



JUNE 1984

LOS ANGELES CORRAL

NUMBER 155

JOSIAH DWIGHT WHITNEY and the CALIFORNIA GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

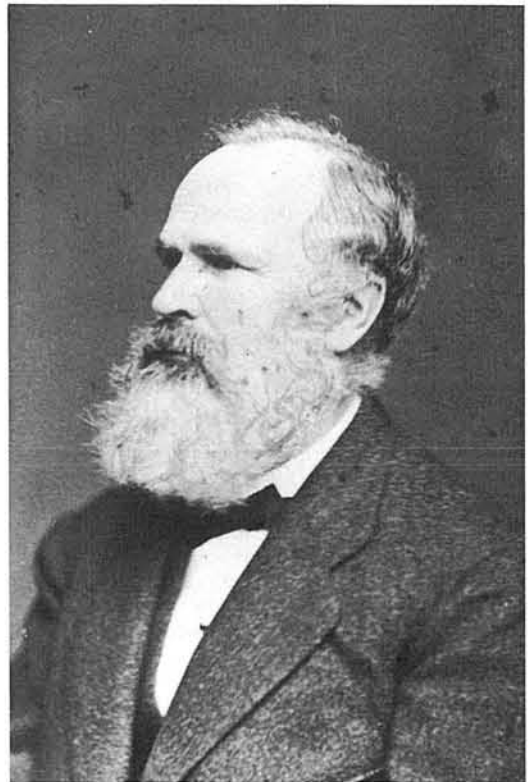
by John W. Robinson

PART II:

Shortly after his bout with the legislature, Whitney embarked by steamer for New York. He carried with him the survey field reports, which he would personally write up and see to publication. He remained in the East for a year and a half, working on the geology volume, recultivating friendships in the scientific community, and helping to organize a school of mines at Harvard.

Despite the legislative setbacks, the season of 1864 was the most spectacular and dramatic in the history of the California Survey. The seacoast, the coastal ranges, the Central Valley and the Sierra foothills had all been examined in the early years of the survey; the major effort now would be the exploration of the unknown and majestic High Sierra.

Even before Whitney left for the East, he initiated the year's work by sending King, Hoffmann and Gabb on a reconnaissance of the Yosemite region. King got his first look at the breath-taking marvel of Yosemite Valley, and he examined the Mariposa mining district to determine the date of gold-bearing rocks. Upon King's return, Whitney



Josiah Dwight Whitney

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The Branding Iron

THE WESTERNERS
LOS ANGELES CORRAL

Published Quarterly in
March, June, September, December

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tions from members and friends welcomed.

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Los Angeles Corral



THE MONTHLY ROUNDUP

Photograph by - Frank Q. Newton



Dick Logan

APRIL

Associate Member Dick Logan presented the Corral with a slide program on the interior of Alaska—the area not usually pictured in travel brochures. A region that includes Mt. McKinley and the Alaska Range, interior Alaska takes in rolling hills and flat plains, in contrast to the usual images of southeastern Alaska. This area is characterized by its impressive distances, numerous lakes dotted with islands, coniferous forests, and deciduous trees that become noticeable in the fall as they change colors. Contrary to

Continued on Page Ten



Brewer, Hoffman and aides in camp at Soda Springs, Tuolumne Meadows, 1863.

took the young geologist with him on a swing through the Lake Tahoe region and the Washoe mining country, the latter in furtherance of Whitney's hope of extending his survey across the Great Basin. It was a tribute to Whitney's boundless energy and dedication that he undertook these operations, in the spring of 1864, at the same time he was doing battle with the legislature.

The memorable summer season of 1864 got underway in late May, under the capable direction of William Brewer. He was accompanied by the skilled topographer Hoffmann, the young and vigorous neophytes King and Gardner, and Richard Cotter, hired as packer who quickly proved himself a tower of strength. The objective was unknown high country at the head of the Kern, Kings and San Joaquin rivers, a maze of stupendous

canyons and soaring peaks. They entered the mountains from Visalia and quickly climbed into big tree country known today as General Grant Grove of Kings Canyon National Park. After viewing these aged monarchs, they climbed eastward into increasingly rugged mountain country. Reaching the headwaters of Roaring River, which they called the South Park of the Kings, the party camped at the base of a towering granite monolith. "Hoffmann and I climbed this cone," wrote Brewer, "The view was wilder than we have ever seen before. Such a landscape! A hundred peaks in sight over thirteen thousand feet—many very sharp; deep canyons, cliffs in every direction, sharp ridges almost inaccessible to man on which human foot has never trod—all combine to produce a view the sublimity of which is

rarely equalled, one which few are privileged to behold." A half dozen peaks topping 14,000 feet rose to the east and southeast. One, eight miles east, they named Mount Tyndall, "in honor of the distinguished physicist and Alpine explorer." The highest of all, a helmet-shaped summit some twelve miles to the southeast, they named Mount Whitney after their beleaguered chief. Brewer's associates insisted upon calling the peak they had climbed Mount Brewer. They returned to camp that night exhausted, too tired to speak. They had experienced the grandest panorama of their lives, looked upon the very rooftop of America.

Clarence King in particular was excited over the discovery of peaks higher than Mount Shasta. He begged to be allowed to attempt an ascent of Mount Whitney. Brewer consented, and next day, July 4, 1864, King and Cotter hoisted packs and set off on the six-day adventure King so graphically described in his classic *Mountaineering in The Sierra Nevada*. In one of the premier mountaineering feats of the 19th century, King and Cotter crossed deep gorges, traversed knife-edged ridges, scaled shear walls and finally reached the summit of Mount Tyndall. Mount Whitney still lay six miles to the south, beyond their range.

A month later King and Cotter made another attempt on Mount Whitney, but were stopped by "a soaring wall, three or four hundred feet from the top." It would be nine more years before King finally set foot on the summit.

While King and Cotter were making their second attempt on Mount Whitney, Brewer and the rest of the party worked their way northeastward into the great canyon of the South Fork of the Kings. They made several attempts to thread their way directly north, but were stopped by the great walls of the Kings' Middle Fork. Even today, this country in the middle of Kings Canyon National Park remains a challenge to mountaineers. As an eternal memorial to their efforts, two jagged citadels in this region are named Mount Clarence King and Mount Gardner.

Unable to explore the broken country directly north of the Kings' South Fork, Brewer and his men climbed eastward, using

an old Indian trail, crossed Kearsarge Pass and dropped into Owens Valley. For three days they trudged up the hot desert valley before turning back to the west and recrossing the Sierra crest via Old Mono Pass (not to be confused with the Mono Pass in Yosemite). They dropped into the headwaters of the San Joaquin River and rested amid lush forest and green meadows while four soldiers traveling with the party went down to fetch supplies. A marathon attempt on Mount Goddard, the dominant peak of the central Sierra, failed by a few hundred feet.

With new provisions brought by the soldiers, Brewer and his tired men worked their way northward, crossed the basin of the San Joaquin's North Fork, turned northwest and on August 23rd reached Galen Clark's ranch at Wawona. "We were a hard-looking set—ragged, clothes patched with old flour bags, poor," wrote Brewer, "I had lost thirty pounds." Thus they concluded what was probably the most famous exploration ever of the High Sierra. By mapping and measuring the terrain, and even more by writing eloquently about their adventures in newspapers, periodicals and later books, Brewer and his men made known this sublime mountain country. They opened the way for knapsackers and pack trips for generations to come.

No sooner had the survey party returned to San Francisco, believing their field work completed for the year, than they were called out on an urgent new task. California Governor Frederick F. Low wanted them to survey the boundaries of the new Yosemite Grant.

The Yosemite Grant, comprising Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Grove of Big Trees, had been given to California by the federal government under the provisions of a bill signed by President Lincoln in June 1864. The conditions were that "the premises shall be held for public use, resort, and recreation" and "shall be inalienable for all time." In September Governor Low and the state legislature accepted the grant and wanted it surveyed as soon as possible. The California Geological Survey was the logical body to do the job.

Accordingly, after scarcely a week's rest,

King, Gardner and Cotter set out for Yosemite. They reached the valley early in October and set up camp near Black's Hotel. For a month, they examined the valley and scaled the surrounding walls—first to the top of Yosemite Falls, then up El Capitan, the highest pinnacle of Three Brothers, and North Dome. Gardner did most of the topographical work while King, from perches high on the rim, studied the origin of the landscape. He saw plenty of evidence of glacial action. Could great rivers of ice have carved out Yosemite Valley? King could not fully accept this theory, although he believed glaciers had certainly played a major part in the final evolution of the valley features. Before King could complete his glacial studies, winter arrived with a howling blizzard and the survey party barely got out intact.

By mid-November everyone was back in San Francisco and the spectacular 1864 season was over. No one realized it then, but the explorations just completed represented the high point in the achievements of the California Survey. Never again would the Survey take to the field in full force. Whitney's most able assistant, William Brewer, accepted a professorship at Yale. When he boarded the steamer in San Francisco on November 14, 1864, it was his farewell to the California Survey. The ambitious plans of Whitney would never be fully consummated, countered by an increasingly antagonistic and penny-pinching legislature.

One cause of the rising tide of opposition came from a wholly unexpected source. Whitney's nemesis in this case was Benjamin Silliman, Jr., professor of chemistry at Yale, member of the Eastern intelligencia and hence supposedly Whitney's friend. Professor Silliman, when not pursuing classroom duties at Yale, occupied his time searching for, and speculating in, mining and petroleum deposits. It was he who prompted Daniel Drake to drill his first oil well at Titusville, Pennsylvania in 1859, thereby starting a new and immensely profitable industry. Silliman received full credit for the find and almost overnight his reputation as America's foremost expert on petroleum was established. He journeyed West in 1864 and made a quick

mineralogical survey of California and Nevada. He journeyed West in 1864 and made a quick mineralogical survey of California and Nevada. Upon his return home, he proclaimed that he had discovered "fabulous wealth in the best of oil" in California's Ventura and Santa Barbara counties. To exploit these riches, Silliman helped to organize several speculating companies. Thus began what came to be known as "The Great California Oil Bubble."

Silliman's dramatic announcement of huge sources of untapped wealth in Southern California represented a devastating blow to the California Geological Survey. Why had not Whitney and his men, in their excursions up and down the state, found these petroleum riches? To many legislators in Sacramento, this appeared to be more evidence that the California Survey represented a waste of the taxpayers' funds.

The petroleum controversy was a heated issue throughout 1865, not only with the state legislature but also within the scientific community. Whitney and his friends disputed Silliman's claim, and when Brewer dashed off a letter to the *Springfield Republican* decrying the oil claim as a hoax, the battle was on. Silliman and Whitney traded charges, and the controversy degenerated into a personal and vindictive slugfest.

The controversy was resolved in 1866 by a third party. Chemist S.F. Peckham, after an 18-month study of Silliman's petroleum claims, found persuasive evidence that the oil samples used by Silliman and samples taken from the Ventura and Santa Barbara County oil fields were not the same. "These differences," wrote Peckham, "all point to the falsification of the oil examined by these gentlemen [Silliman and his men] by admixture of light oil." The report hurt Silliman's reputation within the scientific fraternity but didn't really help Whitney in his conflict with the California legislature. Whitney later admitted, when funds to continue the work of the California Survey were not forthcoming, "Petroleum is what has killed us."

Amid the oil controversy, in October 1865, Whitney returned to San Francisco with the first volume of his geology treatise in hand. It represented a considerable effort by Whitney

and his men—500 pages, written with a certain literary flair uncommon in scientific reports, giving a general survey of California's geological makeup. But *Geology, Volume I* failed to impress the legislature. It was of no immediate practical use in locating new mineral riches, a defect that doomed it in the eyes of the practical, gold-dazed lawmakers of Sacramento.

Only through an exhaustive effort was Whitney able, in April 1866, to squeeze funds out of the legislature to continue the California Survey. The piddling amount approved by the lawmakers was barely enough to keep the Survey going in name only. So tight were funds that the crucial field work—the heart and soul of the Survey—declined to almost nothing. In fairness to the legislators, it must be stated that Whitney was his own worst enemy. He had absolutely no feel for the give and take of the political arena; rather he was blunt, demanding, condescending and self-righteous in his contacts with the Sacramento lawmakers.

Whitney expressed his frustration in a letter to his brother, written on February 17, 1866: "My own health is somewhat better than it was when I wrote last; but I am far from well. Anything like worry of mind always affects me physically, and I cannot help being worried about the survey. There is so little appreciation of, or care for, anything but money-making in this state, that it is terribly up-hill work to drag this concern which I have been pulling for five years, up the hill of difficulty. It is hard enough work to do to carry on the survey even if it were appreciated and no obstacles were placed in my way. While I could not help being secretly gratified, or at least relieved, if the survey were stopped, yet my scientific instincts make me fight for its continuance." In a letter written to his father on July 28, 1866, Whitney complained, "I feel more disgusted with California than I ever have been before, even when the state was \$15,000 in debt to me."

To deepen Whitney's depression, his most gifted and dependable field surveyor, Clarence King, left the California Survey after a summer reconnaissance of the Yosemite Sierra. King planned to start his

own survey of the 40th parallel, following the railroad route eastward from the Sierra Nevada. Whitney was unable to dissuade him, so the two parted company with feelings somewhat estranged.

In the summer of 1866, while examining the Northern Mines of the Mother Lode, Whitney fell victim to the "Calaveras Skull" hoax. A human skull had been found deep in a mine near Calaveras; Whitney examined it and pronounced it of ancient origin, evidence that man had lived in California during Tertiary times. The skull had actually been planted in the mine by two men as a joke on their employer. It was ancient perhaps, but not from a remote geologic age. The Calaveras Skull incident dramatized a peculiar defect in Whitney's scientific thinking—he sometimes jumped to conclusions without examining sufficient evidence. This character facet would later severely damage his reputation during the Yosemite glacial controversy with John Muir.

The summer of 1867 saw a brief renewal of field work. Hoffmann led a party which mapped the Big Tree region and Yosemite Valley. Gabb surveyed parts of Death Valley and western Nevada. Other small parties explored and mapped Kern, Tulare and Inyo counties. Whitney himself spent most of the summer season examining northern California and visiting Oregon.

But this was the California Survey's "last hurrah." Financially the situation was desperate, and prospects for continuing field work and publishing the results were uncertain. Whitney wrote his brother on February 26, 1868, "I am running the survey along in a small way at my own expense, waiting to see what the jackasses at Sacramento will do." The "jackasses," as Whitney called his legislative opponents, did nothing. They adjourned without providing any funds to continue the survey. They even refused to pay Whitney the \$8,000 they owed him for expenses he had paid out of his own pocket.

Whitney was now at a crossroads. The survey was in limbo, neither terminated nor continued. No one knew when, if ever, a new session of the legislature might appropriate funds to reactivate it. Whitney considered resigning as State Geologist, but was dis-

suated from doing so by friends. He was encouraged to believe that the next legislature could be persuaded to repair the damage.

As a result, Whitney held onto his post as State Geologist but returned to Harvard to teach and work on two more volumes covering the work of the survey. These he published at his own expense in late 1868. One was a second volume on paleontology, the other a beautiful, large-format work on Yosemite containing photographs of the valley by C.E. Watkins and of the High Sierra by W. Harris. *The Yosemite Book*, as it was named, was well received in California and quickly became a collector's item (Today it is one of the rarest of Californiana and commands a price, when available, in excess of \$1,000). *The Yosemite Book* was followed shortly by a smaller, tourist-oriented *Yosemite Guide-Book*. This attractive little volume went through several editions and was in popular use for more than a decade. More than anything else, the *Yosemite Guide-Book* made Josiah Whitney's name known to thousands of California tourists.

Whitney continued to hope that a new legislature would authorize a resumption of the California Survey. As soon as the 1870 legislature convened, Whitney returned to California and laid siege to the new body, armed with endorsements from the greatest names in American science. His efforts, along with the support of Governor Henry Haight, resulted in a token appropriation of \$48,000, barely enough to complete some Yosemite field work and reimburse Whitney for the funds that he had advanced the Survey.

The reprieve was short-lived. In the legislative session of 1873 the office of State Geologist was placed under the direct authority of the governor, much to Whitney's indignation: "I think I may demand . . . [that] the State Geologist should be entirely outside politics, and he should not be liable to removal from it except for cause." This resulted in a vindictive scrap between Whitney and the new governor, Newton Booth. Whitney complained of Booth's "malignant hostility" and the governor complained that "by no other man have I ever been so insulted in all my life." When it became obvious to Whitney that both

Governor Booth and the 1874 legislature were distinctly hostile to the California Survey, he resigned his post as State Geologist. He wrote his brother on March 19, 1874: "The survey has succumbed to the stupidity and malignity of the legislature, backed by the same characteristics on the part of the Governor . . . I was accused of having given all the collections to Harvard; and it was stated over and over again that the survey had been run by me for the benefit of Harvard University! . . . My own feelings are decidedly those of relief at getting the survey off my hands, . . . I have always got more curses than coppers out of it."

An attempt to continue the California Geological Survey after Whitney left was defeated in the legislature, and fourteen stormy years of brilliant field work and political controversy came to an end. Whitney returned to Harvard and pursued a long and distinguished teaching career. In ensuing years, mostly at his own expense with some help from Harvard, he published several more volumes based on the work of the California Survey. In 1880 appeared *The Auriferous Gravels of the Sierra Nevada of California*, an in-depth study of the Mother Lode gold regions, just what the California Legislature had wanted eight years earlier. *Geology, Volume II*, a scientific study of the Coast Ranges, saw print in 1882.

In the long run, Whitney had just reason to be proud of the California Geological Survey. Recent historians have been much more favorably inclined toward its work than was the state legislature. Whitney set a standard of morality that stood in sharp contrast to the venality of the times. The Survey produced a wealth of information about California, ultimately of solid value to the state. The surmounting and scientific exploration of the High Sierra ranks as one of the great accomplishments of 19th century Western exploration. Perhaps the Survey's greatest value was its influence on subsequent surveys of the United States. Out of its ranks came Clarence King, Charles Hoffmann and James Gardner. King led his own survey of the Fortieth Parallel and in 1879 was appointed first Director of the United States Geological Survey. That the U.S. Geological Survey was



Mount Whitney from the east.

a civilian rather than a military agency is directly traceable to ideas formulated in the California Survey. Many of the methods employed by Whitney and his men served as models for later efforts. Hoffmann, for instance, was one of the progenitors of modern topography. He taught the art to King and Gardner, who used it in the Fortieth Parallel Survey. Hoffmann also taught Henry Gannett, who, with Gardner, introduced its methods to the Hayden Survey. The first topographical work of the U.S. Geological Survey was almost entirely in the hands of men trained by Hoffmann. No less an authority than William H. Goetzmann ranks the Whitney Survey right up alongside the great surveys of the American West.

Ironically, the most noted controversy in Whitney's life reached its climax after he had departed California for good. This was his acrimonious dispute with John Muir and others over the origin of Yosemite Valley. Whitney, who believed the valley had been formed by some catastrophic earthquake, put himself out on the scientific limb by stating, in *The Yosemite Guidebook*, "A

more absurd theory was never advanced, than that by which it is sought to ascribe to glaciers the sawing out of these vertical walls and the rounding of the domes . . . Besides, there is no reason to suppose, or at least no proof, that glaciers have ever occupied the valley or any portion of it . . . This theory, based on entire ignorance of the whole subject, may be dropped without wasting any more time upon it." When Muir, who championed the glacial creation theory, challenged Whitney in a series of articles in *The Overland Monthly*, the latter's pique was aroused. That a scientist of his reputation should be questioned by "a mere shepherd" was galling to him. He allegedly referred to Muir as "that sheep herder" and "an ignoramus." He refused to back down even an inch. (For the story of the Yosemite glacier controversy, see this writer's "The Creation of Yosemite Valley: A Scientific Controversy From The Nineteenth Century," *The Pacific Historian*, Vol. 24, No. 4, Winter 1980.)

When Whitney died at Lake Sunapee, New Hampshire on August 19, 1896, his Yosemite origin theory was in shambles, accepted by a

steadily dwindling number of geologists. In the years following his death, his reputation continued to sink as one geological study after another refuted his "dropped block" idea. His theory was put to final rest by the work of Francois E. Matthes, whose *Geologic History of Yosemite Valley*, published by the United States Geological Survey in 1930, revealed unmistakable evidence that glaciers had indeed helped to carve Yosemite Valley.

It is difficult to assign Josiah Dwight Whitney his proper "niche" in the history of American science. He certainly performed a great service in organizing and leading the California Geological Survey, despite his differences with the legislature. He brought a refreshing standard of absolute honesty to his work. His thirty-one distinguished years at Harvard, his leadership in the National Academy of Science, his many learned treatises are all to his credit. Yet, for all these accomplishments, Whitney must be denied the mantle of greatness. The Yosemite controversy exposed a fatal weakness in his character—an innate inability to separate personal feelings from scientific objectivity. When he felt his honor or his pride questioned, his mind solidified. Any scientist worth his salt must examine evidence in a non-partisan manner, ever willing to alter his stance upon the receipt of new or conflicting information. This Whitney could not, or would not, do. Add to this his inclination to jump to premature conclusions as exemplified in the Calaveras Skull episode, and it leaves Josiah Dwight Whitney with the historical image of a tarnished giant.



Corral Chips

Tony Lehman spends summer 1983 at the University of California, Davis, studying in a seminar on the "American Frontier Experience" as a fellow of the National Endowment of the Humanities . . . *Dwight Cushman* presents a program on "Civil War History and Genealogy" to the Conejo Valley Genealogical Society on May 1 . . . At the January meeting of the Pacific Maritime History Society, held at the Nautical Heritage Museum at Dana Point, *Dick Cunningham* displays 52 exquisitely crafted models of native craft of the type once built by the California Indians. The models go on permanent exhibition at Santa Barbara's Natural History Museum. *George L. Geiger* also attends the Dana Point meeting . . . *Dick Logan* technically retires as professor of geography at UCLA, but he still continues actively, conducting a four-day tour to the missions and mining towns of southeastern Arizona, a beach walk for the Pacific Palisades Historical Society, and lecturing to the Northern California Geographical Society in Chico, Pierce College, and the Sierra Club . . .

Don Meadows is given the Americana Award for 1983 by Cypress College, along with such luminaries as Mel Blanc, Wilson Riles, and Sons of the Pioneers lead singer Rusty Richards, on January 21, 1984 . . . Honorary Member *Horace M. Albright* appears with Herbert Hoover in a photograph decorating the cover of the February 1984 *American Historical Review*. The picture was taken in 1927 when Hoover was secretary of commerce and Albright was superinten-

dent of Yellowstone National Park . . . C.M. Marie Harrington is the speaker at the May meeting of the San Fernando Valley Historical Society, telling of her reminiscences of "Life with M.R." Corral members Ray Wood and Dwight Cushman are among those present . . .

Monthly Roundup (Continued)

stereotype, interior Alaska has no high winds; snow remains where it falls.

Logan impressed the Corral with his description of the weather around Fairbanks. Temperatures get so low that it stops snowing by midwinter. The days shorten by seven minutes a day in the fall; by midwinter, days are very brief, and the nights are long. Winter temperatures get down to -30° in November and as cold as -55° in deepest winter.

Alaska is in many ways still a pioneer society. Fish wheels, dog teams, ghostly abandoned mining camps and dredges, and Fairbanks riverboat, and the Davidson Ditch pipeline are all reminders of Alaska's recent history. The people of interior Alaska find the ordinary in the extraordinary. Their houses, with triple-sealed windows, are built to withstand the intense cold of winter. University of Alaska students as well as schoolchildren find nothing unusual about seeing moose on the streets or eating dormitory food leftovers. Ravens grow fat on Colonel Sanders' garbage. Newcomers, especially women unused to the long winter, may experience claustrophobia. Logan described a typical winter's day in Fairbanks under sub-zero conditions, enlightening the Corral with accounts of log-cabin life styles, an odiferous student body at the University of Alaska, and the anomaly of frontier life in the 1980s.

MAY

Corral Active Member and former Sheriff Hugh Tolford spoke on the history of Death Valley and its environs. The 120-mile-long



Hugh Tolford

valley earned its name when a wagon train stumbled into it in 1849. Once a place to be avoided, Death Valley began attracting visitors in the early 20th century. Adventurous motorists and persevering prospectors have crisscrossed the valley, the famous 20-mule teams began hauling borax in the 1880s, and small settlements and mining camps were founded. Ghost towns such as Panamint are reminders of the region's mining era.

The gold and silver finds of western Nevada early in the 20th century brought renewed interest in mining in Death Valley. Railroads connecting Nevada's mining towns also stretched toward Death Valley, but speculation in such places as Greenwater, Skidoo, and Leadfield proved overoptimistic.

Tolford noted that tourism has proved to be Death Valley's most significant industry. From the 1920s on the attractions of the Furnace Creek Inn and Ranch and Stovepipe Wells Hotel have brought in tourists. The modern tourist era began in 1949 with the celebration of California's centennial and the subsequent founding of the Death Valley 49ers. Modern highways make it easy for people to visit Death Valley, and the resorts and golf courses offer unusual recreational opportunities. The scenery, of course, remains eternally striking.

The Corral meeting was also pleased to have in attendance Honorary Member Horace Albright, now age 94 and still active.

“Swifter, Higher and Stronger” The XXIII Olympiad

Msgr. Francis J. Weber

Fifty years ago, the Games of the Xth Olympiad were celebrated for the first time on the shores of the Pacific Ocean. Los Angeles was the host city between July 30th and August 14th.

With the passage of another half century, the one-time *Pueblo de Nuestra Señora de los Angeles* is preparing once again to welcome the world's greatest athletes to the Summer Games of the XXIII Olympiad.

It is indeed appropriate that this historic event be staged in California, home of the giant Sequoia Redwood Trees, the only organisms still alive which were flourishing when the ancient games were staged.

Historians trace the Olympics to 776 B.C., when a great footrace of some 200 yards was staged at the River Alpheus, just outside the little town of Olympia, in Greece. By the 4th century, there were twenty-three events associated with the Olympic Games.

The last of the ancient encounters occurred in 394 A.D. Shortly afterwards, the erosive elements of human selfishness managed to disintegrate what was initiated as a purely athletic movement.

Centuries later, the French scholar, Baron Pierre de Coubertin, successfully revived the notion of the Olympics. He felt that since athletics and young people are wedded together, education and athletics might well go hand-in-hand toward better international understanding.

The first of the modern games took place at Athens, in 1896. From thereon, they have been scheduled (though missed several times) every four years.

The Games of the III Olympiad were held at Saint Louis, in 1904. Then, twenty-eight years later, the International Olympic Committee brought the torch to Los Angeles.

There will be something wholly different

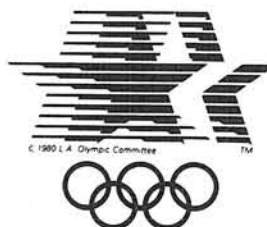
MODERN OLYMPIADS					
I	1896	IX	1928	XVII	1960
II	1900	X	1932	XVIII	1964
III	1904	XI	1936	XIX	1968
IV	1908	XII	1940	XX	1972
V	1912	XIII	1944	XXI	1976
VI	1916	XIV	1948	XXII	1980
VII	1920	XV	1952	XXIII	1984
VIII	1924	XVI	1956		

about the 1984 games. Recalling that not since 1932 has an Olympiad paid its own way, planners authorized the XXIII Olympiad to be managed and financed by private corporations—a unique experiment.

Preference will be given to about fifty companies who agree to fund pre-Olympic youth sport programs across the United States, a novel and worthwhile notion developed by Los Angeles Entrepreneur, Peter Ueberroth.

During the months prior to the opening of the 1984 games, one is often reminded of the “creed” that Baron Pierre de Coubertin formulated many years ago for the international events:

“The main issue in life is not the victory, but the fight; the essential is not to have won but to have fought well. To spread these precepts is to pave the way for a more valiant humanity, stronger and consequently more scrupulous and more generous.”



LET THE GAMES BEGIN

by Maurice I. "Bob" Hattem



So they did that warm memorable July day. The Vice President of the United States, the Honorable Charles Curtis, the official representative of President Herbert Hoover uttered those words to officially open the Xth Olympiad in Los Angeles on July 30, 1932. As Mr. Curtis led the parade of dignitaries through the peristyle gate of the recently enlarged Olympic Stadium (Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum) to the strains of John Philip Sousa's "Stars and Stripes Forever," the throng of over 105,000 cheering souls must have had a strong hope in their hearts that better days were just ahead.

Los Angeles, along with the rest of the country, was experiencing the worst depression in history, and July, 1932 was its lowest point. The only place to go was up. For proof, one only had to browse through the time-worn yellowed pages of the local community newspapers. For example: coffee was selling for 23 cents a pound; bread was advertised,

"3 - 16oz loaves—10¢;" leg of lamb was sixteen cents a pound and beefsteak was selling for nineteen cents a pound. You could buy an eight-piece Spanish oak dining room set for \$69.50 or a three-piece walnut bedroom set for \$54.00 at Sears. These prices were readily available in those days. Of course wages were only \$18.00 a week (72 hours) for a grocery clerk; that is, if you could find a job. Incidentally, a ticket to all of the Olympic events in the coliseum cost \$22.50. Compare this with prices for tickets for the forthcoming 1984 games.

In an article by Kenneth Reich in the Los Angeles Times dated October 18, 1980, the headline reads, "L.A. Will Push For A Spartan Olympics." In the article, Reich quotes Harry Usher, the number two man on the staff of the Los Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee as saying, among other things, "an Olympic Village as such, will not be constructed; rather the athletes and team



officials will enjoy residence halls and related facilities located primarily at the University of Southern California and at U.C.L.A.”

It was quite different during the 1932 games. In 1927 the State of California voted a constitutional amendment appropriating \$1,000,000 to be spent in preparation for the games. Four million dollars were spent for permanent improvements which included enlarging the coliseum to 105,000 seats, a new Olympic swimming stadium and an “Olympic Village” where the athletes and other personnel connected with the games would be housed; except for the women, of course. They were housed at the Chapman Park Hotel in the Wilshire district of Los Angeles. Morals were high in those days and men and women in the same camp “just wouldn’t do.”

The Olympic Village was quite a unique place in the history of international gatherings. It consisted of a 331 acre tract in the Baldwin Hills, which was part of the historic Rancho La Cienega O’Paso de la Tijera, a portion of the once vast holdings of the famous E. J. “Lucky” Baldwin. The site was selected primarily for its panoramic view of the city and ideal climatic conditions. There were 550 two-room cottages which housed four men each; private kitchens and dining rooms; one for each team, special bath hospitals, an administration building, and an amphitheatre where entertainment was provided for the personnel which included

the athletes, coaches, trainers and Olympic officials. Surrounding the village were the stadia and training fields. It was a veritable city of champions during the celebration of the games. Over 2000 personnel from 58 countries made the Olympic Village their home during the first two weeks of August of 1932. Residents of the Village included French, Germans, English, Spanish, Japanese, Italian, Swedish, Finnish, Danish, and white-turbaned men from India.

It was necessary that the Village be constructed. First of all, the distance many of the foreign teams had to travel to Los Angeles and second the cost of sending them was high. It was estimated that the cost to send each athlete from Europe was \$1500; a tidy sum for those days. This figure was reduced to about a third of the original amount as a result of the plan to quarter the athletes in a separate village plus the cooperation of the railroad and steamship companies who agreed to transport them at a reduced rate.

The Village was designed for the comfort and convenience of the athletes. The cottages were ten feet wide by twenty-four feet long. The 1,000 feet of dining halls were designed to give the teams privacy during their meals. Separate kitchens were also provided for cooks from the various countries that were in the Village. The Olympic Organization Committee provided the food, however.

The entire Village was fenced in permitting the Village to be under absolute control of

the Organizing Committee at all times. Five miles of roads were specially graded and eight miles of water mains were installed.

Motion pictures supplied by the local studios were shown in the amphitheatre for the entertainment of the villagers. The entrance to the Village was through the Administration Building of Pueblo Indian architecture. In this building were centered all administrative activities. Offices were provided throughout the Village for the attaches of the various countries.

This was the first time since the athletes of ancient Greece pitched their tents on the plains of Elis, that participants in the Olympic Games have been housed and fed in a single, complete community especially designed for this purpose.

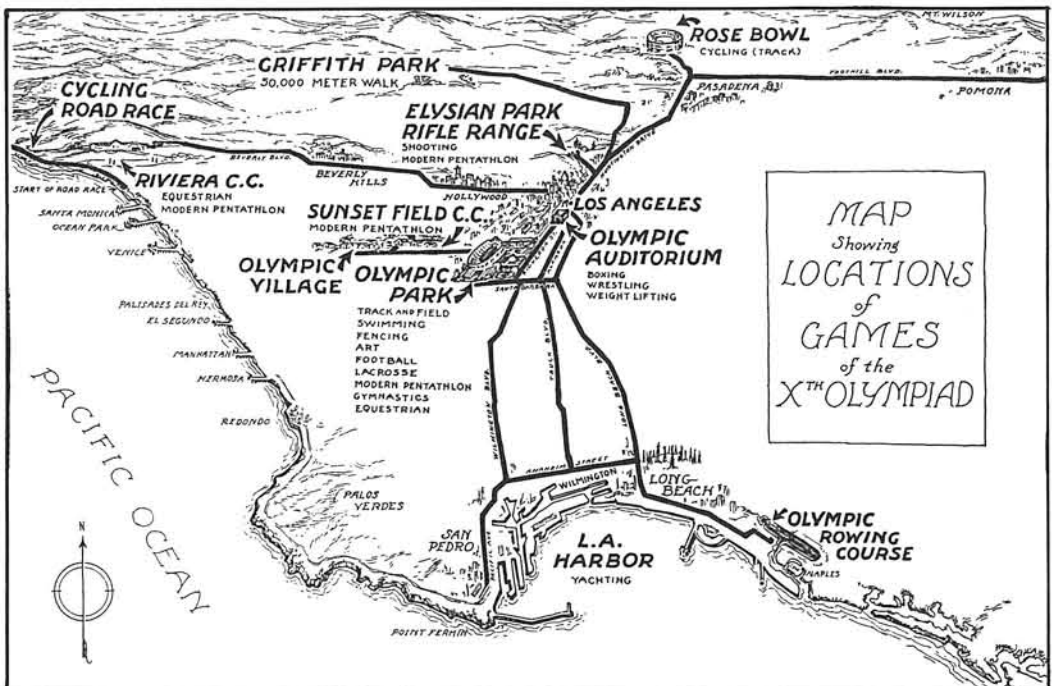
The first recorded Olympic took place in 776 B.C. It was a well established fact that religious festivals in honor of Olympian Zeus had been observed in that sacred valley of Elis for several centuries previous even to that remote date. In order to fully appreciate the significance of those Olympian games it becomes necessary to stress their religious character.

The Greek games had their origin in the

belief that the shades of the dead were gratified by the spectacles as had delighted them during their earthly life. During the time of Homer these festivals were simply sacrifices followed by games at the tomb or before a funeral pyre. In time these festivals took on a religious character and they were observed by the entire community and they celebrated near the shrine of the god in whose honor they were instituted. The idea was that the gods themselves were present but invisible, and delighted in the services and the contests.

By the time of the 79th Olympiad (464 B.C.) and even some years before, the festivals had lost their local character and became Pan-Hellenic. Some had attracted world-wide attention of which the festival held at Olympia consecrated to Olympian Zeus, father of the gods, was the most important.

The first modern Olympic Games were celebrated in Athens, Greece in 1896. This was the brainchild of Baron Pierre de Coubertin who gave up a political career to devote his life to the introduction of sport into the educational life of the youth of his country, France. He travelled extensively in England and America to learn as much as he



could about sports—its organization and importance in the life of the people of those countries. He first propounded the idea in 1892. There was no response to his call at first but by 1894 there was enough interest aroused to form an International Olympic Committee. It was decided that Athens would hold the first modern Olympics. This was followed by Paris in 1900, St. Louis, Missouri in 1904, London in 1908, Stockholm, 1912, none in 1916 due to World War I, Antwerp in 1920, Paris again in 1924, Amsterdam in 1928 and the Xth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932 and what an Olympiad it was! Saturday, July 30 was opening day. It was the day of days for the athlete. Competition in the Olympic Games. Behind every contestant assembled in the various stadia of the games were weeks, months, and perhaps years of strenuous training and effort. Behind each entry were glorious victories and in some cases bitter defeats.

Both factors in the scales of balance had eventually brought each one the highest honors possible in their particular field of sport and to represent their countries in the great international competition of the Olympics. Now they would thrill to the participation in the Parade of Nations, the standard-bearers of their countrymen remembering the spirit of the games as so aptly put by Baron de Coubertin: "The main issue in life is not the victory but the fight; the essential is not to have won but to have fought well."

The opening ceremonies surpassed the expectations of those 105,000 who were there. To quote a spectator: "It was beautiful in its spiritual and cultural significance, and its physical aspects, dominated by the march of some 2000 stalwart athletes who were colorfully garbed and headed by the banners of their respective countries."

William May Garland, president of the Organizing Committee of the Games of the Xth Olympiad, introduced Vice President Curtis who proclaimed, "I proclaim open the Olympic Games of Los Angeles, celebrating the Xth Olympiad of the modern era. Let the games begin."

As the giant Olympic white flag with its multi-colored circles was raised, there echoed the chorus of 1200 voices singing the Olympic

Hymn. Another spectacular feature of the opening ceremony occurred when 2000 pigeons were released as an emblem of good will and peace.

The dedication and benediction was given by Robert Gordon Sproul, president of the University of California. Then the athletes took their solemn oath to uphold the dignity and respect of the contests to which they would soon enter.

Those were days of trial and hope. With each passing day, one looked forward to a brighter future. The Xth Olympiad brought in part, some of that hope for a better future to a city beset with hard times, unemployment and the sufferings of a very harsh depression; yet, there was an air of optimism within all the adversity which prevailed.

Within a few months there would be a turn around but for now everyone had to help one another the best they could. Cooperation was the watchword. Help your neighbor was the mood of the times, and they saw it through. To be sure, there was some crime in the streets, but nothing like today. It was rare for someone to be mugged in the street. They were safer in those days. Of course the best part of those times was NO SMOG. One could stand at the crest of Vernon Avenue in the Baldwin Hills and see snow-capped Mt. Baldy in the distance. The "Hollywoodland" sign (it was Hollywoodland in those days) was clearly visible.

Who can forget those wonderful athletes who racked up over 800 points for the United States and won the Olympics for us. Remember Eddie Tolan and Ralph Metcalfe who set new records in the track and field events, Buster Crabbe, Dorothy Poynton and Helene Madison who set records in the swimming and diving competition, to name a few.

Finally, the time had come to have the final parade of nations around the Olympic Stadium. The final awards, the final bestowing of medals, the lowering of the Olympic flag with its five rings symbolizing the five continents, the bugle blowing taps for the last time, and finally, the final flicker of the Olympic torch atop the peristyle of the stadium going out until another time in the distant future. The Xth Olympiad was history. Los Angeles returned to normal.

OFFICIAL PROGRAM

XTH OLYMPIAD · LOS ANGELES · U.S.A.



OLYMPIC
PARK

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TUESDAY
AUGUST 9, 1932