

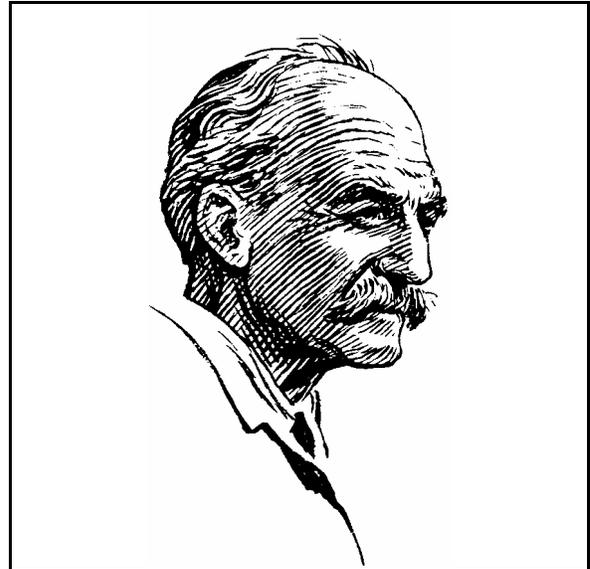
CHAPTER 2: CREATION OF THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST AND THE PREWAR YEARS

A NATIONAL FOREST IS BORN

The vivid history of conservation in America is told through the National Forests. In the 1870's and 1880's, stockmen assumed as their domain the valleys; the lumbermen, the forests; and the iron, copper, coal, and petroleum giants, the mineral fields. In those days, as in our own, wealth was a common goal and exploitation of the West was the result. However, from this period were born the John Muirs, Gifford Pinchots, Grover Clevelands, and Theodore Roosevelts, who strove to protect the natural resources before they were completely expropriated or depleted.

During the eighteenth century, the vast forests seemed limitless. Trees were useful but in the way of farms, homes and cities. The more felled or burned the better; there would always be more. This sentiment characterizes the American philosophy from Colonial days to well past the Civil War.

A few individuals sought to preserve the forests and argued for a change in the American philosophy of resource exploitation to one of conservation. Among them were Ralph Waldo Emerson, Dr. Wolcott Biggs, chemist-physicist and president of the American Academy for the Advancement of Science, Dr. Charles S. Sargent, director of the Harvard Botanical Garden and editor of *Garden and Forest Magazine*, and Carl Schurz, German-born Secretary of Interior.



Gifford Pinchot, Father of American Forestry

In 1871, the nation was shocked by the worst forest fire in its history. Fifteen hundred people lost their lives and nearly 1,300,000 acres were burned at Peshtigo, Wisconsin. Disturbed by the wave of fire and destruction, leaders of the conservation movement urged Congress and the states to recognize the need for cultivation of timber and preservation of forests. To pursue this program, the American Forestry Association was organized in 1875.

In 1876, leaders of the conservation movement were able to get a bill passed which called for a study of and a report on the best means for forest preservation and renewal. The task of preparing the report was given to the Department of Agriculture and represented the origin of forestry within the Department. The bill also provided for the appointment of a special agent to conduct the investigation. By 1881, a Division of Forestry was established within the Department of Agriculture (Steen 1991).

By 1890, forest devastation was underway almost everywhere. Timber

operators, despite their "cut and get out" philosophy, were not entirely to blame. The entire Nation was intent on advancement and exploitation. Although forest fires destroyed as much timber as was cut, they were regarded as beneficial in clearing the land. Congress had contributed to the problem by passing laws which only opened the forests to uncontrolled use. Such Acts as the Free Timber Act and the Timber and Stone Act amounted to what was legalized plunder of the forests. In 1891, Congress acted on the recommendations of the American Forestry Association and others to enable the President to create protected forests and passed the Forest Reserve Act. These Reserves were to be held in trust by the Department of Interior. Their primary purpose was to protect timber and water supplies. By the end of 1892, President Benjamin Harrison had created fifteen reserves totaling over thirteen million acres.

Now that the Government was in the business of running forests, the question arose as to what to do with them. They could not stay locked up forever. Some suggested they be administered by the Army; others envisioned forestry in relation to nature's work such as landscaping and botany. In 1896, a commission of scientific men was appointed, by the Secretary of the Interior, to study the questions. One of the appointees was 30-year-old ecologist Gifford Pinchot. He was a graduate of Yale in 1889 who did additional study in Europe. It was here he acquired his lifelong belief that forestry cannot succeed without the support of people who are the forest's neighbors. He was impressed with a French law requiring owners to reseed their denuded slopes.

Upon his return to America, he became the first professional American forester. It was appropriate that he was placed on the commission to study forest problems. Pinchot stretched his long legs over hundreds of miles of America's great forests. He came out of the woods to deliver lectures and write reports and then went back to the forest to gather more information. He and his colleagues toured many of the existing reserves and spoke with local officials about their management. They also received requests from many of these same people to protect watersheds and forests that were essential to the success of local communities.

Returning east, the Commission voted to recommend the creation of new Forest Reserves and two new National Parks. President Cleveland accepted the commission's recommendation and on February 22, 1897, created 21,279,840 acres of Forest Reserves. The Uintah Forest Reserve was one of these, and like the others, was to be managed by the Bureau of Forestry under the Department of the Interior.

A host of Western Congressmen rose up in arms and demanded the return of the Reserves to the public domain. Joseph Rawlins, a U.S. Senator from Utah, called the Presidential Proclamation:

...as gross an outrage almost as was committed by William the Conqueror, who, for the purpose of making a hunting reserve, drove out and destroyed the means of livelihood of hundreds of thousands of people (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

As a result, the Forest Reserves

created by President Cleveland were suspended for one year in every location but California, returned to the Public Domain, and put up for claim. The door was left open for purposes then proper and lawful, such as homesteading, prospecting and mining. This helped reduce Western hostility toward the Reserves.

In June of 1897, Congress passed an Act for the practical administration of Forest Reserves. The stated purpose was for “securing favorable conditions of water flow, and to furnish a continuous supply of timber for the use and necessities of citizens of the United States.”

Gifford Pinchot went on to become the first Chief of the Division of Forestry under the Department of Agriculture. There was a total of ten employees; he was the eleventh. The Forest Reserves at this



President Theodore Roosevelt and Chief Forester Gifford Pinchot on the river boat “Mississippi” in 1907. USDA Forest Service.

time were still under the Department of Interior, so the Division of Forestry was limited to offering technical advice on forestry and conducting limited timber studies within the Forest Reserves.

Pinchot argued that forests should be managed by professional foresters and finally, on February 1, 1905, the Forest Reserves were officially transferred to the Department of Agriculture. In addition, the Bureau of Forestry was renamed the U.S. Forest Service. Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson wrote a letter to Pinchot appointing him the first Chief in which he outlined the policy and goals of the Forest Service. An excerpt from Secretary Wilson's letter to Pinchot follows:

*In the administration of the Forest Reserves it must be clearly borne in mind that all land is to be devoted to its most productive use for the permanent good of the whole people and not for the temporary benefit of individuals and companies...(but) for the greatest good for the greatest number in the long run (Letter quoted in Pinchot, *Breaking New Ground*, pp. 261-62).*

John Ise, Associate Professor of Economics at the University of Kansas, in his book, *United States Forest Policy*, records the following battle between Congress and conservationists.

In the study of the forest policy, nothing stands out more prominently than the unwise position Congress usually took. Of the important timber land laws passed in the half-century during which our forests were disappearing or passing

into the hands of private individuals, only two - the Forest Reserve Act of 1891, and the Act of 1897 - stand out clearly as examples of intelligent legislation and the first of these was secured because Congress did not get a chance to squash it, while the Act of 1897 was drawn by a "theoretical" scientist, and pushed through Congress on an appropriation bill. During the seventies, eighties, and nineties, timber-steal measures of almost any kind could get a favorable hearing in Congress, while conservation measures were promptly eliminated from the calendar...For the fact that the United States finally got some national forests, with a scientific system of administration, credit is due, not to the wisdom of our national legislature, but entirely to administrative officials - Schurz, Cleveland, Sparks, Walcott, Fernow, Bowers, Pinchot, Roosevelt, and others; and these men had to fight Congress at almost every step (Ise 1920).

In 1906, the Uintah Forest Reserve was renamed the Uinta Forest Reserve and on March 4, 1907, an Act of Congress provided that the Forest Reserves would be known from then on as National Forests.

TIMBER

By the time the Uinta National Forest was established, nearly all of the accessible timber was gone. Settlers in Utah and Heber Valleys had harvested timber for fuel, construction and mining for 50 years. As a result, the timber industry



Loggers falling spruce on the Johnson Sale in Wolf Creek, 1927. USDA Forest Service

was never the driving aspect of management on the Uinta.

Ranger W. Jones Bowen gives some insight into timber lands and forest fires during the year 1911:

Very few fires occurred and very little attention was given to fire prevention and suppression in the early days of the Forest Service. There was very little timber business on this district. Most of the small patches that grew in the canyons on the Utah Valley drainage had been cut over and logged several years prior to the creation of the Uinta Forest. At the time the forest was created, there was very little commercial timber left on any of the

lands in the Utah Valley drainage (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

Nevertheless, timber surveys were conducted and some harvesting did occur. W.A. Pack's report of June 12, 1912, gives us some additional information on timber resources at the time:

...There are thirty-six timber sales of all classes in active operation on the forest at the present time. The greater portion of the timber is used locally in the settlements adjacent to the Forest. In the past years prior to 1910 the mines of Park City used considerable timber from the Uinta Forest but outside markets have been able to furnish timber at lower rates...The mature timber should be sold and removed as soon as possible as it is in constant danger of fire, and especially is this true in certain parts of the Forest on the heads of streams where campers make the fire danger more intense...During the past year there have been no fires of importance on this Forest and the losses will not exceed \$316.00.

During this fiscal year we have planted 137,400 young trees on 138 acres and seeded by the seed spot method 200 acres of ground...An examination just made shows from 29% to 55% of the plants alive; however, considerable of the seed which was sown last fall is germinating and some few trees show through the soil. Chipmunks and other rodents have done considerable damage by destroying



Loading logs on the Blazzard sale in Soapstone Basin, 1938. USDA Forest Service.

the seed although the ground was properly poisoned before seeding...I have in mind a seeding area in an old lodgepole pine burn which is a most favorable site for lodgepole pine. Judging from the past experience on this forest I am very doubtful of making a success of planting. I have thought that in some instances the most favorable species had been chosen for this work but last fall a very favorable site was planted to 2-1 Douglas-fir and from present indications I am doubtful if there will be over 20 percent of the trees that will live. The place selected for this experiment was an old burn which had been cut over and also burned over. The timber taken from this area was an exceptionally good stand of Douglas-fir (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

With the creation of the Forest Service came confusion about responsibility for management of timber resources on the new Forest lands. As in other management areas, there was some resistance to Forest

Service authority in many cases. In some cases, the confusion existed between agencies. In 1905, William M. Anderson, a "Forest Guard" working on the Uinta, was involved in a timber dispute with the Department of Indian Affairs. The following is his narrative:

On August 5, 1905, I was detailed to help Mr. F. E. Joy and Forest Guard, Morgan Park, to establish the inside boundary line of the area that in 1905 was taken from the Ute and White River Indians, and added to the old Uintah Forest. My title was Forest Guard also. We started marking boundary line between the forest area and the Indian lands on August 16, 1905, and on August 18th, we found that the Indian department had contracted with some private timber men to cut yellow pine timber on the forest lands. The man, F. M. Joy, a competent surveyor, was sort of in charge of our party; however, he had little or no experience along any other line...I made a trip to the logging camp that was established on the Uintah River, about 3 miles inside the forest boundary. I found the foreman of the camp and tried as best I could to explain that he was cutting timber without permission from the Forest Service, an act that constituted trespass, and that I must insist that he stop at once. He said that he wanted to do only the right thing and that he would make a trip down to the Indian agency and find out what the agent said.

About 2:30 that afternoon,

while I was at camp, shoeing a horse, two soldiers from Ft. Duchesne rode up and informed me that the Indian agent had instructed that I be arrested and taken in to the agency. I hardly knew what to do. Joy and Park were out on survey. I argued with the two officers that we were right and tried to show them our authority, and further, I promised that if they would wait until the next day, we would come to the agency and see the agent. This they refused, saying they had come for me and were going to take me in. They were both armed and at the time I wasn't. I stepped into the tent for my hat and gloves, and incidentally, I buckled on the long forty-one Colt that was usually hanging on my hip, and during the time I made up my mind that I wasn't going with them this time, or until we were all there at least. I came out of the tent and said, "Did the agent send just two of you to take us?" Receiving an affirmative answer, with some punctuations that didn't set well, I then remarked, "Well, if you two think you can cut the mustard, either start at it or get going." I didn't go down that night. When Joy and Park came to camp, I told them about the incident, and I also told them that I expected a squad would be up to get us in the morning. After deliberating on the matter during the night, Joy decided that he would go to the agent early the next morning. He met the squad of eight soldiers midway to the agency and went on back with them. It took about sixty

days to get the matter straightened up, but finally the timber cutting was stopped by order from Washington. In the meantime, I insisted on marking the trees for cutting and scaling the logs cut, intending that they should be paid for, but I don't think they ever were (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

The Uinta National Forest had moderate commercial and local markets for timber resources. Much of the timber harvested on the Uinta through World War I went to the Union Pacific and its subsidiaries for railroad ties. By 1920, the local market for timber came primarily from local mines (Holmes 1990).

GRAZING AND WATERSHED

The Uinta National Forest was created in an environment of free-for-all and “common use” grazing. Livestock owners raced each other to the desirable grazing areas, cattlemen competed with sheep men, local operators competed with outsiders, and small operations competed with large operations. An 1897 Act authorized the government to regulate grazing on Forest Reserves and insist upon permit applications prior to use. Range conditions were poor enough that in 1898, the Secretary of the Interior prohibited grazing in Forest Reserves, except those of Washington and Oregon. Stockmen responded by admitting that studies had to be conducted on range conditions, but they did not want to face a moratorium on grazing. The compromise reached allowed the use of “accustomed ranges” and Gifford Pinchot was told to study the problem.

Pinchot set to work authorizing studies, attending livestock meetings, and drafting new management rules. Albert F. Potter, an Arizona rancher, was hired specifically to address range problems in the Southwest. Potter was able to get stockmen to favor reasonable regulation of range lands (Steen 1991). At the same time, grazing fees were levied to defray the costs of management.



Future Sheep herder, a six-week old pup and A.B. Smith near Heber, 1914. USDA Forest Service

Some stockmen reacted with surprise when a stranger called a “Forest Ranger” came on the scene and told them they had to pay a fee to graze on the same land where their fathers and grandfathers had free grazing for 50 years. They were even more surprised when these Forest Rangers refused to let them put their animals on the ranges until May 1. The date was later changed to May 16, then to June 1. The numbers of livestock allowed to graze were also cut. The last straw came when trespass notices were given. Some of those

early Rangers were lucky to be alive (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

Dan Pack, an early Forest Ranger, was transferred from Vernal to Mt. Nebo, then part of the Payson Forest Reserve, in March of 1903. After establishing an office in Payson, he went to Nephi where he had difficulty with the sheep men. Pack describes the events as follows:

While I was there (in Nephi) I informed the sheep men that no sheep would be allowed on the Nebo during 1903. The sheep men showed a very defiant attitude...About May 5th, seven bands of sheep were driven onto Nebo and started lambing. I wired the Washington Office that sheep were grazing on the Nebo. I immediately received a wire back which read as follows: "Hire sufficient men to drive sheep off the forest and keep them off, but avoid conflict." I gave the wire careful consideration and decided if I should try to drive the sheep off the forest the results might be of a serious nature, so I decided to go to Salt Lake and place the facts before U.S. District Attorney Lipman and insisted that he take immediate steps to secure a permanent injunction against trespassing sheep owners. They were ordered to appear in court and show cause, if any, why a permanent injunction shouldn't be granted, after the sheep men presented their side of the case the Judge granted a permanent injunction against all seven of the trespassing sheep owners and allowed them four days to vacate the



Forest Rangers Pack and Fisher, 1910. USDA Forest Service.

Nebo. They complied with his instructions even though they suffered heavy losses in doing so.

After court had adjourned, the sheep owners' attorney came over to me and said "Pack, we were surprised in the way you brought this action, we were prepared to fight a damage case, but since you asked for an injunction there is nothing we can do about it" (Pack 1946-7).

Even though Pack's action seemed unjustified to the sheep men, reports from others on the forest's condition indicated the need for action. Daniel Gull, a sheep man at the turn of the century, paints a gloomy picture of grazing conditions on the forest:

During those years, all of this country was overstocked with sheep and the range was badly

abused. All grass and seeds would be consumed and the brush and choke cherry bushes would be browsed as high as sheep could reach, by the 24th of July. The flats would become dust beds, sometimes 6" deep. After that we would take the sheep back into lower country and hold them on oakbrush points and sagebrush, trailing around from place to place wherever we could get a few days feed.

In spring there would be a scant growth of grass and weeds, the palatable brush species, except oak, were heavily grazed, thinned and killed out.

Snowberry and elderberry had almost disappeared from the range just prior to the time the country went into the forest (Forest Reserve).

There was very little underbrush and low vegetation to stop run-off, from Wallsburg Ridge around to Soldier Summit. There was lots of soil washed away and deep washes were started.

Better forage species such as bluebells and wild oats or brome grass were very scarce and disappearing on the range west and south of the Strawberry Ridge (Gull 1935).

Range conditions were so bad in one area of the Wasatch Range that Albert F. Potter, commissioned by Pinchot to document range conditions in Utah in 1902, summed up the grazing situation by humorously saying, "Saw a band of sheep on the head of Potter Canyon which were quite thin in flesh and seemed to be living

on fresh air and mountain scenery (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972)."

At times, Forest Service policy was not very equitable and resistance was sometimes justified. A statement is recorded in the Forest Service's Regional Office in Ogden, Utah, concerning a dispute between Michael Barclay and the Forest Service:

In the spring of 1905 Barclay, as usual, placed his sheep out on the range surrounding his ranch and a stranger visited him and asked him if he had a grazing permit. Barclay had never heard of "grazing permits" and said so. The visitor told him he was a forest ranger; that the Uinta National Forest had been created and it was necessary to have a permit from the Forest Service to use the range. Since he had none he would have to move his sheep off the forest area. Barclay told the ranger he had no other place to go and would not leave the range. The forest boundary split Barclay's ranch in half - he learned when the boundary line was posted.

A few days later another forest officer rode up to his ranch on a pinto pony and introduced himself as R. E. Benedict. Barclay explained his predicament to Benedict who told him he was a Class A applicant, was entitled to a permit and gave him application forms and instructions to complete them and present them to Forest Supervisor (W.I.) Pack at Provo.

Pack disapproved the applications and rejected Barclay's

appeal for reconsideration. Barclay then took his case to Reed Smoot, now United States senator. They started to forest Supervisor Pack's office to discuss the case and met Pack on the street. Smoot asked Pack if he had received Barclay's application and rejected it. Pack admitted that was correct. Smoot then told Pack to approve the application and in his presence told Barclay to see him (Smoot) again if he did not obtain a grazing permit (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

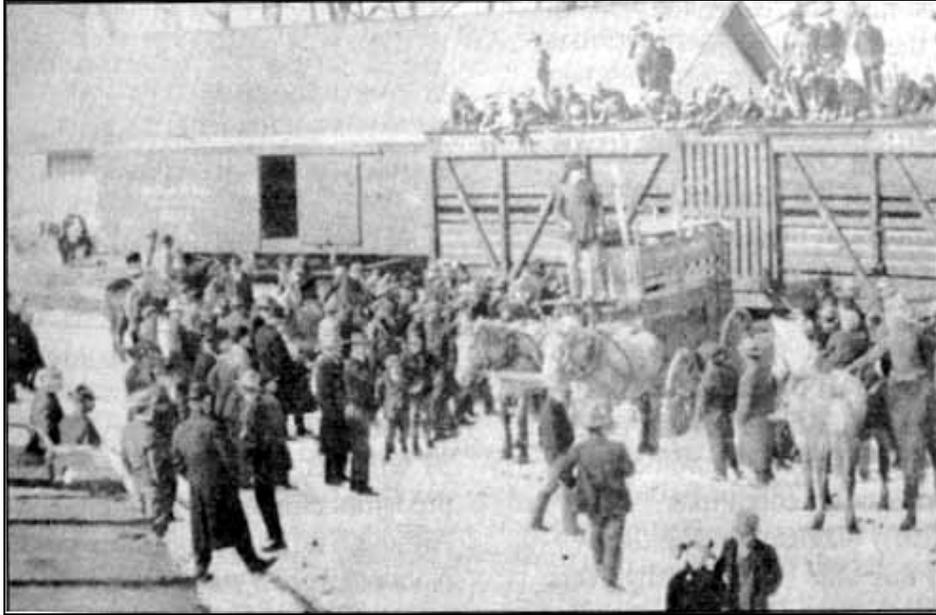
Despite early attempts to regulate grazing on the Uinta, overgrazing continued on watershed areas that, at that time, were not within the Forest boundary. In 1909, a petition was signed by the Springville City Mayor, the President of the Board of Trade in Mapleton and numerous other people from both Springville and Mapleton. This petition requested that certain lands in Hobbie Creek Canyon be added to the Uinta National Forest for watershed protection. Severe overgrazing up to that time had created a number of water quality and flooding problems. The petition was sent to the Regional Forester in Ogden and later to the Utah Congressional Delegation in Washington. By Executive Proclamation (#1091) on October 7, 1910, most of the Hobbie Creek drainage was added to the Uinta National Forest (Isbell 1972).

During World War I, increased stocking of grazing lands was seen as patriotic and livestock numbers increased. After the war, the poor state of the ranges Region-wide drew more attention to the problem and the Forest Service re-instituted

studies to look at proper stocking levels. In 1919, studies on the Uinta National Forest led to adjustments in not only numbers of livestock, but a shift to a shorter grazing season as well. The date livestock were allowed to enter the allotments was pushed back from mid-April to mid-May. Unfortunately, these studies and changes in management did not completely solve overgrazing problems. In some cases, data used in management was not entirely accurate and in others, local economic conditions biased the studies.

Prior to 1936, most of the watershed areas east of Utah Valley were in private hands. Uncontrolled livestock grazing seriously depleted the vegetation, leaving the soils susceptible to erosion during high intensity rain storms. Public attention was focused on these deteriorated watershed areas in the 1920's and 1930's when repeated floods and attendant sedimentation began to affect the croplands and urban improvements in the vicinity of Provo and Springville. Mud-rock flows and summer flash floods occurred in Rock, Slate and Little Rock Canyons. Springs furnishing water for two fish hatcheries in Springville were frequently filled with debris, and muddy water was killing the young fish.

In 1934, Executive Order #6801A was issued which added 17,741 acres on the benches above Provo to the Uinta National Forest. However, continuing watershed deterioration coupled with the increasing frequency and magnitude of floods in 1923, 1930, and 1936 prompted representatives of Provo and Springville cities and Utah County to seek an extension of the National Forest boundary and public acquisition of watershed lands. They also sought an expansion of the rehabilitation



*Elk from Jackson Hole country arrive in Nephi to be transplanted on Mt. Nebo, 1914.
USDA Forest Service.*

work begun in the Kolob Basin, above Springville, in 1933 by the CCC. In 1935, Congress authorized the Secretary of Agriculture to acquire by purchase any lands within the boundaries of the Uinta and Wasatch National Forests that were needed in order to “minimize soil erosion and flood damage and to pay for said lands from the entire receipts from the sale of natural resources or occupancy of public lands within the Uinta and Wasatch National Forests, which receipts are hereby authorized to be appropriated for that purpose until said lands have been acquired (Holmes 1990).” Watershed areas were acquired and rehabilitation efforts were launched with the help of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

WILDLIFE AND FISHERIES

Wildlife and habitat management everywhere in Utah was an early concern. A few of the first attempts to manage wildlife in the state occurred with the Mormon settlers. Hosea Stout, a member of the Utah Territorial Legislature in 1856, records in his diary on January 15 that the first bill to protect beaver was presented to bring back populations decimated by over 30 years of trapping. It prohibited the trapping of these animals between April and September. The bill was later defeated.

At the time of Statehood in 1896, the first legislature of Utah met and a Committee of Fish and Game was set up. The Committee decided that it was of the utmost importance that the fish and game of the state be given all the protection possible though just laws. They stated: "The laws now in force (territorial laws) are fairly

good, but are constantly violated. The citizens must be made to realize the importance of the fish and game (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1980)."

Big Game

At the turn of the century, big game populations throughout the area were virtually nonexistent on range lands due to overgrazing and hunting. By 1897, wildlife and their habitat were serious concerns for the Forest Service, and the State formed the Utah State Fish and Game Association to aid in the restoration of wildlife. Unfortunately, conditions remained relatively stagnant during these first years. At this time and for many years after, deer were scarce on the Uinta National Forest. Law enforcement was very lax. In addition, it was held that the Indians had treaty rights on the former Reservation lands to hunt and fish in and out of season as long as "the streams ran and the sun set." Additionally, predators took a heavy toll.

The Forest Service showed serious concern for wildlife and habitat with the establishment of new policies on the National Forests. In 1919, a manual for the Fish and Game Management of the Intermountain Region pointedly proclaimed that "formerly fish and game development and protection was only a very minor duty, depending on time available and non-interference with other activities. The present policy places it in equal standing with our other main activities." By 1920, with predator control, more intensive law enforcement and the enactment of the buck law, big game populations began to build. The Indian Service also changed its attitude and implored Indians to refrain from hunting out of season.

Shortly after the turn of the century, Pinchot decided that Forest Rangers would be permitted to serve as state game wardens in cooperation with State authorities. The emphasis continued to be placed on predator control to support the livestock industry. Forest officials worked with State governments and livestock associations to control the populations of wolves, bears, mountain lions, coyotes and bobcats. The first predator-kill record for the state of Utah reported eight bears, one mountain lion, zero wolves, 331 coyotes, 37 wildcats, and one lynx for a total of 378 predators eliminated during the year 1909. Although no records of kills on the Uinta National Forest were kept, there was frequent mention of predator hunting or poisoning. Supervisor Pack reported that the Forest Service poisoned the range against predators, mainly coyotes, during the late fall and early winter with bait and poison supplied by sheepmen. A large number of predators were killed in this way, and stockmen were pleased with the reduction in stock losses. An additional effect of predator control was the increase in big game populations.

Early in the new century, the disappearance of the native elk sparked the concern of local citizens. The absence of game laws and conservation officers contributed to this decline in the species, and the elk eventually vanished. Consequently, the concerned citizens decided to transplant elk into the 175,000 acres of national forest land in the mountainous Nebo range. In February of 1914, 50 head of elk arrived in Nephi from the Jackson Hole country in Yellowstone National Park. This day proved exciting for the entire town as men and women stopped work and children



Elk hunting camp in Gardner Canyon, 1931. USDA Forest Service.

missed school to see the elk unloaded. The enthusiastic contributors to the project, including stockmen, farmers, and sportsmen, gladly accepted the expense of railroad transportation, trapping, loading, and feeding.

Due to inclement weather conditions during the season, the elk were sheltered behind a high fence at a ranch and fed alfalfa hay. Ranchers did not release the elk from this shelter until the snow melted to reveal the lush greenery on the mountain. Indeed, all of the citizens appreciated these massive, gentle creatures.

Upon their release, however, the elk returned to the shelter of the ranches seeking food when winter returned. Although the farmers initially accepted this vagrant behavior, the increasing population of the elk continued to demand more resources. These farmers compelled the State Game Department to pay for their damages. Furthermore, the stockmen began to resent the competition between their livestock and the big game. To alleviate the elk problem, state wardens killed 84 bothersome, mature bulls and served elk meat at public gatherings.

Yet, conflicts festered between the farmers and sportsmen. The farmers estimated high numbers of elk and insisted that these elk were destroying their crops. Meanwhile, sportsmen viewed the does and cow elk as sacred animals and refused to kill them, so the cows continued to calve as usual.

This contention forced the state to intervene and set a limit on the elk population. Fortunately, the advent of the airplane allowed the counting of the animals to be much more accurate. In addition, the Utah Board of Big Game Control issued hunting permits under a limited licensing system that would ensure the management of the elk population.

The Forest Service's multiple use policy led to disputes between wildlife proponents and livestock owners over habitat areas. By the 1930's, livestock owners were pressing the Forest Service and the Utah Department of Fish and Game to control exploding populations of deer and elk to prevent excess competition for range (Alexander 1987). Ranger Merrill Nelson records, "During the late thirties and forties, the deer populations started to increase rapidly. This increase was first noted during the winter months on the low range from Little Rock Canyon to the 'Forks' of Hobble Creek, and across the 'Front' from Hobble Creek to the mouth of Spanish Fork Canyon. The deer were congregating in large numbers on the low winter range and were killing the browse plants by overgrazing (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972)." The Forest Service responded to this overwhelming growth in the deer population by authorizing the first antlerless deer hunt in 1934. (Stephanie Hall, January 1997)

Fish

Most reports concur that there was an abundance of fish in the area. The Pioneers grew flax and wove it into line for fishing. In a sporting diary, Mrs. Will H. Jones recorded:

June 10, 1878 pull out for Provo River by way of Camas. Cross the river and up Bench Creek to the forks of the Provo River where we find plenty of fine, large trout. Caught over two hundred and none weighing less than two pounds. Used bullheads for bait which we bought from boys at Camas (Jones 1877-98).

The late 19th century saw a period of fish planting known as the Johnny Appleseed era. When fish culturists realized how easily trout eggs could be obtained and hatched, there followed a period of indiscriminate planting with little or no regard for the environmental consequences. Would-be stockers had only to write their Congressman or the Fish Commissioner and free fish would be delivered. This practice continued, in some areas, until the 1970's. In many areas of the West, including areas on the Uinta, fish were indiscriminately stocked, making it difficult to find pure native populations of trout (Behnke 1992:55-59).

During this era, many of the rivers and streams on the Uinta were stocked including but not limited to Hard to Beat Creek, Diamond Fork, Hobble Creek, American Fork and areas around Mt. Nebo. The result is the hybridized trout population we have today; Yellowstone Cutthroat, Brook Trout, Brown Trout and Rainbow Trout instead of the native

Bonneville Cutthroat.

RECREATION

Recreation has been one of the primary uses of the Uinta, beginning in about 1850 and continuing to today. When the Uinta was established, areas on the Forest were already popular with picnickers and campers. But recreation was not an important aspect of Forest management for the first few years. The Forest Service dedicated its energies to solving what it felt were the great problems, which were timber, water, grazing and mining. Lesser issues, like recreation use, were left to take care of themselves. With the establishment of the Antiquities Act of 1906, Forest Service officials were required to look at areas that could be set aside as National Parks and begin forming policies on recreation. In 1917, one year after the creation of the Park Service, the Forest Service launched a campaign to study Forest Service recreation facilities and determine which policies



Cross-country skiing at the original South Fork Ranger Station in the early 1900's. USDA Forest Service.

should govern the development and recreation facilities and uses. Forest Service officials admitted that it was difficult to place an economical value on recreation but it somehow had to be recognized as a valuable resource (Steen 1991:113-22).

By 1930, the Forest Service as a whole provided recreation to four times as many people as the Park Service. Recreation was finally being seen as an increasingly important part of the multiple use philosophy. Because of the increasing recreational use, planning became critical. By 1935, an active campaign was being



Truckload of children at Mutual Dell Organizational Camp, 1937. Courtesy of Jerry Springer.

mounted at the Regional level to develop recreational plans and facilities (Alexander 1987). The result on the Uinta was the construction, by the Civilian Conservation Corps, of many of the developed campgrounds, access roads and trail systems that we maintain today.

Timpanogos Cave

During the fall of 1887, Martin Hansen first discovered what is known as Hansen's Cave, while cutting timber. In

1921, James W. Gough and Frank Johnson, two youths about 14 years of age, discovered the Timpanogos Cave. The same fall George Heber and his nephew, Wayne E. Hansen, discovered Middle Cave, a scant six weeks after Timpanogos Cave was located. Verl J. Manwill, who rediscovered the covered opening of Timpanogos Cave, briefly records its history and how the Forest Service became involved:

In the summer of 1921, we went on the annual Timpanogos Mountain Climb, then in camp that evening we planned our next trip.

I remembered reading an article in the American Fork Citizen that was entitled "Rumors of Mysterious Cave in American Fork Canyon." We assumed that someone knew where it was, so we decided to go up to the canyon on August 14, 1921, and go through it. We went to see Martin Hansen (discoverer of Hansen's Cave) and he said he had heard rumors, but knew nothing about its whereabouts, but if we were going to look for it, to look for it in the general area and level as Hansen Cave...

We then proceeded up the canyon and went through Hansen's Cave. We had carbide miner's lamps, candles and also a couple of cameras and a flash gun for taking pictures. At this time we were very disappointed, as the onyx and beauty of the cave had been practically all stripped off. We didn't take any pictures, but proceeded to the entrance where we decided to separate and do

exploring. I went alone and went to the west, then climbed up over the ledges to the top and stopped to rest at a point about the same level as Hansen's Cave, but about 3/4 mile east and as my eyes scanned the mountainside, I noticed next to the ledge an artificial appearance like masonry with vegetation partially growing over it about thirty feet west of where I sat. I walked over to it and kicked at it and one of the rocks came loose, rolling down an incline inside of the mountain. I opened it up and the hole was about two feet in diameter. I immediately called the rest of the group and we proceeded to explore it. At the foot of the first incline, about 30 feet down, was a room of rather spacious dimensions and on the floor was part of an old dynamite box (all soggy and moldy). This indicated that someone had been in before and then sealed up the entrance and had either lost the location or was keeping it secret.

We then proceeded to explore it. It was a thrilling experience as there were no trails or tracks to follow. In places we had to lay on our stomachs and squeeze through. Other places we had to make ourselves into human bridges or ladders to help the ladies along. About half-way through, half of the party became frightened and turned back. However, three of the men and two ladies proceeded all the way and we took pictures of what is now called "Father Time's Jewel Box."

We then went back out and

joined the rest of the party and closed up the entrance, much as the way we found it and went back down to the canyon bottom where we were camped and that night by the light of campfire, discussed our find and talked about ways and means to preserve its beauty for posterity instead of allowing it to be vandalized as Hansen's Cave had been. We decided to start by organizing an outdoor club dedicated to the objective of preserving the cave, which we did.

We called it the Payson Alpine Club, and I was elected president and my sister Elva Manwill, secretary. We decided to return in about two weeks and measure, map and photograph the cave then turn our information over to the proper authorities for their assistance.

We returned the following week (ed. two weeks) with a party of twenty-two, but so much time was spent showing it to the other group that we did no measuring, but did take a few pictures.

When we left the cave, we were met near the mouth by Deputy Supervisor Mann and Ranger West of the Forest Service who demanded to know what we were doing there. When we explained they did not believe us. They seemed to think that we were the persons who were keeping the whereabouts of the cave a secret and were attempting to commercialize on it. So they, at that time, nailed up a sign on a nearby tree declaring the location a public service site, and then told us

to vacate at once and they would investigate our story (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

Timpanogos Cave rapidly became a popular recreational attraction in American Fork Canyon. Initially there was not a trail to the entrance and visitors pulled themselves up the steep slope using fallen trees. Timpanogos Cave was set aside as a National Monument by Presidential Proclamation on October 14, 1922, under the jurisdiction of the Forest Service to be protected for its “unusual scientific interest and importance.” In 1933, executive order No. 6166 placed all National Monuments under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Interior and the transfer of Timpanogos Cave National Monument to the Park Service took place on July 1, 1934.

FIRE

At the turn of the century, the causes of wildfires were varied, from lightning strikes to railroad steam engines and red-hot brake shoes. Methods of combating these fires were few. In the first two decades of the twentieth century, the Forest Service supported state and private protection programs. It was believed that since all of the society benefited from forests, everyone must help with fire suppression. Even Forest Service permittees were obligated to fight fires without compensation whenever their permit area was threatened. In some cases, fire protection was listed as a major justification for issuing permits.

Nineteen-ten was an extremely dry year and wildfires resulted in a tremendous loss of resources, property, and human life Region wide. The Forest Service began to work more diligently to establish fire

protection plans for each forest. Fire fighting technology was improving at this time as well. Caches of fire tools with instruction for use were established on the districts and transportation and communication systems were improved. The 1920's saw the introduction of a central dispatching system and specialized forms of fire tools. These include the Koch Tool (a handle that could be mounted on either a grubbing hoe or a shovel), the pulaski (a combination axe head and grubbing hoe), and the gas operated water pump. The 1920's also saw the introduction of standard techniques for fire control and a Regional fire control manual. Some forests in the Region began holding



Make-shift lookout tower used during periods of extreme fire danger on the Uinta, 1929. USDA Forest Service.

fire training for employees during this period. In the 1930's, fire policy emphasized the need to gain control of fires as quickly as possible. This emphasis was maintained until very recently (Alexander 1987:66-67).

CHANGES IN THE FOREST BOUNDARY

The original Uinta Forest Reserve boundary included 842,000 acres located along the north slope of the High Uintas between Heber Mountain and the Green River. A map of the original area is included in Appendix B of this document. In July of 1905, with the opening of the Uintah Valley Indian Reservation, the Forest's size more than doubled with the addition of 1,010,000 acres previously owned by the Utes. With the addition of another 429,848 acres from public domain in January of 1906, the Uinta Forest Reserve reached its greatest size with 2,281,848 acres (see Appendix B for a map of the area).

On January 16, 1907, Willard I. Pack, who was now the Forest Supervisor of the Uinta Forest Reserve, received a proposal from James Adams, Acting Regional Forester:

...to divide many of the forest reserves into new administrative units. The object is to give each officer in charge the administration of those lands only which, from their location, topography and business interests, can be most effectively and cheaply managed from headquarters (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

The proposal was to locate a headquarters at Provo and one at Vernal. Ten days following the above letter, Supervisor Pack sent a letter to Washington, stating:

I will give you my reasons frankly why I am not in favor of a division of the Uinta Forest Reserve, while at the same time I do not wish to appear critical.

It is my opinion that there would not be enough business to justify the expense of establishing and maintaining an office at Vernal...

Vernal is extremely poorly located for the transaction of business with local interests as well as with the Washington office...

I believe, that the more business that can be concentrated under one head in an office which is favorably located, that business can be handled more effectively as well as with greater uniformity and less chance for discrimination.

So far as I can see, the only benefit to be derived from dividing the reserve, would be that of bringing the supervisor in closer touch with the field work. I have my work so arranged now, that with my present force, I will be able to devote enough time to field work to become thoroughly familiar with conditions in the field (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

Sixteen months later two letters arrived on May 15 and 16 at Provo, Utah, calling for the division of the Uinta National Forest and the establishment of the

Ashley National Forest. William M. Anderson was designated Forest Supervisor for the Ashley, and W.A. Pack continued on the Uinta until 1914. This transfer left the Uinta with 952,086 fewer acres, nearly half of the Forest's acreage before the transfer. The Uinta now managed a total of 1,298,524 acres.

The Uinta National Forest gained a significant amount of acreage as a result of the transfer of the lands from the Nebo National Forest in 1915 when Forest Supervisor W.A. Pack was informed in a letter:

It has been decided to subdivide the Nebo National Forest and do away with the headquarters in Nephi, Utah. This action takes effect at the termination of October 26, and that portion which has been transferred to you comprises the northern division of the Forest...(U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972)

The Uinta obtained 112,040 acres on and around Mt. Nebo in the transfer.

CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS ON THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST

The availability of large numbers of young men's labor was the way in which many of this era's advances in resource management were realized. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was established by President Franklin D. Roosevelt as a "New Deal" program meant to provide employment and job training for unmarried young men between the ages of seventeen and twenty-five. They were paid \$30 per



CCC crew constructing a check dam in Hobble Creek Canyon. Courtesy of Utah State Historical

month, \$25 of which was sent home to help support their families. The CCC was in operation from 1933 until the outbreak of the Second World War, and was one of the most successful government programs meant to relieve unemployment during the Great Depression.

CCC men lived in large 200-man camps managed by the U.S. Army. The men's daily work was supervised by resource managers from the state or federal lands on which they labored. Each camp had six month enrollment periods, and many operated for only one or two periods or only contained men intermittently. By 1942, 116 camps would be built, dedicated and operated by the CCC in Utah. The first of these (Camp F-5) was dedicated on June 28, 1933, in American Fork Canyon at the present site of Granite Flat Campground. The ceremony was typical of all the camp dedications to follow and included a flag raising ceremony, athletic events, speeches, music and a dance. It was attended by over 500 people from nearby towns. Throughout the program's operation, other local towns also received the camps well and built relationships with

their men through exchanges of musical and dramatic shows, athletic teams and social dances.

Eventually there would be seven camps located on or near the Uinta National Forest. Three camps were in operation only during the summer and fall of 1933, including the American Fork Canyon Camp, Diamond Fork (F-8, located near the East Portal of the Strawberry Tunnel) and Hobble Creek Canyon (SE-206, located in the left-hand portion of the canyon at Pole Haven). The latter was a State camp directed by Mark Anderson, who would later become a leader in the responsible management of watersheds and the mayor of Provo. This camp tested various ways to reduce erosion on heavily over-grazed slopes on private land in Kolob Basin above Springville. They did contour terracing, re-seeding and built check dams and other features designed to hold back water and soil. These techniques were later used up and down the Wasatch Front by the CCC to reduce the threat of devastating floods on adjacent farmland and towns (Baldrige 1971).

The Mt. Nebo Camp (F-9, situated near what is now Ponderosa Campground in Salt Creek east of Nephi) was also built during the summer of 1933. Its accomplishments that summer included building the Red Creek Road, which connected Payson and Salt Creek Canyon, as well as completing picnic tables and fireplaces, stock trails and erosion control features. The camp site was used again the next summer by a unique group made up exclusively of World War I veterans. From the summers of 1935 through 1939 the barracks and other buildings at the site would be used as a “spike” camp, or temporary work camp for about 30 men

from other large CCC camps. During that time they changed the face of Salt and Nephi Canyons by completing additional roads, two new campgrounds, two amphitheaters, several bridges, dams, trails and countless camping and picnicking facilities. They also planted thousands of trees and helped clean up after devastating summer floods ripped through both canyons.

A new Hobble Creek Camp (F-3, located in what is now Cherry Creek Picnic Area) was established in the spring of 1934. It operated during the next two summers as well, and during the two intervening winters any men still enrolled in that camp moved to a new camp (PE-220 the first winter and thereafter F-40) called Rock Canyon and set up at the Provo Fairgrounds (now the East Bay business area). The Hobble Creek camp was mostly made up of tents on wooden platforms, making it easier to dismantle the camp during the winter. The Provo Camp was more substantial, with all wooden buildings, and it eventually became the permanent home for CCC men working on Forest projects around the southern part of Utah Valley between the winter of 1937 and summer of 1941 (Baldrige 1971).

During their eight years of operation, men from these two camps created a fine record of work which included building eight campgrounds in Hobble Creek and Payson Canyons, four Forest Service ranger stations, dams at the mouths of Little Rock, Rock and Slate Canyons, upgrading or building roads in Hobble Creek (to Springville Crossing), Rock Creek and the Nebo Loop Road, several bridges, stock trails to and through Spanish Fork Canyon and other duties such as fire fighting.



South Fork Ranger Station, constructed by the CCC in 1934-5, as it appeared in 1937. USDA Forest Service.

The other long-lived CCC camp which worked on the Uinta National Forest was F-43, located in the northwestern part of Pleasant Grove. This camp was occupied in September of 1935 and operated as a Forest Service camp until the summer of 1938. In 1939 it became a Bureau of Reclamation camp for men working on projects relating to the construction of Deer Creek Dam (Baldrige 1971). Men from the Pleasant Grove camp often spent their summers working on the Wasatch National Forest at Soapstone, where they built roads, campgrounds, and ranger stations. Others would work at spike camps up American Fork Canyon where they built Granite Flat and other campgrounds, the Mutual Dell and Aspen Grove amphitheaters, Grove Creek and Heisett's Hollow diversion dams, constructed roads, trails, guard stations, and planted thousands of trees. Additional duties included summer fire fighting and rescuing stranded miners during the harsh winter of 1936. During that same winter the men endured icy cold to build dry-laid rock walls along the

unstable bank of the American Fork River.

Many of the campgrounds, roads, trails, and bridges that the CCC built on the Uinta remain today. Although a number of these have been updated to meet more modern needs, their impact during their own time cannot be underestimated (Olsen 1994). Before the CCC began, few roads on the Forest were easily traveled by car and large areas of the Forest were inaccessible by either road or well-marked trail. There were no campgrounds with services such as water or sanitation. The effects of heavy over-grazing around the turn of the century were only beginning to heal and bare slopes and summer flooding were common features. The CCC began to change all this. The relatively inexpensive but quality labor offered by CCC men allowed Forest Service managers to finally begin to provide both the level of resource protection they desired and the recreational experiences their public deserved. (Charmaine Thompson, January 1997)

