PATTERN ON NATIONAL FOREST LANDS: CULTURAL LANDSCAPE HISTORY AS EVIDENCED THROUGH THE DEVELOPMENT OF CAMPGROUNDS IN THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST

by

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Historic campgrounds on National Forest Service lands are a key location where the public experiences the intersection of natural and cultural resources. In the Pacific Northwest Region, the majority of historic Forest Service campgrounds date from the Civilian Conservation Corps/New Deal era of the 1930s; however, some existed previous to this period. Overall, these campgrounds were envisioned, designed, and evolved in an era of rapid technological change, when increasing industrialization, urbanization, and rural accessibility facilitated a cultural need for both preservation of and accessibility to natural resources.

In order to understand how these campgrounds evolved over time, existing campground conditions were documented using a case-study approach, based on historic integrity, range of geographic accessibility, and historical data availability. In order to understand what changes have occurred over time, existing and historic conditions were compared. Based on the results, broad cultural landscape stewardship recommendations are made.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Looking up a long-abandoned trail leading to a fire lookout, it is easy to hear the hooves of the resupply pack train, being led by a ranger chirping encouragement to beloved animals. Upon encountering a section of abandoned railroad track in an area now designated as wilderness, it is easy to not only experience the calm beauty of the present, but also smell a mixture of coal and wood smoke, hear the echo of steam locomotive whistles, saws, and axes, and picture silent, bone-weary workers in the logging camp mess hall at the end of a winter's workday. Entering a campground closed for the season, it is easy to picture canvas tents and Model T's, individual fires going in masonry cook stoves, and hear the murmur of numerous conversations among people who have collectively discovered the freedom from too-much metropolitan living.

National Forests lands may be protected and managed for timber, water, grazing, mining, recreation, and wilderness, but they are above all, cultural landscapes. The term "cultural landscape" offers no easy definition; however, in *Preserving Cultural Landscapes in America*, it is described as, "…environments that clearly display the human organization of natural elements". [1] The modification of terrain, water and vegetation, either by trained design professionals or otherwise for such human uses as neighborhoods, transportation routes, agriculture, cemeteries, and even wilderness are all considered cultural landscapes. [2] For National Forest lands, evolving philosophies,

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[1] Arnold R. Alanen and Robert Melnick, *Preserving Cultural Landscapes in America*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2000., 3.

[2] Ibid.

political influences, management decisions and available technologies have directly and indirectly impacted national forests. For example, the fires of 1910 shaped forest policy (and shape it still), and this resulted in an increasing network of administrative trails in backcountry areas, and an expanding network of fire lookouts. Recreational use, although not formally recognized in the Forest Service's early years, quickly expanded once automobiles became more affordable, and the planning of recreation areas began in earnest during 1920s.

In the Pacific Northwest, the result is a palimpsest of historic administrative trail systems overlain by road networks, the remains of bustling company towns or sawmill sites turned into quiet communities, former guard station sites and abandoned corrals in remote places, altered vegetation patterns due to repeated cycles of logging and replanting. Everywhere on Forest Service lands, the toponymy offers glimpses of people, geographic features, or events that happened historically.

A majority of National Forest lands have yet to be studied utilizing a cultural landscape approach. The modus operandi for the Forest Service has been to utilize scientific methods in watershed, range, forestry, and recreation management, (which is as it historically has been and should continue to be); a cultural landscape approach can synthesize our understanding of the cumulative effects of human decisions and impacts on the landscape over time at different spatial scales, and can be approached from a scientific, quantitative methodology, or a qualitative approach used more frequently by cultural landscape historians. For example, understanding where and how the trail and road networks have evolved over time (and what still exists) on any particular National Forest might reveal how larger shifts in management philosophies physically imposed

themselves on the land, and may indicate earlier transportation systems important before federal ownership. Ultimately, having this information would help with a forest-wide recreation plan. Understanding the decisions and locations of logging as well as historical fire protection zones may help explain larger patterns in the existing conditions of natural resources, and help inform future land management decisions. While not all cultural landscapes on National Forest lands have historical significance, (as related to important historical events, related to significant people, being of a unique design, or having archaeological value), a significant portion of these lands remain unstudied from this approach.

Within the Forest Service, the historical record is both very much valued, (in terms of feeling a sense of camaraderie in a 105 year old organization) yet generally ignored in the larger decision-making process. While Section 106 mitigations comprise the bread and butter of heritage programs, the majority of historical documents, records, maps, and photographs lie scattered, and un-cataloged in ranger districts, supervisor's offices, and regional headquarters. Depending on the particular forest, Forest Service employees and from various professions as well as volunteers take charge of historic preservation projects: typically guard stations, community kitchen shelters, trail shelters, and fire lookouts. While preservation of these individual buildings is quite necessary to help connect the agency and the public with a larger sense of space and time, what is missing is the larger sense of how these sites and transportations systems evolved as a whole on any one National Forest. Understanding how cultural landscape features evolved chronologically connects specific developments with larger (regional or national) management programs, goals, and objectives, and comparisons can be made with other

National Forests, as well as other regions. Heritage Program Managers generally do the best they can, trying to meet goals and requirements, given the severe budget and staffing shortages over the years.

The current and future state of national forest management reveals a shift away from intensive lumber harvesting, to one of ecosystem restoration and recreational use. It is an opportune time to pause and rethink the importance of a historical landscape approach to Forest Service lands.

This thesis is a cultural landscape study of historical Forest Service campgrounds, and how they physically evolved over time. Campgrounds and the cultural process of camping are an important place where the public experiences the mission of the Forest Service. The study looks at developed campgrounds only in Region 6 (Oregon and Washington), based on the following criteria:

a) Campgrounds must have historical resources present, in any condition,
b) Campgrounds must not exist within federally-designated wilderness boundaries,
c) Campgrounds must exhibit a range of accessibility: (i.e., geographically: remote or close to urban areas, or along major National Parks routes, or in rural areas), and
d) There must be enough historical resources available to document specific points in time, either through plans, written documents, photographs, or combinations thereof.

The four campgrounds chosen have been documented for existing conditions, and historical research is utilized to reveal past conditions at different points in time. A

comparison of existing conditions, existing historic resources with past existing conditions reveals the change over time. From the analysis, period plans have been created for two of the campgrounds that attempt to reveal how the campgrounds appeared, as built, during a specific point in time. Existing conditions and period plans together are used to recommend broad cultural landscape preservation treatments for the selected campgrounds – especially going forward in the new era of forest management that stresses ecological rehabilitation, reduced timber harvests, and changing recreational visitor demographics.

Early Forest Service Recreation: 1897-1920

Although the federal forest reserves were created by Presidential proclamation in 1891 under the March 3rd Act of Congress (also known as the Creative Act), more formal management and development took place as a result of the Organic Act of June 4,1897. Between 1897-1905, management of the reserves resided within Division R, the Forestry Division of the Department of the Interior, and field management fell to General Land Office rangers. [3] These rangers on patrol regularly encountered individuals and groups engaging in outdoor recreational pursuits. Since access to and within the reserves was generally limited, early recreationists traveled by foot, horseback, or horse-drawn wagon. From a management perspective, the combination of limited access and low visitation

[3] Harold K. Steen, *The U.S. Forest Service: A History* (Seattle and London: University of Washington Press, 1976), 60.

numbers dispersed recreational impacts and therefore, were of minimal concern to the rangers. [4]

The Mineral Springs Act of 1899 formally introduced recreation to the reserves by allowing the development of sanitariums and hotels in the vicinity of mineral or other hot springs for the purposes of health and recreation. Revised General Land Office regulations in 1902 specifically mentioned camping and travel for pleasure on forest reserve lands. [5] In 1905, administration of the Forest Reserves was transferred to the Department of Agriculture and the newly formed United States Forest Service (USFS).

Two events stimulated the growth of camping in the United States. First, the "Fresh Air" movement of the late 19th-early 20th Centuries encouraged the formation of organized camping. Second, during the same time period, the development of the automobile quickly had a large impact on the mobility of middle class Americans during the first three decades of the 20th century. [6]

Although recreation was still viewed by the Forest Service as incidental to its mission, recreational use had grown to the point of its mention in the 1912 annual *Report of the Forester*. [7] Indeed by 1913, the *Report to the Forester* indicated,

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[4] William C. Tweed, *Recreation Site Planning and Improvements in National Forests: 1891-1942* (Washington D.C.: GPO, 1980), 1.

[5] Ibid., 2.

[6] H. Eliot Foulds and Lauren Meier, *Cultural Landscape Report for Blackwoods and Seawall Campgrounds, Acadia National Park: History, Existing Conditions, Analysis & Treatment Recommendations*. Cultural landscape publication, no. 11. Brookline, MA (99 Warren St., Brookline 02146): Olmsted Center for Landscape Preservation, 1996, 4-5.

[7] William C. Tweed, *Recreation Site Planning and Improvements in National Forests: 1891-1942* (Washington D.C.: GPO, 1980), 2.

> Recreation use of the Forests is growing very rapidly, especially on Forests near cities of considerable size. Hundreds of canyons and lake shores are now dotted with camps and cottages built on land use of which is obtained through permits of the Forest Service. This is a highly important form of use of the Forest by the public, and it is recognized and facilitated by adjusting commercial use of the Forest, when necessary…. Examples…..are the exclusion of stock…….the prohibition of use of certain canyons for (stock) driveways, and provision in timber sales for very light cutting, or not cutting at all, close to lakes or elsewhere where it is desirable to preserve the natural beauty of the location unmarred, for the enjoyment of the public…. [8]

Although the government did not provide formal camping facilities, early Forest Rangers formally recognized the use by utilizing inflammable material within more heavily used campsites to build simple rock fireplaces, toilets, and garbage pits from whatever local materials could be obtained. Water supply sources were developed and fenced, and crude signs were painted and displayed, typically with cautions of fire danger. A majority of these early developments appeared out of place in the forest environment; however, they filled the need of growing recreational use. [9]

In 1910, Richard A. Ballinger, the Secretary of the Interior drafted a bill (with revisions provided by Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., among others) that would establish a separate national parks bureau, for the purpose of preserving natural and scenic resources. The bill, presented to Congress in 1911, received strong opposition from the Forest Service, as the agency suspected that new parks would be created from portions of existing western National Forests. [10] Stephen T. Mather, the first National Park Service

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[8] Ibid., 1-2.

[9] Ibid., 3.

[10] Alfred Runte. *National Parks: The American Experience*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1979., 98-99.

Director, along with Horace M. Albright, his assistant, viciously promoted the National Parks cause to Congress and the public. Ultimately, as Char Miller writes, they, "tapped the pulse of the Jazz Age," and "sold Americans leisure and grandeur at a time when, in the aftermath of World War I, outdoor recreation increased beyond the significance that Progressive America had assigned it; the outdoors connoted appreciation for American values as well as for the physical strength of its people." [11] The establishment of the National Park Service in 1916, and the evolving controversy before and after its creation (some National Parks were indeed carved out of U.S. Forest Service lands during the 1920s-1930s) added to the Forest Service's interest in recreational development between 1910-1920. [12]

One year after the creation of the National Park Service, the Forest Service hired Frank A. Waugh (a professor of Landscape Architecture at Massachusetts Agricultural College-now the University of Massachusetts) to conduct the first comprehensive review of recreational use at the national level. The result, *Recreation Uses on the National Forests*, published in 1918 concluded that the majority of Forest Service recreational facilities were picnic areas and automobile camps, recreational roads and trails were largely constructed for administrative purposes, and that the Forest Service could benefit from trained landscape engineers (landscape architects). [13]

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[11] See Char Miller, *American Forests: Nature, Culture, and Politics*. Lawrence, Kan: University Press of Kansas, 1997., 112-114.

[12] See William C. Tweed, *Recreation Site Planning and Improvements in National Forests: 1891-1942* (Washington D.C.: GPO, 1980)., 5., and Char Miller *American Forests: Nature, Culture, and Politics*. Lawrence, Kan: University Press of Kansas, 1997., 112-114.

[13] Ibid., 6-7.

In the United States, automobile use and expanding road networks directly impacted recreational developments on National Forest lands. During the early years of the agency, when recreational use was seen as a tangential public benefit, roads were utilized for administrative unit, timber, or fire management purposes. [14] In 1916, the Highway Act disbursed $10 million to the Forest Service for a road construction program and funding would continue to 1926. In 1919, as part of the Post Office Appropriations Act, the Forest Service received $9 million to develop roads on National Forests, as part of connecting rural areas and expanding the Rural Free Delivery program of the Post Office. [15] By 1921, an additional $5.5 million was appropriated by Congress to the Forest Service for fire control and administrative use road development, and $9.5 million for the construction of forest highways that would supplement state highways.

In this time of expanding motor vehicle use and road networks, Henry S. Graves, Chief Forester of the U.S. Forest Service, published *American Forestry* article in 1920 titled, "A Crisis in National Recreation". In the article, he expressed concern over increasing numbers of urban motor vehicle tourists in National Forests and Parks. Also indicated was that the development of both forests and parks for recreation were dependent on road construction. Just one year later, the Forest Service updated its manual to formally recognize recreation as a management value, to be considered along with timber, grazing, and water (Figure 1). [16]

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[14] David G. Havlick, *No Place Distant: Roads and Motorized Recreation on America's Public Lands* (Washington, Covelo, London: Island Press, 2002), 20.

[15] Ibid., 21.

[16] Ibid.

Figure 1: Early automobile camping on Lake Quinault, 1920s. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Quinault Ranger District, Olympic National Forest, Washington.

The first three areas of high recreational summer use on National Forests were located close to urban areas, were as follows: The San Gabriel Mountains, in the Angeles National Forest near Los Angeles, the Oregon National Forest along the Columbia River (in what is now known as the Mt. Hood National Forest), and the Pike and San Isabel National Forests in central Colorado. [17] For the Oregon National Forest, the Columbia River Gorge was the main scenic attraction, and was within easy distance of Portland, Oregon. The 1915 designation of the Columbia River Highway, the first scenic highway in the United States, opened the gorge to visitors, and two organizations took a keen

[17] Ibid., 3.

interest in the preservation of scenic values along the Oregon side. The Portland Chamber of Commerce and the Progressive Business Men's Club, lobbied to this cause, and this likely played a role in Chief Forester Henry Graves' decision to recommend an area up to six miles wide and twenty-two miles long be designated as the Columbia Gorge Park division of the Oregon National Forest. Formal designation took place on December 24, 1915, and this marked the earliest event to date that the Forest Service created an area devoted to exclusive recreational use. Since Columbia Gorge Park was designated before the Columbia River Highway was completely opened, public and private entities concerned with the potential degradation of scenery due to increased access specifically called for the prohibition of recreational home permits and timber harvesting within the designated area. [18]

Frederick W. Cleator and the Development of Recreation Planning in the North Pacific Region: 1920-1940

It is no surprise then, during the 1920s the North Pacific Region initially developed a comprehensive recreation program. Frederick William Cleator, appointed the "Recreation Examiner" for the North Pacific Region, began his career in a different capacity in 1908 on the Wenatchee National Forest, but was transferred to the Regional Office in Portland in December, 1918 (Figure 2). A letter, written by Cleator circa 1938, succinctly described the mechanics, goals, and purpose of the North Pacific Region's developing recreation program. In the letter, Cleator noted that 1918 was around the time that western forests really began to experience the effects of increasing recreational use,

[18] Ibid., 4.

and by 1921, perhaps as a result of Graves' letter, recreation planning began in earnest. Cleator found that to "properly administrate and segregate recreational lands, it was

Figure 2: Frederick W. Cleator, standing second from left and slightly in front of Robert Marshall. Frederick William Cleator Papers, Ax 013, Special Collections & University Archives, University of Oregon Libraries, Eugene, Oregon.

necessary to formulate Unit plans for various recreation centers, watersheds, lake shores, high mountain meadows, etc." [19]

With regards to campground development, Cleator's letter indicated,

> For the General Public, the first and most important consideration after having affected an inventory map of the recreational assets, is to select the best, most accessible safest tracts for public use as free camps, picnic grounds and local parks. By safest, I mean tracts that are naturally best safeguarded by borders of water, roads, cliffs, or otherwise geographically or physically least subject to spread of fire or disease. The general public

[19] Frederick William Cleator, Portland, Oregon, to unknown recipient, circa 1938, Knight Library Special Collections and University Archives, University of Oregon, Eugene.

> has generally no organized spokesman for such recreational accommodation. Looking far into the future we therefore make of public needs the essence of the plan reserving generally at least a third of the available ground as well as the best for permanent public use. [20]

The idea of campgrounds as a means to corral use under watchful eyes was nothing new. Perhaps one of the earliest accounts of the establishment of campgrounds on federal lands to control human-caused fires was established by the United States Army in Yellowstone National Park. During the 1880s, Captain F.A. Boutelle, Acting Superintendent of Yellowstone, established regular campgrounds within the park and restricted public use to these areas. Boutelle's troops spent the majority of the summers of 1889 and 1890 extinguishing fires started by campers. [21]

One of the results of the North Pacific's recreation program was a compilation, entitled, *Recreation Plans: North Pacific Region*. As suggested in Cleator's letter, *Recreation Plans* conveyed general and technical information on how to identify, classify, plan, and create a wide array of meaningful public recreation spaces on Forest Service lands and addressed the Forest Service philosophy toward recreational design principles. Per the Foreword,

> This handbook is made up of the Sanitation, Recreation (in two parts) and Camp Ground Improvements sections of the R-6 Lands Handbook, followed by illustrative plates. These set forth in detail policies, instructions and advice on the planning for recreation usage of National Forest lands in the North Pacific Region. There are other phases of Lands administration, but these will not be necessary to the average Recreation worker. [22]

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[20] Ibid.

[21] H. Duane Hampton, *How the U.S. Cavalry Saved Our National Parks*. (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1971), 100.

[22] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, *Recreation Plans: North Pacific Region*, 1935, no page number.

Specifically, "Forest Camp Improvements," addressed campground development, and was issued on May 1st, 1925, and revised May 23rd, 1933. For campgrounds, sanitation and water supply concerns constituted the main improvement concern, whereas fireplace, table, and other construction features were considered second in importance, and were to be addressed as time and money permitted. [23] The following passage reveals insight into both the process that early rangers used to acknowledge and formalize unplanned recreational development and the 1920s as being a transition time between dispersed and developed recreation. Stated,

> After an improvement plan was completed for a particular Forest Camp, removal and reduction of fire risk was the first step to be taken. The area used by the public at the present time should be cleaned up and used as a center to expand from. Removal of inflammable debris, litter, and brush was the first step in cleaning up. In the process of clearing, "great care should be taken… to ensure adequate natural screens for toilets, garbage pits, and, and most importantly (underlined) it is usually desirable to leave a screen of shrubbery between individual camp sites. [24]

For layout and landscaping, leaving as much of the natural vegetation intact was of utmost importance, as well as leaving sufficient shade trees. Additionally, leaving trees and brush in groupings was preferred over stand-alones. Finally, in a situation where larger trees were not used as screens and where space was critical for human use, the recommendation was to trim the tree from ground level up to height of seven feet. [25] According to the handbook, overall campground appearances should not mimic, "a museum or arboretum," and, while contorted trees could be left, it was determined that,

[23] Ibid., 127.

[24] Ibid., 127-128.

[25] Ibid., 128.

"the average tourist wishes to see straight, healthy, and vigorously-growing trees and shrubs." [26]

Campground circulation, including access via forest roads, was encouraged to take advantage of local scenic beauty, and by doing so, would not only attract would-be campers to these formalized spaces, but justify the expense of good road location through fire protection values (Figure 3). [27]

Building improvement locations were to be indicated on the recreation examiner's forest camp plan, and strictly followed, with thoughtful care used for the placement of vegetation around them. Improvements such as toilets, garbage pits, and incinerators had to be conveniently placed, but concealed by vegetation, and appropriate color use. Silver Grey or French Grey colors were recommended for shingle stains, and created a "pleasant weathered appearance," that blended with browns and greens. Green stains were recommended for roof treatments with ivory paint for building trim. Rough lumber was recommended for staining, but if planed lumber was used, priming with a coat of oil and a little grey color appeared best. [28]

[26] Ibid., 125.

[27] Ibid.

[28] Ibid.

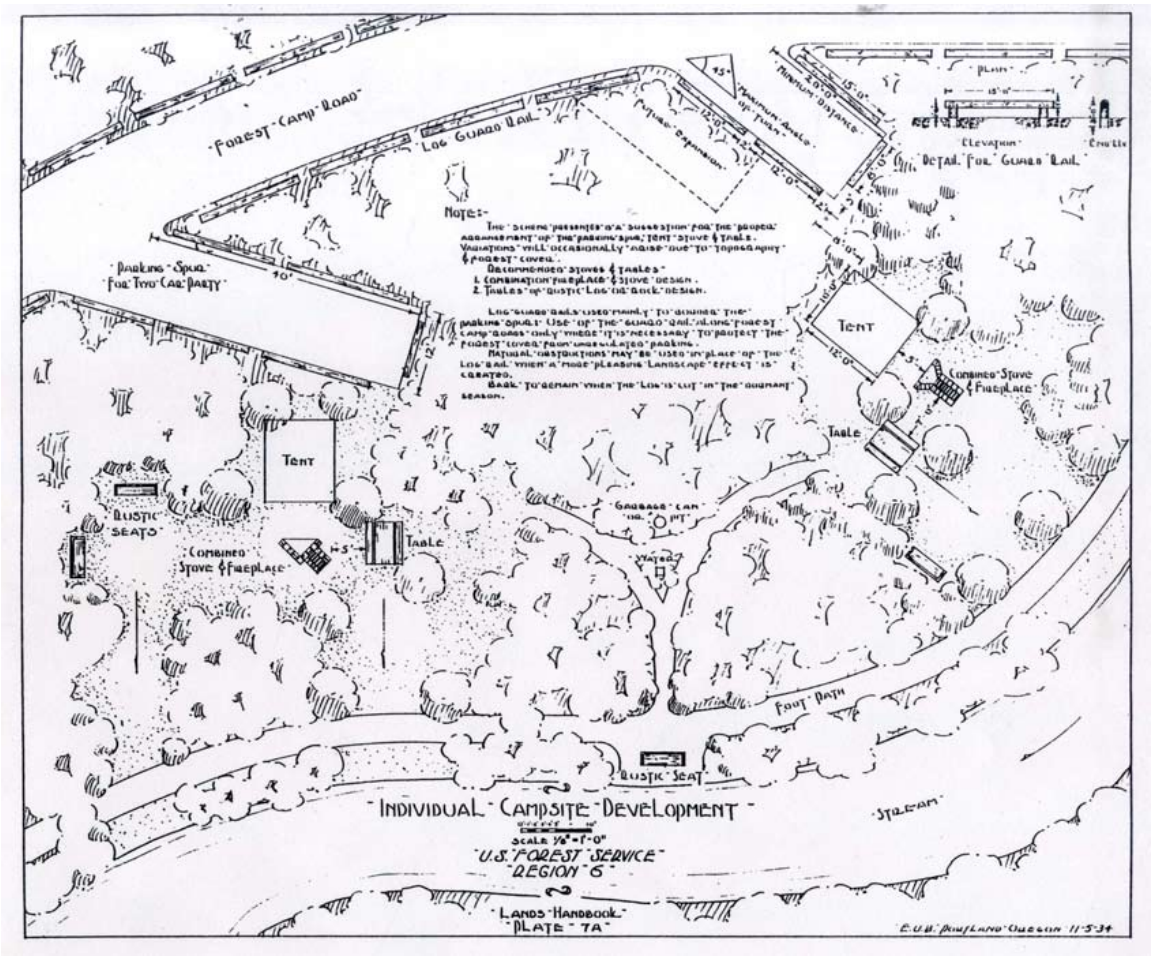

Figure 3: Suggested campsite layout from the 1930s U.S. Forest Service Recreation Plans Handbook, 1935.

Dr. Emilio P. Meinecke and Modern Campground Design

For the Forest Service and the National Park Service, one of the most important developments for overall campground design during the 1920s was made possible by Dr. Emilio P. Meinecke (Figure 4). A forest pathologist working in the California region, Meinecke studied problems of the deterioration of National Park and Forest Service recreation areas related to overuse. He identified soil compaction, the result of automobile and pedestrian pressure, as the cause of vegetation destruction, and ultimately developed a theory of campground planning and reconstruction that continues to

influence recreation design at present – so much so, that he is considered to be the father of the modern campground. [29]

Figure 4: Dr. Emilio Meinecke, plant pathogist who modernized recreation area site planning for the U.S. Forest Service and National Park Service. His work is still evident in campgrounds throughout the United States today. Courtesy of Linda Flint McClelland, *Building the National Parks: Historic Landscape Design and Construction*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998., 279.

[29] Linda Flint McClelland, *Building the National Parks: Historic Landscape Design and Construction*. (Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998)., 276-277.

Meinecke offered design solutions that counteracted unplanned and unregulated existing camping practice. Typically, at the time, campground locations were in more open locations that provided natural, unrestricted access for automobile parking and tent placement. The Forest Service, in 1932, issued Meinecke's, *A Camp Ground Policy*, which outlined those solutions. [30] Of utmost importance was choosing appropriate sites based on soil composition, where lighter, sandy soils were given preference, but also considering the length of seasonal use (higher elevation use typically never went beyond a consecutive three-month period and it was thought that, when compared to lower elevation sites, soil compaction would be reduced in these locations based on decreased temporal use, along with the process of frost heaving and snow cover versus lower elevations). [31] Vegetation was considered by composition, density, and distribution, to determine what could be cleared, saved, or protected by barriers made of materials native to the area. The type of camper was the final consideration, where Meinecke described the typical tourist as one with little education regarding natural surroundings but nonetheless wiling to, "conform… to what he is supposed to do in the forest." [32]

To address campground planning, Meinecke recommended dividing up an area into individual campsites where each could provide amenities such as privacy and shade, based on preservation of existing vegetation and existing natural features, not only during construction, but also during the entire existence of the site. Each campsite was composed with parking, and a clearing that contained a fireplace and camp table fixed in

[30] Ibid., 278-279.

[31] Ibid., 278.

[32] Ibid.

location, and a tent site. Additionally, each campsite was defined by vegetation, logs, or stones, and larger logs or stones delineated one-way roads, spurs, and parking areas. [33] Vegetation determined not survivable due to recreation impacts were removed, but retained between individual campsites, while the remainder was protected from automobiles by the placement of boulders at the road intersection corners and where parking spurs branched from main circulation routes. [34] Picturesque details were encouraged by Meinecke, and to be reserved for common enjoyment, such as, "an old log overgrown with green moss is an asset in the landscape, a thing of beauty, and therefore to be protected." [35]

Visually, his campground plan reduced compaction damages from automobiles via a one-way road system, from which angled spurs extended at intervals, known as garage spurs. The one-way road system design addressed multiple objectives: they could be easily added to as demand for more campers increased, took up less space due to their narrower width, and encouraged a smoother flow of traffic. [36]

The most important innovation of Meinecke's was the garage spur, which addressed several issues, as he describes,

> Since the moving automobile, winding in and out among the trees is by far the most destructive element, it must be fixed at the entrance to the camp site and not be permitted to enter the latter at all. This is easily accomplished by providing for each site a definite garage in the shape of a short spur leading in at a suitable angle form the one-way road. The car

[33] Ibid., 278-280.

[34] Ibid.

[35] Ibid., 284.

[36] Ibid., 280.

easily moves off the road in to the spur and backs out again without turning. [37]

Overall, Meinecke's work was timely, and forever changed the way campgrounds were designed on federal and state lands during the 1930s. Ultimately, his concepts determined campground design for the Civilian Conservation Corps. [38]

The Civilian Conservation Corps Era: 1933-1942

Franklin Delano Roosevelt's New Deal Programs changed the Forest Service approach to recreation. The creation of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) in 1933 provided the Forest Service with more personnel and funding to expand its recreation program, but during its first year, the USFS limited the use of enrollees to constructing the simplest types of facilities, and continuing the types of recreation construction of the previous decades. By the second year, however, the Forest Service began expanding the scope and scale of recreational projects, and by the mid-1930s, began formalizing a centralized recreation staff. [39]

During the CCC era, the North Pacific Region was the exemplar of all other National Forest Regions regarding recreational development. Even before the New Deal, the North Pacific recreation program led the nation in recreation facility development. With the Columbia River Gorge Park designation and the first developed Forest Service campground in the nation at Eagle Creek, Frederick Cleator's program led to the creation

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[37] Ibid.

[38] Ibid., 285.

[39] William C. Tweed, *Recreation Site Planning and Improvements in National Forests: 1891-1942* (Washington D.C.: GPO, 1980), 17-18.

of recreational facilities in all of the National Forests of Oregon and Washington, so much so, that by World War II, recreational structures were considered common sights. [40] The level of development of the more popular National Forest areas in Oregon and Washington even surpassed those of the National Parks in the region. [41] According to William Tweed, "the octagonal picnic shelters of the Mt. Baker National Forest at Silver Fir and Galena Campgrounds or the individual campers' shelters of the McKenzie Bridge Forest Camp on the Willamette National Forest, recreation structures stood as symbols of the high sensitivity of the Forest Service in the Northwest to recreational needs." [42]

Although the Civilian Conservation Corps era of the 1930s facilitated extensive improvements to Forest Service recreational facilities, the elimination of the C.C.C. and World War II restricted further recreational developments. Based on statistics, between 1933-1942, the Forest Service constructed 23,000 overnight individual camping units, and 30,000 individual family picnic units on National Forest Lands. The annual report for 1941 indicated 2,300 developed campgrounds, 572 picnic areas, 1,381 recreation areas offering camping and picnicking, 254 winter sports areas, 54 organization camps for people of modest means and 11 resorts. [43] Because of New Deal labor, the infrastructure was in place for post-war recreational boom.

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[40] Ibid., 22.

[41] Ibid.

[42] Ibid.

[43] Ibid., 26.

Forest Service Recreation: WWII-1969

However, World War II severely impacted the Forest Service, and other public land agencies. Even before the war formally began, the Forest Service saw its fiscal year 1940-41 recreation budget cut to less than half of the budget allocated for the 1936-37 year. [44] By 1943, largely due to gasoline rationing, and the personal effects felt by a majority of families due to the increased war effort, recreational numbers dropped to 6-½ million on National Forests –just 60% of the previous years' total use. Indeed, of the war years, the 1942 Forest Service annual recreation report best summarized the situation: "The United States was in the War and regular work in the National Forests was on a wartime footing. The Civilian Conservation Corps was terminated. Most Forests and Districts had very few personnel. The agency was again in the custodial phase of management." [45]

By fiscal year 1945, the situation began to change. The Forest Service Chief's annual report referred to National Forests as "The People's Playgrounds," and the agency planned for another major phase of recreational development and construction. [46] Recreational visits to National Forest increased significantly after 1946. Beginning at 18 million visits during 1946, 21 million by 1947, 27 million for 1950 – visitation kept increasing to 52.5 million by 1956. [47] During 1956, National Forest campgrounds and

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[44] Gerald J. Coutant. *A Chronology of the Recreation History of the National Forests and the U.S.D.A. Forest Service: 1940-1990*. United States: s.n, 1990., 2.

[45] Ibid., 3.

[46] Ibid., 4.

[47] John H. Sieker. 1957. "Recreation on The National Forest". The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. 313., 129. See also, Gerald J.

picnic areas alone were visited by 21,872,200 people. [48] As John Sieker, Chief of the Division of Recreation and Lands for the Forest Service wrote in 1957, "Designed to handle 17,600,000 man-days a season, recreation areas received 27, 102,600 man-days use, an overload of 39 percent." [49] Sieker's comment revealed the issues facing the National Forest and National Park Service during the years after the end of World War II – that recreation areas designed by the Civilian Conservation Corps in the 1930s were suffering due to increased visitation.

While the National Park Service responded to the issue with their Mission 66 program (designed to improve recreation facilities at National Parks over a ten-year period, from 1956-1966), the Forest Service responded with Operation Outdoors. Nationwide, Operation Outdoors began on July 1, 1957, to meet the demands of rising visitation by investing in the repair and rehabilitation of existing recreation facilities, and the new construction of additional facilities. [50]

A Department of Agricultural promotional booklet for Operation Outdoors outlined the tangible and intangible effects of the post-war outdoor recreation boom: according to the National Association of Travel Organizations, recreation ranked third as an industry in the United States, and that the communities surrounding National Forests depended upon recreationist dollars. Additionally, outdoor recreation contributed to, "the

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Coutant. *A Chronology of the Recreation History of the National Forests and the U.S.D.A. Forest Service: 1940-1990*. United States: s.n, 1990., 5.

[48] Ibid.

[49] Ibid.

[50] Ibid., 131.

health and welfare of the Nation," and that, "Inspiration, enjoyment of the outdoors, and relaxation can hardly be evaluated in material terms, but their importance to the well-being of the people is well recognized and accepted." [51]

Ultimately, the Operation Outdoors booklet projected 66 million recreational visits to National Forests by the year 1962, and that increasing use was directly the result of expanding population levels, extensive improvements and expansion of roads and highways, increased personal income, and increased vacation time. The Forest Service also acknowledged that the National Park Service's Mission 66 program would affect National Forest lands via recreational travel by those on their way to National Park destinations. [52]

Not only was the Forest Service concerned with future projections, they were also concerned with existing recreational conditions. The 20-year old recreational facilities constructed by the Civilian Conservation Corps had deteriorated under deferred maintenance during the war, and were deteriorating further under increasing use. [53] By 1957, Congressional appropriations allowed the Forest Service to nearly meet maintenance and sanitation needs, reportedly for the first time since the Civilian Conservation Corps existed. [54] However, overcrowding of existing facilities caused

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[51] USDA Forest Service, *Operation Outdoors: Part 1: National Forest Recreation*, Washington D.C., G.P.O., 1957., 1.

[52] Ibid., 1-3.

[53] John H. Sieker. 1957. "Recreation on The National Forest". The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. 313., 129.

[54] USDA Forest Service, *Operation Outdoors: Part 1: National Forest Recreation*, Washington D.C., G.P.O., 1957., 4.

visitors to create impromptu campsites (otherwise known as dispersed) near developed areas, resulting in increased wildfire risk and sanitation issues, especially since recreation areas are typically located near water. [55]

The five-year program cited two goals to complete by 1962: one, to rehabilitate existing recreational areas to, "safe and useable" condition, and two, to "plan, develop, and install *new* areas to alleviate present overuse and accommodate future use as it develops". [56] Recreation visits apparently exceeded projections for 1962; by 1958, visits were recorded at 68.4 million, a 12% increase from 1957. [57]

Little information was found on the effectiveness Operation Outdoors had on the recreational facilities of the Forest Service. Gerald Coutant has compiled the best source of recreational statistics for the Forest Service (based on the National Forest Service Annual Reports, from 1940 to 1990) that may have given some indication of general recreational trends or effectiveness. By 1959, the halfway point of the program, the Report of the Forest Service for that fiscal year only states, "Operation Outdoors reached its halfway point on Dec. 31, 1959. This is a five year program to provide sanitation, clean-up, and care at existing recreation areas. It is necessary to provide some new areas and facilities to relieve overcrowding." [58] By 1962, the supposed final year of the program, the annual report states that Operation Outdoors, "is beginning to provide the

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[55] Ibid., 5-6.

[56] Ibid., 6.

[57] Gerald J. Coutant. *A Chronology of the Recreation History of the National Forests and the U.S.D.A. Forest Service: 1940-1990*. United States: s.n, 1990., 11.

[58] Ibid., 12.

facilities that are needed to accommodate the growth in recreation use of the forests." [59] For 1963, the Report of the Forest Service states, "Operation Outdoors continues to provide the facilities that are badly needed through out the National Forests. The recreation planning for each National Forest is Progressing (sic) very well." [60] It is unclear whether Congressional appropriations for Operation Outdoors continued for fiscal year 1963, but the aforementioned suggests so. Throughout annual reports of the Forest Service thereafter, no mention was made of Operation Outdoors, or of its effectiveness at a national level.

For the remainder of the 1960s, recreational use increased: from 134 million visits in 1964, to 162.8 million in 1969. [61] Of note, in 1965, the recordation of recreational visits changed to the use of the "Visitor Day" (it is unclear what, or how the previous method for recordation worked). [62] The visitor day was the equivalent of one person for 12 hours of activity, or 12 persons per one hour of recreation activity. [63] In 1967, the concept of Landscape Management was first mentioned, with landscape architects and other natural resource professionals within the Forest Service leading seminars on concepts related to Natural Beauty. [64] Overall, this era is also classified by major federal legislation that classified programs for national recreation and preservation. The Multiple

[59] Ibid., 14.

[60] Ibid., 15.

[61] Ibid., 16-23.

[62] Ibid., 18.

[63] Ibid.

[64] Ibid., 21.

Use-Sustained Yield Act was passed in 1960, formalizing the concept of multiple uses on National Forest Lands. The Wilderness Act was passed in 1964, followed by the National Recreation and Scenic Areas, Wild and Scenic Rivers, National Historic Preservation Act, and National Scenic Trails legislation during the following two decades. [65]

Forest Service Recreation: 1970-Present

Of interest, between 1972 and 1976, no recreation visitor statistics were recorded in the Annual Reports for the Forest Service. Since outdoor recreation has been so closely tied with the automobile, this would have made an interesting comparison to see how petroleum shortages of the period specifically affected recreational visits to National Forests. Recreation visits for 1971 were 184 million visitor days, and 204.8 million visitor days for 1977, suggesting consistent increases. Overall, no major initiatives were cited specifically for the maintenance and improvement of existing recreation facilities, or for the construction of new facilities. This, of course does not indicate that these activities were not happening on individual forests, but does suggest that the Forest Service continued a general phase of custodial management with regards to these facilities.

In 1979, the Forest Service appointed a Cultural Heritage Program Coordinator, and published preliminary procedures that aided in the identification and protection of

[65] Elizabeth Gail Throop, "National Forests - - Use and Development for Recreation in the West", unpublished presentation, date unknown., 12.

cultural resources. [66] By 1981, under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, 38 areas having "special cultural significance" were listed on the National Register, and 68 additional areas were found eligible for listing. [67] To date, 4,500 cultural had been identified on National Forest lands. [68] In 1985, 2.4 million acres were surveyed for cultural resources, to identify properties of cultural or historical significance – 255 were listed on the National Register, with 8,500 eligible for listing. Additionally, this year was the first printed mention of recreational congressional appropriation, in the amount of $11.8 million for recreation construction – with $5,900,000 towards specifically earmarked projects, mostly resorts and visitor center construction. [69] This trend continued: $17 million was appropriated for recreation construction on National Forest lands in 1987, $24 million in 1989, and $27.8 million in 1990. Likewise, recreational use increased from 238.5 million in 1987 and 263 million in 1990. [70] Statistics for cultural resources indicate surveys conducted on 2.4 million acres in 1987, with 2,008 evaluated properties, 71 listed on the National Register, and 982 deemed eligible for listing. [71] For 1990, heritage surveys were complete for 1.2 million acres of National Forest lands, with 47 properties submitted to the National Park Service for inclusion on the National

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[66] Gerald J. Coutant. *A Chronology of the Recreation History of the National Forests and the U.S.D.A. Forest Service: 1940-1990*. United States: s.n, 1990., 31.

[67] Ibid., 35.

[68] Ibid.

[69] Ibid., 44.

[70] Ibid., 46-54.

[71] Ibid., 47.

Register. [72]

Overall, the statistics for the 1980s-1990 do not reveal specifics for recreational construction projects in the regions, nor do they indicate recreational needs. With the mention of the Heritage Program in 1979, statistics suggest progress was slow in the identification and evaluation of cultural resources, and that, while recreational use rose, there was no major national program for the construction of recreational resources, or the restoration or rehabilitation of existing places. It is suggested that the heritage surveys were likely conducted on some of the campgrounds from the Civilian Conservation Corps era. Indeed, the earliest recreational areas that were constructed in 1933, reached their 50-year historical significance mark in 1983. The last of the C.C.C. projects would have reached maturity by 1992; however, statistics were not compiled beyond 1990 in Gerald Coutant's study. More research is needed in this area.

In any case, it is clear that the history of recreational development on Forest Service lands is directly related to the development and expansion of automobile use. If anything, the statistics previously mentioned regarding recreational development mirror the expansion of automobile use, and corresponding rural, state and interstate roads throughout the United States. These topics will be the focus of the next chapter.

[72] Ibid., 55.

CHAPTER II

TRANSPORTATION DEVELOPMENTS AND AUTOMOBILE CAMPING IN THE UNITED STATES

> Recreation became a problem with a name in the days of the elder Roosevelt, when the railroads which had banished the countryside from the city began to carry city-dwellers, *en masse*, to the countryside. It began to be noticed that the greater the exodus, the smaller the per-capita ration of peace, solitude, wildlife, and scenery, and the longer the migration to reach them. [73]

The Development of Road Networks: Rural Free Delivery and the Good Roads Movement

During the late 19th-early 20th century, the combination of the Good Roads Movement, Rural Free Delivery, and the development of the automobile were the catalyst for automobile touring and outdoor recreation in the United States (Figure 5). Since the rise of railroading in the United States, the development of roads was not a priority of the Federal Government, and by 1904, only approximately seven percent of United States road surfaces were hardened. During this time, rural farmers were the most vociferous in arguing for the improvement of rural road networks, but especially more so after the development of Rural Free Delivery (RFD) by the U.S. Postal Service in 1896. [74]

Before Rural Free Delivery, farmers would have to trek to the local post office via road systems that were poor, to say the least. Now, the Post Office had to travel those same roads, which brought the question of the federal government and road building to

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[73] Aldo Leopold and Charles W. Schwartz. *A Sand County Almanac, and Sketches Here and There.* New York: Oxford University Press, 1987., 165.

[74] Wayne E. Fuller, 1955. "Good Roads and Rural Free Delivery of Mail". *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review.* 42, no. 1: 67.

the forefront again, as had happened in the early years of the Republic. Additionally, the last quarter of the 19th century, saw the rise of safety bicycles, and with it, the Good Roads Movement, spearheaded by the League of American Wheelmen. [75]

Previous to the establishment of RFD, the Department of Agriculture, representing rural farmer concerns, established the Office of Road Inquiry in 1893, with $10,000 in annual appropriations. Its role was purely advisory, and not only offered advice on good road building practices, but also published promotional literature to further stimulate the general public. [76]

In 1899, the Postal Service established the policy that rural carrier routes would not be established where roads were unserviceable for effective mail delivery. This policy almost immediately assisted the rural road-building effort, with routes that had, up until then, barely passed muster, were now vigorously improved. [77] This, coupled with the Department of Agriculture's Office of Road Inquiry, and along with the Good Roads Movement, served to strengthen publicity and effort towards the establishment of better rural road networks throughout the United States.

The Postal Service and the Office of Public Road Inquiries (formerly the Office of Road Inquiry) joined forces in 1905 and became the Bureau of Public Roads. Additionally, the Department of Agriculture sent its road engineers to inspect rural routes at the specific request of the Postal Service, and offer technical advice on upgrading and

[75] Ibid., 68-69.

[76] Ibid.

[77] Ibid., 71.

repair. This, along with nearly continuous pressure from regional farmers, and the input of the local mail carrier, did much to improve the poor quality of rural routes. [78]

The cumulative effects of publicity, advice, and rural carrier demand put pressure on state governments to resolve the road question. Between 1900 and 1910, states either passed financial aid laws or established highway commissions to facilitate road development. Even by 1908, President Theodore Roosevelt established a rural life study, and the results affirmed that rural roads must be travelable in all seasons, not only for agricultural commerce, but also, "for the elevation of the social and intellectual status of the open country." [79]

What began with Department of Agricultural backing, and strengthened by the Rural Free Delivery program now had the federal government searching for a way to subsidize road construction in the United States. Between 1908 and 1916, a long battle occurred in the House and Senate over federal appropriation for road networks. Across America, the battle also raged among diverse user groups. Marguerite S. Shaffer notes in her work, *See America First* that the notion of what "Good Roads" actually meant was, of course, interpreted differently among the groups. As an example, those who made their living in rural areas, such as farmers, doctors, and salesmen, threw their support behind an improved transportation road network for the purpose of facilitating commerce and eliminating rural isolation. Wealthy automobile owners offered the directly opposite

[78] Ibid., 72-73.

[79] Ibid., 74-76.

view, arguing that motoring was a recreational affair, and that an extensive network of interstate highways would increase national tourism opportunities.[80]

On July 11, 1916, the Federal Highway Act was passed, which allowed the federal government to fund the construction and repair of both RFD routes and provided $75 million over five years, to fund state highway construction, and an additional $10 million for national forest road construction over ten years. [81] As a result, the compromise was that each state received an amount of money proportional to its population, area, and total mileage of rural route and star route roads. [82] Oregon was one of the states, but just three years before the passage of the Federal Highway Act, construction of the Columbia River Highway, the first modern roadway in the Pacific Northwest began, as well as the first scenic highway in the United States. [83]

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[80] Marguerite S. Shaffer. *See America First: Tourism and National Identity, 1880-1940*. Washington: Smithsonian Institution Press, 2001., 139.

[81] Ibid., 82. See also John A. Jakle and Keith A. Sculle. *Motoring: The Highway Experience in America*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2008., 53.

[82] Marguerite S. Shaffer. *See America First: Tourism and National Identity, 1880-1940*. Washington: Smithsonian Institution Press, 2001., 82.

[83] William G. Loy, Stuart Allan, and Clyde P. Patton. *Atlas of Oregon* (Eugene: University of Oregon, 1976), 104.

Figure 5: Eagle Creek Forest Camp parking lot, August 25, 1918. The Columbia River Highway is out of sight, just to the right of the photograph. Courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service Heritage files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, those involved with the planning and implementation of the Columbia River Highway were concerned of the potential tourist effects on the landscape, and worked to preserve scenic integrity along that particular corridor.

National Tourism and the Rise of the Ford Model T Automobile

Overall, Marguerite S. Schaffer describes the era between 1880-1940 as the rise of national tourism in the United States. She writes,

> As a national transportation system and communication network spread a metropolitan corridor across America, as methods of mass production and mass distribution created a national market, as corporate capitalism begot an expanding middle class with time and money to spend on leisure, tourism emerged as a form of geographical consumption that centered on the sights and scenes of the American nation. [84]

Indeed, between 1900-1920, approximately 19,500 rural roads were improved with pavement, and thus, were capable of sustaining the expedient movement of motor vehicles. [85] By 1919, the United States alone had some 230 automobile manufacturing companies for passenger cars, and 372 companies for trucks. As early as 1908, the Ford Motor Company, which initially had a rough introduction to the business world, introduced the Model T. Through a mass-production strategy, subsequent costs were lowered yearly, until 1913, when the price was just $290 - - and 189,000 vehicles were sold, with an additional 100,000 orders unfilled. [86]

Affordability was not the only reason for the popularity of the Model T. Ford's engineers designed the vehicle so that any person with a reasonable knowledge of tools and mechanics could maintain it. Pistons, valves, and cylinders could be easily accessed through both the top and bottom portions of the crankcase. Lighter and stronger

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[84] Marguerite S. Shaffer. *See America First: Tourism and National Identity, 1880-1940*. Washington: Smithsonian Institution Press, 2001., 3.

[85] John A. Jakle and Keith A. Sculle. *Motoring: The Highway Experience in America*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2008., 33.

[86] Ibid., 13-14.

vanadium alloy steel was used in the motor and on moving parts throughout the rest of the chassis. The spur planetary transmission was easy to engage, and ran smoothly and quietly. The high-torque motor, coupled with high clearance and a suspension designed so that each wheel could hug the ground independently, enabled the vehicle to traverse the primitive conditions so prevalent at the time. During the entire 19 years of production, approximately 15 million Model T's were sold throughout the United States, in urban areas, of course, but also in rural communities with fewer than 1,000 people by 1930. As John Jakle argues, no other United States-produced automobile ever had such an impact across class and spatial boundaries. [87]

Early National Highways

As automobile use grew exponentially during the early 20th century, the advocates for good roads borrowed the promotional theme of national tourism from railroad corporations and the National Park Service, and fitted it to the automobile industry to promote automobile recreational use. As Marguerite S. Shaffer writes, advocates for a system of "national highways," stressed such networks would unite the nation, and provide access to, "the people, places, and history that embody(ied) America". [88]

The National Old Trails Association and the Lincoln Highway Association, were two early associations that actively promoted transcontinental roads and travel as a patriotic American ritual. [89] Of these, both Marguerite S. Shaffer and John Jakle cite the

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[87] Ibid., 14-16.

[88] Marguerite S. Shaffer. *See America First: Tourism and National Identity, 1880-1940*. Washington: Smithsonian Institution Press, 2001., 140-141.

[89] Ibid.

National Old Trails Road, as among the earliest highway proposal. Shaffer argues this proposal actively promoted the link between tourism, ritual, and national ideal. As an example, the Missouri chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution (DAR) published a promotional pamphlet titled, *The Old Trails Road: The National Highway as a Monument to the Pioneer Men and Women* in 1911. [90] Describing a national highway constructed along purportedly ancient trails stamped out first by, "buffalo, elk, and the deer,…followed by the Indians and later the pioneer who blazed and broadened them into wagon roads, " the constructed highway was proposed to actually connect existing historic roads and trails from Washington, D.C., to Kansas City, and then branch to California and the Pacific Northwest. [91] Overall, the cultural atmosphere in the early 20th century revolved around enthusiasm for good roads and the potential for touring as well as the developing patriotic interest in preserving and recognizing the nation's history. [92] Interest in the latter partly stemmed from the Colonial Revival Movement, which had reawakened American interest in things colonial, and reached its peak popularity between 1880-1940. [93]

Ironically, the National Old Trails Highway Association effectively promoted a nostalgic view of the past through the latest transportation technology, especially east of

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[90] Ibid. See also John A. Jakle and Keith A. Sculle. *Motoring: The Highway Experience in America*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2008., 43.

[91] Ibid.

[92] Ibid., 142.

[93] Richard Guy Wilson, Shaun Eyring, and Kenny Marotta. Re-Creating the American Past: Essays on the Colonial Revival. Charlottesville: University of Virginia Press, 2006., 5.

the Mississippi, where, through Pennsylvania for example, a 60-80 foot wide thoroughly modern macadam road passed by architectural bygones of the previous century. In Ohio, the highway made use of existing antiquated, s-shaped bridges constructed during horse and wagon days. [94]

Although the National Old Trails Highway could easily promote history east of the Mississippi, out west was a different matter. In New Mexico, for example, roads in general seemed to be more at the mercy of the elements, with washouts and dust storms common. Promoters and travelers alike compared the hardships of traversing the highway as similar to the overland wagon train journeys endured by the pioneers. One account of the traveling the Columbia River Highway contrasted the hardships endured by Lewis and Clark to the relative ease of traversing the rugged Columbia River Gorge at 25 miles per hour. [95] Marguerite S. Shaffer noted that, "Crossing the paths of famous pioneers allowed tourists to experience a vicarious and sanitized version of the adventures of westward expansion," and that the experience of touring by automobile helped identify with historical events without experiencing any physical hardship. [96]

The Automobile Camping Movement in America

By the early 1920s, automobile camping was popular, but across the nation overall, the service infrastructure necessary to provide relative consistency and comfort to

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[94] John A. Jakle and Keith A. Sculle. *Motoring: The Highway Experience in America*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2008., 49.

[95] Marguerite S. Shaffer. *See America First: Tourism and National Identity, 1880-1940*. Washington: Smithsonian Institution Press, 2001., 167.

[96] Marguerite S. Shaffer. *See America First: Tourism and National Identity, 1880-1940*. Washington: Smithsonian Institution Press, 2001., 167.

travelers was still in its infancy. [97] Following World War I, motorists initially camped immediately along roadsides, especially in open areas, as well as on private land. Before long, these areas became abused, especially out West. As John Jakle noted, period descriptions related that as quickly as campers located beautiful areas, they marred trees, trampled grasses, left trash in their wake, and then found other beautiful areas to destroy, usually at a greater distance beyond. [98]

Those who were used to relative comfort at home would learn adjustments would have to be made in camp, even when conditions were optimal. Overcoming the range of hardships was promoted early on as giving value and meaning to the activity. [99] Just two years later, Frank Brimmer authored *Motor Campcraft*, a publication which stressed how safe motor camping had become through a sense of camaraderie. Although the mingling of people from different parts of the country was promoted as a democratic activity (in a sense, it was), what was unspoken was that the majority of automobile campers were middle class and white, and therefore, safe to encounter while on the road. [100]

According to John Jakle, typical 1920s small-town auto campgrounds were usually located in an open field at the town's edge, and offered such amenities as potable water, restrooms, electrically-powered lights, wood or gas cooking stoves located in a

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[97] John A. Jakle and Keith A. Sculle. *Motoring: The Highway Experience in America*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2008., 107.

[98] John A. Jakle. *The Tourist: Travel in Twentieth-Century North America*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985., 155.

[99] Ibid.

[100] John A. Jakle and Keith A. Sculle. *Motoring: The Highway Experience in America*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2008., 107.

centralized community kitchen, lounging facilities, cold-water showers, and tubs for laundry. [101] He relates the study of Anthropologist Oscar Lewis, who described a typical camp from the tourist's perspective,

> It is past the middle of the afternoon when the tourist sees the first of the signs the town fathers have erected along the highway: "Municipal Free Auto Camp. Free Water. Free Lights." As he continues on, the signs grow more frequent, cunningly revealing attractions hitherto unmentioned: "Free Shower Baths. Social Hall." If the campground is not too awful, if it is not another barren field swept by clouds of dust, he pulls in to find a place. The car is unloaded the tent erected, the fire started, and preparations for the meal begun... blackened vessels simmer above the fire and the mellow aroma of coffee fills the air. [102]

By the mid-1920s, publications attempted to entice a broader public into camping by automobile by purveying wares that padded the bumps. Mid-1920s magazines offered specialized pamphlets that targeted the most recent technological developments for cooking, sleeping, and camping equipment. Throughout the 1920s, businesses expanded to meet the growing market: over 50 different models of camping beds were available by 1923, as well as specialized tents, portable camping stoves, toilets, washbasins, cabinets designed for auto running boards, lamps, and even refrigerators. Predictably, during the 1930s, articles began extolling the virtues of lightweight, uncluttered, simple travel, counseling camping motorists to take only what was necessary. As John Jakle notes, articles that began the decade by conveying the pleasure in physical hardship as the spice of an auto camping experience instead stressed physical comfort and simplicity as the

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[101] John A. Jakle. *The Tourist: Travel in Twentieth-Century North America*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985., 159.

[102] John A. Jakle and Keith A. Sculle. *Motoring: The Highway Experience in America*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2008., 107.

main virtues as the consumer base grew. [103] Eventually, the majority of automobile campers shifted from campgrounds to the conveniences of roadside cottages, motels, and restaurants. Camping remained popular in the western United States, however, due to geographic realities: longer, remote or rural distances, and fewer convenient accommodations. [104]

Those automobile campers dedicated to the activity began to convert their motor vehicles to motor homes on wheels. As early as 1924, one Yellowstone camper took notice of what appeared to be a small house attached to a truck chassis, and noted it had windows, electric lights, running water, kitchen cupboards, a full-width bed, clothes closet, rocking chairs, kitchen table, and wood cooking stove. Entrepreneurs soon took notice, and quickly manufactured similar products specialized for the camping market. [105]

The term, "tin-can tourist" evolved through the 1920s-1930s, its meaning at first applied to those roadside campers that ate from tin cans, then to those who drove cheap automobiles, to those who pulled small camping trailers. The first house homemade house trailer traveled from Florida to California in 1929, and by 1936, J. N. Darling drove his trailer from Iowa to Florida, and wrote, *The Cruise of the Bouncing Betty* about his experiences. [106] Darling's amenities included a gasoline stove, icebox, kitchen sink, toilet, washbowl, folding bed, and two wicker deck chairs. On his trip, he described

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[103] Ibid.

[104] John A. Jakle. *The Tourist: Travel in Twentieth-Century North America*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985., 152-153.

[105] Ibid., 161-62.

[106] Ibid.

encountering trailers frequently, and, elaborated, "Our new brothers and sisters hailed us as we passed, came over to call the minute we paused at the side of the road or pulled up for gas." [107] He also described that in the state of Florida, most towns had established an elaborate trailer court (not typically found elsewhere), and described them, "like a huge herd of blue, pink, and green elephants lying down, closely packed." [108]

Despite the advances in automobile camping, nature remained the main focus, even from the beginning of automobile use. The desire to be out in nature stemmed partly from the expanding urbanization across the American landscape, and the automobile facilitated relatively easy access. A nature-focused movement formed that placed picturesque and romantic values on places that were easily accessible out side of metropolitan areas, and were generally between semi-rural to wild. Newer, more spiritual values were found in wilder places; however, while wilderness advocates such as John Muir expressed his personal sentiments to the public, the majority of automobile tourists reduced the complexities of nature to understandable terms; as such, they patronized private and public places that simplified nature's complexities for human consumption. Just as automobile camping became less about physical hardship and more about comfort, roadside places evolved to insulate the actual or perceived hardships of nature from travelers. [109]

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[107] Ibid., 163.

[108] Ibid.

[109] John A. Jakle. *The Tourist: Travel in Twentieth-Century North America*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985., 63-66.

National Park Roads and Rustic Architecture

While roads facilitated access to parks and forests, they also served to control movement as well. In the Pacific Northwest, automobiles were admitted to Mount Rainier National Park as early as 1908, and, by 1911, to Crater Lake National Park. The National Park Service strongly encouraged automobile access, as they were dependant upon the revenue; however, the road networks were carefully designed not only to concentrate user areas to minimize impacts to the environment, but to maximize controlled access to scenic resources in the park. The majority of visitors perceived scenery through the windshield, and carefully crafted viewpoints controlled such place imagery. [110]

During the 1930s, National Parks also designed buildings, structures, and landscapes to blend with the environment as much as possible. Success was measured by self-restraint, and park buildings were overall designed and constructed with regards to local context, scale, color, and texture. In keeping with the zeitgeist, rustic architecture in National Parks (like National Forests) portrayed a frontier pioneer craftsmanship, that, according to a National Park Service Report of the time, "…(the designer)… becomes aware of the unvoiced claims of those long gone races and earlier generations that tracked the wilderness… before him. In fitting tribute he graces his encroachments by adapting to his structures such of their traditions and practices as come to his understanding." [111]

[110] Ibid., 70-71.

[111] Ibid.

Post World War II Developments

As the consumer base grew, and as highways and automobiles improved, distances traveled expanded. For example, in 1916, 125 miles per day was a long day's travel; 200 miles by 1925, 300 miles in 1931, and 400 miles by 1936. [112] World War II effectively stopped recreational travel, but once the war was over, automobile camping and road trips expanded considerably; by 1962 a government report on national recreation identified that Americans traveled over 100 billion passenger-miles, and took approximately 80 million vacations. [113]

Automobile camping after the war was facilitated by increased vacation benefits offered to Americans, the construction and upgrade of the American highway system, and the continual evolution in vehicle technology and promotion. The 1956 Federal-Aid Highway Act, signed by President Dwight D. Eisenhower, provided $25 billion in federal funding toward the construction of interstate highways (set to federal standards). [114] Promotional magazines geared toward families explained that the benefits of the new highway system were, "faster travel through better engineering," overall safety and increased visibility. [115]

Automobile type during the 1950s was dominated by the family-oriented station wagon. First marketed by Ford in 1947, production increased to 29,000 wagons in 1950,

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[112] Ibid., 147.

[113] Susan Sessions Rugh. *Are We There yet?: The Golden Age of American Family Vacations*. Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 2008., 3-4.

[114] Ibid., 17-18.

[115] Ibid., 18.

290,000 wagons by 1955 and peaked at 340,000 wagons in 1956. [116] Advertisements promoted station wagons in recreation-oriented vacation environments, mainly oriented to western landscapes. [117] By the late 1950s, automobile advertisements appealed to the educational value of vacationers, emphasizing patriotic American themes ranging from Colonial times to Custer's Last Stand.

The reasons for camping after the war remained similar to those before the war. Americans living in urban and now suburban areas still desired a change of routine from typical work/home cycles. Parents also wanted to take their children out to experience nature first-hand in relatively safe environments. Finally, camping was promoted as affordable, and magazines and map companies provided literature on cooking, equipment, clothing, and, of course, how to get there. [118]

Recommended equipment was also similar to before the war. A 1958 list recommended an ice chest, gasoline stove, camp kitchen, cooking wares, and a tent, along with an optional metal table and stools. [119] By1963, a Rand McNally camping checklist cited, "a tent, stove, bedding, silverware, plates, cups, frying pan, stewpots, coffeepot, can opener, knives, bottle opener, spatula, cooking forks, roasting forks, and serving spoons," and camp living necessities included,

> …soap, detergent, paper napkins, wax paper, toilet paper, paper towels, pot cleaners, pot holders, gallon thermos jug, rain coats or umbrella, warm jackets and caps, an extra pair of shoes, mosquito repellent and medication, toilet and shaving

[116] Ibid., 20.

[117] Ibid., 21.

[118] Ibid., 122.

[119] Ibid.

> articles, toothbrushes and toothpaste, dishcloths and towels, washcloths and bath towels, and a plastic tablecloth. [120]

Even more items recommended were,

> a clothesline and clothespins, mirror, oilcloth, clock, whisk broom, hatchet or ax, wash pan, spade, folding chairs, sleeping bags, flashlight, lantern, flyswatter, bug bomb, first aid kit, coat hangers, laundry bag, sewing kit, twine, rope, pencil and paper, jackknife, tarpaulin, and, last but not least, a deck of cards. [121]

While before the war, many campers overloaded their Model Ts with camping gear, more spacious and powerful station wagons carried the load. Larger vehicles meant some could sleep in the back, and updated electrical technology allowed portable power for electric shavers, baby bottle warmers, coffee makers, and portable air blowers for mattresses. Older, floorless, waxed-canvas tents gave way to lighter, more modern canvas tents with sewn-in floors, mosquito netting, and lighter aluminum poles. Even lighter nylon and fiberglass pole tents began to appear in the mid-late 1970s. Cooking technology advanced, particularly with Coleman Company providing an expanded line of stoves, as well as lanterns, and coolers. [122]

The 1950s also saw the expansion of the camping trailer market. Portable camper shells were developed to fit on the back of pickup trucks, and by the 1960s, fully self-contained and self-propelled motor homes were made available. Overall, travel trailers were the most affordable option, and 28,000 units were sold in 1961, to 76,600 units in 1965. [123] Additionally, Volkswagen introduced its compact camper during the 1950s,

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[120] Ibid., 123.

[121] Ibid.

[122] Ibid., 124.

[123] Ibid., 127.

and subsequent years saw alterations and advancements to those who wanted smaller, more economical shelter from the elements and integrated cooking amenities. [124]

1970s to the Present

Automobile camping and post-war family vacationing in general declined during the oil embargoes of the early 1970s, as well as the increasing interest among the younger generation to explore newly-designated wilderness areas, with lightweight nylon and synthetic clothing, on foot. Overall, roads and highways throughout the United States stabilized during the 1980s, and at the present time, are in an age of maintenance and upkeep. There was a return to family security after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, and, according to Susan Sessions Rugh, market research firms and travel agencies backed up the claim that turmoil tends to drive people homeward. Additionally, according to Rugh, vacation times have become shorter, and with the electronic age increasingly linking people to their work outside the office, the boundaries between work and recreation have become blurred. Camping also saw an increase, post-9/11 with singles and couples pursuing more strenuous activities in backcountry areas, but family-oriented automobile camping has remained popular. [125]

What remains unclear for the future is how the combined rise in the use of portable electronics and the cost of gasoline will affect how Americans travel and camp. Will Americans travel fewer miles, as in the early years of auto-camping, preferring to stay within easy range of metropolitan areas? Will there be a return to railroad travel, with accessibility to National Parks and Forests shifting back to this mode of transport?

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[124] Ibid., 129.

[125] Ibid., 180-182.

What is evident in asking these questions is that the historic campgrounds that remain on National Forest lands are clearly a product of affordable automobiles, increasing vacation time, and reflect expanding road networks, or geographic accessibility. The history of selected historic campgrounds in the Pacific Northwest, and how they evolved are the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

CULTURAL LANDSCAPE PATTERNS: SELECTED CAMPGROUNDS AND RECORDATION

Introduction

In order to complete this study, it was necessary to identify, describe, and research the historic background of selected U.S. Forest Service campgrounds that exist within U.S. Forest Service Region 6 (Oregon and Washington). Before research began, a gap was noted that, for Forest Service recreation areas, there were historical records available that identified specific points in time for some sites, but no comprehensive chronological record that described the evolution of a place from which to base natural and cultural stewardship decisions. Through the utilization of a case study approach, the goal is to create a cultural landscape baseline for existing and historical conditions. For this study, a cultural landscape baseline is defined as describing and depicting the chronological continuum of how the campground physically evolved over time, based on available historic information. National Register Bulletin #30, *Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes*, Preservation Brief #36, *Protecting Cultural Landscapes: Planning, Treatment, and Management of Historic Landscapes*, and the National Park Service's *Guide to Cultural Landscape Reports: Contents, Process, and Techniques* and *Guidelines for the Treatment of Cultural Landscapes* offered a useful framework to conduct the overall identification, analysis and treatment recommendations.

Cultural Landscape Reports (CLR) developed for National Park Service cultural properties serve two functions: first, the reports become the primary long-term

management tool for the cultural landscape, and second, based on the results of existing site conditions and historical research, serve as the primary document for the management and maintenance of significant cultural features in the landscape. Overall, for National Park Service lands, a CLR, "guides management and treatment decisions about a landscape's physical attributes, biotic systems, and use when that use contributes to historical significance." [126] For historic campgrounds on Forest Service lands, this last particular point is important, for all of the areas chosen for this study are accessible by automobile, and are recreation areas that are actively used by the public at the time of the study. Recreation, more specifically, automobile camping is the ongoing cultural process that contributes to the significance of these places.

Methodology

In order to narrow the campground choice for the study, a simple matrix was created that considered the following spatial and temporal criteria (no ranked importance): first, the campgrounds must exhibit a "range of accessibility" (in terms of geographic location, i.e., is the campground situated in, or near urban, rural or remote environments), second, the campground must have existing physical historic resources present (in order to have a physical reference with the past on the ground by which to gauge change) and there must be sufficient historical evidence available, through primary and secondary sources, in order to trace physical change over time. Campgrounds in federally-designated wilderness areas were not considered for two reasons: first, the

[126] Robert R. Page, Cathy Gilbert, and Susan Dolan, *A Guide to Cultural Landscape Reports: Contents, Process, and Techniques*. Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of the Interior, National Park Service, Cultural Resource Stewardship and Partnerships, Park Historic Structures and Cultural Landscapes Program, 1998., 3.

assumption was made that a scholarly study of recreation spaces in wilderness areas should be treated separately (due to the complexity of the meanings of wilderness in our culture), and second, a preliminary review of Forest Service campgrounds in Region 6 with existing historic features revealed that nearly all were designed for automobile access. [127]

To begin initial identification of potential campgrounds, contact was made with all of the Heritage Program Managers for each of the 17 National Forests in Region 6. The contact identified the purpose of the study: to understand how the cultural landscapes of Region 6 U.S. Forest Service campgrounds have changed and evolved over time. The contact requested that the heritage program managers recommend potential campgrounds based on the following criteria: the campgrounds could either be developed (with facilities and infrastructure) or remote, exhibit a range of historic resources and a range of historic integrity. Managers were also asked to consider the type and amount of historical data available that would allow tracing the physical evolution of each selected campground. Finally, an attachment was sent (obtained from the Forest Service Regional Historian) that listed known Region 6 campgrounds containing historic features. Heritage Program Managers were encouraged to delete from or add to the list. Additional contacts were sent to those managers who did not initially reply. If no reply was received, the forest was not included in the study.

[127] For additional reading on wilderness as a cultural construct, see William Cronon's "The Trouble with Wilderness, or Getting Back to the Wrong Nature," in William Cronon. *Uncommon Ground: Toward Reinventing Nature*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co, 1995. See also, Roderick Nash. *Wilderness and the American Mind*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1967.

Each campground was documented using a combination of field techniques suggested in *National Register Bulletin #30* and *Guide to Cultural Landscape Reports*. The main method of documenting at the site level was through field photography and written notes. For each area, systematic photographs were taken while walking from the main entrance, through all roads (documenting individual campsites and any group areas) and returning to points of origin. As outlined in the *Guide to Cultural Landscape Reports* and the National Park Service *Guidelines for the Treatment of Cultural Landscapes,* the following character-defining features (those features were recorded: Spatial Organization and Land Patterns, Topography, Vegetation, Circulation, Water Features, and Structures, Site Furnishings, and Objects. For campgrounds, these features generally translated to: overall landscape features, road or trail networks, and specific layout, individual campsite layouts and features (picnic tables, campfire rings, as well as construction materials) and any historic buildings and structures located on site, or related to the campground. Circulation types were noted: looped, figure eight, etc. Associated signs were recorded: entrance signs, directional signs, bulletin boards, campground site markers, and so on. Where practical, selected measurements were taken of buildings, structures, and site furnishings/objects for the purpose of comparing them with historic drafted plans from the Forest Service 1935 and 1945 *Recreation Plans Handbook.* When available, copies of historic documents were utilized in the field (such as photographs or historic plans). For historic photographs, views were determined as best as possible, and "re-photographed" to compare any changes. Copies of historic plans were marked during each systematic walk-through, noting any changes.

Available aerial photographs and Forest Service maps were used to discern larger scale temporal change patterns: vegetation, road networks, and land uses. Generally, aerials could not provide adequate detail regarding small-scale features on the ground, due to sheer scale and/or coniferous vegetation cover.

Here, historic significance, historic context, and historic integrity should be defined. According to the National Park Service's *National Register Bulletin: How to Complete the National Register Registration Form*, historic significance is, "the importance of a property to the history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, or culture of a community, state, or the nation." [128] Significance is demonstrated through one or more of four criteria: the association of a property with broad events, patterns, or activities, the association of a property with important persons, possessing distinctive physical characteristics of design, form, or construction, or a property having the potential to convey important information (typically archaeological sites). [129] Additionally, significance is also determined by the area of history to which the property made significant contributions, as well as the temporal period when the contributions were made. [130]

The historic context is defined as the data about historic trends and like properties related to a significant historical theme, and this can occur at the local, state, or national

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[128] United States, *National Register Bulletin: How to Complete the National Register Form*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Interior, National Park Service, National Register of Historic Places, 1997., 3.

[129] Ibid.

[130] Ibid.

level, within a discrete time period. It is organization of time, place, and theme that link historically significant properties to larger significant historical trends. [131]

Historic integrity is the ability of a historic property to convey its historic identity, which is evidenced through the survival of physical character-defining features that exist at present and, of course, during the historic period. More specifically, integrity is conveyed through the following seven properties: location, setting, design, workmanship, materials, feeling, and association. Overall, historic integrity is the method by which a property can successfully illustrate significant aspects of its past – not only must it appear historic, but it must retain those physical features from the historic period when it attained significance. [132]

Based on the recommendations and amount of historical information provided by the heritage managers, as well as information available at the University of Oregon Knight Library's Special Collections, and the Seattle Branch of the National Archives, the following campgrounds were selected: Eagle Creek Campground: Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, McKee Bridge Day Use Area (initially designed as a campground): Rogue River National Forest, Union Creek Campground: Rogue River National Forest, and Taylor Burn Forest Camp: Willamette National Forest. What follows is a baseline cultural resource study of each campground, within the context of its national forest. A brief history of the forest will be provided, along with a written and graphic discussion (the majority of photographs, maps, and/or plans will be in

[131] Ibid., 4.

[132] Ibid.

corresponding appendices at the end of the document) of how each campground appeared at different points in its history.

Campground A: Eagle Creek, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area

According to Forest Service historical files, the Mount Hood National Forest was the first established in Oregon, when the Bull Run Timberland Reserve was created on June 17, 1892. [133] On September 29, 1893, additional lands were added, and the name was changed to the Cascade Range Forest Reserve. On July 1, 1908, President Theodore Roosevelt renamed the forest the Oregon National Forest, and on January 21, 1924, President Calvin Coolidge renamed the forest the Mt. Hood National Forest. [134]

Encompassing 1,067,000 acres, along the southern slope of the Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, the Mt. Hood National Forest is one of 17 national forests of the U.S. Forest Service Pacific Northwest Region (Region 6) (Figure 6). Topographically, the forest features more severe relief to the west, with more gradual slopes to the east. Mount Hood forms part of the Cascade Range, a north-south chain of volcanoes that forms the boundary between western and eastern Oregon, and basalt forms a major geologic rock type. [135]

The Eagle Creek Campground exists near the mouth of Eagle Creek in the Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, 43 miles east from Portland, Oregon. Presently, it is situated immediately to the south of Interstate 84, and, according to the

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[133] No Author. *Studies - Mt. Hood National Forest: Historical Information*. S.l: s.n, 1940., no page number.

[134] Ibid.

[135] Richard L. Bryant. *Cultural Resource Overview of the Mt. Hood National Forest, Oregon*. (Eugene, Or: Pro-Lysts for the Forest Service, U.S.D.A., 1978), 12-13..

Oregon Geographic Names reference, "Eagle Creek flows into the Columbia River above Bonneville Dam. It is the site of the first USFS developed campground, established in 1916, as well as an important fish hatchery." [136]

Figure 6: Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area locus map.

Site Description and History: The Development of the Eagle Creek Area

Beginning in 1913, the construction of what is now known as the Historic Columbia River Highway set the stage for the Columbia River Gorge as a recreation area, and Eagle Creek as a campground. Additionally, two organizations took a keen interest in the scenic preservation of the Oregon side of the Gorge. The Portland Chamber of Commerce and the Progressive Business Men's Club lobbied to this cause, and this likely influenced Chief Forester Henry Graves' decision to recommend an area four to six miles wide and twenty-two miles long be designated as a Columbia Gorge

[136] Lewis A McArthur and Lewis L. McArthur. *Oregon Geographic Names* (Portland: Oregon Historical Society, 1974), 311-312.

Park Division of the Oregon National Forest. Formal designation took place on December 24, 1915, and this marked the earliest event to date that the Forest Service created an area devoted exclusively to recreational use - - as such, recreational home permits and timber harvesting were specifically prohibited in this area. [137] It is noteworthy that this event precedes the completion of the Columbia River Highway in 1922, considered the first modern road in the Pacific Northwest, as well as the first scenic highway in the United States. [138]

Evolution of the Columbia River Highway

The Columbia River Highway was constructed between 1913-1922, a key time when automobile use rapidly expanded in the United States. [139] For Oregon, the highway quickly became adopted into the state highway system in 1914, and stretched between Astoria and The Dalles, paved for all of that length, with unpaved sections extending to Pendleton. Expressly designed in context with its environmental setting, the highway quickly eliminated the transportation monopoly shared by railroads and boat traffic, especially in the rugged Columbia River Gorge section. [140]

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[137] David G. Havlick, *No Place Distant: Roads and Motorized Recreation on America's Public Lands* (Washington, Covelo, London: Island Press, 2002), 4.

[138] William G. Loy, Stuart Allan, and Clyde P. Patton. *Atlas of Oregon* (Eugene: University of Oregon, 1976), 104.

[139] Dwight A. Smith, *Columbia River Highway Historic District: Nomination of the Old Columbia River Highway in the Columbia Gorge to the National Register of Historic Places*. Salem, Or: Environmental Section, Technical Services Branch, Oregon State Highway Division, Oregon Dept. of Transportation, 1984, 3.

[140] Ibid., 55-56.

As with much of the United States, most rural roads were in extremely poor condition, but, as written before, the advent of Rural Free Delivery and The Good Roads Movement sparked interest in the development of a comprehensive road network. In 1909, Lewis Russell, a Good Roads Movement advocate in Portland, Oregon, provided his personal funding for a preliminary road survey through the Gorge. Specifications for this road included a 16-foot wide roadway and grades up to 17 percent. The county took favor with the results, and conducted its own survey in 1910, for a 20-foot wide road, and grades up to nine percent. Multnomah County began construction in 1911, but ran into difficulties with the topography of the Gorge and the existing railroad right-of-way. Although the railroad and the county reached a favorable agreement, there was little promotion for road construction to continue, outside of The Good Roads Movement. [141]

It was the enthusiasm of entrepreneur Sam Hill, a wealthy attorney for the Northern Pacific Railroad, (and son-in-law of Jim Hill, the financier of the powerful Great Northern and Northern Pacific Railroad systems) who provided the impetus for the Columbia River Highway's completion. Hill was not only a staunch Good Roads advocate, but also chairman of the Washington Highway Advisory Board, president of the Washington Good Roads Association, and the president of the American Roadbuilders Association. He used his influence towards the establishment of a scenic road in the Gorge on the Washington side, but construction costs dissuaded the support of the state legislature, so he looked to Oregon. Although he came from railroad money, he did not foresee the establishment of a scenic highway in the Gorge as competition for the railroad. Instead, he foresaw the recreational opportunities of the Gorge, largely

[141] Ibid.

inaccessible to tourists, where a scenic road that paralleled the railroad, would create a draw that would benefit both railroads and automobile tourists. [142]

To maximize the scenic preservation of the Gorge, the Columbia River Highway was designed and constructed in harmony with its environmental context as possible. Samuel Lancaster, a recognized highway engineer courted by Sam Hill specifically for this project, was responsible for construction of the highway in Multnomah County. He combined his love of the Cascades and the Columbia River Gorge with his inspiration of scenic highways in Germany and Switzerland, to produce beautiful designs, such as dry masonry retaining walls, guardrails of random rubble construction, decorated with repetitive arches along the route. Additionally, all bridges along the highway were specifically designed in harmony with their immediate contexts, and scenic locations, scouted out beforehand, were made accessible with overlooks and seating.[143]

As early advocates had promoted public access to the scenic wonders of the Gorge, land parcels immediately along the route were donated for recreational use. Private benefactors, the City of Portland, Multnomah County, and the U.S. Forest Service all made land available for a series of public recreation areas. [144] Thus, the Eagle Creek Forest Camp, promoted by the Portland Chamber of Commerce and the Progressive Business Men's Club, is the first Forest Service recreation area specifically designed for automobile camping in the United States. Albert Wiesendanger, the first Recreation

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[142] Dwight A. Smith, *Columbia River Highway Historic District: Nomination of the Old Columbia River Highway in the Columbia Gorge to the National Register of Historic Places*. Salem, Or: Environmental Section, Technical Services Branch, Oregon State Highway Division, Oregon Dept. of Transportation, 1984., 55-56.

[143] Ibid., 64-65.

[144] Ibid., 67.

Forest Ranger for the Forest Service, took charge of the campground, leveling tent sits, building trails, and constructing utilitarian furniture for camper use. He stated later that, "because the area was so readily accessible and popular, the new camping area could not be merely another undeveloped site set aside for the use of campers… At Eagle Creek, for the first time, the Forest Service undertook the construction of a public campground in the modern sense." [145]

Eagle Creek Forest Camp: 1916-1936

The Eagle Creek Campground was dedicated in July of 1916. From available period plans and historic photographs, the camp and road system was situated adjacent to the north side of Eagle Creek, on and surrounding a knoll (refer to appropriate Appendix A maps and images).

Photographs and plans reveal that structures included a Craftsman style toilet, a hiker register (for the Eagle Creek Trail, also constructed in conjunction with the campground), a ranger station, garage and storehouse, and two tent frames. The toilet was constructed with consideration for aesthetic appearance, with a side-oriented, cross-gabled roof, and decorative braces supporting non-structural trusses under the gable ends. The foundation was constructed of local basalt rock, with clapboard exterior sheathing, and a wood shingle roof. Exposed rafter tails existed under the eaves, with decorative, dimensional lumber stick screening beyond the gable ends, framing the side entrances to the restrooms. Since the toilet was the most prominent structure in the campground,

[145] Gerald W. Williams, *The U.S. Forest Service in the Pacific Northwest: A History*. (Corvallis: Oregon State University Press, 2009), 95.

immediately visible from the Columbia River Highway, it is reasonable to assume that the Forest Service made some effort to provide a visually comfortable design.

In contrast to the toilet, however, photographs reveal that camper amenities were utilitarian in appearance, with little consideration of rustic aesthetics. Based on photographs, it appears that camp stoves were constructed of two types: basalt block bases, with board-formed concrete fireboxes, and steel plate cooking surfaces topped with sheet metal stovepipe chimneys, or were small, self-contained steel fireboxes.

Picnic tables and benches were also utilitarian in appearance, constructed of dimensional lumber. Camping and picnic areas indicate heavy use, through visible evidence of compacted, barren soil as early as 1922. The heavy use was due to easy access via the Columbia River Highway. Based on the campground distance of 40 miles from Portland, with the maximum speed limit of 25 miles per hour on the highway, a 2-hour drive, more or less, would put the greater metropolitan area of Portland within easy driving distance.

Eagle Creek Forest Camp: 1936-1960

In 1936, the Cascade Locks Civilian Conservation Corps Camp began improving the existing recreation area at the Eagle Creek Forest Camp (refer to appropriate Appendix A maps and images). [146] Based on the design aesthetic of the time, recreation structures and amenities on public lands shifted from a utilitarian appearance to more rustic, meaning, designed to blend with the local environment by construction of native materials. The camping and picnic areas were separated, with the picnic area taking over

[146] Alison T. Otis, *The Forest Service and the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-42*. [Washington, D.C.]: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Forest Service, 1986., 46.

the existing 1916 developments. A road was constructed from the picnic area (using an existing dead-end road) uphill to a temporary housing site for the engineers involved in the construction of Bonneville Dam (1934-1938). This temporary housing area was reconstructed to house the new camping-only area. The craftsman style public toilet was replaced with a Cascadian rustic style restroom, from Plan #923 in the Forest Service's Region 6 *Recreation Plans Handbook*. The restroom consists of a square plan, with gabled projections delineating the separate entrances. The battered stone base is topped with carved square posts situated between six-light hopper windows. Additionally, a rectangular community kitchen shelter and a hiker register, with a massive, battered stone base, and heavy rustic log construction, along with a rustic stone and wood trail sign formed a portal to the Eagle Creek Trail. Rustic masonry camp stoves and water dispensers were constructed throughout the picnic areas and campground.

During this period, the campground layout follows Dr. Emilio Meinecke's plan of a looped road system, with garage spurs leading off at angles. The plan indicates existing camp stoves to be realigned with depicted improvements, as well as three existing frame houses to be removed. Three smaller, existing toilets were to be replaced with one centralized restroom, with an axial path system branching out to cover four areas of the loop. For this design, 15 campsites were proposed.

Overall, Eagle Creek improvements during this period reveal the aesthetic tastes of rustic architecture, utilized from the Recreation Plans Handbook. Additionally, between 1936-1960, the Cascade Fish Hatchery was constructed to the north of the campground parking area, as indicated on plans. It was also during this period that the Columbia River Highway began to feel the strain of increasing automobile traffic and

larger motor vehicle sizes. Engineers discussed a water level road routing that would be more efficient at handling traffic, while leaving the original highway as the scenic route. As early as 1935, the section of the Columbia River Highway between Bonneville Dam and Cascade Locks (where the Eagle Creek Forest Camp is located) was shifted, and the old highway left in place for future use as a scenic trail. [147] While no additional information was found regarding this event, it is very likely that the historical significance of the Columbia River Highway, as well as the recreation focus of the Columbia River Gorge compelled the powers that be to set aside portions of decommissioned highway aside for future recreational uses. Through the 1950s-60s, larger sections were abandoned, as construction of I-80N (now I-84) replaced the former route. In 2000, the federal government designated 51 of the remaining 55 miles of the Columbia River Highway as a National Historic Landmark, thus bringing attention to the historic significance of the highway and the region. [148]

Eagle Creek Forest Camp: 1960-Present

Overall changes in the campground and surrounding area between 1960 and the present appear to be minimal, based upon a combination of plans, photographs, and Forest Service campground directories (refer to appropriate Appendix A maps and images). The campground directory for 1962-63 revealed 10 tent camping sites, 5 trailer

[147] Oregon. *Historic Columbia River Highway Master Plan*. [Salem, Or.]: Oregon Dept. of Transportation, 2006., 14.

[148] Ibid., 16

camping sites, and 51 picnic sites. [149] Amenities included the community kitchen, piped water, and flush toilets, and these conditions largely remained stable through the last available directory, from 1974-75. Between 1968-70, all facilities were closed due to construction work along Interstate Highway 80N (now I-84). [150]

Although the construction of Interstate 84 has facilitated much easier access from the Greater Portland area (drive times are now cut to approximately one hour, based on speed limits) Eagle Creek largely retains its overall character and appearance from the 1930s-era developments, although the 1916 circulation system in the existing picnic area largely remains intact. Other modernizations include: paving throughout the campground, the addition of steel grilles in some portions of the picnic area, a newer restroom in the campground area, and the addition of a road segment along the initial portion of the Eagle Creek Trail alignment (this eliminated the portal at the CCC-era hiker register and trail sign, although both still exist in the original location). No documentation exists to accurately track when these changes occurred. One major difference is the constant sound of freeway traffic that is especially loud in the camping area.

Summary of Existing Conditions and Significance

The development of the Eagle Creek Forest Camp has evolved approximately 95 years to its present condition and configuration (refer to appropriate Appendix A maps

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[149] United States. *Forest Camping in Oregon; Directory of National Forest Camps, 1960-1961*. [N.p.]: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Forest Service, Pacific Northwest Region., no page number.

[150] United States. *Forest Camping in Oregon; Directory of National Forest Camps, 1970-1971*. [N.p.]: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Forest Service, Pacific Northwest Region.

and images). The campground is situated in Multnomah County, in Section 22 of Township 2 North, Range 7 East, of the Willamette Meridian.

Overall, the camp is divided into two areas separated by elevation: the day use facilities are concentrated in lower areas (by the creek), and the campground constructed on a knoll above Interstate 84 and the Columbia River. Historic features are concentrated in the lower area and include: rustic masonry camp stoves, masonry water spigots, a community kitchen shelter, hiker register, and restroom adjacent to the parking lot. Additional features are rustic masonry retaining walls, steps, and pathways. There are no electrical hookups at day-use areas or the campground; however, the restrooms in each area have electricity provided. The campground offers one masonry camp stove, unused and overgrown among the existing campsites, as well as an abandoned masonry water spigot. Additional masonry water spigots near the restroom, and near sites 5, 11, and 17 are likely historic, but this needs to be determined. Additionally, there is a historic rustic rock retaining wall alongside the roadway. A comparison of two plans in the campground suggest that the layout of the garage spurs was changed at some time between the 1930s and 1969, although no additional documentation has been located to confirm this supposition. The evidence of the stove and water spigot suggest a layout change, as well as rectangular-shaped areas of *Vinca major* (big leaf periwinkle) and *Geranium robertarium* (Robert geranium), planted adjacent to the loop road, that appear to be in the shape of garage spurs. Both *Vinca* and *Geranium* are not native to the United States (both have European origins) and it is assumed that they were planted as groundcovers when the garage spurs were altered; however further investigation is needed in this area. Additional alterations are undocumented; however the restroom

likely replaced an earlier version. Modern steel fire rings and picnic tables exist at each of the 18 sites, along with modern picnic tables. All roads and garage spurs are paved with asphalt. Barriers include placed boulders and four-square wooden posts. An amphitheatre, which is not historic (as determined from available plans) exists on a side trail off the Buck Point Trail.

Overall, based on existing fieldwork and historic evidence, the majority of existing historic features within the camp date from Civilian Conservation Corps improvements from the 1936 period. Collectively, these features exist in the full range of conditions: good/fair/poor and are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

Spatial Organization and Land Patterns

Eagle Creek Forest Camp is oriented along the north side of Eagle Creek at two elevations: a lower elevation knoll encompasses the day use facilities, main parking lot, and restrooms. Access to the main camp is provided from Interstate Highway 84 (eastbound only), exit 41, via a two-way road, leading west off of a short segment of the Historic Columbia River Highway. A loop road encircles the knoll, with a lower road extending immediately along the creek to an additional parking area where the Eagle Creek Trail begins. An upper road, marked by heavy wooden gates, extends from the upper part of the main day-use area loop along the face of a steep slope, and switchbacks up to the camping area. The camping area is situated on a higher, wooded knoll overlooking the Columbia River. The campground is organized around a one-way loop road with 18 sites created via angled garage spurs.

Overall, the spatial organization of the Eagle Creek Forest Camp reveals the changes in the physical layout over time: the physical layout of the lower road loop was

retained from the initial campground period of development (1916-1936), with widening and paving being the major changes. The Civilian Conservation Corps moved the campground up on higher terrain, in 1937 once the Bonneville Dam project was finished, utilizing a former housing site created for dam project engineers, and replaced most of the utilitarian recreation facilities with rustic ones. One major loss occurring in the spatial organization was the elimination of the direct connection with Eagle Creek as part of the Civilian Conservation Corps and later fish hatchery developments between the 1930s and 1960s. Overall, little has changed since the C.C.C. improvements, with the exception of campsite and circulation expansion during the early 1960s. At this point in time, any campground work occurring circa 1961 are technically not historic by strict National Register guideline interpretation (i.e., the "Fifty-Year" Rule); however, further research into the type and extent of these changes may be linked to Operation Outdoors activities (which was a significant national program in its own right) and conveys the importance of improving recreational facilities necessary for the increasing visitation numbers post-World War II. Regarding this issue, the fifty-year rule was originally put in place not as a hard and fast rule, but as a temporal filter for considering the historical significance of properties.

As John H. Sprinkle, Jr. notes, "Exceptions to the fifty-year threshold are important because these historic places become a precedent for the types of properties that will be considered important – once the age of a building or an event is no longer an issue." [151] With regards to this particular case, it is not difficult to prove the national significance and legacy of the Forest Service's Operation Outdoors Program; what may

[151] John H. Sprinkle, Jr. 2007. "Of Exceptional Importance": The Origins of the "Fifty-Year Rule" in Historic Preservation. *The Public Historian*. 29, no. 2: 81-103., 101-102.

be difficult is locating accurate historical data to link physical changes at Eagle Creek with this significance. Nonetheless, the spatial organization retains the integrity of location, design, feeling, and setting.

Topography

Based on a comparison of available plans, the Eagle Creek Forest Camp retains the same overall topography, despite slight human modifications over the past 95 years. The initial decisions for choosing the camp's location are unknown; it would be helpful to research this further, in order to reveal details that would better establish the significance of this particular setting, especially to the Historic Columbia River Highway, and to the Columbia River. However, the topography remains little altered since the camp's initial establishment, with the same basic landform patterns revealed in the upper and lower areas, altered by grading for circulation and recreational needs. The topography of the camp retains the integrity of location, and setting.

Vegetation

Vegetation within the camp is largely based on the Western Hemlock (*Tsuga heterophylla*) Zone, largely predominated by Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*), with snowberry (*Symphoricarpos albus*), Salal (*Gaultheria shallon*), Oregon Grape (*Beberis nervosa*), and Western Sword Fern (*Polystichum munitum*), occurring in the shrub and ground layers. [152] An area of tall Douglas-firs immediately in the vicinity of the lower restroom have been identified in a historic photograph as planted specifically by the Forest Service, and as such are considered historic cultural trees. Overall, the native

[152] Jerry F. Franklin and C.T. Dyrness. *Natural Vegetation of Oregon and Washington*. Corvallis, Or: Oregon State University Press., 1988., 70-80.

vegetation of large timber interspersed with the lower shrub layer is a significant character-defining feature of the camp that retain integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association.

Circulation

The Eagle Creek camp is composed of a main parking lot (adjacent to the fish hatchery) and two main loops two areas separated by elevation and connected by a switchback road. The main parking lot in the lower area has largely been retained from the 1916-1936 period, with the minimal alterations occurring when the national fish hatchery was constructed in the 1950s-60s. The parking lot and both loops are paved with asphalt (at an undocumented time) and have spurs to control automobile traffic within individual day-use or camping sites. Another terminating loop road, now abandoned, runs from the lower picnic area immediately behind the community kitchen shelter, climbing the slope to a graded area where an abandoned picnic table and rustic water dispenser exist. The road dates from the initial period (construction reasons unknown) but was developed as part of the day-use facilities during the C.C.C. era. Access to the main camp is provided from Interstate Highway 84 (eastbound only), exit 41, via a two-way road, leading west off of a short segment of the Historic Columbia River Highway. A loop road encircles the knoll, with a lower road extending immediately along the creek to an additional parking area where the Eagle Creek Trail begins.

Both loops are historically significant, as the lower loop (along with the terminating loop road in the lower area) essentially follows the route of the dirt road during the initial period (1916-1936), and is the only surviving landscape characteristic of

that era. The campground loop is historically significant as stemming from the campground planning and design work of Dr. Emilio Meinecke. These features were implemented by the C.C.C. during the 1930s, and expanded during the 1960s. Overall, the circulation system retains the integrity of location, setting, feeling, design, and association.

Water Features

Eagle Creek is the major water feature running along the western boundary of the site. Additionally, potable water is provided via a system of rustic and utilitarian dispensers throughout the site. A water system existed in the campground at the end of the initial period site plan, but it is unknown the extent of any possible upgrades or alterations to compare historical conditions to existing conditions. Between 1916-1936, the available campground plan depicted a "State Fountain" in the large parking area adjacent to the Columbia River Highway, a "Rock Fountain" immediately on the north side of the campground road along Eagle Creek, a "White Porcelain Fountain" near the portals to the Suspension Bridge and the beginning of the Eagle Creek Trail, and a "Spring" upslope, or on the north side of the upper campground road, just to the east of the Buck Rock trailhead. The spring drained into a wetland area, depicted on the map just to the south of the road. None of the early improvements appear to exist at the present time; however the wetland area and the spring do exist. Further archaeological work may prove otherwise. The rustic fountains that exist date from the Civilian Conservation Corps improvements from the mid-late 1930s; further investigation is warranted in both the lower and upper areas to determine if all are historical. Some of the fountains in the lower area are attached to the masonry stoves, but have been

disconnected. These rustic fountains range from good to poor condition, and convey the historic character of location, design, materials, feeling, and association.

Structures

The community kitchen shelter, lower area restroom, registry booth, trail portal sign, masonry retaining walls, and rustic water dispensers all remain from the post 1936 C.C.C. developments. The community kitchen shelter, registry booth, and trail portal sign exist in fair condition. No records have been located that describe any changes, alterations, or maintenance at specific points in time. Collectively, all of the constructed features convey the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

Site Furnishings and Objects

None of the utilitarian improvements remain from the initial period of development. All remaining C.C.C.-era rustic masonry cookstoves collectively exist in good, fair, or poor condition. Some appear to have been constructed around existing bedrock outcrops, which conveys the rustic design with nature concept prevalent during the 1930s. All remaining stoves are character-defining features that collectively convey significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

Campground B: McKee Bridge Day Use Area, Rogue River-Siskiyou National Forest

At present, the Rogue River-Siskiyou National Forest encompasses approximately 1.8 million acres and is, as the name suggests, the combination of the Rogue River and Siskiyou National Forests. The two forests were administratively combined in 2004.

Since the two campgrounds are located on the former Rogue River National Forest, the following history relates to that forest, and not the Siskiyou.

As with the origins of the National Forests in the Pacific Northwest, President Grover Cleveland established the Cascade and Ashland Forest Reserves in 1893. The first General Land Office rangers were hired in 1899 to patrol the South Division of the Cascade Forest Reserve (as it became known), with Nathaniel Langall appointed the first Supervisor of both the Cascade Forest Reserves (South Division) and the Ashland Forest Reserve. The Forest Headquarters was first established at the Prospect Hotel in Prospect, Oregon. During 1902, Smith C. Bartrum was appointed Forest Supervisor and the headquarters was shifted north to Roseburg. [153]

After the 1905 creation of the U.S. Forest Service within the Department of Agriculture, the Cascade (South) Forest Reserve was changed to Cascade (South) National Forest in 1907, and the Ashland Forest Reserve was changed to the Ashland National Forest. M. J. Anderson, the Supervisor of the Siskiyou National Forest (headquartered in Grants Pass) also took responsibility for the Ashland National Forest that same year. [154]

The Mazama National Forest (established in March 1908) was eventually renamed the Crater National Forest and comprised portions of the Cascade (South) and Ashland National Forests. C.J. Buck superseded Supervisor M. J Anderson as Supervisor

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[153] Jeffrey M. LaLande. *Rogue River Time-Line: A Chronology of the Rogue River National Forest and the Surrounding Area*. [Medford, Or.]: Rogue River National Forest, 1982.. 10.

[154] Jeffrey M. LaLande. *Rogue River Time-Line: A Chronology of the Rogue River National Forest and the Surrounding Area*. [Medford, Or.]: Rogue River National Forest, 1982.. 11.

in March 1908, and was superseded by Martin L. Erikson in November of 1908. Between 1908-1910, additional areas of the Applegate Ranger District (Ashland National Forest) became a part of the Crater National Forest. [155]

Between early personnel, administrative, and boundary changes, physical improvements began in earnest in 1910. In October and November of that year, the Forest Service improved ten miles of the Crater Lake Road, from the National Park Boundary to Union Creek, to include 2 ½ miles of new relocation (see Figure X). Over on what is now the Applegate Ranger District, the Star Ranger Station was constructed in 1911, and the Supervisor's Office was relocated to the Shemerhorn and Palm Building on South Fir Street in Medford. [156]

Recreational uses of the forest were identified as early as 1912. A Special Population Report for the Crater National Forest identified use statistics within National Forest boundaries, to include private inholdings as well. Recreational uses in the report identified 322 campers as part of a "Nomadic Population" on National Forest lands (with no explanation –the assumption might be people camping in dispersed, or non-formally designated areas) and listed 3,500 Campers (broken down into hunting, fishing, berry or nut picking, boating, bathing, climbing, etc), and 2,100 "Day visitors". [157]

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[155] Ibid.

[156] Carroll E. Brown. *History of the Rogue River National Forest, Oregon; Located in Jackson, Josephine, Klamath & Douglas Counties, Oregon; Siskiyou County, California*. Medford, Ore: U.S. Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest], 1960., 109.

[157] Carroll E. Brown. *History of the Rogue River National Forest, Oregon; Located in Jackson, Josephine, Klamath & Douglas Counties, Oregon; Siskiyou County, California*. Medford, Ore: U.S. Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest], 1960., 12.

As with other National Forests in the Region, recreational uses expanded following World War I. Between 1919-1922, the Union Creek resort was developing into a popular stopover (to Crater Lake National Park) along the Crater Lake Road. [158] The Union Creek area was initially surveyed during the summer of 1921 by Forest Examiner H.M. Johnson. The Forest Service recognized recreational use in the area, and "provisions were made for a large auto camp ground, another large area for campers with houses, a community house and playground including a baseball diamond, and (sic) area for Boy Scouts and about 35 summer homes." Additionally, the first Recreation Visitors Report of record was also made during this year, and distributed as follows:
36, 594 total recreation visitors, 28, 815 miscellaneous visitors, and the Union Creek Recreation Unit, 3,025. [159]

By 1922, the Forest Service issued a special use permit on January 11 to James E. Grieve of Prospect, Oregon to operate a resort at Union Creek ($50 per year), in order to provide public services to those traveling to Crater Lake National Park. Additional transportation improvements came to the region in 1923, with the completion of the Pacific Highway (Highway 99). With these road improvements came 48,885 recreation visitors to the forest, with over 25,000 at Union Creek and 1,275 on the Applegate District. [160]

Another Special Use Permit was issued to Ed. P. Beckelhymer for a repair shop at Union Creek ($10 per year) – again to provide public services to those traveling to Crater

[158] Ibid.

[159] Ibid., 205 and 209.

[160] Ibid., 213-219.

Lake National Park. By 1926, some 94,770 recreationists visited the forest, to include 10,825 campers, 7,500 picnickers, and 74,150 motorists. In 1928, there were 163,869 recreationists, with 3,010 campers, 8.757 picnickers and 140,317 motorists. Between 1928-30, recreational visitation increased by over 100,000 people: 12,100 campers, 10,750 picnickers and 236,006 motorists, for a total of 275,331 visitors. By 1931, the total rose to 302,815 visitors, with 12,875 campers and 9,320 picnickers. [161]

In 1932, Crater National Forest was renamed the Rogue River National Forest. Just one year later, the Civilian Conservation Corps established the first camp in Region Six, named Camp Applegate on the Seattle Bar (within the present-day Applegate Reservoir area), and recreation and forestry projects commenced. [162] Recreation visits totaled 199,486, with 13,487 campers, picnickers at 6,840 and motorists 171,459. [163]

Between 1934-38, the C.C.C. developed the recreation areas at Union Creek and McKee Bridge, and also constructed the administrative and residences at Union Creek. Karl L. Janouch replaced H.B. Rankin as the Forest Supervisor. Along the Crater Lake Highway, the Forest exchanged land with the Rogue River Timber Company, with the purpose of controlling a scenic strip (to avoid timber harvesting immediately along the roadside) for four miles along the Crater Lake Highway. [164]

1939-43 saw the beginning of massive timber sales on the Forest, especially in the Prospect Ranger District. Additionally, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers constructed

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[161] Ibid., the following statistics were compiled between pages 221-260.

[162] Ibid., 12.

[163] Ibid., 262.

[164] Ibid.

bridges across the Applegate Ranger District initially for training purposes, and then to sustain timber harvests during World War II. [165]

Between 1951-55, K.L Janouch was replaced by L.G. Jolley, and Jack Wood replaced Jolley the following year. In 1955 the Rogue River Basin experienced massive flooding, damaging many recreational sites, to include the McKee Bridge Forest Camp on the Applegate River. [166]

Between 1957-61, Carroll E. Brown became supervisor (1957), and the Operation Outdoors Program helped refurbish older recreation areas and create new areas on the Forest (although no specific recreation areas were noted). The Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act of 1960 formalizes the Forest Service land management philosophy and, with the increasing volumes of timber harvesting, timber access road construction accelerated well into the 1960s. [167]

In 1964, another massive flood damaged recreational facilities on the Applegate and Ashland Ranger Districts (to include McKee Bridge Forest Camp). By 1967, the Supervisor's Office was relocated to the new Federal Building in Medford. In 1969, the National Environmental Policy Act was passed and Harvey Seeley became the new Forest Supervisor. [168]

During the 1970s, the National Forest Management Act (1976) modified the land use planning and management practices on all National Forests, to include limiting the

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[165] Ibid.

[166] Ibid., 13.

[167] Ibid.

[168] Ibid.

size of clearcuts. Toward the end of the decade and into the early 1980s, historic preservation interests came to the forest, and the Union Creek Historic District was listed on the National Register of Historic Places. Overall, the Forest Service entered an era of reducing budgets, reduced timber harvesting, and increasingly computer-driven land management programs, most of which have continued to the present time. [169]

Site Description and History: The Development of the McKee Bridge Day Use Area

The McKee Bridge Day Use Area, situated along the Applegate River in the Rogue River-Siskiyou National Forest, is an example of a rurally located automobile accessible recreation area. Although the day use area exists in a rural region, it is only 20 miles from the Greater Medford area, 15 miles from the historic community of Jacksonville, and ten miles from the California border (Figure 7).

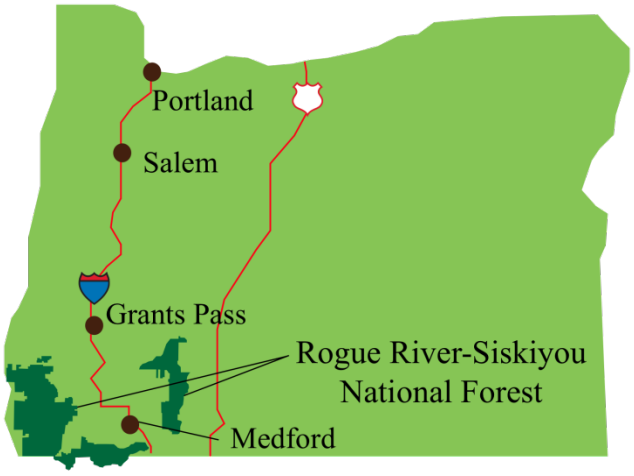

Figure 7: Rogue River-Siskiyou National Forest locus map.

[169] Ibid., 14.

The site encompasses 4 ½ acres, is triangular-shaped, and was originally constructed by the Civilian Conservation Corps (C.C.C.) as a campground between 1935-1937. [170] Period C.C.C. improvements included a community kitchen shelter, masonry camp stoves, a bark-covered bathhouse and restroom, picnic tables, and a rustic playground with swings and a slide. The bathhouse, restroom, playground equipment, and a majority of stoves and picnic tables have been removed or replaced. The site is listed on the National Register of Historic Places (NRIS Reference Number 00000516) since December 29, 2000, and is significant under Criteria A (Associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history) and Criteria C (Embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction – to include the field of Landscape Architecture). The Period of Significance is from 1936-1942, and its significance is directly associated with the Civilian Conservation Corps program of recreational development within the Rogue River National Forest (as named during that time period). [171]

McKee Bridge Site History

The Applegate River Valley is historically associated with agriculture and mining post-Western European settlement. As examples, in the vicinity of the McKee Bridge Day Use area, placer mining occurred between the 1850s-1860s, and hydraulic mining

[170] Katherine C. Atwood (for) USDA Forest Service. *McKee Bridge Campground: National Register Nomination*. Ashland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest., Section 7, Page 1.
[171] Ibid., Section 8, Page, 1.

occurred in the following two decades. [172] One particularly successful Chinese miner, Gin Lin, worked the area just upstream of the McKee Bridge crossing. [173] According to a 1981 Forest Service report for the site, hydraulic runoff from Chinese diggings across the present Applegate Road channeled out portions of the picnic site, which is concealed by vegetation but discernable. An irrigation ditch currently runs through the site paralleling the river, and was constructed by Patrick Swayne and his brother, with water rights dated to 1892. [174]

During the 1890s, Amos McKee settled on a 160-acre ranch immediately adjacent to the southern edge of the site. The Blue Ledge Mine Copper boom between 1905 and 1915-20 established regular stage service between the upper Applegate Valley and Jacksonville. As a result of regular stage service, Adelbert McKee, the son of Amos McKee donated a portion of his property for the development of a covered bridge across the Applegate River. In 1917, contractor Jason Hartman constructed a Howe-truss covered bridge, in order to facilitate traffic access to a less-hazardous route along the west riverbank. Since McKee Bridge was the halfway point between Jacksonville and the Blue Ledge Mine, Adlebert McKee developed a stage stop and restaurant at the

[172] Katherine C. Atwood (for) USDA Forest Service. *McKee Bridge Campground: National Register Nomination*. Ashland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest., Section 8, Page 2.

[173] Jurgen A. Hess, *McKee Bridge: Environmental Assessment and Design Narrative.* USDA Forest Service, Applegate Ranger District, Rogue River National Forest., 1981., 4.

[174] Ibid.

bridge, thus giving the site its name. A newer bridge replaced the covered bridge upstream, and the covered bridge was closed to automobile traffic in 1956. [175]

The Forest Service originally acquired the land (where the day use area is situated) in 1907, as part of the Ashland Forest Reserve. McKee Bridge became a popular swimming, camping site, and picnic area among local residents between Forest Service acquisition and the 1920s. The Forest Service did not formalize development of the site during this time, although recreationists created informal fire rings. [176]

The formal development of the site as a campground occurred from the efforts of Company 2700 of the Civilian Conservation Corps between 1935-37. [177] The enrollees involved were local Oregonians (that were replaced by another company in 1937) from one of the earliest camps in Region 6, Camp Applegate (F-41). [178] This development included a community kitchen shelter, bark-sided privies, bathhouse, masonry camp stoves, and barbeque/bonfire pits. The C.C.C. also constructed an impressive stone retaining wall along the river, with steps providing access between camp and river. This wall included a carved out, half-circle barbeque pit, for people to enjoy while facing the river. Additionally, they constructed a playground, enclosing fence, and entrance sign.

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[175] Katherine C. Atwood (for) USDA Forest Service. *McKee Bridge Campground: National Register Nomination*. Ashland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest., Section 8, Page 2.

[176] Ibid.

[177] Ibid., 5.

[178] Alison T. Otis, *The Forest Service and the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-42*. [Washington, D.C.]: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Forest Service, 1986., 45.

[179] It was noted by Gail Throop, U.S. Forest Service Regional Historian, that the McKee Bridge Forest Camp, "exemplified the Class "B" developed recreation site, accommodating between 500-5,000 visitors per year" according to the Recreation Plans Handbook. In 1938, the McKee Bridge Store was constructed by Harold Reed – an establishment that exists today, with several building addition accretions. The following summer, McKee Bridge had become popular with the citizens of Medford, seeking to escape summer heat. [180]

The camp remained popular during the 1940s and 1950s, however significant changes occurred. A massive flood damaged the site in 1954, and the Forest Service responded the following year by constructing concrete pier picnic tables to replace existing damaged wooden tables. Additionally, between the 1950s-60s, the privies, bathhouse, playground, and fence were removed. Another flood damaged the site in 1964, and this time, silted in the swimming hole. Recreationists began searching for better swimming locations upstream, and in 1965, the site changed to day use only. [181] It is unknown why the Forest Service changed use designations at the site.

Based on available records, the earliest Forest Service description of the McKee Bridge region came from a circa 1915-16 Fire Plan report (reports were completed for each Ranger District on the forest). Although the report stems from the perspective of fire-related interests, there are broad descriptions of topography, vegetation,

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[179] Katherine C. Atwood (for) USDA Forest Service. *McKee Bridge Campground: National Register Nomination*. Ashland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest., Section 8, Page 5.

[180] Ibid., Section 8, Page 3.

[181] Ibid.

transportation, recreation, and a local public perception of the Forest Service. Quoted at length:

> This district possesses the least resources of any district on the Forest and at the same time in proportion to its area possesses the greatest fire risk. Brush, down logs, steep slopes, and dry climate all tend to make the fire risk dangerous. One compensating feature is that the public sentiment is, generally, in this district with us. A few outsiders come in who might leave fires or start fire purposely. Camping is not common because there is not enough timber to furnish the necessary shade. …The country has to be protected because of the water flow and because young timber is in many places coming up through the dense brush. A main road follows the Applegate River and another road extends on the Thompson Creek site, affording pretty good communication by wagon. Trails are fairly numerous, and inaccessibility is not a question causing worry. It is proposed to construct a trail and telephone line to Palmer Peak and station a lookoutman there. From this point most of the area can be seen. In addition to this, a patrolman is needed along the lower slopes of the Applegate River, … It is pretty easy to secure a crew of 8 to 10 fire fighters in this district because the settlers are always anxious to secure work. [182]

A forest fire history report was compiled by Forest Examiner Harold D. Foster on June 22, 1916. [183] The report provided a useful depiction of vegetation for the McKee Bridge area ("Big Applegate, Dist. 7"):

> The timber in this district is scattered. It grows only in clumps and isolated watersheds, particularly on north slopes where it has escaped the ravages of forest fires. Practically all of the district has been burned over from time to time during the past one hundred years and many areas are entirely denuded except for Manzanita, chaparral, and chemise brush (Adenostoma fasciculatum –author's input), which always comes in after burns….In the lower Big Applegate the hills are rugged and steep, ranging in altitude from 2,000 to 5,500 feet. They have mostly been burned over 30 to 50 years ago and present on the south and west slopes barren brushy areas. These areas afford no grazing except early spring feed and are worthless for any purpose except to conserve the moisture and for the protection of timber. All evidence points to the fact that they once were heavily timbered with pine and fir.

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[182] Carroll E. Brown. *History of the Rogue River National Forest, Oregon; Located in Jackson, Josephine, Klamath & Douglas Counties, Oregon; Siskiyou County, California*. Medford, Ore: U.S. Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest], 1960., 142.

[183] Ibid., 159.

> The Big Applegate River valley supports a dense population and much good agricultural land is dependent upon the streams for irrigation water. The brush-covered hillsides exercise a large influence on holding the water from making spring freshets and keeping the streams alive during the dry summer months when irrigation is needed. From that standpoint alone the brush-covered hills are worth protecting. Because of the inflammable brush and the high winds occurring nearly every afternoon, the district presents a high risk. [184]

Of note, on this District, a table cites lightning as causing 18 fires between 1915-1916 and campers as the next highest number (14 fires). [185]

Summary of Existing Conditions and Significance

The development of the McKee Bridge Day Use area has evolved approximately 76 years to its present condition and configuration (refer to appropriate Appendix B maps and images). The site exists within the NW ¼ of the NW ¼, of Section 4, Township 40 South, Range 3 West, at approximately 1,600' in elevation. The site is abutted on the north and west sides by private property. [186] The McKee Bridge store is adjacent to the northwest corner of the site. The private land to the west of the site is residential.

Overall, there are no formally delineated picnic areas within the site (or historic evidence of camping areas, as defined by garage spurs). Picnic tables simply mark areas to sit. One modern steel fire ring exists next to a modern elevated charcoal fire grill at the southernmost end of the site. An electrical hookup exists adjacent to the community kitchen shelter. A dual toilet exists to the west of the Civilian Conservation Corps-era community kitchen shelter. The Dual toilet on site is a Romtec (pre-engineered building products based on Roseburg, Oregon), installed circa 2000. It exists on the site of one of

[184] Ibid., 167.

[185] Ibid.

[186] Ibid.

two vault toilets that replaced the originals in the 1960s. The other 1960s era vault toilet was in the location where the camp host exists at present.

Restoration work was being done to four of the remaining five camp stoves, and construction of a fence atop the retaining wall were in progress at the time of the site visit in late October 2010. Additionally, as part of the same contract, restoration work had been completed on the community kitchen shelter camp stoves.

Past Documented Conditions

The 1981 *McKee Bridge: Environmental Assessment and Design Narrative* report noted the following existing developments and condition:

Oiled Roadway
Natural surface parking for 27 vehicles
Overflow for 23 vehicles
Periphery fences on the north and west sides
Three, 2-fixture vault toilets
Two cattleguards
Domestic water well and distribution
CCC Community Kitchen
42 picnic tables
11 CCC campstoves
4 fireplaces
5 irrigation ditch bridges
Well and pump house
Various barriers, and miscellaneous facilities [187]

As of 1981, the CCC facilities were in disrepair. The community kitchen needed uprights and supports, camp stoves needed remortaring; specifically camp stoves 3, 4, 8 needed minor remortaring, but stoves 1,2,5,6,7,9 were in fair to poor condition. Original fireboxes were not intact and most of the doors have been removed. The rock retaining

[187] Jurgen A. Hess, *McKee Bridge: Environmental Assessment and Design Narrative.* USDA Forest Service, Applegate Ranger District, Rogue River National Forest., 1981., 9.

walls and steps need rock remortaring. One of the irrigation bridges needed a new stringer. [188]

Spatial Organization and Land Patterns

At the site scale, the overall spatial configuration of the McKee Bridge Day Use area consists of two unimproved road loops: the main loop leads into the site closest to the McKee Bridge, parallels the river, and curves back to the west beyond the community kitchen shelter and exits the site. A second loop begins where the road curves to the west, continues to parallel the river, and then curves around, paralleling itself before returning to the main loop by the host site. Access to the site is provided by the historical road that utilized the McKee Bridge. Where the road dead-ends at the bridge, the main entrance to the site exists on the north side of the road. There are no specifically marked recreation sites as defined by garage spurs; mass parking is provided in an open area parallel to the river at the beginning of the second loop. Historically, the road loops were designated one way; combined with natural barricades (not historic), the overall configuration conveys the historical significance of the campground as design characteristics of Emilio Meiniecke's campground planning and design work. Additionally, land uses of the Applegate River Valley in the area of the site are dominated by agricultural uses, which are sympathetic with historical land use.

For significance, the land patterns within and surrounding the site are character-defining features, and display historic characteristics of location, setting, feeling, and association, as recreational processes continue on-site, and resource-based processes continue in the surrounding area.

[188] Ibid., 10

Topography

The site sits on a flat alluvial terrace on the west side of, (and formed by) the Applegate River. On the opposite side of the river, a steep cliff approximately 100 feet high accentuates the ruggedness of the topography in the area – which is a part of the Klamath Physiographic Province, an area of steep mountains. [189] The site is significant for remaining on this alluvial terrace in a formalized capacity since 1936, and retains integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association.

Vegetation

Native trees dominate the site, with the overstory composed largely of Ponderosa Pine (*Pinus ponderosa*). Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*), Pacific Madrone (*Arbutus menziesii*), Oregon White Oak (*Quercus garryana*), Canyon Live Oak (*Quercus chrysolepis*), Big Leaf Maple (*Acer macrophyllum*) and Incense-cedar (*Calocedrus decurrens*) are also present. Along the riparian corridor, alder is dominant. Shrubs are composed of Greenleaf Manzanita (*Arctostaphylor patula*), Himalayan Blackberry (*Rubus armeniacus*), Thimbleberry (*Rubus parviflorous*), and Poison Oak (*Toxicodendron diversilobum*). [190] The native vegetation and open, park-like arrangement of vegetation in the former camping area, and more dense vegetation along the riparian corridor are significant character-defining features that retain integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association.

[189] Ibid., 6.

[190] Ibid., 8.

Circulation

At the site scale, the overall spatial configuration of the McKee Bridge Day Use Area consists of a one-way, unimproved road loop that enters the site near the covered bridge, and parallels the irrigation ditch/Applegate River before curving to the west and exiting the site. Another unimproved road loop continues following the ditch before looping around, paralleling itself and exiting back on the main loop near the present day camp host site. County Road 859 (Upper Applegate Road), an improved road provides access to the site from the California border (from the south), and the small community of Ruch (from the north), where it junctions with State Highway 238 (238 connects with Jacksonville, and ultimately Interstate 5 and the Greater Medford area). Overall, the looped circulation patterns (historically way) convey the historical significance of the campground as design characteristics of Emilio Meiniecke's campground planning and design work in location, design, setting, feeling, and association.

Water Features

The Applegate River is the major water feature that runs along the southern boundary of the site. Additionally, an irrigation ditch parallels the river (situated on a higher terrace) through the site. Patrick Swayne and his brother constructed the irrigation ditch, with water rights dated to 1892. [191] The Applegate Dam, completed in the early 1980s, has significantly affected seasonal hydrologic flows and overall water temperature (water temperatures are much colder at present). Previous to construction, the Rogue River basin (of which the Applegate River is a tributary of) had a history of regular

[191] Ibid.

floods. The most recent floods of record occurred in 1955, 1964, and 1974. All of these floods inundated the day use area above the rock retaining wall. A capped, mortared stone water well exists approximately 50 feet east of the community kitchen shelter, and, although no longer used, remains in good condition. [192]

Overall, the stone water well and especially the irrigation ditch are significant cultural landscape features to the site. The stone well, although no longer used conveys the historic character of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. The irrigation ditch conveys location, design, setting, feeling, workmanship, and association.

Structures

The National Register lists the community kitchen shelter, riverbank retaining wall, barbeque pit, community bonfire ring, fire ring, water well, and 11 camp stoves as contributing features that all stem from C.C.C. development. The community kitchen measures 18 by 35 feet, and is constructed of peeled logs, arranged using post and beam construction. One of the most significant and unique design features of the community kitchen shelter is the purlins, where the ends have been carved with the likeness of the Forest Service shield. No other Forest Service structure has been located during the course of this study (to date) that displays this feature.

The shelter contains three cook stoves, which have been rehabilitated. The rockwork does not match the original layout based on historic photographs, especially where the original design had rockwork "jutting out" to frame each stove door. The stove plates match historic models from the photographs, however the doors denote the US

[192] Ibid.

Forest Service shield, as opposed to the original "Please Burn All Garbage Completely" as indicated in historical images. According to John McKelligott, Forest Service Outdoor Recreation Planner (who was onsite at the time of the field visit) indicated that a conscious decision was made by the Forest Service to incorporate the shield, as packaging and waste technology has evolved to include disposable diapers, synthetics, and plastics. When the stoves were initially designed, paper and metal products were the norm.

The National Register nomination also indicated that a sink, evident from historic photographs on the north side railing (sunk into a thick wooden slab counter) had been removed. Also removed (not indicated in the National Register) was the log ridgepole. Also, of the three split-log picnic tables in the shelter, two are original C.C.C. construction.

Overall, the community kitchen shelter conveys the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association. It is in good condition, although some of the purlins are in transition to fair condition.

The retaining wall along the riverbank is also listed as a significant contributing feature. The wall is constructed of native argillite/phyllite/schist from bedrock and alluvial deposits removed from the riverbed and mortared. The wall measures roughly 200 feet long, and extends from a point near the McKee Bridge northerly along the riverbank to a point just beyond the barbeque pit. Varying from five to eight feet in height, the wall has three sets of stone steps that connect the day-use area to the

riverbank. [193] Atop the wall, low projecting concrete pedestals originally supported low, horizontal peeled log railings; however, these were removed at the time of the site visit and were being replaced by dimensional wooden fencing.

The barbeque pit consists of a semicircular, mortared cobble alcove, measuring 15 feet by 10 feet by 8 feet deep, excavated into the riverbank terrace. Just to the north, a rock cobble stairwell, consisting of twenty steps, provides access from the recreation area to the riverbank. Within the alcove, an elevated, mortared barbeque pit exists in the center, and a raised masonry bench exists along the semicircle.

A community bonfire ring is situated some 150' southeast of the shelter, and exists within a semi-circular, six-foot deep excavation into the terrace. The circular, mortared rock fire ring is approximately four feet in diameter and six inches high. [194] Another fire ring exists in close proximity to the Swayne Irrigation Ditch, and is composed of circular, four-foot diameter mortared rock. This ring has a metal pipe with two pot hook extensions.

Collectively, all of the constructed features convey the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

Site Furnishings and Objects

The site has five rustic basalt camp stoves, four of which were recently restored for interpretive display use only. The fifth stove exists in poor condition across the irrigation ditch at the extreme north end of the site. At the time of the National Register

[193] Katherine C. Atwood (for) USDA Forest Service. *McKee Bridge Campground: National Register Nomination*. Ashland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest., Section 7, Page 2.

[194] Ibid., Section 7, Page 3.

Nomination (1999-2000), there were eleven mortared rock camp stoves in two linear clusters on either side of the Swayne Irrigation Ditch. Six stoves were located on the former campground side of the ditch (west), and five located along the east side (closest to the river) of the ditch. Seven stoves were made from cut, fitted angular native stone, and four composed of rounded mortared river cobble. [195] The stoves ranged from good to fair condition, with two stoves in poor condition. At present, only five stoves total exist. At the time of the site visit, informal conversations with the workers indicated that the remains of stoves in poor condition (as well as rock pieces on the ground) were used to restore the remaining stoves. The presence of the remaining restored rustic camp stoves, along with the original stove in poor condition convey the feeling of change over time, and, collectively convey significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association. Collectively, all of the constructed features convey the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

[195] Ibid.

Campground C: Union Creek Campground, Rogue River-Siskiyou National Forest

The Union Creek Campground is situated along Oregon State Road 62 in the Rogue River-Siskiyou National Forest, and was constructed by the C.C.C. between 1934-37 on the site of an early informal camping area. It is an example of a rurally located, automobile accessible, resort recreation area. The resort area, a popular stopover on the way to Crater Lake National Park, exists approximately 57 miles from Medford, Oregon and 25 miles from the Crater Lake National Park rim development.

Since October of 1980, the campground has been listed on the National Register of Historic Places as a component of the Union Creek National Historic District, which encompasses 60 historically-contributing features, to include the following: three campgrounds, the Union Creek resort complex, a Forest Service administrative complex, traces of three historic roads and two historic trails, a winter recreation area, three tracts of recreational homes, and the Upper Rogue Civilian Conservation Corps Camp (C.C.C.) site. [196]

The Union Creek National Historic District is significant under Criteria A (Associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history) and Criteria C (Embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction – to include the field of Landscape Architecture). The Period of Significance is from 1900-1942, and its significance is directly associated with the

[196] Gail E. Throop. *Union Creek Historic District: National Register Nomination*. Portland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest, 1980, Section 7 (Description), 1.

Civilian Conservation Corps program of recreational development within the Rogue River National Forest (as the forest was named during that time period). [197]

Site Description and History: The Development of the Union Creek Area

Union Creek developed as a recreation site largely due to its geographic situation along the only feasible travel route over the Cascades along the Rogue River. The earliest documented route in this vicinity was the Jacksonville-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road, (also known as the Union Creek Trail), constructed in 1865. Open for most of the year, this route offered improved communication, commerce, and military defense between the Rogue Valley and the Upper Klamath Basin. Mid to late 19th century journey descriptions cite Union Creek as a convenient resting place. [198]

Toward the end of the 19th century, the Rogue Valley inhabitants identified Union Creek as a scenic fishing and camping place. After the land came under the jurisdiction of the U.S. Forest Service, recreation increased - - especially after 1910, when the wagon road was improved to accommodate automobile traffic. Recreational uses expanded following World War I, following the larger developments of the Good Roads Movement, and the Crater Lake Road (now Route 62) was improved to a two-lane highway, (either following or closely-following the 1865 Military Wagon Road), and was eventually paved in 1930. [199]

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[197] Ibid., Section 8, 1.

[198] Ibid.

[199] Ibid.

1920s

Under Forest Service jurisdiction, the earliest documented developments occurred during the summer of 1921, when Crater National Forest Examiner Herman M. Johnson commenced initial survey work on the Union Creek and Lake of the Woods recreation areas. His plan identified discrete areas for Boy Scout use, three recreational home tracts, the Union Creek Ranger Station, a public campground, and commercial uses. [200] The only man-made features depicted in the public campground area are two unimproved roads that follow along the north and south side of Union Creek, with one bridge crossing approximately 450 feet west of the public highway. The north road converges on an identified "falls" area of Union Creek, while the southern road has a branch that terminates at the falls, with no bridge crossing identified. The southern road along Union Creek leads west down near the confluence of Union Creek and the Rogue River. Additionally, the site plan also offers a broad description of forest vegetation: on the north side of Union Creek, "Open Timber and Brush" is indicated, while "Open Yellow Pine and Dense Brush" is indicated on the south side of the creek.

Fredrick William Cleator, the Regional Recreation Examiner and Lee Brown completed a Recreation Unit Plan in 1923 for the Union Creek Recreation Unit. This plan considered location, accessibility, climate, topography, grazing, timber, reservoir, water, wildlife, and fire values for the purpose of classifying appropriate land uses. [201]

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[200] Carroll E. Brown. *History of the Rogue River National Forest, Oregon; Located in Jackson, Josephine, Klamath & Douglas Counties, Oregon; Siskiyou County, California*. Medford, Ore: U.S. Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest], 1960, 205-209.

[201] Gail E. Throop. *Union Creek Historic District: National Register Nomination*. Portland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest, 1980, Section 10,16-19.

This report recognized steadily increasing recreational use at the site due to its close proximity to Medford (an approximately three-hour drive) and Crater Lake National Park. [202] One photograph reveals that the Forest Service formalized campground developments at Union Creek, through improved utility masonry camp stoves, but information on the number of campsites, or small-scale physical features (such as camp stoves) is limited during this time.

The development of the resort area began in earnest in 1922. The Forest Service issued a Special Use Permit on January 11 to James E. Grieve of Prospect, Oregon to operate a resort at Union Creek ($50 per year), for the purpose of providing public services to those traveling to and from Crater Lake National Park. Visitation numbers increased in to 25,000 visitors at Union Creek during the 1923 season, partly due to the completion of the Pacific Highway (now Highway 99). That same year, another Special Use Permit was issued to Ed. P. Beckelhymer for a repair shop at Union Creek for enhanced public services to Crater Lake National Park travelers. [203]

1930s

In 1932, Crater National Forest was renamed the Rogue River National Forest, and just one year later, the C.C.C. established the first camp in Region Six, named Camp Applegate on the Seattle Bar (within the present-day Applegate Reservoir area). [204] C.C.C. enrollees working on the developments in the Union Creek area were established

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[202] Ibid.

[203] Ibid., 213-221.

[204] Ibid., 221.

at the Upper Rogue Camp, just south of the Union Creek Campground. It is unclear if this camp was permanent, or established as a side camp to be used during the summer months only, but it is suggested that the Seattle Bar camp was permanent based on available sources. [205]

Although records indicate Union Creek camp construction between 1934-36, the earliest available Union Creek site plan dates from 1937. Constructed to accommodate 60 camping units, the camp had 28 developed sites, each oriented to the creek, and improved with "Rogue River" style rustic masonry camp stoves and picnic tables. Access to each campsite was provided by a garage spur arrangement, or pull-through drive. Total, there were five pull-through sites with the remainder garage spurs. Additional features in the site plan are water hydrants, garbage cans, pit toilets, four bridges and two, "footlogs" (for foot traffic only). Immediately along both sides of the creek, the "Union Creek Recreation Trail" is depicted. A playground area is also depicted immediately to the west of the Crater Lake Highway, between Union Creek and the south road alignment. A picnic area was developed along the north side of the creek, in an area closest to, but set back from the highway (behind an area denoted "Beckelhymer Special Use").

The 1937 plan reveals that the Forest Service took advantage of the available roads along Union Creek, and modified them for construction of the circulation system in the campground. The north and south road alignments are followed for the most part, with a section along the north road revealed as "Old Roads – Abandon" in the plan

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[205] See, Gail E. Throop. *Union Creek Historic District: National Register Nomination*. Portland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest, 1980, and Alison T. Otis, *The Forest Service and the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-42*. [Washington, D.C.]: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Forest Service, 1986.

legend. Evidence of former garage spurs and pull-throughs are depicted on both sides of the river. Overall, a there are a series of six loops off the north and south access roads, and follow the campground planning and design philosophy of Dr. Emilio Meinecke.

Post World War II

Additional changes were made to the campground during the 1960s, perhaps as a result of the nationwide Operation Outdoors Program (1957-1967), although no documentation has been located to prove this. Site plans that date from the 1961-62 timeframe (approved in 1963) reveal the circulation layout that best resembles current conditions. Major circulation improvements include three loops along the north side of the river, and an additional loop at the western end of the southern road. Additionally, campgrounds were proposed along the loops and along the north/south roads, oriented away from the river. Also proposed were the removal of pit toilets, and the installation of a new bridge across the creek that would connect the north and south roads at a point beyond the first campsite loop on the southern road. No further evidence has been located to accurately document changes at Union Creek after the 1960s.

Summary of Existing Conditions and Significance

The development of the Union Creek Campground has evolved approximately 90 years to its present condition and configuration (refer to appropriate Appendix C maps and images). The campground exists in Jackson County, in Section 3 of Township 31 South, Range 3 East, of the Willamette Meridian.

Overall, twenty-three campsites form the historic core of the camp, identified by rustic masonry camp stoves. The remainder of the sites have angled steel fireplaces (the majority of historic sites have had these installed as well). There are no electrical

hookups or showers in the camp. Piped water is dispensed via utilitarian spigots throughout the site. An adjacent picnic area supports a community kitchen shelter, constructed in 1935 by the C.C.C., a combination registry booth-comfort station, and a community bonfire ring. [206]

Spatial Organization and Land Patterns

The Union Creek Campground extends in a rough east-west axis along the north and south banks of Union Creek in a series of loops, where each loop has angled "garage spurs" to control automobile traffic within individual camping sites. The historic campsites are marked by rustic camp stoves and are oriented to Union Creek. Campsites added during the 1960s are typically oriented away from the creek. Access to the campground is provided by a two-way road leading west off of Route 62, just to the south of the resort complex. More modern, heavy-gauge steel gates mark access to the campground proper.

Overall, the spatial organization of the Union Creek Campground has changed little since the C.C.C. improvements, with the exception of campsite and circulation expansion during the early 1960s. 1930s design aesthetics, built upon the work of Emilio Meinecke are revealed through the twenty-three remaining historic campsites, all oriented along Union Creek. The early 1960s expansion, although not technically considered historic due to the 50-year rule, reveals the expansion necessary for post World War II expanding recreation numbers. The spatial organization of the site is historically significant from the C.C.C. era, and, within two years the spatial organization from the 1963 could be considered historic within the 50-year rule.

[206] Ibid., Section 7, 8-9.

For significance, the land patterns within and surrounding the site are character-defining features, and display historic characteristics of location, setting, feeling, and association, as recreational processes continue on-site, and resource-based processes continue in the surrounding area.

Topography

Within the Union Creek Historic District, the Rogue River (North Fork) demarcates the line between the older Western Cascades and the younger High Cascades; both areas reveal different topography. [207] The geologic landforms of the historic district are composed of valley train deposits created by glacial and fluvial action, modified by Rogue River erosion over time, and pumice deposits from the final stages of Mount Mazama eruptions. [208] The topography of the area has changed little in terms of human time, and natural processes continue to affect the site and region. As a character-defining feature, topography here is significant, as natural processes have created a setting that has been functional and popular with recreationists for at least 120 years.

Vegetation

The site is composed of a Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) dominant community, with Vine Maple (*Acer circinatum*) dominating the understory. The native vegetation of tall, straight-trunked large timber interspersed with Vine Maple in the understory is coupled with spatial, park-like openings, all of which are significant

[207] Gail E. Throop. *Union Creek Historic District: National Register Nomination*. Portland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest, 1980, Section 7, 1.

[208] Ibid.

character-defining features that retain integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association.

Circulation

Union Creek Campground extends in a rough east-west axis along the north and south banks of Union Creek in a series of seven one-way loops, where each loop has angled "garage spurs" to control automobile traffic within individual camping sites. Historically, five pull through loops, (assumed for trailers) which existed along the north side of Union Creek, have been removed (time unknown) for unknown reasons. All of the loops are paved, and it is unknown when the time of paving occurred. Access to the campground is provided by a wide, two-way road leading west off of Route 62, just to the south of the resort complex. The two-way road continues west into the campground, then north across Union Creek on the bridge constructed in 1963, ultimately narrowing down at the northernmost junction where the westward loop begins.

The series of one-way loops and garage spurs are historically significant, as they are major features of the campground planning and design work of Dr. Emilio Meinecke. These features were implemented by the C.C.C. during the 1930s, and expanded during the 1960s. The circulation system retains the integrity of location, setting, feeling, design, and association.

Water Features

Union Creek and the North Fork of the Rogue River is the major water feature that runs along the southern boundary of the site. Additionally, potable water is provided via a system of utilitarian dispensers throughout the campground. A water system existed

in the campground at the time of the 1937 site plan, but it is unknown the extent of any possible upgrades or alterations. Therefore, the potable water system remains a necessary fixture within the campground, but the dispensers no longer convey any historic character.

Structures

The National Register Nomination lists the community kitchen shelter, registry booth/comfort station, community bonfire ring, and the twenty-three campsites, that "retain the spacious secluded character of Depression-era tent spaces, including heavy stone stoves" (all from C.C.C. construction) as historically significant. The community kitchen shelter measures 20 by 30 feet, and is constructed of peeled heavy logs atop a raised lava rock platform, with a high hipped roof, four stoves with a central chimney, wet sink and drainboard, and four half-log picnic tables. The railing is constructed of horizontal peeled logs, with smaller vertically arranged peeled log uprights. As documented in the National Register, the sugar pine shake roof was replaced with like materials in 1978. [209] The condition in 1980 was noted as excellent; at present, the stove is in fair to poor condition, requiring some masonry and steel stovebox work. Just to the west of the community kitchen shelter, the Community Bonfire Ring, constructed of cut and fitted basalt blocks and six feet in diameter, exists in good condition. Collectively, all of the constructed features convey the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

[209] Gail E. Throop. *Union Creek Historic District: National Register Nomination*. Portland, OR: USDA Forest Service, Rogue River National Forest, 1980, Section 7, 8.

Site Furnishings and Objects

The twenty-three masonry cookstoves exist collectively between good and poor condition. Construction techniques between groups of stoves were noted to be different: although all are rustic in appearance, some are extremely cobbled and rough, while others are more refined. At the time of the National Register nomination, twenty-three stoves were noted, five less than the 28 noted in the 1937 site plan. It is unknown whether the five remaining stoves existed originally, or were removed at some point in time.
All remaining stoves are character-defining features that collectively convey significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

Campground D: Taylor Burn Forest Camp, Willamette National Forest

Taylor Burn Campground, situated in the Willamette National Forest, is an example of a historic and remote high elevation forest camp. Encompassing some 1,600,000 acres along a 110-mile stretch of the western Cascade Range slope, the Willamette National Forest comprises parts of Clackamas, Douglas, Jefferson, Lane, Linn, and Marion Counties (Figure 8). Topographically, the western portions of the forest largely consist of steep, dissected valleys, gradually rising in elevation towards the east, to broad plateaus near the Cascade Crest, where the highest peaks form a line of inactive volcanoes. These plateaus were shaped by glaciers, resulting in U-shaped valleys, moraines and high elevation lakes. Two major rivers, each with segments on the Wild and Scenic Rivers System, exist on the forest: approximately 12 miles of the Upper McKenzie River, from Clear Lake down to Scott Creek, and approximately 42 miles of the North Fork of the Willamette River, from its outlet at Waldo Lake down to the Forest boundary.

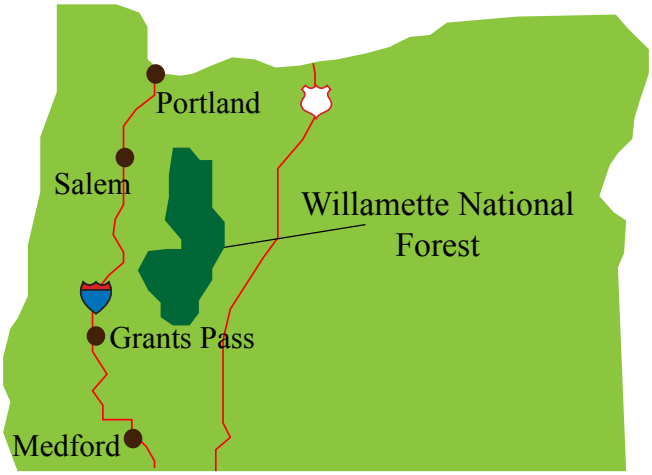

Figure 8: Willamette National Forest locus map.

Site Description and History: The Development of the Taylor Burn Area

The Willamette National Forest was originally formed as part of the Cascade Range Forest Reserve, based on a combination of John Breckenridge Waldo's 1889 proposal to the Oregon Legislature to create a forest reserve an area along the spine of the Cascade Crest and the 1891 congressional passage of the Forest Reserve Act, which authorized the President to reserve forested lands for the public domain, regardless of timber merchantability. [210] The Oregon Legislature created the reserve in 1893, which covered the area along the crest from the Columbia River south to the California border.

The area now known as the Willamette National Forest was created through a series of administrative boundary shifts between 1908-1933, with the final major change occurring on July 1 when the Santiam and Cascade National Forest were combined. [211]

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[210] Lawrence Rakestraw, and Mary Rakestraw. *History of the Willamette National Forest*. Eugene, Or: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Willamette National Forest, 1991., 1-2.

[211] Ibid., 24.

Five ranger districts (each with their own administrative shifts over time) were created: the West Boundary (later Lowell Ranger District), Oakridge, McKenzie Bridge, Detroit, and Cascadia (later Sweet Home Ranger District). At present, the Middle Fork Ranger District encompasses the former Oakridge, Rigdon, and Lowell Ranger Districts and it is the district for which the Taylor Burn area is a portion of. [212]

The recreational history of the Willamette National Forest mirrored recreational developments nationwide. Between 1918-1930, the formal recognition of recreational values within the region began to trickle down to individual National Forests. At a national level, the ideas of Chief Foresters Henry S. Grave and William B. Greeley combined with those of Robert Marshall, Aldo Leopold, and Arthur Carhart, to bring the concept of recreational planning to the Washington D.C. office. [213] Additionally, in the North Pacific Region, Frederick William Cleator, George Cecil, C.M. Granger, and C.J. Buck furthered the concepts of preserving scenic values and the development of wilderness management areas. As an example, by 1930, primitive areas (roadless, with no recreation residences allowed; these areas were later designated as wilderness) were reserved in the areas around Mt. Jefferson and Diamond Lake, with the Three Sisters Primitive Area added later. [214] It is important to note that during this period, the extension and improvement of roads also contributed to increased visitation and

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[212] Donna Marie Hartmans. *Historic Lookout Stations on the Willamette National Forest: Management Plans for Preservation*. Thesis (M.S.)--University of Oregon, 1991, 1991., 60-70.

[213] Lawrence Rakestraw, and Mary Rakestraw. *History of the Willamette National Forest*. Eugene, Or: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Willamette National Forest, 1991., 44.

[214] Ibid., 43-45.

recreation to the forest by those in the surrounding areas. Overall, recreational uses of the forest revolved around hunting, fishing, berry picking, photography, and camping. [215]

Between 1933-1945, recreational uses began to expand. The Willamette National Forest hired its first recreation officer, William Parke, a graduate of both Oregon State College (now Oregon State University) in Forestry, and Master's work in Landscape Architecture at the University of Oregon. Parke utilized Civilian Conservation Corps labor to construct a variety of administrative buildings that supported recreation as well as the recreation areas themselves. Since recreational and administrative uses expanded at this time, formal administrative shelters were constructed for the use of forest fire patrols and trail workers, as well as the construction of winter sports locations throughout the forest. During this period, William Parke surveyed and prepared site plans for a range or recreation uses on the forest: to include campgrounds and picnic areas, summer homes, ranger and guard stations –all through the use of C.C.C. labor. [216]

The recreation era on the Willamette National Forest between 1945-1970 again mirrored national trends. Overall, the American population increased from 150 million in 1950 to 200 million in 1969. With interstate highway system construction well underway by 1970, and three out of every ten Americans living in urban areas, the U.S. Forest Service witnessed the larger user group of their lands shift to various aspects of outdoor recreation. [217] Statistics reveal that some 65,000 campers used the Willamette National Forest in 1953, and by 1966, there were 225,000 campers. During this era, the total

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[215] Ibid., 79.

[216] Ibid., 78-81.

[217] Ibid., 105-106.

number of campgrounds on the forest ranged between 74 and 85 – new campgrounds were constructed and older ones were expanded, or consolidated. Noted during this period was increased vandalism: litter around recreation areas, and damage to forest signs, restrooms, and historic structures – approximately 10% of the total recreation fund went solely toward clean up and maintenance. [218]

Taylor Burn Campground exists near the Cascade Crest at approximately 5,100 feet above sea level in remote country, with limited road access during the summer months and even more limited access due to winter snow. The toponymy of geographic features in the area originated in the late 1890s for Joseph Taylor, a stockman from the Deschutes country, who ranged his sheep in this area of the high Cascades. [219] According to Corley Byron McFarland, the Oakridge District Ranger from 1923-1946, "Taylor was supposed to be the first man to graze sheep in this locality. He said the first time he ever saw the country, it was a very old burn" [220]

The earliest description of the area surrounding Taylor Burn comes from a 1903 United States Geological Survey report, *Forest Conditions in the Cascade Range Forest Reserve*. As part of the report, Arthur Dodwell and Theodore Rixon surveyed Townships 18-29 in the reserve; their summary for Township 20 South, Range 6 East states,

> This township lies on the summit of the Cascade Range, and consists in the main part of a high rolling country, broken here and there by rough, mountain summits. Most of it is drained to the westward by the North fork

[218] Ibid., 115-116.

[219] Lewis A. McArthur, and Lewis L. McArthur. *Oregon Geographic Names*. Portland: Oregon Historical Society, 1974., 820.

[220] Corley B. McFarland, Typewritten Manuscript, Springfield, Willamette National Forest Headquarters, no date., 12.

> of Willamette River. The soil consists of clay, with much pumice stone. The undergrowth is light, consisting of huckleberry, willow, alder, and laurel, with some young conifers. The timber in the southern part of the township and near the east line, consists mainly of shrubby hemlock and scattering yellow pine. In the northern tier of sections it consists of small lodgepole pine. The remainder of the township, including much of the interior, was burned many years ago. Previous to this fire, this tract was heavily timbered with an old growth of fir. [221]

The next description is the earliest mention of a campground in the Taylor Burn area. The 1919 Forest Service promotional booklet, "Vacationland: The National Forests in Oregon", states:

> Oakridge is the outfitting point for tourists who visit this end of the Forest. Hotel and livery accommodations may be obtained there. All points of interest in this region are less than two days by trail from Oakridge. Waldo Lake, Odell Lake, and the Huckleberry Patch are all favorite camping places. Horse feed is abundant at Odell Lake, but campers at Waldo Lake should either carry horse feed or arrange to take their stock to the Huckleberry Patch in Taylor Burn, 4 miles north of Waldo Lake. At this place the Forest Service has set aside an area for the use of campers. Many parties from both sides of the Cascades pick huckleberries here during September of each year. [222]

The Taylor Burn area was popular for abundant huckleberry picking, which suggests a potential relationship between huckleberries and wildland fires. According to Don Minore, Thin-leaf huckleberry (*Vaccinium membranaceum)* is the "most frequently picked northwestern huckleberry," and that it grows from moderate to high elevations, along both slopes of the Olympic and Cascade Mountains. [223] Additionally, *Vaccinium membranaceum* can grow in dry conditions, and, while it can exist as an understory shrub

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[221] Geological Survey (U.S.), and Harold Douglas Langille. *Forest Conditions in the Cascade Range Forest Reserve, Oregon*. Washington: Govt. Print. Off, 1903., 175.

[222] United States. "Vacationland: The National Forests in Oregon," *Department Circular*. Washington, D.C.: G.P.O., 1919., 7-8.

[223] Don Minore. *The Wild Huckleberries of Oregon and Washington: A Dwindling Resource*. Portland, Or: Pacific Northwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1972., 4-7.

under closed forest canopies, it becomes much more abundant and vigorous under partial forest canopies, as well as out in the open and in burned-over areas. [224]

Finally, Minore writes,

> Most huckleberry fields originated from the uncontrolled wildfires that were common in the Northwest before modern fire protection and control techniques were applied. Ecologically, these fields are seral - -temporary stages in the natural succession from treeless burn to climax forest. Without fire or other radical disturbance, huckleberries gradually are crowded out by invading trees and brush. A few years after establishment, they produce a maximum amount of berries; then production gradually declines as other shrubs and trees dominate the site. [225]

Minore's account that the majority of huckleberry fields were created by wildland fire, compared with the circa 1900s landscape description, and combined with the 1919 recreation description reveal that the Forest Service recognized enough recreational use in the Taylor Burn area to establish a campground, and that the major draw was huckleberry picking – due to the cyclical natural resource processes of wildland fire and successive regeneration. No exact location for Huckleberry Patch campground is noted in the 1919 brochure. The Taylor Burn Forest Camp name first appears on the 1930 Forest Service map. The 1930 map reveals the "Taylor Burn Improved Forest Camp" at the end of the route and junction with the Ollalie, Blair Lake, and Waldo Lake (now Wahanna) Trail. The camp layout is unknown.

A review of original Forest Service Investment and Depreciation records specifically mentions that the Taylor Burn Forest Camp improvements were constructed between 1939-1941 within a "Project Cost Class" up to $1,000. The same records reveal

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[224] Ibid.

[225] Don Minore. *The Wild Huckleberries of Oregon and Washington: A Dwindling Resource*. Portland, Or: Pacific Northwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1972., 4-7.

that the Taylor Burn Guard Station was constructed during the 1931 fiscal year, and the garage constructed in 1935. [226]

The first known documentation regarding camp layout and design comes from the 1940 Improvement Plan (suggested to correspond with the 1939-41 Inventory and Depreciation records). C.B. McFarland and R.M. Beeman designed the improvements; and the plan was drawn by Koch on 8/21/40, and approved by JR Bruckhart on 7/22/40. Regarding the names: no information could be located about Koch, but John Ray Bruckhart was the Willamette National Forest Supervisor from 1938-1954. [227] He began his Forest Service career in 1909, and took keen interest with recreation, and in the preparation of thoughtfully designed places that allowed visitors to enjoy the resource and reduce fire and vandalism dangers. [228] Corley Byron McFarland, as previously mentioned, was the Oakridge Ranger District Ranger from 1923-1946.

Eleven campsites on two loop roads are depicted. The plan depicts each site with a table, bench, and stove. One site is depicted with a shelter (of unknown design). Additionally, the plan called for garbage pits and toilets. Overall, it is unknown how much of the original design improvements were actually constructed at this time.

Taylor Burn was improved again, during the 1958-59 time period. Numerous changes are depicted on the plan: proposed campground expansion and road widening, the widening of selected garage spurs, the moving of seven existing campsites to nearby

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[226] Unknown Author, *Investment and Depreciation Records:Willamette National Forest*. USDA Forest Service. Willamette National Forest Supervisor's Office, Heritage Program Collection. n.d.

[227] Lawrence Rakestraw, and Mary Rakestraw. *History of the Willamette National Forest*. Eugene, Or: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Willamette National Forest, 1991., 209.

[228] Ibid., 70.

locations, and the creation of additional campsites. It is unknown the extent of the improvements made; however, existing conditions reveal that some of the work was carried through, and that previous work was completed during the 1940 timeframe.

Summary of Existing Conditions and Significance

The development of the Taylor Burn Forest Camp has evolved over 92 years to its present condition and configuration (refer to appropriate Appendix D maps and images). Early campground development began sometime between the administrative origins of the U.S. Forest Service in 1905 and 1919, when the Huckleberry Patch Campground was specifically mentioned in an official publication for the (then) Cascade National Forest. The physical characteristics of the campground are unknown during this time. The Taylor Burn Guard Station and garage were constructed nearby in 1931 and 1935, respectively (and moved to their present location circa 1941). The original location for the guard station cannot be revealed as it is an archaeological site; however it is surmised that the move occurred for environmental reasons: the original site was in a forested area that retained snow much longer in the season. The new (existing) location atop an open hill, became accessible more quickly in the summer season, and enjoyed breezes that helped keep mosquitoes at bay. The camp was improved between 1939-1941 and improved again between 1958-1959. There is no evidence to suggest that major improvements have taken place after this time, with the possible exception of minor routine site maintenance. Overall, it appears that the camp has received little maintenance in recent years.

Ten campsites were documented overall, with three campsites on the lower loop improved with rustic, basalt rock masonry camp stoves. The remaining campsites had

simple non-masonry rock fire rings, six campsites had concrete rebar fireplaces, or a combination of fireplace types. Two toilets exist in the upper loop area and do not coincide with the locations on the 1940 plan, but do coincide with locations on the 1958-59 plan.

Spatial Organization and Land Patterns

At the site scale, the overall spatial configuration of the Taylor Burn Forest Camp consists of two unimproved road loops that form an irregular, "figure-eight pattern", oriented in an easterly-westerly configuration. Forest Road 517, a rugged, unimproved road provides access from the Cascade Lakes Highway near Little Cultus Lake (Deschutes National Forest), and to the road networks on the east side of Waldo Lake. The 517 road marks the boundary between the Waldo Lake (to the south and west) and Three Sisters Wilderness (to the north) areas. Individual campsites exist within and outside of the loops, typically connected to the loop by a short spur. At the north part of the camp, a rough rectangular shaped meadow leads downslope from a rock outcrop, where the spring exists. The spatial organization of loops and garage spurs conveys the historical significance of the campground, as loops and spurs are design characteristics of Dr. Emilio Meinecke's campground planning and design work.

The major land pattern surrounding the camp is delineated by an absence of logging, and occurrences of wildfire. Logging never occurred in this region, as more merchantable timber was available elsewhere, and early efforts were made to protect

Waldo Lake. [229] Historical evidence reveals that the major land patterns in the area surrounding the camp have been determined by fire, which is a major natural disturbance in the Cascade Range forests of the Pacific Northwest. At present, the fire frequency is characterized as variable (100-300 years), as is the fire severity. [230]

The Taylor Burn was described as a wildfire that had occurred many years previous from 1900's land descriptions. From historical aerial photographs, changes in vegetation patterns mark the extent of a disturbance that is suggested to be the limits of a burn, and is similar to the burn pattern depicted on the 1901 map (see Figure XX). More recently, the 1996 Charlton Burn has left a similar impact upon the southern half of the area. From August 23-27, the Charlton Burn ultimately covered 14 square miles, and was severe, with 73% of the burn area experiencing >95% tree mortality. [231] Fifteen years later, this area is almost completely devoid of forest cover.

In terms of significance, these land patterns surrounding the Taylor Burn Forest Camp are character-defining features and display the historic characteristics of location, setting, feeling, and association, since natural forests processes have, for the most part, been allowed to continue with reduced direct human intervention.

Topography

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[229] Jennifer J. Gardner. *Charcoal Accumulation in Lake Sediments Following a Modern Fire in the Central Cascade Range, Oregon*. Thesis (M.S.)--University of Oregon, 1999., 9.

[230] Ibid., 1-10.

[231] Ibid., 10.

Taylor Burn Forest Camp was constructed along an area of the High Cascades plateau, near the top of a westerly downslope that descends into the North Fork of the Willamette River basin. This area was formed by volcanism and glaciation, where overlapping shield volcanoes produced basaltic flows. [232] The camp has remained in this location as far back as the 1939-1941 timeframe, and possibly as far back as 1919. The topography of the area surrounding the camp has weathered and evolved naturally over time, and, therefore is a character-defining feature. A rectangular-shaped meadow and rock outcrop at the north end are significant for being associated with a viewshed and corresponding view bench in the 1940 and 1958 plans, and, overall, the topography retains the integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association.

Vegetation

Taylor Burn is located within the Mountain Hemlock (*Tsuga mertensiana*) vegetation zone, found in central Oregon between 5000 and 6,650 feet in elevation. [233] The vegetation is naturally-occurring and is a character-defining feature of the camp, as it roughly frames the individual camp spaces, the area of the camp, and the meadow viewshed. Additionally, the vegetation provides shade necessary for the continued cultural process of camping. Overall, aerial photographs determine that, through vegetation patterns, the rough boundaries of an old fire are visible in the area surrounding the camp, and that vegetation has continued to grow over time, with a minimum of direct human intervention (it is suggested that local trail and road, and camp clearing have

[232] Ibid., 7.

[233] Jerry F. Franklin and C. T. Dyrness. *Natural Vegetation of Oregon and Washington*. [Corvallis?]: Oregon State University Press, 1988., 101.

occurred over time). It is unknown the impact of vegetation growth to Thin-leaf huckleberry (*Vaccinium membranaceum*) that historically created a need for recreation; it is suggested to conduct further study in this area. The potential for management here would be to create a desired future condition where a combination of cutting and prescribed fire could be used as management tools in order to: maintain the meadow for viewshed purposes, reduce fuel within and in the vicinity of the camp in order to decrease potential harm to the camp in the event of a stand-replacing wildfire (similar to the Charlton Burn), and to create suitable habitat for the propagation of Thin-leaf huckleberry (to maintain the historical recreation attraction of the area).

Circulation

A network of unimproved roads and trails form the circulation patterns of the Taylor Burn Forest Camp and surrounding area. Forest Road 517 accesses the campground from the east, ultimately ending on the Deschutes National Forest at Little Cultus Lake Campground. Forest Road 517 also connects with Forest Road 516, which runs south to Taylor Lake. Historically the 517 Road comprises portions of the trail system depicted on the 1901 map, and the 516 Road is a historic trail that first appeared on Forest Maps in 1911, and is associated with Simon Klovdahl's Waldo Lake irrigation project.

For the camp, the 517 Road ends at two unimproved loops that form an irregular "figure-eight" pattern. Individual campsites exist within and outside of the loops, typically connected to the loop by a short spur. The circulation system and connecting network of trails (Blair Lake Trail, Wahanna Trail, Judy Lake Trail, and Erma Bell Lakes Trails) have evolved over time since 1901 to their present configuration. Collectively,

they are character-defining features of the Taylor Burn area, as well as the loops and garage spurs of the camp. Overall, the circulation network (to include the network approaching the camp, and the Blair Lake, Wahanna, and Judy Lake trails) convey the historic character of location, design, setting materials (unimproved), feeling (remote access), and association.

Water Features

Situated the base of the rock outcrop at the south end of the meadow, a spring provides a source of drinking water for the camp. Indicated earliest on the 1940 plan, and improved with a small concrete check dam at an unknown time, the spring suggests additional evidence that a camp has been located here since the 1919 reference to the Huckleberry Patch. This water feature conveys the historic character of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association.

Structures

The two outhouses are historic structures that are character-defining features of the camp. The outhouses were constructed from the 1945 Forest Service Recreation Plans Handbook, "Pit Toilet" (dated 1957 –plans II 7 and associated), and confirm the work completed at the camp from the 1957-58 plan. The outhouses convey the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association. Additionally, the concrete check dam constructed at the spring, conveys the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

Site Furnishings and Objects

The camp has three rustic basalt fireplaces and six concrete fireplaces. The concrete fireplaces date from a 1957 camp stove revision, from the 1945 Recreation Plans Handbook. The basalt fireplaces cannot be dated from any historical record; however, their rustic appearance constructed from local materials suggests they date from the rustic building style depicted throughout the 1935 Recreation Plans Handbook. This likely would have been the 1939-41 Improvement Plan time period. The presence of the rustic and concrete stoves together on two campsites convey the feeling of temporal change over time; thus collectively, they convey the significance of location, design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

The additional small-scale element dated to the 1939-41 time period is the entrance sign for the Taylor Burn Forest Camp. The 1940 Improvement Plan originally called for "Plan 13-C, Design B"; however this notation was lined through, and "Plan 13A, Design B" was added in handwriting. The present sign derives from Plan 13A, the horizontal motif, which was also indicated on the Cultural Resource Site Report for the original Taylor Burn Guard Station as being the only remaining feature that definitely appears to date from the period. The sign was rehabilitated in 2001, and placed on upright posts which are clearly more modern, but sympathetic with the historic character of the sign. Additionally, a bulletin board exists near the east end of the loop where Forest Road 514 ends at the camp.

Based on the combination of written historical records, photographs, the 1940 Improvement Plan, the 1958/59 Site Plan, available forest maps, aerial photographs, (no historic photographs were located of the campground), and fieldwork, extant features from the 1939-41 time period are the looped circulation network, the three basalt rustic

stoves, and the entrance sign. Additionally, the guard station and garage were moved to their current location during this time. From the late 1950s, extant historic features are the six concrete rebar fireplaces and the two existing toilets. Both have their origins from the 1945 Recreation Plans Handbook (with revisions into the 1950s).

CHAPTER IV

CAMPGROUNDS: LESSONS IN HISTORIC DESIGN AND CONCLUSIONS

> It would appear, in short, that the rudimentary grades of outdoor recreation consume their resource-base; the higher grades, at least to a degree, create their own satisfactions with little or no attrition of land or life. It is the expansion of transport without a corresponding growth of perception that threatens us with a qualitative bankruptcy of the recreational process. Recreational development is a job not of building roads into lovely country, but of building receptivity into the still unlovely human mind. [234]

Making a Case for Preservation and the Importance of History

The National Trust for Historic Preservation, a not-for-profit advocacy group for historic preservation issues in the United States, issued a 2008 report, "The National Forest System: Cultural Resources at Risk: An Assessment and Needs Analysis". The initial quote in the document was taken from the Forest Service Manual 2360, Heritage Program Management,

> National Forests contain much of the undisturbed evidence of early habitation in America. The remoteness of much National Forest Land has limited the impact on these cultural resources. Increasing public use of the outdoors and the intensified development of public lands are increasing the probability that cultural resources may be damaged or lost. [235]

Within the report, the Executive Summary goes on to cite that 325,000 cultural resource sites have been identified throughout the system; however, "the agency lacks the will, statutory guidance, and funding to adequately care for these known sites and to identify

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[234] Aldo Leopold and Charles Walsh Schwartz. *A Sand County Almanac, and Sketches Here and There*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1987., 176-177.

[235] T. Destry Jarvis and The Public Lands Initiative Team of the National Trust for Historic Preservation. "The National Forest System: Cultural Resources at Risk." May 2008, The National Trust for Historic Preservation, [http://www.preservationnation.org/issues/public-lands/additional-resources/NTHP-Forest-Service-Report-2008-web.pdf], Accessed 13 February, 2011., 3.

and evaluate the remaining 80 percent of Forest Service lands that have not been surveyed for cultural resources." [236]

When the Forest Service was created in 1905, it was charged by Congress to sustainably manage lands within its jurisdiction, which today includes 193 million acres of forest and grasslands. The mission is, "to sustain the health, diversity, and productivity of the Nation's forests and grasslands to meet the needs of present and future generations." According to the National Trust report, "Unlike the organic acts (foundational statutes) of other federal land management agencies… no statute specific to the management of the System even mentions historic or archaeological resources as part of the mission of the Forest Service." [237]

Ultimately the Executive Summary concludes with suggestions for changing the Forest Service Heritage Program management framework, such as statutes, regulations, policies, budget, and staffing levels. [238] While developing overarching management framework suggestions is outside the scope of this thesis, some of the management issues are presented here in order to reveal the challenges inherent to the continued stewardship of Forest Service cultural landscapes.

Why should we impart a sense of cultural landscape stewardship on campgrounds at all? First, humans ascribe personal meaning to landscape – and those meanings, and perceptions depend on one's culture, upbringing, and a whole host of additional factors

[236] Ibid., 5.

[237] Ibid.

[238] Ibid., 6.

not easy to pinpoint. [239] David Glassberg notes that, "a sense of history and a sense of place are inextricably intertwined we attach histories to places, and the environmental value we attach to a place comes largely through the historical associations we have with it." [240] Historians, folklorists, cultural geographers, and environmental psychologists have studied the phenomena of sense of place and how it transforms from childhood to adulthood and have noted that places become treasured in childhood and later become crucial to a personal sense of self. Glassberg notes an important quote from Wallace Stegner: "No place is a place until the things that have happened in it are remembered in history, ballads, yarns, legends, or monuments." [241]

Equally important as childhood landscape influence, Glassberg notes, is how adult social networks develop and reinforce environmental attachment. We become attached to places through long-term habitation, more specifically, through the development of ties with others of a similar locale, or by repeatedly visiting familiar places. In short, he notes, "The longer we live in a place, the more likely we are to associate it with our friends and kin, as the environment becomes saturated with memories of our significant life experiences." [242] The same is true for these campgrounds: these places were either specifically constructed, or appropriated informally and then later developed, and then

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[239] Robert Z. Melnick, "Are We There Yet?," in *Cultural Landscapes: Balancing Nature and Heritage in Preservation Practice*. ed. Richard W. Longstreth (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 2008), 200-201.

[240] David Glassberg, *Sense of History: The Place of the Past in American Life*. Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press, 2001., 8.

[241] Ibid., 18-19.

[242] Ibid., 114.

shaped collectively or individually by the successive generations that have ascribed personal meaning to them. [243] Ultimately, for the Forest Service, these campgrounds have become ingrained in the public consciousness, and as such, are meaningful places where natural and cultural resources intersect.

Of course, for some people, any campground devoid of cultural resources can also become a personally significant landscape. What is it about having physical features constructed years previous that gives a place meaning? Why is the past, or a sense of history important? The past is valued for any number of reasons, and perhaps David Lowenthal best articulates the benefits of history: here are presented familiarity and recognition, reaffirmation and validation, guidance, enrichment, and escape. [244]

Through a sense of familiarity and recognition, especially expressed through physical objects in space, people feel more at ease. For example, the present is rendered more comfortable through the retention of personal childhood objects that evoke memories of earlier times. Additionally, people become attached to places because they share past experiences with homes, neighborhoods, and environments. Our personal pasts help make sense of the present. [245]

History is reaffirmed and validated through historical precedent, preservation, and restoration. For example, preservation of processes and objects makes the assumption that the process, ideal, or thing dates temporally back in time for many years, essentially

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[243] Ibid., 123.

[244] David Lowenthal, *The Past Is a Foreign Country*. Cambridge [Cambridgeshire]: Cambridge University Press, 1985., 38.

[245] Ibid., 39.

unchanged. [246] As a local example, in the Pacific Northwest, many craftsman-era (1900-1920) homes are assumed to be constructed from timeless traditions, yet many are "kit" homes, pre-assembled and shipped by rail from distribution centers all over the country – to be fitted together at the site.

Through the process of restoration, via societal values or institutions, a distant past brings legitimacy to present corruptions. [247] One example of this has already been mentioned: favoring architecture or household objects from a perceived, value-laden Colonial era, brings a sense of control and legitimacy to post Civil War times of rapid change, industrialization, immigration, and corruption.

The past is also important to the identity of the self: any individual recalls his or her past to bring legitimacy to who they are at any given point in time. People develop self-identity not only through their personal pasts, but also through attachment to childhood or long-term places of residence. David Lowenthal writes, "A place in this sense cannot be bought; it must be shaped, usually over long periods of time, and then it must be preserved." [248] Another example by Kevin Lynch notes that local inhabitants did not normally visit urban historical landmarks, yet the residents felt secure that the landmarks exist for their own intrinsic value. [249]

Through the collective range of historical customs, remaining buildings, structures, and landscapes, the past brings a sense of enrichment and wonder to our

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[246] Ibid., 40.

[247] Ibid., 41.

[248] Ibid., 41-42.

[249] Ibid.

surroundings. Collectively, these links to the past help root our present-day lives with the palimpsest of tangible and intangible things created by those who have gone before us. We experience these things through any number of ways: personal objects retained from our past, such as grade school writings or drawings, visiting historically-themed museums, or re-visiting to childhood landscapes, or past sensory experiences that bring pleasure to present surroundings. [250]

The past also provides us with means of escape. Present building design in America makes regular use of the past defining the present, suggesting refuge. Architectural forms of the past regularly make appearances in shopping malls, new residential construction – all particularly useful in providing comfort for shopping, or by disguising the perceived tastelessness in modern building. [251] Indeed, misinformed realtors regularly describe historic homes from just about any period in time (or modern homes constructed to appear historic) as, "charming colonials" or "solid, 3-bedroom craftsman".

Of course, what the past means collectively, or to individuals, changes with era, culture, age, etc. What exactly are the values of the past? Lowenthal provides us with antiquity, continuity, termination, and sequence. For antiquity, four characteristics best describe it: precedence, means that any thing here before our time gains status purely by its virtue of being older. [252] Remoteness, meaning objects or customs that date way back in history – although this depends on context. Some household artifacts only one or two

[250] Ibid., 47-48.

[251] Ibid., 49-51.

[252] Ibid., 53.

generations old can be treasured or perceived as being ancient. On the other hand, Yellowstone National Park is revered as a World Heritage Site for its geological antiquity. An interest in the primordial means a concern for roots, as exhibited at Mesa Verde, the 'earliest' Indian dwelling. Primitive means a search or appeal to those things that have purity or thoughtfulness supposedly unspoiled by later events, such as modern carpentry cheapens next to pioneer log construction done by hand. [253]

Continuity is an important concept discussed by Lowenthal. Continuity is, "the sense of enduring succession often manifest in historical annals and storied locals". [254] It is most potent when there are subsequent artifacts reflect surviving relics, revealing a palimpsest of differing times. Such accumulation reveals successive timelessness that sparks wonder. The affinity for a sense of continuity reveals changes that have led to the present time, telling a story – for those in preservation, preserving all accretions means accepting the total history of a place, while those who favor antiquity remove all subsequent alterations and additions. Termination means that the past is appreciated because it is over – in the case of landscapes, the simplicity of processes helps make the past seem easier to understand, "yesteryear's forms and functions were integral to life when we learned how things worked, whereas those of today often seem baffling because they stem from later, unfamiliar innovations". [255] Sequence helps understand the past as a length of time, which is ordered and segmented – a chronology. What is important about sequential order is that as a cultural construct, the past is viewed as a multitude of

[253] Ibid., 49-56.

[254] Ibid., 57.

[255] Ibid.

events that precede and succeed one another, of cause and effect. Sequence allows humans to generate tradition, shape memory, and so forth. [256]

An important complexity to the history, and, especially landscape is that stability and change are both important. Society cannot function without familiar environments and links to a recognizable past, but there is no progress without the transformation or replacement of inherited relicts. However, society must have tangible connections with the past in order to cope amidst all of the change. Lowenthal writes, "The cultural legacy, too, is conservative *and* innovative: survival requires an inheritable culture, but it must be malleable as well as stable." [257] Indeed, it is not enough to preserve the form or preserve the environment simply for the sake of the past - -functional environments evolve and change to suit changing cultural needs. [258]

One of the ways we know, or perceive, the past is through existing relics, which survive as natural features and human artifacts. Physical objects or even ruins are paths to the past themselves only by our awareness of their historical link. [259] As time creates a distance from events beyond recall, the memory of any society gives way to history and relics regain significance. As particular events move beyond a collective memory and verification, they are interpreted differently. [260]

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[256] Ibid., 57-63.

[257] Ibid., 69.

[258] John Brinckerhoff Jackson and Helen Lefkowitz Horowitz. *Landscape in Sight: Looking at America*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1997., 366-368.

[259] David Lowenthal. *The Past is a Foreign Country*. Cambridge [Cambridgeshire]: Cambridge University Press, 1985., 238.

[260] Ibid., 256.

Historic preservation, ultimately, preserves the form, and not the substance of a structure. [261] Like the farmer who claimed to have the same ax his entire life, but only replaced the head twice and the handle three times, or the U.S.S. Constitution: the oldest commissioned ship in the U.S. Navy, whose only original parts are small wooden sections of its keel, all structures and landscapes ultimately need maintenance. [262] As David Lowenthal notes, "The concept of conservation thus goes far beyond the acts of material preservation on which Western societies concentrate their efforts." [263]

Ultimately, Julie Riesenweber cites that the process of historic preservation and history is always conducted through the present view, and that, "historic preservation is thus a powerful process for designing landscapes that, while they form the "taken-for-granted" settings of daily life, silently engage in shaping who we are." [264]

Robert McCullough likened William Cronon's, argument with wilderness as a cultural construct in "The Trouble with Wilderness; or, Getting Back to the Wrong Nature," with historic preservation as a cultural construct. In his essay, "The Nature of History Preserved; or, The Trouble with Green Bridges," McCullough, argues that history is a cultural construct, and that the challenge becomes how to accommodate change, "in

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[261] Ibid., 385.

[262] See Howard Mansfield. *The Same Ax, Twice: Restoration and Renewal in a Throwaway Age*. Hanover: University Press of New England, 2000., 3-10., for a discussion of what preservation means.

[263] David Lowenthal. *The Past is a Foreign Country*. Cambridge [Cambridgeshire]: Cambridge University Press, 1985., 385.

[264] Julie Riesenweber, "Landscape Preservation and Cultural Geography," in *Cultural Landscapes: Balancing Nature and Heritage in Preservation Practice*. ed. Richard W. Longstreth (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 2008), 39.

order to achieve a successful fusion of past and present, cultural and natural." [265] Where Cronon argues that wilderness is as much perception as federal designation (something, "set apart" in the landscape, when wilderness can also be experienced in the community), so McCullough argues that the mindset toward historic preservation might function better if historic properties were not set aside, frozen in time, but function in continued uses, In order to best meet the changing needs of a people, community, etc. Citing a local Vermont example, McCullough conveys the conundrum of small communities faced with preserving or replacing historic steel truss bridges no longer safely capable of carrying modern traffic. When asked why old steel bridges (or any historical feature) are worth preserving, a successful response is that, "communities and landscapes are patchworks of natural and cultural resources and that changes to incidental parts can ultimately transform the whole." [266] More importantly, McCullough notes that biologists prefer preserving existing bridges, as this avoids further resource impacts to riparian corridors by constructing new bridges. [267] This particular point is important from both a preservation and ecological standpoint: for preservationists, the embodied energy argument cites that past human energy has already been expended; thus alternatives for continued use of the bridge are less likely to impact the environment than starting from scratch. For ecologists, the argument is similar: the environment (in this case, the riparian corridor and all that it sustains, as well as sustains it) has, to a degree, responded

[265] Robert McCullough, "The Nature of History Preserved; or, The Trouble with Green Bridges," in *Reconstructing Conservation: Finding Common Ground*. ed. Ben A. Minteer and Robert E. Manning (Washington: Island Press, 2003), 39.

[266] Ibid., 40.

[267] Ibid.

and adapted to the disturbance. The key question made by McCullough here is, to what extent can history and nature, as cultural constructs, evolve without compromising utility and sustainability for human/non-human species? [268] The same is true for historic campgrounds: by which method should these places be preserved to meet the needs of many? How can we connect people to a sense of place and time, how can we create lasting impressions (i.e., a connection to a sense of place), as well as creating the perception of wilderness in the backyard; i.e., nurturing the sense that humans are a part of a larger ecological community, while minimizing impacts to non-human species?

Of the four methods for cultural landscape preservation: preservation, rehabilitation, restoration, and reconstruction, there is not a one size-fits-all approach. However, McCullough brings up the process of rehabilitation. The process of finding new appropriate uses to fit into old buildings or landscapes without destroying the features that convey historic character and ultimately, historical significance, is at present a more sensitive approach that introduces new or continued uses to a historic property (meeting current needs) while at the same time, remaining sensitive and thoughtful to the continued maintenance of past forms. [269] For these four historic Forest Service campgrounds, rehabilitation is the best method, because it is the form of preservation most flexible to continued use, with a continued sensitive eye toward the perpetuation of past forms that are meaningful and useful to present and future generations. It is through this method of preservation stewardship that the overall goals of preserving cultural

[268] Ibid., 41.

[269] Ibid., 42.

landscape character, while at the same time guiding the evolving landscape into the future, can be best met.

Lessons Learned

Overall trends apparent from the study of the four campgrounds are as follows. First, evident from the four studies is that there were generally two large building phases in Forest Service campground development. The first was during the C.C.C.-era of 1933-1942, when designs from the Recreation Plans Handbook were implemented in forest campsites throughout the region (other campgrounds in the region were noted to have similar cultural landscape features derived from the same book). While there was a brief development hiatus during the Second World War, the second phase took place during the late 1950s-60s, during the time of the Operation Outdoors Program. While there was no documentation found that directly linked post-war improvements on these four sites to Operation Outdoors, it is reasonable to assume that the national program was implemented in the four camps as the Forest Service addressed aging campground infrastructure and rapidly-increasing use, due to ever-evolving and improving road networks and improvements/promotions in automobiles, such as the use of station wagons, as well as the increasing use of trailers and motor homes.

Second, the Forest Service in Region 6 took the time during the 1920s and 1930s to develop a comprehensive recreation planning policy, and evaluated National Forest lands in order to set aside ideal recreation unit planning areas for the enjoyment of the public. As a part of this program, the Forest Service developed a collective design vocabulary of recreation area plans and features (published in the Recreation Plans Handbooks of 1935 and 1945) that accomplished three things: to serve public needs, to

be aesthetically pleasing and minimize visual impacts to the landscape, and convey a uniform image of the Forest Service on the landscape. As evidenced in the four campgrounds, designs from both handbooks were constructed on the ground, many of which continue to be utilized at the present time. Both handbooks were invaluable throughout the course of this research, as they aided in pinpointing dates of design for physical structures and objects.

The most far-reaching pattern implemented on Forest Service lands (as well as on nearly every public campground in the United States) were the designs and recreational planning recommendations of plant pathologist Dr. Emilio Meinecke. Hired by both the U.S. Forest Service and National Park Service, to research recreation area deterioration, his one-way loop designs, garage spurs and pull-throughs, and the use of natural barriers to restrict the movement of automobiles and people within recreational space (as well as provide shade and privacy amenities) is evident in all four campgrounds of this study, as well as nearly all other campgrounds researched as a part of this thesis. Even for those campsites researched that had no readily-apparent historic features, the subtle landscape patterns of looped circulation roads, garage spurs and pull-throughs, and post or boulder automobile barriers, are all the result of Meinecke's work that has been adapted over time, and endured for the past eighty years.

Finally, the overall layout patterns of each campground studied changed little, but the infrastructure adapted to changing needs. Naturally, heavily used items, susceptible to the weather required regular replacement and repair, such as picnic tables or rustic masonry camp stoves. Roads became paved, and steel fire rings were added to sites as the masonry camp stoves became too expensive to repair, and people increasingly

utilized more convenient cooking devices, such as liquid fuel camping stoves. Some now historic restrooms have been adapted, while others removed and replaced by more recent designs. As these historic camping areas evolve into the future, the next section will briefly look at broad recommendations into their continued stewardship.

Cultural Landscape Stewardship

Looking into the future of preservation stewardship for the campgrounds identified in this thesis, brief definitions of the four preservation stewardship standards are presented, to further explain the reason for choosing rehabilitation as the best stewardship method. Preservation emphasizes the continued maintenance and repair of existing historic objects, and stresses the retention of a property's form as it has evolved over time, with no allowance for new forms or uses. Rehabilitation is similar to preservation, but differs in its form of stewardship, as it acknowledges the need to meet ongoing, or evolving uses, and accepts sensitive alterations and/or additions while retaining the overall historic character of the property. Restoration literally freezes a property at a particular point in time, and, if applicable, removes evidence of other historic periods. Finally, Reconstruction is utilized when entire historic properties, or portions thereof, have disappeared – the historic elements are recreated, typically for educational and interpretive goals. [270]

For all four sites, preservation, restoration, and reconstruction are not likely stewardship candidates. For example, utilizing a preservation approach, while

[270] Eliot H. Foulds, and Lauren Meier. *Cultural Landscape Report for Blackwoods and Seawall Campgrounds, Acadia National Park: History, Existing Conditions, Analysis & Treatment Recommendations*. Brookline, MA (99 Warren St., Brookline 02146): Olmsted Center for Landscape Preservation, 1996., 98.

maintaining the overall historic character of each site, does not allow for expanding campground infrastructure, such as water systems. [271]

Restoration would require choosing a specific point in time, at the exclusion of all other time periods. For example, choosing the 1933-1960 time period for Eagle Creek Forest Camp would mean removing the upper campground restroom, and perhaps altering the circulation layout of the campground space. It would also mean removing all modern utilities (water, etc.) and reconstructing the water system to feed into the historic taps, some of which are no longer used. Paving would have to be removed from the circulation systems, and so forth. [272]

Reconstruction would apply to portions of campgrounds that were known to have existed; and in all four cases here, there has been no known complete loss of any historical resource that hasn't been replaced by resources that reveal historic character, as well as continuity of use in their own right. It is noteworthy to mention that reconstruction is rarely used for continued stewardship purposes – only in extreme cases.

Rehabilitation of a cultural landscape is, in this case, the best stewardship approach for all four campgrounds. Not only does it maintain the functionality of each recreation area into the future, but it also allows for future change, while keeping a sensitive eye on maintaining the historic character of each location. A suggested rehabilitation strategy for all four sites should also make use of the *Recreation Plans Handbook* (both 1935 and 1945 editions). All four sites utilized in this study, as well as additional campgrounds visited, had the design basis for elements such as community

[271] Ibid.

[272] Ibid.

kitchens, camp stoves, fireplaces, restrooms, and hiker registers derived from the handbook. What follows are brief and generalized recommendations for future landscape preservation stewardship of each campground.

Period of Significance and Stewardship Recommendations:
Eagle Creek Campground

Eagle Creek Campground retains high landscape integrity, and conveys the feeling of a 1930s campground through the remaining built and natural features. The existing developments in the lower area best convey the historic character of the Civilian Conservation Corps period between 1936-1942, while more research is needed on the upper area to determine if the circulation system and garage spur arrangement has been altered between the mid 1930s and the late 1960s. Overall, however, based on existing historic features, the camp best represents the historic character between the years 1934-1942; this is the period of significance. While larger scale factors, such as the development of what is now Interstate 84 and the construction of the Bonneville Dam have affected the landscape surrounding the campground, the camp itself reflects accretions from its initial development to the present time. These overall features, recommended to be retained, are as follows: For the lower area, it is recommended to retain the overall circulation pattern evident from the 1916-1936 development period. Although the circulation system in this area has been altered and improved since its initial development, it follows the route of the original alignment, leading from the parking area down the slope along Eagle Creek, and then traverses around existing topography back to the parking area. This is the only discernible major landscape feature from the initial development period that exists, and it has shaped the overall form of the campground

since it is the same basic circulation pattern in the lower area from the 1916-1936 development period, with the accretion of later improvements, such as widening, Meinecke-influenced garage spurs, paving, and of course, the major changes in the entrance area due to the alterations from the construction of Interstate 84. It is recommended to maintain the current form of the lower-area circulation pattern as it exists at the present time, and make no further major modifications.

Additional historical features in the lower area include the restroom, rock steps and pathways, hiker register and trail sign, community kitchen shelter, camp stoves, and water dispensers. Collectively, these features exist in a range of conditions; those in fair or poor shape should be preserved in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior Standards for Historic Preservation, in order to conserve the historic character of the campground.

The upper campground circulation area most closely matches the circulation and layout of the 1969 site plan. As mentioned before, the 1960 site plan, combined with current landscape features (non-native plantings and the historic camp stove) suggest the overall circulation layout was altered sometime during that time. Researching this area further would provide an interpretive link to how the site transitioned between the 1930s and the present time. For example, calling public attention (in the form of interpretive panels) to the now-hidden campground stove, the abandoned masonry water dispensers, and, if found applicable, the landscaping plants that may have been utilized when the circulation system was modified will recall ongoing management decisions that are made in the continued stewardship of the oldest designed Forest Service campground.

Period of Significance and Stewardship Recommendations:
McKee Bridge Day Use Area

The McKee Bridge Day Use area retains high landscape integrity, and through existing built and natural features, conveys the feeling of a rural community recreation area. Through existing historic features, the camp best represents the historic character between the years 1936-1942; this is the period of significance. Since the property already exists on the National Register, and has been listed for significance in Landscape Architecture under Criteria C, it is suggested to add the Swayne Irrigation Ditch as an additional significant landscape feature that is integral to the site's historic character. Additionally, the historic resources on the site are overall in good condition, the result of recent work completed on the community kitchen stove, the four remaining masonry camp stoves, and fencing atop the stone wall along the river. One additional suggestion noted during fieldwork is to address the condition of the purlins on the community kitchen shelter. Since the purlin ends have the characteristic rustic carved Forest Service shields (seen at no other camp visited in the region), care must be taken to maintain as many of these in their original state as much as possible.

Period of Significance and Stewardship Recommendations:
Union Creek Campground

The Union Creek Campground retains high landscape integrity, and through its existing built and natural features, contributes to the feeling (along with the historic features in the immediate area) 1930s resort recreation area. The existing historic features, best portray historic character between the years 1934-1942; this is the period of significance. However, additional physical and landscape features constructed during the 1960s, such as the road bridge across Union Creek, and the additional campsites oriented

away from the creek indicative of larger post-war recreation boom improvements. While these sites have no existing historical features remaining, the physical circulation layout (continuation of Meinecke's garage spur site arrangement), plus pull-through parking to accommodate trailers reflect the changing recreation needs of the period. At this campground, it is suggested to continue the preservation of all remaining historic features, (especially those in fair or poor condition) such as the masonry camp stoves, the community kitchen shelter, hiker register, and fire rings.

Period of Significance and Stewardship Recommendations:
Taylor Burn Forest Camp

The Taylor Burn Forest Camp retains high landscape integrity, and conveys the feeling of a remote forest camp that has evolved over time. Through existing built and natural features, the camp best represents the historic character between the years 1939-1958; this is the period of significance. Rehabilitation of the site is recommended on the basis that the existing physical features, (such as the sign, camp stoves, and outhouses) span different philosophies in Forest Service design. Additionally, rehabilitation is the most flexible method to account for continued use while accommodating future changes, such as forest compositional changes due to wildland fire or climate shift, or relocation of toilets due to sanitation requirements.

For example, the remaining concrete and porous basalt camp stoves are (collectively) in fair-to-poor condition. These stoves should be rehabilitated (preserving as much of the original materials as possible) for future camping use. On campsites where there are neither concrete or porous basalt stoves, the informal rock circle fire rings should be replaced with either a concrete stove design that is similar in proportions,

materials, and scale to the 1957 design (but clearly reflecting elements of modern construction) or a stove that is constructed of local rock, adhering to the aforementioned design criteria for the porous basalt rock stoves. Additionally, the existing toilets should be rehabilitated, and retained for future use when the toilet pits are relocated within the camp.

It is recommended to clear the vegetation from the top of the rock outcrop above the spring, and construct a view bench, as existed historically. Judicious removal of vegetation in the meadow itself will expand the view, and since the meadow is oriented roughly to the northwest, will aid in funneling prevailing summer wind patterns to help alleviate mosquitoes in those campsites adjacent to that area.

For the guard station area, it is recommended to remove the vegetation that is encroaching on the former pack animal pasture, as well as judicious removal of encroaching vegetation in the immediate vicinity of the station and barn. Doing so will maintain the historic character of the immediate landscape, as well as provide defensible space from the threat of wildfire.

Conclusions

The four campgrounds studied as a component of this thesis have, overall, changed little with regards to general layout and circulation. An automobile camper from the 1930s suddenly transported in time and placed at one of these sites today would instantly recognize their function and use. These campgrounds are clearly cultural landscapes, having been modified over time by humans to meet changing needs. As cultural landscapes, these campgrounds reveal the continuum of space and time, not only in Forest Service management, but larger cultural forces. Collectively, these

campgrounds represent the early era of the automobile in the United States, along with developing road networks. They represent the era of early motorized camping, born in an era of rapid technological change, where increasing industrialization, urbanization, and rural accessibility facilitated a cultural need for preservation of, and accessibility to natural resources. While it is unknown the future trends in motorized recreation, the stewardship of these places as cultural landscapes must continue in a fashion that evolves to meet changing needs, while retaining as much of their historical design elements as possible in order to perpetuate a sense of continuity and history to the public and minimize ecological disturbance to the immediate area.

APPENDIX A

EAGLE CREEK CAMPGROUND

Eagle Creek Aerial Photographs

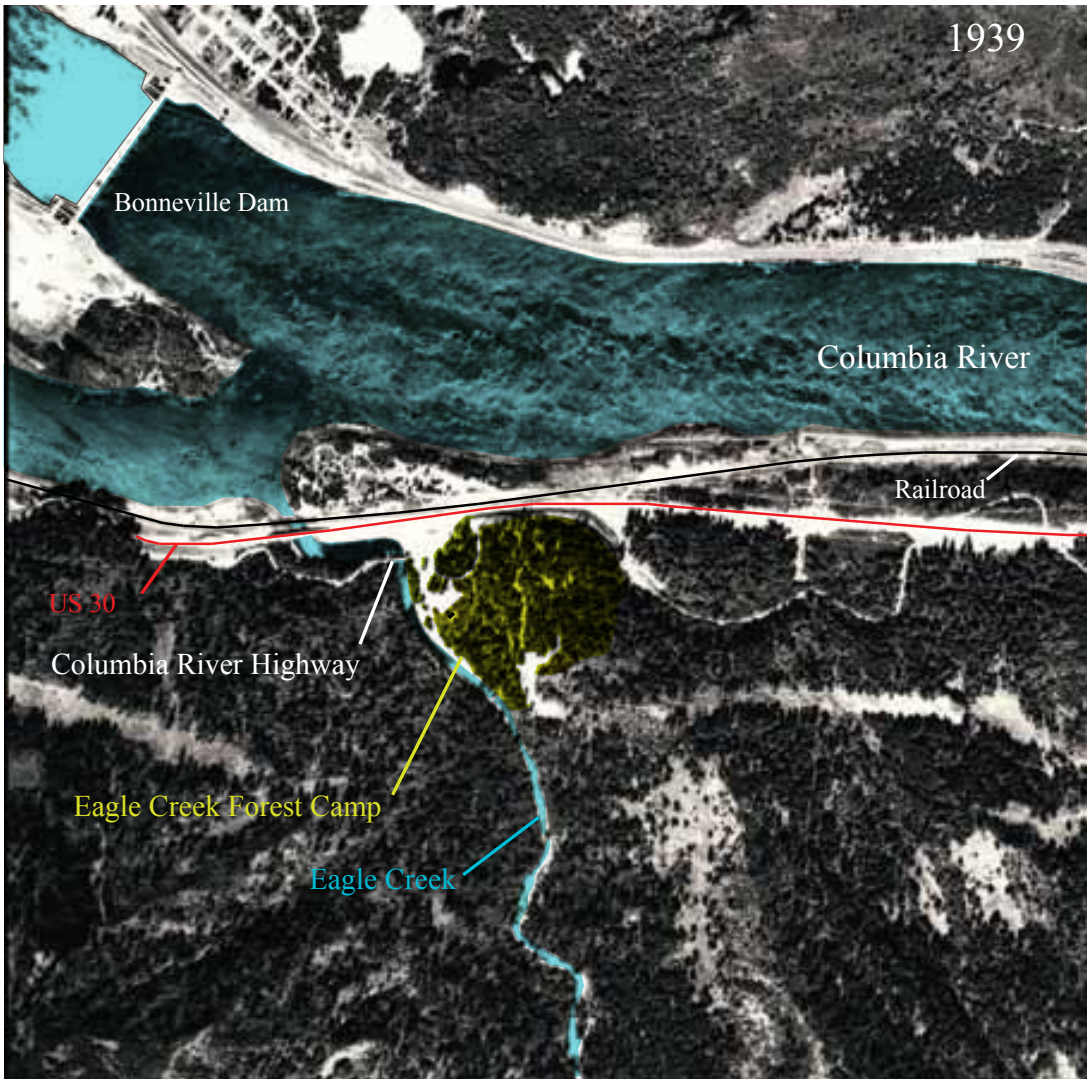


Figure 9. 1939: Eagle Creek Aerial Photograph. Even by this time, portions of the Columbia River Highway were considered out of date, and U.S. 30 was replacing portions of the older, sinuous road alignment. Here, the Columbia River Highway is the curved road, depicted as a white line through the trees. Within the camp itself, the original rectangular parking lot is clearly visible, as well as portions of the circulation system. Within the forest camp, it appears the area immediately along the creek has been hardened. The switchback to the upper campground area has been constructed. The Columbia River Highway still connects with the forest camp; however, it appears there is direct access off of U.S. 30 to the area as well. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

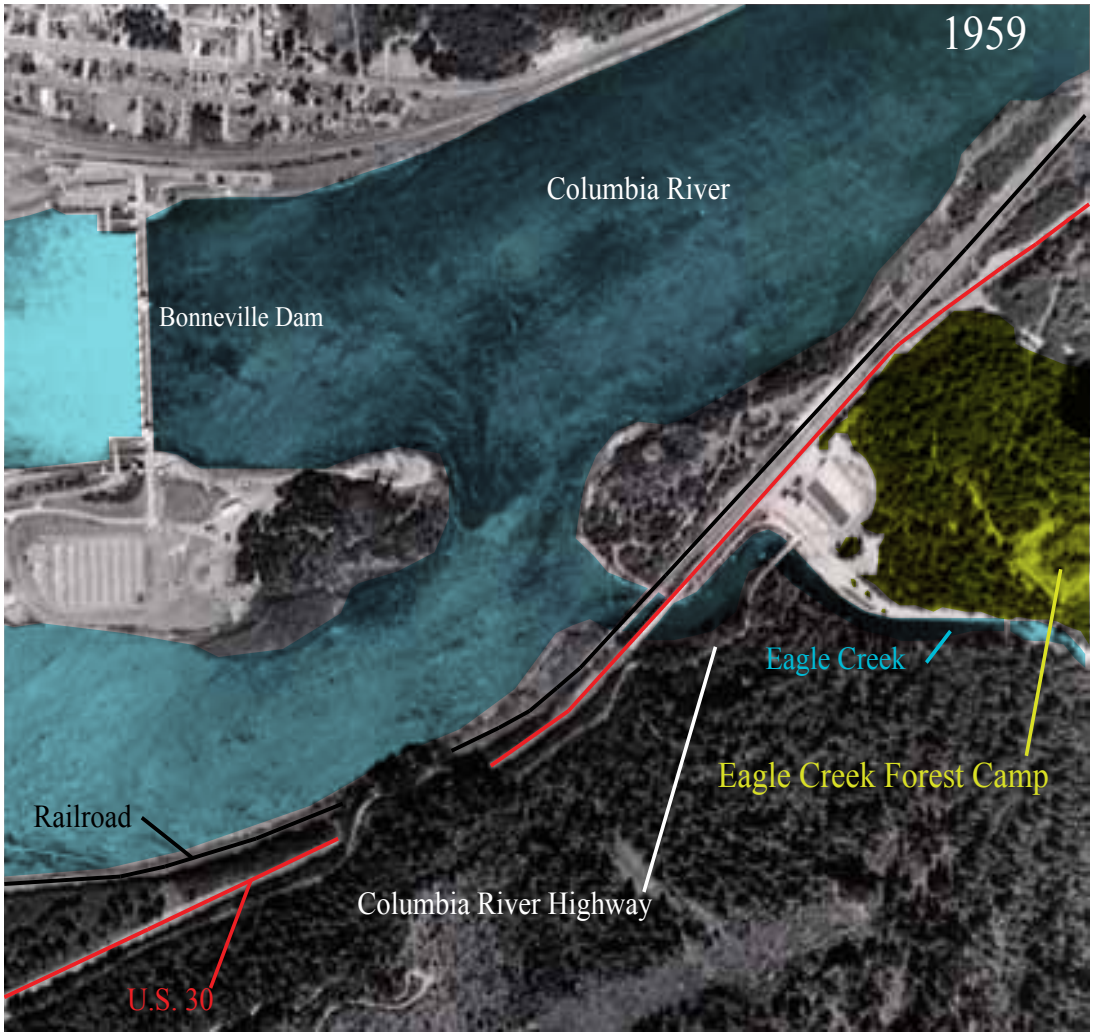


Figure 10. 1959: Evident here is the original rectangular parking area, with the fish hatchery constructed immediately adjacent. The former alignment of the Columbia River Highway is evident as the curved portion (delineating the forest edge) just behind the hatchery. Portions of the circulation system are more difficult to see in camp, indicating existing vegetation continues to grow. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

Figure 11. 1967: Along this portion, the existing section of U.S. 30 will become the eastbound lane of I-80N, while the westbound lane is being constructed on the north side of the railroad bridge (closest to the river). The most noticeable element here is that the Columbia River Highway road alignment is becoming more difficult to see. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

Eagle Creek Current Photographs

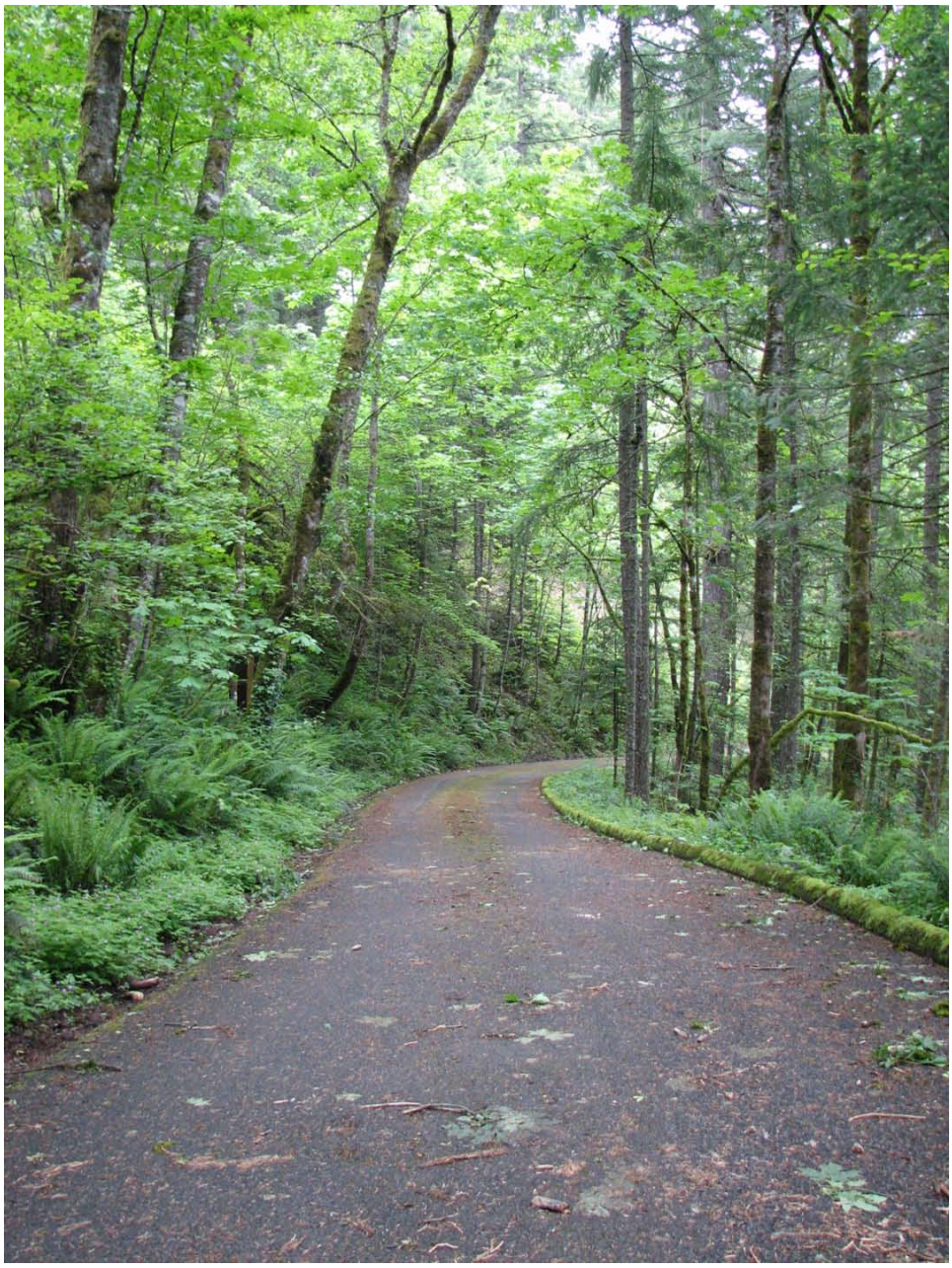


Figure 12. Switchback road, looking down from campground entrance to lower area. The road has been improved with paving at an unknown time.

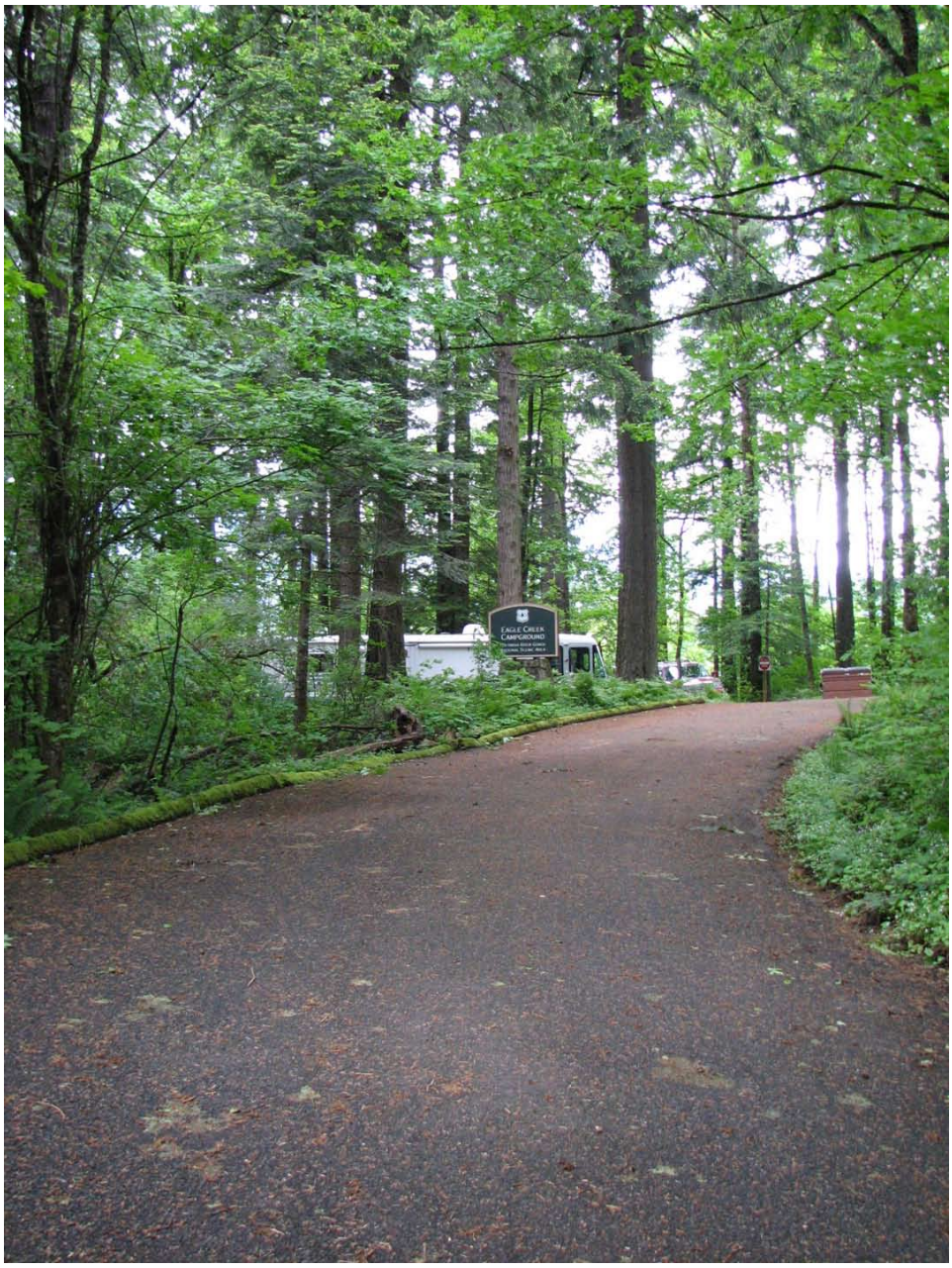


Figure 13. Switchback road, looking up to campground entrance. This area, overlooking the Columbia River, was once utilized as a housing area for the engineers involved with the construction of the Bonneville Dam.

Figure 14. Civilian Conservation Corps-era rustic masonry retaining wall, near the entrance of the campground area.

Figure 15. Campground bulletin board, non-historic (construction date unknown). The style is similar to the restroom just behind.

Figure 16. More modern campground restroom, date of construction is unknown. In the foreground, the water dispenser appears to date from the Civilian Conservation Corps period (however, these did not appear on any plans). Further research is needed on the water dispensers, and the rock retaining wall just in front of the restroom.

Figure 17. Typical campsite arrangement. Note the narrow garage spur, and mix of boulders and wooden posts utilized for barricades. For consistency, it is recommended to use either posts or boulders throughout the site. If posts are used, retaining the horizontal decorative pattern seen on the non-historic campsite marker at left is appropriate.

Figure 18. Campsite #2. Decorative number post detail. Note the vegetation provides appropriate privacy screening.

Figure 19. Typical non-historic steel fire ring. All campsites have this fire ring type, which was installed at an unknown date.

Figure 20. Typical campsite along northern portion of campground loop. Note the sharp dropoff down to I-84, and the Columbia River.

Figure 21. Typical heavy lumber picnic table.

Figure 22. Campground area circulation system, along the southern end of the loop, looking toward camp host site.

Figure 23. Non-historic amphitheatre, off of Buck Point Trail, along the southern portion of the campground loop.

Figure 24. Campground circulation, non-historic amphitheatre sign, along the southern loop portion of the campground loop.

Figure 25. Campground circulation, eastern end of campground loop. Recommend removal of sign from tree, and concentrate signage in appropriate areas.

Figure 26. Buck Point Trail fencing, in poor condition. The trail runs along the northern portion of the campground, behind the campsites at the edge of a sharp dropoff. Recommended to either remove the fence completely where not absolutely required for safety, or replace with the decorative posts (campsite markers), and heavy horizontal boards, similar to the pattern seen for the Historic Columbia River Highway guardrails.

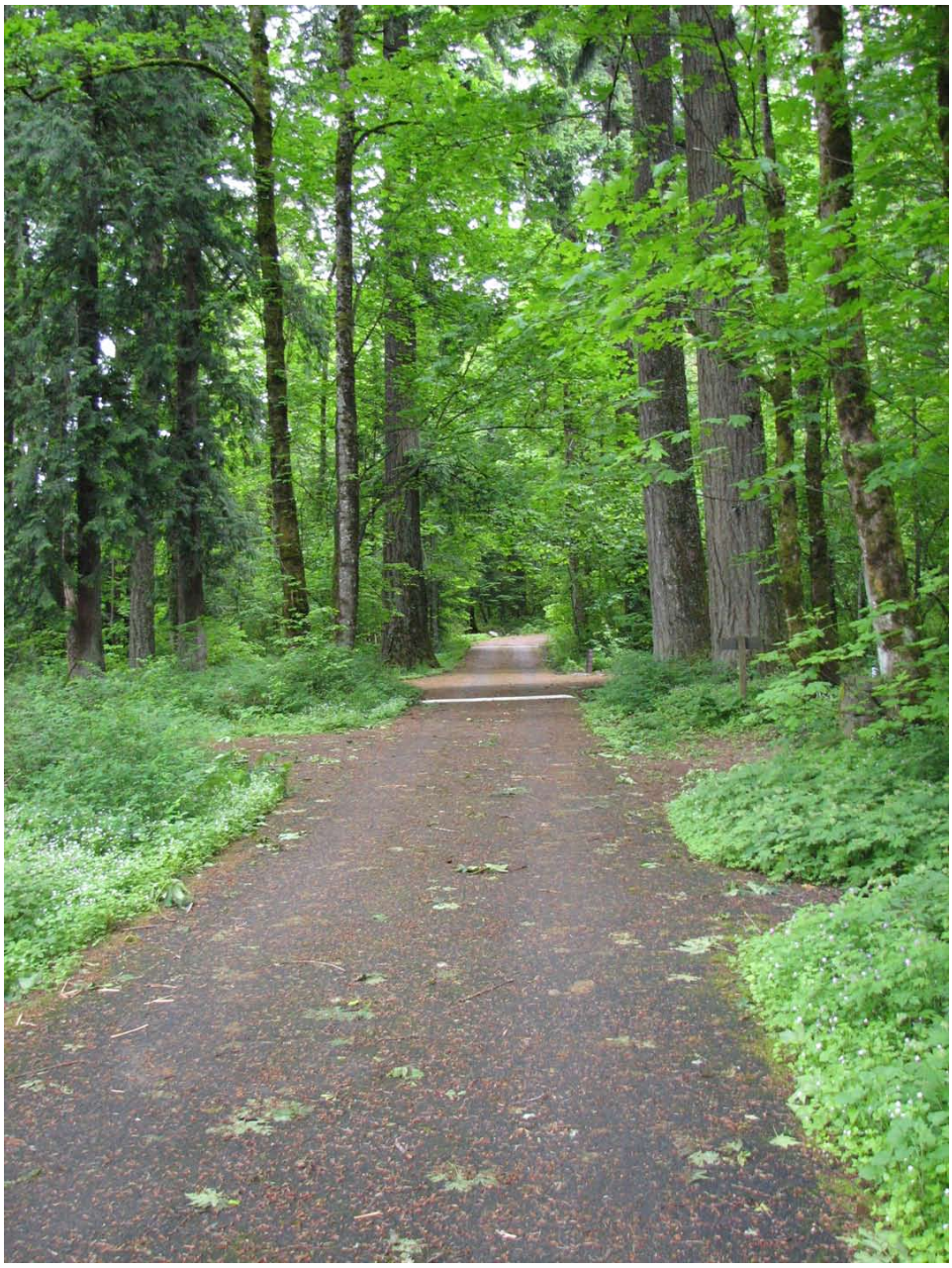


Figure 27. Campground circulation, northern portion of loop road.

Figure 28. Robert Geranium (*Geranium robertanium*), non-native planting, in rough, rectangular shape of garage-spur.

Figure 29. Dumpster near camp host site. Main entrance sign just to the right, out of the photograph.

Figure 30. Example of boulders at end of garage spur. Recommend placing the boulder to the far closer to the left edge of the parking spur, to eliminate vegetation from being trampled further.

Figure 31. Only remaining historic (Civilian Conservation Corps-era) masonry camp stove. Now hidden in overgrowth in the vicinity of site 13. This stove may offer a clue regarding a potential circulation and campsite layout change in the campground between the 1930s and the present.

Figure 32. Abandoned Civilian Conservation Corps-era water dispenser, near site nine.

Figure 33. Large Periwinkle (*Vinca major*), non-native, planted in areas throughout the campground. These non-native plants may be another indicator of a potential campground circulation change, or may be indicative of historic plantings in the former Bonneville Dam engineer's housing area.

Figure 34. Robert Geranium (*Geranium robertanium*), non-native, naturalized plant, that appears in monoculture in rough, rectangular shapes in the campground area. This plant may be an indicator of a potential campground circulation realignment.

Figure 35. Lower area, road along Eagle Creek. Retaining walls from the Civilian Conservation Corps era. Creek to immediate left, fish hatchery ponds, ahead (I-84 in background beyond trees)

Figure 36. Lower area, main parking area, looking toward Historic Columbia River Highway.

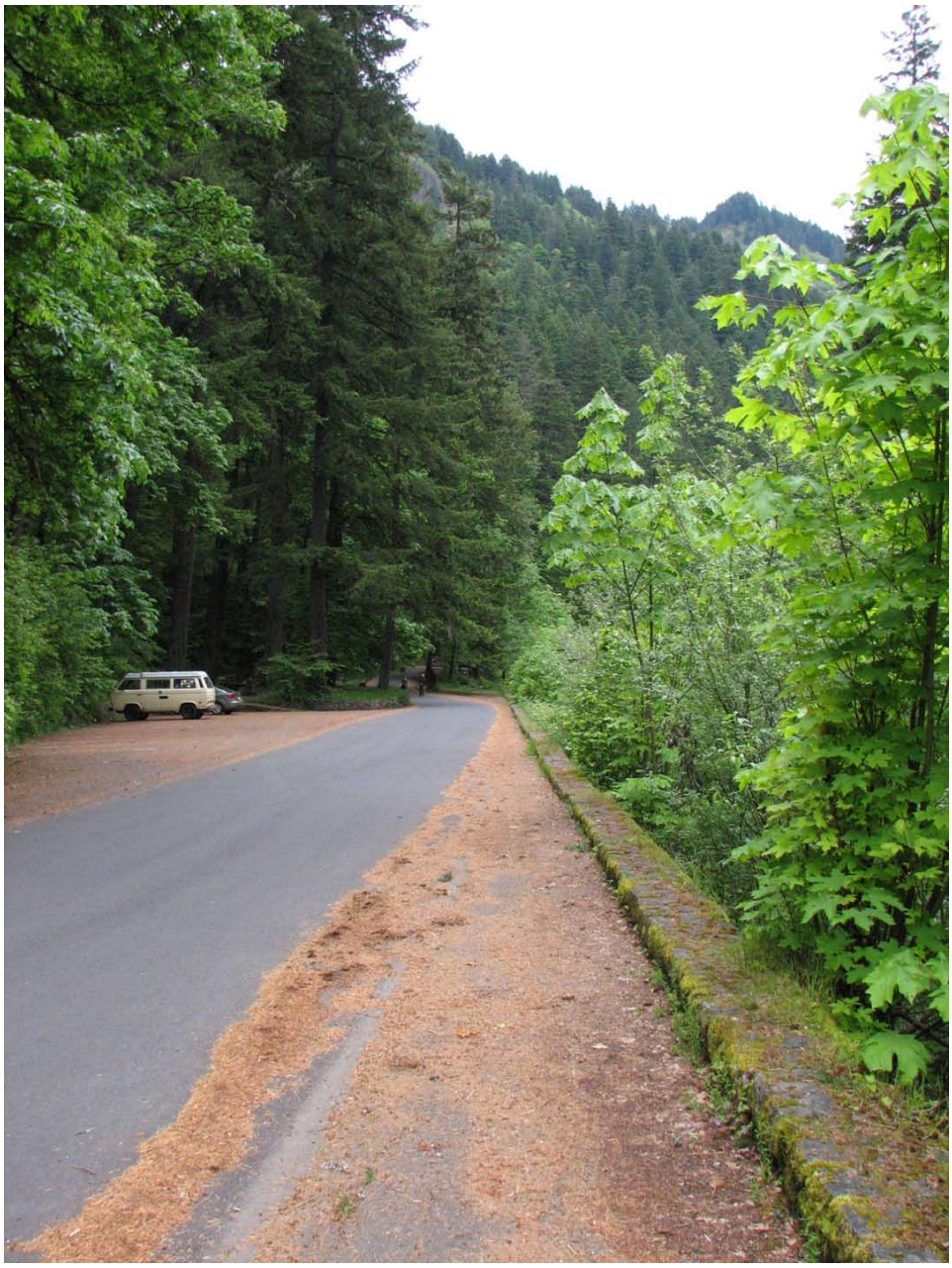


Figure 37. Lower area, road along Eagle Creek. Historic rock retaining wall, looking toward Eagle Creek Trail.

Figure 38. Lower area, revealing lush, native plantings and historic, Civilian Conservation Corps-era rockwork.

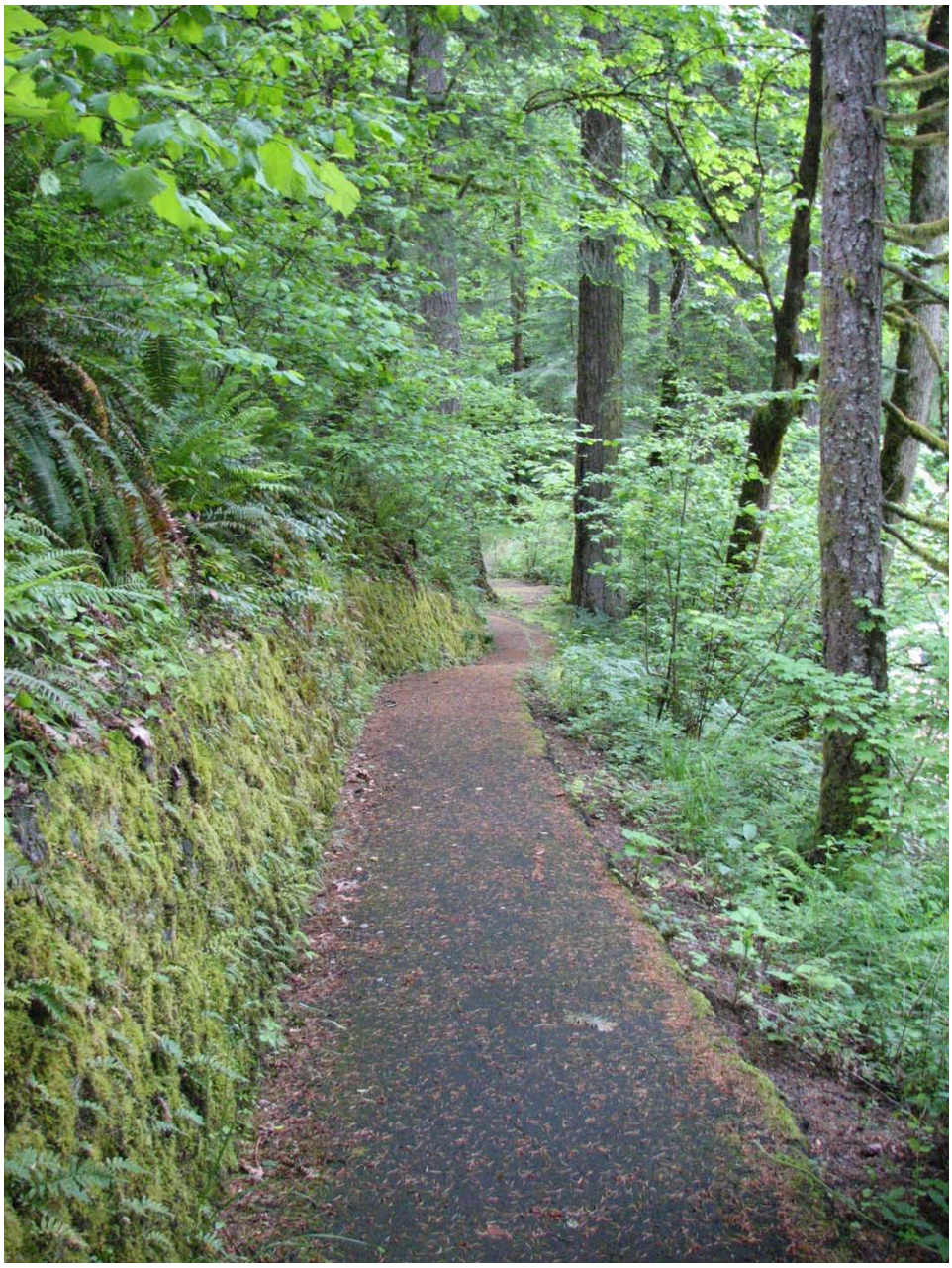


Figure 39. Lower area, showing a portion of the paved trail network (paving date unknown) and historic, Civilian Conservation Corps-era rockwork.

Figure 40. Lower area, showing handicap accessible table, paved pad, and non-historic grill. Recommend to remove the grills, as they are out-of-character with setting.

Figure 41. Lower area, recommend removal of fencing (unless temporary) to enhance natural feel.

Figure 42. Lower area showing interpretive signing, and handicap accessible parking. Eagle Creek in background.

Figure 43. Lower area, showing community kitchen shelter recent repairs. Further research needed on white-painted wood surrounding chimney. This should be removed if not historic.

Figure 44. Lower area, showing 1930s Civilian Conservation Corps era masonry water dispenser still in use.

Figure 45. Lower area, showing typical Civilian Conservation Corps-era rustic rockwork, retaining wall, and community kitchen shelter.

Figure 46. Lower area, note massive Civilian Conservation Corps-era masonry camp stove. Note paved path alignment with hiker register and Eagle Creek Trail sign in background. The trail sign is in poor condition, and must be repaired.

Figure 47. Lower area, Civilian Conservation Corps-era hiker register. Note fair-poor condition of support log. This must be repaired or replaced with in-kind materials.

Figure 48. Lower area, paved road circulation system and masonry retaining wall. Community kitchen shelter to right.

Figure 49. Eagle Creek Recreation Area main entrance sign. Main parking lot in background to left, road leading down along Eagle Creek to right. Cascade Fish Hatchery immediately to left.

Figure 50. Lower area road, leading down toward community kitchen shelter. Note rustic masonry rockwork, from Civilian Conservation Corps-era.

Figure 51. Lower area, main restroom. Note Civilian Conservation Corps-era rockwork (steps, curbs). Based on available historic information, the evenly-spaced trees surrounding the restroom were historic plantings by the Forest Service.

Figure 52. Lower area, picnic area and rustic fireplace. Fireplace in fair condition and requires repair.

Figure 53. Lower area, community kitchen shelter.

Figure 54. Lower area rustic rockwork and drain.

Eagle Creek Historic Photographs

Figure 55. August 1916: Packing supplies up the road in the Eagle Creek Campground. Building in background indicated as the first warehouse constructed on campgrounds, later replaced by a garage. The garage does not exist today. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 56. Eagle Creek Forest Camp general scene, taken between 1916-1936. Given the road slope, the vegetation to the left, and the sharp hillside to the right, this picture was likely taken where the lower road and parking area exist immediately along Eagle Creek today. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 57. July 1916: First hiker register booth constructed at the Eagle Creek Forest Camp. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 58. Light, dimensional lumber type picnic table used on Mt. Hood National Forest before the Civilian Conservation Corps constructed rustic tables. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 59. Light, dimensional lumber type picnic table used on Mt. Hood National Forest before the Civilian Conservation Corps constructed rustic tables. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 60. 1923: Utilitarian camp stove design constructed at the Eagle Creek Forest Camp, 1916. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 61. 1922: Utility camp stoves and dimensional lumber picnic tables in use at Eagle Creek Forest Camp. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 62. 1919: Picnic parties at Eagle Creek Forest Camp. Note the lack of formal recreation site planning. Cut poles are used a delineation between the road and picnic area, however. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 63. Circa 1919: Main parking area, Eagle Creek Forest Camp. The Columbia River Highway bridge spanning Eagle Creek can be seen in the background. The check in tent can also be seen right along the highway. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 64. Civilian Conservation Corps improvements at Eagle Creek Forest Camp. Shown is the rustic hiker register, rock wall, and Eagle Creek Recreation Trail sign. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 65. Civilian Conservation Corps improvements at Eagle Creek. Rustic masonry stove in use. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 66. August 13, 1936. Civilian Conservation Corps members installing a rustic picnic table, Eagle Creek Forest Camp. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

Figure 67. Temporary homesite for Bonneville Dam construction engineers. In 1937, all homes were removed and the area became an upper-level campground at Eagle Creek Forest Camp. Courtesy USDA Forest Service, Heritage Files, Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area, Hood River, Oregon.

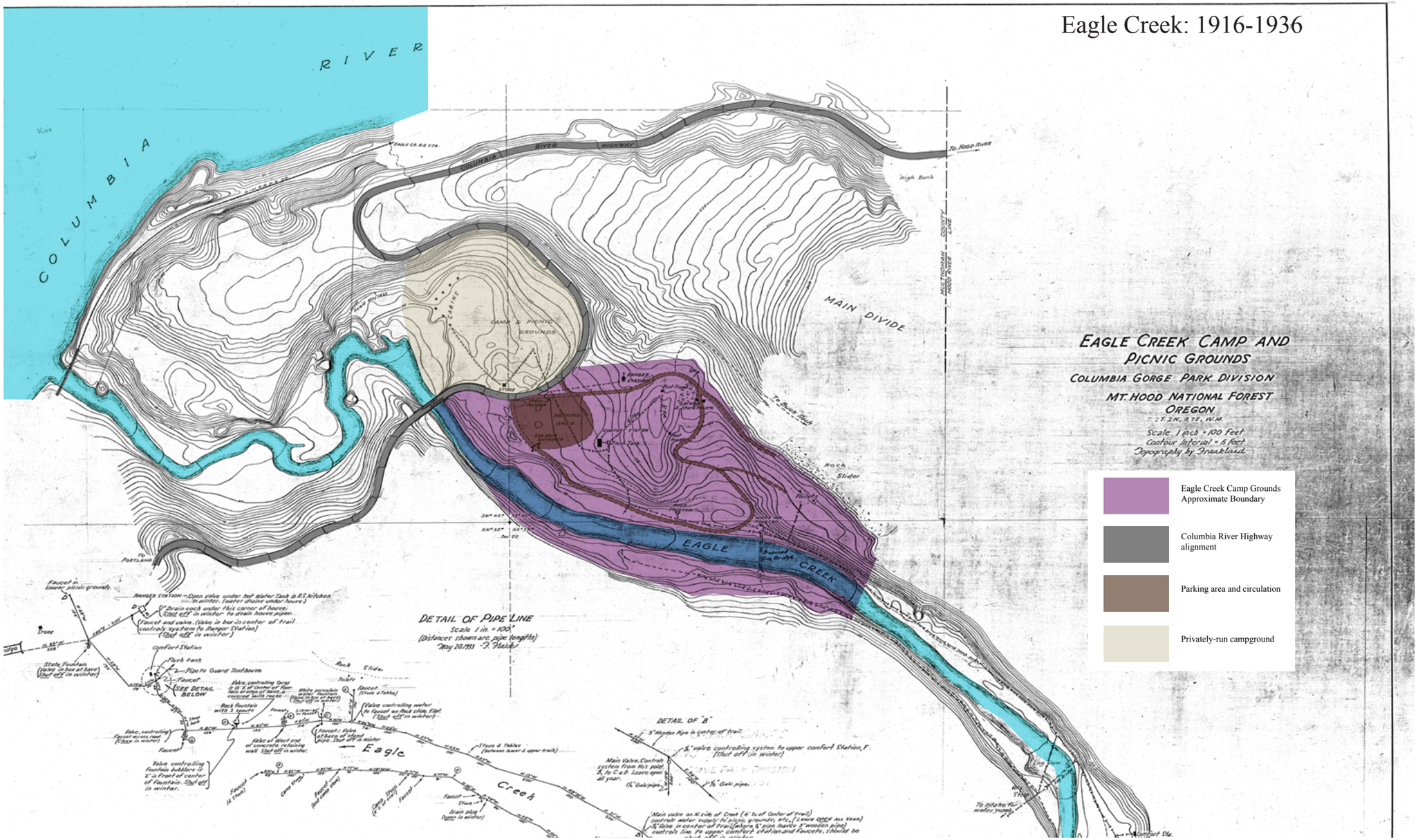


Figure 68: Eagle Creek Forest Camp: 1916-1936. Historical topography and site plan, with water system infrastructure. Base map courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service, Columbia River Gorge N.S.A., Heritage Program Files, Hood River, Oregon.

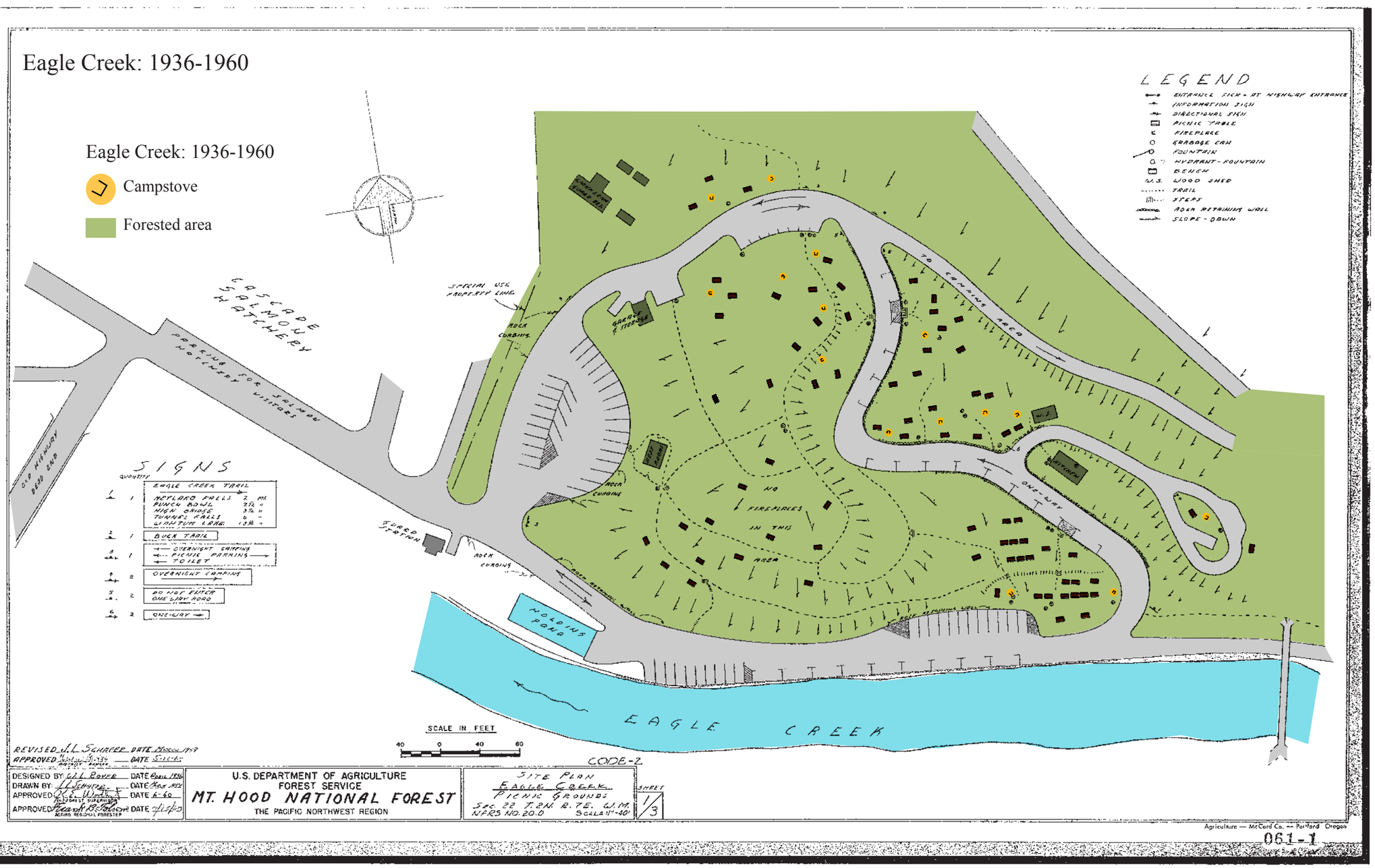
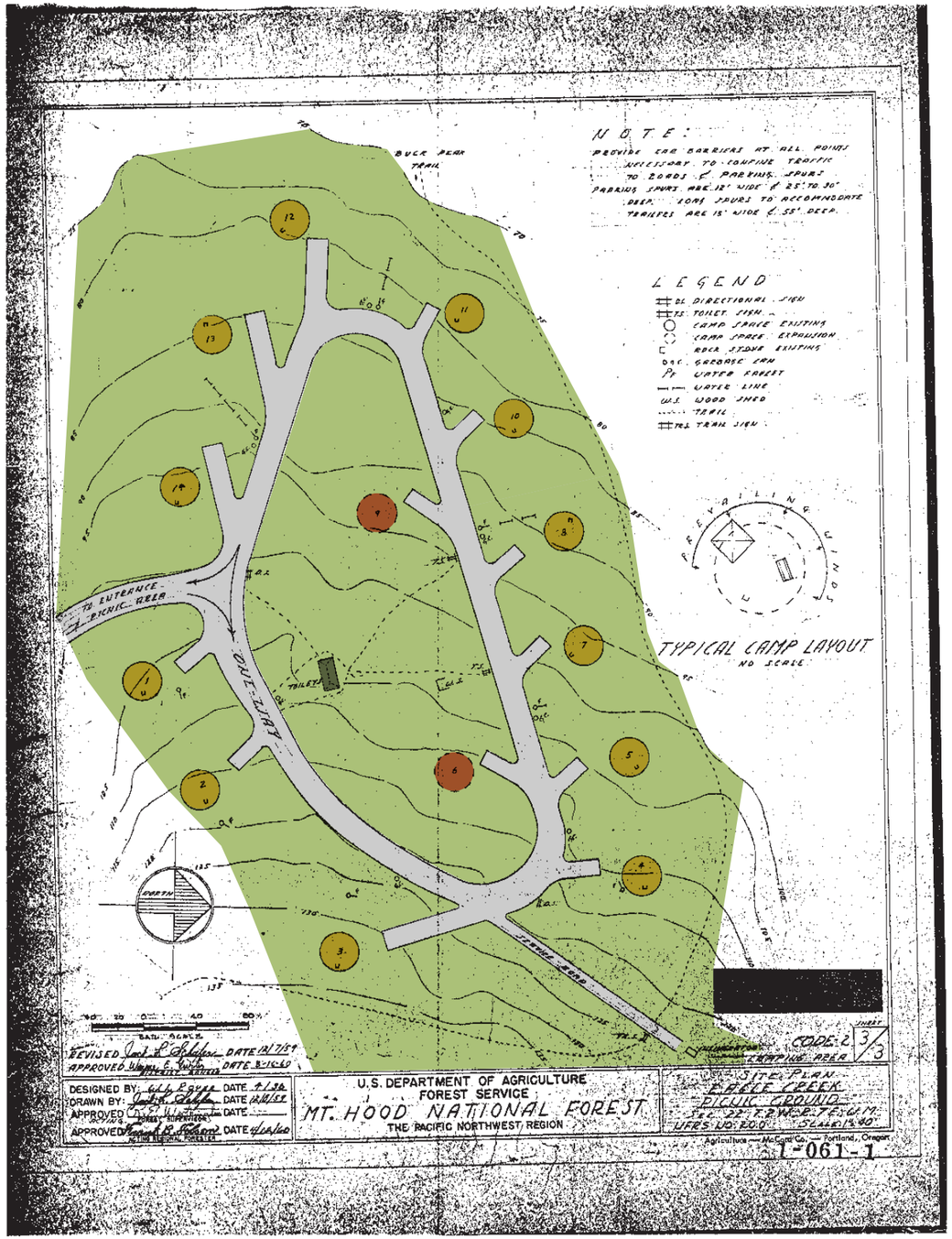


Figure 69: Eagle Creek Forest Camp: 1936-1960. Historical site plan, depicting the extent of C.C.C improvements. Base map courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service, Columbia River Gorge N.S.A., Heritage Program Files, Hood River, Oregon.



Eagle Creek: 1936-1969

Additional Legend

- Campsite
- Proposed Campsite
- Forested area
- Restroom

Figure 70: Eagle Creek: 1936-1969. Historical site plan, depicting the extent of C.C.C improvements in the campground. Base map courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service, Columbia River Gorge N.S.A., Heritage Program Files, Hood River, Oregon.

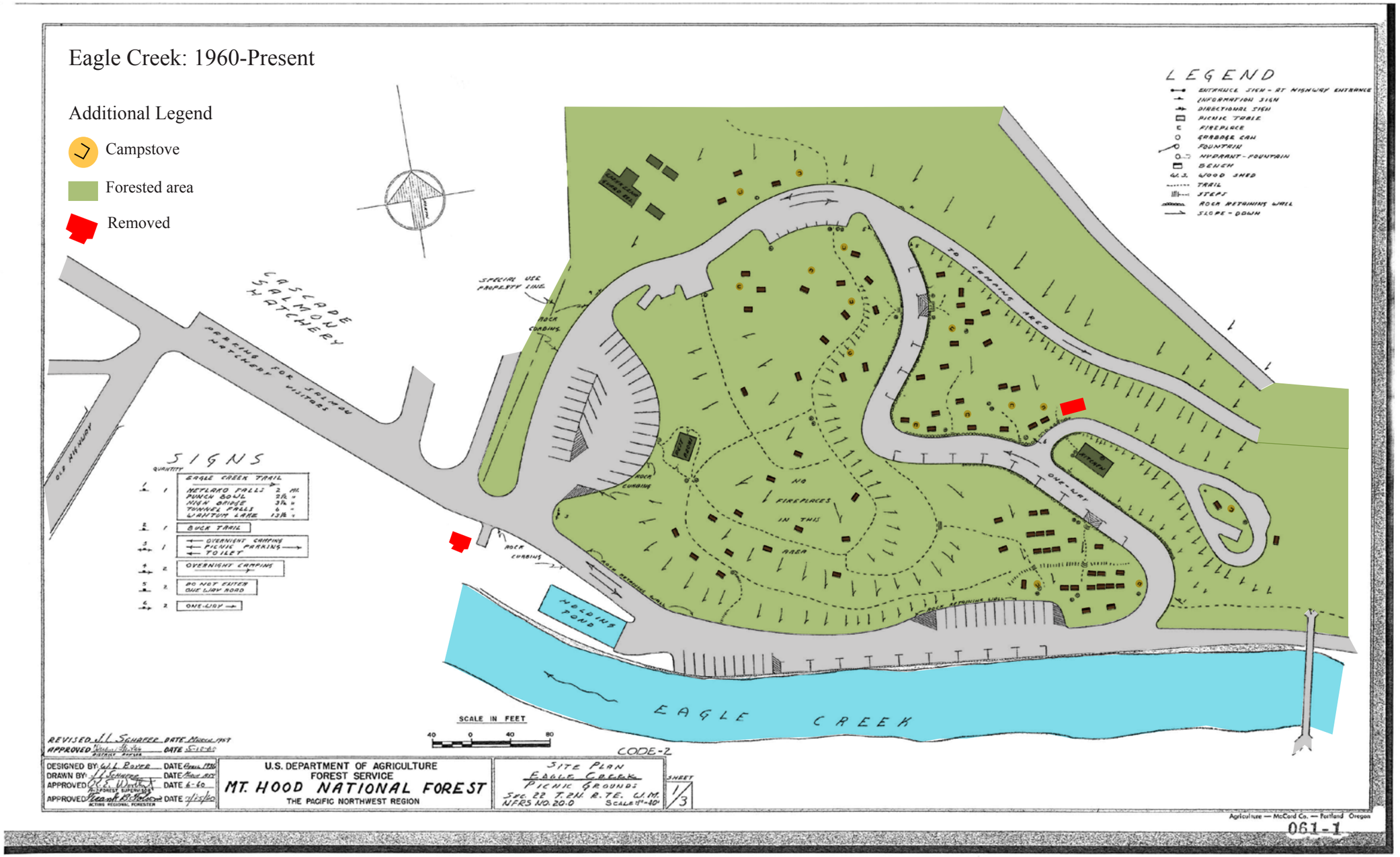
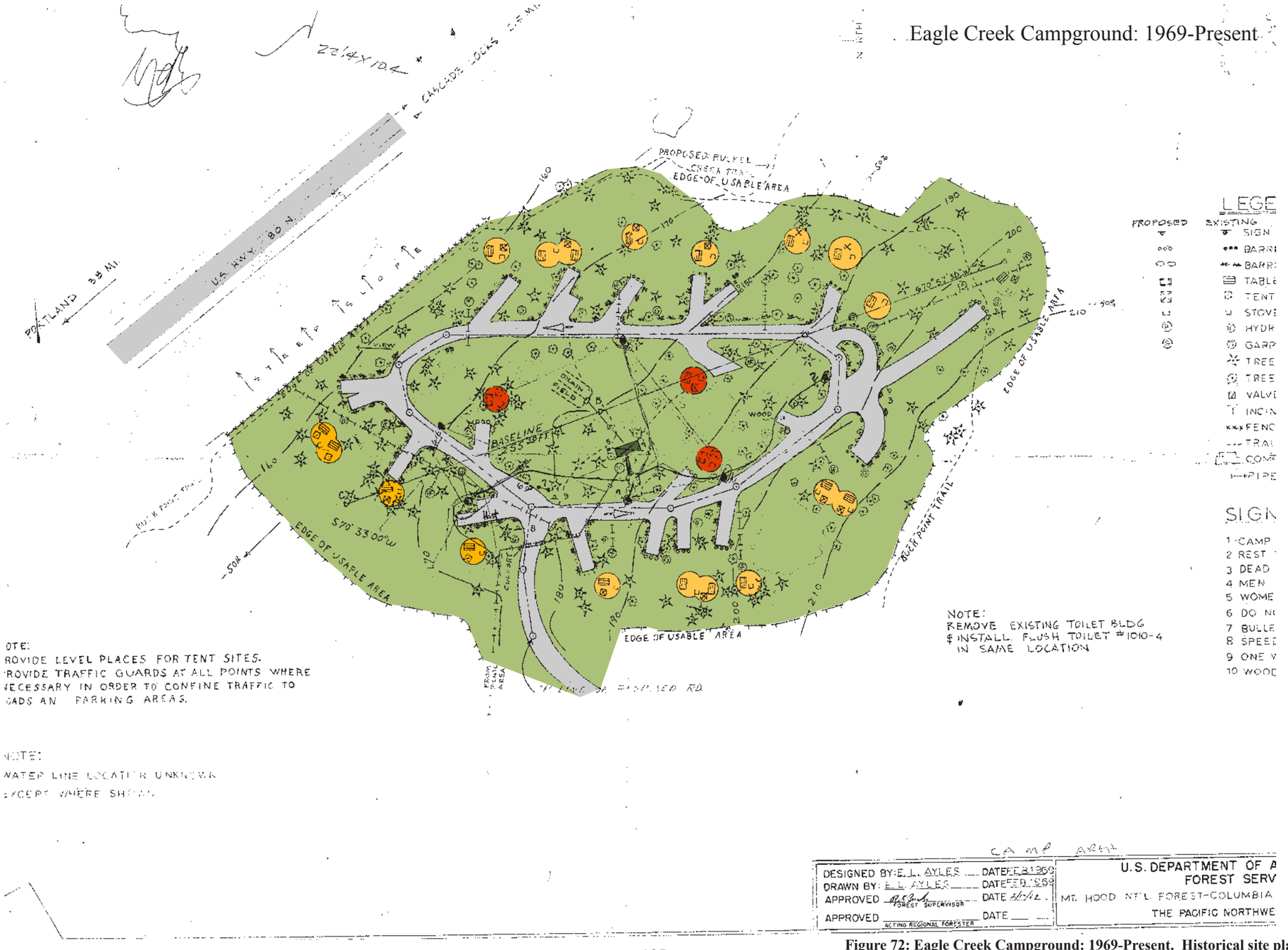


Figure 71: Eagle Creek: 1960-Present. Historical site plan, depicting physical changes to the present. Base map courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service, Columbia River Gorge N.S.A., Heritage Program Files, Hood River, Oregon.



OTE:
ROVIDE LEVEL PLACES FOR TENT SITES.
'ROVIDE TRAFFIC GUARDS AT ALL POINTS WHERE
NECESSARY IN ORDER TO CONFINE TRAFFIC TO
OADS AN PARKING AREAS.

NOTE:
REMOVE EXISTING TOILET BLDG
& INSTALL FLUSH TOILET #1010-4
IN SAME LOCATION

NOTE:
WATER LINE LOCATION UNKNOWN
EXCEPT WHERE SHOWN

CAMP AREA

DESIGNED BY: E. L. AYLES	DATE FEB 1969
DRAWN BY: E. L. AYLES	DATE FEB '969
APPROVED FOREST SUPERVISOR	DATE 4/24/72
APPROVED ACTING REGIONAL FORESTER	DATE

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF A
FOREST SERV
MT. HOOD NT'L. FOREST-COLUMBIA
THE PACIFIC NORTHWE

Figure 72: Eagle Creek Campground: 1969-Present. Historical site plan, depicting physical changes to the present. Base map courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service, Columbia River Gorge N.S.A., Heritage Program Files, Hood River, Oregon.

APPENDIX B

MCKEE BRIDGE DAY USE AREA

McKee Bridge Aerial Photographs

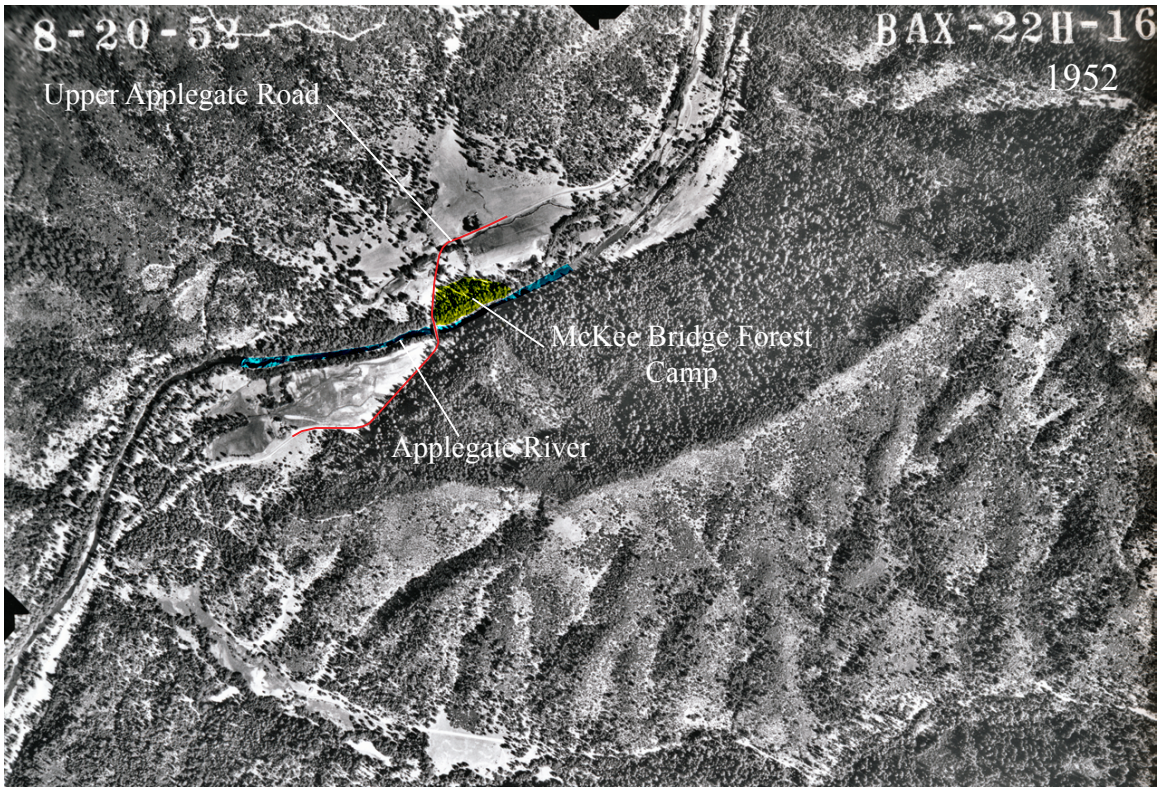


Figure 73. 1952: McKee Bridge Forest Camp. Note the Upper Applegate Road still used the covered bridge crossing. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

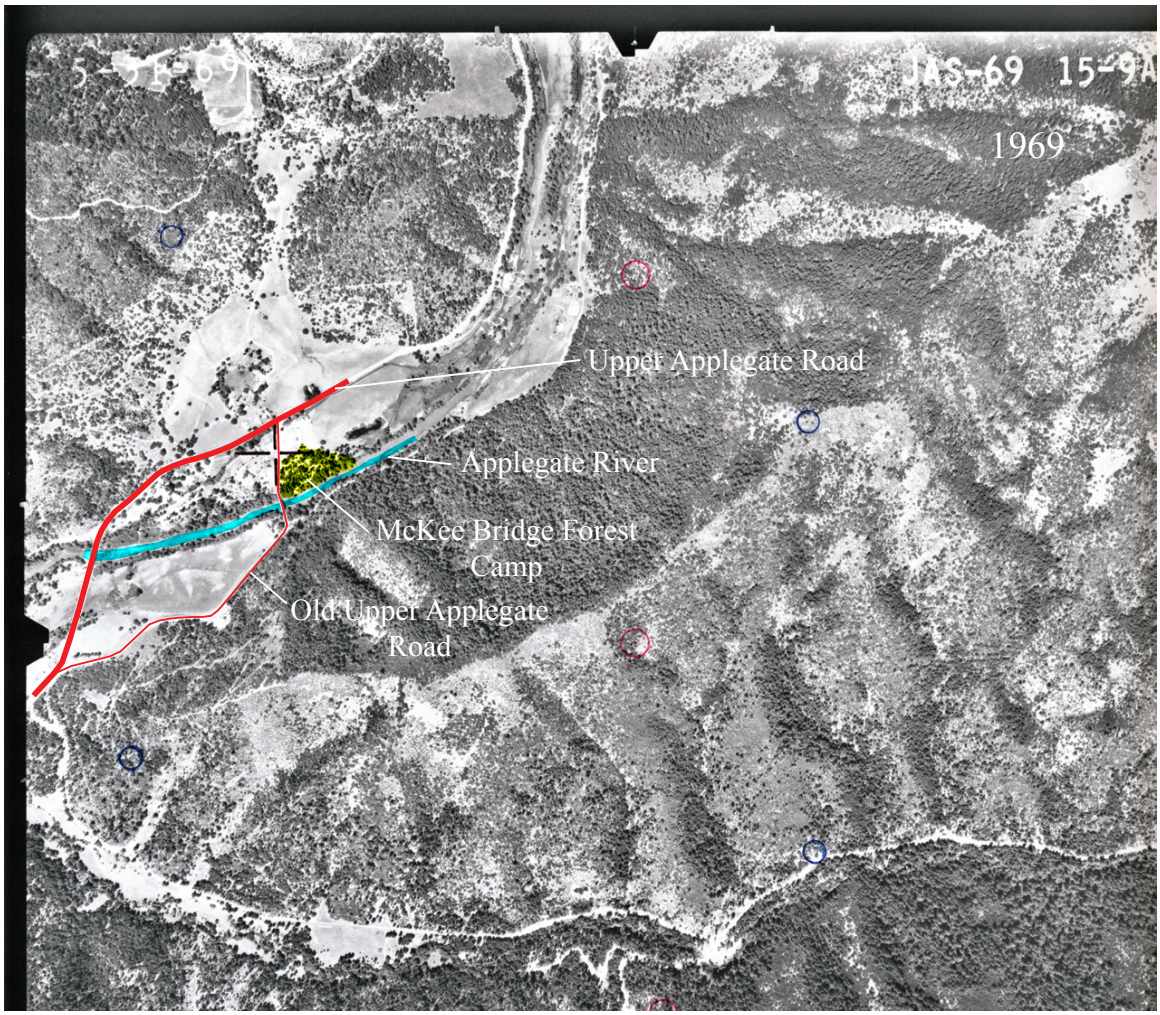


Figure 74. 1969: The new road has been extended to a river crossing further to the south. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

McKee Bridge Current Photographs

Figure 75. McKee Bridge and Applegate River. Bridge constructed in 1917.

Figure 76. Former Upper Applegate Road and day use area sign. This sign is to be replaced with a reconstruction of the original, depicted in historic photographs.

Figure 77. Old Upper Applegate Road, heading toward covered bridge. Day use area fencing on left.

Figure 78. Day use area bulletin board and entrance area. Of the four recreation sites, this is the only one retaining unpaved circulation systems.

Figure 79. Former playground area. Community kitchen shelter to the right in the background. Although the historic rustic playground equipment is long gone, maintaining this area as a recreation space (currently horseshoes) is an appropriate, and sympathetic use.

Figure 80. Restroom that replaced historic bark-sided structure. The design is sympathetic to a rustic style; however, a unique design that better matches some of the design elements of the original restroom is recommended.

Figure 81. Civilian Conservation Corps community kitchen shelter.

Figure 82. Community kitchen shelter stove, rehabilitated for use.

Figure 83. Civilian Conservation Corps era camp stove, steel fire ring, and table.

Figure 84. Swayne irrigation ditch and community bonfire ring.

Figure 85. Civilian Conservation Corps masonry fire ring and pot holders.

Figure 86. Civilian Conservation Corps masonry stove, restored for interpretive use only.

Figure 87. Modern bridge that replaced historic type.

Figure 88. Historic cobble steps, showing erosion.

Figure 89. Former bathhouse site.

Figure 90. Civilian Conservation Corps era rustic wall along Applegate River.

Figure 91. Civilian Conservation Corps era barbeque pit.

Figure 92. Civilian Conservation Corps era barbeque pit.

Figure 93. Civilian Conservation Corps era steps leading to the Applegate River.

Figure 94. Former fence supports atop river wall. These fences have been replaced.

Figure 95. Applegate River, looking downstream.

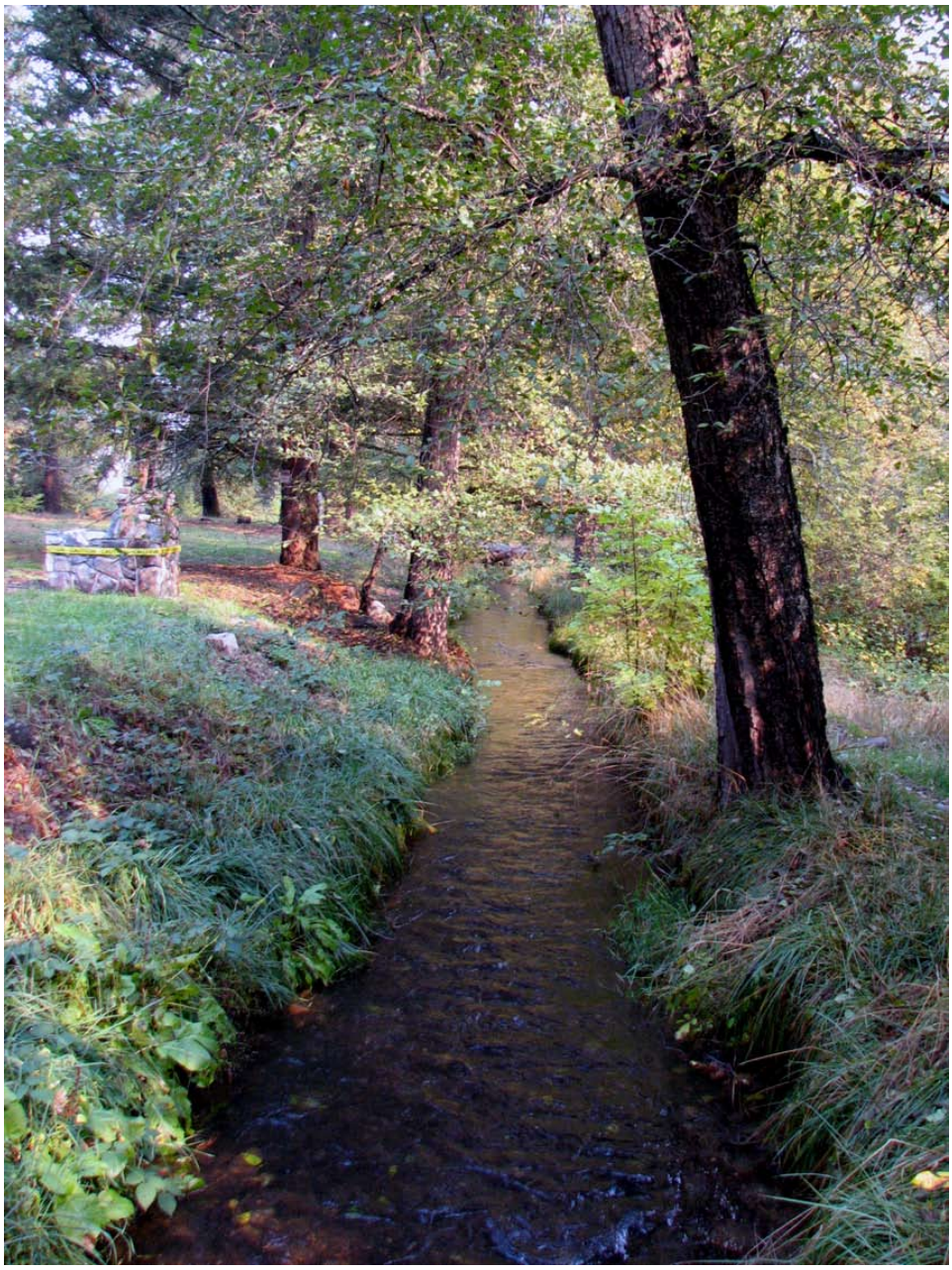


Figure 96. Swayne Irrigation Ditch.

Figure 97. Barbeque pit, showing undercut that must be repaired.

Figure 98. General campground scene, looking west.

Figure 99. Appropriate signage.

Figure 100. Recommend removal of signs tacked onto trees and relocate to bulletin board.

Figure 101. Abandoned camp stove (between the Swayne Irrigation ditch and the Applegate River) utilized as prototype for the rehabilitation of the remaining stoves in the day-use area.

McKee Bridge Historic Photographs

Figure 102. Photograph No. 30; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, entrance sign; 1936"; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

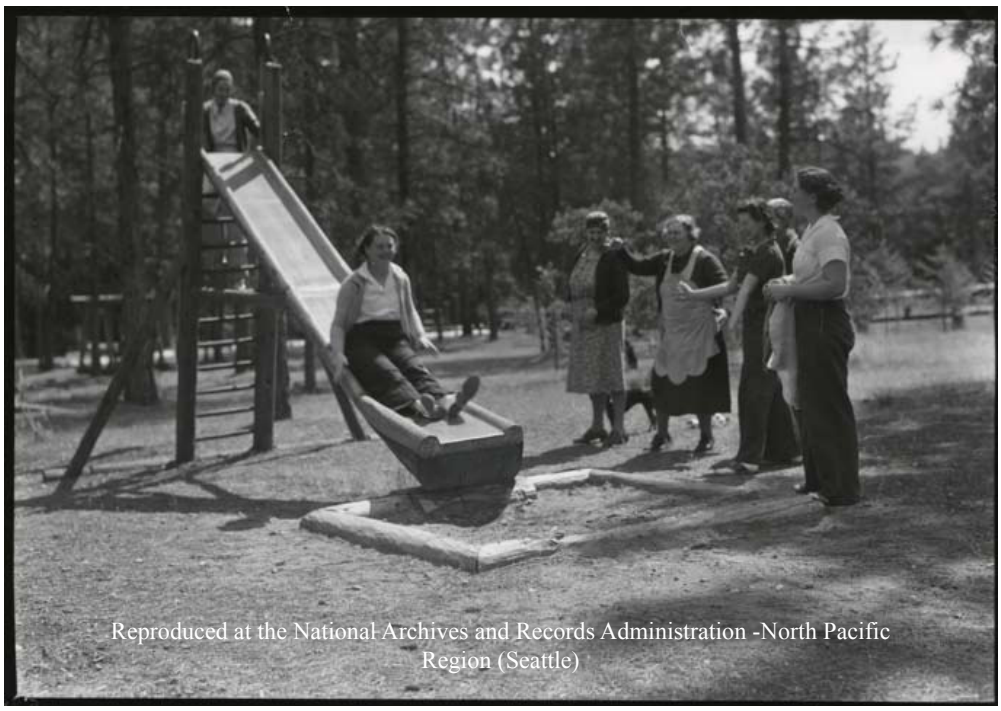


Figure 103. Photograph No. 37; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, playground equipment, slide"; 1940, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

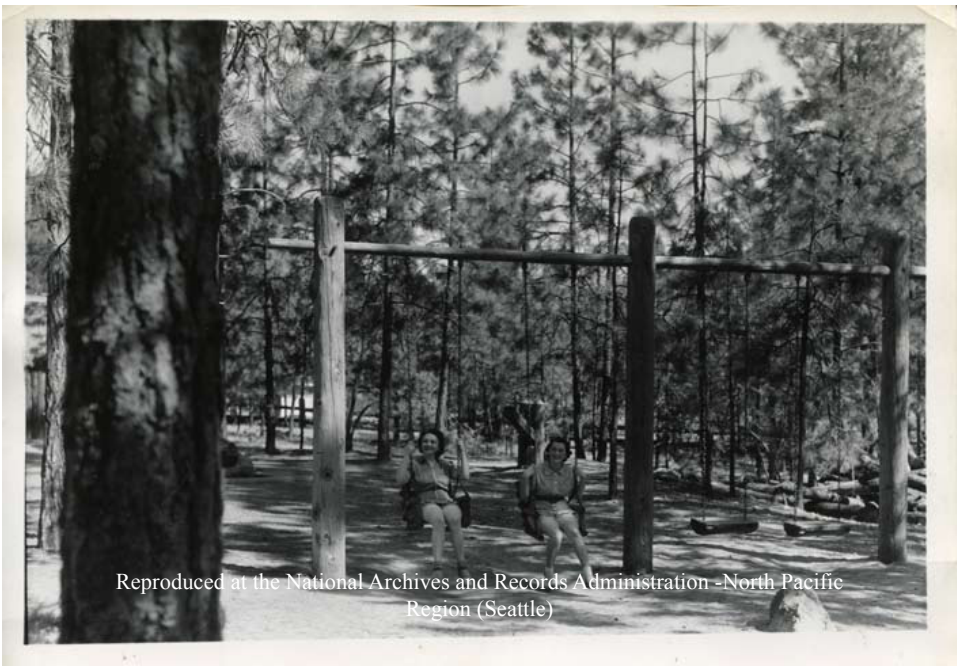


Figure 104. Photograph No. 38; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, playground equipment-swings"; 1940, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 105. Photograph No. 37.1; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, playground equipment, slide"; 1940, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 106. Photograph No. 32; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, privy with bark siding"; 1936, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

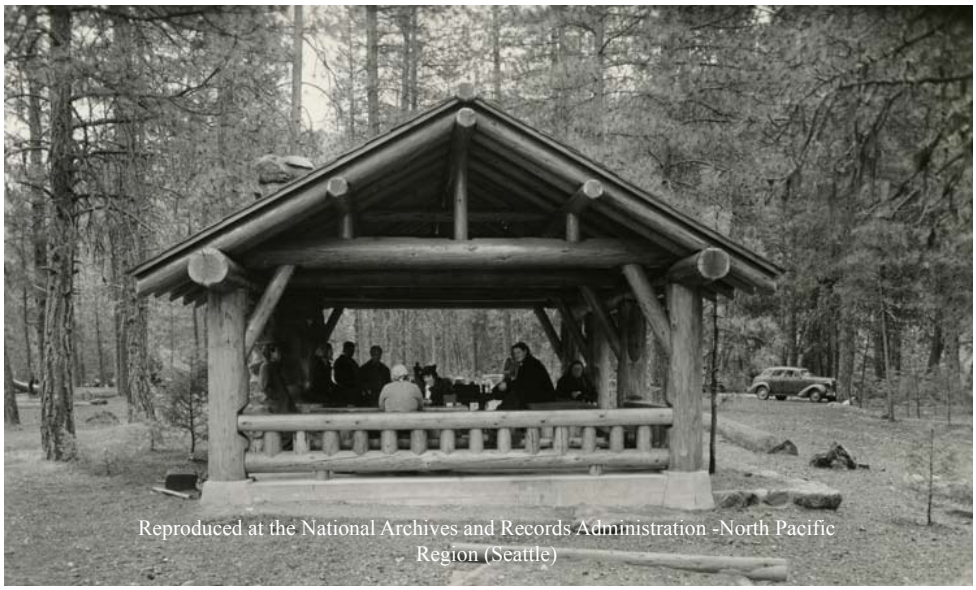


Figure 107. Photograph No. 35; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, CCC community kitchen structure"; 1939, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle). Here, the Forest Service shield can be seen carved into the purlin ends. The design is based on Plate 12-E of the 1930s Recreation Plans Handbook.

Figure 108. Photograph No. 36.1; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, picnic party at community ktichen"; 1930s, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

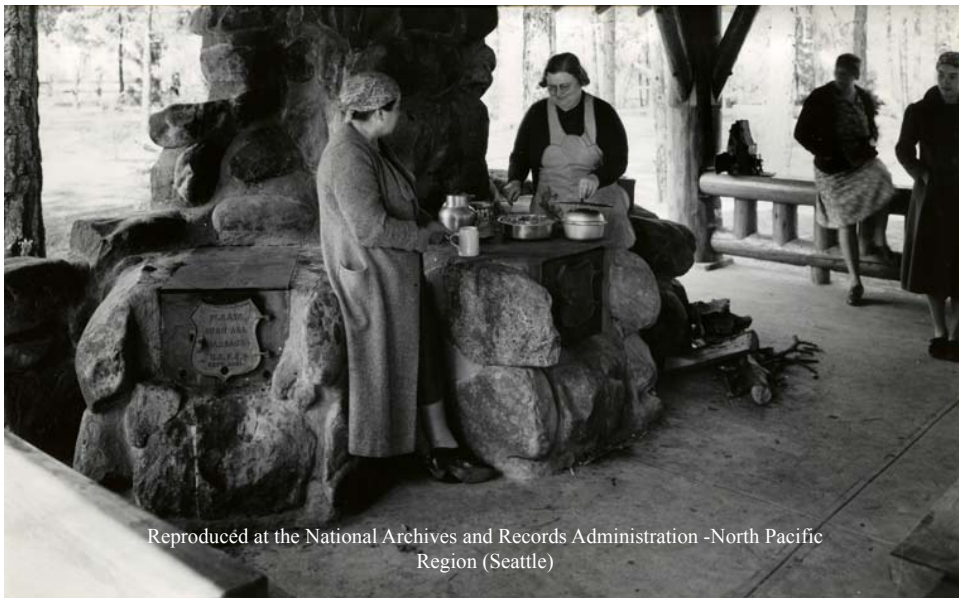


Figure 109. Photograph No. 36; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, interior-community kitchen"; 1939, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle). The three stoves have been recently restored; however, some of the repairs do not match the original appearance.

Figure 110. Photograph No. 31; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, rustic-type stone-lined stove"; 1936, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle). This may have been one of the stoves between the irrigation ditch and the river. Only one remains today, and its appearance is much more refined than this random cobble design.

Figure 111. Photograph No. 33; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, foot-bridge across irrigation ditch"; 1936, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 112. Photograph No. 34; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, foot-bridge across irrigation ditch"; 1936, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 113. Photograph No. 39; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, rock-lined, "sunken" campfire area"; 1939, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

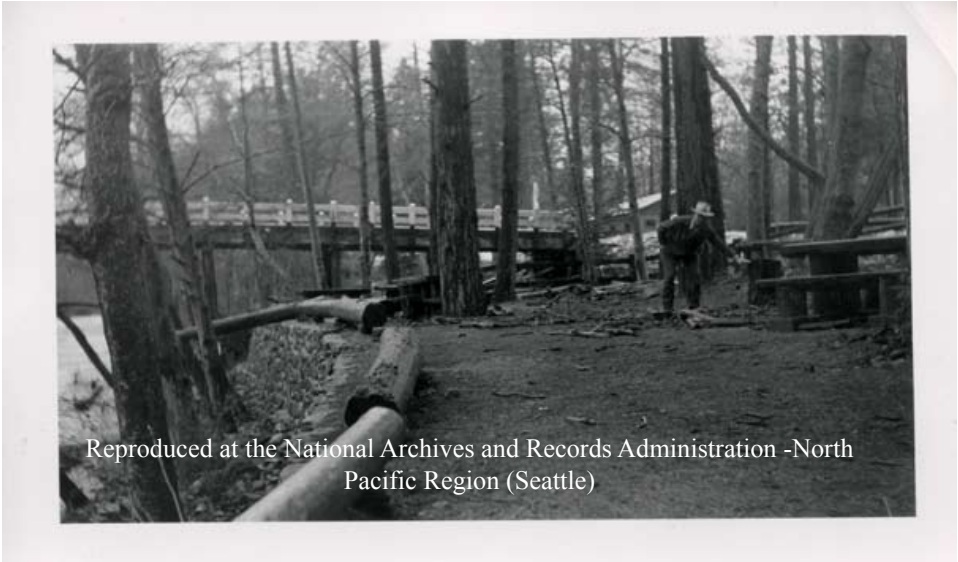


Figure 114. Photograph No. 40; "McKee Bridge Forest Camp, flood-damaged picnic tables"; 1955, Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Photographs, Applegate Ranger District, Box 73, V-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

McKee Bridge Plans

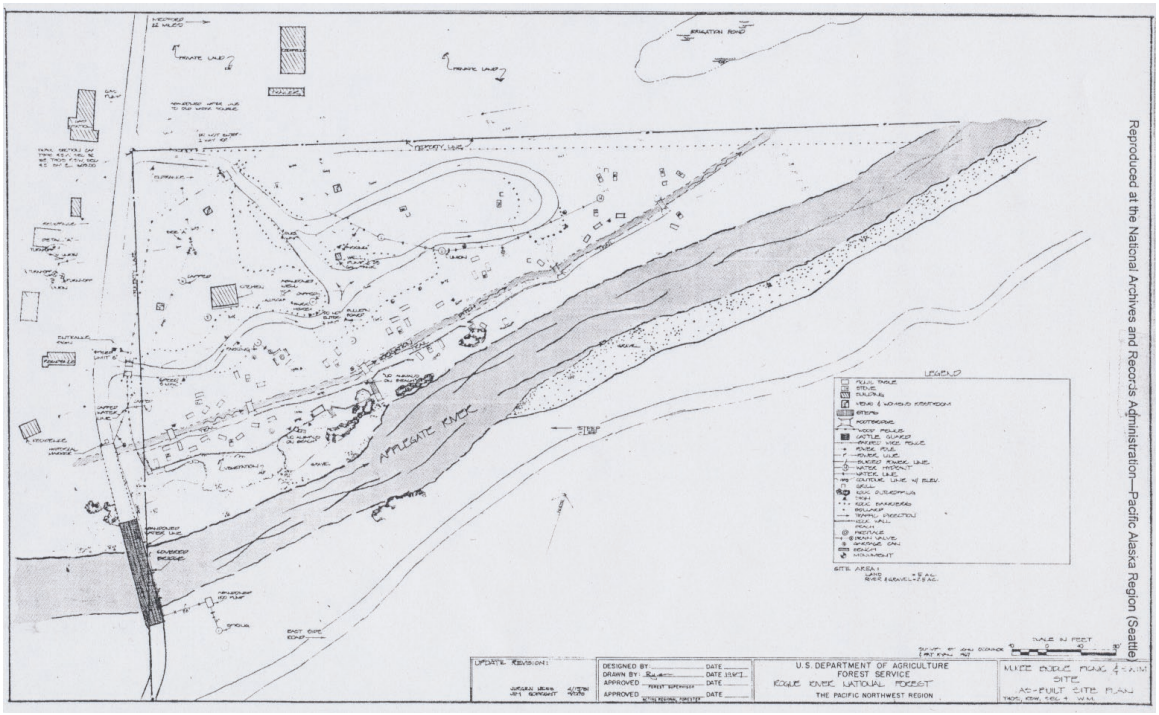


Figure 115. "McKee Bridge - - Environmental Assessment and Design Narrative," (prepared by Jurgen Hess, Medford, OR.) Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, G. Recreation Management, Box 27, G-49, National Archives and Records Administration– North Pacific Region (Seattle). Available site plan for the McKee Bridge Forest Camp.

APPENDIX C

UNION CREEK CAMPGROUND

Union Creek Aerial Photographs

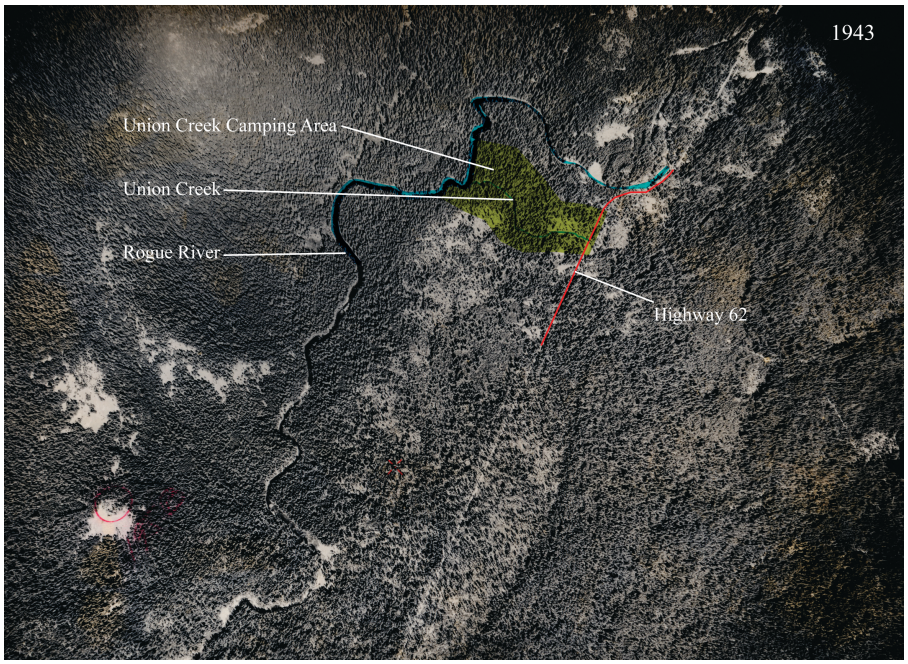


Figure 116. 1943: Union Creek Campground. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

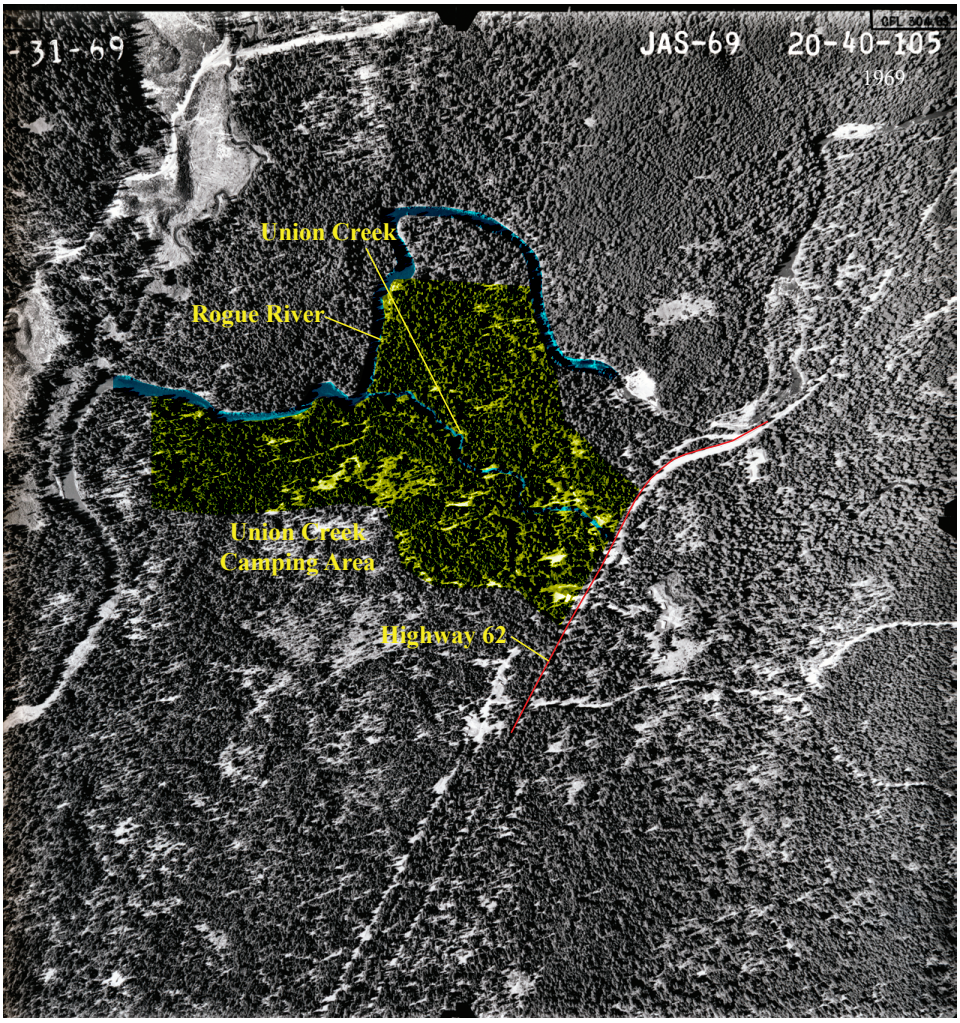


Figure 117. 1969: More evident at this scale is the circulation system developments. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

Union Creek Topographic Maps

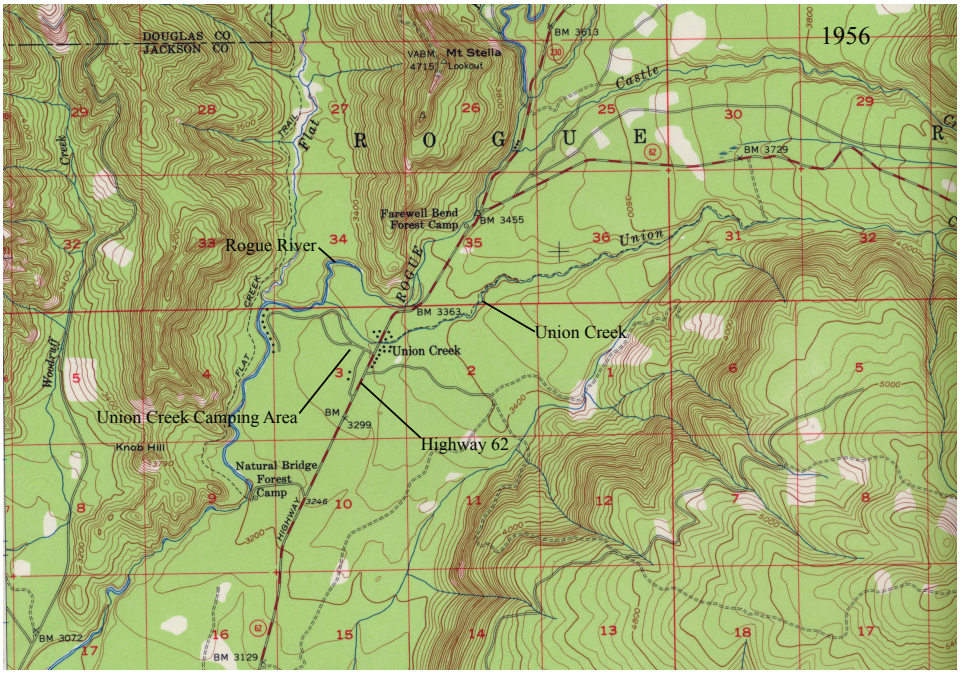


Figure 118. 1956: Note the circulation development exists on the south side of Union Creek only. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

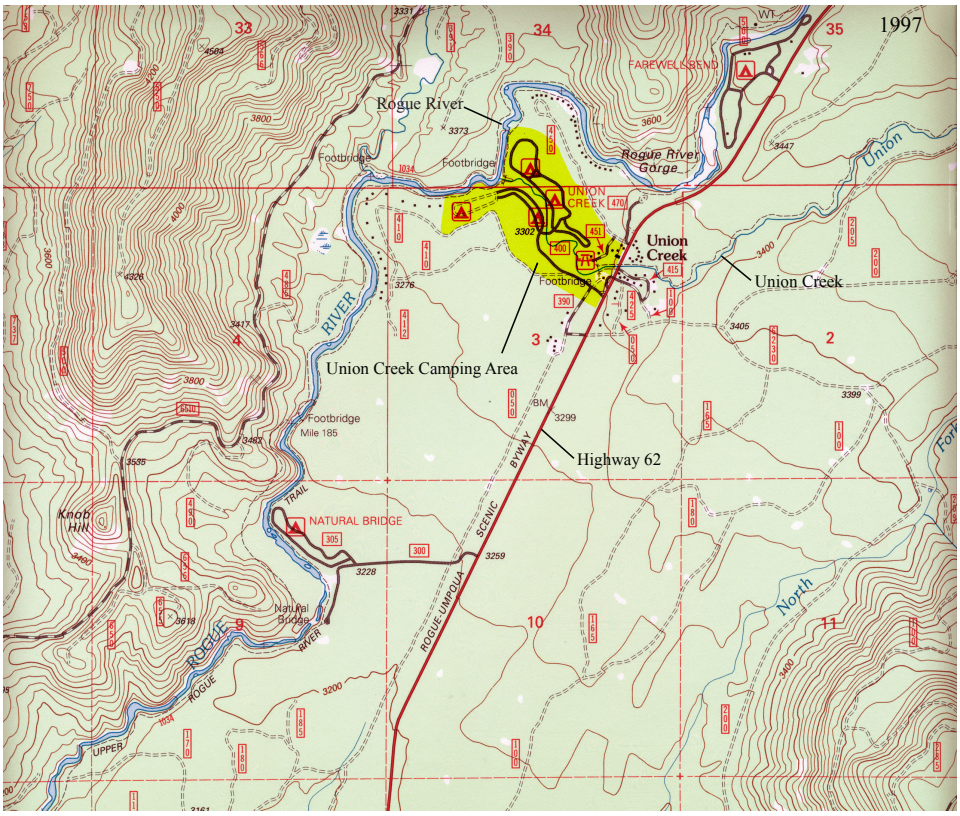


Figure 119. 1997: The road circulation networks are better defined. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

Union Creek Current Photographs

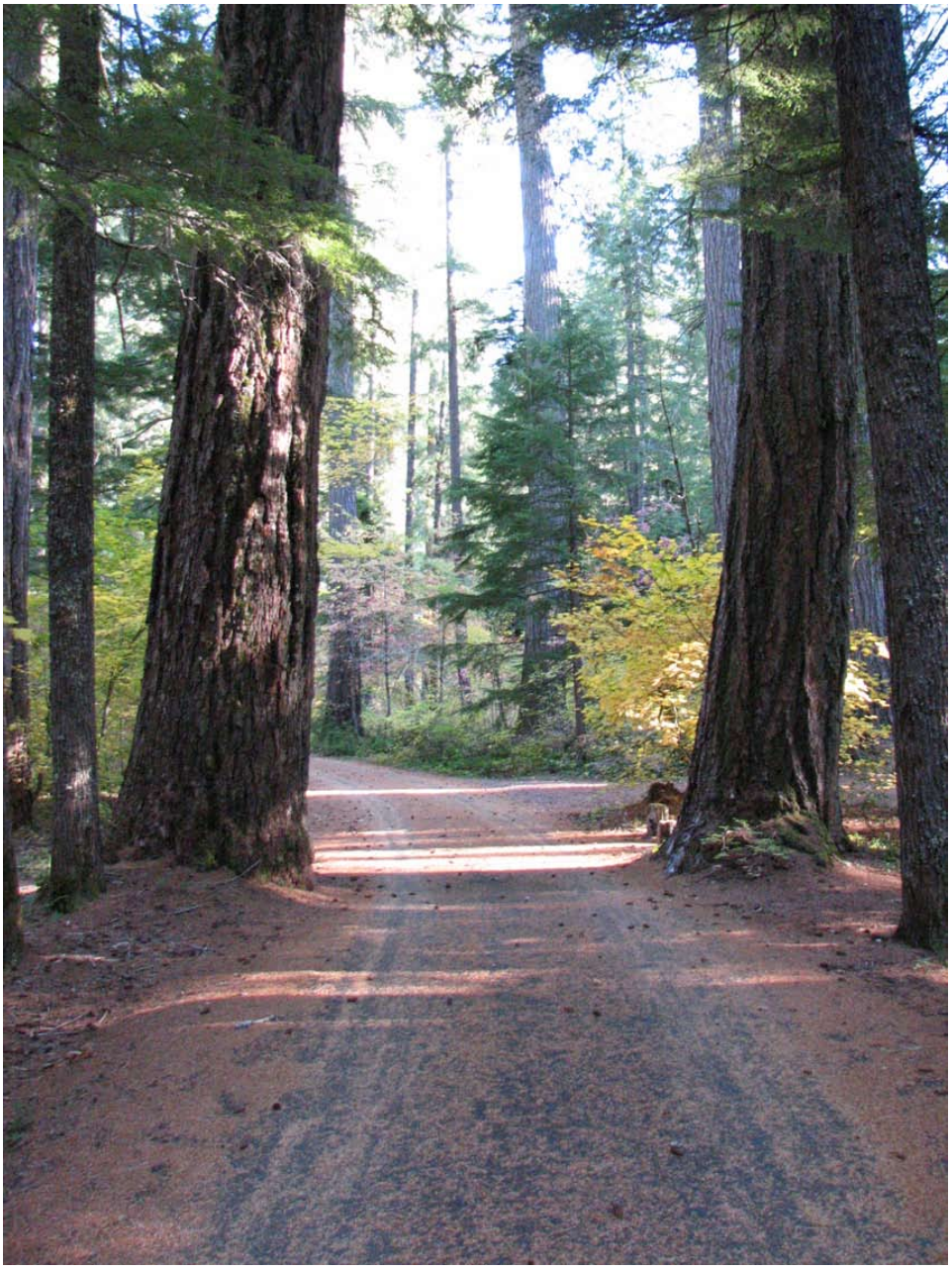


Figure 120. Paved campground road, showing 13 feet between existing old-growth.

Figure 121. Civilian Conservation Corps community kitchen shelter, constructed 1935. Design from 1930s Recreation Plans Handbook, Plate 12-F) The structure is in good, overall condition, although the stoves need repair.

Figure 122. Kitchen shelter historic drainboard, still functioning.

Figure 123. Community kitchen shelter historic table, taken from the 1930s Recreation Plans Handbook (Plate 10-B, Camp Ground Tables).

Figure 124. Community kitchen shelter stove example, needing firebox faceplate repair and replace missing door.

Figure 125. Civilian Conservation Corps-era rustic masonry bonfire ring, adjacent to the community kitchen shelter. Ring constructed from Plate 8-C, "Formal Type" Firecircle.

Figure 126. Amphitheatre area. No historic features remain.

Figure 127. Bridge across Union Creek, constructed in 1963.

Figure 128. 1963 bridge date stamp.

Figure 129. Appropriately-scaled campground signs. Positioning in front of the tree may provide a more defined backdrop. Recommend removal of winter recreation signs on trees.

Figure 130. Campsite #38, typical cylindrical wooden barrier posts. Campground barriers in this campground are remarkably consistent.

Figure 131. Typical non-historic triangular steel fire pit type at Union Creek. Unknown installation date.

Figure 132. New water system infrastructure and sign. This new design is appropriate, as it clearly demonstrates distinctive decorative characteristics, yet also demonstrates new construction, distinguishing it from Civilian Conservation Corps improvements.

Figure 133. Utilitarian water dispensing spigot.

Figure 134. Typical campsite marker sign, consistently utilized throughout the campground.

Figure 135. Historic Civilian Conservation Corps rustic masonry stove, more refined design example.

Figure 136. Historic Civilian Conservation Corps rustic masonry stove, irregular cobble design example.

Figure 137. Historic Civilian Conservation Corps rustic camp stove, firebox in poor condition.

Figure 138. Historic toilet, constructed from the 1930s Recreation Plans Handbook design, Plate II for "R-6 Standard Single Toilet".

Figure 139. New, handicap accessible toilet design that clearly displays new construction, but references historic design colors and features of the historic toilet.

Union Creek Historic Photographs

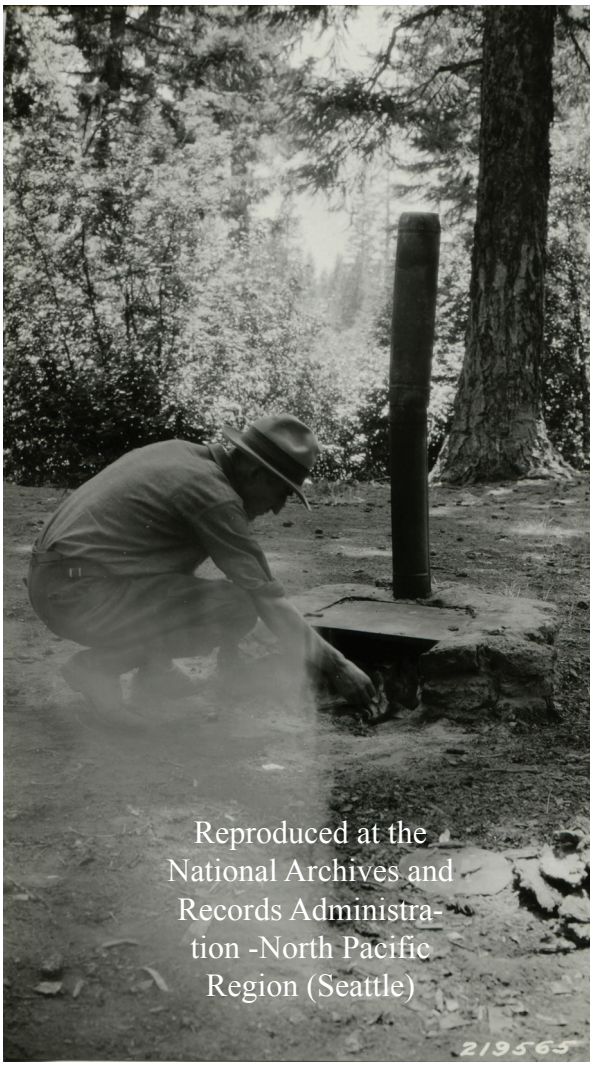


Figure 140. Photograph No. 40; "Union Creek Forest Camp, (Frederick William Cleator, Recreation Examiner) building fire in camp stove"; 1927; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 141. Photograph No. 48; "Union Creek Forest Camp, community kitchen (exterior)"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 142. Photograph No. 49; "Union Creek Forest Camp, community kitchen (exterior)"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle). Note the wooden barricades placed around the parking area. Barricades constructed from Plate 18-B "Rustic Car Barriers", Recreation Plans Handbook.

Figure 143. Photograph No. 50; "Union Creek Forest Camp, community kitchen (exterior)"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 144. Photograph No. 51; "Union Creek Forest Camp, community kitchen (exterior)"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

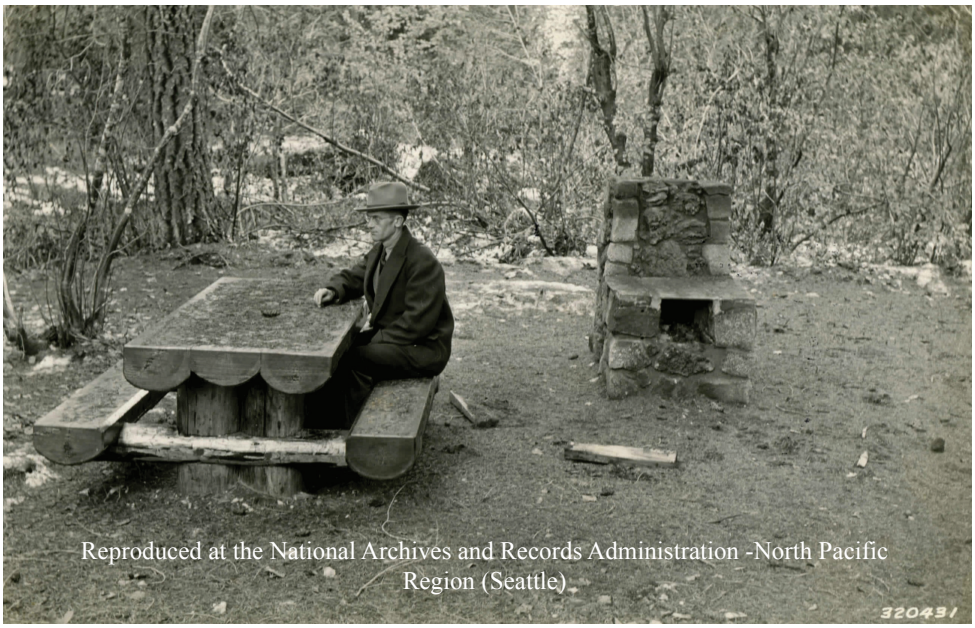


Figure 145. Photograph No. 56; "Union Creek Forest Camp, rustic-style picnic table and camp stove"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 146. Photograph No. 59; "Union Creek Forest Camp, rustic-style stove of native rock"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 147. Photograph No. 46; "Union Creek Forest Camp, entrance sign"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle). Constructed from the 1930s Recreation Plans Handbook, Plate 13-A-1, Plan B.

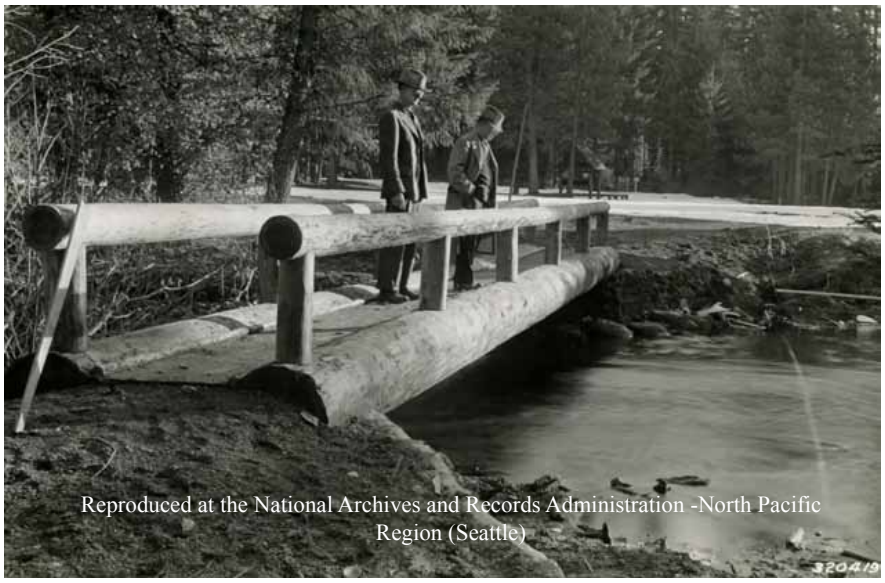


Figure 148. Photograph No. 68; "Union Creek Forest Camp, foot-bridge across Union Creek"; 1936; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 81, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 149. Photograph No. 2; "Crater Lake Road, wagon travelers at Mammoth Sugar Pine"; 1911; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 80, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

Figure 150. Photograph No. 11; "Crater Lake Road, shows truck traveling on new grade near Union Creek"; 1935; Records of the U.S. Forest Service, Record Group 95, Rogue River National Forest, Box 80, Y-1, Forest Service Projects and Activities (through World War II), National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

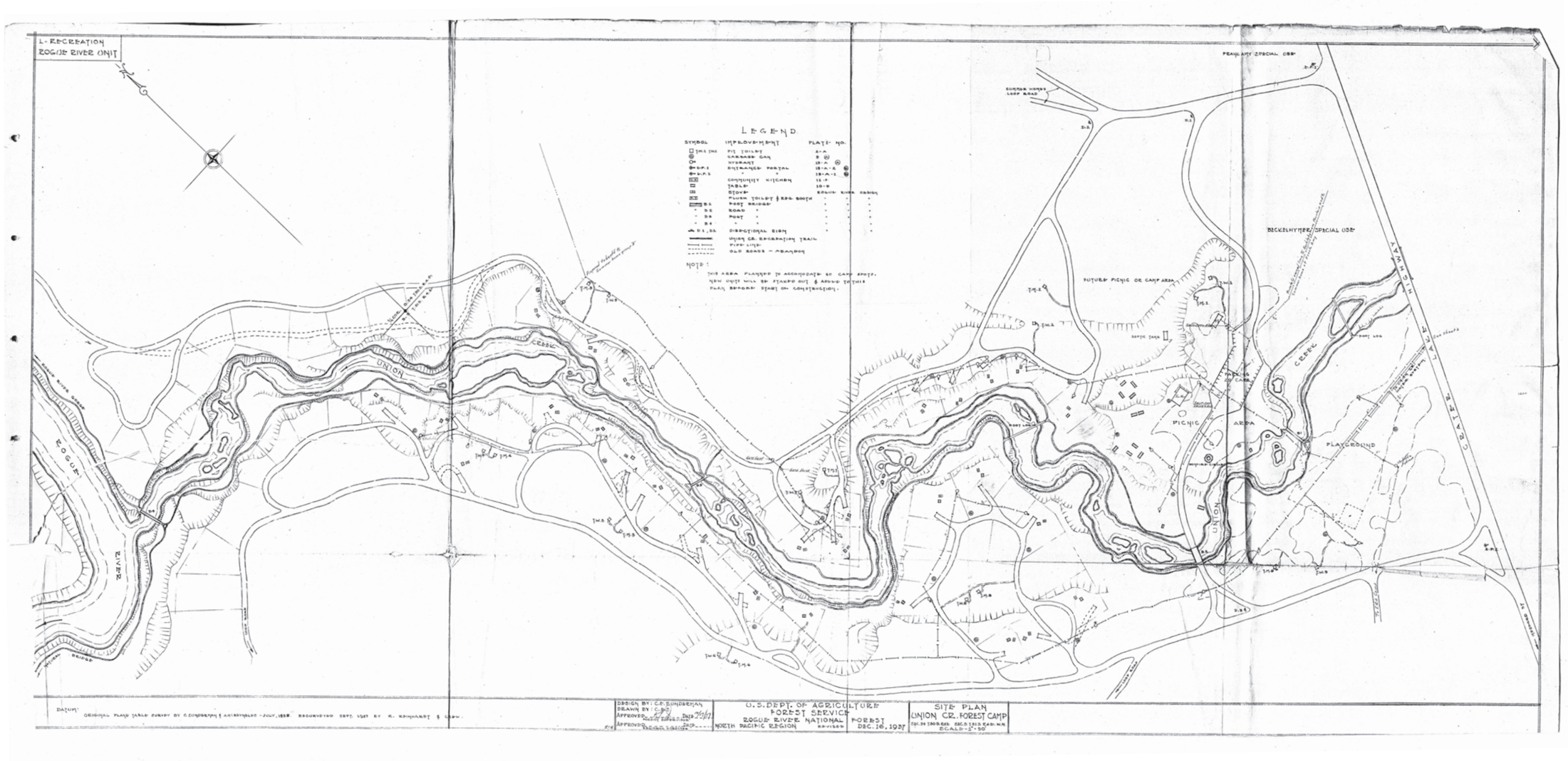


Figure 151: Union Creek Forest Camp Site Plan, 1937. "Recreation and Uses Folio", Prospect Ranger District, (scale: various; in oversize folio), Box 92, G-40, n.d., Rogue River National Forest Historical Records, Recreation Management, Records of the Forest Service, Record Group 95, National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

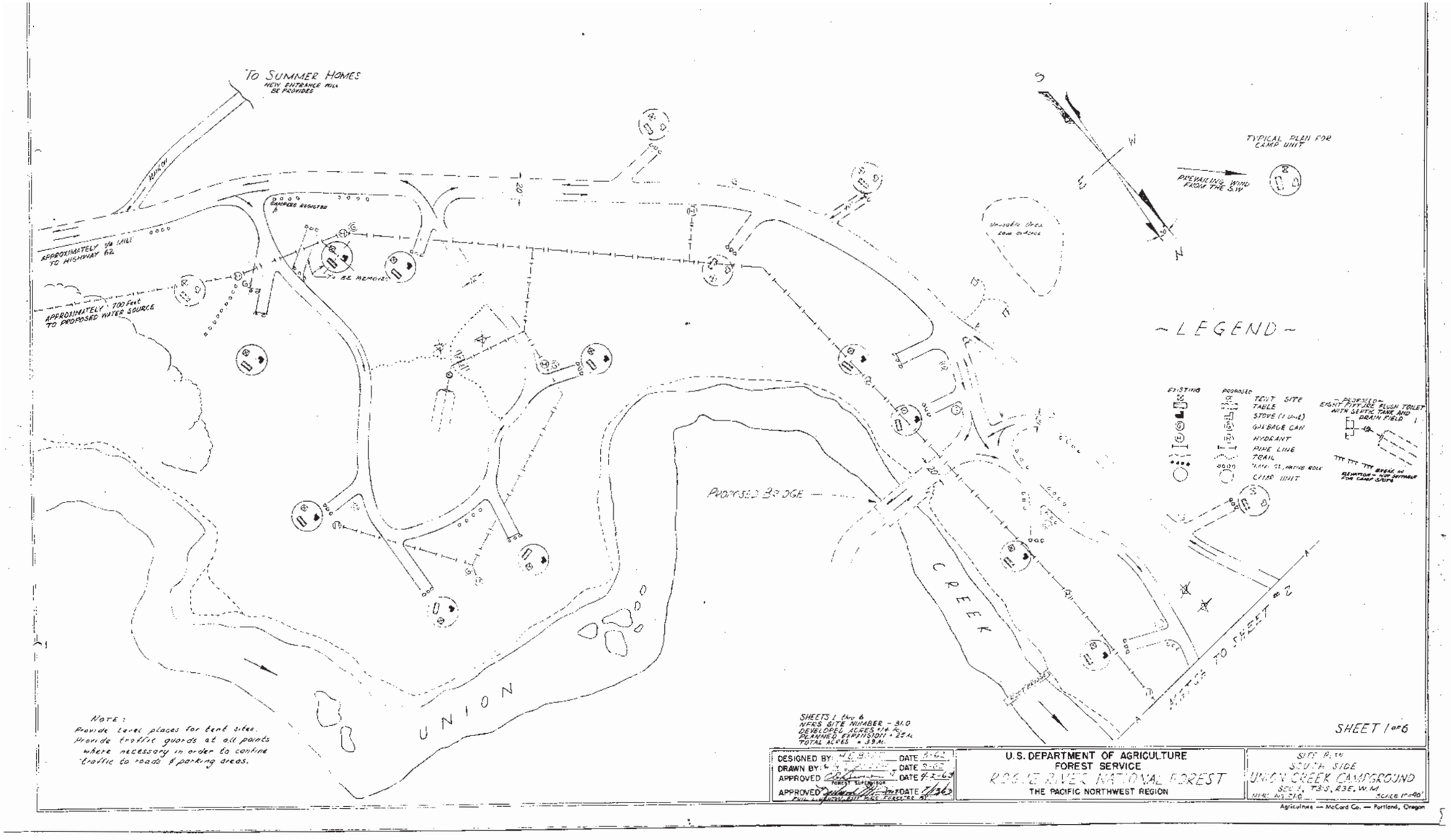


Figure 152: Union Creek Forest Camp Site Plan, 1962-63, Sheet 1 of 6. "Recreation and Uses Folio", Prospect Ranger District, (scale: various; in oversize folio), Box 92, G-40, n.d., Rogue River National Forest Historical Records, Recreation Management, Records of the Forest Service, Record Group 95, National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

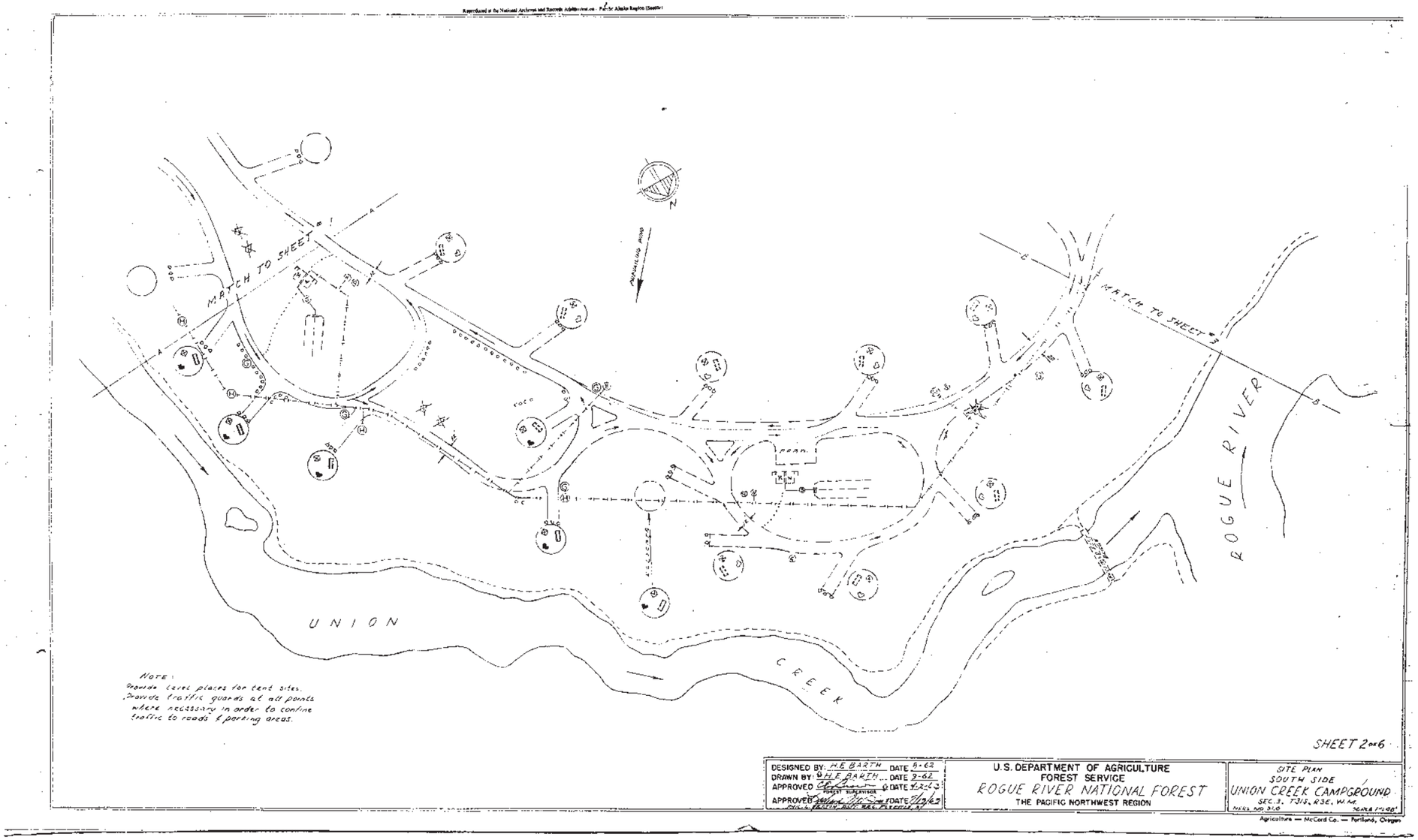


Figure 153: Union Creek Forest Camp Site Plan, 1962-63, Sheet 2 of 6. "Recreation and Uses Folio", Prospect Ranger District, (scale: various; in oversize folio), Box 92, G-40, n.d., Rogue River National Forest Historical Records, Recreation Management, Records of the Forest Service, Record Group 95, National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

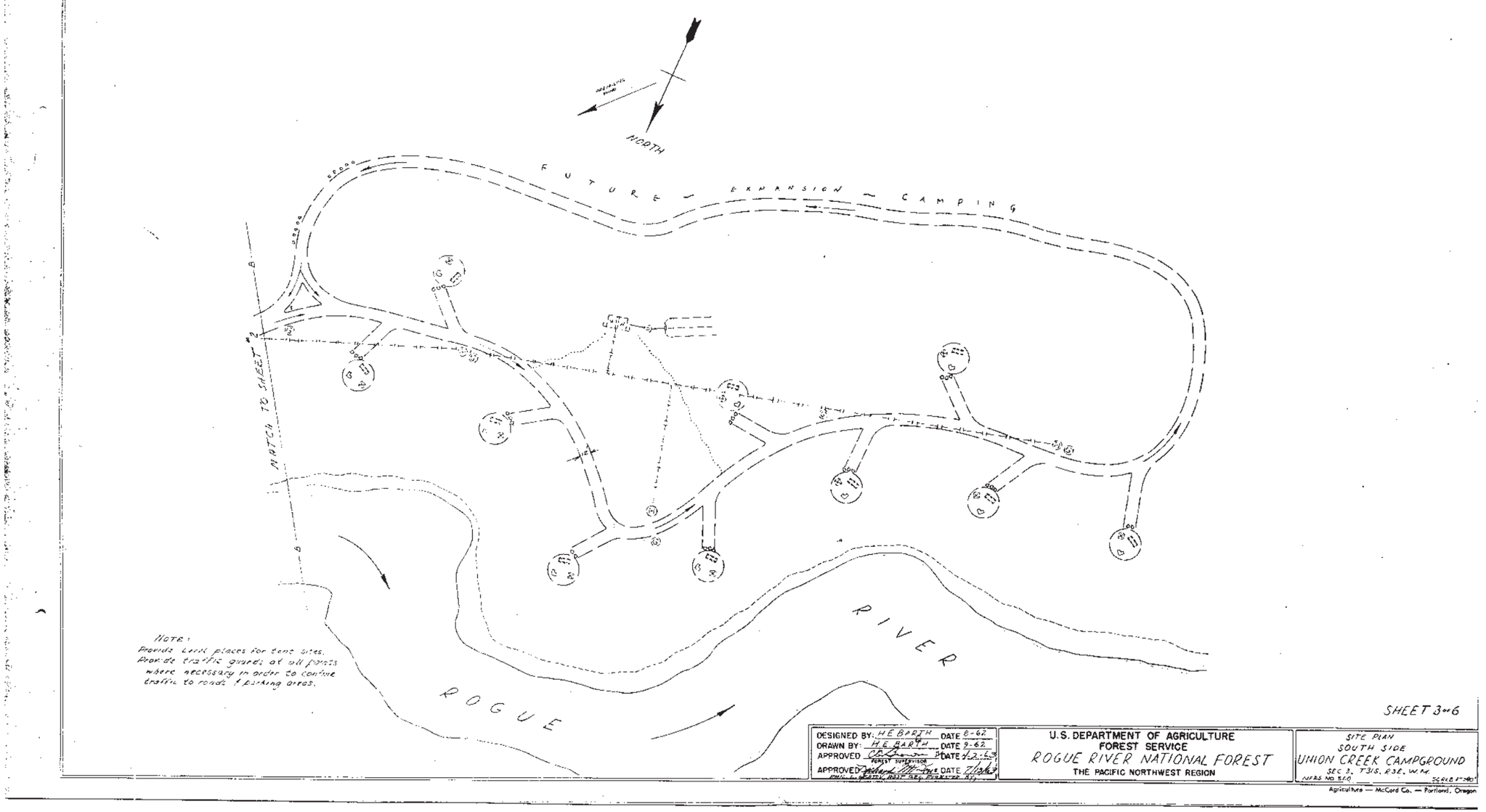


Figure 154: Union Creek Forest Camp Site Plan, 1962-63, Sheet 3 of 6. "Recreation and Uses Folio", Prospect Ranger District, (scale: various; in oversize folio), Box 92, G-40, n.d., Rogue River National Forest Historical Records, Recreation Management, Records of the Forest Service, Record Group 95, National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

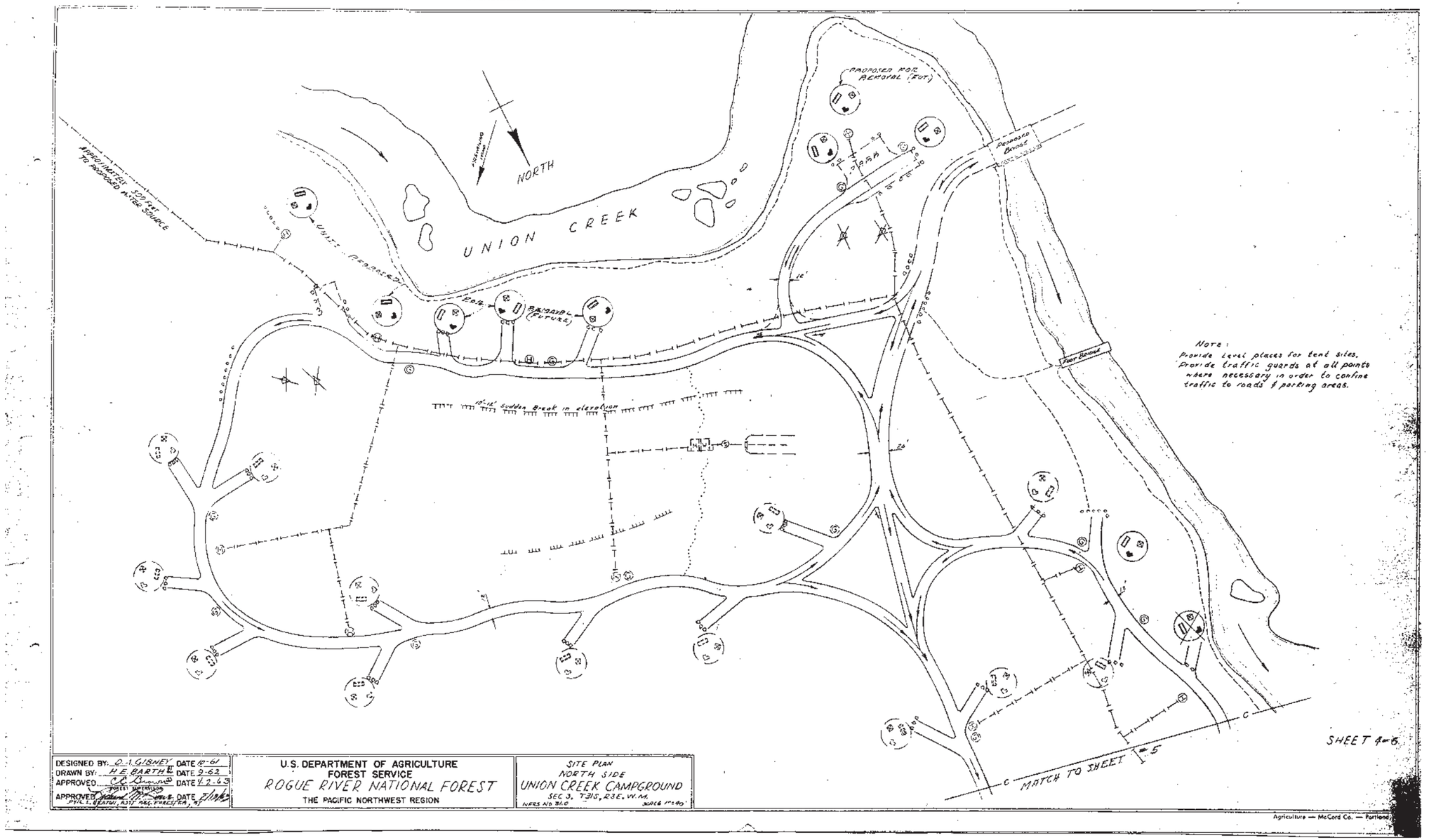


Figure 155: Union Creek Forest Camp Site Plan, 1962-63, Sheet 4 of 6. "Recreation and Uses Folio", Prospect Ranger District, (scale: various; in oversize folio), Box 92, G-40, n.d., Rogue River National Forest Historical Records, Recreation Management, Records of the Forest Service, Record Group 95, National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

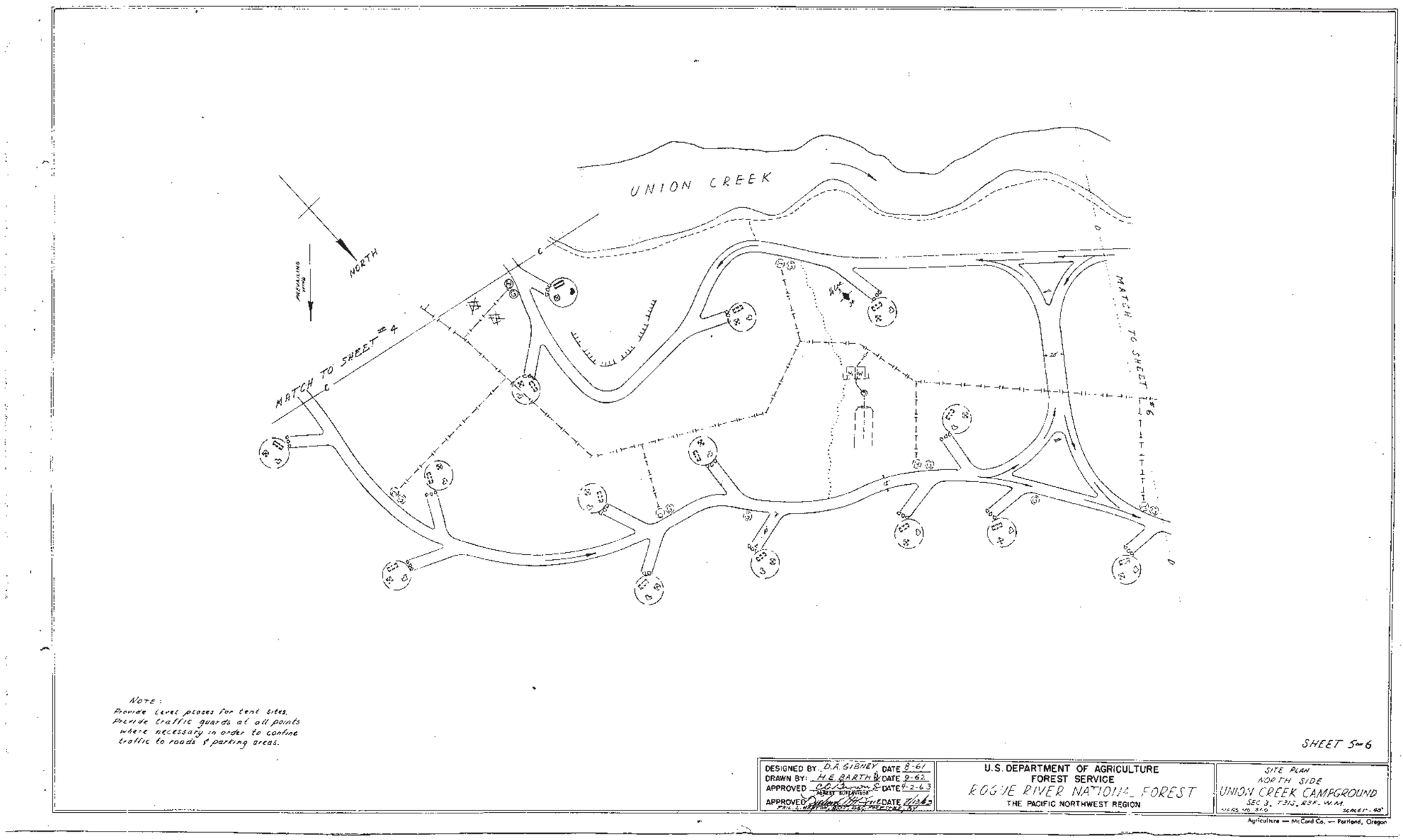


Figure 156: Union Creek Forest Camp Site Plan, 1962-63, Sheet 5 of 6. "Recreation and Uses Folio", Prospect Ranger District, (scale: various; in oversize folio), Box 92, G-40, n.d., Rogue River National Forest Historical Records, Recreation Management, Records of the Forest Service, Record Group 95, National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

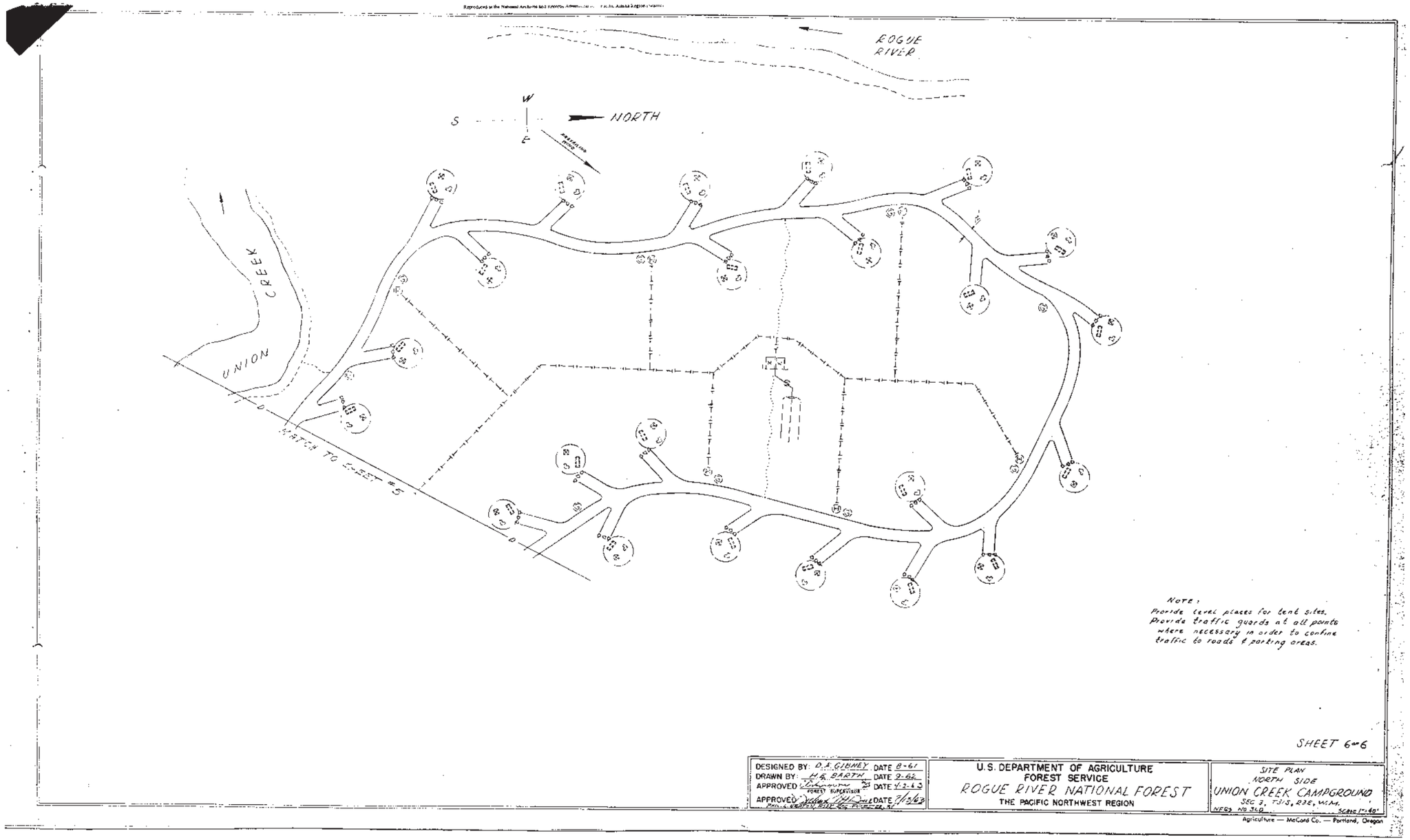


Figure 157: Union Creek Forest Camp Site Plan, 1962-63, Sheet 6 of 6. "Recreation and Uses Folio", Prospect Ranger District, (scale: various; in oversize folio), Box 92, G-40, n.d., Rogue River National Forest Historical Records, Recreation Management, Records of the Forest Service, Record Group 95, National Archives and Records Administration–North Pacific Region (Seattle).

APPENDIX D

TAYLOR BURN FOREST CAMP

Taylor Burn Aerial Photographs

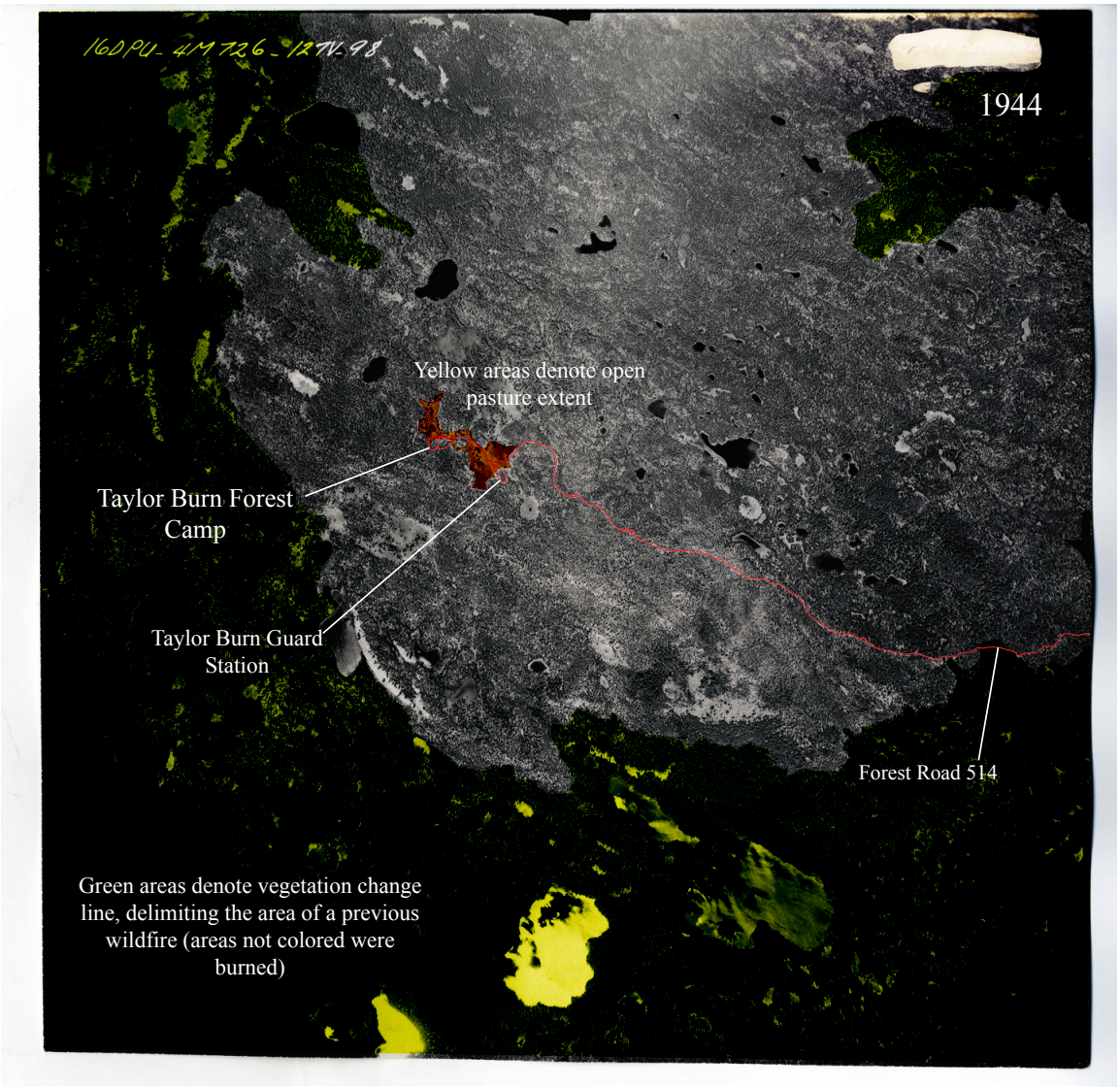


Figure 158. 1944: Taylor Burn Forest Camp. The areas not shaded in green delimit a line of vegetation change, indicating the extent of a previous wildfire. High-altitude sites take many more years to recover from wildfires, therefore general vegetation rates grow much more slowly. Circulation systems are noted in red, and the yellow areas indicate the extent of open "pasture" areas in the immediate vicinity of the camp and guard station. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

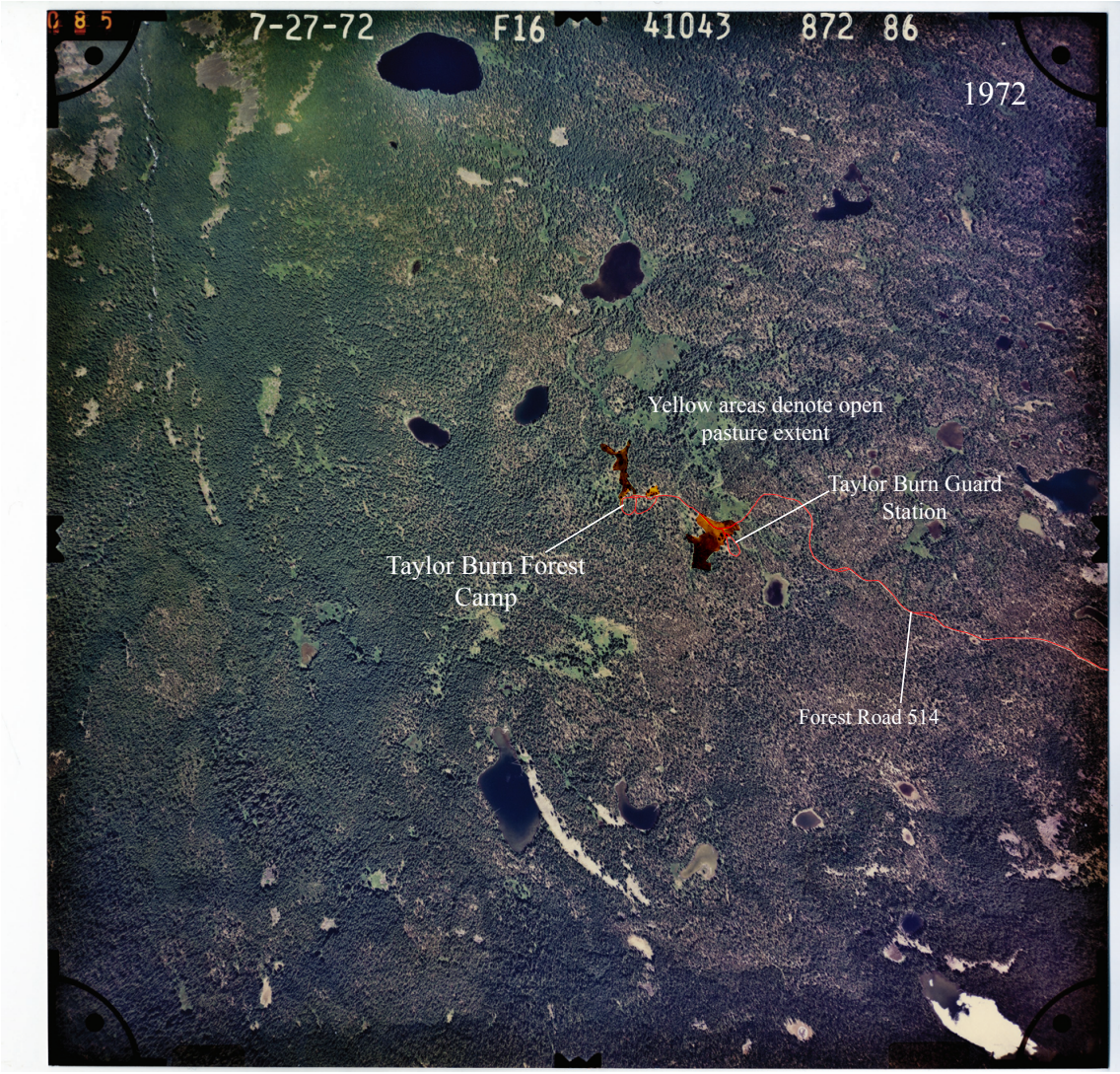


Figure 159. 1972: In this aerial, the previous wildfire is more difficult to discern. The open, "pasture" areas are growing around the camp and guard station. Although it takes longer for vegetation to return in high-altitude sites, it is recommended to maintain the open, "pasture" areas in the immediate vicinity of the guard station, and to the north of the camp. Aerial photograph courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

Taylor Burn Maps

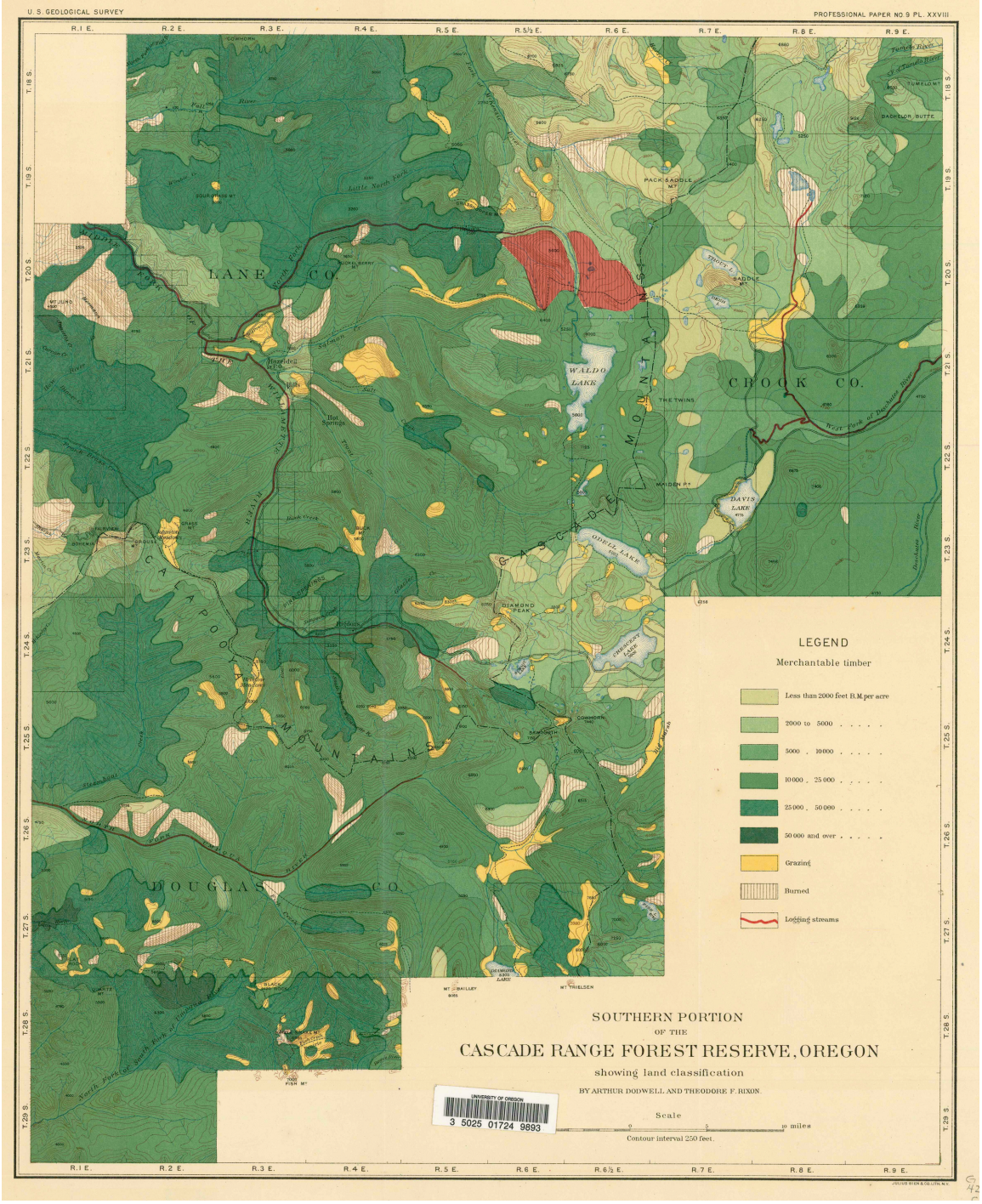


Figure 160. Land classification map, Southern Portion Cascade Range Forest Reserve, circa 1901-03. The Taylor Burn area is shaded in red. This is the earliest known Forest Service map of the area. Map courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

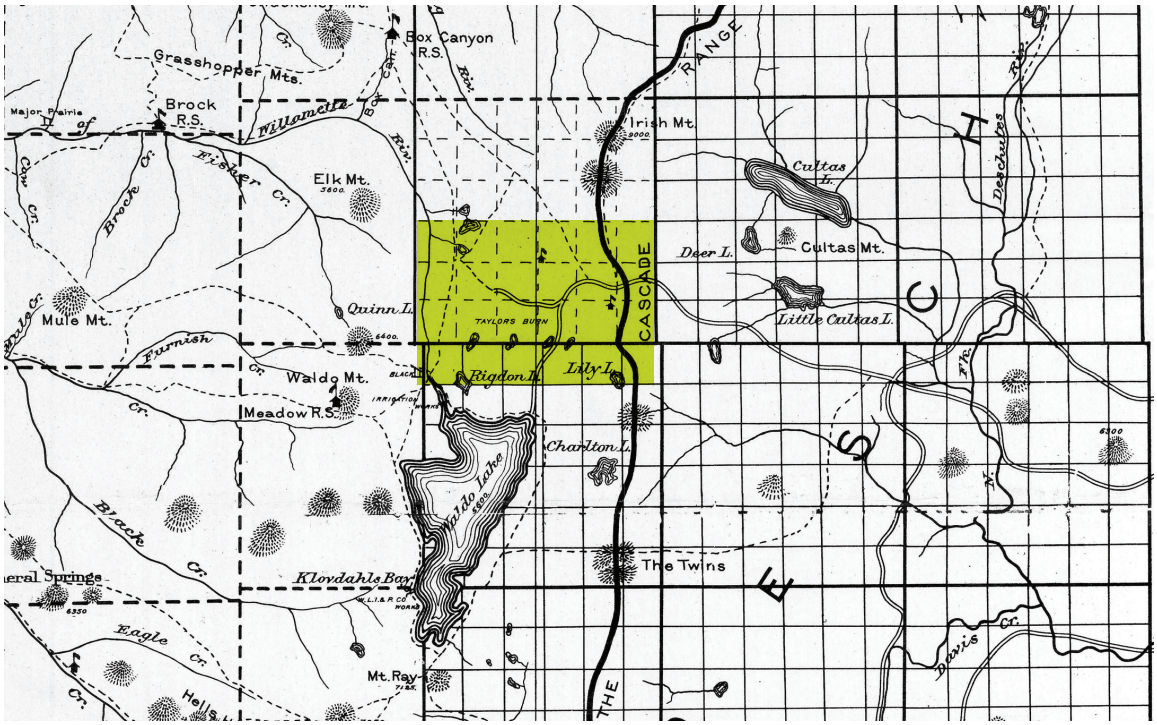


Figure 161. Cascade National Forest Map, 1912, showing the road and trail networks in and surrounding the Taylor Burn area. There are two guard stations shown in the area, with no mention of them on subsequent maps. Map courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

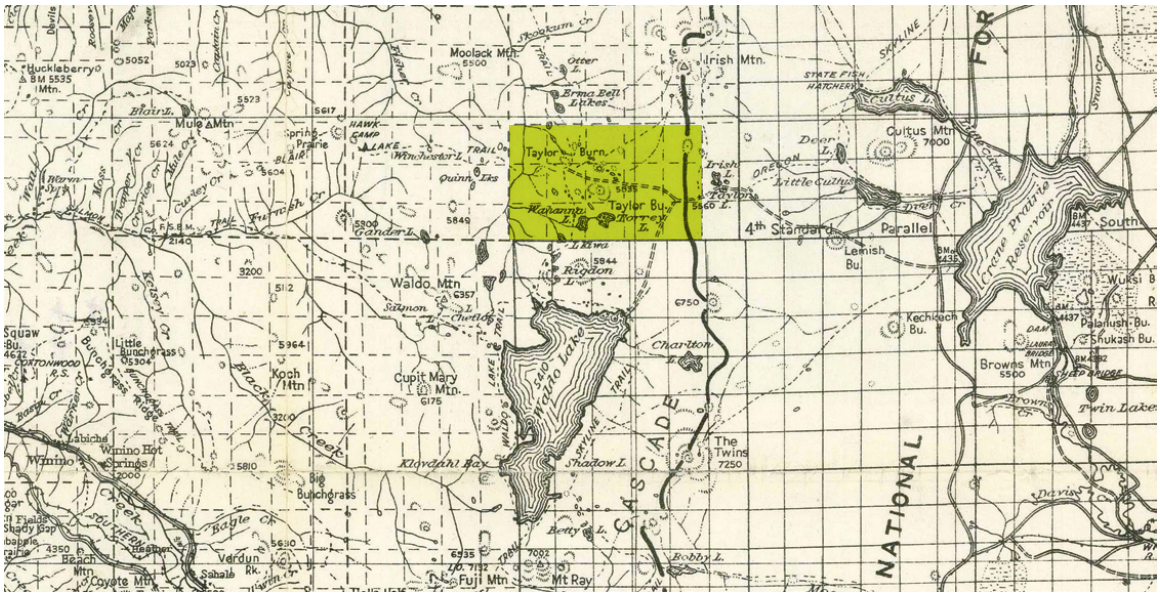


Figure 162. Cascade National Forest Map, 1925, showing the road and trail networks in and surrounding the Taylor Burn area. Note there is no mention of a campground in the Taylor Burn area; however a 1919 Forest Service visitor publication indicated "Huckleberry Patch Camp" existed somewhere in the Taylor Burn. Map courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

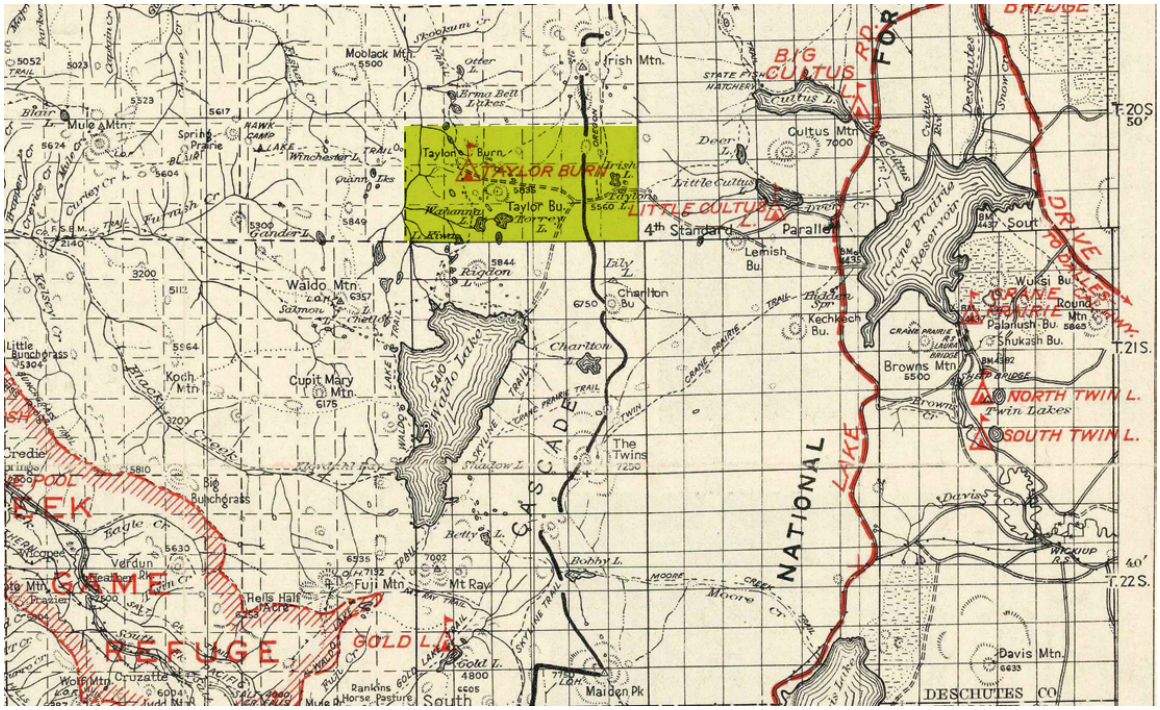


Figure 163. Cascade National Forest Map, 1930. This is the first map that depicts Taylor Burn as having a campground/recreation area. Map courtesy of the University of Oregon Map and Aerial Photography Library at Knight Library.

Taylor Burn Current Photographs

Figure 164. Forest Camp entrance. The sign was rehabilitated in 2001, and was constructed from the 1930s Forest Service Recreation Plans Handbook, Plate 13-A, Design B.

Figure 165. Modern bulletin board, unknown installation date. Currently, this board has been vandalized, and should be replaced.

Figure 166. Typical circulation system of unpaved roads.

Figure 167. Typical trailhead sign and register box. The camp borders on the Waldo Lake and Three Sisters Wilderness Areas.

Figure 168. Typical picnic table. As seen here, a majority of the sites are overgrown, with soils building up around the tables and fire pits.

Figure 169. Civilian Conservation Corps-era rustic stove, with 1950s concrete stove added later. The concrete stove was constructed from the 1945 Recreation Plans Handbook.

Figure 170. Civilian Conservation Corps rustic stove, constructed of local volcanic rock. Concrete inserts were added to protect the rock from quick disintegration.

Figure 171. 1950s-era concrete stove, placed near rectangular local rock fire pit.

Figure 172. Typical campsite and vegetation pattern at Taylor Burn.

Figure 173. Campsite located next to meadow. No rustic or concrete stove was found here; however an informal rock fire ring exists.

Figure 174. Upper level campsite, with 1950s-era concrete stove.

Figure 175. Overgrown campsite on lower loop. These campsites must be cleared of vegetation, and the table removed from the soil encroaching around it.

Figure 176. Trail to spring. This path must be clearly marked at the road, and vegetation periodically cleared.

Figure 177. Spring, showing concrete retention wall and embedded pipe.

Figure 178. View from former bench site (shown on 1940 and 1958 plans) Recommend clearing this view and constructing another bench in this location.

Figure 179. Camp toilet, constructed from the 1945 Recreation Plans Handbook. This one has a wooden shingle roof.

Figure 180. Camp toilet, constructed from the 1945 Recreation Plans Handbook. This one has corrugated plastic roofing, damaged from the winter. Both shingle and plastic roofing are appropriate, and were indicated in original construction plans.

Figure 181. Forest Road 514, looking from the camp to the guard station. The former guard station pasture is reverting to forest. Recommend maintaining the pasture as a cultural landscape for wildfire defensible space protection.

Figure 182. Taylor Burn Guard Station pasture, as seen from the guard station.

Figure 183. Taylor Burn Guard Station. At some point between 1940 (the date the station was moved to this location) and the present, the front porch has been enclosed, and the horizontal clapboards replaced with board and batten siding.

Figure 184. Guard station and barn. The Western White Pine (Pinus monticola) existed when the guard station was moved to this location.

Figure 185. Guard Station toilet, likely constructed from Plate II or Plate II-A of the 1930s Recreation Plans Handbook.

Figure 186. Forest Road 514, showing the more recent (1990s) Charlton Burn. Natural vegetation regeneration, as a result of these stand-replacing fires at higher Cascade elevations, takes many years.

Taylor Burn: Historic Photographs

Figure 187. Taylor Burn Guard Station and barn, circa 1940. Note the Western White Pine between the station and barn, open pasture, open porch, and white-painted horizontal clapboarding on both buildings. Courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service Heritage Program files, Willamette National Forest, Supervisor's Office, Springfield, Oregon.

Figure 188. 1921 view from Taylor Butte, looking at Irish Mountain to the northeast. This is the only known historic photograph located taken in the Taylor Burn area. Twenty years earlier, the original Forest Service survey party of Langille and Rixon traversed the area. Courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service Heritage Program Files, Willamette National Forest Supervisor's Office, Springfield, Oregon.

Taylor Burn Historic Plans

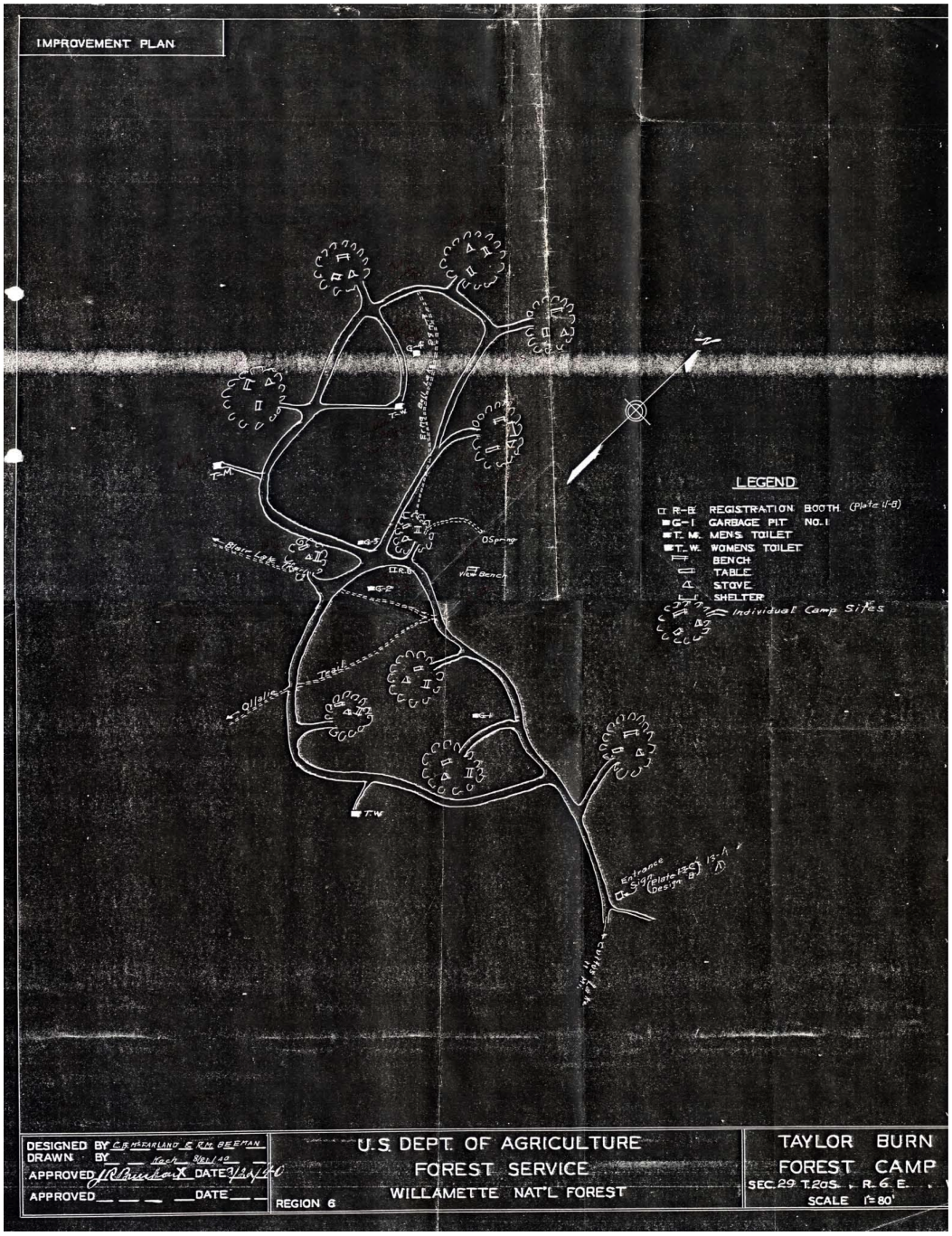


Figure 189. Taylor Burn Forest Camp Improvement Plan, 1940. Note there are ten campsites, a view bench depicted near the spring area, and both on the map and in the legend, specific designs called for from the Recreation Plans Handbook.

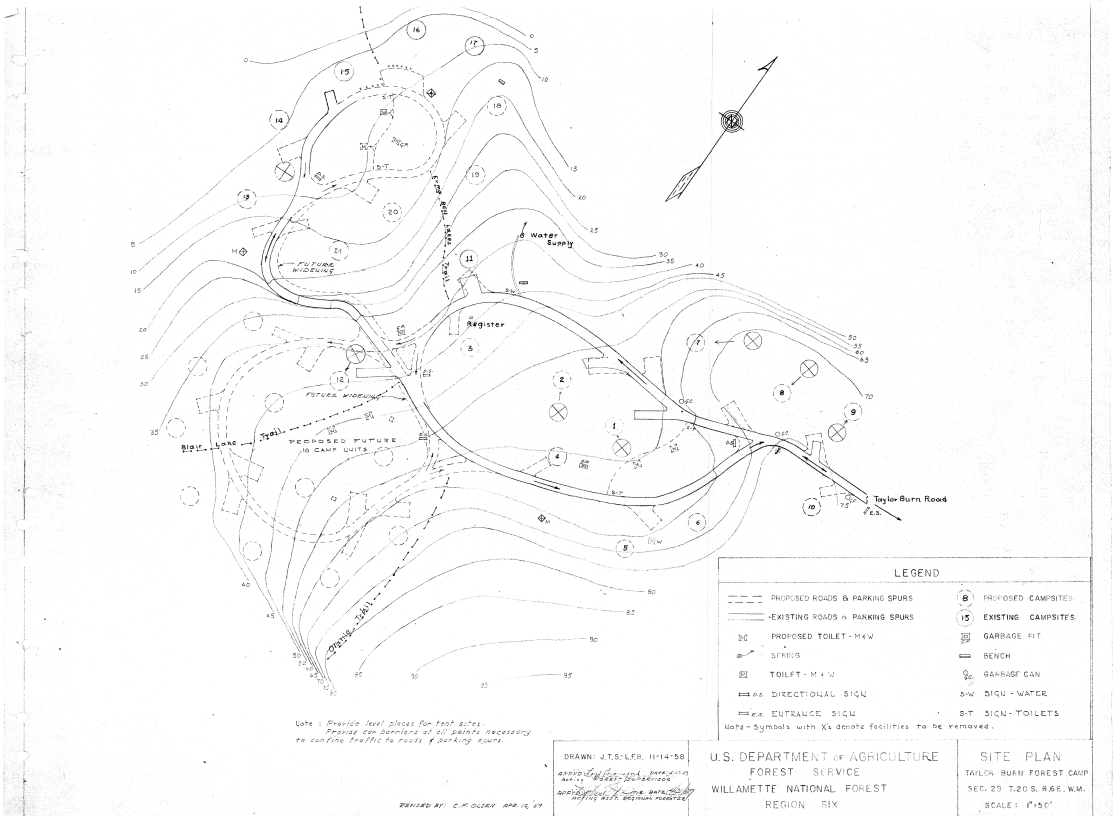


Figure 190. Taylor Burn Site Plan, 1958-59. It is unclear the complete extent of improvements carried out; however the toilet and concrete fire stove designs date from the 1945 Recreation Plans Handbook, with specific modifications for the toilet/stove design dating to 1957. The proposed campground extension depicted to the south was not built.

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