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EC1418 The Poultry Industry in Nebraska

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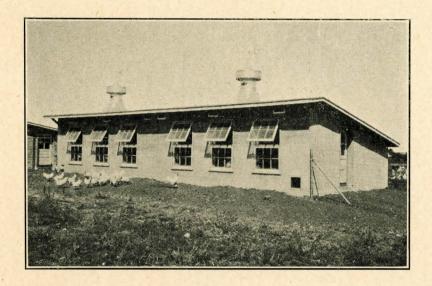
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July 1925

Extension Circular 1418

The Poultry Industry in Nebraska



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE COOPERATING

The Poultry Industry in Nebraska

H. C. FILLEY AND GEO. R. BOOMER

Nebraska is one of a group of six states which excels in egg production in proportion to population. These six states, in order of per capita egg production, are: Iowa, South Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska, Missouri, and North Dakota. The importance of the poultry industry in these states is not the result of chance. It has developed gradually because of climatic conditions and economic forces. This bulletin is written to answer questions relative to the factors which make poultry production an enterprise particularly well adapted to most Nebraska farms and to the marketing of poultry and eggs after they have been produced.

Nebraska Climate Favorable to Poultry Production

Poultry thrive best in a temperate climate where there is an abundance of sunshine. Nature has provided most breeds of chickens with a heavy protective coat of feathers. Long continued hot weather causes hens to lose in vitality and reduces the number of eggs produced. Mites, lice, and other insect pests are also more troublesome in regions which have little if any cold weather. Every poultryman knows that egg production decreases in extremely cold weather, unless

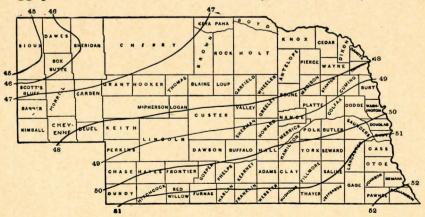


Fig. 1. Mean Annual Temperature

the hens have adequate shelter. Adequate shelter can be secured at much less cost in Nebraska than in states farther north where winters are longer and more severe. Few Nebraska poultry houses are lined, and even fewer have double windows. Where winters are severe, double walls and double or even triple windows are not uncommon. Other things being equal, states which have about the same mean annual temperature that we have in Nebraska are better adapted for poultry production than states which have greater extremes of either heat or cold.

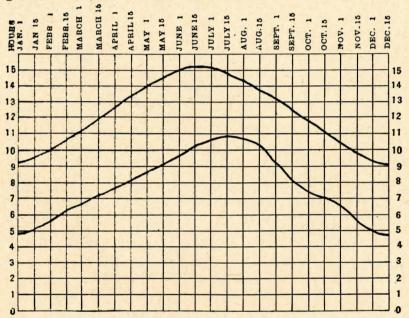


Fig. 2. Hours of Sunshine in Nebraska 1

Poultry thrive best where there is an abundance of sunshine. Nebraska has an abundance of sunshine during nearly every week in the year. In Figure 2 "the upper line indicates the number of hours the sun is above the horizon in the different parts of the year, and the lower line indicates the number of these hours it is on the average free of clouds and so actually shining on the earth. The space between the lines indicates the average number of hours the sun is obscured by clouds in the various parts of the year. It will be noticed that in January the sun is obscured nearly one-

half of the nine hours it is above the horizon, while in July and August it is obscured but a little more than one-quarter of the fifteen hours it is above the horizon." ¹

That Nebraska is very favorably situated with regard to sunshine is indicated in Figure 3. Most of the states which have more sunshine have either a high mean temperature, or a high feed cost, or some other limiting factor.

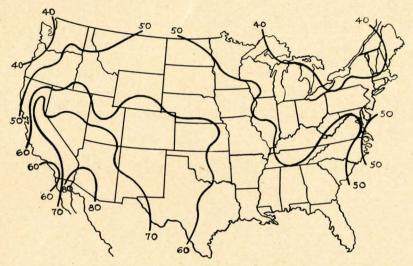


Fig. 3. Percentage of Available Sunshine in the United States. The sun shines in Nebraska about 60 per cent of the time that it is above the horizon.

Cost of Feed

The Nebraska farmer receives less for corn, wheat, and oats when sold at the local elevator than does the farmer in nearly every other state. The reasons for this are two: more grain is produced than is consumed within the state, and, therefore, the price paid by the local elevator is usually the price paid at the eastern terminal market less the cost of transportation and handling charges; and Nebraska is situated so far from the consuming East or from water transportation that the cost of carrying our surplus grain to the ultimate consumer is greater than the cost of carrying it from most other grain surplus states.

¹ Loveland, G. A. Nebraska Extension Circular 14. pp. 4-5.

The following table gives the farm price of corn, wheat, and oats in six different states upon December 1, 1924:

TABLE 1 Farm price of wheat, corn,	and oats.	December	1, 1924.
State	Vheat	Corn	Oats
New Jersey	\$1.57	\$1.16	\$0.64
Ohio	1.45	1.04	.52
Iowa	1.27	.93	.44
Nebraska	1.22	.91	.43
California	1.54	1.38	.87
Georgia	1.69	1.12	.95
United States		1.32	.48

Mill feeds, tankage, meat scraps, dried buttermilk, and various other feeding stuffs entering into the composition of poultry mash are cheaper in Nebraska and other Missouri Valley states than in either the eastern states or Pacific Coast states. Alfalfa, which is one of the very best of green feeds, is grown on a large percentage of Nebraska farms. Skim milk has a high value in regions where farmers sell whole milk; it has a low value in regions such as Nebraska where most farmers sell butterfat. This by-product of our dairy industry furnishes a cheap and wholesome source of protein for poultry.

Where Poultry and Eggs are Consumed

According to the 1920 census more than 30 per cent of our total population lived east of the state of Ohio and north of the Potomac river. Of these 31,770,717 persons, more than

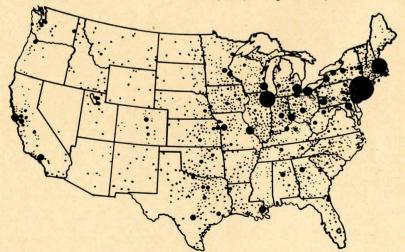


Fig. 4. Population in cities of 2,500 and over. January 1, 1920

91 per cent (28,920,720) lived in cities of more than 2,500 inhabitants, and no small part of the remainder lived in villages and did not keep poultry. Other cities outside of this area, such as Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, Louisville, St. Louis, and Cincinnati, consumed large quantities of poultry and eggs, only a small part of which could be obtained from nearby producers. The concentration of our population in cities is presented graphically in Figure 4.

Village population (incorporated places of less than 2,500) is better distributed than is city population. A relatively small percent of the families of these villages produce poultry

and eggs for their own use.

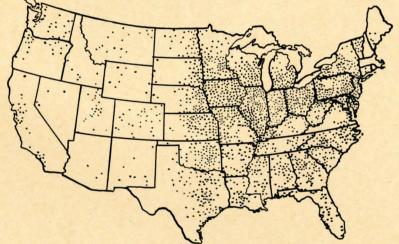


FIG. 5. Village population. January 1, 1920. (Yearbook. U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1921. p. 503.)

A large proportion of the farm families produce poultry and eggs for home consumption and usually have a surplus during a part of the year. The size of the surplus is determined by the type of farming followed and various climatic and economic factors. The location of the country population is given in Figure 6.

Egg Production in the United States

According to the 1920 Census, our total egg production in 1919 was 1,654,044,932 dozen eggs, an average of nearly 188 eggs for each man, woman, and child living in the United States. Not all of these eggs were used for food

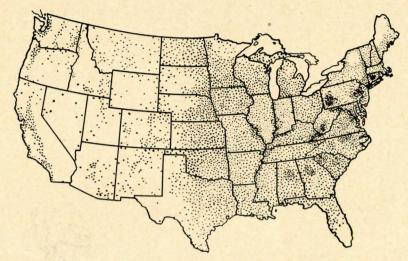


Fig. 6. Country population. January 1, 1920. (Yearbook. U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1921. p. 502.)

as some spoiled, and enough were incubated to produce 473,-300,000 chickens. Our average egg consumption per capita for that year has been estimated at 14 dozen.

The four states having the largest total egg production in 1919 were Iowa, Missouri, Illinois, and Ohio. The six states having the largest egg and chicken production in proportion to population were all important grain surplus states west of the Mississippi. Their production is given in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Egg and Chicken Production Per Capita in High Producing States.

State	Dozen Eggs	Chickens
Iowa	50.2	11.7
South Dakota	47.7	10.6
Kansas	43.0	9.7
Nebraska	37.8	9.2
Missouri	34.4	7.5
North Dakota	32.1	7.0

Five of the eastern states produced less than six dozen eggs per person.

Table 3. Egg and Chicken Production Per Capita in Low Producing States.

State	Dozen Eggs	Chickens
Massachusetts		.7
Rhode Island		.7
New Jersey	4.2	1.1
Connecticut	4.7	1.1
New York	5.9	1.1

Other states producing less than fourteen dozen eggs per capita and, therefore, not producing sufficient eggs for food and incubation include Maine, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, New Mexico, Arizona, and Nevada. The only states east of the Mississippi river producing as many as twenty dozen eggs per capita were Indiana, Tennessee, and Wisconsin.

Figure 7 shows the number of eggs produced per capita in the various states. It is interesting to note that the states producing a large surplus of eggs are grouped together, as are also the states which produced but few eggs in proportion to their population.

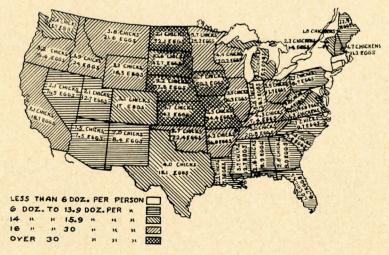


Fig. 7. Egg production per capita in the Various States. The production of chickens is closely correlated with the production of eggs.

Egg Production in Nebraska

The production of eggs for market is one of the more common farm enterprises in every county in Nebraska. Specialized poultry farms are relatively few in number, but nearly every farm produces a surplus of eggs and chickens. Counties which produce the most eggs either contain large cities or a large number of farm families.

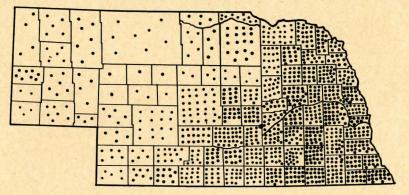


Fig. 8. Chickens in Nebraska. 1920. One dot equals 10,000 hens

It is probable that farm families in Nebraska use more eggs proportionally than do city families, but we have no definite data upon this point. We can, however, be very certain that most of the counties having a small city or village population produce a surplus of eggs, and that the counties which have a large city or village population do not produce as many eggs as are used within the counties. The egg production per capita of total population for 1919 is given in Figure 9.

Variation in Production During the Year

Nearly one-half of the total egg crop of the United States is produced in the four months of March, April, May, and June. The months of most abundant egg production average a little earlier in the southern states, and a little later in the northern states. In Table 4 is given the average egg production for the United States as a whole as estimated by the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

¹ Bulletin No. 101. U. S. Department of Agriculture.

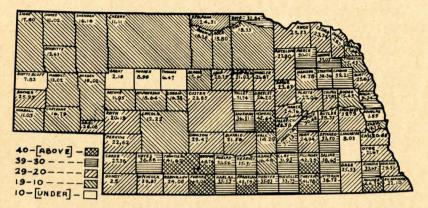


FIG. 9. Egg Production in Nebraska Counties per Capita. Census data for 1919.

TABLE 4. The percentage of the national egg crop produced each month

January	6.6	July	9.6
February	7.1	August	8.6
March	12.4	September	6.2
		October	
May	13.3	November	3.1
June	10.7	December	4.3

The best figures available for Nebraska are records kept on farm flocks for three years by County Agent L. C. Christie of Thayer county. The number of flocks varied from 30 to 33 during most of the period.

TABLE 5. Percentage of Egg Crop Produced each Month by Accredited Poultry Flocks in Thayer County, Nebraska, November 1921. October 1924.

COCCECT TOTAL			
January	5.1	July	10.6
		August	
		September	
April	14.3	October	4.5
May	13.8	November	2.2
June	11.5	December	3.1

This variation in production is put in graphic form in Figure 10.

The average annual producton per hen from the Thayer county accredited flocks was 132.09 eggs. The average production for the entire state is estimated to be less than 70 eggs per hen. A very large part of the increase in the pro-

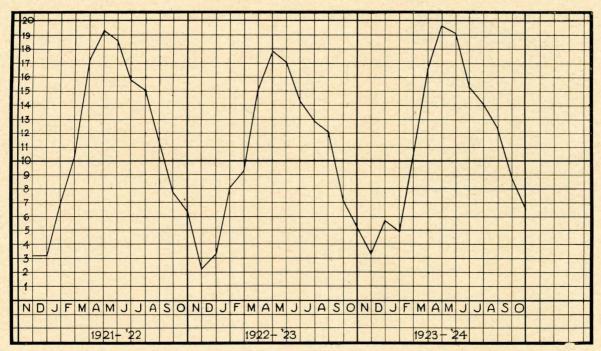


Fig. 10. Actual egg production per month from Accredited Poultry Flocks in Thayer County, Nebraska. November 1921-October 1924.

duction of the Thayer county accredited flocks over the average for the state came in the autumn and winter months when eggs are usually high. Almost any hen will lay fairly well during the spring months. The hens which earn a profit are those which maintain production. A part of the eggs produced in Thayer county in late autumn were from early hatched pullets.

The Thayer county figures are given, not because they are characteristic of the average production in the state, but because they are characteristic of profitable egg production. No one is interested in unprofitable production. Many flocks in Nebraska have an average annual egg production of more than 150 eggs per hen. The man whose flock produces less than 100 eggs per hen can hardly hope to secure a profit. The man who considers egg production one of his major farm enterprises should produce an average of at least 120 eggs per hen.

Egg Receipts at Five Markets

Egg production in Nebraska and other Middle West states is not an absolute index of egg shipments. When few eggs are being produced, local communities will often demand the entire supply. When eggs are very cheap, more are eaten on farms than when they are relatively high. During March and April a large number of eggs are retained for incubation. Perhaps as good an index of egg movement as can be secured is the receipts at five of the principal markets, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and San Francisco. By averaging the receipts for the five markets for the six years, 1918-1923 inclusive, local or seasonal variation is practically eliminated.

Table 6. Average receipts of eggs per month at five markets, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and San Francisco, for six years, 1918-1923.

1910–1920.	Cases		Cases
January	612,300	July	1,265,300
February	910,200	August	1,068,300
March	1,798,800	September	873,800
April	2,472,100	October	720,500
May	2,383,800	November	460,100
June	1,823,000	December	455,500

Table computed from data in 1923 Yearbook. U. S. Department of Agriculture. pp. 1043-1044.

Egg Storage

Cold storage permits the carrying of perishable food products from the season of plenty to the season of scarcity. It is of benefit to both the producer and the consumer. It helps to stabilize both consumption and price. Because of cold storage the price of eggs does not fall as low in producing sections during spring and summer as it did 30 years ago, and because of cold storage the price of eggs does not rise as high proportionally as in earlier years. Cold storage has made possible an enormous increase in egg consumption in cities. Before cold storage came into general use, relatively few city dwellers could eat eggs in winter because the demand for the short supply forced the price high. The winter must be very unfavorable to production under present conditions for the price of storage eggs to become so high that the majority of persons are unable to eat them.

As a matter of course, eggs are higher in winter than in summer, and the difference in the price of fresh eggs is much greater than the price of storage eggs. In a mild winter, storage eggs may be cheaper in February than in November; if weather conditions are unfavorable and few eggs are coming to market, the price of storage eggs will advance in January and February. The man who stores eggs is engaging in a speculative business. He may know the total amount of eggs in storage and be able to forecast the price at which all the eggs can be sold under normal conditions, but he cannot forecast how production may be influenced by abnormal weather conditions.

The number of eggs in cold storage at the beginning of each month in 1924 is given in Table 7, and the movement of eggs into or out of storage from January 1, 1923 to May 1, 1925 is illustrated graphically in Figure 11.

TABLE 7. Cold Storage Holdings of Eggs reported to the U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1924.

	Case Eggs		Case Eggs
January	500,000	July	9,264,000
February	44,000	August	8,751,000
March	569,000	September	
April	3,609,000	October	5,295,000
May	6,944,000	November	3,101,000
June	8,697,000	December	1,509,000

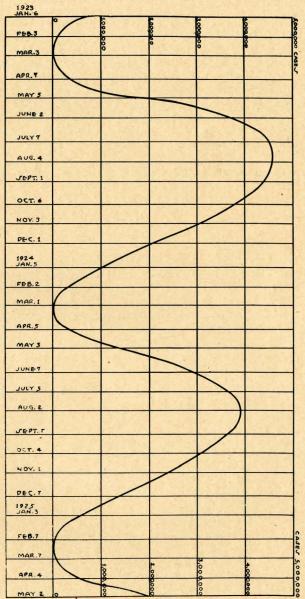


Fig. 11. Cold Storage Holdings of Eggs in Principal Markets. January 1923-May 1925.

Price of Eggs

The most potent factors in determining the price of eggs of a specific grade at any particular time in a city market, are supply and demand. The price of different grades of eggs usually shows a wide variation in any important egg market. The price of eggs is naturally lowest in the months of abundant production, and highest in the months of light production. The farm price of eggs, which is the price paid by local buyers less cost of delivery, illustrates the working of supply and demand.

Table 8. Average farm price of eggs per dozen. Fifteenth of Month, United States, 1921–1923.

30.41	July	.22
.31	August	.24
.24	September	.29
	.31 .24 .21 .21	\$0.41 July

¹ Yearbook, U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1923. p. 1047.

The price is higher in cities than on the farm because of handling charges and the cost of transportation. For the same reason, eggs sell for a higher price in eastern cities than in cities of the Middle West. Egg prices in Chicago and New York may be considered fairly representative.

Table 9. Eggs. Average price of eggs per dozen at Chicago and New York. 1921-1923.2

101K. 1.	721-1325.	New			New
Month	Chicago	York	Month C	hicago	York
January	\$0.45	\$0.50	July	\$0.24	\$0.27
February		.39	August	.26	.30
March		.29	September	.31	.38
April		.27	October	.38	.44
May		.26	November	.49	.55
June		.26	December	.47	.51

² Yearbook, U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1923. pp. 1047-1048.

The price of but few products is determined to a greater extent by quality than is the price of eggs. The consumer does not wish a stale egg at any price. There are seldom enough fresh eggs of high quality to satisfy the eastern markets. The sale of eggs is guarded by national and state pure food laws, but these laws cannot insure the consumer fresh eggs of a high quality. Eggs are perishable and the

route from the producing hen of the egg surplus states to the eastern consumer is long at best and not always direct. The dependence of price upon quality is well illustrated by price quotations in New York City.

TABLE 10. Egg Prices in New York City. January 7, 1925.

Nearby hennery whites, extras\$0.67	@	\$0.68
Extras	@	.65
Extra Firsts	@	.62
Firsts	@	.59
Seconds	@	.56
Undergrades	@	.52
Dirties No. 1	@	.48
Dirties No. 2 and poorer	@	.46
Checks, fair to choice, dry		.44
Refrigerator firsts	(a)	.47
Refrigerator seconds and poorer		.44

¹ The Producers Price - Current. January 7, 1925.

The price difference between the better grades and the poorer grades is wider when fresh eggs are very scarce than is indicated in Table 10, and is narrower when fresh eggs are abundant. There is an insistent demand for fresh eggs of high quality and, as a result, the price is high in times of scarcity.

Egg Grades

The discriminating consumer demands large, clean eggs of uniform color and high quality. Strictly fresh eggs are, of course, preferred, but it is impossible for very many people except those who keep poultry to use eggs that are less than three or four days old. The people who live at a considerable distance from egg surplus districts can seldom obtain eggs that are less than two or three weeks old. The mechanics of assembling, transporting, and distributing any product requires time. Because the demand for eggs is much more uniform than egg production it is necessary for many eggs to be kept for several months in cold storage. never better than when it is newly laid. It cannot improve with age but it may easily deteriorate. The producer is, therefore, interested in the appearance and quality of his eggs when they reach the consumer. The consumer will pay only for that which pleases his eye and his taste. If eggs are not carefully graded with respect to size, color, and cleanliness, or if they lack in quality, they can be sold only at the reduced price which buyers of low grade products are willing to pay. The producer may sell eggs by the dozen without

regard to grade. He may have heard very little of egg grades, because possibly he may sell them to a dealer who pays a flat price to all producers regardless of whether the eggs are large or small, white or brown, clean or dirty, fresh or stale, so long as they are not absolutely unfit for food. The ultimate consumer, however, ordinarily buys eggs upon the basis of grade, and the price he pays at any particular place and time, depends upon the grade of the product. Somewhere between the producer and the consumer the eggs are sorted and graded by men who receive pay for the very necessary service which they perform. The consumer pays for eggs upon the basis of grade for which farmers were probably paid regardless of grade.

Numerous systems of grading eggs have been devised by produce associations and egg marketing associations of producers. All base their grades upon size, cleanliness, condition of shell, and quality of shell contents. The following grades may be considered characteristic:

Extras
Firsts
Seconds
Thirds
Dirties
Checks and Leakers

Rejects (not salable) include: Musty eggs
Mouldy eggs
Blood rings
Addled egg (white rot)
Black rot
Heated egg

Blood clots.

When a very simple classification is desired, the first two grades are combined in one grade and the third and fourth in another. It is impossible to give here a complete discussion of the methods used in separating eggs into the various grades. A brief description of the qualifications necessary for each one of the salable grades may be helpful to producers who desire to market a quality product.

1. Extras — Eggs above average size (26 oz. to dozen), clean, sound shell of good uniform conformation, air cell no larger than dime, quality of white and yolk excellent as indicated by candling

- 2. Firsts All qualifications as enumerated for extras, except that eggs must average only 24 ounces to the dozen
- 3. Seconds Clean, sound shelled eggs, which may be slightly undersized or, if full sized, which possess too large an air cell indicating that they are not perfectly fresh eggs. The quality of the yolk and white must still be good, although a somewhat flatter yolk and more watery white is permitted in a second than in firsts or extras. The breaking down of the yolk and white is largely due to the activity of the enzymes which are always present in the egg: these being catalase, acting on the proteins, and lipase, acting on the fats. These enzymes act more readily at about body temperatures, which accounts for the more rapid deterioration of even infertile eggs during the warm summer months.
- 4. Thirds Into this class should go all eggs which are still fit for food, but which show such deterioration as to prevent their being graded as seconds. Decidedly small eggs of good quality, average sized eggs with air cells so large as to occupy as much as one-third of the shell, loosened air cells, a very watery and flat yolk, germ development which has not proceeded to the blood ring stage, are some of the defects which are observed in eggs commonly graded as thirds. Eggs of this quality must be used immediately if they are to be conserved. In the packing houses of the Middle West such eggs are commonly used in making the frozen or dried egg product which bakers and manufacturers use.
- 5. **Dirties** This grade needs very little definition. Eggs going into this grade are of varying quality, size and freshness, but are always sold at a lower price because of the unattractive appearance of the shell.
- 6. Checks and Leakers Blind checks are those eggs which show a weakness in the shell which has, however, been repaired in the process of manufacture. Checks are slight cracks, while leakers are cracked eggs with cracks so large as to permit some of the contents to leak out.

Suggestions for Producing Quality Eggs

In order to market quality eggs it is necessary to produce quality eggs. Fortunately the rules are so simple that they can be followed by any one who produces eggs for market. The following list of rules includes those which are most important:

1. Keep one breed, and one only, of standard bred chickens. The eggs will be much more nearly uniform than from a mixed flock.

2. Keep clean straw in nests.

3. Gather eggs at least twice each day.

4. Keep eggs when gathered in a cool dry place.5. Market eggs often; at least twice each week.

6. Grade eggs before selling.

Very small eggs, very large eggs, or cracked eggs can usually be used better by the producer than by any one else. Dirty eggs can be washed and used in the home. Eggs that are to be sold should never be washed.

7. Produce only infertile eggs after the breeding season. It is seldom advisable in Nebraska to set eggs after the middle

of May.

Marketing Quality Eggs

The poultryman who produces quality eggs cannot afford to sell them for the price which is usually paid for ungraded eggs. Before ungraded eggs can be placed in storage or sold to advantage they must be carefully graded and sorted. In the summer months a wholesale dealer in eggs will often find that less than one-half the eggs he purchases will grade extras and firsts. Some of the lower grades must be sold to bakers for what they will bring, and oftentimes large numbers must be destroyed. If the wholesale egg dealer is to remain in business he must be careful not to pay for a case of eggs more than he can get for the eggs less his profit and cost of handling. He, therefore, quotes to the retail produce buyer what may be termed an "average price" for eggs. He knows that he will lose on a part of the eggs in nearly every case, and, therefore, he cannot pay a high price per dozen for the entire case. The local produce buyer gauges his buying price by the wholesale quotations for "case count" This flat price is fine for the producer of low grade eggs. He may receive two or three times what his product is worth. The producer of quality products suffers, because the profit on his eggs must pay for the losses on the poorer The only way that the producer of good eggs can afford to market his product is on the graded basis. should demand full value for the product of his care and labor.

The policy of buying eggs on the basis of grade is increasing among Nebraska dealers, but unfortunately there are many towns where as yet only the flat price is quoted. Perhaps the dealers are not entirely at fault. They have never

learned to grade eggs because the producers have never insisted upon being paid for what they delivered. Paying a flat price for all eggs regardless of size, or color, or quality, is certainly a simpler plan than buying on grade.

The producer who is refused a quality price for a quality product has three courses of action which will help to obtain a fair price.

- 1. He may work up a special trade in some Nebraska town or city, either among discriminating consumers or among restaurants, or other large consumers of quality eggs. This solution of the question is usually unsatisfactory because of the inherent difficulties of producers transacting business direct with consumers.
- 2. He may ship eggs in case lots direct to some produce commission firm either in Nebraska or in New York which handles eggs on the basis of grade. This is possible only where eggs are produced in relatively large quantities. This method is apt to be less successful in March, April, May, and June than during the autumn and winter months because of the large amount of good eggs produced at that season of the year. Good eggs are plentiful. It also costs more to ship in case lots than to ship in carload lots.
- 3. The producers of quality eggs in any locality may organize a cooperative association, and market their product in quantity. This method has proved successful in California, Washington, Utah, Minnesota, and other states not so well adapted to poultry production as is Nebraska. By selling only a quality product and cutting down marketing costs, producers in those states have succeeded in selling eggs at a profit, even though their cost of production is higher than in Nebraska. Some attempts at cooperative egg marketing in a small way have proved successful in Nebraska.

Producers are justified in entering the field of marketing for themselves only when existing agencies have failed to give satisfactory service at a reasonable price. The sale of eggs on a "flat price" or "case count" basis is not satisfactory to the careful conscientious producer who wishes to get from his poultry the greatest possible profit. He knows that he is being penalized by the carelessness and bad management of less ambitious or less able men. Under such conditions organization is a necessary resort.

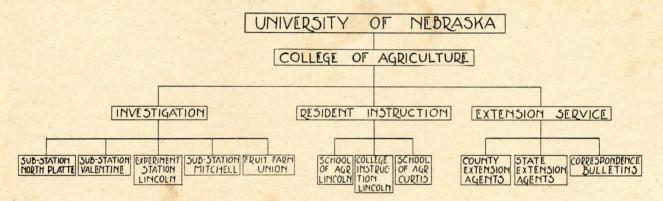
The Present Situation

Nebraska is one of the most important egg surplus states. Perhaps no other state is as well adapted to the economic production of chickens and eggs as is Nebraska.

The greatest obstacle to a large increase in the profits of poultry producers and a consequent increase in poultry production and prosperity in the state is the difficulty encountered by the careful producers in selling their eggs on a graded basis. Improved methods of egg production are being utilized on thousands of Nebraska farms. The next step, and the step that is essential if egg production is to be increased is a modern system of egg marketing which gives a fair return for quality products and penalizes the man who brings ungraded eggs to market.

Distributed in furtherance of cooperative agricultural extension work. Acts of May 8, 1914, and June 30, 1914. Extension Service of The University of Nebraska Agricultural College and U. S. Department of Agriculture cooperating. W. H. Brokaw, Director of Agricultural Extension Service.

THE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND ITS ACTIVITIES



This chart shows in graphic form the organization of the College of Agriculture. The College of Agriculture is one of ten colleges in the University of Nebraska, but has its own campus and buildings at Lincoln, besides experimental substations in various parts of the State. In addition to the customary instructional work of a college, it is responsible for experimental investigation and agricultural extension work. The instructional work includes instruction of college grade at Lincoln, instruction of high school grade thru the School of Agriculture at Lincoln, and instruction of high school grade thru the Nebraska School of Agriculture at Curtis. Experimental work and farming investigations are carried on at the main farms at Lincoln, and substations at North Platte, Valentine, and Mitchell, and at the fruit farm at Union. The Agricultural Extension Service represents the intimate contact between the college and the farmers of the State. This includes demonstrations by county and state extension agents, the distribution of bulletins, and practical service to the farmer, such as the answering of inquiries by mail.