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Call for Papers

for publishing in Kappa Omicron Nu FORUM
the journal of Kappa Omicron Nu Honor Society

Topic: Legacies for the Future

Dr. Sharon Y. Nickols, Guest Editor

Objectives - This theme will

1. Record the accomplishments of leaders in family and consumer sciences and all of its specializations, including the following:
 - a) Leaders from various racial and ethnic groups;
 - b) Leaders in the fields of education at all levels, business and industry, and public service agencies, thus emphasizing the venues for applying the knowledge and practicing the philosophy of family and consumer sciences;
2. Draw implications about the legacy of past leaders for the future of the family and consumer sciences profession with emphasis on conditions and policy-shaping research, instruction, and service.
3. Inspire professionals to make contributions to the field.

Overview - *Legacies for the Future* focuses on the history of family and consumer sciences (domestic science and home economics) by "telling the stories" of leaders who responded to societal needs and intellectual challenges and who helped to shape the programs of study, the research, the policy initiatives, and the practice of their times. In other words, this theme hopes to capture the legacies of leaders in domestic science and those who shaped the field as it evolved in the United States through 1985. Without a written record of the contributions of past leaders, the history of a profession will be lost. Because the past often points the way for the future, the thinking and actions of past leaders can provide insights to those currently in the field of family and consumer sciences. Understanding the context of events is more readily achieved when the work of leaders is documented with reference to the challenges they faced.

Information and Deadline - *Kappa Omicron FORUM* is a refereed publication outlet for both members and nonmembers. Manuscripts are due August 31, 1998.

To assure breadth of biographical sketches, each author is asked to file a proposed name with the guest editor at (706) 542-4879 in advance of preparing the manuscript.

For further information or to obtain a copy of "Guidelines for Authors," contact: Kappa Omicron Nu FORUM, 4990 Northwind Drive, Suite 140, East Lansing, MI 48823-5031. Telephone: (517) 351-8335 Facsimile: (517) 351-8336

Guest Editor's Introduction

Sharon Y. Nickols

This is the second issue of *Kappa Omicron Nu FORUM* focusing on "Legacies for the Future." The purpose of these special issues is to provide a record of the contributions of some leaders who helped shape the field of family and consumer sciences so that their experiences and insights can help inform the future.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in documenting the contributions of previously unheralded teachers, researchers, administrators, and advocates, as shown by a spate of articles in the *Journal of Home Economics* and the *Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences*. [See, for example, Ralston's (1994) article about Flemmie P. Kittrell, Navratil & Johnson's (1997) oral histories from teachers, Brown's (1997) review of the role of home economists in the public utilities, and Jolly's (1996) article about Mabel Ward.]

Collaboration between historians and home economists as illustrated in the recently published book *Rethinking Home Economics: Women and the History of a Profession* (Stage & Vincenti, 1997) has led to revisions in some previously harsh judgments that the home economics movement, at various stages, inhibited women's political, economic, and social advancement. (See, for example, Stage's chapters "Home Economics: What's in a Name?" and "Ellen Richards and the Social Significance of the Home Economics Movement.") The dialogue about the broader significance of home economics/family and consumer sciences continues in other circles while this publication focuses on three women who pioneered (read pioneered literally in the case of Zina Card) in various aspects of the profession and on the evolution of nutrition, a specialized science that developed within home economics.

The authors who prepared manuscripts for the "Legacies for the Future" special issues were motivated by the same compelling curiosities and commitments expressed by Firebaugh and Brumberg (1997, p. ix): ". . . we needed to know more about home economics because we wanted to understand not only the painful trials and struggles but also the accomplishments and successes." In this issue, the contributions of Irma H. Gross, pioneer in the field of home management, are presented by Diana D. Carroll whose assignment to a graduate seminar provided the springboard for assembling more information about Dr. Gross's long, productive life. Marjorie Knoll reminisces



about the personal side of “Irmie H.” at the end of Carroll’s article. The trials and struggles, as well as the accomplishments, of Zina Young Williams Card are chronicled by Rowley, Philipps, Stucki, and Nichols; and those of Virginia Farrer Cutler are summarized by Rowley and Brasher. Both Cutler and Card worked in the western United States and fostered the development of home economics in international settings.

The final article in this issue by Rima D. Apple chronicles the development of the science of nutrition and the challenges and opportunities this field provided for women as an entry into the professions. Permission to reprint this work is greatly appreciated as *FORUM* provides an avenue for further distribution of this excellent piece originally published in The Netherlands. I recommend reading Babbitt’s chapter “Legitimizing Nutrition Education: The Impact of the Great Depression” in *Rethinking Home Economics* (Stage & Vincenti, 1997) as a companion piece to Apple’s article. While Apple deals with the evolution of nutrition as a professional field during the century 1840 to 1940, Babbitt focuses on the barriers faced by home economists in the New York State Cooperative Extension Service in implementing nutrition education at the turn of the century. She explains that these barriers were overcome by the desperate need to change food consumption habits and to propagate nutrition education during the Great Depression of the 1930s.

There are three prominent themes in the three biographies: a) women helping other women in the face of adversity, b) unconventional behavior of women whose life circumstances caused them to adopt multiple roles and to virtually eliminate the boundaries between profession and family, and c) transfer of an intellectual heritage from teacher to student. The assistance provided by Anastasia Doyle to Virginia Cutler enabling her to continue her education goes beyond mentorship. While of lesser magnitude, there are other examples of how women family members and colleagues supported and encouraged these emerging educators. Neither Cutler nor Zina Young Williams Card allowed the constraints of the Mormon religion, which most observers believe to be restrictive regarding the roles of women, to dissuade them from pursuing their educational goals or their careers when faced with the necessity of providing for their families. The history of Irma Gross is replete with references to outstanding scholars such as Hazel Kyrk, Isabel Bevier, and Marion Talbot whose intellectual legacy she, in turn, passed on to her students and collaborators.

One of the objectives of the “legacies” emphasis is to inspire professionals to make contributions to the field of family and consumer sciences. A more conscious awareness of the impact we can potentially make surely comes from reflecting on the contributions of past leaders. Their intellectual prowess, perseverance, creativity, and loyalty is a legacy to the future of family and consumer sciences which we have the duty to carry on.

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State of the Society

Anne M. Weiner, 1996 Chair, Board of Directors

As I complete my fourth year on the Board, I reflect on the growth I have seen in the Board and in the organization. The Carver policy governance philosophy has been translated into actual KON Board governance policies and provides an atmosphere where Board members can be concerned with the real issues of the organization—mission and policies. Members and their interest are truly represented by the Board in this structure. I appreciate the support of the membership during my terms in office and thank Dorothy Mitstifer for her help and encouragement.

The Board of Directors met in Dallas for the annual January meeting. With Julia Dinkins serving as facilitator, we reviewed and made moderate revisions to the Board Governance Policies and reaffirmed the belief that the implementation of the Carver Policy Governance Model best meets the needs of Kappa Omicron Nu and its members. We reviewed the mission and ends and revised the strategies from the previous year. Leadership: Reflective Action will continue as the 1997-99 program theme and will be the 1997 Conclave theme.

Recognition and Awards

Outstanding members of Kappa Omicron Nu were recognized in several ways:

Fellowships - Five fellowships totaling 10,000 were awarded for the 1996-97 academic year:

Omicron Nu/Eileen C. Maddex Fellowship - Amy L. Ellis, Appalachian State University.

Omicron Nu Research Fellowship - Laura Winter Falk, Cornell University.

Kappa Omicron Phi/Dorothy I. Mitstifer Fellowship - Marquita R. Furness, University of Alabama-Birmingham.

Kappa Omicron Phi/Marie Huff McCubbin Fellowship - Beth Maddock Magistad, University of Minnesota.

Kappa Omicron Phi/Hettie Margaret Anthony Fellowship - Robin Trimble White, Iowa State University.

Scholar Program - Grants for local scholarship are awarded to chapters once each biennium. 50 awards totaling \$14,000 were given to chapters for the 1996-97 academic year.

Undergraduate Research Paper - The Coordinating Council of Honor Societies Award for an outstanding undergraduate research paper was given to Kappa Omicron Nu member Kathleen Williams Bevill of Baylor University, who presented her paper at the Kappa Omicron Nu luncheon held during the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (AAFCS) in Nashville.

Society Publications

The Spring, 1996 issue of *Kappa Omicron Nu FORUM* focused on "Leadership: Reflective Human Action." Issues dedicated to "Legacies for the Future" and one featuring "Making Community" will be released in the future.

Four issues of *Dialogue* were published in the past year; they explored the themes of leadership and diversity.

Kappa Omicron Nu contributed to the AAFCS publication, *A Book of Readings: The Context for Professionals in Human, Family and Consumer Sciences*. This volume deals with the integrative nature of the profession and is intended for an undergraduate student audience. Kappa Omicron Nu has undertaken the development of a similar book of readings for graduate students and efforts are underway to identify relevant manuscripts.

Toward a Theory of Family Well-Being, a publication of papers presented at the 1996 AAFCS Annual Meeting, was published by Kappa Omicron Nu this year.

Utilizing technology to increase communication within the organization was a goal that was met this past year. Members can communicate with the Executive Director and the National Office via e-mail on the Internet. Kappa Omicron Nu now has a web page (<http://www.kon.org>) where members and others who are interested in the organization can find information on topics such as member services, calendar and events, officers and committees, and a list of chapters.

Chapters

I was proud to attend the installation of a new Kappa Omicron Nu chapter at Madonna University in Michigan last April. In a wonderfully planned ceremony, Nu Epsilon chapter initiated 21 students and 3 faculty members. Many of the University's faculty and administrators were present at the event.

Membership in the honor society continues to grow. Exceeding the record set in 1995, 2768 new members were initiated in



1996. Recognition of the relevance and importance of the organization continues to increase among students. Life, alumni, and campus membership bring the 1996 active member total to almost 11,000.

Contribution of KON Leaders

Terms for national officers coincide with the calendar year, except Student Representatives who serve from one conclave to the next. Board members whose terms expired in 1996 were Anne M. Weiner, Chair; Carol B. Meeks, Vice Chair for Program; and Ann Vail, Secretary.

The Society has also been served by our standing committees. Sincere thanks to the following committee members whose terms expired in 1996: Editorial, James D. Moran, III and Sharon Y. Nickols ; Nominating, Shirley Hymon-Parker and Pamela Olson .

Committees provide a valuable governance function and assist the organization in achieving its mission. Committees for 1996 included the following members: Awards I, Barbara Amundsen, Geraldine Johnson, Lynette Olson, and Mary Rainey; Awards II, Gwendolyn Paschall, Deborah Fowler, Jane Reagor, and Marilyn Swierk ; Awards III, Virginia Clark, Kathleen Bands, Beth Goudge, and Virginia Vincenti ; Constitution and Bylaws, Kaye Boyer, Karla Hughes, Susan Poch, and Mary Pritchard.

Collaboration with Other Organizations

Kappa Omicron Nu has continued to work with Phi Upsilon Omicron in the Coordinating Council of Honor Societies (CCHS). In addition to sponsoring the undergraduate research paper competition, CCHS presented the Graduate Program Showcase at the AAFCS Annual Meeting. This program was cosponsored by the Preprofessional/Graduate Student Section of AAFCS and provided colleges and universities with the opportunity to introduce their graduate programs to prospective students.

As part of the Leadership Academy, Kappa Omicron Nu joined with the 1994 Emerging Administrators, the Council of Administrators of Family and Consumer Sciences, and the Family and Consumer Sciences Administrative Leadership Council to sponsor a preconference workshop at the 1996 AAFCS Annual Meeting. The workshop featured the Reflective Human Action leadership model. Kappa Omicron Nu is also working with Kappa Delta Pi, an honor society in education, in a collaborative project for the Association of College Honor Societies using the Campus Change Model to teach reflective human action.

National Recognition

Kappa Omicron Nu received a 1996 Athena Award Honorable Mention in the category of Excellence in Mentoring. This award was given for the module, *Mentoring: The Human Touch*, which was developed by the organization to guide chapter programming. This module has been used within and outside of our field and was the basis for the joint mentoring program established with the College of Human Ecology at Michigan State University.

Financial Status

Increases in the number of initiates and active collegiate and alumni members have strengthened the financial position of the organization. There were startup costs associated with linking the National Office to the Internet and developing the organization's web page. In 1996, about \$6,000 was added toward our goal of a reserve of 60 percent of the annual general fund budget. Adjusted 1996 budget figures show 50 percent for leadership, scholarship, and research (scholarship/research, leadership, communications); 40 percent for affiliation networks (chapter/member services), and 10 percent for organization (management).

Liabilities and Fund Balances

9/30/95

General Fund

\$ 50,134

Restricted Funds

\$294,808

9/30/96

General Fund

\$ 54,232

Restricted Funds

\$307,980

Summary

Kappa Omicron Nu is a vitally active organization that is providing leaders and leadership to the profession. Collegiate chapters are strong, membership continues to increase, and more collegiate and alumni members are actively involved in the honor society. Kappa Omicron Nu is well positioned to be a leading organization in the 21st century.



Science Gendered: Nutrition in the United States, 1840-1940

Rima D. Apple

The history of women in nutrition is emblematic of the evolution of our discipline, containing within it tensions, goals, and institution building that influenced the growth of the wider field. Its domestic roots are evident in its focus on diet and the nutritional value of foods; its professional core is manifest in its emphasis on laboratory and empirical studies. In its gendered—and at times conflicted—domain, women found a space to develop their talents and those of their students. Though this essay concludes before World War II, the significance and internal contradictions of nutrition continue to provide an important arena for women, as recent studies demonstrate (Liquori, 1995). Nutrition, both domestic and professional, remains a vital aspect of our profession, and its history provides us with a critical lens for understanding the challenges our predecessors faced and so ably surmounted.

Reference: Liquori, T. (1995). *Food matters: The influence of gender on science and practice in the nutrition profession: An institutional ethnography*. Ed.D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The science of nutrition played a pivotal role in women's private and professional lives in the United States in the century 1840-1940. Historic nurturers of the family, women have been relegated to the household, separated from the public sphere of scientific research. Yet, ironically, one science, nutrition, both enhanced women's position in the domestic sphere and gave women an arena in which to practice science. To many this statement will be surprising. In our culture, science is considered a masculine enterprise. The female domain has been divorced from and is less important than the male domain. Moreover, in the history of nutrition in the United States we memorialize the names of W. O. Atwater, Lafayette Mendel, and Elmer V. McCollum. But, looking beyond these few men to those who worked as researchers in the laboratory, who applied the findings of nutritional research to the American diet, who taught Americans about nutrition, and who were learned in nutritional standards, we find a world of women. The female composition of the discipline, its practitioners and its constituency, is undeniable.

Dr. Apple is Professor, School of Human Ecology and Women's Studies, University of Wisconsin, Madison

This article (Chapter 5 of *Clio Medica* authored by Rima Apple and published in Amsterdam, The Netherlands, in 1995) is reprinted with permission from editors, Harmke Kamminga and Andrew Cunningham.



Women were the major force in the growth and development of nutrition and the demand for nutrition information in the United States in the years from 1840 to 1940. They were its continuing audience, eager to learn, convinced of the importance of nutritional knowledge in carrying out their roles as wives and mothers. The primary responsibility for the nutritional status of the family rested on female shoulders. Their needs and concerns helped shape the direction of nutrition research. Additionally, women were among the leading researchers who pushed forward new theoretical arenas; they applied contemporary research to the problems of the American diet; they taught others the significance of modern nutritional knowledge and how to use it in their homes.

Nutrition emerged from and was shaped by three distinct and interrelated strands—the growth of home economics, the development of the ideology of scientific motherhood, and the work of university and experiment station laboratories—all of which fostered the gendering of the science. In each strand women were a significant creative and energizing force behind the development of nutrition.

Nutrition in the Domestic Sphere

Home economics was branded with the epithet “women’s work.” The connection between home economics, the science of nutrition, and women’s work can be dated from the 1840s with Catharine Beecher’s *Treatise on Domestic Economy*. Beecher, a leading nineteenth-century educator, did not advocate women conducting scientific research. Rather, she encouraged women to *learn* all they could about contemporary science and to use that knowledge to *decide* how best to feed their families. Beecher accepted the socially sanctioned cultural definition of woman as wife and mother but combined this image with a new ideal of educated motherhood. Her cookbook, published in 1846, considered food preparation to be an art and a science. Previous cookbooks typically presented a collection of recipes; Beecher’s book established a pattern for modern cookbooks that emphasized basic principles.¹ In her work we see the early advocacy of the ideology of scientific motherhood, that is the belief that mothers need scientific and medical expertise to raise their families healthily.² Beecher insisted that modern women needed instruction to be successful homemakers, specifically education in science.

Despite the limited avenues for formal education, much less for science instruction, open to women in the nineteenth century,

other venues, such as advice books, home medical manuals, and women's magazines, extolled woman's need to learn from science to be a good wife and mother, and continued to promote Beecher's theme of self-education. This material was sometimes presented in didactic form: a scientist, physician, or lay writer described some aspect of contemporary science and explained its application to the homemaker's life. Mrs. J. H. Kellogg, wife of Dr. John Harvey Kellogg, frequently published such articles in women's magazines. As was typical she combined scientific nutrition and practical advice, while reminding women that they were responsible for the health of their families. In a representative example on the topic of "Training of the Appetite," in *Mother's Friend* in 1895, she wrote:

It is especially important that a dietary for children should contain an abundance of nitrogenous or protein material. It is needed not only for human tissue repair, but must be on deposit for the purpose of growth, since it is the bone-and-muscle-forming element of food.

Of all food the seeds and cereals possess this element the most abundantly. . . . While other foods may and should be used, let a cereal food, rich in gluten, form the foundation upon which the meal is based.³

Frequently, the expectation that women would want, need, and use scientific information was conveyed in more subtle ways. *Hearth and Home* was a popular nineteenth-century journal whose intended audience was rural families. It included a weekly article of household tips entitled "Mrs. Kate Hunnibee's Diary," a chatty advice column for homemakers. In a typical issue, the author discussed how she selected the menu for a dinner party:

I hesitated for a while between roast beef and baked chicken, but finally decided upon the poultry. According to some authorities, chicken is a little more nutritious than beef, while others claim for beef more heartiness; but chicken digests an hour sooner than beef, and is therefore not so heavy a diet. . . . Cranberry sauce hasn't a bit of food in it save the sugar, but it helps the rest assimilate and is the most delightful of tarts. The same may be said of apples & raisins. As for turnips, they are nearly all water, but their flavor is pleasant. The potato, macaroni, bread, butter, and tapioca will supply starch or carbon to make good the waste by respiration.⁴

Though she wrote in a conversational tone, this author clearly expected that her readers cared about scientific discoveries and would use the information to plan their family menus.

Some journals employed health-care professionals to dispense nutritional information and advice. Typical was an 1893 column



in *Ladies' Home Journal*, by Elizabeth Robinson Scovil, a nurse. Entitled "The Children's Lunch," Scovil's article provides readers with detailed instructions on how to prepare a schoolchild's lunch basket, including the physiological rationale for her recommendations. Echoing Beecher's approach which combined socially accepted images of maternal affection and the need for educated motherhood, she cautions women that "mother love must be on the alert, like a wise master builder watching that the child receives what its frame needs for the proper development of every part." After this warning about mother's awesome responsibility in raising healthy children, Scovil explains:

Foods that abound in nitrogen are especially valuable in aiding in the growth of the tissues. Milk, eggs and lean meat belong to this class. Cereals that are rich in albuminoids, as wheat oatmeal, barley, etc., and some of the vegetables, particularly peas and beans, furnish good building materials.⁵

She then goes on to elucidate the importance of starch, fat, and sugar in the child's diet. For those "perplexed mothers" who would ask "How . . . shall we fill the children's lunch basket?" Scovil lays out the advantages and disadvantages, and appropriate styles of preparation, for various meats, breads, sweets and fruits, as well as beverages. A good mother, the article seems to say, is one who understands nutrition and employs that knowledge in constructing her family's diet.

The prescriptive literature for mothers was clear: women need education in nutrition to be successful mothers. Assessing the impact of this advice is somewhat more difficult because only a few individual homemakers have left us a record of their responses. However, the data that do exist suggest strongly that women came to believe that they needed to learn all they could from authoritative sources. For the "Just Among Ourselves" column in the *Ladies' Home Journal* in April 1894, a column "devoted to a social interchange of ideas among Journal readers," one reader, F. A. R., declared:

We are told by scientific writers that the kind of food we eat and the way it is cooked have much to do with our physical, mental, and spiritual welfare. . . .

I have just been reading a scientific treatise on food substances and their dietetic properties, which contains some practical explanation of the principles of healthful-cooking. It is just such instruction that housekeepers need.⁶

Her ringing endorsement of education and the many letters sent to women's magazines and health agencies requesting answers to nutritional questions demonstrate that women did accept the need for nutrition information to help them in their roles of wife and mother. They actively sought out such instruction.⁷

Nutrition in the Advertising Arena

By the end of the century, advice to women on the importance of nutritional scientific information in their everyday life could be found in women's magazines, on the lecture circuit, and in texts written for home use. Manufacturers also emphasized the necessity of scientific knowledge, or at least the need for an appreciation of scientific knowledge, to ensure the healthy feeding of the family.⁸ Sometimes it was enough merely to mention an illustrious scientist. More than one enterprising druggist invoked the honoured name of Liebig himself (see Figure 5. 1). Liebig had constructed an infant formula consisting of wheat flour, cow's milk, and malt flour mixed with bicarbonate of potash. Based on his chemical and physiological studies, Liebig considered this the perfect infant food.⁹ But, this advertising chemist felt that that information was not necessary to convince consumers to buy the item; the name of Liebig was his selling point. His faith in the power of the name suggests that he believed women knew and cared about the latest scientific pronouncements.

Figure 5.1

No More Wet Nurses!

Liebe's, Baron von Liebig's, *Soluble* Food-the most perfect substitute for *Mother's* milk. Prepared by T. Paul Liebe, Chemist, Dresden.

This food dissolves easily in warm milk, and is *at once ready* for the use of babies.

At all druggists. \$1 per bottle.

Depot, HEIL & HARTUNG,
390 PEARL STREET,
Wholesale Druggists, New-York.

Scientific baby food. Advertisement for Liebig's Soluble Food, 1969. Source: *Hearth and Home*, i (1869), 207.

Many other advertisers designed promotions based on contemporary chemical and physiological data to persuade women to purchase their products. The manufacturers of Mellin's, another nineteenth-century infant food, may have believed that consumers wanted more detailed material about a product, or they may have believed that the presentation of more details was in itself a



convincing argument to buy the product. In either case, their nineteenth-century advertisements were very wordy, and cited both “scientific” analysis of the problem and the name of Liebig. The text explained that “A compound suitable for the infant’s diet must be alkaline in reaction; must be rich in heat producers, with a proper admixture of albuminoids of a readily digestible nature, together with the necessary salts and moisture.” A difficult task, to be sure, but the famous Liebig had compounded a “proper Infants’ Food,” which was, of course, Mellin’s, “the only Infants’ Food prepared in accordance with the known laws of physiology, and which fulfills the requirements of Liebig’s principles.”

Food advertisers in the late nineteenth century often combined a scientific explanation with an invocation of a famous name or person with an academic or medical title in order to promote their products. Commonly, they warned the consumer of a problem that was explained in technical terms: with Mellin’s, it was the “swelling tide of infantile disease;” with Prof. Horsford’s Self-Raising Bread Preparation: A Scientific Substitution for Yeast, Cream of Tartar, & Soda or Salertus, it was that

When Bread, Biscuits, etc. are made by the use of Yeast, the nutritive qualities of the flour are destroyed and often times objectionable acids are formed and bad bread made in this way is a fruitful source of Dyspepsia and Indigestion.

Just as the Mellin’s advertisement was pleased to inform consumers that the solution was Mellin’s Food, Horsford’s Bread Preparation advertisements assured consumers that the product “contains in itself the highly nutritious and strength-giving properties which are required by the system”¹⁰

How much faith did consumers place in the scientific claims of late nineteenth-century advertisements? How much of the text did they read and understand? These questions are not directly answerable and are less important than the clear evidence that advertisers believed it was important to provide this information to consumers. Obviously advertisers were convinced that a successful marketing campaign needed to address the nutritional bases of their products and inform the consumer in scientific terms why she should buy the advertised item. It was necessary to present the image of a product that was manufactured in accordance with contemporary nutritional knowledge. Furthermore, such advertisements gave added credibility to the image of scientific motherhood by implying, if not baldly stating, that women needed science to carry out their domestic duties successfully.

Women's Responsibility for Nutrition

The ideology of scientific motherhood encouraged women's interest in science and provided a forum in which women could pursue science, at least science connected with their domestic tasks. It formed the underlying, and usually unstated, rationale for articles and columns in women's magazines, for cookbooks, and for advertising campaigns. Most significantly it spurred the creation and growth of home economics in the United States, an educational movement founded on the importance of science in women's lives, especially the science of nutrition.

Some of the earliest work in home economics concerned nutrition and the mother's responsibility for the healthy feeding of her family. Beecher's cookbook is probably the oldest example. More didactic was *The Chemistry of Cooking and Cleaning: A Manual for Housekeepers* of 1882, written by Ellen Richards, a chemist and founder of home economics. In this book, first published early in her career, Richards insisted that "In this age of applied science, every opportunity of benefiting the household should be seized upon."¹¹ Her book provided the reader with a clear description of basic chemical principles, which Richards then used to explain how the various known elements nourish the body and to outline human nutritional needs. Her unequivocal conclusion was: "Cooking has thus become an art worthy the attention of intelligent and learned women." Richards' book went through at least three editions by 1907, and in each she reminded the reader of the benefits of science. In each edition, the problems that could arise from disregarding the knowledge of nutritional sciences became increasingly evident. By the third edition, Richards warns her readers that the homemaker should "see to it that no burst of ill temper, no sullen disposition, no intemperance of any kind be caused by *her ignorance* or *her disregard* of the chemical laws governing the reactions of the food she furnishes."¹²

By the early years of the twentieth century, women as the nourishers of the family were held responsible for providing scientifically appropriate meals for their households. Failure to do so was more than a rejection of feminine duties, it had ramifications for society as a whole, in the present, and in the future. One twentieth-century proponent of educated motherhood, Mary L. Read, reminded mothers that "not only the general health of the individual but also the quality of the teeth, the efficiency of the digestive system, the desire for stimulants, the stability of the nervous system, the quality of mental activity, power of will, strength of character, the happiness, or misery of



everyday living, are profoundly affected by the foods and regime of feeding during childhood.” To feed a child appropriately, she counseled, was “not an easy matter.” However, she assured mothers that with “careful and earnest study of food composition, food values, the physiology of digestion, dietetics, [and] cooking” a woman could master the knowledge and skills necessary.¹³

It was a mother’s obligation to ensure the health of her family through proper diet, through a thorough knowledge of nutrition. Cooking, the *Ladies’ Home Journal* reminded its readers in 1907,

requires thought, invention, economy, and care, and any woman who undertakes cooking, feeling that she has no responsibility towards her family, is not a true woman, no matter in what station of life she has been born; she is not, at heart, either wife or mother.¹⁴

A few years later, a popular magazine, *Forecast*, editorialized that:

Of all the varied aspects of the housekeeper’s business not one is so important as that of securing proper nutrition for her family. Neither an ideally hygienic home “plant,” an orderly, gracious, well directed home routine, nor any other kind of well-being which she can bestow upon her family is so important as perfect nutrition. Without that, all else fails, of necessity to accomplish its end. Sunshine and air, charming coloring, pleasant and orderly ways of a household—none of these can save the ill-nourished body, nor give the owner of such a body a moment’s real happiness.

However, the editors recognized that while mothers were accountable for the healthy feeding of their families, they were not innately prepared for this duty. Thus, they reminded their readers:

It is supremely the housekeeper’s business, therefore, to know what the leaders in nutrition discover from time to time.¹⁵

Some writers were careful to point out that motherhood meant more than the physical act of giving birth. From that beginning women needed to learn how to be successful mothers. In a call for “trained motherhood” in the journal *Farmers Wife*, Della Thompson Lutes warned readers that “the mother—if she is to be a good mother—must learn from authoritative sources just as does the nurse or the teacher.”¹⁶ In order to be a good mother, specifically in order to feed her family healthily, a woman needed to study nutritional science.

The injunction that women were responsible for educating themselves was reiterated frequently in women’s magazines, general interest magazines, and various educational forums.

Women were told repeatedly that the family's health and well-being depended on the mother's nutritional expertise, which could be acquired only by learning from the nutritional sciences:

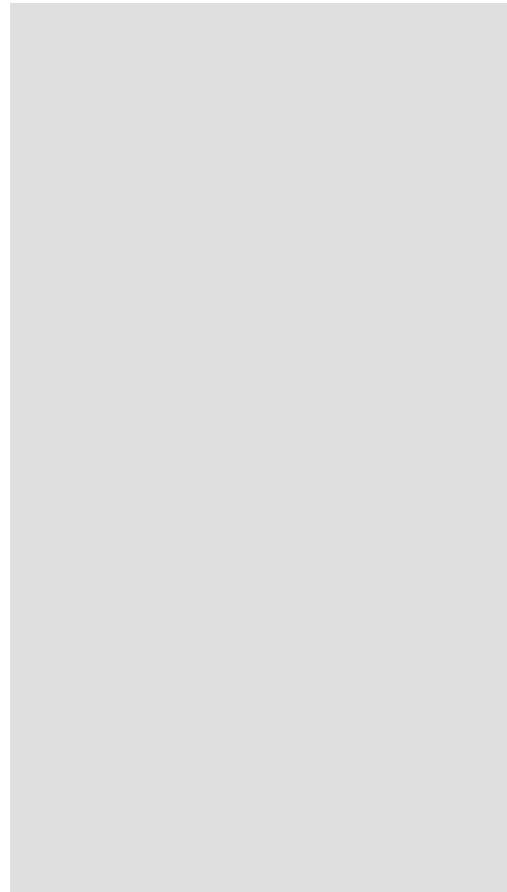
It is the duty of the mother or caretaker to keep a healthy child perfectly well, and to correct existing unhealthy conditions. To accomplish this a woman must have knowledge of the chemistry of foods and the best methods of cooking them.¹⁷

This was the typical claim. Slowly, however, the nature of this advice changed through the twentieth century. Mothers remained responsible for the healthy feeding of their families, and by extension the health of the nation; nutritional sciences were still promoted as the necessary directors. But now women were not expected to think for themselves. Since using science was masculine, women needed scientists and physicians to tell them how to cook.

Figure 5.2

Releasing nutrients for easier digestion: advertisement for Libby's Homogenized Baby Foods. Source: *Parents' Magazine*, xii (April 1938), 71.

This shift from learning for oneself to taking instruction from others is apparent in the tone and content of articles in popular literature and in advertising. Manufacturers, too, were acutely aware of the rising prestige of science, which was often linked to medicine, and that women were increasingly being told to listen to experts. For example, unlike the textual presentation of Mellin's Food in 1885, Libby's Food in 1938 presented an eye-catching visual of parents and child, and little text (see Figure 5.2). The copy was a pointed example of the transformation in the ideology of scientific motherhood: no longer was the mother expected to read and decide for herself the appropriate foods for her family; rather, she followed the directions given by the doctor. Moreover, readers were urged not to learn for themselves but to "Ask your doctor."





While learning that they needed experts to tell them how to feed their families, mothers in the twentieth century were also learning that the nation's future depended on their success or failure in following directions. Poor diet affected not only the physical and emotional stability of the family. By extension, the health of the family was connected with the health of the nation. A mother delinquent in the feeding of her family chanced sending out into the world disgruntled, maladjusted husband and children. Moreover, she risked dissolution of home and family. A poor-relief agent in Chicago in 1904 was faced with an increasing number of single mothers applying for aid. The subsequent report "advanced the theory that bad cooking, etc., on the part of woman is the cause, and that the proper training of girls in domestic science, etc., will do away with it to a considerable extent." The writer recommended cooking classes for girls as a solution to the problem of runaway husbands.¹⁸ Women and mothers were responsible for the physical and psychological health of their children, the physical and psychological health of the family. However, they needed education to fulfill these awesome duties.

Not only was women's poor cooking blamed for the break-up of the American family, women's supposed lack of nutrition knowledge also was indicted as a contributing factor in the high infant and child mortality rates that were raising much concern in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in the United States.¹⁹ Edward Bok, whose powerful position as long-time editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal* made him a highly regarded social commentator, frequently lambasted women's nutritional ignorance, what he called "criminal ignorance which exists on the part of all too many mothers with regard to what a young child can wisely and safely eat."²⁰ Recognition of a link between poor diet and the health of the nation spurred educational efforts for more widespread dissemination of contemporary nutritional findings to those considered responsible for the nation's well-being, namely the mothers and future mothers of America. Women and girls needed science education.

Science Education Appropriate for Girls

Some educators accepted that both boys and girls needed to study science as part of their general education. Abstract science was acknowledged as a subject more suitable for boys. However, science courses that revolved around familiar domestic items were regarded as appropriate and useful for girls. The authors of a 1901 textbook explained:

The value of an introduction to the scientific method in the school training of both sexes is now fully recognized. There is

still some difference of opinion however, as to how girls can best be taught to appreciate the value of experiment and deduction in the endeavour to understand the forces of Nature. Fortunately, we believe, the idea gains ground that there are no more suitable means than the ordinary operations and practices of the household to illustrate physical and chemical laws.²¹

Educators were pleased that such courses were very popular with girls; the reason for this success, they explained, was that girls “were not studying chemistry, they were using it.”²² Others justified science education for girls not as an aspect of general education but as an important part of training for their future lives, that is, in order for girls to prepare themselves for their roles of wife and mother. Land-grant colleges in the late nineteenth century, which offered men education in scientific farming, offered women students the opportunity to learn the scientific basis for homemaking in the newly emerging departments of home economics. From their beginnings, these courses of study placed the science of nutrition at the forefront of their curriculum.²³ Similarly, science teachers developed home economics curricula on the primary and secondary school levels to provide girls with “a science course to lay a foundation for successful homemaking.”²⁴ Elementary and secondary courses typically stressed the science of nutrition as a significant, if not the most important, aspect of home economics education. Textbooks aiming to “equip the student with enough science to solve the problems of the average housewife” would open their lessons with a statement of purpose such as: “In order to develop the science as a basis for practical conclusions, we shall discuss a few typical problems: A, Securing a clear and concise conception of scientific terms; B, Classification of foods to determine their use and value; C, Evaluating food and determining the kind and quantity to serve.”²⁵

Either rationale, that girls needed a science education to enhance their general education or that girls needed a science education to prepare for motherhood, resulted in a similar curriculum: science taught from the perspective of household management. And, girls and women were anxious to learn about nutritional science. Articles in women’s magazines, frequently written by mothers, point to the importance of scientific knowledge to raise one’s family healthily. Authors went so far as to claim that scientific feeding could save infants’ lives²⁶ and that

As our knowledge of nutrition increases we are more inclined to believe that without the right diet we cannot be healthy, or happy, or agreeable, or even good. This discovery puts a larger burden on the homemaker, but at the same time it elevates woman’s work, making it more worthwhile to master.²⁷



The science of nutrition, though difficult to master, was of prime importance for women in their everyday lives. Being scientific, women would achieve success in two ways: one, their families would be healthier, and two, their domestic work would gain in status by participating in the prestige of science.

FORUM Nineteenth-Century Nutrition Research

Women not only sought out and used nutritional knowledge, they also shaped the direction and scope of the nutritional sciences in several direct, though infrequently acknowledged ways. A prime mover in these developments was Ellen Richards, the first woman chemist at M.I.T. In 1888 Richards was a member of a jury evaluating essays submitted in a prize competition for the American Public Health Association. The winning essay, "Practical, Sanitary, and Economical Cooking Adapted to Persons of Moderate and Small Means," was written by Mary Hinman Abel, who had spent time in Germany where she studied the latest European nutritional research.²⁸ Impressed with the less expensive diet of Europeans, Abel used contemporary science to explain the nature and function of food as well as to demonstrate to American housewives a scientifically constructed dietary that was a cheaper way of feeding their families. Abel's essay directed Richards' attention to the problem of nutrition for the poor.

Together Abel and Richards, with the assistance of philanthropists, developed the New England Kitchen, which was modeled along the lines of the soup kitchens for the poor that Abel had studied in Germany. There was one significant difference in the American version, however. Both Richards and Abel were determined that the kitchen would be an experiment station; designed to utilize the latest scientific findings, it would develop a nutritional system that would enable the poor to eat healthily and inexpensively. They were joined in their efforts to educate the poor in scientific eating habits by W. O. Atwater, director of the agricultural experiment station in Connecticut. Abel and Richards also opened another kitchen in Chicago at the 1893 World's Fair. Though a demonstration kitchen run by two women, it was the only research and development laboratory in human nutrition in the United States.

Though the kitchens did not long retain their role as nutrition laboratories, they did generate interest in the question of human nutrition, interest that Atwater used to convince the U. S. Secretary of Agriculture to fund experiment stations to study human food. Atwater established the first laboratory in Storrs, Connecticut. As the Office of Experiment Station's funding for the agricultural experimentation stations increased in the 1890s

and early 1900s, the agenda established by Richards, Abel, and Atwater found further institutional support. Some 58 projects on human nutrition were published by the Office between 1895 and 1907, before the programme was phased out.

Nutrition in Home Economics

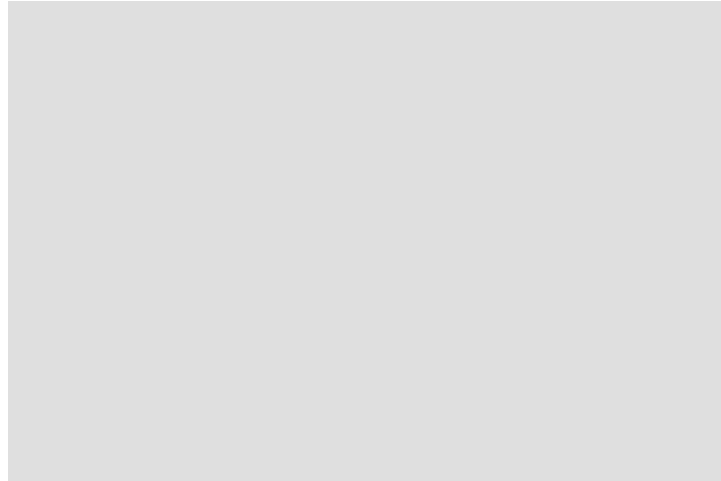
In his laboratories, Atwater also provided a significant workplace in which women could and did pursue nutritional studies. For instance, Isabel Bevier attended Case Western Reserve, studying chemistry and graduating in 1889. Knowing of her interest in graduate training and aware of the difficulties women could have in pursuing a career in chemistry, her professor sent her to Atwater. His rationale for this recommendation, she relates, was “that the place for women in chemistry was in work in foods, and that the big universities in the Middle West, like Michigan, Wisconsin, and Illinois, would one day have some kind of department for foods work with women in it”²⁹ In later years Bevier did become a leader in the home economics education, helping to alter the image of the field from cooking school to scientifically based liberal education. Atwater’s laboratory proved to be the training ground for other women as well: following work there, Caroline Hunt went on to become the head of the home economics department at Wisconsin; and Abel later edited the journal of the American Home Economics Association.

Atwater was not the only male nutritionist who supported women’s scientific aspirations. Nina Simmonds and Helen Tracy Parsons were among the “research associates” of E. V. McCollum at Johns Hopkins University. Moreover, Simmonds co-authored many of McCollum’s publications.³⁰ Parsons went on to Yale to complete her doctorate with Lafayette B. Mendel.³¹ Mary Swartz (later Rose) also studied with Mendel, who was an important mentor for many of the women who achieved doctorates in nutrition. Many of these researchers remained to work in the laboratories of their mentors. However, just as Bevier’s professor had prophesied, other women in nutritional science frequently found their careers in the departments of home economics. In her study Rossiter observes that, during his career at Yale, Mendel trained at least 124 Ph.D.s, of whom 48 were women. His male graduates tended to become members of medical school faculties, and although a few female graduates worked for some time in medical schools and some in research institutes and at women’s colleges, the majority of them became leading figures in the science of nutrition from their positions in the home economics departments of land-grant institutions and Teachers College, Columbia University. For example, Parsons



joined the faculty of the University of Wisconsin home economics department; Swartz Rose joined the faculty of Teachers College. Louise Stanley studied biochemistry under Mendel at Yale, receiving her Ph.D. in 1911. Her university career was at the University of Missouri, in the home economics department³² (See Figure 5.3.).

Figure 5.3



Teaching food science: food science class, Department of Home Economics, University of Wisconsin, Madison. The author wishes to thank Andrea Kaminski for help in locating this photograph.

Many other women were similarly directed from university science departments into home economics. For example, in 1907, Katharine Blunt became one of several women who received a Ph.D. in organic chemistry from the University of Chicago. Her first college teaching post was at Pratt Institute, as an instructor in chemistry in the domestic science department. When she returned to the University of Chicago as a faculty member in 1913, it was in the Home Economics Department.³³ During the First World War, when many schools had difficulty retaining male instructors, some positions did, at least temporarily, open for qualified women. Ruth Okey, with a 1917 Ph.D., in organic analytical chemistry from the University of Illinois, had an instructorship in physiological chemistry at the University for the academic year 1918-19. She recalled that "As long as the war lasted women were needed, and not unwelcome, in chemistry departments as such. But with the return of chemically trained men from the services the situation changed." The advice she received at this time was that "opportunity for the future development of a woman scientist" lay in the nutrition

section of home economics. She was urged to accept a position at Berkeley with Agnes Fay Morgan, which she did, arriving in Berkeley in 1919 and spending most of the remainder of her professional career there.³⁴ Each one of these women and many others had her interest in the study of science funneled in the direction of nutrition research in home economics as the appropriate arena for women in science.

In the inter-war period, science-oriented women continued to receive this advice. When H. C. Sherman, professor at Columbia University, addressed the Symposium on Training and Opportunities for Women in Chemistry at the American Chemical Society meeting in 1939, he explained that in the current employment market, both men and women trained in chemistry needed to look for positions in areas that did not necessarily carry the title “chemistry.” In terms of the chemistry of food and nutrition, he stressed “The preference for women is most frequent in the positions which are administratively classified with home economics.” Moreover, “whether the official title of the position reads chemistry, or nutrition, or home economics, or food economics often makes little if any difference to the actual opportunity which the job affords,” he reminded his audience with little acknowledgment of the status differences between “nutrition” and “home economics.”³⁵ Thus, for Sherman and for other mentors, home economics, in its connection with women’s domestic work, allowed for women’s entrance into the academic world. They did not necessarily see that this discipline consigned them to a less prestigious sphere.

The case of Alice Dynes Feuling is an instructive one. She was the first woman to graduate with a science degree, in her case chemistry, from the University of Chicago. A young widow with two children, she was offered a position at the Agricultural College in Brookings, South Dakota (now South Dakota State University). There she combined teaching with her interest in research. At about this time, South Dakota farmers were beginning to invest in a new strain of wheat, one that was highly pest-resistant and that held water well, making it able to withstand the harsh South Dakota climate. However, products made from its flour did not hold their shape and ran all over the oven during baking. The grain was nicknamed “goose wheat” because farmers who planted it were considered “silly geese.” The Department of Agriculture tested the wheat and judged it worthless. Feuling investigated the matter further. She discovered that the problem was with the flour’s moisture content; the very characteristic that enabled the wheat to grow successfully in South Dakota doomed its use in baking. After four weeks,



Feuling had developed new recipes that enabled her to create a highly satisfactory bread, which she sent to the Governor of the state, to the University of Chicago, and to the Department of Agriculture. Her research demonstrated the commercial viability of the wheat and sustained the South Dakota wheat industry. Following her success, Feuling was asked to become the head of the Home Economics Department at Iowa State University, a position she accepted after persuading the Iowa state legislature to grant \$75,000 for a home economics building.³⁶

Because they were gender stereotyped, the emerging home economics departments provided a venue for many women to pursue their research and a training ground for other women to develop scientific interests. When Isabel Bevier joined the faculty of the University of Illinois in 1900 she was determined that her department reflect scientific as well as utilitarian work. The department was called Household Science, not Home Economics. At the University of Wisconsin, nutrition research began soon after the establishment of the Home Economics Department in 1914 with the work of Amy Daniels, who studied the effect of various cooking methods on the food values. In 1916, Abby Marlatt, the head of home economics at Wisconsin, initiated a research methods course entitled “Experimental Food Study,” during which students studied such topics as the effect of vitamin A deficiency on a puppy’s growth, and the nutrition of students in the public schools.³⁷

The tension between the domestic side of home economics and its more theoretical, scientific side plagued early departments. Many were at land-grant colleges where state residents expected home economics professors to dispense practical advice to housewives and to teach the state’s daughters how to cook. Bevier faced such a problem at Illinois. Though she had to battle to maintain the scientific aspects of her department, she was not without allies. Fortunately, she had been hired by the University President specifically because of her research, which, he anticipated, “would bring prestige to the university.”³⁸

The history of Agnes Fay Morgan is emblematic of the careers of women in the history of nutrition in the twentieth-century United States. Though her professional career was not typical of the majority of women who entered the sciences, her experiences highlight the situations they faced. She received both a bachelor’s degree (1904) and a master’s degree (1905) in chemistry at the University of Chicago, after which she taught chemistry at several colleges in the West and Northwest. While teaching at the University of Washington (1910-1913) she realized that she

would need a doctoral degree if she were to advance in the profession. Consequently, she returned to Chicago and completed her Ph.D. in organic chemistry in 1914, after which she was offered an assistant professorship in the home economics programme at the University of California, Berkeley. Recognizing that it was unlikely she would be hired by a chemistry department, she accepted the position to teach nutrition at Berkeley. She remarked many years later, “So I came to the University of California then, in January 1915, and began giving courses in dietetics and nutrition, a subject I knew nothing about”³⁹ As did other scientifically trained women hired to teach nutrition in home economics departments, such as Bevier and Parsons, Morgan quickly set out to establish a nutrition programme with a heavy emphasis on research.

Soon, however, she was called upon from her position in home economics to help in the war effort. The U. S. Federal Food Administration appointed her State Secretary of Volunteer College Workers. In this position, she coordinated the activities of 920 students in the food conservation programme, taught model courses for volunteer community leaders on food conservation, and gave a large number of public lectures on the subject, as well as conducting nutritional research, participating in a national dietary survey, and designing courses in dietetics for nurses and for the Red Cross. These highly visible, highly regarded wartime activities had beneficial and detrimental effects for the future of home economics and Morgan’s programme at Berkeley. On the positive side, her work was significantly valued, and it generated approval for the Home Economics Department across the campus and across the state. On the negative side, however, the attention focused on the “domestic science” aspect of the Department as an area of applied science with a vocational orientation—in other words, a typical female arena. Though Morgan continued her scientific research as well, and continued to garner professional praise for it, the department and the discipline itself on the Berkeley campus maintained this image of “domesticity;” consequently, it did not receive the acclaim given other, male-dominated science departments.

Given the scope of the Department, Morgan tried for many years to get its name changed to the Department of Human Nutrition. She was thwarted on each attempt. With a woman at its head, even a very well-respected researcher like Morgan, the Home Economics Department was not able to rise above its image as “women’s work,” and was not able to raise its status on campus. (It is interesting to note, that following her retirement in 1954 and some departmental reorganization, a man was named as her



successor to head a department now named the Department of Nutritional Science.)⁴⁰

Nutrition Outside Home Economics

Though many women in nutritional science were directed to home economics, researchers did find other venues for their professional careers. Mary Engle Pennington received a Ph.D. in 1895 from the University of Pennsylvania for a thesis on electro-analytical chemistry. Following graduation she took a post-doctoral fellowship at Yale University and worked at the Philadelphia Bureau of Health studying the relationship between diphtheria outbreaks and contaminated dairy products. In 1906 Harvey W. Wiley, head of the United States Department of Agriculture's Bureau of Chemistry and an influential proponent of the first U. S. Pure Food and Drug law, asked her to set up and direct the Food Research Laboratory he intended to establish to help implement the new law. Pennington resisted, suspecting that the Civil Service would be unwilling to appoint a woman to the post. Wiley prevailed upon her to at least take the Civil Service examination which she did. Wiley then changed her name on the examination paper to M. E. Pennington. Since she scored the highest on the examination the Civil Service offered her the position. When she accepted, they learned her sex and attempted to rescind the offer, explaining to Wiley that there was no precedent for hiring a woman. Wiley insisted that there was no precedent for *not* hiring a woman, and Pennington was appointed Director of the Laboratory. Pennington's position opened up a new area of food science in the federal government, in the U. S. Department of Agriculture, for women to follow their scientific inclinations; however, once again it was an area closely aligned with women's domestic work.

By the time the United States was mobilizing for the First World War, women doing "women's work" were a potent force in nutritional science. When President Woodrow Wilson established the temporary U. S. Food Administration in 1917 to direct the nation in increasing domestic food production and decreasing consumption, there were women with the nutritional expertise to provide the required leadership. Morgan was not alone; the government also called upon the talents of Simmonds, Pennington, Mallatt, Bevier, and Rose, among others. Yet, despite their significance, they are frequently overlooked in the historical record. Even a close study of the period undertaken in 1966 could claim that "At the time of the United States entry into the war only a few women had received nutritional training."⁴¹ Nutritionists in fields such as home economics were not seen as scientists.

Women's Status in the Science of Nutrition

In our histories, work of women in the nutritional sciences has been largely invisible. Drawing a sample of male scientists in her study of *American Men of Science*, Rossiter observes that men were all but absent from the field of nutrition in the early 1920s, a fact that has led her to consider nutrition to be a “feminized” science in the period.⁴² By the 1938 edition of *American Men of Science*, increasing numbers of men had entered the field, but they still represented less than one percent of male scientists. Women practitioners of nutrition, however, accounted for nearly 4.5 percent of women in science in the 1921 edition of the series, and by the 1938 edition this proportion had grown to 8.6 percent.⁴³ Clearly, nutrition was an important area of scientific study for women.

Several factors have inhibited our appreciation and understanding of women's contributions. Many aspects of nutrition were and are closely aligned with “women's work” in the kitchen, denigrated as domestic labour, and thus consigned to the private sphere and therefore less important than masculine “laboratory science.” Furthermore, much of the research conducted by these women focused on women and what were generally considered women's concerns, such as the protein requirements of women, children's dietary needs, and the like. Frequently employed in positions that limited their access to resources available to male researchers, women studying nutrition turned to questions and subjects readily available for study, utilizing materials close at hand and involving their colleagues and students as participants.⁴⁴ Thus Feuling studied wheat; Okey studied monthly variations in basal metabolic rate and the blood and urinary constituents of women, using her graduate students and undergraduate volunteers.⁴⁵ Additional professional factors have prevented our recognition of women's work. Women were more likely to be in the lower occupational strata as well; and typically the areas in which women were prevalent were accorded low status. Moreover, female scientific researchers were less apt than male researchers to be acknowledged with prizes and committee memberships. As Rossiter has so ably demonstrated in analysing the position of women in science in America: “Prize and selection committees repeatedly passed over even outstanding women as if they could not see them properly, were attributing their work to someone else, or were systematically discounting the importance of their work.”⁴⁶

The tendency to ignore the work of women scientists in general in the United States was exacerbated in the case of nutrition



where many women in the field were members of home economics departments. These university units were considered “women’s” departments and consequently lacked the esteem accorded other departments that were composed of men and were considered more “academic.” Women on the faculties of home economics departments were rarely acknowledged for their scientific work. And recognized achievement could be soon forgotten, even at the researcher’s own institution. Historian Maresi Nerad reports that at the retirement celebration for Agnes Fay Morgan’s successor at the University of California, Berkeley, a history of nutrition at Berkeley was presented. “This history started in 1962. All the work of the Department of Home Economics and Dr. Morgan’s achievements in nutrition research of 39 years were ignored by the speaker.”⁴⁷

Organizational memberships similarly reflect a stratification by sex. For example, despite the number of women working in nutrition, relatively few women became members of the elite American Institute of Nutrition, established in 1934. The Institute membership was deliberately limited to “qualified investigators who have independently conducted and published meritorious original investigations in some phases of the chemistry and or physiology of nutrition.” According to this definition, many women in nutrition were ineligible, including the many home economists who did not publish and the research associates who worked in the laboratories of other scientists and were not considered “independent.” Not surprisingly, women comprised only 22 percent of the membership of the Institute.⁴⁸

Groups whose membership requirements mirrored the occupational niches of women in the nutritional sciences look very different. Take, for example, the American Home Economics Association (AHEA). In the AHEA, which joined together teachers, journalists, and extension workers as well as professors and researchers involved in nutrition, women represented more than 90 percent of the members.⁴⁹ Similarly, women predominated in a major field of applied nutrition, dietetics. As a matter of fact, under the by-laws of the American Dietetic Association (ADA), founded in 1917, *men* were ineligible for membership. Thus, when Claud Samuel Pritchett applied for membership in the 1930s he was advised “that he consider the hotel and restaurant field rather than dietetics.” Determined as he was, he studied dietetics in an approved hospital course and in 1936, having fulfilled all the requirements, he did become an active member in the Association. By the late 1950s there were 54 active male members. It is interesting to note the effect of the presence of 54 men among thousands of women. Despite the

overwhelming majority of female members, the personal pronoun “she” was changed to “he” in the ADA Constitution.⁵⁰

Membership in professional and honorary organizations is only one sign that historians use to evaluate the significance of a person or group of persons in the development of a science. Academic success is another important indicator. Since it is in academia that many women pursued their nutritional studies, their invisibility in the academic setting demands further analysis. Once again, Rossiter’s work provides important data for our understanding of this phenomenon. In her analysis of women listed in the *American Men of Science* for 1938, Rossiter calculates that over 10 percent of female faculty in science were in the field of nutrition; without question, nutrition was an important field of scientific research for women. Of women employed on the faculties of the 20 largest doctoral universities in the U. S., nearly one-quarter were nutritionists, frequently housed in departments of home economics. Moreover, fully one-half of the women who had attained the position of full professor were nutritionists; only three women attained the positions of department heads or deans of colleges, all nutritionists.⁵¹

Given these figures and our propensity to identify academics in our histories of science, why have women been invisible? There are several reasons. Many of these women were located in home economics departments and their connection with “women’s work” made their efforts seem less significant. Home economics departments were frequently involved with teacher training for public school instruction. Their charge to prepare home economics teachers for primary and secondary schools meant they could be dismissed as vocational training departments, not science departments. Moreover, research, even when government supported, could be considered trivial; thus work on the vitamin content of food or the applicability of grain could be seen as less important than men’s research.

Conclusion

The science of nutrition in the United States was gendered female in two senses. Firstly, the composition of the field was heavily female; researchers were women, and the primary audience for many of the results of nutritional research in the period 1840 to 1940 were women, that is, wives and mothers. Secondly, the work was considered “women’s work,” a definition that affected not only the composition of the field, but significantly the content of the field, and most importantly the status of the field. As women’s work within home economics, the science was slow to attract many



male researchers; the topics pursued were to some extent shaped by the institutional constraints and also the interests of the audience for home economics.

This gendering had both positive and negative effects. Negatively it has meant that the work of women in the nutritional sciences is only now starting to be recognized and appreciated as men's scientific work has been. Positively, though, in the period from the 1880s to the 1930s it allowed some women to pursue a scientific career at a time when other areas of science were closed to them. The science of nutrition served both to ennoble women's domestic role and to give women a special, productive space in which to practise science.

Acknowledgment

The author would like to thank Margaret Rossiter and Diana Worzala for their insightful comments on earlier drafts of this chapter.

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38. Levenstein, *op. cit.* (note 29), 78; Solberg, *op. cit.* (note 29). Further research is necessary to determine the effect of increased federal spending on training of home economics teachers, which brought money into collegiate departments of home economics and possibly diverted resources and prestige from the research aspects of the units. For some preliminary thoughts on this issue, see Rima D. Apple, "The Smith Hughes Act Redefined Home Economics," in Sarah Stage and Virginia Vincenti (eds.), *Rethinking Home Economics: Women and the History of a Profession*, (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1997) and Linda Marie Fritschner, "The Rise and Fall of Home Economics: A Study with Implications for Women, Education, and Change" (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Davis, 1973).
39. Agnes Fay Morgan quoted in Maresi Nerad, "Gender in Higher Education: The History of the Home Economics Department at the University of California at Berkeley" (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1988), 132.
40. The politics behind these changes are beyond the scope of this chapter. For more on developments at Berkeley, see Nerad, *op. cit.* (note 39).
41. Elliott Francis Rose, "The Nutritional Sciences and the United States War Food Administration, 1917-1918" (M.A. Dissertation, University of California, 1966).
42. Rossiter generated her statistics from *American Men of Science* based on a sample of every 18th male listed in the 3rd ed. (1921) and every 25th male listed in the 6th ed. (1938). In her 1921 sample, no man is included in the field of nutrition; by 1938, the sample included 225. In surveying the women in *American Men of Science*, Rossiter identifies 22 in the field of nutrition in 1921 and 164 in 1938. See table 6.1, page 134, and table 6.2, page 136, in Rossiter, *op. cit.* (note 30).
43. Though women represented virtually 100 percent of the field of nutrition in 1921, as men entered in increasing numbers the female proportion of the field dropped from 100 percent to barely 42 percent by 1938. The factors that contributed to this shift demand further study, but are beyond the time period of this chapter. Such factors would include the increasing funding from private and governmental sources in the 1930s and particularly in the post Second World War era, and the interest of food manufacturers, who looked to and increasingly funded university research from the 1930s onwards. See, for example, Rima D. Apple, "Patenting University Research: Harry Steenbock and the Wisconsin Alumni Research Foundation," *Isis*, lxxx(1989), 375-94.
44. Doris Howes Calloway, "21st Lenna Frances Cooper Memorial Lecture: Nutrition Research By and About Women," *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, lxxxiv (1984), 642-8.
45. Okey, *op. cit.* (note 34), 1427.
46. Rossiter, *op. cit.* (note 30), 267.
47. Nerad, *op. cit.* (note 39), 190-1.
48. Rossiter, *op. cit.* (note 30), 278.
49. *Ibid.*, 276-87.
50. Mary I. Barber, *History of the American Dietetic Association 1917-1959* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1959), 54-5. I wish to thank Lynn Nyhart for directing me to this citation.
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Zina Young Williams Card: A Builder of Home Economics on the Western Frontier 1850-1931

Maxine Lewis Rowley, Pearl Raynes Philipps, Debra Stucki, and Sheldon Nichols

Zina Young Williams Card

Birth: April 30, 1850
Death: January 31, 1931
Education: Private School for Brigham Young family
Brigham Young Academy

Zina Young Williams Card was one of the early teachers and leaders of an evolving field that is now called family and consumer sciences. Born April 30, 1850, her lifetime paralleled developments of an integrative concentration that had as its first parameters devotion to and definitions of education for the roles of women in family, home, and community. Her professional endeavors began when she was a young woman in the 1870s and continued until just before her death in 1931. She participated in the various changes that, through the years, consecutively defined her profession as ladies' work, homemaking, home arts, domestic arts, domestic science, and home economics. She was particularly efficacious as the field unfolded in the unique, somewhat isolated, southwestern areas of Canada, northern parts of Mexico, part of northern California and the entire expanse of seven other western states. A feminist who appears to have been far ahead of her time, she was part of the elite Susan B. Anthony circle of leaders within the U. S. movement for women's rights. Zina brought attention to the need for viable and harmonious changes in education for both men and women in rural areas. She was an important player in linking agriculture and home economics interest groups, in both Canada and the United States. The coalitions that were formed advocated legislation to establish the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Extension Service.

Zina was born into a privileged family that automatically bestowed upon her a position of social prominence and political, economic, and educational opportunities not available to many of her peers. Included were private tutors, governesses, and dance, drama, and music teachers (Autobiography 2, 1914).

Dr. Rowley is teacher educator in Home Economics at Brigham Young University and Omicron Alpha Tau Chapter adviser. Ms. Philipps is teacher educator in the Secondary Education Department, Brigham Young University. Ms. Stucki is a former graduate student at the University of Utah and Brigham Young University. Ms. Nichols is a graduate student in Marriage and Family Therapy, Brigham Young University.



Named after her mother and two generations of grandmothers, little Zina was the fourth of what would be six Zinas in her family and was to be the only birth daughter of her mother, Zina Diantha Huntington Jacobs Smith Young (Brown, 1930; Poulson, 1975; Peterson & Gaunt, 1990). Zina's mother had two sons from a previous marriage, and the three children were later joined by four younger children, who had been orphaned and were adopted into the family (Autobiography 3, 19 26).

Zina was described as inheriting from her mother "traits becoming to her sex," (Funeral Service, 1931, p. 9). Zina's mother was well known for her integrity in dealing with others and in the way she lived her life. She was descended from the genteel background of the Lathorps and other Puritan families who arrived in Massachusetts in the 1600s. Her great uncle, Samuel Huntington, was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence (Zina D. S. Young Diaries, 1848; Poulson, 1975).

Little Zina's personality was such that, as she grew to maturity, she inherited a title which had been generally accorded her mother before her. She came to be addressed "affectionately by nearly all" as "Aunt Zina" (Autobiography 2, 1914, p. 5; Brown, 1930, p. 4). The title represented the type of individuals the two were. People were drawn to them and adopted them through the title "aunt." There is evidence that the title was used so often that Zina Card's own daughter, on occasion, addressed her mother as "Aunt Zina" (Brown, 1930, p. 4).

Zina Card was born almost three years after her father, Brigham Young, founded the first permanent pioneer settlement in the Great Salt Lake Valley and began directing the colonizing of the Great Basin Territory. As a religious, political, and economic leader and, later, as the Territorial Governor, Brigham Young had tremendous influence over the entire region.

Throughout her life Zina never relinquished the positive qualities she derived from both parents. Like her father, she was characterized as practical, knowledgeable, and deeply spiritual—"she seemed to be the epitome of his [spirituality] and what he was all about" (Funeral Service, 1931, p. 7). Phrases used to describe both the mother and daughter were: "generous, though not lavish; forgiving, though sensitive to criticism; proud, but sweet; exquisitely dignified, but overflowing with love and sympathy" (Poulson, 1975, p. 27).

As a tribute to both parents, Zina is quoted as saying: "My life has indeed been a happy one. Inspired with high ideals from both father and mother, I have endeavored to lead an active,

busy life, especially among the women and youth” (*Deseret News*, 1957).

Learning

Zina’s mother, who had taken courses in medical and other studies, began a school for children within a few weeks of her 1847 arrival into the Salt Lake Valley, because she “hated to see children running around with nothing to occupy their time.” The lessons went beyond book learning and included values, sanitation, and “a desire for improved living.” Zina also learned from her mother and other women various home crafts because they were “useful in making items for home production . . .” (Peterson & Gaunt, 1990, p. 5 2).

In 1853, Zina’s parents moved their family from the chain of buildings known as Old Log Row, where little Zina had been born and where school was taught, to a new, one-room log cabin. It was 18 feet square (Brown, 1930). School continued there until 1854, when a small adobe room was attached to the cabin to serve as “Aunt Zina’s school” (Autobiography 2, 1914, p. 5). Zina, her older brothers, and other boys and girls from prominent families were taught in that room until 1856 when the family moved again, this time into the newly completed Lion House, which was to become one of her father’s more famous official residences (Autobiography 2, 1914).

At the Lion House, school was taught in the basement. Young Zina wrote, “I received my education in a private school for my Father’s family” (Autobiography 2, 1914, p. 1). Although much of Zina’s training had been at her mother’s knee, it is clear that in the “private school” Zina benefited from other trained teachers, as detailed in the following paragraphs: Eliza R. Snow, a writer and teacher, attended Oberlin College in Ohio for two years following the time that Oberlin became co-educational in 183 2. Eliza and Zina Huntington Young, mother of Zina Young Card, were close friends (Zina D. S. Young Diaries, 1848) and “they worked together on several occasions throughout their lives—not the least of which was tutoring and teaching children at the Old Log Row School and in the Lion House” (Peterson & Gaunt, 1990, p. 5 2).

Zina enjoyed having Harriet Cook, Charlotte Cobb, and Minnie Cook as teachers during her childhood and teen years. Minnie was a “refined, well-educated English lady who had been a governess for highly placed English families [and who was our governess]” (Autobiography 2, 1914, p. 1). “In 1863, Zina came under the tutelage of Karl G. Maeser” (Brown, 19 26, p. 7).



Years later she reminisced, “in my girlhood my first awaking and ambition to acquire scholastic knowledge was given me by my beloved [Dr.] Maeser” (Autobiography 1, n.d.).

Changing Roles

As part of her education, Zina was encouraged by her parents to participate in the fine arts. For 5 years, between the ages of 13 and 18, Zina sang, danced, and recited on stage at the old Salt Lake Theater (Autobiography 2, 1914; Brown, 1930). When Zina was thirteen years old she met her father’s bookkeeper, Thomas Williams, who was in charge of theater ticket sales. Soon after the meeting he was sent to Washington, DC as private secretary to Captain William Hooper, representative of the Utah Territory in the U.S. Congress. About 5 years later, Thomas returned to his work in Brigham Young’s office. Zina got to know him again and came to admire him very much (Brown, 19 26). “This admiration was mutual” (Brown, 19 26, p. 8). Thomas and Zina were married on October 1 2, 1868. Her husband was older than she, and she was his second wife. She described Thomas as a “gentleman and a saint” (Brown, 1930, p. 5).

Zina had been married six years and had two children, Sterling and Thomas Edgar, when her husband became ill and died in her arms on July 17, 1874 (Brown, 1930). Upon Thomas’s untimely death, Zina knew that she must somehow provide for herself and her two sons.

She first turned to her training in teaching and home arts to try to generate income. Then she became a homesteader. In the two endeavors she was thrust headlong into the tug-of-war between society’s Victorian values of womanhood and the reality of women’s roles as providers for families (Dally, 198 2; Strasser, 198 2). Zina decided to make and try to sell wax fruits and flowers and travel from one settlement to another in order to supplement her income by teaching others the craft (Autobiography 3, 19 26). One day while visiting her father she spoke of her good fortune at being able to generate the funds by raffling some of her fruit and flowers at the Savage Art Gallery. Her father objected to her making a living in this way. The crafts were retrieved and Mr. Savage paid by her father. Zina gave her father one stand of flowers and eventually sold the other two for a profit (Brown, 1930). Zina had described her father as both “commanding and comforting” (Autobiography 2, 1914, p. 1). He was distressed about her being a widow (the only one in his family at that time), and he tried to support Zina and encouraged other family members to do so.

As a result, also in 1875, Zina was visited by one of her brothers. He told her of some land in a sparsely settled region near his own property that could be pre-empted as a homestead. Zina was optimistic; her father offered to pay the homestead fee; her mother offered to pay to dig a ditch to deliver needed water; and Zina set off to homestead the land.

Zina and her little sons, with her brother leading the way, traveled 100 miles to Sevier County. A log room was built, trees planted, a fence erected, and the ditch dug. With the improvements on the land completed, the family of three moved into the log cabin to gain ownership of the land. Zina stayed long enough to establish her rights to the cabin and the land (Brown, 1930).

Unfortunately, despite the trials brought on by homesteading the land, nothing ever came of it. Due to the mistake of a clerk, made while the land office was being moved, Zina's filing was ignored. She could never reclaim the land, although "every legal requirement" (Brown, 1930, pp. 7-8) had been met. In fact, her father was trying to help her solve this problem up to the week before he died (Brown, 1930).

Her father's death on August 29, 1877, "was another blow to Zina, one she found very hard to overcome" (Brown, 1930, p. 8). During this difficult time a half sister, Susa Young Gates encouraged Zina to attend the Brigham Young Academy (BYA), later Brigham Young University (BYU). Susa was busy establishing a music curriculum at the Academy. The year was 1878 (Brown, 1930).

Re-Entry

Zina decided she should temporarily leave the boys with her mother and enter the Academy. Even though she hated to leave her mother and children, Zina knew her formal education at the Lion House and Old Log Row was not sufficient to support herself and her sons (Autobiography 1, n.d.).

She eventually brought the children to live with her and worked hard to quickly complete requirements for a normal (teaching) degree in home arts. She wrote, "I enrolled as a scholar, feeling the need of knowledge to raise my little boys and be father and mother both" (Autobiography 1, n.d.). Zina might well have been the first recorded re-entry woman student in the history of the family and consumer sciences profession.

A Professional

At the end of her first term Karl G. Maeser, Director of the Academy, talked to Zina about planning to join the faculty as



Head of the Ladies' Work Department and Matron (a title akin to Dean of Women) of the Academy. This marked the beginning of her influence in her chosen profession (*Deseret News*, Church Section, 1957; Poulson, 1975). Zina often talked and wrote about being "once more a school girl under [Karl G. Maeser's] matchless powers as a teacher and friend" (Autobiography 1, n.d. p. 1). and what an honor it was to have him want to hire her to set up the new program (Card, n.d.). From its inauguration the Brigham Young Academy embraced both arts and sciences, and from its beginning there was intent to support domestic arts. The 1875 Articles of Incorporation, preserved in the Brigham University Special Collections state, "Both men and women shall be taught how to live in the home"

Dr. Maeser, the school's second principal and its first director, received the charge of organizing the domestic arts department in 1876. Two years later plans were in place, and Zina became the first teacher hired in what was initially named the Ladies Work Department. She played a key role from 1878 until 1884 in establishing domestic arts at BYA (Autobiography 1, n.d.).

She began her first year by designing and teaching a course for girls 13 years of age and older. "Thus was initiated the first formal class ever held [at BYA] to teach young girls domestic arts. It was not called by so dignified a name [as domestic arts] in those days . . ." (Autobiography 1, n.d., p. 1). Among other projects, "Every girl [was] required to learn all the stitches used in plain sewing, and no one was allowed to do fancy work until she had passed the milestone of good button holes, back-stitching, putting on bands and making a suit of underclothing by hand" (Autobiography 1, n.d., p. 3-4).

Zina felt "the knowledge obtained in the homemaking classes should be put into practice in the home, school, everyday life, and the community (Card, 19 20a, p. 2). Therefore, the second year, a new course entitled "Ladies Work Class was added" (Autobiography 1, n.d., p. 3-4). It was taught in two sections to the 400 students who enrolled. Zina also headed a Preparatory Department where, for three years, she taught drawing, physiology, hygiene and sanitation, and correct breathing. One of her lectures addressed curiosity of children (Autobiography 1, n.d.).

Zina, the only teacher, taught every class to all the students in her programs. In addition to identifying and organizing the department classes, Zina was to provide guidance and supervision for all students. Her input was valued in other divisions, such as theater, music and the new law school, where she instigated a mock trial concerning her "stolen feather bed"

(Poulson, 1975, p. 13). She also had the lead in the school play. Some young men from Sevier County, where she had homesteaded, arrived in a group at BYA, asking to be taught math, science, manual arts, and, with subtle persuasion from Dr. Maeser, grammar. Over time, several young men, including two nephews, stayed in Zina's home so they could attend school:

They certainly filled my life, together with the care of my two little sons . . . I greatly allude to the social side of my life in the dear old days of the wonderful classes . . . and our most enjoyable parties which we were only allowed two or three times a year. (Autobiography 1, n.d., p. 4)

[In addition, Zina] . . . as an integral part of the teacher's duties, visited student residences to check on both the moral atmosphere and the physical accommodations to determine whether conditions were favorable. Was the sanitation good? Was the food adequate? Was the moral conduct acceptable? (*Relief Society Magazine*, 1917, p. 436). By the end of 1888, a room for the domestic arts classes was built onto the existing academy building. It was 16 x 20 feet and had rag carpets to cover the floor.

“ . . . it was furnished with chairs and work tables and a cabinet at one end for fancy work material and the necessary equipment to carry on this new branch of instruction. Oh, the good times we had in that new room! . . . There I held my beloved and cherished class for young girls to whom I had the privilege of imparting useful and some ornamental knowledge pertaining to the home life . . . ” (Autobiography 1, n.d., p. 3). Years later, Zina reflected that, “I might write volumes and not tell all that I sacrificed and did for that school, but it was all a joy to me . . . ” (Butt, 19 26)

Adult Education

While she was Matron and Department Head, Zina extended her work as a teacher of domestic sciences into adult and community education. She was an officer and teacher in the Provo Silk Association. The group studied and trained women in sericulture, which at that time was a major cottage industry, source of textile fiber, and cash income in the Utah Territory. The silk was transported to the eastern states in the years before high tariffs against Japanese silk were lifted by Congress (Arrington, 1958).

Zina's mother had pioneered Utah's silk industry, traveling throughout the region, going from cabin to cabin with bags of silk worm eggs, leaving mulberry tree seedlings and a tablespoon of silk worm eggs at each home. Skills were transmitted across generations. Zina followed her mother's teaching example and taught the intricate processes involved in the home enterprises, which were hard work, involving entire families (Carter, 1939).



At the same time, Zina was also a member of the committee superintending the decoration of the new Provo Tabernacle. She also taught “decorative work in [home] interiors” to adults and younger students in the communities of central Utah (Life Sketch, n.d., p. 2).

Women’s Ambassador

In 1879, Zina traveled to Washington, DC as a delegate to the First Congress of Women’s Suffrage. Zina had been one of the first to speak out and had gained national recognition for her work for Women’s Suffrage in Utah. She was credited for “promoting a larger sphere for women” (Iverson, 1984, p. 518). Her leadership was one of the reasons that Utah women were given the right to vote before Utah entered the union as a state. Only Wyoming, also part of the original Great Basin Territory, granted women suffrage (one year) earlier than Utah.

Emmaline B. Wells, the other delegate from Utah, was a well-known writer. The two were “treated in a most cordial manner by this gathering of the most noted women in our country” (Brown, 1930, p. 9). Both women had an opportunity to speak before the U. S. Congress and meet privately with some Senators, including Senator Edmunds of Vermont, who was considering the co-sponsoring of legislation against polygamy (Brown, 1930).

Following the Congress on suffrage, Zina continued to network with, among others, Susan B. Anthony, Julia Ward Howe, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, and Belva Lockwood (Brown, 1930). She spent time as an ambassador for women’s rights, touring the East, and visiting dignitaries.

“Zina was a fluent and forceful speaker” (Card Diaries, 1896). She was not one to back away from an issue. She spoke her mind and won people over without defensiveness (Beecher, 1993, p. 130). Among other topics Zina talked about life as a frontier woman. She knew the traditions of women in both the East and the West, and she could present both positively (Card Diaries, 1895, p. 47 2).

Congress was involved in legislation to make polygamy illegal, and people were often curious about support of women’s rights by a woman who had, herself, entered a plural marriage and who was also the daughter of a famous polygamist. Records show that, when challenged about polygamy, she met the confrontation openly with “information and friendship” (Godfrey, 1994, p. 14).

Another Marriage

Two years later death once more touched her life. In April of 1881, Zina buried her little son Thomas Edger due to “that

dreaded disease diphtheria” (Card, n.d., p. 9; Funeral Service, 1931). Three years after Thomas Edgar’s death, on June 17, 1884, Zina married her second husband, Charles Ora Card, and left her position at Brigham Young Academy.

Charles was a prominent civic leader in Logan, Utah. He was a city councilman, Justice of the Peace, and owner of a sawmill (Godfrey, 1994). He heard Zina speak and recorded the meeting for the local newspaper when Zina addressed an audience in Ogden, Utah, on women’s suffrage; but she did not meet him until later (Life Sketch, n.d., p. 2).

When Zina received a letter from Charles proposing marriage, she deferred. Later she became convinced to move to Logan (Life Sketch, n.d., p. 2), where she married Charles. Her mother and her dear friend, Eliza R. Snow, joined the family and lived with them in Logan for four years.

Canadian Experiences

In 1887 Charles was asked to begin a settlement in Cardston, Alberta, Canada. He went on ahead, and Zina and her children followed some months later. For most of the journey Zina drove the team hitched to a covered wagon and traveled with her elder son, Sterling, and her baby, Joseph. A Mr. and Mrs. John A. Woolfe and their seven children traveled alongside. Charles met them in Helena, Montana (Life Sketch, n.d.).

Zina lived in Canada 17 years, 13 of those in the log home, which eventually was built into the shape of a Maltese cross and divided into four rooms (Brown, 1930). There, Zina gave birth to her only daughter, also named Zina, and her youngest son, Orson Rega (Card, 19 26; Life Sketch, n.d.). There, she also taught school (Brown, 1930).

“Zina lovingly made the little house into an attractive and, in the eyes of her children, a beautiful home” (Brown, 1949, p. 2). Charles, because she covered the walls with factory (now called unbleached muslin) and Canton flannel, called it her Canton Flannel Palace. Zina stroked the flannel with special brushes and brooms to make the nap lay in one direction and give the walls the appearance of having been covered in satin (Brown, 1949).

The cabin served as the social center for the entire region. Music, which Zina played on an old reed organ (Brown, n.d.), often filled the home, and Zina would lead the singing. Dramatic preparations and socials were regular occurrences. Her precious books were worn from repeated use, and stories were a favorite



of all the children, especially when their artistic teacher would draw accompanying pictures on a slate board (Brown, n.d., p. 5).

Zina functioned not only as a wife, mother, and educator, but as the first lady of the new colony (Beecher, 1981). Over the years, she entertained leaders of education, economics, and politics. Such notables as the presidents of the Montreal Bank and the Canadian Pacific Railroad, the Minister of the Interior, and the governors of several of the Canadian Provinces and members of the Royal Mounted Police were among those who were regularly welcomed into her home (Brown, 1930).

She followed her mother's earlier example of taking others in, many of whom were new immigrants to the colony (Brown, 1930, p. 12). Within her home, she never allowed any reference, no matter how subtle, to inequality of any kind (Brown, 1930). No matter how humble her circumstances, Zina managed to entertain anyone — great or small — who passed by her way. It did not matter who they were; they were all treated with respect, honor, and dignity (Brown, n.d.). For example, Indian chiefs traveled long distances to visit the Cards and conference with them. Some Indians, like some White people, came by to be sheltered and fed. "Aunt Zina" gave each the best she had, winning the good will of all (Life Sketch, n.d.).

When the settlement was incorporated, Charles, with his own means and Zina's, founded, among others, the co-op store, grist mill, land office, sawmill, cheese factory, butcher shop, and the first irrigation ditch. Zina contributed most of the capital for all the business cooperatives from an inheritance of \$30,000, received from her father's estate (Life Sketch, n.d.). Others gave the time and labor to build the businesses (Godfrey, 1994).

Only after the town had been built did Zina build herself a brick home, which she also paid for with her own money. The family had lived in it four years when Charles developed poor health, and then he and Zina returned to Logan, Utah. Years later, in the *Lethbridge News* on July 7, 1956, the headlines read "Famous Card House in Cardston, Home of Aunt Zina, to be Razed." [Note the headline is to Aunt Zina, not Charles. This illustrates Zina's prominence, even as it lingered years later (Godfrey, 1994, p. 110)].

U. S. Connections

While in Canada, Zina's influence as a home economics educator had extended beyond the borders back to the United States. In July of 1890, Karl Maeser requested from Zina an outline of what she was teaching to guide the "subject matter for the

Ladies Departments of schools” (Card, personal letter, 1890a, p. 1). The following month in a second personal letter to President Maeser, Zina spoke of reviewing the lectures of a Mrs. Sorenson for BYA, checking the lectures for grammar and other corrections needed. Zina felt these lectures would benefit the youth enrolled in classes and recommended they be printed (Card, 1890b).

In 1891, Zina wrote Maeser a letter requesting a “male teacher right away” for her school in Alberta. Maeser replied that nobody wanted to go that far to teach and said the best she could do was have her son, Sterling Williams, do the work in Alberta when he was ready (Maeser, 1891). Zina, during this time, had also furnished Maeser with an outline of courses that every “lady-teacher [being trained in home arts]” ought to pursue (Maeser, 1891).

Later Programs

Zina cared for Charles in Logan, until his death in September, 1906. During those years she was appointed and served as the matron of the Ladies Work Department at what was then called Brigham Young College. Later, the school became Utah’s Land Grant College and was renamed Utah State University (Butt, 1926; Cannon, 1931).

Following her husband’s death, Zina moved to Salt Lake City where she was appointed matron of the LDS University (now the LDS Business College). For the next six years she was in charge of the education for women at that school (Butt, 1926; Brown, 1930). She then became matron of the State Industrial School in Ogden, Utah (Andrus, 1979). She continued to labor tirelessly to put in place needed improvements in home economics programs that would be preventative and benefit families in homes and society.

Extension Service

After she returned to Utah, Zina’s concern for home economics and education for women also extended from the U. S. back to Canada. She joined, in 1912, the International Congress of Farm Women and traveled to Canada with John Widtsoe, a famous scholar, scientist, and President of the University of Utah. The two were Utah’s delegates to the Dry Farming Congress being held in Canada. At the Congress, Zina helped organize the International Congress of Farm Women with Belle D Harbert, from Colorado, as the President (Autobiography³, n.d.). The organization became the advocacy and lobbying group



affecting public policy to establish an extended education system for farm families. A newspaper article explained the newly formed International Congress of Farm Women's goals:

We are organizing women in the rural districts into clubs for the purpose of studying Home Economics, with a practical demonstration and lecturer furnished by the state or nation to counsel with the homemakers and give them the education that would fit them for their work . . . the "Intellectual Advancement of Farm Women" teaches a woman to guard the health of her children and husband, know laws of sanitary conditions and food supplies, and provides instruction on the latest scientific labor saving devices. (*Pueblo Chieftain*, 1913)

'D Harbert, while attending a meeting in Tulsa, Oklahoma, wrote Zina and invited her to help represent the organization at an international meeting to be held in Belgium. Later, she wrote from Colorado urging Zina to meet her in New York and travel with her to Belgium: "I start from home May 10th as I need to go to Washington on some business for the Congress and will meet the party in N. Y. May 30. Let me hear soon. Lovingly . . ." ('D Harbert, 1913). The following year Zina was appointed to the Executive Board and represented Utah and the International Congress of Farm Women at the San Francisco World's Fair. The group's secretary wrote asking Zina "to make any suggestions or to criticize the plan" (Van Zile, 1914). Zina attended the fair and helped with a showcase of the latest labor saving innovations for the farm home. The showcase was part of "the plan" to let the world know in a quiet, dignified, but forceful way that we are ready to go forward . . . [The] psychological effect . . . will be far reaching and can hardly be overestimated. . . in attention paid to the women who have always had more than their share of hardships on the farm (Van Zile, 1914). Working with Zina and others was Leah Dunford Widtsoe, wife of John Widtsoe and Head of Home Economics at the University of Utah. Ultimately Utah's U. S. Senator Smoot sponsored the first bill in Congress that led to the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Extension Service. Utah hired the first Home Demonstration Extension Agent in the United States. She was a home economist and was Leah Widtsoe's granddaughter (Cutler, 1960).

Educational Systems

Brigham Young had supported a network of schools throughout the entire Great Basin. Most of the private system was easily converted to a public one when public tax support became available after 1900. For example, the church-supported University of Deseret, founded in 1850, became the state-supported University of Utah. It was within this well-established

network of academies, colleges, and universities that Zina had great impact as an educator and administrator of education programs in home economics.

In 1919 Zina wrote the President of BYU, George Brimhall, saying that they needed a text to be used in teaching about families. She also recommended that a new home economics course be added to the curriculum. Brimhall approved of the course. Early in 19 20, Zina taught it as a visiting professor (Brimhall, 1919). Preserved in the BYU library archives are outlines of some of the lectures Zina gave and accompanying copies of student essays written in response to the lectures. In the middle of her first page, Mayfield Bowman wrote: “Mrs. Card says I can become a chemist. I am taking chemistry this year and expect to take more . . . I will not sit down and take a back seat. I want to be prominent” (Student Essay, 19 20). At the end of her essay, another student, Mary Alkire said, “We girls sure hope Aunt Zina comes again” (Student Essay, 19 20).

Zina had a sense of humor that often expressed itself in pure joy of living, but sometimes it was very subtle. In one of the lectures titled “An Ideal Life,” Zina said, A woman “must take whatever comes along, so long as it is the best that can be given her.” She went on to describe the importance of a husband and wife creating harmony in the home (Autobiography 2, n.d.).

In a letter of recommendation dated May 29, 19 20, President Brimhall wrote that Zina Y. Card had taught “with signal success” two courses in homemaking in the BYU, one to a class of college girls and another to a class of high school girls. As a result of the “signal success of the homemaking course” (Brimhall, 19 20), Zina was contacted by Superintendent Adam Bennion, Commissioner of Education (Card, 19 20). He asked Zina to condense her three-month home economics course into a series of lectures to be given in the schools he supervised and other schools. Subsequently, Zina repeated the lessons in at least 10 academies and colleges in Arizona, Idaho, and Utah (Card, 19 20; Brown, 1930).

In a report sent the Commissioner after lectures were given at the first three schools, Zina said, “Home Economics curriculum in the homemaking class would benefit young girls from childhood to womanhood” (Card, 19 20a, p. 1). The report showed Zina did more than teach. In the evenings, she lectured to parents and other adults. She noted how many parents attended science lectures that were also offered in the evenings. She made detailed notes of the music taught at the schools and joined in singing and playing the organ (Card, 19 20b). She



inspected the buildings, the music, the science, and the manual arts departments and commented upon the absence of, the size of, and the furnishings or lack thereof in restrooms (Card, 19 20a, p. 1).

She also evaluated the faculty, said some were too heavily loaded, remarked on the supervisor competencies of teachers who had 16 and 17 years of experience; and worried about young, single, female teachers not having enough experience to properly teach the content in the mothering courses “and give the advice needed” (Card, 19 20a, p. 1). She thought some teachers did not feel as responsible as they should for students who were away from home and keeping house for themselves for the first time (Card, 19 20a).

She recommended hiring a male teacher, “a married man who can assist in some of the work” (Card, 19 20b, p. 2). She pointed out that where male teachers were employed, the schools had better help and facilities than others and felt, where men and women both taught, the male and the female students had better models and “the results will be seen in years to come by the splendid men and women that will be called upon . . . to act in responsible places . . . ” (Card, 19 20b, p. 2).

One of her greatest concerns focused on sex education: “I found the greatest need was a knowledge of sex . . . education . . . for both boys and girls . . . ” (Card, 19 20b, p. 1). “Sex knowledge . . . must be taught and in such a way that it does not offend or antagonize . . . ” (Card, 19 20b, p. 2). Zina felt one of her greatest contributions was teaching sex education classes. She again showed her sense of humor when she remarked “they appreciated my maturity” (Card, 19 20b, p. 1). Zina was then 70 years old.

Art and Didactic

In 19 21, Zina suggested (Widtsoe letter, 19 21) to the then Utah Commissioner of Education that the home economics curriculum be divided into two divisions called Art and Didactic. The divisions illustrated the growth of the knowledge base and the holistic character of the discipline.

The Art division had two sub-sections: (a) Domestic, to serve family members, which included: plain sewing, making fabrics by knitting and crocheting, embroideries, cutting and fitting, cooking and management of housework; and (b) Ornamental design, to be used to enhance the family’s surroundings, which included: fancy needle work, wax work, painting, knit material, decorative material, water color, oil, landscape, luster, and pastel.

The Didactic division had four sub-sections: (a) Home, which

included: the family, the child, young ladies, the wife, and the mother; (b) Social, which included: school room, public calling, and society; (c) Religion, which included: influence, observance, and organization [management]; (d) Physical Culture, which included: nutrition and diet, apparel, exercise, hygiene and cleanliness; and (e) Personal Habits which, among others, included public speaking (Widtsoe letter, 19 21).

Service

“Zina was a very resourceful woman, with unbelievable accommodation skills. Throughout her career she dealt with extreme conditions. Because of the circumstances which she endured and embraced, and the life that she led, her style emerged” (Cowan, 1931, p. 3).

Serving others was a part of Zina Card’s style. She knew and valued service as nothing else. That had been her model in both the home economics classes she had helped establish and in her personal life with her own family and home. She served her profession, her church, her community, and her nation.

When the World War I influenza epidemic hit, Zina volunteered to care for 5 2 patients. Remarkably, all of them lived, but the influenza nearly killed her and left her blinded for two years and suffering for the rest of her life. To her death, she never fully recovered from the crippling effects of the disease (Brown, 1930).

In 1918 Zina was appointed as a member of the Board of Regents for the State of Utah. In 19 26 she became President of the Washington Grand Army of the Republic, Utah Chapter and in that same year retired from teaching, 49 years after she began traveling from town to town teaching home arts. She remained on the Board of Regents, however, serving in that capacity until shortly before her death on January 31, 1931 (Cannon, 1931).

From this time period, a note in Zina’s hand writing has been preserved. Possibly it was written as a guide to those training home economics teachers. It might also have been part of a lecture to students who were planning to teach. It was evidently given to John Widtsoe. The first part is gone but some of the remaining content is as follows:

. . . Seek constantly for the inspiration of Heaven to permeate your actions and teachings [as] the perfume of flowers [does] the atmosphere (Widtsoe letter, 19 21)

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Dr. Irma Hannah Gross: Pioneer in the Field of Home Management 1892-1980

Diana D. Carroll

Irma Hannah Gross

Birth: July 21, 1892-Omaha, Nebraska
Death: January 4, 1980-La Mesa, California
Education: B.A., M.A., Ph.D., University of Chicago

Born in 1892, Irma Hannah Gross traced her professional roots back to Ellen H. Richards, founder of home economics. Dr. Gross, pioneered the development of home management theory and research, rooted in the study of values, goals, time, and energy. She initiated the concept of “process” of management, one of six stages in the development of the field, which she described as a mental activity to be used to help families solve everyday problems. Dr. Gross and her colleagues regarded each edition of the text, Management for Modern Families, to be an elaboration or refinement of the concepts of management. The sixth holistic stage first appeared in the 1973 edition. The process of management, the unique part of the body of knowledge of home management that Irma Gross spent over 60 years researching and teaching, is today called metacognition or critical thinking skills by other disciplines. She has left a legacy for the profession that will carry into the 21st century.

Legacy of the Past

Dr. Irma H. Gross, pioneer in home management, contributed over a half century of leadership to the development of theory and research in the field. Dr. Gross's publications were numerous and included 7 books, 6 technical bulletins, and over 30 journal articles. Her book, *Management for Modern Families*, coauthored with Elizabeth Walbert Crandall and Marjorie M. Knoll, who joined the team in 1973, went through four editions, the first published in 1954 and the last in 1980. Seen as a whole, this book has made major contributions which are still relevant. In each of the editions, the conceptual framework for studying home management was enlarged and clarified. Dr. Gross's familiarity with early leaders in the field of home economics and her own highly developed sense of history resulted in each edition having a small section devoted to updating the history of the field of home management.

Dr. Carroll is professor in the Division of Family and Consumer Sciences at Carson Newman College in Jefferson City, Tennessee. She is Director of the Duncan Resident Management Lab and adviser to Kappa Beta Xi Chapter Kappa Omicron Nu.



A true scholar, Dr. Gross held membership in Phi Beta Kappa and Phi Kappa Phi and served as national president of Omicron Nu, home economics honor society. She was active for many years in the American Home Economics Association (AHEA) and in 1939 served as president of the Michigan Association (I. H. Gross, personal communication, March 24, 1974).

Dr. Gross chose to spend her professional years at one institution, Michigan State University. For 38 years she developed theory, conducted research, formed collegial relationships, and influenced undergraduates and young faculty members like Elizabeth Crandall, Marjorie Knoll, Linda Nelson, and Beatrice Paolucci, who also became leaders in home management.

After Dr. Gross retired in 1959 with the title of Professor Emeritus from Michigan State University (MSU), she moved to Southern California and was active in the Western Regional Home Management Conference (WRHMC), presenting 7 papers over a 12-year period from 1967-79. She was 75 years old when she presented the first of these papers, a review of research at the 1967 WRHMC meeting in San Francisco (Mau, 1980, p. 2). In 1979, 20 years after her retirement from MSU, she was named adjunct professor of home economics at San Diego State College (E. W. Crandall, personal communication, July 10, 1979).

Dr. Gross was the first recipient of the American Home Economics Association Foundation's Distinguished Service Award, presented posthumously at the 1980 Annual Meeting in Dallas. In her 1979 Christmas letter, sent to many friends only a few weeks before her death, Dr. Gross remarked:

A special kind of peak was the marking of my 87th birthday by my professional friends in a "Birthday Salute." A very large number of them sent gifts to the American Home Economics Association in my honor; and I am to be the first recipient of the Foundation's Distinguished Service Award. It will be presented formally to me at the 1980 AHEA meeting in Dallas. (I. H. Gross, personal communication, December 1979)

Elizabeth Crandall, coauthor with Irma Gross of *Management for Modern Families* (1954, 1963, 1973, 1980 editions), expressed the following tribute in her letter to the American Home Economics Association Foundation recommending Dr. Gross as the first recipient of the Distinguished Service Award:

Dr. Gross's books are known worldwide, and she has personal and professional contacts around the world. . . . she continues to be an active and vital contributor to her field. It is impossible to measure the impact that she has had both in her professional field and in the lives of the people with whom she has come in

contact, but there is no question that that impact has been both positive and widespread. (E. W. Crandall, personal communication, July 10, 1979)

Marjorie Knoll, coauthor with Gross and Crandall of *Management For Modern Families* (1973, 1980 editions), reflected in her letter of support:

If I were to select one person who has had the greatest influence on my professional life, I would name Irma Gross. . . . My first college position was at Michigan State University in the Department of Home Management and Child Development of which Dr. Gross was the head. Under her tutelage I began to understand some of the expectations for a professional person beyond the classroom. Her foresight in helping shape the future of the College of Home Economics, her influence in the University community, and her contributions to American Home Economics Association and International Federation for Home Economics were all excellent examples for an uninitiated faculty member. Not only did she open my eyes to professional expectations, but she also strongly encouraged me to study for the doctorate. (M. M. Knoll, personal communication, November 28, 1979).

The Early Years: Influences of Family (1892 - 1906)

Irma Hannah Gross was born July 21, 1892, the only child of David and Addie Gross. That year, 1892, was the year that Ellen H. Richards, founder of Home Economics celebrated her 50th birthday. A letter written when Dr. Gross was 81 years old provides insight into the importance her family placed on education at a time when few girls finished high school:

I grew up in Omaha, Nebraska, whither the family of my Mother, Addie Gladstone, had moved in 1867. The Gladstones had come from Hungary in 1857, settling first in Ohio. My Mother had a good education for the period and place. She graduated in the first high school class in Omaha and I think the first one in Nebraska. She became an elementary school teacher, then a principal in the Omaha schools. Her three brothers became successful businessmen. One sister married but the other two stayed on in the old home and were the center of family life for the brothers and sisters, all of whom remained in Omaha. Both grandparents died before I was born. My father, David Gross, emigrated from Hungary in 1880. He was the owner of a grocery store in an outlying part of Omaha. (I. H. Gross, personal communication, March 24, 1974).

Renetsky and Kaplan's study (as cited in East, 1980) reported that only about 4% of the 17-year-old girls graduated from high school in 1900. Addie, her mother, would have been one of these young graduates who later encouraged her daughter, Irma, to pursue scholarly endeavors.



The influence of family became a guiding force during the years Dr. Gross was developing and formulating concepts of management. The nature of values permeated much of Dr. Gross's philosophy of management. She recalled this influence in a letter written at age 81:

I would mention a final influence on my concerns in home management. I grew up in a nonobservant Jewish family and have always maintained some connection with Judaism throughout life. That pervasive influence probably underlies my deep interest in values in home management

I am an only child and have never married; so the cousins on both sides of my family have been and are important in my personal life. There are very few living relatives now on my Mother's side of the family but in my early years the Omaha aunts, uncles, and cousins imprinted a sense of warm family life into my makeup. (I. H. Gross, personal communication, March 24, 1974).

Influences Toward Home Economics: High School and College Years (1906 - 1915).

Dr. Gross's "domestic science/home economics family tree" can be traced directly back to Ellen H. Richards. Dr. Gross recounts the influences of a high school teacher, and three early home economists, Marion Talbot, Hazel Kyrk, and Isabel Bevier:

I graduated from the same high school that my mother did. It was a school with high scholastic standards and some truly excellent teachers. One who indirectly alerted me to a concern for family relations in home economics was Mary Sullivan. She taught English not for its forms and structure but for its content and the relation of that content to every day living. That led me to using fiction and biography as aids to understanding family life.

In my high school days "domestic science" was a new field and I was fascinated by its possibilities. I went on to the University of Chicago to major in home economics at the undergraduate, later at the graduate level. It provided an atmosphere stimulating to intellectual development.

Of my teachers there I would pick out Marion Talbot and Hazel Kyrk as important influences on my professional life. I believe Miss Talbot's contribution to home management has never been recognized. She, a New Englander, had trained under Ellen H. Richards. Her undergraduate course in Household Administration, which I took, had in it many elements later to be found in home management. Dr. Kyrk was the major professor in my doctoral program. She was an economist and made me recognize the economic underpinning of home management. She had a keen and a warm personality. Her graduate students laughingly referred to themselves as the "Kyrk Fraternity."

One other name I would single out as influencing me toward home management in my professional life. I had a single

encounter with her and not a personal one. In my early graduate days at Chicago, Isabel Bevier gave a talk in which she emphasized the need in home economics of highly trained generalists as well as specialists. I had been wavering between Nutrition and Home Management. Her words tipped the scale. (I. H. Gross, personal communication, March 24, 1974).

Let us imagine that the University of Chicago held a reception for Isabel Bevier following her talk. Perhaps, Irma Gross, the young graduate student, overheard Miss Isabel Bevier and Miss Talbot reminisce about Ellen H. Richards. Isabel Bevier had studied with Ellen Richards at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1897 and had previously taught nine years at Pennsylvania College for Women. In 1900 Miss Bevier had become head of the new Department of Home Economics at the University of Illinois and that same year attended the Lake Placid Conference in upstate New York (East, 1980, pp. 87-89). What interesting conversation the eager and curious graduate student, Irma Gross might have heard.

When Ellen H. Richards retired as president of the AHEA in December 1910 (Hunt, 1918, p. 280), Isabel Bevier, a charter member of AHEA, succeeded her as the second president of the Association (Pundt, 1980, p. 7). It was 70 years later in 1980, that the AHEA Foundation presented the previously mentioned first Distinguished Service Award to Dr. Irma Gross. Remember, it was the words of Isabel Bevier that finally convinced Irma Gross to pursue home management rather than nutrition as a professional field of study.

Marion Talbot, another influence on Irma Gross's professional life, was a professor of Home Economics and served as Dean of Women at the University of Chicago (Swain, 1949). She also attended the Lake Placid Conferences and studied under Ellen Richards. Not long after Marion Talbot graduated from Boston University, her mother, Emily Talbot, of Boston, envisioned and pursued the founding of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae in 1882 (Hunt, 1918).

The Association of Collegiate Alumnae was the first organization to bring women graduates of different colleges together. Marion Talbot's mother consulted Ellen Richards who approved of the idea and who presided at the organizational meeting. The Association of Collegiate Alumnae later became the American Association of University Women (Hunt, 1980). In 1925 Irma Gross served as President of the Lansing-East Lansing Branch of the American Association of University Women and 30 years later served as chairman of Social Studies, Michigan Division of the Association (I. H. Gross, personal communication, March 24, 1974).



Helen Pundt, author of *AHEA: A History of Excellence* (1980), stated: “it’s learning about people that puts flesh and blood on the bones of history.” When Irma Gross looked in the mirror of her past not only would Marion Talbot, Hazel Kyrk, and Isabel Bevier smile back at her but also the smile of Ellen H. Richards would be reflected on her life.

Early Professional Years (1915 - 1921)

In 1915 at age 23, Irma Gross graduated with an undergraduate degree from the University of Chicago. For the next six years she taught home economics at Omaha Central High School (Baird, 1959). The first of many articles that she wrote for the *Journal of Home Economics* (1918) was published during this tenure. The article reported on a food conservation drive conducted at Omaha Central High School where she taught during World War I. The Food Conservation Campaign, modeled after the national food plan, lasted three days. The motto for the campaign was “all you need is self-denial: Food Conservation—give it a trial.” (Gross, 1918, pp. 71-72). Students were given an opportunity to pledge to observe each week, twenty-one wasteless meals, seven wheatless meals, two candleless days, and one ice-creamless day. A particular task of every high school student was to consume less sugar. The article reported that in some classrooms all students signed the pledge (Gross, 1918, pp. 71-72).

Professional Years at Michigan State University (1921 - 1959)

In 1921, after six years of teaching high school home economics, Irma Gross joined the staff at Michigan State University as the first instructor of home management. She continued teaching while also pursuing advanced degrees. She completed the master’s degree in home economics from the University of Chicago in 1924 and her doctorate from the University of Chicago in 1931 at age 39. Dr. Gross was promoted to the rank of professor (Baird, 1959) when home management became a department in 1934.

Dr. Helen Mau (1980), in a tribute to Dr. Gross, shared that she once told a group of professionals attending the Western Regional Home Management Conferences that “we beginners who were teaching home management in the early 1920s were just picked up by the nape of the neck and dumped into a new field” (p. 1). Dr. Gross, reflecting upon these early teaching years at MSU, shared the following:

My part in the development of home management theory came during my long experience at Michigan State University. I had the rare opportunity of working with keen young faculty who

were advisors in our home management houses. After the first few years when I was a lone advisor, there were two of us, then three, then four, who every week worked together on what we were trying to do in our teaching of management. We began to hammer out theory. One of those young faculty members, Elizabeth Walbert Crandall, began early to write with me, as did others later, most recently Marjorie M. Knoll. (I. H. Gross, personal communication, March 24, 1974)

Dr. Lois Lund (1980), Dean of the College of Human Ecology at Michigan State University at the time of Irma Gross's death eulogized her life with these words:

Dr. Gross joined our faculty in 1921. She retired in 1959 . . . leaving behind nearly 40 years of significant achievements . . . achievements which have grown in value in the years since her departure.

It is important in my comments that I make certain of Dr. Gross's characteristics perfectly clear. I said Irma departed from MSU in 1959. This is in large part an erroneous statement. Irma, as you all well know, never really departed from anything . . . from friends, from colleagues, from program development, from new ideas, or new thrusts. Irma was a professional of the first order. Her retirement in 1959 in no way signaled cessation of professional work. It was simply entry into another phase of what she viewed was the full life of a scholar. . . .

Her scholarly accomplishments helped MSU to gain early national leadership in the field of home management. Her work with graduate students produced a wide array of scholars who are carrying forward her ideas in pursuing new theories and new thrusts. Her belief in the profession of home economics has been a strengthening force to younger professionals. Her belief that quality of life could be improved through improved family life and improved everyday management has served as a beacon to researchers and teachers throughout the world (Lund, 1980, p. 1-2).

Scholarly Years (1918 - 1980)

It is not the intent of this manuscript to present a thorough review of Dr. Gross's professional writings and publications, but to capture the breadth and depth of that knowledge (see Gross, Crandall, & Knoll, 1973, 1980; Gross & Crandall, 1954, 1963; and Gross & Lewis, 1938 for comprehensive coverage of the concepts Dr. Gross spent her life researching and analyzing). The books authored by Irma Gross and her coauthors provided major contributions to the field of home management.

The 1938 textbook by Gross and Lewis gave special attention to the college home management house. The 1963 textbook by Gross and Crandall identified the five stages of development in the home management field: (a) dumping ground period, (b) resource-



centered emphasis, (c) human-centered emphasis, (d) process-centered emphasis, and (e) values and decision-making emphasis (p. 526).

Knoll (1971) reported that “stage 4, with its emphasis on a process of management, was the first attempt to detail a theoretical construct for managerial action. Gross and Crandall first included this in 1947 in their book *Home Management in Theory and Practice*” (p. 90). Knoll (1971) also credited Gross and Crandall as the “writers in home management who most actively promoted the concept of ‘process’ ”(p. 90).

Gross and Crandall (1963) defined “how management helps families achieve their goals”:

Home management consists of a series of decisions making up the process of using family resources to achieve family goals. The process consists of three more or less consecutive steps: planning; controlling the various elements of the plan while carrying it through, whether it is executed by oneself or by others; and evaluating results preparatory to future planning. This definition adds two new concepts—that home management is a mental process and that the process has definite successive steps (p. 4).

Gross, Crandall, and Knoll’s 1973 and 1980 editions of their textbook, *Management for Modern Families*, continued the development of a theoretical framework, using as its basis the systems approach (1973, p. viii). The authors credited Francille Maloch Firebaugh and Ruth Deacon as first bringing this framework to their attention.

Elizabeth Crandall explained that

In developing the conceptual framework for home management in the stages described above, none of the earlier concepts were eliminated, but their relationships to each other, particularly in relation to the processes, were clarified. In a systems approach, the same concepts are involved. The major difference is in recognizing that in a system, a change in one part of the system may cause changes in every other part and in the end be changed itself. In using the systems approach to home management, it is the scope of the total system which has been changed. The systems approach takes a family’s management beyond its household environment and recognizes the effect of the family’s management upon its near and far environments, and the effect of decisions made there upon individual families. Because of the vastness of the concept and the difficulty of predicting the long-term results of decisions made in the larger environments, this addition to the conceptual framework for home management was not enthusiastically accepted by faculty and students.

Today’s global economy clearly requires the system approach to explain the reciprocal interaction of household activity and the

larger environment. Corporate downsizing at a time when profits are at a record high and a federal welfare reform act that eliminates the safety net for over a million children both suggest major changes in values. By voting regularly and thoughtfully, adults can help decide who will represent their family at the various levels of government. The last presidential election (1996) was determined by the women's vote. With today's E-mail, faxes, and telephone answering machines, individuals can express their opinions on an issue on the very day it is being considered by a legislative body. Letters to the editor can affect thinking in one's own community. These simple examples illustrate the importance of a family noting what is happening outside its home that will affect its own management, but also becoming active in the larger community in order to have a small part in such decisions. (E.W. Crandall, Professor Emerita of the University of Rhode Island, personal communication, December 11, 1996).

Selected topics from the *Journal of Home Economics* that were authored or coauthored by Dr. Gross between 1918 and 1950 included: the home management house [1928, 1931, 1932, 1934 (Pond & Gross), and 1949 (Gross & Everett)]; problems of the household manager (1929); fatigue (1950); food habits in a Hungarian mining town (1925); insurance for farm families (1933); world progress in home economics (1936); the aging population (1952); and research in home management (1959).

Dr. Gross was active for many years in the International Federation of Home Economics (IFHE). She traveled to Australia, New Zealand, Okinawa, Israel, Canada, and the Netherlands to consult or present scholarly papers on home management. (E. W. Crandall, personal communication, July 10, 1979)

Retirement Years: Hobbies and Interests (1956 - January 1980).

Irma Gross continued to enjoy in 21 years of retirement those activities that she had enjoyed during her "active" professional years. She attended meetings, presented papers, consulted around the world, wrote books, and maintained personal friendships all across the United States and the world. Six years prior to her death she wrote the following:

. . . my personal life . . . has been much enriched by many long-time friendships and relationships with a few kin . . . I have visited some of them not only in the United States but in . . . Europe . . . Israel, and Australia. My professional friendships also extend beyond the boundaries of U. S. A. (I. H. Gross, personal communication, March 24, 1974).

"Travel is the pleasantly precise professor's special hobby."
These words of Virginia Baird (1959), Woman's Editor of the



Lansing State Journal, cleverly portray Irma Gross's passion for travel. Remarkably, she made ten trips to Europe. Baird (1959) noted that Irma Gross was an excellent cook and enjoyed outdoor activity. Elizabeth Crandall remembers an occasion when Dr. Gross combined these two interests. At a Sunday picnic breakfast, she served Eggs a la Benedict with a vented overturned Crisco can as her stove. In retirement, her group of eight intimate friends celebrated their birthdays at picnics which in California were possible year round (E. W. Crandall, personal communication, December 11, 1996).

As successful and well-known as Dr. Gross had been during her university teaching and administration, she bloomed in retirement. Because of her intellect and the high standards to which she held her students, many people were somewhat awe struck. After her retirement, she seemed more relaxed, and many former students commented on how warm and caring she was. Those of us who had worked closely with her already knew that! In a department chair/faculty member relationship, we always called her "Dr. Gross" to her face, but in our intimate groups she was always referred to as "Irmie H." Like Dr. Knoll, I consider my association of nearly 50 years with Dr. Gross to be one of the most productive, satisfying, and pivotal of my life (E. W. Crandall, Personal communication, December 11, 1996).

The Last Year of Her Life (January 1979-January 1980)

A tribute to Irma Hannah Gross, given by Helen E. Mau (1980), professor, San Francisco State University, beautifully expresses the last year of Dr. Gross's life:

... In closing this tribute, I would like to reflect for a moment on my last communication from Dr. Gross in the form of a very beautiful December 1979 Christmas letter to her colleagues and friends. Such a thrill it was for me to read how she viewed what became her final year of life which she described as one "of many peaks and one valley." At the time she wrote this letter she was living alone again at her home in La Mesa recovering from the one "valley" of the year, her illness and a serious operation. With one paragraph describing this period of illness and the wonderful kindness of friends, she went on to describe in two single-spaced pages the many peak experiences of the year.

These included reunions with early Omaha friends, the satisfactions from having the fourth edition of *Management for Modern Families* published, her attendance at both the Denver and San Diego conferences on "Home Economics Defined," a very special birthday salute in July 1979 marking her eighty-seventh year when many home economists gave contributions in her honor to the AHEA Foundation, the anticipation of going to Dallas to be the first recipient of the AHEA Foundation's Distinguished Service Award, and, as a final peak experience, the wonderful twenty-two day tour of Yugoslavia, Austria, Hungary, and Italy including a visit with her Hungarian cousins.

How grand it is to know that Dr. Gross's final year gave her so much joy. Such a great joy, she deserved so well . . . (Mau, 1980, p. 4).

Legacy for the Future

Permit me, as author, to postulate the legacy of Dr. Gross. If she could be with us today and visit our departments, schools, and colleges of family and consumer sciences would she be encouraged by the emphasis being placed on the teaching of practical applications of management for everyday living? I believe that as she talked with families about the problems facing them today, she would declare that there is no more opportune time than now for the field of family and consumer sciences to step forward and use the body of knowledge found in the area of home management to address these problems.

It is my opinion that, beginning in the mid 1960s through the early 1980s when many units of home economics did away with courses and departments of home management, unwittingly as a profession, we removed from our curriculum the area that best taught students to think, i.e., to use multiple mental processes. These mental processes include, for example, planning, controlling, decision making, and organizational skills, all of which require high levels of cognitive skills and carry a premium in today's work place and public life.

Today this "teaching of thinking" is called metacognition. Beyer (1987) in his book, *Practical Strategies for the Teaching of Thinking* emphasized that. . .

. . . those who are most effective at thinking are not simply skilled at the various cognitive operations that constitute thinking. They also consciously direct their own thinking . . . Consequently, the teaching of thinking consists of teaching students to think about their own thinking, consciously and deliberately, while engaged in thinking for functional purposes (p. 191).

The three key operations in metacognition identified by Beyer (1987) include planning, monitoring, and assessing. Planning includes stating goals and sequencing operations; monitoring includes decision-making; and assessing includes evaluating and judging the efficiency of the plan. If Irma Gross were here among us today she would affirm these key operations as very similar to the process of management planning, controlling, and evaluating as presented some 30 years ago in *Management for Modern Families* (1963).

If Irma Gross, our "dean of home management" could talk with our undergraduate and graduate students today and ask them where they are developing these metacognition skills, what



would their answer be? If we are to carry on Irma Gross's legacy our undergraduate majors should learn the important managerial functions of the family—how to teach people, always considering the individual family's values, goals, and resources, to manage their households on a day-to-day basis; how to organize the work of the home; how to manage their finances; how to determine the essential tasks that must be done to maintain a comfortable place in which to live; how to prioritize events and activities; and how to blend the managerial tasks with the “people” tasks such as communicating, instilling values, passing on traditions, affirming, and disciplining. Dr. Gross would affirm that home management as a body of knowledge addresses these important concerns of families and provides the metacognition skills that empower families to act from and build their own strengths.

McMillan's 1986 article, “Many Professors Now Start at the Beginning by Teaching Students How to Think,” featured in *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, discussed what some colleges and universities are doing to address the growing problem that many students cannot think critically about issues, ask probing questions, or solve problems. He reported that “there is even a movement advocating ‘critical thinking’ as a separate academic specialty” (p. 23). Our profession does not need a separate academic specialty to teach critical thinking or “metacognition” skills. Although it is true that “thinking skills” are taught in all family and consumer sciences subject matter areas, the *processes* involved in developing these skills are a unique part of the body of knowledge of home management.

Let us not lose this great legacy bequeathed by Dr. Irma Hannah Gross. Let us pass along to our students her legacy of home management research and its integrative focus on meeting the practical needs of families on an everyday basis.

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Author's Note

If a book were written entitled *Home Management: Past, Present, and Future* that parallels Dr. Marjorie East's book, *Home Economics: Past, Present, and Future* (1980), it is likely that the



name of Dr. Irma Gross would be listed as one of the home management “pioneers of distinction.” Although I never personally met Dr. Gross, I became a “kindred spirit” when, as a college sophomore, I was introduced to the Gross and Crandall text, *Management for Modern Families* (1963). The concepts of management as presented in the textbook influenced my decision to pursue home management and family economics at the graduate level. The preparation of this manuscript has been for me a sentimental journey over 100 years into the past, discovering both anew and again Irma Gross, whom Marjorie East has described as “our ‘Dean’ of home management” (East, 1980, p. 35).

The author acknowledges the contributions of Drs. Marjorie Knoll, Elizabeth Crandall, and Linda Nelson, not only for providing written correspondence and articles about Irma Gross but for serving as reviewers for the manuscript. The author wishes to thank Wanda Dickerson, a former graduate student in an advanced home management course taught in 1974 at East Carolina University. Each graduate student had an assignment to write to a leader in the field of home management to ask about her/his philosophy of management. Dr. Gross mailed back a three-page single-spaced typed letter along with a copy of her resume. A copy of this letter dated March 24, 1974 has become a very special connection to Dr. Gross. This article excerpts portions of her letter to give an autobiographical flavor.

Editor’s Note

Published below are the following Personal Memories of Dr. Marjorie M. Knoll, Professor Emerita of Penn State University, in an effort to capture the essence of Irma H. Gross. (M. M. Knoll, personal communication, November 29, 1996)

Many of Dr. Gross’s colleagues would agree that working with her was not only professionally rewarding but enjoyable as well. She could laugh at herself and at situations. Dena Cedarquist reminded the fifty-year faculty at the recent Michigan State University (MSU) College of Human Ecology Centennial Celebration about the time that a number of faculty members were coming out of a particularly long and frustrating curriculum revision meeting. Dr. Gross said, “If the children of Israel had depended upon a planning committee, they would still be in Egypt!”

Dr. Gross loved a party. At her instigation, faculty members in home management had a custom of celebrating birthdays. These were really elaborate, command performances. Usually they held an element of a joke or surprise. Dr. Gross reveled in these occasions.

She was a superb hostess. She frequently had small groups at her apartment for Sunday afternoon tea. She usually invited a few faculty members and some townspeople. She often invited people who did not know each other. She thought their varied interests made for more interesting conversation—and avoided faculty “shop talk.” I must say conversation in these groups was stimulating—often mind-stretching.

Many years later after she moved to California and was recovering from a debilitating illness, I visited her. Although she was unable to do much cooking, she invited the home management instructor at San Diego State, whom she had never met, and me for dinner at her apartment. She served TV dinners with the same flair and grace as if the meal had taken hours to prepare. And, as always the hospitality was as warm and the conversation as stimulating as in earlier days.

Shortly after she returned from a trip to South America, Spring vacation was approaching at MSU. She asked me if I had plans for the weekend. I said that Trude Nygren, Esther Everett, and I were going to drive to the Traverse City area. She said, “You know I still have itchy feet! Could I go with you? I’ll sit in the back seat and won’t make a sound.” We settled on 9:00 a.m. for departure. I had Trude spend the night at my home management unit—Esther Everett was next door—so that we could be SURE to be on time. Next day we arrived at Dr. Gross’s apartment about ten minutes early—and wonder of wonders the usually prompt lady was not ready. When we were on our way, I said, “We wanted to impress you with our time management.” She laughed. “Well I’m impressed. Now relax.” We did, and all of us did our share of the talking.

Faculty members always called her Dr. Gross to her face. This was before the time when it was customary for faculty members of any age to use first names. . . . Years later when we were working on the text book, Dr. Gross asked me if I would be comfortable calling her by her first name. I said I didn’t think so, but I hope she knew that I loved her just as much as if I could. She smiled and said, “Oh, I KNOW that.” Hence, she remained my dear DR. GROSS. I did address her as “Irmie H.” in letters after that.



Virginia Farrer Cutler: An Archetype for the Dual Role of Women 1905-1993

Dr. Ruth E. Brasher and Maxine Lewis Rowley

Virginia Farrer Cutler

Birth:	December 17, 1905-Park City, Utah
Death:	May 20, 1993-Provo, Utah
Education:	B.S., University of Utah, Salt Lake City; M.S., Stanvord University, Palo Alto, California; Ph.D., Cornell University, Ithaca, New York

Dr. Virginia Farrer Cutler was a member of what is now Kappa Omicron Nu and a life member of what is now the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences. She concentrated on management of the home and family from both a personal and a professional perspective.

The paradigms by which she lived her life are viable for present day family and consumer scientists throughout the world. Opportunities to observe and explore principles that guided her personal aims and professional practice have impact for friends and strangers, young and old, at home and away.

Dr. Cutler knew that when people practice what they are taught, the lessons are reinforced. As one of the pioneers of international home economics, her modeling of the "dual role" of wage earner and homemaker remains a prototype for those who follow after her.

Introduction

Virginia Farrer Cutler did not dream small dreams. Her sense of mission, her vision of possibilities, her commitment to render service, were never trivial. She was a convincing teacher, an international educator, an attentive administrator, an energetic philanthropist, and a thoughtful civic leader. She was a family resource management specialist. She was a HOME ECONOMIST.

Early Years

Dr. Cutler was born on December 17, 1905, in Park City, a mining community in the Wasatch Mountains of Utah. Virginia had one older brother and would acquire four younger siblings. Most of her

Dr. Brasher is Professor Emeritus of Home Economics and former Associate Dean, College of Family, Home, and Social Sciences at Brigham Young University.

Dr. Rowley is Teacher Educator in Home Economics at Brigham Young University.



childhood was spent in Murray, Utah, where her family moved following a mine explosion that killed many friends and associates. Her father, who had been a silver miner, worked in a smelter in Murray and on his six-acre farm. The family was respectable and of modest means (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 10).

Virginia described her father, Robert Farrer, as an expert craftsman who was both kindly and stern. She characterized her mother, Mary, as a loving and gentle disciplinarian who took good care of her family. Virginia always felt, throughout the years, the love and support of her parents and expressed that feeling on more than one occasion. The following paragraph is an example. It was written to her parents from Bangkok, Thailand, on September 6, 1955.

In a few months I will have reached the halfway point in my life and it suddenly occurred to me that anything I have done up to now has largely been shaped by circumstances. In the first place, I have goodly parents and they have helped me, guided me and been by my side in everything I have done for fifty years . . . I was just blessed beyond measure for such good fortune.
(Letter in family records)

Life in the home established by Virginia's parents reflected and acknowledged the importance of each individual. Family goals and activities were designed around and reflected each member's needs within the family group. For example, the family experienced both joy and sorrow as they learned from and gave love and support to one of Virginia's brothers who was a polio victim. Virginia long remembered environmental and attitudinal barriers which prevented her brother's full participation in school and community (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 9-12).

Such memories provided Virginia with insights into planning for a group in ways that could also meet the needs of individuals in the group. The lessons taught at home were learned well and served real purpose when she became a leader in home economics programs throughout the United States, Asia, and Africa.

Informal Education

Work was an integral part of close personal relationships that unfolded as the family grew and developed. Virginia recalled her awareness that labor on the farm and in the house usually divided itself along gender lines, but she and the other women also contributed to the operation of the farm, performing work with the livestock and crops when needed.

Knowledge of the management of a household began early in Virginia's life. Like other young girls of her time and place,

Virginia was taught critical homemaking skills by her mother. Child care, meal preparation, gardening, food storage, and housekeeping were a part of her on-going daily tasks that helped to sustain the family. Sewing lessons began as soon as Virginia was able to thread a needle. She constructed articles of clothing and such items for the home as curtains, draperies, quilts, and pillows. Her skills became finely honed and created opportunities for her first employment, which consisted of doing house work and constructing clothing and other items for use in the homes of families living in the neighborhood and larger community (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 3).

Virginia's parents provided the means for her to take piano lessons from Frank Asper, who was then the organist for the famed Mormon Tabernacle Choir. She enjoyed her piano lessons, which were given at the Gardo House and the McCune Mansion, two historically significant homes in Salt Lake City.

In the two settings, music was not the only thing she studied. A peek inside the houses piqued an interest in interior design and utilization of space. Virginia became cognizant of the significance of the house or dwelling for families and in communities (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 25). Connections from these early impressions were to surface years later when she designed home management houses for teaching student populations in such diverse locations as the University of Utah and the University of Ghana.

Formal Instruction

Virginia attended elementary school and junior and senior high schools in Murray, Utah. She performed well academically. She "never missed a day" (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 23-24) of kindergarten, and she continued to love school more with each succeeding year.

In junior high and high school, Virginia embraced a wide variety of subjects and experiences, setting a pattern that was to be evident throughout her lifetime. She enjoyed drama, participated in school plays, gave readings, and was a member of the opera chorus. Each year she was either a class or a student body officer. During her last year, she was vice president of her senior class.

In 1919, when she was a freshman in high school, Virginia was named the most outstanding student in domestic arts (later to be called home economics and, now, family and consumer sciences). As a consequence of being chosen, she had the opportunity to go to Utah State Agricultural College in Logan to a conference that permitted her to share domestic art experiences



with young women from across the state. This opened vistas which began to direct her interest toward future studies of home economics. The trip also provided her first opportunity to travel by train (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 26).

Religious Influences

In 1922, as sixteen-year-old Virginia approached graduation from high school (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 26-27), she began to ponder what she might do when she left the security of public school. Being a young woman of faith and devotion to her religion, she decided that she would seek a blessing from one of her church leaders. On a Spring day in April, 1922, she received a patriarchal blessing. Members of her church considered this to be a holy declaration given to an individual by a qualified church leader so that the receiver might have counsel and guidance in some of life's decisions. Virginia frequently indicated that her blessing

... has been my guiding light ever since. . . . It said that I should have a "goodly education," that the way would be opened up for me to obtain it and that I should become a teacher of young and old, friends and strangers, at home and abroad So, then I knew I had to go on to the university. I'd have to get a goodly education. (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 17)

A week or so after she received her patriarchal blessing, an announcement came telling of a high school day for students interested in continuing their education. It was to be held at the University of Utah. Virginia indicated that she might not have attended that event if she had not been told in her blessing that she should have a "goodly education" (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 17).

She and a classmate went to the activity. When they arrived at the Alfred Emery Building, which housed the Home Economics Department, preparations were underway for a sewing contest. Virginia was always ready for a challenge. Feeling confident because of what she had learned at home and because of the sewing she had done in school, she decided to take part. She said of the experience:

I finished it and lo and behold I got the first prize, which was a four-year scholarship to the University of Utah. Can you imagine that? But that is what the blessing said—that the way would be opened up to me The scholarship was for one year at a time. I had to make good for one year before I could have it the next year. (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 18)

Original Patterns

Virginia was a role model for other family members because she was the first to pursue and obtain a college degree (Cutler, n.d.-

a, pp. 20-21). Although the family encouraged and helped, Virginia provided much of the necessary money for school expenses. Over the next four years she worked at many part-time and full-time jobs to help finance her college education.

She took typing and shorthand courses so she could use those skills to enhance her earnings, but most of her employment was related to skills she had acquired in her home economics training. She worked in a laundry, in a millinery shop, and did clothing construction, household sewing, and home maintenance (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 27).

In her last year at the University, she worked from 6:00-11:00 p.m. on the switchboard at the County General Hospital. She described the year as “very strenuous” (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 20), but her studies in home economics proved to be stimulating and rewarding. She found that she “had to work hard, stretch beyond a comfort zone, and organize her time and effort in order to succeed” (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 27).

Virginia’s work and educational training in the home and in the secondary and university school systems was to help her to understand a dual role in home economics education: training women for paid employment in the community, and, at the same time, for unpaid work related to homemaking and family development. She never lost that focus. It remained with her throughout her life.

As a single parent and as a leader of her profession, she was to become one of the first and one of the most important role models for many other women who had to provide, simultaneously, for their own education, for care of their children, and for a livelihood. As a teacher of home economics, Virginia would rely upon her experience, showing women world-wide how to use the same tools that made them better wives and mothers to generate family income in home economics-related occupations.

The Young Professional

Virginia noted that she was always touched by her teachers and *not just by their instruction*, and this realization was to influence her own teaching throughout her career. Some teachers provided long-term inspiration. For example, she loved her speech classes because Herbert B. Maw, who later became Governor of Utah, was a great teacher. Subject-matter had its place; for Virginia, however, the teacher was the key to the quality of the educational experience (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 23-24).

Notwithstanding her love of speech and drama, Virginia was convinced that she had made the right choice in the selection of



home economics as her major (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 27-28). Many times throughout the years, she told audiences, in speeches and in writing, that if she had it to do again, she would always choose home economics (Brasher & Rowley, 1992).

She completed her Bachelor of Science degree at the University of Utah in the Spring of 1926 at the age of twenty (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 19). The culminating experience in her training had been her student teaching. She described it in the following way:

... an absolute joy . . . I thoroughly enjoyed all of my teaching and was the only one in my group that got an "A" on student teaching . . . that was a promise from my patriarchal blessing that I could be a teacher. So I felt secure . . . I could take any job offered me so I decided to take the job in Manti. (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 29)

Maturing Years

The job in Manti, a rural Utah community, began Virginia's professional teaching. She learned that being involved and sharing with others was rewarding. She loved the students, their parents, the school, and the town. She tried to duplicate behavior she had valued in her own teachers, and her successes reinforced her sense that she was an effective teacher. Many years later she wrote: "I loved the job at Manti . . . maybe I should have stayed . . . I still have many connections there after all these years" (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 29).

The next year Virginia was offered a job in the Jordan School District at Draper Junior High. She accepted it so she could live in closer proximity to her parents and siblings. For her third year of teaching she was transferred, within the same district, to Jordan High School.

Returning to the Murray/Salt Lake area created the opportunity for her to meet Robert Garr Cutler. A deep friendship developed between them, and, on October 26, 1928, at a family dinner, the two announced their intent to marry. Later that day, Garr's father, with whom Garr and his brother were to become partners in a truck garden endeavor, gave the prospective bride and groom the opportunity to choose a piece of ground on which to build a house. Garr's father also provided a loan to finance construction of the house.

Virginia's commitment to the project was expressed as follows:

... every day that I could I would go up there and see what more had been done. We watched every brick go into that house . . . It was the thrill of my life . . . It was pretty good to start out that way with a house and as much furnishings as we had . . . (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 36)

Virginia and Garr obtained some unfinished furniture and finished it, and they were given other pieces that could be restored. Virginia made lamps and lamp shades, selected an oil painting, and with money she had saved, purchased a grand piano. They moved into their new home on their wedding day, July 10, 1929 (Gardner, 1985, p. 39).

All went well, and a son, Robert Garr, was born on April 23, 1930. The young parents were “delighted to take him home—home to their very own place, a place that had been prepared with great care” (Gardner, 1985, p. 38). Virginia had no question but that this was where she wanted to be and what she wanted to do. Then there was an abrupt change in her life. Her husband developed septicemia. Within days he was in a coma (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 44-46), and he died on November 15, 1931 (Cutler, 1977).

... you see everything changed when my husband died . . .
when you don't have a partner, you're treated differently. Oh,
that was difficult . . . not having anybody to really love you . . .
that's hard to take. (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 52)

The complexity of Virginia's situation was compounded by the fact that her husband's death came just prior to 1932, the worst year of the Great Depression. The state of the national economy intensified the concern of family and friends.

Virginia made up her mind quickly that she would not go to live with her parents or her in-laws, both of whom had extended an offer to have her do so. Although she knew it would be difficult for her to provide for herself and Robert, she felt keenly that if she accepted either offer she would be saying to herself, “I am child again” (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 53).

It was also important to Virginia that she not be viewed as a “poor young widow” (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 52-53). Her sense of dignity and independence demanded that she provide for herself and her son. She accepted with sadness her loss; but, with characteristic determination, she set about coping with the sudden transformation of her life.

Virginia's immediate goal became that of paying the mortgage on her house. Owning it was a matter of security for her, in terms of both financial and emotional well-being. She determined to get a job and make arrangements to have someone care for her young son. Lizzy Cook, her father's niece “came and stayed . . . and cared for Robert . . . prepared the meals and purchased . . . food . . . needed to supplement what had been produced on the farm . . .” (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 56).



Virginia knew that teaching in the public school system was a job that one could leave and return to, if necessary. Being trained to teach home economics was income insurance for her and her little boy. She set about making contacts with individuals who were in a position to assist her and who knew her background and obtained a teaching position at South High School in the Salt Lake City School District.

Then, another unexpected condition had a pivotal impact on Virginia's life. It was only a matter of time until she knew she was carrying her second child, Ralph Garr. He was born July 27, 1932, just eight and a half months after his father's death. Virginia always considered this one of the great miracles of her life (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 56).

In the 1930s a pregnant woman could not teach. Toward spring-time her condition had become apparent, and Virginia was dismissed with only a month of school left. She had never missed a day of work or shirked her duties, and the rule frustrated her and made no sense as far as she was concerned. She recognized, however, that teaching while pregnant was against the rules and accepted the fact that she had to leave.

Years later, at Brigham Young University (BYU), she was to dismiss a graduate teaching assistant for the same reason. The young mother was pregnant with her second child, and the rule of not allowing a pregnant woman to teach applied in Dean Cutler's College. "Rules were rules," but Virginia took time to share her own story with the younger woman (Rowley, personal communication, 1989).

Out of the experience a bond was formed. Virginia gave the student to understand that she valued her as a scholar and accepted her as a colleague. From time to time in the years that followed, but especially after Dean Cutler retired to Oregon, she contacted this former graduate assistant and the two would talk about concerns related to the specialty areas, to name change, and to the profession of home economics at BYU and in the nation (Rowley, personal communication, 1989).

Given her optimistic approach to life, Virginia, after being dismissed from her job, reflected that being without employment gave her time to engage in important family activities (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 56). She attended to such things as food preservation and other tasks that centered on preparation for the birth of her baby.

While Virginia was in the hospital following Ralph Garr's birth, Calvin Smith, the superintendent of the Granite School District,

came to see her. He said, "We need somebody who has your qualifications to teach at Plymouth Junior High School. Would you be willing to accept the position . . . ?" When the school year began, her annual salary was \$1,150. She was ecstatic (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 56).

Graduate School

During the 1932-33 school year, Virginia began to evaluate her situation and ask some specific questions. Could she provide her children the educational opportunities she desired for them? Would they be able to enjoy a reasonably secure life? Was the quality of her education what it ought to be?

She determined that her education was not yet "goodly" (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 57-58). A colleague had attended Stanford. Virginia was impressed with the program and the potential it might provide her to become a Dean of Women, a position she thought might fit in well with the demands of her family. She applied, was accepted, and began making arrangements to move to Palo Alto.

Included in her preparation was canning fruits and vegetables available from the farm. She thought if she planned carefully she could take enough food to make it possible to meet the family living expenses while she worked on her degree (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 58).

The retirement of her indebtedness was a key factor in her being prepared to continue her education. She had determined to leave for Stanford as soon as she paid off her mortgage. She made the final payment within three years of her husband's death.

Virginia had \$100 left after paying the mortgage; she sold the chicken coop for \$10, bought enough fabric to make one new dress, purchased a gallon of black paint so she could paint the car, and was ready to go to Stanford. She felt confident that the way would be opened for her to successfully complete a Master of Science degree.

When her sister, Fern, discovered that Virginia had only \$100, she said, "You can't go with just a hundred dollars. I'll give you \$200; I'll give you what I've saved" (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 59).

Virginia finally agreed to accept Fern's money as a loan to be repaid at some future date.

Virginia's mother went along to help with the initial move. The children became ill on the trip, and there were mechanical



problems with the car, but the little family arrived in California; and Virginia moved them into a small, unheated apartment which rented for \$18 a month. Since the rental income from her house in Salt Lake City was \$35 per month, Virginia felt she and the children were financially secure.

She did not anticipate the cool weather and the impossibility of keeping warm in the apartment. Neither had she taken into account that Stanford was a very expensive institution. Her tuition was \$325 for the year. She had \$300. She checked on the availability of a scholarship and learned all had been distributed several months before. The scholarship officer indicated that, if Virginia desired, she could add her name to the list of alternates. She did. Her name was at the bottom of the sixth page.

Two weeks later she received a call asking her to come to the registrar's office. Virginia wondered why, adjusted her schedule, went to the office, walked up to the counter, and identified herself. The registrar said, "You know there was one person who said he could not use his Henry Newell scholarship" (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 61).

The purpose of the Henry Newell scholarship was to help able students who were in financial need, but that was not all. Mr. Newell had specified that, all other conditions being equal, the scholarship should be presented to a person from Utah. Virginia had not only been born in Utah, but she was the only person on the six-page list from that state. She was given the scholarship. She termed it a blessing which paid her tuition at Stanford (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 61).

Since she desired to become a Dean of Women, Virginia contacted Anastasia Doyle, then Dean of Women at Stanford, for counsel about an academic program. Dean Doyle's assistance was concrete and expeditious. She outlined Virginia's course of study, helped her locate a part-time job, hired her as a graduate assistant, and arranged for the little boys to be admitted into nursery school.

Things went along until December when the boys became ill with pneumonia and were hospitalized. Dean Doyle located a pediatrician and urged Virginia to move, while the children were in the hospital, into a warmer apartment.

The day the boys were to be released from the hospital was the day Virginia was to present a paper in her psychology class on the topic of "Purpose in the Universe and in Our Lives." The paper was refined and polished and ready to be delivered immediately after picking up her children.

As she drove to the hospital, a truck ran a red light, hit Virginia's car broadside, threw her into the street, and broke

three of her vertebrae. Dean Doyle again came to her rescue and arranged care for the boys until members of Virginia's church arrived to assist.

Even though her mother came to stay and help (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 67), this was a very difficult time for Virginia. Trying to remain optimistic, she wrote her father from the hospital, saying that she was not sure she "could still give that paper on 'Purpose,' but I am sure that things [will] work out" (G. Cutler, n.d., p. 2).

Work out they did! Finally, the challenges were met. Her Master of Science degree was completed. She was able to buy a new car and repay the borrowed \$200 to her sister, Fern.

The long-term consequences of her injury, for many years to come, had to be handled with her characteristic determination and a smile. The doctor told her that she would have to wear a brace for the rest of her life. She was resolute in her decision to manage somehow without wearing a brace; and, for extended periods of time, she succeeded (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 74-75).

Appreciation and Endowments

Virginia's appreciation for Dean Doyle's support was deep and enduring and was to continue to grow (Palo Alto Times, April 3, 1955). In the 1970s Virginia established twenty Fellowship Trust Funds of \$10,000 each at six universities and in two professional organizations. Virginia remembered Dean Doyle and placed one of the funds in her honor at Stanford University.

Other gifts similar to the one given to Stanford were also established: one at Cornell University, seven at the University of Utah, two at Utah State University, ten at Brigham Young University, one at the University of Ghana, one with the American Home Economics Association (now AAFCS), and one with the American Association of University Women (AAUW). She also established a continuing annual Distinguished Faculty lecture and, ultimately, a Chair in Home and Family Life at Brigham Young University.

None of the endowments were created in Virginia Farrer Cutler's own name. Each was given the name of an individual who had contributed to Virginia's personal and professional growth. It was later, with urging from friends, that her name was added to the BYU Faculty lecture and AAFCS endowment, as one of the development funds still being built in 1997 by the Utah Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (UAFACS) and other state affiliate members of AAFCS (Cutler, n.d.-b, p. 62).



Early Professional Positions

Virginia's first teaching assignment after completing her graduate work was in California at Durham High School. There, she became acquainted with the home economics teacher educators from California State at Chico and was invited to work with student teachers. She accepted. She was also introduced to the California State Home Economics Supervisor who encouraged Virginia's participation in home economics professional organizations (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 76).

Virginia was elected President of the Northern California Home Economics Association, and, during her second year at Durham, hosted the organization's conference. Harriet G. Eddy from the University of California was invited to speak. This meeting resulted in an offer of a position as County Extension Home Economist (Agent) in Colusa County. Virginia accepted.

While she was with the Extension Service, Virginia's professional commitment was recognized by her peers, and she was elected President of the California Home Economics Association. The leadership role became influential in her obtaining a position as an Extension Specialist for the State of California.

Family Affairs

Virginia was far ahead of the human development and family relationships research in experimenting with and practicing quality time with children. Provision of the necessities of life, of course, was necessary for her sons; but she believed love, security, service, discipline, and unity would ultimately be what sustained her family.

In 1972, Frank Moss, U. S. Senator from Utah, would write of Virginia Farrer Cutler, ". . . she is a most remarkable woman in every respect. Professionally she has achieved distinction in her field of home economics . . . that is both national and international, but she has also been equally successful as a mother and homemaker in her own family" (G. Cutler, n.d., p.3).

Virginia saw symbols as an essential dimension of family stability and security. Many activities with her sons were carried out "at the old walnut table brought across the plains by pioneer ancestors. When the family moved, other things could be stored or sold, but not that table. It became a symbol linking the generations together, and a reminder of our rich cultural heritage" (Gardner, 1985, p. 38).

Sundays in Palo Alto had become special days that permitted her and the children longer than usual periods of time to be

together. Following church meetings, mother and sons would stroll around campus examining the flowers, shrubs, and trees and go to the Children's Museum, where they studied the toys Leland Stanford had played with when he was a child.

Virginia later shared stories (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 79-83) about the home she purchased in Colusa, California. The accounts accentuated, once again, the importance to her of the relationship between her parenting and professional roles. She described a lovely, vacant old house that was available for purchase. The owner had recently died, and his wife felt that the house was too large to manage and was anxious to sell the property and move to San Francisco. In order to buy the home and the servants' house, which was also located on the grounds, Virginia sold her first home in Utah.

The new home had 13 rooms plus a large sleeping porch. The grounds were extensive and contained a variety of fruit trees. The former owner left most of the furniture in the house, which delighted the Cutlers because it provided a number of projects for them to work on together as they refinished and rearranged. Virginia indicated that the Colusa house was one of the best investments she ever made because it always needed to have something repaired.

She was also able to use many of the projects as examples in her extension work (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 79). Monthly meetings for the officers of her nine extension centers were held in her home, which also became the location of other professional, neighborhood, 4-H, and church activities (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 83).

Involvement of her children in her extension work was another way of extending her job into her home. It was another way she managed her dual role. For example, bread making with her children and others was a vehicle to teach 4-H'ers about family relationships and human development, and she used her home as the teaching center. Virginia wrote:

. . . every Saturday [the boys and I] would make bread and they would bring their [4-H and other] friends to . . . make a loaf of bread. They all made a kneading board . . . learn[ed] how much [flour] to sift . . . they had to learn how to get the yeast mixed up with it and learn how to knead it. And we had a regular rhythm they had to knead to: push, one, two, three, turn a quarter of the way around . . . they all loved to do this and get it kneaded and feel whether the top was smooth enough . . . and whether it had a skin on the top yet. And we'd put . . . [it] . . . to rise, and they'd [talk or] go out and play ball . . . Oh, they were excited about this bread that we would make . . . when it got high enough that we could make the loaves of bread, they'd all have to scrub up



again and get the board out and then go through a lot of rigmarole about the shaping of the loaves. (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 80-81)

Graduate Education

When the offer to be a specialist with California's Extension Service was made, Virginia had already applied for and received a scholarship to attend an institute on the study of children. It was sponsored by the American Association of University Women (AAUW) and was to take place at Vassar College. Virginia was motivated to participate because she felt there were always things to learn in such conferences that would enhance her role as a mother (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 77). She had also planned to attend the American Home Economics Association (AHEA) annual meeting while she was in the East.

The California Cooperative Extension Service agreed it would be of benefit and assented to her participation in the meetings prior to beginning her work as a state specialist. During her preparation to assume the position as Extension Specialist, however, Virginia realized it would be essential to have a doctoral degree in order to perform well as a specialist, so she determined to get the terminal degree before taking the new job. By this time, Virginia had been in Colusa six years and had paid for her home. She arranged to sell the house and furnishings and made arrangements to buy a house in Ithaca, New York, where she could again work as a graduate assistant and attend Cornell University. In 1946 her doctorate at Cornell University was completed.

She did not, however, return to California. Instead, she was offered and accepted a position to head the Home Economics Department at the University of Utah in Salt Lake City.

University Administration

Virginia was excited to be returning to the school where she first became a part of higher education. She was aware of the foundations established by those whose footsteps she was to follow.

No teaching in home economics has exceeded the quality, idealism, nor the appreciative response which it aroused in students than that of Professor Rose H. Widtsoe. The administrative foundation for the Department of Home Economics at the University of Utah had been soundly laid by this able leader and her co-workers. The problem for the future was to widen the horizons and enrich the program so well begun. It is to this end that Virginia devoted her efforts (Cutler, 1945).

Some individuals at the University of Utah were disappointed, however, when Virginia, instead of a faculty member already in

residence, had been made the department head. Virginia said later that she was quite overcome with the negative feelings projected when she arrived at the University. She termed her first year in the new position one of the most difficult she ever had to face (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 99).

The complexity of the faculty relationships at the University of Utah taught her, as no theoretical lesson ever could, “that feelings of animosity and jealousy, because other people [are different] than you . . . can practically ruin one’s life” (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp. 110 -111). On the other hand, she also wrote:

. . . I think the experience helped me tremendously when I had the opportunity in later years to work with people in Asia and Africa . . . to accept the people for what they are and not be antagonistic toward them just because they did not think just the way I did but learn to love people. We’re all human beings . . . this [experience] taught me many things and I determined that at the University of Utah I would concentrate on the teaching that I did and concentrate on the students because that’s what I was there for, to educate students . . . I expect that maybe . . . the best teaching that I ever did in my life was at the University of Utah and it’s because I put in an extra effort because of the opposition I felt when I went there. (Cutler, n.d.-a, pp.110-115)

Dr. Cutler created enriched experiences for the students, developed new courses, and established several community programs. Foremost among the accomplishments for which she is remembered was convincing a friend, Sterling W. Sill, who was Chairman of Utah’s Board of Regents, to raise money for construction of the Sill Family Living Center, a beautiful building that began as an \$18,000 commitment and ended as a \$350,000 one.

The building provided opportunity for students to apply the theoretical principles of home management in a supervised environment. During the first 25 years following its construction, more than 900 undergraduate students were to live and study there. The Sill Center also became the traditional site of many University and community social events (Dickinson, 1970). An elegant oil portrait of Dr. Virginia Cutler still hangs above the mantel in the beautiful entrance hall (September, 1970).

During the summer of 1951, Dr. Cutler made a commitment to teach at the University of Washington. She had also been invited to meet in New York with a national committee focusing on developing plans for international work in home economics. Dr. Muriel Brown, head of the committee, was also the person responsible for recruiting home economics professionals to fill foreign assignments created by the Marshall Plan, which was



just beginning to be implemented by the United States government, with the purpose of providing education opportunities and economic aid to foreign nations. Virginia related that:

On the second day, Muriel sat by me at lunch and said, "Why don't you take a foreign assignment? Wouldn't you like to?" And I was in the mood so I said, "Maybe I would. Where would it be?" She said, "Tel Aviv. We've got to have somebody to go to Tel Aviv. Would you like to go?" (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 137)

Virginia returned to Utah, made arrangements to leave for Tel Aviv, went to the state of Washington to teach summer school, and had a call from Dr. Brown saying that Tel Aviv had been canceled and that Virginia would be going to Thailand. Except for the fact that this was the first major undertaking in her professional career in which her sons would not be included, since one was serving his church in Austria and one was at Princeton University, Virginia was, in her usual fashion, excited about the adventure (Cutler, n.d.-a, p. 138).

The Marshall Plan and Asia

Dr. Cutler was to spend the next ten years, until 1961, working as a home economist in Asia. She completed major assignments in Thailand, Indonesia, Viet Nam, Cambodia, Laos, and the Philippines; and she served as a consultant in Japan and Hong Kong. The long list of her successful endeavors included the founding of four teacher training colleges for home economists and establishing the American Home Economics Association in Asia (Cutler, n.d.-c).

Fullbright Scholar

Following the Asian experiences, Virginia returned to the U. S. for five years as Dean of the College of Home Economics at Brigham Young University (BYU). She then became a Fullbright Scholar in Africa.

Along with the Fullbright scholarship came the challenge and obligation of setting up a Department of Home Economics at the University of Ghana. When she arrived in Africa, Virginia had no students, no offices, no identified facilities for courses, no staff, no budget, no counterparts, no friends, and no support from faculty or administration. The second year, however, she and the students she recruited moved into their own facility and established, at the University of Ghana, a Department that Virginia chose to call Home Sciences (G. Cutler, 1990). Her original plan was to spend a year in Ghana. She stayed three years.

A long list of extraordinary contributions in Asia and Africa authenticate Dr. Cutler as not only one of the first, but one of the

most influential and successful international family and consumer scientists in the history of the profession. Her friends and colleagues, then and now, understand that Virginia not only left a part of her heart in Asia and Africa, but she brought a part of the spirit of Asian and African home economists back to the U. S. with her.

Consumerism and Community Service

In 1966, from Ghana, Virginia returned home to BYU a second time, and this time she became Chair of the Economics and Home Management Department. While serving in that capacity, she was invited by the Major Appliance Manufacturers to chair a committee charged with the responsibility to develop a program through which consumers might be more fully and impartially served.

Over lunch with faculty she discussed the creation of an acronym that people would remember and use. Given the familiarity of consumers with MACAP (the Major Appliance Consumer Action Panel), which provides an opportunity for consumers to obtain information and responses to complaints if they feel they have not been adequately served by the specific manufacturer, Dr. Cutler was successful.

She served as chairman of the committee for five years and continued to work with them as an emeritus member. *Home Furnishings Daily* (1975, July 11), in noting her retirement from MACAP, reported:

. . . under the direction of Dr. Cutler, MACAP has done such an outstanding job that it was not only cited by Virginia Knauer, Special Assistant to the President for Consumer Affairs, but it served as a model for similar consumer-related panels in the furniture, carpet and auto industries.

Dr. Cutler's retirement from MACAP also engendered a response from President Gerald R. Ford. In 1975, he wrote to her, "I am pleased for this opportunity to salute your enduring professional achievements as an educator and staunch champion of the consumer interest" (G. Cutler, n.d., p. 3). During the same time frame in which Virginia was involved with MACAP, she also headed UPAC, the Utah Consumer Action Panel, and conducted four state conferences educating for effective consumerism. UPAC is now part of the League of Utah Consumers.

On a broader scale, her community service at local and national levels was more than impressive. Among others, she was a United States' delegate to the World Forum of Women in Brussels, Belgium, in 1962, and she served on the Status of Women Commission for the State of Utah in 1966 and again from 1972-



75. She was also appointed by U. S. President Nixon to the Consumer Advisory Council from 1972 to 1975.

Because of her, \$50,000 was raised to obtain, for the Provo (Utah) City and County Building, a sculpture on the theme of family by Avarad Fairbanks. The critical contribution she made was not just raising the money but obtaining permission from the politicians involved and organizing a county-wide volunteer force to get the project going.

Later, Dr. Fairbanks' last work was a tribute to Virginia Farrer Cutler. He sculpted a rose marble bust of Dr. Cutler and worked with Dr. Ruth E. Brasher, Dr. Maxine Lewis Rowley, and others to have it placed in the entry way of the Smith Family Living Center at Brigham Young University (Fairbanks, 1986).

Observations for the Future

During her retirement years, Virginia closely followed the progress of home economics programs nationwide and was often in touch with colleagues at BYU. Virginia expressed many times her conviction that, given the choice, she would always be a home economist, but she also spoke of her "professional regrets." She made it clear to correspondents (Cutler, 1983) that she believed her recommendation to change the name of the College of Home Economics to the College of Family Living had hurt the discipline on the BYU campus. She also expressed regret for recommending that Home Science instead of Home Economics be the title for the program and department in Ghana. She believed the decision contributed to a loss of visibility for home economics as the holistic, integrative discipline and profession for home and family living (Brasher & Rowley, personal communication, 1984).

Virginia's life is worthy of emulation by all of us. Her desire [was] to be assured that insights regarding the enhancement of human life, and the homes in which life is created and nurtured, be central to our professional and personal offerings. She [acknowledged] this as an on-going challenge . . . that can never be put aside, because nothing else matters so much, [and her example] . . . will serve as a constant reminder that we must give more of ourselves. We must do more for families. We must be confident that our priorities are right.

Dr. Cutler would tell us that an enhanced contribution only requires voluntary simplicity. If our wants and desires are more carefully monitored, we will be in a position to see more clearly, and our vision will permit us to give more and thereby serve [home and family] more completely.

The above paragraphs were written by Ruth E. Brasher and Maxine Lewis Rowley and read by Dean Stan L. Albrecht, November 18, 1986, at a dedication of the memorial statue to Dean Virginia Cutler. The occasion also marked one of her visits to BYU to attend the annual Virginia F. Cutler Lecture on Home Economics and Family Life. Dr. Cutler passed away on May 20, 1993.

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Editor's Message

The response to our last issue that featured "Legacies of the Future" was most gratifying, and I trust that this edition will be welcomed, too. Guest Editor Sharon Nickols has contributed much time and energy to the quest for preserving our heritage. Thank you Sharon!

This series of legacies complements the efforts of others throughout the field who have authored works, published and unpublished, about the history of our field and its leaders. It is our intent to develop an annotated bibliography of these resources so that we have a "repository" of heroines and heroes who carried the torch at the beginning and during the maturing of our field. But more importantly, their legacies provide current and future professionals inspiration and a foundation on which to build their own contributions to family and consumer sciences and its specializations.

We need your help! It is our belief that there are many essays, unpublished books, or memorial presentations featuring our predecessors that can't be found in the normal reference sources.

Attention: University program administrators and individual professionals are implored to scour archives and libraries to share citations and a brief description of the written material in their possession. Thank you, in advance, for your help.

Note elsewhere that a Call for Papers is continued for this series of legacies. A committed group at Michigan State University has set a goal of writing a *FORUM* article about Beatrice Paolucci; I challenge others to form a working group to record the legacy of a mentor or significant leader. Let me know your intentions so that we can set a publication date for the third issue in this series.

I hope also that some of you will respond to my challenge in the previous issue to write autobiographies. We want those, too.

Dorothy I. Mitstifer

dmitstifer@kon.org
(800) 351-8335