The Boundary Waters Canoe Area Wilderness (BWCA) of Minnesota: Changes (1966-1986)
Has the Wilderness Disappeared?

Lawrence C. Merriam

Station Bulletin AD-SB-2926
Agricultural Experiment Station
University of Minnesota 1986
Acknowledgements

The author thanks the following colleagues and former graduate research assistants who helped in our many studies of the Boundary Waters Canoe Area since 1966. They are: Charles Anderson, Ernest Anderson, Jim Barott, Jim Bloemendal, John Borovsky, Jack Clausen, John Colmey, Terry Costello, Sid Frissell, Kent Goeckermann, Fran and Bud Heinseelman, Peter Huang, John King, Tim Knopp, Dave Lime, Bob Lucas, Steve McCool, Arnett Mace, Jeff Marion, Al Mills, Del Miller, Jim Morgan, Rich Peterson, Don Prettyman, Clara Schreiber, Charley Smith, Paul Smith, Toivo Sober, and John Tappeiner. Financial and other support were provided by the Superior National Forest and the North Central Forest Experiment Station of the USDA, Forest Service. The University of Minnesota through the Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station and the College of Forestry contributed directly to study efforts. Financial Aid came also from the McIntire-Stennis Cooperative Research Program under project MN 42-048.
THE BOUNDARY WATERS CANOE AREA WILDERNESS (BWCA) OF MINNESOTA: CHANGES (1966-1986) HAS THE WILDERNESS DISAPPEARED?

Lawrence C. Merriam

AD-SB-2926

Agricultural Experiment Station
University of Minnesota
St. Paul, MN 55108

1986

Lawrence C. Merriam is professor of forestry at the University of Minnesota, 309 Green Hall, 1530 N. Cleveland Avenue, St. Paul, MN 55108.
INTRODUCTION

In his now classic 1964 study, *The Recreational Capacity of the Quetico-Superior Area* (including the BWCA), Robert Lucas made the following statement:

When past trends are projected and compared to capacity, serious problems appear not too distant. If no access could be overused, full wilderness capacity has already been exceeded. A more realistic estimate places the disappearance of full wilderness between 1965 and 1975. The earlier deadline assumes all increases take place at presently underused areas, and the 1975 date assumes no relative change in distribution. Both dates assume no restriction of motorboats, are aimed at satisfying the paddling canoeists (the most demanding group), and assume adequate provision of access point facilities, such as parking.
Lucas was relating wilderness capacity directly to what people think about the amount and kind of use encountered and only indirectly to physical, environmental change. Now it is 1986, though BWCA visitation has increased over the years, motor use is restricted, visitor numbers and entry are controlled, special Boundary Waters Canoe Area Wilderness legislation is in place, and special primitive management areas are planned. Have these restrictions extended Lucas's deadline for the disappearance of full wilderness? Or has his prediction been fulfilled? There still are major use and solitude problems in the BWCA and these have been a general concern of all wilderness managers. The common philosophy suggests that restricting use to tolerable levels is necessary to maintain long term wilderness preservation goals (Hendee and others, 1978). The BWCA in northeastern Minnesota has a long history of dealing with use-protection tension. This paper concerns what has happened there in the last 20 years with future implications for other wilderness areas.

My interest in the BWCA began with my arrival at the University of Minnesota in 1966 and the initiation of our visitor campsite studies on the Boundary Waters Canoe Area. Since then I have been a frequent visitor to the area on research matters and have reviewed management proposals with or for the Forest Service. We also have done a number of studies of the adjoining Voyageurs National Park, created in 1975.

The BWCA, possessing nearly unique canoeing wilderness attributes, has evolved over the years from a lightly used region with mixed opportunities, to a popular, publicized wilderness readily accessible to over half the population of the United States. Numerous congressional and
Minnesota legislative acts concern its administration and use along with executive orders, agency rules and regulations. Controversy over conflicting uses has been intense. The Forest Service, as responsible management agency, has attempted to serve clients in a non-partisan way. As a result the Forest Service has been buffeted by all sides and has sometimes attempted management solutions too late to be effective.

Interests of local residents who live on the edge of the BWCA, who are accustomed to few use restrictions in the past, have been a source of concern. Protective of perceived personal territory, especially with respect to fishing, access and resource removal, they logically resent the growing intrusion of outside visitors many of whom purchase nothing from local businesses. Increasingly, these visitors are paddle canoeists who are perceived to be urbanites from large environmental groups (e.g., Wilderness Society, Sierra Club) lobbying for restrictive wilderness legislation.

Of course, there are many variations on perception of and concern for the BWCA. It is a complex situation. R. Newell Searle has well described the history of the region to the early 70's in Saving Quetico-Superior -- A Land Set Apart (1977). For the period covered in this paper (1966-1986), problems of BWCA policy, management and use included:

1) Competing recreation interests (e.g., canoeists versus motor users)

2) Logging and potential mining

3) Passage and implementation of wilderness legislation (including local business concerns)

4) Increasing use and environmental impact on the BWCA.
Historical Background

How did we get to the BWCA of 1986? There have been many interesting changes over time. A number of these, important to this discussion, are listed in Appendix I. In his 1919 study of the Superior National Forest, Arthur Carhart suggested a canoe area with lakeshores protected from cutting. The present BWCA is within the area he observed for the Forest Service at that time (Carhart, 1955). Carhart's idea and his concept of multiple-use was adopted by the Forest Service for the Superior National Forest (James, 1965).

After a period of controversy over roads in 1926, a 640,000 acre roadless wilderness was designated within the Superior National Forest by the Secretary of Agriculture (Searle, 1977). Over the years it was expanded and named the Superior Roadless Primitive Area (SRPA) in 1938. In 1941 the Forest Service established, within the SRPA, a 362,000 acre no-cut zone near the U.S.-Canadian border. At that time, motor craft and float planes were allowed to use the SRPA and it was estimated that a large part of the use was by motor boats and motor canoes.

The period after World War II witnessed an increase in logging in the SRPA and an increase in the number of plane fly-ins to resorts on private lands within the SRPA. The development of the lightweight aluminum canoe made canoeing easier and more popular.

In 1948, Congress passed the Thye-Blatnik Act allowing purchase of resorts, lands and cabins in the SRPA; the Forest Service developed a management plan for the SRPA and the name was changed to Superior Roadless Area (SRA). Use in 1948 was estimated at 32% paddle canoes, 45% motor boats and 23% planes (Lucas, 1962).
By 1949, opposition to airplane travel resulted in an executive order by President Truman forbidding flights below 4,000 feet altitude over the SRA. Though contested in court, the airban holds to this day. In the 1950s nationwide interest developed for federal legislation to protect wilderness. After much controversy and compromise the SRA, named Boundary Waters Canoe Area in 1958, was included in the 1964 Wilderness Act. For the BWCA there were special exemptions for motor boats and logging, but these merely served to highlight the gulf between those who saw the BWCA as an easy access fishing area or wood producing forest and those who wanted naturalness and solitude.

In an attempt to seek a workable solution to BWCA use, Secretary of Agriculture Freeman established the Selke Committee to study the area. Many of the recommendations of the Selke Committee were adopted as BWCA administrative regulations in 1965.

These recommendations included: 1) a system of lake zoning by motor boat sizes including a no-motor zone; 2) an extension of the non-logging areas; 3) elimination of much of the portaging by mechanical means; 4) establishment of a visitor registration system; 5) continuation of the airspace reservation; 6) voluntary carryout program for litter; and 7) implementation of a research program in the BWCA on use and its impact (USDA-Forest Service, 1965).

By 1966 the BWCA consisted of 1,030,000 acres with 1,235 inventoried Forest Service campsites. Visitor party size was unlimited. That year the Forest Service started a voluntary carryout program for cans and bottles, as well as visitor registration. Work began on BWCA campsite rehabilitation and new construction. Winter snowmobiling use increased markedly in the Superior National Forest and within the BWCA.
The BWCA 1966 to 1978

In 1966, BWCA permit visits numbered 104,286 with up to 60% of the BWCA use by motor craft either in canoes or motor boats and at least 34% by paddle canoeists (Figure 1). Motor craft were allowed on some 62% of the BWCA water area.¹ Earlier, Lucas (1962) had demonstrated the difference in wilderness perception of paddle canoeists and motor users with the resulting conflict potential and decreased area capacity.

For visiting tourists there were resorts, outfitters and resort-outfitter combinations at Ely, Vermilion Lake, Crane Lake and Grand Marais. Many served BWCA visitors. S. F. McCool, in his 1968-69 study of BWCA visitor-outfitter interaction, found that 33% of the larger outfitters favored federal regulation of the BWCA, 11% opposed motors and 44% opposed commercial logging (McCool, 1970). At the time, mining companies were interested in potential copper nickel deposits in the BWCA and some sought to prospect in the wilderness.

¹A specific motor/paddle canoe visit breakdown for 1966 is not possible due to the way use information was tallied from permits. In addition to motor canoe (14,633 visits) and motor boat campers (15,483 visits), there were 36,269 paddle canoe visits plus 7,303 visits to private cabins and resorts in the BWCA, auto camper visits (13,204), day use (19,015 visits), and 5,688 miscellaneous visits. Most of the visits were probably motor users (Sober, 1985).
Figure 1. Visits to the Boundary Waters Canoe Area, Minnesota (1966–1985)

Motor Boats/Canoes and Paddle Canoes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>TDS</th>
<th>BA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 From USFS Records. Illustrative of trends only since data are based on changing permit counting systems (e.g. 1972-78 total year, single trip permits; 1979 seasonal permits; 1980 period May 1–Nov. 14; 1981-5 period May 1–Sept. 30)

TDS--Beginning of USFS Travel Distribution System, 1976
BA --Boundary Waters Canoe Area Wilderness Act passed, 1978

Given the divergent interests of loggers, miners, motorized visitors, BWCA edge businesses, canoeists and their various supporting organizations, the prospects for harmonious relations among BWCA clients were poor. Administration and management of the BWCA was complicated for the Forest Service. Pressure for creation of the Voyageurs National Park, adjoining the BWCA to the northwest, did not improve the situation. 2

---

2 This area of 219,000 acres, including land from the Superior National Forest, has long been of interest to conservationists as part of the Quetico-Superior country to be protected and scientifically managed (Loesch and others, 1978). An area of large lakes, primarily motor boat country, with resorts, cabins and active timber harvest, its creation was opposed by local residents, land owners and the forest industry.
In 1969 the Forest Service developed a management handbook for the BWCA. At that time there were 1,750 BWCA sites, each with a latrine, fire grate and boat landing. Maximum group size for campsite occupancy was 15, and there were 103,000 BWCA visits. People could select their own campsites, but the Forest Service preferred visitors to use designated sites. Forest Service campsites were not to be developed on islands or small peninsulas; they were to be located to provide visual and aural privacy for individual site occupants; and all were to be fitted with wilderness type latrines at least a 100 feet from shore in soil at least 4 feet deep below the pit (USDA-Forest Service, 1969).

In our 1968 to 1972 study of impacts on newly developed BWCA campsites we found that changes tended to level off after two years. Thus, we suggested that many sites in key locations should be kept open. The alternative would have been to close sites and create new ones, thus opening more shoreline and further altering natural conditions (Merriam, Smith and others, 1973).

Use of aircraft and other motorized transport were considered essential for BWCA administrative purposes, but landings were to be made with discretion and primarily between Labor Day and the beginning of the spring fishing season. Snowmobile visitors were to use designated routes.

The 1969 management handbook suggested the possibility of some primitive areas without any campsite development that people could go to. However, this concept was not fully developed at that time. These management approaches and the campsite study were implemented to protect the naturalness of the BWCA and maintain visitor solitude.

In 1971, after much controversy and compromise, Congress passed the authorization act for the Voyageurs National Park. The park was not
actually created until 1975 due to a lawsuit over the transfer of state school lands to the federal government. It was thought that the park might provide an alternative to the more primitive BWCA for people with motorboats and snowmobiles, as these were to be allowed within the park (Merriam, Kurmis, 1981). This, however, has not proved to be the case as the park has since become embroiled in its own controversy over limited development and visitation.

During the early 1970s, there was considerable controversy over logging and possible mining in the BWCA. There were lawsuits to stop logging and mineral prospecting but the results were inconclusive. Also President Nixon, in 1972, issued an executive order prohibiting the use of snowmobiles and other recreational vehicles in wilderness areas (Johnson and others, 1980). Local residents were anxious to continue the use of snowmobiles in the BWCA and violations were numerous.

In 1974, after the development of an environmental statement and public input on the process as required by the 1969 National Environmental Policy Act, the Forest Service produced a Boundary Waters Canoe Area management plan which provided for three use zones: one for larger motors up to 25 horsepower, one for small motors up to 10 horsepower, and a nonmotorized zone. Timber harvesting in the cutting zone was to continue, subject to limitations. Provisions were made to identify and retain the most primitive experience-level areas within the interior (no-cut) zone that require the maximum degree of outdoor skill to visit (USDA-Forest Service, 1974). Group size for campsites in the BWCA was limited to 10 persons in 1975 (Figure 2). Designated agency campsites were to be used. Again, these were attempts by the Forest Service to maintain an uneasy balance between conflicting BWCA use perceptions.
In the same year, Representative Oberstar, working with the Forest Service, introduced a BWCA bill in Congress to try to solve some of the problems between those who wanted logging, motor boats and snowmobiles and those who wished to protect the BWCA as wilderness. However, the Oberstar bill did not satisfy the protectionist needs of the environmental community. In 1976, Representative Fraser introduced another bill supported by the environmentalists that banned logging and reduced motor boats and snowmobiles. It called for an increase in the size of the BWCA.

Also in 1976, the Forest Service introduced its computer-based travel distribution system, developed for the BWCA by Dr. George Peterson, then of Northwestern University. It was based on entry point control to reduce congestion at major access points like Moose, Fall and Saganaga Lakes (Peterson, 1977). Once in the BWCA, people could choose their own travel routes, using designated campsites.
In 1976 there were 154,000 visits to the area with permits issued to approach 67% of capacity for the 2,018 Forest Service campsites (Higgins, 1977).

**The Boundary Waters Canoe Area Wilderness (BWCAW) Act 1978**

After a great deal of political maneuvering, in October 1978, the BWCA Wilderness Act, called the Fraser-Vento-Anderson Act, was passed by Congress. Its major stipulations: 1) repealed the BWCA provisions in the 1964 Wilderness Act, allowing logging and motor boats; 2) established a 1,075,500 BWCA Wilderness including the existing BWCA and 45,000 acres in some 20 small additions; 3) provided for the restriction of mining, the purchase of mineral rights in a 220,000 Mineral Protection Zone, with substitute timber and intensified forestry on federal, state, county and private lands outside the BWCA; 4) generally prohibited motor boats in the Wilderness with some exceptions and phase outs on much of the Area; 5) with some exceptions, prohibited the use of snowmobiles; 6) provided for the federal buyout of resorts that had been impacted by the reduction of motor use in the BWCA, as well as assistance programs to protect active resorts; and 7) gave the federal government authority to enforce motor boat and snowmobile regulations of the Act on state waters (USDA-Forest Service, 1981). Proeschooldt (1984) has carefully documented the implementation of the 1978 BWCAW act to 1984.

Many opposed the Act, particularly local people who felt a loss of recreational opportunities. They organized and tried unsuccessfully to challenge the BWCAW Act. In 1978 the State of Minnesota sued the U.S. government over BWCA water jurisdiction. The court ruling supported the 1978 Act.
Among the BWCA edge businesses affected by the 1978 BWCAW Act were resorts (97), combinations of resorts and outfitting (35) and outfitters (24). These were studied by a University of Minnesota research team assessing needs of tourism firms serving the BWCAW vicinity (Blank and others, 1980). Of the 132 resorts and combinations, 24 had been purchased by the federal government and 14 had requested appraisal before the September 30, 1985, deadline. Most of these units were in Ely and in the Gunflint Trail area (north of Grand Marais).

With respect to tourism business, Ely is bounded by the BWCA on three sides and in 1979 afforded nearly half the lodging capacity and two-thirds of the rental canoes available in the BWCAW vicinity. Crane Lake has the Boundary Waters on one side and the Voyageurs National Park on the other and is also dependent on tourism. Grand Marais, on the other hand, is some 20 to 40 miles from BWCA access and though economically dependent on tourism, has the Lake Superior north shore area as an additional market (Blank and others, 1980).

In 1979 over 60% of the customers of Ely BWCA edge firms resided in states outside Minnesota whereas 64% of BWCA use was by Minnesota residents. On the other hand, in Grand Marais and in the Gunflint area 64% of the BWCA edge business was from Minnesota residents. This would suggest that some Ely business people are particularly concerned about the impact of Forest Service management and use policy for the BWCA on their out-of-state clientele. Additionally, Blank and his team reported that the overall tourism industry in the BWCA edge area was in a state of stagnation in 1979 with no real growth in gross sales between 1973-1979 and with a reduction in occupancy between 1978 and 1979 (Blank and others, 1980). The situation has probably not changed since 1980 as BWCA use has declined and there have been business buyouts.
In 1981 the Blank study team estimated the economic impact of a proposed 10% reduction in BWCA entry permits. They reported an estimated loss of $703,000 in sales; $28,000 less in sales tax receipts and 27 fewer jobs in the BWCA edge area. The 10% reduction did not occur in 1981 (Blank and others, 1983).


By 1984, BWCA visits totaled 118,000, down from a 1978 high of 173,000 visits. Paddle canoeists accounted for 75% of the use (88,000 visits) motorized boat users, 21% and hikers, skiers, etc., 4%. Note that the 88,000 paddle canoeist visits in 1984 is over twice the 1966 number (36,000, Fig.1). Motors are now allowed on 28% of BWCA water (Sober, 1985).

The most recent draft management plan (1984) for the Superior National Forest envisions a series of management zones to provide for the six classes of the recreation opportunity spectrum throughout the forest, with semi-primitive motorized, semi-primitive nonmotorized, and primitive recreation experiences available within the BWCA wilderness (USDA-Forest Service, 1984b).

The plan suggests that the major potential for environmental degradation and crowding is summertime canoeing and camping on the 2,100 BWCA designated campsites (USDA-Forest Service, 1984a).

In providing for a range of national forest use, one of the goals is to emphasize the management of the congressionally designated BWCA to provide semi-primitive and primitive recreation opportunities. For the primitive management areas (PMA), land and resource conditions will pro-
vide opportunities for wilderness recreation and research in primitive surroundings. Areas so managed will have no formally established trails, portages or campsites and there will be no human-made structures in the area. Probably, very few people will use these PMAs and encounters with others will be few. In 1984 it was estimated that PMA visits would amount to 2% of the total BWCA use (2,360 visits). On this assumption, 72,763 federal acres in 11 BWCA tracts are proposed in the plan (USDA-Forest Service, 1984b). Managing all suitable BWCA lands as PMAs could involve up to 270,000 acres but this would reduce semi-primitive recreation and result in the reduction of entry permits by about 30% (USDA-Forest Service, 1984a).

The people who would go into the primitive areas are likely to be experienced persons from Minnesota. Perhaps they would patronize local restaurants and other businesses, but they probably would not require outfitting. BWCA related businesses prefer a clientele with more commercial potential.

In September 1985, accompanied by wilderness specialist Toivo Sober and Bud and Fran Heinselman, I visited, observed and discussed the proposed Drag Lake PMA of about 4,685 acres. There are no portage trails, necessitating the carrying of canoe and gear through the brush. Also, there are no designated campsites. A special permit for not more than 10 people is to be required with a maximum stay of 14 days in any one campsite or location. The experience is demanding, requiring a knowledge of woods and back country skills.
a. Logging was banned completely in 1978.

b. Of 132 resort businesses, 24 had been purchased, 14 had requested appraisal before the Sept. 1985 deadline.

c. Motor use is down to 21% of 1985 BWCA visits.

d. Paddle canoeists now amount to 75% of total visitation.

e. Canoeist congestion, especially at portages, is a contemporary management problem.

f. There are now 2,100 designated campsites, subject to 118,000 visits annually.
Summary and Implications

Summarizing, the BWCA in 1986 is different in size and in policy toward recreation management than it was in 1966. There are now 1,086,914 acres of wilderness with 57,000 acres added by the 1978 BWCA Wilderness Act. There is no logging and no mining. Motor boats have been greatly restricted to about 28% of the water area and motor use is down to about 21% of the total visitation, whereas paddle canoeing now amounts to 75% of BWCA visits. In 1984 there were 118,000 visits, slightly more in 1985, as compared to 104,286 visits in 1966. Still, a majority of use, about 67%, is from Minnesota. Total use has declined from the high visitation rate of 173,000 visits in 1978. Tourism business, though rapidly increasing in Minnesota overall, has remained the same or declined for BWCA edge firms to 1980 (Blank and others, 1980) and probably to 1986.

The visitor distribution system (1976) limits use through mandatory permits and entry point quotas. Cans and bottles are prohibited and party size is limited to 10 persons. There are now 2,100 designated campsites in the BWCA which visitors are required to use. Primitive management areas are proposed to widen the spectrum of BWCA visitor experience.

The creation of the Voyageurs National Park to the northwest of the BWCA, with provision for motor boats and snowmobiles, seems unlikely to provide an alternative for more developed use, at least for the present. It has its own user conflicts and development problems.

While the loss of perceived wilderness Lucas feared in 1964 may not have been realized, increased use brings more encounters with others and a loss in solitude even with restrictions. With the decrease in motor
use, canoeists are the primary recreationists spread across the entire BWCA. Though legislation and management policy have defined administrative wilderness in a more restrictive way, the proposed establishment of primitive management areas highlights the canoeist versus canoeist problem as a change from the earlier canoeist versus motor boat/canoe conflict. The Forest Service faces a serious dilemma in managing for wilderness solitude and naturalness, among other concerns.

Dr. James Gladden in his doctoral study *Wilderness Values and the Politics of Paradigm Shifts: The Case of the Boundary Waters Canoe Area* (1984), suggests that the issue of the BWCA Act of 1978 is an example of a change in values in relation to uses of the natural environment. This shift in American political culture toward biocentric values (reduction in motorized use) from homocentric values was expressed by the Fraser-Vento-Anderson Act, that passed, as opposed to the defeated Obserstar bill which allowed for large motor use and was supported by the communities near the BWCA. This shift has been a major trend in the last two decades throughout America. But it may suggest that some hard core opposition will continue for some time after the major battle is over.

We have documented earlier the continued opposition in courts to the BWCA Act and the concern over further restrictions in BWCA entry and use. If the creation of PMAs results in the reduction of BWCA permits, as it would if more than the currently proposed acres (72,763) were designated as PMAs, people in communities like Ely and Crane Lake can be expected to complain and seek redress.

Unfortunately, except for the Quetico Provincial Park in Canada to the north, there is really no good U.S. substitute for the BWCA. The visitor must accept the special conditions and management necessary to protect the uniqueness of the BWCA.
The Forest Service needs to be very careful in its administration of the BWCA to protect the natural conditions of the area while serving the range of people who are the BWCA clientele, including the neighbors in the local communities. Hopefully, more developed opportunities provided in the Superior National Forest outside the BWCA will, in time, replace the lost motorized use.

With respect to U.S. public wilderness and similar resources in general, there are some lessons from the BWCA case. First, areas created under conflict conditions requiring special compromises (e.g., logging and motors) continue in a conflict atmosphere where losers push for changes if they can obtain political support. With increasing use, solving one use problem (e.g., reduction of motor use) may lead to others of equal intensity. Time does eliminate some opposition but creators of new policies move along also and vigilance is required for protection. It would be nice to anticipate problems and avoid unworkable compromises (e.g., BWCA provisions in the 1964 Wilderness Act). However, given the actors and the setting, such foresight and the ability to implement it is rare indeed.

Finally, the BWCA has survived as a wilderness to its present users. Hopefully, future problems will be less traumatic than those of the last 20 years and their solutions more durable.
Appendix 1

KEY ACTIONS CONCERNING THE BOUNDARY WATERS CANOE AREA, MINNESOTA

1909  President T. Roosevelt designates Superior National Forest (SNF) in Minnesota. Includes part of BWCA.


1922-1926  Construction of Echo Trail and Fernberg Road leads to controversy and proclamation by Secretary of Agriculture Jardine establishing 640,000 acres of roadless wilderness (1926).

1930  Shipstead-Newton-Nolan Act (federal) prohibits logging within 400 feet of recreational waterways, forbids alteration of natural water levels, withdraws public lands in SNF from homesteading. Similar shoreline protection by Minnesota Legislature for state lands (1933).

1934  President F. D. Roosevelt creates Quetico-Superior Committee on Quetico-Superior affairs.

1938  Forest Service establishes Superior Roadless Primitive Area with boundaries similar to present BWCA.

1941  Forest Service establishes 362,000 acre no-cut zone near U.S.-Canadian border within SRPA.

1948  Thye-Blatnik Act (federal) directs Secretary of Agriculture to acquire resorts, cabins, private lands in much of SRPA. Extended coverage in 1956.

1949  President H. S. Truman issues executive order prohibiting flights below 4,000 feet over Superior Roadless Area. Conflict order upheld in court (1953).

1958  Forest Service changes name to Boundary Waters Canoe Area.

1962-1964  Controversy develops over logging, road building, motor boats and snowmobiles in BWCA.

1964  Wilderness Act (federal). Contains special logging, motor boat exceptions for BWCA. Secretary of Agriculture Freeman appoints Selke Committee to study BWCA management.

1965  Secretary of Agriculture Freeman issues directive establishing new BWCA policy -- increases no-cut zone, provides motor boat zoning, limits snowmobiles, sets up visitor registration.

1966  Forest Service implements permit system for BWCA visitors.

1969 National Environmental Policy Act (federal) requires
Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) on federal management
proposals and plans.

1971 Congressional Act authorizes Voyageurs National Park.
Created 1975.

1972 President R. M. Nixon issues Executive Order prohibiting use
of snowmobiles and recreation vehicles in wilderness areas.

1973 Court issues injunction against logging in BWCA pending EIS.

1974 Forest Service issues BWCA Management Plan, includes logging,
motors.

1975 Congressman Oberstar introduces BWCA bill with National
Recreation Area and reduced wilderness.

1976 Congressman Fraser introduces BWCA full wilderness bill.

1978 Fraser-Vento-Anderson Act creates BWCA Wilderness (expanded),
logging and mining stopped. Motors restricted. Alternative
forestry initiatives, buy-outs of resorts, BWCA edge
businesses.

1979 State of Minnesota sues U.S. Government over BWCAW water
jurisdiction.

1980 Court ruling in favor of U.S. affirms BWCAW law validity.

1984 Forest Service circulates proposed Land and Resource
Management Plan for Superior National Forest and drafts
environmental impact statement (EIS). Primitive management
areas for BWCA presented.
References


USDA - Forest Service. 1984b. Proposed land and resource management plan (draft). Superior National Forest, Duluth, Minn. 5 chapters + appendix.
The University of Minnesota, including the Minnesota Extension Service, is committed to the policy that all persons shall have equal access to its programs, facilities, and employment without regard to race, religion, color, sex, national origin, handicap, age, or veteran status.