Front Porch

Dear Readers,

A few years back, a reader from Fairfield wrote to me about her daughter, “who feels a little lost living in New York so far from home. She longs for the green fields of corn and beans and seeing cows out to pasture. Getting Iowa Heritage in the mail is like getting a little bit of home.”

Her daughter is one of many readers living beyond our borders. In fact, we receive more letters and e-mail from out of state than within Iowa.

And I suspect that a good number of our readers who have moved to Iowa order the magazine because they’re curious about how the past helps explain the present.

I like to think that reading Iowa Heritage Illustrated “waters the roots” of “transplanted Iowans” (as one letter-writer calls himself). Most of us know some transplanted Iowans who would enjoy this magazine but may not know about it. How about ordering it for them as a gift?

Several readers commented on the issue of photos of 1940s Iowa. Here’s what a few had to say.

I perused with interest Jamie Beranek’s extended piece on Don Ultang’s work in color. It’s a marvelous article on a marvelous subject.

Beranek states that some of the transparencies had faded “because of age,” but I’m guessing those were Ektachrome, which faded all the time, and not Kodachrome, which was stable. Ultang must have taken a mix of Kodachrome and Ektachrome.

I always eagerly plunge into each edition of Iowa Heritage Illustrated when it arrives, but the issue with the Ultang photos was a special treat. Perhaps it was because the images were so evocative of an era that encompassed my own formative years growing up in eastern Iowa. The quality of the commentary matched distinctive photos.

I’ll be sharing this issue with all my fellow transplanted Iowans in New York City. Thanks for another great representation of Iowa history.

-Peter Olbery
New York, New York

Our cards in the back of this issue offer the magazine two ways: through memberships and through subscriptions.

Memberships support the State Historical Society of Iowa in fulfilling its mandate: collecting, preserving, interpreting, and sharing this state’s history. We do that through our libraries and special collections, historic preservation and sites, publications and museum exhibits, grants and educational programs. We do all this for you (and for future generations), but we can’t do it without you. Joining the Society gives us that essential help.

Subscriptions support this magazine so that we can continue to publish intriguing stories and compelling images.

Our reader in Fairfield also acknowledged, “I can’t wait until the next issue comes out and am sad when I have read the last page of the latest issue.”

Don’t be sad, dear reader. There’s plenty of history to fill our pages, but we need your help to continue to make that happen.

Help us serve more readers. Please spread the news about one of Iowa’s best-kept secrets: this magazine.

-Ginalie Swaim, editor
You're holding the best tour guide you can find for traveling into Iowa's past.

**Iowa Heritage**

Rare photos and rich history in every issue.

**Illustation**

Summer 2010, 91:2

**Story of Change**

Allant Little Lady: Leopold

**80s–1960s**

Kernek

**Is Are Broken**

66 Iowans at the finish line

The Loess Hills is helping of woody vegetation and prairie plants. In this photographer Stan Buman change has affected one of physical features.
Controlled burning in the Loess Hills is helping to reverse the invasion of woody vegetation and allow the return of native prairie plants. In this issue, writer and photographer Stan Buman reveals how a century of change has affected one of Iowa's most remarkable physical features.
The Loess Hills
A Century of Change
text and photos by Stan Buman
A Century of Change

The Loess Hills
Looking south towards Hamburg, in the southwestern corner of Iowa. Photo above by Bohumil Shimek (early 1900s); below, by Stan Buman, author of this article (2006). The comparison shows the encroachment of trees, shrubs, and other woody plants.
It was a long, hard scramble through the brush to get to the grass-capped ridge. Once on top, I rested and let the breeze dry my shirt and cool me down.

My goal was to locate the same spot where Iowa botanist Bohumil Shimek had stood with his camera in the early 1900s. In my hand I held a black-and-white print of the photograph he took that day (top left).

I moved up and down the ridgeline, peering through openings, trying to match the patterns of the distant hills with those in Shimek’s photo. I had to contend with a century of change here in Iowa’s Loess Hills. My task was complicated by the woody vegetation that had invaded the hills and now blocked my view. Only through narrow openings in the trees and brush could I glimpse small pockets of prairie remnants.

I ended up compromising on the exact location. Otherwise my photo would show nothing but a wall of trees.

Shimek, on the other hand, had captured a vast, open scene of prairie spread over the Loess Hills, with only a few scattered trees. It must have been a spectacular
Hiking and biking trails, scenic overlooks, and educational opportunities are keys to enjoying and appreciating the Loess Hills and understanding the need for conservation. Right: yucca thrives on the steep, dry slopes. The hills arise abruptly from the broad Missouri River valley.

scene: native grasses waving in the wind, yucca clinging to the dry, steep slopes, and seasonal wildflowers in bloom—all of this extending for miles in a north-south direction.

The geographic region called the Loess Hills stretches from Plymouth County in the northwest corner of Iowa, all the way south into Missouri. Never very wide, this unique landform is contained within the column of counties parallel to the Missouri River valley, the same valley responsible for the formation of the hills.

To understand how the Loess Hills developed, think back to the last several glacial periods, 12,500-150,000 years ago. As the glaciers advanced from the north, they ground up the underlying rock into a very fine, powdery sediment.

During warm periods, the melting glaciers sent large volumes of water laden with this fine sediment downstream. The sediment was eventually deposited on the expansive Missouri River floodplain, leaving large exposed mudflats across the river valley.

As the meltwaters receded, the prevailing westerly winds picked up the fine soil particles and deposited them along the eastern side of the floodplain. Over thousands of years, these wind-blown soil particles, called loess (luς), accumulated and formed hills. Just imagine the dust storms, carrying the loess for miles and depositing it in
formations like enormous sand dunes, some higher than 200 feet.

For the past 12,000 years, even as wind was resculpting the hills, water was recarving them. Erosion has continued to shape the landform into its present-day appearance.

The heavier, coarser particles that formed the Loess Hills are fairly homogeneous in size and contain very little clay. Without clay to act as a binding agent, loess soils are more susceptible to erosion, especially when disturbed.

If left undisturbed, however, the soil particles are cohesive. Road cuts used in most of Iowa are V-shaped to maintain their stability, but in contrast, nearly vertical road cuts in the Loess Hills are surprisingly stable. Of course, the loess may slough off when the toe of the road cut is disturbed or during long wet periods.

Loess soil is highly permeable. Water percolates through the soil rapidly, and little moisture is retained for plant growth. Drought-tolerant plant species, however, established themselves in these dry soils, their deep, fibrous root systems providing access to the limited moisture. Typical drought-tolerant grasses found in the Loess

Pasqueflower blooms in early spring. Though it appears delicate, it can handle the dry conditions of the Loess Hills and, here, the chill of ice crystals.
Looking north of Grant Center in Monona County. Photo above by Shimek (1908); below, by Buman (2006).
Looking south from Pisgah (between Sioux City and Council Bluffs). Photo above by Shimek (c. 1908); below, by Buman (2006).
Hills include little bluestem and side-oats grama, while drought-tolerant forbs such as pasqueflower, puccoon, skeleton weed, and coneflower add splashes of color. Yucca, found along the front slope, is at the eastern end of its range.

Fire also played a role in establishing prairie species. During droughts, fire swept up the dry hillsides, fostering species that are adapted to fire and flourish after they are burned. Most woody vegetation, on the other hand, did not tolerate frequent burns and did not survive.

The bur oak was an exception because its thick, corky bark tolerates fire. In fact, scrubby bur oaks frequented many prairies. Other woody species were restricted to the cooler, wetter northeastern slopes that were less prone to fire. But overall, prairie plants dominated the Loess Hills.

The likelihood of wildfires decreased as fields were cultivated, pastures grazed, and roads built. Without wildfires, the delicate balance between prairie plants and woody vegetation shifted. Scattered trees established themselves, even on the drier slopes. Over time, the trees became denser, shading the ground and reducing the fine fuels, resulting in even less fire activity. Although trees and shrubs encroached slowly in the Loess Hills, comparing Shimek’s photos with mine reveals the astonishing transformation.

Today, many Iowans hunger
for the vast prairie-scapes that once characterized the Loess Hills. Land managers, conservationists, naturalists, landowners, and volunteers are undertaking projects to battle woody vegetation, using tree-clearing machines, chainsaws, prescribed fires, and even goats, whose browsing discourages shrubs and small trees.

In turn, prairie plants that somehow had eked out a meager existence under dense shade are multiplying. These forgiving species are reclaiming their former territory—the Loess Hills prairie that naturalist Bohumil Shimek photographed a century ago.

Stan Buman (Fenceline Photos) photographs wildlife and nature for national and regional magazines, museums, and nature centers. He is also part owner of Agren, Inc., a consulting company in Carroll, Iowa, that focuses on making a positive impact on both agriculture and the environment.

The color photos in this article are by Buman. The black-and-white historical photos are from the Shimek Photograph Collection, Departments of Geoscience and Biological Sciences, University of Iowa.
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The color photos in this article are by Buman. The black-and-white historical photos are from the Steenек Photograph Collection, Departments of Geoscience and Biological Sciences, University of Iowa.
In late November 1930, Helen Williams (right) received a letter written in pencil on a sheet of cheap tablet paper stamped "CENSOR." The return address was 1900 Collins Street, Joliet, Illinois, and the number 9306 followed the name. The letter was from a man who wanted to study advanced mathematics by correspondence. He described his previous math work, said he would like to study "The Calculus," and asked for advice on the best courses in which to enroll.

The routine response would have been to send a course bulletin and perhaps a form letter stipulating enrollment procedures. In this case, however, Helen Williams took the time to study the request. Williams was the director of the Bureau of Correspondence Study at the State University of Iowa (now the University of Iowa) in Iowa City. After consulting a math professor, Williams wrote back that the individual's completion of high-school algebra and his independent work in plane trigonometry should have prepared him to do satisfactory work in analytic geometry. For a fee of $14, he could enroll for three semester hours of credit as an unclassified student.

A few days later, Nathan Leopold Jr. drew a money order from his account in the warden's office of the Il-

*by Von Pittman*
Mrs. Shepherd

Feb. 15, 1935

To the Director

University of Iowa

Dear Sir,

Would it be possible for me to enroll for a course in your Correspondence Department? If so,
I should be grateful if you would send me complete
information on the course offered, and the procedure
I should follow in enrolling.

I am particularly interested in courses in Mathematics
and have already taken courses in High School Algebra,
one year of Plane Geometry and the
workings thereon. Previous studies of Algebra and
Trigonometry in high school up to the summation
of the sine and cosine. I desire to prepare myself for study
of the Calculus, and perhaps you could inform me on the
course or courses which should be taken as prerequisites.

Very sincerely yours,

M. F. Leopold
inois State Penitentiary in Joliet and applied for enrollment in the correspondence program. Leopold's enrollment inaugurated a largely accidental partnership between one of the country's most notorious convicts and an obscure university bureaucrat in Iowa.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

IN THE SPRING of 1924, Nathan Leopold Jr. and his friend Richard Loeb kidnapped and murdered 14-year-old Bobby Franks in a Chicago suburb, then sent a ransom note to his father. Although the two young men had begun planning their crime in the late fall, their choice of a victim was last minute and almost random.

Leopold and Loeb were highly intelligent, but their alibis and evasions after their arrest fell apart and they were convicted. The district attorney asked for the death penalty. Only their youth—Leopold was 19, Loeb 18—and their families' good sense in hiring acclaimed criminal defense lawyer Clarence Darrow saved them from the gallows.

From the beginning of their incarceration at Joliet, both Leopold and Loeb enrolled in correspondence courses. Leopold was working his way through Hebrew textbooks, and Loeb was enrolled in a Latin course from Columbia University. Between them, they would enroll in numerous courses both practical—business shorthand—and esoteric—Egyptian hieroglyphics, Greek comedy, and Sanskrit.

Leopold and Loeb differed from the typical correspondence student in several ways. First, they were not only convicts, but "lifers." Both were graduates of elite private prep schools: Leopold from Harvard School, and Loeb from the University of Chicago's university high school. By age 19, Leopold had already received his undergraduate degree from the University of Chicago and was enrolled as a first-year law student there. Loeb had graduated from the University of Michigan at 18 and begun graduate study in history at the University of Chicago.

While in prison, Leopold became obsessed with learning how to calculate the area under a curve. "I got hold of a catalogue of the Home Study Department of the State University of Iowa and addressed a letter to the director," he later wrote, referring to his inquiry in late 1930 to Helen Williams. "In so doing I acquired a friend who has stood by me steadfastly ever since."

Why Leopold chose to explore courses at the University of Iowa rather than at the University of Chicago is unknown. Perhaps he looked at the catalogs of several programs, either shelved in the prison library or provided by his family, and then inquired about the courses that most interested him. Helen Williams's almost certain recognition of Leopold's name probably accounts for her decision to send an encouraging reply rather than a form letter. And the fact that Leopold received a personal answer from Iowa, with a considered response to his question, no doubt made its program attractive.

Helen Williams also had studied at the University of Chicago. After earning her undergraduate degree at the University of Iowa in 1910, she had completed two quarters of graduate work in history at Chicago. Then she taught for two years in Scranton, Pennsylvania. She returned to the University of Iowa, where she worked in various capacities for its Extension Division and became the first director of the division's Bureau of Correspondence Study in 1920.

While still working on his first math correspondence course with Professor John Reilly, Leopold asked to enroll in an advanced Hebrew course. This presented an embarrassing problem for Williams. As often happened in correspondence or independent study programs, while the course listing appeared in the catalog, the study guide and lesson sheets had never actually been written. Professor Moses Jung had agreed to write them but had not gotten around to it.

Williams contacted Jung and explained the prob-
lem. “I am enclosing a letter from a person whose name I believe you will recognize at once as a prisoner in Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet.” She continued, “I am writing Mr. Leopold, telling him that I am asking for your advice, but I am not telling him that our course in Hebrew language has never been written. I believe this is the first actual request that we have ever had for it.” She suggested providing an “arranged” course, in which Leopold and Jung would communicate directly, outside the correspondence program. She would turn Leopold’s entire tuition of $12 over to Jung, without taking the Correspondence Bureau’s normal overhead charge. Jung assented. He not only guided Leopold through the arranged course, but he also frequently loaned his own books to the prisoner and worked with him one-on-one for several more years as Leopold studied large portions of the Talmud and medieval and contemporary Hebrew literature.

Upon completing his Math 4C lessons and receiving comments from his professor in March 1931, Leopold asked Williams to allow John Taylor, superintendent of education for the Illinois State Penitentiary, to proctor his exams. Williams agreed and mailed Leopold’s exam to Taylor. After receiving nothing from either Taylor or Leopold for more than a month, she wrote Taylor, gently reminding him that exams should be administered and returned promptly. “It would be a good thing if Mr. Leopold could take his examination before long.”

Williams did not know about the violence that had broken out inside both the “Old Prison” at Joliet and the more modern facility at Stateville, five miles away. Since late February, the Old Prison had been in a state of high tension after guards—who had been tipped off—laid in wait for an expected escape, then shot and killed three prisoners as they tried to scale the wall. The next day, convicts set fires (one with Leopold’s lighter) in retaliation. The guards quickly extinguished the fires. A riot broke out in the kitchen, and the inmates captured a guard captain and broke his arm. The guards on the walls fired down into the yard, killing another two prisoners.Immediately after regaining control, the staff shook down the cells. When Leopold was allowed to return to his cell, he found that all of his books, correspondence, and papers had been confiscated.

Shortly after the Old Prison riot, Leopold was told that he would be moved to the new facility at Stateville. Just as the prison bus transporting him and 29 other prisoners pulled up to the Stateville gate, a riot broke out. The bus returned to Joliet. A few days later, after the administration had regained control, Leopold once again was transported to Stateville.

Given the state of affairs, Superintendent Taylor’s choice not to assign a high priority to proctoring Leopold’s test is not surprising. In late April, he sent Williams two communications. In a conventional business letter, he simply said that he had not yet been able to schedule the exam and that the textbook that Leopold had borrowed from the university library was lost. He did not mention the shakedown. However, in an undated, handwritten note, Taylor told Williams, “On account of our recent riot in prison, I have been unable to give Leopold the examination.” He hoped to be in a position to do it soon.

Williams used her own funds to purchase another copy of the textbook and mailed it to Leopold so he could prepare for the test. Finally, in late May, Taylor returned the completed exam and said that the lost textbook had been found and would be returned.

Helen Williams became a sort of de facto academic adviser and advocate for Leopold, frequently working as a go-between. In October 1931, Leopold was about to complete his second math course. “My aim in studying Mathematics is two-fold: first, I am interested in the purely cultural aspects of the subject (or perhaps it is just innate curiosity), but specifically, I should like to work toward an understanding of the Mathematics of Relativity,” he wrote Williams. “I have no idea how long this would require, nor what specific courses would be necessary, and it is precisely this point which I should like to have explained.”

Williams took Leopold’s question to Reilly, who suggested the second course in integral calculus as the next logical step. While his department had a policy against offering advanced math courses by correspondence, Reilly hoped it could be changed. However, should that not happen soon, he would consider arranging some individual courses for Leopold in differential equations, analytical geometry, mechanics, and perhaps the theory of equations. Williams passed his message along to Leopold.

LEOPOLD CREDITED his friend and fellow felon Richard Loeb with the idea of creating a correspondence-study high school inside Stateville. Until then, the sole school in the penitentiary offered only grades one through eight and covered only the most fundamental skills. Most participants were barely literate, at least when they began. The elementary school was classified as a work assignment for prisoners, but it offered fewer privileges, considerably lower status, and slightly less commissary money than did work assignments in the
carpentry shop or kitchen, for example. Essentially, all this amounted to a disincentive. Students were not allowed to request other work assignments, and inmates with more desirable work assignments rarely chose to attend school.

Loeb and Leopold decided that the greatest need for education inside Joliet and Stateville was at the high-school level. They chose the correspondence model for several reasons. They knew that few men would participate should they be forced to give up the status and privileges of their other work assignments. With correspondence courses, they could hold onto their work assignments and do their schoolwork during cell time. Because there were no extrinsic rewards for participation, only men who sincerely wanted instruction at the high-school level for its own sake would enroll, and it could be offered at virtually no cost to the institution.

In a formal proposal prepared for Superintendent Taylor and Warden Frank Whipp, Loeb and Leopold explained, “The advantages of this system are obvious. It would place a high school education within the reach of any inmate industrious enough to take advantage of the privilege. To those interested in some particular subject, such as history or languages, it would offer a chance to spend their spare time pleasantly and profitably. Finally, since certificates of completion could be given, following satisfactory work in a course, the inmate would have a definite goal to strive for. A great deal of the irregular studying, at the present time done by inmates, could thus be directed into channels which would benefit them and have a direct effect on their rehabilitation as members of society.”

* * * * *

CORRESPONDENCE study was not a new idea in the United States generally, nor in prisons specifically. Indeed, this instructional format enjoyed great popularity in the period between the World Wars. During the 1920s, more than two million people annually enrolled in correspondence courses, usually vocationally or professionally oriented. As educational reformer Dorothy Canfield Fisher noted, that two million exceeded the number of students enrolled in all of the postsecondary institutions in the country.

In 1906, the New Jersey State Prison had introduced correspondence courses to the American penal system. Some state-funded prison education programs made correspondence courses, supplied by either commercial entities or university extension programs, available to inmates. Most offered little beyond lists of assigned readings followed by sheets of objective questions. Few offered serious instruction. Even then, only the few inmates whose families could afford to pay for such courses had access to them.

Loeb, who sometimes did domestic work in Warden Whipp’s quarters, told the warden’s wife about the idea for a correspondence school. She encouraged him to take it forward. Whipp eventually granted Loeb a hearing that resulted in permission to open the school.

Leopold and Loeb spent the last two months of 1932 preparing course materials. Leopold told Williams that they had modeled their school on university departments such as hers. They intended to offer as comprehensive a high-school curriculum as practicable. The teachers would be inmate volunteers. Superintendent Taylor would supervise the entire project, to be known as the Stateville Correspondence School (SCS).

Once again Leopold asked Williams for help. In particular, he needed lesson sheets: “I realize that this is a bold request, but I feel sure that in view of the very good purpose to which this material will be put, you will not consider me presumptuous in asking whether you could see your way clear to helping us in this way.”

He also cautioned Williams to keep the information about the school to herself. He knew from experience that publicity could cause problems. Shortly after arriving at Joliet in 1924, he had begun teaching small groups of students. A story in the Chicago papers provoked an outcry about allowing a convict of his notoriety and “deficient character” to teach other men. The warden had shut down his classes and Leopold had not taught since. In 1931, an individual in Texas, probably alerted by another news story, wrote the president of the University of Iowa that people like Leopold should receive “moral training,” not academic credits: “No student ought to be graduated who will not agree he is his brother’s keeper.”

Williams enthusiastically supported the project. In addition to course guides, lesson sheets, and exams for numerous courses, she sent books that were out of date for her courses but potentially useful at the prison school, checked out books from the university library in her own name for the prisoners, and arranged loans of books from sympathetic professors. The University of Chicago’s high school and its collegiate Home Study Department also contributed instructional materials. Several years later, the University of Illinois would provide some courses.

These materials proved invaluable as outlines and templates, but Loeb and Leopold decided that the materials needed considerably more detail. Loeb wrote a textbook for seventh- and eighth-grade English and designed the course around his own experience.
with prisoners and his perception of their practical educational needs. Because the greatest need of all the men upon release would be to seek employment, he designed the course to emphasize business correspondence. It consistently enrolled the highest annual number of students.

Leopold's guiding rationale, as it appeared in the school's annual reports, suggested that education could lead to better employment prospects and reduced rates of recidivism and parole violations, a proposition that Leopold would test statistically. But further, he argued, "[the school] furnishes an adequate outlet for pent-up mental energy, which finds few other opportunities for vigorous application; it offers opportunity to keep the mental faculties alert by constant exercise; above all it furnishes an excellent distraction from the brooding and worry to which many prisoners are prone." If true, the SCS program would not only improve the mental health of the inmates, it would make the prisons safer and more secure.

Because so many men lacked language skills, the school offered remedial courses in English grammar and composition, but it also offered a full high-school curriculum, with the exceptions of physics and chemistry, which would have required lab equipment and supplies and additional security measures. The SCS study guides rivaled those of the large state and private universities. This is because the bulk of the first round of courses originated at the universities of Chicago, Iowa, and Illinois. Loeb's—and especially Leopold's—commitment to academic standards also contributed to the instructional quality of course materials.

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Miss Williams and Prof. Reilly:

... I am at present working all day on classification and cataloging of a large number of new books which we have been fortunate enough to secure for our Library, and then often continue the work during the evening. The amount of leisure left is like one of the Professor's infinitesimals in that it approaches zero as a limit....

Very sincerely yours,

N. F. Leopold Jr.
THE SCHOOL OPENED in January 1933, with 22 students enrolled in Spanish, English, history, and mathematics. Sixty-four additional students had applied for admission, pending verification of their claims to have received an eighth-grade education. The correspondence method made it convenient for men at the prison in Joliet to take courses also. The two prisons were located only a few miles apart and operated under a single administration. Over time, several dozen inmates from other male units of the Illinois penal system also enrolled.

Loeb and Leopold administered the program under the supervision of the education superintendent. The SCS faculty members were a well-educated, colorful lot. Former University of Kansas student Teddy Dillon, the "society bandit," taught English. Attorney, teacher, and kidnapper Joseph Pursifull offered Latin. Forger Mark Oettinger took charge of some of the math courses.

The penitentiary's administration—no doubt with a wary eye toward public reaction—stated its support for a program that "would help solve the problem of idleness." The Chicago Tribune's coverage did not mention Leopold, even though he took the largest role in creating SCS. Indeed, both Loeb and Leopold worried that the public might brand the school as a frivolous and misdirected exercise. Leopold said, "We'd obviate that by seeing to it that our courses were tougher and more complete than corresponding courses outside. We'd lean over backward in setting high academic standards—higher, just because we were convicts, than would be necessary in the free world."

Loeb and Helen Williams maintained a respectful, businesslike correspondence until 1934, when Leopold was admitted to the prison hospital for minor surgery. Williams sent a personal note, wishing him a quick recovery. Later the same year she wrote that she had been in the town of Joliet recently to see friends. She had considered seeking permission for a visit, "but since I felt so certain that my request would be refused I did not make the attempt."

Leopold replied, "I was particularly touched, Miss Williams, by your desire to stop in for a little visit. I can think of nothing which would give me more pleasure and to which I would look forward more eagerly than the opportunity of meeting personally the lady who has been so extremely good to me."

A year later the education superintendent wrote her that "judging from the amount of sunshine you have at one time and another managed to inject into his particular life, [Leopold] feels that you are a personage of quite sufficient importance to justify anyone whatsoever in waiving regulations in your favor." Williams soon received permission to visit, and Leopold and Loeb showed her the school and the prison's Sociological Research Office.

Williams and Leopold became fast friends. He wrote that he had "adopted" her—she was now "Aunt Helen." She began addressing him as "Babe," the nickname Leopold's family had given him as a child and still used. Although Williams had already made a major commitment of time and energy to SCS, her new friendship with Leopold strengthened the partnership that was serving hundreds of convicts.

ON THE MORNING of January 28, 1936, Leopold and Loeb were enjoying some of the privileges that had been conferred on them—directly or indirectly—for their work with SCS. Instead of going to the dining hall for breakfast, they had sweet rolls delivered to their cells. When they got to their office, they graded papers and worked on plans for a new math course. One of the chief privileges was access to the washroom and shower adjoining the office, and Loeb decided to shower before lunch. A former cellmate, James Day, entered the room, carrying a straight razor that he had kept hidden in the Protestant chaplain's office. A few minutes later, Loeb staggered out of the washroom, having sustained at least 56 slashes. Day handed the weapon to a guard and said that he had been forced to defend himself against Leopold's sexual advances. In spite of the efforts of seven doctors, and with his friend Leopold in the room, Loeb bled out in the prison hospital.

Day's motive has never been clearly established. Some conjecture that the role of prison privileges, most importantly commissary goods, provoked his attack. Until 1935, inmates had enjoyed unlimited commissary privileges and could spend as much as they liked from their prison accounts. Leopold's family gave him an allowance of $50 a month, and he used it to provide goods to friends and to control others. When Warden Joseph Ragen arrived in 1935, he ended the largesse of the more monied prisoners. Did Day resent no longer receiving perks from Loeb? Or had Loeb awarded privileges to coerce Day into assenting to his persistent sexual advances? The Catholic prison chaplain, Father Eligius Weir, believed that, if anything, Day had been enraged because Loeb had rejected his sexual overtures.

The state's attorney tried Day, demanding the death penalty. However, as usual, no prisoner would testify against another, particularly in a capital case. Be-
yond that, the foreman later described a homophobic consensus among the jury members. Finally, it is possible—even probable—that nobody wanted to convict the man who had killed one of the perpetrators of the “crime of the century.” After less than an hour of deliberation, the jury returned a verdict of “not guilty.”

Warden Ragen, frustrated by the verdict, sought to avoid further trouble by removing both Day and Leopold from the general prison population at Stateville. He sent Leopold to the mental unit, or “bug cells.” Ragen told him this was for his own protection, but Leopold never accepted this reasoning. In isolation, he could not resume his SCS work assignment for six months.

When he returned, he considered asking for a different work assignment. He associated the school with his slain friend, he said, and this made it difficult to continue. He learned, however, that in his absence the school had suffered. Many men had quit sending in lessons (although most returned after he contacted them). It was becoming difficult to replace instructors who were paroled. Most of the remaining teachers were less committed than he and had secured new work assignments with more privileges. Leopold talked enough instructors into continuing to keep the school going, saying that it should be a memorial to Loeb.

LEOPOLD CONTINUED to run the school—without Loeb but with increasing support from the warden’s office and Helen Williams. State and national educators began to take notice of SCS, particularly educators from the Chicago area. In the late 1930s, William Johnson and Don Rogers of the Chicago Board of Education administered some of the SCS tests to 500 high-school students. According to Leopold, the lowest grades of SCS students closely matched the highest grades of the Chicago students. Johnson arranged to grant SCS students academic credit at any Chicago high school upon their release. The state educational bureaucracy also inspected SCS and adopted the same policy. When SCS added courses at the junior-college level to its curriculum, it changed its name to the Stateville Correspondence School and Junior College. In 1941 it allowed students from anywhere in the United States to enroll.

The SCS’s inmate faculty created an honorary advisory council of five individuals who had significantly assisted the school. Sociologists Ernest Burgess (University of Chicago), Edwin Sutherland (Indiana University), and Arthur Todd (Northwestern) received this honor, as well as Father Weir and Helen Williams.

Also with Williams’s help, Leopold received top-drawer assistance from Everet F. Lindquist, the University of Iowa professor who had created the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills in 1935 and would later introduce the American College Testing Program (ACT). Leopold wanted to develop a survey. Williams wrote Lindquist, “I am sending along a letter which came to me yesterday morning which is more or less self-explanatory. The letter addressed to me was written by Nathan Leopold. Of course, it may not come out under his name. He is not supposed to be working on this research, but he knows so much more about it than anyone else and is so interested in it.”

Leopold wanted to compare the rates of parole violations by inmates who had taken courses with SCS against those who had not. With Lindquist’s assistance, he controlled for such factors as age and intelligence. “When correction is made for all these factors,” he reported, “students violate parole from a third to a fourth less than do comparable non-students.” He explained, “The chances [that] the difference in favor of the students is due to chance are one in twenty-five.”

This was good enough for Helen Williams. She showed off the study to several Iowa professors and told sociologist F. E. Haynes that Leopold “has been trying to prove that the prison school is a good thing and I believe he has proved it scientifically.”

Between 1933 and 1941, students in the Joliet, Stateville, and Menard units of the Illinois penal system, plus a handful of other units, completed a total of 2,135 correspondence courses, ranging from a low of 30 courses in the first year to 436 in 1940. By 1941, SCS offered a selection of 120 courses; its faculty graded and returned an average of 968 lessons per month; and each student completed an average of 2.3 lessons monthly. (It did not record enrollments from institutions outside Illinois in its count.)

Well before March 1941, Leopold had decided that he needed to leave the school. Warden Ragen had cancelled all of the privileges that had once made it a plum assignment, and it had devolved into a situation of close confinement and hard work. After asking Ragen several times for a new job and being ignored, he approached another warden in the prison yard and asked him directly for a new assignment, preferably in the x-ray room of the prison hospital. More than a month later, he received notice to report to the hospital for his new assignment. Even though he was no longer involved in the administration of SCS, he would continue to grade courses for a decade.

In 1947 Leopold was himself the object of study. Still working in the hospital, he, along with other inmates, participated in a project testing antimalarial drugs. His
interest in learning had not slackened. Williams received a letter from the warden’s office: “I am writing to you at the request of Nathan Leopold, who, as you know, is assigned to our malaria project. Nate has told me of your kindness in obtaining for him information about the dissection of fruit flies. . . . We are especially interested in securing a copy of the book by Darlington on 'The handling of chromosomes.' . . . Nate asks me to apologize for causing so much trouble but tells me that you are quite used to his being a nuisance.”

The University of Iowa’s Correspondence Bureau apparently closed its file on SCS when Leopold was reassigned in 1941. There is no evidence that Helen Williams maintained any involvement with SCS after that date, although she continued to direct the bureau until 1949. SCS continued its operations until 1954, when the Illinois State Prison School System finally created a comprehensive education system (named Stateville Schools) and incorporated SCS as one of its four major divisions.

** Why did Leopold and Loeb invest so much time and effort in creating and administering SCS? And why did Leopold persist in his stewardship after Loeb died? Did they envision the school as an opportunity to provide a needed service to men they considered oppressed and in need, or did they exploit it as a means of making serving time easier, more pleasant, and, with luck, shorter? According to Leopold, Loeb advanced the idea as a way to improve educational opportunities inside the prisons.

Dear Nathan:

... I told [Professor Feigl] that you were finding Axiomatic Biology pretty deep and he says he is not surprised. . . . He does say that mastering it is largely a matter of patience and I assured him that you had plenty of that.

Sincerely yours,
[Helen Williams]

Dear Mr. Leopold:

I am sorry that circumstances made me an even poorer correspondent than I am anyway. But, settled with a Research Fellowship in New York, I am beginning to breathe a little more freely and should enjoy hearing from you. Did you find anything sufficiently attractive in the problem of formulating an empirical (or 'scientific') realism? . . . I am working on the Methodology of Scientific Explanation and in that connection I am interested in the problem 'construction vs. inference' in regard to theoretical concepts. . . . Any suggestions you may have along these lines will meet with great interest on my part.

With best wishes, yours,
[Professor Herbert Feigl, Philosophy of Science]

Dear Professor Feigl:

... I couldn’t resist telling you about Nathan’s reaction to D’Abro’s “The Decline of Mechanism.”

... In my letter, I remarked that we were sending him some more light summer reading—meaning to be funny. He wrote back and said that I was doing just that; the book was so fascinating that he could hardly lay it down when the lights went out in his cell. . . . He has returned D’Abro because some student has asked for it and we did not have nerve to ask the librarian to renew it.

Sincerely yours,
[Helen Williams]
Leopold continued it out of a sense of duty to Loeb. Leopold presented his version of his motives in his memoir, Life Plus 99 Years. His chief reason for writing the memoir was to promote and enhance his chances for parole. Opportunism was definitely a factor. However, his long correspondence with Helen Williams seems to reveal a genuine idealism. He also took obvious pride in the post-release success of some of its alumni and the State of Illinois’s certification of the school’s effectiveness.

Administering SCS had immediate, tangible rewards, although Loeb and Leopold hadn’t expected such privileges when they began planning. Once the school was operational, its pay matched that of such desirable assignments as the woodworking shop and the kitchen (which had not been the case in earlier educational programs). This kept Leopold and Loeb flush in prison currency—tobacco and other commissary goods—until Warden Whipp changed the rules. When Warden Whipp assigned the school an office, one with its own washroom, Leopold and Loeb gained a great degree of privacy, a rare and precious commodity in prison. They had unprecedented access to most parts of the prison. At least once, their privileged status saved them from serious disciplinary trouble. A guard captain discovered Loeb, Leopold, and two other men sharing a bottle of good whiskey. While the four were immediately sent to solitary confinement, both Loeb and Leopold were released in under an hour.

Like any school anywhere using any teaching format, SCS experienced cheating problems. Warden Ragen initiated the practice of recording all grades in each student’s file, so that the parole board could consider school participation when evaluating parole applications. This attracted men with no real interest in school other than beefing up their files. Sometimes convicts would find someone else to do their lessons. But this tactic had little impact because each course required two proctored exams. However, after Ragen left in 1941, the school’s instructors, who had been residing in a different area than the students, were moved back into common housing, and most of their privileges were withdrawn, and Leopold heard rumors that embittered teachers were selling grades. Eventually, after Ragen’s return, the teachers were moved away from most of their students and back into a separate cell house; according to Leopold, the selling of grades ceased.

Gene Lovitz advanced a cynical view of Leopold’s motivation. Lovitz began a sentence for armed robbery at Stateville in 1948. He and Leopold became close friends and regularly talked for hours about all manner of topics. Their friendship ended when Lovitz rejected what he considered Leopold’s sexual advances. Even so, he maintained the highest regard for Leopold’s intellect. Lovitz believed his achievements were overrated and that “he and Loeb had established the prison school for the opportunity of getting together.”

While Loeb probably and Leopold certainly had self-serving motives, their school nonetheless benefited the penal system and prison population of Illinois. There can be no doubt that the two men made SCS a useful, effective, and respected institution.

ALTHOUGH HELEN WILLIAM’S involvement with SCS effectively ended in 1941, she maintained her correspondence and friendship with Leopold. For ten years, she traveled to Stateville for all of his parole and clemency hearings. In 1958, she was one of several who appeared to testify in what turned out to be his final parole hearing. Recounting his personal academic achievements and his role in creating and maintaining SCS, she concluded, “My acquaintance with him has shown him to be generous, thoughtful, ready to help those who have not had his advantages. In short, following the Judeo-Christian ethics of behavior, even to the point of forgiving his enemies.”

Upon his release on March 13, 1958, Leopold, then 53, moved to Puerto Rico to work as an x-ray technician in a missionary hospital operated by the Church of the Brethren. He earned a master’s degree in medical social work at the University of Puerto Rico, coming in first in his class and winning election as class president. He later taught math there—in Spanish. He wrote a book, A Checklist of the Birds of Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands.

Leopold chafed under the terms of his parole. He frequently broke all of them, he told his attorney. “I have visited most of the better whore-houses, cheap bars, and gambling casinos in greater San Juan and like ‘em fine.” In 1961, he received parole-board permission to marry Trudi Feldman Garcia, a widow he had met at a Seder dinner. Upon final release from parole in March 1963, Leopold could travel as he pleased. He and Trudi visited Helen Williams in Iowa City, and she later visited them in San Juan.

Several of Leopold’s letters to Williams after his release from parole reveal that he frequently discussed various Stateville “alumni,” politicians, parole board members, and prison employees he disliked. He expressed a special degree of contempt for Ragen, even

★  ★  ★  ★  ★

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though the warden had strongly supported his parole application.

In 1962 Leopold sold an option for the film rights to his story to the actor Don Murray. Aware that funding for the project was not a sure thing, he nonetheless found the prospect exciting. He told Williams to start thinking about how she would like to be portrayed. Would she want her name changed, for example? He added, “Even that, I am afraid, would not veil you entirely from the folks who know you. But gosh! If I had ever done for another one-tenth of what you have done for me, I’d be so proud that I’d want the whole world to know it. Please think about it and don’t make a snap judgment.”

When Murray wrote his film treatment, he reduced Williams to a small, elderly, unnamed woman who attends the parole hearing and “gives a moving message of faith” on Leopold’s behalf. Murray let his option expire. In the following years, others showed interest in making a film about Leopold but nothing came of those efforts. Several novels, films, and plays, however, were loosely derived from the story of the 1924 murder and trial.

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HELEN WILLIAMS and Nathan Leopold remained friends until his death by heart attack in San Juan on August 30, 1971. Upon Williams’s death in Iowa City five years later, Trudi Feldman Leopold wrote, “Nathan was not held in high esteem by most of the world. Still, this gallant little lady, despite warnings from many of her friends and acquaintances who warned her against him, chose to ignore those pleas and continued to help him in every way possible until his death.”

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NOTE ON SOURCES
The author has adapted this article from his earlier article “Correspondence Study and the Crime of the Century: Helen Williams, Nathan Leopold, and the Stateville Correspondence School,” Notre Scholastica 26.2 (2009) and it appears here with permission.

Major archival collections used include the Papers of Nathan F. Leopold, University of Iowa Libraries; Iowa City, Iowa; and Leopold and Loeb Archive, Charles Deering McCormick Library of Special Collections; Northwestern University Library; Chicago. Annual reports for Stateville School are in the Sheldon Glueck Papers, Special Collections; Harvard Law School Library; Harvard University; and in the collections of American Legends, Inc. Helen Williams’s obituary appeared in the Iowa City Press Citizen, 1-8-1976.


Annotations to the original manuscript are housed in the Iowa Heritage Illustrated production files (SHSI-Iowa City).
History sleuths might well deduce that this car is from Dubuque, Iowa. The first clue is the small Dubuque pennant displayed in the back window.

The second clue? Although road dust nearly obscures the license plate, the first two raised numbers appear to be 31. Alphabetically, Dubuque is the 31st of Iowa's 99 counties.

The third clue is that John Vachon took this photo. Vachon was a photographer for the federal Farm Security Administration. In 1940, the year on the license plate, he shot some 500 photographs in Dubuque.

The words on the tire cover, however, offer no clues as to a specific location, because millions of individuals across the nation were enrolled in the short, focused courses offered by the International Correspondence Schools (ICS), founded in 1891. ICS courses were affordable and practical; most were originally designed for blue-collar workers who sought promotions in their factory jobs or new careers in clerical and white-collar work. The slogan "Another I.C.S. Student" advertised this enormously successful correspondence school that reached Americans in Dubuque, Duluth, Detroit, and hundreds of other towns and cities.

— The Editor
ne of the first competitive sports established at American colleges, track and field was introduced by the late 1880s at several colleges in Iowa, usually by individuals from schools in the East. It was also the one team sport in Iowa that was truly racially integrated and provided some of the best opportunities for minority participation in the 19th and 20th centuries. However, it was not a major sport for women until the 1960s.

Between the 1880s and 1960s—the focus of this story—track and field evolved as larger meets were organized and stadiums improved, and as athletes and coaches achieved successes that advanced the sport and built spectatorship.

In the late 1880s, Grinnell was among the first Iowa colleges to begin having annual school meets. These were all-day competitions among men from various classes, rather than various colleges. The first few meets were held at a half-mile race track in a nearby pasture. The numerous events included several that have long since become obsolete, including “jumps with and without weights, . . . standing and running, [and] sack race,” according to a local history. “Then there was the egg race in which each contestant was given three eggs on the shingle and replacing it with another in case he failed to balance the first one properly. He who first crossed the line with an egg still reposing on his shingle was winner.” Other common events at such competitions were the three-legged race, football kick, baseball throw, and a hammer throw that involved an actual sledge hammer with a hickory handle. Instead of medals, prizes at Grinnell’s early meets were items donated by local merchants, such as “laundry work, a pair of shoes, a knife or some other article of practical nature. In the home meet of 1887 the prize for the mile run was a hammock.”

By 1889 sufficient interest among Iowa colleges in track and field prompted the organization of a state meet. That year, representatives from 14 colleges gathered to plan the event, calling themselves the Inter-Collegiate Athletic Association. Grinnell was selected as the site of the inaugural meet the following June.

The University of Iowa formed its first track team in the spring of 1890 in preparation for the state meet. That year, representatives from 14 colleges gathered to plan the event, calling themselves the Inter-Collegiate Athletic Association. Grinnell was selected as the site of the inaugural meet the following June.

The University of Iowa formed its first track team in the spring of 1890 in preparation for the state meet. Two medical students from Ireland, William and Jeremiah Slatterly, introduced the sport at the university. The cousins had competed in track and field contests at their Dublin college; at Iowa they led practices in sprinting and the pole vault, shot put, and high jump.

The June meet featured tennis contests in the morn-
ing and track and field events in the afternoon, including baseball throw, 50-yard dash, football place kick, running broad jump, 16-pound shot put, 100-yard dash, hitch and kick, running high jump, 120-yard hurdles (10 flights), hammer throw, 75-yard dash, pole vault, standing broad jump, 220-yard run, half-mile run, tug-of-war, and three-legged race. Boxing matches and exhibitions of fencing and saber swinging were scheduled for the evening at the opera house. The University of Iowa team, led by the Slatterlys, came in first, with winners in nine events. Other point-winners were Grinnell, Ames, Cornell, Iowa Wesleyan, and Upper Iowa.

In those years Grinnell had several talented trackmen—including Clyde Ward, whom Grinnell’s Ward Field is named after. Grinnell also had the advantage of having several talented bicyclists on its team; bicycle racing was an important part of track and field competition in the early 1890s.

However, under the coaching of E. W. Moulton, his performance increased dramatically in the 1894 season. Crum took firsts in two dashes at the state meet but lost the 440 to Grinnell’s R. L. Whitley (whose time of 49 seconds remained a state record for 31 years).

The next day Crum won two first-place medals at the first Western Intercollegiate Association meet in Chicago (forerunner to the Big Ten). During the 1895 season, Crum established himself as one of the nation’s premier sprinters. After a string of 25 races without a single loss (including a dual meet with Grinnell), Crum traveled to the Inter-Collegiate 4-A meet in New York. There, he incited the ire of the eastern schools by taking firsts in the 100-yard and 220-yard dashes. In fact, the delegations from Yale and Pennsylvania were so dubious that an amateur collegian from Iowa could beat out the elite of the Ivy League that they protested on the grounds that he must be a professional.

In 1894 and 1895, one of the fastest sprinters in the country (and the University of Iowa’s first nationally known sports figure) was John Van Fleet Crum from Bedford, Iowa. Crum’s awkward gait did not seem that of a future track star.

From left:
- “Panton winning 440-yd. Dash,” 1903, Cornell College vs. Iowa State Normal School (University of Northern Iowa).
- Discus, University of Iowa student, 1920.
- Team photo, Grinnell High School, 1901.
For proof, they pointed to what looked like a dollar sign on his uniform—which was actually an SUI logo (for State University of Iowa). As a result, he returned home without his medals. The controversy was quickly resolved in his favor and his medals forwarded to him three weeks later. He went on to distinguish himself in amateur competition.

In 1895 Grinnell's track team also benefited from the hiring of a trainer. By 1909, at the 20th annual state meet, Grinnell had won nine titles and been runner-up eight times. (In comparison, the University of Iowa had won six; Drake, four; and Iowa State, one.)

The state meet had been in Grinnell, Iowa City, Des Moines, and Marshalltown until 1897, when Des Moines became the host, often at the state fairgrounds. After more seating and improved drainage were added to the stadium field at Drake University, the event finally could be held on a proper field. And there it would stay—as the Drake Relays.

A thletic director and coach John Griffith, who came to Drake in 1908 from Morningside College in Sioux City, organized Drake’s first relay meet in 1910. He decided to host a “carnival” of track and field events on April 23, 1910, with teams from Simpson, Des Moines and Highland Park colleges; Drake University; Earlham Academy; and West and North Des Moines high schools.

Despite a surprise blizzard, the event was declared a success, and ambitious plans were laid for the next year’s relay meet. Invitations were extended to every Iowa college, high schools throughout the state, and all the Missouri Valley institutions. Over 70 teams from 16 colleges and universities and 23 high schools competed in what a local newspaper called “the biggest meet ever staged in the Midwest.” Held on April 22, 1911, a beautiful spring day, the meet established the Drake Relays as a major regional track and field event.

The crowds grew rapidly. From 500 spectators at the 1911 meet, attendance shot to 1,500 two years later, and to 5,000 by 1917. This was partly due to aggressive promotion by Griffith, who, for example, encouraged area merchants to buy blocks of tickets in advance and in 1912 sent personal invitations to 500 alumni. Local civic organizations underwrote publicity. With more schools in the meet (including the universities of Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan), press coverage increased. Reporters from Chicago, Kansas City, Minneapolis, and Detroit covered it. In 1915 the Associated Press declared the Drake Relays to be one of the three most important meets in the country.

More high schools began to enter the Relays. Participation at this level had been limited—despite Iowa’s well-established interscholastic track program that dated back to 1906 and America’s first association-sponsored state meet.

One of the decade’s most well-known athletes was an Iowa prep star, Chuck Hoyt of Greenfield High School.
Recognized for his sprinting talent while in grade school, Hoyt began racing competitively in the eighth grade, and never lost a dash in high school, including in national competition. In 1912, while a high school sophomore, he won the 100-yard and 220-yard dashes at the Stagg Interscholastic Meet in Chicago, a feat that so impressed Olympic officials that he was invited to join the 1912 U.S. team. (Hoyt turned down the offer, figuring he would have another chance in college, but the 1916 games were canceled due to the war.)

Hoyt’s high school had no track coach, so Grinnell’s H. J. “Doc” Huff stepped in. Hoyt gave standout performances in 1913 and 1914, helping his high school teams win third and second place respectively. In 1916, running for Grinnell, Hoyt was the star of the meet after his time in the 220 set a new world record.

Of all the Iowa colleges with first-place finishes in the Relays’ first decade, Coe in Cedar Rapids claimed the most, with eight, and Morningside College in Sioux City with six.

Sol Butler, one of the first African American competitors in the Drake Relays, anchored the 1919 winning 880-yard relay team from the University of Dubuque, where he had established records in six school events. He was twice elected to the All-American team as the greatest collegiate long jumper in the country. In 1919 he won the 100-yard dash and the broad jump at the Penn Relays, and represented the U.S. Army in the Inter-Allied Games in Paris, an international competition held in lieu of the Olympics and in which 18 countries participated. His winning jump in Paris was just 2 inches shy of the Olympic record, and Butler was expected to win his event easily when he went with the U.S. team to the 1920 Games in Antwerp. But he pulled a muscle during competition and could not finish. That same year he won the AAU championship with a record-setting jump.

In the 1920s the Drake Relays came of age as a major track and field competition of national and international importance. The field of entrants widened to include athletes from the U.S. Army and colleges on both coasts, and even a pole-vaulter from Norway. The program expanded as well. By 1922, it comprised 34 events over the course of two days. Newspapers started comparing the number of new records set at Drake with those at the Penn Classic, the nation’s other major relay event. In 1923, ten records had been bettered at Drake but only three at Penn. By the end of the decade, the Drake event had

From left:
• Work Projects Administraton photo labeled “Negro Track Meet, Drake Stadium;” June 5, 1941.
• Hurdles, Julie Goodrich, 1971, Adel High School.
• Long jump, Ed Gordon, 1932, University of Iowa.
• Sprint, University of Iowa students, 1920s.
• Hurdles, George Saling, circa 1932, University of Iowa.
produced six new world records and nine national ones.

In terms of both records broken and number of overall wins for the 1920s, the University of Illinois led the field. However, several athletes from Iowa schools also triumphed in that decade and the early 1930s. Iowa State University’s 2-mile relay squad in the 1920s, led by Arthur E. “Deac” Wolters and Ray Conger, set national and world records. (Conger broke the 1,500-meter record in the 1928 Olympic trials.) And under the coaching of George Bresnahan, the University of Iowa team flourished. Eric Wilson and Charles Brookins were two of the school’s seven track and field athletes who competed in the Olympics in the 1920s, and long jumper Ed Gordon won a gold medal in the 1932 Games.

Other champions included future Olympian George Bretnall (Cornell College); high-jump winners Summerfield Brunk and Bob Carle (Drake); pole vault champion Xavier Boyles and discus thrower Robert Mitchell (University of Iowa); and L. D. Weldon in the javelin (Graceland). Three-time Olympic medallist Morgan Taylor of Grinnell ran his first Drake Relays race in the 1920s. Known for his versatility, he excelled in the broad jump and hurdles. An Iowa high school also set a new U.S. record: Washington of Cedar Rapids won 14 races in the 1920s.

In the years leading up to World War II, the Drake Relays grew even more in size and prestige. Three thousand athletes poured into Des Moines to compete in 1931. In a fierce rivalry, the Drake Relays and Penn Classic competed to attract the premier athletes of the day. For example, in 1935, in a bid to get Ohio State’s Jesse Owens, who had become famous as a prep star, the Relays director convinced Owens’s team to switch its entry to Drake. Owens tied the Relays record in the broad jump, even though he injured an ankle warming up.

The event attracted the best track and field athletes in the world, as well as greater notice from the national media. In 1931 African American sports journalist Frank Young of the *Kansas City Call* began providing coverage for black newspapers in New York, Philadelphia, and several other cities. By 1937, NBC, CBS, and Mutual Radio were all broadcasting from the Relays. Despite the Depression, the decade produced larger crowds than ever.

The Relays continued uninterrupted throughout the war years, but not without change. Relay events were cut and more individual events were included instead.
The number of collegiate athletes decreased from 624 in 1943, to 424 the next year. This affected the number of records produced at Drake in the 1940s. Only three world records were set and no national records until after the war.

The number of Relays participants increased after the war as ex-GIs enrolled in college and competed; in 1946, half the title-winners were ex-soldiers. The following year, 141 schools from 18 states entered into competition, the highest number ever in the Relays' history. The event was again big news, and in 1949, CBS radio resumed its coverage after a nine-year hiatus. In 1953 the meet was broadcast on national television for the first time.

The 1950s saw the Drake Relays established as truly a world-class event, with many Olympic champions and world record holders competing. In one year alone the field of athletes drew from Finland, Austria, Ireland, Sweden, South Africa, Canada, Jamaica, and Hawaii. Due to the extraordinary level of talent, more records were shattered. Times were reduced in the 440 and 880. The discus record gained over 15 feet. In the pole vault the 15-foot mark was reached for the first time. And in the 120-yard high hurdles, times fell below 14 seconds.

Throughout the 1960s, the Drake Relays built on these successes, with more athletes and stronger performances attracting crowds of 18,000 spectators. This was also the decade when women first ran in the Relays. In 1961, Wilma Rudolph, three-time gold medallist at the Rome Olympics, helped debut women's competition at the Drake Relays and won the 100-yard dash. Another advance was the track itself; an all-weather surface was installed in 1969.

The history of track and field in Iowa does not end in 1969. Followers of the sport in the last four decades have had plenty of victories to applaud. For one example, consider Natasha Kaiser, who attended Roosevelt High School in Des Moines and ran in the Drake Relays in the 1980s. She won four Drake championships and nine state medals for Roosevelt High School and went on to win Olympic and World Championship medals. Today, Kaiser-Brown is the women's track coach at Drake University.

For more than a century, the Drake Relays have symbolized the dedication of coaches, the devotion of fans, and the stamina of Iowa athletes who advance from individual high schools and colleges to this world arena. Enriched by its history, the Relays have become one of Iowa's most anticipated spring rituals. ✷

NOTE ON SOURCES
This article is excerpted from the track and field chapter of "Survey of Buildings, Sites, Structures, Objects, and Districts Related to the Development of Team Sports in Iowa, 1850-1960." Submitted to the State Historic Preservation Office in 2003, the statewide survey was conducted by Leah D. Rogers and Clare L. Keneck, Tallgrass Historians I.C., with contributions by Lisa Randolph, Prairiesong Research.
The press photographs the Drake Relays on a rainy April day in 1937.

The places where records are broken

Track and field events were originally held on mown areas or dirt tracks in pastures and at fairgrounds. In the early 20th century, however, it became the norm to hold meets in football stadiums, gymnasiums, and field houses. These structures changed over the years.

Only a few properties in Iowa associated with track and field retain sufficient physical evidence to be considered historically significant. One is on the campus of Drake University in Des Moines. Another is at Loras College in Dubuque. These structures and sites still evoke a sense of time and place.

Top: Best known as the site of the world-famous Drake Relays, Drake Stadium in Des Moines is the oldest of three major Iowa stadiums designed in the 1920s by Proudfoot, Rawson and Souers, then the state’s leading architectural firm. The firm also designed the Drake Field House (above) for indoor track events and basketball. Photographed in 2003, the ticket booth and the curved walkway under the seating contribute to a sense of time and place.

Designed by C. I. Krajewski and built in 1939–1940, the Loras College Stadium in Dubuque was carved into a natural limestone bluff. Notable features include the original limestone entry gates and wood-and-concrete bleachers built on a natural limestone foundation. Called the Rock Bowl, the stadium is also used for football.
Sure Signs of Spring

It's never been hard to spot spring in Iowa—not a hundred years ago or thirty years ago or today.

And we expect that some signs of spring aren't going to change anytime soon.

At least we hope not.

—The Editor
One sign of spring in Iowa is its dramatic and unpredictable weather. It was May 28, 1903, when the woman above directed a child’s gaze to lightning fracturing the sky near Albert City.

Melting snows and blue skies give hope to Iowans hungry for spring—until a sudden blizzard or hailstorm crushes our spirits, or torrential rains drive us to worry. And then a string of warm, sunny days arrive, calling forth the midwestern work ethic in some, and a laziness bordering on sin in others.

Spring weather in Iowa ranges from dramatic and sublime to breezy and balmy. Watching the weather—fickle though it may be—is a fine excuse to get outside and sample the new season.
Another sure sign of spring? Festivals, celebrations, and commemorations, all ripe with tradition.

This scene from Maquoketa—girls in white dresses and enormous hair bows weaving their way around a May pole—was not uncommon in schoolyards and parks a century ago, though it is rare today.

But springtime parades still abound. Irish Americans and Irish wannabees parade on St. Patrick’s Day, Iowa State University students during VEISHEA, and military veterans on Memorial Day.

Weddings and graduation parties are staged outdoors, with hopes for sunshine. Mexican Americans dance in colorful skirts and sashes on Cinco de Mayo. Some Iowans still decorate the graves of family members with irises and peonies on the last Monday in May.

And in a few Iowa communities, tulips are reason enough to sweep the streets and celebrate.
Iowans test themselves against the power of nature in the spring, sometimes in inconsequential ways. Photographer Don Ultang caught two such moments, of the agony and ecstasy of kite flying.

But Iowans also test themselves against nature's power in far more serious ways. Can a farmer beat the odds of foul weather during planting season? Can a legion of volunteers with a mountain of sandbags outwit rising rivers and creeks? Can a community resurrect itself after a devastating tornado? Winter tests our resilience. So does spring.
Playing outdoors — may it always be a sign of spring!

Perhaps shooting marbles in a dirt street seemed iconically American to photographer John Vachon as he traveled through Woodbine, Iowa, in 1940, on assignment for the Farm Security Administration.

Though marbles have given way to other toys, the siren call of spring still draws children to outdoor play. Skateboards rumble down the sidewalk, chalk drawings adorn the driveway, kickballs land in the flower bed, and jump ropes slap the pavement.

For proof that winter has truly ended and spring has truly arrived in Iowa, watch for flashes of a particularly exuberant liberty released in a child's spirit.

And, for that matter, in ours.
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CEDAR RAPIDS, IA.—Carl Van Antwerp, veteran of a year in the Aleutians, is shown with two of his children, George, 19 months, and Delores, 13, in front of tent home in which the family had prepared to spend the winter. Members of the Veterans of Foreign Wars post here are remodeling a boxcar chicken house donated by a neighbor, Jack Steele, also a veteran, and the Van Antwerp family will move into their new home soon. Mrs. Van Antwerp is expected home Thursday from the hospital, where a son, Alan, was born last week. Cement blocks shown in picture are for a basement Van Antwerp hoped to finish for winter living quarters.

One in a Million

Early in 1946, a U.S. Senate report estimated "that some 2,900,000 married veterans of the recent war will be in need of housing facilities by the end of the year 1946." But by the end of 1947, Cedar Rapids veteran Carl Van Antwerp and his family were still in desperate need of adequate shelter, as this newspaper caption explains. Thanks to a neighbor and the local post of the Veterans of Foreign Affairs, the Van Antwerp family had a remodeled "boxcar chicken house" for temporary shelter.

This clipping is one of 800,000 being processed by volunteers of the multi-year World War II Clippings Project here at the State Historical Society of Iowa.

— The Editor