
PINCHOT INSTITUTE
FOR CONSERVATION

**A Federal Commitment
to Forest Conservation
on Private Lands**

The Story of
State and Private Forestry

by

James W. Giltmier

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Leadership in Forest Conservation Thought, Policy, and Action.



EXECUTIVE OFFICE: 1616 P Street NW, Washington, DC 20036 202/797-6580 fax: 797-6583 e-mail: pinchot@igc.apc.org
GREY TOWERS NATIONAL HISTORIC LANDMARK: Milford, PA 18337 717/296-9630 fax: 296-9675



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Foreword

When Americans think of the USDA Forest Service, many think of the 191 million-acre National Forest System that stretches from Alaska to Puerto Rico. Others may think of Forest Service Research, with its experiment stations and forestry science laboratories on campuses throughout the nation and the world-renowned Forest Products Laboratory in Madison, Wisconsin. State & Private Forestry at the Forest Service has always been the quiet program, operating largely outside the limelight through other organizations such as the state forestry agencies and universities.

All that is beginning to change with the increasingly important role that private forest lands are playing in meeting the needs of American society and protecting environmental quality. The forest land ownership pattern in the U.S. is unique among the developed countries of the world in that it is four-fifths private. Three-fifths of the nation's forest land is owned by individuals, who number in the millions. In addition to their value to their individual owners, these resources provide a variety of substantial and important public values—pure and abundant water, clean air, wildlife habitat, recreation opportunities, and a renewable supply of wood and fiber.

Whether private forest lands will continue to provide this variety of benefits and values depends upon a number of important factors and trends. Private forest land in the United States is rapidly being converted to smaller ownerships, and the average tenure of forest land ownership is becoming shorter. From 1978 to 1994, the proportion of private forest ownerships of less than 50 acres nearly doubled, now representing one-fifth of all private forest lands. Ownership fragmentation and rapid turnover often has negative impacts on a variety of values and uses, and reduces the likelihood the land will be managed with a long-term stewardship perspective. This presents a special challenge to organizations offering technical assistance to private landowners. With the ownership of millions of forest tracts changing hands an average of every 8-10 years, the needs for technical assistance are perennially overwhelming.

One impact of the increasing ownership fragmentation is on the value of private forest lands for wildlife habitat, especially for rare, local, threatened, or endangered species. It is estimated that the habitat for more than half of the federally-listed threatened or endangered species occurs exclusively on private lands, so public forest lands alone clearly cannot be relied upon to meet this need. Many private forest landowners have taken a personal interest in biodiversity conservation, but have little access to technical assistance to help them find ways to protect these values while continuing to manage their lands for other economic benefits. This expanding role for forestry technical assistance providers, from a relatively narrow focus on timber management to a broader focus on land stewardship for a variety of values and benefits, is an additional challenge. But it is also an unprecedented opportunity to enhance the contribution of private forest lands to the nation's ecological as well as economic prosperity.

The ongoing shift in timber demand from public forest lands to private forest lands also presents a mix of new opportunities and new challenges. With federal timber harvest levels at less than a quarter of what they were a decade ago, and forest industry lands already producing near maximum potential, the unabated demand for wood and fiber is shifting to the non-industrial private forest lands. On one hand, the unprecedented timber values are enabling land owners to make new investments in their forests that will provide a wide range of benefits. On the other hand, there is enormous pressure to overcut in the near term, with potentially harmful effects on wildlife, water quality, soil productivity, future timber supplies, and the sustainability of local economies, especially in rural areas. Public pressure for stricter regulation of forest practices on private lands can be expected to increase, challenging forestry organizations and land owners alike to prove that these values can be adequately protected through existing voluntary mechanisms

in many states.

The Forest Service is currently reviewing the role of its State & Private Forestry program in promoting the sustainable management of the nation's private forest lands. A new strategic vision for the State & Private Forestry program will likely focus on strengthening the partnership with state forestry organizations and enhancing their ability to deliver technical assistance to private forest land owners. But it will also help define the national leadership role only the Forest Service can fulfill in such areas as forest resource monitoring and assessment, and coordinating technical and financial services among federal, state, and tribal agencies. The Forest Service can also maintain a larger national perspective on strategic priorities that will result in sustaining a productive land base, and raising society's awareness and support for the multitude of public benefits derived from sound stewardship of the nation's private forest lands.

This discussion paper by Jim Giltmire is intended to serve as a reference resource for individuals and organizations participating in this review of the strategic direction for State & Private Forestry. It provides a chronology of conservation in private forest land management, and the guiding roles played by federal and state agencies and universities. It includes brief descriptions of current programs in State & Private Forestry, highlighting a continuing focus on cooperation and facilitating the efforts of others through technical assistance and factual forest inventory and assessment information. Given the increasingly significant role of private forest lands in the United States, it will be important that the Forest Service be able to fulfill its responsibility for providing national leadership and a strategic perspective in State & Private Forestry, as it has now for nearly a century.

V. Alaric Sample
Executive Director
Pinchot Institute for Conservation

Introduction

This is the story of how the federal government has tried to influence the management of private forest lands for the benefit of landowners and for the public good -- the conservation of America's forests. The tale has no definite beginning, because like most good stories it evolves from wisps of events to take different forms and shapes as America has progressed from the frontier to become a stable industrial society, and some would claim, a post-industrial society.

In the beginning the United States was land poor. The government had control of nearly all of the land. And the post-Revolutionary government continued to acquire more land faster than it could be sold or given away to the people or the railroads. In the beginning, nearly all wealth was created from the privately held lands. Therefore it was government policy to get public domain lands into the hands of people who would generate wealth from it, mostly by farming it.

In 1831 Congress forbade removal of timber from the public domain. It was the following year that Congress made the first set aside from the public domain, the Hot Springs in Arkansas. By 1854 The General Land Office in the Department of the Interior was charged with protecting the land as well as selling it. The enactment of the Morrill Act in 1862 to set aside lands that could be sold by the states to provide for schools. This Act demonstrated a growing maturity in a nation preparing itself to become a world leader. The Morrill Act and the establishment of the Department of Agriculture, also in 1862 were designed to assist family farmers, not plantation-owning slave holders. Certainly the Morrill Act could not have passed had it not been for the secession of the Southern states.

The Civil War almost seemed a debarkation point for conservation. It was not until the publication of Dr. George Perkins Marsh's

book, *Man and Nature*, that the ideas and the ideals of natural resource conservation began to take hold in America. Marsh's book was published while the war was being waged, just a year afterward Pinchot was born at his mother's family home in Simsbury, Connecticut. Each of these strands led to the creation of what would be termed at the end of the century "the conservation movement" by Gifford Pinchot.

Following the Civil War, logging crews slashed their way through the forests of the South and the northern woods of the Great Lake states to provide the raw materials needed to build the cities of a growing nation. In 1874 President U. S. Grant -- following the lead of Interior Secretary Columbus Delano's annual report -- sent a special message to Congress citing the need for forest protection. The President's recommendation was ignored by Congress. The next year, the American Forestry Association was founded in Chicago. Still a year later, in 1876, a rider on the appropriations act provided \$2,000 for the employment of Franklin B. Hough to study and report on national forest conditions. Hough, a physician like Marsh, had been a leader in the American Forestry Association. He had been concerned about the massive cutting and conversion of the forests in the East. And by 1882 the First American Forest Congress was held in Cincinnati, sponsored by the American Forestry Association. Fifty-thousand spectators gathered to watch national celebrities plant trees in honor of distinguished Americans. National public interest in the future of forests was growing at an extraordinary rate. However political support for conservation on private lands in the form of financial backing has often proven to be irregular.

Forestry conservation, applied on individually or family-owned woodlands, has begged borrowed and piggy-backed its way on many other government programs for more than

100 years. In 1911, the Weeks Act was adopted, establishing a cost-effective cooperative relationship between the Forest Service and state foresters. Other partners have been enlisted as well. Since then, a system of cooperative wild fire control, and insect and disease protection has been firmly instituted nationwide. Billions of trees have been planted or naturally generated to replace those that were harvested, burned over or transformed into crop or grazing land of poor soil quality.

These modest programs got scientific forestry started in America before there was a system of national forests in the Forest Service. The basic ideas were simple: Control wildfires and arson. Control insects and disease. Landowners should be provided the education and technical assistance they needed to plant and nurture forests on private land, both for natural resource protection and for eventual profit. Finally, because landowners, using their own labor and money, protected watersheds and other public conservation values for the public good, taxpayers ought to share some of the cost of installing conservation practices to leverage the private investment.

At first the driving force was fire. The effort began with sporadic interest among the states and it was augmented and supported by Bernhard Fernow, the German-born forester who was the third director of the Division of Forestry in the Department of Agriculture. Fernow was tireless in his attempts to urge creation of state forestry associations to engage in fire protection and tree planting, and he formed working arrangements with agricultural research stations. Fernow constantly encouraged the states to form forestry departments.

When Gifford Pinchot took over the Division of Forestry from Fernow in 1898, he had a larger staff, and he picked up the pace of working with the states appreciably, until he was given the responsibility for the National Forests in

1905. Even though the new Forest Service was overwhelmed with its public lands responsibilities, Pinchot was reluctant to give up his agency's services to private forestry. In 1908 a separate division of state and private forestry was formed.

From the beginning of the state and private forestry initiative, Pinchot operated with a cooperative and conciliatory attitude toward the forest products industry. It was his hope that the industry would begin to use conservation approaches to their business to assure adequate supplies of timber for the future. As time passed, however, Pinchot observed that too many forest products companies were only after short-term profits from their operations. Increasingly, Pinchot, and many other conservationists began to believe that federal forestry regulations would be required to assure that sound forestry practices were being applied on privately owned land across the country.

Tensions created by the threatened forestry regulations built up over the course of many decades, effectively ending the honeymoon between the agency and the industry. During World War II, State and Private Forestry was a full-time agent of the War Production Board. It was put to work getting gasoline and other strategic operating materials in short supply, and even intervening at Draft Boards to get the labor needed to maintain timber production for the war effort. There is some question about whether the forest products industry could have survived during the war without the outside intervention of State and Private Forestry. In 1944, shortly before the end of the war, Congress enacted the Sustained-Yield Forestry Management Act which was designed around cooperative or federal timber units tied to particular companies and towns. Only one cooperative unit was set up at Shelton in Washington State, but five federal units were established.

Following World War II there was a divorce. The Forest Service announced that it would change the emphasis of its State and Private Forestry programs to focus on conservation of smaller forest tracts owned by farmers and other private landowners. The industry recommended to Congress that the Forest Service should be abolished, and that the national forests should be given over to the states. As threats of forestry regulation began to wane, industry pressures to eliminate the agency largely went away.

The story of state and private forestry is one of fits and starts, budget successes and declines, state forestry programs created, abolished and then created again. Finally, the burden of spending for private forestry initiatives, insect, disease and fire control began shifting steadily toward the states as federal funding efforts began a steady decline in terms of overall dollars spent.

Nonetheless, 10 million non-industrial forest land owners now own more than half of the forest land in the United States. And it is upon them that the country must rely for future conservation of land and water, as well as for timber supply; that is, unless the United States decides to become an even greater net importer of wood than it already is.

The cautionary news about these landowners is that their average age is about 60, and only about 10 percent of them have forest plans for their property, provided by consulting foresters, industrial foresters, extension, or government service foresters. The positive side of the situation is that by-and-large, most of those who own the largest tracts of land do tend to have forest plans for their land.

Whatever these property owners decide to do, or not do, with their land, their decisions will have a lot to say about the future condition of the land-based and water resources of the United States, not to mention how they will affect wood

availability and prices. Since 1886 the Forest Service has been trying to get the nation to focus on the strategic national value of conservation on these lands, and their potential to provide the United States with essential raw materials.

As a result of the enactment of the Weeks Act and the Clark-McNary Act many decades ago, federal/state cooperation in forestry -- the "today" approach to government management -- led the way in cost effective and efficient program delivery.

In addition, collaborations between the federal and state governments and private landowner/conservationists have been taking place in the best arena possible. At the forest level.

But still, in the minds of many legislators, those forests were not National Forests, and it has often been difficult for the U.S. Congress to understand that those "other" forests protected watersheds, held down soils, stood sentry duty over wetlands, and provided wildlife habitat and recreation opportunities, just as the National Forests did. In other words they provided national public values -- economic values, social values and environmental values that are of benefit to the entire nation. Many landowners practice conservation on their wood lands without government assistance. They do it because it is good business. Many others do not have the financial resources to conserve.

Yet since 1960, government conservation on private agricultural and forested land has generally declined, while spending for public lands has increased. (A major exception has been the Conservation Reserve Program established in the 1985 farm bill. The program paid landowners to take millions of acres of erosive land out of crop production and plant it into cover crops. Many trees were planted as a result of the program.)

Perhaps this is a good time to reflect on the past of state and private forestry -- how it has reached the place where it is today -- to determine the importance of our modest commitment to forest conservation on private lands and its relationship to the conservation values of the nation as a whole.

This paper is divided into three parts. The first is a chronological outline of the events that led to and shaped State and Private Forestry in the Forest Service until the present time. The second part is a description of the mission and programs of State and Private Forestry. The third portion is a narrative that attempts to describe the cyclical and complex nature of the state and private forestry effort. This study originated with a contract between the Pinchot Institute for Conservation and Joan Comanor, Deputy Chief of the Forest Service for State and Private Forestry.

Special credit must be given to several sources for the information contained here: 1.) the files of the National Association of State Foresters and the office of the Deputy Chief of the Forest Service for State and Private Forestry; from *Breaking New Ground*, by Gifford Pinchot, 1947, Harcourt Brace; from *Bernhard Eduard Fernow: A Story of North American Forestry*, by Andrew Denny Rogers III, 1951, Princeton University Press; from *A Historical Summary of State and Private Forestry in the U. S. Forest Service*, by Eliot Zimmerman, 1976, Forest Service; from *The U. S. Forest Service: A History* by Harold K. Steen, 1977, University of Washington Press; from *Forest and Range Policy* by Samuel T. Dana and Sally K. Fairfax, 1980, McGraw Hill; from an unpublished manuscript by Samuel Cobb, former state forester of Pennsylvania; and from *American Forestry: A History of National, State and Private Cooperation*, by William B. Robbins, 1985, University of Nebraska Press. Special thanks go out to Jerry Williams of the Forest Service for his editing assistance. Any factual errors are mine.

James W. Giltmier, Senior Associate
Pinchot Institute for Conservation
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A Chronology of State and Private Forestry

Nation Building

1781 New York gave up its claim to western lands to the federal government. Virginia, Massachusetts, Connecticut, North and South Carolina and Georgia shortly followed suit. The 233 million acres marked the beginning of the public domain lands.

1788 The first patent to public land was issued by the government on March 4.

1789 The Constitution provided that "the Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States," effectively giving Congress complete control over the public domain.

1799 Congress appropriated \$200,000 to purchase timber for naval construction.

1803 523 million acres were added to the public domain by the Louisiana Purchase.

1804 Congress limited the minimum of public lands offered for sale to 160 acres. The land was to be sold for \$2.00 an acre. No interest was to be charged on deferred payments unless they became delinquent. Certain sections were to be reserved for educational purposes.

1812 The General Land Office was established in the Treasury Department.

1819 The purchase of Florida from Spain added 43 million acres to the public domain.

1821 The Attorney General ruled that timber trespassers on public lands could be removed by military force, and would be subject to fine or

imprisonment.

1827 The President was authorized to preserve the live oak trees growing on the lands of the United States, and to reserve from sale the lands that contained timber valuable for naval stores.

1832 Hot Springs in Arkansas and four sections of land surrounding them, were reserved from future disposal by the United States.

1835 Beginning in this year the Congress frequently gave railroads free right of way through public lands.

1848 A treaty with Mexico added 335 million acres to the public domain.

1849 The Department of the Interior was created to have responsibility for all of the public lands, except those reserved for naval stores. The General Land Office, Patent Office and the Bureau of Indian Affairs were transferred to the new department. Agricultural services were handled by the Patent Office.

1850 Special agents were hired to prevent timber trespass.

1853 The Gadsden Purchase added 19 million acres to the public domain in what is now portions of New Mexico and Arizona.

1854 Congress enacted the Graduation Act to reduce the price of land that had been for sale for a long period of time. Generally the Congress wanted to dispose of as much of the public domain as possible in the shortest period of time.

The Civil War As a Turning Point

1862 The Department of Agriculture was established at less than Cabinet rank. A commissioner of agriculture was appointed.

The Homestead Act was enacted to authorize any person who was a head of family or 21-years of age, who was a citizen, to enter on not more than 160 acres of unappropriated land at a price of \$1.25 an acre, or not more than 80 acres at \$2.50 an acre. Free patent to the land could be obtained if the land were cultivated for five years. Land would revert to the government if it was abandoned.

The Morrill Act granted to each state 30,000 acres of land for each of the U.S. senators and representatives to which it was entitled in the census of 1860. The proceeds from the land were to be put into a fund, with the interest being used for the establishment of agricultural and mechanical arts colleges. States without public lands were given equivalent amounts of scrip. Purchasers of the scrip were not to take up more than a million acres in any one state. Probably one source of the foundation of conservation came from the ideal of establishing colleges that could teach less wasteful agricultural practices. At that time it was common, when farm land "played out" for families to pull up stakes and settle somewhere else -- usually to the west. It is also true that Northern legislators used the opportunity of the Civil War to establish a system that would favor "yeomen" farmers rather than plantations where slavery was practiced.

1863 Gifford Pinchot was born in Simsbury, Connecticut.

1864 *Man and Nature* by George Perkins Marsh was printed. Many people still look upon the book as the beginning of the basic shift in the public attitude toward natural resources, from unfettered exploitation to one of conserving

resources to provide a sustained yield of timber, range and water needed to maintain a growing population.

The Yosemite Valley and Mariposa Big Tree Grove were granted to California to be held forever "for public use, resort and recreation." In 1890 and 1906 the land would be returned to the federal government to become Yosemite National Park.

1866 Right of way across public lands was granted to persons having rights to the use of water for mining, agriculture, manufacturing or other purposes.

1867 Alaska was purchased from Russia, adding 365 million acres to the public domain.

Wisconsin instigated an inquiry into the condition of state forested lands to determine how badly they had been exploited and burned.

1868-1872 Bounties (tax breaks) for planting trees were offered in seven states, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas.

1869 Maine initiated its own forest inventory.

John Wesley Powell explored the Colorado River.

1871 The Peshtigo fire (named after a local river) swept over rural Wisconsin. Regarded as the worst fire in the history of the United States, it killed more than 1,200 people, and 2,400 square miles of forest were burned. The fire was started by careless burning to clear farm land.

1872 Yellowstone National Park was reserved "as a public park or pleasuring ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people."

Arbor Day was first celebrated in Nebraska by Sterling Morton, who would later become the

secretary of agriculture.

\$10,000 was appropriated for the protection of public timberlands from trespass and fraud.

A New York Commission was appointed to study the merits of establishing a forest preserve in the Adirondack Mountains. Bernhard Fernow helped the Commission to draft legislative language to create the preserve. Fernow would later be discharged as Dean of the Cornell University forestry school for clear cutting timber from a university experimental tract on the preserve. Fernow, understaffed, and underfinanced, did not violate good forestry principles, but his wealthy neighbors did not like the smoke, noise nor the mess of timber harvesting.

1873 The Timber Culture Act offered to donate 160 acres of public land to any person who would plant 40 acres to trees not more than 12 feet apart (302 per acre) and keep them healthy for ten years. Any homesteader who would submit proof of having cultivated one acre of trees for each acre in his homestead claim was entitled to a patent at once. The law was later deemed a failure because of misrepresentation and fraud on the part of homesteaders.

Franklin B. Hough read a paper entitled "On the Duty of Governments in the Preservation of Forests" to the American Association for the Advancement of Science. The day after the speech was delivered, the association adopted a resolution to Congress favoring the creation of federal and state forestry commissions. They appointed a committee to follow up on the recommendations, and they named Franklin B. Hough as Chairman. Three years later, Hough would become the first director of the Division of Forestry in the Department of Agriculture. Dr. Hough was not a forester, but he was an avid naturalist, and an early member of the American Forestry Association.

1874 Corrections were made in the Timber

Culture Act to end abuses and allow more variances for compliance.

In a special message to Congress, President Grant called attention to the urgent need for forest protection, and he submitted proposed legislation on the subject.

The Woodlands and Forest Systems of the United States by William H. Brewer of Yale University was published in the "Statistical Atlas of the Ninth Census."

1875 The American Forestry Association was founded in Chicago. For more than 120 years the organization has struggled on behalf of forest protection and conservation. It is presently called American Forests.

1876 The Timber Culture Act was amended again. This time to make further allowances when insect and disease damage caused forest stands to be out of compliance.

A rider on the Appropriations Act provided \$2,000 for the employment of Franklin B. Hough to study and report on forest conditions for the Department of Agriculture..

A forest reserve bill was introduced, but it received no action.

A section of the Colorado constitution urged enactment of laws "to prevent destruction of, and to keep in good preservation, the forests upon the lands of the state...."

The first state forestry association was established in Minnesota.

The Appalachian Mountain Club was founded in New England.

1878 The Timber Culture Act was amended again to permit more variances.

John Wesley Powell's *Report on the Lands of the Arid Region of the United States* was published.

1879 The Sundry Appropriations Act created the Geological Survey and the Public Land Commission. The Commission submitted a preliminary report in 1880 proposing a classification of public lands, recommended sale of timber without the simultaneous sale of the land, and formulated concepts which remain at the heart of government conservation programs.

1882 The American Forestry Congress and the American Forestry Association merged in Cincinnati. In 1889 they became the American Forestry Association.

1883 Nathaniel H. Egleston succeeded Hough as chief of the Division of Forestry.

1885 An act forbade the fencing of public lands, and authorized the destruction of illegal enclosures.

A forestry congress on fire protection for the Southern states was held in Florida

A California Forestry Board was established. Similar agencies were started in New York, Colorado and Ohio. Of the earliest innovating states, only New York's program has survived to this day.

1886 Congress gave statutory recognition to forestry in the Department of Agriculture, creating a distinct Division of Forestry. Bernhard Fernow, a German-born forester, took charge from "a political appointee (Egleston) of no distinction," who had replaced Hough. Fernow campaigned tirelessly for the creation of state forestry associations for fire protection, and state forestry commissions. He was often successful, but by 1900 only nine associations remained. Many commissions failed because of a lack of money. Fernow was also active later on in stimulating

cooperation between his agency and the agricultural experiment stations.

1887 The Hatch Act provided for the establishment of agricultural experiment stations.

The Boone and Crockett Club was founded. Its members were early conservation leaders and big game hunters, including Theodore Roosevelt and Gifford Pinchot.

1888 The California legislature asked Congress to stop disposing of federal lands in that state, and to establish forest reserves to protect watersheds.

1889 The Department of Agriculture received Cabinet status.

The President was authorized to reserve the land in the Casa Grande Ruin in Arizona, the first historic site reservation.

Congress enacted what came to be known as the "Dead and Down Act," which allowed the President to permit Native Americans to cut and sell dead and down timber from Indian reservations. The Office of Indian Affairs did permit timber harvesting prior to 1889 on a case-by-case basis. As a result of the Dead and Down Act, the Office of Indian Affairs began to manage tribal forests for future generations. However, the Bureau had no trained foresters. The result was the Indian agents were often talked into timber contracts that led to fraud on reservation forests. This was especially true in the Great Lakes region, the center of the timber industry in the 1870s and 1880s. When loggers in Minnesota's Chippewa area began harvesting timber, they found little dead and down timber. They began to cut green trees and burned live trees to create "dead" timber. The contract specified 2.75 million board feet, but in actuality 17 million were cut.

1890 A second land grant college act was

enacted for colleges and universities where African Americans were the predominant student populations. In the instances where the land resources were not available, money was made available from the Treasury.

1891 Congress enacted legislation to put a stop to auction sales of public lands -- except for isolated tracts and abandoned reservations. The law empowered the President to set aside as forest reserves federal lands covered with timber or undergrowth, whether of commercial value or not. The law became known as the Forest Reserve Act or "Creative Act."

President William Henry Harrison proclaimed the Yellowstone Forest Reserve.

1892 The Sierra Club was founded under the leadership of John Muir. The organization set out to protect the Sierra Nevada Mountains in California.

1894 Congress prohibited the hunting of birds and animals in Yellowstone National Park, but it permitted fishing. It ordered the Secretary of the Interior to set down rules for timber, mining and general protection of the park for the public benefit.

The Hinckley fire killed 814 people in Minnesota.

1895 The Division of Agricultural Soils was established in the Department of Agriculture.

1896 Secretary of the Interior Hoke Smith asked the National Academy of Sciences to appoint a special National Forest Committee to investigate the forest reserves and recommend a **national forest policy**. Gifford Pinchot and John Muir were prominent members of the committee. Charles S. Sargent of New York's Adirondacks fame was chairman.

A Division of Biological Survey was established in

the Department of Agriculture.

1897 On February 22, President Grover Cleveland established by executive order the creation of 13 new forest reserves covering 21 million acres. An enraged Congress, led by Westerners, adopted an appropriations bill rider which specified the purposes for establishing forest reserves, and provided for their protection and administration. It became known as the "Organic Act." The law specified land trading within the reserves, that led to extensive land fraud.

A Division of Geography and Forestry was established in the Geological Survey to handle mapping and surveying of forest resources, and to collect data.

1898 The first appropriation for protection and management of the forest reserves amounted to \$75,000.

Gifford Pinchot succeeded Bernhard Fernow as chief of the Division of Forestry.

He continued and expanded Fernow's work in trying to increase the number of state forestry organizations. By 1910 there were 25. Four months after he took the job, the agency issued Circular 21 which offered advice to farmers and lumbermen in managing their forest lands.

1899 Mount Rainier National Park in Washington State was established.

Congress directed those involved with the protection of forests to help to enforce, insofar as possible, state game and fish protection laws.

The annual report of the Secretary of Agriculture described some of the accomplishments of the Division of Forestry with its appropriation of \$28,520: "Applications were received from 123 land owners in 35 states for the management of 1,513,592 acres. Of these Applications, 48 were

for large tracts covering 1,506,215 acres. The remainder was for wood lots. Personal attention on the ground was given to 41 tracts covering 400,000 acres in 19 states. The contribution of private owners to this expense was about \$3,000."

The Appalachian Park Association was organized in North Carolina.

1900 The Lacey Act prohibited the importation of any wild animal or bird into the U.S. except as approved by the Department of Agriculture.

Inclusion into the forest reserves was the goal when \$5,000 was appropriated to study the forest conditions in the Appalachians.

The Society of American Foresters was founded by Gifford Pinchot and others.

1901 The name of the Division of Forestry was changed to the Bureau of Forestry -- an upgrade.

The Bureau of Soils was created to replace the Division of Soils.

A Forestry Division was created in the General Land Office of the Interior Department with Filbert Roth as its director.

1902 The Division of Forest Insect Investigations was established in the Department of Agriculture's Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine (BE&PQ) to study insects affecting forest and shade trees and forest products. The Division was a clearing house to provide advice on where and when to apply control measures to insect outbreaks on national forests, national parks, and Indian reservations. The Division maintained technical services to evaluate outbreaks and advise on control methods.

The Division of Forest Pathology in the U.S.

Bureau of Plant Industry had the responsibility of investigating plant diseases. The pathologists were concerned with diseases of forest and shade trees as well as decay of lumber, plywood, and forest products.

The National Lumber Manufacturers Association was formed. The name was later changed to the National Forest Products Association, and then to the American Forest and Paper Association.

Formal cooperation began between the Forestry Division of the Department of Agriculture and the Department of the Interior when the Morris Act was passed expanding the Dead and Down Act by providing for Agriculture foresters to supervise logging on ceded Chippewa lands. Gifford Pinchot anticipated that the Morris Act would "....allow the first application of forestry to government-owned forests in America. Forestry Division timber sale requirements were so disliked by area lumber companies that Pinchot mailed a pistol to his local inspector, Eugene G. Bruce so that he could protect himself. The area in question later became the Chippewa National Forest.

1903 A second Public Lands Commission was appointed by President Theodore Roosevelt. Gifford Pinchot guided its outcome.

President Roosevelt set aside Pelican Island in Florida as the first wildlife refuge.

1904 The Kinkaid Act increased the size of homesteads in Western Nebraska to 640 acres on non-irrigable land.

1905 After failing enactment in 1903, the Transfer Act transferred the administration of the forest reserves from the Secretary of the Interior to the Secretary of Agriculture. All the receipts from the reserves were to be transferred to agriculture for five years, to be available until spent for extension and improvement of the reserves. Gifford Pinchot had convinced Congress that

within five years the reserves would make a profit. Rights of way for dams, ditches and flumes across the reserves were to be prescribed by the secretary of the Interior, subject to state laws.

The name of the Bureau of Forestry was changed to the Forest Service.

Any officer of the United States was authorized to arrest without process, any person taken in the act of violating regulations pertaining to forest reserves and national parks.

The National Audubon Society was founded.

1906 For the first time, fees were charged for grazing on public lands.

The Forest Homestead Act authorized the secretary of agriculture to open for entry, through the Secretary of the Interior, forest reserve lands chiefly valuable for agriculture which were not needed for public purposes. The Homestead Acts were often used as pretexts for stealing federal timber by stripping timber off a claim, and then forfeiting the claim back to the government for the public domain.

The Agricultural Appropriations Act provided that 10 percent of all money received from the forest reserves during any fiscal year was to be turned over to the states or territories to benefit schools and roads of the counties in which the reserves were located, but not to the extent of more than 40 percent of county income came from other sources.

1907 The forest reserves were renamed "national forests." The Appropriations Act forbade any enlargement of national forests except by act of Congress. The bill increased Forest Service appropriations by one million dollars, required an annual report of receipts and expenditures and raised Pinchot's salary from \$3,500 to \$5,000. Twenty-five thousand dollars was appropriated for

a study of the Appalachian and White Mountains to determine whether they should be purchased for national forests.

1908 A cooperative agreement between the Interior and Agriculture Departments gave the Forest Service supervision over Indian reservation timberlands. The agreement was terminated a year later because of differences in the goals of the foresters and the Indian agents, and the differences in attitudes toward natural resources between President Theodore Roosevelt and President William Howard Taft.

An office of State and Private Cooperation was established to prepare planting plans for railroads and coal companies and cooperative ventures with several states. William B. Greeley was named director in **1911**.

At a dinner meeting in New York City, the foundation for the National Association of State Foresters was laid when Alfred Gaskill, forester of the Forest Park Reservations Commission of New Jersey; Clifford R. Pettis, superintendent of forests of New York; Herman Chapman of the Yale Forestry School; George Wirt, chief of the Pennsylvania Forestry Commission; Fred Besley, state forester of Maryland; and Austin Haws, state forester of Connecticut met for dinner at Luchow's. The discussion centered around the need for an association, and Gaskill was named secretary. The following year there was an outbreak in the East of white pine blister rust. With such a mutual cause under their belts, the group in 1910 formed the Association of Eastern Foresters.

A joint resolution authorized the Attorney General to initiate proceedings for the forfeiture of lands to provide for the construction of the Oregon and California Railroad and the Coos Bay Wagon Road.

Payments to counties from the National Forests were increased to 25 percent.

The Branch of Grazing was created to coordinate work with the Department of the Interior and the state boards of agriculture.

President Roosevelt called a conference of governors in Washington, D. C. A National Conservation Commission was appointed, with Pinchot as Chairman.

The first forestry experiment station was created at Fort Valley, Arizona.

1909 The Western Forestry and Conservation Association was organized under the leadership of George S. Long, western manager for the Weyerhaeuser Company. The organization covered the states of Washington, Oregon and Idaho. Paid for largely by forest-owning companies, the association was organized to operate fire control, restoration and prevention programs. Edward Tyson Allen left the Forest Service to accept a position with the association. He called it "a sort of grand lodge for some 30 private cooperative protective associations."

1910 President William Howard Taft fired Gifford Pinchot and Overton W. Price, associate forester. They were replaced by Henry S. Graves and Albert F. Potter.

The General Indian Timber Act was made law., creating a forestry division within the Office of Indian Affairs. Jay P. Kinney was the first Chief Supervisor of Forests. He organized a force only second in size to the Forest Service to manage Indian timber lands.

The Forest Products Laboratory was established at Madison, Wisconsin.

Western wildfires in Idaho and Montana killed 80 fire fighters, burned three million acres and cost one million dollars to fight.

The Formal Opening of Cooperation With the States

1911 The Weeks Law was enacted. The comprehensive bill authorized the enactment of interstate compacts for the conservation of forests and water supply. It authorized \$200,000 to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to cooperate with any state that had provided by law a system for forest fire protection. It authorized one million dollars for fiscal year 1910, and two million each year afterward, up until 1915, to survey and acquire lands located on the headwaters of navigable streams. The bill also created a National Forest Reservation Commission to pass upon lands to be bought, and provide for the protection and administration of the lands. The law led to the acquisition of lands in the Eastern states to become a part of the National Forest System. Generally, these lands had been cut over, farmed out, burned or forfeited for failure to pay taxes.

States which had entered into cooperative agreements with the Forest Service were Illinois, Wisconsin, Ohio, Colorado, Connecticut, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Vermont, Washington, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York and Oregon.

The Supreme Court ruled that Congress had the right to reserve portions of the public domain as National Forests, to delegate to the Secretary of Agriculture authority to make regulations for their use and to provide penalties for the violation of regulations. The court also confirmed the right of the Secretary to charge grazing fees.

1912 The agriculture appropriations act directed the Secretary of Agriculture to select, classify and segregate national forest lands for Homesteading. It directed the Secretary to sell timber at cost to the settlers, and it set aside 10 percent of the gross receipts from the forests to be used for construction of roads and trails in the forests.

On January 9 and 10 a conference was held in Washington, D. C. for a discussion of the fire control program under the Weeks Act. Several cooperating states and states that wished to become cooperators were represented.

1913-1914 The Bureau of Corporations issued an unfavorable report on the forest products industry, citing monopolistic practices. This was during a period when there were wide-spread charges that the Forest Service was in collusion with the forest products industry.

The Oregon State Board of Forestry and the Oregon Forest Fire Association successfully backed a measure to make it mandatory for forest land owners to patrol their lands for fire. Within two years the amount of land under protection had doubled. The State of Washington enacted a compulsory control law in **1917**.

1914 The Smith-Lever Act provided for cooperative agricultural extension work between the Department of Agriculture and the land grant colleges. The Forest Service and the Cooperative Extension Service began a long-standing feud over their respective roles in reaching forest land owners.

The Agricultural Appropriations Act increased from five to 25 percent the payment to states of the gross receipts from lands acquired under the Weeks Act.

The Forest Service established an office of Cooperation with Private Timberland Owners under the direction of E. S. Bryant.

1915 The Research Branch was created in the Forest Service.

Congress authorized the Secretary of Agriculture to grant permits of up to 30 years for summer homes, stores, hotels or any structure needed for recreation or public convenience in National

Forests.

Thirty-one states and Hawaii had acted to set up forestry departments with various names. The only significant financial support was provided by Pennsylvania, New York, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Maine, Massachusetts, Maryland, Washington, Oregon and Michigan. However spending for forest fire protection in all states was meager. Seventeen states were without laws providing for forestry administration, including some of those with serious fire potential.

1916 The National Park Service was created in the Department of the Interior. The Forest Service opposed the creation of the new agency.

1917 In an effort to help with the war effort in World War I, the Forest Service cooperated with the Army finding private and federal sources of wood, especially spruce for airplanes and fir for ships. The agency also increased grazing on the national forests to increase production of wool and meat.

1918 A combined effort was initiated by Henry S. Graves, Chief of the Forest Service, Frederick E. Olmstead and Gifford Pinchot to bring about public control of timber cutting on private lands. Graves, in particular, spoke throughout the United States saying that practical forest management should be applied to private and public lands.

1919 In his annual report, Oregon State Forester Francis A. Elliott asked the federal government to investigate and classify all lands in the state as to their sustainability for either agriculture or timber production. While the Forest Service was doing a commendable job of managing the National Forests, Elliott warned, there were large acreages of private timber "being rapidly mined....and then left unproductive."

1920 Henry Graves resigned as Chief of the

Forest Service because of ill health. He was replaced by William B. Greeley. On the day of Graves's resignation, Secretary of Agriculture Secretary Edwin T. Meredith testified before the Senate Agriculture Committee that Graves had resigned to protest the Forest Service's low employee pay scales.

The first meeting of what was to become the National Association of State Foresters was held in Atlantic City, New Jersey, on November 12 and 13. Sixteen of the 32 states with forestry departments were represented. The meeting was called by the Chief Greeley of the Forest Service to mobilize support for what was to become the Clark-McNary Act. On December 8 and 9 the Association of State Foresters was formally organized in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania where Gifford Pinchot had been made Commissioner of Forestry. William T. Cox of Minnesota was elected president and J. S. Holmes of North Carolina was named secretary.

Pinchot was at odds with Greeley. He believed that Greeley was pushing for state control over a set of problems that clearly were the concern of the entire country. Pinchot's suspicions were correct. Greeley told the state foresters that he favored cooperative assistance to states "not only in fire prevention, but in any phase of forestry or forestry research." Greeley felt that the role of the federal government was to influence state legislation.

The Office of State Cooperation was merged with the Office of State Cooperative Fire Protection, which had been established in 1911.

A survey was conducted to determine the expected annual cost of protecting non-federal forest lands from fire. The study indicated that cooperation could be extended to 35 states for protection of 315,000,000 acres, twice as much land as was then receiving protection. The anticipated cost was \$4,725,000. Congress increased appropriations for cooperative fire management to \$400,000 for each

of the next four years subsequent to receiving the report. During the operation of the fire program under the Weeks Act, the federal government spent a total of \$2,439,826. State and private expenditures during the same period were \$12,652,985 -- five times the federal contribution.

1922 The General Exchange Act allowed the Secretary of Agriculture to exchange National Forest lands with states or private parties for lands of equal value.

\$10,000 was appropriated for construction of camp grounds in the National Forests.

1924 The Clark-McNary Act became law. The bill authorized cooperation in forest fire protection and tree planting between the Forest Service and the states. It promoted the efficient management of woodlots and shelter belts. The bill authorized the purchase of lands anywhere -- not just in the watersheds of navigable streams, as was the case in the Weeks Act -- for timber production and stream flow protection. It authorized the acceptance of gifts to the National Forests, and it asked the Secretary of Agriculture to report any unreserved timberlands that should be added to the National Forest System. It also authorized creation of military reserves as National Forests without interference with their military use.

1925 Economic conditions in the forest products industry began to worsen beginning in 1910. But in the mid to late 1920s production fell from a post-war high of 41 billion board feet in 1925, to 36 billion in 1928 to 10 billion in 1932.

The Cooperative Work Act became law, authorizing the Forest Service to enter into private agreements and negotiate fire control rates to be charged private owners, timber protective associations, and states for their lands within National Forest protection areas.

1926 Notwithstanding the enactment of the Clark-McNary Act, federal spending for forest fire suppression and prevention remained static. A lumbermen's delegation went to see President Calvin Coolidge to ask that the government "hold up its end" in fire protection. Subsequently federal spending went from \$710,000 in 1927 to \$1.2 million in 1929.

1928 The McNary-Woodruff Act authorized eight million dollars to purchase private land in the East under the provisions of the Weeks Act.

William B. Greeley resigned as Chief of the Forest Service to accept an executive position at the West Coast Lumbermen's Association. Robert Y. Stuart was named his successor. J. Girvin Peters was promoted from chief of the Division of State and Private Forestry head of the Branch of Public Relations, which included the Division of State Cooperation. Peters died in October and Fred Morrell, district forester from Missoula, Montana was brought in to replace him.

1930 President Herbert Hoover established a Timber Conservation Board at the request of the National Lumbermen's Association. The board was favored by the American Forestry Association and the Society of American Foresters. The board called for greater cooperation between the government and industry to stabilize the industry and promote conservation. Herbert Smith of the Forest Service, and a friend of Gifford Pinchot, supported assistance for privately owned forests because "the ownership of real property carries with it various obligations" that affect the public interest. By 1932 conditions in the industry became so bad that a Weyerhaeuser executive called the work of the Timber Conservation Board "ineffective, stop gap measures." The debate over the role of the federal government in influencing the management of private lands would continue to the present.

The Society of American Foresters issued a report

on industrial forestry that revealed that only nine percent of the nation's industrial forest holdings were under forestry management.

Forty states and the Territory of Hawaii had developed state forestry organizations.

1931 The Society of American Foresters Committee on Forest Policy submitted a report that endorsed the principle of public control of cutting timber on private lands. The report was adopted by the society by a large margin in a referendum. The majority of those voting preferred state rather than federal control.

A National Conference on Land Utilization was called in Chicago by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities.

Twenty years after the enactment of the Weeks Act and seven years after the Clark-McNary Act became law, eight states still had not established forestry departments. The states were Arkansas, Utah, Iowa, North Dakota, Nebraska, Wyoming, Kansas and Arizona.

The Great Depression created serious unemployment, and forestry protection and improvement were luxury items for poor or sparsely populated states. Unemployment was rampant throughout the nation. The American Forestry Association and other conservation groups recommended the use of public funds to put people to work on forest conservation needs. Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania and California came up with small conservation work programs.

1932 American Forest Industries was incorporated as a subsidiary of the National Lumber Manufacturers Association.

1933 The Copeland Report was submitted to the Senate. Otherwise known as *A National Plan for American Forestry*, it called for a large

extension of public forests, and more intensive management of public lands. The report also recommended public regulation of private forestry. Prepared by Earle Clapp of the Forest Service, it was sharply critical of federal and state commitments to forestry. It said the federal government should take the predominant role in growing trees.

The Civilian Conservation Corps was established by Executive Order as the Office of Emergency Conservation Work. The Forest Service budget had been cut by 50 percent, but now it was going to have plenty of workers for needed forestry work. In the nine years of its operation, 2.5 million young people had served in it. They planted two billion trees, built 122,000 miles of road and six million erosion check dams. Even though all of the CCC funds were federal, many of the states became essential partners in the work that was done.

The Agricultural Adjustment Act was enacted to relieve an economic emergency in agriculture. It set the stage for continuing farm subsidies as well as new opportunities in its future configurations to plant trees such as the Soil Bank and the Conservation Reserve Program.

The Federal Emergency Relief Act provided funds for the relief of unemployment. Some of the money was used for forestry and other conservation activities.

The National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) included codes for fair competition, a large public works program and subsistence homesteads. The Code of Fair Competition for the Lumber and Timber Products Industries led to the adoption in 1934 of a Forest Conservation Code which required the various sectors of the industry to formulate and enforce rules of practice.

In Oregon, the Tilamook Burn and the Wolf Creek fires converged to meet with the remains of the

Salmonberry fire of the previous year, covering 311,000 acres of forest. More than 12.5 billion feet of green timber were destroyed, whose pre-World War II value was estimated at \$20,000,000.

The Soil Erosion Service was created in the Department of the Interior under the authority of the NIRA.

Chief Robert Y. Stuart died and was replaced by Ferdinand A. Silcox. It was alleged that Stuart killed himself because of over work. Silcox launched a program to increase public cooperation with private land owners in the application of forestry, to increase public acquisition of forest land and to regulate private forest practices. A questionnaire to state foresters indicated that they favored regulation as a last resort. If regulation were to come they said, it should be by state or local action with federal cooperation -- but not with federal control.

1934 The Prairie States Forestry Project (shelter belts) was started with emergency funds. It was administered and initially funded by the Forest Service.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt authorized the creation of fish and game sanctuaries in National Forests located in states where legislators approved it.

The Coordination Act expanded on this effort by requiring the Secretary of Agriculture and the Secretary of Commerce to cooperate with state federal and other agencies to develop a nationwide program of wildlife conservation and rehabilitation, to study the impact of water pollution on wildlife, and to recommend remedial actions. The program called for assisting the migration of fish in connection with the construction of future dams.

1935 The Soil Conservation Act became law,

establishing the Soil Conservation Service in the Department of Agriculture, which succeeded the Soil Erosion Service in the Interior Department.

Chief Ferdinand Silcox continued to call for public controls over private timberland operations. The debate finally came to a temporary halt when President Franklin Roosevelt suspended federal regulation-making for the duration of World War II.

At its annual convention the Association of State Foresters recommended that the federal authorization for fire control under Section 2 of the Clark-McNary Act be increased; that the Section 4 authorization be extended to non-farm lands; and that provisions should be made for furnishing technical assistance in forest management on small privately owned woodlands.

A Branch of State and Private Forestry was created in the Washington office of the Forest Service. Earl Tinker, regional forester in the Northeast was appointed the first head of State and Private Forestry with the rank of assistant chief.

The Supreme Court ruled that the NIRA was unconstitutional, automatically nullifying the forest products industry's code and the rules of forest practice that had been adopted.

The Bankhead-Jones Act increased the money and cooperative effort between the Department of Agriculture and the land grant colleges. It authorized expenditures for cooperative extension work and larger endowments for the land grant schools.

The National Wildlife Federation was organized.

The Forest Service was originally designated as the responsible agency for the Roosevelt Administration's shelterbelt program on the Great Plains. The idea was to slow down prevailing and erosive winds by planting strips of trees from

Canada to Mexico. Many in the Forest Service were skeptical about the idea, and a more modest program than the White House called for was undertaken. In 1942 the effort was transferred to the Soil Conservation Service.

1936 The Secretary of Agriculture pointed out to the President that Congress had failed to provide money for the continuation of the shelter belt project. President Roosevelt decided that legislation for this purpose should be broadened to include farm forestry nationwide.

1937 The Disaster Loan Corporation was formed to grant loans necessary because of floods or other catastrophes. Funds were provided for the Northeastern timber salvage work of the Forest Service following a destructive hurricane the next year.

The Norris-Doxey Cooperative Farm Forestry Act became law. It authorized up to \$2,500,000 for the promotion of farm forestry in cooperation with the states. The first appropriation was \$300,000 in 1940.

The first soil and water conservation districts were established.

The Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act became law. Among other things it provided loans for the retirement of submarginal agricultural lands. The Secretary was authorized to cooperate with federal, state and other public agencies to develop plans for a program of land conservation.

1938 President Roosevelt urged a concurrent resolution to establish a Joint Congressional Committee on Forestry to study the present and future situation regarding the forest land of the United States. The report was issued in March of 1941. The report recommended federal financial assistance to the states for the regulation of forestry practices. But it did not suggest the acquisition of private forest land.

Agriculture Secretary Henry Wallace ruled that authority for the Norris-Doxey Act would be administered by the new Soil Conservation Service. The Secretary's action came on top of what the state foresters believed was encroachment on their territory by the Extension Service and SCS. The Forest Service was again promoting a program favoring federal regulation of cutting practices on private lands.

The Federal Communications Commission was considering the regulation of radio frequencies used by forest fire fighters.

A tropical hurricane hit six New England states leaving unprecedented damage in its wake. The Congress appropriated five million dollars to reduce fire hazards on private and government lands. The Forest Service mobilized a major effort in salvage and fire reduction out of the Washington office. Earl Peirce who directed the division of State and Private Forestry, directed the operations, and he would later write: "timber salvage was something entirely new to the Forest Service, a project without modern prototype, one so large and hazardous that no individual, corporation, or state could undertake it, and one that demanded the stabilizing influence of a competent and experienced federal agency."

1939 Ferdinand A. Silcox died and was succeeded by Earle H. Clapp as acting chief of the Forest Service. Clapp used his new pulpit to reinforce his old feelings about the importance of federal regulation of practices on private forest lands.

1940 The Lea Act set up a cooperative program for the protection of forest lands from white pine blister rust, irrespective of ownership, provided that on state or private lands, federal funds must be matched by other governments, individuals or corporations.

1941 American Forest Products Industries (now the American Forest Institute) launched a public relations campaign to explain the industry's opposition to the regulation of logging on private lands. The organization said that the industry was committed to sustainable forestry. They created the Certified Tree Farm Program, which has grown to include tens of thousands of tree farms.

1942 A largely volunteer Forest Fighters Service was created to supplement existing agencies to provide community fire protection in the event enemy agents tried to torch the forests and the War Forest Fire Cooperation Program was devised to strengthen fire protection on strategically important forests.

The Office of Civilian Defense authorized the Forest Fire Fighters Service on July 11, 1942, to help agencies responsible for forest fire protection in meeting war emergency situations. The Service objectives were to provide fire fighters who were equipped and trained to augment local forest fire protection agencies; to educate people to their responsibilities in fire prevention and suppression; and to provide people living in and near forested areas an opportunity to participate in the war effort.

The Association of State Foresters was kept alive during the war by mail and telephone.

The Norris Doxey Program was reassigned to the Forest Service.

Relief emergency conservation programs were eliminated and the money was diverted to the war effort. However conscientious objector camps and volunteers took over many of the forest protection activities formerly handles by the CCC.

1943 Lyle F. Watts was named Forest Service chief. Earle Clapp was named associate chief. Both continued efforts to use the war effort as a reason to regulate private forest land use.

A Timber Production War Project was created as a joint effort between the Forest Service and the War Production Board. It stimulated production to lumber, veneer, pulpwood and other forest products needed for the war effort. With Earle Clapp's regulation rhetoric still fresh in their minds, loggers, sawmill operators and others in the industry were skeptical about cooperation with the government until they discovered they could get rationed gasoline, tires and trucks to keep their operations in business during the war. The Forest Service assisted industry in the planning and development of logging roads, milling techniques and supervision of lumber marking. Women were encouraged to join in the work force. The agency even presented deferment needs to local draft boards. The state and private branch of the Forest Service lost its autonomy to the War Production Board during the war.

The Federal Inter-Agency River Basin Committee was established, created out of Depression-era flood control legislation, an extension of the kind of efforts that led to creation of the Tennessee Valley Authority. After the World War II there would be a Congressional rush to carry out regional schemes for river basin planning and development. The Forest Service was given charge of the forestry aspects of these efforts on the Columbia River, in the New England and New York areas, on the Arkansas, White and Red Rivers, and the lower Mississippi.

1944 The Clark-McNary Act of 1924 was amended to authorize annual increases in appropriations for cooperative forest fire protection with the states, and for studies of tax laws and fire insurance.

The Sustained Yield Forest Management Act authorized the agriculture and interior departments to establish cooperative sustained yield units with

private land owners who qualified, as well as federal units consisting of federal land.

The Department of Agriculture Organic Act authorized the Forest Service to sell and distribute personal property, such as tools and equipment, to state foresters for use in fire protection. The mission was later passed on the General Services Administration.

The Smokey Bear forest fire prevention program was initiated as a cooperative venture between the Forest Service, the state foresters and the Advertising Council. It was a part of a fire prevention program begun earlier in the decade.

World War II Ends: The Beginning of New Ideals of Conservation

1945 Open warfare developed between the state foresters and the forest products industry over the question of providing technical assistance to owners of small woodlots. The state foresters were seeking federal help in developing the legislative framework to do this. It was alleged that at the annual meeting of the Association of State Foresters, the industry repudiated its previous pledge to "support in each forested state a competent, adequately-staffed and financed state forestry organization qualified to manage state-owned lands, to administer and enforce state laws relative to privately owned forest lands and to provide cooperation with all timber owners in solving forestry problems." R. S. Black of the Forest Industries Council told the state foresters: ""If you don't play ball the way industry wants, we will throw our support to the state Extension services."

(*The end of the war seemed to be the major rift point when open competition prevailed between the Forest Service, the state foresters, the Soil Conservation Service and the Extension Service over which agencies should be responsible for providing conservation technical assistance to private land owners. The competition continued at some level of intensity up to the present.)

The Association of State Foresters met once again. There was reported by the state foresters a growing dissatisfaction "with the methods being employed by the Forest Service in dealing with the state foresters, and the degree of cooperation being extended by the federal agency." The relationship between the federal agency and the state foresters had come full circle. In the beginning state agencies were "inspected" to determine whether they met federal criteria as cooperators. Now the states were seeking equality and respect. In 1946, the association reviewed a set of policies and said in part: "The Association of State Foresters solicits the friendship, help and support of both industry and the federal Forest Service, in return for which we are willing to pledge assistance for such policies as we believe will promote better forestry." The state foresters were no longer the weak sisters of the Forest Service, nor of the industry.

A revamped cartoon character named Smokey Bear joined the fight against forest fires in earnest after the war. The final version of the Smokey character was painted by Rudy Wendelin, a Forest Service artist. According to the Advertising Council, Smokey became the best known advertising symbol in the world. In 1950 an orphaned bear cub was found following a forest fire in New Mexico. The cub was transferred to the Washington, D.C. zoo, and named Smokey.

The Soil Conservation Society of America was founded. It was later to become the Soil and Water Conservation Society.

1946 The Bureau of Land Management was created from the General Land Office and the Grazing Service in the Interior Department.

The Indian Claims Commission Act was made law. It established the Indian Claims Commission as an independent agency to hear and determine claims in law or equity arising under the Constitution, laws and treaties of the United States, and other claims that are not recognized by any existing rule of law or equity.

The National Association of Conservation Districts was established.

Assistant Chief for State and Private Forestry Richard McArdle called for closer federal-state cooperation in providing direct assistance to owners of small forest tracts. He called it the key to present and future timber supplies.

McArdle would lead this campaign for three years without much success. The emerging new Congress was increasingly conservative and adverse to spending. In 1947 Richard Colgan, executive vice president of the National Lumbermen's Association accused the Forest Service of dissipating the public's money to serve its own purposes. Negative comments like Colgan's and congressional critics moved the Forest Service to change the Norris-Doxey farm woodland program to one in which reimbursements were made to the states for administration. Nonetheless, assistance to owners of small woodlots remains a Forest Service priority to this day. Several of the states picked up McArdle's cause on their own, prior to the enactment of the Cooperative Forest Management Act.

1947 The Forest Pest Control Act became law, declaring it to be government policy to protect all forest lands, irrespective of ownership, from destructive forest insect pests and diseases. It authorized the Secretary of Agriculture, in cooperation with states and other agencies to conduct surveys to detect infestations, and devise control measures.

1948 The Norris-Doxey Act failed to define the role and authority of the Cooperative Extension Service and the state forestry agencies, particularly with regard to services that would be provided to forest land owners. The issue was supposedly resolved in a joint policy declaration by the Association of Land Grant Colleges and the Association of State Foresters. It was not. Nonetheless the state foresters proceeded with plans for a cooperative forest management act.

The Smokey Bear forest fire prevention program was initiated as a cooperative venture between the Forest Service, the state foresters and the Advertising Council. It was a part of a fire prevention program begun earlier in the decade.

1949 The Clark McNary Act was again amended to authorize increases in cooperative forest fire protection to a maximum of \$20,000,000 each year. Additional increases provided money for tree growing stock for farmers and for the land grant institutions to educate farmers in the management of forest lands.

The Federal Property and Administrative Services Act authorized the Forest Service to loan excess federal property to state foresters for their fire programs. The program has an annual value of \$30 million to the states.

The Supreme Court upheld a Washington State Supreme Court decision that the state had the authority to regulate timber harvesting on private lands.

1950 The Cooperative Forest Management Act became law. The bill authorized annual appropriations of \$2,500,000 to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to cooperate with state foresters in providing technical services to private forest landowners, operators and the processors of forest products. The Forest Service announced that it would give priority to extending assistance to owners of smaller woodlots. The Norris-Doxey Act of 1937 was repealed. The bill was enacted over the protests of the National Lumber Manufacturers Association, and the consulting foresters. The act strengthened the bond between state and federal foresters, and it quickly led to improved technical capabilities of the state agencies.

The Granger-Thye Act authorized the Forest Service to perform work on either public or private lands where justified by the public interest.

The Flood Control Act authorized the Secretary of Agriculture to use his flood prevention funds in

areas where natural disasters had created dangerous conditions. The Forest Service assisted in this work by seeding over fire-scarred lands. The agency also did reforestation, flood and erosion control and similar conservation practices under this authority. Most of the work was done in cooperation with the Soil Conservation Service.

Following enactment of enabling legislation, the six New England States and New York agreed to the creation of an interstate commission to study and make recommendations to the member states with problems connected with the control and prevention of forest fires. The commission was to develop a fire control plan for the region. Under the pact, Canadian provinces were permitted to join. Quebec and New Brunswick did so. R. M. Evans, a former regional forester for the Forest Service, was appointed as the first executive secretary.

1952 Lyle Watts retired. Richard E. McArdle succeeded him as chief of the Forest Service.

The Smokey Bear Act provided formal protection for Smokey's name and character. State foresters became primary partners in the fire prevention program.

Personnel of the Division of Forest Insect Investigations, Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, were transferred to the Forest Service by the Secretary of Agriculture and became part of the Forest Service Division of Forest Insect Research.

1954 The Southeastern Forest Fire Protection Compact was established to promote effective prevention and control of forest fires in the Southeastern Region of the country. It applied to Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia, and to any contiguous state upon the approval of the legislature of the contiguous state. Congress authorized four similar compacts by **1956**.

The Watershed Protection and Flood Prevention Act became law. Administered by the Soil Conservation Service, the forestry aspects of the law were designated to the Forest Service, and thereby to the state foresters who wanted to participate.

1955 The Reciprocal Fire Protection Act specified the circumstances and authorized the Forest Service to commit resources to help suppress wildfires on lands adjacent to the national forests when a reciprocal agreement does not exist.

The Air Pollution Control Act authorized a federal program in air pollution research and training.

1956 The farm bill authorized a new federal/state reforestation program on public and private lands. It authorized assistance to farmers who converted crop land to forest land. Soil Bank became its popular name. The National Lumbermen's Association testified that the program might create a surplus of trees.

The Batelle Institute issued a report on the need for adequate forest fire prevention and control, and to define the problems. The report indicated an urgent need to bring millions of additional acres under protection. The report was influential in getting Congress and the Executive Branch to increase funding for cooperative fire management.

The Federal Water Pollution Control Act Amendments provided money for water pollution control programs on state and private levels and it created a Water Pollution Control Advisory Board.

An experiment called Operation Firestop was initiated in California. Because of the frequency of lightning-started fires in the state, and of the inexorable migration of human subdivisions into forested and brushy areas, fires were an increasing problem that threatened to overwhelm all fire-fighting agencies. Firestop was refined to involve all available fire fighters from all available agencies to fight fires no matter what their origin.

Firestop ultimately become known as Firescope. The program has saved many lives.

1957 Amid a decade-long campaign by the National Lumber Manufacturers Association to turn all federal forestry operations over to the states, a *Denver Post* editorial charged the lumbermen with "unenlightened self-interest." Nevertheless the attacks on programs of assistance to owners of small woodlots continued. These opponents wanted as much money as possible for fire, insect and disease protection, and tree planting.

1958 *Timber Resources for America's Future* was published by the Forest Service, emphasizing the importance to the nation of private timber holdings in the Eastern and Southern regions.

Congress revised the law governing the disposal of federal excess property to give the state foresters working in fire control the same priority to obtain the equipment as federal agencies.

Chief Richard McArdle initiated a series of conferences to discuss ways of improving the condition of small-sized forest properties in private hands. Following the conferences, McArdle set up a team in the Forest Service Division of Program Planning and Special Projects to prepare a "Small Woodlands Program for the Nation." After two years of study the solution to the problems proved to be too expensive and controversial to resolve.

The Outdoor Recreation Review Commission (ORRC) was created.

1960 The Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act became law.

1961 On July 1, 1961, the responsibilities for planning, directing, and conducting forest insect and disease surveys previously assigned to Forest Insect and Forest Disease Research Divisions of the Forest Service Experiment Stations were transferred to administrative divisions in the Forest

Service Regions and in the Washington Office. This transfer of survey responsibilities was a means to intensify insect and disease surveys, facilitate administration of suppression projects, and strengthen research on insect and disease problems.

1962 Agriculture Secretary Orville Freeman established the Resource, Conservation and Development (RC&D) program in the Soil Conservation Service. The purpose of the program was to use conservation of natural resources as the basis for conducting community-centered projects for rural development. Many of the local projects were based on forest conservation. Congress would later give the RC&D Program a permanent authorization in law. RC&D was part of a package of programs initiated by Freeman to promote non-farm rural development. His initiatives would later lead to enactment of the Rural Development Act of 1972.

The ORRC Report stressed the importance of outdoor recreation and recommended the creation of an outdoor recreation bureau. Such a bureau was created in the Department of the Interior by secretarial order.

Richard McArdle retired as chief to be replaced by Edward P. Cliff.

Rachel Carson's book, *Silent Spring* was published. It pointed out the damage that pesticides inflict on the environment.

1963 Assistant Secretary of Agriculture John A. Baker told the Fifth American Forest Congress that the Kennedy Administration's Rural Areas Development Program (RAD) would receive major contributions from cooperative forest management "because it provides technical forestry assistance to America's small woodland owners." For the next three years the Forest Service promoted cooperative forestry as a major component of RAD.

1964 The name of the association was changed to the National Association of State Foresters at a meeting in Anchorage, Alaska..

1966 A major change was made in the State and Private Forestry field organization. A Northeastern Area headquarters was created in Pennsylvania to cover responsibilities for all of the 20 Northeastern states, from Missouri and Minnesota on the West to Maine in the East. In the Southern region, the state and private forestry programs were removed from the regional office in Atlanta and given their own headquarters in the same city. The coverage was from Texas, Arkansas and Oklahoma eastward, and including the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and Guam. Due to objections of Western state foresters a similar reorganization was not approved for the West. There was concern that power blocs would emerge to dominate the National Association of State Foresters. The fears later proved to be without foundation.

A memorandum of understanding was signed between the Forest Service, the State Foresters, SCS and the Extension Service spelling out the respective responsibilities of each agency in carrying out federal forestry programs. Nonetheless, disagreements continued on a state-by-state basis.

1967 During the summer more than 300 fires burned throughout the West. The Division of Cooperative Fire Control worked closely with a group of concerned state foresters to draft a proposed "National Fire Emergency Program." In 1968 the National Governors' Conference asked the Congress to enact legislation to make the fire fighting resources of the Forest Service and the Bureau of Land Management available when fires raged beyond the ability of states to control them.

1968 An urban and community forestry program was authorized for funding under the Cooperative Forest Management Act. The provision allowed government cost sharing for

urban forestry projects that were already under way by the states. It permitted the creation of new projects as funding became available.

Congress enacted the Indian Civil Rights Act, defining Indian tribes and their members as having the same civil rights as non-Indian citizens under the Constitution.

1969 A Uniform Fire Reporting System was approved for nationwide use by all fire control agencies. The purpose of the system was to improve and standardize data on forest fire causes and occurrence.

1970's President Nixon urged tribal self-determination and federal government-to-government relationships with Federally-recognized tribes. Prior to this, relations with American Indian tribes were essentially through the Department of Interior (Bureau of Indian Affairs) and the Indian Health Services. During this decade, tribes began to work with other federal agencies.

1970 The National Environmental Policy Act of **1969** was signed on New Year's Day. It was claimed to be the beginning of the "environmental decade." It established a Council on Environmental Quality in the President's office.

The Environmental Protection Agency was created by executive reorganization with subsequent Congressional concurrence. Through its water and air pollution authorities, the agency would begin to have impacts on uses of private land.

The Clean Air Act was enacted -- and then amended in **1977**.

The first Earth Day was celebrated on March 22. Many believed it was the beginning of the modern environmental movement.

1971 The Forest Service published *Framework for the Future*. It was issued as a goal

statement promising more balance in Forest Service programs.

Between **1971** and **1974** California, Oregon and Washington enacted comprehensive state forest practices acts affecting the management of private lands in those states.

The Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act became law, providing settlement of Alaska native land claims, and specific federal benefits and services for those lands and Native populations.

1972 The state foresters, going around the Forest Service and the Executive Branch, got Congress to commit major increases in fire and forest management funds.

The National Arbor Day Foundation was established in Nebraska, home of the first Arbor Day.

The Federal Water Pollution Control Act became law. Amendments in **1976** would affect the paper industry and the construction of logging roads in terms of point sources of pollution and non-point source run off.

The Rural Development Act contained a title creating a Rural Community Fire Protection Program, authorizing state foresters to organize, equip and train rural fire fighters. An authorization of \$5,000,000 was provided.

The Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act became law. It granted the states and federal government increased control over pesticide use, including the use of pesticides in forestry.

Edward P. Cliff retired as chief and was succeeded by John R. McGuire.

1973 The farm bill established the Forestry Incentives Program to authorize financial assistance through long-term contracts with owners of nonindustrial private forest lands. Funds were

provided for tree planting and timber stand improvement to enhance the management of small private woodlands.

Ken Pomeroy, retired from the American Forestry Association and was named Washington representative for the National Association of State Foresters. He retired again in 1975. He was replaced by Boyd Rasmussen, former Deputy Chief of the Forest Service for State and Private Forestry, and then Director of the Bureau of Land Management.

The Report of the President's Advisory Panel on Timber and the Environment was released September 24.

The Endangered Species Act became law.

1974 The Forest and Rangeland Renewable Resources Planning Act (RPA) became law. Subsequently several states began doing parallel forest planning to complement the planning called for in the act. A major purpose of the law was to provide the states with the most recent information on forest conditions to guide future investment decisions. The Advisory Committee on State and Private Forestry said that RPA would improve the scope and quality of information about private forest ownerships.

The Forest Service listed the following as its goals for state and private forestry: 1). Increasing wood production; 2). planning and development of land and water resources; 3). transferring technology to states and private users; 4). controlling pests and pollution; 5). coordinating the use of chemicals; 6). greater environmental quality in forestry; 7). protecting rural areas from fire; and 8). responsibilities related to emergencies, rural development and specialized employment.

An act was passed giving Woodsy Owl the same legal status and copyright protection as Smokey Bear.

1975 The State and Private Forestry Advisory Committee informed Chief John McGuire that the benefits of forestry research were not finding their way to the field. A year later the Office of Audit praised the agency for its efforts to translate research findings into better forestry. Technology transfer is a major function of State and Private Forestry.

The State and Private Advisory Committee reported that the Office of Management and Budget had encouraged the Forest Service to stop federal participation in cooperative forestry in states that were capable of financing their own efforts. The committee opposed this idea because most states were not able to do the job alone.

Federal law implementing tribal self-determination was established.

1976 The National Forest Management Act became law.

The Tree City USA Program was launched. Today there are 2,200 tree cities.

1977 In his environmental message, President Jimmy Carter, a tree farmer, called for increased productivity from non-industrial private forest lands. However, he questioned whether existing cooperative programs were working. He asked the Secretary of Agriculture to conduct a comprehensive study to determine what kinds of new initiatives would work better. Subsequent studies showed that existing programs were working fairly well, but that they were inadequately funded.

The Clean Water Act became law.

1978 A rewrite of the 1966 forestry agreement was developed between the Forest Service, the Soil Conservation Service, the Extension Service, the Agricultural Conservation and Stabilization Service, the Farmers Home Administration and the National Association of

State Foresters. Competition between the agencies continued nonetheless. The Committee of State Foresters, an advisory committee created under authority of the Cooperative Forestry Assistance Act of 1978, reported that frictions still remained between the Forest Service and the Soil Conservation Service who were allegedly duplicating one another's programs.

The "First Biennial National Urban and Community Forest Conference" was attended by 250 people. Since then six more conferences have been held, each with higher subsequent attendance than previous conferences.

The Renewable Resources Extension Act, the Forest and Rangeland Renewable Resources Research Act and the Cooperative Forestry Assistance Act became law. The Cooperative Forestry Assistance Act was a consolidation of previous laws dealing with state and private forestry. The law also provided for block grants for use as each state determined to execute state forestry plans. By 1981, 47 states were participating in forest resource planning. A committee of state foresters was established to advise and consult with the Secretary of Agriculture in implementing the law, including the apportionment of funds.

The Revenue Act exempted conservation cost-sharing payments for capitalized reforestation expenditures from an owner's gross income.

1979 The National Association of State Foresters held a series of regional meetings to define the needs and priorities of owners of small forest tracts. A national conference was called in Washington, D. C. late in the year. Secretary of Agriculture Bob Bergland spoke to the gathering. He told the attendees that the only real opportunity to assure an adequate supply of timber in the future was to provide tax relief and technical assistance for nonindustrial private land owners. Rex Ressler, former associate chief of the Forest Service, and then, the executive vice president of the American

Forestry Association, had a similar list of priorities, but he said a "tight budget climate" might make getting any new initiatives impossible. Ressler said a broad coalition of forestry interests would be necessary for progress to occur. The coalition didn't materialize.

John McGuire retired as Chief of the Forest Service. He was replaced by R. Max Peterson.

1980 The National Association of State Foresters formulated and published for the first time a list of goals and objectives. It was an expression of freedom from dependence on the Forest Service for leadership in forestry.

Congress enacted the Forest Investment and Tax Credit Act to encourage forest land owners to regenerate forest lands. Several forest products companies began to undertake management activities on their own lands to improve fish and wildlife habitat. They make their lands available for fishing and hunting on a fee basis.

Funds for cooperative fire protection programs were cut in half.

The Reagan Administration consistently supported tribal self-determination and government-to-government relationships. The Forest Service became more active in this arena as well.

The Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act was enacted recognizing subsistence hunting and fishing rights for Native Alaskans, and the protection of lands and waters in Alaska.

1982 Boyd Rasmussen retired as Washington representative of the state foresters. His replacement was Hank DeBruin of the American Forestry Association, and a retired Forest Service employee. The state foresters moved into the headquarters of the American Forestry Association. The foresters also approved the reengagement of the Southern state and private forestry office with the Southern Region of the

Forest Service in Atlanta.

The state foresters said that funding for programs for non-industrial private forestry should have a high budget priority, because these forest owners would be major suppliers of timber in the future. They claimed that a disproportionate amount of money was being allocated to the national forests at the expense of programs for state and private forestry.

1983 The state foresters elected to establish a foundation to accept tax deductible gifts to further the causes of forestry.

Thomas Borden of Colorado, president of the state foresters, told the annual meeting of the Society of American Foresters that shifting the burden of state and private forestry programs from the federal government to the states was "terrible." Borden said the "chronic problems" of funding research, technical advice to small landowners and other state and private programs had worsened. He said politicians operated on the "simplistic philosophy that trees will be there tomorrow."

1984 Melinda Cohen became the Washington representative of the state foresters. She was the first full time employee.

1985 The farm bill contained a provision for a Conservation Reserve to retire erodible crop land. Tree planting increased considerably particularly in the South.

Following a study by Colorado State University, the Forest Service developed a new cooperative fire policy with the states. It determined that fire was primarily the responsibility of the states, and that it was not appropriate to use federal funds for the operational aspects of a state's program. Federal efforts were to focus on technology transfer, information collection or efforts that would produce benefits across state lines, or in the national interest. The new mission of the Cooperative Fire Program was to: Maintain and

improve fire protection efficiency and effectiveness on non-federal wild lands; achieve national benefits which exceed federal expenditures for fire protection on non-federal wild lands; cooperate, participate and consult with the states on fire protection for non-federal wild lands.

1986 Homesteading ended in Alaska. It was the end of the frontier.

1987 R. Max Peterson retired as chief of the Forest Service. He was replaced by F. Dale Robertson.

The Forest Service and the National Association of State Foresters consummated guidelines for future direction and program emphasis for cooperative forestry programs. Signed by Allan J. West for the Forest Service and James A. Stearns for the state foresters, the document says, "At a time when constrained budgets call for careful program planning, direction and management, it can serve as a means of developing support for the key programs that have been emphasized."

1988 The Forest Service published *Forest Health Through Silviculture and Integrated Pest Management: A Strategic Plan*. It dealt with prevention and suppression of fires, insects and disease.

The Secretaries of Agriculture and Interior signed an agreement to support self-determination of Indian tribal governments and identified the responsibilities of USDA agencies to provide program services to Indian tribes. Forest land and resource plans began to include tribes.

The Forest revised and improved its policies towards Indians and Indian tribes through revisions to the Forest Service manual in October.

This was the peak year for tree planting in this century with 3.4 million acres planted across all ownerships.

Tree Planters Notes was published for the first time by the Forest Service. It was a technology transfer publication which provided new research findings and practical information for tree planters and nursery managers.

1989 The Forest Service established policy regarding relationships with Federally-recognized tribal governments.

1990's The Federal government recognizes over 550 Indian tribes (tribal governments), Indian Tribes own 56.6 million acres of land and Alaskan Natives own another 44 million acres. Thirty-four states have Federally-recognized Indian tribes; virtually all states have some Indian population.

1990 Forest Service planning, programs, projects and activities are including Indian tribes more regularly.

The Farm Bill further directed USDA agencies to be more active with American Indian tribes. As a result, the Soil Conservation Service (now the Natural Resource Conservation Service) began placing staff on Indian reservations. The Forest Service, under the Forestry Title of the Farm Bill was also more responsive, and included, as an example, Indian lands in Cooperative Forestry's Stewardship Incentive Programs.

The President's Pacific Northwest Forest Plan officially increased involvement, grants, and sharing of Forest Service staff with Indian tribes.

Historic preservation Acts of the 1990's such as the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act (PC101-601) are providing direct contact and consultation with American Indian tribes.

Because tribes are assuming more and more of their affairs, they are beginning to seek technical assistance from the Forest Service as well as provide knowledge and skills to the Forest Service.

The farm bill contained a forestry title for the first time that expanded State and Private Forestry programs significantly. New initiatives included Forest Stewardship, a Stewardship Incentives Program and a Forest Legacy Program. Urban and Community Forestry Programs were strengthened and broadened. A National Urban and Community Forestry Advisory Committee was also authorized. The authority of the Forestry Incentives Program was limited to December of 1996. However the 1996 farm bill gave the program five more years of life. In other provisions of the bill, rural communities dependent on forest resources were targeted for additional economic assistance. Federal funding for State and Private Forestry was at the highest level ever.

The National Tree Trust Foundation was established under the provisions of the America the Beautiful Act. Its purpose was to promote and seek private sector donations in support of tree planting, and to create a spirit of volunteerism in America's cities and communities.

The Forest Service completed *A Strategic Plan for the '90s: Working Together for Rural America*. The document promised that the Forest Service would work with rural people and communities to develop natural resource-based opportunities and enterprises that contribute to the economic and social viability of rural places.

The Forest Service began an initiative called "New Perspectives," an effort designed to integrate all aspects of natural resources conservation. State and Private Forestry was left out of the initiative because of concerns about private property rights, the initial focus was limited to the national forests.

A National Network of Private Forest Practitioners was established. Many of the groups are RC&D councils

Terri Bates became the Washington representative of the state foresters.

1991 A new tree planting program was

initiated through the Small Business Administration, providing matching grants to municipal governments for tree planting.

The first National Urban and Community Forestry Advisory Committee was established.

Significant reductions in the budgets of several states hindered their abilities to implement expanded federal initiatives.

All states had established urban forestry councils, and had Forest Stewardship Coordinating Committees in place.

The Alliance for Community Trees was established.

Chief F. Dale Robertson announced that the Forest Service was to apply a new management philosophy termed "Ecosystem Management" that concerned management based on an understanding of the relationships of all natural systems to one another -- including human beings. It was the immediate successor to New Perspectives.

1992 State and Private Forestry initiated *Forest Products and Recycling: A New Program for People, Jobs and Environment*. In cooperation with the National Association of State Foresters, the program was put in place to increase economic opportunities from the full range of forest resources through market and community development; by promoting the use of environmentally sensitive methods when forest utilization and processing occur; to increase the understanding of values and applications of forest resources by land managers; to reduce the contribution of wood fiber to the solid waste stream; to reduce dependency on fossil fuels for energy; and expand the life of forest products through increased awareness of appropriate practices and applications.

1993 Chief F. Dale Robertson was forced from office by the Clinton Administration and he

was replaced by Forest Service scientist, Jack Ward Thomas.

The easement for the first Forest Legacy tract was acquired. Community forests total about 10 percent of the nation's forests around 45,000 cities and towns.

The Forest Service published *Healthy Forests for America's Future: A Strategic Plan*, superseding the 1988 plan.

The Forest Service released the agency's recrafted mission, vision and guiding principles, including specific recognition of State and Private Forestry's rural community assistance responsibilities.

The number of urban areas receiving assistance in planting and maintaining trees more than doubled over the number in 1985.

1994 The American Forest and Paper Association's (AF&PA) Board of Directors approved the Sustainable Forestry Initiative (SFI) in which members supported the premise of sustainable forestry on their own forest lands, and vowed to promote it on other lands. AF&PA members agreed to support efforts to protect private property rights, and the ability of all private land owners to sustainably manage their forest lands. The support "stems from the AF&PA membership's belief that forest land owners have an important stewardship responsibility and commitment to society." In keeping with those principles, the Board agreed to practice sustainable forestry; to promote responsible forest practices; to maintain forest health and productivity; to protect biologically, geologically or historically significant sites; and work toward continuous improvement of forest management. Most importantly, the SFI agreed to bring in disinterested third parties to determine the effectiveness of corporate efforts to attain sustainability.

President Clinton met with tribal leaders at the White House and issued memoranda to heads of

executive departments and agencies regarding government-to-government relations with Native American Tribal governments.

Joan Comanor became the first woman to be named Deputy Chief of the Forest Service for State and Private Forestry.

The Forest Service and the National Association of State Foresters cosponsored the "First Conference on Forest Stewardship" at Arbor Day Farm in Nebraska City, Nebraska.

1995 State and Private Forestry published *Tree Planting in the United States*, an annual report that summarizes tree planting, timber stand improvement and nursery production activities on all ownerships in the United States. Trees were planted on 2,421,861 acres, part of a steady decline from 1988 when 3,394,478 acres were planted. Tree planting by industrial land owners was down two percent from 1994 on industrial lands, and by nine percent among non-industrial private land owners. The report indicated that plantings had been increased by the utility industry to offset carbon dioxide emissions from power plants, and by some institutional investors.

1996 In conjunction with the Seventh American Forest Congress in Washington, D.C. several cosponsors held a "Symposium on Nonindustrial Private Forests: Learning from the Past, Prospects for the Future." The symposium was attended by about 250 people, and the Congress had 1400 participants, both were record-setting in terms of attendance by diverse forestry interests.

Bill Imbergamo became director of the Washington office of the National Association of State Foresters when Terri Bates resigned.

Those Who Have Led State and Private Forestry

William B. Greeley	1911 - 1917
E. E. Carter	1917 - 1926
Paul G. Redington	1926 - 1928
Robert Y. Stuart	1927 - 1928
J. Girvin Peters	1928
Fred Morrell	1928 - 1935
Earl W. Tinker	1936 - 1940
Ed I. Kotok	1941 - 1944
Richard E. McArdle	1944 - 1952
William S. Swingler	1952 - 1964
Boyd L. Rasmussen	1964 - 1966
E. M. Bacon	1966 - 1972
Thomas C. Nelson	1972 - 1973
Phil L. Thornton	1973 - 1979
Einar L. Roget	1979 - 1981
John H. Oman	1981 - 1986
Allan J. West	1986 - 1993
Joan M. Comanor	1994

The State and Private Forestry Mission

Although state and private forestry programs have nearly always had budget problems in comparison to the National Forest System, the number of programs has continued to broaden considerably beyond fire protection, the original impetus for federal and state cooperation.

Fire protection and pest control continue to be vital components of the State and Private Forestry mission. In addition assistance is provided to maintain and improve forest health; to provide assistance and improve management on state and private forest, range and urban lands; provide assistance to communities in developing natural resource-based opportunities and enterprises that contribute to the economic and social viability of these communities; and provide education to increase appreciation of natural resources and contribute to their sustainability.

These programs build and strengthen the capacity of the states to achieve sustainable ecosystems and communities through partnerships. Technology transfer is provided to the states and other partners to enable better assistance to land owners and communities for the sound management of their natural resources and communities. The goals of the Cooperative Forestry Program are to 1) achieve healthy, sustainable forests through the voluntary action of private land owners; 2) viable communities where citizens have the capacity to create strong economies and liveable environments; and 3) informed decision-making by landowners and other citizens that benefit themselves, society, and future generations.

Program Descriptions

-- **Federal Lands Forest Health Management.** The program provides for professional forest health assistance, detection

surveys and evaluations on all federal forested lands. A major objective is to assure that resource managers have the latest scientific information on insect diseases. The special projects program assesses the impacts of air pollution and pests on forest health and provides information for making better management decisions. A portion of the budget is set aside to carry out the President's plan for the Pacific Northwest.

-- **Cooperative Lands Forest Health Management.** This program is a cooperative effort with the states to survey and evaluate insects and diseases and monitor forest health. In fiscal year 1995 the program surveyed 482 million acres of state and private lands to detect pests.

-- **Cooperative Lands Fire Management.** The program protects more than one billion acres of non-federal land from wildfire. Each federal dollar in the program leverages on average two dollars in state funds. The program provides technical assistance and related assistance in fire protection on non-federal lands; loans federal personal property to state foresters and rural communities for their fire protection programs; provides a cooperative nationwide education and advertising program on fire prevention. Smokey Bear is the symbol of the program.

-- **Forest Resource Management Program.** Provides on-the-ground technical assistance for conservation forestry through the state foresters. The emphasis is on owners with smaller, non-industrial forests. Each federal dollar is matched by the states.

-- **Forestry Incentives Program.** The program offers non-industrial private landowners financial incentives to plant and maintain forests. By providing land owners with the opportunity to defray some of the costs associated with making such long-term investments, the program is able to overcome a

reluctance among land owners to plant and maintain their forests. The Forest Service, the Natural Resources Conservation Service and the state foresters administer the program jointly.

-- **Forest Stewardship Program.** The program assists forest land owners to develop long-term Forest Stewardship Plans to guide the management of their forest properties.

-- **Stewardship Incentive Program.** Provides cost sharing assistance to eligible landowners to implement approved multiple resource practices on private forest lands. The program shares with land owners the cost of programs that provide major environmental values to society.

-- **Forest Legacy Program.** To preserve, through lease or purchase, environmentally important forest lands that are threatened by conversion to non-forest uses.

-- **Urban and Community Forestry.** The Forest Service provides leadership in improving and expanding urban forest ecosystems, thereby enhancing the natural, economic and social environments of the nation's 52,000 towns and cities. More than 7,000 communities and 7,000 volunteer organizations participate each year. Requests for assistance exceed the capacity of the present program by eight times.

-- **Economic Action Programs.** Assists eligible, resource dependent communities with technical and financial assistance to help them strengthen and diversify their local economies. In fiscal year 1995 the program assisted about 1,600 rural communities.

-- **Rural Development.** The program works with partners to help communities develop natural resource-based opportunities and enterprises through a more diverse use of forests, such as wood, recreation, heritage resources,

minerals and scenic quality.

-- **Forest Products Conservation and Recycling.** Many opportunities exist for improving the contribution that wood and other forest products industries can make to strengthen local economies through value added processing, incorporation of new technologies and recycling. Thirteen federal specialists work with 70 state specialists and 25 more from the Extension Service by assisting and stimulating business expansions or start-ups involving recycling of wood and wood fiber wastes.

-- **The Native American Program.** The program works proactively with Indian tribes and their interests and rights on National Forest System lands, or in partnership activities on adjacent tribal lands. Under the provisions of the Indian Civil Rights Act of 1968, Native Americans were granted the opportunity to perform federal activities that were formerly done for tribal interests by the government. The Forest Service also provides technical assistance as needed to promote the economic and social well-being of Indian tribes.

-- **The Timber Bridge Initiative.** The program addresses the need for safe, affordable, short to medium-span bridges, posts, guard rails, sound barriers, retaining walls, marine facilities and railroad bridges to help improve transportation infrastructure and create markets for wood – especially for under-used species of trees. The program finances demonstration bridges and other wood applications in transportation construction. The efforts are linked to the Rural Transportation Assistance Program of the Federal Highway Administration.

-- **Pacific Northwest Community Assistance.** Provides economic adjustment assistance to states and communities affected by the President's Forest Plan for the Pacific Northwest. It provides economic assistance to communities and people that have been adversely affected by

reduced timber harvest levels on the national forests. The effort is aimed at diversifying local economies. The program is a part of a much larger, multi-agency effort charged with implementation of the President's plan.

-- **Natural Resource Conservation Education.** The program serves as a catalyst for the coordination and integration of the many educational programs throughout the Forest Service. Working with many partners at all levels, the program conducts about 200 projects a year reaching more than 200,000 students and 10,000 teachers.

-- **Cooperative Forestry National Income Tax Servicing.** Working with and through state partners, the program provides non-industrial private forest land owners with a consolidated source of information about complex tax issues associated with forest maintenance and management.

-- **Seedlings, Nurseries and Tree Improvement Programs.** This cooperative federal-state program provides technical and financial assistance to state forestry programs, enabling them to support non-industrial forest owners to improve forest productivity on their lands. The program assures that there will be an adequate supply of high quality seedlings available to those who need them. The program supports publication of *Tree Planter's Notes*, *Forest Nursery Notes* and the annual *Tree Planting Report*. It also prepares training materials for state nursery personnel.

-- **Environmental Quality Incentives Program.** Provides cost sharing assistance to land owners to compensate for the lack of market incentives to invest in public environmental quality such as watershed and wildlife protection. The program targets areas of special environmental sensitivity. The program is administered by the Natural Resources Conservation Service and the Farm Service

Administration. Forestry practices that are supported include plantations, forest stand improvement, site preparation for natural regeneration and forest stand analysis. Cost share assistance comes from the Commodity Credit Corporation.

-- **The Conservation Reserve Program.** This is a voluntary program that offers long term rental payments and cost share payments to farmers and ranchers to establish permanent vegetative cover on environmentally sensitive cropland. The purpose is to reduce soil erosion and improve water quality. Participation is limited to erosion-prone agricultural land. The program is administered by the Farm Services Agency and the Natural Resources Conservation Service. State foresters and local soil and water conservation districts are also partners. Tree are frequently used as the permanent vegetative cover.

-- **Wetlands Reserve Program.** This voluntary program offers financial support to land owners for wetlands restoration and protection projects. Trees are often the plantings of choice for this work, although forested lands are not eligible for assistance if they are benefiting from the Conservation Reserve Program. Assistance is based on the potential benefit that the public may realize from wetland protection. The program is administered by the Natural Resource Conservation Service.

-- **Wildlife Habitat Incentives Program.** The program provides cost sharing assistance to private landowners to allow them to enhance wildlife habitat on their lands. Preference for assistance is based on the amount of public benefit that might be realized. The program is administered by the Natural Resource Conservation Service in cooperation with the Cooperative State Research, Education and Extension Service, the Forest Service, the state foresters, the Environmental Protection Agency, the Fish and Wildlife Service and the state fish and wildlife agencies.

-- **Watershed Programs.** Many of the most productive watersheds in America lie predominantly in wooded areas where forest cover makes significant contributions to water quality and aquifer recharge. Trees slow down rainfall and runoff. The Forest Service participates in a long list of multi-party collaborative efforts to optimize watershed functions. The development by the agency and the state foresters of voluntary best management practices included measures to prevent forestry-related watershed contamination. The Forest Service assists states in putting on workshops for land owners and forestry professionals on the best management practices.

"Cooperation is the Key"

The Forest Service in State and Private Forestry

From the time that Bernhard Eduard Fernow began to urge the creation of state fire protection associations prior to the arrival of the 20th Century, cooperation with the states -- or anyone else who wanted to cooperate -- was the key to the state and private forestry initiatives of the Forest Service. Fernow even went so far as to help to draft the legislative language that would create the Adirondacks forest preserve in New York.

Fernow did a lot of work for the railroads, and in exchange, they would provide him with free passage on their trains. Fernow's travel budget was so small that he frequently traveled on his own money.

As for Gifford Pinchot, he would help anyone who walked in the door that agreed to engage in "practical forestry." During the Pinchot administration, direct assistance was provided by the Forest Service to land owners. Pinchot's early clients regularly included large forest products companies. For both Pinchot and Fernow it was a crusade, and as far as they were concerned, there was no time to waste, because they could both see national timber shortages over the horizon. Selling conservation forestry to companies that employed no foresters only made good sense to them.

However, by the time William B. Greeley became chief of the Forest Service in 1920, a definite pattern had settled in that made the State and Private Forestry portion of the Forest Service a hand maiden to the forest products industry. In his book, *American Forestry: A*

*History of State and Private Cooperation*¹ William B. Robbins concludes:

"Forest Service cooperation was much more than the selfless sharing of scientific expertise in forestry; it involved the dissemination of information and financial assistance to promote one of the country's basic industries. The successes and failures of Forest Service cooperative programs are part of the larger history of the development of the forest products industry and the evolution of the modern industrial economy."

After he left the Forest Service to become the executive director of the West Coast Lumbermen's Association, Greeley frequently said that what was good for the lumber industry was good for the country. He thought it only natural that the Forest Service should provide assistance of all kinds to one of the nation's most important industries. Even during Pinchot's term as chief, the Forest Service was often accused of being in collusion with the industry. Pinchot's successor Henry S. Graves was highly threatened by this criticism. It was he who had to carry out Pinchot's promise that the national forests would make a profit.

What kept the relationship with the industry from becoming too chummy were two things: First of all a campaign of 40 years duration in which Pinchot and others sought federal intervention into the management of private timber lands, and the insistence of the Forest Service that owners of small wood lots needed technical assistance to better manage and understand of their land.

¹ Robbins, William G., *American Forestry: A History of National State and Private Cooperation*, 1985, University of Nebraska Press.

In the 20th Century the forest products industry has been highly ambivalent on the subject of non-industrial forest land owners. Some companies have aggressively practiced service forestry for decades to assist land owners in maximizing the production of wood from their lands. These firms have been as important a force for conservation as any government programs have been. On the other hand, some other companies were not very interested in having a large pool of land owners who understood the value of their timber.

At times the National Lumbermen's Association testified to Congress that the cooperative programs with individual landowners were a waste of the taxpayers' money. The association even mounted a campaign shortly after World War II to turn the national forests and the mission of the Forest Service over to the states. At other times, the industry hired specialists whose job it was to figure out how to get more production out of the non-industrial lands. Still, on other occasions, the industry used the state foresters to lobby the Forest Service to carry out their wishes.

If, as Robbins claimed, State and Private Forestry was just a stalking horse for the industry, it has been a curious love/hate relationship of extraordinary duration.

A Forest Service publication that was written about the state and private programs in 1981 says, "Cooperation is the key -- cooperative forestry assistance programs are the means -- in carrying out the mission of State and Private forestry." That nearly says it all. The other part is the voluntary, non-regulatory programs that have evolved over time.

In the early days of State and Private Forestry, Forest Service personnel who interacted with the states were called "inspectors," and there were many incidences of hard feelings when the states might report fire protection coverage that was invisible to the inspectors' eyes. The atmosphere became much more cooperative when

the federal employees were no longer called inspectors.

But this situation is only a reflection of the transition that has taken place in the relationship between the Forest Service and the states. When the Clark-McNary Act became law in 1924, many of the states had no forestry departments. Many of those that did had poorly trained, badly paid employees. They needed federal "inspectors" to measure the quality of their work and provide technical assistance.

After Clark-McNary was enacted, a dramatic change began to occur in the state agencies. Several of the states began to hire and train more skilled employees. But it was slow going. Recall that only five years after the act became law, the stock market crashed and the nation fell into the Great Depression that lasted in some states until the beginning of World War II in 1941. It was not until the end of the war and the beginning of the scholarships provided for under the G. I. Bill of Rights that colleges and universities began turning out foresters in greater numbers. Throughout the war the Association of State Foresters had to be held together by writing letters back and forth between the states.

The Cooperative Forest Management Act was enacted in 1950, giving the Forest Service the authority to extend management assistance to all classes of forest owners, and provide technical assistance to others. But the Forest Service said it would concentrate on small ownerships. That same focus has prevailed ever since using voluntary, non-regulatory approaches that have been the cornerstone of the State and Private Forestry programs.

Today the relationship between the Forest Service and the state foresters is largely administrative. But the word, "cooperation" still dominates the connection. Closely integrated partnerships still prevail with regard to fire, insect and disease protection. The value to the nation of these protection programs is truly incredible. In the

early 1900s, 20 to 50 million acres of forests were burned each year. Today wildfire losses have been reduced to between two to five million acres annually.

State Stewardship Committees now represent all of the forestry-related interests in each state, such as watersheds, fish and wildlife, so that there is a broader constituency for multiple use management of forests. Although there are few specialists remaining in the West, state foresters in the South and the Northeast can call upon Forest Service personnel for technical help in fire prevention, insect and disease control, rural development and urban forestry.

The continued separation of the Northeastern Area Office for State and Private Forestry in Radnor, Pennsylvania, from the Northeast Regional Office in Milwaukee, appears to have served the purpose of maintaining the strongest federal presence in that area, as opposed to the Southern office that was re-merged with the Southern Regional Office in Atlanta.

In 1978, a frustrated Secretary of Agriculture Bob Bergland brought together all of the conservation agencies in the Department to end once and for all the competitive sniping and back-biting that has always prevailed between and among the agencies. Each agency head signed off on an agreement that spelled out the responsibility of each organization for carrying out the land and water management programs of the Department. Although federal downsizing, profound program changes and a steady pattern of budget cuts have reduced much of the competition, it still exists to some extent.

Nevertheless current program administrators are doing a much better job of interagency cooperation than was ever witnessed before. At the First National Conference on Forest Stewardship in 1994, Chief Paul Johnson of the Soil Conservation Service said:

"I think there is a real change going on

in this land. I certainly am seeing it among the people I work with. Let me give you an example. The chief of the Soil Conservation Service² is a forester. The chief of the forest Service is a wildlife biologist. The chief of the Fish and Wildlife Service is a forester....I think there's a desire among all of us across this country to get out of our little boxes, to get out of our disciplines, to look around, and to start sharing our ideas and experiences with each other. Through coming together and breaking down disciplines, we are really going to make progress on the land." (Mollie Beatie, the director of the Fish and Wildlife Service in 1994, has since died in office.)

Chief Johnson's remarks continue to reflect a sense of urgency among natural resource professionals that continuing land fragmentation and urbanization are harmful to all species of plants and animals. Secondly, there is at last an acceptance of how little natural science really understands about the consequences of what is happening to the land and water resources with regard to the long range future. An attitude is developing that says, when facing uncertainties about the future, delay the future with conservation measures as long as possible until we understand the options a lot better.

There is also a newly recognized element of the conservation equation, and natural resource scientists are now beginning to understand that the biological sciences do not have all of the answers to tomorrow's conservation responses. They have not given enough attention to the idea of human beings as a part of nature. All of the best science in the world is not much good if the public and program clients will not accept it. At the Stewardship conference, Fred W. Cabbage of North Carolina State University reflected this when he said:

²The name of the Soil Conservation service has since been changed to the Natural Resource Conservation Service.

"Forest policies for today and for the future must strive to achieve accepted social and private forest goals. Policies must be politically and practically acceptable to forest landowners, must minimize costs for owners and taxpayers, and must effectively achieve the goals intended. Meeting these objectives will be a challenge for policy makers as they try to broaden our missions and satisfy increasing demands for commodity, amenity and ecological values from forests."

Deputy Chief for State and Private Forestry Joan Comanor seems to feel that Cubbage's tests have largely been met. In a presentation to a 1996 Symposium on State and Private Forestry she said:

"We fostered the establishment of a forestry organization in each state. Today we have strong forestry organizations across the country that provide the direct interface with (non-industrial private forest) land owners for our programs. A more recent example is the Forest Stewardship Program and the Stewardship Incentives Program, both established in law in late 1990. More than 100,000 NIPF land owners have become active participants in developing management plans covering some 12 million acres. We have done a good job in synthesizing information, such as the reports on forest insect disease conditions and trends, and in working cooperatively with states in conducting suppression activities, such as those to stop the spread of gypsy moths. We have had only 'fair success' in getting understanding and support at the national level for the importance of NIPF owners in addressing national public policy issues. Areas that need strengthening include using a wider array of techniques to increase access by NIPF land owners to knowledge and expertise in forest management (e.g., the electronic information highway, coached/mentored continual learning workshops on forest management, etc.)."

The state and private forestry programs of the Forest Service continue to focus in a major way on the non-industrial owners of forest tracts

who own 59 percent of the timberland in the United States. This land is divided among 10 million owners. Only 600,000 landowners have holdings in excess of 100 acres.

(Other ownerships include 27 percent public lands, and 14 percent forest industry lands.)

The thing that federal and state foresters want land owners to do is to make investments in the long-term conservation and productivity of their land when there is no guarantee that the people making the investments will ever live to realize any benefits from their investments. Lester Thurow of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology put the problem into context when he said:

"Capitalism systematically underinvests in the present. It won't invest today to prevent future environmental damage. It won't invest today to build the infrastructure necessary to prevent tomorrow's congestion. It won't invest enough in research and development to insure a dynamic economy in the future."

Thurow notwithstanding, tens of thousands of land owners do make these kinds of investments. In addition to the government programs the 72,000 members of the industry's Tree Farm Program manage 88,823,971 acres of forest land. The National Woodland Owners Association, the Forest Farmers Association and several state associations have also been effective in organizing for forest productivity and conservation. Another factor is an intangible. Many people are strongly moved to care for the land for future generations.

Gifford Pinchot was enraged at the despoliation and tree mining that he saw on many of America's forests. He favored a tough regulatory policy toward land owners who refused to care for the resources that they owned. His position was that the government had virtually given away tens of millions of acres of land in order to settle the country quickly. He felt that the

public ought to have some say-so if some people refused to care for the gift. At times, Pinchot and a few supporters, like Bob Marshall, stood up to the entire American forestry establishment in their passion for regulation.

After his death in 1946, Pinchot actually won his battle after a fashion. The courts have upheld the right of states such as Oregon, Washington and California to enact tough forest practices laws that regulate what land owners can do on their lands. The ability of communities to plan and zone has also be upheld. Now, Nevada, Idaho, Alaska, New Mexico, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Maine have adopted forest practices laws. aul Ellefson of the University of Minnesota estimates that nearly 22 percent of the nation's privately owned timberland is subject to state regulatory programs. However, no Southern or Midwestern states have adopted such laws.

But according to Carl Reidel, who dredged up the above quote from Lester Thurow, American tradition favors the land owner, even if he and she are wasteful of resources and spew pollution on their neighbors' lands. Speaking at a 1992 Congressional Research Service conference on Multiple Use and Sustained Yield, Reidel of the University of Vermont said:

"Neither the conservative selectmen of my New England town, nor Vermont's liberal Congressional delegation are willing to get caught in that political quagmire, (of land use regulation) even though they know that our town and the nation are facing very serious land management problems. That remains true even when they come to understand that there are creative ways to deal with land use problems without compromising individual property rights. Likewise they cringe at the mention of any schemes which tread on the unwritten Public Trust Doctrine by relinquishing partial rights in public lands, even if the trade-off is economically and ecologically sound. Even worse is to suggest that they consider adoption of any unfamiliar European ideas of public/private cooperation."

Is there national polarity over land use so strong as Reidel said it was?

Is the mission of State and Private Forestry in the Forest Service merely a dangling piece of chain mail left over from the days when Pinchot tilted at the windmills of land regulation on private lands?

Carl Reidel said in his presentation that "It is no exaggeration to say that most attempts at truly public/private cooperation in land and resource management have failed, usually on the threshold of private property rights."

But Reidel forgot the modest, voluntary, non-regulatory approaches to private land conservation that have been working for many years in the Forest Service and the Natural Resource Conservation Service. At the 1996 Symposium on Nonindustrial Private Forests, Deborah Gaddis of North Carolina State University reported:

"The Soil Bank, (the Conservation Reserve Program and the Agricultural Conservation Program) also were designed to reduce soil erosion. The tree planting done under these programs was quite successful in establishing permanent timber cover, an excellent way to reduce soil erosion to negligible amounts. Ribaud et al (1989) reported that the reduction in erosion for cropland enrolled in the 1986 CRP averaged 27 tons per acre per year. Total gains for the entire program....were expected to exceed 7.5 billion tons of soil....Timber incentive programs produce water quality benefits by reducing erosion and sedimentation, and filtering pollutants."

She went on to say that if more land owners were made aware of conservation incentive programs, participation would increase by 19 percent. She concluded that studies of incentive programs have shown that they are effective in meeting production and environmental goals. "They are cost effective and provide benefits to society in excess of costs," she said.

When President Richard M. Nixon gave birth to the Environmental Protection Agency through executive reorganization in the early 1970s EPA had a patina that all new things seem to have. Coupled with the creation of the Council on Environmental Quality and the National Environmental Policy Act, for a time it appeared that the "environmental movement" had superseded Pinchot's old "conservation movement." New, non-governmental environmental organizations popped up from nowhere as air, water and land pollution began to replace natural resources as the hot items in the new movement. New terminology like, point and non-point pollution entered the ecological glossary. EPA developed a decidedly urban bias, and with the help of Congress, the agency spent billions of dollars to build secondary and tertiary sewage treatment plants. The water quality of the United States benefitted enormously.

In the beginning, EPA's approach to non-point source pollution was to worry about leaves and other pollutants in the city storm sewers. But then the agency discovered agricultural run-off, a major cause of water pollution. Not long after that, EPA discovered the Forest Service, the Soil Conservation Service, the state foresters and the Extension Service who had been working for years with private land owners to eliminate this form of pollution with tree planting, terracing, grass waterways and other useful conservation practices.

There was no luster of newness on the Agriculture Department programs. They had been tainted with the rust of "relief" from the Great Depression and "landowner welfare" from the Great Society programs of President Lyndon Johnson. In an era when politicians from both political parties were conditioning the public to believe that the federal government could do nothing right, old was automatically bad, and new was clearly good.

There was a threat that a scenario would develop in which EPA would duplicate the

programs of the Department of Agriculture. It took an enormous amount of work and bridge building between and among the agencies, in Congress, and by traditional non-governmental conservation organizations to avoid that tragic mistake. Only in recent years has a close working relationship developed between all of these players. Serious interagency competition and attitudes of "not invented here," had to be overcome. This story does not appear in the chronology presented in this work because it took countless acts of heroism and determination over 20 years for this story to play out. And some would say that it is not over yet.

Every Since Interior Secretary Harold Ickes set his cap to move the national forests back to his department during the first Franklin D. Roosevelt Administration, there has been routine political turmoil over where agencies affecting the environment ought to be located within the government, and over who should be able to set policy within them. In recent years, Presidents Richard Nixon and Jimmy Carter attempted to create departments of natural resources. They were not successful because the regular constituencies of each of the affected agencies rose up to defeat the plans.

While the conservation programs of the Department of Agriculture may not have a new car smell or an urbane sheen, they serve well to enhance and protect the open lands of the United States -- both public and private. They have provided the nation with affordable food and fiber, wildlife habitat, wetland and watershed protection and a geographic sense of who we are as a nation.

But it is not fair to simply compare the values of "old" programs and "new" programs. Baird Callicott, an environmental ethicist from the Department of Philosophy at the University of Wisconsin in Madison says that what is truly important is the dichotomy began between the "conservation" politics of Gifford Pinchot and the "preservation" politics of Pinchot's mentor, John Muir, who founded the Sierra Club. Callicott prefers preservation over conservation because

conservation implies that human beings needs from natural resources will be met before the needs of nature are considered.

Writing in *The George Wright Forum*,³ Callicott says that while he appreciates Aldo Leopold's attempt to bridge the gap between preservation and utilitarianism, "Currently, (Aldo) Leopold's harmony with nature philosophy of conservation is called 'sustainable development.'"

Callicott wrote:

"Sustainable' is vague and often used by economists to mean passing on enough capital and technological know-how to replace exhausted natural resources and compromised biological systems with artificial alternatives. And 'development' is often a euphemism for the building of high-rise condominiums, shopping malls, parking lots and subdivisions. In calling for a 'universal symbiosis with the land,' Leopold had in mind changes far more radical than, say, building more energy-efficient tract houses and automobiles. He was proposing, rather, a veritable revolution in the way we human beings inhabit and use the natural environment."

Callicott dismisses Pinchot's conservation as being founded on a "reductive, pre-ecological scientific paradigm." But then he says that "John Muir's philosophy of wilderness preservation is equally obsolete. First, no less than Pinchot's, it perpetuates the pre-evolutionary strict separation of 'man from nature.' It simply puts an opposite spin on the value question, defending bits of innocent, pristine, virgin 'nature' against the depredations of greedy and destructive 'man.'" Callicott said it also ignored the presence and needs of pre-Columbian human beings (Native Americans).

He wrote that "sustainable development" leads to confusion among foresters with the concept of "maximum sustainable yield." "Ecosystem management, on the other hand, aims first and foremost, to maintain the health and integrity of ecosystems. Commodity production is a secondary and subordinate aim, to be pursued to the extent that it is compatible with maintaining the health and integrity of ecosystems."

Callicott was somewhat rigid as he dismissed the values of early conservation heroes. He did not consider the values and needs of present day land owners at all. But on the other hand he did not take into consideration the flexibility of existing State and Private Forestry programs, programs that have had established incentives programs for watershed, wetlands and wildlife habitat -- not to mention urban ecosystems. The idea is that environmental protection and extraction of human needs from forests do not have to be mutually exclusive of one another.

He did not take into account the enlightened self-interest of cooperating land owners. Why should human beings practice conservation? In all of known history no other species has worried about it. Perhaps the first two ethical principles for resource protection and enhancement are: First we must work together to save our own species, and secondly, to do what we must to protect a lot of other species of plants and animals as well, because we often do not fully understand how our survival depends on their survival.

Neil Sampson, senior fellow of American Forests, gave these long-time conservation efforts a sort of grandeur when he spoke at the Symposium on Nonindustrial Forests in early 1996:

"Much of America's progress in agriculture and forestry, and a host of other areas, can be traced directly to past decisions that created publicly supported universities and educational programs, established research facilities, created

³Callicott, J. Baird, "Sustainability in Historical-philosophical Context," *George Wright Forum*, Vol. 10, 1993, Number four.

natural resource inventory and data programs, and organized extension and technology transfer programs to get new information and skills into the hands of the people on the land. Instead of creating an elite scientific or managerial corps to oversee a largely ignorant populace, Americans have created a skilled and informed populace. You may need to observe a society that has lacked this institutional support to fully understand the differences it has made. Proposals to eliminate it are incredibly short sighted."

At the 1994 Stewardship Conference in Nebraska, Lloyd Irland, president of the Irland Group Forestry Consultants in Winthrop, Maine, echoed similar sentiments:

"Our technical assistance and education system for these owners has grown from its roots in farm-oriented programs. It has spawned an extraordinary upswelling of innovation in state and local programs, supplying motivation, information and recognition to forest owners. New research is yielding a better understanding of land owner attitudes, motivations and behavior. While our ability to rigorously evaluate programs old and new is limited, we have every reason to be optimistic. New groups and participants, new technologies, and new information needs are coming to the fore, yet the tried and true systems and methods still retain their relevance."

There is a secret about the U. S. Department of Agriculture that few people understand. When he created it, Abraham Lincoln called it "the people's department." And the department has been reflective of the people of the nation. It has been venal and racist. It has been liberal and conservative. It has given succor to children and the poor. It has been a teacher, helping people at all levels to reach their potential. But probably more than any other agency of government, USDA has reflected who we are as Americans, and the changes that have taken place in our society. A large part of that is that there are USDA employees located in every county in the country.

But no matter what the reasons, the department has been an important part of the nation building and settlement that went on until 1985 when the frontier closed and Homesteading was ended in Alaska. It was in the vanguard of the development of the conservation movement that ultimately swept up public opinion at the end of the nineteenth century. It provided stability for agriculture, rural development and jobs for the Civilian Conservation Corps boys during the Depression. The Weather Bureau's first home was USDA as was the Bureau of Public Roads. During World War II, the department provided vital assistance to the war effort. It played many important roles following the war as the country began to settle down to decide what a modern, developed nation ought to become in the world. Always it has presided over the most productive agriculture and forestry initiatives in the world, with the kindest policies toward the land than those organized by any other national government.

The State and Private Forestry programs of the Forest Service have been an important part of the nation's growth and development even before the State and Private Forestry Division was established in 1908.

The voluntary, non-regulatory programs of State and Private Forestry have been working well for nearly 100 years....

....and cooperation continues to be the key.

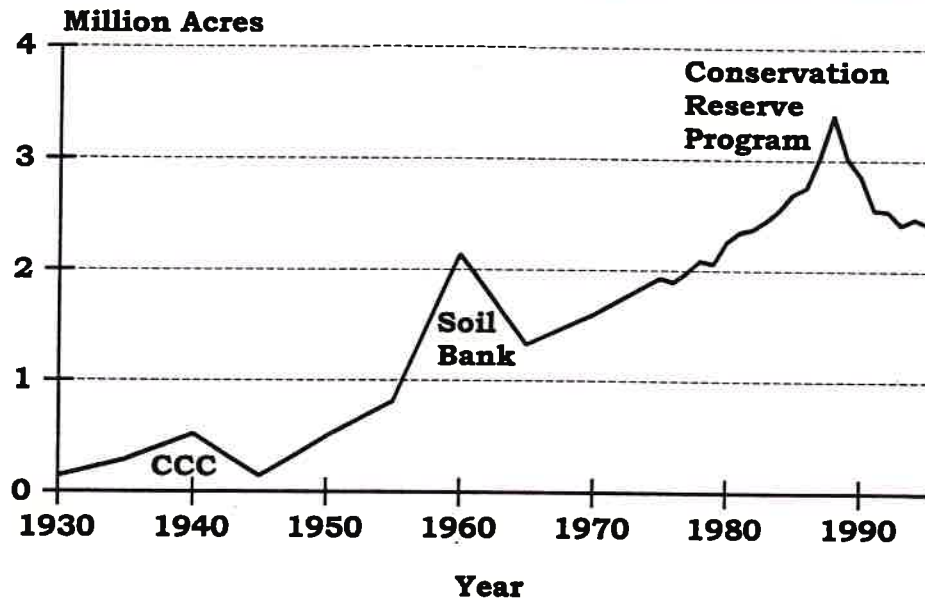
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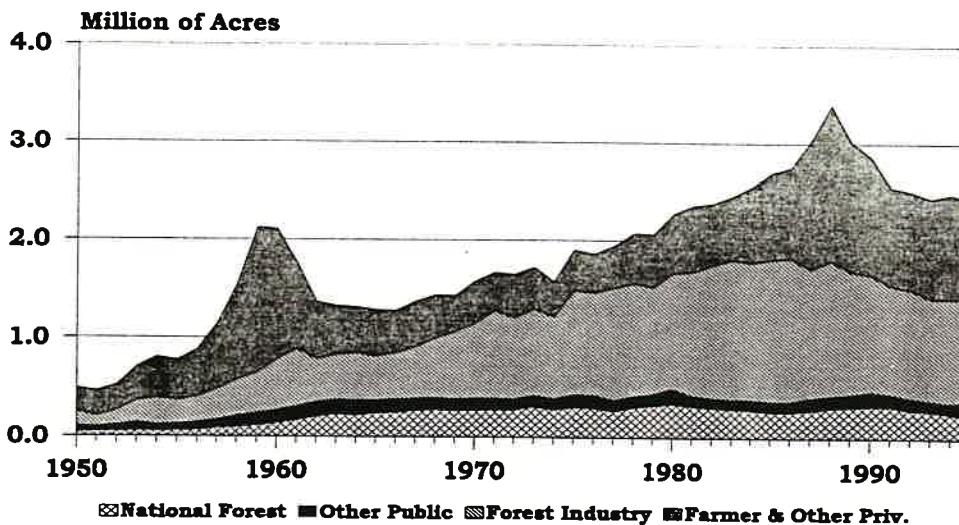
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Appendices

Tree Planting in the United States 1930 - 1995

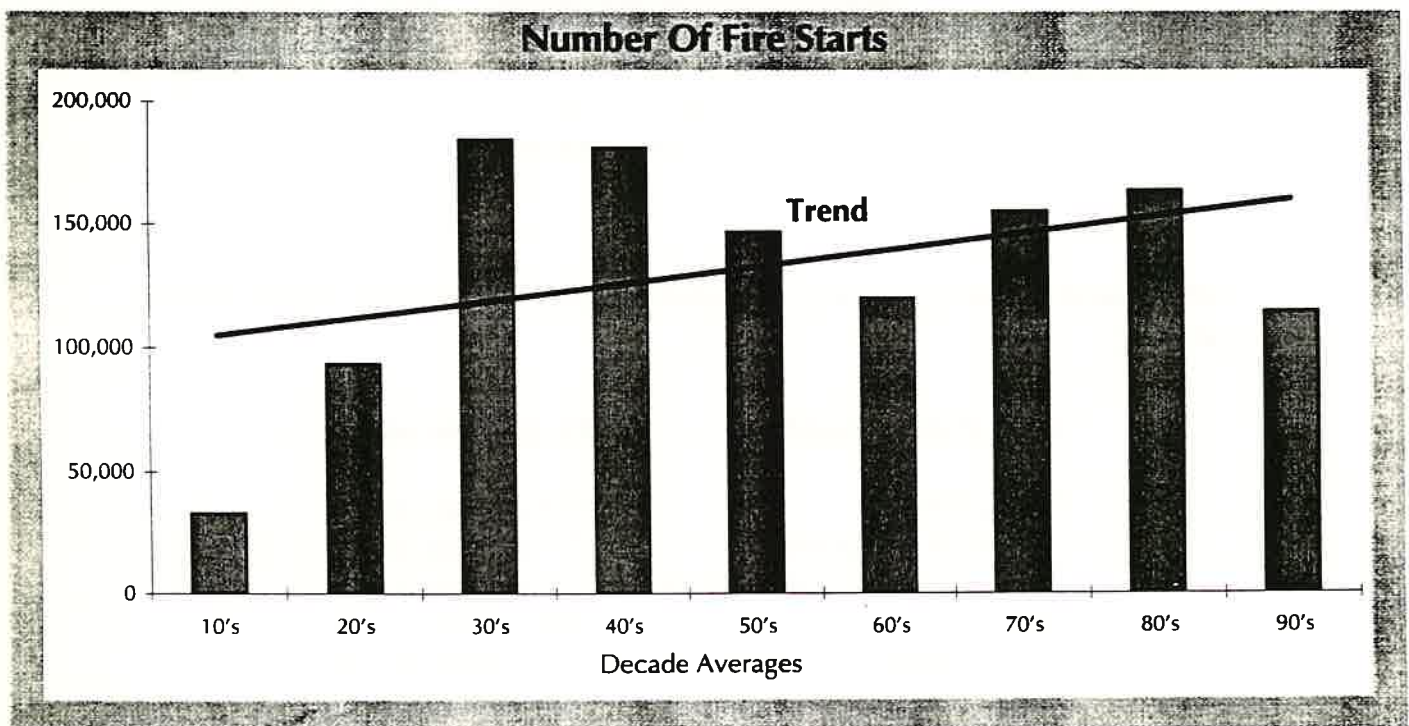
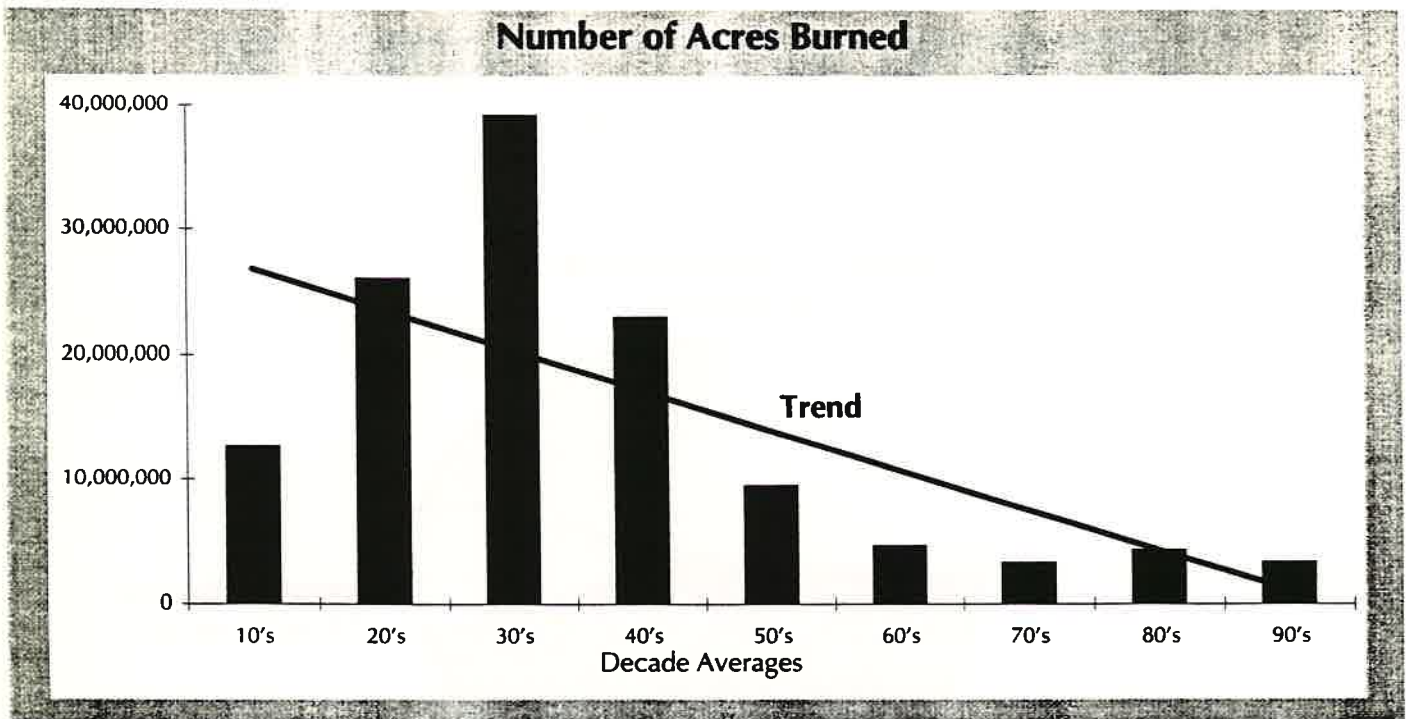


Tree Planting in the United States by Owner 1950 - 1995



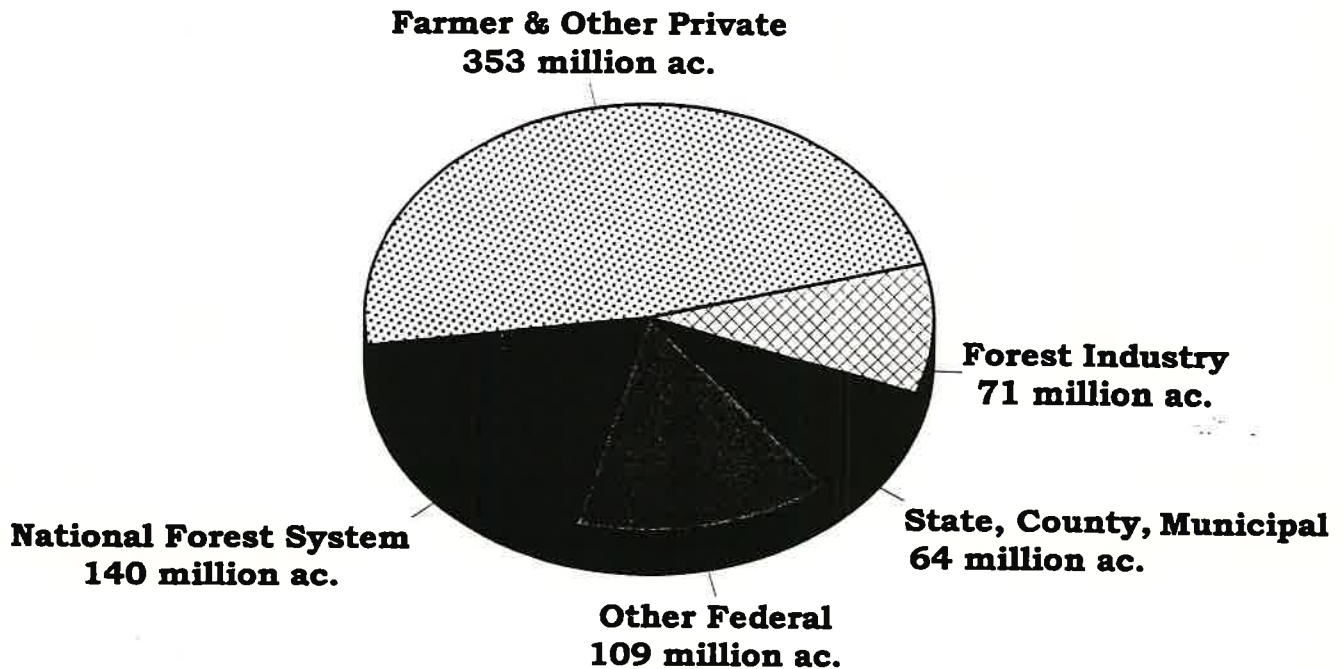
Source: USDA Forest Service Annual Reports

Historical Wildfire Statistics 1916 - 1995



- Since the 1940's, technology and cooperative efforts have significantly reduced the number of acres burned.
- Includes statistics from USDA Forest Service, DOI Agencies, and State and Private lands.

FOREST LAND OWNERSHIP



Indian and Tribal lands are included in the Farmer and Other Private category.

U.S. Forest Land	737 million acres
Total Private	424 million acres
Forest Industry	71 million acres
Farmer & Other Private	353 million acres
NFS	140 million acres
Other Federal	109 million acres
State, County, Municipal	64 million acres

STATE FORESTRY PROGRAMS

Year Initiated

1885 New York
California
Colorado
Ohio

1887 Kansas

1890 Indiana
Maine
Pennsylvania

1899 Michigan
Minnesota

1901 Connecticut

1903 Hawaii

1904 Massachusetts
Wisconsin

1905*California
New Hampshire
New Jersey
Washington

1906 Maryland
*Ohio

1907 Colorado
Oregon

1909 Kentucky

1911 Colorado
*Oregon

1912 Kentucky

1913 Nebraska

1914 Virginia

Year Initiated

1915 North Carolina
Texas

1917 Louisiana

1921 Tennessee

1923 Alabama
Illinois
Vermont

1925 Georgia
Idaho
Oklahoma

1926 Nebraska
Mississippi

1927 Delaware
Florida
South Carolina

1928 Missouri

1931 Arkansas

1933 Iowa

1941 Utah

1945 Nevada
South Dakota

1952 Wyoming

1957 New Mexico

1959 Alaska

1966 Arizona

*program re-established

