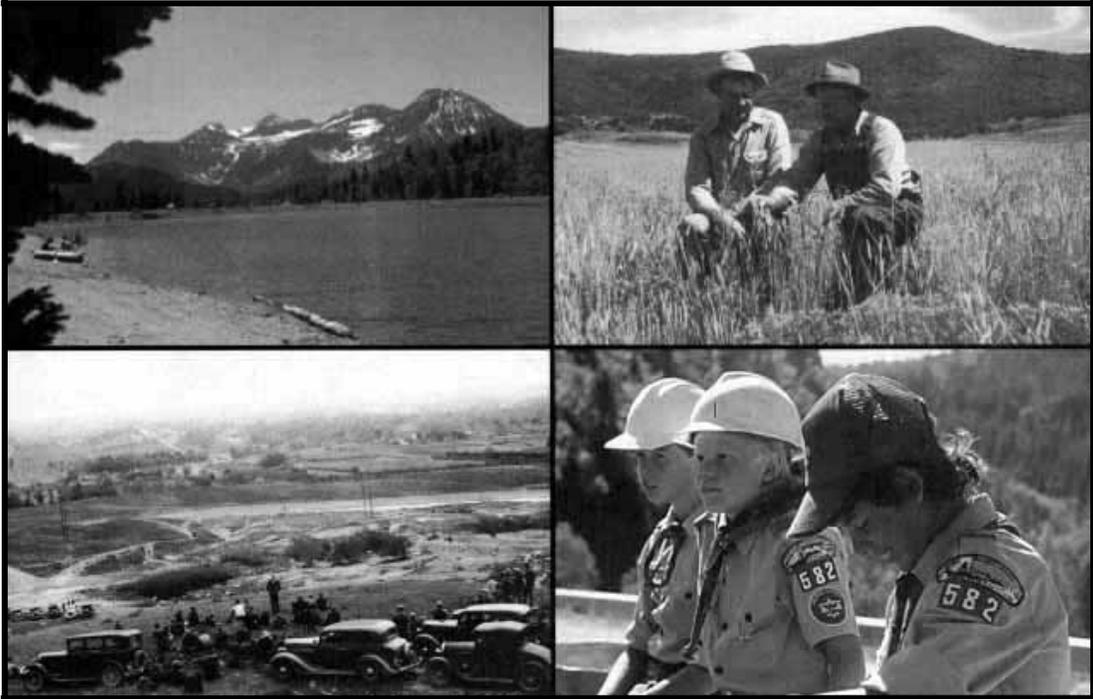




History of the Uinta National Forest



A Century of Stewardship



United States
Department of
Agriculture

Forest
Service

Uinta National
Forest

Provo,
Utah

History of the Uinta National Forest

A Century of Stewardship

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Cover photos, clockwise from upper left: Silver Lake Reservoir with Mount Timpanogos in the background, Dan Gull and A. Taylor looking over Ray's Valley reseeding, 1951, Boy Scouts volunteering at Tibble Fork Reservoir, and Provo Peak Watershed Project meeting at the mouth of Slate Canyon, 1935.

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Forward

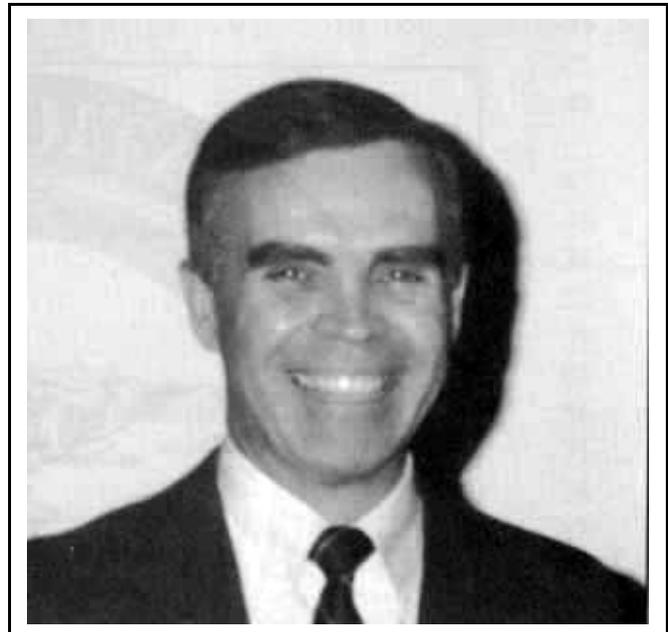
We have no way of knowing who first named the area called the Uinta National Forest. We do know that the word “Uinta” comes from a Native American word meaning “pine tree” or “pine forest.” The forested areas, wonderful streams, meadows, striking mountains and rock formations, along with the native wildlife, fish and plants make this National Forest one of the finest lands that we have in our entire country!

We expect the early inhabitants relied very heavily on the natural resources that were produced on the Uinta. Their lives depended on the wild animals, fish, plants, and clean water that came from the Uinta. Products from the Forest were undoubtedly used for clothing, shelter, and heat for warmth and cooking.

While little is known about the early people’s use of the Forest, much more is known about the settlers that moved here from the East. These people were very dependent on forest resources to carve out a settlement suitable for their needs. Their use of the land actually resulted in the designation of the Forest as Utah’s First Reserve. The designation was, in part, to protect the resources for future generations through wise-use of renewable natural resources. The Forest Service was created as the conservation leader to manage these national treasures.

While we are not nearly as dependent today on forest products from the Uinta National Forest, the need to provide natural resources for the American people and the challenge to protect the ecological and social values has never been greater. Today, recreation use on the Forest, along with clean air and clean water, are the most important “products” we provide. With the many stresses that life and work present us, the opportunity to come to the Uinta National Forest to “re-create” oneself is an invaluable resource for the American people. There are still many places on the Forest that have changed little since designation as a Forest Reserve 100 years ago. Yet, many areas have changed due to our use and the large numbers of people that come to enjoy their National Forest.

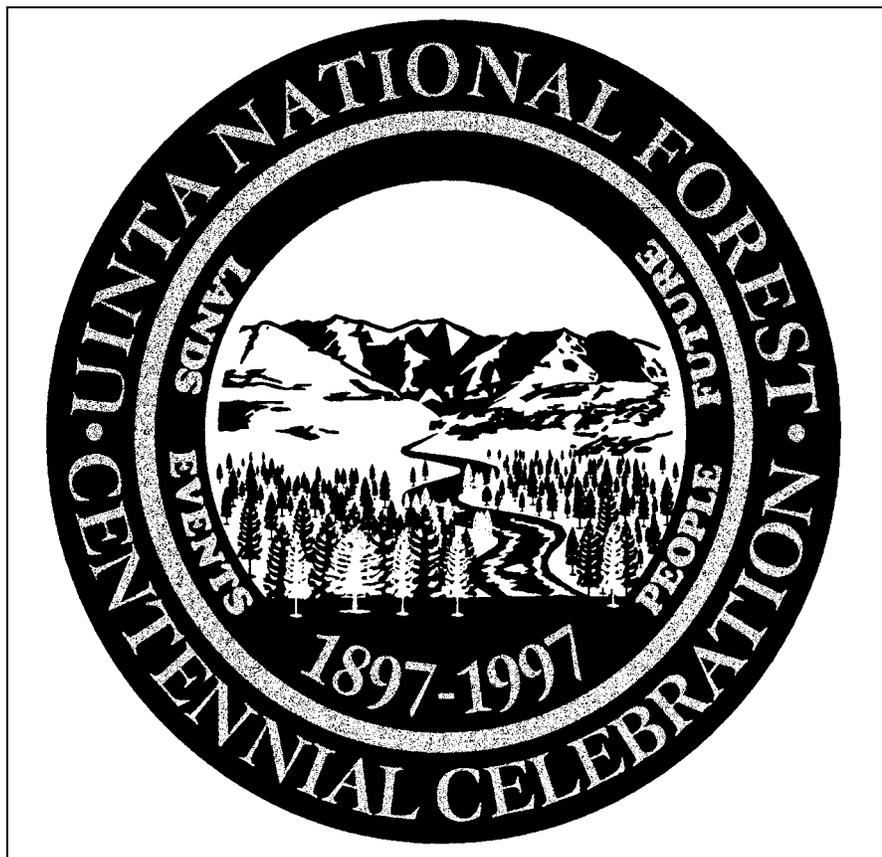
No one will dispute the large population increase around the Uinta National Forest and the increasing numbers of people, with diverse uses on the Forest. At the same time Federal budgets and work force are declining. We have been successful in the past to work in partnership with the owners of the Uinta to make it a better place for all. The local people have been especially generous in the many hours they have given to improve and protect “their Forest.” We could not have done as much in the past without them and we must ask for more of their help and support in the future.



Peter W. Karp, Uinta National Forest Supervisor

Our challenges for the future 100 years of the Uinta will be quite different from the first 100 years. The Uinta is now one of about 15 National Forests in the whole country that is designated as an “Urban National Forest.” That is, a forest within a one hour drive of a million or more people. Our needs for the future will include clean air, clean water, and a place to “re-create” oneself. With increasing populations, we will face new challenges to meet those needs. Continued volunteering and partnering by the owners and managers of these lands will help provide solutions for the future. Designation of some lands as wilderness areas will help protect part of what existed over the last 100 years and more. Creation of other areas, such as a “Children’s Forest,” will provide an outdoor learning center for the youth that will eventually care for these lands. Wise and careful use by all of us ensures that these lands will be available to provide the joy we experience today and well into the next millennium. Each of us has a responsibility to care for the lands and resources of the Uinta National Forest.

Peter W. Karp
Forest Supervisor



Uinta National Forest Centennial Logo. Adopted as the official Forest Logo on February 22, 1997.

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INTRODUCTION

An unusual combination of land, people, and events has given the Uinta National Forest and surrounding areas a unique place in history. Within the current National Forest boundary is land originally included in the first Forest Reserve established in the State of Utah on February 22, 1897, one year after Utah received statehood. Large portions of the original Uinta Forest Reserve were later incorporated into the Ashley and Wasatch National Forests.

Like all National Forests in Utah, the Uinta was created at the request of local communities. Although early European-American settlers tried to use the land wisely, they did not fully understand the basic facts of ecology. By the 1890's, many of the range, timber and watershed resources of the Uinta and Wasatch Mountains were seriously depleted. The newly created Forest Service was seen as the best organization to turn this around. Its mission was to manage these public lands for the best use by the largest number of people. This goal continues today, with the addition of greater knowledge about how ecosystems function. This means managing resources under the best combination of uses to benefit the American people while ensuring the long term health of all parts of the ecosystem.

One of the things that makes the Uinta National Forest unique is the degree to which these goals have been promoted by local community leaders and organizations. For example, private lands above the eastern edge of Utah Valley were added to the Uinta as a result of lobbying by Dr. Vasco M. Tanner and the Provo Chamber of Commerce, who were

concerned about repeated flooding off the overgrazed lands. Citizens of Juab County pressed for reforestation in Salt Creek in the earlier part of this century, and even helped plant thousands of the trees themselves. Watershed rehabilitation projects in Santaquin Canyon in the 1950's were a cooperative effort between Santaquin, Genola, Utah County and the Forest Service. More examples of these kinds of partnerships are described in the pages to come.

In telling the story of the development of the Uinta National Forest and the surrounding area, we will set the stage for early land use, the creation of the Forest, and its subsequent management. Our focus will be on the relationship between the people of the nearby settled valleys and their forests. By looking through the eyes of the Native Americans, early European settlers, Forest Service leaders and those who have built from their foundations, perhaps we can better understand how to prepare for resource management challenges in the future.

This document revises and updates the Forest History created as part of the celebration of the Forest's 75th Anniversary; *Utah's First Forest's First 75 Years*. Its purpose is to convey the unique history of the Uinta National Forest, its successes in resource management and challenges for the future.

CHAPTER 1: EARLY HISTORY OF THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST LANDS

The Uinta National Forest experienced widespread use before its designation as a Forest Reserve in 1897. From the first mammoth hunters 12,000 years ago to the European settlement 150 years ago, the Uinta National Forest and the lands surrounding it have always provided people with the resources necessary for survival. These include game animals, wild plant foods, clean water and timber for construction. The following is a brief account of the people that relied on the Forest lands prior to 1897.

NATIVE AMERICANS AND THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST LANDS

Paleo-Indians: The First Forest Users 10,000 B.C. to 6500 B.C.

The first humans probably entered North America as early as 35,000 years ago as they followed populations of mammoth and other big game species from the Asian continent. By about 12,000 years ago, these people passed through Canada and into the southern half of the continent. They are known to us as the Paleo-Indians who spread rapidly throughout North America, a continent rich in diverse populations of plants and animals. But this was also a period of climatic change in North America and game followed changes in vegetation communities. As a result, the Paleo-Indians lived a highly mobile lifestyle, tracking the game year-round (Kelley and Todd 1988). Paleo-Indians followed

migrating big game into Utah and were probably the first humans to make use of resources in what is now the Uinta National Forest. At that time, the shore line of Lake Bonneville extended near or into the present day forest boundary and Paleo-Indians likely hunted mammoth and other big game species along the shoreline and into the Forest lands. Though no Paleo-Indian sites have been found on the Forest, the remains of large Ice Age mammals in Utah Valley attest to the diversity of game populations in the area.

Archaic Cultures: Expanded Hunting and Gathering 6500 B.C. to A.D. 400

By about 6500 B.C., the climate had become warmer and drier and the mammoth and other large mammals had disappeared. As a result, people took advantage of a broader selection of plants and smaller game such as mountain sheep. Though big game species were still important, these Archaic peoples hunted small mammals and collected plant foods on valley floors left dry by the receding waters of Lake Bonneville (Fagan 1991). In Utah and Juab Valleys, Archaic hunter-gatherers were tied closely to the highly abundant resources in the valley bottoms along the Wasatch Front. Wild raspberries, choke cherries, service berries and other plants located on Forest lands were essential foods, especially in the fall. Many big game species lived primarily in the higher elevations and Archaic hunters tracked big horn sheep, deer, elk and other animals across Forest lands. Seasonal camps were established and many Archaic people probably spent the late summer months on the Uinta.

Excavations have been conducted at

two temporary Archaic camps on the Uinta. American Fork Cave, in American Fork Canyon, contained mostly bone from big horn sheep. This suggests that groups of Archaic men were hunting in the canyon during the fall and returning with the meat to family camps in the valley (Janetski 1990). This contrasts somewhat with findings from Wolf Springs, a temporary camp along the Wolf Creek Highway on the Heber Ranger District. Here entire Archaic families were going into the mountains, for extended periods of time, to hunt, process hides, gather plants and make stone tools out of locally available quartzite. These people probably came from the valleys in the Uinta Basin or along the Wasatch Front (Reed 1994).

**Formative Culture: Utah's First Farmers
A.D. 400 to A.D. 1300**

About A.D. 400, farming began in the valleys along the Wasatch Front, a practice adopted from North American and Mexican cultures to the south. The Fremont, as these people are known, established scattered farmsteads and small villages in the valleys and on the benches around Forest lands. They cultivated corn, beans and squash, but continued to rely on wild plants and game as well (Madsen 1979). The Fremont continued to utilize resources in the higher elevations but probably spent less time on Forest lands than their predecessors. Around A.D. 1300, the weather became colder and drier which made the cultivation of corn very unreliable. The Fremont people abandoned their villages and moved out of the area or adopted hunting and gathering as their ancestors had done (Janetski 1991).

**Late Prehistoric:
Return of the Hunter-Gatherers
A.D. 1300 to A.D. 1800**

By A.D. 1300, a group of people known as the Numic spread out across the Great Basin from either southern California or northern Mexico. In northern and central Utah, they replaced the Fremont. The Numic continued a way of life based on hunting and gathering as the Archaic peoples had before them. They gathered roots, seeds and berries and hunted small game as well as deer, mountain sheep, bison and other large mammals. The Utes and Goshutes, two distinct groups of Numic people, settled the lands in and around the Uinta National Forest. For these people, like their Archaic predecessors, the lands of the Uinta provided resources important for survival (Fowler and Fowler 1971).

The Utes probably began calling the land around the present Uinta National Forest home around A.D. 1400. They populated areas from Utah Lake to western Colorado and from the High Uintas to northern New Mexico and Arizona. The Utes that occupied the lands of the Uinta are known as the Timpanogots (or Utah Valley Utes) and the Uintah Utes.

The Timpanogots inhabited Utah Valley, north central Utah, and frequented areas as far east as the Strawberry Valley region. Their territory was defined on the north by the Traverse Mountains that separate Utah and Salt Lake Valleys, and areas north of that boundary were used by Shoshone peoples. At the time of the first European contact, Ute villages were located on the rivers on the east side of Utah Valley. The people fished in Utah Lake, used marsh plants and animals and hunted for small game, deer, elk and bison in the valley. Timpanogots used the present

Forest lands to hunt deer, elk, bear and mountain sheep and gather wild strawberries, raspberries, service berries, choke cherries and black berries. Most of the food gathering that took place on Forest lands probably occurred late in the summer when temperatures were warm and upland berries were ripe (Janetski 1991).

The name Timpanogots translates as rock (*tumpi-*), water mouth or canyon (*panogos*) people (*ots*), perhaps referring to a rocky canyon, like Provo Canyon, from which a river flows (Steward 1938). The Timpanogots have also been referred to as the *Timpa-nuu-cii* which translates to mouth (*tipana*) people (*nucci*) (Smith 1974). Early explorers suggested that the Utah Valley Utes named themselves after Lake Timpanogos (Utah Lake).



Ute home in the Uinta Basin, 1873. National Anthropological Archives, Smithsonian Institution.

The Uintah Utes occupied the Uinta Basin of northeastern Utah, but they ranged as far west as the Wasatch Front. Because of this, they probably had a close relationship with the Timpanogots. One of the journal entries of the Dominguez-Escalante expedition noted that the Utes frequented Strawberry Valley: “The guide told us that in it [Strawberry Valley] there had dwelt a portion of Lagunas [Utes], who depended on the said river’s fishing for their more regular sustenance and who had moved out for fear of the Comanche, who were starting their incursions through this part of the sierra...” (Warner 1976:50).

The name Uintah is derived from *U-int-a-nu-kwints*, which is the Ute name for the Uinta River (Fowler and Fowler 1971:178). Venita Taveaponts, a Ute linguist, states that the word Uinta, which is derived from the Ute word *Yoov-we-tueh*, means pine tree or pine forest. The Uintah Utes called themselves the *Pag-wa-nu-chi*, the Water-edge People (Calloway et al. 1986).

The Gosuite people inhabited the regions around Rush Valley, Skull Valley and adjacent areas, including lands within the present boundaries of the Vernon Management Area of the Wasatch-Cache National Forest which is managed by the Uinta National Forest. More widely distributed resources prevented the formation of large groups in any single area. Therefore, the Gosuites hunted and gathered in small bands of twenty-five to thirty people and lived in small, temporary camps. In the winter, several bands might combine into villages located in sheltered areas where water and wood were available. One of these areas was the north end of Rush Valley, along Vernon Creek. These people lived on a diet of plants,

roots, berries, pine nuts, seeds and greens. This diet was supplemented by game species that included rabbits, birds, mountain sheep, deer, bear and elk. Prior to contact with the Mormon settlers, the Gosuities had little contact with their Ute and Paiute neighbors to the south and east, though they did associate with the Western Shoshonis of Nevada (Allen and Warner 1971).

EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN EXPLORATION

The Escalante-Dominguez Expedition

The first documented European explorations into Forest lands occurred in 1776. Father Silvestre Velez de Escalante and Father Francisco Antanasio de Dominguez, two Franciscan Priests, were sent by the Spanish to find a direct route from Santa Fe, New Mexico, to Monterey, California (Isebell 1972). The priests and eight other men began their journey on August 1, 1776. Two Ute guides, Joaquin and Silvestre, later joined the party.

On September 20, the party left their camp near Red Creek and continued west, past present day Fruitland, past Currant Creek and set camp at a spring they called Ojo de Santa Lucia. The next morning, the party descended into Strawberry Valley.

On the 21st we set out from El Ojo de Santa Lucia toward the south west along the same narrow valley which we just ascended through a grove of white poplar [aspen], and after going a quarter league we swung west for a league and three-quarters, now over bothersome

sagebrush stretches, now through low, narrow valleys of very soft dirt and many small holes in which, because they lay hidden in the undergrowth, the mounts kept sinking and stumbling at every instant. Then we went down to a medium-sized river [Trout Creek] in which good trout breed in abundance, two of which Joaquin the Laquna killed with arrows and caught, and each one must have weighed more than two pounds. This river runs to the southeast along a very pleasant valley with good pasturages, many springs, and beautiful groves of not very tall or thick white poplars. In it there are



all the conveniences required for a settlement. We named it Valle de la Pruisima [present day Strawberry Valley] (Warner 1976: p.50).

The party continued on across Trout Creek, now under the northeast bay of Strawberry Reservoir, crossed the valley floor and entered Bryant's Fork. They climbed Bryant's Fork to Strawberry Ridge:

Along this ridge we went southwest for a quarter league and descended it, breaking through almost impenetrable swaths of choke cherry and scrub oak and passing through another poplar forest so thick that we doubted if the packs could get through unless they were first taken off (Warner 1976: p.51).

The party dropped into Sixth Water Creek and made camp.

The day of September 22, the party traveled down Diamond Fork and camped at the junction of Diamond Fork and Wanrhodes Canyon near the present site of Palmyra Campground. On the 23rd, the party followed Diamond Fork to its confluence with the Spanish Fork River and continued down Spanish Fork Canyon. Escalante noted how suitable the area would be for sheep herding. "After going west downstream for three-quarters of a league, we passed by three copious springs of hot water [Castilla Hot Springs] that we touched and tasted, and it is of the same sulphurous quality as the one adjacent to El Pueblo de San Diego of the Jemez Indians in New Mexico" (Warner 1976: p.53). They exited Spanish Fork Canyon, climbed a small hill, probably the bench at the

mouth of the canyon, and caught their first glimpse of Lake Timanogotzis (Utah Lake) and Nuestra Senora de la Merced of the Timpanogotzis, Our Lady of Mercy of the Timpanogotzis (Utah Valley). There, they encountered the Timpanogots, the Utah Valley Utes. Escalante and Dominguez noted the rich resources not only in the valley bottom but in the adjacent mountains as well. The Dominguez-Escalante Journal describes Utah Valley as having "plenty of firewood and timber in the adjacent sierra which surrounds it - many sheltered spots, waters, and pasturages, for raising cattle and sheep and horses. This applies along the north, the northeast, and the eastern and southeastern sides" (Warner 1976: p.60).

This exploration by Escalante's party led to a claim which established Utah first as part of the Spanish domain, and later as part of the Mexican Territory in 1821. In the 75 years that followed, the Spanish and Mexicans traded actively with the Utes southern Colorado, and the Timpanogots participated in this trade through their neighbors. Spanish miners also made prospecting trips into the area.

Mountain Men and the Fur Trade

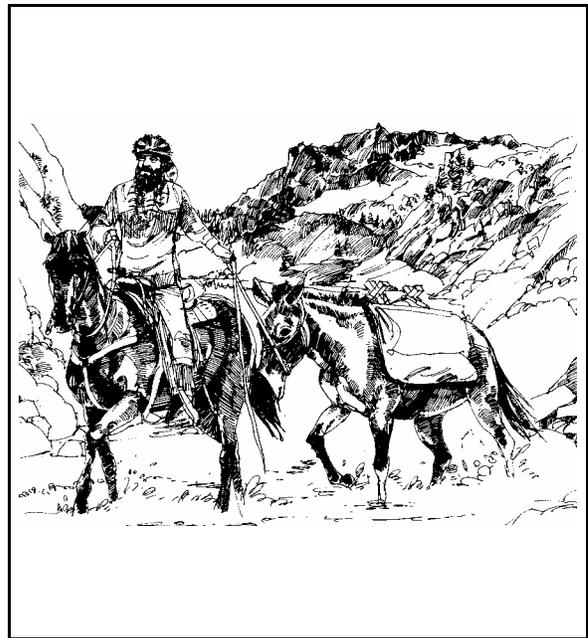
It wasn't until the 1820's that a new group of people entered these mountains and valleys. The mountain men, as they were called, were after beaver skins. Top hats made of beaver fur were high fashion for men in Europe and America and it took a rugged individual, like the mountain man, to cash in on the economic bonanza found in beaver pelts. American and British trappers had been competing for control of the western fur trade since 1808, and their entry into Utah was part of a three pronged convergence on the fur country located where Idaho, Utah and Wyoming meet.

The British sent expeditions out of the northwest, independent trappers worked out of Taos, New Mexico, and American companies sent expeditions from St. Louis.

The first American Fur Trapper known to enter lands of the Uinta National Forest was Etienne Provost. In August of 1824, Provost left Taos and entered Utah in search of beaver, probably following the same route Escalante and Dominguez had followed almost fifty years before. In October, Provost and a party of approximately fifteen men entered Strawberry Valley. Very little regarding Provost's expedition into this area is recorded and where the party went from Strawberry Valley is uncertain. They either crossed over Daniels Summit into Heber Valley and followed the Provo River into Utah Valley or they crossed the Wasatch into Kamas Valley and followed the Weber into Salt Lake Valley. While traveling north along the Jordan River from Utah Lake, Provost and his men were attacked by a group of Shoshone braves and at least half of Provost's men were killed (Tykal 1989:48-50). The Provo River and Provo City are named after him.

In the spring of 1825, William Henry Ashley entered the area and described the Wasatch Mountains as "fertile and closely timbered with pine, cedar, quaking-asp, and a dwarfish growth of oak; a great number of beautiful streams issue from them on each side, running through fertile valleys richly clothed with grass" (Dale 1941: 148). In August of 1826, Jedediah Strong Smith traveled along the Wasatch Front from the Great Salt Lake through Utah Valley in search of new areas to trap beaver. There he traded knives, tobacco, lead, black powder and other items with the Utes in Utah Valley (Morgan

1964). In 1827, Smith returned to the Wasatch backtracking along Ashley's route down Provo Canyon and into Utah Valley. Morgan's (1964:237) account of the event is as follows: "Here he found a large band of Utes encamped, the same with which he had made a treaty the year before. The Utes told him that in the spring some white men had come up from the south and turned east in the direction of Taos; these men were nearly starved to death. What had been an unknown land only a year before was already being transformed into a crossroads." In February of 1842, a trapper by the name of Osborne Russel entered Utah Valley. Like Ashley, he was struck by the resources available in the



area. He wrote: "This is a beautiful and fertile Valley intersected by large numbers of fine springs which flow from the mountain to the Lake and could with little labor and expense [be] made to irrigate the whole Valley" (Russel 1984:120).

Early Expeditions through the West

In May of 1844, John C. Fremont, acting as a lieutenant for the Bureau of Topographical Engineers, led an expedition through the Wasatch, the second of five expeditions he would lead through the West. This was part of a growing movement by the U.S. government to explore the northern portions of Mexican territory. In passing through Utah Valley, Fremont mistakenly assumed Utah Lake was the southern arm of the Great Salt Lake. From Utah Valley, the expedition climbed Spanish Fork Canyon, taking note of the variety of fossil shells present in the limestone escarpments. The party crossed Soldier Summit and headed east toward the Uintah Basin and Antoine Robidoux's Fort Uintah to purchase supplies. In October of 1845, Fremont led his third expedition along the Provo River (which Fremont referred to as the Timpanogos River), through Heber Valley and down Provo Canyon. From Utah Valley, the party turned north into Salt Lake Valley (Egan 1977). The entire area soon came under limited U.S. control at the end of the Mexican War in 1848. In the mean time, Fremont's text (as well as the verbal accounts by trappers and other explorers) provided the first detailed information about the Uinta National Forest area for the rest of the United States. This information strongly influenced the next major event in the Forest's history.

MORMON SETTLEMENT AND RESOURCE USE

Members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (the Mormons) were the first Europeans to settle in Utah Valley. These people left their homes in



"Pioneer Camp," a lithograph by John Hafen. Utah State Historical Society.

Kirtland, Ohio, in Missouri, and Nauvoo, Illinois to escape religious persecution. The first group arrived in Salt Lake Valley on July 24, 1847. By the end of the year, 17,000 had migrated to the State of Deseret, as Utah was first known. Soon thereafter, Provo, Heber, Nephi and other towns were established along the critical boundary between the fertile valleys and resource rich mountains. Mormon settlement was unique in that their use of both sets of resources was done as a community.

Water

After settling in Utah, Mormon leaders realized that the nearest industry and agricultural markets were several hundred miles and many months away. No time was wasted as they geared their people for survival. Water was needed to plant crops for winter food. Without water, the crops would burn up and attempts at colonization would be futile. Mormon frontiersman O.B. Huntington and others were sent to Utah Valley to look for suitable farm lands and water sources. He tells in his diary about the naming of

Hobble Creek:

...went on 18 miles and crossed the Provo river, the bottom lands of which are covered with large cottonwoods, boxelder, ash, oak and maple. Five or six miles from there, south, we came to a small creek which had no name until we stayed there over night and I lost a pair of iron hobbles used for fastening the forefeet of horses together. We called it Hobble Creek and afterwards it went by that name... (Huntington 1942: p.48).

All Utah Valley settlement developed along the streams that flowed out of the adjacent mountains.

Timber

Their next basic need was the acquisition of timber for the construction of shelter for homes and livestock, and to provide fuel. William Gardner, another settler, explored the headwaters of the Weber and Provo Rivers in September 1852, and his description of the region highlights the settler's interest in acquiring timber:

...the Provo River is as handsome a stream for floating purposes as could be desired, it is not as rapid as the Weber River and the channel is deeper, but it's pretty rough at the mouth of the canyon, which is the best canyon for a road that I have ever seen, having fine narrow valleys with rich soil and good pasture....the streams can also be utilized pretty well for floating down timber (U.S. Department of

Agriculture 1972).

Readily accessible sources of firewood disappeared quickly along the mountain-valley margins, and the work of obtaining firewood grew. Joseph Rawlin's diary gives us a glimpse of the labor-consuming effort:

One of the severe tasks that faced the settlers each fall was the securing of the winter's fuel supply of brush and wood, since coal of course was not available....the start for the canyon would be made early in the morning and the return with the load of wood took place in the afternoon of the next day.

I remember the steep roads and the wild nature of the canyon. The wagon would be taken as far as possible to the camping place and then the horses, with single-trees



and drag chains, would be led up some steep ravine on a drag road, the pine timber felled, and arranged in piles in the dragway. To these the horses were attached by means of chains and thus the timber was dragged to the wagon, usually about the time darkness was settling upon the scene....The succeeding morning after breakfast the logs were cut to suitable lengths, lifted upon the wagon, bound with log chains and ready for the start tomorrow. About twenty such trips were required to lay in the necessary supply of wood for the winter (Rawlins 1956).

The canyons on Mt. Nebo were one of the areas which produced building materials. In Salt Creek, east of Nephi, a sawmill was located where Bear Canyon Campground exists today and logs from Bear Canyon were floated to the mill in a flume. In 1851, Morris Phelps established one of the first saw mills in the north end of Utah Valley. He built the mill above Alpine at the mouth of a canyon known today as Phelps Canyon. Timber from these canyons supplied the people of Mountainville [Alpine] and other nearby communities with building materials. That same year, Isaac Houston and James Preston built a saw mill in American Fork Canyon (Wild 1982). In the years that followed, saw mills would be constructed in nearly every canyon along the valley front.

Demand for timber continued to increase and the need for timber management was soon recognized by early Mormon leaders. In the 1850's, Brigham Young, Parley P. Pratt and George A. Smith were given control over important

canyons and associated resources by territorial legislative grants. This form of timber regulation worked well during the initial stages of colonization when the emphasis was on subsistence and property rights were not well established. But, by the time communities were established, stewardship gave way to free enterprise as many settlers took advantage of timber resources for a profit, despite efforts to control resource utilization by Mormon leaders. By the 1880's, timber resources along the Wasatch Front had been reduced to the point that timber was being brought in from the Sierra Nevadas and Chicago (Peterson and Speth 1980).

Grazing

Cattle provided early settlers with transportation, meat, milk and clothing. Cattle were grazed in the mountains of the Uinta from the time of initial settlement onward. Sheep were also important to the settlers as a source of clothing and meat. The sheep were summered on present day Forest lands and wintered in the valleys. By 1860, the population of Utah had risen to 40,273. The number of cattle was also on the upswing, 34,094 head.

With the surge in numbers of livestock on rangelands, it soon became necessary to enact laws that managed grazing for the benefit of both the livestock owner and the range. Before 1870, there was very little conflict over range. Settlers were more inclined to buy out a competitor or share grazing lands with him. Early legislation in Utah favored a controlled disposition of the public domain, and between 1855 and 1857, more than 30 pieces of legislation were passed granting herd grounds on the public domain to private citizens and the Mormon Church.

Some of this legislation authorized county courts to regulate local grazing lands (Peterson 1964).

In 1874, the Animals-at-Large Act repealed earlier acts authorizing county courts to designate herd grounds and prevent nonresidents from grazing in certain areas. With the passing of local control, disputes over grazing areas grew more acute. Officials in Utah soon realized that livestock owners needed some kind of secure title through ownership or lease to avoid grazing disputes and maintain a productive range. Contributing to conflict over range was the idea that cattle and horses could not be grazed on lands that sheep had grazed on. In 1888, legislation was passed that sought to establish legal title to range areas on the basis of prior use, but this failed in its intent.

By 1886, legislation was passed to deal with the increased problem of livestock theft. Stricter guidelines were introduced in the areas of branding and sale and the theft of livestock was made a felony, punishable by 10 years imprisonment and a \$5,000 fine. The success of these laws is not clear, but in 1890, many of the requirements introduced by the legislation were dropped. With the great demand placed upon the mountains' natural resources through grazing, a new problem faced the settlers - floods. Church leaders became concerned with overgrazing and the resultant flooding. Orson Hyde spoke from the pulpit at a Church Conference on October 7, 1865, saying:

I find the longer we live in these valleys that the range is becoming more and more destitute of grass; the grass is not only eaten up by the great amount of stock that

feed upon it, but they tramp it out by the very roots; and where grass once grew luxuriantly there is now nothing but desert weed, and hardly a spear of grass is to be seen...Being cut short of our range in the way we have been, and accumulating stock as we are, we have nothing to feed them with in the winter and they perish. There is no profit in this, neither it pleasing in the sight of God our Heavenly Father that we should continue a course of life like unto this (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972

Mining

During the 1849 California gold rush, Brigham Young and other Church leaders took a definite stand against Mormons carrying on the occupation of gold and silver mining. They realized this stand against mining would be considered as a "great oppression in Utah," but they held firm to their beliefs. The Church leaders felt that: (1) Agriculture and home industry were more important to survival than prospecting for precious metals; (2) without capital, mining technology or cheap means of transportation, such as the railroad, mining would not prove profitable; (3) the influx of miners and other outsiders would bring into the Territory an element that would tend to be antagonistic to the Church. However, there were some Mormon leaders who pursued mining with the intent of enriching the churches coffers (Holmes 1990). Regardless, because of the combination of Brigham Young's anti-mining sentiment and the lack of railroads available to transport ore, the mountains of the Wasatch were spared the effects of extensive mining

until the 1870's.

Recreation

The forests offered the early settlers recreational opportunities as well. Outdoor recreation was recommended by Brigham Young as far back as 1855, when he stated in a talk:

I am going to explore in the mountains, and I invite you too. Take your wives, but not your babies, unless you take a cradle to keep them quiet. The out-door air is what the people need for health, it is good for them to camp out (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

Joseph Rawlins gives us a glimpse of what camping was like in 1884 from the record he kept in his diary. His family, with those of Dr. Heber J. Richards, Adelbert Roundy and guests from the Dr. John R. Park family went into the Uinta Mountains to camp in the wilderness during the summer. He writes:

...This (camp) was then far in the wilderness, and trout in the streams, prairie chickens along the creeks and deer in the woods or hiding in the brush in the canyons, were plentiful. Bear and mountain lion might occasionally be seen...No setting, accordingly, could have been more perfect for a summer vacation, or more picturesque. Mountains clothed with untouched groves of fir, pine and quaking aspen, rose up majestically above us. The open spaces were brilliant with many wild flowers, the pure air was filled with perfumes and the

scent of pines. It seemed to me that the stars shone brighter there than any other place in the world. Then again the occasional fierce winds would sway the trees mightily, lightning would play fiercely and grandly about the peaks and the hills would reverberate and echo with thunder. But we would be snug in our tents, and if caught outdoors, there was always wide branched trees under which we could take shelter (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

A unique dance hall was established by the Mormon settlers in American Fork Canyon and provided a novel place to gather out of the hot valley sun. Dance Hall Cave was established by Alva A. Green Sr. in the early 1880's. A platform was constructed for the dance floor and an orchestra sat on one of the cave's ledges. The cave was not used as a dance hall for very long due to the difficulty in accessing it and poor lighting, but it is still known today as Dance Hall Cave (Stauffer 1971:20).

COMPETITION FOR RESOURCES BETWEEN THE MORMONS, UTES AND GOSUITES

The valleys that were the focus of Mormon settlement, as well as the mountainous areas that would later become part of the Uinta National Forest, had provided the Utes with game to hunt and clean water to fish in for centuries before the settlers came to Utah. The loss of these areas to Mormon settlement was disastrous and led to a period of conflict between the settlers and the Native Americans in and

around what are now Forest lands. In some cases, the mountains of the Uinta provided the Utes with a refuge from Mormon expansion and occasional hostility.

In March of 1849, competition for the resources of the valleys and mountains on the Wasatch Front led to bloodshed above what is now Pleasant Grove. A band of Utes led by Little Chief had stolen horses and killed cattle owned by the settlers in Salt Lake Valley. Brigham Young dispatched a company of the Salt Lake Militia to pursue the band and on March 5, the Utes were surrounded in a small canyon. The call for surrender was refused and the militia opened fire, killing four braves and taking the women and children prisoner. The canyon later became known as Battle Creek Canyon (Christy 1978).

On March 18, 1849, Brigham Young and other Mormon leaders sent 150 people to settle Utah Valley. In November of the same year, 224 people were sent to San Pitch (Sanpete) Valley to settle the area south of Utah Valley. Tension grew with the expanding settlement as the Ute people found themselves in direct competition with the settlers for the lands that they had long claimed as their own. Raids were organized by the Utes in Utah Valley to steal cattle and horses. In January 1850, a Ute man was shot by three settlers, apparently for the theft of a shirt. The result was an increase in threats toward the Utah Valley settlers and theft of livestock. Convinced of the need for action, Brigham Young ordered a selective extermination program to be carried out against the hostile Utes in Utah Valley (Christy 1978).

On February 8, 1850, a force made up of militiamen from Salt Lake and Utah Valleys supported by a canon laid siege to a

band of Utes near the Provo River. After two days of fighting which left eight Utes and one militia man dead, the wounded and sick Utes retreated into Rock Canyon with the main body of the Ute band retreating toward the Spanish Fork River. Three weeks of skirmishes between the militia and the Utes followed in Utah Valley, Rock Canyon and Peteetneet Creek leaving seven more Utes dead. The conflict finally came to a close with a truce in late February (Christy 1978).

The Walker War

The tension again mounted in 1853 as a result of continued food, clothing and shelter shortages among the Utes, and an effort mounted by Mormon officials to put an end to the trade in slaves between the Utes and Mexicans. Violence broke out on July 17 of that year while several Utes were trading with James Ivie and his wife in Springville. A scuffle erupted and Mr. Ivie killed a Ute man. After hearing the news, Chief Wahcarrah, or Chief Walker as he would come to be known, and the already enraged Utes held a council of war. Chief Walker moved his camp from Hobbler Creek to Walker Flat in Payson Canyon and prepared to avenge the man's death. On July 18, two Utes rode into the fort at Peteetneet (Payson), shot one of the posted guards, Alexander Keele, and rode back into Payson Canyon. In the days that followed, the saw mill operated by Pardon Webb in Payson Canyon and the settlements of Pleasant Creek (Mt. Pleasant) and Nephi were all fired on by Chief Walker's men. Ute raids and Mormon militia excursions in Utah, Juab, San Juan, Sanpete, Millard, Summit and Iron Counties continued during the summer of 1853 and into 1854 leaving at least 27

Utes and 10 settlers dead. In May of 1854, Brigham Young, after continued efforts to end the hostilities, visited the village of Chief Walker and peace was negotiated (Christy 1979).

The Black Hawk War

In 1854, in response to the Walker War, Brigham Young established Indian farms in several locations in an attempt to pacify the Utes for lost land and resource depletion. Brigham Young's policy stated that it was "cheaper to feed the Indians than to fight them." One of these farms was located in Spanish Fork and was meant to encourage a settled lifestyle for the Utes and provide a stable food source. These farms were operated and maintained by Mormon settlers for the benefit of the Ute people. Within a few years, however, the settlers lost interest in maintaining them and the farms fell into a state of disrepair. With the outbreak of the Civil War, the Federal Government was not able to provide the Utes with the assistance they needed either. The farms were abandoned and the Utes moved to traditional hunting areas in the mountains (Metcalf 1989).

Unfortunately, Mormon hunting and grazing had taken its toll on game populations in the mountains as well as the valleys, and what followed was a period of hunger and starvation. To survive the Utes were forced to beg for food or steal it. During the winter of 1864-65, a band of Utes wintering at Gunnison experienced a smallpox epidemic and many died. The Mormons were blamed for the deaths and, in the spring of 1865, a council between the Mormons and the Utes was arranged in Manti. A scuffle between a Mormon interpreter, John Lowry, and a young Ute named Yenewood erupted and the Utes left

the meeting enraged. The Ute band, led by Black Hawk, rode away and killed some workers in an isolated canyon. As a result of the building unrest and anger among the Utes, this relatively small incident resulted in a series of conflicts that would become known as the Black Hawk War (Metcalf 1989).

On May 16, Christian Larsen was killed by Black Hawk's men while herding cattle on the east bench above Spanish Fork. Ten days later, the Given family was attacked in Thistle Valley and all six members of the family were killed. In response, the settlers gathered militia members from Salt Lake, under the command of Heber Kimball, and Utah Valley, under the command of A.G. Conover, to join others from south-central Utah. Black Hawk's men continued the raids, killing seven in Ephraim and four in Circleville. In Salina, so many cattle were driven off by Black Hawks men that the settlers were forced to abandon the settlement (Dixon 1983).

In June of 1865, the Superintendent of Indian Affairs attempted to curb the unrest present within the Ute tribe by negotiating the Spanish Fork Treaty. It promised the Utes 1.1 million dollars to be paid over sixty years in exchange for land claims in Utah and Sanpete Valleys and the relocation of the Utes to the Uintah Valley Reservation. The Utes refused the offer until Brigham Young spoke to them. They reconsidered and most agreed to the treaty. One notable exception was Chief San Pitch, present at the incident in Manti and leader of the band to which Black Hawk belonged (Metcalf 1989).

In the months following the negotiation of the Spanish Fork Treaty, the various Ute bands relocated to the Uintah

Valley but the government failed to deliver the promised benefits. Conditions on the Uintah Reservation became so dire that some Utes died during the winter. The poor conditions greatly increased Black Hawk's stature among the Utes, and in June of 1866, many departed the Reservation to join Black Hawk's warriors (Metcalf 1989).

Black Hawk's raids continued. In Millard County Henry Wright was wounded and James Ivie was killed, the same man involved in the scuffle that set off the Walker War in 1853. In June of 1866, a raid was mounted on the settlement of Scipio. Two settlers were shot and a large herd of cattle was driven away. Militia units followed the band to Gravely Ford, on the Sevier River. The Utes ambushed the militia and the Battle of Gravely Ford ensued. During this engagement, Black Hawk was wounded by a militia sniper named James Snow. The militia was reinforced and the Utes were forced to retreat (Dixon 1983).

The Ute raids and engagements with the militia continued until the summer of 1867 when Black Hawk suddenly appeared on the Uintah Reservation and sued for peace. Ill with tuberculosis and suffering from the wound he had received at Gravely Ford, Black Hawk no longer wanted trouble with the settlers and returned to Spring Lake, near Payson, to live out the rest of his days. On August 19, 1868, in Strawberry Valley, another treaty was agreed upon between the settlers and Chief Sow-ah-point who had led many of the later raids (Wild 1982). In 1870, Black Hawk toured many of the settlements between Payson and Cedar City, speaking to Mormon congregations and asking for forgiveness. Black Hawk explained to the settlers that the raids were necessitated by

the starvation of his people (Metcalf 1989).

All told, the Black Hawk War resulted in the activation of about 2,500 militiamen, the loss of approximately 5,000 head of cattle, the deaths of as many as ninety settlers and militiamen, and untold numbers of Utes dead or wounded (Metcalf 1989).

Expanding Settlement and the Gosuites

In the vicinity of the Vernon Management Area, Mormon settlement had been steadily encroaching on traditional Gosuite lands and the native people were being forced to change their way of life. They did not easily adapt to farming practices introduced by the settlers and in the early 1860's many were destitute. In a letter sent to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs in December of 1862, Amos Reed complained that much of the tillable portion of the dry country had been occupied by settlers and game populations had been driven off or destroyed. Reed wrote that "it is really a matter of necessity with these Indians that they starve or steal - unless they receive assistance." The Gosuites were forced to raid the livestock and supplies of the settlers. They also attacked Overland Mail Stations, killing three people during the winter of 1862 to 1863 (Allen and Warner 1971).

In 1863, the Federal government concluded a series of treaties and the Gosuites agreed to end hostilities, adopt a life of herding and agriculture, allow travel along several routes through their land, allow the installation of military posts and mail stations, and mines. They also agreed that mills and ranches could be established by European settlers. The treaties also allowed for unrestricted timber harvesting. By 1870, most of the Gosuite bands had

settled down in an effort to make the agricultural lifestyle a success. At the same time, settlers continued to encroach onto land farmed by the Gosuites and pressure was being brought by the government to move them out of the area completely. Indeed, by 1873, a commissioned report by John W. Powell and George W. Ingalls established the Gosuites as a class of wandering beggars and recommended that collecting them onto the Uintah Reservation or Ft. Hall was the best way to serve them (Allen and Warner 1971).

The Gosuites refused to move and continued to farm and graze despite continued competition with growing populations of outside settlers. The issue was dropped until 1912 when President William H. Taft set aside eighty acres in Skull Valley for the exclusive use of the Gosuites. In 1919, President Woodrow Wilson enlarged the reservation by 17,920 acres.

FEDERAL TROOPS COME TO UTAH

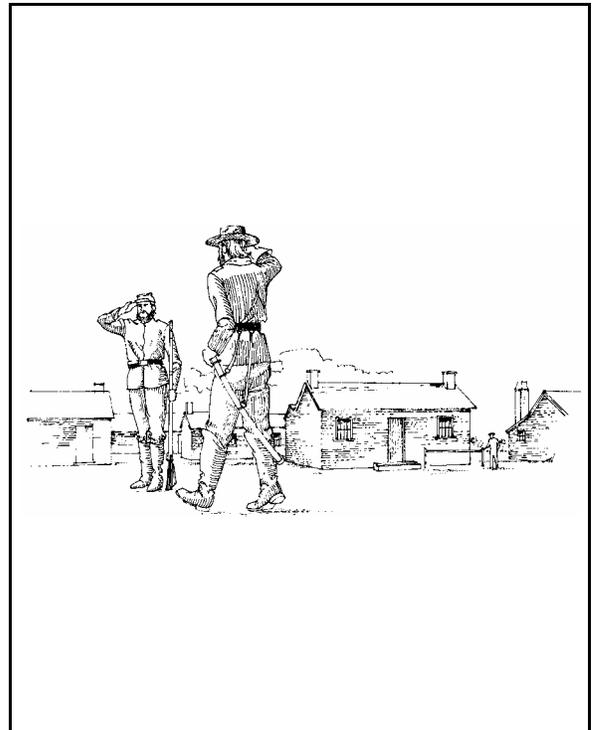
Johnston's Army

In the spring of 1857 W.W. Drummond, Justice of the Utah Territory resigned citing the Mormon's lack of respect for Federal law and the lack of separation of church and state as the reason. He recommended the presence of Federal troops in Utah and the installation of non-Mormon officials to correct these problems. President Buchanan and the Secretary of War, John Floyd, sent 2,500 troops to Utah in July of 1857. This body of troops became known to people in Utah as Johnston's Army.

The march from Leavenworth, Kansas, to Utah took longer than expected, partially due to the guerilla tactics used by

Mormon scouts to slow the force down, and Johnston's army was forced to winter near Ft. Bridger. During the spring of 1858, envoys from Johnston's Army worked out a compromise and that summer the force was able to march into Salt Lake City without incident. Johnston's Army continued south into Cedar Valley and established a military post named after the Secretary of War, Camp Floyd. Johnston's Army remained stationed at Camp Floyd for three years with as many as three thousand soldiers stationed there at one time. Camp Floyd was closed in July of 1861 with the outbreak of the Civil War.

During their stay in Utah, the army engineers explored, mapped and constructed roads throughout the area. One of these routes was constructed in 1859 to allow the army access to Wyoming without having to pass through Salt Lake City. The road was constructed along an existing





Members of the Ninth Cavalry at the Strawberry Valley Camp of Instruction, 1888. Charles W. Carter Collection, Church Archives, The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints.

Mormon trail in Provo Canyon and continued on through Kamas Valley. This road became important to the settlement of Heber Valley by Mormon farmers one year later.

Fort Douglas

In October of 1862, Col. Patrick E. Connor established Camp Douglas above Salt Lake City to provide protection for the Overland Mail Route between Carson Valley, Nevada, and Fort Laramie, Wyoming. With him were seven companies from the Second and Third California Volunteers. Camp Douglas was located on the east bench above Salt Lake City for several reasons. The previously established Camp Floyd was in ruins and unsuitable for troops, the Wasatch Front provided plenty of timber and could produce hay, and the bench afforded Col. Connor a position in

the valley from which he could keep an eye on the Mormons, whom he greatly distrusted. Connor believed the Mormons constituted a community of fanatics who sought to establish an order that superseded that of the Federal Government. Fort Douglas, as it was known after 1876, soon became a strategic point from which to mount campaigns against Native American groups considered hostile (Arrington and Alexander 1965).

Prospecting by the Military

On September 17, 1863, silver bearing ore was discovered in Bingham Canyon. Under Col. Connor's direction a claim was filed, and the West Mountain Quartz Mining District was established, the first mining claim in the Utah Territory (Arrington and Alexander 1965). Connor saw the development of mining as an

opportunity to solve the “Mormon problem” by attracting non-Mormons to the mines...

acting in concert with the now oppressed but dissatisfied saints, will peacefully revolutionize the odious system of church domination which has so long bound down a deluded and ignorant community and threatened the peace and welfare of the people and country (Connor 1864).

Connor instructed his officers to lead patrols into various areas to prospect for precious minerals across Utah, including areas on the Uinta. In 1864, soldiers were sent to prospect in the Uintah Basin and it is during this time that troops from Fort Douglas may have first passed through Strawberry Valley.

The Overland Mail Route

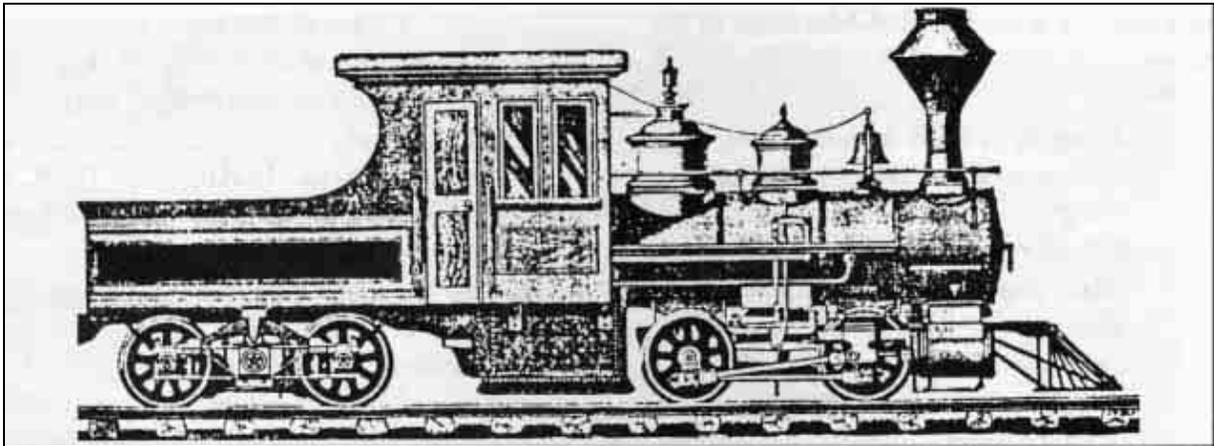
In 1865, an effort was made to build an overland mail route to Denver. The route climbed the left fork of Hobbler Creek Canyon, across Soldier Bench, past the base of Strawberry Peak and along the ridge until it dropped into Strawberry Valley. A battalion of Col. Connor’s soldiers were to provide protection for the workers constructing the route and provide a reasonable amount of assistance. A mail station was erected in the left fork just above Bartholomew Canyon, but the route into Denver was never completed (Isbell 1972). Regardless, the route became an important access into Strawberry Valley and the Uinta Basin for stockmen and homesteaders alike.

The Strawberry Valley Camp of Instruction

In 1885, the order was given to establish “Camps of Instruction” for the purpose of giving the soldiers some realistic training in the field. In August of 1888, a Camp of Instruction at Strawberry Valley was organized. About 650 men were to participate: Companies of the Sixteenth Infantry, the Twenty First Infantry and the Fifth Artillery from Fort Douglas, Companies of the Fourteenth Infantry and the Twenty First Infantry from Fort Bridger and Companies of the Ninth Cavalry and the Sixteenth Infantry from Fort Duchesne. The Ninth Cavalry was one of two African-American regiments in the Western Army during the later 1800’s. The “Buffalo Soldiers,” as they were known, were noted for their professionalism and bravery. These maneuvers allowed men from the scattered regiments, who would be expected to go to battle together, to first train together. Troops from Fort Douglas used the valley for training sporadically between 1887 and 1905. They also monitored settlers moving into the Uintah Basin from temporary garrisons set up in the valley between 1903 and 1905.

THE RAILROAD AND EARLY MINING

In the 1860’s, mining was a costly venture in Utah. The costs of transport made mining barely feasible. In 1869, with the completion of the Transcontinental Railroad and the North-South Railroad Lines, the cost-effective transport of ore became a reality. Col. Connor’s prospecting patrols had aided in the discovery of precious metals along the Wasatch Range, and the mining industry in



A sketch of the American Fork, which operated in American Fork Canyon between 1872 and 1874. The Salt Lake Daily Herald: June 1 and August 4, 6 and 21, 1872.

the mountains of the Uinta exploded. Mines appeared on almost every mountain along the Wasatch Range, including, but not limited to, Santaquin Canyon, Mt. Nebo, Spanish Fork Canyon, Provo Canyon, Rock Canyon and, most notably, American Fork Canyon.

The American Fork Mining District

Early mining in the American Fork Mining District had a great effect on land management in American Fork Canyon today. Early mining claims resulted in the checkerboard of public and private property in the canyon, a pattern of ownership that complicates right-of-ways and ecological land management aspects.

Among the first mines established in American Fork Canyon was the Pittsburgh Mine just south of Alta. It was discovered by soldiers from Fort Douglas and officially located by them in 1870. A flurry of activity followed and the American Fork Mining District was formed in July of 1870. Soon thereafter, Jacob and William Miller found rich ore deposits on what would become known as Miller

Hill. The following year, they sold their claim to the Aspinwall Steamship Company of New York City. Aspinwall had the capital to develop the mines and soon they became the leading producer in the canyon and a catalyst for the development of transportation systems there (Stauffer 1971).

The American Fork Railroad Company was established in April of 1872 by the Aspinwall Steamship Company in order to haul ore from the Miller Hill mines to American Fork City. The railroad was to end at the Sultana Smelter at Forest City at the mouth of Mary Ellen Gulch which was near the head of American Fork Canyon.

A grade was completed all the way up to Forest City but a proposed trestle to climb the "Z" Dugway near Major Evans Gulch would have been too steep. The decision was made to terminate the railroad at a large flat near Deer Creek, the site of present day Tibble Fork Reservoir. The little town that sprang up there to service the railroad was known as Deer Creek City. Deer Creek produced charcoal in ten

large kilns to provide fuel for the train and a lime kiln processed lime for the Sultana Smelter at Forest City. There was also a large boarding house and a mining district recorder's office. A small cemetery was established on a small flat to the north of Deer Creek City (Stauffer 1971). The grade constructed to the Sultana Smelter was used by wagons to haul the ore to Deer Creek, and it continues to be used today to access the head of American Fork Canyon.

Two locomotives operated on this line, an 0-4-4 named the "American Fork", which operated until 1873, and an 0-6-0 which operated from 1874 to 1878. These locomotives hauled not only ore, but lumber for use in and around American Fork City. Records indicate that horses or mules were sometimes used to pull the flat cars up the canyon and "...going down was no problem at all, it being possible to get from Deer Creek to American Fork on a flatcar by judicious use of the brakes" (Pitchard 1987)! In "Histories of American Fork Canyon," Alan Stauffer mentions an injury occurring while coasting a flatcar down canyon: "John Chadwick was one of the first brakemen. On November 24, 1873, he fell off his speeding car and was injured, causing him to miss five days of work. Pay was \$3 per day (Stauffer 1971)." No mention is made about what happened to the unmanned car.

In 1876, the ore bodies on Miller Hill began to give out and mining activity in the American Fork Mining District began to decline. The Sultana Smelter was dismantled and Forest City was never again as large or as important. Several of the larger mines were leased to smaller operators and a few local operators continued their own mining operations.

Due to the decline in mining

activity, the cost of operating the railroad became prohibitive. To help cover the operating costs, the train was made available for sight seeing trips into the canyon. By 1878, revenue could not cover operating costs and the railroad was discontinued. The associated hardware, including the track was sold. By June of 1878, all that remained of the railroad was an abandoned grade. As a result, the



Locomotive at Hanging Rock in American Fork Canyon, 1870's. Utah State Historical Society..

remaining mines in the canyon experienced a transportation crisis until the formation of the American Fork Wagon Road Company, which established a toll road over the former railroad grade (Crosland and Thompson 1994).

Though mining continued in the canyon, the years between 1872-76 saw the most productive period in the American



The Sultana Smelter which was located at the head of Mary Ellen Gulch as it appeared in 1872. Privately published drawing; Aspinwall Mining Co., New York.

Fork Mining District, in which over \$2,000,000 worth of gold, silver and lead was recovered. Less than half this amount was recovered in any other decade of mining in the district. Mining activity did surge again after the turn of the century when George Tyng relocated the rich ore bodies in Miller Hill that had brought the mining district to life in the first place. There was also a resurgence during World War I, when many world metal sources were cut off from U.S. markets. Even creative attempts by miners at the Yankee in Mary Ellen Gulch in the 1930's to reduce ore transport costs were not enough to keep canyon mining alive. Towers from their four and a half mile long tramway still stand in the canyons, a testament to grim determination. Mining in American Fork Canyon came to a close, for the most part,

by 1950 (Crosland and Thompson 1994).

The Railroad in Spanish Fork Canyon

The railroad in Spanish Fork Canyon was constructed in the 1870's to more easily extract coal from deposits discovered near Pleasant Valley (present day Scofield). As early as 1872, Milan Packard of Springville projected and began work on the Utah and Pleasant Valley Railroad. The line began in Springville at the Utah Central Railroad yards. By midsummer of 1872, the track had been placed to the mouth of Spanish Fork Canyon and by the fall, rails were laid to a construction camp name Thistle. In 1875, a road and sawmill were completed into Mill Fork to provide ties for the railroad. Timber was taken off of Uinta lands and used not only in Spanish Fork Canyon, but



The American Fork Canyon Railroad. Church Archives, The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints.

on railroads all over Utah. The railroad, when complete, extended to Tucker, turned south up Starvation Canyon and eventually entered Pleasant Valley. In 1880, the company was sold to The Rio Grande Western Railroad. They dismantled the railroad between Tucker and Pleasant Valley and relaid it toward the summit in Spanish Fork Canyon. The summit known at that time as Soldier Pass was renamed by the railroad as Soldier Summit. In 1881, the line connected with the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad and became the major line between Denver and Ogden.



Miners in American Fork Canyon in the 1870's. Utah State Historical Society.

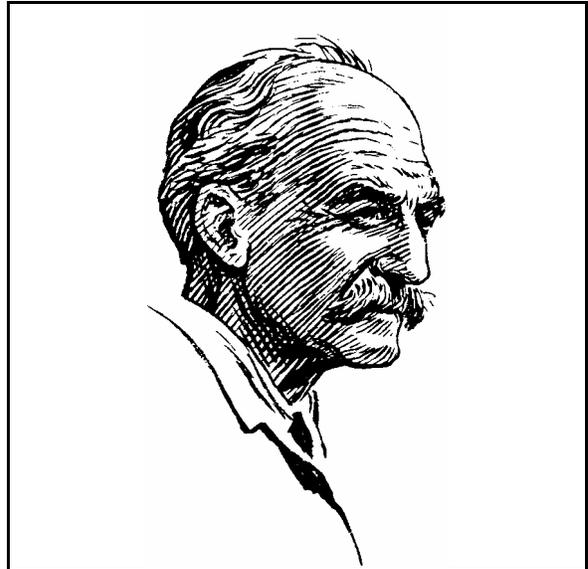
CHAPTER 2: CREATION OF THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST AND THE PREWAR YEARS

A NATIONAL FOREST IS BORN

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

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

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



Gifford Pinchot, Father of American Forestry

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

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

By 1890, forest devastation was underway almost everywhere. Timber

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

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

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

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

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

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

As a result, the Forest Reserves

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

TIMBER

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



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

was never the driving aspect of management on the Uinta.

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

About 2:30 that afternoon,

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

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

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

GRAZING AND WATERSHED

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

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



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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Pack disapproved the applications and rejected Barclay's

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

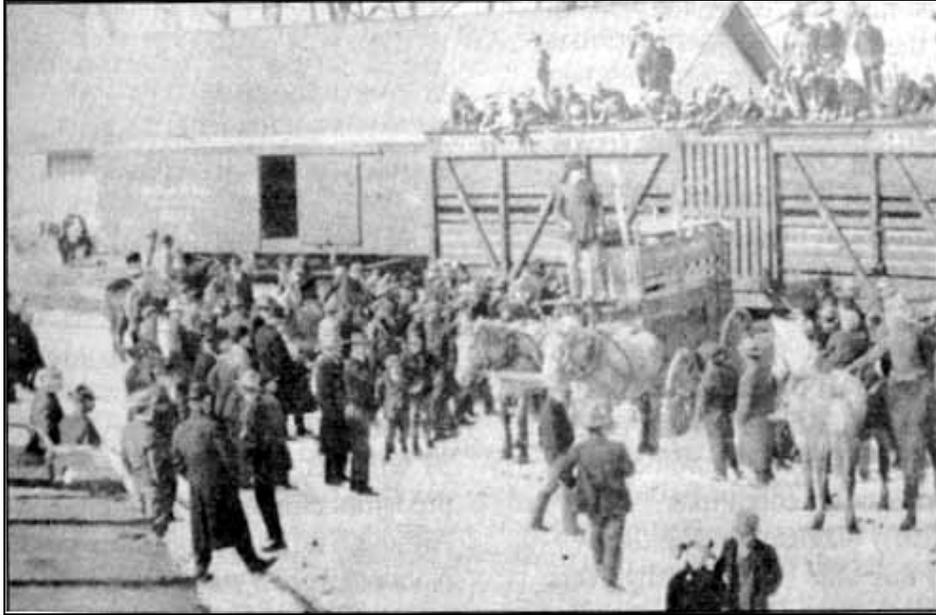
Despite early attempts to regulate grazing on the Uinta, overgrazing continued on watershed areas that, at that time, were not within the Forest boundary. In 1909, a petition was signed by the Springville City Mayor, the President of the Board of Trade in Mapleton and numerous other people from both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

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

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

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

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



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

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

WILDLIFE AND FISHERIES

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

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

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

Big Game

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Fish

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

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

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

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

Bonneville Cutthroat.

RECREATION

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



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

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

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



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

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

Timpanogos Cave

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

We then went back out and

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

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

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

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

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

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

FIRE

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

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

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



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

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

CHANGES IN THE FOREST BOUNDARY

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS ON THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

unstable bank of the American Fork River.

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

CHAPTER 3: THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST POSTWAR TO PRESENT

World War II marked a shift in Forest Service management and policy. Phenomenal demands on forest resources during the war and after required a different approach to resource management.

Additionally, the last men to begin their Forest Service careers under Gifford Pinchot were retiring. “The war was the last hurrah for many forestry pioneers and brought a change of direction for American forestry” (Steen 1991:246).

To better manage Forest Lands during the latter half of the twentieth century, land managers conducted broad research studies to find more efficient and up to date ways of managing the resource. Within the Department of Agriculture, the Interbureau Committee on Post-War Programs acted as a forum to exchange ideas and conduct inter-agency planning. Issues relating to timber, range, wildlife, water and recreation were discussed. Congress became involved in directing change as well.

Mining, timber, recreation and other demands were increasing with populations in the west and Forest officials had to achieve a balance between these uses. In 1960, the Multiple Use Sustained Yield Act was passed which provided the Forest Service with a specific Congressional directive establishing priorities for resource use. The Act stated that “the National Forests are established and shall be administered for outdoor recreation, range, timber, watershed, and wildlife and fish purposes.” Multiple use

was defined as “the utilization of resources in combination to meet needs” and stipulated that economic return was not, in all cases, to be the limiting factor. Multiple use, which had long been practiced by the Forest Service, was now Federal law (Steen 1991).

In addition, the Federal Government passed other pieces of legislation that had a great effect on the way Forest Service management decisions were made. In 1969, Congress passed the National Environmental Protection Act (NEPA) to ensure that the impacts of any activity on the natural environment were carefully looked at before proceeding. The president was required to set up a Council on Environmental Quality and Federal Agencies were required to make advance reports, including Environmental Impact Statements, for major planned actions. This requirement proved to have an unprecedented effect on the planning and implementation of public land management decisions.

Congress passed the National Resources Planning Act, in 1974, requiring a nationwide assessment of public forest and range lands every ten years and the development of a Forest Service management program every five years. In 1976, the National Forest Management Act became law. The Act emphasized land management planning, timber management actions and public participation in Forest Service decision making. It required the development of land management plans for each National Forest which detailed alternatives and proposals for management, based on multiple use, for each resource. In 1984, the Uinta National Forest Land and Resource Management Plan, commonly referred to as the Forest Plan, was created

in compliance with Federal land management laws. The Forest Plan reduced logging to a sustained yield level, left watershed management at a “locally preferred level,” and recommended nearly 70,000 acres for designation as wilderness including Mount Nebo and the Mount Timpanogos Scenic Areas (Holmes 1990). The Uinta Forest Plan was the first completed in Region 4 and was one of the first Forest Service plans completed nationwide.

TIMBER

In the 1940's, the Interbureau Committee on Post-War Programs decided that the most urgent need confronting land managers at the time was to stop the destructive logging practices adopted to satisfy war time demands. In 1944, in response to staggering demands on timber for aircraft frames, ship decking, crates, and dozens of other military uses, Congress passed several pieces of legislation that would change the direction of timber management. The Sustained-Yield Management Act allowed the Forest Service and lumber companies to enter into long-term agreements promising a constant supply of timber to feed the company's mill at or above appraised value, without competitive bids. This guaranteed supply was authorized only when community stability required federal timber not available through conventional sales. Supporters of the Sustained-Yield Act felt the cost of supporting whole communities in the event of a mill shut down outweighed the costs of lost revenue from noncompetitive timber sales.

Additionally, an amendment to federal income tax law was passed which

authorized lumbermen to report income from timber sales as capital gains instead of income. Since capital gains taxes were a fraction of those levied on income, private foresters could realize a substantial profit. The law stated that capital gains could not be reported on an operator cutting his own timber. The law then encouraged stable ownership of private forest lands, a practice essential to the effective management of private timber resources (Steen 1991).

In 1949, a bill was introduced by the ex-Secretary of Agriculture Senator Clinton P. Anderson. The bill was titled “A Bill to Provide for Establishment of Forest Practices for the Conservation and Proper Use of Privately Owned Forest Lands and for Other Purposes.” This was to be the first significant step toward Federal regulation of the nation's timber. The battle that ensued was fought within Congress and between the American Forest Products Industries, State and private foresters, lumber men and the Forest Service. In 1952, the debate was settled by President Dwight D. Eisenhower. In an atmosphere of patriotism and intense distrust of communist governments overseas, President Eisenhower stated he did not want “federal domination of the people through federal domination of their natural resources.” Many felt resource conservation had to be achieved without succumbing to “dictatorship or national socialism (Steen 1991).”

Immediately after World War II, the Intermountain Region adopted a policy of “over cutting” in an attempt to convert local and national economies from war time to peace time production. In some cases, timber was cut beyond the sustained yield. Insects and disease served to accelerate this cutting program. During this time period,

about six million board feet were cut annually on the Uinta, with most of the wood used in the construction of new homes. By 1949, timber harvesting was dropped down to 3,849,000 board feet (Holmes 1990).

Up until the late 1980's, timber harvesting was based on even-aged management. Timber stands that matured would be harvested leaving behind only young trees. While this practice was not as drastic as clear cutting, it did have a significant effect on the area cut. By the 1990's, the emphasis shifted to Uneven-Aged management. Timber is now harvested with established guidelines on how many trees can be harvested within specified size ranges. Areas cut retain much of their previous integrity. The National Environmental Protection Act has had a significant influence on timber harvesting on the Uinta. Effects on Threatened or Endangered wildlife species, watersheds and recreational values are all considered before timber is harvested.

Timber management has undergone another significant change as well. The Forest Plan has taken the emphasis off of commodity production and placed it on the management of Forest vegetation. This management approach focuses on stewardship and ecosystems. Years of fire suppression created problems with insect infestation, disease, and an increased danger of destructive fires due to large numbers of dead trees and undergrowth. Managing forest health through insect and disease control is accomplished in a way to accomplish range, wildlife and recreation goals. In this way, concerns like watershed and habitat protection become part of the timber management process. In addition, trees that are less viable as a timber source,

like Douglas-fir and white fir, are now managed along with the traditional timber producing species. More emphasis is being placed on lodgepole pine as well. The lodgepole communities on the Uinta National Forest represent the extreme southeastern boundary of North America's lodgepole range. Aspen is actively managed as an important part of the ecosystem through regeneration and the prevention of encroachment by other species. Timber production is now a by-product of managing forest health, not the primary goal of timber management.

Currently, there are two significant projects on the Uinta in which forest vegetation is a significant component and illustrate how timber and vegetation management are now integrated. The Trapper Hollow Project on the Heber Ranger District was developed to address several different needs. Lack of natural small fires has resulted in an unusually large infestation of bark beetles within many Douglas and white fir stands and an increase in the potential in this area for large, devastating fires. Aspen stands, which provide important habitat and watershed maintenance are experiencing encroachment by subalpine fir. Recreational use of the area is expected to increase as a result of the reconstruction of Highway 35 (the Wolf Creek Highway) and the increased accessibility. The Trapper Hollow Project is a coordinated attempt to effectively answer all of these challenges through sound ecosystems management. Timber, wildlife and recreation managers along with others are working together to come up with a viable plan for long-term management that focuses on vegetation management.

The White River Area Analysis

looks at all resource components of the overall landscape within the White River drainage on the Spanish Fork Ranger District including watershed, wildlife, timber, range, recreation and the local economy, and considers the area's biological component, natural disturbance regimes and the human component to be interrelated. This area analysis recognized that all these systems are dependent on a healthy and balanced cover of different kinds of vegetation and will encourage decisions that manage not only timber and other plants within an ecosystems framework, but management in other areas as well.

The future of the timber program on the forest will focus on continued stewardship and management of forest vegetation as part of an overall ecosystem. Efforts are currently under way to use controlled burning as a management tool in insect and disease control/prevention, aspen stand management and general regeneration of understory plants in several areas on the Forest.

Youth Forest of 1964

In June 1964, a forest plantation known as the Hobble Creek Youth Forest was established. It was located in Chase Creek beyond Hall's Fork in the Upper Hobble Creek section of the Spanish Fork Ranger District. The new forest replaced an old growth timber stand which had been over-cut, overgrazed and then burned over.

Initially an area in Chase Canyon was planted with 5,000 seedlings. Later, 20,000 more Douglas-fir and lodgepole pine trees were planted by the youth in a project sponsored jointly by the Utah Federation of Women's Clubs and the Forest Service. It is now known as the



Jeri Winger, Virginia Benson, Women's Special Activities Coordinator for the Regional Office, and Forest Supervisor Clarence Thornock pose in front of the Youth Forest sign in 1964. USDA Forest Service.

Ruby Christensen Memorial Youth Forest to honor a nationally recognized conservationist from Springville, Utah.

At the renaming and rededication ceremony in 1969 under the direction of the Utah Federation of Women's Clubs, Regional Forester Floyd Iverson stated:

Today we are making a sentimental journey into the past. But in a larger sense, it is a journey into the future - and it proceeds from a historic spot. This is the place that in times past has provided materials vital to the well-being and survival of the pioneers who struggled to settle the valleys below and to prepare the way for all of us to live the good life that is possible here today.

History is again in the making. Through the cooperative efforts of the descendants of these same pioneers, these mountains are being reforested that they may continue to render high standards of

service to people (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

Henry DeBruin, Division of Information and Education of the Forest Service, Washington, D.C., read a letter from Edward P. Cliff, Chief of the U.S. Forest Service. Mr. Cliff wrote, in part:

I can think of no tribute more appropriate to the memory of Ruby Christensen than the dedication of this living memorial in her honor. Being a "youth forest" makes it doubly fitting, for it was during her first term as president of the Utah Federation that the first youth forest planting took place on the Fishlake National Forest. Ruby received many honors during her lifetime, but I feel certain that she would rate this as one of the finest (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

GRAZING AND WATERSHED

In the late 1940's and early 1950's, land managers became increasingly alarmed about the continued deterioration of the rangeland due to overgrazing by cattle and sheep. The time had come to take necessary steps to reduce the number of cattle and sheep in order that the range could be rehabilitated and managed for long term health. As it was in the 1890's, the Forest officials were not very popular. Many disagreements between Forest officers and livestock owners developed, meetings were held and letter after letter written. Forest officers were not alone in this concern for the rangeland.

In a 1947 lecture titled "*Is Utah*

Sahara Bound?", Dr. Walter P. Cottam, Professor of Botany at the University of Utah, expressed his deep concern as follows:

In every plant community myriads of biological forms present influence of action and interaction which bind the whole into a social organism extremely delicate in its balance. The removal of one biological species or the ascendancy of another through such outside influences as grazing is bound to upset this fine balance in nature and to set in motion successional changes which may and often do alter completely the original vegetational aspect...

The most important fact, however, is that the total plant cover decreases under heavy grazing use, thereby exposing the soil to the forces of erosion...Under severe grazing, less palatable herbs and



The Butterfield sheep camp on the west slope of Mt. Timpanogos, 1958. USDA Forest Service



Loading seed for Santaquin Canyon project, 1952. Forest Supervisor James Jacobs, James Stover from Boise, Leon Howard from Nephi, and Clair Hartnett, a pilot from Boise. This seeding method allowed managers to utilize 28,000 lbs of seed in thirty four and a half hours of flight time. USDA Forest Service.

shrubs tend to replace the more palatable forage...

Utah will attain a stabilized prosperity only when and if the public consciously adopts, maintains and enforces a program of resource use...

The land resources of water, soils, and vegetation and animal life are but vital aspects of an intricate whole. When vegetation is destroyed, soil erodes, floods occur, animals perish, and the power of the land to support plant life progressively diminishes...(Cottam 1947).

The late 1940's saw a significant drop in the numbers of livestock grazed and a reduction in available range for reseeding, coupled with agreements with permittees to rest some allotments. But

these steps alone did not solve the problems with the range. The next step was to eliminate common use; the practice of



Over-grazed range on the Berg sheep allotment, October 1945. USDA Forest Service.



Repairing flood damage to the road in American Fork Canyon, 1953. Flooding and erosion had significant impacts on fish habitat as well as recreational facilities. USDA Forest Service.

grazing cattle and sheep in the same areas. Through the 1950's, range managers manipulated permits and bargained with permittee's to the point that common use was eliminated by 1958. This process was



Contour trenching near the head of the Dry Fork of Rock Canyon, September 1957. USDA Forest Service.

not easy and great sacrifices, both professional and personal, were made by Forest Service employees and livestock owners alike. Management modifications like this were critical for the recovery of plant communities on range allotments.

Even with these improvements, problems with water production and floods continued on Utah Valley watersheds. Because of population, industrial and agricultural growth in the valley, watersheds became increasingly important (Isbell 1972). In 1957, the Uinta National Forest entered into an agreement with Provo and Springville Cities and Utah County to reactivate the rehabilitation work that had been started by the CCC in 1933 on the watershed areas east of Utah Valley. The Provo Peak Watershed Rehabilitation Project, as this agreement was known, included all watershed areas between the Provo River and the Spring Creek and

Jennings Hollow tributaries of Hobble Creek Canyon. The cities and the county agreed to reconstruct and maintain the debris basins at the mouths of Rock Canyon, Slate Canyon and Little Rock Canyon. The Forest Service was to accomplish rehab work upstream and sheep grazing was terminated under an open-end non-use agreement. In the five years that followed, the Forest Service completed nearly 900 acres of contour trenching, over 400 acres of grass seeding, 12.5 miles of gully plugs, 10 acres of furrowing, 10 acres of head cut control, 10.5 miles of road construction, and 5 miles of trail erosion control at a total cost of \$81,978 (Uinta National Forest 1966). Completion of this project resulted in an increased site productivity for wildlife and a more productive watershed for the growing population in the valley.

In 1959, a similar project, the American Fork-Dry Canyon Watershed Protection and Flood Prevention Project was undertaken. Many of the watershed areas east of Alpine, Pleasant Grove and Lindon were contour trenched and reseeded with a variety of grasses. This project greatly improved habitat and watershed in the north end of Utah Valley (Uinta National Forest 1965).

Between 1957 and 1967, numbers of permitted cattle and sheep were drastically reduced Forest wide. In conjunction with these projects, some allotments were closed altogether. The results of the combined efforts of Forest officials, City and County governments, and private individuals and organizations was summed up in 1970 by Dr. Walter Cottam in an interview with the Salt Lake Tribune:



The head of Dry Canyon shortly after the completion of contour trenching, November 1959. USDA Forest Service.

I just can't believe how these ranges have improved. The aspens are reproducing again, the grasses are lush and full and up to a horse's belly. Go to Mt. Nebo or the Fish Lake area, for instance, where they had been stripped of cover, they are now lush with growth again. I've known these mountains for many decades. But they are not the same mountains now. The Forest Service has done a magnificent job. And I think the same recovery job could be done with other aspects of our environmental problem, given the same incentive, public support and governmental persistence (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

Today the range program continues to adjust management on a case by case basis to meet the continued growing demands of more diverse users. In 1993

the Uinta National Forest completed the Rangeland Ecosystem Forest Plan Amendment EIS which established specific criteria for allotment management. While site specific resource problems continue to be of a concern, the rangelands of the Uinta National Forest are likely in the best condition, ecologically, that they have been in during the last century. In the future, the range program will continue with range stewardship guided by the Forest Service's ecosystems management philosophy and approach.

WILDLIFE AND FISHERIES

By 1945, wildlife habitat was seeing significant improvement through better livestock and range management and an increased understanding through research of the relationships between wildlife and the rest of the ecosystem. In fact, one primary objective, at the time, was to determine use patterns of both wildlife and livestock and their compatibility. Wildlife biologists were especially concerned with the conditions of big-game wintering ranges. The Uinta, along with nearly every other Forest in the Intermountain Region, engaged in wildlife-livestock forage studies in cooperation with Forest and Range Experiment Stations, nearby universities, the State Department of Fish and Game and the Fish and Wildlife Service.

Predator control, on the other hand, begun at the turn of the century to benefit the livestock industry, was not benefiting game populations. In 1920, game populations began increasing significantly, in part due to the absence of predators like coyotes, mountain lions and bears. In the 1930's and 40's, game populations had grown beyond the land's carrying capacity.

In addition, World War II compounded these problems by causing a decline in hunting, a result of the rationing of rubber, gasoline and ammunition. Ranger Merrill Nielson recorded his attempts to get an "either sex" permit passed to help relieve the overpopulation problem.

During the late thirties and forties, the deer populations started to increase rapidly. This increase was first noted during the winter months on the low range from Little Rock Canyon to the "Forks" of Hobble Creek, and across the "Front" from Hobble Creek to the mouth of Spanish Fork Canyon. The deer were congregating in large numbers on the low winter range and were killing the browse plants by overgrazing.

At this time, the State Fish and Game Department officials, as well as the sportsmen, were very much opposed to killing does. Between 1940 and 1948 we did get some recommendations approved for taking some does, but sportsmen would not shoot them. As a result, the deer populations increased faster than ever. Then in the winter of 1948-49, there was an unusually heavy snowfall, the weather was extremely cold for many days at a time, and large numbers of deer were congregated on the low range above the cultivated fields. As the snow became deeper, many of the deer moved down into orchards where they ate the tender buds of the fruit trees. Christmas trees were hauled on the range for the deer; and even though the twigs and

needles were dry, the deer ate most of the trees. The State Fish and Game Department hauled hay and pellets to several feed grounds on the winter range. In January the deer started to die. By the middle of March, over 2,500 deer had died between Little Rock Canyon and the mouth of Spanish Fork Canyon...Fifteen hundred were hauled to an animal by-product plant. These were only the deer that had died near the roads. The men from the supervisor's office and my assistant and I spent one day counting dead deer on the steep slopes north of Springville. We counted 500. Assistant Grant Williams and I spent several days riding and hiking in the area south of Hobble Creek, and we counted more than 500 dead deer on this area. The winter loss was a severe blow to the Hobble Creek deer herd...Big sagebrush was being completely killed out because of overgrazing by deer.

About this time, the "either sex" law went into effect...The State Fish and Game Department was now behind the Forest Service 100 percent in making recommendations for special hunts and extended seasons to reduce the deer populations...(U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

A major wildlife habitat improvement project was approved for the Tank Hollow area during the fall of 1961. Due to heavy grazing, nearly all herbaceous plants had been eliminated. The result was heavy mortality among browse animals like



deer. The objectives of the project were to improve wildlife habitat and provide access to the area for hunting. In November and December of 1962, the project was implemented and consisted of juniper control, contour trenching, deep furrowing, grass seeding (broadcast), brush gully checks, browse seeding (by hand) and road construction. As with many of these projects, part of this work was accomplished by volunteers. The Spanish Fork Livestock Association agreed to a voluntary adjustment in grazing and livestock were eliminated from all areas in Tank Hollow except for a 600 acre reseeded pasture. In November of 1971, additional work was performed in Tank Hollow when 600 acres were chained and aerial seeded by helicopter. This area was used to test a relatively new method of chaining that district personnel helped develop with some army surplus equipment (Isbell 1972:69-70).

In the fall of 1965, the Forest Service and State Division of Fish and Game began work on the Diamond Fork

Fisheries Project. This project focused on a portion of the stream with especially low trout numbers, and sought to improve them through the construction of pools and stream bank stabilization. This, together with the elimination of grazing in the area, increased trout numbers and habitat quality significantly (Isbell 1972).

The greatest advances in wildlife management in the last thirty years came as a result of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) in 1969 which had profound implications on wildlife habitat management. Adverse impacts on wildlife by a proposed project were now clearly defined and mitigated. In 1973, the Endangered Species Act gave new protection to wildlife and plant species that were thought to warrant special protection. The Forest and Rangeland Renewable Resources Planning Act, also known as Resources Planning Act (RPA), became an important guide for habitat management in 1974. This Act ensured that adequate provisions and funding to meet immediate and future Forest research needs, including wildlife. To meet the direction defined in the RPA process, a Region wide "Wildlife Action Plan" was established to develop a Regional wildlife program (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1980).

An example of this broad scale planning occurred in the mid-1980's. Wildlife planners believed wildlife habitat could be improved through the selective harvesting of aspen, oak, and maple in specified areas. These improvements were recommended in cooperation with the Utah Department of Wildlife Resources and coordinated among other resource programs on the Forest. This allowed habitat improvements and enhanced production of other resources.

Mt. Nebo Bighorn

In 1972, the Forest Service proposed the reintroduction of bighorn sheep onto the Wasatch Front. Bighorn sheep, which are native to the area, disappeared by the 1930's due to over-hunting and diseases spread by domestic sheep. An Environmental Analysis on the project, completed in January of 1973, indicated the need to fill the ecological niche left vacant for so many years by the sheep. Potential areas for the reintroduction ranged from Mill Creek Canyon, on the Wasatch-Cache National Forest, to the south slopes of Mount Nebo on the Uinta. In August of 1976, the Uinta entered into a cooperative agreement with the Division of Wildlife Resources to reintroduce bighorn sheep obtained from Montana. In September, the Division indicated that they would rather see the Bighorns reintroduced on Nebo due to the heavy population centers adjacent to the other areas. In 1977, approximately 25 sheep were reintroduced. State-of-the-art bighorn transplants now routinely include several releases to ensure a properly functioning core population. Unfortunately that was not well understood in the mid seventies. The failure to augment the core population with subsequent transplants, competition with deer and predation prevented the population from establishing itself. By the early 1990's the original bighorns had died of old age and the population died out.

Mountain Goats

Rocky Mountain goats were first released in Utah in 1967 in the Twin Peaks area, north of Little Cottonwood Canyon, in the Wasatch Mountains by the Utah Division of Wildlife Resources. Six goats,



Mountain goat on Mt. Timpanogos. USDA Forest Service.

two yearling males and four adult females, from the northern Cascades of Washington State, were released. Mountain goats from this transplant dispersed south and populated the Lone Peak area and Box Elder Peak. In The herd had become large enough in 1986 that goats were captured and transplanted to the Tushars Mountains and Mount Holly on the Fishlake National Forest. In 1988, eight Lone Peak/Twin Peaks goats were transplanted to the Bald Mountain and Lakes region in the Uinta Mountains on the Wasatch-Cache and in 1992, thirteen more were taken to the Whiterocks Drainage on the Ashley National Forest. By 1995, the population of the Lone Peak/Twin Peaks goats was estimated at 200 animals, the largest in Utah.

A herd was established on Mount Timpanogos in 1981 with the transplant of ten goats from Olympic National Park in Washington. The goats were released at the Timpooneke Trailhead at the northern end of Mount Timpanogos. In 1986, a single goat from this herd was captured to

augment the herd being established on the Fishlake National Forest. In 1990, five more goats were sent to augment the herd on Cascade and Provo Peaks. The Timpanogos herd was estimated at 100+ animals in 1995, the second largest in Utah.

A herd was established in 1988 on Cascade and Provo Peaks with the transplant of seven goats from the Olympic National Park in Washington. The herd was augmented in 1990 with five more goats from the Mount Timpanogos herd, and in 1995 the estimated population of this herd was 40 animals.

Currently, the Utah Division of Wildlife Resources is proposing to fit mountain goats in the Lone Peak and Timpanogos Wilderness Areas with radio telemetry collars to study the impacts the goats may have on soil and vegetation. Little is known about the ecology and impacts of mountain goats in these areas since they are not native. A study is needed to address general concerns about the impacts mountain goats may have on other aspects of the ecosystem.

1990 Rotenone Treatment of Strawberry Reservoir

Strawberry Reservoir has undergone many changes. Fish introductions, land management practices, and water level increases have all affected fish populations at different times. Fish introductions probably had the greatest influence. In the 1940's, the word was out: "Native trout really go for live bait!" Chubs, perch, carp, and suckers probably found their way into the reservoir via minnow buckets. These nongame fish multiplied, and over the next 20 years, the trout population decreased. Nongame fish were chemically

removed in 1961 and their elimination greatly improved trout fishing. However, in the early 1970's, nongame fish reappeared and trout fishing began a slow decline. In 1990, the fish population in Strawberry Reservoir was 95% chubs and suckers.

In order to return Strawberry Reservoir to one of Utah's premier trout fisheries, the Forest Service and Utah Division of Wildlife Resources determined that the following goals needed to be met. These included eliminating chubs and suckers from the reservoir, introducing fish to maintain a quality trout fishery and restoring tributary habitat so that trout could reproduce naturally.

To eliminate chubs and suckers, the reservoir needed to be chemically treated. In August 1990, the reservoir and tributaries were treated with 900,000 pounds of rotenone, a powdered chemical which was mixed with water. At the application rates used, rotenone removed the fish and many invertebrates. The treatment had a low toxicity level for birds and mammals, and livestock were able to safely drink the water.

The treatment project was very successful and on October 20, the reservoir was restocked with 1,500,000 Bear Lake cutthroat, kokanee salmon, and rainbow trout. These fish have thrived in the reservoir and its tributaries. Many of the invertebrates have also begun to reappear in the drainage. Strawberry has once again become one of Utah's premier trout fisheries.

RECREATION AND WILDERNESS

At the end of World War II, the Forest's potential to provide recreation became its primary value in many minds. During that time, the population along the Wasatch Front began to grow at a much faster rate and the close proximity of so much beautiful land became important as an escape from urban life. The Forest itself



Recreation remains one of the Uinta National Forests primary uses. USDA Forest Service

began investing more planning, thought and money into developing trails, campgrounds and permitting the construction of more organizational camps. The Forest recognized that its greatest value to it publics could be in providing experiences in addition to commodities.

World War II made its mark on recreation management. The Civilian Conservation Corps was disbanded in June of 1942, greatly reducing the construction and maintenance of recreational facilities.

Additionally, gasoline, rubber and ammunition rationing curtailed recreational visits during the war. At the completion of the war, however, recreational use began to steadily increase. Principle recreational activities at the time were picnicking, camping, fishing and hunting. Unfortunately, this increase added to the general deterioration of CCC built picnicking and camping facilities for which maintenance funds had not been set aside at the time of their construction..

In 1947, 170,000 visits by recreators were recorded on the Uinta. By 1957, that number had risen to over one million visits. Recreational uses were still very similar to those in the 1940's, with the addition of winter sports, hiking, horseback riding and organization camping. Summer cabins were being completed at Tibble Fork Reservoir and the Silver Lake Reservoir area at the same time under a permit system that allowed construction of private cabins on National Forest lands.

In the early 1960's, the Uinta prepared a recreation management plan that inventoried all developed and potential recreational sites. This information was then synthesized into short and long range plans to anticipate needs through the year 2000. In 1965, the Land and Water Conservation Act allowed the Forest Service to collect recreation funds through user fees in certain areas, a tax on pleasure boat fuel, and receipts from the sale of certain Federal properties. The user fee system was applied to over half of all campsites and most family units on the Forest.

The 1960's also witnessed the Region 4 program of examining "near natural" areas on Forest lands. The Timpanogos Scenic Area was established in

1961 to recognize its spectacular alpine beauty. In 1967, Cascade Springs was developed as a scenic recreational area. The Whiskey Springs Rest Area was developed at the same time.

By the mid-1980's, close proximity to large population centers made recreation one of the Uinta's prime attractions. Increasing use along with damage caused by the flooding in 1983-84 required the repair and, in some cases, replacement of developed facilities. But, the demand for group sites continued to exceed supply. New facilities were constructed when budgets permitted. Facilities at Currant Creek Reservoir and Black Hawk Campground were two of these projects. In 1989, the lands around Strawberry Reservoir were transferred to the Forest Service, greatly expanding opportunities for developed facilities.

The continued demand for group sites has resulted in the use of dispersed areas like Salamander Flat on the Pleasant Grove Ranger District. Groups supply their own toilets and garbage removal in compliance with the pack-it-in, pack-it-out program. In many cases, the lack of cooperation from groups and individuals to remove garbage has created an additional expense for the Uinta. Seasonal employees often spend the summer months collecting truck loads of trash left by fun seeking forest users.

The current trend is toward smaller government in the United States. The Forest Service, however, is expected to provide the same recreational services. Supply analysis indicated that the Forest is capable of producing over three million recreation visitor days (RVD's) and that capacity will be reached around the year 2020. As the Forest recreational



Recreation use continues to grow and diversity as the Uinta National Forest enters its 100th year of resource management. USDA Forest Service.

opportunities increase in popularity among growing populations in Utah, it becomes more difficult to maintain existing recreational facilities. As a result, the trend in the Forest Service has been to use private concessionaires' to manage some facilities. Permits are granted for concessionaires to manage and collect revenues from facilities that are in place. Revenues collected can then go back into the maintenance of facilities, where fees collected by the Forest Service have to go to the Federal Treasury.

With increased demand for recreation use and declining Federal funding, users are becoming more willing to pay for recreational use on public lands.

In 1995, Fee Demo legislation was passed in Congress that allowed the Forest Service to establish pilot Fee Demo projects in some recreational areas and capture revenues from dispersed recreational activities. As a result, the Uinta began charging a \$2.00 fee for use at various recreational sites around the Forest including Payson Lakes, Aspen Grove, Tibble Fork and Strawberry Reservoir. Plans are currently in place to charge a fee for the use of American Fork Canyon. Fee collection booths will be placed at the mouth of American Fork Canyon and at Mount Timpanogos Campground above Aspen Grove in the spring of 1997.

Another opportunity to make recreation dollars available to improve facilities management is embodied in Public and Private Ventures (PPV's). Under this program, the Forest Service will be allowed to set up long-term leases with private interests to manage recreational facilities. To be successful, a facility must have use enough to generate revenue and ideally would have the potential for expansion. Lodgepole Campground on the Heber Ranger District was set up as a pilot test for the PPV program.

The future of recreation on the Uinta will also be influenced by the 2002 Winter Olympics. As a result, there is national emphasis on both northern Utah and the event's impact on recreation. The Uinta National Forest will receive funds over the next several years to develop trails and facilities to deal with a projected increase in recreational use immediately before and continuing after the 2002 Winter Olympics.

The Timp Hike

One notable recreational feature on the Uinta was the annual hike to the summit of Mount Timpanogos, at 11,750 feet in elevation. This activity was inherited from the Wasatch National Forest when the lands between Provo Canyon and Lone Peak were transferred to the Uinta in 1954 (see appendix B). “The hike received national recognition for being the only one of its kind on any national forest in the country” (Holmes 1990:165).

The annual hike was begun in 1912 by Eugene Roberts, Athletic Director at Brigham Young University. He advocated a philosophy of well being that integrated physical activity, fellowship, spirituality and involvement with nature. All these came together in the Timp Hike which generally included a pre-hike ceremony the evening before with song and dramatic readings that celebrated nature. One of these tales was “The Legend of Mount Timpanogos,” a story created by Roberts to give the event added meaning. Many of the natural features along the trail were incorporated into the tale (Romaine 1984: 159).

Fifty-six people participated in the Timp Hike in 1913; by 1930, six thousand people attended the pre-hike program and 752 climbed to the summit the next day. The hike was popular with BYU students and Utah Valley community members alike, and was sponsored by BYU, the Provo Chamber of Commerce, the Lions, Kiwanis, Rotary and other community groups, as well as the Forest Service. This popularity began to take its toll on the mountain in the 1950's, when hiker numbers averaged well over a thousand. In 1958, a new record was set when 2,200 people made it to the summit (Kelsey

1989). The stone, concrete and metal Emerald Lake Shelter was completed in 1960 to provide restrooms and emergency shelter to these masses of people.

The hike continued to grow, and in 1968, over 2,700 climbers reached the



*A Party of hikers on Mt. Timpanogos, 1915 or 16.
Photo courtesy of Jerry Springer.*

summit. The following year nearly as many made the summit, with close to 8,000 people on the mountain at once. Over 3,500 people reached the summit in 1970, a year that forced the hike organizers to end the annual event for the sake of the fragile alpine ecology of Mt. Timpanogos.

During its history, the Timp Hike was bigger than any other community hike in the world. It attracted considerable national and international attention on Utah as summarized by a 1926 *Provo Herald* article:

*Provo City first broke into
my consciousness through publicity
associated with your very interesting*

mountain climb known as the "Timpanogos Hike." A few years ago a large photograph showing what appeared to be three thousand people climbing a glacier in single file came out in several of our leading Massachusetts papers.

Below the picture was a paragraph of explanation where-in it was stated that every summer at Mt. Timpanogos, Provo, Utah, thousands of people do homage to a majestic mountain peak by climbing to its summit and staging a community festival in its honor...

This is why your little city, obscure except for its university, jumped into notice when pictures of its mountains and its community hike got into our papers. Newspaper men are voracious feature hunters, and they were quick to recognize the news value of Timpanogos Hike. Such a strange ritual of natural worship was an easy sale. A whole community moving to the top of a high mountain is a new form of western adventure bound to excite universal interest (Cash 1959: 54-55).

During its time, over 55,000 people climbed to the top of Timp. Although two people died, one accidentally and one of a heart attack, all in all the event is remembered warmly by those who participated. It was one way Utah Valley residents experienced the beauty of their most visible landmark firsthand. (Charmaine Thompson, January 1997)

Diamond Fork

The area where Diamond and Palmyra Campgrounds are located was homesteaded by two men named Franklin Pace and Cal Angus. The homesteaders owned land up to the bridge above Diamond Campground. This area later fell into the hands of the Becksteads, Dell and Mose, who farmed it. They raised hay, grain and some potatoes. A Gardner family purchased the ranch from the Becksteads and used it until the Palmyra Stake of the Mormon Church and the Spanish Fork Livestock Association decided they would buy the land. This they did on January 4, 1939. The area was made into a recreation site and was later sold to the Forest Service at a little more than one-half its original cost. The value of the land for farming had been surpassed by its value for recreation.

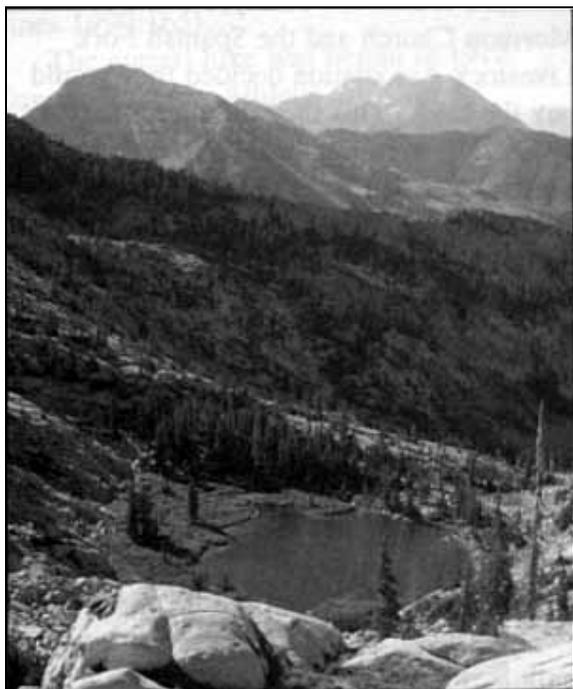
Many church picnics and parties were held in the Palmyra area. Baseball games were played on the ball diamond east of the picnic area, and teams from Salem, Lakeshore, Palmyra, and Spanish Fork held championship games there. As early as 1940, 2,550 campers and 17,500 picnickers were estimated to have used the area.

The Diamond Campground was built by the Forest Service in the early 1960's. Some of the roads, trails and table areas were surfaced when originally built. The roads were again refinished during the summer of 1971.

At one time, a bridge connected Palmyra with the area which is now the lower part of Diamond Campground on what was the old highway right-of-way. A nearby spring supplies Diamond with drinking water while water for Palmyra must be piped from a spring some distance away.

Wilderness

The Forest Service pioneered the wilderness preservation system in 1924 when it set aside the Nation's first "Wilderness," the Gila primitive area. This was expanded greatly, in 1964, when President Johnson signed into law the Wilderness Act which provided for an initial Wilderness Preservation System of 54 areas occupying 9.1 million acres nationwide (Zinser 1995).



Lake Hardy with Boxelder Peak and Mt. Timpanogos in the background. USDA Forest Service.

In 1978, Congress passed the Endangered American Wilderness Act which was designed to protect areas with outstanding natural characteristics from growing populations, industrial and economic growth, and uses inconsistent with the enhancement of their wilderness character. Areas designated as Wilderness under this Act were then managed under the auspices of the Wilderness Preservation



Mt. Nebo Wilderness Area. USDA Forest Service.

System. On February 24, 1978, the Lone Peak Wilderness Area was created under this legislation and was the first Wilderness area to be established in Utah. One outstanding aspect of this designation is that the Act allows for motorized access and road maintenance by local municipalities for the minimum maintenance activities necessary to guarantee the continued viability of watershed facilities that currently exist or may be necessary in the future within the Wilderness Boundary. The Lone Peak area provides water for domestic, industrial, and agricultural purposes from six watersheds. The Lone Peak Wilderness Area is characterized by spectacular alpine settings and towering granite cliffs. Vegetation includes Gambel oak, maple, Douglas fir, subalpine fir, limber pine and choke cherry. Wildflowers are common in the high canyon meadows during the late spring and early summer. Wildlife in the area includes mountain goats, elk, moose, mountain lion and black bear. Management of the Lone Peak Wilderness is directed toward maintaining a wilderness identity and a critical watershed.

In 1984, Congress passed the Utah

Wilderness Act to designate certain National Forest system lands in the State of Utah for inclusion in the National Wilderness Preservation System. The Timpanogos Wilderness Area and the Mount Nebo Wilderness Area were created under this legislation.

Mount Timpanogos rises to 11,750 feet, the second highest mountain in the Wasatch Range. The region contains massive peaks and buttresses and numerous waterfalls exit hanging valleys, or cirques, created by ancient glaciers. Today, a remnant of the glaciers is tucked between Timp's highest peaks above Emerald Lake. Vegetation ranges from hardy alpine plants to wildflowers, spruce and fir. Wildlife species include cougar, elk and mountain goat. This wilderness is being managed to maintain wilderness character and serves to protect valuable watershed for Utah Valley.

Mount Nebo is the highest mountain in the Wasatch Range, with the Mona Summit being the highest point on the knife-like Nebo ridge at 11,877 feet. The slopes of Mt. Nebo are home to large herds of deer and elk as well as other animals. The boundaries of the Mount Nebo Wilderness area were drawn to provide access to the Privateer Mine and allow for the construction of a reservoir in Sullivan Canyon. Mount Nebo is a primary watershed for Juab and Utah counties. Management is directed toward maintaining water quality, extending dispersed recreation opportunities and protecting other resource values such as wildlife and fisheries.

THE CHANGING ROLE OF FIRE AND URBAN INTERFACE

Recently, Federal emphasis in fire has shifted from a purely suppression-based organization to one of fire management. The emphasis has been taken off of immediate fire control (control in the first 24 hours) to an appropriate suppression response which takes into account economics, damage as net value change before and after, wildlife benefits after the fire, and threat to life and property. Fire management today recognizes the benefits of fire in managing forest health. These benefits are then weighed against the cost of suppression and damage. Emphasis is also being placed on ecosystem health and methods to improve it across the forest.



Home developments near the Forest Boundary present new challenges for fire managers on the Uinta. USDA Forest Service.

The primary method is currently prescribed burning to control insects and disease in an effort to improve habitat and insure a properly functioning ecosystem.

As a result of this new philosophy, the fire organization is rapidly becoming integrated into general forest management. This shift in fire management philosophy is reflected in public education, which now focuses on expressing the positive effects of fire as well as the negative effects.

Education also reflects another concern in fire, Urban Interface. The expanding population along the Wasatch Front means subdivisions are sprouting up very close to Forest boundaries. Fires started in the subdivisions often cross into Forest lands. As a result, the frequency of human caused fires on the Forest is increasing. In 1996, roughly 75% of the fires on the Uinta were human caused. In addition, 100 years of fire suppression have made many areas adjacent to and within the Forest lands extremely prone to destructive fires. Many of the new homes being built on the benches are in these areas.

The Uinta National Forest has a good working relationship with local agencies, including Utah County, local cities and the State of Utah. In some cases, the positive relationship between Forest Service Law Enforcement Officials and local law enforcement agencies have resulted in successful arson convictions. The Forest Service is currently coordinating with State and local agencies to provide for comprehensive fire management through education, suppression, and fuels management.

EXPANDING RESPONSIBILITIES AND RECENT MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES

Law Enforcement

The first Forest Rangers were charged not only with the administration of public resources, but for the protection of them as well. On August 8, 1898, William R. Kreutzer, a young ranch hand from Colorado, became the first Forest Ranger. He and those who followed in his footsteps were faced with the daunting task of enforcing new and unfamiliar Federal rules and regulations. To accomplish this goal, early Forest Rangers had to rely on vague authorities of the Service's enabling legislation, deputizations from local agencies and the citizens arrest. Law enforcement challenges were compounded as early Rangers often had to enforce laws against trespassers and various agency administrators alike.

Forest Rangers were often the target of local hostilities. The imposition of land use fees and regulations were seen as an affront to the God-given right of free and unrestricted land use. "Many of these conflicts blew-up into what are now retrospectively referred to as the great Western Range Wars (Berkowitz 1995:73)."

In 1905, when the Forest Reserves were transferred to the Department of Agriculture, some significant changes occurred in the Service's staffing. Gifford Pinchot saw to the dismissal of corrupt and incompetent administrators and built a reliable force of Forest Supervisors and Rangers. Actions by Pinchot and Congress clarified the Law Enforcement authority of Rangers. In fact, Forest Rangers were often called to support local law

enforcement agencies and were frequently the only form of law enforcement in remote logging camps and boomtowns.

Soon the Forest Service began to hire full time criminal investigators who tracked down poachers, arsonists, moonshiners, and other criminals. Throughout the years, however, the Forest Service law enforcement program remained loosely organized and defused until recently. A national law enforcement conference for the Forest Service was held in 1969 and a task force was created to prepare a plan to improve the program. It was recommended to establish a separate law enforcement organization with a distinct line of authority directly from Washington. This proposal was not received well by some and, consequently, was not adopted.

By the early 1970's, law enforcement personnel were required to attend the basic police school at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center in Georgia. Many of these graduates found themselves permanently occupied with the eradication of marijuana crops and drug labs on Forest lands. In 1986, Congress passed the Anti-Drug Abuse Act which authorized Forest Service Law Enforcement Officers to conduct investigations and initiate related actions outside of the Forest boundary for offenses committed within the boundary.

During this time, efforts to protect Forest resources continued, sometimes in conflict with the activities of other forest managers. In 1993, the Washington Office of the Forest Service issued an order that the law enforcement program would no longer answer to Regional or Forest level managers, but would instead follow a direct line of authority from the Director for Law

Enforcement and Investigations in Washington. The 1969 proposal is now Forest Service policy (Berkowitz 1995). Preserving a positive internal relationship with Regional and Forest level managers while performing law enforcement duties has introduced new challenges for Forest Service Law Enforcement Officers.

Today the Law Enforcement organization is in a pioneering phase of professionalizing the organization and becoming more efficient and progressive. On the Uinta, the law enforcement program continues to deal with the issues that face an urban interface forest, which include an increase in crime and resource destruction, particularly in the areas of off-road vehicle use, vandalism, littering and sanitation.

The law enforcement program on the Uinta maintains an excellent relationship with County and local law enforcement agencies. This is important as local law enforcement agencies play an increasing role in law enforcement on the Uinta and other recreational lands. A recent Federal grant to fund County officers for a Canyon Patrol Team in Utah County has increased the effectiveness of law enforcement on the Forest.

Cultural Resource Management

The American people and their agents, the U.S. Congress, have long recognized the value of archaeological and historic sites on federal land. These sites belong collectively to the American people because of their ability to help us all to see, understand, appreciate and learn from the experiences of past peoples. Unfortunately, the course of settlement and development destroyed a large part of our past. This realization of loss was initially recognized by Congress in 1906 with the Antiquities

Act, the first of a series of laws meant to protect the sites that do remain.

Since then, other laws (particularly the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, amended 1976 and 1980) have made Federal land managers particular stewards of the past. These laws require that decisions concerning all actions on federal land take into account the effect of those actions on archaeological and historic sites over 50 years old, and that they make long-term plans for protecting and maintaining all sites under their care. Their basic intent is this: to insure sites on federal land are protected, researched, interpreted and the information and experiences they offer is available to the American people.



Forest Service employees Jake Schoppe, Kari Hatch and Shaun Nelson excavating a military site dating to 1903 in Strawberry Valley. USDA Forest Service.

The Uinta National Forest contains a wide diversity of archaeological sites. The oldest known sites are Native American camp sites dating to about 8,000 years ago. The most recent include Civilian Conservation Corps features and other sites such as homesteads and silver/lead mines. The most common sites found on the Forest are historic (post-European settlement) and contain the

potential to increase our understanding of mining life, early homesteading, charcoal-making, logging and water diversion and control. Although many of the Native Americans who lived in Northern Utah spent the majority of their time in places such as Utah and Juab Valleys, the mountains provided important supplemental food, clothing, tools and medicine, and was the setting of many religious and folk stories. The sites on the Forest that were used by Native Peoples are very important for understanding the full dimension of these people's lives.

The Forest's Heritage Resource Management program is the way through which we are caring for this unique mix of archaeological and historic sites and bringing the experiences of past peoples back to life. The program has several different focuses. The most basic is locating and documenting (mapping, photographing and describing) heritage sites as a part of general project planning. Whenever a Forest Service project involves disturbing the ground, an inspection is made of the area for archaeological sites. If any are found, they are recorded and the effect that the project might have on them is determined. In most cases, the project is redesigned to avoid the site. If that is not possible, the site is excavated or researched in such a way as to save any information the site might offer. An example of this is the excavation of a Native American camp which happened to be in the new Wolf Creek Highway alignment (Reed 1994). This project provided one of our first glimpses into Native American use of the area between the Uinta and Wasatch Mountains.

This kind of archaeological work was begun in 1974 and continues today.

Prior to 1990, all project-related archaeological work was done by professionals borrowed from the Regional Office in Ogden or from the Wasatch-Cache National Forest. A significant change happened in 1989, when the Uinta Management Team committed both to hiring an archaeologist and to using the Forest's heritage for a greater benefit. As a result, the Heritage Program has expanded to include other focuses.



Passport in Time volunteers at the 1888 Strawberry Valley Military Site. USDA Forest Service.

One of these is using sites on the Forest to do research on how past people used the Forest's resources. For example, during the summer of 1989, researchers from Brigham Young University conducted excavations in Bone Cave in American Fork Canyon in partnership with volunteers from the Utah Valley Chapter of the Utah Statewide Archaeological Society (USAS). This commitment to research surfaced again in American Fork Canyon in 1993 when closure of 107 mine openings for safety reasons meant both documenting all those mines and creating a historical analysis of the hard job of maintaining mine operations in the canyon (Crosland and



Members of the Army of the West, Second Cavalry, provide visitors with a first hand look at life in the military during 1888. USDA Forest Service.

Thompson 1994).

Another program focus has been on involving as many people as possible in Forest heritage programs and in providing them with meaningful ways to appreciate and contribute to preservation of the past. This effort has included adult education courses, primary school presentations, field projects for college classes and lectures to local community groups. However, the primary means for public involvement has been the Forest Service's national "Passport in Time" (PIT) program. One of the first national pilot projects in this program was held on the Uinta National Forest in 1990 at the "1888 Strawberry Valley Military Site" PIT project which continued for another seven summers and included a large public open house. Members of the Trails West Artifact Society, the Army of the West, Second Cavalry and USAS were valuable partners on that project.

Other PIT projects on the Forest have included "Rediscovering the CCC in Utah Valley" in 1993 which was a partnership with the Utah State Historical Society and members of the Pleasant Grove

Historical Commission. This project documented CCC features in and around Utah Valley, produced a brochure on the CCC and conducted oral interviews with CCC enrollees. The “Living High in Forest City” project mapped and test excavated the old mining town of Forest City in American Fork Canyon. Additional volunteer projects on the Forest have included documenting all of the Native American rock art and locating and mapping archaeological sites on the Vernon Management Unit.

A growing program focus is integrating information about past human activities on the Forest into current project planning. Several past actions, including logging, grazing, mining and fire suppression, have had a significant influence on the current condition of the Forest. Understanding the specific relationships between these actions and the resulting patterns in vegetation and watershed function is helping return these communities to a more stable condition.

The program is also responding to the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990 by helping to identify and rebury the remains of Native Americans who were buried on lands that later became the Uinta National Forest. The most famous of these individuals is the Ute Chief Black Hawk, buried by his family in the mountains at the south end of Utah Valley in 1870. His skeleton was dug up in 1911 and thereafter donated to a local museum. The descendants of Black Hawk’s brother, Mountain, were able to claim the great man’s remains and, with the help of the citizens from Spring Lake, rebury him in the same area where he lived out his youth.

Like other resource programs on the

Uinta National Forest, the Heritage program has grown to be more responsive to and partnered with Forest users who are likewise interested in the heritage of peoples along the Wasatch Front. It is a partnership that brings satisfaction to the people of the present and honor to those in the past. (Charmaine Thompson, January 1997)

Human Resource Programs

The Uinta National Forest has long been recognized for its outstanding Human Resource Programs. For the past 10 years, the programs have been recognized nationally for their accomplishments. So what contributes to this success?

Youth Conservation Corps

The Youth Conservation Corps (YCC) was established by Congress to provide employment opportunities for 15-18 year old youth on their National Forests. The program objectives include accomplishing needed conservation work on public lands, providing gainful employment for youth of all social, economic, ethnic, and racial backgrounds, and developing an understanding and appreciation of the Nation’s natural environment and heritage.

Approximately 30 youth work on the Uinta National Forest each summer. These crews enjoy an 8-week course that includes project work and an environmental education experience. These individuals receive exposure to all program areas including range, recreation and wildlife.

Each year this program contributes approximately \$300,000 in work accomplished to the Forest.

Volunteers

The “Volunteers in National Forest Act” was passed in 1972 to provide an opportunity for the public to work with the Forest Service. Under this authorization, the Uinta National Forest has hosted between 8,000 and 14,000 volunteers annually. These dedicated people come from all across the country as well as locally to contribute their time, expertise, and materials.

Projects have included construction of a day-use area valued at \$350,000 for an actual cost of only \$13,000, several hundred miles of trail improved, reintroduction of wildlife species, archaeological digs, environmental education programs and rehabilitation of disturbed watershed areas.

These projects that contribute \$500,000 or more annually have been consistently recognized nationally as the best programs in the nation during the past 10 years. Without the volunteer program, these projects would not be completed.

Senior Community Service Employment Program

This program administered by the Department of Labor, gives the Forest Service authority to employ seniors in the community who are 55 years or older. This program for low income individuals provides an opportunity for supplemental income as well as much needed skills for the Forest Service.

Approximately 50 individuals work 1300 hours per year operating and maintaining recreation facilities, staffing information centers and Forest Service offices, maintaining vehicles, and building and maintaining signs. These skilled workers are often paired with youth

workers and volunteers to share their experience and knowledge. Thanks to the dedication of SCSEP workers, many facilities are operational that would otherwise have to be closed. (Loyal Clark, January 1997)

CENTRAL UTAH PROJECT

Utah is considered a desert state and is dependant on the limited water resources and healthy watersheds provided by the high country within the State. The National Forests in Utah are the intercepting barriers that catch the life-giving water from summer thunder storms and winter snow storms.

Conceived in the 1950's, the mission of the Central Utah Project (CUP) is to develop central Utah's water resources through the timely implementation of the CUP Completion Act in an economically responsive manner that emphasizes public involvement, environmental values and conservation of resources.

The Central Utah Water Conservancy District has been given the charge to plan and implement the mission of the CUP. The Forest Service is considered both a client and a consultant to help complete the necessary steps involved with the Central Utah Project Completion Act.

The Bonneville Unit of the Central Utah Project is designed to bring water from the High Uintas to the Wasatch Front through a series of tunnels, pipelines and dams. Water will then be supplied to municipal and agricultural demands. The Bonneville Unit includes three major areas that affect National Forest System lands.

The Uintah Basin Replacement Project (UBRP) is designed to build a series

of larger, lower elevation reservoirs to store additional irrigation water and tribal water. This will also provide opportunity to channel additional water to the Wasatch Front. With the new reservoirs there will no longer be the need for the high mountain lakes that now store the critical water. The project will require stabilization of the high mountain lakes in the High Uinta's Wilderness and adjacent areas of the Ashley National Forest.

The Wasatch County Water Efficiency/Daniels Replacement Project (WCWE/DRP) is designed to provide additional water for irrigation in Heber Valley and better quality water to the Wasatch Front. The new Jordanelle Dam will provide a more efficient way of providing irrigation water to the Heber Valley. Jordanelle will also contribute culinary water to the Heber Valley and the Wasatch Front.

Specific to the Uinta National Forest, a series of canals and pipelines carrying water from Jordanelle Reservoir will replace the water now transferred from the Strawberry River into Daniels Canyon. Strawberry River will soon return to its natural condition prior to when water was diverted near its headwaters. With its natural flow of water, fisheries and wetlands along the entire length of the river will be enhanced. Provo River will also be enhanced both in the Heber Valley and through Provo Canyon.

The Spanish Fork-Nephi Project is designed to provide water to south Utah County and eastern Juab County for irrigation through a series of dams and pipelines. The Diamond Fork pipeline, Monks Hollow Dam, Highline Canal, and various secondary water systems for communities such as Spanish Fork,

Mapleton, and Springville are all part of the Spanish Fork-Nephi system. This system will provide better fisheries for Diamond Fork and Spanish Fork Rivers through mitigation and enhancements of those stream channels.

The entire Bonneville Unit of the Central Utah Project is designed to provide more and better quality water to the Wasatch Front. Through the building of various reservoirs, aqueducts and pipelines, and the transfer of water rights from old systems to the new facilities will increase the amount of high quality water for municipal, industrial and agricultural uses.

Through implementation of the CUP completion act, there will be substantial impacts to the National Forests. These impacts must be mitigated to conserve the beauty and biological resources present in these areas. The Utah Reclamation, Mitigation, and Conservation Commission (URMCC) was established by the President of the United States. A board of directors was appointed and a staff hired to oversee the mitigation of impacts created by the Central Utah Project. The URMCC, through its planning process, is working with the National Forests in Utah to fund and enhance fish, wildlife and recreational projects associated with areas impacted by CUP. The Uinta National Forest is currently working with the URMCC in Strawberry Valley and Diamond Fork Canyon. (Bevan Killpack, January 1997)

STRAWBERRY VALLEY MANAGEMENT AREA

One of the most recent and significant land acquisitions to occur on the Uinta National Forest involved the Strawberry Valley Management Area. The acquisition represents the Uinta National Forest's commitment to a philosophy of stewardship based on multiple use and ecosystem management. The lands in Strawberry Valley were transferred to the Forest Service against a unique backdrop of historical land ownership and management controversy. The following is a summary of the report entitled Strawberry: History of the "Pure Valley," written by John Frandsen of the Heber Ranger District, Uinta National Forest in 1994.

In 1864, Strawberry Valley became part of the Uintah Valley Indian Reservation by order of President Abraham Lincoln which consolidated other reservations established in 1856 for the Utes and Goshutes. Federal Treaties were signed reserving these lands for the sole occupation and use by the tribes in exchange for their ancestral lands. The Indian Agency was established in the Uinta Basin and most of the Ute groups located around it to take advantage of rations distributed there. Strawberry Valley, nearly 50 miles from the Agency Headquarters, was less frequented by the Utes and thus vulnerable to trespass. By 1880, settlers in Heber Valley were trespassing onto the western edge of the Uintah Reservation and illegally grazing cattle in Strawberry Valley. In addition, military encampments were located in the valley, partially to show the Utes the military capabilities at hand should they cause problems for the settlers in the area.

In 1892, the Indian Office decided Strawberry Valley should be leased to the Heber Valley ranchers or others since the Utes didn't actively graze the area and it would be too much trouble for the Indian Office to keep the trespassers out. The valley was eventually leased by the Utes, through the Indian Office, to Charles F. Homer of New York City. This had little effect on the trespassing situation however.

At the same time, Heber Valley ranchers were diverting water from the Strawberry Valley into Daniel's Creek and Heber Valley. The canal was constructed between 1879 and 1882. In 1883, the Strawberry Canal Company was incorporated and the Hobble Creek ditch and Willow Creek canal were constructed, though the Willow Creek canal was not completed. In 1893, farmers and laborers from Heber Valley organized the Willow Creek Canal Company and completed the Willow Creek canal. By 1904, nearly 1000 acres were being irrigated wholly or in part by illegally diverted water.

Attempts had been made, however, to legitimize the diversion of water. In 1894, Joseph L. Rawlins attempted to secure a special act of Congress to make the diversion of water from the reservation legal. The bill stalled in committee, but Congress authorized a commission to negotiate with the Utes to relinquish ownership of all lands not allotted to the Utes under individual ownership. The Dawes Severalty Act gave each head of a Ute family an allotment of 80 acres and 40 acres to each individual. The remainder would be opened to non-Indian use. The commission never had time to meet with the Utes on the matter and the situation in Strawberry Valley remained unchanged. In 1898, another commission was appointed

for the purpose of allotting lands in severalty but a majority of Ute consent would be necessary for the terms of the act to be carried through. Ute consent was not obtained and a stalemate ensued.

In 1896, Utah was granted statehood and Joseph Rawlins became Senator for Utah and continued in his efforts to obtain a right of way through Reservation lands for the canal companies. He finally succeeded in 1899 with an amendment attached to an Indian appropriation which gave the canal companies a right of way through Strawberry Valley with the condition that the Utes would be left with water they required for agricultural and domestic uses. Later, the U.S. Geological Survey was sent to investigate the situation and see if the Utes were getting water sufficient to cultivate crops. Cyrus C. Babb directed the investigation between 1899 and 1901 and reported on the illegally diverted water. His supervisor, F.H. Newell commented in the report that, though the water was illegally diverted, it did not cause any significant hardship for the Utes and was not serious enough to be considered a problem that warranted much attention.

In 1901 Theodore Roosevelt, a strong supporter of western irrigation and agricultural development, became President. Representative Francis Newlands of Nevada began to draft legislation that would solve most of the problems that previous water legislation had created. The result was the Newlands Bill which proposed to take money from the sale of public lands in the sixteen arid states and place it into a Reclamation Fund to be used by the Secretary of Interior to pay for new water projects. The bill was reworked into the National Reclamation Act and Fredrick Haynes Newell was named the

first Director of the new Reclamation Service.

In 1902, a group of local officials in Utah County drafted a plan to divert even more water from Strawberry Valley into Utah Valley. The plan included the construction of a reservoir in Strawberry Valley and the construction of a four-mile tunnel to transfer the water to Utah Valley. The Strawberry Valley Project, as it came to be known, was pressed at the Utah Irrigation Congress, where Fredrick Newell suggested that Utah would have a better chance of getting Reclamation funding if the Irrigation Congress would decide on one reservoir plan and lobby for it. Newell suggested to the Arid Land Reclamation Commission, created by the Utah State Legislature, that they form an association of water users, who stood to benefit through the Strawberry project, that the government could interact with. By June of 1905, this new association would be incorporated as the Strawberry Water Users Association.

At about the same time, Senator Rawlins was introducing additional legislation in a continued effort to open up the reservation. Utah Representative George Sutherland argued that as no treaty with the Utes had ever been ratified, the reservation could be taken without negotiation or consent since the Utes were not the rightful owners. Congress once again authorized the Secretary of Interior to allot the land in the Severalty Act of 1902. President Roosevelt refused to sign the act because of its preference toward certain mining interests and its failure to give the Utes grazing land in connection with their allotments.

The stalemate continued until 1903 with the Supreme Court decision Lone

Wolf vs. Hitchcock. This ruling stated that Congress had complete authority over Indian relations and therefore had power to pass laws which exceeded treaty stipulations. Immediately, Congress appropriated funds to carry out the 1902 severalty act and stated that if Ute consent could not be obtained, the Secretary of Interior could proceed to allot lands and open the reservation without it. This act addressed President Roosevelt's concerns by providing 250,000 acres of grazing land located just south of Strawberry River. In 1904, acting Indian agent C.H. Hall requested the Indian Service to persuade Congress to change the location of the 250,000 acre grazing lands to the Deep Creek area because of the Reclamation Service's plans to divert water into the Provo district. The date for opening the reservation was postponed until March 10, 1905.

Meanwhile George L. Swendsen, the Reclamation Service district engineer sent letters to the Reclamation Service, the Forest Service and the Indian Service requesting that they support setting aside Strawberry Valley as a reservoir site. The Forest Service was also interested in obtaining a portion of the Uintah Reservation. Chief grazing officer Albert F. Potter was sent by Gifford Pinchot to find land suitable for additional Forest Reserves and Potter had sited the Strawberry Valley as a possibility (See Appendix B for land acquired by the Forest Service when the Uintah Reservation was opened).

The opening date was postponed again, this time until September 1, 1905 and an act was passed in Congress allowing President Roosevelt to set land apart as an addition to the Uintah Forest Reserve and

to set aside any lands necessary to protect the water supply "for the Indians or for general agricultural development." The act also relocated the 250,000 acre grazing lands to the Deep Creek area as per Hall's request.

In July of 1904, President Roosevelt issued a proclamation which set the opening of the Uintah Valley Reservation on August 28, 1905. On August 3, 1905, the president withdrew 200,633 acres from disposal for agricultural purposes and for a "reservoir site necessary to conserve the water supply for the Indians, or for general agricultural development." On August 14, 1905, the President specifically reserved land for the Strawberry Valley Project. Other lands were opened for settlement under the terms of the Homestead Act. Potential settlers would file applications which were drawn at random for 160 acre parcels of Ute reservation land. In Provo, 37,702 people registered for a chance at the land. Strawberry remained unaffected by settlement as most of the valley lands were reserved through Roosevelt's earlier proclamations.

When the Reclamation Act of 1902 passed, the demand for water projects far exceeded the capabilities of the Reclamation Service and the Reclamation Fund. Each western state would be entitled to a single project and the Strawberry Valley Project was chosen in the State of Utah, the first of many Federal water projects. This project was unique when compared to the projects funded by the Reclamation Service in other states because the lands that benefited from the Strawberry Valley Project were privately owned, where as other Reclamation projects provided water to "public domain" lands, opened subsequently to homesteading. Regardless,



Preparatory construction of Strawberry Reservoir, 1906. USDA Forest Service.

the Strawberry Project was chosen for Reclamation Support for several reasons. First, the formation of the Strawberry Water Users Association had given the Reclamation Service a cohesive group to work with. Second, the opening of the Uintah Reservation coincided with project approval. This freed up large amounts of unappropriated water and also made possible securing the reservoir site. Third, the project was smaller and simpler, making completion and repayment to the Reclamation Service more likely.

A contract with the Strawberry Water Users was entered into, signed by the Secretary of Interior on March 6, 1906 and preparatory construction began.

Heber Valley ranchers who had grazed on the withdrawn lands before the Strawberry Project now requested to continue using the lands for grazing. The Reclamation Service had no precedent or statute to validate the legality of leasing the withdrawn land to the cattlemen. The decision was finally made by Assistant Attorney General Frank L. Campbell to allow the Secretary of Interior to lease the withdrawn lands at his discretion. On March 10, 1906, the Secretary decided to lease withdrawn lands to the highest bidder.

By July, a contract was entered into with James Clyde, James Murdock, Davis Smith and Davis Murdock of Heber City for \$10,408 per annum.



Construction of the dam at Strawberry Reservoir, 1907. USDA Forest Service.

The final cost of the project was estimated at \$1.25 million, but by 1910, it was evident that real costs would exceed that figure. To complicate matters, the Indian Agent for the Utes began asking for lease money received from Strawberry Valley grazing. Though the land had been withdrawn from entry, the title still remained with the Utes. The Strawberry Water Users disputed the claim arguing that grazing fees should be used to repay project costs which, by then, almost tripled the original estimates. They asked Senator Sutherland to push a measure through Congress which would allow the Reclamation Service to purchase the grazing land as part of the reclamation project's construction costs. Sutherland introduced the bill in 1910 and it failed.

Two months later, he managed to attach an amendment to the Fiscal Year 1911 Indian Appropriations Act which read:

All right, title, and interest of the Indians in the said lands are hereby extinguished, and title, management, and control thereof shall pass to the owners of the lands irrigated from said project whenever the management and operation of the irrigation works shall so pass under the terms of the reclamation act (Act 4-4-1910, 36 Stat. 269).

While Sutherland's amendment provided for the water users to assume "title," management and control of the Project Lands, the Reclamation Act

specifically indicated that title to reclamation works would remain with the Government unless Congress otherwise directed. Regardless, in the summer of 1912, the water users were informed, by Senator Smoot and State Senator Henry Gardener, that the title to 60,000 acres in Strawberry Valley was theirs. This arrangement allowed the water users to collect grazing revenues from project lands to cover project costs. The understanding of the water users was that the project would mean eventual title to the project works and the thousands of acres of withdrawn lands which surrounded them. Many others disagreed.

Under the high bid lease structure that was established, ranchers from Heber Valley were forced to pay the water users rents much higher than those on neighboring forest lands. Few rangelands were left un-stocked so Heber Valley ranchers had little choice. Because of the high rental fees, ranchers had to stock their allotments with as many sheep and cattle as they could to pay rental fees and still make a profit. This resulted in deteriorating range conditions early on.

In October of 1912, with construction on the reservoir and tunnel nearly complete, Newell sent a letter to the water users requesting a plan for repayment. Disputes arose among the water users over who would pay. The Secretary of Interior responded to the dispute by establishing a deadline for the settlement of the dispute and a feasible plan for repayment. The deadline, May of 1913, came and went and the Reclamation Service delayed taking any action.

By the summer of 1917, the reservoir was full and the Reclamation Service drew up a tentative contract to turn

the care, maintenance and operation of the project over to the water users as specified in the Reclamation Act.

In April of 1922, George A. Fisher testified, on behalf of the Heber ranchers, before the House Committee on Public Lands in favor of Bill H.R. 10861 which proposed to pass all the project lands covered by the 1910 Act to the Uinta National Forest. Additionally, the bill would provide that 10 percent of receipts from the National Forest should be paid into the Reclamation Fund to reimburse the money paid to the Utes under the 1910 Act. This bill would repeal the 1910 Act to the extent that it was inconsistent with H.R. 10861. Fisher testified that Wasatch County ranchers had paid the water users \$82,000 over the amount reimbursed to the Utes according to the 1910 payment contract. Because the lands had been paid for using this money, the land was free to be transferred to the Forest Service. This, in effect, would bring grazing fees down to what the ranchers could afford. Fisher further argued that Forest and project lands were divided entirely by section lines, having no real meaning in practical administration. He felt, as did others, that the watershed should be managed as a single unit by a single agency. The Forest Service was a perfect candidate for management as watershed protection was one of the agencies primary purposes. George Fisher argued that protection of the watershed could only be accomplished through proper management of grazing. This represented a goal that could not be achieved on any lands where the objective was to benefit from them financially.

The water users protested, claiming they had vested rights to the lands in Strawberry Valley. Senator Will H. King,

who was asked by the water users to champion their claim, replied by stating that there were no legal rights granted to the water users. In a letter to sent to Lee R. Taylor, King stated:

The water users have not paid for the lands in the sense that they have bought them. The expense of extinguishing the Indian title was charged to their project, which replaced the title in the government free from all Indian claims for use of the project, to the extent required as a watershed, but for no other purpose.

H.R. 10861 was favorably reported overall by the House committee. However, a dissent report was filed by a minority. The bill was never considered beyond the committee stage.

In December of 1924, Congress passed the Fact Finders Act which changed the conditions under which management and operation were to pass to the water users. It stated that the water users would assume care, operation, and maintenance of the project works and facilities whenever two-thirds part of the Association members agreed to a repayment contract. Under this contract, the water users soon met the criteria for the transfer of management. But, the Fact Finders Act also provided that “title, management, and control” of the watershed lands were not to pass to the Association under the 1910 Act until at least 51% of project costs had been repaid to the Federal Government. These provisions were in seeming contradiction with one another. Regardless, the Government and water users entered into agreement to transfer care, operation and

management to the water users.

In November of 1928, the contradiction was clarified by an amendment which explained that although 51% of the project costs had not yet been repaid, “care, operation, and maintenance” (management and control, but not title) of the watershed lands would be transferred to the Association.

Starting in 1926, the High Line Canal Company, or “Strawberry Grazing Company,” which was organized by Heber Valley ranchers, leased allotments on the Project Lands. In 1929 bids for new leases were open and applications to graze more than 100,000 sheep were placed by both Heber Valley stockmen and Association members. The carrying capacity was established at 25,000 sheep so the Association decided to provide allotments only to its members. Revenues from grazing on Project Lands were then credited toward the construction costs as per the 1924 Act. The Act stated that no profits could be distributed to members until the project costs had been fully paid. However, it was in the opinion of the Solicitor that the express prohibition of profit before repayment did not imply an authorization for profit distribution after payment. They did not feel profit distribution was what Congress had intended.

As a result of the 1928 amendment, the management of 60,000 acres was turned over to the water users. During the depression of the 1930's, revenues dropped off and the Association began to discuss options to lower Association costs with the Bureau of Reclamation. The Reclamation Projects Act of 1939 extended the repayment period for Reclamation Projects nationwide and a year later the water users

were able to sign a new contract. This contract not only extended the repayment period, but redesignated the Project Lands as “grazing lands” instead of the former “watershed lands.” The 1940 contract also stated that title to the Project Lands and Reclamation works would remain with the U.S. Government even though management authority rested with the water users. In 1946, an Act was passed which stated that revenues generated by the project could not be distributed to individual water users before or after retirement of the project debt.

In the 1960's, the Central Utah Project was authorized. This meant the enlargement of Strawberry Reservoir and the subsequent loss of revenue generating grazing lands. The Strawberry Water Users Association responded, in November of 1973, by filing suite against the Government for compensation for losses of future grazing revenues. The final installment of the \$3,499,734.22 construction loan for the Strawberry Valley Project was paid in November of 1974. The same year, the Association filed suite against the Government to settle several important legal questions:

- 1) Where did title to the grazing lands actually rest?
- 2) Could it distribute profits to its members now that the construction loan had been repaid?
- 3) Did the Association have a right to be reimbursed for grazing land lost under the expanded Strawberry Reservoir in the Central Utah Project?

Based on the 1928 supplemental contract and the 1940 Amendatory Contract, the court decided the Association

did not have an ownership interest in the Project Lands but did have a contractual right to do certain things with those lands. The Bureau also had rights and responsibilities to see that the land was managed as intended and if the lands were transferred to the Forest Service, that agency would be required to honor the contract with the water users.

Meanwhile, recreational use of Strawberry Project lands had been steadily growing. Formal recreation management in the area probably began in 1926 when the Association assumed control. At about the same time, the State was planting the reservoir with trout, but recreational fishing continued to be limited by fish losses. The fish were suffocated as a result of the decomposition of excessive organic matter in the reservoir and high temperatures which resulted from stagnation. Up until the 1960's, ranchers applied herbicides to willows along stream corridors to increase access to the water by livestock. This together with continued overgrazing on the watershed caused an increase in sediment run off and a decrease in the reproductive capabilities of fisheries. Sediments were carried into the reservoir, filtering ultra-violet light and upsetting the vegetation balances in the reservoir. Private fishing camps, leased from the water users, caused their own problems. Sanitation practices were substandard and raw sewage was often dumped into the reservoir, again upsetting the vegetation balance and increasing the decomposition of organic matter. Chubs and suckers out competed native species and in 1961, the entire reservoir had to be cleared of fish. Native species were restocked, but overgrazing and an increase in recreational continued. Recreation and grazing were two uses on a

collision course in Strawberry Valley.

In 1975, the State Division of Health ordered all recreational facilities surrounding the reservoir closed for illegal sanitation. At the same time, Wasatch County began to criticize the water users for their fee collection system. In 1976, the Bureau of Reclamation prepared a recreation master plan for the enlarged reservoir. Discussion began as to who should manage the project lands and for what purpose. Discussion continued between Federal and State agencies and officials, environmental and wildlife groups, and the public. The decision was finally made to manage the lands for watershed protection, recreation, wildlife and fish values. It was decided that the Forest Service would assume management of the project lands. On October 16, 1988, Congress transferred management authority for the Project Lands from the Strawberry Water Users Association to the U.S. Forest Service, Uinta National Forest (See Appendix B for land transferred). This bill:

- 1) Gave management authority to the Forest Service for Project Lands by modifying the Forest Boundary.
- 2) Compensated the Strawberry Water Users Association for their grazing rights on the Project Lands.
- 3) Provided \$3 million for rehabilitation of the Project Lands to be spent over a 5-year period beginning in 1990.

The Project Lands were also given a new title: Strawberry Valley Management Area. The entire Strawberry Valley watershed could now be managed as an ecosystem for the benefit of a diverse group of users. A massive effort was initiated by

the Uinta National Forest to stabilize riparian habitats, rehabilitate fish habitats, seed the upland areas adjacent to riparian areas, control noxious weeds, consolidate the system of roads in the area, dismantle obsolete fences and monitor the restoration of the valley. Concurrent with these efforts was the treatment and restocking of the reservoir with native fish species. Today, Strawberry Valley is a destination spot for thousands of recreationists and one of Utah's premier fishing areas. Other uses include timber harvesting and grazing under controlled conditions.

CHILDREN'S FOREST

The concept for a Children's Forest was born in California out of a need for public participation in ecosystem management. The San Bernardino National Forest developed a program where children are involved in the management of public lands. The Children's Forest is the term coined to define a management area managed to provide the people of all ages with educational opportunities in ecosystems management. The Uinta National Forest is working on designing a similar program for children in Utah. The program seeks to improve access for people of all ages and abilities in addition to offering an equally recreational and educational experience for visitors.

Diamond Fork Canyon has been selected as the pilot location for the project. Diamond Fork was selected because of its proximity to major population bases and the area has a wide range of resources (recreation, range, fisheries, wildlife). Partnerships with communities, corporations, individuals, and educators will implement and sustain the goals of the

Children's Forest.

Eventually Diamond Fork will be an area where children and other community members can come together to learn and play. Children will become actively involved in ecosystem management providing a vehicle for their education and empowerment. The area will become a place of lifelong learning and play with opportunities for participation in the stewardship of the land. Design of the environment will reflect children's needs and will integrate art, science, and education in a uniquely accessible environment.

In the future the Diamond Fork pilot project will be spread to other locations throughout Utah. Children's deserts, wetlands and other ecosystems can be developed to provide education for children about the environment and ecosystems management.

The Children's Forest will be a working forest offering high quality environmental education and outdoor recreation opportunities that promote individual dignity, independence and social integration through public/private partnerships, responsible ecosystem management and universal design concepts. (Rebecca Hirschi, January 1997)

NATIONAL AND STATE CHRISTMAS TREES FROM THE UINTA

1968 National Christmas Tree

In 1968, a 74-foot Engelmann spruce was sent to the White House to be the 1968 National Christmas Tree. The tree was cut under the direction of the Utah State Forester's office on November 12,

1968, from an area about a mile east of Daniel's Canyon summit in Wasatch County on the Strawberry Ranger District at an elevation of 7,900 feet. Ranger Phillip D. Glass stated the tree measured 20 feet tall and had a stump of 23.7 inches in diameter. Representative Laurence J. Burton stated:

We feel it a real honor for Utah to provide the most beautiful tree in the world for the Nation's Christmas Tree... This tree was nothing more than a sapling when the first Mormon pioneers began settling in Heber Valley in the 1850's...

The tree arrived in Washington, D.C., on November 26 and was turned over to the National Park Service for decoration. "It was a great moment for the State of Utah," said State Forester Paul Sjoblom at the lighting ceremony on December 16. "Many people and organizations donated time, personnel, equipment and money for the project," Sjoblom added. President Lyndon B. Johnson pushed the button lighting the 2,000 blue and 2,000 green lights. Decorations also included 200 large, golden snowflakes (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1972).

1996 State Christmas Tree

In 1996, the Heber Ranger District provided the Christmas Tree which held center stage in Utah's State Capitol. The 30-foot blue spruce, Utah's State tree, was a gift marking the conclusion of the Utah State Centennial and beginning of the Uinta National Forest Centennial.

On Friday, November 22, a ceremony was held in the Heber City park.

The program recognized partners who were involved in the selection, cutting and transportation of the tree. Also included were remarks by Heber City Mayor Scott Wright, Wasatch County Commissioner LaRen Provost, Heber District Ranger Robert Riddle, Forest Supervisor Peter Karp, and carols sung by local children's choirs.

Robert Woodhead, Deputy Director of Administrative Services, Utah State Office, presented Supervisor Karp with a beautiful plaque. It stated: "In appreciation for participation in the 1996 Utah State Capitol Tree Ceremony and to honor the 'kick off' of the Uinta National Forest Centennial, 1897-1997."

The tree was delivered by D.P. Curtis Trucking of Richfield, Utah, to State Capitol Facilities Coordinator, Joe Ligor, at the State Capitol on the morning of Tuesday, November 26. A crane lifted the tree up the grand staircase, through the south set of doors, and into the Rotunda on the second floor. It was raised by a series of winches and secured with ropes. Approximately 6,000 lights and 1,000 decorations were placed on the tree by maintenance and grounds staff. The ornaments adorning the tree were made by school students from throughout the State of Utah.

The "lights on" ceremony took place Tuesday, December 10. The program included carols sung by the American Fork High School Choir and remarks by First Lady Jacalyn S. Leavitt. Following the program, a call was received from Lieutenant Governor, Olene Walker, in Washington D.C. Mrs. Leavitt then flipped the switch to light the tree. This occurred simultaneously with the lighting of "Utah's Centennial Tree to D.C.," a 70-

foot Engelmann spruce provided to our Nation's Capitol from the six National Forests in Utah honoring the Statehood Centennial. Washington's tree was lit by Speaker of the House Newt Gingrich who thanked Utah for the beautiful tree and wished everyone a very Merry Christmas. (Lola Murray, January 1997)



Utah State Christmas Tree at the State Capitol, December 1996. USDA Forest Service.

LOOKING INTO THE FUTURE ON THE UINTA NATIONAL FOREST

The unique mix of Land, People and Events has made the Uinta National Forest what it is today and will continue to carry it into the future. From the very first humans to enter Utah to the hikers and picnickers of tomorrow, the Uinta National Forest will continue to provide important resources and opportunities for the American people. Clean air and water on the Uinta will continue to play an increasingly important role for people in the valleys. Recreational areas on the Uinta are now providing residents from the Salt Lake and Ogden Valley's with an alternative to more crowded recreational areas in northern Utah. They continue to be the backyard for Utah, Juab and Heber Valley residents.

The challenges inherent in resource management have evolved with use patterns and philosophies over the last 100 years. Land and resource managers on the Uinta will continue, with the help of partners, to keep pace with these changes. Gifford Pinchot said, "Forestry cannot succeed without support of people who are the Forest neighbors."

Many of the challenges of the next 100 years promise to be very different from those we have seen since 1897. But one thing still holds true. As the Uinta National Forest Supervisor, Peter W. Karp, said, "Wise and careful use by us all will ensure that these lands will be available and provide the joy we experience today and well into the next millennium. Each of us has a responsibility to care for the lands and resources of the Uinta National Forest."



APPENDICES

Appendix A: Bibliography

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Appendix B:
Uinta National Forest Boundary Maps - Major Boundary Changes Over Time

GIS Analyst: Debra Tatman

Uinta National Forest Boundary

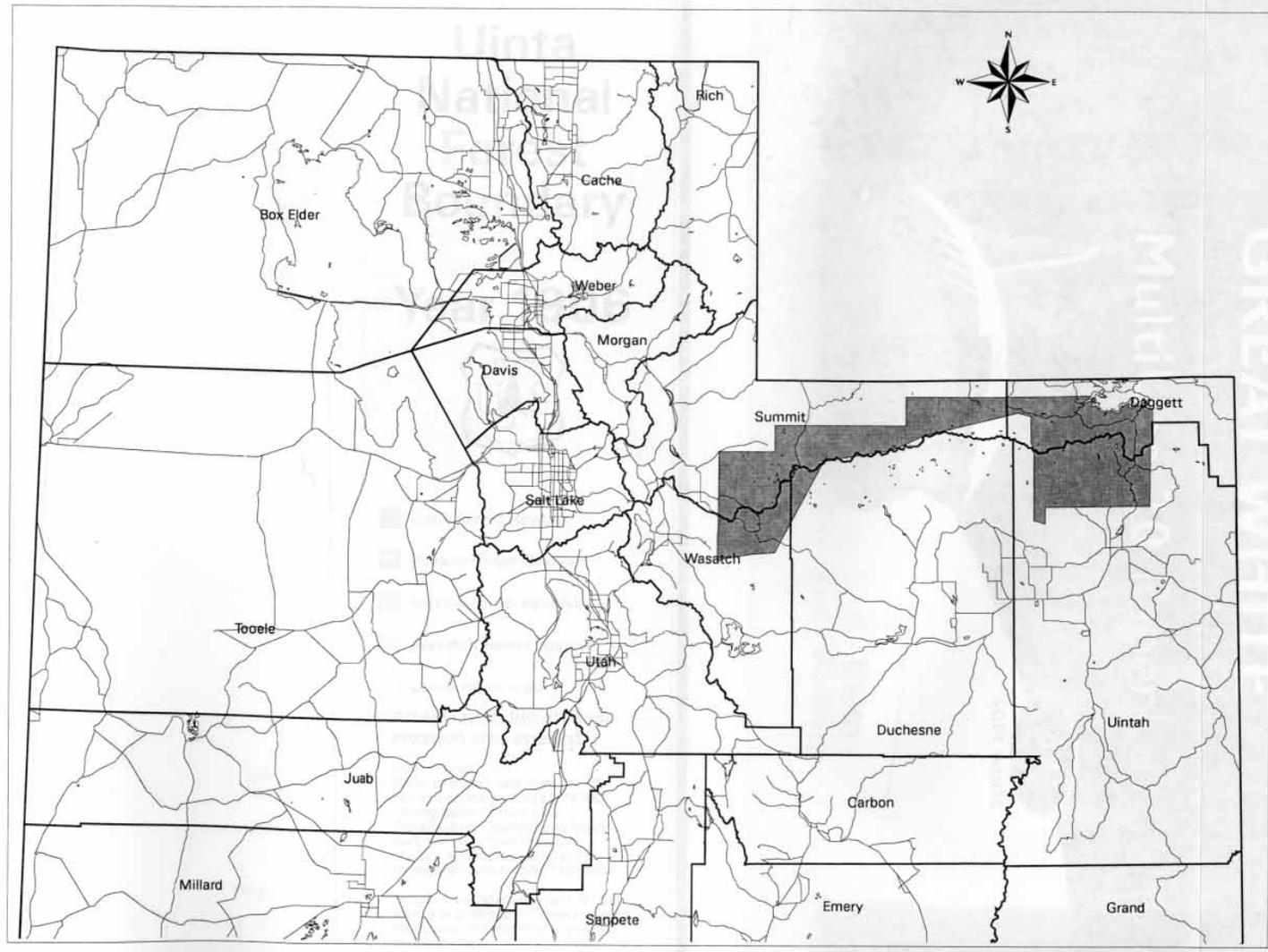
Year 1897

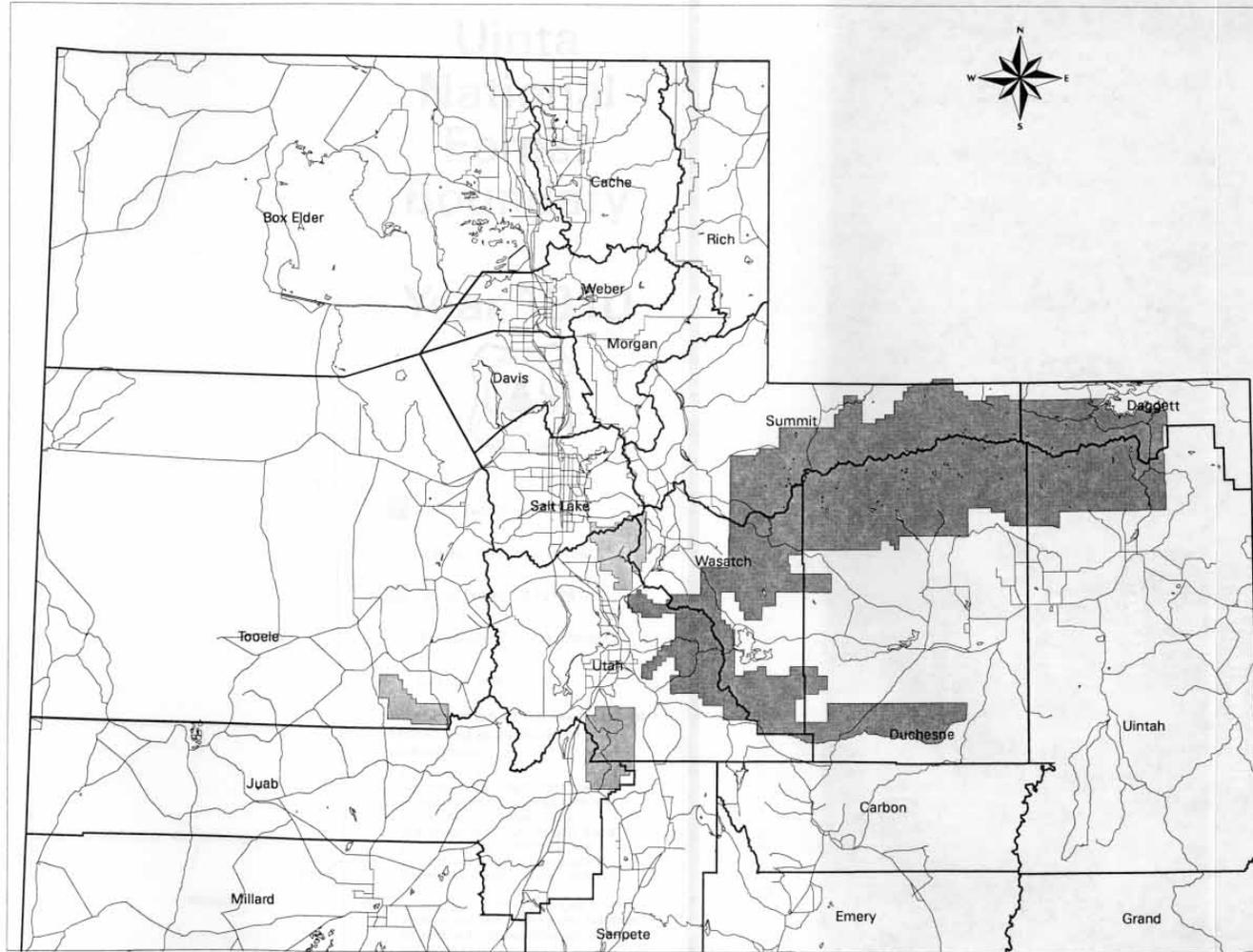


- Uintah Forest Reserve
- Lakes, Reservoirs

Data Source:
National Forest data from the US Forest Service. Includes 1:24000 Cartographic Feature Files. Waterbodies, Counties and Transportation data from the State of Utah Automated Geographic Reference Center, scale 1:500000.

Temporal boundary changes for the Ashley and Wasatch-Cache National Forests are not depicted accurately on these maps.





Uinta National Forest Boundary

Year 1906

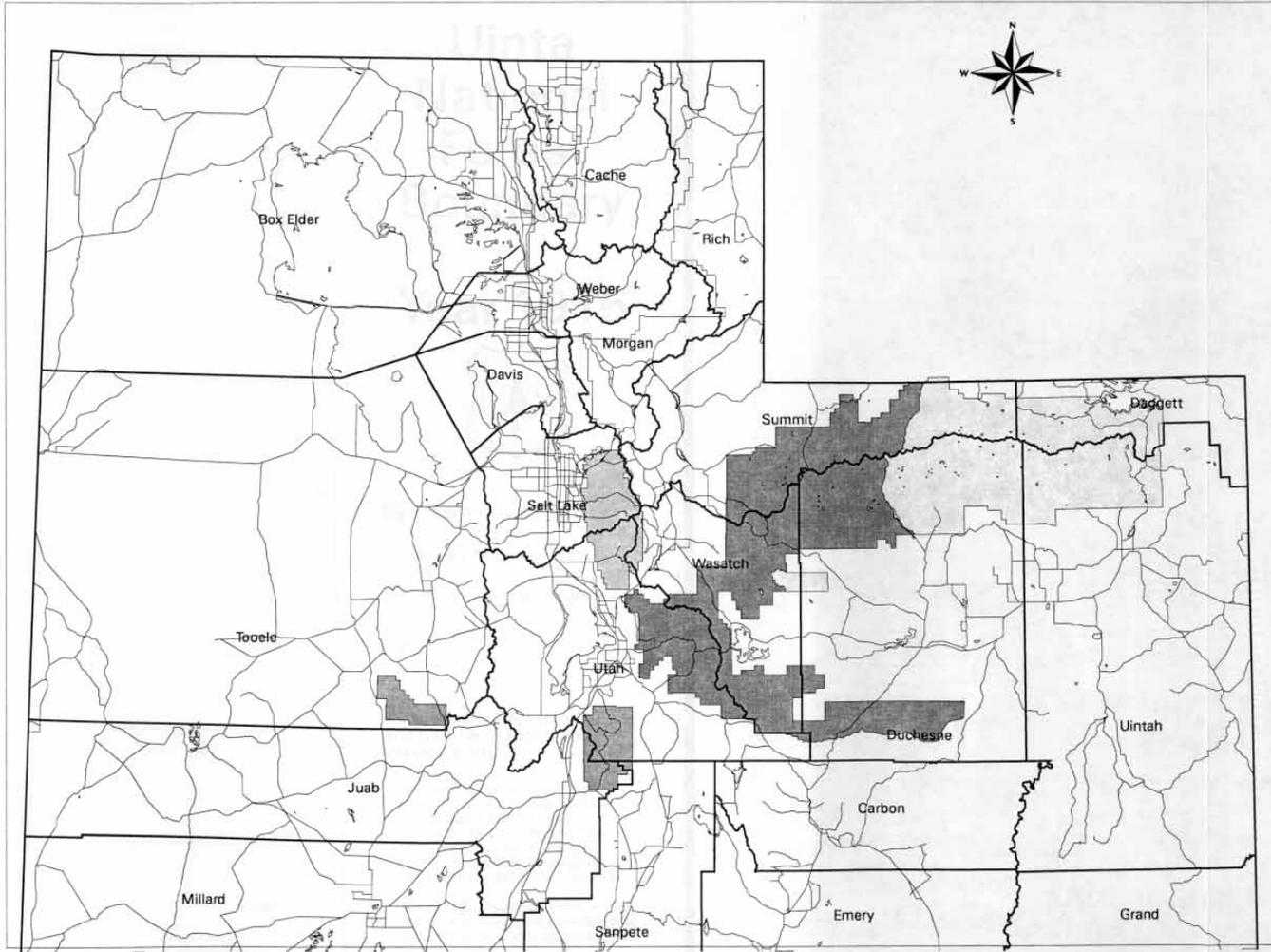


- Uinta Forest Reserve
- Payson Forest Reserve
- Vernon Forest Reserve
- Wasatch Forest Reserve
- Lakes, Reservoirs

After Uintah Indian Reservation was opened.

Data Source:
National Forest data from the US Forest Service. Includes 1:24000 Cartographic Feature Files. Waterbodies, Counties and Transportation data from the State of Utah Automated Geographic Reference Center, scale 1:500000.

Temporal boundary changes for the Ashley and Wasatch-Cache National Forests are not depicted accurately on these maps.



Uinta National Forest Boundary

Year 1910

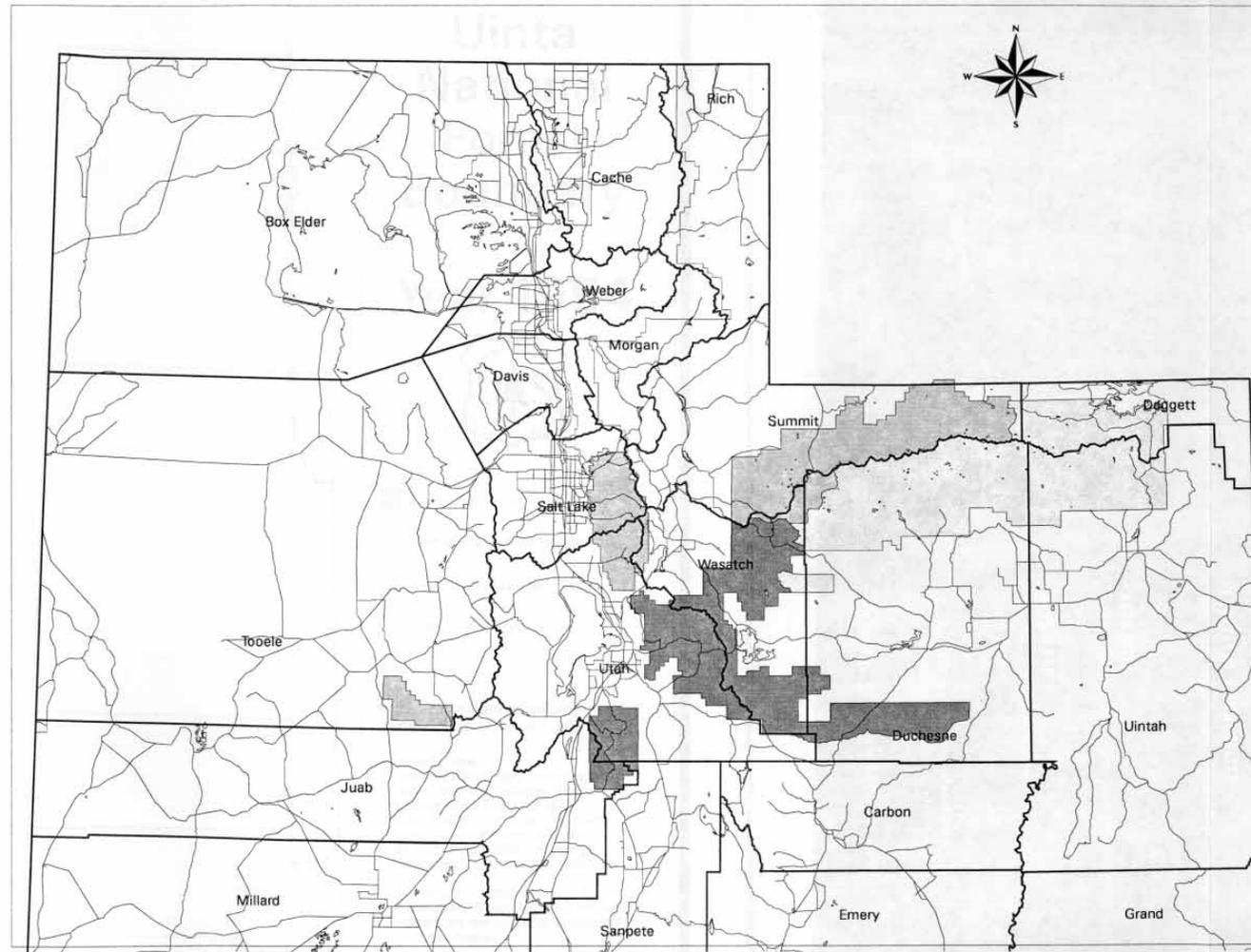


- Uinta National Forest
- Ashley National Forest
- Nebo National Forest
- Wasatch National Forest
- Lakes, Reservoirs

After creation of Ashley National Forest and acquisition of watersheds.

Data Source:
 National Forest data from the US Forest Service. Includes 1:24000 Cartographic Feature Files. Waterbodies, Counties and Transportation data from the State of Utah Automated Geographic Reference Center, scale 1:500000.

Temporal boundary changes for the Ashley and Wasatch-Cache National Forests are not depicted accurately on these maps.



Uinta National Forest Boundary

Year 1915



- Uinta National Forest
- Ashley National Forest
- Wasatch National Forest
- Lakes, Reservoirs

After transfer from Nebo NF and transfer to Ashley and Wasatch NFs.

Data Source:
National Forest data from the US Forest Service. Includes 1:24000 Cartographic Feature Files. Waterbodies, Counties and Transportation data from the State of Utah Automated Geographic Reference Center, scale 1:500000.

Temporal boundary changes for the Ashley and Wasatch-Cache National Forests are not depicted accurately on these maps.

Uinta National Forest Boundary

Year 1954

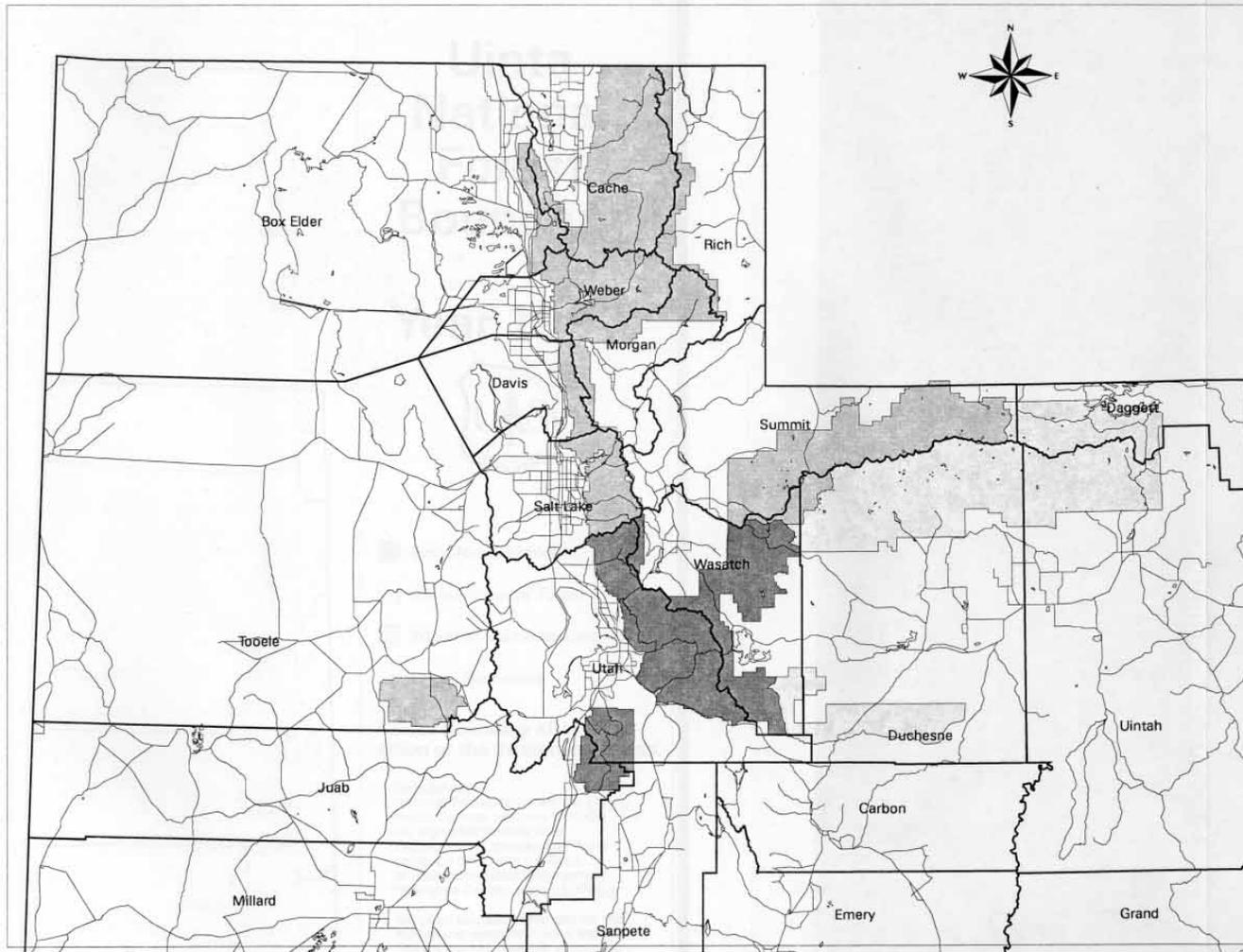


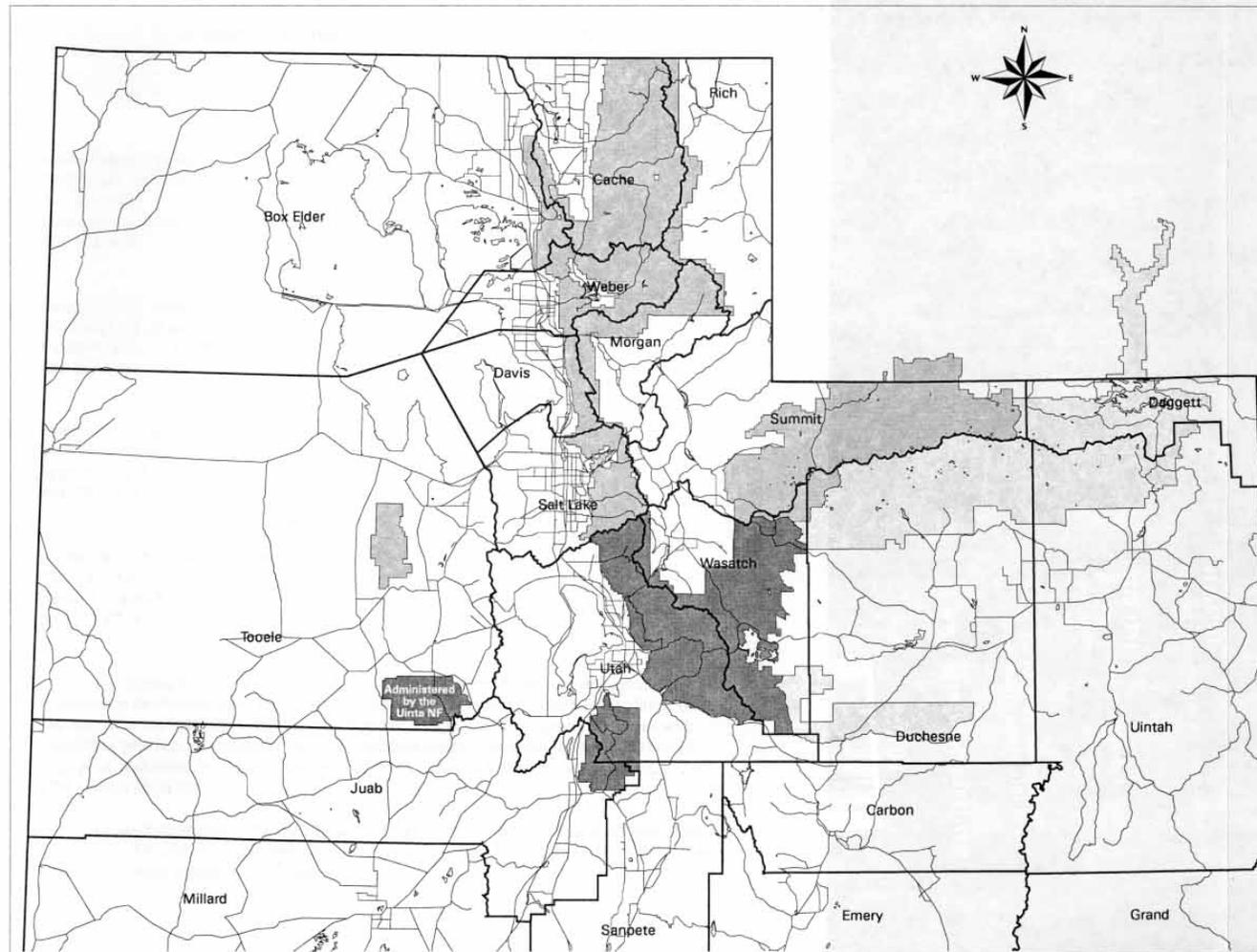
-  Uinta National Forest
-  Ashley National Forest
-  Wasatch National Forest
-  Lakes, Reservoirs

After watershed acquisition and transfer from Wasatch NF.

Data Source:
National Forest data from the US Forest Service. Includes 1:24000 Cartographic Feature Files.
Waterbodies, Counties and Transportation data from the State of Utah Automated Geographic Reference Center, scale 1:500000.

Temporal boundary changes for the Ashley and Wasatch-Cache National Forests are not depicted accurately on these maps.





Uinta National Forest Boundary

Year 1997



- Uinta National Forest
- Ashley National Forest
- Wasatch-Cache National Forest
- Lakes, Reservoirs

Forest Boundary after acquisition of the Strawberry Lands.

Data Source:
 National Forest data from the US Forest Service. Includes 1:24000 Cartographic Feature Files.
 Waterbodies, Counties and Transportation data from the State of Utah Automated Geographic Reference Center, scale 1:500000.

Temporal boundary changes for the Ashley and Wasatch-Cache National Forests are not depicted accurately on these maps.

Appendix C:
List of Uinta National Forest Offices and Phone Numbers

Uinta National Forest Supervisor's Office
88 West 100 North
Provo, UT 84601
801-377-5780

Heber Ranger District
2460 South Highway 40
P.O. Box 190
Heber City, UT 84032
801-654-0470

Pleasant Grove Ranger District
390 North 100 East
Pleasant Grove, UT 84062
801-785-3563

Spanish Fork Ranger District
44 West 400 North
Spanish Fork, UT 84660
801-798-3571

Nephi Office, Spanish Fork Ranger District
740 South Main
Nephi, UT 84648
801-623-2735

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To file a complaint, write the Secretary of Agriculture, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, DC 20250, or call (800) 245-6340 (voice) or (800) 855-1234 (TDD). USDA is an equal employment opportunity employer.