already learned, what his needs are, and what his interests are, and build on them. One must also consider the potential value to students of each subject."

Even though the Study's immediate impact was overshadowed by the advent of World War II, a five-volume report was published, including the book-length volume by Eugene R. Smith, Ralph W. Tyler, and the Evaluation Staff, "Appraising and Recording Student Progress," *Adventure in American Education,* Vol 3 (Harper and Brothers, 1942). Among the findings were that diverse types of school curricula can lead to success in college and that students from the most experimental schools academically outperformed those from traditional and less experimental high schools.

There were also other long-term results of importance. According to the entry "Eight-Year Study" in *Encyclopedia of Education,* 2nd ed, Vol 2 (Macmillan 2003), the Study led to "more sophisticated student tests and forms of assessment; innovative adolescent study techniques; and novel programs of curriculum design, instruction, teacher education, and staff development."

During his work with the Eight-Year Study, Tyler relocated in 1938 to the University of Chicago upon invitation of its renowned president Robert Hutchins, who further influenced his sense of mission in education. He first served as Chairman of its Department of Education, then was Dean of the Division of Social Sciences until 1953.

His leadership helped many capable students and colleagues such as sociologist David Riesman, educational scholar Benjamin S. Bloom, and author John I. Goodlad begin distinguished careers, and he was a director of the Cooperative Study in General Education.

Along with Everett F. Lindquist and others, Tyler was a member of an advisory committee to the U.S. Armed Forces Institute that developed the first General Educational Development Tests in 1943 to offer military veterans who had not graduated from high school an opportunity to qualify for admission to colleges. Comprised of five subject areas that emphasize the ability to read, write, think, and do math, though knowledge of some subject matter is needed, the GED Test has become a widely used alternative to gaining the equivalency of a high school diploma for both veterans and civilians.

While at Chicago, Tyler also taught the course Education 360--Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, and refined what became known as the Tyler Rationale, which argued that "what a school ought to teach and what a student ought to learn determine and legitimize all aspects of teaching and testing."

Fundamentally, he believed, like our nation's founders, that the general purpose of education in a democratic society is to help students understand there is a world far beyond the environment in which we live.

And if students are to have any vision, they need to know what past men and women have thought and done as well as what is currently happening in the world. They need to learn to read and to use the resources of scholarship to obtain more dependable knowledge than can be gained from hearsay or superstition.

Tyler offered an outline of one way of viewing the curriculum and instruction to help reach the general purpose of schooling. He believed that learning involves the process of acquiring new behavior, that is, ways of thinking, feeling, and outward action. Indeed, he stated, "Learning takes place through the active behavior of the student: it is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does. The essential means of education are experiences provided, not the thing to which the student is exposed."

As he saw it, most of teaching is raising the questions that cause the students to inquire and find out for themselves. Though the teacher is the stimulator and guider of their learning, he or she is not the one who tells them everything

in our society. Rather, the teacher tries to help students learn principles that can be generalized to other activities or ways of thinking.

Behavioral objectives are intended to help the teacher focus on what he or she is trying to do in the classroom. For example, in an English class, subject matter by itself cannot be an educational objective. Simply having a student read the Shakespeare play *Hamlet* is content. But asking a student to explain why young Hamlet justifiably dies (or not) at the end of the play helps specify what he or she may gain from studying that play, and other plays as well.

Basically, Tyler's outline offered a suggested series of questions to answer as educators go through the process of curriculum development. And he posed four fundamental questions (each with subcategories) as follows: (1) What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (2) How can learning experiences be selected which are likely useful in attaining these objectives? (3) How can learning experiences be organized for effective instructions? (4) How can the effectiveness of learning experiences be evaluated?

In answering these four basic questions, and in designing school experiences for students, he advocated curriculum developers should consider three factors: (1) the nature of the learner, (2) the values and aims of society, and (3) knowledge of subject matter.

Tyler's course outline was published in 1949 by the University of Chicago Press in a 128-page book titled *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction.* Written in a simple, easy-to-read style for any layman, teacher, college undergraduate, or expert in any field, and translated into at least eight languages, it has remained in print as of this writing, with some four to six thousand copies sold each year.

Though some critics since the 1970s have claimed his views were "linear" or "politically naive"or "reduced curriculum to objectives and outcomes" or tied to "social efficiency," they have not themselves formulated a concept to replace the Tyler Rationale, which some educators currently consider as pioneering and vital to modern efforts to improve schooling.

His 1949 book is ranked among the 60 most important published in the field of education in the 20th century in Craig Kridel's *Books of the Century Catalog* (Museum of Education, University of South Carolina, 2000).

Tyler's influence on educational policy nationally became even more significant after 1953, the year he founded the Advanced Center for Behavioral Sciences at Stanford, California, which he directed until 1967. It was formed to serve as a "think tank" for selected scholars.

In the late 1950s, he led the first national study that identified the benefits of student involvement in cooperative education, and from 1962 to 1981 served as a member of the Board of Trustees of the American College Testing Program at Iowa City, which developed the innovative ACT to judge the development of each student for purposes of guidance and counseling as well as for college admission and placement.

He also served as an education advisor in various capacities to several U.S. Presidents, beginning with Franklin D. Roosevelt and ending with Jimmy Carter. His most notable accomplishment came after U.S. Commissioner of Education Francis Keppel asked him in mid-1963 to assist in the creation of a national evaluation of America's educational system.

Keppel believed the Congress and the public were entitled to know what the nation's students were learning, and he wanted Tyler to develop a plan to determine what progress the nation's schools might be making. He liked Tyler's initial idea that the proposed appraisal instrument be called an "assessment" in order to distinguish it from traditional standardized tests.

As chair of an exploratory committee, Tyler proposed a periodic assessment of a small sample of students rather than testing all students nationally. In time, he also proposed that test results would be reported for only one of four

geographical regions nationwide to dispel fears by educational associations that the results might be used to compare one state with another.

Even though it was a congressionally mandated project of the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics, the initial responsibility for test development and administration rested with the Education Commission of the States. The student population tested involved those at ages 9, 13, and 17, and assessments conducted periodically in the arts, civics, geography, U.S. history, mathematics, reading, science, and writing.

First used in 1969, and named the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), it became the first national effort to use a uniform method of assessing America's educational system.

Over the decades since then, various changes as well as concerns have developed. Tyler himself was concerned that the Educational Testing Service (ETS), which in 1985 became responsible for further development of the NAEP, is made up primarily of psychometricians preoccupied with the bell curve, which detracts from the most important goal of understanding "what students have learned and where they are having difficulty in learning." And in 1988, a new congressional law introduced an element of competition by permitting statewide administration of the NAEP exercises, and thus access to test results and state comparisons.

Still, as stated in the entry titled "National Assessment of Educational Progress" in *Encyclopedia of Education,* 2nd ed, Vol 1 (Macmillan, 2003), "one of NAEP's hallmarks as an assessment program is its capacity to evolve, engage in cutting edge assessment development work, and provide results of value to many constituencies. It continues to serve its role as The Nation's Report Card."

Throughout his long career, Tyler witnessed a large increase of students enrolled and graduating from high schools nationwide--by 1980, nine of ten youth aged fourteen to seventeen were enrolled, and 71 percent graduated. As for the GED Test, the number of test batteries administered rose from some 42,000 in 1954 to over 720,000 in 1995.

Always dedicated to quality learning for students and to keeping curriculum development in the hands of local users as well as involvement by leaders and experts, he was author or co-author of more than 400 articles and 12 books.

After 1967, he never really retired, despite giving up directorship of the Center at Stanford, for he continued to serve on many committees, was a consultant to educators, and granted many interviews to professional journals and scholars. In 1987, a 466-page volume of his interviews conducted by Malca Chall was completed, and is available at Bancroft Library at the University of California-Berkeley.

Tyler was recipient of 22 honorary doctorates, including those from Doane College in 1954 and the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1974. A building was dedicated in his name in 1980 on the ACT Campus at Iowa City, and a Ralph W. Tyler Award has been offered for outstanding research since 1983 by the Cooperative Education and Internship Association headquartered at Walnut Creek, California. To date, he has been the subject of at least 16 doctoral dissertations and books.

His papers are housed at the University of Chicago Library, and several of his books, research materials, and other memorabilia are at Doane College, where from 1939 to 1972 he had served as an active member of its Board of Trustees.

For this profile, the author found most helpful a compilation of Tyler's views by George H. Lackey Jr. and Michael D. Rowls titled *Wisdom in Education: The Views of Ralph Tyler* (College of Education, University of South Carolina, 1989) and a book-length report by Morris Finder, *Educating America: How Ralph W. Tyler Taught America to Teach* (Praeger, 2004), which also contains a reproduction of many Tyler interviews and a lengthy bibliography of his writings and publications about him.

Also valuable for the author was a pre-publication copy of a Ralph Tyler profile, in Craig Kridel and Robert V.

Bullough Jr., *Stories of the Eight-Year Study: Reexamining Secondary Education in America* (State University of New York Press, 2007).

An obituary was published in the February 23, 1994 *New York Times,* and there are lengthy entries in *Fifty Modern Thinkers on Education* (Routledge, 2001) and in *Encyclopedia of Education,* 2nd ed, Vol 7 (Macmillan, 2003) There is an entry in the prestigious *American National Biography Online* (May 2008 Update).

Born April 22, 1902 at Chicago, Cook County, Illinois, one of eight children (four survived to adulthood) of William and Ella Kimball Tyler, he relocated at age two with his family to Table Rock, Pawnee County, Nebraska for one year, then in 1905 to Auburn, Nemaha County for six years, followed by two years at Hastings, Adams County, then in 1913 to Crete, Saline County, where he graduated from Crete High School in 1917 and Doane College in 1921.

His father became a Congregational minister, reported Ralph's older brother Harry E. Tyler in his autobiography *The Nebraska Preacher's Kid* (Doane College, 1983). Ralph married Flora O. Volz on August 31, 1921, with the couple raising three children before divorcing 21 years later, then he remarried twice. Ralph Winfred Tyler died at age 91 on February 18, 1994 in San Diego, California.

Orville A. Vogel: Wheat breeder helped found Green Revolution and invented scientific research equipment used worldwide.

An international leader in researching wheat improvement in the 20th century was award-winning agronomist Orville A. Vogel, a native of Pilger, Nebraska.

Unknown outside his field, he was credited with revolutionizing wheat production, and with helping to provide the foundation on which was based the Green Revolution of the 1960s and beyond.

Some agriculture authorities also asserted that Vogel's inventions in scientific research equipment indirectly contributed to expansion of world food production as much or perhaps more than his wheat breeding did.

"Wheat is the world's most important food crop," according to *World Book Encyclopedia,* Vol 21 (2005). Each year, the farmers of the world grow about 20 billion bushels, an amount that could fill "a freight train stretching around the world about 2 1/2 times."

About 70 percent of the grain is grown for human consumption, typically in bread and other baked products, breakfast food, and pasta. About 10 percent is used for seed. The remainder is processed for industrial products such as adhesives, fuel, and synthetic rubber, and for livestock feed.

First cultivated in the Middle East about 11,000 years ago, wheat was brought from Europe to America in 1493 by explorer Christopher Columbus. In the 1870s, the Mennonites, who had immigrated from Russia to Kansas, brought Turkey Red winter wheat, a variety suited to Great Plains climate.

In the 19th century, expansion of wheat production was aided by the development of machinery, though prior to 1900, farm equipment was animal-drawn. During the 1920s, internal combustion engines in tractors and other farm machines, such as combines (a combination harvester and thresher), helped make production more efficient.

At about the same time in the 20th century, scientific wheat breeding began, causing some of the most important

advances in wheat history. Among the results were higher yield per acre, resistance to diseases, and adaptability to climate changes. To date, more than 40,000 varieties of wheat have been produced in the world.

In 1931, Orville Vogel began his 42-year career as a U.S. Department of Agriculture wheat breeder stationed at Washington State University at Pullman, where he earned his doctorate degree in agronomy in 1939. His early experience in breeding for resistance to smut made him a pioneer in recognizing the importance of biological control of plant diseases.

After he observed in the 1940s that varieties slightly infected with a type of smut called bunt were less vulnerable to attack by different types of the smut fungus, he developed by 1949 the Brevor variety by selecting partially smutted plants, giving it both specific and non-specific forms of resistance. This minimized the threat of bunt in the Pacific Northwest, where it once threatened the entire wheat industry.

Vogel also realized the need for shorter and more lodging-resistant winter wheats after farmers began planting them early and applying higher amounts of nitrogen fertilizers. He reported that under these circumstances, his newly developed Brevor, which offered higher yields, was accompanied with severely lodged grain (the stalks fell over), causing harvest to be difficult and wheat to be lost.

After 1949, in an effort to solve the lodging problem caused by long stalks, he began to experiment with a collection of semidwarf (short stalk) wheats. According to the January-February 1970 *Agronomy Journal,* "his early exceptional selections from merging the germ plasm of the short Japanese wheat Norin 10 with that of Brevor have provided the basic germ plasm for worldwide advances with semidwarf wheats."

For more than a decade, through painstaking efforts and good luck in selecting and mating parents, Vogel and his research team had developed the Western Hemisphere's first commercially successful semidwarf wheat. Called Gaines, a soft white strain released in 1961, it produced high yields without the stalk's falling over from the weight of the grain. It became the dominant variety with yields above 100 bushels per acre on both dryland and irrigated farming. In fact, Gaines held the world commercial field record of 209 bushels per acre.

However, the widespread farming practice of early planting of winter wheat brought the need for developing varieties resistant to stripe rust. His Nugaines variety, the sister selection of Gaines, was released in 1965, and had durable resistance to this disease. This form of resistance has remained effective for over 40 years.

As a special consultant in the 1960s, he studied the Australian wheat industry, advised the nation of Turkey regarding programs to hasten agricultural development, traveled to Mexico and Canada to advise on selections for Northern latitudes, and visited Japan and New Zealand to assess the progress in breeding new varieties.

Vogel's greatest impact internationally, however, had come as a result of introducing the Japanese dwarfing gene into wheat shortly after World War II that not only resulted in substantial grain yield increase but also laid the foundation for what later became known as the Green Revolution in developing foreign countries after the mid-1960s.

In 1953, he had sent seed of some of his Norin 10-Brevor semidwarf lines to plant pathologist and geneticist Norman Borlaug, an Iowa native who was working with Mexican agricultural scientists to increase wheat yields in that nation, which had reached a plateau because too much use of fertilizers made the plants grow too tall, causing lodging.

After Borlaug and his assistants created a hybrid strain over several years of crossing their improved Mexican wheat with Vogel's semidwarf lines, a grain suitable for Mexico with yields twice as high as the earlier strain was produced. It was also widely adopted in India in the mid-1960s, and further technology improvements there were extended to Pakistan, Afghanistan, Sudan, Syria, and elsewhere.

Scientists in the Philippines developed semidwarf rice strains patterned after the Mexican dwarf wheat varieties, and the Green Revolution spread to Southeast Asia, reported Borlaug's entry in *Notable Twentieth Century Scientists,* Vol 1 (1995). It is of historical interest that agronomist and Nebraska native Henry M. Beachell was the 1969 recipient of the John Scott Award granted by the City of Philadelphia for "his invention of tropical dwarf rice IR 8 at Laguna, Philippines."

In 1973, on the occasion of Orville Vogel's retirement, Borlaug, who had three years earlier received the Nobel Peace Prize as "father" of the Green Revolution, confirmed the success of his Mexican research team after Vogel shared his genetic material, and noted the Nebraska native's contribution to world wheat research "changed our entire concept of wheat yield potentials."

Moreover, in the article "Milestones in ARS Research" published in the November-December 1983 issue of *Agricultural Research,* it was noted that Vogel's crossing of the Japanese wheat Norin 10 with Brevor was one of the significant factors in the Green Revolution, a term that actually means productivity improvement.

At the turn of the 21st century, the leading wheat-growing nations, in rank order, are China, India, the United States, Russia, France, Germany, Canada, Australia, Turkey, and Pakistan.

Concurrent with Vogel's wheat breeding accomplishments was his invention of research plot equipment. Over a period of 45 years he designed and built the miniature equipment as a hobby to automate planting and harvesting of large plant populations in research and breeding, which at present has contributed to the research of many people at experiment stations in more than 50 nations. In 1973, Norman Borlaug publicly stated, "Perhaps these inventions have contributed indirectly to expanding world food production even more than did the varieties he developed, which in themselves revolutionized wheat production."

According to papers housed at the Washington State University Libraries, Vogel designed and built more than a dozen specialized kinds of equipment. In 1932, he developed a combination one-row or three-row seeder, which he replaced in 1959 with a perfected semi-automatic eight-row seeder. Designed to permit rapid uniform planting of plots in adverse soil and weather conditions, it allows three men to seed 5,000 eight-foot plots per hour.

His most famous machine was the "Vogel nursery plot thresher," used around the world by wheat, oat, barley, rice, rye, flax, pea, bean and oilseed breeders. The first eight-foot cut, self-propelled plot combine, which can be self-cleaned within ten seconds, was developed in 1969.

He published articles for a journal of the American Society of Agronomy, presented papers by invitation at several conferences in Australia, Europe, and the United States, and held regional and national leadership positions for various societies and organizations.

Indicative of Vogel's high achievement was the prestigious National Medal of Science for 1975 given to him by the U.S. President. The federal government's highest award for distinguished achievement in science and engineering, it has been presented to more than 400 individuals since its establishment in 1962. Another was the John Scott Award from the City of Philadelphia in 1990 for "his invention of semidwarf wheats which have since spread across the world, contributing measurably to the food supplies available worldwide." Since 1834, it has been awarded to many inventors, including Thomas Edison, Madame Curie, the Wright Brothers, and Jonas Salk.

Others among almost 20 honors and forms of recognition include being named a Fellow by the American Society of Agronomy in 1954, awarding of an honorary doctorate from the University of Nebraska in 1970, and induction into the U.S. Agricultural Research Service's Science Hall of Fame in 1987. The O.A. Vogel Endowed Chair in Wheat Breeding and Genetics, funded by the Washington Wheat Commission and the Washington State Legislature, was initiated in 1991 at Washington State University.

Archival materials about Vogel's career and life are housed at the Washington State University Libraries at Pullman.

An obituary was published in the April 15, 1991 *New York Times* and in the June/July 1991 alumni publication *Washington State University Hilltopics.* An entry is in *Who Was Who in America,* Vol 10 (1993).

Born in 1907 on a farm near Pilger, Stanton County, Nebraska, one of four children of William and Emelia Paege Vogel, he attended rural school until the 7th grade, then attended the Pilger Public Schools, graduating from Pilger High School in 1925. After two years at Yankton College in South Dakota, he taught one year at Wynot High School at Wynot, Nebraska, then earned bachelor and master degrees from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 1929 and 1931.

After his marriage to Bertha Berkman in 1931, the couple raised two children, and enjoyed their six grandchildren and three great grandchildren. Orville Vogel died at age 83 on April 12, 1991 at Lacey, Washington.

George R. Wagner: First television superstar changed professional wrestling into popular entertainment

The person who transformed the sport of professional wrestling into popular entertainment in America was George R. Wagner, the Nebraska native known as Gorgeous George.

From the mid-1930s to1962, he emerged not only as the first television superstar of his field but also as one of the most famous persons during his era. In the beginning, the light-heavyweight had only average success in Oregon, and he was unimposing at 5 feet 9 inches and about 200 pounds. But he was handsome with dark, flowing hair.

After deciding he wasn't attracting enough attention, he began wearing a royal blue robe with sequins for a match at Eugene in 1941.

That, combined with an act that had a policeman carry his robe, escort him to the ring, and bow to him, caused the crowd to heckle him. About the same time, a lady at ringside commented, "My! Isn't he gorgeous!" Thus his stage name was born.

George added to his act when he was in Tulsa, Oklahoma in 1943. He hired an ex-bus boy called Jeffrey, who removed the robe, spread a rug at Wagner's feet, and sprayed the wrestling area with a perfumed disinfectant. Sometime later, he sprayed the opponents and referee, and stirred up the crowd by yelling at the referee, "Get your filthy hands off me!"

While at Honolulu in 1945, he obtained a permanent at a beauty salon, and began wearing butter-cup yellow hair with curls and gold-plated bobby pins. Later on, he had a recording of *Pomp and Circumstance* played as he

approached ringside.

With the advent of television in 1947, the year he legally adopted Gorgeous George as his name, the bars and grills in the Los Angeles area displayed the signs "Gorgeous George, Television Here Tonight," and pro wrestling became the first televised program that drew millions to the new technology. He designed almost 100 different robes during his career.

In 1949, the year he was acclaimed as "Mr. Television," he lost only three of 207 matches and received 27 percent of the gate receipts. About 40 percent of his audiences were women, reported *Reader's Digest* in July 1950.

During his era, Gorgeous George was thought to be more famous than the U.S. President, and he is credited with influencing generations of future wrestlers and other figures in sports and entertainment, such as boxer Cassius Clay (a.k.a. Muhammad Ali) and pianist Liberace.

He protected his family from publicity, but he did promote his investment in a 195-acre turkey ranch near Beaumont, California, and there were other promotions of such products as bathrobes, strength belts, and Gorgeous George dolls.

Wagner is the subject of a chapter in Joe Jares, *Whatever Happened to Gorgeous George?* (Prentice-Hall, 1974). And there is an entry in *American National Biography,* Sup 2 (2005) 576-577.

To date, the only book-length biography is John Capouya's *Gorgeous George* (HarperCollins, 2008).

For his contributions to professional wrestling, he was inducted into *The Ring Chronicle* Hall of Fame in 2000 and two years later into the Professional Wrestling Hall of Fame at Schenectady, New York.

According to his birth certificate, he was born in 1915 at Butte, Boyd County, Nebraska as George Raymond Wagner, son of Howard J. and Bessie M. Francis Wagner. (Nearly all published sources erroneously report George's birthplace as Seward.) His father was born in Iowa, his mother was born in Seward County, Nebraska.

For a time, he and his parents lived on a farm near the village of Phoenix in Holt County and probably in Seward County before they moved to Waterloo, Iowa and later Sioux City.

When George was age seven, his family moved to Houston, Texas, where he associated with kids from a tough neighborhood, did various jobs to support his family, and dropped out of Milby High School.

He started wrestling at the local YMCA, but after Wagner earned a small amount of money for winning a match at a carnival, his coach considered him a professional, which was regarded as entertainment at the time. So by the mid-1930s, George moved to Oregon, made a living as a pro wrestler, and married Betty Hanson at Eugene in 1939. The couple adopted two children, but after the marriage ended in 1952, he was remarried to Cheri Dupre. He and his second wife had one son.

In 1962, when he retired from his career, he was divorced again, and sold his tavern in San Fernando Valley. George R. Wagner died at Los Angeles in 1963, and his remains were interred at Pierce Brothers Valhalla Memorial Park at North Hollywood. He had performed at the Fairgrounds in Lincoln, Nebraska in December 1950 and February 1956 as Gorgeous George.

Irene Worth: Acclaimed actress had Nebraska Mennonite heritage

Irene Worth was acknowledged by her peers as one of the greatest actresses of the 20th century. She was born Harriett Elizabeth Abrams, June 23, 1916 in Fairbury, Nebraska. Her grandparents, who were Mennonites, had settled with others in the nearby Jansen area during the late 19th century. Her parents, Agnes Thiessen and Henry Abrams, were educators.

In 1920 the family moved to Reedley, California, where there was another Mennonite community, but relatives remained in Nebraska and Harriett's father spent several summers pursuing advanced education at Peru Normal School in Peru, Nebraska.

Throughout her primary and secondary school years, the family moved several times around California for Henry Abrams' work as a school administrator. She attended schools at Reedley, San Luis Obispo, and Ventura, then her junior and senior years at Newport Beach, where Harriett's acting aptitude revealed itself through her roles in stage productions. In 1933, she graduated from Newport Harbor High School.

She entered Santa Ana Junior College the following fall. In 1935, she transferred to the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), where she was admitted to three honorary dramatics societies. She graduated in 1937.

Apparently Harriett's parents did not approve of her acting. This may have contributed to her decision to teach school instead of pursuing an acting career immediately. However, her passion for performing never waned. In 1942, she went to New York City and changed her name to Irene Worth. Her first professional performance that year was as Fenella in a road company production of Margaret Kennedy's *Escape Me Never.* In 1943, she debuted on Broadway as Cecily Harden in Martin Yale's *The Two Mrs. Carrolls.*

When advised to study with renowned voice coach Elsie Fogarty in London, Worth relocated there in 1944, acting in fringe theaters. On Feb 14, 1946, she opened in London as Elsie in William Saroyan's *The Time of Your Life.* In 1948 she accepted a movie role as Lina Linari in *One Night With You.* In 1949 she garnered critical praise for her performance at the Edinburgh Festival in Scotland as Celia Coplestone in T.S. Elliot's *The Cocktail Party.*

During the 1950s, Worth was active with the Old Vic Repertory Company and the Royal Shakespeare Company performing throughout Europe and South Africa. She also toured Iran with director Peter Brook's experimental troupe. In 1958, she played Leonie in the movie *Orders to Kill* and won a British Film Academy Award.

Worth's long association with the Shakespearean Festival Theatre in Stratford, Ontario, began with its first season in 1953. Some sources say she was one of the original founders, but the official Stratford Festival website credits Tom Patterson, a Stratford-born journalist, as the "dreamer and doer." Regardless, Worth had lead roles that summer and, in subsequent years, appeared at the Festival regularly earning her the often-used title "first lady of Stratford."

During the 1960s, John Gielgud and Worth collaborated in dramatic readings. On June 13, 1965, she received her first Tony award as Miss Alice in Edward Albee's *Tiny Alice.* She spent much of the next decade in North America and won another Tony as the Princess in Tennessee Williams' *Sweet Bird of Youth.*

During 1993-1994, Worth produced and performed a two-hour monologue, *Portrait of Edith Wharton,* based on Wharton's life and writing. Worth stood behind a lectern using no props, costumes or sets. She delineated characters through vocal and visual nuance.

Through interviews and reviews, a perceptual portrait of Worth emerges. She filled the stage with her presence. Her voice was deep and melodious. She had dark, deep-set, slightly hooded eyes; high, wide cheek bones; and an hour-glass figure. She was gracious, elegant, and in control with a warm and humorous personality. According to interviewer Toby Zimmerman, her speech was laced with "dramatic pauses, measured phrases and italicized repetitions."

She was highly intelligent, equally adept at tragedy and comedy, wanted to be challenged, and relished avant-garde and experimental roles.

She loved working on stage because there was room for improvisation through movement and interpretation. Peter Eyre once compared acting with her to "jamming with a great jazz musician."

Worth found ways to combine her love of all the arts with theater. For instance, Harvard music professor Earl Kim composed music to accompany Samuel Beckett's words and asked Worth to recite them in concert. She was enticed, although she asserted that "the complicated score required split-second timing and hair's breath pauses, every word articulated to the notes."

In another blend of artistic styles, Worth suggested and performed a verbal recital to accompany an exhibition of theatrical drawings from London's Victoria and Albert Museum.

She recorded many of Virginia Woolf's letters and diaries for the *Listening Library* and appeared in *I Take Your Hand in Mine,* based on the love letters of Anton Chekhov and Olga Knipper.

Worth believed in the theater's therapeutic powers and felt that change for good should be accomplished "subtly rather than by irritating." She liked to play strong women heroes. One of those was humanitarian suffragette Elizabeth Cady Stanton.

Worth knew how to deal with doubters. Prior to being cast in Neil Simon's *Lost in Yonkers,* director Gene Saks wondered if she could do a German accent. Simon and Saks met her for lunch. As they told it, "She looked at us with a cold, chilling stare" and announced that she had not auditioned in forty-two years. She requested the waiter to bring the dessert cart and asked, "Should I haff ze strudel, or perhaps ze apple tart? . . . Danke schoen." She neither smiled nor looked at them. Simon said, "She was smarter than all of us."

Worth opined that bad reviews could make one unsure of oneself. She wished critics would come to rehearsals several times, then attend the play after opening night.

She remained single, explaining that she felt unable to combine being a good actress, mother and wife; but she had no regrets. She said an artist must share her talent. Furthermore, she stated, "The whole purpose of art is to reach that moment of absolute dead center when everything is free and fulfilled."

Worth received many awards including three Tonys, an Obie, and a British Film Academy Award. She was inducted into the New York Hall of Fame and the London Hall of Fame. She received honorary doctorates from Tufts University and Queens College of the City University of New York.

She died March 10, 2002 at age eighty-five.

Major published sources about her life and career are *Current Biography* (1968) and *American Theatre* (February 1996) and a 12-page tabloid size supplement in the April 15, 1998 *Wilber* /NE/ *Republican* and an obituary in the March 13, 2002 *Los Angeles Times*.