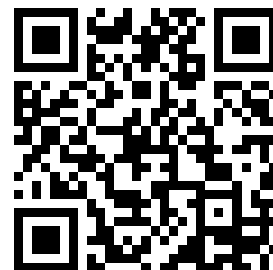

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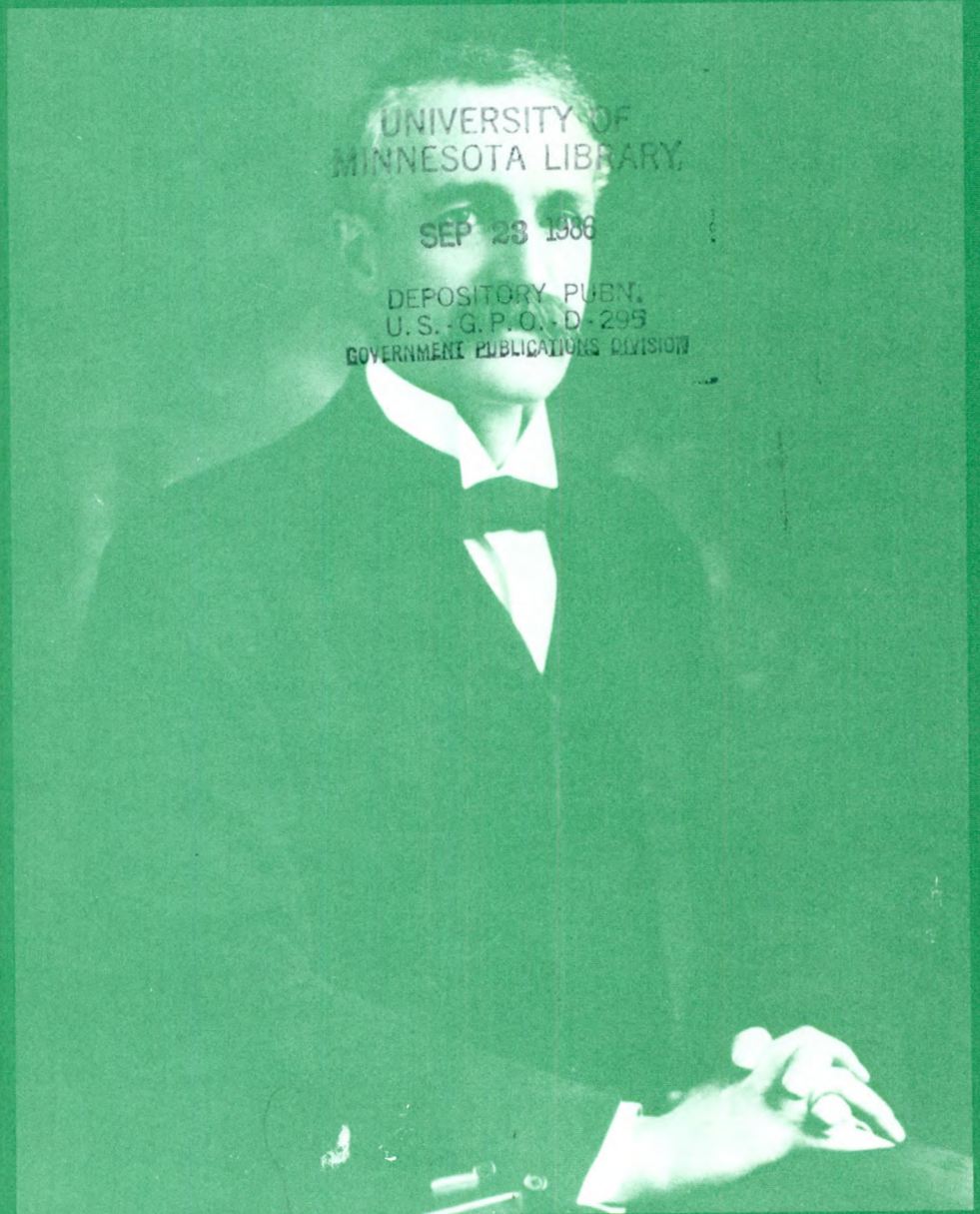
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The Forest Service and The Civilian Conservation Corps: 1933-42



Cover: Gifford Pinchot, first Chief of the Forest Service
This publication is one of a series of works detailing the history of the
Forest Service and related activities

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August 1986

|| The Forest Service and The Civilian Conservation Corps: 1933-42 ||

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Preface

This publication concerns itself with the history of the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW), later known as the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and the USDA Forest Service from 1933 to 1942. The history of this relationship is, of course, only one facet of the CCC. Our aim is to illustrate the many dimensions of USDA Forest Service and CCC involvements.

Our research is primarily addressed to Forest Service personnel involved in national forest planning. These personnel include archaeologists, historians, architectural historians, and other land use planners and managers who need technical information of this sort. Students, educators, and other interested individuals may also find the material useful and stimulating. So, too, might those involved at State and local planning levels.

In the 50 years since the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps, an enormous amount of its history has been lost. The research represented here is an attempt to retrieve information and to place it in the context of relations between the USDA Forest Service and the CCC. At its broadest, that context ranges over conservation efforts and better prospects for managing the Nation's forest resources, the relief of severe economic problems stemming from the Great Depression, and the involvement of hundreds of thousands of American youth in a hope-fulfilling program in which they would regain self-esteem and self-reliance.

The CCC was not simply born out of need. It involved the translation of visionary solutions to national problems into political and economic realities, the enactment of legislation, and the mobilization of resources. The eventual product was short lived but enormously successful.

Acknowledgments

Field work for this publication was conducted by Alison Otis and Kimberly Lakin. Thomas Hogg and William Honey assisted in the Pacific Northwest Region of the Forest Service. The principal author is Alison Otis, who drafted the regional overviews, case study chapters, and a portion of the architectural history overview. Kimberly Lakin researched and wrote the handbook portion of the architectural history. William Honey wrote the first two chapters. Editorial efforts

were provided by Thomas Hogg, who designed the research activity. Hogg, Honey, and Otis compiled the appendixes. William Robbins was a consultant to the project. Karen Starr served as project manager.

The authors gratefully acknowledge the cooperation and support of the USDA Forest Service including, in particular, the contracting officer's representative, Dennis Roth, and the staffs of George Washington, Coronado, and Mt. Hood National Forests and the district offices. We are especially appreciative of the efforts of Don Wood of Coronado National Forest; Gail Throop of the regional office for Region 6; Gerry Williams of Umpqua National Forest, who provided very helpful suggestions; and Mike McIntyre of Angeles National Forest, who compiled information on extant camp structures.

Juliard Crawford from the National Archives was most helpful and sensitive to our task. So, too, were several members of the National Association of Civilian Conservation Corps Alumni, including ex-enrollee Bill Sharp of Bozeman, MT, and John Irish of Phoenix, AZ, along with others too numerous to mention here. Interviewees cited in the text made valuable contributions by providing firsthand details of the actual human experience of CCC life. Our special thanks to their patient contribution.

We have been greatly impressed by the high level of interest and the positive impression that people have expressed toward the CCC and the national forests in which it served. This report acknowledges the cooperative spirit and enthusiasm of the CCC and the USDA Forest Service personnel in their mutually supportive roles.

Anyone who has researched and written on any aspect of the CCC has a full understanding of the enormous task. This work does not attempt to tell the whole story of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the USDA Forest Service, but it is much more than an initial framework. It is the first systematic attempt to illustrate the degree of initiative of these two Federal organizations and their joint effect on the Nation. We hope no serious omissions were made, and we accept fully the responsibility for mistakes and misinterpretations.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The Civilian Conservation Corps was a combined effort of many government units to provide work for unemployed males during the Great Depression. It was devised to cope with national conservation needs as well as unemployment, a collective response to the worsening economic conditions of 1933.¹ One of the first thrusts of CCC activity was in the national forests, where the CCC remained for its 9-year existence until increased demand for employees in an improved economy and the war effort brought about its end.

The CCC is probably the best remembered and most successful of all New Deal programs initiated by the Franklin D. Roosevelt administration during the 1930's. Today, many of the remaining physical features the CCC built have been placed on the National Register of Historic Places. Activities of the CCC were not limited to construction; contributions such as fighting forest fires and reducing pests and disease were also extremely important to national forest enhancement.

The enrollees in the CCC came from diverse ethnic backgrounds, but all were unemployed. The Nation's natural resources were in equally poor condition. Not only were timber resources being depleted, but other problems, such as soil erosion, were becoming primary concerns.

The CCC was established in April 1933 and terminated in 1942. Although not without its critics, this agency was surely successful in its intended objectives. Many people were removed from the relief rolls, and major land improvements were achieved. Typical projects included reforestation; construction of dams, diversions, roads, trails, buildings, and bridges; and control of erosion, forest fires, and disease. Voluntary community improvements also were completed in numerous locales.

In another capacity, the CCC provided educational opportunities for the enrollees. Many were taught the fundamental skills of reading and writing, while others received more advanced schooling. Religious, athletic, and social opportunities were made available. Many enrollees received sufficient training to be employed by industry upon receiving their discharge.

By design, the CCC worked on projects that were independent of other public relief programs.² The national forests were ideally suited for these projects. Although other Federal agencies such as the National Park Service and Soil Conservation Service contributed, the USDA Forest Service administered more than 50 percent of all public work projects.³ Indeed, the public forests profited vastly from the CCC effort.

Research Design

The design of the research for this book incorporates methods from the fields of history, anthropology, and architectural history. The approach is interdisciplinary in order to achieve a comprehensive analysis.

Although the CCC operated under several Federal agencies, the scope of this research is restricted to the activities of the CCC in national forests. Other USDA Forest Service programs are mentioned in order to provide further perspective: for example, the work in State and private forestry.

It is our intent to identify and explain contributions made by the CCC to forest architecture, conservation, and overall craftsmanship. Emphasis is placed upon land

use improvements; however, a discussion and analysis of forest structures is also provided. Reforestation is treated in order to determine the general significance of the work of the CCC in the national forests to the country as a whole, to the States, to local communities, to the USDA Forest Service, and to the enrollees.

This research is unique in that it covers demographic, sociological, and ecological implications while utilizing a basically historical approach. Many CCC enrollees were relocated to camps at a considerable distance from their homes. Regardless of their regional and ethnic background, enrollees experienced considerable change. New attitudes, values, and beliefs emerged and were carried back to their home towns. Some enrollees never returned to their home towns; rather, they selected a community of new residence near their forest camp.

Communities near CCC camps, of course, received new cultural stimulus from the "immigration" process. Many communities were resistant to this program, whereas others welcomed it.⁴ The financial profit realized by these communities was often significant, not only because of monthly spending by enrollees, but also CCC hiring of local labor for camp construction.⁵

During the CCC period, the country underwent tremendous change. This research discusses some major elements of that change as they pertain to the CCC and the USDA Forest Service. Both enrollees and the physical landscape on which they worked took on a new appearance. More than anything, this program under the New Deal was an implementation of Roosevelt's personal philosophy, which emphasized the need for improvement of both national resources and human welfare.⁶

Methodology

This research required a two-part approach. The first part involved retrieval of primary documentation and the second consisted of conducting interviews with persons who had studied the CCC or had participated in the program. Secondary information also was scrutinized. Sources included major books, journals, and newspaper and magazine articles that provided perspective and offered valuable insights into the CCC.

The first major depository researched was the National Archives and Record Service (NARS) in Washington, DC. Here, the records of the Civilian Conservation Corps, Record Group (RG) 35, were scrutinized for primary information. Record Group 95, USDA Forest Service records relating to the CCC were also researched, as were Regional Record Centers near Los Angeles and in Denver and Seattle. Attention was given to Record Groups 35 and 95 at each location. All materials relevant to the project were examined.

The Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library, Hyde Park, NY, is also a major source of information pertaining to the CCC and to Roosevelt's administration and was explored. Regional Forest Service offices were researched. Portland, OR, Albuquerque, NM, and Missoula, MT, were visited by research teams, while the remaining regional offices were contacted by mail or telephone. All held excellent information, but with varying degrees of completeness and organization. In some instances, ranger district offices also were researched.

State and local holdings on the CCC also were examined. Examples include Oregon Historical Society, Portland, OR; Kerr Library, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR; Forest History Society, Santa Cruz, CA; and others where appropriate. The CCC Alumni Association in Falls Church, VA, was approached, and through their contact was made with other State and regional chapters.

Interviews were conducted to collect primary information about the CCC. Our objective was to locate a cross section of enrollees who worked within the organization at different levels, such as camp directors, assistants, educators, artists, and individuals in the higher echelons of the Emergency Conservation Work. We were successful in obtaining interviews with enrollees of various ethnic affiliations. We received interviews and correspondence from enrollees from various regions, as well as from individuals in supervising capacities. Each person was given an opportunity to respond indirectly as well. Transcriptions were made and release forms were obtained from each individual.

The approach to data collection was designed for the case method or case study. This allows for a more detailed and careful analysis of the information.⁷ By examining a series of cases, the researcher can best recognize regularities of events. Comparisons and contrasts are better defined, and thus clear, systematic statements can be made.⁸

The first two chapters of this report are an introductory section that provides necessary background information for the reader. Because our intent is to provide a history of the CCC in national forests, a brief general history of the USDA Forest Service is presented in this section. We provide a chronology of major events and legislation dealing with the formation of that organization.

Prior to congressional enactment of the CCC legislation, a few States had enacted relief programs similar to the CCC. One program in California is mentioned in the introductory section so that some perspective might be gained on the economic and political mood of the country prior to the CCC. This introductory section concludes with an overview of the Emergency Conservation Work, including major legislation, organization, objectives, eligibility and recruitment, general accomplishments, and finally, liquidation.

Chapters 3-11 present a chronological summary of the CCC in each forest region as the regions were defined from 1933 to 1942 (fig. 1). A consideration of the similarities and differences among regional programs and their various accomplishments is presented, as well as social, demographic, and ecological data pertaining to the CCC. Chapter 12 gives an overview of CCC camp features and land use improvements.

The needs of forestry work in general and USDA Forest Service work in particular dictated the projects of the CCC in the national forests. Although a variety of programs was undertaken, programs in adjacent regions tended to be similar. Forest conservation and development was the major goal in all regions. Within a broad regional context, some variation did exist, however. These regional differences reflected geographical location, environmental characteristics, historical precedence, and in a few cases, individual vision or design.

Forest conservation work involved the maintenance or restoration of forest productivity as well as the protection of national forests from fire, disease, and insect infestation. Development projects were aimed at improving availability of national forests for conservation, public recreation, and livestock pasturage. Among the CCC's numerous forest improvement projects were construction and improvement of roads, bridges, administrative and service buildings, lookout towers, guard stations, landing fields, telephone lines, fences, picnic and campground facilities, trails, reservoirs, dams, livestock water tanks, and cattle guards. Other important activities were reforestation, erosion and flood control, stream improvement, fish and wildlife development, pest control, and fire prevention and suppression.

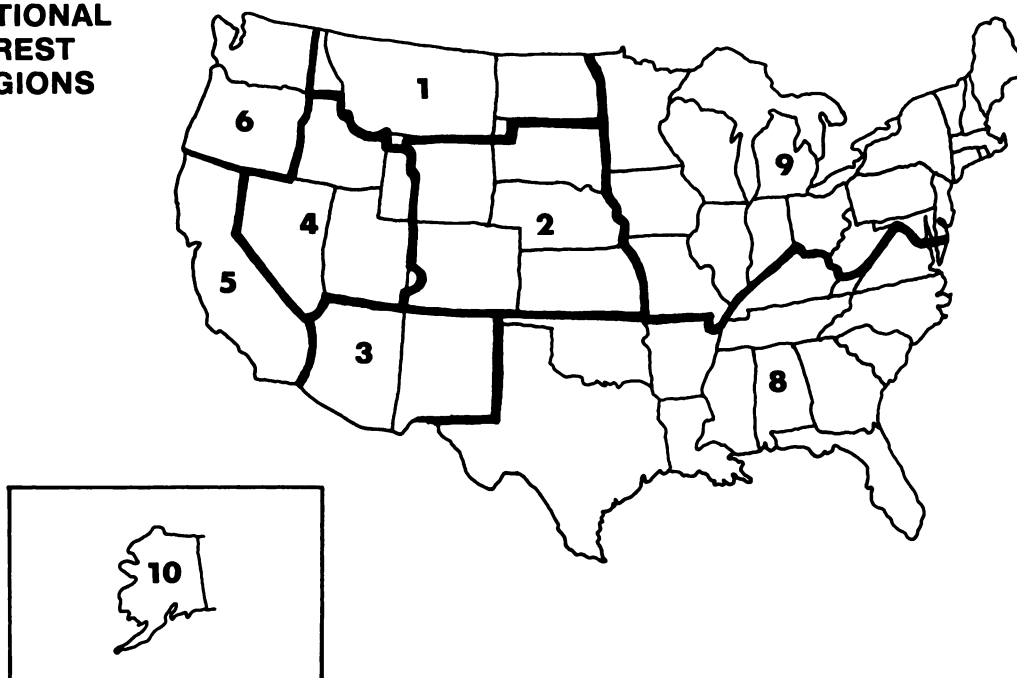
Local community reactions to the spread of CCC camps across the country varied. Because many of the national forest camps were located in remote areas, the towns most immediately affected were relatively small. They were also conservative and suspicious of outsiders. Concerns regarding local job displacement and family safety and well-being were often voiced. Frequently, in places historically affected by racial tensions, interracial hostilities caused problems. For blacks, these hostilities occurred mainly in the Southeastern United States. To a lesser extent, Mexican-Americans faced ethnic discrimination in parts of the Southwest. Throughout the country, enrollees were confronted with social and cultural differences internally and in relation to local communities. Interstate rivalries, distinctions between city and rural men, literate and illiterate, eastern and western, northern and southern, were additional sources of friction.

In general, once the first camps were established and the Civilian Conservation Corps became better known, CCC camps became accepted and even sought after. Civilian Conservation Corps' accomplishments were recognized—improvements in forest productivity, access to hinterlands, flood control, fire protection, and community safety. Furthermore, CCC camps were welcomed for the tremendous economic benefits to the areas they served. By using community services and purchasing supplies locally, the camps stimulated the regional economy. The mandatory rule for enrollees to send part of their paychecks home also meant that enrollees contributed economically to their home States. In some cases, enrollees subsequently settled in the vicinity of their camps and became part of the same town or community that had initially resisted them.

Three case studies are provided in Chapters 13, 14, and 15 to illustrate more specific and localized information on CCC activities within national forests and to offer an interregional case comparison. Three forests were selected for case study: George Washington National Forest in Virginia, Coronado National Forest in Arizona, and Mt. Hood National Forest in Oregon.

George Washington National Forest provides details of CCC activities in the Eastern United States, relatively close to the Nation's Capital. In many respects it was a showcase for CCC programs. Coronado National Forest, in the dry Southwest, represents a case of unusual environmental and ethnic circumstances for the CCC and also a forest comprised of a relatively large number of noncontiguous ranger districts and purchase units. The

NATIONAL FOREST REGIONS



- | | |
|--|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Northern Region 2. Rocky Mountain Region 3. Southwest Region 4. Intermountain Region 5. California Region | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Pacific Northwest Region 8. Southern Region 9. Eastern Region 10. Alaska Region also:
Institute of Tropical Forestry |
|--|--|

Figure 1--National Forest Regions.

use of a different resource for construction, adobe, also set Coronado apart. Mt. Hood National Forest is located in the well-watered western Cascades of Oregon. It is in the center of the Pacific Northwest, a distinctive cultural and political area of the United States. Many CCC documents and features have been preserved in this area.

The case studies of these three forests examine camp life and activities of the CCC, relationships with adjacent communities, and architectural features of CCC construction projects. The studies also deal with major factors of the environment that both limited activities and provided unique opportunities for CCC functioning.

These three detailed case studies illustrate, in a comparative way, improvements, structures, and camp organization in the national forests, and should be of value to archaeologists, historians, and land use planners or managers.

Appendix E of this manuscript provides procedures for interpretation of architectural features. It is intended to serve as a handbook. This appendix offers a method for determining significance and recording CCC architectural features from incipient phases through nomination to the National Register of Historic Places. Included are recommendations for the preservation and interpretation of CCC structures and improvements.

The final part of Appendix E contains a philosophy of architectural history that provides a working concept for the cultural resource specialist. The other appendixes included are a collection of CCC papers, the National Register of Historic Places Nomination for the Snake River Ranger District, a list of archival sources of CCC history, a list of CCC alumni chapters, and a bibliography of resource information about the CCC.

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Chapter 2 Historical and Institutional Background

USDA Forest Service

A concern for forest management in the United States culminated in 1873, when Franklin Hough, a physician and director of the New York Census, gave an address before the American Association for the Advancement of Science. Hough's statistical research clearly suggested the need for preservation of woodland from an economic standpoint.¹ Endorsing Hough's findings, the AAAS encouraged Congress to determine the condition of the Nation's forests.

Three years after Hough's hallmark address, Congress directed the U.S. Department of Agriculture to create a position for a forestry agent to lead the assessment. Hough was selected and within a short time determined that the Nation's forests were in need of strict management policies.² In 1881, a division of forestry was created within the Department of Agriculture, and Franklin Hough served briefly as its director.³

Succeeding Hough and Nathaniel Eggleston, Bernhard Fernow, a professional forester, promoted the notion of establishing a forest reserves system to help preserve the diminishing forests. Through the efforts of the Department of the Interior, in consultation with Fernow, the Forest Reserve Act was passed in 1891 as an amendment to an act revising the land laws.⁴ Seventeen forest reserves were created in 3 years by President Harrison and placed under the Secretary of the Department of the Interior. Public domain would thus be retained, reversing the earlier commitment to private ownership. In 1897, a bill was passed providing for management of the reserves. Gifford Pinchot became head of the Division of Forestry in 1898, although the division did not yet have a forest to manage. Through Pinchot's efforts, major changes occurred. In 1901, the division was elevated to the more prestigious status of bureau. In 1905, forest reserves were transferred into the custody of the Department of Agriculture. In order to more effectively manage this new responsibility, the Bureau of Forestry became the Forest Service. Forest reserves were designated as national forests in 1907.⁵

In 1911, one of the most significant measures was established, the Weeks Law. Its most important components were a cooperative fire protection plan with participating States⁶ and authorization for large sums of money to purchase forest lands to protect the watersheds of navigable streams. Although the concept seemed restricted, there was a broad interpretation of navigability.⁷

The Forest Reserve Act of 1891 had provided only for public domain lands, nearly all in the West, to be made forest reserves. The Weeks Law of 1911 authorized the Forest Service to seek land for purchase in the Eastern United States.⁸ Thus two types of national forest emerged: land from public domain in the West and land purchased from private owners by the Federal Government to protect watersheds in the East.

As with the Weeks Law, the 1924 Clarke-McNary Act had many dimensions. Not only were cooperative programs authorized to expand, but restrictions were lifted concerning the Federal purchase of land only for watershed protection.⁹ Lands for timber production could now be obtained through purchase or exchange. The Clarke-McNary law solidified cooperative relations between the Federal Government and the States and afforded oppor-

tunity for progress in forestry, particularly fire protection and tree planting.

During the late 1920's, unemployment became a serious problem. Forestry was thought to be one solution to the growing unemployment problem, especially through reforestation projects.¹⁰ In part, this philosophy was the initial framework of the New Deal to emerge under Roosevelt's administration. A few States had already taken the initiative in using available human resources to help overcome forest problems.

State Relief Programs Prior to the CCC: California

Some States had taken measures to develop labor camps during times of high unemployment. Individuals on relief rolls were used for a variety of public works, forestry being a common project. Franklin D. Roosevelt had developed such a plan as Governor of New York. Another program existed in California.¹¹

Because of eroding economic conditions in the late 1920's, California became burdened with a massive immigration of the unemployed. In 1931, between the first of September and last of October, some 70,000 unemployed persons came to California in search of work. Approximately 80 percent of these individuals were between 18 and 25 years of age.¹²

After a series of unsuccessful attempts by various individuals to ease California's surplus labor problem, an extraordinarily damaging fire season and the rapid influx of migrants prompted the State to adopt a labor corps system in November 1931.¹³ Management responsibilities were designated to the USDA Forest Service in cooperation with several State and local agencies. In exchange for food, clothing, and shelter, enrollees were expected to work in the forests and watersheds for 6 hours per day. Fire control was the principal duty.¹⁴

Protective improvements included the felling of snags, roadside clearing, insect and disease control, and the construction of firebreaks. By December 1931, some 1,500 men were employed in 25 camps throughout California.¹⁵ For the most part, labor camps were located on sites previously occupied by construction or logging work forces.

Recruitment was from welfare lines in the large urban areas, and participation was voluntary. Work forces were supervised by existing State and Federal personnel. Equipment was acquired from the California State Department of Forestry and from the USDA Forest Service. Other items, such as clothing, were purchased with State funds or received as donations.¹⁶ Although these State programs never reached the level of sophistication of the CCC, their accomplishments were remarkable.

There has been some discussion whether these State programs and European counterparts were used as blueprints by Roosevelt to formulate his plan for the CCC.¹⁷ Rather, it can be suggested that Roosevelt probably reorganized a series of concepts into a practical working plan for the entire Nation.

Roosevelt and the New Deal

Franklin D. Roosevelt's political career began as a New York State senator in 1910. Although he had always been interested in environmental concerns, his election

platform was based on entirely different matters.¹⁸ His first senatorial appointment was chairman of the State's forests, fish, and game committee, which was formed because of a growing concern about natural resources.

Roosevelt's duties as chairman of the committee were manifold, primarily relating to issues in fish and wildlife conservation. His position afforded an opportunity to voice his concerns, ranging from forestry to ornithology. Moreover, through information supplied by Gifford Pinchot, Roosevelt became aware of many forest abuse problems generated by private and public forestry in the Adirondack Preserve.¹⁹

Although private forest owners objected, the Roosevelt-Jones Bill was signed into law in 1912. The bill, in part, was intended to preserve the Adirondacks and other forests in the State. It gave power to the State to regulate the harvest of timber and the water supply on lands in private ownership.²⁰

When he became Governor of New York in 1929, Roosevelt remained concerned about a variety of environmental issues. Later, in 1931, he proclaimed a Conservation Week to promote greater public awareness. An accompanying press release best summarized his objectives:

... to bring to the attention of the people the great public benefits that are dependent upon the wise use and perpetuation of our forests, the protection of the birds and animals that they shelter, and the safeguarding of our water from alienation and pollution.²¹

Roosevelt was also concerned about growing unemployment in New York and the Nation. He approached the New York problem in two ways. First, he partially alleviated the short-term unemployment through public works; the long-range aspects were sent to a special committee of business and labor representatives to devise means to abate future problems.²²

One key recommendation from this Committee on Stabilization of Industry for the Prevention of Unemployment was the expansion of public work projects during economically depressed times. Thus Roosevelt urged local, county, and State agencies to create more employment through these methods.

During the latter part of 1929, the State Department of Public Works created a record number of projects using the unemployed. Efforts, however, were focused near urban areas. Projects included highways, hospitals, and other urban area construction. By 1931, nearly 20,000 people were at work.²³ Roosevelt had hoped that the private sector would make contributions to unemployment relief, but the response did not meet his expectations.²⁴

Even through emergency legislation, Roosevelt realized that the State could not keep pace with the growing unemployment figures. Furthermore, he determined that local, county, and State agencies could not manage the problem alone. Indeed, a regional or national approach was necessary. He was strongly convinced that the Federal Government must care for the people.

On July 2, 1932, Roosevelt accepted the Democratic nomination for the Presidency of the United States. His acceptance address in part mirrored his concern for unemployment and for the environment. He noted public works were a means of alleviating conservation problems by using the unemployed for reforestation and related

work. He referred to this scheme by suggesting the use "of common sense and business sense. . . ."²⁵

Indeed, when Roosevelt took office in 1933, the Nation was faced with serious economic crises. The President cogently suggested a national restoration plan to put the unemployed to work and to stimulate and reorganize the use of natural resources.²⁶ Many of his corrective programs under the New Deal used the unemployed to help preserve the environment.

The mood of the country offered little if any resistance to Roosevelt's corrective programs. In record time he was able to pass legislation regarding a host of New Deal programs. Congress was supportive. Some historians have suggested the New Deal was divided into two components: the First New Deal and the Second New Deal.²⁷ The first aimed at recovery and the second at reform.

Roosevelt seemed to approach the Nation's problems holistically. He recognized the need for balance. Agriculture, industry, and banking were in need of a boost. Many programs were insurance policies to prevent financial disasters from recurring. The Agricultural Act, Farm Credit Act, National Recovery Act, and the Federal Deposit Insurance Act were a few of the intended corrective measures. Others included the Public Work Administration and the Works Progress Administration. One of the best known was the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) Act or what was popularly called the Civilian Conservation Corps. More than any other New Deal agency, the CCC is considered to be an extension of Roosevelt's personal philosophy.²⁸

ECW and CCC

On March 21, 1933, Roosevelt presented a message to Congress on the topic of unemployment relief. The chief components of his address were (1) a prompt plan to enroll unemployed persons for public employment not to interfere with normal employment demands; (2) grants to States for relief; and (3) a broad public work program creating a need for labor.²⁹

Moreover, he requested that Congress establish a Federal Relief Administration to monitor requests for grants and their efficient use. Regarding his first request, Roosevelt said:

... I have proposed to create a civilian conservation corps to be used in simple work, not interfering with the normal employment, and confining itself to forestry, the prevention of soil erosion, flood control, and similar projects. . . . The type of work is of definite, practical value, not only through the prevention of great financial loss, but also as a means of creating future national wealth. . . .

Control of such work can be carried on by executing machinery of the Departments of Labor, Agriculture, War, and Interior.

The enterprise will . . . conserve our precious natural resources and more important will be the moral and spiritual gains of such work.³⁰

Congress acted in a rapid fashion and passed the law on March 31, 1933. On April 5, 1933, Executive Order 6106, Relief of Unemployment through the Performance

of Useful Public Works, was signed by Roosevelt. The order carried several chief components. In part, it established Emergency Conservation Work, with Robert Fechner as director; mandated the Secretaries of Agriculture, War, Labor, and Interior to appoint representatives for an advisory counsel to ECW; and appropriated \$10 million for a treasury fund.³¹

Formally designated as Emergency Conservation Work, the agency was immediately referred to as the Civilian Conservation Corps. The Departments of War, Agriculture, Interior, and Labor had chief responsibilities for its activities. The selection of individuals for enrollment was the responsibility of the Department of Labor. The War Department's responsibilities included physical conditioning, transportation, camp construction and administration, and supplies.

The Department of Agriculture was responsible for planning and conducting work projects on national forests in the continental United States as well as Alaska and Puerto Rico. State and private lands became part of their responsibilities. The Department of the Interior had similar responsibilities on lands under its jurisdiction, including all State, county, and local park lands.³² At first, American Indians were not eligible for enrollment. When they became eligible, they were placed under the Department of the Interior, Office of Indian Affairs.³³

All recruitment was conducted at the State level through an agency and quota designated by the Department of Labor. Each State established a local quota of enrollees and appointed another agency in the local community to conduct application procedures.³⁴ The initial national enrollment consisted of 25,000 men.³⁵ These figures were prorated as indicated in table 1.

Eligibility requirements carried several stipulations. Congress required citizenship; other standards were set by the ECW. Generally, sound physical fitness was required because hard physical labor was done by enrollees. Men had to be unemployed, not married, and between the ages of 18 and 25.³⁶ By policy, those initially selected had to demonstrate their need. Policy also dictated that discrimination by color, race, creed, or politics would not be allowed.³⁷

Enlistment was for 6 months. In return, each person received food, clothing, shelter, and an allowance of \$30 per month. The ECW required enrollees to send an allotment of at least \$25 a month to a dependent.³⁸

Table 1--CCC Quotas for Army Corps Areas, 1933

First Corps Area	March 8	900
Second Corps Area	March 6	8,600
Third Corps Area	March 6	5,400
Fifth Corps Area	March 8	1,500
Sixth Corps Area	March 3	7,100
Seventh Corps Area	March 8	1,500
United States Total		25,000

On September 19, 1933, the Department of Labor announced that reenrollment was possible. Although reenrollment quotas had not been established, all those currently in the program were given first entitlement.³⁹

Although policy forbade discrimination, blacks and other ethnic minorities encountered difficulties in the ECW. In 1933, black camps were segregated from white camps, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) objected.⁴⁰ Although the administration denied the policy of segregation, there were strong indications that integration was not enforced.

Robert L. Collins, adjunct general, War Department, issued a memorandum to all corpsmen on September 10, 1934. This memo read, in part:

. . . Colored personnel will be employed to the greatest extent practical in colored units within their own states of origin. In the future segregation of colored men by company, while not mandatory, will be the general rule and earnest effort will be made to reduce the total number of colored men in white units. . . .⁴¹

In July 1935, the policy was reiterated and modestly amended. The new policy called for complete segregation of blacks and whites, except in States where there were not enough blacks to form an entire camp.⁴² Nevertheless, many communities protested against black camps. Both Northern and Southern States had filed complaints as early as June 1933, only a few months after the CCC had been formed.⁴³

In 1934, several blacks were made educational advisors in CCC camps. By 1936, one had been appointed a camp commander. It was clear, however, that blacks were discriminated against in the designation of leadership positions.⁴⁴ One writer has suggested the primary reason for tight control over blacks was adherence to War Department policy and practice.⁴⁵

A report issued by the Chief of Staff, War Department, on May 13, 1935, summarized the "official policy regarding colored personnel." The Department claimed it had always been zealous in seeing that blacks were treated with "consideration, fairness, and justice" yet obviously felt that nonwhites needed special handling in the command administration.⁴⁶ Furthermore, because of complaints from local communities and even State Governors, many blacks were placed on military reservations. The War Department stated that "only the best and most carefully selected white officers are assigned to the command of these colored units."⁴⁷ Using black officers to command these units was still in the "experimental stages."

The War Department policy was clearly one of reluctance. Nevertheless, Fechner's office issued statements claiming at least "2,000 colored leaders and assistant leaders (and) twenty-four additional colored Education Advisors."⁴⁸ The policy of the War Department seemed to be no colored officers in command, unless there was pressure from Congress or President Roosevelt.

Another widespread minority group consisted of Mexican-American enrollees. No definite policy existed regarding Mexican-Americans as it did with blacks; however, discrimination was reported in Arizona, Texas, and New Mexico camps.⁴⁹ This appeared to be a regional phenomenon; when Mexican-Americans were sent to other States, such as Utah, racial problems were encountered less frequently.⁵⁰

Some attempts were made to establish women's CCC camps. In 1938, the Women's Civic Club of Birmingham, AL, passed resolutions to bring a proposal before the next session of the Alabama legislature. Their proposal suggested the use of State and Federal funding to establish women's camps, augmented by private endowments.⁵¹ It failed, however.

On April 5, 1933, 25,000 men from 16 cities had been enrolled in the CCC.⁵² The initial selection had been conducted in eastern and midwestern urban areas where "facilities" already existed.⁵³ Enrollments from the West were to be released soon. Within 8 days, sites for the first 50 camps on eastern and southern national forests had been approved. Each camp would consist of 200 men, for a total of 10,000.⁵⁴

Although the USDA Forest Service always had the majority of CCC camps,⁵⁵ the U.S. Army was assigned responsibility "for all matters incident to command of units."⁵⁶ This included construction of forestry camps, supply, administration, sanitation, medical care, hospitalization, and welfare.⁵⁷ The Forest Service or other appropriate agency was responsible for actual work projects, technical planning and execution, and supervision of work forces.⁵⁸ Some people thought the Army was taking on a larger role than had been originally intended and that this expansion of responsibility created problems between the Army and other Federal agencies. Many difficulties between agencies seemed to be the result of misunderstanding of roles and responsibilities.⁵⁹

The organization of CCC companies reflected the role of the U.S. Army. A chain of command was clear. Figure 2 shows this organization.⁶⁰ Army corps areas are shown in Figure 3. Because the Army was in charge of camp construction, designs for permanent, semipermanent, and portable camps were very specific. Directions on types of materials, dimensions, and step-by-step construction from ground clearing to the finished work were given. By 1934, the plans were notably precise. A typical camp layout is shown in Figure 4. The Army had also calculated the costs of building, disassembling, and reerecting camps.⁶¹

Although canvas tents were originally intended for all CCC camps, the Army and an industry group known as the American Forest Products, Inc., began demonstrating the cost feasibility of lumber products. Fechner was concerned about the unofficial policy change and quickly apprised Roosevelt of the situation.⁶² The dilemma was resolved, and in November 1933 the CCC boasted that more than 40,000 carpenters utilizing 300 million board feet of lumber would be building CCC camps in 46 states⁶³ (fig. 5). The potential benefit to the lumber industry was obvious; however, related manufacturing and construction businesses would share in the profits as well.

In 1934, the portable camp buildings were introduced into the CCC. The fourth corps area was the recipient of the first camp of this design near Tupelo, MS.⁶⁴

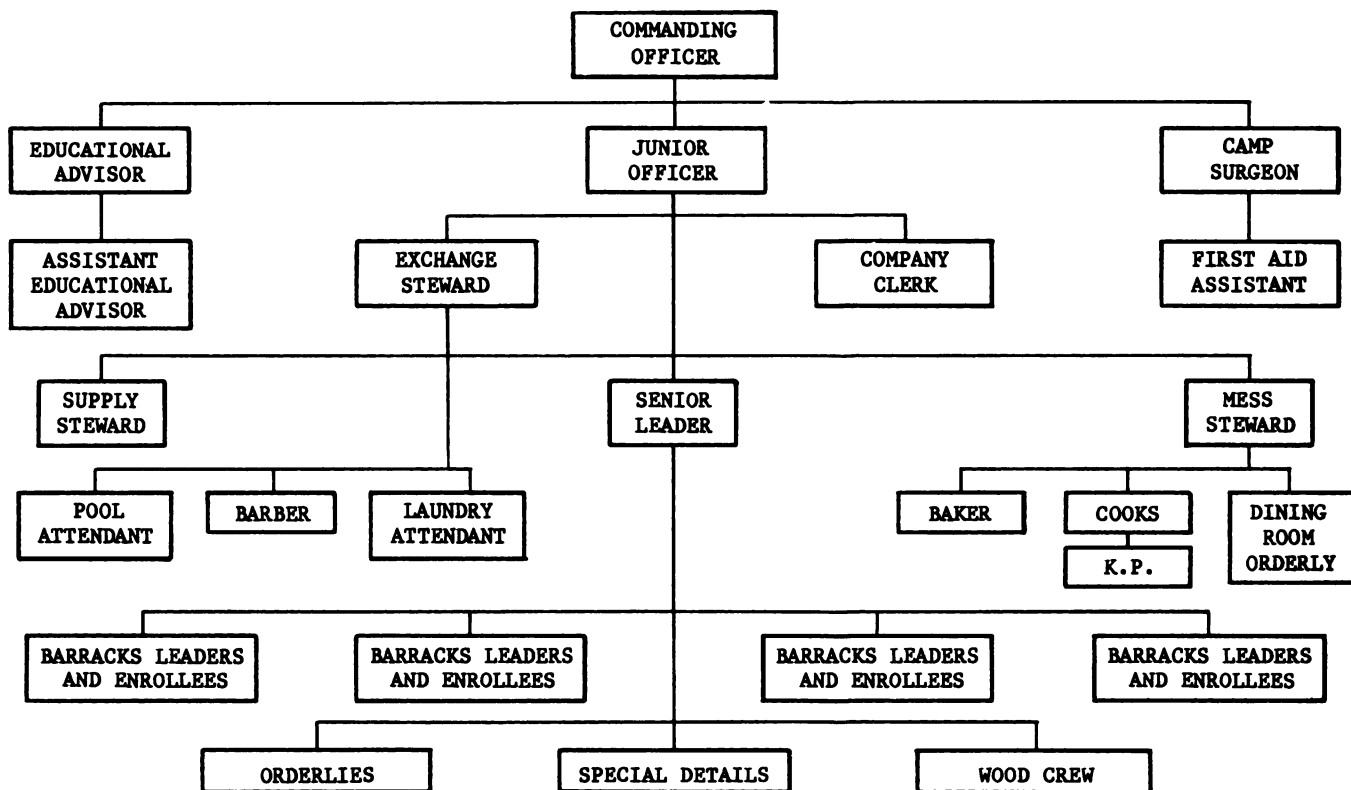


Figure 2--CCC company organization chart. (National Archives 35-12, 9)

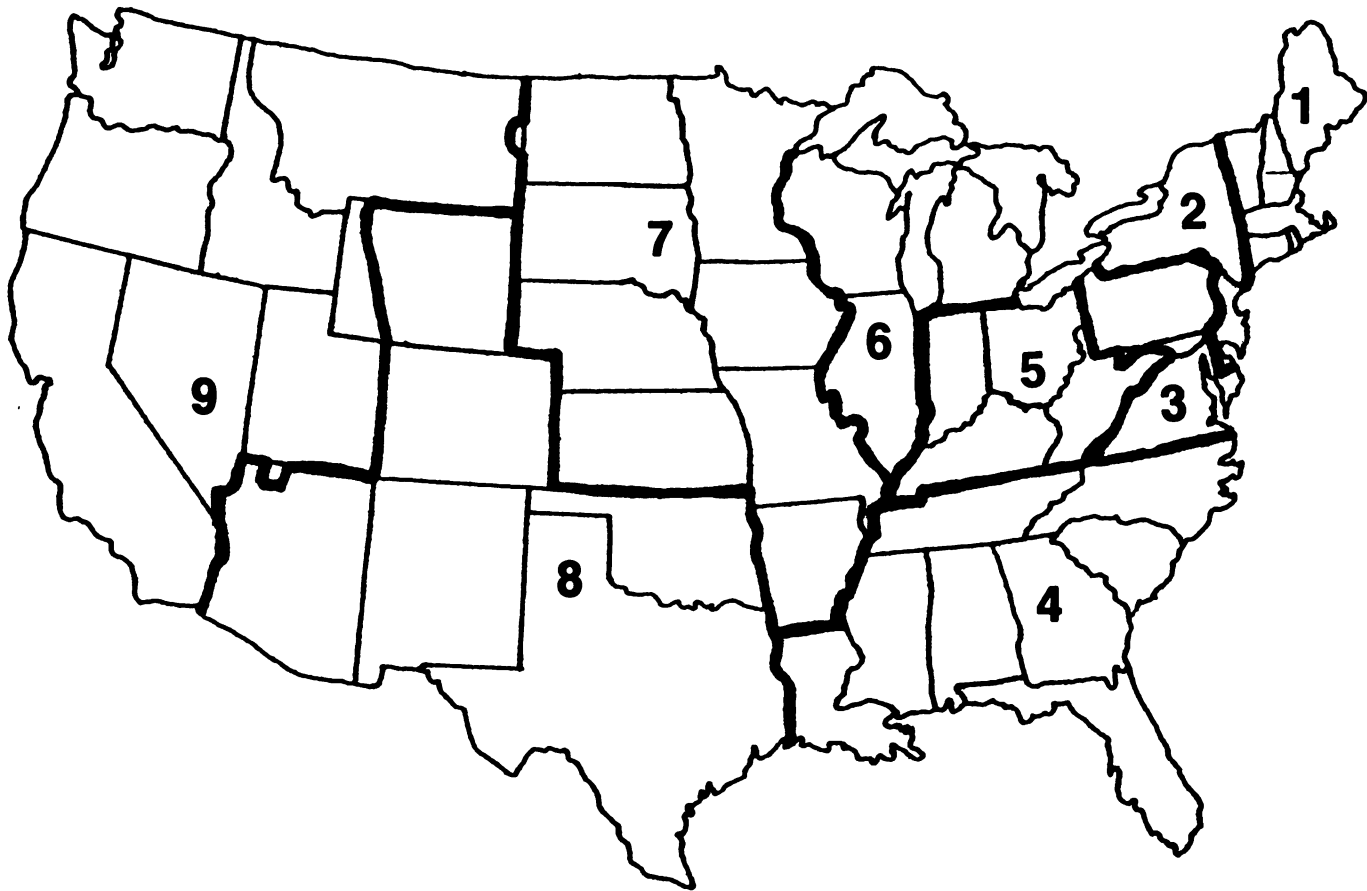


Figure 3--Nine Army Corps Areas directing the Civilian Conservation Corps. (From *Soil Soldiers: The Civilian Conservation Corps in the Great Depression* by Alexander L. Lacy. Copyright 1976 by the author. Reprinted with the permission of the publisher.)

Portable buildings were shown to be cost-effective, and by 1935 they became a standard feature.

Side camps, popularly known as spike or fly camps, were especially useful in the Western United States because of rough topography and lack of roads. Projects conducted by side camps included construction of look-outs on peaks accessible only by trail and firebreaks on ridgelines, disease and insect treatment, and some forest fire prevention. On July 21, 1933, Franklin D. Roosevelt approved the use of side camps under the following conditions: (1) limited to 20 persons; (2) absent from the main camp only from Monday through Friday; (3) under the control of forestry personnel, not military; and (4) treated as experimental for a period of time.⁶⁵

All side camps required approval by the regional forester, with the exception of emergency situations involving fire. It was soon realized that side camps were both efficient and effective. Regional foresters reported equal or better production from side camps, especially in building trails and roads, putting in communication lines, and work of a similar nature.⁶⁶

All camps were designated by letters and numbers indicating their classification regarding either land

ownership or type of work. Numbers were assigned under each of these classes by States. Table 2 indicates these classifications and designations.⁶⁷

Each CCC company was also assigned numbers by State and order of formation. For example, Company 940 indicated the ninth corps area and the fortieth camp formed. Less formally, camps also received names. Most seemed to take on the name of a geographic place or some special personage.⁶⁸

Enrollees could be sent to camps in various parts of the country, according to the need for work. In theory, the chosen camp would be fairly near the enrollee's home:

... A man may be sent to a forest camp in his own state or in a neighboring state. In general, the forest camp is likely to be in his own section of the country, at least. . . .⁶⁹

Nevertheless, many individuals assigned to camps in the West were from the Midwest or East. Homesickness was reported to be a problem, especially with enrollees from New York, Chicago, and other large urban areas.⁷⁰

The objectives of the CCC have already been discussed. Within the national forests, first, and probably

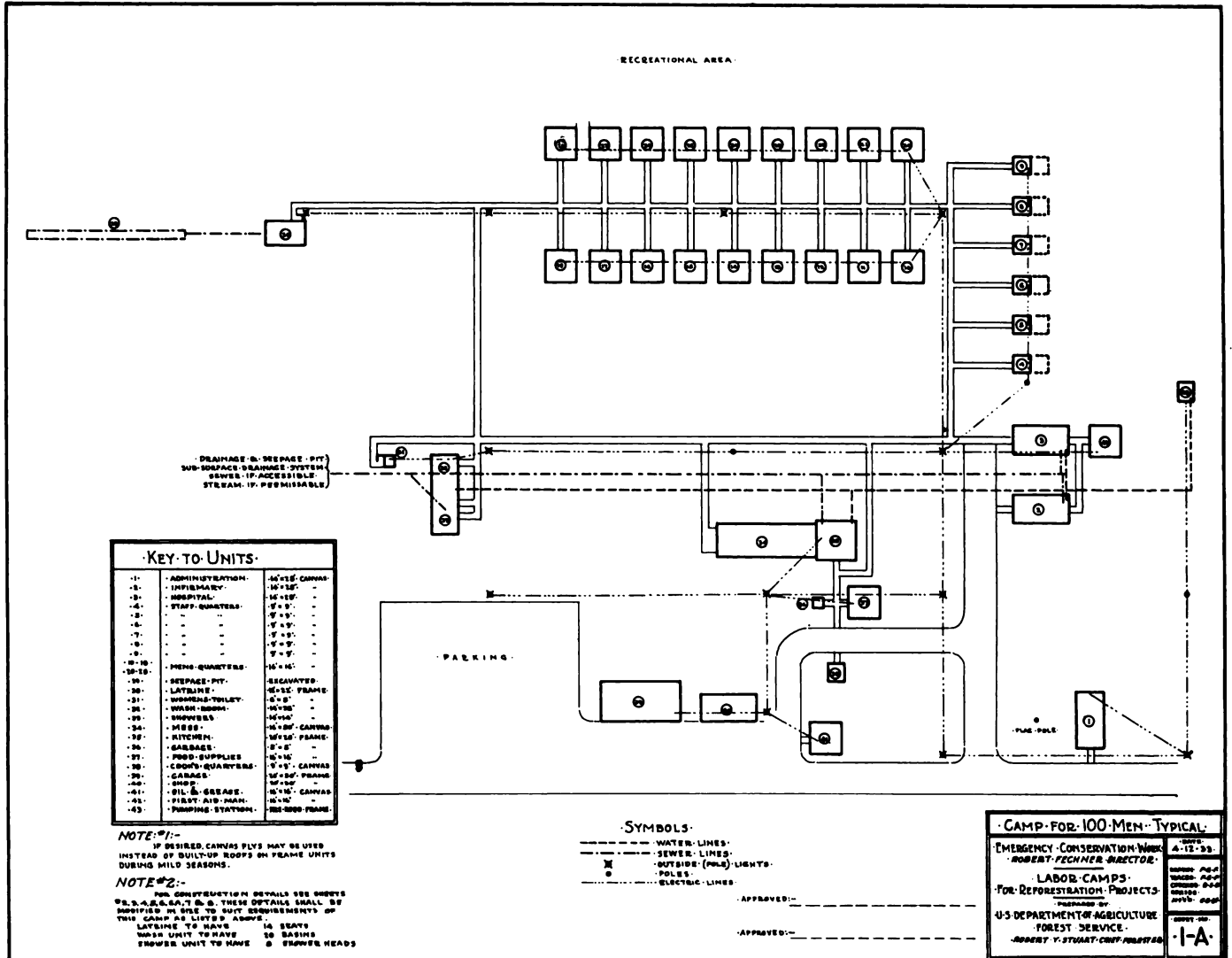


Figure 4--Typical CCC Camp layout for 100 men, April 1933. (National Archives 95, series 94)

foremost, was forest protection. Fighting forest fires was the primary duty, but disease and insect control were also included. The building of telephone lines, lookouts, landing fields, trails, roads, and bridges constituted in part a preventive measure within the forest protection category.⁷¹

Forest improvement was another important category of CCC activities. Included were timber stand improvement and inventories, surveys, and forest cover maps. Reforestation, too, was an important aspect, as were nurseries to produce seedlings.⁷²

Still another major area of work was forest recreation development. Campgrounds were built, equipped with water supplies, swimming pools, fireplaces, picnic shelters, and rest rooms.⁷³

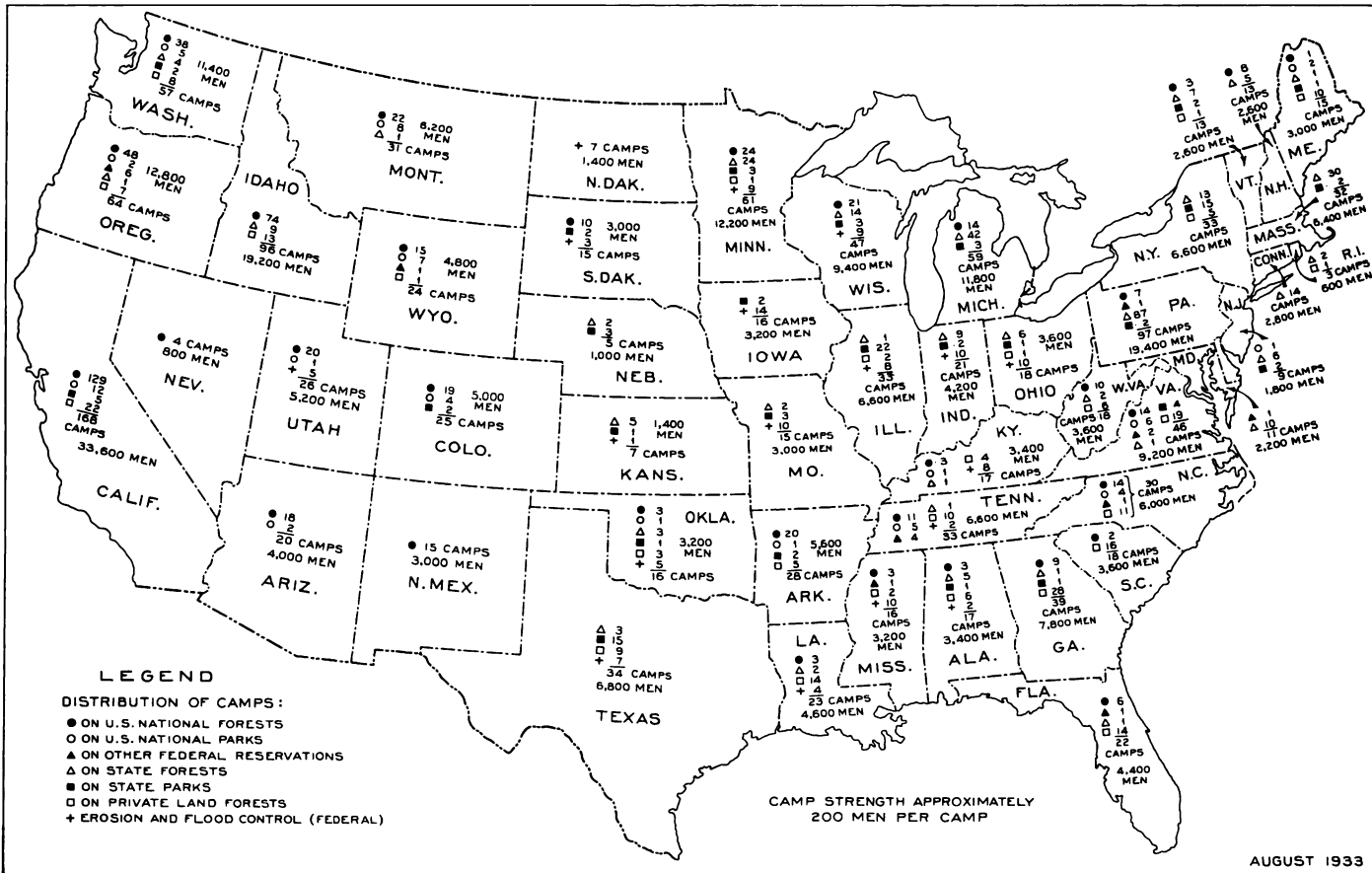
The CCC was used by the USDA Forest Service for range and wildlife projects. Improvements were made for range cover and revegetation. The CCC also participated in wildlife development through the construc-

tion of refuges and stream clearing for fish propagation. Soil erosion control, flood control, and forest research were other CCC duties.⁷⁴

The CCC was also well known for its work in crisis situations, including floods, forest fires, storms, and forest disease and insect infestation. Table 3 provides examples of such activities throughout the country.

Of course, the CCC did not exist without negative reaction from various levels. Criticism ranged from community fears of "foreigners" being imported near local towns to a charge by the mayor of Pittsburgh, PA, that the CCC caused disastrous floods by removing undergrowth vegetation that had retarded water flow.⁷⁵

Clearly, however, the efforts of the CCC received more praise than criticism from the public. This was partly because the CCC developed a great propaganda mechanism to continually flood the public media with reports of its merits. The USDA Forest Service could capitalize on positive publicity because of its national



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Figure 5--Emergency Conservation Work camps.

jurisdiction and wide distribution. In November 1934, Guy McKinney, director of publicity for the ECW, wrote to Acting Chief Forester C.M. Granger to encourage publicity, at least at the local level.⁷⁶ In 1935, the effusive McKinney wrote to Fred Morrell, acting chief of CCC forestry work in the Forest Service, praising the Service for the sound publicity regarding the CCC.⁷⁷ The publicity campaign accelerated in 1936, the same year the ECW was extended and renamed the Civilian Conservation Corps.⁷⁸ Both McKinney and Fechner prepared a media blitz with stories about the CCC and its accomplishments.⁷⁹ *American Forests* magazine served as yet another vehicle for CCC praise. In 1934, the magazine sponsored a contest entitled "What the CCC Has Done for Me." Current enrollees were encouraged to submit short essays praising the value of the agency. Selected manuscripts were published and the authors awarded prizes.⁸⁰

The overall value of the CCC cannot be questioned. There were problems with desertion, dissidents, and general dissatisfaction because of inflated expectations; nevertheless, many young men acquired skills and educational benefits they might not have acquired otherwise.

In June 1933, the ECW decided men in CCC camps could be given the opportunity for vocational training

and further education. Initially, the USDA Forest Service conducted seminars and workshops in forestry.⁸¹ Later, a plan encouraging ties with universities and the extension service was developed by W. Frank Persons and introduced to the ECW.⁸² Both Fechner and the Army were opposed to this plan.⁸³ Eventually, because Fechner acknowledged the need, a plan was formulated. Camp education advisors and assistants were appointed.⁸⁴ Although the program faced many problems, a vocational and academic curriculum was developed.

Again, the CCC could publicize another activity. By 1937, there were 1,100 CCC school buildings with libraries exceeding 1,500,000 volumes. The program boasted instruction "at all levels, including basic literacy, elementary, high school and college courses, vocational training," and others.⁸⁵ More than 90 percent of all enrollees were participants in some facet of the educational program.

Although Roosevelt attempted to make the CCC a permanent agency in 1937, this was not realized.⁸⁶ On June 30, 1942, all active operations ceased. The Labor-Federal Security Administration Appropriation Act (Public Law 647) spelled the demise of the organization.

Table 2--Camp designations

Camp designation	Work area and land ownership	Supervising agency
F	National Forest	USDA Forest Service
S	State Forest	USDA Forest Service and State
P	Private Forest	USDA Forest Service and State
A	National Agricultural Research Center	National Agricultural Research Center
AI	US Range Livestock Experiment Station	USDA Forest Service and Bureau of Animal Industry
E	Private	USDA Forest Service and Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quar.
NA	National Arboretum	USDA Forest Service and Bureau of Plant Industry
SCS	Private and Public Land	Soil Conservation Service
TVA	Federal, State, Private	USDA Forest Service and Tennessee Valley Authority
TVA-P	State	National Park Service and Tennessee Valley Authority
BS	Federal Game Refuge	Bureau of Biological Survey
BR	Federal Reclamation Projects (except as noted)	Bureau of Reclamation
G	Public Domain	Grazing Service
NP	Military Park	National Park Service
NP	National Monument	National Park Service
NP	National Park	National Park Service
NP	National Historical Park	National Park Service
MA	Metropolitan Areas	National Park Service
CP	County Park	National Park Service
SP	State Park	National Park Service and State
GLO	Public Domain and Oregon and California Land Grant	General Land Office

Some \$8 million was set aside to cover all costs of liquidation, and the War Department, Labor Department, and Civil Aeronautics Administration were given first opportunity of acquiring CCC properties.⁸⁷ The War Department claimed the majority of equipment.

Public Law 647 specified that the CCC must totally liquidate before July 1, 1943. All work programs were stopped, and more than 60,000 enrollees were discharged. Some 1,300 camps had already closed, and a remaining 350 were being phased out.⁸⁸ By June 1942, many CCC enrollees had been reassigned to military capacities.⁸⁹ Earlier, many officers had already been reassigned, as the potential for war in Europe was realized.⁹⁰

Though it received many renewals, the CCC did come to an end. Indeed, it had been fraught with political difficulties and in some cases became too large and over-extended.⁹¹ For a precise description of the CCC and

its demise, John A. Salmond's work, The Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-42: A New Deal Case Study, should be consulted.

The CCC legacy is still alive, however. Recently, Senators Daniel Moynihan and Charles Mathias introduced a bill for a contemporary version of the CCC, called the American Conservation Corps. Unemployed men and women from 18 to 25 would be eligible. As Moynihan suggested, "The idea is not new, but it works and it is cost effective."⁹²

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Emergency	Date	Area
Floods	1936 1937	Maryland, Pennsylvania, District of Columbia, Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois Ohio, Tennessee, Arkansas, and others Winooski, Vermont Walkill, New York
Forest fires	1933 1936	Tillamook or Wilson River Fire, Oregon Bandon, Oregon California--Matilija and others Idaho, New Jersey
Ground coal fires	1936	Wyoming (continuing 9 years)
Blizzards	1936-37	Wyoming, Utah, Nevada
Tornadoes	1933 1936	Florida Georgia, Alabama
Hurricanes	1938	New England States
Forest insect and tree disease epidemics (various years)		
		Dutch elm disease--New York, New England States Blister rust--Idaho, Washington, Oregon, California, New England States Gypsy moth--New England States Twig blight--Arizona, New Mexico Grasshoppers--Western States Mormon crickets--Idaho, Utah, Middle West

* During the life of the Corps, efforts were made at times to divert its manpower to rather divergent campaigns, under the guise of national or local emergencies. Such efforts were the extermination of mosquitoes, in which the CCC did participate for a time, reduction of hayfever by the destruction of ragweed, goldenrod, etc. The above are the principal national and local emergencies in which the CCC gave invaluable aid.

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Chapter 3 Region 1—The Northern Region

During the CCC period, USDA Forest Service Region 1 supervised work projects in Montana, North Dakota, the northern Idaho panhandle, and a small section of eastern Washington. Although North Dakota had no national forest land, Montana had 12 national forests, northern Idaho had 7, and Washington had a portion of 1 forest, the Kaniksu, which extended into Idaho. In addition to the Kaniksu, national forests in northern Idaho included the Clearwater, Coeur d'Alene, Nezperce, Pend Oreille, Selway, and St. Joe. The 12 forests in Montana were the Beaverhead, Bitterroot, Blackfoot, Cabinet, Custer, Deerlodge, Flathead, Gallatin, Helena, Kootenai, Lewis and Clark, and Lolo.¹ In 1937, it was estimated that Region 1 had 6 percent of all forest areas in the United States and 16 percent of all national forest land.²

Enrollment and Camp History

Civilian Conservation Corps camps in Montana, Idaho, and Washington belonged to the ninth corps area of the War Department's administration; North Dakota camps belonged to the seventh corps area. Their respective headquarters in San Francisco, CA, and Omaha, NE, were officially responsible for building and operating the camps as well as looking after the health and general welfare of the enrollees. Through this department authorizations were made for the camps operating on each forest and for the quotas of enrollees in each State.

On April 18, 1933, the first official announcement of State quotas for all the corps areas came from Brigadier General James F. McKinley, acting adjutant general. Three days later, quotas were increased. Including technical services, the quotas in Region 1 were: North Dakota, 1,500; Montana, 5,800; and Idaho, 9,600 (including Region 4).³

Eight days later, General McKinley approved the initial group of national forest camps where enrollees would be assigned. A total of 77 Region 1 camps were planned for the first enrollment period (table 4).⁴ Fort Missoula, MT, and Fort George Wright in Spokane, WA, were commissioned as supply centers and focal points for enrollee conditioning and distribution.⁵ Districts were established near these centers to facilitate camp construction and administration. Enrollment centers were also opened in Lewiston, ID; Helena, MT; and Coeur d'Alene, ID.⁶

Shortly before McKinley's second announcement, Region 1 showed its determination to launch the Emergency Conservation Work program in its area. A telegram was sent to the commanding officer of the ninth corps area requesting the immediate construction of nine forest camps. On May 5, a new list of 36 camps was filed, including the 9 original, all with a June 1, 1933, construction deadline. Because of delays, the shortened season, and the timely character of the work (e.g., white pine blister rust control), Region 1 filed a third camp listing placing priority on 21 blister rust camps to be completed by June 1 and an additional 14 blister rust camps to be built soon after June 1.⁷

The outcome of the first period construction work was a total of 67 national forest camps operating in summer and fall of 1933 (table 4).⁸ According to Emergency Conservation Work policy, projects within each State were to be performed by enrollees from within the State unless an approved project required more men than were

available by State quota. In Region 1, it became necessary to transfer enrollees from other parts of the country, primarily the larger cities in the eastern corps areas.⁹

The quota system did not function well in Region 1 and other Rocky Mountain States. Quotas were based largely on the size of each State's population, therefore making quotas restrictive in comparison to the land size and area needs. Quotas had been rapidly filled. Civilian Conservation Corps companies from outside the States were necessary to complete work projects. After 1936, the number of men looking for CCC positions decreased sharply, and eventually there were more positions open than men to fill them.¹⁰

In some ways, Idaho was in a better situation than the other States. It had almost as many camps as Montana and Wyoming combined although its area was less than either.¹¹

Other States, Montana for example, complained vigorously about jobs being usurped by CCC enrollees. Although the program had been established to guard against this problem and did, in fact, bring greater economic benefits into the areas than it took away, work opportunities were biased toward younger men. Older men who were unable to secure positions as Local Enlisted Men (LEM's) were crowded out of seasonal labor pools.¹²

Work projects were curtailed during the winter periods. Only 13 of the 67 camps were operating in the second period (winter 1933-34).¹³ During the winter some camps were discontinued and the men sent to more southerly regions, or camps were consolidated. During the winter of 1937-38, Camp Nine Mile near Alberton, MT, housed three companies. Containing 44 buildings and more than 500 people, it was among the largest camps in CCC history.¹⁴

Winter work was limited by the severe weather. Extensive education and vocational training programs developed in some areas as a result of those seasonal restrictions. Weather was blamed for the defection of numerous enrollees. One winter 33 enrollees from Arkansas were given dishonorable discharges for refusing to work in cold temperatures at Camp F-79, Helena, MT. Another camp discharged 55 New York boys who refused to work in March 1941.¹⁵

By summer 1934, 58 camps were back in operation. While the average number of national forest camps in Region 1 continued to decline until the CCC ended, significant amounts of work were achieved by existing camps. In 1937, estimates showed that 85 percent of the region's CCC labor force was being used in national forests.¹⁶ By the end of 1940, nearly 105,000 boys had served in Region 1's national forest camps, and approximately 6.5 million worker-days of labor had been expended.¹⁷

Side Camps

Early in the organization's history the issue of spike, fly, or side camps arose. It was proposed that smaller camps be located away from the base camps to achieve greater efficiency in labor and transportation and to provide project diversity. The primary constraints were cost and administration. Each regional forester was asked to comment on side camp use to date, future need

Table 4--First period CCC camps, region 1

State	National forest	Number of camps approved 4-26-33	Actual camps
Idaho	Clearwater	14	13
	Coeur d'Alene	15	8
	Kaniksu	3	2
	Nezperce	2	1
	Pend Oreille	2	1
	Selway	2	2
	St. Joe	12	12
		<u>50</u>	<u>39</u>
Montana	Beaverhead	2	2
	Bitterroot	2	2
	Blackfoot	2	2
	Cabinet	4	5
	Custer	1	1
	Deerlodge	2	1
	Flathead	2	5
	Gallatin	1	1
	Kootenai	4	4
	Lewis and Clark	2	1
Lolo	3	2	
		<u>25</u>	<u>26</u>
Washington	Kaniksu	2	2
		-	-
Total		77	67

for side camps, and to make recommendations for a general policy regarding their use.

Regional Forester Evan W. Kelley's response was that side camps in Region 1 had been successful over a 1-month period (July 1933). Twenty-one spikes from 17 base camps had been detached, ranging in number from 4 to 130 men. Side camps accomplished work at a distance from the base camps such as tree planting, insect control, and lookout construction. Kelley reported:

. . . the production from spike camps on truck trails, telephone lines, and other forms of improvement work was equal to or better than the best production attained from base camps, this on account of the added working hours salvaged through reduction in travel time to and from work. The grazing survey and truck trail location work could not have been accomplished without spike camps.¹⁸

Added costs, largely in food supplies, were compensated by savings in travel expenses.¹⁹

Kelley proposed that 116 side camps be used in work projects lasting from 1-1/2 to 4 months. According to the regional forester, 33.5 percent of the originally planned program cannot be touched without spike

camps."²⁰ Spike camps were officially authorized throughout the country, although the western areas used them extensively where they were best suited geographically.

Work Projects

Civilian Conservation Corps work projects in Region 1 concentrated on transportation improvements, structural improvements, forest disease control, forest fire protection, and forest culture.²¹ Under the supervision of Regional Forester Kelley and other USDA Forest Service officials, projects were designed to have optimal benefit on the national forest lands. A letter written in August 1933 by an ECW officer at the Beaverhead National Forest illustrates the variety of jobs engaged in by enrollees there. Projects included road, fence, and camp-ground construction; grazing surveys; bridge repair; gopher and squirrel poisoning; log preparation for range cabins; and post and pole cutting, peeling, and creosoting.²²

By 1941, considerable improvement work and maintenance of old projects had been accomplished in the region. Some of the outstanding contributions were:

- More than 2,500 miles of forest roads constructed
- 44,184 signs, markers, and monuments placed along roads and trails
- 27,319 acres seeded or planted to young trees
- 479,521 acres of white pine treated for blister rust
- 93 lookout houses built
- Hundreds of miles of telephone line strung
- 371,647 worker-days fought on forest fires²³

Blister rust control was a major activity of many CCC camps in Region 1. To be successful, ongoing treatment projects were necessary, especially in the valuable white pine forests of northern Idaho and eastern Washington. Technical phases of the work came under the USDA Bureau of Plant Pathology, which worked in cooperation with the USDA Forest Service and CCC towards eradicating the disease.²⁴ Because of the inaccessibility of large areas of infested pine, the CCC was unable to thoroughly control the blister rust's spread.²⁵

Control of pine beetles was another conservation project of the CCC camps. Hatching beetles girdled the pine trees by burrowing beneath the bark. Control measures consisted of cutting infested trees and burning the bark prior to the adult beetles' emergence. National forest crews worked with the USDA Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine as well as with various State forestry agencies.²⁶

Camps in Region 1 were very active in forest fire control. Problems were encountered at first in using untrained enrollees from eastern cities. Many had never worked in such a demanding environment or job. High altitudes and mountainous terrain affected the "weak hearts" of a few men.²⁷ By the end of the 1935 fire season, however, Forester Kelley reported ECW crews were being used almost exclusively for suppressing the larger fires. They were also being used to supplement lookouts and fire guard forces. The effect of their work was observable in the decreased number of burned acres and the lower incidence of incendiary fires.²⁸ In 1940, the USDA Forest Service calculated that enrollees had become more effective because of better attitudes and more effective fire training and crew organization.²⁹

Perhaps more important than actual firefighting was the CCC's work in fire prevention. Access roads, fire lanes, and lookouts were built in the back country. Special attention was given to more vulnerable areas. In March 1940, the region's Cooperative Board of Forestry sent a resolution to President Roosevelt requesting three additional camps in northern Idaho's Clearwater National Forest. The purpose of these camps was preventive fire control in valuable white pine stands where a severe fire hazard existed.³⁰ Secretary to the President Edwin M. Watson suggested that State Forester Franklin Girard work the problem out further with the regional forester and arrange allocation of the camps.³¹

In 1937, Acting Regional Forester Clarence Strong attempted to estimate how much money the CCC had saved the United States through timber conservation. This cost analysis was part of Region 1's recommendation for making the CCC into a permanent organization. A comparison of records from the Clearwater Timber Protective Association and the Potlatch Timber Protective Association showed traceable improvements during the CCC's existence. In the region, the loss of merchantable timber to fire for the 4 years prior to 1933

was 1,014,457,000 board feet. For the period 1933-36, the loss was only 80,613,000 board feet.³²

Structural improvements in Region 1's national forests included a broad range of buildings. As in forests throughout the country, lookout towers, guard stations, ranger station compounds, and recreational structures were among the CCC's significant contributions to the region. For example, the Birch Creek Camp, F-60, in Dillon, MT, was responsible for building the Forest Service's Birch Creek administration building, and Company F-57 in Bozeman constructed the Squaw Creek Ranger Station. The Savenac Nursery building near St. Regis, MT, was built by Company 956 and was able to grow 12 million trees annually.³³

Numerous types of bridges were constructed as part of the burgeoning road system being built to open the forests. Examples include the wooden Woodward Bridge on the Selway National Forest, built by enrollees from Camp Goat Creek primarily for packing purposes. Another pack or "stock" bridge was built of stringer logs by the Thompson River CCC camp on the Cabinet Forest. A large concrete vehicle bridge was constructed across the Gallatin River to the Squaw Creek Ranger Station by CCC workers. On the Lolo Forest in St. Regis, Company 956 built a stone bridge over Savenac Creek for specific use by the Forest Service nursery there. Finally, a suspension bridge, built by the Big Timber CCC camp, was located near McCleod, MT, on the Upper Boulder River.³⁴

Among the more unusual endeavors undertaken by one of the region's forestry camps was the winter project of Company 1962 while stationed at Camp Nine Mile. Civilian Conservation Corps men there made pack saddles for use by Forest Service and CCC personnel in carrying supplies into forest back country.³⁵

When the CCC ceased operating, most camp buildings were either dismantled and stored, or sold for public use. At least two exceptions exist in Region 1, according to Bill Sharp, a CCC alumnus who has been collecting information on Montana camps for many years.

In Montana we have two Civilian Conservation Corps camps that still have many of the buildings in use. On the Custer National Forest the people of Eklaka keep the camp for the 4-H, Boy Scouts, and community affairs. On the Beaverhead Forest a church group has a special use permit for the Birch Creek CCC camp.³⁶

In 1939, the Birch Creek CCC camp consisted of 15 permanent buildings, representing a non-intrusive architecture and a uniformity of style. These structures included the Mess Hall, the Welfare Building, the School Building, the Forestry Office, the Blacksmith Shop, the Army Supply Building, the Latrine and Laundry, and the Garage and Repair Shop. . . . The Birch Creek CCC camp represented a typical permanent camp constructed in Montana.³⁷

Eight of the 15 original buildings at the Birch Creek camp are still intact. The site has been nominated to the National Register of Historic Places by the Beaverhead Forest, and plans have been made to restore the camp as part of the facilities for Western Montana College at Dillon.³⁸

The Clearwater National Forest reports that there are only two known buildings left there from the CCC camps. One is a small shed located at the Cayuse Landing Field on Kelly Creek Road. The other building, at the Powell Ranger Station, is used as a cookhouse, recreation hall, and limited living quarters. "The building still exhibits original tongue-in-groove siding and original windows, but the interior has been extensively remodeled."³⁹ An additional CCC building, once a barracks at the Musselshell Work Center, was moved in November 1981 to Weippe, ID, where it is in use as a public library.⁴⁰

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Chapter 4

Region 2—The Rocky Mountain Region

Region 2 encompassed CCC camps in the national forests of Wyoming, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Colorado. Kansas, within Region 2, had no national forest land. During CCC operations, there were 7 forests in Wyoming: Bighorn, Black Hills, Medicine Bow, Teton, Washakie, Wyoming, and Shoshone; 2 in South Dakota: Black Hills and Harney; 1 in Nebraska: Nebraska; and 14 in Colorado: Arapaho, Cochetopa, Roosevelt, Grand Mesa, Gunnison, Holy Cross, Montezuma, Pike, Rio Grande, Routt, San Isabel, San Juan, Uncompahgre, and White River.¹ In 1937, estimates showed Region 2 as having 3 percent of the total forest area in the United States and 14 percent of all national forest lands. Ninety percent of the region's forested land was federally owned.²

Enrollment and Camp History

Civilian Conservation Corps camps in Region 2 fell under supervision of Army Corps Areas 7 and 8. Fort Meade, SD; Fort Logan, CO; Fort E. Francis Warren, WY; Fort Sam Houston, TX; and Forts Robinson and Crook, NE, were responsible for enrollee distribution throughout the large area.³ Until 1939, Fort Missoula, MT, supervised camps in western Wyoming. After that date, those camps became part of the Littleton, CO, District, which included Colorado and the other Wyoming camps.⁴

Initial quotas for the States were: Wyoming, 5,700 men; South Dakota, 1,300; Nebraska, 2,750; Colorado, 4,800; and Kansas, 3,750. A total of 18,300 men was enrolled for all technical services within those States.⁵ The acting adjutant general, James McKinley, approved 65 national forest camps for the 1933 season.⁶ In actuality, 50 camps began operation.⁷ Twenty-one camps continued working into the winter of 1933-34. None were in Wyoming.⁸ It had been anticipated earlier that Wyoming's winters would probably be too severe to carry on a work program.⁹

Projected work programs required importing enrollees from outside the region. The need was met to some degree by shifting camps seasonally with Region 3. Men enrolling in Colorado and Wyoming often found their camps moving to Arizona and New Mexico during the winter. Likewise, some southern enrollees moved north in the summer, and even recruits from Texas and eastern corps areas were brought in. Two camps, F-17-W and F-33-C, reported having black enrollees with no indication of camp or community disharmony. The greatest difficulty among out-of-State enrollees appears to have been homesickness.¹⁰

First Camps

Among the first ECW camps to be established in Region 2 was Este Camp in the Black Hills National Forest, SD. On May 18, 1933, it opened on the same site as the old Este Logging Camp, a celebrated site where lumber was sawed from Case #1, the first timber sale on a national forest in Region 2 and the beginning of regulated cutting. It was not until the CCC began operating camps in the area, however, that intensive forestry was made possible.¹¹

On June 3, 1933, the Tigiwon camp opened near Minturn in the Holy Cross National Forest, CO. Enrollees

built the Tigiwon Road, Tigiwon Campground, and a network of nearby hiking trails. The Notch Mountain Trail and shelter house were part of this network.¹² A large community house was constructed by the Tigiwon Camp to accommodate annual pilgrims to the Mount of the Holy Cross.¹³

The Tigiwon camp was moved to Arizona for the winter and relocated the following spring in Norwood on Woody Creek.¹⁴

Another ECW camp opened June 22, 1933, in the Buford area of the White River National Forest. The camp's largest project was improving the Buford Ranger Station complex. Enrollees also engaged in road construction, campground development, and erection of piers on the north and south sides of the South Fork River.¹⁵

Side Camps

During the CCC period, the Rocky Mountain regional forester was Allen S. Peck. Peck favored the use of side camps for handling work more effectively. In answer to the Chief Forester's 1933 request for additional side camp information, Peck responded that the Forest Service in his region had established good relations with the Army in setting up side camps. Despite the CCC's current lack of an official policy on side camps, satisfactory progress had been made with the camps and their work. Existing side camps ranged from two-man teamster crews to 165 men on fire suppression. The average was 25 men on 26 crews, working out of 15 base camps. Work included rodent control, trail construction, drift fence construction, larkspur eradication, forest reseed-ing, campground improvement, and fire suppression.¹⁶

Regarding future policy, Peck recommended the Forest Service be given authority to use side camps without limitation. "There are certain classes of very important work included in our project plans which can not be done with any sort of efficiency, and in some cases can not be done at all, without the establishment of side camps."¹⁷ As an example, the supervisor of Roosevelt National Forest, CO, pointed to a carpentry camp set up at the Buckhorn Ranger Station. A 9,500-foot mountain pass separated the site from the main camp, making transportation back and forth impractical. On its own, the side camp was able to complete the building project in 3 weeks.¹⁸

Work Projects

Civilian Conservation Corps work projects varied considerably throughout Region 2, though several broad categories of projects stand out. Transportation improvements, forest culture, structural improvements, and range work statistically dominate the list.¹⁹ A significant amount of emergency work was performed, mostly firefighting and blizzard relief.

A 1937 estimate suggests timber conservation was valued at \$6,200,000 for the region. The estimate included savings due to fire reduction, insect control, and increased growth resulting from timber stand improvements. Also noted was watershed conservation and its contribution to irrigation projects on private lands adjacent to the national forests.²⁰

Nebraska

Civilian Conservation Corps work in the Nebraska National Forest was accomplished by a single camp in the Bessey Ranger District near Halsey, NE. Through enrollee efforts, more than 20,000 acres of drifting sand hills were successfully planted with ponderosa pine, jackpine, and red juniper (fig. 6). Enrollees from the Nebraska camp also expanded the Bessey Forest Nursery and produced nearly 30 million young trees. All phases of work, from seed collection to planting, thinning, and protection, were put into practice.²¹

Another major achievement was the development of a large public campground and picnic area in 1937. The facilities included a shelter house, bath houses, and swimming pool (fig. 7). Only the swimming pool has been remodeled. Other buildings remain intact.²²

South Dakota

In the Harney and Black Hills National Forests of South Dakota, CCC camps also worked on fire suppression and forest protection. The years 1933-40 were among the driest in the area's history.²³ Raymond Adolphson, a former camp superintendent in the Black Hills, claims that his CCC firefighting crews were among the best in the country.²⁴

Large reforestation projects resulted from the relentless fires (fig. 8). Bushels of ponderosa pine cones were collected for reseeding purposes. Thinning dead and useless wood from pine stands reduced fire hazards and increased growth of more valuable timber.²⁵ Favorable growth conditions for seed germination in the Black Hills and Harney Forests made tree density unusually high, thereby necessitating thinning to insure healthy tree growth. According to Harney Forest Supervisor J.F. Connor in 1934, it was not uncommon to find "dense young stands averaging 40,000 trees per acre and 15 inches tall." Connor indicated that 500 to 1,200 trees per acre would produce a healthy stand.²⁶ Measurements taken in 1939 showed diameter growth of trees in thinned areas had increased 400 percent and volume growth increased 800 percent.²⁷

In areas where old growth had been thinned, CCC crews initiated firewood projects. In some places, needy persons were invited to collect, without charge, the



Figure 7--Bessey swimming pool, Nebraska National Forest.

thinned wood; in other cases, the South Dakota State Relief Committee was assigned the responsibility for distributing loads of wood removed by enrollees. Trains carried cords of wood to parts of the State where drought had limited the availability of firewood.²⁸

Other CCC projects in the two forests included constructing Forest Service ranger station complexes; and building lookouts, such as the Harney Peak lookout, located at the highest elevation point in the Black Hills (fig. 9). Clearing old mill areas, stringing telephone lines, and eradicating porcupines (because of their proclivity for eating tree bark) were other projects. According to Adolphson, trail and road construction was minimal, because there were already many mining roads.²⁹ Recreation improvements were made at numerous Black Hills lakes, such as Bismarck, Mitchell, Glen Erin, Major, Roubaix, Victoria, and Sheridan.³⁰

"Warrior" grasshoppers were controlled on 156,000 range acres where they were destroying livestock forage.³¹ Additional range improvements consisted of drift fence construction to restrain wandering livestock; construction of livestock driveways; and construction and maintenance of dams, reservoirs, wells, and springs. Harney Forest Supervisor Connor said "the ranchers living in and near the Black Hills will receive immediate benefits from these works, in increased carrying capacity, better distribution, and better cattle."³²

An outstanding accomplishment on the Harney Forest, initiated by Connor, was the construction of the Sheridan Dam near Rapid City, SD. The project was started August 15, 1938, and completed September 19, 1940. Men from three camps worked at it. The dam may be the largest constructed by the CCC, measuring 850 feet in length, 120 feet in height, 640 feet in width at the base, and 26 feet in width at the top. The resulting 400-acre Sheridan Lake became one of the largest lakes in the Black Hills.³³

Wyoming

Reports from national forest camps in Wyoming stress the CCC's firefighting role. Prevailing dry conditions made 1935-37 tough fire years in the Shoshone National Forest. In 1935, three lightning-caused fires were contained by enrollees.³⁴ While fighting one 14,000-acre fire, enrollees reportedly walked long distances over rough trails and used supplies packed in by horses.³⁵ In August 1937, 14 CCC enrollees and 1 junior forester lost



Figure 6--CCC enrollees planting trees on the Nebraska National Forest.



Figure 8--CCC enrollees seed spotting on Harney National Forest, SD. (National Archives 35-G-1091)

their lives fighting the Shoshone Blackwater Fire. Three Forest Service employees were given the American Forest Fire Foundation's Award for Heroism in Fighting Fire.³⁶

Other projects in Wyoming's national forests involved protection of the Colorado and Missouri River watersheds, recreation development, and wildlife protection, especially preservation of the country's largest elk herds.³⁷ Transplanting beaver from overstocked areas to more favorable sites was yet another protective measure. Moreover, crews gathered data on wildlife by taking census and studying game ranges, migratory patterns, and feeding habits.³⁸ Bark beetle control was a continuing activity, especially in the Medicine Bow National Forest.³⁹ Blizzard relief was undertaken during the winter of 1936-37.⁴⁰

The following projects reported by the Bighorn National Forest typify CCC undertakings throughout Wyoming:

- Constructed Sibley and Meadowlark Lake Dams
- Constructed Crazy Woman Canyon Road and Shell-Tensleep Road
- Constructed 80 miles of primitive fire roads
- Developed 102 acres of campgrounds
- Built 82 miles of drift fence
- Built 11 cattle guards
- Strung 88 miles of telephone line
- Constructed 25 bridges

- Built fire towers at Hunter Mesa, Tunnel Hill, and Steamboat Point
- Planted 250,000 seedlings and thinned trees on 4,500 acres
- Controlled rodents on 12,950 acres
- Fought fires (4,148 man-days)⁴¹

Wyoming had a difficult time maintaining its camps, largely because of the harsh climate and environment and small, scattered population. On one occasion, a CCC camp inspector noted that Wyoming's camps were inferior ("the worst") to any others he had inspected, and desertion rates were high.

... The isolation and general lack of recreation, coupled with abnormally cold and windy weather, caused the enrollees to desert. The food was seldom good, due in large part to inadequate supply points within reasonable distances of all camps.⁴²

The situation was exacerbated by CCC Director Robert Fechner's 1936 mandate that all camp buildings be of the standard, portable-rigid type. Unfortunately, the buildings were not designed for Wyoming's climate, and poor assembly gave them even less resilience. Cracks in the walls leaked in rain, snow, and sand.

When winter came, such a camp was almost uninhabitable. One morning when the outside temperature was 22 above zero, a thermometer directly behind a heating stove, which was filled to capacity, registered only 30 °F.⁴³



Figure 9--Harney Peak Lookout, Harney National Forest, SD. (National Archives 35-G-1066)

Fechner severely restricted the funds available for improving camp buildings, even under such desperate circumstances. Camp conditions never improved, and the use of portable buildings remained an issue throughout the CCC's existence in Wyoming.⁴⁴

Colorado

Civilian Conservation Corps work in Colorado closely resembled projects elsewhere in Region 2. Forestry practices included tree planting, thinning, and insect and rodent control. Road building and improvement, telephone line construction and maintenance, and construction of lookout towers and houses increased communication for fire control and timber conservation. Water-related activities consisted of building fish-retaining ponds and stocking streams with fish in the White River National Forest. Lakeside cleanup occurred in the Grand Mesa National Forest and reservoir improvement in the Rio Grande. Range work included eradication of larkspur, a plant poisonous to livestock, in White River, and fence construction in Gunnison.

Civilian Conservation Corps recreation developments were as important in Colorado as in other parts of the region. Among the most notable were projects associated with the newly conceived ski industry. A White River National Forest camp worked with the Roaring Fork Winter Sports Club and the WPA to build the first ski tow and trail on Aspen Mountain in 1936. Four years later enrollees helped begin the Red Mountain Ski Tow in

Glenwood. CCC crews spent time clearing lift lines and ski trails.⁴⁵ Ski trails were also developed in 1937 on Berthoud Pass and at West Portal in the Arapaho National Forest.⁴⁶

Examples of additional recreational improvements in the Arapaho were campgrounds at Maxwell Falls, Cub Creek, Echo Lake, Clear Creek, and Squaw Pass; picnic grounds at Cold Springs and Chicago Creek; observation decks at Juniper Pass and the Arapaho View Point (between Echo Lake and Squaw Pass).⁴⁷ In the Grand Mesa National Forest, CCC crews constructed the Crag Crest Trail, a horseback and hiking trail on the divide between Cottonwood and Island Lakes. The trail was completed in the fall in 1937.⁴⁸ In the Rio Grande Forest the CCC built campgrounds at Santa Maria and Clear Creek Falls. Two comfort stations still remain in the Del Norte Ranger District, one at the Upper Beaver Reservoir campground and the other (used as a fire cache) at the Del Norte Work Center.⁴⁹ Campgrounds in the Roosevelt National Forest, at Bellaire and Creedmore Lakes, were improved by CCC projects.⁵⁰ Hiking trails were constructed to Lookout Mountain, Hanging Lake, Crater Lake, Avalanche Creek, Marvine Lake, and Trappers Lake, in White River National Forest.⁵¹

The Colorado National Forests gained numerous non-recreational structures from the CCC. Ranger stations and administrative service buildings were one structural grouping. Improvements were completed at Redfeather Lakes in the Roosevelt, Idlewild, and Empire in the Arapaho, Norrie in the Holy Cross, Buford in the White River, and Collbran in the Grand Mesa National Forest. Three other significant buildings in the Grand Mesa, the Lands End Shelterhouse, Mesa Lakes Ranger Station, and Ward Lake Ranger Station, date from the CCC period. It is not clear, however, whether they were constructed by the CCC or WPA.⁵²

Another structural group, bridges, was part of general road improvement. Bridges were standard projects on all of the forests. The Waunita Pass Road in the Gunnison National Forest has several examples of bridges built by the CCC.⁵³ The Trickle Park Road in Grand Mesa has numerous examples of culverts built on mountain roadways to facilitate rapid runoff during heavy storms or spring thaws.⁵⁴ A much more complex structure was the Chapman Dam in the White River National Forest, which took 3 years, 1936-39, to complete.⁵⁵

Training Programs

Region 2 stands out for having had exceptional training programs, both on and off the job, in its CCC camps. Although most CCC camps had various programs, 1938 statistics show Region 2 as having the country's highest average number of technical personnel per camp. Because of these programs, enrollees were better able to secure jobs outside the corps. The jobs most often accepted by enrollees leaving the program were truck driver, laborer, clerk, and farmer.⁵⁶

The first CCC training program in demolitions began in the Black Hills National Forest in 1933. Enrollees electing to work with explosives were required to take extra night classes in addition to training in the field.⁵⁷

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Chapter 5 Region 3—The Southwestern Region

Arizona and New Mexico make up Region 3. During the Civilian Conservation Corps period, the Southwestern region supervised 14 national forests. The forests in Arizona were the Coconino, Coronado, Crook, Kaibab, Prescott, Sitgreaves, Tonto, and Tusayan. Those in New Mexico were the Carson, Cibola, Gila, Lincoln, and Santa Fe. The Apache National Forest had land area in both States.¹ At the time of the CCC, Region 3 contained 4 percent of the total forest area in the United States and 14 percent of the national forest land. Within the region, 92 percent of the forest area was national forest land.²

Enrollment and Camp History

Initial announcements called for a total of 51 camps in Region 3 and an enrollment quota of 8,650, with 4,800 men to be placed in 28 Arizona camps and the remaining 3,850 in 23 New Mexico camps.³ During the first period, 37 camps were actually opened. Camps were distributed as follows: Sitgreaves, Tonto, Carson, and Lincoln National Forests had two camps each; Crook, Prescott, Cibola, and Gila had three camps each; Coronado, Santa Fe, and Apache had four camps each; and Coconino had five camps.⁴

Although the arrangement of camps changed, the total number operating in the second period, winter 1933-34, remained constant. A camp administered through the national forest system opened near Las Cruces, NM, on the Jornada Experimental Range and closed on May 17, 1935.⁵ An average of 20 CCC camps continued operating in Region 3 until 1942, when the organization ended.⁶ By 1937, Arizona and New Mexico carried about 4 percent of the CCC's work force on the country's national forest lands and 2 percent of all CCC forestry-related work.⁷

Region 3's CCC camps were administered as part of Army Corps Area 8, based at Fort Sam Houston, TX. Enrollees were first sent to Fort Bliss at El Paso, TX, where they underwent a 2-week conditioning and training program.⁸ Officers from Fort Bliss inspected campsites proposed by the USDA Forest Service and certified them for occupation. Later, Fort Huachuca, AZ, also became a conditioning and distribution center.⁹ About 12,000 men passed through the two forts on their way to the work camps. As the number of camps increased the two States were divided into subdistricts for better administration. The subdistricts were eventually replaced by five districts: Phoenix, Tucson, Albuquerque, Silver City, and Fort Bliss.¹⁰

Enrollees working in the region's forest camps came principally from Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Oklahoma. As previously noted, some camps from Colorado and Wyoming moved to Region 3 during winter periods. A few camps were organized in the East and sent to the eighth corps area.¹¹

In 1935, 16 camps in Region 3 reported having black enrollees enlisted in their work projects. As many as 14 blacks were enrolled at Camp F-10-A at Portal, AZ.¹² Civilian Conservation Corps alumni from other camps said that black enrollees were "well-integrated" into their camps, although most worked in the kitchens and stayed in camp. Some fighting was initially reported between local men and enrollees recruited from Texas

and Oklahoma.¹³ There were also tensions reported between Mexican-Americans and one or two camp supervisors.¹⁴

The Arizona Transient Administration operated work camps for transients in the region. These camps worked with the CCC on projects requiring additional labor, such as the Sabino Canyon project and the Montezuma Pass Road in the Coronado Forest.

First Camps

Choosing campsites in Region 3 was complicated by water shortages. A 200-man camp consumed 3,000 gallons of water per day at a minimum. Finding enough water to support the camps, particularly in southern Arizona and New Mexico, took careful planning and engineering skill. Water systems at Cave Creek and Box Canyon on the Coronado were constructed by El Paso contractors, and were still not finished until after the camps were already operating.¹⁶ In some cases, water was pumped by engine from distant springs. Alex Gonzales, former enrollee at the Sunnyside Camp near Canelo, AZ, stated that enrollees were trained to operate the machinery and care for any problems that developed.¹⁷

The first camps in Region 3 were at Treasure Park on the Coronado National Forest and at Pinal Mountain on the Crook National Forest, now the Tonto. The 2 camps began operating on May 24, 1933, and had 525 enrollees divided between them.¹⁸ Within days, many more camps were established.

The Pinal Mountain Camp, F-16-A, was located south of Globe, AZ. J.F. Johnson was the first Forest Service superintendent. The camp did road and trail construction, erosion control, and recreational improvements. Enrollees built several buildings now used by the Globe Ranger Station and erected a lookout tower on Signal Peak.¹⁹

The Pinal Mountain Camp operated three side camps at different times in the nearby area. One was located on Cherry Creek, one at the J.K. Ranch, and one at the Boyce Thompson Arboretum near Superior, AZ. The Boyce Thompson Arboretum Camp provided labor for the nursery, raising plants for range revegetation and other forestry projects.²⁰

Side Camps

Regional Forester Frank Pooler realized the importance of utilizing side camps. In July 1933, 38 side camps were detached from 22 main camps. These camps ranged in size from 3 to 65 men, the largest being one of the Pinal Mountain side camps. Work projects included timber stand improvement, erosion control, rodent control, fencing of forest boundaries and range allotments, campground improvements, and construction of telephone lines, bridges, truck trails, and fire lookouts (table 5).²¹

Pooler predicted more extensive use of side camps could be made if official authorization was granted. He said side camps were needed for some of the most urgent projects.²² Added costs in feeding extra camps were outweighed by savings in transportation. Pooler indicated loss of main camp privileges, such as educational

Table 5--ECW Southwestern Region report of fly camps as of July 12, 1933

State and forest	CCC camp	Location of fly camp	Distance from CCC camp (miles)	Number of men in fly camp	Character of work
<u>Arizona</u>					
Apache	F-3-A	Riskle Park	15	25	Truck trail and telephone construction
		Loma	20	10	Storeroom construction, etc.
	F-4-A	Hannagan	25	20	Fence crew.
		Hannagan	25	15	Campground improvement.
		KP Cienaga	35	15	Truck trail and lookout tower construction.
		Rudd Creek	25	15	Erosion Control.
Escudilla	15	20	Truck trail and lookout tower construction.		
Coconino	-	-	-	-	
Coronado	-	-	-	-	
Crook	F-14-A	Webb Lookout	10	4	Tower construction
	F-16-A	Summit Pinal Mt.	15	65	Erosion, timber, recreation, and road construction.
		Arboretum	37	20	Nursery.
Kaibab	-	-	-	-	
Prescott	F-20-A	Cienaga	35	11	Rodent control.
		Walnut Creek R.S.	26	11	Strengthening levee at Ranger Station. When finished will build stock tanks. One man painting buildings. Two men repairing Ranger Station pasture fence.
Sitgreaves	F-22-A	Lincoln R.S.	52	19	Fencing earth stock tanks; developing springs; rebuilding fences.
		Vernon	32	61	Rodent control.
		Showlow R.S.	18	6	Rodent control.
Tonto	F-23-A	Head Horton Creek	7	20	Truck trail and erosion control.
Tusayan	-	-	-	-	
<u>New Mexico</u>					
Apache	F-1-E	Hood R.S.	20	15	Erosion control.
		Bull Basin	25	15	Erosion control.
	F-2-E	Jewett R.S.	14	15	Erosion control.
		Wilson Canyon	10	10	Fence construction.

Table 5--ECW Southwestern Region report of fly camps as of July 12, 1933 (continued)

State and forest	CCC camp	Location of fly camp	Distance from CCC camp (miles)	Number of men in fly camp	Character of work
Carson	F-3-E	Cow Creek R.S.	15	8	Rodent control.
	F-6-E	Santa Barbara Canyon	20	24	Road construction; administration improvement
		Taos Canyon	40	12	Campground improvement; erosion control; canyon bottom fencing.
Cibola	F-5-E	West Boundary	15	20	Boundary fence.
	F-9-E	Monica R.S.	6	10	Telephone, trail maintenance; protection building construction.
		Point of Rocks Canyon	15	50	Timber stand improvement.
Gila	-	-	-	-	
Lincoln	F-16-E	Water Canyon NE/4 NW/4 Sec. 24 T.17S., R. 11 E.	12	22	Erosion control.
	F-17-E	Monjean Peak	37	7	Observatory, trail and telephone line construction.
Santa Fe	F-21-E	Glorista Mesa	60	5	Rodent control.
	F-22-E	Senorita Canyon	40	25	Emergency road repair.
	F-23-E	Canada	45	20	Fence, erosion control, road maintenance.

classes, was offset by training in special lines of work at side camps. Furthermore, greater opportunities for "practical application of woodcraft" were available.²³

Work Projects

Historically, many of the southwestern forest reserves were used for livestock grazing, and forest practices were essentially attempts at range management. Years of unregulated grazing on public lands created unpleasant situations between Federal employees and livestock owners, as well as causing soil and forage deterioration from overgrazing on vast tracts of land. One year after the CCC was formed, the Taylor Grazing Act was passed. This act endeavored to control range destruction. The Forest Service had organized grazing allotments for many years. Allotments were useful for enforcing grazing restrictions and for providing ranchers better management over their stock. As supervision improved, so did local relations.²⁴

The CCC played multiple roles in helping the Forest Service restore the national forests in the Southwest.

Enrollees assisted in surveying and making range allotments. They helped build fences and install cattle guards. As Don Willis, an enrollee alumnus, put it, small units of men would follow surveyors making post holes, dynamiting and clearing the holes, hauling and setting juniper posts, and stringing wire. Juniper, he said, was preferred for its endurance.²⁵

Other CCC projects were oriented toward water development and water-related activities. In forested areas, watershed management and protection were vital to timber improvement. Water supplies for irrigation and livestock on adjacent nonforested land were also affected. Dams were built to hold or divert water and curtail soil and gully erosion. New water supplies and springs were developed. Stock tanks were built to provide more stable supplies and regulate stock distribution around watering areas. An Arizona camp newspaper reported water developments in that district alone had made possible the maintenance of 600 additional head of stock.²⁶ The Cartwright Dam on the Tonto National Forest was one such CCC project.²⁷ Rapid improvements on overgrazed range lands were noted by

Forest Service personnel traveling in New Mexico's Gila National Forest in 1934.²⁸ An estimated 5,517 man-months were spent on water development in Region 3 between 1935 and 1939.²⁹

As part of watershed protection, the CCC carried on an active firefighting program. Truck trails, telephone lines, and lookout houses and towers were constructed. One CCC-built tower on Mount Ord in the Tonto Forest is still occupied year round.³⁰ This 65-foot steel tower was built in 1935-36 along with the Mount Ord Truck Trail, numerous erosion check dams, and a section of the first direct road between Mesa and Payson.³¹ The older, less portable, but more architecturally creative wooden lookouts, such as the one constructed by Camp F-24-NM in the Lincoln National Forest near High Rolls, NM, offer a marked contrast to the steel towers.

The Forest Service in Region 3 became dependent upon CCC labor for firefighting purposes. Camp distribution, however, was set so that Region 2 camps returned to northern sites just as the spring and summer fire season began. This arrangement was deplored by the southwestern foresters, who needed as much manpower as they could find for fire suppression in the dry climate.³² In 1935 an estimated 5,332 man-days were spent in Region 3 on fire-related projects by CCC enrollees.³³

Besides fire control, timber protection included programs directed against twig blight, a fungus disease of ponderosa pine, the principal sawtimber species in Region 3. Civilian Conservation Corps crews worked to cut and burn infected trees before the disease spread. The Bureau of Plant Industry provided the working knowledge needed to carry out the project. More than 44,000 acres of pine were treated by the end of 1935.³⁴

Reforestation efforts were spearheaded by CCC enrollees who built the Fort Valley Nursery on the Coconino National Forest in Flagstaff, AZ.³⁵ Some crews collected bushels of pine cones from the Coconino and Sitgreaves Forests while other crews prepared the seed for planting and tended young seedlings. Two-year-old seedlings were transplanted on burned or logged forest lands.³⁶ Camp F-5-A in Flagstaff was responsible for building a 200,000-gallon concrete reservoir to supply the nursery's water needs.³⁷

In addition to Fort Valley Nursery and the Boyce Thompson Arboretum, near Superior, AZ, the CCC was involved in range nursery production in Glenwood, NM.³⁸ CCC work at the Santa Rita Range Reserve in Arizona contributed to research on deer feeding habits and their impact on young trees.³⁹

Ranger stations and other Forest Service buildings were constructed in many localities in Region 3. The Sandia ranger's residence in Tijeras, NM, is one example.⁴⁰ The Ashdale Ranger Station in the Tonto National Forest was built in 1934 by the Ashdale CCC Camp, F-34-A, and the A-Cross Ranger Station in the same forest was constructed in 1934 by Camp F-29-A, the A-Cross CCC Camp.⁴¹

Because of the region's population distribution, recreation facilities were specifically located near urban centers. The CCC worked on constructing roads for better accessibility as well as developing campgrounds and picnic areas. The Seven Springs picnic and camping area in the Tonto National Forest in Arizona was built by

the CCC, as was a similar facility at Horse Thief Basin in the Prescott National Forest.⁴²

Trails and roads were built for both recreational and forestry uses. The Swift Trail on Mount Graham in the Coronado Forest and the Coronado Trail in the Apache Forest were built by the CCC.⁴³ Various roads in the Tonto Forest constructed wholly or partially by CCC camps were the Ashdale-Bloody Basin Road, Onyx Mine Road, East Verde Road #199, Control Road #64, the Chamberlain Truck Trail, and the A-Cross-Tonto Creek Road. Important maintenance work was carried out on the Bush Highway.⁴⁴

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Chapter 6 Region 4—The Intermountain Region

During the CCC period, Region 4 administered 23 national forests in Nevada, Utah, southern Idaho, and a small portion of western Wyoming. Three forests had lands shared by two States: Cache National Forest in Idaho and Utah, and Dixie and Nevada National Forests in Nevada and Utah. Eleven additional forests in southern Idaho, south of the Salmon River, were: the Boise, Caribou, Challis, Idaho, Lemhi, Minidoka, Payette, Salmon, Sawtooth, Targhee, and Weiser. In Nevada, forests were: the Humboldt and Toiyabe. Utah contained seven forests in Region 4: the Ashley, Fishlake, LaSal, Manti, Powell, Uinta, and Wasatch. The Wyoming National Forest in western Wyoming was also administered by Region 4.¹

Some 15 percent of the country's national forests lay in Region 4, and 5 percent of its total forested area. Ninety-six percent of the region's forested land was federally owned.²

Enrollment and Camp History

Acting Adjutant General James F. McKinley approved 74 camps for the first ECW enrollment period in the summer of 1933. Fifty of these camps were in Idaho, 4 in Nevada, and 20 in Utah.³ Of those approved, only 59 began operation. These were distributed among the forests as follows:⁴

<u>Idaho</u>		<u>Nevada</u>	
Idaho	4	Humboldt	2
Boise	5	Nevada	1
Cache	2	Dixie	1
Payette	7		
Weiser	2	<u>Utah</u>	
Manidoka	1	Cache	2
Sawtooth	3	Ashley	2
Challis	3	Powell	2
Lemhi	1	Wasatch	3
Salmon	4	Uinta	2
Targhee	2	Manti	2
Caribou	1	LaSal	1
		Fishlake	3
		Nevada	1
		Dixie	2

During the second period, winter 1933-34, only 10 camps remained in operation, because of the severe climate. In the summer of 1934, only 20 camps were operating, but by May 1935 the total had risen to 34. Nearly three-fourths of all Region 4 camps were in Idaho forests.⁵

Camps in Region 4 belonged within Army Corps Area 9. Assistant Regional Forester Chester B. Morse was appointed by CCC Director Robert Fechner as the liaison officer for the entire ninth corps area, based in San Francisco. Clarence N. Woods became the new assistant to Regional Forester Richard H. Rutledge in Ogden, UT.⁶ In an unusual example of Federal cooperation with State authorities, Forester Rutledge accepted the responsibility for supervising Utah's five State camps in addition to the national forest camps.⁷

Army supervision was administered through three districts: Fort Douglas (Utah), Pocatello (Idaho), and Boise (Idaho). State quotas for Region 4's enrollment were projected as: Idaho—9,600 men (including Region 1); Nevada—550 men; and Utah—3,200 men.⁸ By 1937,

estimates showed Region 4 carrying 12 percent of the CCC work load on all United States national forests, and 8 percent of all CCC forestry-related work.⁹

Utah's response to the CCC enrollment was overwhelmingly strong, and probably representative of the region. Utah's relief director and CCC recruiting agent was Robert H. Hinckley.

By May 4, Salt Lake City and county were ready to receive the first formal applications in Utah. . . . With 20 clerks, Gus P. Backman, head of the Salt Lake City relief office, signed up 4,000 applicants for the 140 spots. . . .¹⁰

In 1934, enrollment quotas in each of the region's States except Wyoming were greatly increased because of drought conditions. Along with 18 other Western States, most of Region 4 was allocated extra moneys and CCC labor to engage in relief work activities to intensify conservation measures already under way. Utah's quota for the third enrollment period was enlarged by more than 700 men.¹¹

Enrollees in Region 4 represented a large geographical area. In addition to the State-enrolled men, enrollees from Oregon, Washington, and Montana were used in Idaho, and all of the eastern corps areas supplied men to the region.¹² For example, initial companies in the Pocatello District were sent from the second and third corps areas, many of them organized at Fort George Meade in Maryland. It is reported that in Utah "nearly as many enrollees from outside the State . . . served . . . as there were natives."¹³

In April 1937, John N. Kinney, acting regional forester, evaluated enrollee effectiveness on the job to be about 53 percent of handpicked labor. His evaluation was based on observations in 26 CCC camps. As Kinney pointed out, "many differences exist in type of work and in enrollees, both individually and collectively."¹⁴

Side Camps

In July 1933, Acting Regional Forester Woods reported to the Chief Forester in Washington, DC, on the use of side camps in Region 4. For Woods, there was no question whether or not the national forest camps should be allowed to operate side camps outside established base camps. Before any official policy had been established, his general understanding was that side camps would be used or base camps would be moved. On this assumption, the region had already purchased materials such as lumber and telephone wire to be used in making improvements in remote areas. Driving back and forth between remote sites and main camps was impractical. John N. Kinney, at that time supervisor on the Salmon National Forest in Idaho, reported:

For conditions as they exist on the Salmon National Forest, with very rough country and work scattered, the establishment of side camps is very necessary. The enrolled men have been worked as close to camp as possible during the initial period and the work is therefore getting farther away from base camp every day; thus requiring more auto mileage and less effective time in fast increasing proportions.¹⁵

Woods suggested that side camps (in inaccessible areas) would be particularly useful for future fire control

programs. Woods added that small camps had been used by the Forest Service in the region for 25 years as a means of working inaccessible areas, and no problems had arisen.¹⁶

Work Projects

Firefighting and forest protection were major accomplishments in Region 4. In 1940, Regional Forester Rutledge commended the CCC enrollees for their firefighting skills. Seven years of special training and experience in an area of high fire danger had been effective in producing reliable firefighters. Rutledge reported that "super squads" had developed. These were "25-man crews of enrollees from each company especially selected for their physique, endurance, spirit, and woodsmanship."¹⁷ Super squads were on constant fire call and were the first ones sent to the front of any fire line. It was pointed out their harnessed zealotry would have its benefits in any national defense need.¹⁸ The work was not without risk. Five men from Camp Paradise, F-5-N, in Nevada, lost their lives on the Orovada fire in the Humboldt National Forest on July 28, 1939.¹⁹

In addition to fire suppression, CCC enrollees in Region 4 contributed to timber conservation by working against forest diseases and insects. White pine blister rust was treated in Idaho partly by cutting and burning affected trees or branches and partly by removing currant and gooseberry underbrush, which spread the fungus. Programs to control the pine beetle were carried on in Idaho and Utah.²⁰

Emergency work was required to fight infestations of "Mormon crickets" in Idaho and Utah.²¹ The destructive root- and plant-eating crickets were particularly bad at the end of 1935, and CCC crews were called upon to use numerous strategies in trying to eradicate the pests. Poison, burning, and the use of turkeys were methods used in the partially successful program.²²

Rodents were another range problem for forestry crews. Gophers, squirrels, mice, kangaroo rats, and prairie dogs were among the small animals controlled with poison bait. These animals dug dangerous underground tunnels and ate tree seedlings and important range grasses before they had a chance to reseed. Rodents were also associated with health problems such as the bubonic plague and tularemia.²³

Civilian Conservation Corps crews worked a great deal on flood and erosion control projects, too. On December 28, 1933, President Roosevelt signed Executive Order No. 6541, which withdrew certain public lands in Nevada "from settlement, location, sale, or entry, for purposes of flood and erosion control in connection with cooperative CCC work."²⁴ Numerous dams, dikes, and stream improvements were constructed for these purposes throughout the region. Camp F-16-U on Utah's Dixie Forest took over Cedar City's Navajo Lake dike project, enlarging and finishing it, as well as constructing a recreational park with a 1,000-seat amphitheater and baseball diamond.²⁵

Davis County, UT, exemplifies how flood and erosion control projects benefited forest lands and adjacent agricultural areas in that State. A CCC camp was set up in 1933 on the Wasatch Forest to provide labor for the already established project. Recruited by the Davis

County flood committee, the camp was based at Woods Cross and used side camps wherever work was necessary. Work by the Woods Cross Camp included building a road to the head of Parrish Creek, topographic mapping, and the initiation of a contour trenching program. "CCC crews under the direction of a foreman, staked trench location, and trenches were roughed out by a CCC worker on a small 'cletrack' crawler-type tractor." Check dams were built into the trenches.²⁶ Baldrige provides details of check dams and larger impounding diversion dams and their construction in Utah (see note 4).

Erosion control was also carried out on the Uinta National Forest in Utah. In 1933, a project was undertaken in the Little Rock and Slate Canyons. Terracing, reseeding, and grazing reductions were used to prevent further erosion and flooding on the canyon's steep slopes.²⁷

Structural improvements in Region 4 included large numbers of ranger stations and residences, lookouts, guard houses, and service buildings designed for Forest Service use. Camp F-101 in the Cache National Forest was responsible for laying the pipeline for the City of Pocatello's water supply (fig. 10).

An example of a road constructed by the CCC camp in Alpine, WY, is found along the Snake River in Idaho's Targhee National Forest. This major project connected the Roosevelt Highway to the recreationally valuable area around Jackson Hole, WY. Another highway construction project was a 40-mile stretch of 16-foot-wide road that follows the Salmon River, in the Salmon National Forest.²⁸ Smaller road projects or truck trail construction occurred on all of the forests. Prior to the CCC, access to much of the region was limited to mining roads or to travel by foot and horseback.

Another important road building project was completed in October 1933 by the Blue Springs Camp, F-18, in the Powell National Forest. This project involved building a road to the isolated town of Boulder, UT, from the towns of Grover and Escalante.



Figure 10—CCC enrollees laying 8-inch pipeline for Pocatello, ID, city water supply. (National Archives 95-G-280106)

The long ridge west of Boulder known as Hell's Backbone was a formidable obstacle. . . . The Backbone was broken by a crevasse which had to be bridged. Although 22 other bridges were built over the 38-mile route, the Hell's Backbone stands out as one of the major accomplishments of the first enrollment period . . . 109 feet long, only 14 feet wide, and with a . . . drop of 1,500 feet on either side, the bridge was completed in 5-1/2 weeks without serious accident.²⁹

Recreational improvements were widespread in the region. In the Cache National Forest, campgrounds were built at Logan Canyon, Blacksmith Fork, and the head of the Ogden River on Mount Christo in Utah. In the same forest in Idaho, public camps were improved on Mink Creek, Paris Springs, Cub River, and Summit Creek. In the Salmon National Forest, public camps were built at Twin Creeks and Cougar Point. The Howard Spring fountain in the Targhee Forest was constructed by the Osborne Springs CCC camp in 1935 for tourists crossing Targhee Pass.³⁰ In Nevada, the CCC built the Kyle Canyon Campground close to Las Vegas in the Charleston Mountains. This facility was considered to be the largest developed in Nevada's forests and the most widely used.³¹ The largest campground built in the region is said to be in the Fishlake Forest. Both WPA and CCC crews worked on that 1,500-person-capacity recreation area.³²

A major structural contribution of the CCC on the Idaho National Forest, now part of Region 1's Nezperce Forest, was the Manning Bridge. The 240-foot-long timber suspension bridge was built in 1938 by Company 1896, then located on French Creek. The bridge, which spans the Crevasse Canyon on the Salmon River, was an engineering feat. It marked the culmination of the overall project of building a road along the Salmon River east of Riggins, ID. The name of the bridge was changed from the "Crevasse" Bridge to the "Manning" Bridge to honor a CCC enrollee who died there.³³ According to Rebecca Herbst, a National Park Service historian who inventoried the bridge in September 1982, "the bridge has been little altered over the years except for the addition of a steel deck and guardrailings," although it is listed for replacement due to its deteriorating condition and difficult approach for traffic.³⁴

The Sawtooth National Forest reports that two sites stand out today as having structural significance from the CCC period. The old 1-1/2-story Stanley Ranger Station, located between Upper and Lower Stanley, was built in 1933 (fig. 11). Architecturally, it is representative of the log structures built by the CCC, and it is currently being preserved by the Sawtooth Interpretive Association for use as a museum.³⁵

The second CCC site noted on the Sawtooth is the Sunbeam Hot Springs stone bathhouse, which can be found three-fourths of a mile upriver from the confluence of the Yankee Fork and Salmon River (fig. 12). Its actual date of completion is undetermined. The building is currently closed to public use.³⁶

The Snake River Ranger Station and Administrative Site in the Targhee National Forest, formerly part of the Caribou National Forest, was constructed largely by the Civilian Conservation Corps in 1933-34. Seven of its eight buildings were built by enrollees; the eighth struc-

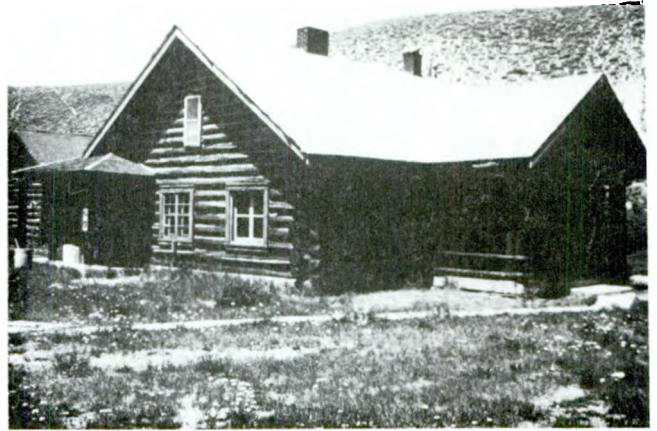


Figure 11--Stanley Ranger Station, Sawtooth National Forest, ID.

ture, a dwelling, was reconstructed with CCC labor. According to Forest Archaeologist James MacDonald, the Snake River site is especially significant because, unlike other CCC-built administration compounds on the Targhee, it remains relatively intact. Because of a shift in district headquarters, the ranger station was never expanded, and any changes made to it did not damage the site's original integrity.³⁷

MacDonald indicates the dwelling and office buildings at the Snake River Ranger Station are representative of the types of structures built by the Forest Service in Region 4 between 1930 and 1950.

An important characteristic of the station is that prior to the conversion of the original office into a bunkhouse, the residential facilities consisted of a single-family dwelling and a one-bedroom office. Until the 1940's many ranger districts were managed by a ranger and assistant (often seasonal), and the Snake River Ranger Station reflects this administrative structure.³⁸

Camp Life and Community Relations

According to Kenneth Baldrige's research, CCC camps in Utah were unique in their lack of religious diversity. Most Utah boys belonged to the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints. Baldrige indicates that Mormon predominance was a problem for young men from other parts of the country who had other religious affiliations. However, many non-Mormon enrollees wound up marrying local Mormon women and converting.³⁹

In most parts of the State, the community--which in most cases meant the Mormon Church as well--welcomed the enrollees and invited them to their homes and church gatherings. . . . (The Church) sponsored many dances through its Mutual Improvement Association. After an initial period of adjustment, the boys were generally welcome at these affairs.⁴⁰



Figure 12--Bathhouse, Sunbeam Hotsprings, Sawtooth National Forest, ID.

Communities tended to have mixed reactions to the influx of CCC boys. Enrollees needed to work diligently on displaying an image of good behavior. As one woman recalled, "at first they were welcomed like an epidemic of smallpox." But with time, fears of unacceptable or unruly behavior were shown to be largely unwarranted. The program increasingly gained local support as the CCC demonstrated its usefulness to the communities and forests.⁴¹

At least one major mutiny occurred among the CCC camps in Region 4. In 1934, Camp Smith Creek F-126 in Porthill, ID, was disrupted when 44 of 75 enrollees refused to fight on the Pack River Fire. Baldrige reports that poor conditions, such as inadequate food and relief time, and bad morale led to the mutiny. Twenty-nine of the 44 dishonorable discharges were eventually revoked, giving the men a chance to re-enroll.⁴²

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Chapter 7 Region 5—The California Region

From 1933 to 1942, there were 19 national forests in the State of California, known as Region 5. Today it is called the Pacific Southwest Region and includes Hawaii. Forests in California during the 9-year period were the Angeles, Cleveland, Eldorado, Inyo, Klamath, Lassen, Los Padres, Mendocino, Modoc, Mono, Plumas, San Bernardino, Santa Barbara, Sequoia, Shasta, Sierra, Stanislaus, Tahoe, and Trinity. In 1937, Region 5 contained 6 percent of the total forest area in the United States and 16 percent of national forest land. Seventy-two percent of California's forested area was in national forests.¹

Enrollment and Camp History

Civilian Conservation Corps enrollee distribution and camp administration in Region 5 were directed by Army Corps Area 9. Headquarters for the corps area was San Francisco, where conditioning and distribution were supervised at the Presidio. Harbor Defense, Fort Barry, and Fort McDowell provided additional space for CCC operations in the San Francisco area. Centers in the southern part of the region included Fort MacArthur, March Field, and Fort Rosencrans.²

On April 22, 1933, Acting Adjutant General James F. McKinley announced that Region 5's enrollee quota would be 31,500 men.³ The U.S. Labor Department designated California's Department of Social Welfare to carry out the enrollment.⁴ Even this number, however, was small for the amount of work planned in the State, so recruits from outside the region were eventually transported into California project areas.⁵

On April 26, 1933, McKinley approved 166 CCC camps to start work in the region's 19 national forests.⁶ Of this number, 128 camps on 19 forests actually began working in the summer and fall of 1933.⁷ Regional Forester S.B. Show was instrumental in getting his region assigned more camps for the initial enrollment period than any other.⁸ During a 1933 meeting between President Roosevelt and regional foresters, Show argued that because of its preparedness and well-developed plans the California Region could immediately accommodate many camps.

Because of mild climate, and Show's efforts, the number of camps did not differ significantly during winter periods, although the total number did decline during the 9 years. The number of forests with camps also decreased. In the second enrollment period, winter 1933-34, 95 camps were operating on 18 forests; in the third period, summer 1934, 37 camps were operating on 15 forests; and in the sixth period, winter 1935-36, 54 camps were operating on 18 forests. Only 13 camps were operating in 1942, the CCC's final year.⁹ Relations with local communities were very positive, and racial and ethnic tensions seem to have been minimal, although many camps had black enrollees.

Side Camps

During the first project period, Region 5 contributed information to the establishment of the official CCC policy on side camps. In August 1933, Regional Forester Show reported to the Chief Forester in Washington, DC, on California's successful utilization of side camps. According to Show, his area had already made a cooper-

ative agreement with ninth corps area officials to run and equip side camps. Seventy side camps had been working out of 50 main camps; 45 of these were national forest camps, and the remaining 5 were private land camps. Side camp work had covered fire suppression, erection of various structures, construction of firebreaks and fire lines, construction of truck trails, telephone lines, campgrounds, foot trails, and drift fences, maintenance of forest improvements, and larkspur eradication.¹⁰

Show made a strong recommendation the side camps be allowed to continue, saying any arguments against them were weak.

First Camps

Among the first camps established in Region 5 was the Buck Meadows Camp, F-82, in the Stanislaus National Forest east of Groveland, CA. The camp was occupied on May 20, 1933, by a 200-man company from the San Francisco Bay area.¹¹

Enrollees at the Buck Meadows Camp were initially housed in tents. Later in the summer these were replaced by simple buildings of tar papered siding. By fall, barracks, a mess hall, and a recreation building had been given additional plywood siding and insulation.¹²

Among the important work projects of Camp F-82 were fire suppression, truck trail and bridge building, boundary surveys, and range management. According to former enrollee Clair Nelson, "A whole new area was opened up with completion of the road into Tuolumne River Canyon, and after the Lumsden Bridge was finished."¹³ The Lumsden Bridge was built in 1933-34 and is still in use. A large barn was also constructed by enrollees of the Buck Meadows Camp at the ranger station nearby. Nelson further notes:

With LEM's (locally employed men) for teachers and crew chiefs, the boys cleared roadsides, built campgrounds and picnic areas, cut firewood, cleared brush, and planted trees. Building firebreaks was a continuing job that required the efforts of many men.¹⁴

Relations between the Buck Meadows Camp and local inhabitants were tentative at first due to the urban origins of company personnel. "Although the hill people were somewhat dubious about allowing city types into their circle, recent interviews with local citizens suggest that once the strangeness wore off, city-bred enrollees were accepted and were even, in some cases, popular."¹⁵

The Buck Meadows Camp remained occupied until the early part of 1941. Currently the only evidence of the camp is a standing chimney and building foundations. A barracks was converted into apartments and is now on private land.¹⁶ Buildings at Pine Crest CCC camp were taken over by a lumber camp.

Work Projects

Statistics for 1942 on Region 5's national forests show CCC concentration on transportation improvements, forest fire protection, recreation, structural improvements, and forest culture.¹⁷ By 1941, transportation improvements included 64,640 miles of truck trails and minor roads and several airplane landing fields. Structural improvements included 1,585 bridges; 405 lookout

houses and towers; 30,217 feet of telephone lines; 1,545 springs, water holes, and small reservoirs; fences; and sewage and waste disposal systems. They included more than 8,000 "other" buildings such as administrative and storage facilities.¹⁸

Looking back on his CCC days, former enrollee Jim Condon recently described his work experiences in the Bouquet Canyon on the Angeles National Forest in southern California. Many of his experiences were typical of the region.

During my months in the Canyon camp, I helped widen vital roads to fire lookout towers, string telephone lines and replace washed out bridges. . . . I thinned trees and built barbecue pits. Some crews constructed check-dams and contoured badly eroded slopes. Others developed wildlife refuges with animal shelters and nesting sites, and stocked the reservoir behind the earth-back Bouquet Canyon Dam with sport fish.¹⁹

Forestry work included seed collection, tree seeding and planting, nursery jobs, and timber stand improvement.²⁰ Elimination of tree diseases and problematic insects were necessary measures to protect the forested areas. Ribes bush was grubbed out in northern California to protect sugar pines from blister rust.²¹ Between 1933 and 1941, some 80,000 acres of blister-rust infected forest were controlled in California. Ponderosa pines in other parts of the State were treated for infestations of bark beetles.²²

Preventing and fighting forest fires were major activities in the California forests. Preventive work involved building firebreaks and fire lines, clearing roads and trails, and cutting down snags. The cost of firefighting in California's national forests was to have been reduced by 80 percent during the CCC's first year.²³ The year 1936 was particularly difficult; dry conditions caused the Matilija fire and numerous others.²⁴ Despite the difficulties, Regional Forester Show said forest fire losses had been reduced by more than one-half.²⁵

The largest project undertaken by the CCC in California was the construction of the nearly 800-mile Ponderosa Way firebreak and truck trail. The project, first proposed by the regional forester in 1929, was made possible only by the extra labor provided by the CCC. On July 21, 1933, Show told national forest supervisors in the proposed Ponderosa Way areas about his plan to construct "a real fire line with a truck trail along it down the length of the Sierra and the north Coast Range located near the lower edge of the present timberlands."²⁶

After an initial survey in the fall of 1933 by Associate Regional Forester Clarence E. Dunstand and Associate Silviculturist A. Everett Wieslander, CCC crews from State and National forest camps began construction of the firebreak. J.E. Elliott, supervisor of the San Bernardino National Forest, was placed in charge. By May 1934, 440 miles of the predicted 768 miles had been completed. Starting in the north at the Shasta Bear Lookout, the Ponderosa Way eventually ended in the south at the Kern County boundary.²⁷

In regard to the CCC's total work on timber conservation, Regional Forester Show indicated that the organization had advanced development in California between 10 and 20 years over its earlier rate of progress.²⁸ Pub-

lic opinion in the State was described as very positive toward the CCC and its work.²⁹ Also mentioned were the intangible benefits being acquired by the enrollees themselves, in the areas of physical, spiritual, and moral development, and responsible citizenship. Safety and training programs were conducted.³⁰

Along with the improvements relating to forest culture and protection were those dealing with recreation on the national forests. Particularly significant in Region 5 was work on the Pacific Crest National Scenic Trail, a hiking trail extending from Canada to Mexico via the Cascade and Sierra Nevada Mountains. Near Arroyo Seco on the Angeles Forest, the CCC improved some 20 trail camps for recreational use.³¹ Other hiking trails, such as those on Mount San Jacinto in southern California, are now being improved by members of the "California Conservation Corps, a new CCC established in the 1970's. This new CCC employs young Californians to work and follow in many of the same footsteps as their predecessors."³²

In addition to building recreation trails, the original CCC was active in building campground and picnic areas to make the national forests more usable by the public. Examples of this work can be found around Lake Tahoe, CA, in the Tahoe National Forest.³³

In the Angeles National Forest, 10 companies of enrollees contributed to recreational development, the major work of the CCC in that forest. Among the CCC's accomplishments were picnic and campground improvements at the Fish Hatchery Public Camp, Bouquet Canyon, Elizabeth Lake Canyon, the South Fork of Big Rock Creek, Chantry Flats, Charlton Flats, Chilao, and along the San Gabriel River. Improvements included construction of stoves, tables, and wells, as well as ground clearing for picnic and camping units. A scenic overlook and picnic area on Glendora Mountain Road were built as well.³⁴

Inventory of Existing Camp Structures

In an effort to document the significance of two original CCC camp structures, a mess hall and a barracks, Mike McIntyre, archaeologist on the Angeles National Forest, has started to inventory all existing structures in Region 5 national forests. To date the inventory includes responses from eight forests in the region. The general impression is there are few structures left, and of those remaining, extensive modifications have been made. It is noted, however, that a greater quantity of camp evidence exists than was predicted by forest culture resource specialists prior to their recent research. In several forests, further research is necessary to document specific sites.³⁵

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Chapter 8

Region 6—The North Pacific Region

Twenty national forests in the States of Oregon and Washington made up Region 6 (now called the Pacific Northwest Region) during the CCC years of operation. In Washington, these forests were the Chelan, Columbia, Colville, Mt. Baker, Olympic, Snoqualmie, and Wenatchee. The part of Kaniksu National Forest in eastern Washington was administered by Region 1. The Umatilla Forest had land in Washington and Oregon. Additional national forests in Oregon were the Deschutes, Fremont, Malheur, Mt. Hood, Ochoco, Rogue River, Siskiyou, Siuslaw, Umpqua, Wallowa, Whitman, and Willamette.¹

Region 6 accounted for approximately 8 percent of the United States' total forest area and about 16 percent of its national forests. Fifty-one percent of the region's forested land was federally owned.²

Enrollment and Camp History

Acting Adjutant General James F. McKinley's enrollee quota for Region 6 was 26,355 men. Some 15,400 of these enrollees were to be placed in Oregon and 10,950 in Washington.³ It was also determined that enrollees from outside the region would be needed to fulfill proposed work projects on Federal lands. According to 1937 estimates, Region 6 had 10 percent of the CCC work force in all forestry camps and 11 percent of the national forest work force.⁴

McKinley initially approved 107 national forest camps to handle enrolled men in the first period; 65 camps were slated to open in Oregon and 42 in Washington. Forests assigned the greatest number of camps were Mount Hood and Willamette, with 10 camps each, and Columbia, with 9 camps.⁵ During the first enrollment period 84 camps actually started work. Of these, 40 camps operated in the winter of 1933-34 and 44 the following summer.⁶ Winter camps were at lower elevations and in the coastal forests where work could be continued more easily.⁷

Toward the end of the CCC program, Region 6 had serious problems with declining camp numbers. This was largely a result of decreased enrollment in the eastern corps areas and increased numbers of camps being moved into national defense work on military reservations. The sharp cutback was especially hard on Region 6, which had become dependent upon CCC firefighting crews in a dry decade of many fires. In June 1941, only 31 camps were still operating in Oregon and Washington.⁸

All camps in Region 6 were supervised by the Army IX Corps Area, headquartered at the Presidio in San Francisco. The IX Corps Area was the largest corps area in geographical size and number of camps. During the first period it contained 459 CCC camps.⁹ Chester B. Morse, previously assistant forester in Region 4, was appointed the Forest Service liaison officer for the entire corps area.¹⁰

Army centers within the region were Fort Stevens in Oregon and Forts Lewis, Worden, George Wright, and Lawton in Washington. Vancouver Barracks in Washington also served as a conditioning and enrollee distribution center.¹¹ These centers were the first stopping places for the locally enrolled men as well as for enrollees arriving by train from eastern corps areas as far away as Florida, Louisiana, North and South Carolina, New York, New Jersey, Minnesota, and Missouri.¹²

First Camps

One of the first CCC camps in Region 6 opened in 1933 at Seattle Bar in the Rogue River National Forest. Camp F-41, known as Camp Applegate, was occupied until 1937 by Oregon enrollees, and then replaced by a crew from the V Corps Area. The latter crew served there until 1941.¹³

With the Seiad Valley Camp, F-176, and other CCC crews in the same vicinity, Camp Applegate worked on numerous construction projects. Thompson Ridge Road, the Little Applegate Road, Middle Fork Road, and the Beaver Creek-Mount Ashland Loop Road were among the notable road-building projects. Recreational improvements constructed near Camp Applegate included the Hutton, Cook-and-Green, Beaver-Sulphur, and McKee Bridge Campgrounds. Other accomplishments in the areas were the Star Gulch Ranger Station compound, Wrangle Gap Community Kitchen, and a small shelter at the Trail Camp Ski Area.¹⁴

Another early camp in Region 6 was located at Agness, OR, in the Siskiyou National Forest. This camp began work in May 1933, under the command of Captain Rockwell from Fort Lewis, WA. The Agness Camp constructed new guard stations at Agness and Store Gulch and part of a road from Agness to Powers. The remainder of the road was constructed by a CCC camp at China Flats.¹⁵

Side Camps

At the end of July 1933, Regional Forester C.J. Buck reported that 34 CCC camps in Oregon and Washington were successfully utilizing side camps to meet work objectives. There were 104 camps, ranging from 1 to 50 men each and totaling 1,423 men. Work projects included construction and maintenance of truck trails, hiking trails, and telephone lines; construction of lookout towers and houses; work on boundary and timber surveys; and construction of fire lines. No problems were found with either the work's quality or obtaining men to do the work. In fact, Buck's inspectors all reported that more work was getting accomplished, with better efficiency, than when no side camps were used. Any additional costs in operating the side camps were said to be negated by reductions in travel time and increased work time.¹⁷

Forester Buck expressed some dissatisfaction in his report, saying that the lack of a CCC policy on side camp use had reduced the work capabilities of all the camps in the region:

When the ECW program started, it was anticipated that the work could be carried on by means of detached crews from the CCC camps. But the limitations placed on side camps by low ration allowance and lack of tentage have made it impossible to establish crews in the more remote regions as well as in all the more accessible locations. . . . Essential truck trail construction projects have had to be eliminated until wider authority is received regarding the use of side camps.¹⁸

Buck estimated that 50 percent of the work projects planned for the national forest camps needed to be done

through the side camp system. He suggested that with side camps detached from 91 base camps and averaging 85 men per camp, future work plans could be carried out in full.¹⁹

Work Projects

Statistics show that CCC work in the Pacific Northwest Region focused on forest fire protection, recreation, transportation improvements, and structural improvements.²⁰ In 1936, Regional Forester Buck indicated a general breakdown of new construction as follows:

Type of work	Oregon	Washington
Forest road construction	54 percent	22 percent
Fire hazard reduction (mainly snag falling)	11 percent	22 percent
Clearing firebreaks	4 percent	8 percent
Firefighting	4 percent	3 percent
Various other improvements (insect control, planting, telephone line construction)	27 percent	45 percent

Recreation improvements were not considered in these estimates.²¹

Civilian Conservation Corps contributions to forest fire protection stand out statistically as well as in most reports on the organization's activities. In 1937, Acting Regional Forester A.H. Hodgson calculated timber savings on Region 6's national forests at more than half a million dollars.²² From 1933 to 1936 was a period of severe forest fires. CCC crews were called on to fight several major blazes including the 1933 Tillamook or Wilson River Fire, the 1934 Furham Creek Fire, the 1935 McKenzie Bridge Fire, and the 1936 Bandon Fire. Despite the large number of fires, losses in timber on national forest acres were kept lower than in earlier years.²³ Furthermore, with an improved protection system, new timber could finally be grown in logged-off areas that had suffered previously from uncontrolled fires.²⁴

To provide greater accessibility to potential fire areas, the CCC built networks of truck trails or fire roads. These roads were viewed by recreationists as new sources for adventure. Motorists and campers moved into areas previously unreachable or discovered alternative shortcuts to favored recreation spots. As Forester Buck quipped, "Where there are roads, you'll find the public."²⁵ One such Oregon road connected Olallie Lake with the Breitenbush mineral springs; another was the timberline loop on Mount Hood. In Washington, the CCC built a road across the Cascade Divide between the Cowlitz watershed near Randle and the Yakima Valley.²⁶

The CCC assisted recreationists further by constructing hundreds of picnic and camping facilities. The expanded Eagle Creek campground on Mount Hood was a CCC project.²⁷ Community kitchens for the camp-

grounds were built in many forests such as Mount Hood, Olympic, Wenatchee, Mount Baker, Snoqualmie, Deschutes, Umatilla, and Rogue River. Trails and shelters, for both hiking and skiing, were also built. Trail shelters were constructed in the Olympic Forest and on Mount Hood along the Timberline Trail.²⁸ Numerous trail shelters in the Rogue River Forest were built close to the Skyline Trail in the Cascade Mountains.²⁹ A ski shelter was built in the Ashland Ranger District in the Rogue River Forest, and an ocean view recreation shelter was built in 1933 on Cape Perpetua in the Siuslaw National Forest.³⁰

The CCC was responsible for building numerous other structures in Region 6. It is estimated that between 1,000 and 1,200, or about one-third, of the region's structures remain intact. The 260-foot Mott Bridge on the Umpqua Forest and the Silver Springs log footbridge on the Snoqualmie Forest (fig. 13) were CCC projects.

Many ranger station compounds, such as Darrington in Mount Baker National Forest, Lamonta in Ochoco, Mount Adams in Gifford Pinchot, and Paisley in Fremont, and Forest Service work centers, such as Randle in Columbia, Snider in Olympic, Concully in Chelan, and Clackamas in Mount Hood were also built.³¹ Guard station cabins were built at Hamaker Meadows, Huckleberry Mountain, Lodgepole, and Imnaha; and lookouts on Mount Stella, Abbott Butte, Rustler Peak, Blue Rock, and Bessie Rock in the Rogue River National Forest.³² A wide range of miscellaneous structures were erected out of a need for specific improvements on the forests.

At least two sites remain to show where CCC camps were located. These are the Lost Lake CCC Camp in the Chelan, now Okanogan, Forest, and the Growden CCC Camp in the Colville National Forest. The Growden site includes a dam and reservoir constructed by that camp.³³ In the Prospect Ranger District of the Rogue River Forest, a mess hall is still being used at the Union Creek Young Adult Conservation Corps compound, but it has not yet been determined if the structure is left from a CCC camp or a later blister rust camp.³⁴

Writing about Civilian Conservation Corps structures in Region 6, Elizabeth Gail Throop, Region 6 recreation staff, points to the high quality of workmanship exhibited in the planning, design, and execution of many CCC structures. Among the outstanding examples that she found in her inventory of the region were the Glacier Ranger Station and the Monte Cristo Ranger Station in what is now the Mount Baker-Snoqualmie National Forest and the Bly Ranger Station in the Fremont National Forest. Throop notes:

The latter is a compound possessing remarkable integrity of design and materials, interior as well as exterior. It is the only Forest Service facility in Region Six to have stone as its primary exterior wall material, and retains strong ensemble character.³⁵

As in other Forest Service regions, the CCC in Region 6 organized crews to fight forest pests threatening timber. Western pine beetles of several varieties were fought in eastern Washington and Oregon by disposing of infected trees. By 1938, the beetle infestation was reportedly declining; prior to that time it had been determined that more timber was being destroyed annually by beetles than by forest fires.³⁶ Civilian



Figure 13--CCC enrollees building log bridge at Dalles Camp, Snoqualmie National Forest, WA, in 1936. (National Archives 35-G-340106)

Conservation Corps crews also worked to eradicate white pine blister rust in eastern Washington and Oregon, and blister rust on sugar pines in southern Oregon.³⁷

A regionally unique CCC activity was its association, between 1935 and 1940, with the start of the commercial Christmas tree industry in the Pacific Northwest. The Rogue River National Forest in southern Oregon reports that the local response to the devastation of the timber business during the Depression included using CCC crews to help harvest fir trees for Christmas sales. The Christmas tree business developed into a tremendous source of income and employment, particularly in the region's privately owned forests.

Camp Education and Recreation Programs

In November 1933, Regional Forester Buck wrote a letter to the Chief Forester in Washington, DC, briefly describing educational activities in Region 6 CCC camps. Buck thereby entered into the long-lived debate on the role of education in the camps. According to Buck, the role of the Forest Service in the educational program needed clarification. Ideas for an expanded program under Army supervision were being formulated and in Buck's estimation, the Forest Service was being left out of the planning. He described Region 6 as

having taken the initiative to assist local Army commanders. A program had been planned for winter camps that included teaching enrollees forestry-related subjects. Buck feared educational advisors would be chosen whose backgrounds in forestry would not be adequate for the job.³⁹

Acting Chief Forester C.M. Granger responded by saying that the intent of the new education program was not to deprive enrollees from learning more about forestry, but to relieve present camp personnel from having too much responsibility. Granger indicated Forest Service personnel would still be welcome to handle classes dealing with forest conservation or other relevant topics.⁴⁰

Guy Moore, an educational advisor for Camp Steamboat in the Umpqua National Forest, 1935-40, discovered the enrollees there were more interested in auto mechanics and leather work than forestry. He described a few men as illiterate and uninterested in any education; others preferred working with their hands. Moore mentioned one man who did so well in auto mechanics that he eventually settled in Roseburg to work at a service station.⁴¹ A 1936 letter from V.V. Harphram, the Umpqua forest supervisor, to Regional Forester Buck further detailed how enrollees from several camps on the Umpqua had moved smoothly from the corps into outside

jobs. He said the education and vocational training they received in the CCC accounted for many of their new jobs.⁴²

In addition to teaching classes, Guy Moore claimed the educational advisor was often responsible for coordinating recreational activities. The activities ranged from trips to the ocean to camp athletics.⁴³ Some of the other camps in the region put together elaborate shows and toured the camps in their districts, putting on performances. The Medford District, for instance, organized a traveling minstrel show. The Eugene District, with help from the University of Oregon Drama Department, formed a movable theater production. The Vancouver District reported having built a "well-equipped rest camp" for its men on leave.⁴⁴

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Chapter 9 Region 8—The Southern Region

Region 8 contained national forests in 11 States from 1933-42. Those States were Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas.

The names and numbers of the forests changed considerably during the years the program operated. Because of heavy settlement and Federal land acquisition by purchase in the Eastern United States, less forested land was put into national forests than in the West. The 1937 estimates show the Southern Region with 36 percent of all forested land in the country, only 3 percent of which was national forest land.¹

Land was acquired as purchase units during the CCC period and these areas later became new forests or parts of already established national forests. Some lumber companies that had become Depression casualties were able to sell their lands to the Federal Government.² In other cases money from the CCC treasury was used specifically to buy lands requiring conservation work to make them economically productive. Federal ownership was perceived as the sole resource capable of handling the tremendous costs of timber production and conservation.³ By 1942, approximately 36 national forests or purchase units had been established in the region (table 6).⁴

Enrollment and Camp History

Enrollee distribution, conditioning, and camp administration in Region 8 came under the jurisdiction of three different Army Corps Areas. Most of the States belonged within IV Corps Area. States in other corps areas were Texas and Oklahoma in VIII Corps Area and Arkansas in VII Corps Area. Conditioning and distribution centers in IV Corps Area were Forts Barrancas, FL; McClellan, AL; Oglethorpe, TN; and Bragg, NC. In VIII Corps Area they were Forts Sam Houston, TX, and Sill, OK. The closest VII Corps Area center for Arkansas enrollees was the Jefferson Barracks in St. Louis, MO.⁵

Unlike the western sections of the country, enrollment quotas in Region 8 were sufficient to handle the projected work load. Acting Adjutant General James McKinley announced a final quota for the region of 40,700 men.⁶ Enrollees from States in this region were sometimes sent west, where more publicly owned lands offered more work opportunities. Within Region 8 only half of the CCC work force was used on its national forests. About 13 percent of the country's CCC work on national forests occurred in this region and about 14 percent of all CCC forestry work.⁷

In the summer of 1933, 74 national forest camps opened in the Southern Region. More than half of these camps were in the mountains of Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee. During the second enrollment period, the winter of 1933-34, the number of camps operating rose to 98, with significant increases in Arkansas, Florida, and Mississippi. Camp numbers remained relatively constant until the winter of 1935-36, when the addition of several purchase units and 11 Texas camps brought the total to 123. By 1941, national forest camps were decreasing in anticipation of the end of the CCC and an increase in men entering national defense work. Only 60 camps operated in the 16th period.⁸

Several all-black camps were located in South Carolina, Florida, and Mississippi. Small numbers of black

enrollees were integrated into camps in other States where black recruits were too few in number to form separate camps.⁹ Proportionate to the total black population and its relatively poor socioeconomic status, the number of black camps in Region 8 was low. This was a CCC issue that demanded attention yet was never fully addressed.

Fechner's 1935 order to keep CCC camps racially segregated received mixed reactions, although few people challenged it openly. In one area, complaints alleged that white clerical workers were being discharged and replaced by black enrollees who were "unqualified" for the work.¹⁰ The complaints were answered with an authorization that "unqualified" black enrollees could be superseded by "qualified" white ones.¹¹ Enforcement of the CCC segregation policy meant greater discrimination toward blacks, as few all-black camps were formed and access to white camps was usually forcefully denied.¹²

Work Projects

Statistical data on Region 8's national forests show transportation improvements receiving the most emphasis. Forest culture, fire protection, and recreation improvements were also primary accomplishments.¹³ Significant variations in work projects occurred throughout the region, depending on the needs and problems targeted in each area. Differences in topography and climate shifted priorities. For instance, in Texas and Oklahoma, reforestation was more prominent.¹⁴ Regional Forester Joseph Kircher supervised all work projects in the Southern Region.

It was recognized from the beginning a national forest protection system must be established before other development could be allowed. In addition to roads and trails, lookouts, firebreaks, and an organized firefighting crew were essential protective measures.

Once recreational development was started, the CCC constructed hundreds of new and improved camp and picnic sites throughout the region. Trails and shelters were constructed for hikers and campers in nearly every State, such as the Collier Spring Shelter in Arkansas's Ouachita National Forest (fig. 14). Most notably, the CCC assisted in building the Appalachian Trail, which extends from Georgia to Maine. In Region 8 the trail passed through national forests in the mountains of Georgia, North Carolina, and Tennessee.¹⁵

Wildlife programs were instituted by the region's forests using CCC enrollees. Deer redistribution was conducted on the Pisgah and Nantahala Forests in North Carolina, the Chattahoochee in Georgia, and the Cherokee in Tennessee. Wild turkeys were transplanted in several forests.¹⁶

Region 8 had several forests grow notably successful as a result of CCC intervention. When Florida's Osceola National Forest was purchased in 1929, poor management and recurrent fires had made it economically unproductive. After 10 years of intensive management, major improvements were observable, and the forest was singled out as exemplary in the Eastern United States.¹⁷ The Bienville National Forest in Mississippi was in a similar situation when the CCC began conducting fire suppression and timber stand improvements. Besides the forestry work, enrollees discovered it necessary to alter

Table 6--Region 8 national forests and purchase units, 1942

<i>State</i>	<i>National Forests and purchase units</i>
<i>Alabama</i>	Alabama National Forest Black Warrior National Forest Talladega Purchase Unit Conecuh Purchase Unit
<i>Arkansas</i>	Ouachita National Forest Ozark National Forest
<i>Florida</i>	Osceola National Forest Ocala National Forest Choctawhatchee National Forest Apalachicola National Forest
<i>Georgia</i>	Chattahoochee National Forest
<i>Louisiana</i>	Kisatchie National Forest
<i>Mississippi</i>	DeSoto National Forest Homochitto National Forest Bienville National Forest Holly Springs National Forest Biloxi Purchase Unit
<i>North Carolina</i>	Nantahala National Forest Pisgah National Forest Cherokee National Forest Croatan National Forest
<i>Oklahoma</i>	Ouachita National Forest Wichita National Forest
<i>South Carolina</i>	Nantahala National Forest Wambaw National Forest Enoree Purchase Unit Long Cane Purchase Unit Sumter National Forest Francis Marion National Forest
<i>Tennessee</i>	Cherokee National Forest Pisgah National Forest Unaka National Forest
<i>Texas</i>	Sam Houston National Forest Davy Crockett National Forest Sabine National Forest Angelina National Forest



Figure 14--CCC enrollees cutting out shakes for Collier Spring Shelter, Ouachita National Forest, AR. (National Archives 35-N-314335)

the local people's concept of public lands as places to heedlessly trespass and burn.¹⁸

The necessity for educating the public to the Forest Service's conservation policies and the CCC's role in carrying them out was a problem encountered throughout the region. The rapidly expanding national forest lands were considered a threat to many local forest users, an infringement upon their right to exploit forest resources:

The fire exclusion policy of the forestry agencies angered the cattlemen and sheepmen, who had been accustomed to burning the range annually to green up the grass for their livestock. Some oldtimers were bitter at their former company employees and took out their resentment on the CCC boys. They set fires out of spite so the boys would have to work on Sundays and holidays. . . . A related problem involved trespass. Because of the lax policies of timberland owners, poverty-stricken squatters had been accustomed to cutting a few logs of merchantable size for crossties and other products from company lands without restriction. Such cutting was not tolerated on

national forest lands, however, and the resulting prosecution of trespass cases created bitter enemies for the Forest Service.¹⁹

The CCC responded to numerous emergencies in the region. In 1936-37, CCC crews aided in flood mitigation and cleanup in Tennessee and Arkansas. Tornadoes in Florida in 1933 as well as in Georgia and Alabama in 1936 also forced CCC forestry camps into action.²⁰ Mississippi Governor Sennett Connor requested 80 additional CCC camps for reforestation work in his State's hill country, indicating that forestry work was ultimately the best way to lessen flooding along the Mississippi River and in the delta area.²¹

Forest fire protection involved using enrollees in lookout towers and for firefighting. Regional Forester Kircher pointed out the protective value of educating so many young men about forest fires.²² A unique program started by Kircher in South Carolina combined subsistence farming with forest fire control. In an attempt to retain better lookout personnel, he offered qualified farmers a small salary and piece of farm land adjacent to lookout towers. Tenants were required to have farming experience, families, and farm animals, and be willing to take care of the land and operate the lookouts. The CCC helped by building small houses and outbuildings for the tenants, fencing fields and preparing them for farming, erecting new lookout towers, and improving available water sources.²³

The Forest Service and Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) collaborated on reforestation and fire control projects, primarily on TVA lands. The Forest Service exercised administrative control, whereas the TVA was responsible for the technical details. National forest CCC camps assisted the TVA by gathering pine cones and hardwood seeds for propagation in forest nurseries. Camps in Tennessee, North Carolina, and Arkansas participated in these efforts, collecting some 10,000 bushels of seed in 1933. Shortleaf pine, Virginia pine, black locust, yellow-poplar, and the more scarce pitch pine were among the species collected.²⁴

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Chapter 10

Region 7—The Eastern Region

Region 9—The North-Central Region

The current Eastern Region, Region 9, was originally divided into two USDA Forest Service regions, Eastern Region 7 and North Central Region 9. At the time of the Civilian Conservation Corps, the regions were separate, and they are discussed separately here.

National Forests in Region 7

From 1933 until 1942, Region 7 contained the following States: Connecticut, Delaware, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Virginia, and West Virginia. The District of Columbia was also included in this region. Of these States, only seven had national forest lands:

Kentucky	Cumberland National Forest
Maine	White Mountain National Forest
New Hampshire	White Mountain National Forest
Pennsylvania	Allegheny National Forest
Vermont	Green Mountain National Forest
Virginia	George Washington National Forest Jefferson National Forest Natural Bridge National Forest
West Virginia	George Washington National Forest Monongahela National Forest ¹

It is estimated that Region 7 had 16 percent of the country's forested area and 1 percent of its national forest area. Three percent of the region's forested area was under Federal ownership. State and privately owned forests were more prevalent here than in the West.²

Enrollment and Camp History

States with national forests in Region 7 were under the jurisdiction of the Army I, II, III, and V Corps Areas. On April 22, 1933, Acting Adjutant General James McKinley announced the enrollment quota for the entire Eastern Region as 66,850 men. Quotas covering all technical services in the seven States with national forests were: Kentucky, 4,450; Maine, 1,100; New Hampshire, 800; Pennsylvania, 19,500; Vermont, 650; Virginia, 1,600; and West Virginia, 1,700.³

When the enrollment quotas were compared with proposed work projects in each State, it became necessary to redistribute men. Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont had too few recruits to accomplish the work in their States; Kentucky, Virginia, and West Virginia had too many enrollees. Pennsylvania was the only State that theoretically had the right number of men to carry out its planned work.⁴ As project demands changed seasonally, enrollees were shifted to meet each State's needs. Extra enrollees were redistributed within the region or sent to work in western corps areas.

Training and distribution centers for CCC recruits were scattered throughout Region 7. Among the various Army installations used were Harbor Defenses, Portland, ME; Fort Devens, MA; Fort Ethan Allen, VT; Forts Slocum and Plattsburgh, NY; Fort Hancock and Camp Dix, NJ; Fort H.G. Wright, CT; Fort Adams, RI; and Fort Knox, KY. Virginia enrollees were sent to a number of Army facilities in southern Virginia or in the Washington, DC, area.

In the first enrollment period, 43 camps began operating in the region's national forests. One camp opened in Kentucky, 2 in Maine, 7 each in New Hampshire and

Pennsylvania, 3 in Vermont, 13 in Virginia, and 10 in West Virginia. Forty-four camps operated during the second period, and 38 during the third period of spring and summer 1934. By the winter of 1935-36, the number of camps had nearly doubled, with 67 operating. Significant increases occurred in Kentucky, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. By 1941, only 32 camps were operating.⁵

Kenneth Hendrickson, Jr., has effectively described CCC operations in Pennsylvania, particularly the interactions of key people and agencies in the program. For example, a report of the strained relations between selection officer J. Fred Kurtz and Army personnel forms a large part of Hendrickson's discussion. Administration problems, internal differences of philosophy, enrollee complaints, racial inequalities, safety hazards, and enrollment difficulties are presented, revealing an infrequently discussed, yet undoubtedly typical, side of the CCC program. However, Hendrickson indicates that despite its problems the CCC was greatly successful in contributing to Pennsylvania's forestry work progress.⁶

First Camps

The first CCC camp in the country, Camp Roosevelt, F-1, operated in Virginia's George Washington National Forest from April 17, 1933, until May 25, 1942. It averaged 200 enrollees, drawn primarily from Virginia and the Washington, DC, area. Work projects included a variety of achievements: road building and maintenance, fish and wildlife management, forest culture and improvement, fire hazard reduction, and recreational improvements.⁷

Work Projects

In 1937, R. Shields, acting for Regional Forester R.M. Evans, estimated the CCC had potentially saved Region 7's national forests \$12 million in timber conserved by fire protection. The true value, he said, could not be calculated for another 50 years.⁸ Timber conservation was not the only benefit of the region's use of the CCC. According to Forest Service figures, the greatest amount of CCC effort was spent making transportation improvements on the national forests. Next in importance were forest culture, recreation, and structural improvements.⁹ Approximately 20 percent of the CCC's work in the region was performed on its national forests. About 7 percent of the country's CCC work on national forests was done in Region 7.¹⁰

CCC camps in the Eastern Region were often confronted with insect and disease problems in their forestry work. Dutch elm disease, white pine blister rust, and gypsy moths required immediate treatment. Spread by European beetles, the Dutch elm fungus could be controlled only by cutting and burning infested trees. By 1935, the CCC had eliminated 60,000 diseased trees.¹¹ White pines in the Appalachian Mountains were examined by CCC crews who attempted to save the timber and end the blister rust spread. Gypsy moths were equally difficult to conquer. A three-pronged attack kept enrollees busily removing infested trees, hunting moth larvae, and clearing tree and plant species that were particularly attractive to hungry larvae.¹²

Emergency work in Region 7 included flood and hurricane cleanup and forest fire alerts. After a September 1938 hurricane destroyed large areas of New England forest, CCC camps were assigned to salvage usable timber and clear away flammable materials. Although done predominantly on State forest and private land camps, the work was supervised by the USDA Forest Service. Increased fire risk meant extra hours of fire training for all enrollees and clearing private lands adjacent to the national forests, reducing fire risk on both sides. The CCC also repaired destroyed communications systems for the benefit of forest and public safety.¹³

As a result of repeated flooding, the CCC was put to work cleaning up damaged areas and constructing control devices to prevent future destruction. Heavy flooding occurred in Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Washington, DC, in 1936; and in Vermont and New York in 1938.¹⁴ Writing to President Roosevelt after the 1936 floods, ECW Director Fechner said:

Official reports clearly show the great value of the service that was rendered by the CCC camp personnel in practically every affected area. We have a very large number of letters and telegrams from State, county, and city officials, as well as from organizations and individuals, expressing appreciation and gratitude for the help the camps gave.

Four dams were built by the CCC under the Army Corps of Engineers for flood control purposes in Vermont's Winooski Valley. It took 3,000 enrollees 3 years to build the dams. Forestry camps helped clear the wooded sites before construction started.¹⁵

Because of their proximity to the Nation's Capitol and large urban populations, national forests in Virginia received more public attention than forests elsewhere in the region. Roads and recreation areas needed to be adequately designed to handle large numbers of people and yet preserve the forests' integrity for other uses. As one camp superintendent described the situation, the work program in his area of the George Washington Forest changed over a 15-month period. At first it involved the "usual" construction of telephone lines, roads, trails, and fire tool boxes, along with boundary renewal and survey work. Later, recreation development became increasingly more important.¹⁶

From 1933 to 1938, ECW funds were used to purchase additional national forest lands in Virginia. Executive order 7466 on October 7, 1936, put aside \$60,000 to buy 673 acres of land for the Jefferson National Forest for conservation work.¹⁷ Virginia gained nearly 700,000 acres of new national forest lands during the CCC period.¹⁸

In the Jefferson Forest, district rangers arranged a cooperative project with the Virginia Commission of Game and Inland Fisheries. Enrollees cleared brushy areas to enhance natural feeding habitats and to attract wildlife. Leftover brush was piled as shelter for game birds.¹⁹ Enrollees in both Jefferson and George Washington National Forests helped trap white-tailed deer and release them in protected areas that had no deer population. Feeding stations were constructed and maintained to keep the animals in the nearby countryside.²⁰

Structural improvements in Region 7 were similar to those made by national forest camps throughout the country. Bridges, lookouts, and Forest Service administrative and service buildings were among the structures built. Proximity to urban centers meant ranger districts were often located in towns and did not require compounds of their own, as was the case in western areas. Camps in nearly all of the States helped clear trails and build bridges and shelters for hikers and forest maintenance work (fig. 15). Most notable was the work done on the Appalachian Trail, which passed through national forests in Virginia, Pennsylvania, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine. Enrollees in Vermont did similar work on the Long Trail, which runs the length of that State.²¹

Northern sections of the Green Mountain National Forest in Vermont were not officially annexed until 1937.²² Most CCC camps in Vermont were thus located on what is now the southern part of the forest. The Danby Camp, actually situated in Mt. Tabor, did some trail work as well as other projects typical of the CCC's contributions to the Eastern Region's national forests. In building the Mt. Tabor Road from Danby to Weston, enrollees constructed intricately laid stone culverts and retaining walls. Buildings from the Danby Camp now serve as the central supply depot for the Green Mountain Forest (figs. 16-19).²³

Relatively close to the Danby Camp were the West River Camp and Peru Camp. These camps also did road and trail work, as well as surveying and mapping forest lands. As in the Danby Camp, enrollees worked through the winters, relying on wool clothes and snowshoes.²⁴ They were responsible for laying out ski trails on Bromley Mountain and for building recreation areas at White Rocks, Texas Falls, Greendale, and Hapgood Pond.²⁵ At Hapgood, the CCC cleared away remnants of Marshall J. Hapgood's 19th-century lumbering village and replaced it with a manmade pond, bathhouse, and picnic facilities. Many of the original CCC buildings are still in use, although the stone and cement dam was replaced in 1980, and a larger bathhouse was built to accommodate more people (figs. 20, 21).²⁶

Percy Moffitt, who worked in the CCC as a Local Experienced Man (LEM) and a barracks leader, remembers working at Hapgood and "running shovel" on road construction. Digging a 65-foot well at the Hapgood site was rough work in the winter, he says, but once the digging went below the ground's surface, it got much warmer and was actually a preferred job.

Moffitt says that most of the enrollees stayed and did well in the CCC, but there were some who could not handle the hard work and left after a short time.²⁷

National Forests in Region 9

Region 9 was originally composed of eight States: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin (table 7). Only Iowa had no national forest lands. Forest and purchase unit boundaries fluctuated considerably during the 9-year period of the CCC.²⁸ A 1937 estimate shows Region 9 with 14 percent of the total forest area in the United States and 2 percent of the national forests. Three percent of the region's forested land was national forest land or administered as national forests.²⁹



Figure 15--CCC enrollees building a bridge at Mineral Springs, PA, 1935. National Archives 35-6-4343)



Figure 16--View of CCC stone work, Danby Look-Off on Mt. Tabor Road, Green Mountain National Forest, VT. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)



Figure 17--Another view of CCC stone work, Danby Look-Off on Mt. Tabor Road, Green Mountain National Forest, VT. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)



Figure 18--Garage (south side), Central Supply Depot, Green Mountain National Forest, built about 1937. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

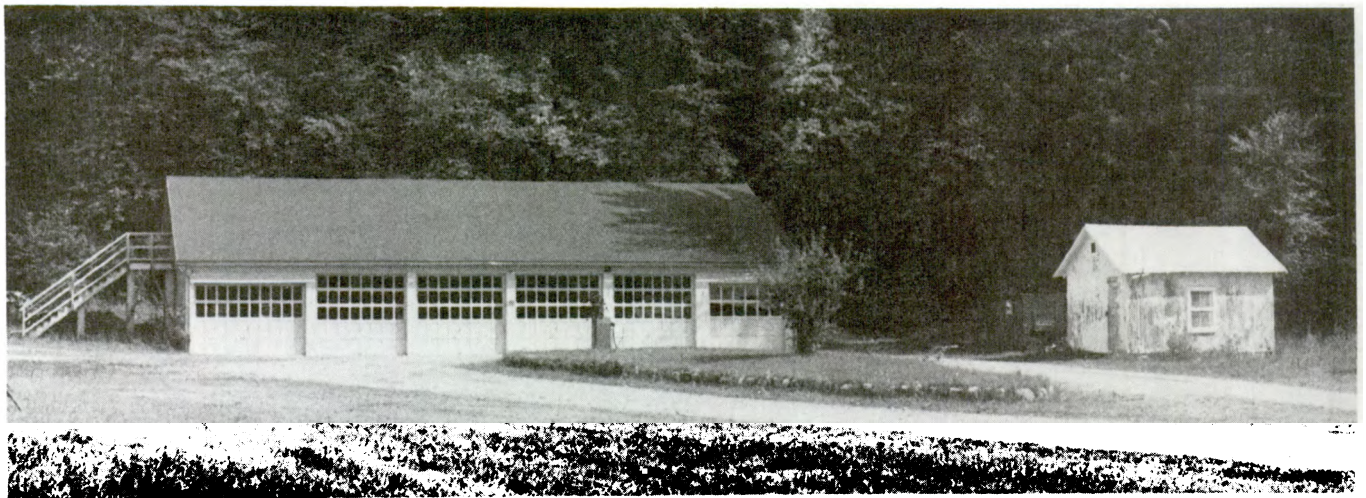


Figure 19--Garage (west view), Central Supply Depot, Green Mountain National Forest. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)



Figure 20--Picnic shelter (east side of pond), Hapgood Pond Recreation Area, Green Mountain National Forest, Peru, VT, built in 1936. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

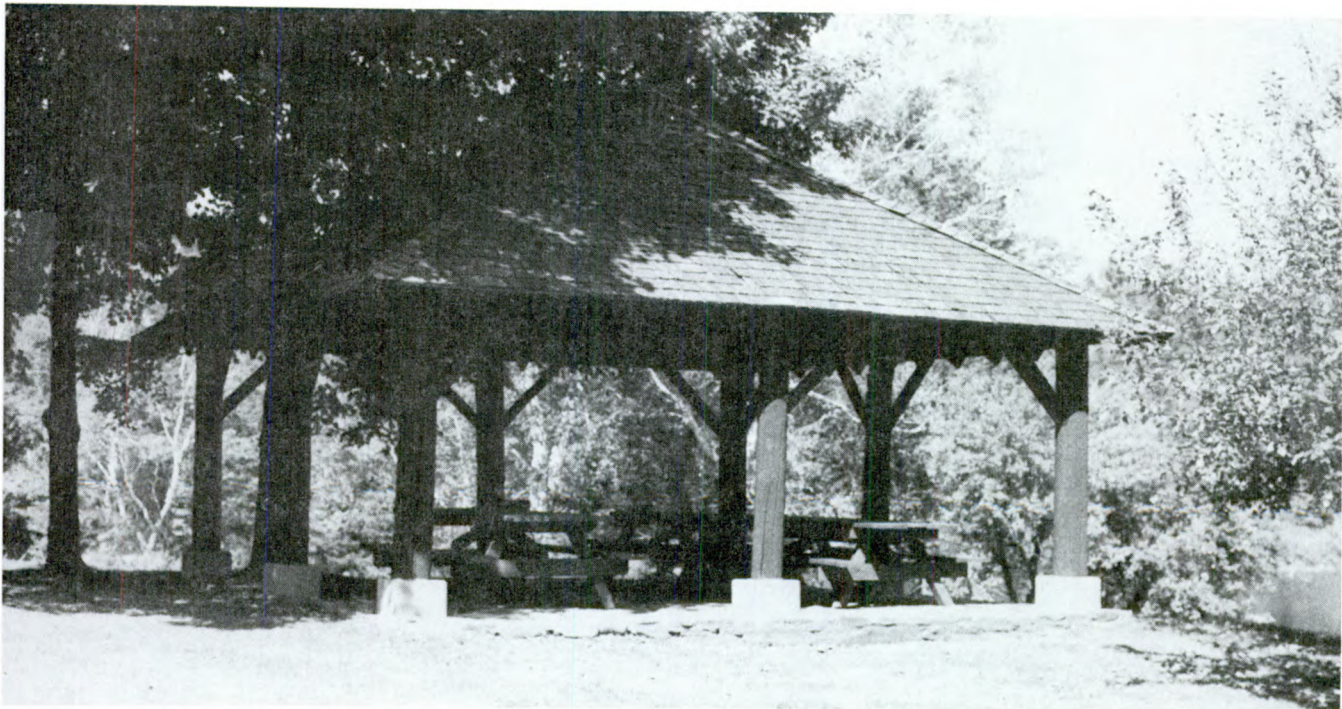


Figure 21--Picnic shelter (west side of pond), Hapgood Pond Recreation Area, Green Mountain National Forest, Peru, VT, built in 1936. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

Table 7--North Central Region national forests and purchase units, 1933-42

<i>State</i>	<i>National forests and purchase units</i>
<i>Illinois</i>	Illini Purchase Unit Shawnee National Forest and Purchase Unit
<i>Indiana</i>	Hoosier Purchase Unit Lafayette Purchase Unit Patoka Purchase Unit Pleasant Run Purchase Unit Lost River Purchase Unit
<i>Michigan</i>	Huron National Forest Marquette National Forest Hiawatha National Forest Ottawa National Forest Manistee National Forest and Purchase Unit
<i>Minnesota</i>	Superior National Forest Chippewa National Forest Chippewa Addition and Purchase Unit
<i>Missouri</i>	Gardner National Forest and Purchase Unit Wappapello Purchase Unit Mark Twain National Forest Table Rock Purchase Unit Clark Purchase Unit Fristoe Purchase Unit Gasconade Purchase Unit Pond Fork Purchase Unit
<i>Ohio</i>	Wayne Purchase Unit Hocking Valley Purchase Unit Little Scioto Purchase Unit McArthur Purchase Unit Muskingum Purchase Unit Symmes Creek Purchase Unit
<i>Wisconsin</i>	Flambeau Purchase Unit Moquah Purchase Unit Nicolet National Forest and Extension Argonne Purchase Unit Chequamegon Purchase Unit

Enrollment and Camp History

As of April 22, 1933, the total enrollment quota for Region 9 was about 55,200 men. Quotas for the individual States were: Illinois, 14,900; Indiana, 5,900; Iowa, 4,600; Michigan, 6,750; Minnesota, 850; Missouri, 6,500; Ohio, 12,300; and Wisconsin, 3,400. During the initial enrollment period it was determined that Minnesota was the only State in the region without enough enrollees to work on proposed CCC projects. The rest of the States had quotas larger than needed to accomplish their work.³⁰

Nearly all the States provided recruits to the West. By 1937, Region 9 was operating with 24 percent of the country's CCC work load and 28 percent of the work force on all national forests. Sixty-four percent of the enrollees in the region were working on national forest lands.³¹

In the summer of 1933, 59 camps opened in 3 States of the North Central Region: 24 in Minnesota, 21 in Wisconsin, and 14 in Michigan. By January 1934, 81 camps were operating, including 6 in Illinois and 4 in Missouri. Camp numbers continued to increase, reaching 167 in the winter of 1935-36. Camps were distributed as follows: Illinois, 11; Indiana, 4; Michigan, 49; Minnesota, 37; Missouri, 15; Ohio, 9; and Wisconsin, 42. Five years later there were only 67 camps operating as the CCC slowly began to reduce its programs.³²

Camps in Region 9 were administered by the V, VI, and VII Corps Areas. Primary training and distribution centers for enrollees were Fort Sheridan, IL; Camp Custer, MI; Fort Snelling, MN; Fort Des Moines, IA; and Jefferson Barracks, MO.³³

In 1935, 22 national forest camps in Region 9 were reported to be racially integrated. Only two were predominantly black, one in Illinois and one in Michigan. The remaining camps had small numbers of black enrollees, averaging about 3 in each 200-man camp. The men were recruited primarily within their home States or from within the region.³⁴

Side Camps

Regional Forester E. W. Tinker informed Chief Forester Stuart in July 1933 that he had established seven side camps in an attempt to learn more about their effectiveness. The side camps were detached from 7 base camps and ranged in size from 4 to 48 men. Their work varied from truck trail location and road construction to tree pruning and lookout tower building. Tinker listed numerous advantages to using side camps. Work could be accomplished in areas otherwise inaccessible to crews, and more hours could be worked because of decreased transportation time. Tinker said enrollees appeared to like life in side camp better than life in the main camps.³⁵

Given full authority by CCC officials to continue operating the side camp system, the regional forester projected the use of 55 to 60 camps. Under those conditions, he would also expand the work program to include tree planting, ribes eradication, campground improvement, and portage construction. Different forests required varying amounts of side camp activity. The Chippewa could use side camps for about 5 percent of its work, while the Superior Forest would require side camps for 20 percent of its projects.³⁶

In November 1937, CCC Director Fechner granted Region 9 special permission to go beyond regular side camp use and to establish side camps for nursery work at 10 Forest Service nurseries. This was an unusual deviation from the established policy and was limited to Region 9.³⁷

Work Projects

Forest culture, transportation improvements, forest fire protection, and recreation were the four primary areas of work in the North Central Region. The major emergency work was flood cleanup in Illinois and Ohio in 1936, and in Ohio in 1938. In the Ohio and Mississippi River Valleys, all available men were employed in rescue and relief work under the supervision of the American Red Cross.³⁸ Tornado and other storm damage in 1940 necessitated use of CCC crews in the Chippewa Forest in Minnesota. Crews were put to work salvaging timber and clearing debris-strewn areas.³⁹

Reforestation and timber stand improvement occupied much of the CCC's efforts. H. Basil Wales, chief of the region's timber management division in 1949, recalled the type of work done by the CCC in the Chippewa Forest. In addition to timber stand improvements, one CCC crew helped build the Lydick Nursery in 1934, so that adequate seedlings would be available for reforestation. After the addition of two purchase units to the Chippewa in 1935, the CCC had even more work to do. The newly acquired land was in poor condition and required all aspects of forest improvement.⁴⁰

In 1937, CCC Director Robert Fechner was encouraged to write about successful reforestation work in Michigan. Fechner described how the lumber industry and fires had destroyed much of western Michigan's forests in the late 1800's. Since the establishment of the CCC, large areas had been reforested and restored to productivity. In the Manistee National Forest tree planting occurred at the rate of 1,000 to 1,500 trees per day.⁴¹ By 1941, foresters in the region calculated that tree planting had been moved ahead 50 years by the CCC.⁴²

Civilian Conservation Corps crews also worked to help control harmful forest insects. Spruce budworm and grasshoppers were two of the insects requiring control. Spruce budworms were discovered infesting overmature jack pines in Minnesota during the summer of 1940.⁴³ Grasshoppers were a threat to young seedlings in Michigan. Enrollees reduced their numbers in controlled areas by as much as 90 percent.⁴⁴

Region 9 Forester Tinker commented on the value of the CCC:

Who can say how much timber and reproduction would have been lost had it not been for the CCC? Last year in Region 9 we believe that the enrollees and their availability were instrumental in averting another major catastrophe insofar as fire was concerned . . . we sincerely believe that in this Region alone the CCC saved this country many times by being everlastingly on the job during the hot dry period of July, August, and September 1936.⁴⁵

Fish and wildlife projects were a part of the overall CCC program in the North Central Region. Plans were made in 1937 to raise deer and wild turkeys on a special

tract of land in Missouri. After successful breeding programs, enrollees dispersed the animals in national forests whose populations were low.⁴⁶ The Cut Foot Sioux CCC Camp in the Chippewa National Forest constructed two earthen dams to flood marshlands and provide a breeding and feeding habitat for waterfowl and animals. Enrollees took soundings on lakes to determine the fish populations. Where numbers were small, the lakes were stocked. Wildlife census and winter feeding projects were undertaken as well.⁴⁷

Among the notable structural achievements in Region 9 was the building of the Chippewa National Forest headquarters in 1935. Supervised by Ike Boekennoogen, CCC and WPA men helped Finnish craftsmen construct the Finnish style notch-and-groove log building (figs. 22-24). Considered to be among the largest log buildings of its kind, it was made of native red pine and finished with other local materials. The 50-foot stone fireplace was constructed with glacial boulders collected from the nearby area. The building has been occupied since 1936 by the Forest Service, and on June 16, 1976, was entered on the National Register of Historic Places.⁴⁸

The CCC camp that assisted in constructing the headquarters building was the Rabideau Camp, F-50. Company 708 was among the first organized at Fort Snelling in 1933 and then sent to the Chippewa. For 2-1/2 years the men lived in a "temporary" tent camp near Bena, MN, before moving into permanent barracks south of Blackduck on January 5, 1936. The new 25-building camp remained occupied until July 1, 1941.⁴⁹

Since 1941, the camp has been used by the University of Illinois for educational purposes and by former Camp Rabideau enrollees as a reunion spot.⁵⁰ According to Chippewa Forest Historian Stanley Johnson, Rabideau is the only camp in Minnesota with most of its original buildings intact (figs. 25, 26). The camp was also placed on the National Register of Historical Places on June 16, 1976.⁵¹

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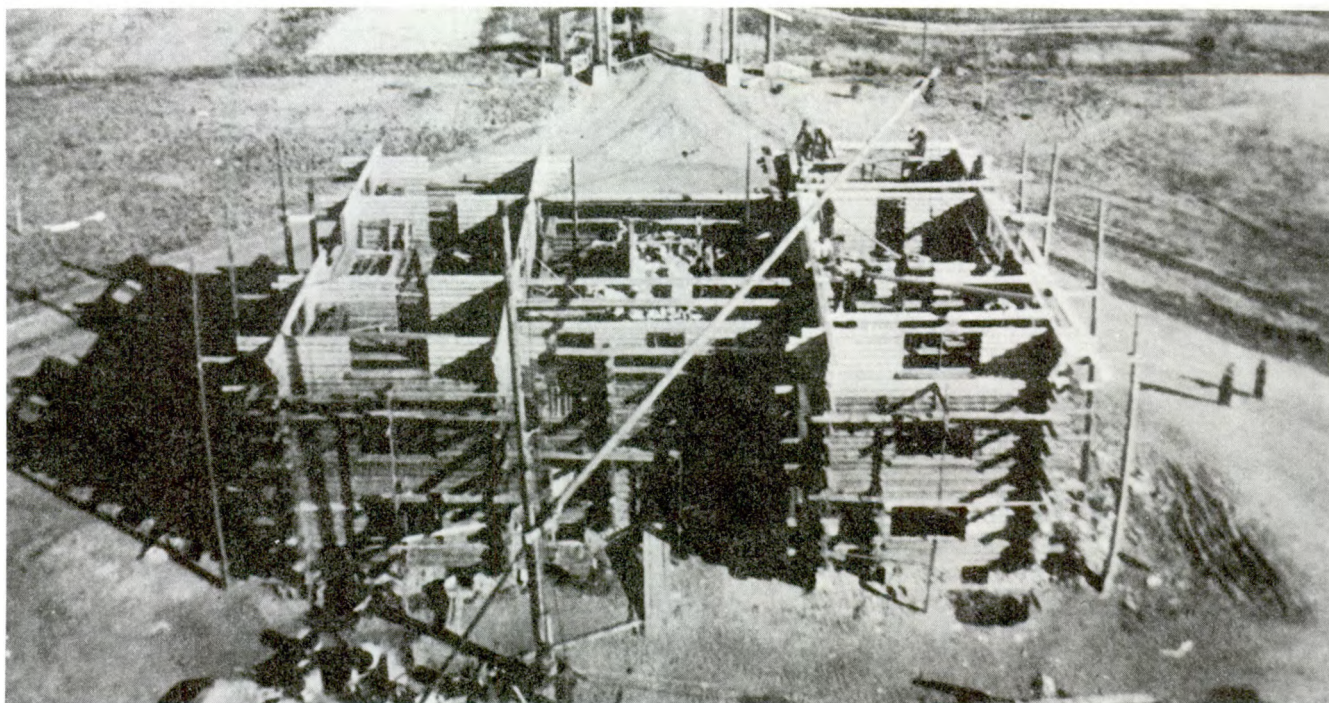


Figure 22--CCC enrollees building the Headquarters, Chippewa National Forest, Cass Lake, MN.



Figure 23--Headquarters Building completed, Chippewa National Forest, Cass Lake, MN.



Figure 24--Fireplace, Headquarters Building, Chippewa National Forest, Cass Lake, MN.

4. See ECW map, reference note 3.
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Figure 25--Rabideau CCC camp, Blackduck Ranger District, Chippewa National Forest, MN.

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Figure 26--Another view of Rabideau CCC camp, Blackduck Ranger District, Chippewa National Forest, MN.

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Chapter 11

United States Territories and Insular Possessions Region 10—Alaska

Alaska

At the time of the CCC, Alaska was still a territory but had two national forests, the Chugach and the Tongass. These two forests now make up Region 10 and have changed only slightly in size. The Chugach National Forest is located along the Gulf of Alaska in the southern part of the State, and the Tongass is in southeastern Alaska in the vicinity of the Alexander Archipelago. The two forests contain about 6 percent of Alaska's total land area.¹

Enrollment and Camp History

On April 19, 1933, Chief Forester R.Y. Stuart presented ECW Director Robert Fechner with a recommendation and work plan for starting the ECW program in Alaska. Stuart's plan called for a modified operation from the one being used in the States. Rather than using Army Corps jurisdiction, Stuart proposed that the Forest Service take charge of enrollment, distribution, and camp management. In addition to supervision of national forest work projects, the Service would be given nearly all the responsibilities accorded the War Department in other Forest Service regions. The Army's only function would be as purser.

Fechner's letter on April 21, 1933, to C.M. Granger, the Acting Forester, approved Stuart's Alaskan plan with few refinements. The resubmitted plan was given final approval by the Director on April 29, 1933.² President Roosevelt signed the order on May 5. Although not an Executive order, the plan carried the same power in memorandum form.³

Initial enrollment in Alaska was requested at 325 men, to be located in small, decentralized camps in the Chugach and Tongass Forests.⁴ National forest camps were placed at Juneau, Ketchikan, Petersburg, Cordova, and Kenai Lake.⁵ Camps stayed within national forest boundaries until 1937 when enrollment was increased and the project area expanded.

Work continued with 325 man-year quota until April 1, 1937, when a greatly enlarged CCC program was approved. Under it, 600 man-years of work were allowed. The number of men employed at one time varied with the seasons, showing a sharp drop in the spring when mining and fish canning are the principal fields for employment. The drop in private employment is the signal for raising the number of enrollees for late fall and winter CCC work. Peak employment has been as high as 1,200 men.⁶

As a result of the additional enrollment and work load, the Forest Service began a cooperative program with the National Park Service and the Bureau of Indian Affairs.⁷ The expanded program made special efforts to enroll Eskimos and other native Alaskans. Natives made up about one-half of the new enrollment.⁸ CCC projects for natives were located in numerous places, including Saxman, Klawock, Craig, Metlakatla, Wrangell, Petersburg, Juneau, Angoon, Tenakee, Hot Springs, Hoonah, Annette Island, Warm Springs Bay, Yakutat, Klukwan, Sitka, Tyonek, Tititlek, and Chenaga.

Unlike other ECW programs created for American Indians, the Alaskan program displayed, at least nominally, a liberal and egalitarian approach.

These natives are not reservation Indians and do not draw subsistence rations or other supplies from public sources, but are dependent on their own labor. Their opportunities for employment in the highly seasonal Alaska industries have diminished alarmingly since the beginning of the Depression in 1929 due to competition from the large and increasing number of white workers from continental United States.⁹

However, on April 30, 1939, after 2 years of operation, the CCC decided to terminate projects involving Eskimo people. Program organizers recognized the impact that the CCC was having on the previously isolated cultural group. "Too much dependence on the white man's way was feared to be harmful to the Eskimos."¹⁰

Civilian Conservation Corps camps in Alaska were organized differently than camps elsewhere. Structurally and operationally, they were more similar to the Indian ECW. Enrollees were paid the same \$30 per month, but only half was sent to their families. Of the remaining \$15, \$7 was retained each month until the man's discharge.¹¹ Camps were small, ranging in size from 20 to 40 men per camp. Enrollees were not confined by age or marital restrictions, and the camps were generally situated closer to their homes.¹² In some cases, native enrollees lived at home and commuted to local work projects.¹³

Floating camps were used near the coastal national forest lands. Forestry personnel suggested this type of camp as a solution to wet winter conditions and project isolation. Small crews could get better housing in float camps while continuing to work on limited winter work projects such as building spur roads.¹⁴ Float camps were also called "Wannigans." They consisted of flat boats that could be towed from one work site to the next.¹⁵

Work Projects

Forest Service statistics indicate that most CCC work in Alaskan national forests focused on transportation improvements. Structural and recreation improvements were accomplished to a lesser degree and were proportionally much smaller in number than in other Forest Service regions.¹⁶

They built roads, trails, telephone lines, landing strips, recreation centers, parks, and buildings in Alaska. They also built a number of docks and small boat harbors. At Auke Bay, north of Juneau, they built a floating dock for the Forest Service. The CCC even operated a marine station at Ketchikan.¹⁷

Construction projects on the Chugach National Forest typify the overall CCC accomplishment in Region 10. A major project on that forest was the construction of the Cooper Landing Truck Trail. Originally a dogsled trail, the Cooper Landing area was first designated for improvement in February 1937. To convert the trail into a service road, Forest Ranger W.H. Sherman identified the most difficult obstacles: bridge construction, cutting through rough terrain, making and setting road culverts.¹⁸ What Sherman did not foresee were problems with inadequate equipment and undersized crews. Ice, floods, and glacier mud also slowed work.¹⁹ The

project took 2 years to complete using both CCC and civilian crews. Crews worked straight through the winter.²⁰

With the completion of the Cooper Landing Truck Trail came the end of several related construction projects, such as bridges on Mud Lake, Kenai River, Cooper Landing, Lost Creek, and Quartz Creek. The same CCC camp also built a warehouse at Kenai Lake Ranger Station in 1934 and a combination breakwater and floating dock on Kenai Lake in 1935-36. Enrollees logged the timber for pilings and framing as well as doing the construction. Recorded temperatures on the breakwater project were as low as -35 °F.²¹

Recreational improvements were made on both the Chugach and Tongass Forests. Picnic shelters, bridges, trails, and roads were constructed.²²

In the Tongass Forest, Alaskan natives were used on a unique architectural project. This was the restoration of Tlingit and Haida totem poles and village houses.

CCC men searched out the locations of old villages and recovered about 110 poles in all stages of decay and damage. Two old community houses were also found that could be duplicated. After the research of records and documents was completed, young CCC Indians working under their elders, carved new poles and totem screens.²³

On Prince of Wales Island, totem poles were removed from the long empty Haida village of Old Kasaan, restored, and replaced in New Kasaan (fig. 27). The Whale House of Chief Sonihat was reproduced in detail. Forest Service Architect Linn Forest carefully documented the history and mythology of the totem poles and buildings by collecting oral histories.²⁴

Civilian Conservation Corps enrollees in Alaska worked on several other forestry-related projects. Although not all projects were on national forest lands, most were on Government-owned land that was supervised by the Forest Service. Control of predatory animals, such as wolf trapping, was done in the Alaskan interior to help preserve reindeer herds. Native enrollees were used for herding and butchering the reindeer, and for gathering their brains to be exported as scent ingredients.²⁵ The Forest Service worked on predator control in cooperation with the Office of Indian Affairs and the USDA Biological Survey.²⁶

Work within the native village includes construction of landing fields, shelter cabins, some log and other igloos of the sod type used on north tundra, truck trails, dog trails for winter, and foot trails. Improvements are also being carried out on school grounds, and community wells and drainage ditches constructed for purposes of much needed sanitation.²⁷

The CCC made contributions to national defense in Alaska. Two CCC crews helped build the Annette Army Airfield and several other major landing fields.²⁸

Hawaii

The ECW program officially started in Hawaii on December 11, 1933.²⁹ By 1938, enrollment had grown to 900 men with 675 enrollees working in the Territorial Forestry Commission and 225 in the Hawaiian National Park.

Director Fechner and Conrad Wirth, assistant director of the National Park Service, visited Hawaii in 1938 to inspect the program. In a letter to President Roosevelt regarding his trip, Fechner described the outstanding features of the Hawaiian CCC. Work projects closely resembled forestry projects in the States and appeared to be popular with the island residents. Fechner was most impressed with the cosmopolitan character of the enrollees, citing a camp that included men of 23 different nationalities residing in one camp. Fechner also found an interesting relationship developing between the CCC camps and local plantations.

I was told . . . that our method of feeding enrollees, our provision for organizing recreation and our effort to help enrollees carry on their education had been of distinct interest to the plantation managers and had resulted in these features of plantation life being substantially improved.³⁰

Fechner noted that because of these associations, plantation conditions had improved, and more men were willing to return to work there.³¹

The Virgin Islands

Emergency Conservation Work reached the Virgin Islands on December 6, 1934, long after it had been established elsewhere. The program recruited 160 enrollees from the islands of St. Croix and St. Thomas. There were no national forest lands; nevertheless, forestry was the program's primary accomplishment, and the Virgin Islands forestry department supervised the camps and work projects. As with the territorial possessions, the U.S. War Department acted only in a fiscal capacity.

Among the CCC's achievements in the Virgin Islands were the development of freshwater springs, windbreaks, and the seeding and growing of mahogany and bay trees.³²

Puerto Rico

Authorization for an ECW program in Puerto Rico was given by President Roosevelt on May 5, 1933. The program was contingent upon Chief Forester R.Y. Stuart's work plan, which had been presented to and approved by Director Fechner 6 days earlier. Stuart's plan called for CCC work in the Caribbean National Forest and Insular Forests of Puerto Rico. An initial enrollment of 1,200 Puerto Ricans was to be supervised by the USDA Forest Service with William H. Barbour as forest supervisor. As in other areas outside the United States, the U.S. War Department was given a limited paymaster role in CCC management.

Camp organization in Puerto Rico was set up according to work projects. Large projects required a more permanent camp whereas smaller, seasonal projects were often located closer to enrollees' homes. Enrollees received \$1.00 per day for living at home and \$15.00 per month when living in camp.³³

All enrollees and camp foremen were enlisted from the Puerto Rican population, and none were limited by age or marital status. After the initial period, men could enroll for 2 years. Because of the high population density, enrollment competition was strong, and vacancies



Figure 27--Tlingit Indian CCC enrollees restoring totem poles in the Saxman Indian village workshop, Tongass National Forest, AK. (National Archives 35-TA-9)

were filled monthly. Eventually the Puerto Rican quota was raised to 2,400.³⁴ The average number of enrollees for all Puerto Rican CCC work was 2,100, distributed through 11 camps.³⁵

Work projects on the Caribbean National Forest included transportation and recreation improvements and reforestation. The first project was to build a road through the cliffs and jungle of Loquillo Mountains, opening that area for recreation development and use. Observation points, trails, picnic areas, and campgrounds were built for local tourist use.³⁶ Additional work was done building and expanding forest nurseries. Years of poor timber management and overcutting had left Puerto Rican forests without usable structural lumber. Through nursery improvement and reforestation, the CCC reestablished growth of important tree species such as cedar, mahogany, and satinwood.³⁷ Other construction projects in the Caribbean Forest included bridges, fish hatcheries, swimming pools, parking areas, overnight cottages, and airplane landing fields.³⁸

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Chapter 12 Civilian Conservation Corps Camp Features and Land Use Improvements

The physical design of facilities and the configuration of Civilian Conservation Corps camps varied more in degree of permanence than in regional identity. Three major types of camps are discernible: tent camps, rigid camps, and portable camps. Each had its own unique pattern according to location, available building material, terrain features, number of enrollees, and time of construction. In spite of variability, camps nevertheless were established and built within Army guidelines and specifications and thus took on a generally uniform appearance and style indicative of military influence.

Tent Camps

The first task performed by enrollees at a camp site was clearing an area for construction. Camp sites were chosen by the Army with the advice of a Forest Service or other technical services representative.¹ Tents were used as living quarters until it was possible to construct

more permanent buildings (fig. 28). In many places, such as warmer regions, tents were used for the camp's duration. If used for a long time, the canvas tents were improved with wooden floors, frames, or other features for greater comfort. Tents were often the property of the Army and were distributed through corps area headquarters. When dismantled, they were used in side camps or passed on to a new base camp.

Tent camps frequently combined more durable, wood-frame service buildings with tent barracks. The earliest documentation of CCC tent camps is found in the specifications and plans prepared by the Forest Service in April 1933. Plans include drawings for 25-, 50-, 100-, and 200-man camps (figs. 29, 30). These plans were based on climatic conditions in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New Jersey, yet the specifications afforded flexibility by permitting modifications based upon local conditions.

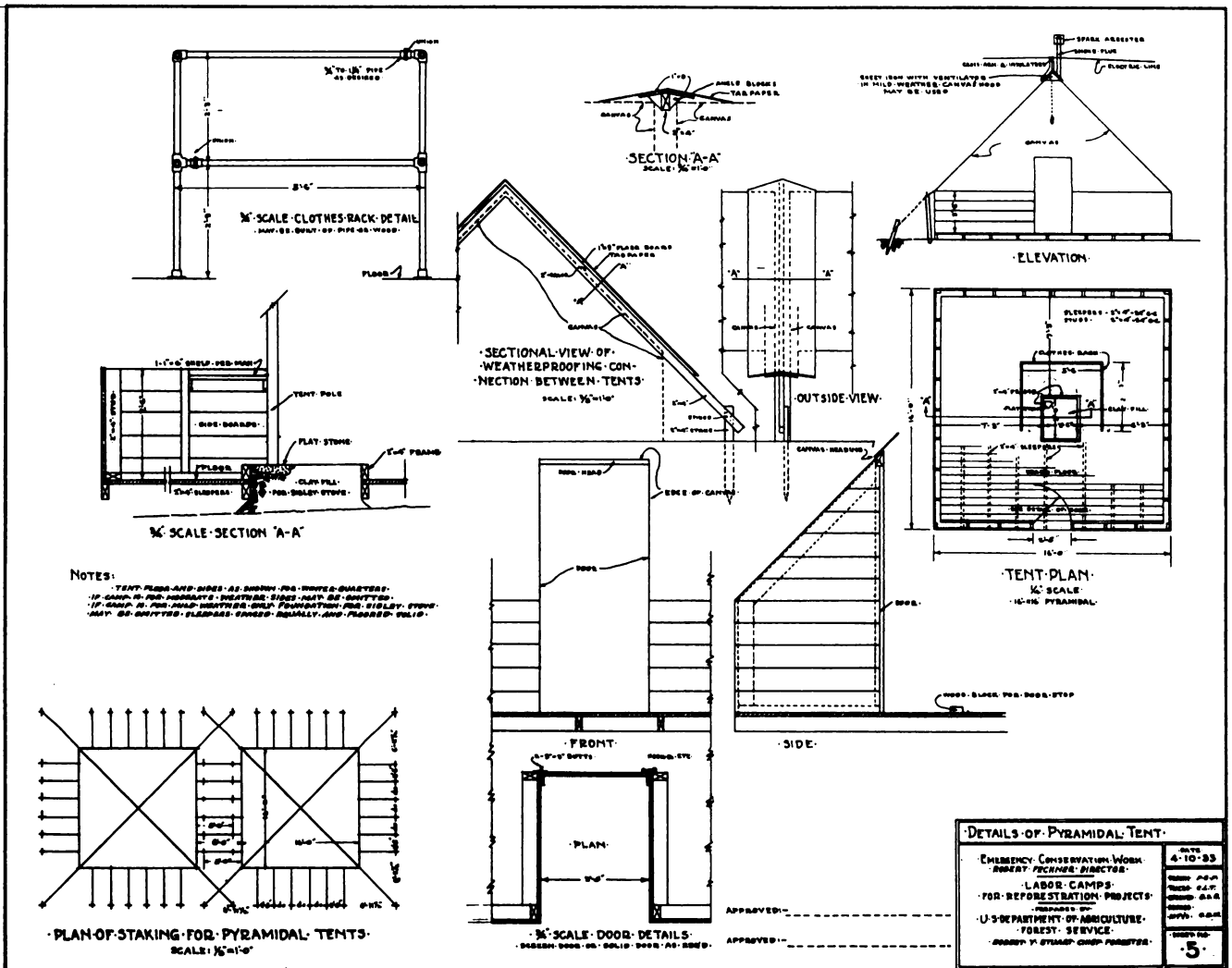


Figure 28--Details of CCC Pyramidal Tent, April 1933. (National Archives 95, series 94)

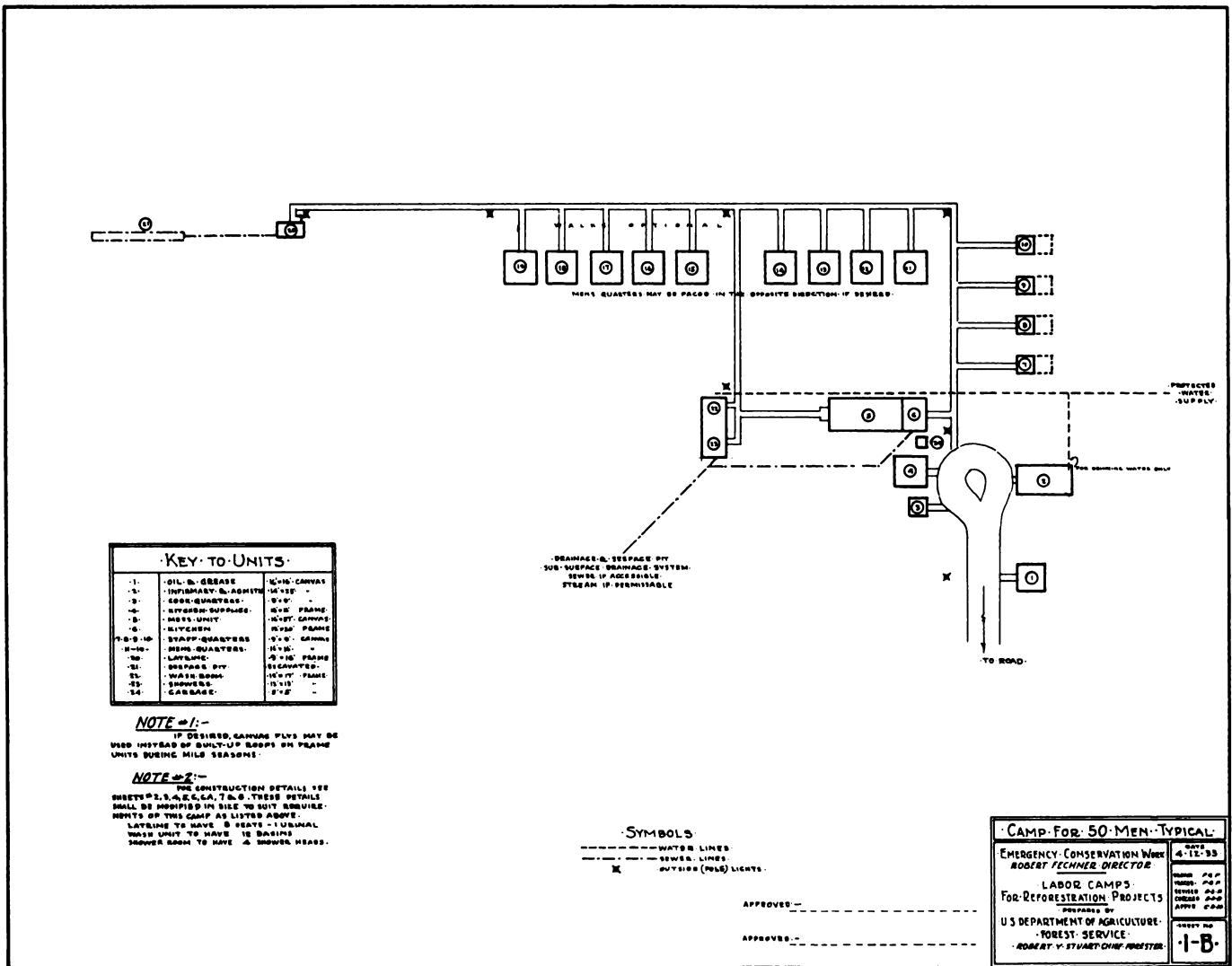


Figure 30--Typical CCC camp for 50 men. (National Archives 95, series 94)

- 14 feet (fig. 33). A subfloor, covered by sheet metal, was constructed beneath a slat floor that could be removed for cleaning.
4. **Kitchen and mess unit.** The kitchen is described as a 20- by 20-foot frame building. It was equipped with Army field ranges and wooden sinks covered with cast iron. The kitchen was flanked by 14- by 14-foot serving tents and 18- by 37-foot mess tents (figs. 34, 35).
5. **Administrative unit.** The administrative unit, like the hospital and infirmary, was set up in a 14- by 28-foot tent.
6. **Officers' quarters.** These were generally in a tent 8 feet 10 inches by 9 feet 2 inches.
7. **Garage.** The camp garage was a 22- by 50-foot frame building. It had an open front, closed ends and back, and a single-pitch roof.
8. **Shop.** The shop was a 20- by 30-foot frame building with a double-pitch roof.

9. **Women's toilet.** A separate women's toilet was placed in a 6- by 5-foot frame building. The seats were placed over removable GI cans instead of a dug pit.

All camp buildings were provided with screens for summer use.

A special type of tent camp was the 25-man mobile unit (fig. 36). These units were used in side camps for short-term projects. Mobile units were composed entirely of tents, including 12-man shelter tents, 3 staff tents, 1 cook tent, and a combination mess-kitchen tent. The optimum size for shelter tents was 14 feet 6 inches by 14 feet 4 inches. Specifications stated that all men should be supplied with an infantry pack, canteen, and messkit. For bathing, either separate washbasins or a nearby stream was used. Camps could eliminate the kitchen unit by having each man carry 5 days' rations and return to base camp on weekends.

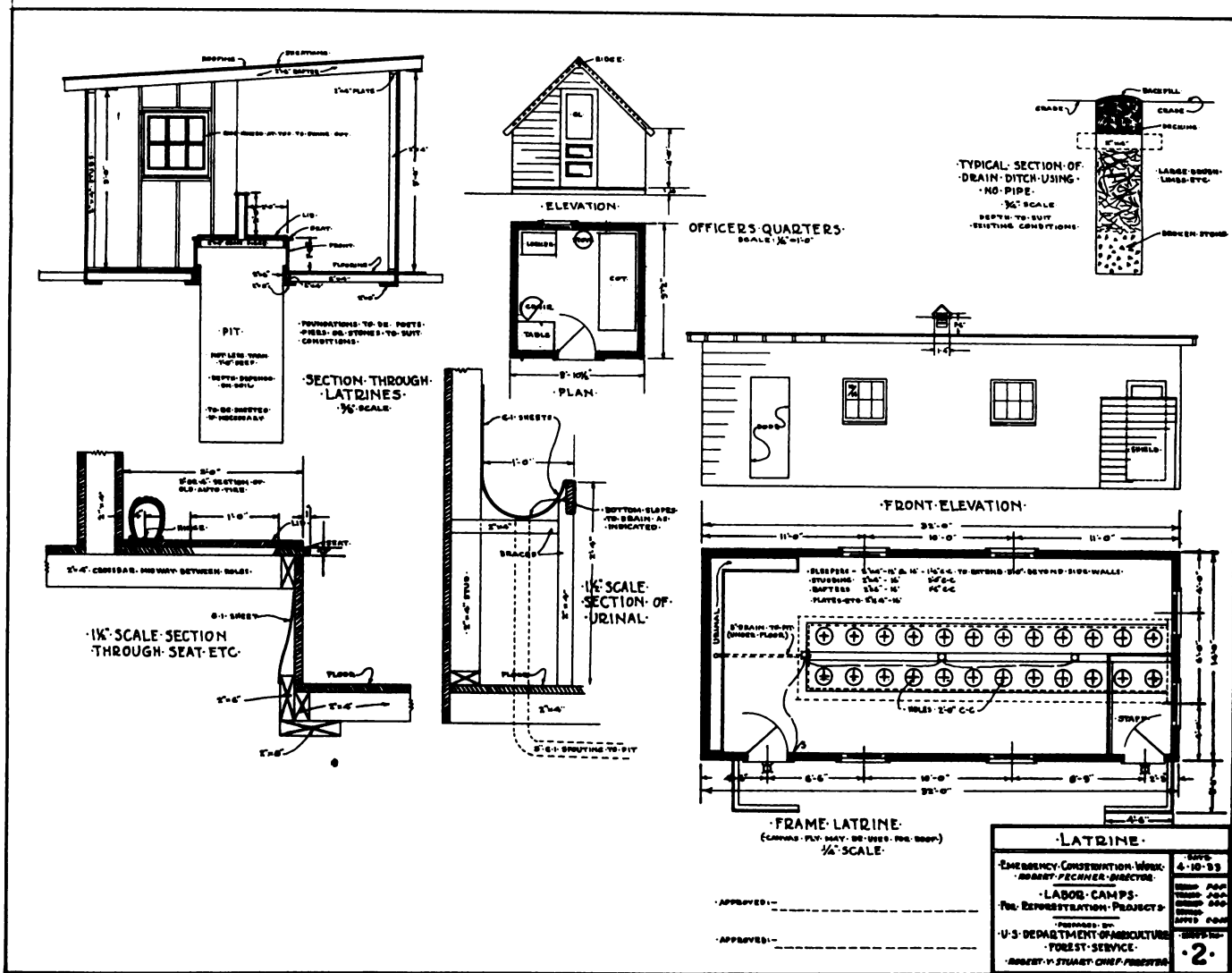


Figure 31—CCC latrine, April 1933. (National Archives 95, series 94)

Rigid Camp Construction

By November 1933, the Army's plans for CCC camps with lumber buildings had been accepted. A press release described the construction effort:

Forty thousand carpenters, working in 46 states and utilizing 300 million feet of lumber, are rushing to completion a record-breaking camp construction program for the Civilian Conservation Corps. On over 1,400 camp sites, a total of nearly 15,000 buildings are being constructed to take care of housing and recreation needs of the 300,000 men of the CCC for the winter and spring months.²

The article continues:

Not every camp of the CCC will have the full quota of winter buildings as in the case of some of the camps in the Southwest, where the men prefer to live in regulation tents. However,

these camps will have a recreation building and other permanent buildings.³

A typical CCC camp is described as having 11 buildings including 4 barracks, a mess hall, a recreation hall, an infirmary, officers' quarters, truck garages, latrine, and shower buildings. The recreation hall, not included in tent camps, was 20 by 140 feet and contained writing and reading rooms, a library, and a lecture hall. Cooking and heating stoves, fire extinguishers, and lighting plants were purchased for the permanent camps. All purchases were made locally through local competitive bidding so that "every section of the country is feeling the effect of this power of the CCC."⁴

Locally hired labor was preferred for camp construction. On February 5, 1934, a memorandum was issued by the ECW: "Enrollees of the Civilian Conservation Corps will not be used in the construction of buildings of a permanent or semi-permanent nature except temporarily in an emergency which does not permit obtaining other

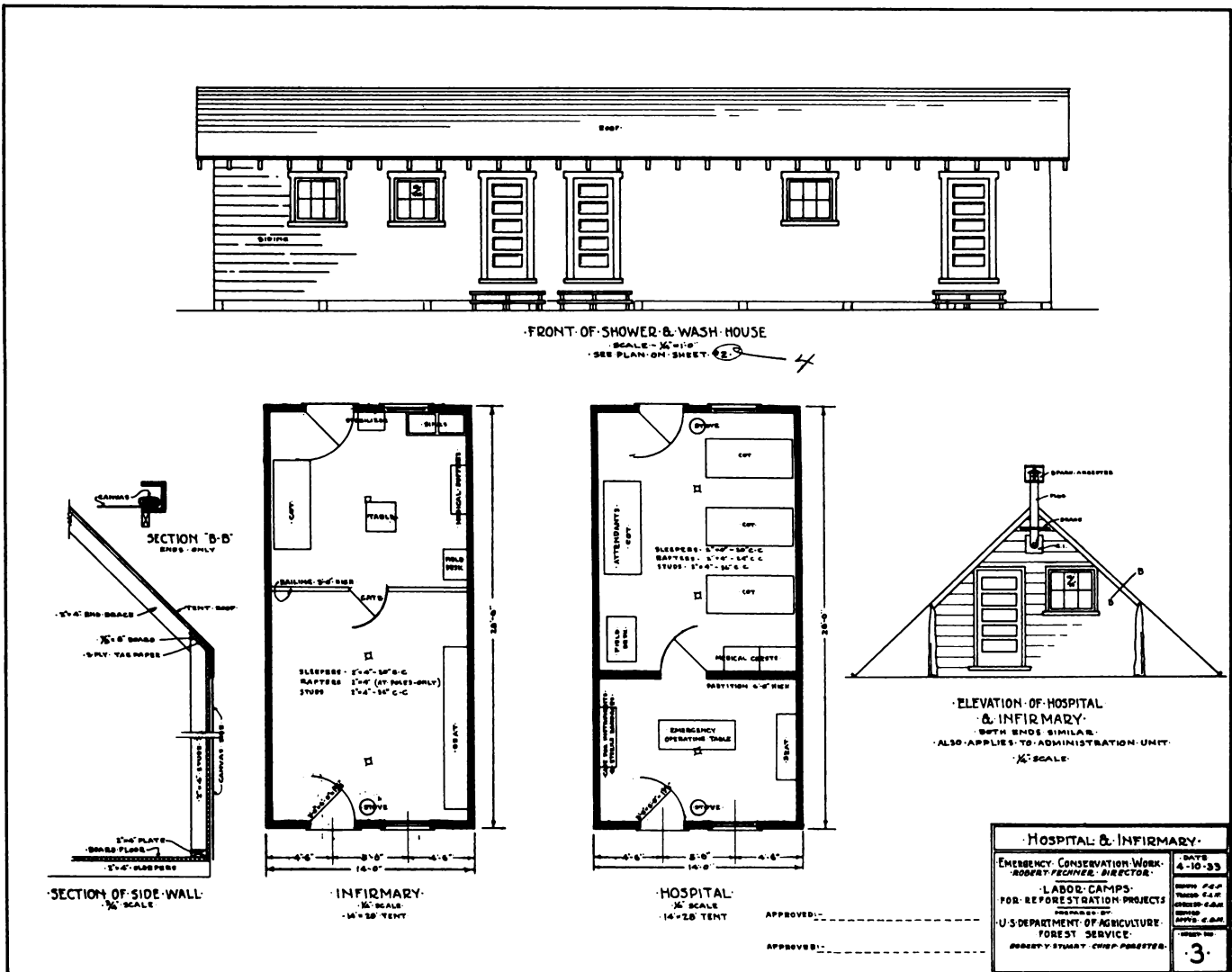


Figure 32--CCC hospital and infirmary, shower and wash house, 1933. (National Archives 95, series 94)

labor.⁵ Using local labor was viewed as necessary for good public relations, to ensure acceptance of CCC camps by nearby communities.

Portable Camps

During 1933-34, there was considerable discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of portable camp buildings. Alternative types of construction were suggested, such as the masonite house. In a letter to the President's Secretary, Acting Director James McEntee described this house. It had the advantage of portability, but was constructed with masonite and a steel frame. The major reason for using wood construction, he claimed, was to increase use of local labor and lumber mills. "Regarding the portable type of structure, it was decided that this type of construction was not suitable for the purpose intended."⁶ Nevertheless, the director sought an experiment.

Until late 1934, rigid or fixed-type buildings continued to be used to replace tents in CCC camps. In September 1934, ECW Director Fechner wrote a letter to Forest Service Chief Ferdinand A. Silcox, asking that portable buildings be experimented with as an alternative to rigid buildings. He reported seeing portable buildings used for juvenile offenders in California. The buildings were knockdown type, arranged in 6-foot sections. They were constructed with bolts so that they could be readily assembled or dismantled and moved to a new location. In concluding, Fechner wrote: "If this work (CCC) continues after next March I would strongly recommend that buildings of this type be substituted for the standard buildings that we have been erecting."⁷

A document entitled "Portable Camp Buildings" and compiled in 1943, chronologically outlines the history and development of the portable-type building:

The idea of portable-type buildings for CCC camps originated in IV Corps Area in 1933-34.

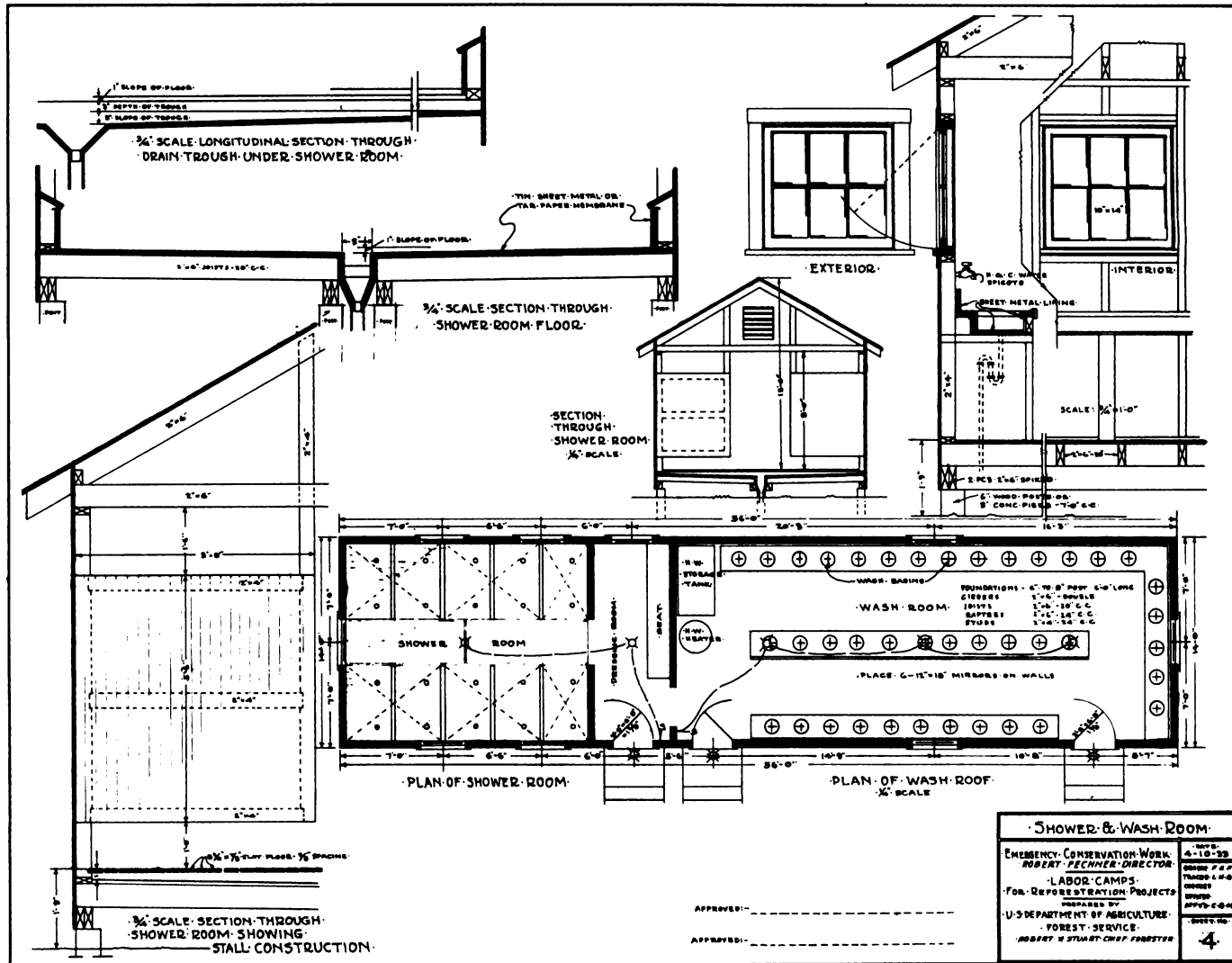


Figure 33—CCC shower and wash room. (National Archives 95, series 94)

That Corps (Captain Violante, Quartermaster) prepared the first plans and specifications and built the first portable CCC buildings in 1934. Arthur C. Ringland, Liaison Officer, IV Corps Area, and Major Sandlin, CCC Executive, also had a great deal to do with "selling the idea" of the portable type of CCC buildings to IV Corps Area, other corps areas, and to the director.⁸

H.O. Stabler, acting regional forester in the Southern Region, described portable buildings in the IV Corps Area as having a "more finished" appearance than the rigid-style buildings. He indicated that transportation by train for each camp was approximately \$5,000, not including two technical service buildings, 20 by 20 feet and 20 by 40 feet, valued at \$375. Other buildings in the portable camps and their size (in feet) and cost were listed as:

4	20 by 130	Barracks @ \$510	\$2,040.00
1	20 by 180	Mess hall	620.00
1	30 by 120	Welfare buildings	880.00

1	20 by 90	Forestry personnel living quarters	480.00
3	20 by 40	Army headquarters, warehouse, etc.	750.00
		@ \$250	
			\$4,770.00

Stabler estimated that it took 12 railroad cars to ship a complete camp and 100 truckloads for transportation from railroad to camp site.⁹

According to one source, instructions were issued to all corps areas on February 13, 1935, directing them, where practicable, to construct portable buildings in any new fifth-period camps.¹⁰ On April 24, however, a report was issued instructing corps areas to build half of the new camps in portable buildings and half in the fixed type. The report stated: "Record will be kept in such form as to permit comparison of the costs of the two types of camps." Corps area commanders were instructed to use their judgment as to which type of

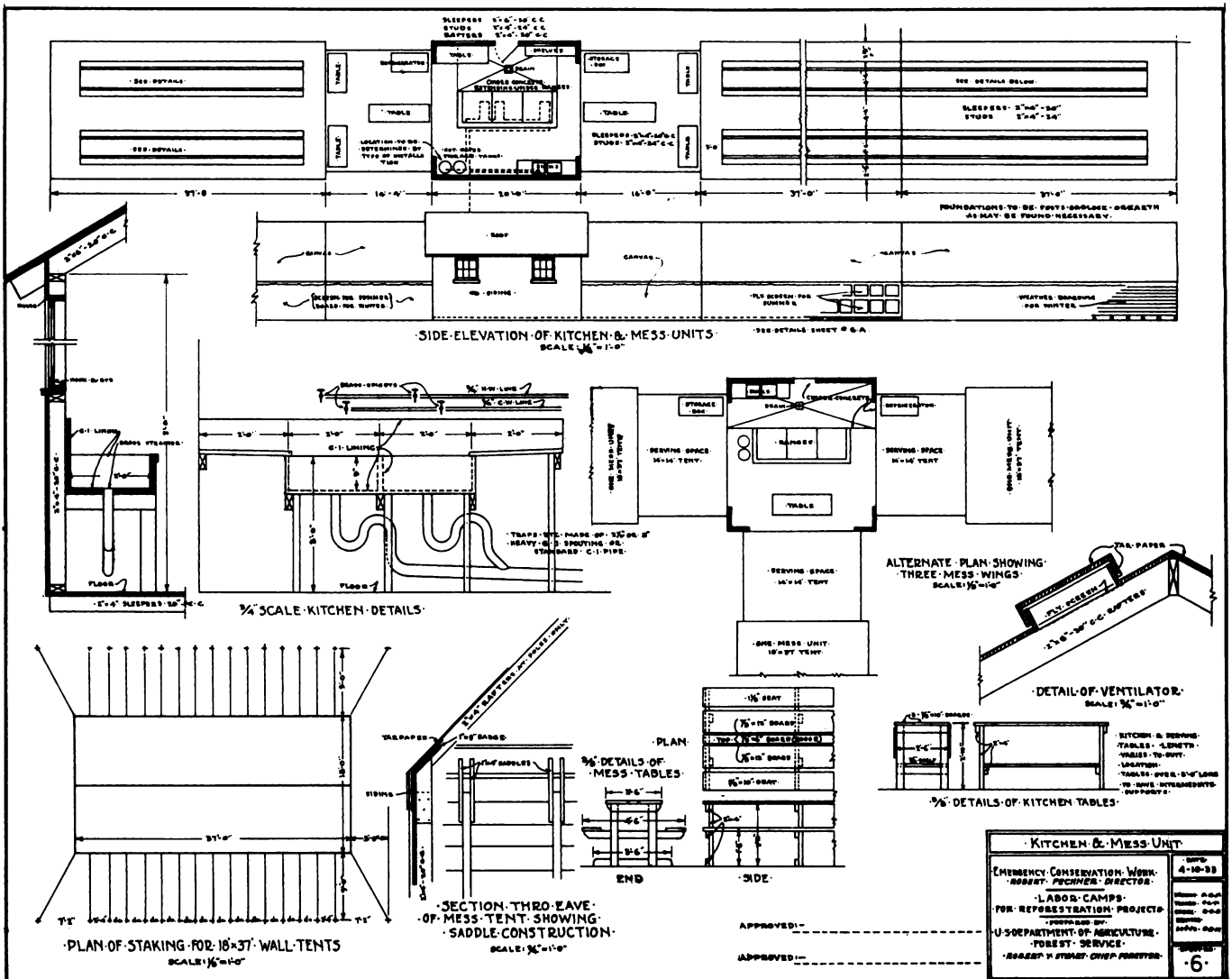


Figure 34--CCC kitchen and mess unit. (National Archives 95, series 94)

building was most efficient and economical. The report also permitted IV Corps Area to build more than half of its new camps in the portable type as it had the advantage of previous experimentation. Further reference was made to the quality of earlier construction:

I desire to call your attention to the fact that in the initial building of shelter for the enrollees of the Civilian Conservation Corps, 2 years ago, considerable faulty construction took place. Green material was used and such construction resulted in excessive upkeep and added cost.¹¹

To prevent repetition of the same problems, the report suggested more careful camp supervision and inspections.¹²

In October and November 1935, Colonel Duncan K. Major, the War Department's representative on the CCC Advisory Council, made an inspection of portable-building camps. Major reported divided opinions over the use of portable buildings, with corps area commanders generally

not favoring them. He explained that although portable buildings appeared less expensive than rigid ones, no one had yet made cost estimates on building, dismantling, transporting, and reerecting the portables. No conclusions could therefore be drawn on the matter.¹³

Colonel Major reported that portable camp plans were satisfactory except for a few details. He advised making corrections to the plans and added that further revisions might be necessary after buildings had experienced winter in the northern climates.¹⁴

A summary of CCC camp construction costs during the fifth period of May to December 1935 was issued on February 11, 1936. The statement supported the portable-type camps over the rigid type. The summary indicated that most corps area commanders still preferred the fixed or rigid buildings.

Shortly after the above report was issued, portable buildings were officially adopted as the CCC's standard building type. A directive dated July 26, 1937, stated

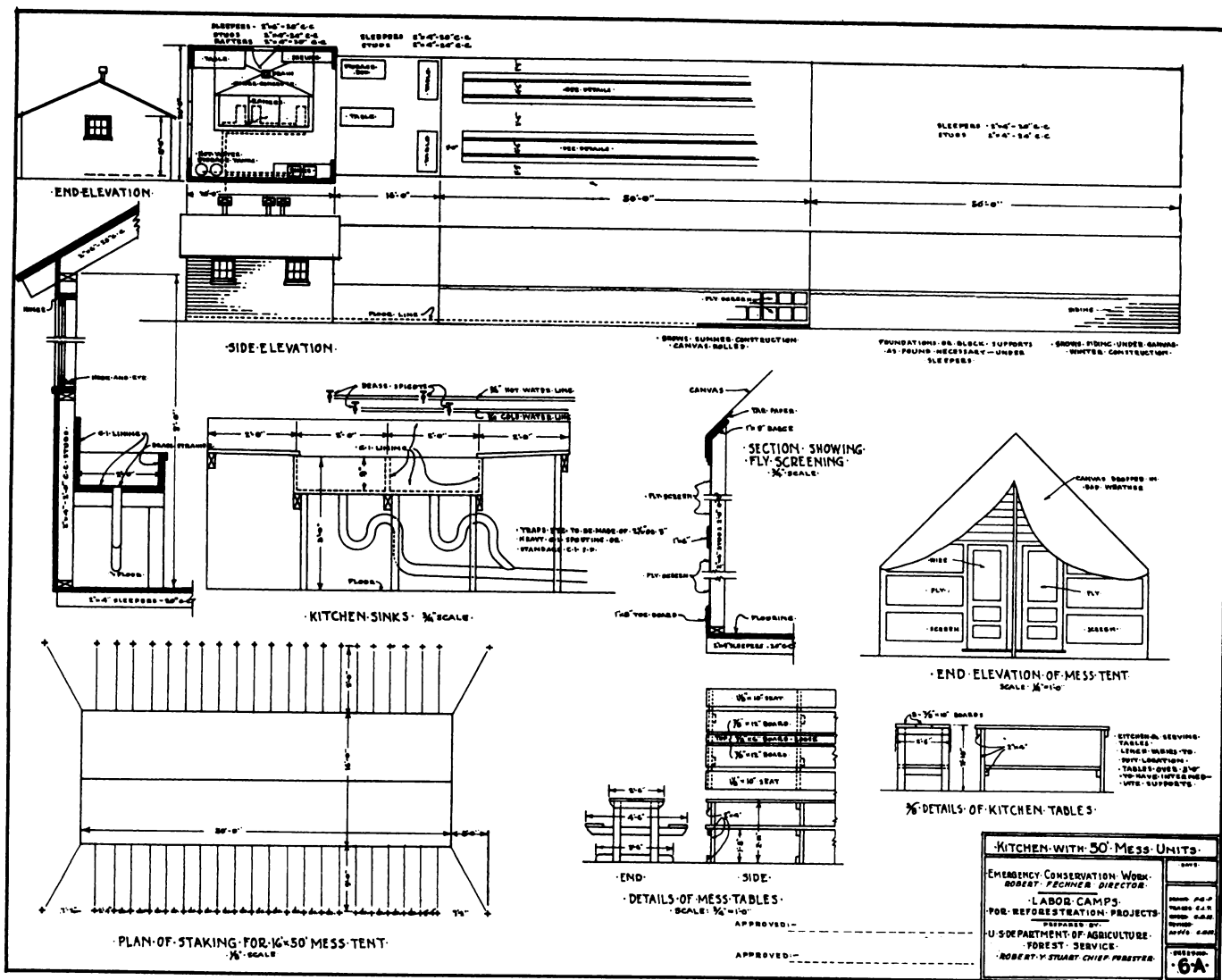


Figure 35—CCC kitchen with 50 mess units. (National Archives 95, series 94)

that portable buildings had been chosen to save on the cost of the program's greatest expense, i.e., shelter. "The greatest advantage in buildings of this type, from the standpoint of economy, is the high percentage of salvage possible and it is essential that this advantage be exploited to the maximum."¹⁶

The directive consisted of a cost analysis for the erection of portable buildings and a discussion of the division of labor. Though civilian labor was used in camp construction, CCC Director Robert Fechner authorized the use of enrollees for some tasks, such as: (1) clearing and preparation of camp sites, digging latrines and drainage ditches, excavating, and grading; (2) loading and unloading, and handling portable buildings and construction materials; (3) assisting, under competent supervision, in the erecting or dismantling operations. The report figured the costs for moving and reerecting a portable-type camp to be about \$8,026.20 without the cost of transportation and drayage which, when added, brought the total to \$11,593.13.¹⁷

Strict limitations were continually maintained on the types of work enrollees were allowed to do in camp construction. A 1938 supplement to the CCC Procedural Manual stated that:

... enrollees should not be used in building construction except where such projects are of a simple nature. They should not ordinarily be used on jobs which normally require services of a member of the building trade. Construction should not be undertaken unless it is certain that no criticism by local organizations and other community groups will result.¹⁸

Included in the 1937 directive were instructions for erecting portable camp buildings. The instructions emphasized the importance of having all preparations made before the arrival of materials.¹⁹ The work force was divided into separate crews to work on foundations, floors, walls, roofs, and cleanup. Each crew was to finish working on one building before proceeding to the next. Long bolts were used to hold many of the building

were in many cases elaborately furnished with hand-made bookshelves and furniture. Barracks, on the other hand, tended to be more stark.

A supplement to the "CCC Procedural Manual" in 1939 gave an expanded list of 23 buildings. Not all of the buildings were required by every camp, and camp commanders were allowed to make some decisions regarding size and type of buildings and which plans and specifications were to be ordered from the Chicago Quartermaster Depot. The War Department was responsible for the maintenance of all buildings in the camp area, whether constructed by the Army or Technical Services.²⁴

In some respects, appreciation for the portable building grew as the CCC continued its operation:

The practicability of the portable-type CCC camp buildings was thoroughly appreciated after December 7, 1941, when an increasing number of CCC companies began to work on military reservations, and appreciated even more, when with the liquidation of the Corps on June 30, 1942, the War Department (Engineers) were able to make use of a very large number of portable CCC camps by moving them to more convenient sites.²⁵

Camp Disposition

A "Camp Disposition Completion Report" was filed for each camp when it was closed. Most often a camp's buildings were transferred to USDA Forest Service custody if the Service had a use for them. Federal agencies were given top priority for obtaining the buildings. Occasionally a local group asked for a building to use as a community center or camp. In general only a few of the camp's buildings were desired, and the remaining buildings were either moved or salvaged.²⁶

Very few CCC camp buildings are left standing. From the beginning, they were not meant to be permanent structures; portable buildings were chosen to enable the Army to reuse materials as often as possible.²⁷ Remaining camp buildings are most often in use today by the Forest Service or are serving as community buildings. The Birch Creek Camp in the Beaverhead National Forest in Montana and Camp Rabideau in the Chippewa National Forest in Minnesota are two exceptions. Both extant CCC camps have been placed on the National Register of Historic Places.

Because CCC camp buildings were built according to Army standards, they bear no semblance of regional style. Their stark design, however, does contribute to their significance as an important building type of the Depression era.

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Chapter 13

George Washington National Forest

Today the George Washington National Forest includes more than 1 million acres in northwestern Virginia and a small part of eastern West Virginia. The George Washington has six ranger districts: Deerfield, Lee, Dry River, Pedlar, James River, and Warm Springs. The forest is divided into three noncontiguous sections, following the north-south direction of the Appalachian Mountain system.

The history of the George Washington National Forest begins in 1914 when five forest areas were acquired for national forest lands under the Weeks Law. These areas were the Massanutten, Natural Bridge, Potomac, Shenandoah, and White Top; they accounted for approximately 260,000 acres of Virginia lands. By 1918, the forest lands had been consolidated and were called the Shenandoah and Natural Bridge National Forests, with headquarters in Harrisonburg and Buena Vista, respectively.¹

Over the next 15 years new national forest lands were added under the Weeks Law, including portions of the Monongahela and Unaka National Forests, administered in West Virginia and Tennessee. In 1932, the name of the Shenandoah National Forest was changed to George Washington. When the CCC began operating the next year, the George Washington National Forest had a gross acreage of 649,500, having just absorbed the Natural Bridge Forest. This included 272,684 acres of private lands, 6,641 acres of which had been approved for purchase under the Weeks Law (fig. 37).²

On April 17, 1933, the first CCC camp in the country opened on the George Washington National Forest. This

was Camp F-1, Camp Roosevelt, situated 9 miles east of Edinburg, VA. During the first enrollment period, nine more camps opened on the forest and continued operating through the winter. These were Camps F-2, Mt. Solon; F-3, West Augusta; F-4, Fulks Run; F-8, Sherando; F-9, Vesuvius; F-10, Snowden; F-11, Goshen; F-13, Natural Bridge; and F-15, Wolf Gap. In August 1935, Camps F-16, Woodson, and F-18, Oronoco, began operation. In April 1938, F-25, Bath-Alum, opened with enrollees from the Woodson Camp. A 14th camp, F-24, Allegheny, also operated briefly in the George Washington Forest.

Located close to large urban populations, the George Washington's historic and environmental qualities have made it a popular visiting place. The CCC spent much time developing recreation areas that have allowed visitors to take advantage of the forest without disturbing other resource areas.

Civilian Conservation Corps enrollees on the George Washington also contributed to the development of the forest through forest improvement work to establish better tree growth. Constructing more accessible routes and communication to isolated areas assisted with this work and with forest fire protection. Few administration buildings were built, as the ranger districts were centered in nearby towns. Nearly all CCC-built structures on the George Washington are recreational. A few buildings left from the camps are still in use by the Forest Service as utility or storage buildings.

Recollections of James R. Wilkins

James R. Wilkins, a longtime resident of Winchester, VA, worked for the USDA Forest Service in 1932 (fig. 38). He began as a foreman in a Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC) program, primarily doing road surveys. When the CCC was started, Wilkins began helping the Forest Service prepare for the camps. Later he became a camp superintendent, his two main camps being Camp Wolf Gap and Camp Roosevelt. He was 23 years old when he began supervising camps, younger than many of the enrollees.³

Wilkins noted that hiring local men to act as subforemen occurred at the request of the project superintendents. Locally enrolled or "experienced" men (LEM's) did not enlist in the same way as the enrollees; they were recruited personally by men like Wilkins. According to Wilkins, "We'd just pick out men who had skills that we wanted, timber skills or mountain skills, wouldn't get lost, and knew how to do timber cruising and everything of that sort." Sixteen LEM's were assigned to each camp; many were used as foremen in the side camps.

Side camps in the George Washington consisted of 20 to 40 men working in an isolated area. Timber cruising and surveys were their usual projects. In the summer, enrollees would live in tents, and in winter, "shanty" barracks were constructed. If buildings already existed at the site, they were put to use. An old lumber camp at Delbert's Hole, WV, became one side camp.

Wilkins remembers the main camps started as tent camps, but gradually old Army plans were used to build barracks. Modifications for CCC use occurred over time. Local labor and materials were used almost exclusively, although enrollee labor supplemented when necessary. From 250 to 300 men could be housed in a camp. Side

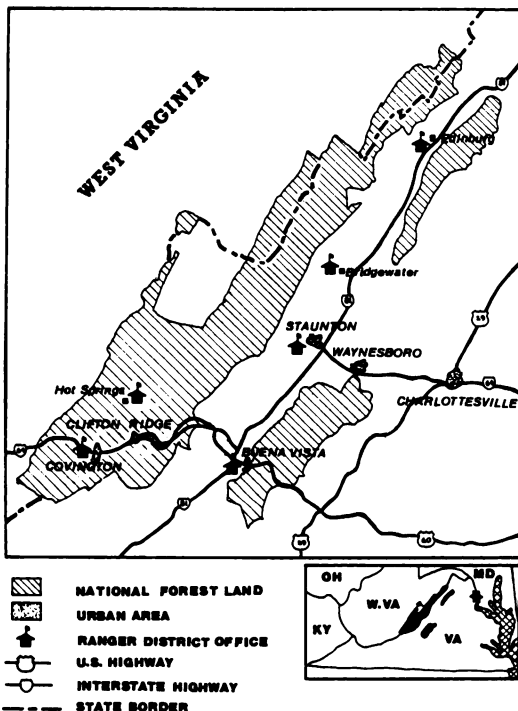


Figure 37—George Washington National Forest, VA and WV. (Courtesy of Forest Supervisor's Office, George Washington National Forest, Harrisonburg, VA)



Figure 38--James R. Wilkins, Winchester, VA.
(Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

camps would absorb some of the men. Numbers fluctuated as men entered and left the CCC.

Enrollees came from the coal regions of Pennsylvania and the big Eastern cities such as Washington, DC, Norfolk, and Richmond. About one-third were Appalachian "mountain people," and the other two-thirds were from cities. Wilkins observed that frequently the mountain boys were illiterate and would be embarrassed to go to night classes with the city boys who were better educated. On the other hand, the city boys had never worked and many only knew the block where they had lived. According to Wilkins, nearly all the camp personnel were involved in the education program and taught either vocational or academic subjects. Camp response to the program was positive.

Punishments for rule infractions varied in the camps. If a transgressing enrollee didn't change his behavior after an initial informal talk with the superintendent, he might be put into the "8-ball gang," the dirtiest work in camp, such as digging ditches or latrines. KP duty was considered equally undesirable. In serious cases, an unofficial "summary court martial" might be called. Fines came out of the man's pay, but not from the money designated to be sent home. Confinement to the barracks or camp was also used as a discipline measure.

There was recreation at the camps. Saturday night entertainment might be a religious group, mountain or country music groups, or some other activity in the recreation hall. The camps usually had a basic library, a place to write, and a radio. Most interactions between camps were athletic competitions, but once or twice annually contests might be held in activities such as woodchopping or truck driving.

Wilkins recalled firefighting as a major task for the CCC camps and one of the rare times when blacks and whites were integrated. Being "fire boss" was one of his toughest jobs. One fire burned between 1,500 and 1,600

acres before it was controlled. Other work projects undertaken by the CCC in his areas were construction of the Fort Valley Road, the Edinburg to Luray road, many small service roads, bridges, telephone lines, lookouts, and the Elizabeth Furnace Camp, and timber surveying and cruising.

Wilkins suggested that one benefit to local people of the CCC's roadbuilding projects was the opening up of isolated mountain areas: "Once we built roads, they started going to high school, and in a few years you couldn't tell the mountain people from the valley people. Before you could pick 'em out of the crowd like a sore thumb." At the same time, he says, the Federal government began buying the back lands, and Appalachian people moved into the valleys.

The Forest Service educated the mountain people about fire prevention by having CCC enrollees drive movie trucks around and show films in schools and churches. Many of the people had never seen movies before. In Wilkins' mind, it was a successful project.

Wilkins considers the CCC a highly worthwhile program: "The government got more for their money on the CCC program than on any program they ever had before or since." In his later experiences as an Air Force commander, he found that "most of my keymen were former CCC men," because "they'd had some training, they had discipline, plus they had been trained to operate bulldozers, jackhammers, to use dynamite; they'd been taught to do things and they knew what to do." Wilkins further noted that most of the men who stayed 12 months or longer in the CCC learned how to adapt to many situations and therefore tended to have been successful later in life. "So it wasn't only a case of getting a lot of work done. It was a case of saving the young population that had become drifters, getting them back into some kind of productive work and some self-respect for themselves."

Camp Roosevelt, F-1

On April 17, 1933, eight buses and three moving vans left Fort Washington, MD, to establish the first CCC camp in Virginia's Massanutten Mountains (fig. 39). Located on Mt. Kennedy, 9 miles southeast of Edinburg, the 13-acre camp opened under the command of Captain Leo Donovan of the infantry reserve. Second in command, and construction officer, was Second Lieutenant William F. Train.⁴

Train shared his memories of his first few days at Camp Roosevelt at the dedication of the camp's recreation area in 1965:

First we had trouble finding the place. . . . Then the second day it turned into a sea of mud. We had been ordered to build the camp in a week, and we made considerable progress despite the weather because we were told that President Roosevelt was going to make a personal inspection. He never showed up, but we named it Camp Roosevelt anyway.⁵

The President did get there later that summer.

At first the enrollees lived in eight-man tents. It was several months before permanent buildings were constructed. Lieutenant Train designed the camp buildings and layout. Using CCC labor and locally hired carpenters, he directed the camp's construction.⁶ Floors for

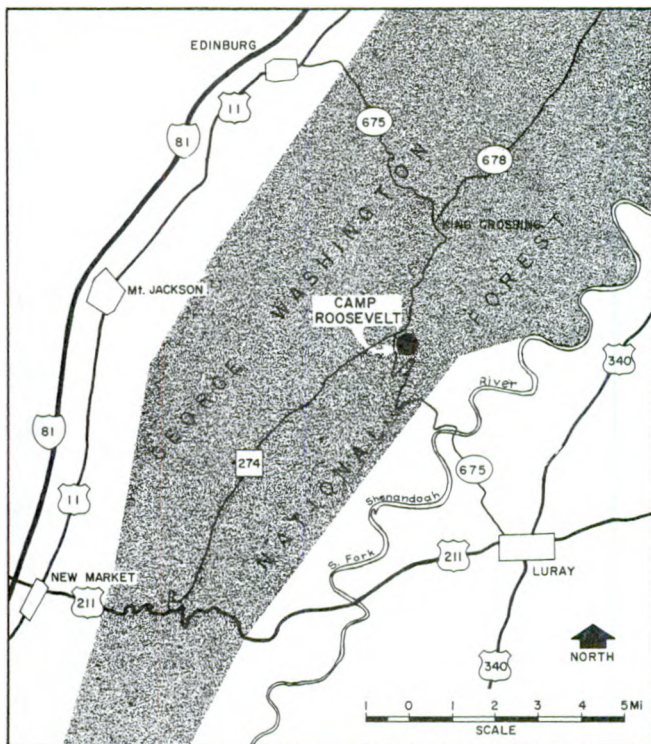


Figure 39--Camp Roosevelt, F-1, VA. (Courtesy of Supervisor's Office, George Washington National Forest, Harrisonburg, VA)

the tents, a mess hall and kitchen, a headquarters building, recreation room, tool house, and a hospital tent were set up. A swimming pool was made by constructing a dam across Passage Creek. The frame recreation building was equipped with a piano, chess games, checkers, and library. Kerosene lamps provided the camp's first lighting.⁷

Photographs taken when Camp Roosevelt was first established show the original tents and cleared grounds (figs. 40-43). Later documents indicate rigid construction (portable buildings had not yet been introduced) and carefully landscaped grounds. The buildings were battened, covered with tar paper, and had stone foundations and chimneys. Windows were six-over-six, double-hung sash windows. A stone drinking fountain was located in the camp's center along with the flagpole. Gravel walks were bordered with small rocks and trees, and plantings were spaced here and there, retaining some of the natural setting. Twenty-seven buildings were eventually built and occupied at the camp.

On May 1, 1933, 125 enrollees left camp to work on forestry projects in the George Washington National Forest.⁸ Twenty days later the chairman of Virginia's Commission of Conservation and Development, William Carson, wrote to President Roosevelt that the Nation's first CCC enrollees had been transformed from a "slovenly bunch" to a "fine, healthy-looking lot of young fellows."⁹

At the end of February 1935, Camp Roosevelt's commander, in charge of Company 322, was Captain P.O. Tucker. The camp was reportedly "under good

management and control." There were 180 enrollees in camp from Virginia and Washington, DC. One hundred and fifty worked on forest projects and 28 were detailed to camp for fire guard and wood details. Sixteen local, experienced men assisted Project Supervisor L.V. Kline in supervising work crews. Initial projects were road and concrete bridge construction and roadside improvement cutting.¹⁰

Camp buildings were reported in good condition in 1935. Water was secured from a driven well. Latrines were of the pit type. Waste water from the kitchen and showers was filtered and drained into a nearby stream. Food supplies were obtained locally and through the quartermaster at Fort Meade.¹¹

In August 1936, Company 322 was commanded by Captain Joseph W. Koch. James R. Wilkins replaced Kline as project supervisor. The company retained 150 enrollees. Camp conditions and company morale were said to be good.¹²

One hundred and sixteen enrollees from Pennsylvania and Virginia were living at Camp Roosevelt in December 1937. First Lieutenant Robert C. Mali was the new commander. Under Wilkins' supervision, projects included truck trail construction and surfacing, campground improvements, roadside seeding and planting, tree planting, fish stocking, and fire hazard reduction.¹³

Except for the 10-seat pit latrine, which was considered inadequate for the company's anticipated strength of 200 men, Inspector Patrick King reported the camp to be in exceptionally good condition, including human relations.¹⁴

In June 1938, Camp Roosevelt was under the command of Second Lieutenant John G. Plunkett and Superintendent Wilkins. One hundred and forty-nine enrollees belonged to Company 322, and work projects remained essentially the same. Authorization for construction of a new educational building had been made, but the project had not yet started. Bad weather and minor accidents had kept enrollees from working during the week and forced them to put in extra time on Saturdays.¹⁵

A January 1939 inspection report stated "commercial light" (electricity) had been brought to Camp Roosevelt. Numerous improvements had been made at the camp. Barracks had been painted, roofs retarred, floors replaced, plywood placed on walls, and wall lockers installed. The educational building was completed, and infirmary improvements included a shower and isolation ward. Recommended improvements called for a new scullery floor, supply storage building, truck garages, a new septic tank latrine, and recreation hall.¹⁶ Recent closure of a 4-year-old side camp had resulted in an influx of enrollees into the camp. Prior to that time an extra barracks had been used as a makeshift recreation hall. Outside recreational opportunities included baseball, badminton, tennis, and swimming.¹⁷

Camp Roosevelt was constantly occupied until it closed in 1942 (fig. 44). Building alterations went on constantly during these years. By 1940, three truck sheds had been completed (fig. 45). In 1941, additions to the garage and oil house were made.¹⁸

On November 16, 1939, a recent deserter from Camp Roosevelt wrote to CCC Director Robert Fechner regarding his reasons for leaving the camp. According to his letter, 15 men had left the camp in 1 month. Reasons cited for the desertions focused on unsanitary



Figure 40--First men to arrive at Camp Roosevelt, George Washington National Forest. (National Archives, Pictorial Record of Establishment of Camp Roosevelt)

conditions and poor quality food. Petty thievery and unnecessary fines imposed on enrollees were also mentioned.¹⁹

Although no immediate investigation into the problems appears to have been made, an inspection in October 1940 noted bad conditions in the mess hall and kitchen. It also indicated that 84 men had deserted camp in a year, and another 18 had been dishonorably discharged for other reasons. Fully 2,574 man-days were lost over a 3-month period due to sickness; 1,390 to special details; 902 to detached service; and 282 to bad weather.²⁰

Among Camp Roosevelt's major construction projects were the Fort Valley Road, an 11-mile road "constructed primarily as an intercommunity, protection and utilization road," and the Crisman Hollow Road.²¹ Additional work involved the experimental underplanting of 55 acres of white and shortleaf pines to discourage undesirable growth; thinnings of oak trees were made into fuelwood. Roadside stabilization projects using cotton netting, stream gauging of water runoff, and experimental wildlife feeding projects were also undertaken. Deer, turkey, and grouse were some of the animals benefiting from the latter program.²² Recreation areas built or developed by Camp Roosevelt were Little Fort Picnic Area, New Market Gap, Elizabeth Furnace, Woodstock Tower, and Powell's Fort Organization Camp. There is some indication that the Woodstock Tower project was finished by a different camp, but which one is undetermined.²³ Camp Roosevelt also constructed the Edinburg Equipment Depot.²⁴

Charles Mullens' Recollections of Camp Roosevelt

Charles Mullens was living in Alberene, VA, when he joined the CCC in 1934.²⁵ He signed up at the welfare office in Charlottesville and from there went to Fort Monroe for shots and other camp preparations. From Fort Monroe he was sent to Camp Roosevelt by train to Edinburg and on an army truck to the camp.

You felt kind of lonesome when you got over there in the mountains, but it so happened I knew three boys there who were from my home community. It took awhile to get accustomed and used to it, but the longer you stayed the better you liked it.

Mullens stayed for 6 years, first as an enrollee and later as an LEM.

When Mullens reached Camp Roosevelt, the five barracks were already built. The camp could hold 250 men at full capacity, but the number fluctuated as men came and went. A typical day started with breakfast around 6:00 or 6:30. Barracks leaders would get their men ready and march them to the mess halls. The men carried their mess kits with them and were served on a first-come, first-served basis. After breakfast they washed their kits in a tank of hot water and went back to their barracks to straighten things up and prepare for work. During the day, Mullens was a truck foreman. He recalled:

They would send you across the road to the Forest Service and they would issue the tools



Figure 41--CCC men raking the ground where tents are to go up, Camp Roosevelt, George Washington National Forest. (National Archives, Pictorial Record of Establishment of Camp Roosevelt)

for you to take, and tell you what truck to get on, what crew to go on. . . . There'd be a telephone crew, road crew that you'd slope the banks. . . . On road crew you had a mound of shale we'd beat up to make the roads . . . go to the quarries, get the shale out, and some of the men would have to . . . blast the rock . . . and you shovel it on a truck, and they'd take you to spray it on the road.²⁷

Hot meals were trucked to enrollees working outside the camp. Meals were all prepared by enrollee cooks. At the end of the workday, the men would march to supper, stopping on the way for flag salute and mail call. After dinner there was a choice of recreational and educational activities. Two or three nights a week trucks would take enrollees to town.

Mullens remembers that work projects undertaken by Camp Roosevelt included firefighting, recreation area development, and construction of the Woodstock Tower. Mullens recalls the camp's participation in bringing deer back into the Shenandoah Valley. Deer were hauled in trucks from Pennsylvania and let loose in the Virginia mountains.²⁸

Mullens felt the communities nearby were glad to have the camp there, mostly because of the economic benefits it brought. Community relations were improved further through competitive athletics between the towns and Camp Roosevelt. Many enrollees also participated in local church activities. It was through the Edinburg church that Mullens met his future wife. Most of the camp's supplies were obtained locally, and local labor brought in to do any major building work.

Mullens feels that being in the CCC taught him discipline, a quality he needed later in the army. It also taught him skills, such as using a saw and cutting wood, and how to get along with different kinds of people. Some time after Camp Roosevelt closed, the buildings were torn down and sold publicly. The water tanks and pump were cleaned up and used when the new recreation area was built over the old camp site.

Mullens married and settled in Edinburg, as did many other enrollees from Camp Roosevelt. He was instrumental in getting the Camp Roosevelt Recreation Area built and annually organizes an alumni reunion there.

Surviving Structures

The following accomplishments of Camp Roosevelt are still in use by the general public.

Woodstock Tower--The Woodstock Tower is a steel observation tower overlooking the Shenandoah Valley from Powell Mountain, east of Woodstock, VA (fig. 46). Construction of the tower was for recreational rather than fire protection purposes and was done as a "cooperative venture between the citizens of Woodstock and the CCC."²⁹

Entrance to the Woodstock Observation Tower is by a 1/4-mile walk up stone steps laid by the CCC. The tower has a wooden roof and stairs.³⁰

New Market Gap Campground--The New Market Gap Campground was the smaller of two campgrounds built by enrollees from Camp Roosevelt.³¹ It is located south of the camp and west of the town of New Market in Lee Ranger District. The campground has one 20- by 20-foot picnic shelter, campsites, toilets, bumper logs, fire pits, and a registration booth. The original landscape plan called for chestnut oak, red maple, flowering dogwood, and a variety of shrubs. Many are still in evidence. The campground was completed in 1937.

The picnic shelter at New Market Gap (fig. 47) is constructed of peeled logs, 12 inches in diameter. Logs with a 6-inch diameter were used for corner bracing at each of the four corners and are belted to the posts and plate with 10-inch and 12-inch belts. The roof is hipped and supported by eight peeled-log posts.

Elizabeth Furnace Campground--The Elizabeth Furnace Campground is located southeast of Strasburg, VA, on the Lee Road. It is the larger of the two campgrounds built by Camp F-1.³² This campground was named after the iron ore furnaces built there in the early 1800's. Remains of these furnaces are still found scattered throughout the area (fig. 48). Rather than dismantle the unused furnaces, CCC builders recognized their historic value and named recreation sites after them. Like the New Market Gap Campground, the Elizabeth Furnace Campground was completed in 1937.



Figure 42--View of men in their tent, Camp Roosevelt, George Washington National Forest. (National Archives, Pictorial Record of Establishment of Camp Roosevelt)

Elizabeth Furnace is similar in plan to New Market Gap, with two picnic shelters, campsites, a caretaker's residence, and larger grounds. A landscape plan was also developed here and included an even greater variety of trees and shrubs. According to a 1940 report of F-1's work projects, the Elizabeth Furnace area was partially developed prior to 1933 and used extensively by the public. The CCC "redesigned and reconstructed" the recreation area to accommodate greater use with less environmental impact.³³

In preparing the grounds, CCC enrollees in 1936 dismantled one historical building at the site. Prior to removing the building, enrollees made sketches and took photographs, an unusual and early instance of recording and documenting a historic building. Many of the interior details were numbered for later restoration purposes. Samples of clapboard, shingles, hinges, door latches, and handwrought nails were saved from the building.

Powell's Fort Organization Camp--Powell's Fort Organization Camp is located in Little Fort Valley south of Strasburg, VA (fig. 49). This large organization camp includes two meadows, a baseball field, swimming pool, outdoor theater, bow and arrow field, and numerous

buildings including kitchen, mess hall, barracks, toilets, shower, counselors' cabins, concession stand, and picnic shelter.³⁴ The camp was built as a recreation area for the underprivileged and originally was equipped to accommodate 96 campers and 16 staff members.³⁵

In 1937, the wavy-edge siding known as waney-edge was required for all buildings in the George Washington National Forest. A memo from the supervisor's office stated:

Another change in structural plans now effective is the substitution of wavy or wavy-edged siding for the existing standard of board or log siding. The pleasing effect of wavy-edged siding is obtained by leaving the exposed edge natural with the bark removed. Long waves and occasional knots are desired.³⁶

Siding was to be made of white pine, and Camp Roosevelt was assigned to make, replace, and stock the new siding. All the Powell's Fort buildings have wavy-edge siding and are wood frame buildings with gable roofs, including the picnic shelter (fig. 50).

The Acceptable Building Plans manual shows a plan for an organization camp stylistically similar to Powell's



Figure 43—Cooks preparing dinner at Camp Roosevelt, George Washington National Forest. Cookhouse in background under construction. (National Archives, Pictorial Record of Establishment of Camp Roosevelt)

Fort. The plan shows the buildings set on footings, but the material is unknown. The mess hall is shown as approximately 66 feet wide and 25 feet deep. The kitchen attached to the dining room is much longer than the one at Powell's Fort. The legend states: "Shingle roof. Waney edge siding. Chimney stonework roughly graduate from large stone to smaller ones above; surfaces battened about 4."

The Powell's Fort mess hall (fig. 51) is a rectangular building with a front porch. The porch is supported by two peeled logs, and its gable roof has board-and-batten siding. There are two front doors. Windows on the hall are six-over-six, double-hung sash, regularly spaced around the entire building. The foundation of the main building is concrete block that may have replaced an earlier foundation. The porch floor is shale or flagstone. The mess hall's interior has vertical wooden paneling, a large stone fireplace, and wooden floors.

The barracks at Powell's Fort are similar in plan to the mess hall illustrated in figure 51 (fig. 52). There are a screened-in front porch, similar type of windows, and a concrete block foundation. The concession building seen in figure 53 is a frame structure with a raised front porch or concession area. Showers are located in the

back portion of an L-shape building. The picnic shelter has a gable roof, six peeled log posts, and braces.

Mount Solon or North River Camp, F-2

Located near Mount Solon in Augusta County, VA, in the Dry River Ranger District, Camp F-2 was first occupied by Company 363 on May 31, 1933 (fig. 54). In February 1935, the 186-man company of white junior enrollees came from Virginia and Washington, DC. Captain A.S. Townsend of the Infantry Reserve was the camp commander.³⁷

Under the direction of Project Supervisor J.G. Moffatt, 147 enrollees and 15 locally enrolled men worked on the George Washington National Forest building roads and trails, recreation areas, and telephone lines, and performing forest cultural work and blister rust control. Another 26 enrollees remained in camp to work on camp maintenance projects.³⁸

Investigator O.H. Kenlan reported in 1935 the camp buildings were in good condition and the camp in general showed improvements since its last inspection. Camp water was obtained from the town of Staunton and chemically treated before being used. A pit latrine

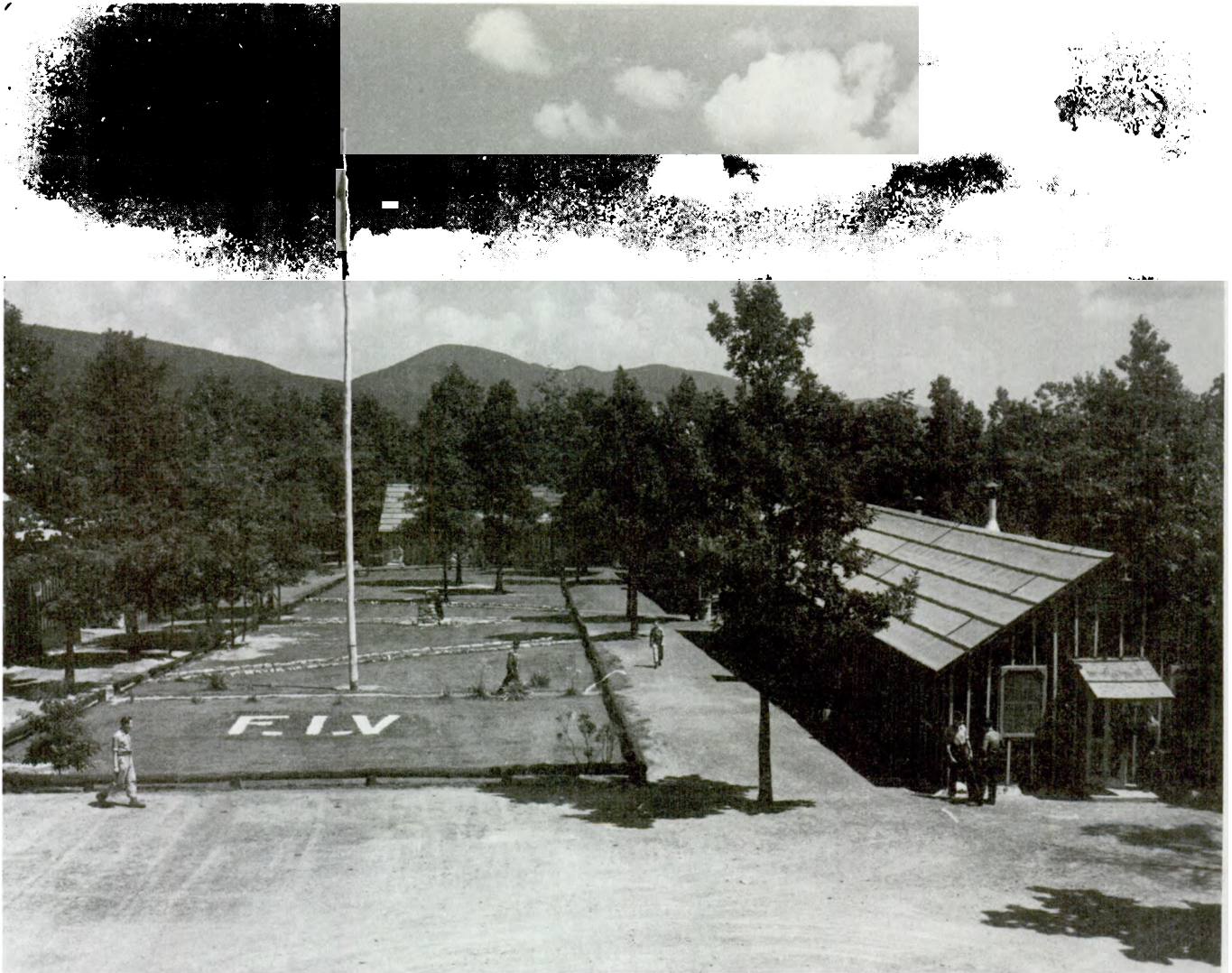


Figure 44--Camp Roosevelt, George Washington National Forest. (National Archives 35-G-432)

served the camp, although plans to switch to a septic system had been made. Waste water was reportedly filtered and the overflow drained into a nearby creek. Garbage and refuse were burned. Food supplies were brought to the camp from Fort Monroe or bought locally.³⁹

Between October 1, 1934, and February 27, 1935, 20 men received dishonorable discharges from Camp F-2 for desertion. No reason is cited, and morale is described as "good." A "mild" 2-month epidemic of influenza was reported as having affected 75 enrollees, but generally good health conditions prevailed otherwise.⁴⁰

In August 1936, Company 363 called itself Tracy Camp and was comprised of 149 Virginia enrollees. Camp and project administration remained the same. Work projects were conducted within a 10-mile radius from camp and included road construction, reforestation, pest control, stream improvement, and telephone line construction and maintenance. In a 4-month period from April to August, no desertions occurred, and enrollee morale was

described as "high." Further improvements throughout the camp were in progress.⁴¹

In January 1938, Tracy Camp had 153 men from Pennsylvania, Washington, DC, and Virginia. Ensign William Lennox of the naval reserve replaced Captain Townsend. Work projects continued to be of the same types as previous ones, with the addition of bridge construction; vista or other selective cutting for effect; reconnaissance and investigation; construction of levees, dikes, jetties, and groins; and public campground development.⁴²

Inspector King notes:

Found this camp to be in rather good state, especially for a camp located so far in back mountain lands. Barracks in good state, as well as kitchen and mess hall. Recreation hall above average. Commanding officer able and seems concerned about giving a proper administration.⁴³

The camp's water, gravity fed from the Staunton Reservoir, was tested daily and chlorinated; samples

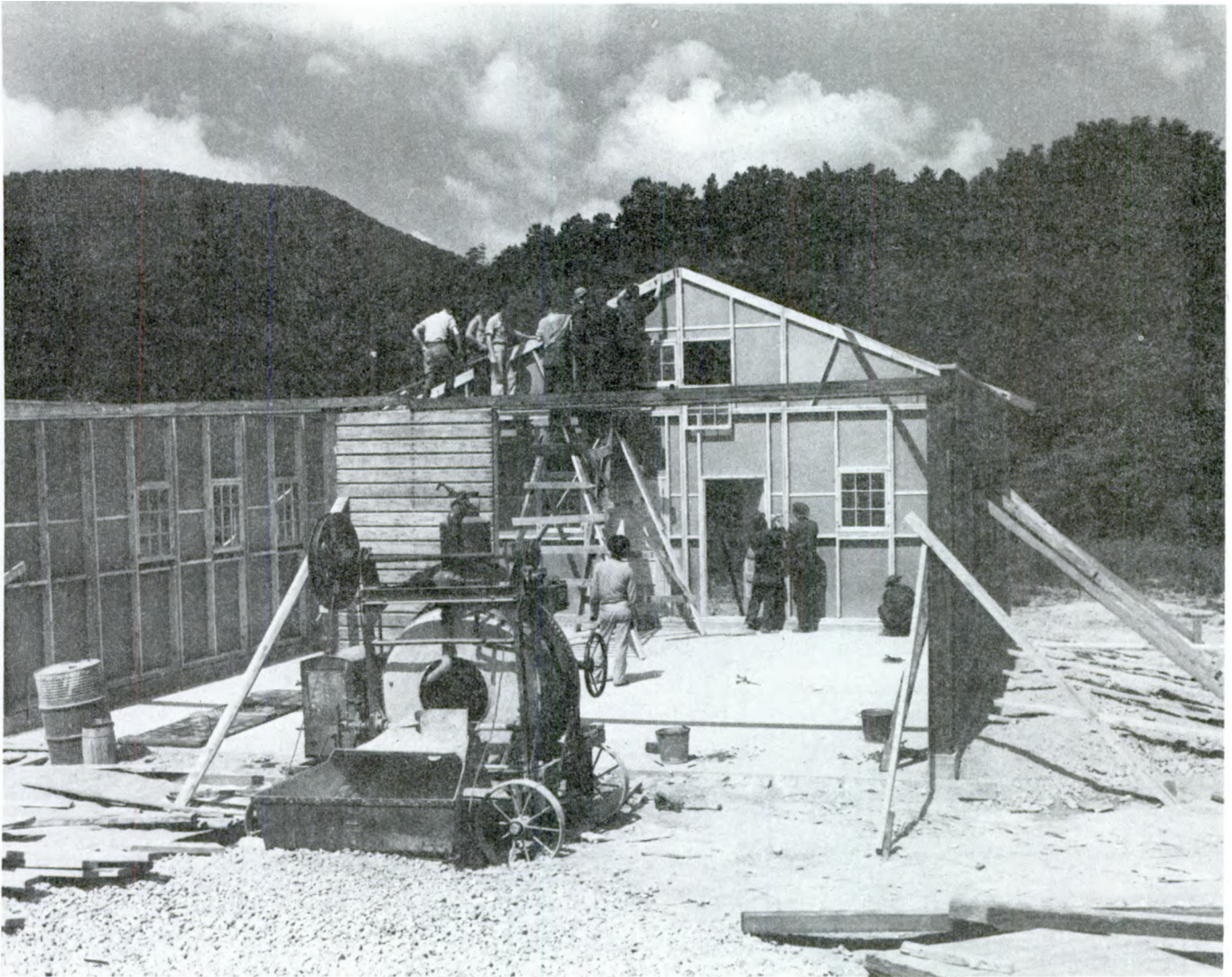


Figure 45--Erecting a portable prefab building, July 26, 1940. (National Archives 35-G-52J)

were tested twice monthly in Harrisonburg. Pigs were kept at the camp to consume garbage, because there were no local farmers to take it.⁴⁴

On July 6, 1938, Company 363 left Mount Solon and was replaced by a 197-man veterans company, No. 3340. The camp name was changed to North River. Captain Alvin T. Wilson was the new company commander. J.G. Moffatt stayed on as project superintendent.⁴⁵

Captain Wilson was a war veteran and a four-year veteran of the CCC. Due to a four-year limitation on holding command posts, he ended his first term of service in February 1938. Three months later he was recalled and assigned to Company 3340.⁴⁶

Numerous improvements were made at the North River Camp by the new enrollees. Buildings were repainted; roofs repaired; the kitchen and scullery remodeled; plywood added to the barracks, mess hall, and recreation area; and a new education building nearly completed. A septic tank system replaced the previous

pit latrine. Additional improvements were planned to be finished in 1939.⁴⁷

In the 7 months since the new company had arrived at Mount Solon, 19 men had received dishonorable discharges for reasons other than desertion. Company morale was rated as excellent, although 3,751 man-days had been lost between November and January because of insufficient physical conditioning prior to arrival at the camp. Inappropriate winter clothing was cited also. Projects, when weather permitted, included road construction, surveys, and bridge building.⁴⁸

Three months later, in March 1939, the North River Camp had decreased from 197 men to 175. All was reported to be in good order at that time, including the buildings that had been built in 1933. Camp activities were described as largely informal; for example, recreational and educational movies, pool, checkers, and card games.⁴⁹



Figure 46--Woodstock Tower, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

In October 1940, the North River Camp was still occupied by Company 3340. J.G. Plunkett had become the company commander, supervising the 184-man camp. Work under the direction of Moffatt was composed of lookout tower construction, truck trail construction, terrace outletting, and soil preparation. The camp was reported to be in "very satisfactory to excellent condition."⁵⁰ The camp remained open until September 2, 1941, when 19 of the camp buildings were transferred to Forest Service use.⁵¹

West Augusta, F-3

The West Augusta CCC Camp, F-3, was located near West Augusta in Augusta County, Virginia, within Deerfield Ranger District. The camp was first occupied on May 27, 1933, by 180 white junior enrollees. In January 1934, 198 Virginia-enrolled men were living in Camp F-3 under the command of Captain J.J.A. Devine. Since its opening, 61 men had been honorably discharged, 23 dishonorably discharged, and 34 men deserted.⁵²

In 1933-34, an average of 160 enrollees worked daily on forestry work under the supervision of A.C. Dahl. Projects included road construction, timber stand improvement, tree planting, telephone line maintenance, horse trail construction, roadside improvement,

and the building of fish dams. Five nonenrolled men were engaged to assist in forestry supervision.⁵³

Within the camp, the general spirit of the enrollees was described by Inspector Kenlan as "excellent." Food supplies were procured locally and from Fort Myer. Community opinion was said to be favorable, and the men did not create trouble.

The West Augusta Camp, later called Ramsey's Draft, was vacated in May 1934. It remained empty until August 1935, when it was reoccupied. On May 27, 1936, Company 5449 from Fort Oglethorpe, GA, was brought in to occupy the camp. The company, made up of white junior enrollees from Georgia, Florida, and Tennessee, numbered about 151 after 3 months. Twelve locally enrolled men were also part of the camp.⁵⁴ Work projects were of the same kinds as previously undertaken.

In February 1937, Ramsey's Draft was occupied by 161 men from Company 5449. Captain Ernest C. Watson was the company commander, and R.G. Hopper was project supervisor. Crews worked within a 20-mile radius of the camp on timber stand improvement, trails and fire breaks, fire suppression, road and trail construction, and communication lines. Buildings and supplies were said to be in good condition with safety and work equipment adequate.⁵⁵ The camp closed on October 8, 1937.⁵⁶

According to Ernest Kelley, retired Forest Service employee and former enrollee of Camp F-3, the Ramsey's Draft Camp did little work on recreation areas and only a small amount of roadbuilding. Road maintenance took a large portion of the camp's labor. Roadside pulloffs, including ones at Jennings Gap, Buckhorn, and on top of Shenandoah Mountain, were constructed, as well as 28.5 miles of roads. The roads have since been upgraded and maintained. Two new trails were built by the Ramsey's Draft Camp--Jerry's Run and Ramsey's Draft.⁵⁷

Kelley says that Camp F-3's other projects included maintenance and occupation of fire towers on Elliotts Knob, Wallace Peak, and Hardscrabble Knob. CCC crews built and maintained fire boxes, fire tools, and road and trail signs. Log dams were placed in many streams to catch sediment, control flooding, and improve fish habitat.⁵⁸

In 1973, one building from the Ramsey's Draft Camp was being used for equipment storage by the Virginia Division of Game and Inland Fisheries.

Fulks Run, F-4

The Fulks Run CCC Camp was originally occupied in October 1933. It was located approximately 3 miles west of the town of Fulks Run in Rockingham County, VA, within the Dry River Ranger District. The camp was made up of white junior enrollees. In 1934, it was abandoned, but by August 1936, the camp had been reoccupied twice by IV Corps Area companies.

The second IV Corps Area company at Camp F-4 was No. 5455. Captain E. Miller was the commander of the 141-man camp. Project supervisor was David G. Jennings, who directed work projects within a 20-mile radius of the camp. Road construction, forest improvement, timber survey, reforestation, and roadside clearing and maintenance were among the projects carried out in that area. Twelve locally enrolled men assisted on the jobs.⁶⁰



Figure 47--Picnic shelter, New Market Gap, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

In February 1937, Company 5455 still occupied the Fulks Run Camp. Parker S. Day was the new company commander. One hundred and thirty-two men lived in the camp. Work projects were similar, but truck and foot trail construction were also included. Camp water was obtained from a spring and deep well. Food supplies were procured locally, on contract, and from the New Cumberland, PA, CCC Depot. Company morale was described as "good." The camp's recreation hall was the only building requiring further improvements.⁶¹ Fulks Run was officially closed on July 10, 1937. Twenty of its rigid-type buildings were transferred to Forest Service ownership.⁶²

Millard Custer, a lifelong resident of Fulks Run, belonged to the Fulks Run Camp (fig. 55).⁶³ Work was scarce in 1933, so Custer went to Salem, VA, and joined CCC Company No. 374. He was 18 years old and newly out of high school.

Custer was an enrollee for 14 months, moving to Fulks Run Camp by train from Fort Monroe in 1934. He estimates there were more than 200 men in the company then and many of them came from southern Virginia. Custer was pleased to get transferred to a camp so near his hometown.

Upon arrival at Fulks Run, enrollees at first lived in tents. After about 3 months the company assisted with building barracks, using materials from a local lumber

yard. Other camp buildings included a kitchen, mess hall, shop, infirmary, officers' quarters, tool shed, and recreation hall. The tool shed is the only extant building at the Fulks Run site (fig. 56). Custer's father built the recreation hall, which eventually contained pool tables for enrollee use. Work classes were held in the evenings. In addition to in-camp recreation, the Fulks Run enrollees often went to Edinburg on weekends where they frequently encountered Camp Roosevelt enrollees.

Custer recalls working on forest improvement and roadbuilding. One of the camp's big projects was building a road from Fulks Run to the top of Fulks Mountain, and from there to Long Run Road. Local men were hired to teach and work with enrollees. One or two side camps were used to do work "back in the forest." Community reaction to the camp improved over time.

Camp Sherando, F-8

Camp Sherando was originally occupied on May 15, 1933, by Company No. 351, a company of white junior enrollees mostly from Virginia. The camp, F-8, was located south of Lyndhurst and Sherando, VA, in Augusta County within the Pedlar Ranger District (fig. 57).⁶⁴

In 1934, 152 enrollees lived at Camp Sherando under the command of Captain Richard Catlett. Carter T. Saunders was the project supervisor for the area.



Figure 48--Catherine Furnace, George Washington National Forest, VA. (National Archives 35-G-432)

Approximately 90 percent of the work was road construction.⁶⁵

On February 26, 1935, Inspector Charles Kenlan visited Camp Sherando noting it was then being called "Camp A. Willie Robertson." Company strength had grown to 187 men under the command of Captain Catlett and Mr. Saunders. Kenland reported:

Camp shows marked improvement since last inspection. Is under very competent control and management. . . . Health, conduct, efficiency, and morale of enrollees improved since camp occupation.⁶⁶

Building conditions at Sherando were rated as good to excellent, and particular improvements were noted in landscaping and drainage work in the camp area. The camp buildings were the rigid type.⁶⁷

One hundred and sixty-one enrollees and fourteen locally enrolled men from the camp worked on a 10,000-acre section of the George Washington Forest. The main project was the construction of an earth-filled dam and 25-acre lake. Thirty thousand cubic yards of fill were used on the dam project. This construction was the start of the Sherando Lake Recreation Area. Other work projects were construction and maintenance of roads, trails, and telephone lines.⁶⁸

From 1936 to 1938, Camp Sherando averaged 157 enrollees. Commander J.A. Betterly took over for Captain Catlett; work continued on the Sherando Lake Recreation Area. Projects in 1937 included the construction and maintenance of telephone lines, a water system, and truck trails; public campground development and maintenance; parking area construction; lake, stream, and pond development; channel and canal excavation; bank sloping; surveys; incinerator construction; and forest fire suppression.⁶⁹

Inspector Ross Abare reported on March 23, 1939, that Company 351 had 188 enrollees. First Lieutenant H.H. Waller, Jr., was company commander; Saunders remained in charge of the Forest Service projects. According to Abare:

This camp is in excellent condition. Despite a rather unfavorable location the morale is excellent and the camp is well maintained. It is my opinion that the comparatively high discharge rate for desertions at this camp and at Moor-mans River is due in part to the out-of-the-way location of the two camps.⁷⁰

Nonwork activities of enrollees at Sherando were described as volleyball, tennis, horseshoes, and various informal forms of recreation. A weekly entertainment program was established, often taking advantage of traveling entertainment shows. Twice a week enrollees were allowed to take trucks to nearby areas for outside activities. Protestant church services and Bible classes were held weekly, in addition to monthly services provided by a CCC chaplain and transportation of Catholic enrollees to town.⁷¹ Ed Brooks and Harold Fitzgerald, residents of the local area, say the community was proud to have a CCC camp in its area, and relations between the two were very good.⁷²

A variety of new projects were added to the camp's ongoing improvement of the Sherando Recreation Area. Crews did considerable amounts of work developing the Big Levels Game Refuge, such as clearing wooded acres and seeding them for wildlife maintenance, constructing horse and foot trails, checking and maintaining boundaries, and maintaining trap lines for predatory animals. An extension of the Sherando Dam spillway was completed, as was work on a camp utility building and general forest improvement.⁷³

By October 1940, Camp Sherando housed 183 enrollees. Albert K. Brown was the new Company 351 commander, and Carter Saunders remained as project superintendent. Despite an increase of 37 dishonorable discharges in 12 months, the camp was reportedly in "very good to excellent" condition.⁷⁴

Camp F-8, Sherando Lake, closed on July 18, 1941.⁷⁵ According to Tom Glass, a retired Forest Service employee familiar with the CCC's accomplishments on the Pedlar Ranger District, Camp F-8 was specifically responsible for the construction of parts of the following roads: Coal Road, Campbell Mountain Road, and Sherando Lake Road. Trails built by the camp were Torrey Ridge, Turkey Pen Ridge, Kennedy Ridge, Stoney Run, Bald Mountain, Cellar Mountain, and Appalachian. The camp maintained portions of the Blue Ridge Parkway, then called the Howardsville Pike.⁷⁶

One building remains from Camp F-8 (fig. 58).⁷⁷ The garage or truck repair shop is a frame building of large proportions. Large garage doors are located on the front (north) side; a back door has been filled in. The two-story building is covered with shiplap siding, has a gable roof, and six-over-six, double-hung sash windows. A gable on the west side projects over a second-story door to hold a pulley. This door was probably used to hoist heavy equipment to the second floor. The garage was built with large wooden beams overlapped and braced together. The second floor is lined with wood or metal bracing to hold up the roof.



Figure 49--Camp Roosevelt CCC enrollees landscaping at Powell's Fort Organization Camp. (National Archives 35-G-637)

Also left from the Sherando Camp are several concrete foundations and the camp's cement incinerator (fig. 59).

Sherando Lake Recreation Area

Camp F-8's major work project was the construction of the Sherando Lake Recreation Area, which opened to the public in 1937. The recreation area is currently operated by George Washington National Forest and used extensively. Evidence of the Sherando Camp's work is extensive throughout the 20-acre development. Buildings still in use include a combination bathhouse-picnic shelter, two picnic shelters, and an administration building. The dam, lake, water fountains, stonework, and roads are also in evidence.⁷⁸

A plan for a combination bathhouse-picnic shelter appears in *Acceptable Building Plans* and is identical to the one at Sherando Lake (fig. 60). The plan shows a T-shaped building with the top of the T being the central part of the men's and women's bathhouse. The longest part of the T is the picnic shelter area, with the end of the shelter area enclosed and used for office space and

caretaker's quarters. At Sherando Lake, this area is used for a concession stand.⁷⁹

The Sherando Lake building is covered with a random-coursed, square rubble of quartzite, a metamorphosed sandstone. The stone is larger at the base and gets smaller as it rises. The technique gives the effect of the building leaning slightly inward. Dimensions of the bathhouse section of the structure are approximately 55 feet, 6 inches across the front and 31 feet from front to back.⁸⁰ There are two front entrances, side by side, with a gabled porch stoop constructed of logs and log brackets. The interior of the bathhouse is equipped with toilets, showers, and dressing stalls.

On the east and west ends of the bathhouse are a series of five windows (fig. 61). At the apex of the T-shape is a small cupola that serves as a vent.

The picnic shelter portion of the building is approximately 68 feet across its east and west sides and 28 feet, 6 inches across the north end (fig. 62). The office end of the building is also stone. The picnic area is constructed of 12-inch-diameter log posts. There are 12 of these posts, each braced with 6-inch-long log braces on either side of the post. A log railing extends along both sides



Figure 50--Camp Roosevelt CCC enrollees making waney-edge siding for Powell's Fort campground. (National Archives 35-G-625)

of the area, and the flooring is wood. The shelter has a gable roof with two gabled entrances on both the east and west sides. Two stone fireplaces are located at either end of the picnic area.

Sherando Lake has two other CCC-built picnic shelters. One has a kitchen, and the other does not (fig. 63). Plans for the kitchen shelter are found in Acceptable Building Plans. Its dimensions are approximately 38 feet across the front (north) and 35 feet from front to back. The kitchen is located at the back of the building and is approximately 18 by 14 feet. The walls of the kitchen are horizontal logs cut evenly at the ends and finished at the corners with a vertical log.

The shelter is rectangular and has openings on the three sides that are not attached to the kitchen. One side of the shelter has been filled in and is used as a bunkhouse for summer employees. Twenty-four 12-inch-diameter logs are used to support the shelter. The roof

is gabled. A log rail, approximately 2 to 3 feet high, extends around all sides of the shelter. The floor is stone.

The second picnic shelter does not have a kitchen attached. It is characterized by a gable roof, stone floor, fireplace, log rail, and rustic picnic tables and benches. There are eight supporting log posts.

The Sherando Lake administration building is a rectangular structure with a residence at the west end and an office at the other (fig. 64). It is a wood frame building with waney-edge siding, six-over-six, double-hung sash windows, shutters, and eaveless ends. There is a front porch stoop with a stone floor. The structure has square posts and board-and-batten gable. The interior still contains some of the original rustic-style furniture.

A common practice at the Sherando Recreation Area was to use copper flashing on all exposed beam ends to protect the wood from moisture. Posts or columns were



Figure 51--Mess Hall, Powell's Fort Organization Camp, George Washington National Forest, VA.
(Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

made of white oak; beams were made of poplar. According to Doug Flint, a former enrollee at the recreation area, LEM's did the major construction work; enrollees were for general labor and mortar work.

Camp Vesuvius, F-9

Camp Vesuvius was established on May 31, 1933, south of Vesuvius, VA, in Rockbridge County within the Pedlar Ranger District. One hundred ninety-one enrollees made up the initial company. In January 1934, 194 men lived at the camp under the command of Captain W.L. Rice. The work project supervisor was W.B. Gallagher, Jr. Twenty-six men at F-9 were LEM's.⁸¹

About 145 men worked on forest crews out of Camp Vesuvius in 1934. Projects included stream improvement, roadside cleanup, timber stand improvement, bridge and road construction, telephone line construction, and the building of horse trails. Community relations and camp morale were reported to be very good.⁸²

On July 18, 1935, Camp Vesuvius was occupied by Company 2345 from Tyler, PA, under Captain W.C. Mock's charge. At the end of September, a petition signed by 38 enrollees was presented at the camp, indicating those men would leave the camp on October 1

because the work project superintendent, Q.L. Umstead, was being too difficult.

An investigation into the men's reasons for leaving the camp and overall camp conditions was held on October 18, after the disgruntled men had left. The results of the investigation showed the project supervisor had resigned from a North Carolina camp because of similar complaints about his work, and the investigator decided the enrollees were somewhat justified in saying the superintendent had worked them too hard. Inspector Kenlan concluded, however, that neither Umstead nor Captain Mock could be held culpable for the situation. Umstead was issued a reprimand.

On January 16, 1936, Company 2345 was moved to Camp F-13 at Natural Bridge Station. Tom Glass, former employee on the Pedlar Ranger District, recalls that some of Camp Vesuvius' specific accomplishments were the construction of parts of Big Mary's Creek Road and South River Road. Trail construction included the Taylor Hollow, South Mountain, Whetstone Ridge, and Appalachian trails. The camp also installed a telephone line from Irish Creek to Buena Vista to provide "a more effective and expedient means of communication with various fire wardens throughout the district."⁸³

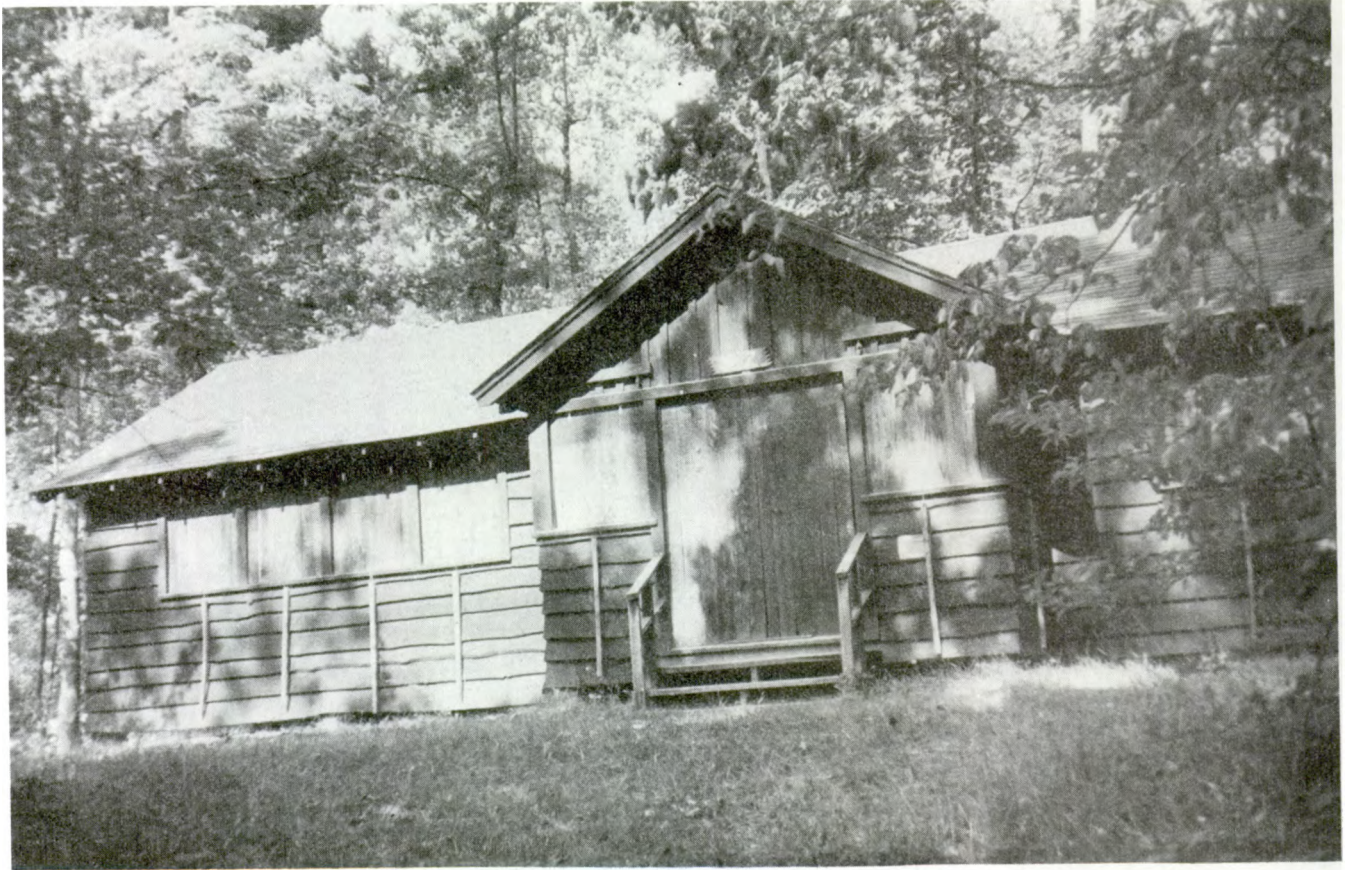


Figure 52--Barrack, Powell's Fort Organization Camp, George Washington National Forest, VA.
(Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

Camp Snowden, F-10

On May 15, 1983, Camp Snowden was occupied by Company 354. It was a black company of 185 men. The camp was located in Snowden, VA, north of Lynchburg in Amherst County within Pedlar Ranger District.⁸⁴

Civilian Conservation Corps Superintendent James R. Wilkins, now a Winchester businessman, recalls that the early days at Camp Snowden had their difficulties. He says that in the beginning of the CCC program many of the project superintendents were inexperienced political appointees, which created problems.

In January 1934, Company 354 was comprised of 196 men enrolled from Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Washington, DC. Captain R.D. Hazel was company commander and Carter T. Saunders was the work project supervisor. Since its establishment, the camp had lost 51 men to elopements and another 17 had been discharged for misconduct for refusal to work.⁸⁵

An average of 155 men worked on projects involving forest improvements, roadbuilding, and trail and telephone line construction. Morale and community relations were described as being "very favorable." Camp water was taken from a tested and approved mountain spring.⁸⁶

A special investigation was made at the end of January 1934 regarding nine men who had been dishonorably discharged from Camp F-10. The outcome of the investigation showed that one of the discharged enrollees had attempted to organize a "revolt" within the company:

It is also necessary to call attention to the fact that . . . the enrollee and 26 other men were from Philadelphia and Washington and were placed among men from Virginia and Georgia. A disturbing sentiment soon followed.⁸⁷

It was also noted that 25 white men were enrolled at the camp and "while they work, mess, and live separately the plan has so far worked out advantageously." Camp management was ultimately judged competent and under control.⁸⁸

In October 1934, a local newspaper reported that Company 354 was engaged in building a 24-mile road from Snowden to Buena Vista:

The road, constructed of crushed stone and sand clay, will provide access to woodcutting in the forest and serve as means of fire suppression. . . . In addition, it will also provide a scenic route for Sunday afternoon drives.⁸⁹



Figure 53—Concession stand, Powell's Fort Organization Camp, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

Another important work project mentioned was the collection of some 600 bushels of pine cones and black locust seeds for the Tennessee Valley Authority.⁹⁰

Another newspaper article described Camp Snowden's educational program. The entire company was involved in the program, and in less than a year 30 men had been taught to read and write. Classes also included commercial art, electric wiring, automobile care, and first aid. Classes were taught by the camp's educational advisor, other personnel, or enrollees.

An organized program of discussion is devoted to the personal problems affecting the men, problems affecting community life, the safety program, the forestry program, nature, and public health . . . two well-attended Sunday School Classes are taught by enrollees each Sunday morning. Religious services are conducted in the afternoon of the same day by a visiting minister.⁹¹

At the end of February 1935, Company 354 at Camp Snowden had 191 men. Administration and work projects

remained the same as in 1934.⁹² Mumps and venereal disease plagued the camp, and a special investigation of the camp's medical services was ordered. The investigating medical officer, C.G. Grazier, reported the mumps had been controlled by following quarantine and isolation regulations issued by the Virginia State Board of Health. The venereal disease epidemic, some 19 cases in a 1-year period, was being controlled through the establishment of a camp prophylaxis station and denial of "liberty parties" to Lynchburg.⁹³

Camp Snowden closed on November 4, 1935. Nineteen of the camp's buildings were salvaged by the Forest Service.⁹⁴ Recollections of Camp Snowden's accomplishments by Forest Service retiree Tom Glass indicate that the camp built two 10-mile roads, one from Snowden to Pera, and one from Pera to Robinson Gap. Telephone lines were installed between Snowden and Naola, and Snowden and Bluff Mountain. At least eight trails were also constructed, including Dancing Creek, Terrapin Creek, Crushaw, Peavine, Otter Creek, Rocky Row Run, Belle Cove, and a section of the Appalachian Trail.⁹⁵

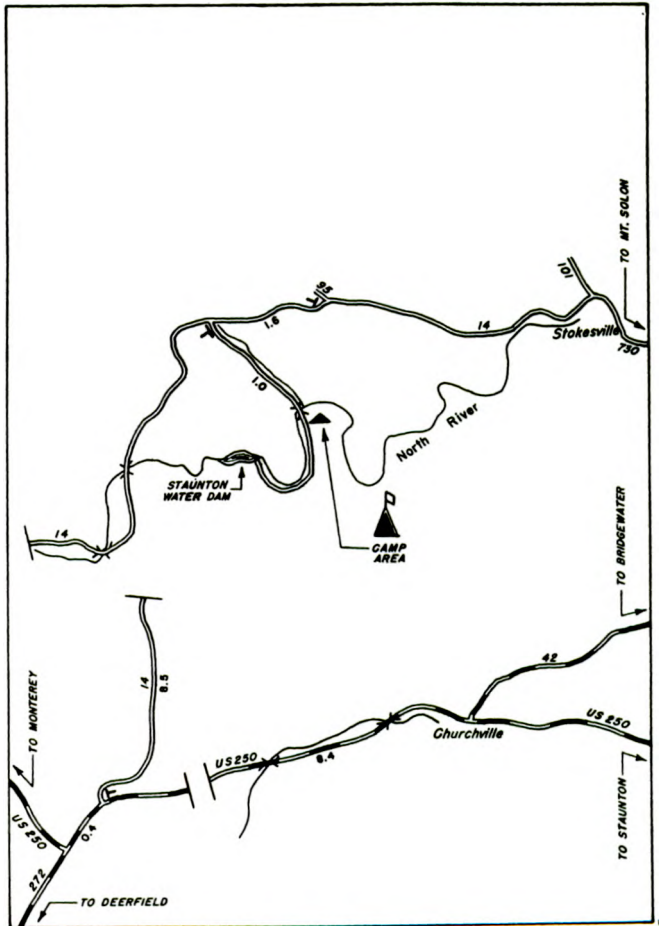


Figure 54—Location of Mount Solon Camp, F-2, George Washington National Forest, VA. (National Archives 35-17, 897)

Camp Goshen, F-11

Camp F-11 was located north of Goshen in Augusta County, VA, within Deerfield Ranger District. The camp was first occupied June 24, 1933, by Company 1334, composed of 164 black enrollees from Maryland, Virginia, Washington, DC, and Pennsylvania.⁹⁶

At the end of January 1934, 205 enrollees lived at Camp Goshen under the command of William M. Stokes, Jr. Work projects were directed by R.G. Hoffer and conducted on 50,000 acres of the George Washington National Forest. Timber stand improvement, trail construction, roadside cleanup, road and bridge construction, and seed collection were among the camp's projects. Several months after its establishment, 43 men had eloped and another 36 had been dishonorably discharged. Refusal to work was the most frequent reason for discharge. Two men were reportedly turned over to civil authorities for law violations. Despite the trouble and high desertion rate, morale was considered to be "excellent" and relations with the nearby community "very favorable."⁹⁷

In April 1935, Camp F-11 had 125 black men under the same administration. Blister rust control and tree planting were added to the company's work projects. Fifteen

LEM's assisted in the various forest improvement activities. The camp itself was described by Inspector Kenlan as being in good condition with further improvements being contemplated.⁹⁸

At this time there appeared to be no evidence of the problems that led to a special investigation of the camp by Sub-District Commander Captain Riley E. McGarraugh. McGarraugh reported that on the weekend of May 15, a major disturbance had occurred at the camp. The incident was instigated by an enrollee of "rough character" who had been denied a discharge. In an effort to procure a discharge by other means, the enrollee and several friends started drinking alcohol and causing general commotion in the camp. Three men were arrested and discharged. The next day two more men were discharged. According to the investigator, the circumstances in camp leading up the explosive situation had been: (1) a few rough characters; (2) copies of the newspaper *Afro-American*, which allegedly emphasized "racial discrimination" and had a "bad" influence on the enrollees; (3) inclement weather during the weeks before, which required enrollees to work on Saturdays and forfeit weekend passes several weeks in a row.⁹⁹

Camp "Rattlesnake," as it was informally called, closed on October 10, 1935. Twenty-three of its buildings were salvaged by the U.S. Army. Five were transferred to the USDA Forest Service.¹⁰⁰

Arnold's Valley/Natural Bridge, F-13

The Arnold's Valley Camp was located near Natural Bridge Station in Rockbridge County, VA. Beginning in 1936, it was called Natural Bridge Camp. A company of



Figure 55—Millard Custer, Fulks Run, VA. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)



Figure 56--Tool shed (north and west views), Fulks Run CCC campsite, Dry River Ranger District, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

180 white veterans first occupied F-13 on July 13, 1933, under the command of Captain J.H. Patrick. Captain B.M. Venable took over on September 17, 1933. In October, 116 men from Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia lived at the camp.¹⁰¹

Work projects in 1933 covered approximately 60,000 acres of George Washington National Forest's Glenwood Division. Project Supervisor J.N. Jefferson directed an average of 62 enrollees daily on building and maintaining roads, cutting fire trails, improving timber stands, and maintaining telephone lines.¹⁰²

In 1933, Arnold's Valley Camp appeared to have positive relations with the nearby community. Only one desertion was reported. Morale in general was described as being "very good."¹⁰³

Four more commanders passed through F-13's administration before Captain C.U. Bauman took over Company 1395 on September 5, 1934. There were 167 men living in camp then. In November, Camp Inspector Charles Kenlan made a special report to the assistant director of the CCC describing problems with illicit moonshiners selling liquor to enrollees. Evidence against the bootleggers had been acquired by a Department of Justice agent masquerading as an enrollee. The case was brought to trial in Lynchburg. Problems associated with excessive drinking and lack of discipline subsequently improved.¹⁰⁴

Recreation was provided through a variety of sources. A permanent library offered reading materials. Minstrel shows, movies, and band concerts were given, and a small, informal educational program was developed. Athletic events included baseball, horseshoes, and track and field competitions, both inside camp and with local

teams. Transportation to religious services of various denominations was provided on a weekly basis.¹⁰⁵

On January 16, 1936, what was now called the Natural Bridge Camp became occupied by Company 2345, previously stationed at Camp Vesuvius, F-9. Captain Milton C. Mock was still company commander, and J.N. Jefferson remained from the earlier company as project supervisor. One hundred and fifty-five men made up Company 2345, whose work projects were the construction of a dam and artificial lake, recreational development, road and trail construction, and forest improvement. Proximity to both the George Washington National Forest and Jefferson National Forest led to work being conducted in both areas.¹⁰⁶

In 1937-38, the Natural Bridge Camp remained essentially unchanged. Frank C. Ware took over as project supervisor of work by the main camp crews as well as a small side camp established at Big Island. Additional projects included construction of several foot and vehicle bridges, shelters, and stock trails, fire prevention, campground development, fish and wildlife activities, and tree planting.¹⁰⁷

By February 1939, F-13 had undergone several changes. The camp, now called Greenlee, housed 199 men under the command of Captain W.K. Andrews, Jr. Andrews received strong commendations from Inspector Ross Abare, who indicated that in the commander's short term in camp he had made numerous improvements and thereby put the camp into "generally excellent condition." Under the direction of Hampton W. Richardson, the camp's education advisor, the education program had greatly expanded. Formal classroom instruction and

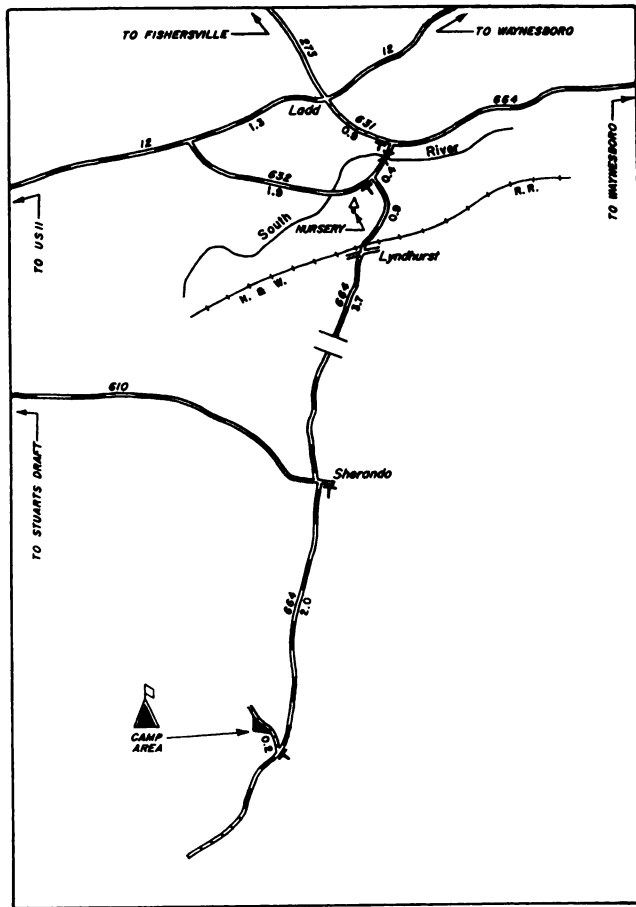


Figure 57--Location of Camp Sherando, F-8, George Washington National Forest, VA. (National Archives 35-17, 897)

related vocational instruction were offered five nights a week and approximately half of the company enrolled.¹⁰⁸

The educational program had made it possible for many enrollees to complete their formal elementary and high school education. It has helped greatly through the guidance program to focus the serious attention of many enrollees upon the problems of training for a job at which to make a living.¹⁰⁹

In June 1940, CCC Director James J. McEntee received a letter from "Enrollees, Co. 2345, Camp 13, Natural Bridge Station, Virginia." The letter pointed out the current commander, Edwin Bennett, was treating enrollees like "slaves" rather than human beings. Furthermore, company funds were not used for company enjoyment. The situation was blamed for an increasing number of desertions.¹¹⁰

The administration considered this an interesting situation, because the same company, when stationed at Camp F-9, had protested against the "slave drive" project superintendent. Whether written by one enrollee or several, the letter does mention some of the issues that confronted CCC camps in general and southern camps in particular. The writer's first concern is why enrollees at F-13 were not "entitled to get transferred to other Corp

Areas as the other enrollees do."¹¹¹ Enrollees looking for a free ticket across the country had become a problem in the corps. Undoubtedly, choosing which companies to send to western corps areas produced dissatisfaction among those who were looking for greater adventure but not chosen.

The letter also criticized F-13 for being more of a "military organization than a CCC camp."¹¹² The issue of how militaristic to make camp life became important during the early 1940's, as a result of the war in Europe. Any overt militarism was generally discouraged, but the decision was partially left to the judgment of the camp commander.

Company 2345 was replaced on August 1, 1940, by Company 3360, a company of 176 white junior enrollees. Work projects continued to be of the same nature as previously, and Commander Bennett remained as commander. Twenty-two men deserted Company 3360 in the first 3 months, which may have been symptomatic of the camp's administration, the deterioration of the corps in general, or the improvement of the country's economy and increase in private sector employment opportunities.¹¹³ Camp F-13 closed in 1942.¹¹⁴

Camp Wolf Gap/Edinburg, F-15

Camp F-15 was occupied May 15, 1933, and called Camp Edinburg for its location just west of Edinburg, VA, in Shenandoah County within the Lee Ranger District. Seventy-two white junior enrollees were in the first company, No. 333, to occupy the camp. Men were enrolled from Virginia, West Virginia, and Washington, DC.¹¹⁵ By April 1934, 111 men lived at Camp Edinburg. Since its establishment 61 men had been dishonorably discharged, including 38 desertions and 3 misconducts. Some 145 men had been honorably discharged, including 84 accepting outside employment, 3 for physical disabilities, and 2 for venereal disease.

Camp commander was Captain LeRoy H. Barnard of the infantry reserve. James R. Wilkins was the work project supervisor. Approximately 80 enrollees and 16 LEM's worked on forest improvement and clearing fire hazards. In a year's time the efficiency of the men was reported to have improved 500 percent. Projects completed included construction of telephone lines, truck trails, a tool house, foot bridges, an office, and additional minor structures; maintenance of telephone lines, truck trails, and horse trails, roadside improvement; timber stand improvement; and the erection of many forest signs.¹¹⁶

By February 1935, Company 333 had grown to 184 enrollees and 15 LEM's. It was now a black camp. Captain Barnard remained as company commander and Wilkins as project supervisor. Similar projects were conducted. Discharges had decreased substantially, and the camp was reported to be in generally good condition. Investigator Charles Kenlan wrote the "camp is under good management and control. . . . An exceptionally low sick rate attributed to the fact that the men are fed hot food at all times and clothing is adequate."¹¹⁷ Among roads constructed or maintained by F-15 in 1935 were Stultz Gap Road, Liberty-Lost River Road, Lower Cove Truck Trail, and Thornbottom Road.¹¹⁸

On August 5, 1936, Camp F-15 was referred to as Camp Wolf Gap and was located near Columbia Furnace,



Figure 58--Garage at Sherando Lake, built in 1933-34, that was formerly part of Sherando CCC camp and is now used as Forest Service equipment shed. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

VA. One hundred and fifty-one black enrollees from Virginia and Washington, DC, occupied the camp, still under Captain Barnard's supervision. Wilkins had been replaced as project superintendent by B.J. Brockenbrough. Work projects had been expanded to include stream improvement and blister rust control.¹¹⁹

Food supplies came at first from Fort Myer, VA, and later from the New Cumberland depot in Pennsylvania. Water came from two deep wells at the camp.

The camp closed on October 11, 1937. At that time, 25 camp buildings were salvaged by the U.S. Army.¹²⁰

Camp Woodson, F-16

Company No. 2355, consisting of 148 white junior enrollees from Pennsylvania and Virginia, originally occupied Camp Woodson in the Pedlar Ranger District on August 3, 1935. Located near the town of Woodson in Nelson County, Camp F-16 started out under the command of First Lieutenant M.F. Saul. A.D. Camden was the project supervisor. Projects covered a 17-mile radius from the camp and included road and trail construction, forest improvement, and construction and maintenance of communication lines.¹²¹

Inspector Charles Kenlan reported that, on a scale of poor to excellent, conditions at the camp were "good." The rating included the buildings, food supplies, equipment, and morale. Relations with the nearby community were also rated as good. Water supplies at the camp

came from a mountain spring, and a pit latrine was utilized. Food supplies were obtained locally, on contract, and from the New Cumberland depot.¹²²

By January 1938, Camp Woodson had 154 enrollees and a new commander, Lieutenant Robert R. Maynes.

Bernard Brockenbrough was the Forest Service project superintendent directing work projects on a large area of the George Washington National Forest. Among the camp's accomplishments in 1937 were vehicle bridge construction, truck trail construction and maintenance, foot trail construction, fire suppression and prevention, roadside naturalization, fish stocking, traffic surveys, and planting and seeding food and cover for wildlife. One hundred and seven enrollees worked for Brockenbrough on the forest projects. A complete safety program was in effect at the camp, and approximately 14 vehicles were available for project use.¹²³

On April 1, 1938, Company 2355 transferred to Camp Bath-Alum near Hot Springs, VA. Buildings from Camp Woodson were salvaged by the Forest Service and U.S. Army.¹²⁴

Former Forest Service employee Tom Glass recalls that Camp F-16 was at one time called Al Hambre or the Big Piney River Camp for its location on the river. The camp helped construct the Big Piney River Road and installed telephone lines from Big Piney to Indian Creek and on to Rocky Mountain Tower. Trails constructed in the area were Cox's Creek, Shoe Creek, Pinnacle Ridge, England Ridge, Cardinal Ridge, Big Priest, and Little Piney.¹²⁵



Figure 59--Incinerator used by Camp F-8, Sherando Lake Recreation Area, Pedlar Ranger District, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

Camp Oronoco, F-18

Camp Oronoco was originally occupied on August 4, 1935, by Company 2360. The camp was located near the town of Oronoco, VA, in Amherst County (fig. 65).¹²⁶ Company 2360 was composed of white junior enrollees, primarily from Pennsylvania and Virginia. At the end of December 1935, there were 166 enrollees in the company and 15 LEM's. Since the camp had opened, 24 men had been honorably discharged due to "pressing needs elsewhere," 11 for "administrative AWOL," and 10 for "other causes." In addition to Company Commander S.B. Over and Project Supervisor T.H. Glass, Jr., there were four reserve officers, six camp leaders, and eight forestry supervisors located in Camp Oronoco. Approximately 131 enrollees were working on forest projects, and 25 men were on camp detail.¹²⁷

According to Camp Inspector Charles Kenlan, crews from Camp Oronoco were working on 50,000 acres of the George Washington National Forest. Projects included road and telephone line construction and maintenance,

timber stand improvement, fire hazard reduction, game refuge development, and fire tower construction. The Army provided 2 trucks and an ambulance, and the Forest Service provided 12 trucks, a tractor, a grader, and a compressor and jackhammer. Kenlan reported the "company operating under satisfactory control and camp progressing in proper order." A well-organized safety program seemed to have developed.¹²⁸

The camp itself was of portable construction and had been completed at the end of September 1935. Kenlan reported that the condition of the buildings and the camp area was "good" with improvements in progress.¹²⁹ In a special letter to the CCC director, Kenlan indicated the "portable type camp does not have the weather resistance qualities of a permanent type camp."¹³⁰ Water for the camp was supplied from a drilled well that was tested regularly and chlorinated when necessary. A septic tank latrine was maintained, and kitchen and shower water was filtered and channeled into a nearby stream.¹³¹

In January 1938, Company 2360 still occupied Camp Oronoco. The 180-man company was made up of enrollees mainly from Pennsylvania and a small number from Virginia and Maryland. T.H. Glass was still project supervisor. Company Commander Over had been replaced by First Lieutenant James W. Lusby, an infantry reserve officer. Lusby had 2-1/2 years of service in the CCC. He took over as Oronoco's commander on March 22, 1937.¹³²

Inspector Patrick King's remarks on Camp Oronoco's administration were:

Have no hesitation in giving stamp of approval to the general state of command existing at this camp as well as the condition of the buildings and the moral existing among the boys. . . . Present commander at this camp is of the type that is desirable for administration of a CCC camp. Understands needs of boys, understands how to handle them and how to manage care and improvement of camp buildings, as well as mess.¹³³

Camp Oronoco's work projects remained essentially the same as in 1935, although they expanded to include fighting forest fires, field planting, fish stocking, surveying, and boundary marking. Some examples of work completed by the camp during 1937 were 110 man-days fighting forest fires, 6 miles of telephone line construction and 100 miles of maintenance, 3 miles of truck trail construction and 50 miles of maintenance, 80 miles of foot-trail maintenance, collection of 100 pounds of tree seeds, maintenance of 3 lookout towers, 10 miles of boundaries marked, 176 man-days of survey work, 25,400 fish stocked, 1,201 man-days of fire presuppression, and 112 man-days of fire prevention.¹³⁴

Inspector King reported camp buildings remained in good condition and numerous improvements had occurred in a year's time. Among those improvements were the construction of a reading room, recreation hall, and classroom. Also noted was the betterment of the camp latrine and ground drainage and the installation of hot water in the camp hospital. Painting was scheduled for the barracks, kitchen, and mess hall, and a steam sterilizer for dishwashing had been ordered.¹³⁵

Food supplies were obtained from three sources. Fresh vegetables and fruits came seasonally from the

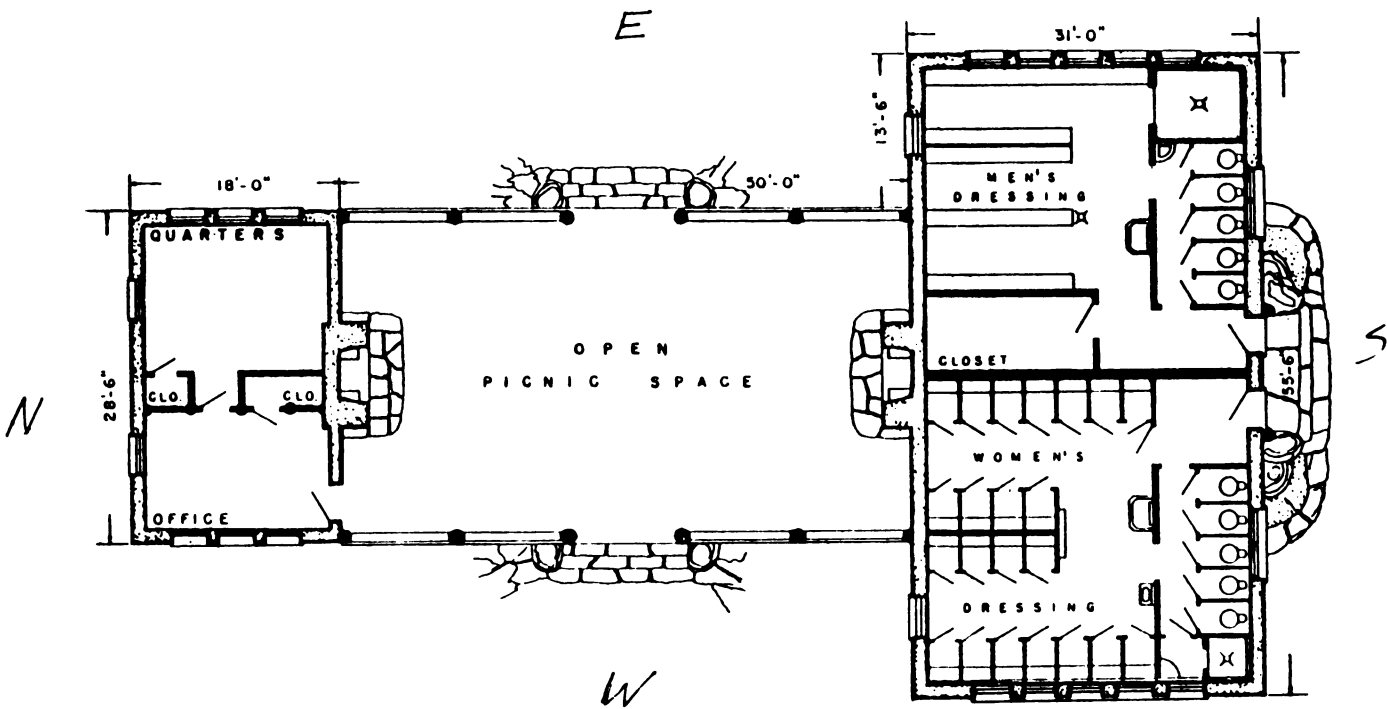


Figure 60—Forest camp bathhouse plan, Region 7. (From Forest Service, Division of Engineering, Acceptable Building Plans)

nearby towns of Lynchburg and Lexington. Meat was contracted through local suppliers. Canned foods were shipped from the New Cumberland CCC Depot. The inspector's reaction to the mess was highly favorable; he gave credit to experienced cooks and junior officers for the good menus and food preparation.¹³⁶

Relations between Oronoco camp enrollees and the local communities were said to be "favorable." Any problems were taken to the company commander for resolution "rather than make further trouble in town, with court records or the like." Few problems of this nature had been encountered. Recreation and athletics were provided in camp. Church services were provided either by a visiting Catholic priest or Army chaplain. Some enrollees went to town for services.¹³⁷

In February 1939, few changes were reported at Camp Oronoco. Company 2360 had grown to a strength of 197 men. Inspector Ross Abare gave high ratings to the camp's buildings, mess, and morale, saying, "Although the buildings at this camp are of the portable type, the camp as a whole is superior to the average camp as I have seen them in this District." Lusby and Glass remained as company commander and superintendent respectively.¹³⁸

Despite a relatively high desertion rate of 27 in 12 months, the camp received similar ratings in May 1940. Still under the same administration, the camp was reported in "generally excellent condition . . . well maintained and . . . well developed. Morale is excellent and the company has maintained a consistently high strength." An elaborate educational program with 38 subjects of instruction was administered by the camp

educational advisor, Charles Edwards. Classes ranged from reading and writing to cooking, truck driving, house painting, typing, business law, carpentry, glee club, and safety. Of the 199 men in the company, 133 attended classes daily. A separate library was established for enrollees to use for studying or reading books and magazines.¹³⁹

Camp Oronoco closed in 1942. Tom Glass recalls that Oronoco's accomplishments included construction of part of the Irish Creek Road. CCC crews also did improvement work on the Jordan Road and maintained the Long Mountain Road. The camp built a cabin on Rocky Mountain, now removed, and maintained the fire tower there. Telephone lines were installed from the Bluff Mountain Tower to Buena Vista, and trails constructed at Bald Mountain, Reservoir Hollow, Whites Gap, Cow Camp, Howard Mountain, Gardner Spring, and Bunker Hill. The camp also built and maintained a portion of the Appalachian Trail.¹⁴⁰

Longdale Recreation Area

Located in the James River Ranger District east of Covington and Clifton Forge, VA, the Longdale Recreation Area consists of an artificial lake, beach, three bathhouses, a water fountain, and a picnic shelter. Built after 1935, it remains unclear which CCC camp was responsible for constructing the area. Evidence strongly suggests that it was built by Company 379 of Camp F-24, whose main camp was located 2.2 miles east of Covington. Little information has been found on this camp.¹⁴¹



Figure 61—Bathhouse built by CCC at Sherando Lake Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

The picnic shelter at Longdale is similar in style, though smaller, to the shelter at Sherando Lake (fig. 66). The shelter is a rectangular peeled and painted log structure. There is a fireplace at the back. The shelter has a stone floor and shingled gable roof. The gable ends are filled with horizontal logs 12 inches in diameter with 6-inch-diameter braces (fig. 67). Based on similar plans in the *Acceptable Building Plans* manual, dimensions are approximately 34 feet across and 20 feet from front to back. Inside the shelter are rustic picnic tables, also built by the CCC.

One of the three Longdale bathhouses has a limestone foundation; the other two are made with concrete. The first structure has an open stoop with four square wooden posts (fig. 68). It is a large rectangular structure with waney-edge siding and gabled roof. The building has been modified to include roof skylights. The other two bathhouses have side entrances, no porch, and waney-edge siding.

The CCC-built drinking fountain is made of rough-cut stone and mortar (fig. 69). A rock and concrete dam was built to make a swimming pool. The beach has sand that was brought into the area (fig. 70).

Camp Bath-Alum, F-25

Camp Bath-Alum moved to Bath-Alum, northeast of Hot Springs, VA, in the Warm Springs Ranger District, from Camp Woodson on April 1, 1938 (fig. 71). Company 2355 was under the command of First Lieutenant Robert Maynes, a member of the Naval Reserve with 3-1/2 years CCC experience. It was a white junior enrollee company.¹⁴²

Initial work projects on the George Washington National Forest around Hot Springs were construction of truck trails, roads, and telephone lines and prevention and suppression of forest fires. A May 30 inspection of the camp reported camp buildings were in good condition and enrollee morale appeared to be in a "commendable state."¹⁴³

In March 1939, Camp Bath-Alum was under the command of First Lieutenant D.N. McClelland. Bernard J. Brockenbrough was the Forest Service's project superintendent in charge of 159 men released to the forestry work projects.¹⁴⁴

According to Ross Abare, inspector of Bath-Alum, the condition of the camp buildings rated from good to



Figure 62—Combination bathhouse and picnic shelter, Sherando Lake Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

excellent. Abare specifically noted that the two portable buildings were in "very good condition thru-out" and that the general camp area was "well maintained and very well policed." Water for the camp was taken from springs, "impounded, chlorinated, and pumped to pressure tanks for distribution." Garbage was taken to a local farmer, trash burned, and wastewater and sewage put through a central septic tank.¹⁴⁵

Organized camp activities outside of work included basketball, pool, and Ping-Pong tournaments, dances, and movies. Trucks were provided weekly for recreational purposes. Church services were held monthly by a visiting chaplain, and plans were in progress to have a Protestant minister visit the camp twice monthly.¹⁴⁶

In July 1940, Camp Bath-Alum was occupied by a new company, 3359, under the command of Philip W. Eddy. Company strength was 146 men, 88 of whom remained under the work supervision of B.J. Brockenbrough. Sixteen of the men were released temporarily for timber survey work at State Park Camp No. 4 in Clifton Forge, VA. Another 24 men remained in service on regular camp overhead.¹⁴⁷

In September 1940, an inspector noted that enrollees were examined twice monthly for venereal diseases; food handlers were examined weekly. No communicable diseases were found in camp at that time.¹⁴⁸

Work projects at the camp included construction of truck trails, fences, and telephone lines and timber surveys. Four enrollees worked on building a motor maintenance shop. Numerous vehicles supplied by the Forest Service included 30 trucks, 2 trail-builders, a

tractor, 2 compressors, 2 graders, a concrete mixer, and a "dirt mover."¹⁴⁹

Inspector Neill Coney, Jr., indicated that Company 3359 had suffered from enrollee desertion problems during its 3 months in existence. In a 2-month period, 29 men had left because of homesickness, lack of adaptability, and "the fact that this is a new company and lacked both comforts and the stabilizing influence of older enrollees."¹⁵⁰ Camp F-25 closed in 1942.¹⁵¹

Robert Fechner Memorial Forest

On February 5, 1941, President Roosevelt signed an Executive Order establishing the Robert Fechner Memorial Forest in honor of the Civilian Conservation Corps' first director. Fechner died December 31, 1939. The Massanutten Unit of the George Washington National Forest was declared Memorial Forest land (fig. 72).¹⁵² On February 18, 1941, Secretary of the Interior Harold Ickes officially designated a "rock outcrop at the north end of Big Meadows in Shenandoah National Park" as the Robert Fechner Rock.¹⁵³

The two memorials were the result of a year's deliberations on how to honor the late director on a national scale and preserve the integrity of his work in the CCC. The Massanutten site was chosen for being the site of the first CCC camp in the country, Camp Roosevelt, and for its suitability as a "model multiple-use forest area."¹⁵⁴ The Shenandoah site was significant as the area of Fechner's and Roosevelt's "first joint inspection of the Conservation Corps' activities on August 12, 1933."¹⁵⁵



Figure 63--Picnic shelter with kitchen, Sherando Lake Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

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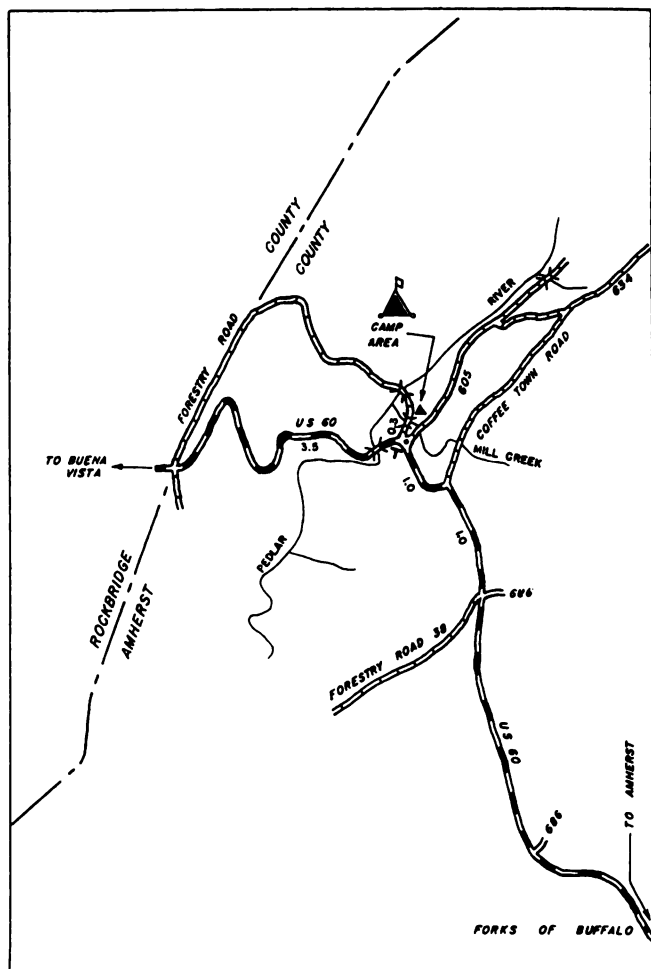


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Figure 66--Picnic shelter, Longdale Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

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Figure 67--Detail of picnic shelter showing notched log corners and bolted braces, Longdale Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

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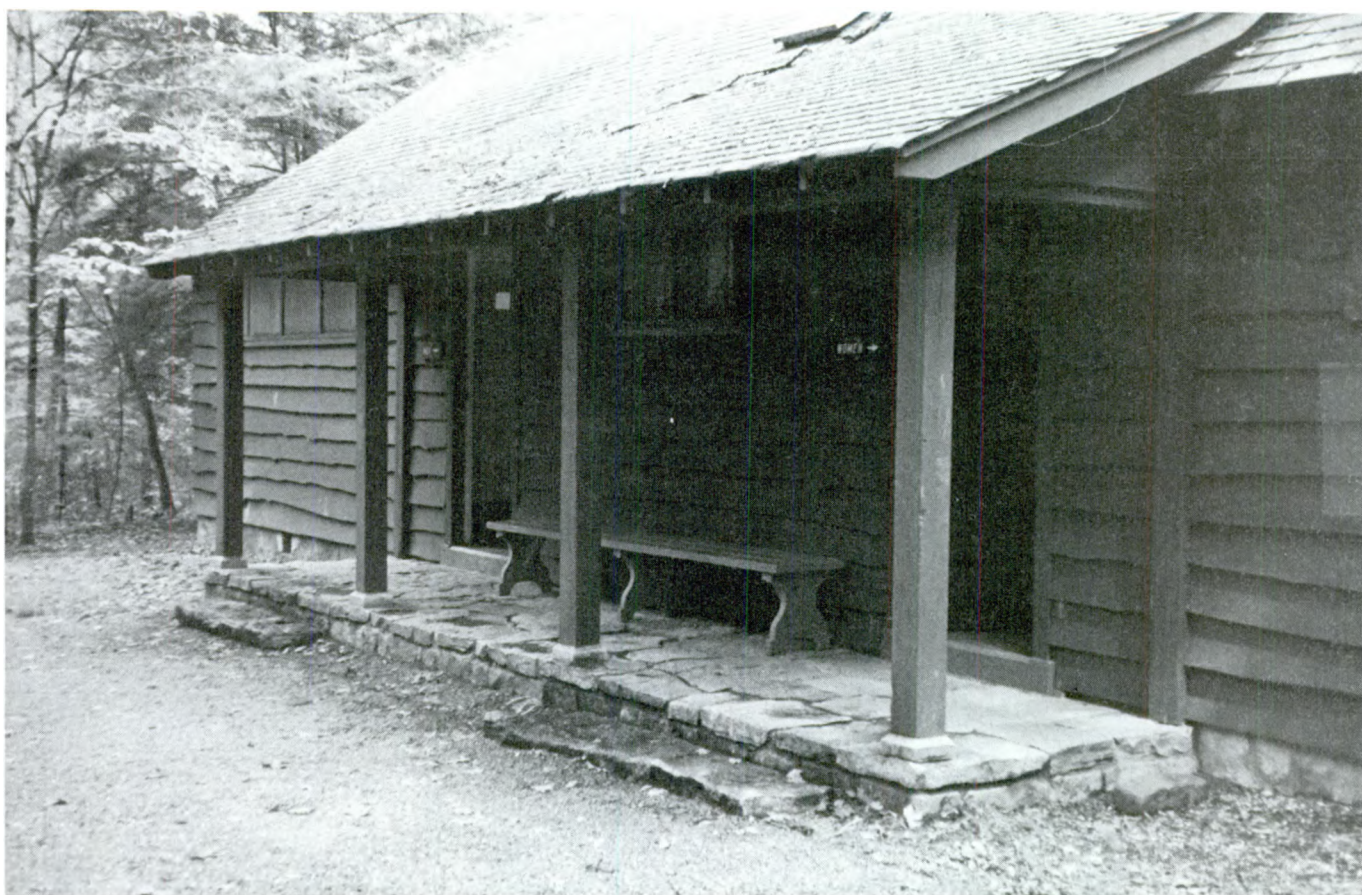


Figure 68--Bathhouse, Longdale Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

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Figure 69--Drinking fountain, Longdale Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

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115. T.J. McVey. CCC camp inspection report, Camp Edinburg, F-15. April 7, 1934: p. 1. Located at: National Archives and Record Service, Washington, DC; Record Group 35-115, 1158.
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118. Harold L. Bordue, Forest Supervisor. Memorandum for files and District Ranger Crisman. July 19, 1935: p. 4. Located at: National Archives and Record Service, Washington, DC; Record Group 95-145, 6.
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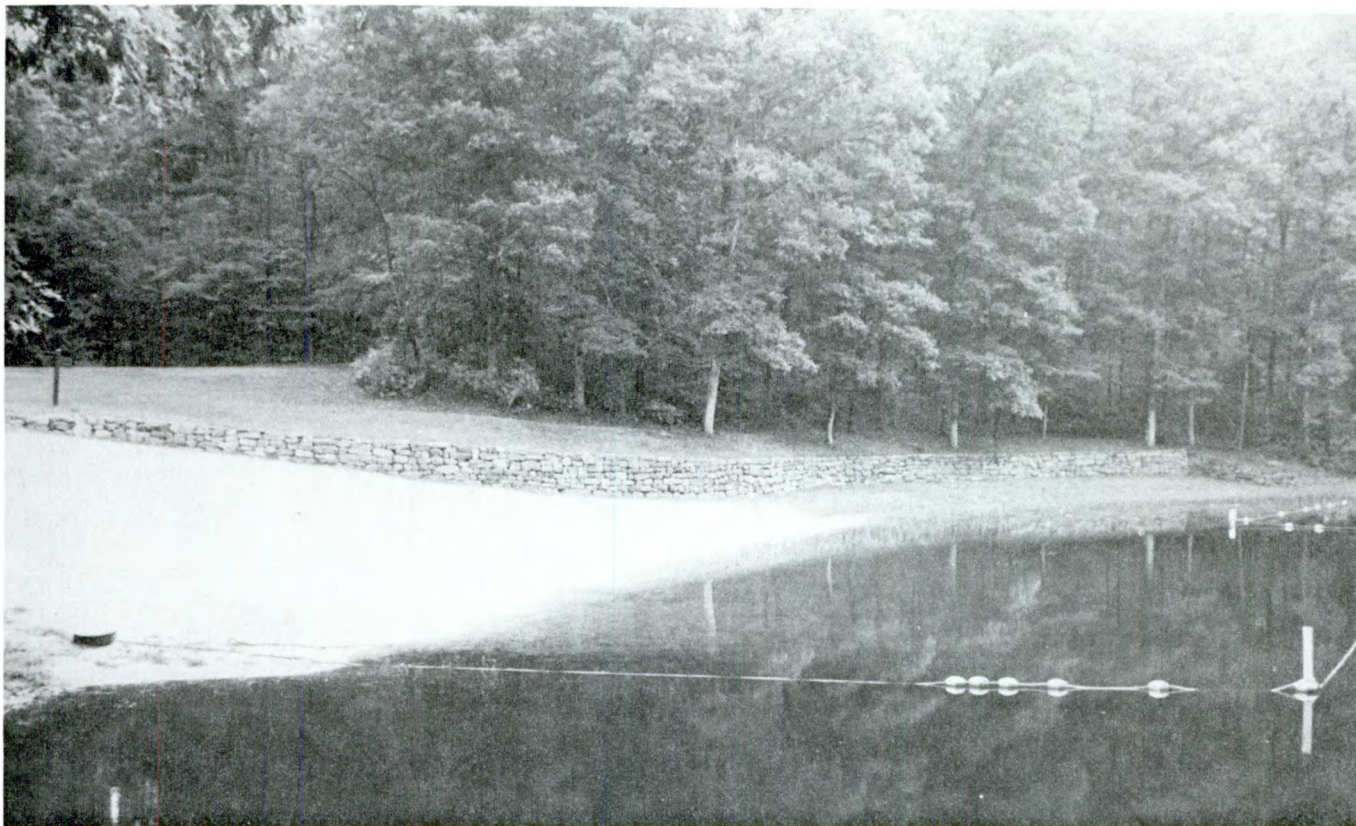


Figure 70—Beach at Longdale Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

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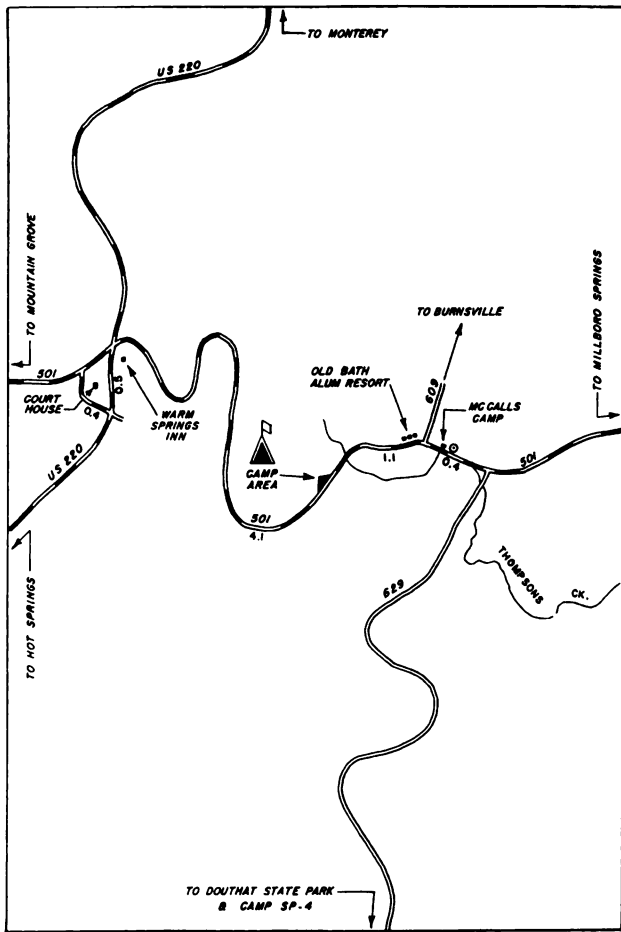


Figure 71--Location of Camp Bath-Alum, F-25, George Washington National Forest, VA. (National Archives 35-17, 897)

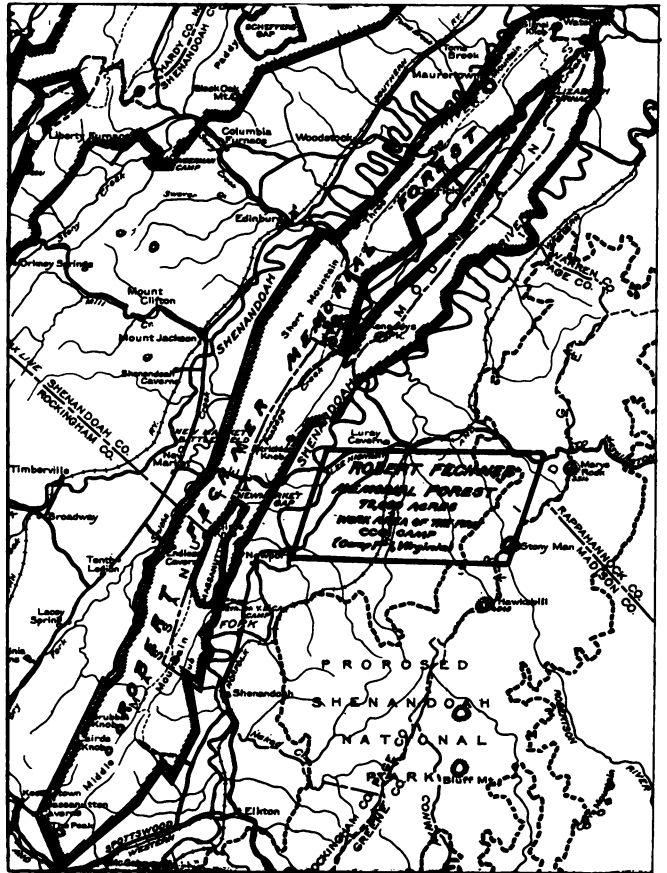


Figure 72--Location of Robert Fechner Memorial Forest, George Washington National Forest, VA. (National Archives 35-6, 908, 786)

Chapter 14 Mount Hood National Forest

On June 17, 1892, President Benjamin Harrison established the Bull Run Timberland Reserve west of Mount Hood as protection for the water supply of Portland, Oregon. On September 28, 1893, President Grover Cleveland proclaimed the Cascade Range Forest Reserve, which encompassed Bull Run as well as lands extending the length of Oregon's Cascade Mountains. The reserve was administered by the General Land Office's forestry division until 1905 when the USDA Forest Service was assigned jurisdiction.¹

In 1908 the Forest Service split up the Cascade Range Reserve into the Oregon, Cascade, Umpqua, Crater and Deschutes Forests. The Oregon Forest, as bounded then, extended from the Columbia south to the divide between the South Santiam and McKenzie Rivers on the west side, and to the head of the Tumalo in the big Broken Top-Three Sisters basin on the east.²

Mount Hood National Forest was created from the Oregon National Forest in 1924. Its size was reduced from 1,787,000 acres to just over 1 million acres when the Santiam watershed was transferred to the Willamette National Forest to the south.³ When the Civilian Conservation Corps began operating in 1933, Mount Hood National Forest had 1,092,583 acres, less than its present acreage.⁴

The headquarters had been established in Portland, but in 1924 it was moved to Gresham with Thomas H. Sherrard as the Mount Hood's first supervisor. He remained there until 1934 when he transferred to a recreational development position in the regional office. He was replaced by A.O. Waha, who served as forest supervisor through the balance of the CCC period.⁵

Mount Hood National Forest is currently divided into seven ranger districts: Barlow, Bear Springs, Clackamas, Columbia Gorge, Estacada, Hood River, and Zigzag. The forest is located in north-central Oregon, bounded on the north by the Columbia River and on the south by the Breitenbush River. The Warm Springs Indian Reservation cuts into the southeast corner of the forest. Nearly 1,500 acres of the Mount Hood Forest was designated Mount Hood Wilderness Area in 1931. The Mount Hood Forest administers a small section of the Jefferson Wilderness Area as well. Mount Hood National Forest belongs to Forest Service Region 6 (fig. 73).

Mount Hood is one of a chain of snowcapped volcanic peaks; its elevation is 11,235 feet. Much of the Mount Hood National Forest is characterized by narrow, steep-walled river valleys and heavily timbered slopes. Dominant tree species include Douglas-fir, western redcedar, Alaska-cedar, western hemlock, and lodgepole pine. Large contrasts in vegetation occur between the east and west slopes of the Cascades. Heavier precipitation falls on the west side producing thicker vegetative growth. Distinctive topographical features include Mt. Hood, the Columbia River Gorge, Multnomah Falls, and several hot springs.

Historically, the land now called Mount Hood National Forest was a significant gateway for pioneers coming to the Oregon Territory. The Oregon Trail passed through the Cascades, south of Mount Hood. In 1846, the Oregon Trail was made into Oregon's first road by Samuel Barlow, a pioneer authorized by Congress to turn the trail into a toll road. Among the CCC's many projects

was the reconstruction of a section of the old Barlow Road into a bridle path, now called the Pioneer Bridle Trail.

Civilian Conservation Corps work projects on the Mount Hood National Forest primarily followed the region's strong trend toward recreational development. Prior to the CCC period, Mount Hood's south slope area had already become a popular recreation spot for both local citizens and tourists, especially for skiing.

Studies of that area were made in 1918 by F.W. Cleator and in the 1920's by Francis E. Williamson, Jr., during the time private land was starting to be developed for summer homes.

On April 28, 1926, the Secretary of Agriculture designated certain lands surrounding Mount Hood and adjacent to the Mount Hood Loop Highway for use and enjoyment by the general public for recreation purposes for which the Mount Hood Forest was established. Since that time recreation use within the immediate environs of the mountain has been considered dominant.⁶

Shortly thereafter, 83,731 acres was designated the Mount Hood Recreation Area and dedicated to recreation use for the general public. Winter sports in particular have been developed in the south slope area, but year-round activities such as picnicking, camping, hiking, and horseback riding have also been provided for. The CCC assisted in this development by constructing recreation trails, trail shelters, picnic areas, campgrounds, and ski areas and by contributing to the construction of Timberline Lodge, a major attraction in the area.

The CCC contributed to more than just recreational development on the Mount Hood Forest. Major contributions were also made to the forestry program through

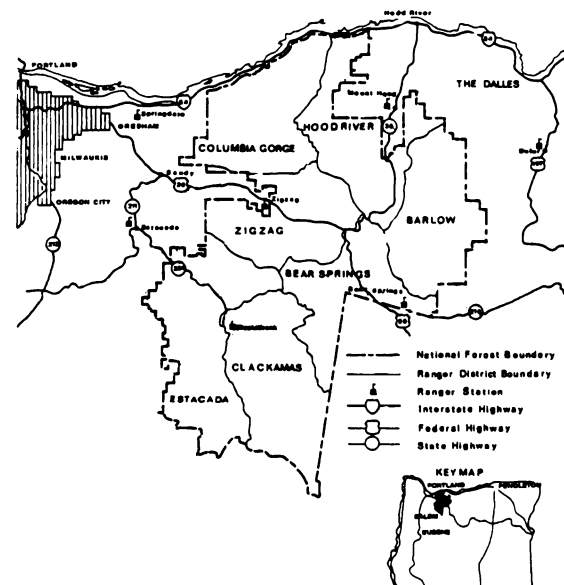


Figure 73—Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Courtesy of Forest Supervisor's Office, Mount Hood National Forest, Gresham, OR)

the planting and thinning of trees, the development of trails and roads for better forest management, insect control, and assistance in all phases of fire prevention and suppression. In one case, 300 men from 6 Mount Hood camps helped fight the large Wilson River Fire on another national forest.⁷ The CCC also helped build many administrative sites still used by the ranger districts.

Information on the number and location of CCC camps on the Mount Hood Forest is inconsistent and incomplete. It appears that some side camps were occupied as long as the main camps, and it is difficult to distinguish among them. A few side camps were even assigned numbers, thus making distinctions more confusing. In other cases, new companies moved into old campsites and were assigned new numbers. In most cases, CCC camps retained the numbers of previous camps. Names of camps were also changed frequently on the Mount Hood. Finally, camp directories used post offices as a means of identification. This makes it especially difficult to separate camps in rural areas where several camps used one post office.

The following camps have been identified as operating on the Mount Hood National Forest between 1933 and 1942:

F-7	Camp Wyeth/Cascade Locks
F-8	Camp "Dee"/Parkdale Camp
F-9	Camp Friend
F-10	Camp Bear Springs/Wapanitia
F-11	Camp Zigzag
F-12	Summit Meadows/Camp Swim/ Government Camp
F-13	High Rock Camp/Government Camp
F-14	Camp Plaza/Estacada/Government Camp (inconsistent)
F-15	Oak Grove/Estacada
F-103	Oak Grove/Estacada
F-107	Camp Latourelle/Bridal Veil
F-138	Government Camp

Camp F-7, Wyeth, and Camp F-11, Zigzag, were occupied for the longest periods. Both began operating in the first enrollment period. Camp F-7 was abandoned in November 1941, and F-11 closed in 1942 at the end of the CCC program. In February 1936, when the Roosevelt Administration was considering a severe reduction in CCC camps across the country, Oregon's Governor Charles H. Martin made a personal plea to the President. He asked that Oregon be allowed to keep all of its camps. Martin requested that Roosevelt consider the importance of State and private forestry camps when reckoning distribution. He also wanted another opportunity to discuss Oregon's camp distribution with the President.⁸ The proposed reduction was postponed. It would probably not have affected the Mount Hood Forest as F-7 and F-11 were the only camps in operation at the time.

Four CCC camps on the Mount Hood Forest were open only during the first 1933 enrollment period. These were F-8, F-9, F-10, and F-13. They were probably all tent camps with only a small number of permanent buildings. All buildings from these camps were officially transferred to Forest Service custody in the summer of 1934. No inspection reports have been located for these camps.⁹

Civilian Conservation Corps camps on Mount Hood National Forest were occupied by companies from Oregon and several eastern corps areas. No adjustment problems or enrollee disturbances were recorded, nor any negative reactions to the small number of black enrollees. Company No. 2114, located just east of the Mount Hood boundary and composed of Massachusetts men, sent a telegram to CCC Director Fechner on November 24, 1935, to protest a racial segregation policy ordering six black enrollees back East:

We would like action taken regarding transfer of six colored members of this camp. These men came west with us and have been in camp sufficient time to merit better treatment than that to which they have been subjected. Orders received here state that all six men be returned to Massachusetts. 190 Bay State men shall demand to be returned to Massachusetts if these men are sent back home because of racial prejudice. We request this matter be given immediate attention as transfer becomes effective Wednesday, November 27.¹⁰

A communication from Acting Director James McEntee to the adjutant general on the following day gave every indication that the segregation of Company 2114 would be enforced.¹¹

The educational and social life of the CCC camps at Mount Hood was well developed. The relative proximity of the Portland urban area provided more diversity for the camps than found in many other Forest Service regions. Athletic teams were established in leagues that included teams from nearby communities. Educational programs offered a wide variety of academic and vocational courses as well as correspondence classes through the States of Oregon and California. Of particular interest was an aircraft sheet metal school developed at Camp Zigzag as part of national defense training efforts.

Another unique feature of the CCC's education program in Region 6 was the use of "showboats." Trucks traveled among the camps offering movies of forestry education programs:

Each truck was completely equipped with electric light plant, motion picture machines. . . . All programs were planned to be strictly educational, along forestry lines, and to give the men in the camps an understanding of what forestry was, why they were doing the jobs they were, and what their work meant in the general forestry picture.¹²

In Oregon, trucks were owned by the State Board of Forestry, Oregon Forest Fire Association, and the USDA Forest Service. Assistant Regional Forester F.V. Horton supervised the showboat program. The goal was to visit each camp once every 5 weeks. Enrollee response to the visits was enthusiastic.¹³

Projects accomplished by the CCC on the Mount Hood Forest are representative of the work done by the Corps throughout the northwest region. The program's general objective was to help the forests achieve already established long-term goals such as recreation development and forest management. The work experiences of locally enrolled men were tapped to provide quality supervision for an otherwise unskilled labor supply. Project supervisors strived to make attractive, well-matched, and functional buildings, and to construct roads and trails to

blend with the natural landscape. The survival of much of the Corps' work testifies to its longlasting qualities.

Personnel on the Mount Hood Forest have recently examined and recorded data on CCC projects and resources. Nearly all known CCC structures have been inventoried. The description includes location, physical characteristics, and historical significance. A stimulus to some district inventories has been E. Gail Throop's research on CCC architecture within Region 6.

General Building Specifications

On August 3, 1935, W. L. Turner sent a field inspection report to the regional engineer that criticized many of the forest's buildings for overuse of materials. He said, "Limiting these structures to a few well-chosen materials will go a long way in correcting this condition in the future." Turner suggested the use of shakes on buildings. He also suggested 12-inch sawn lap siding as a building material.¹⁴

Turner claimed, "Paint of any sort does not belong in the forest." Stain was mandated instead. To avoid monotony, "a green stain on the roof with sufficient yellow to blend in with the tone existing in the tree foliage should be used." Turner also specified that natural colored stains be used on the sash and trim to blend in with the surrounding environment.¹⁵

Turner discouraged the use of round posts or rafters, noting that hewn timbers were preferable and plank construction should be used on doors and shutters. He suggested some existing structures might be made "less offensive by the use of shakes over their present covering." Stone should be used in "alpine areas" but not cobblestone as it would be out of place. Stone has excellent insulation qualities and ties to the surroundings. Turner specified logs for use on recreation buildings only "where we more or less strive for the picturesque." Turner proposed the use of wide vertical boards in gable ends, but added the designer should take care to consider natural transition points between materials.¹⁶

Turner's instructions reflect information contained in the 1936 Recreation Handbook and foreshadow the philosophy of Ellis Groben's Acceptable Building Plans manual published in 1938. In general, paint colors changed more often than any other specification. By 1938, the standard indicated stains for roofs, brown paint for buildings in timbered areas, white paint for open or settled areas, and light gray paint for lookouts. Once a site had been chosen, architects, engineers, and landscape architects such as Linn A. Forrest, E.U. Blanchfield, H.L. Gifford, and J.K. Pollock designed structures appropriate to the sites. Many plans were of standard designs, adaptable to a variety of sites.¹⁷

General building specifications issued and updated for Region 6 in December 1935 gave thorough instructions on wood grades and mortar content. Information for brick work on residences and offices states "do not use brick work above the roofline or where exposed to view except upon approval of Regional Forester. Corbel out brick and finish with split stone." The use of split stone for fireplace mantels in residence buildings and for steps and porch floors was encouraged. Stone was preferred over brick and concrete for its rustic appearance.

Exposed concrete was discouraged. It was recommended a stone veneer be used on concrete basement walls. Plain concrete walls were satisfactory, however, for warehouses, shops, and some utility buildings. All of these general specifications were contingent on the building plans and not intended to be rigid.¹⁸

No structure was to be painted or stained until orders came from the Region 6 office. Flooring was to be red or white oak in residences and fir or hemlock in other buildings. Walls should be lath and plaster, with knotty pine of "vertical boarding finish" in random widths. Ceilings were to be covered with Masonite or NuWood, and insulation was to be either wood, or a flexible type such as Cabots Quilt or Balsam Wool.¹⁹

Camp Wyeth/Cascade Locks, F-7

Camp Wyeth was originally established and operated in the CCC's first enrollment period during the summer of 1933.²⁰ The first company at Camp Wyeth was No. 606, made up of junior enrollees from Illinois under the command of Captain Faye. Carroll E. Brown, a locally enrolled foreman at the camp, noted Camp Wyeth was located about 5 miles east of Cascade Locks. Brown worked under Project Superintendent Rudy Tohl and assisted with various road, trail, and campground construction projects.²¹ The camp was one of six CCC camps on the Mount Hood National Forest sent to help fight northwest Oregon's Wilson River Fire, or Tillamook Burn, in August 1933.²² In October 1933, F-7 closed for the winter, and Company 606 moved to California.²³

Camp F-7 reopened in the spring of 1935 as Camp Cascade Locks. In April 1935, Company 615 occupied the camp. An extensive educational program was soon established. About 65 percent of the enrollees participated in the program as a leisure activity, and the rest took part as a work activity. Classes were taught by Forest Service foremen and included lookout duty, landscaping, auto mechanics, acetylene welding, ballroom dancing, hygiene, and stenography. A darkroom and a woodworking shop were built for instructional purposes.²⁴

The recreational hall at F-7 was furnished with a piano as well as pool and Ping-Pong tables. There was a stage for entertainment, and monthly dances were held. Movies, special lectures, and biweekly trips to Hood River enhanced recreational opportunities. A library was constructed and had a large selection of books, magazines, and technical digests. A camp newspaper, *The Blues*, was published by enrollees twice monthly. Articles were printed in the local community newspaper reporting on camp activities. Community relations were further improved by camp personnel's weekly attendance at Chamber of Commerce luncheons.²⁵

Near the end of 1935, Company 609 moved from Summit Camp to F-7. On October 12, 1936, Company 4765, a company of 141 junior enrollees, moved into Camp Cascade Locks. Under the command of Captain L.H. Rosenthal, crews of Minnesota and Oregon enrollees worked on a building program at the nearby Columbia Gorge Ranger Station and public campground improvements at Eagle Creek. Project supervisor was H.M. Johnston.

The camp's frame-constructed buildings were rated from good to excellent in early 1937. They were reported to have commercially powered lighting and adequate wood heat. All buildings had been insulated from the winter weather with Celo-tex. Food supplies were obtained locally or from Vancouver Barracks, WA.²⁶

In December 1937, Company 1452 occupied F-7 under the command of First Lieutenant C.R. Cook. The 159-man company was made up of enrollees from Tennessee, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina. Their primary tasks were to develop the Eagle Creek public campground, lookout stations, and parking area on the Columbia River Highway near Bonneville Dam. Work remained under the direction of Herbert Johnston. According to Inspector M.J. Bowen, heavy, continual rainfall was lowering the morale of enrollees, none of whom was accustomed to Oregon's winter weather.²⁷

In 1937, work was done on the Gudhart Tract of the forest, including building a rock wall and dam in the vicinity of the Eagle Creek Campground. Extra money was not available to hire skilled labor, and rangers were instructed to utilize CCC enrollees. The rangers did not think enrollees were qualified to work without skilled supervision, however, it appears that outside help was not forthcoming, as the enrollees finished the work.²⁸

George Campbell, educational advisor for Company 1452, reported there were eight academic classes in the program with three classes at the illiterate level, three elementary, and two high school. There were also 8 vocational, 13 job training, and 4 hobby classes. Local newspapers were supplied to the camp as well as six southern papers to keep men informed of the news back home. Some of the men were slow in adapting to the new environment.²⁹

In February 1939, conditions at Camp Cascade Locks remained unchanged except for a new company commander, P.R. Chaplin. Company strength was calculated to be 196 men, 156 of whom worked on road construction, roadside clearing, campground development, and general building projects. A total of 1,878 man-days had been lost on work projects due to bad weather, wood detail, camp rehabilitation, sickness, and lack of conditioning. Improvements at the camp included shingling the exterior of all buildings, painting and improving the kitchen, installing porcelain washtrays in the washroom, constructing a new education building, and a "general rehabilitation of the entire camp."³⁰

On May 8, 1939, Forest Ranger Albert Wiesendanger addressed a letter to Captain Chaplin, Camp Wyeth, complimenting him on the improvements made at the Eagle Creek Campground. The letter also called the commander's attention to the unacceptable behavior of certain CCC enrollees who were hanging around the campground during their time off. Wiesendanger cited examples of young men making impolite advances and remarks to young women visiting the area, and carving on the picnic tables. The forest ranger suggested Captain Chaplin speak to his company.³¹

By February 1940, 191 men belonged to Company 1452, under the command of William P. School, Jr. Construction projects were of the same types as previously undertaken. Some 2,012 man-days had been lost over a 3-month period. Camp services were all rated as good to

excellent, except for an undersized, inadequately furnished recreation hall rated as "poor."³²

Camp F-7 was abandoned on November 16, 1941. Its rigid-style buildings were left in Forest Service custody.³³

Benson Park CCC Camp

An unnumbered CCC camp was reportedly established at Benson Park and may have been connected to Camp F-7 at Cascade Locks. An August 1934 Forest Service report mentions the Benson Park Camp assisting in extinguishing a fire in the town of Cascade Locks.³⁴ Another report describes an inspection visit by ECW Director Fechner to the Eagle Creek Campground and Benson Park camp.³⁵

Eagle Creek Campground and Picnic Area

The idea for the Eagle Creek Campground originated with Mount Hood Forest Supervisor Thomas H. Sherrard in 1914, and within a year the campground opened as the first "auto camp" in the northwest region. The present picnic area at Eagle Creek is separated from the camping area and was built entirely by the CCC in 1936. An extension to the picnic area was built in 1937 and included picnic spots and cooking stoves as well as additional parking. The CCC ovens in this area are in better condition than more recently built cement stoves.³⁶

The main Eagle Creek Campground and Picnic Area is a large recreation area that includes campsites on both sides of the Columbia River Highway. It is possibly the most elaborate and best preserved of the CCC-built recreation areas in the Mount Hood Forest. Structures still existing at Eagle Creek include two restrooms, a picnic shelter, an overlook building with a community kitchen, register booth, a suspension footbridge, and a garage. There are also drinking fountains, campfire pits, retaining walls, combination ovens/open fireplaces, campsites, and picnic areas.

Overlook Shelter—The Eagle Creek Overlook Shelter was built in 1937 and has continued to function as a community kitchen and picnic shelter (fig. 74). It is located on the north side of the Overlook Picnic Area at a point south of the Loop Road and overlooks the Bonneville Dam on the Columbia River.³⁷ The overlook building and picnic area were developed to accommodate large numbers of viewers interested in watching the dam's construction. The bluff chosen for the shelter gave them a perfect vantage point to view the dam and the river. The campground and picnic areas offered facilities for extended sightseeing.³⁸

The overlook shelter is approximately 75 by 100 feet. The main portion, a kitchen, is a rectangular area 25 by 40 feet with a shingled gable roof. Along the front, or north, is a 15-foot-wide flagstone porch extending around both sides. A square wing 20 by 20 feet is attached on the south end and contains the restrooms.³⁹

From the porch a large open doorway leads into the kitchen. The original doors have been removed. Two double-hung windows are located on each side of the door and on two sides of the building. All window glass has been removed. Side windows have been replaced with wooden louvers. The outside walls are covered by



Figure 74--Overlook picnic shelter and kitchen at Eagle Creek Campground, Mount Hood National Forest, OR.

clapboard to the window level and there is board-and-batten above it. The gables are also covered with clapboard. The kitchen area has a large fireplace of coursed squared stone, built-in wooden benches, and an open ceiling with exposed support beams.⁴⁰ The support beams and side windows have decorative carving that includes the CCC/Forest Service pine tree logo.

The attached restrooms have a shingled gable roof. The exterior walls are covered by stone on the lower part, and with board-and-batten above. Interior walls are stucco, and the floor is cement. Both entryways are paved with flagstone.⁴¹ The building has been vandalized, but it is still usable.

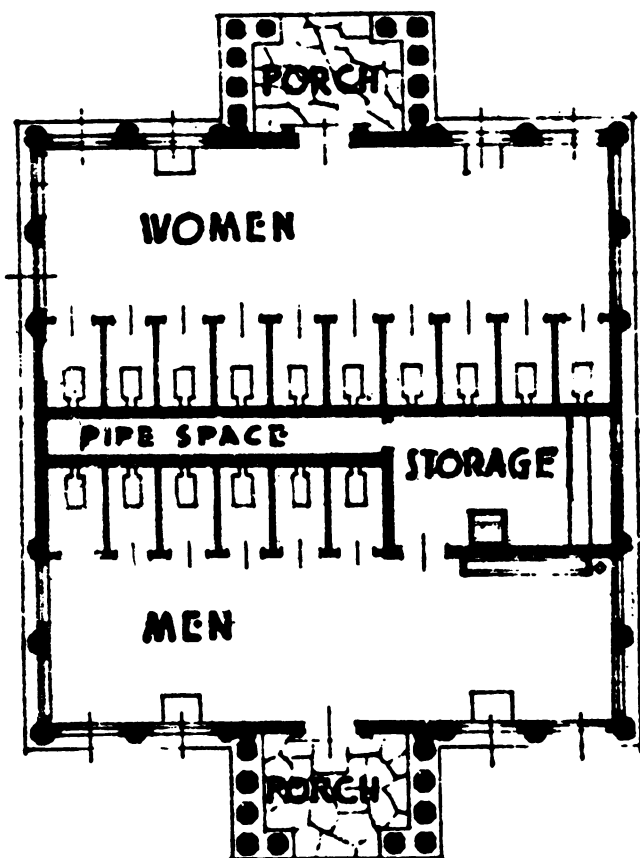
Picnic Shelter/Community Kitchen--The Eagle Creek Picnic Shelter and Community Kitchen is a peeled-log frame building with a gable roof. It was built in 1936, and although vandalized it is still in good condition. It has 3-foot-high stone walls. The kitchen has three entrances. The main entrance is at the center of the north wall; side entrances are on the east and west walls.⁴² Inside, a squared stone fireplace is at the center of the south wall and includes a carved stone that reads: "Community Kitchen, Built by CCC's 1936."

Restrooms--The restroom building is located south of the Eagle Creek Recreation Area's entrance parking area. It has split stone walls up to window level. Windows are frosted, wood frame casement type. The building was built in 1937 and is still used. The structure is square, approximately 50 by 50 feet, and divided in half to form the men's and women's rooms (fig. 75).

The restrooms have shingled gable roofs above each entrance, with the pine tree logo inside each gable, and a shingled hip roof over the main structure (fig. 76). A square, vented cupola sits at the roof peak and is capped with a shingled hip roof. The building's interior has vertical board siding and a cement floor.⁴⁴

Suspension Footbridge--The CCC built a 6- by 175-foot wooden suspension bridge over Eagle Creek in 1936 that remains in excellent condition (fig. 77). The bridge is described in a July 1978 inventory form.⁴⁵

Oven/Faucet Structures--Also at the Eagle Creek Picnic Area are two stone structures that combine ovens with water faucets. On one of the structures, a single large stone was used to form the back of the oven. The faucets extend from the back of the ovens. The structure is approximately 6 feet long, 3 feet wide, and 4-1/2



FLOOR PLAN.
32.0' x 32.0'

Figure 75--Public comfort station, Region 6.
 (From Forest Service, Division of Engineering,
Acceptable Building Plans)

feet high at the chimney, which is 2 feet above the grill. All the CCC ovens, faucets, and drinking fountains in the area are still in excellent condition.⁴⁶

Cooper Spur Trail Shelter--The Cooper Spur Trail Shelter was one of several shelters built by the CCC along the Timberline Trail. It was probably built by the Cooper Spur Camp, a side camp of Camp Wyeth at Cascade Locks. The native stone shelter is located on the Hood River Ranger District, about 1 mile south of the Cloud Cap Inn and 50 yards from the intersection of the Timberline Trail and Trail 600-A.⁴⁷

The 12- by 12-foot shelter was built in 1934, and has been altered, but it is in excellent, usable condition. It has a more recent flat aluminum roof (fig. 78).⁴⁸

Cloud Cap/Tilly Jane Recreation Area--The Cloud Cap/Tilly Jane Recreation Area is located on the north slope of Mount Hood off Cloud Cap Road (S-12) and between Tilly Jane Creek and the Eliot Branch. The area was nominated to the National Register of Historic Places in December 1979 and has since been designated an historic area. It is considered important for its role in the area's early recreation development, and for its

"strong ties to the growth and history of the Hood River Valley."⁴⁹

A CCC side camp was located within this area and is described as having been within "the area bound by the present road, Tilly Jane Creek, the cabin sites and the hillside to the west." The described location is west of the Tilly Jane Campground and was probably the Cooper Spur side camp (fig. 79).⁵⁰

Among the CCC's projects were improvements on the Tilly Jane Campground (originally developed by the Forest Service in 1926), including construction of a guard station, garage, and ski shelter, and "brushing out" the 1889 Mount Hood State Company Road for use as a ski trail. The guard station and garage were built in 1934 and the ski shelter in 1939.⁵¹

The Tilly Jane Guard residence is made up of several adjoining wings. The main portion of the structure faces east into the campground. It is connected on its west elevation, by a short hallway leading into a rectangular room, with another small rectangular wing adjoining its east end. The overall layout is that of an irregular T, approximately 22 by 36 feet. The wood frame structure rests on a cement foundation and is covered by shake, hip-on-gable roof, pierced just south of center through its peak by a stone chimney covered by a hood. The exterior walls are covered by a clapboard siding to just below window level, followed by vertical board-and-batten up to the roof. The only exception . . . is the small, westernmost wing which is covered with shingles. The main entrance is in the center of the east elevation with windows on each side. . . .

Inside, the building is finished with dressed lumber in a very rustic manner. The main structure is broken into two parts. A kitchen area is located on the south portion and the living area, with its hardwood floor and stone fireplace, occupies the rest. A set of steep stairs leads up to a loft in the attic from just next to the front door.

Several feet south of the guard residence is a garage, 16 by 18 feet, built in the same exterior style. Virtually no changes have occurred to these buildings through the years.⁵²

The A-shaped ski shelter is another interesting structure at Tilly Jane. Its architectural design is characteristic of alpine areas. It is located on the south side of Tilly Jane Creek, approximately 200 feet from the American Legion Camp cookhouse.⁵³

The one-room shelter or warming hut was built with large cedar poles that sharply slope from the ridgeline to the ground. They are anchored to the ground for greater strength. Stringers form the roof and are covered by wood shakes to a point just above the ground. Half-log vertical-siding fills in either side of the front vestibule. There are two entrances with one door centrally located at ground level and another positioned 13 feet directly above it. The upper story is designed for entrance during "normal" ski conditions.

Inside the upper door is a platform with stairs leading down each side into the approximately 24- by 32-foot



Figure 76--Restroom, Eagle Creek Campground, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

main room. The upstairs has a wooden plank floor. Inside walls are covered by vertical boards. Windows are located at each end of the building.⁵⁴

The floor of the ski shelter was originally covered by gravel and the interior equipped with two wood stoves, one cookstove, and one heating stove, as well as eight double bunks. There is now a cement slab floor and a circular, off-center fireplace at the shelter. Drop-toilet outhouses were installed at the back end of the main room when the shelter was first built.⁵⁵

Camp Dee, F-8

Camp Dee was located near Parkdale, OR. In August 1933, company commander was D.S. Perry, camp superintendent was S.W. Robards.

The first building completed was the washhouse. Water was piped about 1800 feet to all parts of the campground which is along the middle fork of Hood River. . . . To get to the camp a road had to be built from Parkdale road over a heavy bridge across the middle fork of Hood River.⁵⁶

Officers' quarters were established in a 20- by 22-foot log cabin on a hill overlooking the camp. It was anticipated that, once abandoned, the Forest Service would use the structure as a road and trail warehouse. Eleven foremen worked under Superintendent Robards, directing work projects. Recreational activities at Camp Dee included a dance orchestra, a hillbilly orchestra, two quartets, and two baseball teams.⁵⁷

Parkdale Ranger Station

The Parkdale Ranger Station was probably built by Camp F-8 in 1933. It is located on the Hood River District of the Mount Hood Forest. The buildings at the ranger station are arranged in a U-shape around a driveway and parking area and include a residence, garage, office, machine and storage shop, warehouse/blacksmith shop, gas house, fire warehouse, and road maintenance office (formerly a residence). Only the first four buildings are discussed in detail here. The rest closely resemble the machine shop, except for the gas house, which has new siding.



Figure 77--Footbridge, Eagle Creek Campground, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1932)

The residence building is a two-story, rectangular, wood-frame house with a concrete foundation (fig. 80). It has an eaveless gable roof with dormers and a center gabled front porch. Located at the west end is an exterior chimney comprised of large, coursed rubble masonry. A second chimney in the center is also stone. The walls have shake siding, and windows are single sash of 30 lights. The front porch entry is a semicircular arch of radiating brick voussoirs with a keystone.⁵⁸

The two-car, 20- by 40-foot garage accompanies the residence and is built in a matching style. It has a flemish-bond brick chimney at the north end and wooden shakes covering the exterior. Two sliding doors open into the garage. There is a loft room on the upper level. There are six horizontal and six vertical sash windows.⁵⁹

The ranger's office is a rectangular, one-story wood frame building measuring about 24 by 42 feet with a concrete foundation and basement (fig. 81). A south-facing front porch has a wood shingle gable roof and is supported by paired square timber posts with curved bracing and brackets. The porch gable is filled with board-and-batten and a simple Forest Service pine tree logo cut from two boards. The windows are eight-over-

eight, double-hung sash windows. The office has shake siding.⁶⁰

The machine shop and storage building has a one-and-a-half story, rectangular wood frame measuring 56 by 36 feet with a gable roof and concrete foundation (fig. 82). The front, or east, side has a large garage door and two entrances. The south side has an exterior wooden staircase to a second floor entrance. The building has shake siding and nine-light sash windows.⁶¹

Friend Camp, F-9

Camp F-9 was known as Friend Camp and was established in the first enrollment period as soon as climatic conditions permitted construction.⁶²

Camp Superintendent Sam Bellah directed F-9's work projects. Three major road construction projects were the Bennett Pass Road on the Lookout Mountain Section; Logging Gulch at Beeks Mill; and the Flag Point Road. By September, the two road crews had completed 33 miles of road improvement and 56 miles of maintenance. The camp built the lookout house at Postage Stamp; a powder house, the lookout tower, and oil and



Figure 78--Cooper Spur Trail Shelter on Timberline Trail, Mount Hood National Forest, OR.

gas house at Dufur; and garages at Rim Rock and Lookout Mountain. Other work projects included mapping the Mount Hood Forest, roadside cleanup, snag felling, squirrel poisoning, and firefighting.⁶³

Numerous side camps operated out of Friend Camp. A 60-man side camp on High Prairie at Lookout Mountain worked on roadbuilding. Smaller side camps were located at Postage Stamp, Dufur Ranger Station, Gibson Meadows, and Long Prairie.⁶⁴

Bear Springs Camp, F-10

Little information has been found regarding the Bear Springs Camp, F-10. The camp was occupied during the first enrollment period by Company 616, a company of junior enrollees from Chicago, and located near Wapanitia. Camp superintendent was A.B. MacPherson.⁶⁵

Bear Springs Recreation Area

The recreation area at Bear Springs was probably built in the summer of 1933 by Camp Bear Springs. The major structure is a picnic shelter set into a hill (fig. 83). The back wall has a raised stone foundation, and the front section has a flagstone floor. The structure is a long

rectangle, with a shingled gable roof the ends of which are filled in with a diagonal log pattern. The back wall and rear portion of the shelter's side walls are filled with vertical standing logs. The front is open and supported by four log posts with wood braces. A 3-foot wall extends around the open sides of the shelter. Two small, open windows are cut into the back wall on either side of the fireplace. The fireplace is constructed of stone and has a decorative, half-post totem pole on the mantel. One original picnic table remains. It is constructed of peeled logs and is built into the floor.

Camp Zigzag, F-11

Camp Zigzag was the longest running CCC camp on the Mount Hood National Forest and in the entire IX Corps Area. It opened during the first enrollment period on May 11, 1933, and remained open until the end of the program in 1941. The camp was located near Zigzag, OR, in Clackamas County.⁶⁶

There were 82 men at Camp Zigzag when it opened; within a year there were 193. During the first year, 7 men had been dishonorably discharged, 18 had eloped, and 121 had left with honorable discharges. Captain No. 928, a company of Oregon junior enrollees, occupied the

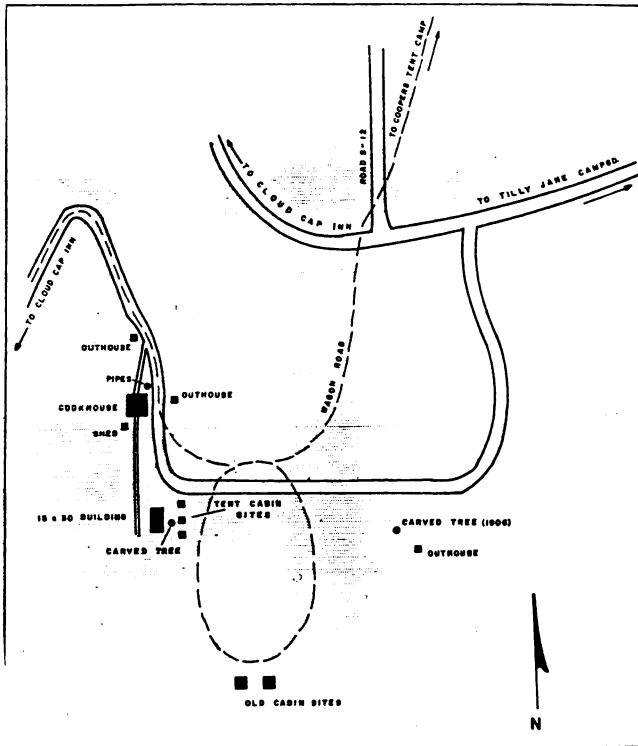


Figure 79--CCC spur or side camp located west of Tilly Jane Campground. (From Cloud Cap-Tilly Jane Recreation Area Nomination Form for National Register of Historic Places)

camp. Captain Clarence A. Herbert was the commander.⁶⁷

Under the supervision of Project Superintendent Simeri Jarvi, 156 men worked daily on projects, constructing telephone lines, fire breaks, lookout houses and towers, roads, horse trails, and Forest Service buildings. Camp Zigzag's sign shop was reported to have constructed, painted, and shipped out 805 signs for roads, trails, campgrounds, and general forest use.⁶⁸ Wrecking stills, dredging channels, and making relief models of the Mount Hood Forest were described as less typical projects of the camp.⁶⁹ Over a year's time, 853 man-days had been spent fighting forest fires. Camp buildings were erected in the rigid style in 1933 and were electrically wired.⁷⁰

James Carr was appointed camp commander in March 1934. Eighty-one members of the 145-man company worked under Supervisor Mills constructing a 54-foot bridge, improving and widening the Zigzag River channel, felling snags, and constructing buildings at the Zigzag Ranger Station. Improvements made at the camp included sealing the barracks with Firtex, building lockers, and converting part of an unused room for educational use.⁷¹

In April 1935, Camp Zigzag personnel engaged in usual work projects in addition to lake clearance, campground improvements, and fencing. Some 188 men lived at the camp, and a new project supervisor, John E. Mills, replaced Jarvi during the year. An educational program

under the direction of Arthur Hailey had been organized. A new educational building was proposed at a cost of \$100, plus voluntary enrollee labor.⁷² In October of that year, enrollee Curtis Lyle was awarded a scholarship to Reed College for his achievements in Camp Zigzag's education program:

The idea of making such a CCC scholarship available, Keezer (President Dexter Keezer, Reed College) explained, sprang from a desire to do something effective to increase the incentives of the members of the CCC camps in availing themselves of the educational opportunities offered in the camps. At each CCC camp an educational program is being carried forward, but the programs . . . are handicapped because there are not enough appealing education goals to shoot at.⁷³

By May 1936, Company 928 had decreased to 149 men and was under the command of Captain William Ralston. The camp's frame buildings had been sealed with plywood, and shakes had been added to their exteriors to make "a very neat appearance." A camp newspaper, *The Zig Zag Zephyr*, also known as *The Ziggy Zaggy Zephyr*, started publication that year through a journalism class. In addition to classes offered inside the camp, enrollees were able to take correspondence classes from the California State Department of Education and reading courses from the Oregon State Library.⁷⁴

At the end of November 1937, Captain Wallace Dittmore commanded Company No. 928, now a 193-man company. Work projects and camp conditions were essentially the same as in the past years.⁷⁵ Educational Advisor Vern Henderson claimed to have 100 percent enrollment in camp classes, with each enrollee averaging 2.3 classes and all taking one mathematics course. Thirty-two instructors offered classes. Instructors were drawn from military and technical staff, enrollees, WPA teachers, and "other interested people."⁷⁶

Mrs. Marguerite Conklin, director of the Portland public school placement bureau, comes to the camp one night each week for a 2-hour class in vocational application--the act of getting and keeping a job. . . . Mrs. Conklin registers them with her department, and makes as many efforts to place the CCC boys as she does the Portland city boys. This is a great service, as it keeps the camp educational department well informed with the openings and needs of the Portland employers.⁷⁷

During the following year, army administration at Camp Zigzag changed again. C.W. Mann became company commander and Glen B. Wood was the new educational advisor. Camp buildings and services were reported to be in generally excellent condition; a new education building was still being sought.⁷⁸

On September 19, 1939, a special investigation was ordered at Camp Zigzag by Major Frank Partridge, acting assistant adjutant general for the IX Corps Area, in response to the allegation that enrollees from the camp were being "employed in local summer resorts during times not in camp with result that local civilians are being deprived of employment."⁷⁹ Investigating Officer V.J. Gregory determined enrollees had indeed been so employed, but they had been hired because of a lack of



Figure 80--Ranger's residence, Parkdale Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

"desirable" local labor. Gregory suggested that political motivations may have prompted the criticisms against the camp, but nevertheless recommended that the company discontinue the practice.⁸⁰

On February 13, 1940, CCC Camp Inspector A.W. Stockman reported that Camp Zigzag was comprised of 206 men under the command of Theodore M. Natt. Current work projects included the construction of new camp buildings, an oil house, truck storage garages, a tool house, and a winter work shed for use by the Forest Service. Nearly all the camp buildings were rated excellent, but some rehabilitation was advised.⁸¹

Facilities at Camp Zigzag included flush latrines and free city water. Food supplies were obtained through the Vancouver District quartermaster, on contract, and from open markets in Portland and Rhododendron, OR. Electric refrigeration was available in camp. Recreational facilities ranged from small games and athletic equipment to entertainment by the camp's orchestra and

drama class. Swimming, fishing, hunting, and mountain hiking were taken advantage of seasonally. Church services were made available in nearby towns, although it was reported that many enrollees went home on weekends to attend services.⁸²

On September 15, 1941, Commander M.L. Schockley took over the supervision of Company 928. The 110-man company performed its work under the direction of Vern V. Church and included projects along 18 miles of Highway 50 between the Zigzag Camp and the Mount Hood resort area. Work involved construction of buildings in the Timberline winter sports area, a weather bureau tower, and signs and markers for the area.⁸³ Company 928 carried on additional work such as snag felling, truck trail and ranger station maintenance, and fire suppression and presuppression in the Portland watershed.⁸⁴

National defense training occupied a significant part of Camp F-11's educational program in 1941. The aircraft sheet metal school for the Vancouver Barracks

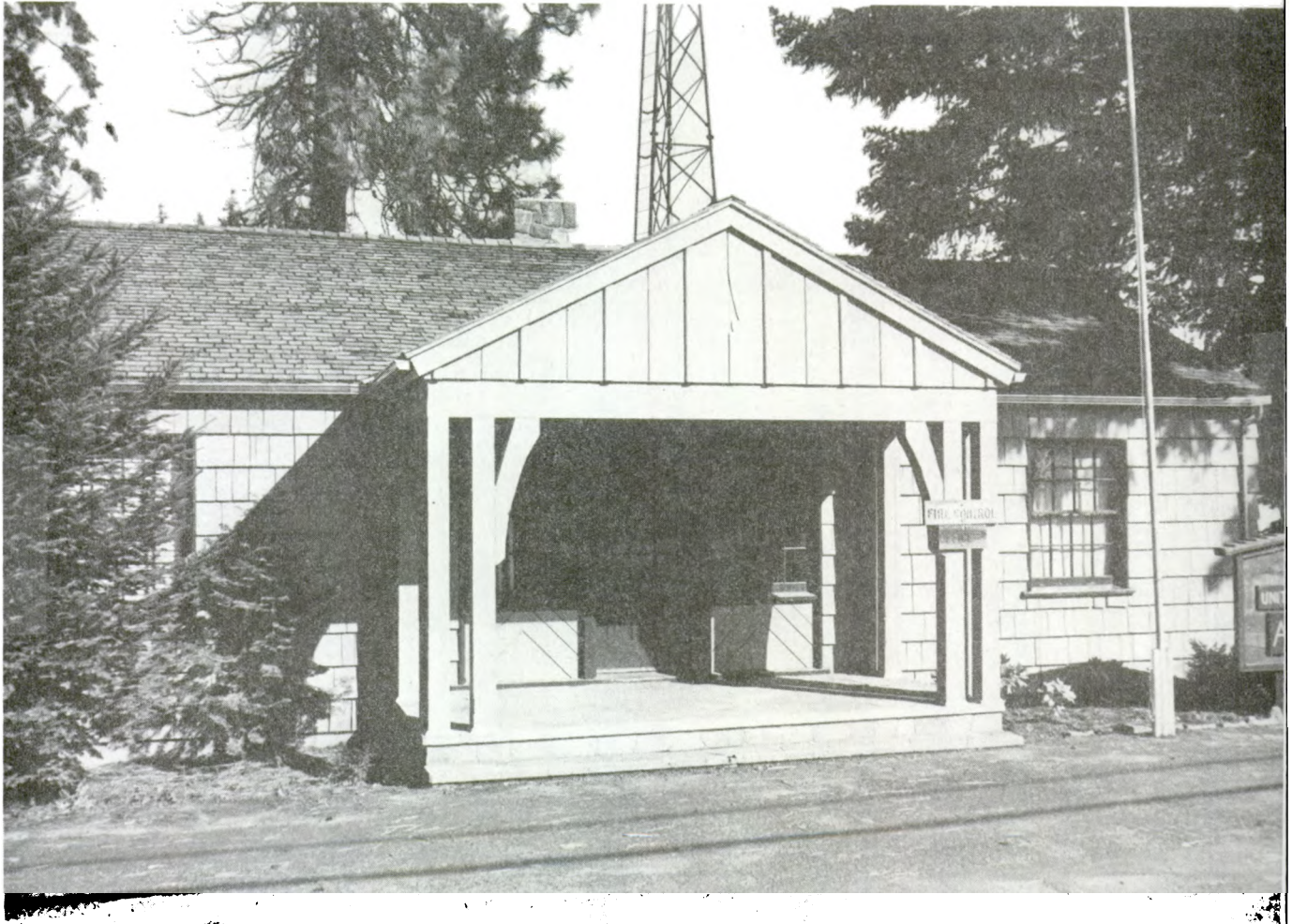


Figure 81--Office, Parkdale Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

District was located at the camp starting on June 1, 1941. It was considered one of the best in Oregon.⁸⁵

As of March 27, 1942, Inspector Stockman reported Company 928's strength at 93 men. Over the previous year 196 men had left camp with honorable discharges before the end of their enrollment term. For 2 years, Camp Zigzag had been occupied only as a winter camp; Camp F-138 at Government Camp, OR, was used during the summer periods. Administration and work projects at F-11 remained the same. Although the camp had just lost its educational advisor, Commander Schockley filled in, and the program was able to continue. National defense training classes also continued. Numerous improvements in camp buildings and grounds were reported to have taken place during this period.⁸⁶

Early in May 1942, a special investigation was ordered at Camp Zigzag to determine the validity of a recent order to have Commander Schockley relieved from duty "with prejudice because of misconduct and inefficiency."⁸⁷ Charges had been brought against Company Commander Schockley by District Commander Ralph Hall because of numerous camp deficiencies noted during

a visit to F-11. Charges included dirty, unsafe conditions; lack of discipline; and low morale among enrollees.⁸⁸

Through rebuttal and subsequent investigations, Schockley was able to clear his name of all allegations and was transferred to Camp ASCS-1 in Warrenton, OR, on May 18, 1942. Raymon Wise from Camp Redmond, OR, assumed command of F-11, which closed permanently only a few months later.⁸⁹ In addition to buildings still being used by the Zigzag Ranger Station, several foundations are left from the Zigzag CCC camp.⁹⁰

Zigzag Ranger Station

The site of the Zigzag Ranger Station, located on the Zigzag Ranger District in Zig Zag, OR, was established early in the forest's history. Some of its buildings were built in the 1920's. The following buildings were built by Camp Zigzag during its occupation from 1933-42.

Ranger's Office--The office is a two-story, rectangular building with front and back porches (fig. 84). The



Figure 82—Machine shop/storage building, Parkdale Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

porches have 10-inch-square porch posts with curved braces, and the floors are stone. The office has a gable roof with no eaves. The lower half of the building is board-and-batten, and the upper half is built with horizontal clapboard. Four dormers are located on either side of the roof, and the windows are six-pane. The building has a stone chimney. Plans for office remodeling dated January 12, 1938, refer to replacing old siding by covering it with board-and-batten, 53 feet, 3 inches across the front, and 40 feet, 7 inches from front to back.

The interior of the office was remodeled in 1938. There are four offices and one bathroom. Inside walls are covered with vertical fir boards of random widths on upper walls and horizontal boards on the lower walls.

Fire Warehouse—This is a two-story frame building with board-and-batten siding on its lower half and horizontal clapboard on the upper half. There is a gable roof with four dormers and no eaves and a porch with 10-inch-square posts. A garage door enters to the right of the building, and there is a side entrance to the second floor with outside stairs.

Ranger's Road and Trails Warehouse—This is a frame building with a saltbox roof. The building is original, but it has been altered.

Carpenter Shop—The carpenter shop is a long rectangular building with two gabled ends projecting slightly (fig. 85). The shop is approximately 80 feet across the front and 45 feet from front to back. A similar plan is shown in *Acceptable Building Plans*, F-11. The frame building has a gable roof and four dormer windows. The front is lined with folding garage doors. The gable ends on the front are vertical board with rounded edges and a Forest Service pine tree cutout at the top of each. The rest of the building has clapboard siding.

Bunkhouse/Residence—This large two-story structure possibly served as the assistant ranger's residence. Like the office building and warehouse, the residence has board-and-batten siding on its lower level and horizontal clapboard above (fig. 86). There is an aboveground concrete foundation in the front to make the house level against a slight incline. A small front porch sits slightly to the left of the building's center. Its roof is an extension of the house roof; the porch has six steps. A side



Figure 83--Picnic shelter, Bear Springs Picnic Area, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

porch has an overhang roof and two small steps. Both porches are supported by two 10-inch-square posts with curved wooden braces. On the lower floor of the building are six-over-six windows. The upper story has six-pane swing-out windows to the front and back, and six-over-six windows on the sides.

Ranger's Residence--The ranger's residence is a rectangular frame building with a gabled front porch. Gables are filled with vertical boards marked by tree cutouts. The building has a stone foundation and six-pane windows. The porch is supported by square posts. A similarly styled garage stands next to the residence and has the same siding and tree cutouts.

Gas House--The gas house at the Zigzag Ranger Station is a frame building with a large projecting overhang to shelter gas pumps and automobiles. The building has shiplap siding and four-pane windows with a double slide. It has a gable roof with an open framework in the gable end.

Road Warehouse--This structure is a large rectangular frame building with large sliding garage doors. It has clapboard siding and has been remodeled since it was built.

Rock Walls--Rock walls built in the vicinity of the ranger station are of random course, rubble type (fig. 87).

Tollgate Campground--The Zigzag CCC Camp was probably responsible for building the Tollgate and Camp Creek Campgrounds. Both are located on Highway 26 near the Zigzag Ranger Station. The original plans for the Tollgate Campground were drawn by E.U. Blanchfield in July 1933. In 1946, the site plan showed the site as 20 acres. However, only 12 acres were developed. Some 4,200 feet of land fronted the Zigzag River. Most of the area was covered with small- to medium-sized timber; about 1.5 acres was grassy and open.⁹¹

Many campsites with CCC-built firepits still exist. One picnic shelter or community kitchen is located on the east side of the loop road through the campground (fig. 88). This structure is made of peeled logs and is about 16 by 22 feet. There is a 6-foot-square entrance with log benches on both sides. The peeled logs are recessed into supporting beams or pegged together. The floor is a combination of flagstone and cement. The main log supports are set on concrete piers. There is a large squared-stone fireplace on the south wall that has barbecue pits on either side. The hipped roof is shingled;



Figure 84--Ranger's office, Zigzag Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

a large section of shingles is missing. Two skylights in the roof are located on either side of the fireplace. The front entrance has a gabled end filled with vertical logs. Moss growth is heavy on the roof, and vandalism and fire have damaged the structure to a great extent.

Camp Creek Campground--Located on the south side of Highway 25, the Camp Creek Campground contains many campsites with CCC-built firepits. The only other remains are one set of the original restrooms, the fireplace from a 22-foot-square community kitchen, and a drinking fountain made of fieldstone (fig. 89). The bowl of the fountain has been cut from the stone, and the stone edges have been rounded to make a smooth surface. The fountain is approximately 2 feet by 2 feet by 3 feet; it is set on a flagstone and cement platform. The fountain is still usable.

The original plan for the Camp Creek Campground was for 80 acres. Only 18 were developed and 62 proposed for expansion.⁹²

Clackamas Lake Ranger Station--The Clackamas Lake Ranger Station is located on the Bear Springs Ranger District about 22 miles south of Government Camp, OR.

The site was placed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1980 because of its unique historic qualities and relatively unaltered state. There are 12 structures at the site.⁹³

The CCC-era Clackamas Lake Ranger Station complex remains intact except for two buildings which have been removed. Traces of the campground constructed by the CCC remain, however campers have moved to new campgrounds which retain much of the original visual and spatial effect.⁹⁴

Other changes at the site have been the reconstruction and paving of the station's access road.

Office--Built in 1933, the ranger's office is a one-story, rectangular wood-frame building (fig. 90). The building has a concrete foundation with a veneer of coursed, squared rubble, and a high gable roof with wood shingles. An interior chimney is made of random, coursed rubble stone and sits slightly off-center from the roof ridge line. The windows are four-over-four, double-hung sash. The front (south) entrance has a flagstone platform. Two steps of the main doorstep were hewn from a single peeled log.



Figure 85--Carpenter shop, Zigzag Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

The interior of the office is divided into two rooms. Walls are painted vertical fir boards, and floors are varnished fir boards. A few small changes have been made, for example, the addition of a sink and cupboards. No major modifications have been made.

The historic site management plan claims the Clackamas Lake site was first used by the Forest Service in 1905. In 1910, the ranger's cabin was built, and by 1935 the CCC had completed the ranger station compound (fig. 91).⁹⁵

Although the actual construction of the buildings was done by skilled carpenters, the landscaping of the grounds is largely the work of the CCC men. The clearing of the brush, dead wood and stumps was all done by them. . . .

The grading, rock work edging the various paths and roads, and all transplanting of shrubs has been done by the CCC men.⁹⁶

The CCC and builders of the Clackamas Lake Ranger Station made special efforts to make the buildings and landscaping blend into the surrounding environment. Native plants and shrubs were collected and transplanted

around the new buildings.⁹⁷ Correspondence between Forest Service personnel indicates concern for blending of architectural styles within the site. In September 1932, Forest Ranger Francis Williamson wrote to Mount Hood Forest Supervisor Thomas Sherrard, "I can not help but stress the advisability of keeping the architectural style the same on any given ranger station. In the past our stations looked as if they just grew, little thought being given to the planning and architecture."⁹⁸ Nearly a year later, Williamson was still arguing for better architectural planning at the site, saying that his agreement to the use of standard plans at any ranger station compound carried with it the assumption that building exteriors would be finished in a similar, blended style.⁹⁹

The Clackamas Lake Ranger Station was used as a summer administrative site until the 1940's, when, for a 20-year period, it was occupied as a guard station. After a period of disuse, the ranger station was reoccupied as a guard station in the 1970's. Plans have been made to use the newly designated Historic District for administration of forest management programs on the Bear Springs Ranger District. All plans for utilizing the site have



Figure 86--Bunkhouse/residence, Zigzag Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

been designed to maintain its historical integrity, as specified by its placement on the National Register.¹⁰⁰

Protective Assistant's Residence--The protective assistant's residence is a rectangular one-story, wood-frame building with a concrete foundation. It was built in 1934. The structure is similar in style to the office, having a wood-shingled high gable roof, and horizontal slab and wood shake exterior walls (fig. 92). Windows are six- and nine-light single sash. The front (north) entry is constructed like the office entry except that the gable hood is supported by peeled pole brackets. An outside chimney on the building's east end is made of coursed square rubble masonry.

The interior of the residence has three rooms: kitchen, bath, and living room. The living room walls are made of stained and varnished vertical fir boards, and the floors are varnished boards. The kitchen and bath have painted walls and linoleum floors. The interior chimney is built with stretcher-bond brick.

Ranger's Residence--The CCC built the ranger's residence in 1933 and constructed it in a similar fashion to the previously described buildings. The residence plan was chosen by District Ranger Williamson out of a group of Weyerhaeuser plans entitled "Your Future Home." With the exception of altering the exterior building materials, the plan was not changed and the

building was authorized.¹⁰¹ It is a rectangular one-and-a-half story, wood-frame building (fig. 93). The exterior of the residence and its foundation are the same as on the office and the protective assistant's residence. The shingled high gable roof is also the same.¹⁰²

Windows on the ranger's residence are six-over-six, double-hung sash windows with the dormers having divided mullion windows. Around all windows are slab-wood frames giving the "appearance of being corner-notched and joined logs."¹⁰³ The front entry is formed by a small projection of the roof, and the steps are constructed the same as on the other two structures. A southern porch is enclosed with screen and multilight, single-sash windows.

The interior of the residence is constructed entirely with varnished fir boards, the living room accented by an open-beam ceiling (fig. 94). A stone fireplace and built-in bookcases are in the living room.

Ranger's Residence Garage--The garage was constructed in 1933 and is a rectangular, one-story, wood-frame structure. It has a concrete foundation with coursed, rubble stone veneer and a wood-shingled high gable roof. The exterior walls are slab-wood on the lower level and wood shakes above. Windows are four light and single sash. The one-vehicle garage has double doors with windows on the north side.



Figure 87--Rock wall, Zigzag Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

Fire Warehouse--The fire warehouse is a rectangular, one-story, wood-frame structure built in 1934 or 1935 (figs. 95 and 96). Its concrete foundation has a coursed rubble stone veneer; the roof has wood shingles and is gabled. The exterior walls are constructed with slab-wood up to the 4-foot level of the structure, and wood shakes above. The warehouse has six-light, single-sash windows. The main entry has a "single-leaf, four-panel wood door, center north facade, accessed by two stone steps, open uncovered flagstone platform."¹⁰⁴

Gas and Oil Storage Building--Built at the same time as the fire warehouse, the gas and oil storage building has many of the same characteristics (fig. 97). It is a rectangular, one-story, wood-frame structure. The wood-shingled, gable roof projects on the north side over the gas pumps and service area. There are two doors. On the east side is a plank loading dock.¹⁰⁵

Road and Trails Warehouse--This warehouse is also a rectangular, one-story, wood-frame building. Windows are four-over-four, double-hung sash. On the north side are double doors and sliding doors. Some roof deterioration has been noted, as well as the boarding of one west window. The warehouse was built in 1934.

Mess Hall--The mess hall is a rectangular, one-story, wood-frame structure (fig. 98). The foundation, roof, and exterior siding are the same as described in the previous buildings. Windows are nine-light, single-sash type with plain trim. There are two entries on the north side.¹⁰⁶ The mess hall was built in 1934.

Blacksmith Shop--The blacksmith shop was also built in 1934. It is a rectangular, one-story, wood-frame structure. On three sides the shop has horizontal slab wood boards on the lower level; on the south side are horizontal flush boards. Wooden shakes cover the rest of the walls on all sides. The shop has nine-light, single-

sash windows. Double sliding doors are centered on the north side, and a single off-set door is on the south side of the structure.

Pump House--The rectangular, one-story, wood frame pump house with wood-shingled high gable roof was probably built in 1935.¹⁰⁷

Barn--Built around the same time as the pump house, the barn is a one-and-a-half story, wood-frame, rectangular building. It has a "wood shingled high gable roof, low gabled wood-frame cupola. . . ."¹⁰⁸ The exterior walls are covered by wood shingles and there are four-light, single-sash and four-over-four, double-hung sash windows.¹⁰⁹

Bull of the Woods Lookout Tower

Located south of the Oak Grove Ranger Station on the Estacada Ranger District, the Bull of the Woods lookout tower was built in May 1942 by enrollees from Camp Zigzag. Materials for the wooden tower were purchased in Portland and transported to Camp Zigzag. The tower's frame was built there, treated with creosote, and then packed by horse some 20 miles to the construction site.¹¹⁰

The 14-foot-square wood frame was constructed on a 12-foot-high wood base with cross-pole braces (fig. 99). There were concrete footings at the foundation (instead of wires as reportedly used in earlier buildings). The tower building had a wooden lower level, with observation windows. An observation deck or walkway extended around the four sides with an approximately 4-foot-high handrail constructed of peeled wood poles. General specifications for the furnishings in Region 6's lookouts included a stool, bunk, water stand, shelves, table, fire-finder stand, cabinets, and bench.¹¹¹

Warm Springs Guard Station

The Warm Springs Guard Station is located off Skyline Road No. 42, 9 miles south of the Clackamas Lake Ranger Station. It is on the Bear Springs Ranger District. The guard station was built in 1934-35 by enrollees from the Zigzag CCC camp and served for many years as the living quarters for Forest Service employees working on forest fire suppression or prevention. Later it was used as a line shack by employees working overnight in the area.¹¹²

The guard station is architecturally similar to the Clackamas Lake buildings and was probably built from materials left over from the ranger station (fig. 100):

The cabin is a 16- by 18-foot rectangular, one room, one story, wood frame, with boulder pier foundation. Massive coursed squared-rubble stone exterior fireplace and chimney centered on west end. . . . Horizontal slab wood extends to the 4-foot level on all elevations. Wall shakes cover the remaining exterior wall surfaces. The roof is wood shingled with high gables, with fake peeled pole rafter ends exposed. Six and four pane casement windows without trim are located on the north, east, and south elevation. . . . A single entry is located on the east end, constructed of tongue and groove flooring of double thickness, the exterior vertical and the interior horizontal.¹¹³



Figure 88--Picnic shelter, Tollgate Campground, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

The interior of the guard station has a crude fireplace with hearth and wood mantel. The floor is 3 by 6 oiled wood planks. Inside modifications include lowering of the ceiling and covering of the walls and ceiling with white-painted plywood.¹¹⁴

Timberline Trail

The Timberline Trail is a 37.6-mile hiking trail that loops around Mount Hood in the Zigzag Ranger District. It was built by the CCC in 1934 and has been maintained by the Forest Service. The trail has been inventoried and described as follows:

The trail was cut wide, 4 feet in forested areas and 2 feet in open terrain, for easy hiking and made as level as possible. The trail was marked by square cedar posts placed at rectangular intervals over open country and by blazes in forested areas. Shelters were built for the comfort of travelers as a place to camp and rest or as protection against storms. Most were the same design, built of stone with steel

rafters instead of wood in the high country so that the structures themselves would not be used as firewood and would withstand the heavy winter snows. Wood structures were built lower down the slopes. . . .¹¹⁵

Apparently there were originally nine shelters, including Paradise Park, Ramona Falls, Bald Mountain, McNeil Point, Cairn Basin, Elk Cover, Cooper Spur, Gnarl Ridge, and Elk Meadows (fig. 101). The shelters at Bald Mountain, Ramona Falls, and Gnarl Ridge have been destroyed.¹¹⁶

In 1937-38, an extensive study of riding trails in the vicinity of the Mount Hood Recreation Area was made. Special attention was made to the historic value of some trails such as the Old Barlow Road, one of the first pioneer wagon routes across the Cascade Mountains. The Barlow Road was partially reconstructed between Government Camp and Rhododendron and named the Pioneer Bridle Trail.¹¹⁷

Recommendations of this study and information provided as a result of its field reconnaissance formed the basis for CCC camp work projects.¹¹⁸



Figure 89--Fieldstone drinking fountain, Camp Creek Campground, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

Mount Hood Timberline Lodge

Located at the 6,000-foot level on the southeast side of Mount Hood, Timberline Lodge was a joint project between the Forest Service and the Works Progress Administration (fig. 102). When construction began in 1936, it was agreed that the Forest Service would develop and landscape the roads and grounds around the proposed hotel, and the WPA would build the actual structure. Once built, plans were made to lease the lodge to a concessionaire who would operate it.¹¹⁹ Fundraising to defray government costs was undertaken by a group of interested citizens who formed the Mount Hood Development Association.¹²⁰

The Forest Service primarily utilized CCC labor for the grounds development at Timberline, including a swimming pool. A 1937 estimate of work expenditures prepared by Forest Supervisor A.O. Waha totaled \$55,050.¹²¹

Total estimates for landscape work at Timberline Lodge were later reassessed at \$350,000, with another \$350,000 spent on hotel construction.¹²² Actual expenditures were closer to \$1 million by the time the lodge was finished.¹²³ Subsequent lists of CCC jobs included numerous improvements to the lodge itself, such as shutters, fuel tanks, and telephone lines; to the grounds, such as general cleanup, trail construction, and erosion control; and to the Mount Hood Ski Area, such as ski trails, lifts, and buildings.¹²⁴ Working on these projects were enrollees from the two CCC camps at Government Camp, F-13 (1933) and F-14 (1933-34).

Timberline Lodge officially opened for business on February 5, 1933.¹²⁵ The year-round resort was built to accommodate 250 overnight guests and 200 diners at one time (fig. 103). Shortly before its opening, the Forest Service described the building as follows:

The structure as designed consists of two wings which radiate from a central hexagonal unit some 66 feet in diameter. The total overall length of the building is roughly some 360 feet, with an average depth of 38 feet for both wings. These two wings are four stories in height.¹²⁶

An additional description of the interior of the lodge states:

It is built of native stone, hewn timbers, and rough sawn siding, with roof of heavy shakes. . . . Handhewn seats, tables, and other furniture . . . give the feeling of massive simplicity appropriate to this setting. . . . Stair newel posts depict familiar forest animals. Main entrance corbels at the Lodge are carved with bighorn rams' heads, and a ski lounge door panel shows the carved head of an Indian chief.¹²⁷

On September 28, 1939, President Roosevelt made a special visit to Timberline Lodge while traveling through the Pacific Northwest. The CCC played a significant role in preparing the Mount Hood National Forest for the President's reception.¹²⁸ In his speech dedicating Timberline Lodge, Roosevelt stated that it marked "a venture made possible by emergency relief work, in order that we may test the workability of recreational facilities installed by the government itself and operated under its complete control."¹²⁹

Summit Meadows, F-12

Camp F-12, another CCC camp based at Government Camp, opened in the first period. It is not clear whether it closed at the end of the first period or in October 1935, but evidence points to the latter.

F-12 was known as the Summit Meadows Camp, or Camp Swim, and was located at what is now the Still Creek Campground.¹³⁰ Lawrence Barber, in *The Oregon Motorist*, July 1934, writes that the camp was occupied by a veterans company. In the summer of 1934, the company was employed in constructing part of the Timberline Loop off the Mount Hood Loop Road.¹³¹ Another source places Company 609 at Summit Camp in October 1933, saying that at the end of 1935 the camp moved to Wyeth, OK (F-7).¹³²

There are remains of two other CCC camps at Devil's Meadow Camp on the south slope of Zigzag Mountain and at the East Zigzag Mountain Camp on the east slope. Some ruins, boards, and pipes can still be seen.¹³³

Columbia Gorge Ranger Station

The Columbia Gorge District Ranger Station, initially called the Herman Creek Ranger Station, was used as a Forest Service administration site much earlier than the CCC period. Additions and improvements were made by the CCC to the Summit Meadows CCC Camp in the 1930's. After these improvements, the ranger station's name was changed.¹³⁴



Figure 90--Office, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

In 1935, plans were made to add a warehouse, a gas and oil house, and a barn. The barn was to have been located in an orchard beyond the ranger station. Because of the site's proximity to the highway and railroad, problems occurred. In October 1935, F.W. Cleator, a recreation site examiner for Mount Hood National Forest, suggested that the entire ranger station be moved, because of loud noise, lack of light, and unsuitable access. Because funds were not available to purchase land for a new site, the ranger station was not moved, and the new warehouse and gas house were built at the existing site.¹³⁵

The only remaining CCC-built structures at the Columbia Gorge Ranger Station are the warehouse and gas house. A residence building constructed in the 1920's also remains. The site is now used as a work center by the ranger district.

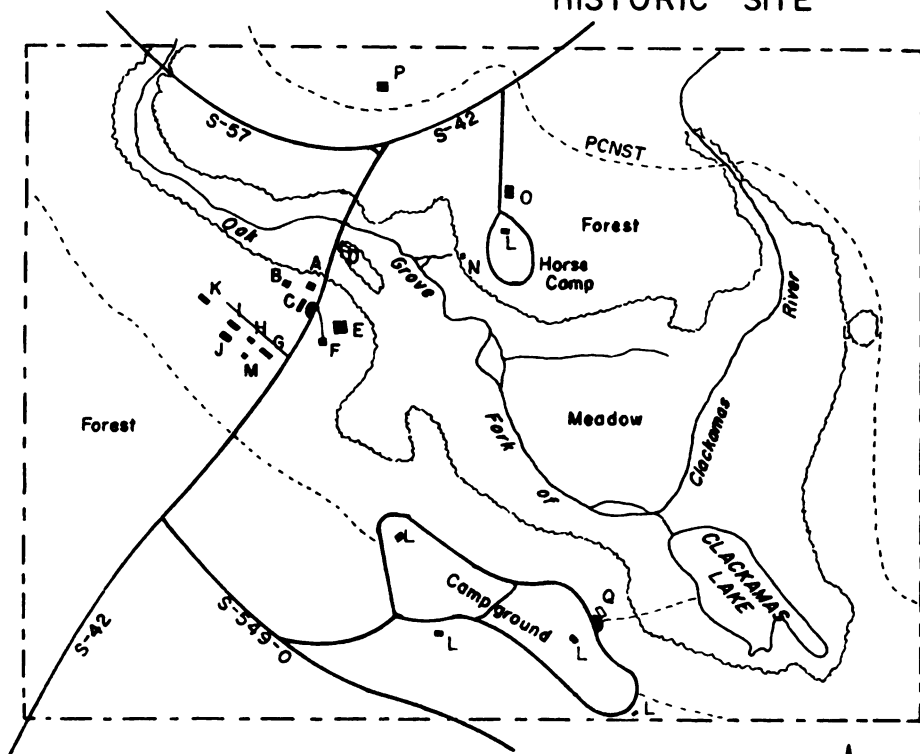
Warehouse--The original plans for this building are located in the Region 6 office and also appear in Acceptable Building Plans. A special design was developed for this site; drawings are dated December 28, 1935.

The warehouse's back wall is set into a hillside, making the back portion one story and the front two stories (fig. 104). The building is 82 feet 5 inches across the front and 40 feet from front to back. The rectangular building has a shake-shingled, clipped, gable roof with three shed dormers, a series of three six-light windows, and one 12-foot-wide glass skylight at the rear. The warehouse foundation is concrete.

The front, or north, side of the warehouse has shake siding. There are five large sliding doors with 12-light windows and a single entrance to the left of the doors. The entrance has six vertical-light windows and a transom. The front also has 4 sets of 12-light windows with a 6-light, horizontal transom above each.

The east wall is built of randomly placed rubble masonry, with a door that has six vertical-light windows and three bays of three windows each. The windows are 12-light sash type with 9-light transoms. The gable end is board-and-batten with decorative cuts at the ends of the battens, and nine eight-vertical-light sash windows. Three cutout Forest Service pine tree logos are centered

CLACKAMAS LAKE RANGER STATION HISTORIC SITE

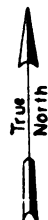


**MT. HOOD NATIONAL FOREST
BEAR SPRINGS RANGER DISTRICT
CLACKAMAS COUNTY, OREGON**

LEGEND

- A. OFFICE
- B. PROTECTIVE ASSIST.'S RESIDENCE
- C. RESTROOMS
- D. RANGER GRAHAM'S CABIN SITE
- E. DISTRICT RANGER'S RESIDENCE
- F. DISTRICT RANGER'S GARAGE
- G. FIRE WAREHOUSE
- H. GAS & OIL STORAGE
- I. ROADS & TRAILS WAREHOUSE
- J. BUNKHOUSE SITE
- K. MESSHALL
- L. TOILETS
- M. BLACKSMITH SHOP
- N. PUMPHOUSE
- O. BARN
- P. WATER CISTERN
- Q. DR. MILLER'S CABIN SITE

FOREST SERVICE ROADS
 TRAILS
 HISTORIC SITE BOUNDARY



APPROXIMATE SCALE: 8" = 1 mile



Source: USFS aerial photo dated 6/79.

Prepared by: L.A. Mussen 1/80

Figure 91--Clackamas Lake Ranger Station Historic Site. (From Clackamas Lake Ranger Station Historic District Nomination Form for the National Register of Historic Places)

in the east gable end. The west end of the building is the same as the east side except that it is set into the hillside and has fewer and smaller windows.

The rear elevation of the warehouse has a stone wall about 2 feet high, and the remaining wall has shake siding. On the left side of the rear wall is a projecting shed covered with shakes and labeled the "frost-proof" room. In the center is a gabled porch opening. The porch has shake siding with a board-and-batten end and three vertical windows. Two stone chimneys are located against the back roof.

The floor plan for this building (figs. 105 and 106) shows six 6 by 6 posts between the garage doors and ten 10 by 10 posts, all of which support the second floor roof. The floor is open and was once used for lockers and possibly bunk space.

Gas House--The small gas house is similar to a plan appearing in *Acceptable Building Plans* (fig. 107). It is a rectangular wood-frame building with a shingled gable roof, board-and-batten gable ends, and wall shakes. The approximate dimensions are 13 feet 6 inches by 16 feet.

Windows are the same as in the plan--vertical-six-light sash windows on the front and horizontal six-light sash on the sides. A more recent window has been added to the front (south). The vent at the top of the building's gable end is the same as in the plan.

Rock Wall--An impressive rock wall was constructed along one edge of the site.

Camp Plaza/Government Camp, F-14

Camp F-14 was first occupied in the summer of 1933 by an undetermined company.¹³⁶ The company was composed of men primarily from Chicago, with 10 local woodsmen and a Portland truck driver.

The camp was closed during the winter and reopened on April 16, 1934. Known as both Plaza and Government Camp, it was located near Gresham, OR, and occupied by Company 1922. Camp commander was Captain J.G. Edwards, and project supervisor was B.J. Parker. In May 1934, the 196-man company was composed of 179 veterans from Oregon and 17 from Washington. Two of the



Figure 92--Protective assistant's residence, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

men were black. The camp had two 25-man side camps operating about 25 miles outside of F-14.¹³⁷

Work projects initiated by Company 1922 during its first 2 months in operation consisted of construction and maintenance of roads, telephone lines, fire breaks, vehicle bridges, and horse trails. Ten local experienced men were hired to assist enrollees with the work projects. Relations with the neighboring communities were described as friendly by a CCC camp inspector, and camp morale was very good.¹³⁸

The camp was largely a tent camp with the mess hall, showers, and wash house of frame construction. Both tents and buildings were wired for a 2-kilowatt lighting system. Inspector J.J. Bowen rated the camp as "superior."¹³⁹ A 1941-42 camp directory says that F-14 officially closed on October 27, 1934.¹⁴⁰

Oak Grove/Estacada Camp, F-15, F-103

Inspection reports and CCC camp directory information is inconsistent regarding Camps F-15 and F-103. Both camps were called Oak Grove Camp,

located near Estacada, and occupied by Company 615. One directory says F-15 originally opened in the first enrollment period and closed on November 2, 1933. However, a May 25, 1934, inspection report says F-15 was occupied November 2, 1933, and was still operating at the end of the third enrollment period of summer 1934. A 1935 inspection report states that F-103 was established November 2, 1933, and operated until June 13, 1935. At that time F-103 was said to be occupied by the same company that had occupied F-15 one year earlier. It is assumed that the two camps were in fact, the same, and for some reason a new number was assigned to the original F-15. There is no indication that F-15 was ever abandoned before F-103 was established.¹⁴¹

Bob Sharp, former CCC enrollee on the Mount Hood, recalls being a member of Company 615 from 1934-35 at "Camp 1-1/2" (fig. 108). Sharp says the camp was located on the North Fork of the Clackamas River near what is now Promontory Park.¹⁴² Inspection reports say the 195-man Company 615 was comprised primarily of Illinois enrollees, but also included 17 Oregonians. One



Figure 93--Ranger's residence, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR.
(Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

man was black. First Lieutenant Adellon H. Hogan of the Infantry Reserve was company commander.

In 1934, 162 men from the company engaged in work projects consisting of road, telephone line, and fire break construction. Also under construction were a 210-foot suspension bridge, two 60-foot bridges, three lookout towers, seven dwellings, and four other Forest Service buildings. Fifteen locally enrolled men aided Supervisor J. Frank Potter.¹⁴³

Enrollee work was reported to have improved since initial enrollment, and morale of enrollees and officers was rated excellent. All other camp services and conditions were said to be generally excellent despite a recent German measles epidemic. F-15's two side camps were described as being in good condition.¹⁴⁴

A Camp F-103 inspection report says that camp construction was completed in 1933 and was rigid in style. Electric lighting was provided by a 5-kilowatt system, and heating was by wood fuel. By 1935, Company 615 had grown to 205 men under the same leadership.¹⁴⁵

Work projects that year were varied and included many of the same types of projects described for F-15.

One new project was reforestation of fire-denuded land.¹⁴⁶ A new construction project was the Lazy Bend campground and picnic area with 10 tables, 10 stoves, 4 fireplaces, 2 latrines, and several parking spaces. Stoves and fireplaces were built with mortared stone. Trees, shrubs, and ferns were part of the landscaping. Tables were made of:

... cedar logs sawed lengthwise, opened up like a book, and mounted on posts set in the ground. They are fastened by large dowel pins. On either side of the tables are benches also sawed out of cedar logs and finished with arms and backs of rustic poles.¹⁴⁷

In addition to work projects, complete education and athletic programs were available to enrollees at F-103. Thirteen subjects were offered through in-camp classes and eight more through correspondence classes. A basketball team was organized to compete against Portland teams, and the baseball team joined the Clackamas Valley League.¹⁴⁸

Camp F-103 had at least one side camp, the Fish Hatchery Side Camp, which was responsible for building



Figure 94--Interior of ranger's residence, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

a 110-foot bridge over the Oak Grove River intake.¹⁴⁹ Another side camp may have constructed the 60-foot concrete spillway at Olallie Lake. This project was a cooperative venture with the Oregon State Game Commission, which provided specifications and materials, plus a boat to transport workers and materials to the work site.¹⁵⁰ A CCC camp on the Oak Grove Fork of the Clackamas River, reported as now being covered by waters from Lake Harriet, may also have been a side camp of F-103.¹⁵¹ Camp buildings from F-15 and F-103 were transferred into Forest Service custody on November 29, 1937.¹⁵²

Camp Latourelle, F-107

Camp Latourelle was located near Bridal Veil, OR. It was originally occupied by an advance detail from Company 697 on April 16, 1934. The remaining 200-man company arrived on April 22. Company 697 was composed of 184 Illinois recruits and 16 locally enrolled men. The company originated at Jefferson Barracks, MO, in May 1933. On June 19, 1933, it moved to a camp outside of Randall, WA. Four and one-half months later

the men were transferred to the edge of southern California's Mojave desert, and on April 22, 1934, Company 697 moved back to Camp Latourelle.¹⁵³ Captain Wilbert R. Fargo was company commander, and K.C. McFarland was project supervisor.¹⁵⁴

One month after the camp's establishment, Inspector M.J. Bowen reported that it was progressing satisfactorily. The camp was designed to be a summer camp and therefore was made of permanent style tents and a few rigidly constructed camp buildings. It took more time than anticipated to clear the grounds and erect the tents and buildings, partly because of rains that lasted for 24 of the first 30 days the camp was occupied.¹⁵⁵ One report claims it rained for the first 36 days.¹⁵⁶

Planned work projects for F-107 included clearing of tree snags resulting from forest fires, roadbuilding, and construction of telephone lines and trails.¹⁵⁷ Camp Latourelle was abandoned on October 16, 1934, and was never reoccupied. Company 697 moved to Camp Wilark at Houlton, OR, and from there to Montana.¹⁵⁸ Property left at F-107 was transferred to Forest Service custody on June 24, 1937.¹⁵⁹



Figure 95--Fire warehouse, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by William D. Honey, 1982)

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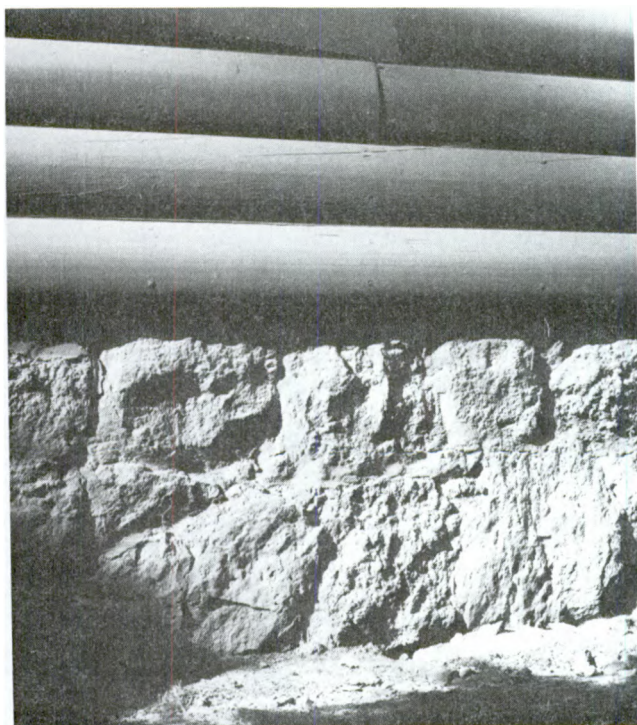


Figure 96--Side and foundation detail, fire warehouse, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by William D. Honey, 1982)

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Figure 97--Gas and oil house with roads and trails warehouse in background, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by William D. Honey, 1982)

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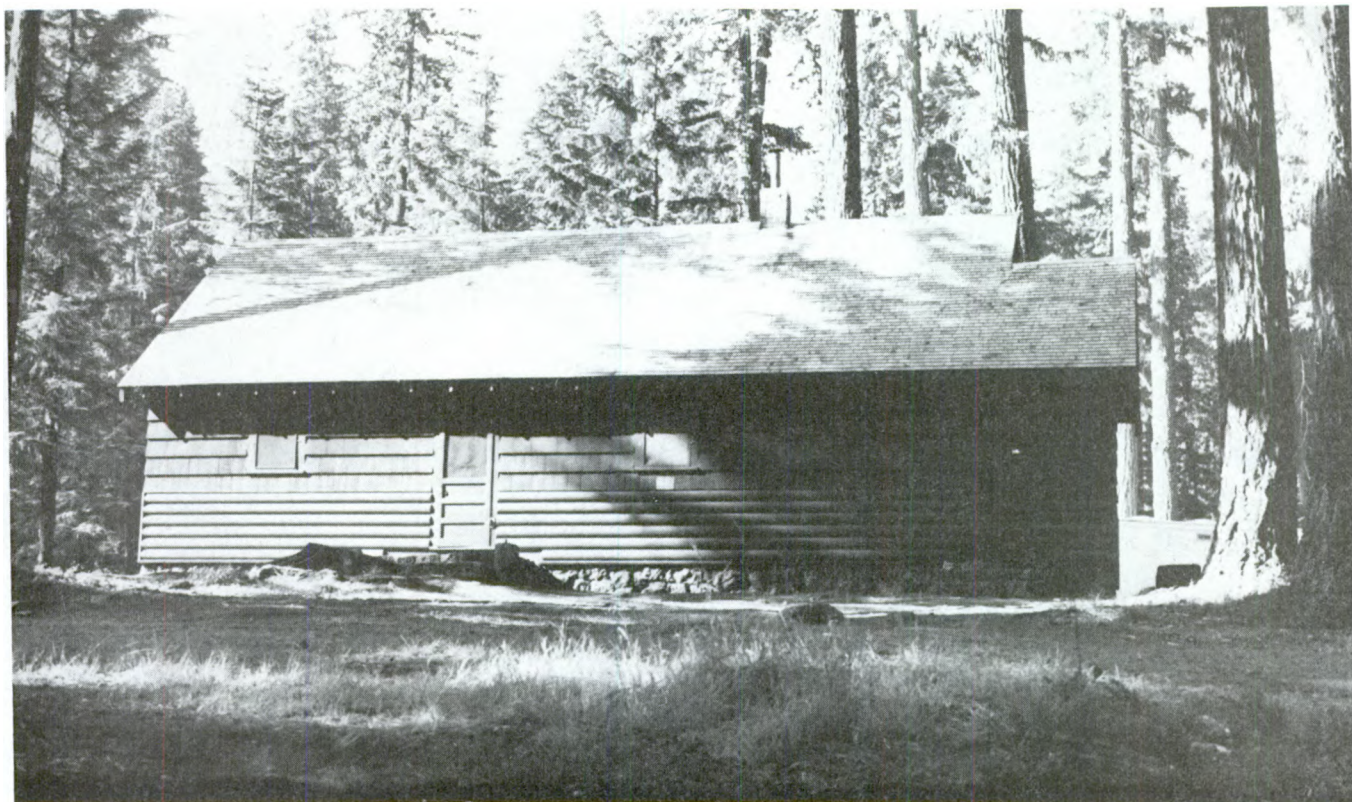


Figure 98--Mess hall, Clackamas Lake Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by William D. Honey, 1982)

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Figure 99--Bull of the Woods Lookout, Mount Hood National Forest, OR.

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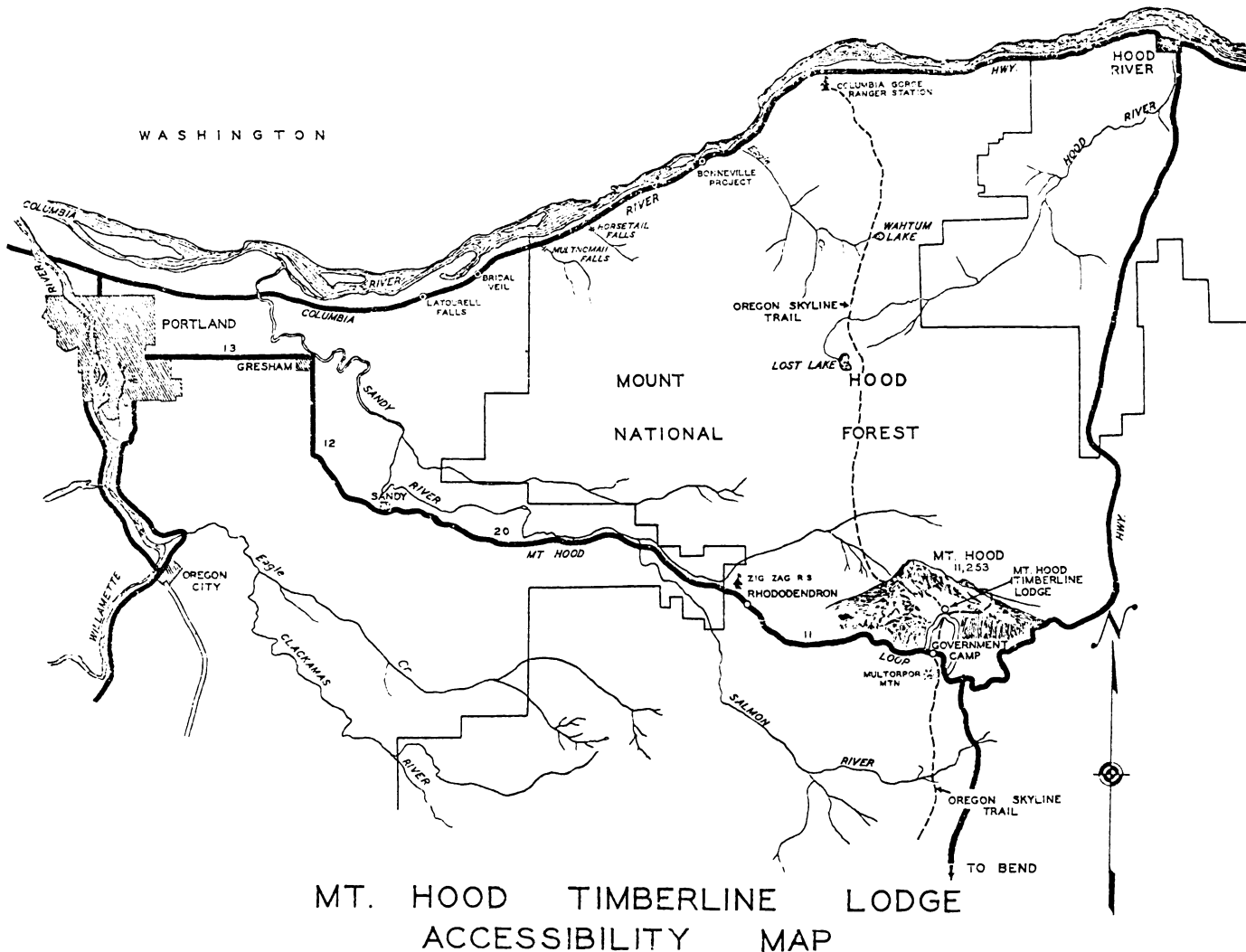
Figure 100--Warm Springs Guard Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by William D. Honey, 1982)

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Figure 101--Elk Meadows Trail Shelter on Timberline Trail, Mount Hood National Forest, OR.

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Figure 102--Mount Hood Timberline Lodge Accessibility Map. (Federal Archives, Seattle, Record Group 95, Acc. 71A754, No. 31969, Box 10)

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Figure 103--Timberline Lodge in summer, Mount Hood National Forest. (National Archives 95-G-354934)

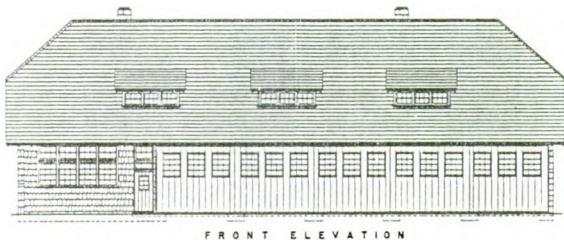
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Figure 104--Warehouse, Columbia Gorge Ranger Station, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

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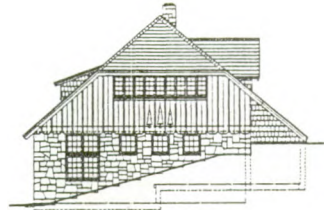
ACCEPTABLE BUILDING PLANS



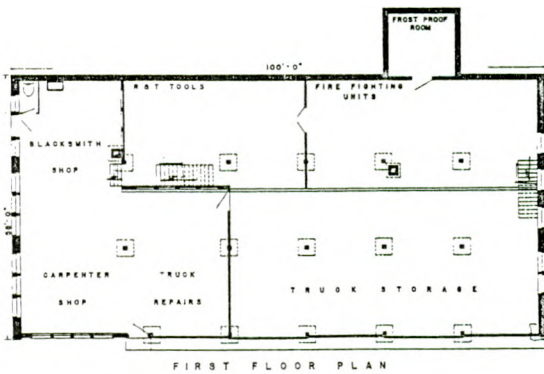
FRONT ELEVATION



SIDE ELEVATION



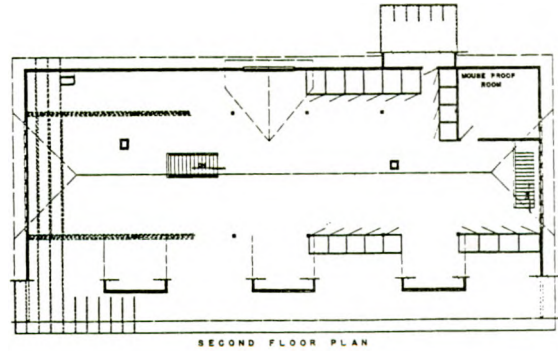
SIDE ELEVATION



FIRST FLOOR PLAN

FIRE EQUIPMENT AND R.&T. STORAGE
MT. HOOD NATIONAL FOREST
REGION 6

1-6



SECOND FLOOR PLAN

FIRE EQUIPMENT AND R.&T. STORAGE
MT. HOOD NATIONAL FOREST
REGION 6

1-7

Figure 105--Fire equipment and roads and trails storage building (first floor plan), Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo from Forest Service, Division of Engineering, Acceptable Building Plans)

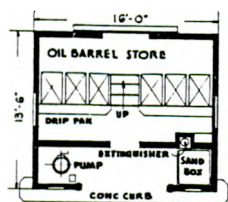
Figure 106--Fire equipment and roads and trails storage building (second floor plan), Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo from Forest Service, Division of Engineering, Acceptable Building Plans)



FRONT.



END



PLAN.

GAS & OIL STORAGE

REGION 6
DELINEATOR

G-5

PLAN No. 543

Figure 107--Gas and oil storage building, Region 6.
(Photo from Forest Service, Division of Engineering,
Acceptable Building Plans)



Figure 108--CCC Camp One-And-A-Half, Mount
Hood National Forest, OR.

Chapter 15 Coronado National Forest

Coronado National Forest is a noncontiguous national forest in southeastern Arizona. Its five districts are Sierra Vista, Nogales, Safford, Santa Catalina, and Douglas. These districts occupy nearly 2 million acres and encompass numerous mountain ranges (fig. 109). The region is largely desert, interspersed with isolated, rugged mountains and steep canyon country. Climate and forest resources vary greatly according to elevation.

Originally nicknamed "Islands of the Desert," the Coronado National Forest was officially established in 1908 when three forest reserves, the Santa Rita, Santa Catalina, and Dagoon, were consolidated (fig. 110).

In 1911, the Garces National Forest was added, and in 1917, the Chiricahua National Forest and Dagoon Addition became part of Coronado. Tucson was made forest headquarters in 1917. The final land acquisition occurred in 1953, when part of the Crook National Forest was added. Certain land areas, such as the Saguaro National Monument, Huachuca District in the Fort Huachuca Military Reservation, and Baboquivari

Forest Reserve, had been removed from Forest Service administration by 1933. During the entire CCC period, Fred Winn was forest supervisor.¹

Civilian Conservation Corps projects on the Coronado focused primarily on water-related activities, such as stream development, erosion control, development of watering areas for stock, and well digging. Because there was less forested acreage, timber management and forest revegetation projects were not as time-consuming as elsewhere.

Fire protection, however, was necessary. In April 1934 all lookouts on the Coronado were manned by CCC enrollees, who also did most of the firefighting.²

Additional CCC work revolved around livestock and grazing interests, historically significant in the area. Relations between foresters and ranchers were precarious for years. With the onset of the 1930's and the CCC, the Forest Service found ways to enforce grazing restrictions largely through the establishment and fencing of grazing allotments. Ranchers were eventually

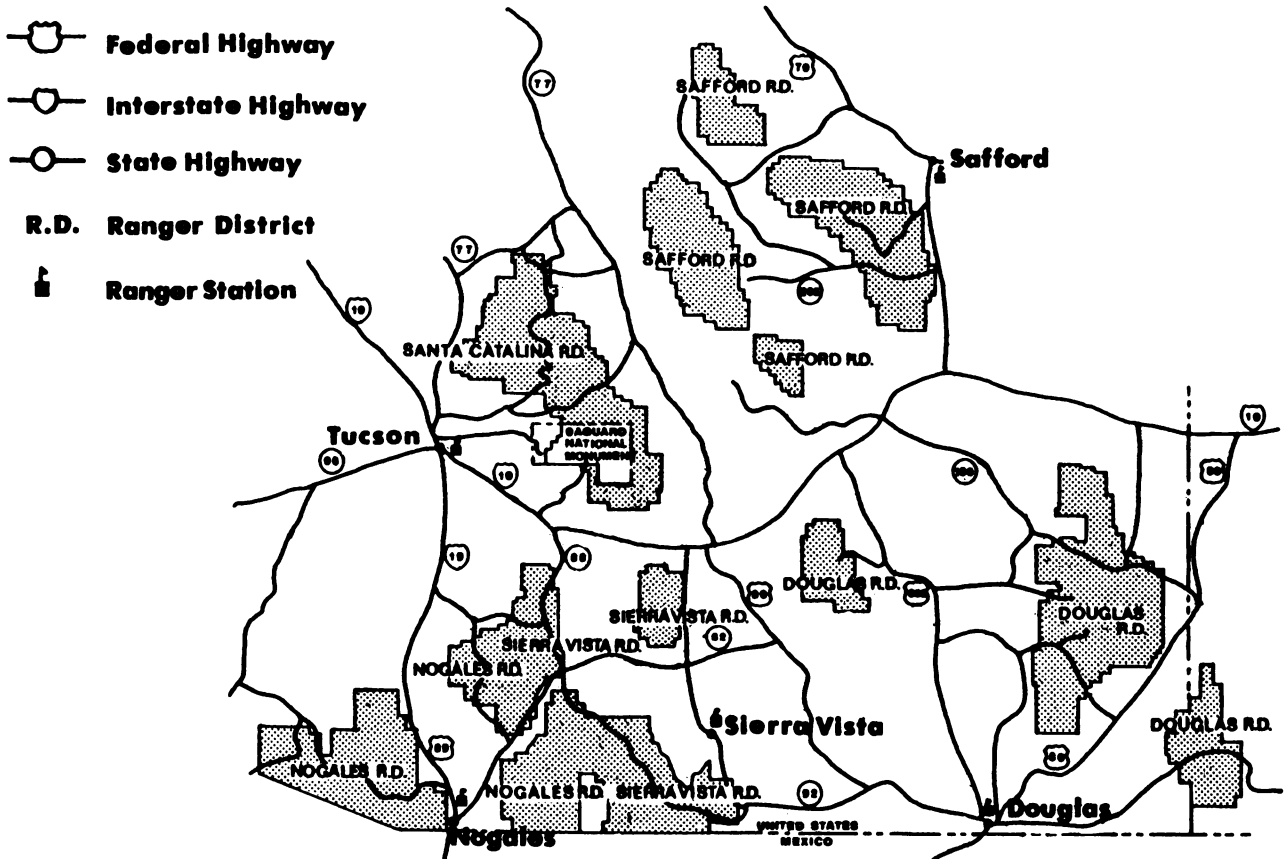


Figure 109--Coronado National Forest, AZ and NM.

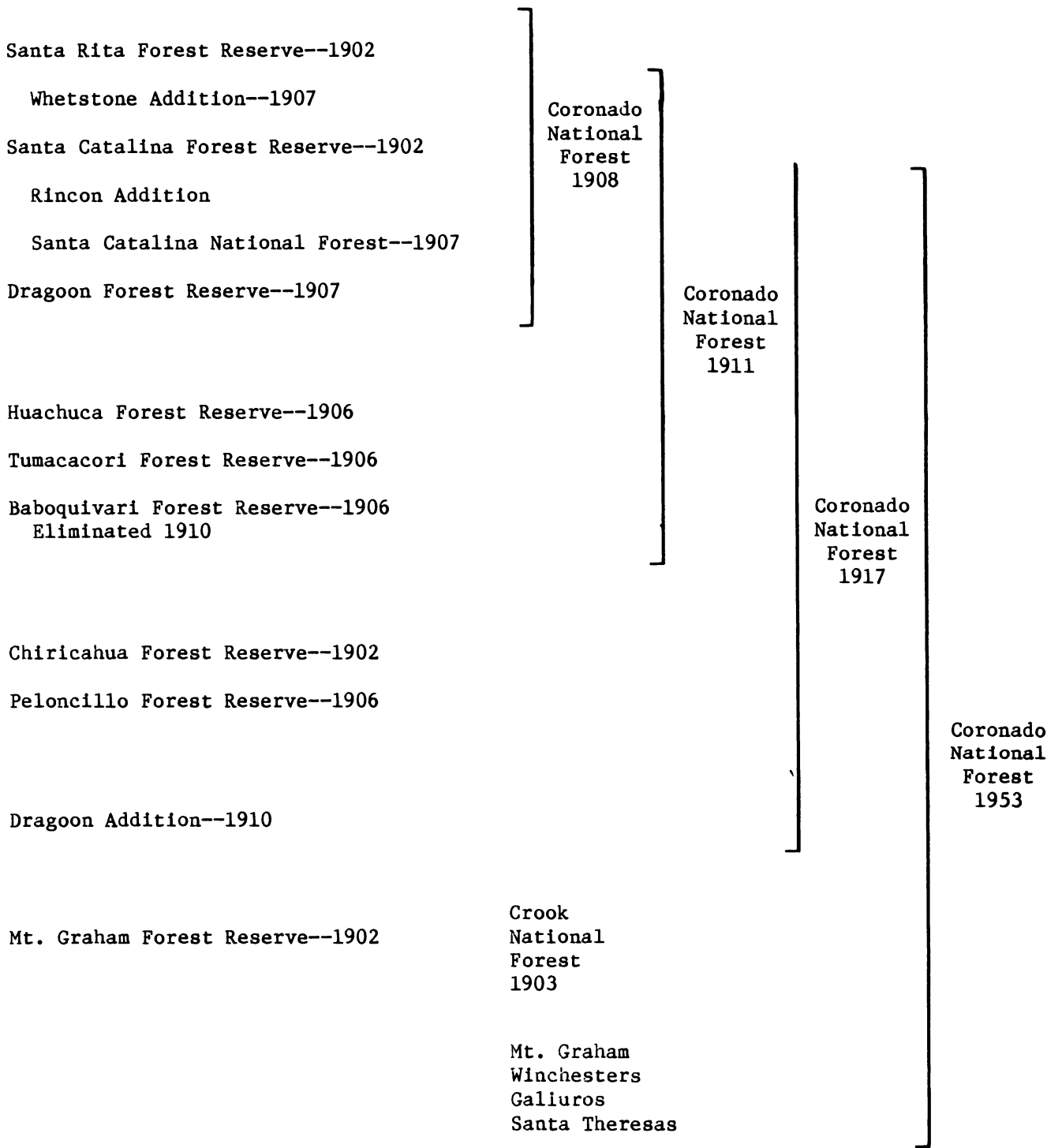


Figure 110--Consolidation of Coronado National Forest. (From Anne E. Harrison, The Santa Catalinas, 1972)

persuaded that regulating grazing improved overgrazed areas and, ultimately, the quality of livestock.³ Civilian Conservation Corps crews were used to build fences, cattle guards, stock tanks, and corrals, and to revegetate grassland areas.

The CCC also helped develop recreation areas on the Coronado. Burrall and Snow's Forest Recreation Plan (1930, 1939) separated recreation areas into two major zones:

1. First were those occurring in the high mountainous areas of the Santa Catalinas and Chiricahuas. Areas in this zone were planned for persons wishing for the maximum change in climatic conditions. Summer homes, organized camps, and camping, picnicking, and winter sports facilities are found here.
2. Second were those zones occurring in woodland areas such as Molino Basin in the Catalinas, Madera Canyon in the Santa Ritas, and areas in the Tumacacoris Chochise Stronghold in the Dragoons. Lower area recreation is found in this zone.⁴

Many recreation areas housed businesses, boys' and girls' schools, recreation sites, and places for wildlife observation. The Catalina and Rincon Districts were considered the most important on the forest because of their heavy usage and location near population centers.⁵

In general, CCC building projects were adapted to the natural landscape by using materials from the local environment and traditional designs. Use of adobe was one important method. Adobe brick was traditionally molded from sand and clay mixed with water. Straw and grass were included in the mixture as binders. Prepared mud was placed in wooden forms, tamped, and leveled by hand. The bricks were then turned out of the mold to dry on a level surface covered with straw or grass so the bricks would not stick. After several days of drying, the adobe bricks were stood on end and air-dried for a 4-week period. The CCC followed this traditional method.

Originally, adobe bricks were mortared with mud. Later, cement and lime mortars were used although these mortars sped up the deterioration process by differing in expansion and contraction rates from the bricks. The CCC used lime mortar. Mud plaster was originally used to cover the adobe bricks. In the early 20th century, cement stucco was introduced. The CCC used cement, sand, and water mixed and applied by trowels in one to three coats over a wire mesh nailed to the adobe surface.⁶

Flat roofs on buildings were made by using layers of large logs which supported small wood poles. The CCC ranger stations used the same large peeled logs, but replaced the small poles with narrow wooden slats.⁷

Four CCC camps opened on the Coronado in the first enrollment period. Two of these camps, Box Canyon and Cave Creek, were among the first camps to open in the State. The other camps on the southern Forest were Sunnyside and Rucker Canyon.⁸

Seven camps operated on the Coronado in the second enrollment period, including the four named previously, as well as camps at Madera Canyon, Tanque Verde, and Ash Canyon. The number dwindled the following year, and an average of three camps remained open each period until the end of the CCC era. Over the years, new camps were added at Turkey Creek, Pena Blanca,

and Flux Canyon. Many Coronado camps were occupied only during the winter months. The companies traveled north for the summer.⁹

Camp Cave Creek, F-10-A

Camp F-10 was established during the first enrollment period. The camp was located on Cave Creek near Portal, AZ, in Cochise County. On July 18, 1933, enrollee Harold C. Riley was killed while engaged in blasting operations. F-10 was thereafter formally called Camp Harold C. Riley, although informally it maintained its Cave Creek designation.¹⁰

In October 1934, a veterans camp was transferred to Cave Creek from Three Forks on the Apache Forest.¹¹ Camp F-10 was occupied by Company No. 1830, which was made up of enrollees from Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Wyoming, and Oklahoma. The company was reported to be racially mixed. Company commander was N.L. Chamberlain.¹²

The company totaled 146 men with 106 assigned to work under Project Supervisor D.C. Best. Projects covered approximately 80,000 acres and included construction of mountain roads requiring considerable blasting and jackhammer work; fence building on rangeland; and water development consisting of completing boxing in springs with concrete and piping water to concrete watering troughs. Other work involved ranger station and public campground improvement.¹³ A winter fly camp was maintained in Sulphur Draw.¹⁴

The Cave Creek Camp was located at the foot of a mountain. A rock fence, about 2 feet high, was constructed across the front and sides of the camp. Buildings and services were rated good to excellent. The buildings were of the rigid, nonportable type. Pit latrines were used.¹⁵

A March 1939 inspection report stated that F-10 had four barracks. Two had attached bathhouses used by all occupants. Attached bathhouses were unusual in CCC camps, and it was soon determined these facilities were inadequate to serve the number of men. However, a request for additional space was not granted by district headquarters.¹⁶

Numerous complaints were filed by enrollees, citing the mess, the company commander, and lack of recreational liberty parties to Douglas. Complaints against the commander described him as being gruff in his conversation and inconsiderate of enrollees' welfare, rebuffing them if they attempted to complain or make suggestions or recommendations.¹⁷ Many men expressed unwillingness to re-enroll if the situation continued. The company commander's response was that it was the toughest company he had ever handled.¹⁸

Enrollees complained of having had only one weekend liberty party to Douglas in a 6-week period. The commander explained that the development of two venereal disease cases had brought about restrictions on liberty to Douglas. The suggested alternative, Lordsburg, NM, had not been welcomed by enrollees because of distance and lack of recreational opportunities. Lack of camp recreation in general was viewed as a problem.¹⁹

Work projects at F-10 continued in the same areas. A new project was a checking station set up at the camp during the big game hunting season. This was also done at the Rucker Canyon CCC Camp.²⁰

By May 1940, Company 2870 at F-10-A was under the command of First Lieutenant Gordon C. Murray. Camp superintendent was William H. Hughes. Of the 188-man company, 116 were recent replacements at the camp. There were problems with morale and desertions.²¹ A major concern was the condition of the camp buildings. After 6 years of continual use, they were in need of major rehabilitation.

Despite the large number of new recruits, progress on work projects was considered good. Projects included road, telephone line, and trail construction and the development of campgrounds, waterlines, and a building program.²²

By October 1940, Company 2870 had been reduced to 109 men. Administration and work projects were primarily unchanged. A special investigation was made at the camp on October 7 to determine the cause of an August 5 accident that killed three enrollees. The three men were killed by a cave-in while cleaning a debris-filled culvert. The results of the investigation showed adequate precautions had been taken.²³

Camp morale was somewhat low because of the accident, as well as the isolation of the camp. Little recreation outside the camp was available, although a variety of activities and athletics were offered within the camp.²⁴

A camp inspection report, dated June 6, 1941, listed 162 men in Company 2870 under the command of First Lieutenant Ira Bellenger. Camp F-10 was given a high rating in nearly all aspects of camp life.²⁵

Work in the spring of 1941 consisted of improving 3 miles of old mining road and constructing 1 mile of trail, all on the Chiricahua division of the Forest.²⁶

On February 4, 1942, First Lieutenant Bellenger was commanding 100 men at Camp Cave Creek. Work projects had lagged due to the company's decreased strength. The camp's rigid style buildings were scheduled to be repaired.²⁷

After the start of the war, desertions increased. Morale was fair to good, but enrollees living near camp often secured outside employment and simply neglected to apply for discharge. The nearby mining cities had become very busy.²⁸

F-10 closed at the end of the CCC in 1942.²⁹ The camp's major work achievements included the Portal Ranger Station office, dwellings, barns, and corrals, South Fork Campground, and Rustler Park Fire Guard Building and latrines.

Portal Ranger Station

The office at the Portal Ranger Station is located in a wooded area and is atypical. It is approximately 34 feet wide and 15 feet long (fig. 111). The building is made of wood with riverbed rock veneer laid in mortar. The gabled section of the roofline is covered with decorative half-timbers. Porch posts are half wood and half riverbed rock.

The office interior is divided into two living rooms and one bathroom. A closet is located in each room. There are two front doors. The windows are six-over-one, double-hung sash type.

Box Canyon Camp, F-11, and Flux Canyon Camp, F-63

Box Canyon Camp, F-11, was among the first camps to begin operating in Arizona. Ranger Brisbane was detailed as project superintendent at the camp starting around May 15, 1933.³⁰ The camp opened shortly thereafter:

At first the men were housed in a temporary three-row tent camp. In the camp and for miles around, range grass thickly covers the ground, interspersed here and there with white thistle poppies. Up and down the basin are groves of black walnut, sycamore and cottonwood trees, and the camp itself is located in a thicket of scrub oak.³¹

The first row was for officers' tents, the second row contained 10 tents for enrollees, and the last row included a kitchen, mess hall, headquarters, hospital, and supply facilities. Captain Austin Triplett was in charge of the Box Canyon Camp.³² He was reported to be very popular.³³

Located in Box Canyon on the Santa Rita District, the permanent Camp F-11 was officially named Camp Cushing although it was rarely referred to by this name in written reports. The camp was named after Lt. Howard Cushing of the 6th Calvary, who had been killed in a fight with Chochise's Apaches in May 1872.³⁴

In October 1933, the Box Canyon Camp moved to Flux Canyon because of lease difficulties. After the move, the camp kept the F-11 designation until the following year when it officially became Flux Canyon Camp, F-63.³⁵

Early in January 1934, F-11 was reported overhauling and rebuilding the Nogales Ranger Station.³⁶ During the summer work began on the Patagonia Ranger Station. By this time, the Flux Canyon camp was occupied by a veterans company from Camp F-22 in Wyoming.³⁷

F-63-A had side camps at Protero Canyon and Duquesne. The latter was responsible for tearing down 6 miles of old fence and replacing it in 10 days. Twenty men worked that job under the direction of Project Superintendent White.³⁸

In May 1935, the Flux Canyon Company made its final move to the Apache National Forest.³⁹ One report indicates an SCS camp occupied the Flux Canyon site after the company's move.⁴⁰ Today there is little evidence of the camp except for a concrete-rubble grease rack, according to a letter dated November 9, 1982.⁴¹

Henry Dojaques, who was an enrollee at Flux Canyon Camp from January 1934 until October 1935, recalls that the men lived in big tents with wooden floors. Most camps had 200 men, but his had 250. Henry worked at building fences, carrying juniper posts and rolled wire. Men were assigned KP on weekends on a rotating basis. This was regular procedure, not a punishment. During the rest of the week a regular crew of enrollees did the cooking and KP duties.⁴²

Louis Valenzuela was a carpenter for the CCC whose main job was to frame buildings. Even though he was not an enrollee himself, he worked with and instructed the CCC enrollees. Louis began working in 1933 and earned

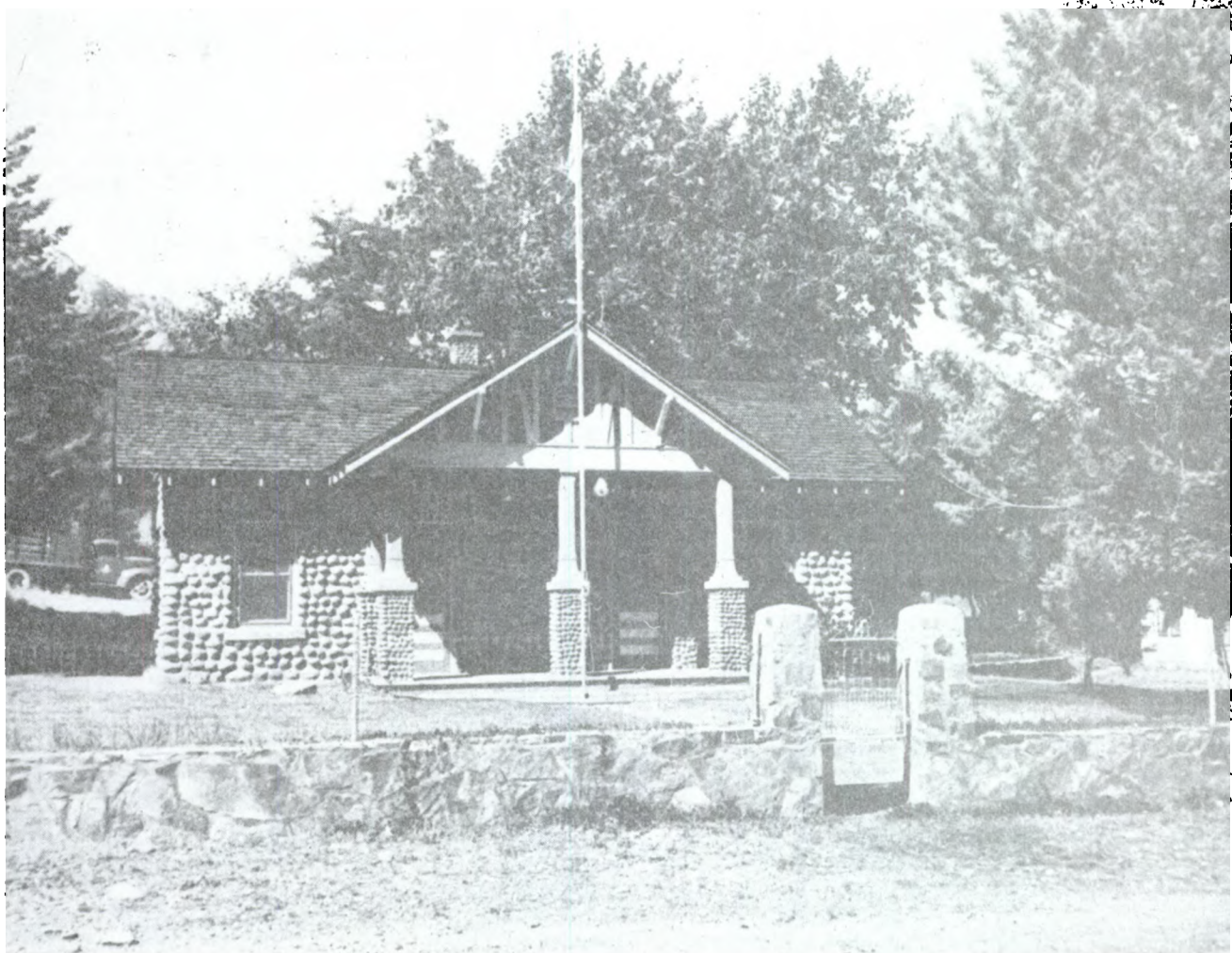


Figure 111--Portal Ranger Station, Coronado National Forest, AZ.

\$9.99 per day. There were about 29 other carpenters, all of whom were locally employed, working with him. Valenzuela worked at Sunnyside Camp, then Flux Canyon, and finally Madera Camp. Louis mentioned the work accomplished by the CCC included plumbing, roads, fences, and water works. He recalled especially a dam in Eldon with beautiful rock work: "I had a chance to see the dam at Babocumari Ranch--still intact--a masterpiece of rock work." Louis knows of one barracks left from the Flux Canyon Camp. The barracks, now a ranch house, is about 3 miles up the road from High to Nogales, and is about 200 yards in on the left side. There is also a truck ramp and well left at the site. Valenzuela indicated that having the CCC in the area helped business a great deal.⁴³

Patagonia Ranger Station

The Patagonia and Canelo Ranger Stations show vividly how uniformity of structure design can, with slight modification, result in a distinctively different appearance from one site to another. The two stations,

especially the residences, reveal how standard plans were varied to create distinctive sites despite the basic structural similarities of the buildings themselves.

Constructed in 1934, the Patagonia Ranger Station is located just northeast of Patagonia, AZ. The buildings at this station consisted of an office (now a residence), a residence, a garage, a barn, and a storage room or dynamite shed. All buildings are identical in plan to the Lowell Ranger Station except for the barn and garage. The layout, however, is somewhat different in order to fit the surroundings. All of these buildings, except the garage, have been modified.

The residence faces east and is approximately 35 feet wide (fig. 112). It is 50 feet long, rectangular in shape, and includes front and back porches. The residence is identical to the Lowell residence except that it does not have a side porch. The residence interior contains two bedrooms, a bath, living room, dining room, and kitchen. The front porch has been enclosed and used as a room. The building is made of adobe, has a flat roof with drains, and six-over-one, double-hung sash windows.



Figure 112--Residence, Patagonia Ranger Station, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

The Patagonia office faces east, in line with the residence. It is 30 feet wide and 35 feet long. Its front porch is now enclosed. There are two front doors, two rooms, and a bath projecting from the back of the building.

The ranger station garage is 35 feet wide and faces east, in line with the other buildings (fig. 113). There is a single-entry front entrance and two garage doors about 18 feet long. The interior is separated into three rooms.

The barn faces south and is located on a slight rise. It has a front door and small side window. The interior has a concrete floor and hay window. Attached to the rear is an enclosed lean-to that originally was open. The barn is now used for storage.

The storage room is located on a rise behind the garage. The concrete walls are very thick and slope inward. The building was possibly used to store dynamite.

Nogales Ranger Station

The Nogales Ranger Station was built by the Box Canyon Camp in 1934-35. The station includes a residence, office, storage building, garage, workshop, and barn. The barn and garage are identical in design to the Patagonia buildings.

The Nogales ranger's residence faces east. It follows the same plan as Lowell Ranger Station except for a front porch extending across the entire width of the building. The building is 30 feet wide and 56 feet long. Clay tile detailing on the roof was added for decoration and possibly to aid water runoff. This detail appears on all of the Nogales buildings and is unique to this complex.

The office also faces east and stands in line with the residence. It is 30 feet wide and 17 feet long. The building plan is identical to the Lowell Ranger Station office. The front porch has been enclosed to provide an extra room.



Figure 113--Garage, Patagonia Ranger Station, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

Rucker Canyon, F-12-A

Camp F-12 was established on July 12, 1933. The camp was located at an elevation of 5,500 feet in Rucker Canyon, 38 miles north of Douglas in the Chiricahua Mountains, Cochise County, AZ. Camp F-12 was formally named Camp Greenway after Rough Rider and Arizona mining magnate, General John C. Greenway. Most references to the camp, however, use the Rucker Canyon name.⁴⁴

The original camp consisted of tents and was occupied by a veterans company. Frame structures were completed in December 1933. The veterans company was responsible for building an adobe clubroom containing a canteen. The mess hall was an extension of that building and was made of adobe. The company occupied the Rucker Canyon site until May 1934 at which time the company was transferred to the Tusayan National Forest.⁴⁵ The Rucker Canyon campsite was reoccupied in October 1934.

In February 1935, F-12 was occupied by Company 830, a company of junior white enrollees from Arizona and Texas. Company commander was R.H. Fullenwider, and project supervisor was C.L. White. Company strength was 204 men, 65 of whom were locally enrolled.

The camp was built on a hillside with buildings widely separated and connected by walks. An inspection described the camp as dirty and poorly maintained. Work projects covered 125 square miles and included construction of roads, bridges, cattle guards, telephone lines, range fences, stock dams, and a public campground and timber stand improvement.⁴⁶ A winter fly camp

was maintained at Turkey Creek Ranger Station. In May, the camp moved to Colorado's Gunnison National Forest for the summer.⁴⁷

By October 1937, the Rucker Canyon Camp was occupied by Company 2870, another junior company with enrollees recruited from Arizona, Oklahoma, and Texas. Company strength was 168 men with no LEM's. The company commander was First Lieutenant Alva E. Lindsay; project supervisor was W.H. Hughes.

The major work program consists of 9 miles of new road up Rucker Canyon for the purpose of fire protection and for opening up four recreational areas which were constructed in 1934 by this camp. . . . Range improvement has been another major project, consisting of spring development, tank construction and fence construction. Fire suppression training for enrollees is intensive.⁴⁸

Other work projects undertaken by Camp F-12 at that time were construction of drainage structures and bridges, maintenance of truck trails and telephone lines, seed collection, recreational lot survey, and revegetation.⁴⁹ The recreation areas built by F-12 were Rustler Park (rebuilt in the ninth period), Rucker Park, Cypress Park, Bathtub Park, and Hermitage Park.⁵⁰

Although climatic conditions were reportedly favorable for year-round work activities at an elevation of 5,500 feet, a problem was encountered in 1937 with water shortages. From June until the middle of September, water for the camp had to be hauled a minimum of 6 miles. Records showed wells had gone dry for the first time in 60 years. Construction of two new



Figure 114--Barrack interior, Sunnyside CCC Camp, Coronado National Forest, AZ, 1933. (Courtesy of Don Willis, Patagonia, AZ)

wells and fall rains eventually ameliorated the problem.⁵¹

Another problem discovered by camp administrators was a high incidence of venereal disease among enrollees. A prophylaxis station was maintained at city hall by the CCC on weekends for personnel of three camps. No further cases of venereal disease were reported after these improvements.⁵²

In 1937, camp buildings were rated good to excellent.

In October 1938, Rucker Canyon Camp F-12 was moved to the CCC site at Cave Creek and subsequently became Camp F-10. The Rucker Canyon site was possibly redesignated as a Soil Conservation Service camp.⁵⁴

Sunnyside Camp, F-13-A

Sunnyside was the third camp to open in the Coronado National Forest. It began operation on June 3, 1933.⁵⁵ Although usually referred to as Sunnyside, Camp F-13 was officially called Camp Miles after General Nelson A. Miles, to whom Geronimo surrendered in 1885.⁵⁶ The camp had a particularly good reputation and in February 1934 was given an "outstanding camp in the area" award. It was given the award again in April, just prior to its summer departure for Colorado.⁵⁷

Among Sunnyside's work projects were construction of the Lyle-Parker Road and improvement of the Sunnyside County Road as far as the Santa Cruz County line.⁵⁸ A

side camp was operated in the winter of 1934 at Sand's Ranch.⁵⁹ Camp F-13-A closed permanently on October 21, 1935.

Enrollees at Sunnyside

Alex Gonzales was an LEM for the Sunnyside Camp, F-13-A, from October 1933 until April 1934. He was 19 years old when he joined and had been working in the local area as a rancher and farmer. Gonzales recalls that when the CCC started all the Coronado land was open range. Cattle from different herds ran together, and each rancher would pick his cattle by brand. The CCC began dividing the range into allotments by building roads and fences.

Gonzales' main job was on a roadbuilding crew. He was designated cattle guard inspector. The guards were made of railroad rails and welded in camp. He says that the ones he built that year have now been replaced by larger ones.

The name "Sunnyside" was given to the area by a religious group who settled there in the late 1800's. The camp itself was actually in Parker Canyon. After some 45 days in tents the men moved into new barracks. The frame buildings housed 50 men each. Camp water had to be pumped 1-1/2 miles from the Collins Spring.

Gonzales remembers the following buildings at the Sunnyside Camp: four barracks, each with bath facilities (fig. 114), a blacksmith shop, an auto repair shop, a



Figure 115--Men from Sunnyside CCC Camp building a cattle fence, Coronado National Forest, AZ, 1933. (Courtesy of Don Willis, Patagonia, AZ)

clinic, a PX or commissary, a recreation hall, dining hall, kitchen, and several storage buildings. Ice was brought in every 4 days. Perishables were kept in ground dugouts and covered by roofs of canvas and tin. Alex recalls that the food was good, but there was some waste. A disposal pit was dug daily to dispose of garbage. Cookstoves were fired by coal hauled in probably from Tucson. The recreation room was equipped with a radio and decks of cards. The men also played ball games and horseshoes. Because of its isolation, Sunnyside did not play against other camps.

Gonzales thinks there were about 200 men at Sunnyside. About one-fourth were enlisted from the local county, and the rest came from New Mexico, Texas, Nevada, Oregon, and Colorado. Every Friday after work four trucks left camp for Tucson, Nogales, and Douglas. The men would stay away for the weekend and make their own arrangements for returning to camp.

After Sunnyside closed, the buildings were dismantled and turned over to the Forest Service, according to Alex Gonzales. The land where the camp was located later became private land through a trade with the Forest Service. Gonzales left the CCC to do construction work, and in 1936 he started working for the Forest Service as a fire guard. He kept this job until the war started and then went into the military service.⁶⁰

Don Willis was enrolled in the CCC for two years from 1933 to 1935. He was only 16 when he joined and lied about his age in order to get in. He was first an enrollee at Sunnyside. Later he moved to Flux Canyon, spending summers at Mesa Verde National Park.

Don Willis worked on a cattle fence line that he refers to as "an assembly line operation." First, a surveyor laid down the fence line. Then two men used sledgehammers to pound a bar into the ground every 21 feet to indicate postholes (fig. 115). Next, men with dynamite blasted the holes, which were then cleared out by the next crew of men with bars and shovels. LEM's cut juniper posts and hauled them to the fence line with burros. Another crew set the posts. Juniper was used because it does not rot and lasts for an average of 60 years. Finally, wire stringers put up wires between posts; bales of wire were hauled by hand or burros.

Canelo Ranger Station

The *Coronado Bulletin* reports work on the existing Canelo Ranger Station began in November 1932 before the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Assistant Superintendent Anderson supervised the pouring of its concrete foundation and basement in November and early December 1932. During the excavation process, a redwood coffin was unearthed. Its contents were identified as the remains of Captain Joe Parks, who came to the area in 1882 and was one of the first white settlers.⁶¹

Improvements on the Canelo buildings were delayed by weather until February, at which time more workers were added. On June 16, 1933, it was reported that the station had been completed with the finishing of a barn made largely of materials salvaged from the previous Canelo ranger's dwelling. The new buildings were



Figure 116--Office, Canelo Ranger Station, under construction in 1933, Coronado National Forest, AZ.

described as "consisting of a 5-room dwelling, storeroom-garage, machinery, and small barn, all of adobe construction."⁶²

Strong evidence points to the use of CCC labor in improving the grounds around Canelo Ranger Station. The close proximity of the Sunnyside Camp in the summer of 1933 is one indicator. At least one enrollee remembers working at the station. Among the observable improvements are road work, stone walls, landscaping, and corrals. A small helicopter landing pad is located just above the ranger station, but it is not known when this was constructed.

The basic building plans for the Canelo Ranger Station are the same as found at the other ranger stations on the Coronado National Forest; however, by altering the roofline and using a different combination of building materials the entire appearance of the buildings was changed. This complex presently consists of a residence, office, garage, and barn.

The residence plan is similar in style to other ranger station residences on the forest. The front porch extends across half of the front. The house faces south. The building measures 35 feet wide and 45 feet long. Both front and back porches are screened in. The walls are adobe, and the wooden roof is gabled with brackets. Inside the residence are two bedrooms, a bath, dining room, living room, and kitchen. The basement has an outside entrance with an added shelter over it. Windows are deeply set six-over-one, double-hung sash type. Rough-cut rock retaining walls surround the house.

The Canelo office sits high off an unpaved road and looks east toward Turkey Creek (fig. 116). Identical in plan to the Patagonia and Lowell ranger station offices, this office also has two entrances, two interior rooms, and a projecting bath. An addition has been made to the rear, or north, side. The office is constructed of adobe, but instead of a flat roof, the roof is gabled with wooden shiplap and brackets. This change in roofline completely alters the building's appearance. Instead of a desert adobe building, it is a gabled building, designed appropriately for its wooded setting. Cypress trees in front of the office have grown so large they hide the building.

The Canelo garage also has a gable roof, but no brackets. It is located behind the residence and faces east (fig. 117). It has three garage doors, two the same style and one different. It has a single entrance doorway. There are three windows on the west side and two on the south.

The barn is an adobe structure that has a gable roof with no brackets. There is an open lean-to at the rear, a front door, one south window, a concrete floor, and a hay window. The barn is located behind the garage on a slight rise (fig. 118).

Madera Canyon Camp, F-30-A

The Madera Canyon Camp was originally occupied by Company 1838 on November 1, 1934. In February 1935, the 209-man company was commanded by G.M. Roper.



Figure 117--Garage, Canelo Ranger Station, Coronado National Forest, AZ.

The camp was located 38 miles outside of Tucson in Pima County. Enrollees were racially mixed and came from Texas and Arizona.⁶³

Project Supervisor W.H. Hughes oversaw 180 enrollees and 25 LEM's. Hughes directed work on 144 square miles. The work consisted of soil erosion control; fence building; road construction; recreational work; and construction of a septic tank, toilets, and fireplace.⁶⁴ Enrollees finished work on the Box Canyon Road, which had been started by Camp F-11-A. The road officially opened on May 6, 1935, with a special motorcade from Tucson.⁶⁵

The camp was located in a wooded canyon in the Santa Rita Mountains 12 miles off the main highway. It was situated on a slope that had a 300-foot difference in elevation from one end to the other. Plant growth in the area included scrub oak, cedar, and mesquite; landscaping around the camp included cultivated flowers, vines, shrubs, and cacti gardens. There was 18-inch masonry curbing. The curbing's top was decorated with white granite bordering the walks, driveways, and gardens. The grounds were graveled.⁶⁶ Much of the original camp burned May 9, 1934; however, it was promptly rebuilt.⁶⁷

In November 1935, the Madera Canyon Camp was occupied by Company 1826, a veterans' camp of racially mixed recruits from Colorado, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas, and Arizona. Commander Alva E. Lindsay was in charge, and Hughes continued to supervise work projects. Projects similar to those worked on by the earlier company and included even more water development projects for recreation, livestock, and wildlife. Side camps were maintained at Sabino Canyon and for recreational improvements in the Catalinas.⁶⁸ Company strength was 234 men; there were no LEM's.⁶⁹

The larger than average company necessitated building a fifth barracks to relieve overcrowding. Permission was

granted by the district commander for its immediate construction. All other buildings and services were rated excellent.⁷⁰

By October 1936, Veterans Company 1826 was commanded by Captain Joseph W. Rogers. The 196-man company was made up of enrollees from Arizona and New Mexico. Satisfaction was expressed by enrollees regarding nearly all camp conditions. Recreational activities included athletics, such as volleyball, croquet, and horseshoes, and liberty parties to various places for rodeos, barbecues, sightseeing, and athletic contests. Two complaints were registered at F-30 in 1936. The first dealt with a skunk infestation under the buildings, which was remedied by placing screens around the base of the buildings. The second involved removal of beer from CCC camps; enrollees had to walk three-fourths of a mile to the nearest source and then pay high prices.⁷¹

Recent repair work on camp buildings gave them a well-maintained appearance. Each of the four barracks had showers and washrooms. Technical service buildings were most in need of rehabilitation. The forestry garage-workshop was described as "so crowded a stove cannot be installed this winter." Forestry quarters were described as very poor, with two small rooms for seven men.⁷²

Madera Canyon's work projects during the period covered approximately 100 square miles. Projects involved maintenance of truck trails, pipelines, and recreation areas as well as construction of water reservoirs, bridges, cattle guards, boundary fences, and recreation areas. A side camp of 10 men was established 8 miles from camp on Mount Baldy at an elevation of 8,500 feet.⁷³

During the winter of 1937, Camp F-30 was occupied by enrollees predominantly from ranching and farming families in eastern Texas. Morale was described as high. Enrollees seemed especially interested in education

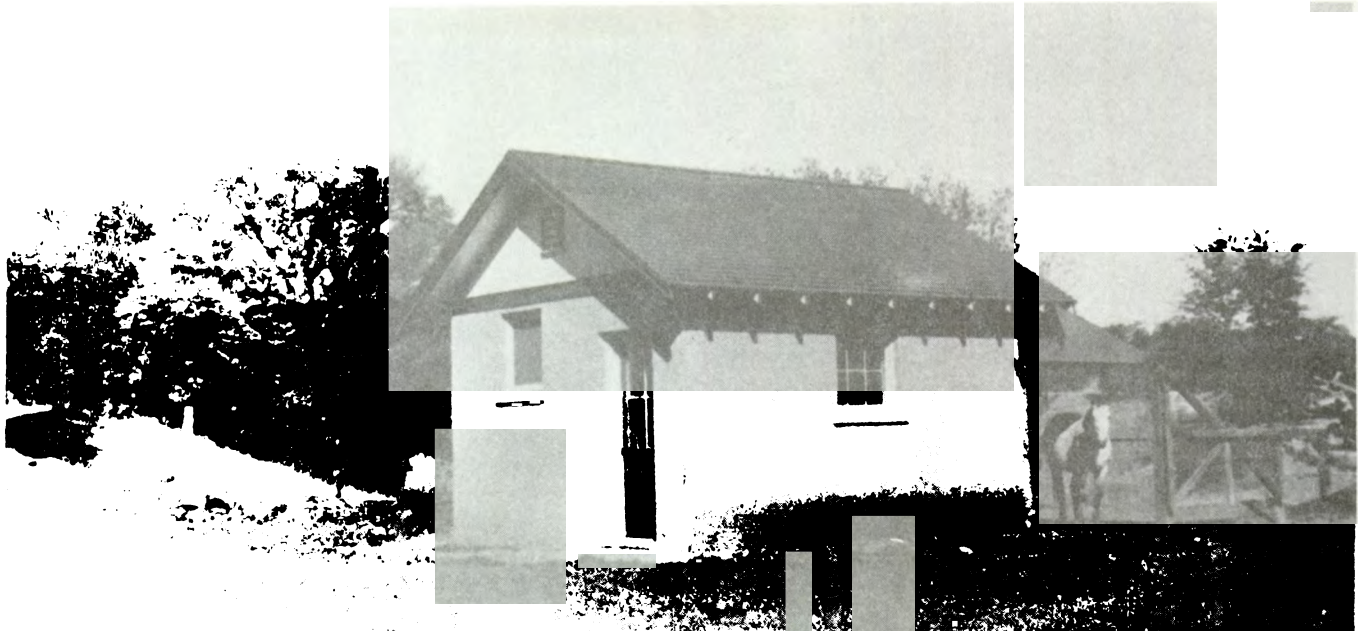


Figure 118--Barn, Canelo Ranger Station, Coronado National Forest, AZ.

classes. Facilities for the education program were inadequate, however; there was no separate education building. The rear of the officers' quarters was used as a classroom instead. Natural deterioration of camp buildings was evident, although repairs and maintenance had been kept up.⁷⁴

Work projects during that period were varied and included construction of roads, pipelines for stock watering, fence for the Santa Rita Range boundary, stock tanks and steel rims for stock watering, spring development for campground use, moisture pits for experimental purposes, movable panel plots for experimental purposes, experimental plots for the Florida Station, and quail plots for wildlife protection, as well as surveys for fence line, revegetation, and fire control.⁷⁵

By February 1938, the Madera Canyon Camp was occupied by Company 2848, composed of white junior enrollees from Texas and Arizona. First Lieutenant R.B. Thornal was the company commander. The technical service supervisor was F.G. Hanna. Company strength was 174 enrollees and 17 LEM's. Camp conditions and services were rated good.⁷⁶

The Madera Canyon CCC Camp closed on May 28, 1938. In September 1941, a permit to use the site as a recreation and rest camp for enlisted Army personnel from Tucson Air Base was approved.⁷⁷

In addition to a variety of other projects, the Madera Canyon Camp was responsible for major recreational developments in both the Santa Rita and Santa Catalina areas, including the Madera Canyon Upper and Lower Campgrounds. On the Santa Rita Experimental Range Reserve, the Madera Canyon Camp worked extensively at the Florida Station. Projects included boundary fencing, grounds maintenance, and stream control dams (fig. 119).

Sabino Canyon Recreation Area

Camp F-30 was the primary CCC camp assigned to work at Sabino. During the fourth enrollment period of November 1934 to March 1935, the camp rebuilt 14 fireplaces and constructed 1 table, 2 flush toilets, sixty 18-inch culverts, 3 septic tanks, 1 garbage pit, a rubble masonry bridge of 60 feet by 5 feet, 2 rubble masonry registry booths, one 33-foot rock settee, and a well. A 1,650-foot-long rock wall was also rebuilt.

Prior to 1934, the Tanque Verde (F-42) camp did maintenance work at the Sabino Canyon Recreation Area. Coronado's "Forest Recreation Plan" states that "since 1933, the emergency period, the Forest Service, in cooperation with various other government agencies, has done a substantial amount of recreational improvement work in the lower portions of Sabino Canyon. The entire development was designed for public use."⁷⁸ Much of the CCC's work in the Sabino Canyon Recreation Area still remains, including part of a dam made of smooth riverbed rock. Drinking fountains made of smooth riverbed stone also remain (fig. 120). Rock steps, built of rough-cut stone taken from nearby hillsides, lead up to picnic areas and down to the river (fig. 121). Picnic tables have legs made of rough-cut stone; table tops and seats are made of concrete slabs (fig. 122).

About 10 CCC-built bridges are found in the canyon; no two exactly alike. Some are constructed completely of rounded riverbed rock, some are rough-cut stone, and some are a mixture of both. It should be noted that the WPA helped build these bridges, as is evident by the metal marker placed on a few of the bridge posts (fig. 123).

The caretaker's residence and garage were constructed of rough-cut stone rubble gathered from the area. Framing was most likely wood with a stone



Figure 119--Stream control dam constructed by CCC Camp F-30 during winter 1933-34 on Santa Rita Experimental Range, AZ. (National Archives 95-G-298650)

vener. Shape and style were similar to the Lowell Ranger Station buildings, the residence being most like the ranger station office. Both buildings have been demolished.

The residence had two entrances and two rooms, plus a bath and a kitchen. There were an open front porch and a flat roof with castellated or parapet type projections. An addition was made to the back of the building at a later date.

Many of the CCC-constructed firepits at Sabino still remain. As simple as they look, pages were devoted to their design in the Forest Service Recreation Handbook and Acceptable Building Plans.

Lemon Rock Lookout

Located on top of Mount Lemon, this lookout was constructed of wood (fig. 124). It is a square building with windows on all four sides. Wooden flaps were made to be raised or lowered over the windows. Steel cords helped to stabilize the lookout. This tower was probably built by the Madera Canyon Camp or one of its side camps. Available data are inconclusive.

Tanque Verde, F-42-A

Tanque Verde Camp, F-42-A, was first occupied on November 17, 1933, by a company from Wyoming's Medicine Bow National Forest. Tanque Verde Camp was said to be at the lowest elevation of any CCC camp in the region. At 2,700-foot elevation, 90 °F temperature, and a cactus desert environment, men of the Tanque

Verde Camp found themselves in quite different circumstances from their previous camp's 9,000-foot elevation, -7 °F temperature, and lodgepole pine environment.

The following May found the company making the return trip north.⁸⁰ Tanque Verde was occupied as a national forest camp only during the second enrollment period.⁸¹

Carl Masters was an enrollee at the Tanque Verde Camp. He enrolled at Fort Francis E. Warren in Cheyenne, WY, and was first assigned to the Chimney Park Camp that moved to Tanque Verde.

While we were there our camp constructed part of the Reddington Road that goes up over the Rincon Mountains to the town of Reddington. We also fenced in the entire area of the Saguaro National Monument east of Tucson--about 100 miles of four-strand iron-post fence.⁸²

Masters says Tanque Verde was also responsible for building picnic areas at Sabino Canyon, an adobe building at the Lowell Ranger Station, and the present adobe headquarters building at Saguaro National Monument.⁸³

Lowell Ranger Station

The Lowell Ranger Station was built by the CCC in 1934. It was constructed by enrollees from Tanque Verde Camp, F-42-A. As noted, Camp F-42-A was also involved in development of the Sabino Canyon Recreation Area. The ranger station is located below the



Figure 120--Stone drinking fountain, Sabino Canyon Recreation Area, Coronado National Forest, AZ, 1938. (National Archives 95-G-360315)

Sabino Canyon Recreation Area and includes a residence, office, garage, barn, and workshop (fig. 125).

The residence at Lowell Ranger Station faces east and is 33 feet 8 inches wide (fig. 126). The west, or back, end is 29 feet 7 inches wide, and the sides measure 43 feet 8 inches. There are front and back porches, now screened, although the front porch was originally open and had a wooden railing. Another enclosed porch or greenhouse was removed from the south side, leaving a 30-inch-high concrete wall.

The residence's interior contains two bedrooms, bathroom, living room, dining room, and kitchen. Both bedrooms have double French doors leading to the south porch. The ceiling is made of thin wooden slats approximately 2 inches wide and peeled log beams that extend the length of the building.

The exterior of the residence building is a 1-inch layer of stucco covering adobe bricks. The adobe walls are about 13 inches thick. The stucco is painted sage green. The residence roof is flat with small vents or drains added to allow water to drain off. There are metal gutter spouts on each side of the building. Windows are deeply set and are six-over-one, double-hung sash type in sets of two, with sets of three on the front. The building is in excellent condition and has had little or no alteration.

The Lowell Ranger Station office is 30 by 31 feet (fig. 127). The building faces north. There is an open front porch with four square posts and concrete floor. Two front doors open into separate rooms. A 7- by 11-foot bathroom projects from the rear of the building. Inside the office there are wooden floors and a woodburning stove. The office walls are adobe covered with stucco. Windows are six-over-one, double-hung sash type and are deeply set.

The garage is a large, south-facing building, 32 feet across. The east and west sides are 16 feet wide. On the east side is an attached barn measuring 12 by 12 feet. The garage building is divided into three sections, the 10 by 16 garage, the 10 by 16 machine shed, and the 16 by 16 storeroom. There are two large garage doors and a front door on the south side of the storeroom. Sets of two windows are on the north and south sides. These were originally six-over-one, double-hung sash windows, but have been replaced by multipaned casement windows. A door and overhang have been added to the east side of the building. The barn has a 4- by 5-foot grain bin, a hay window, manger, feed box, and a shed roof supported by brackets.

Except for the unmaintained grounds, this complex is in excellent condition and remains closer to its original plan than any other ranger station examined.



Figure 121--Stone Steps, Sabino Canyon Recreation Area, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

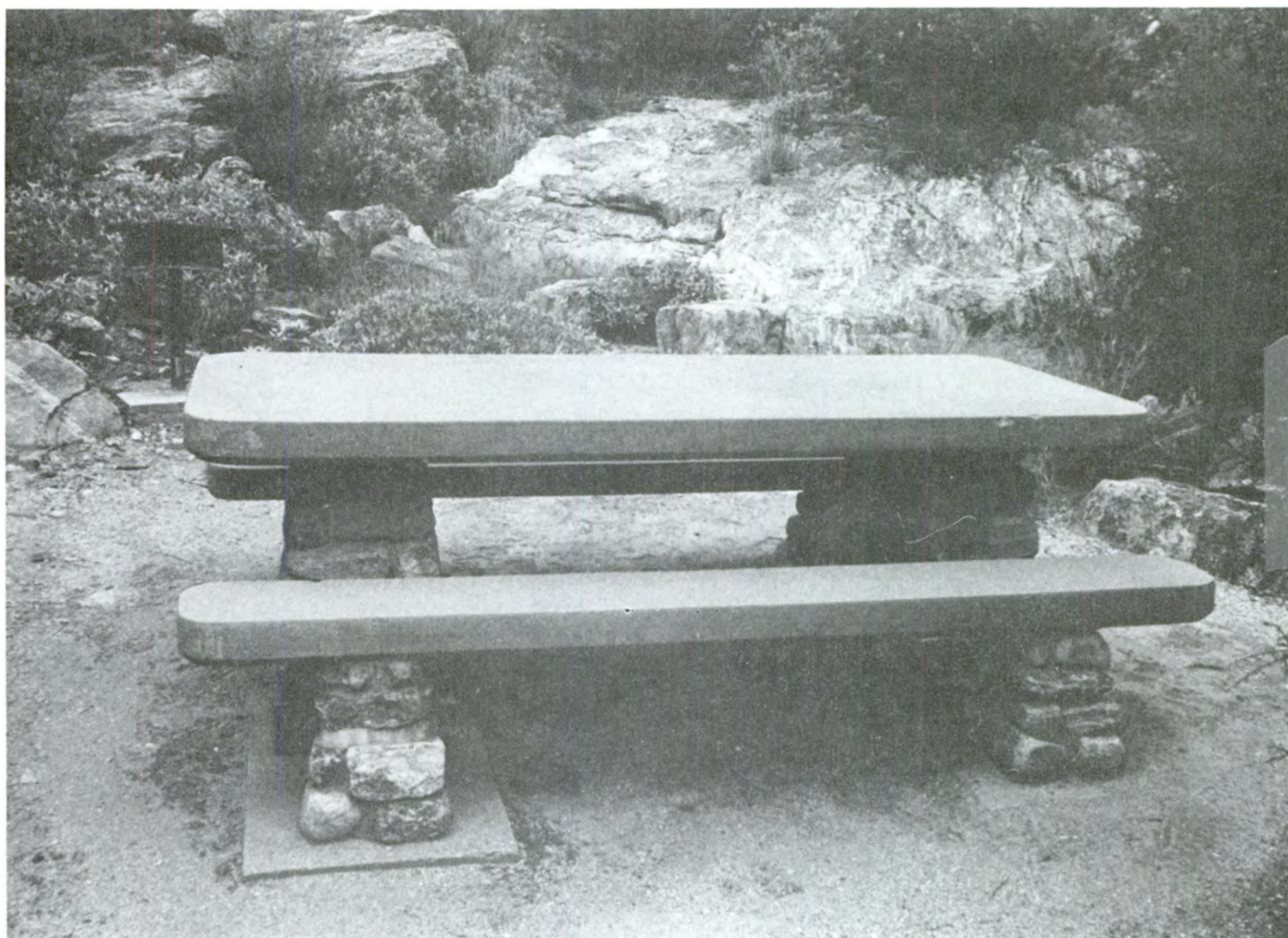


Figure 122--Concrete slab picnic table, Sabino Canyon Recreation Area, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

Turkey Creek Camp, F-47-A

Camp F-47 was occupied on August 21, 1935, by Company 2870 consisting of junior enrollees from Texas, Oklahoma, and Arizona. One "colored" person was reported in the company. The camp was located in Turkey Creek Canyon, outside Douglas, in Cochise County "on the floor of a canyon surrounded by large pine trees."⁸⁴

The 201-man company was commanded by William M. Villines. Project supervisor was H.O. Hammond.⁸⁵ Buildings were the "new knockdown type of structures."⁸⁶

Work projects were located within 50 square miles and included road and trail construction and improvement, construction of cattle guards and bridges, development of a recreational area, and telephone line and range fence construction. "The outstanding accomplishment of the first year was the completion of mountain trails, in which work it was necessary to use dynamite and tractors, all of which was accomplished without a serious

accident."⁸⁷ A total of 148 men were assigned to the forest projects, while another 25 were detailed to camp work. Sixteen men were locally enrolled.⁸⁸

An inspection report dated October 31, 1935, gave the camp a less positive rating than for most other Coronado camps. Sanitation required immediate attention. Enrollee morale was only fair. Buildings and supplies were rated primarily good rather than excellent. Two discharges due to venereal disease had occurred in the recent enrollment period.⁸⁹ The major work project was the building of a permanent powder magazine for the Chiricahua Division.⁹⁰

A year later, Company No. 2870 was commanded by First Lieutenant Stanley L. Stewart of the Cavalry Reserve. D.H. Whitlow was project supervisor. The company had 163 men, all from Arizona. Contemplated work projects were the construction of a new bridge, boundary fences, horse trails, and road drainage work.⁹¹



Figure 123--Stone bridge and culvert, Sabino Canyon Recreation Area, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

Three fly or side camps were established outside the Turkey Creek camp site. One of these was at Crown King where a stone ranger station dwelling, office, and landscaping were being worked on.⁹² Another side camp from F-47 was at Bonita Canyon and operated during the third period. This camp's projects included construction of the Cima Park administration camp, house, barn, and corral; the Rustler Park storeroom and campgrounds; and the Fly Peak camp, cistern, and trail.⁹³ Camp F-47 closed on May 15, 1937, when the camp moved to F-18-A, Groom Creek, on the Prescott National Forest.⁹⁴

Fly Peak Lookout

The Fly Peak Lookout is an example of a steel tower lookout with an accompanying log cabin. The tower is simple and functional. It is made of steel with a wooden cab. It is uncertain if the log cabin and lookout at Fly Peak were built by the CCC, but if so, they were probably constructed by Camp F-47. The cabin was of notched log construction and made to blend with the wooded surroundings. The structure no longer stands but was probably one room.

Ash Canyon Camp, F-53-A

The Ash Canyon CCC Camp was occupied only during the second enrollment period. Not much information on it has been recorded. It was first occupied on November 3, 1933, by a company from Glade, CO. It closed April 30, 1934. In June 1934, the site was reoccupied by a transient camp from the 80 Ranch in the Huachuca

foothills. The transients were employed primarily on the Montezuma Pass truck trail.⁹⁵

Camp Pena Blanca, F-64-A

Camp Pena Blanca, F-64-A, was originally occupied on December 7, 1935. The camp was located in Walker Canyon, approximately 14 miles outside Nogales, AZ, in Santa Cruz County. The camp was 9 miles down a dirt road off the main highway, in an area . . .

. . . wooded with oak and juniper trees and mesquite . . . some cultivation of cacti and flowers . . . grass growth on account of being pasturage land . . . grounds graveled . . . little other landscaping . . . summer days not unbearably hot with nights cool . . . mild winters . . . elevation, 3,900 feet . . . average annual rainfall from 17 to 22 inches.⁹⁶

The following October, Company 2847, a company of white junior enrollees from Texas and Oklahoma, was stationed at Pena Blanca. The 148-man company was commanded by First Lieutenant J. Arnold van Hardeveld. An October 19 inspection report refers to problems with a previous commander who, as a result, had been "boarded" and relieved from service.⁹⁷ First Lieutenant van Hardeveld was described as a veteran of 15 CCC camps and a troubleshooter who possessed the "ability to restore, promote, and maintain morale."

Ernest White was F-64's project supervisor in 1936. A total of 124 enrollees and 12 LEM's were engaged on projects covering 100 square miles. Projects included construction, maintenance, and improvement of roads, fire trails, and recreational areas and water development.⁹⁹ The camp was responsible for building the Nogales Ranger Station in 1937-38 and also built the storage house at the Patagonia Ranger Station.



Figure 124--Lemon Rock Lookout, Coronado National Forest, AZ, August 1941.

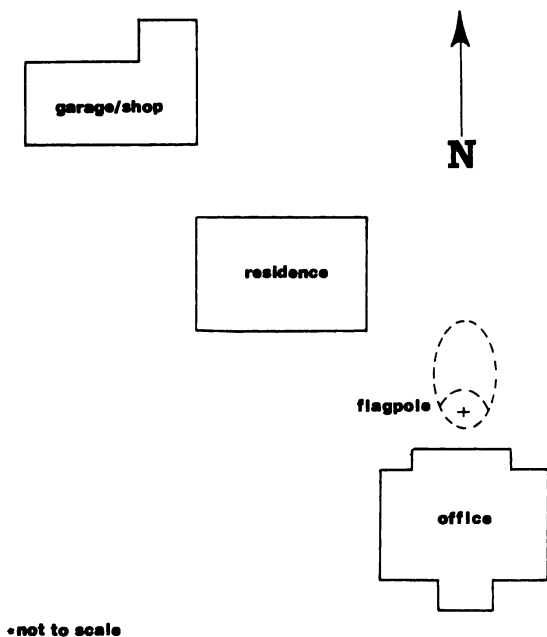


Figure 125--Lowell Ranger Station site plan, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (Courtesy of Forest Supervisor's Office, Coronado National Forest, Tucson, AZ)

Satisfaction was expressed by a camp inspector with the portable style camp buildings. Nearly all were rated excellent. A root cellar for storing smoked meats, vegetables, and fruits was in the planning stages.¹⁰⁰ Camp sanitation was rated satisfactory. There was plentiful well water, a sewage water system, grease traps and soakage pits, a pit latrine for enrollees and flush toilets in the infirmary as well as the officers' and technical service quarters. Garbage was taken away daily by a local rancher.¹⁰¹

A complete recreation program was provided at Pena Blanca. Within-camp athletic facilities were available for baseball, volleyball, basketball, croquet, boxing, and horseshoes. Athletic competitions were held with other CCC camps and the Nogales high school teams. Camp entertainment on Friday nights offered prizes for outstanding entertainers. Trucks were provided for liberty parties every Saturday and for special events on Fridays and Sundays. The citizens of Nogales were frequently contributors to camp entertainment and chapel activities.¹⁰² Enrollee morale at that time was generally good. "The conduct of enrollees as a whole is exemplary when they are in Nogales, and citizens there welcome them in a civic, social, and athletic way."¹⁰³

As different groups of enrollees moved in and out of the camp every 6 months, the buildings and grounds came to require maintenance and renovation. The Live Oak, Pena Blanca's camp newspaper, reported in November 1936 that:

Since the arrival of the present personnel many improvements have been made in the camp's appearance and in the educational and recreational buildings. The front half of Barracks #3 has been converted into an office and five classrooms for the educational department. In the recreation hall, a large and better radio, three sets of furniture, linoleum floor and table lamps, and a stage have been installed. The rec hall, mess hall, and educational building have been painted.¹⁰⁴

On March 15, 1937, the company of Pena Blanca moved to the Prescott National Forest for the summer. It returned in the fall, only to abandon the camp once again on December 15. On October 17, 1938, the Los Burros Camp on the Sitgreaves began occupation of the Pena Blanca site and retained the F-64 designation. A side camp was then set up at Madera Canyon.¹⁰⁵

On February 8, 1939, a special investigation was ordered at Pena Blanca to determine facts concerning the discharge of nine enrollees from Company 3348, occupants of the camp at that time. The men had been dishonorably discharged for refusing to work in order to gain their release from the CCC.¹⁰⁶ The investigation concluded the charges against the nine enrollees were sustainable. It was found that a number of the men in the company, which had originated a month earlier in New Cumberland, PA, had enrolled in the CCC for the sole purpose of getting free transportation west.¹⁰⁷

An inspection of F-64-A on February 24, 1939, noted that camp administrators were still encountering problems with enrollee attitudes of being along "for the ride." Company commander was Captain Hugh O. Seager; subordinate officer was Second Lieutenant John F. Sanchez.¹⁰⁸ The administration of these officers was reportedly "superior in all respects, especially in view of the fact it is one of the III Corps companies sent to VIII Corps . . . under so many handicaps."¹⁰⁹

In February, company strength was 183 men. Some 143 men worked under Camp Superintendent Franklin G. Hanna. Projects were watershed erosion work and fire protection and control work on the Mexican border. Several other enrollees were detailed to special training schools; e.g., cook's school or camp construction and rehabilitation. Completion of an education building was reported. A 50-man side camp was located in Madera Canyon, 51 miles from the base camp.¹¹⁰

Recreational activities at the camp included intracamp basketball and volleyball tournaments, weekly motion pictures, and speakers and entertainers from Nogales. The terrain precluded having a baseball field. Swimming was available in Nogales on a limited basis.¹¹¹ The educational program included literacy education, elementary and high school classes, arts and crafts, and vocational courses. Courses, ranging from reading to citizenship, advanced Spanish, and forestry, were taught by the educational advisor, camp officers, and technical service personnel. A 24- by 20-foot library was stocked with numerous books, magazines, and newspapers. A report by the education advisor stated the program's achievements:

Twenty-two illiterates brought to fourth-grade level within last 7 months. Enrollees greatly interested in education work, particularly in the field of languages and vocational study.¹¹²



Figure 126--Dwelling, Lowell Ranger Station, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (National Archives 95-G-292457)

On May 13, 1939, personnel of Camp F-64 left for the Kaibab National Forest. They returned to occupy the Pena Blanca site on October 20 and then left again the following May for the Kaibab.¹¹³

A June 4, 1941, camp inspection report indicated that Pena Blanca's Company 4812 had a strength of 135 men. Commander Gorodezky was still in charge. Work projects consisted largely of cleanup activities due to the imminent disbandment of the company. Morale was described as fair, but declining because of disbandment. The camp was said to have operated only during winter periods since its establishment in 1935. The camp's portable buildings were being properly maintained, with coal used for heating fuel and three 5-kilowatt lighting units installed.

According to Dennis Kieffer, a volunteer on the Coronado who researched the Pena Blanca camp, all that remains of the camp are the remnants of concrete building foundations.¹¹⁵

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Appendixes

Appendix A—Background Information on the Establishment and Organization of the CCC

Glossary of Terms for ECW (CCC) Organization Chart

Director. Duties as defined in the Act of March 31, 1933, and Executive Orders issued thereafter.

Advisory council. Representatives from the Department of War, Department of Agriculture, Department of the Interior, and Department of Labor.

Fiscal agent. Chief of Finance. Receives, allocates, expends, and accounts for all funds of Emergency Conservation Work under the direction of the Director.

Assistant directors (4):

Special assistant. Advises the Director on procurement of supplies and equipment needed by all the operating agencies.

Executive assistant. Charged with the responsibility of enforcing rules and regulations issued by the Director governing all activities of cooperating agencies. Represents the Director during his absence.

Administrative assistant. Charged with the management and control of activities authorized by the Director carried on by all cooperating agencies. Signs, approves, and acts upon matters referred to him.

Special counsel. Legal advisor and opinions.

Director of publicity. Charged with the responsibility of the collection, preparation, and dissemination of information and statistical data of public interest concerning the enrolled personnel, the work, and other activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Chief clerk. Procurement Officer. Custodian of supplies and property; supervision of office organization and personnel, records, reports; obligations and estimates of funds for Director's Office; pay roll; vouchers; transportation requests; routine correspondence; and general supervision of Mail and Files Section.

Special assistant. In charge of investigations and reports on operations of rules and regulations relating to CCC camp activities; promotion of safety with respect to lives and health of enrollees; special correspondence.

Statistician. Verifies and compiles statistical data submitted by all cooperating agencies engaged on CCC work; edits and has immediate supervision of the Director's reports to the President.

Information division. Prepares and distributes information on all CCC activities. Coordinates CCC work in all cooperating agencies.

Mail and files. Receives and distributes mail, files correspondence, miscellaneous papers and reports; supervision of messengers.

EMERGENCY CONSERVATION WORK (CCC) ORGANIZATION

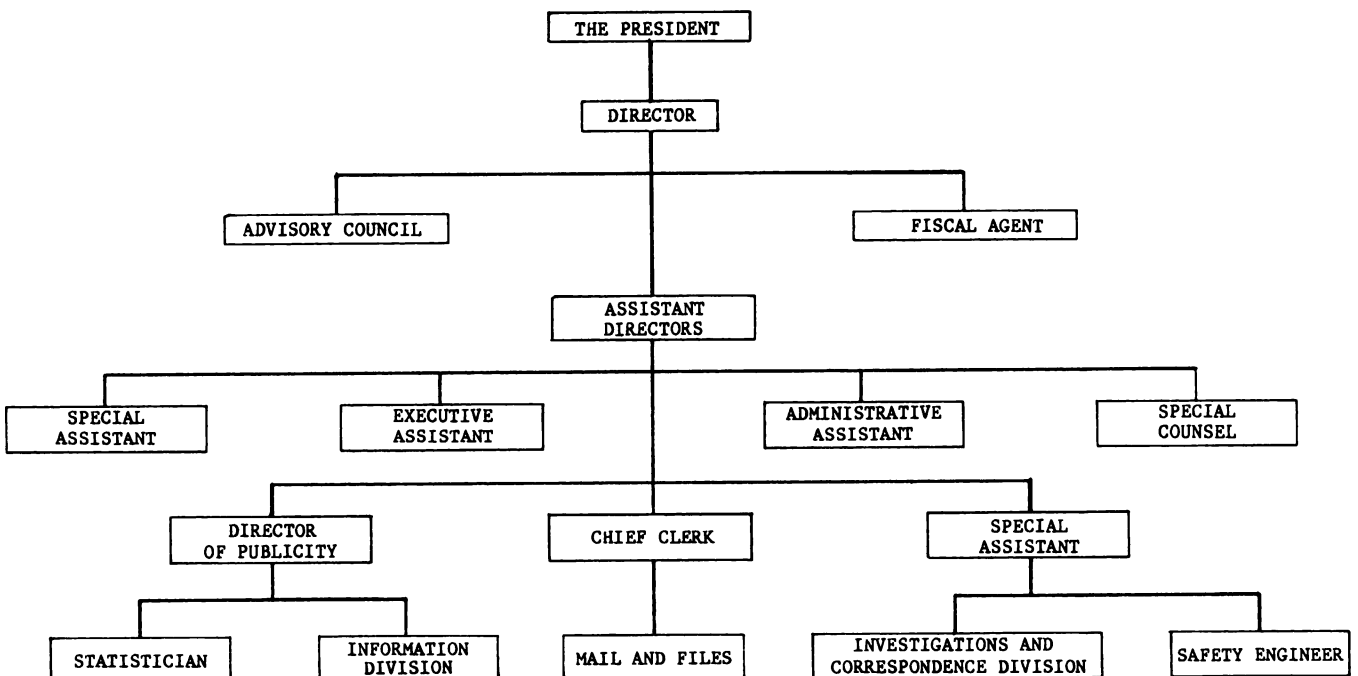


Figure 128--Emergency Conservation Work (CCC) organization chart.

Investigations and correspondence division. Prepares plans for inspection of CCC camps; receives inspector's reports; prepares correspondence thereon; general office correspondence.

Safety engineer. Has charge of safety program conducted through committees in CCC camps; sets up rules and regulations for approval by the Director.

Department of War. Acceptance of applicants for enrollment, their enrollment, physical conditioning, and transportation. The construction, command, administration, discipline, supply, sanitation, medical care, hospitalization, education, recreation, and welfare of work camps. Demobilization.

Department of Agriculture. Plans and executes work projects on National Forests, including Alaska and Puerto Rico, Oregon and California Wagon Road revested grant lands, wildlife refuges, and other departmental areas; conducts research incident to ECW

operations in forestry and control of tree diseases and tree-destroying insects; executes camp projects for Navy on naval reservations and for TVA; supervises planning and execution of forestry and erosion control work projects on state and private lands; and purchases National Forest lands.

Department of the Interior. Charged with technical administrative supervision of Emergency Conservation Work on lands under its jurisdiction; also in State, county, and metropolitan parks; and erosion control work on private lands under the Soil Erosion Service.

Department of Labor. Selection and certification of all men to be enrolled in the ranks of the Civilian Conservation Corps (not including the Veterans' contingent and the Indians in the camps on Indian reservations).

Veterans' Administration. Selection and certification of war veterans for enrollment in the Civilian Conservation Corps camps.

First 50 CCC camps in the Eastern National Forest Regions

State and camp number	Forest	Camp location
Alabama:		
1	Alabama	South of Moulton, Lawrence County
Arkansas:		
1	Ouachita	Near Eagleton, Polk County
2	Ouachita	Near Slatington, Montgomery County
3	Ouachita	Aly, Yell County
5	Ouachita	Crystal Springs, Garland County
8	Ozark	North of Mountain View, Stone County
9	Ozark	Cass, Crawford County
10	Ozark	15 miles northeast of Dover, Pope County
Georgia:		
1	Cherokee	Margaret, Fannin County
2	Cherokee	Nimblemill, Lumpkin County
3	Cherokee	Robertstown, White County
6	Nantahala	East of Clayton, Rabun County
Maine:		
1 (N.H. Camp No. 2)	White Mountain	Stoneham Town, Oxford County
New Hampshire:		
1	White Mountain	West of N. Woodstock (Easton Town), Grafton County
3	White Mountain	South of N. Woodstock (Thornton Town), Grafton County
5	White Mountain	South of Bartlett on Swift River, Carrol County
North Carolina:		
1	Pisgah	West of Pisgah Forest, Transylvania County
2	Pisgah	On Mills River, Henderson County
3	Pisgah	North of Old Ford, McDowell County
5	Pisgah	Mortimer, Caldwell County
7	Pisgah	Hot Springs, Madison County
10	Nantahala	East of Andrews at Aquone, Macon County

First 50 CCC camps in the Eastern National Forest Regions (continued)

State and camp number	Forest	Camp location
Oklahoma:		
1	Ouachita	Stapp, LeFlore County
Pennsylvania:		
1	Allegheny	Northeast of Marienville, Forest County
2	Allegheny	Heart's Content, Warren County
3	Allegheny	Dunkle Corner, McKean County
4	Allegheny	Owls Nest (northwest of Ridgeway), Elk County
5	Allegheny	Southwest of Bradford on Sugar Run, McKean County
South Carolina:		
1	Nantahala	16 miles west of Walhalla, Oconee County
Tennessee:		
1	Cherokee	Tellico River, Monroe County
3	Cherokee	Archville, Polk County
4	Cherokee	Sylco Creek, Polk County
5	Unaka	South of Johnson City, Washington County
6	Unaka	South of Elizabethton, Washington County
Vermont:		
2	Green Mountain	Near Peru, Bennington County
Virginia:		
1	George Washington	Passage Creek, northwest of Luray, Page County
2	George Washington	North River, west of Stokesville, Augusta County
3	George Washington	Near Deerfield, Augusta County
4	George Washington	Near Fulks Run, Rockingham County
5	Unaka	South of Wytheville, Wythe County
6	Unaka	South of Marion, Smyth County
7	Unaka	Damascus, Washington County
8	Natural Bridge	Near Waynesboro, Augusta County
9	Natural Bridge	East of Lexington, Rockbridge County
10	Natural Bridge	East of Natural Bridge, Rockbridge County
West Virginia:		
1	Monongahela	Dry Fork, Tucker County
2	Monongahela	Glady Creek, Randolph County
4	Monongahela	Laurel Fork, Randolph County
5	Monongahela	West of Circleville, Pendleton County
6	Monongahela	Thornwood, Pocahontas County

Amount of subsistence ration articles required for Civilian Conservation Corps (300,000 men for 30 days)

Article	Unit	Quantity	No. of carloads (80,000 lb capacity)	Required to produce the quantity
Bacon	Pound	1,125,000	16 1/2	70,313 hogs
Beans, dry	Pound	281,250	3 1/2	390 acres
Beef	Pound	5,625,000	256	9,375 steers
Butter	Pound	1,125,000	47	37,500 cows per day
Cheese	Pound	140,625	2 1/2	2,130 cows per day
Chicken	Pound	1,125,000	47	281,250 chickens
Eggs	Each	9,000,000	30	500,000 chickens per day
Flour	Pound	6,750,000	85	11,069 acres of wheat
Lard	Pound	360,000	6	30,000 hogs
Milk, evaporated	No. 1 can	620,685	10	2,130 cows per day
Milk, fresh	Gallon	562,500	70 (tank cars)	7,212 cows per day
Onions	Pound	1,125,000	14 1/2	4,500 acres
Pork	Pound	2,250,000	102	86,539 hogs
Potatoes	Pound	5,625,000	87	8,423 acres
Rice	Pound	337,500	4 1/2	255 acres
Syrup	No. 10 can	32,841	4 1/2	147 acres of cane
Sugar	Pound	2,812,500	35 1/2	1,406 acres of cane
Apples	No. 10 can	140,625	15 1/2	
Baking Powder	5 lb. can	10,125	1	
Beans, string	No. 2 can	1,421,046	27 1/2	
Cinnamon	4 oz. can	31,500	1/2	
Cocoa	5 lb. can	33,750	4	
Coffee	Pound	1,125,000	37	
Corn	No. 2 can	900,000	18	
Flavoring Extract	8 oz. bottle	22,500	1/2	
Jam or Preserves	No. 2 can	187,497	4 1/2	
Lard Substitute	Pound	360,000	6	
Macaroni	Pound	140,625	4	
Peaches	No. 10 can	100,926	11	
Peas	No. 2 can	900,000	18	
Pepper	4 oz. can	90,000	1/2	
Pickles	Gallon	11,250	1 1/2	
Pineapple	No. 2 1/2 can	360,000	12 1/2	
Prunes	No. 10 can	24,993	3	
Rolled Oats	20 oz. pkg.	675,000	29	
Salt	Pound	281,250	3 1/2	
Tea	Pound	28,125	2	
Tomatoes	No. 10 can	180,000	20	
Vinegar	Gallon	11,250	1 1/2	
			<u>1,042 1/2</u>	

**Appendix B—Nomination Forms for
National Register of Historic Places—
Snake River Ranger Station**



Figure 129--General view of Snake River Administrative Site from the vicinity of U.S. Highway 26, looking northwest.



Figure 130--Snake River Administrative Site Dwelling (Building 1), looking west.



Figure 131--Snake River Administrative Site Bunkhouse (Building 2), with Fire Cache (Building 3) to the rear.



Figure 132--From left to right: Snake River Administrative Site Fire Cache (Building 3), Barn (Building 5), Warehouse (Building 6), and Gas House (Building 8).



Figure 133--Snake River Administrative Site Office (Building 4). The original woodshed forms the left half of the existing structure.



Figure 134--Snake River Administrative Site Hay Shelter (Building 9) and Barn (Building 5).

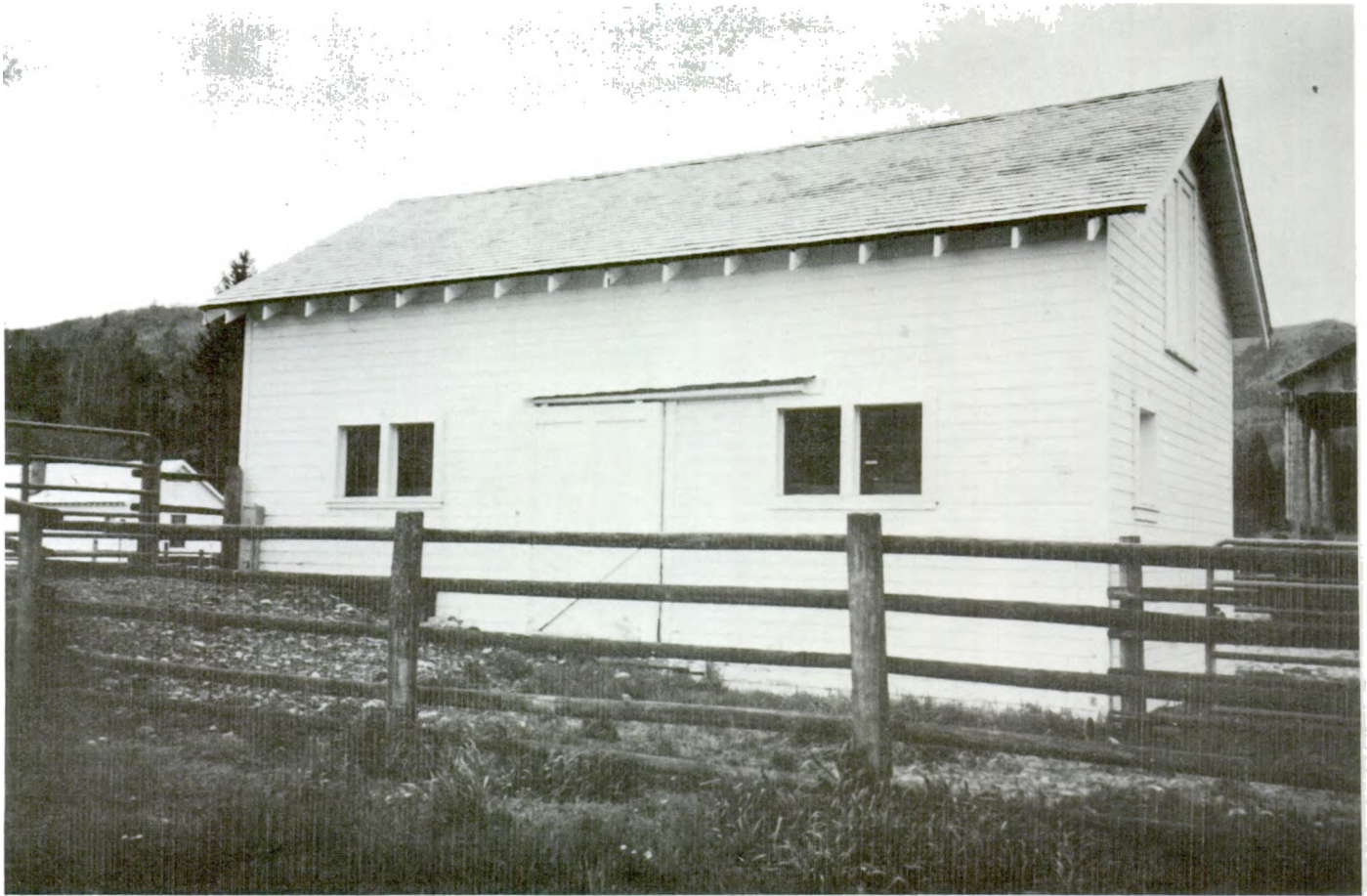


Figure 135--Snake River Administrative Site Barn (Building 5).



Figure 136--Snake River Administrative Site Warehouse (Building 6, at left) and Gas House (Building 8).

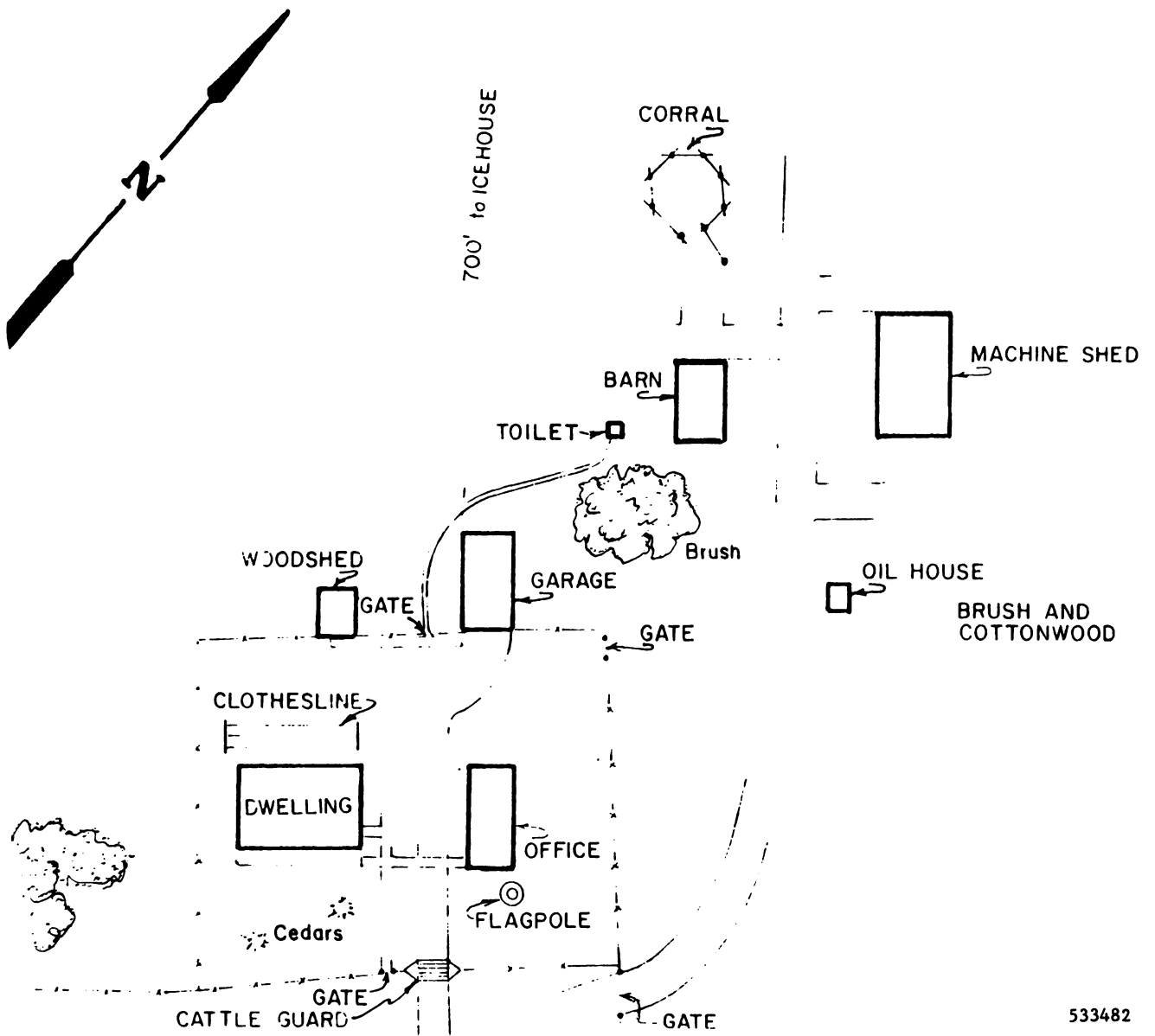
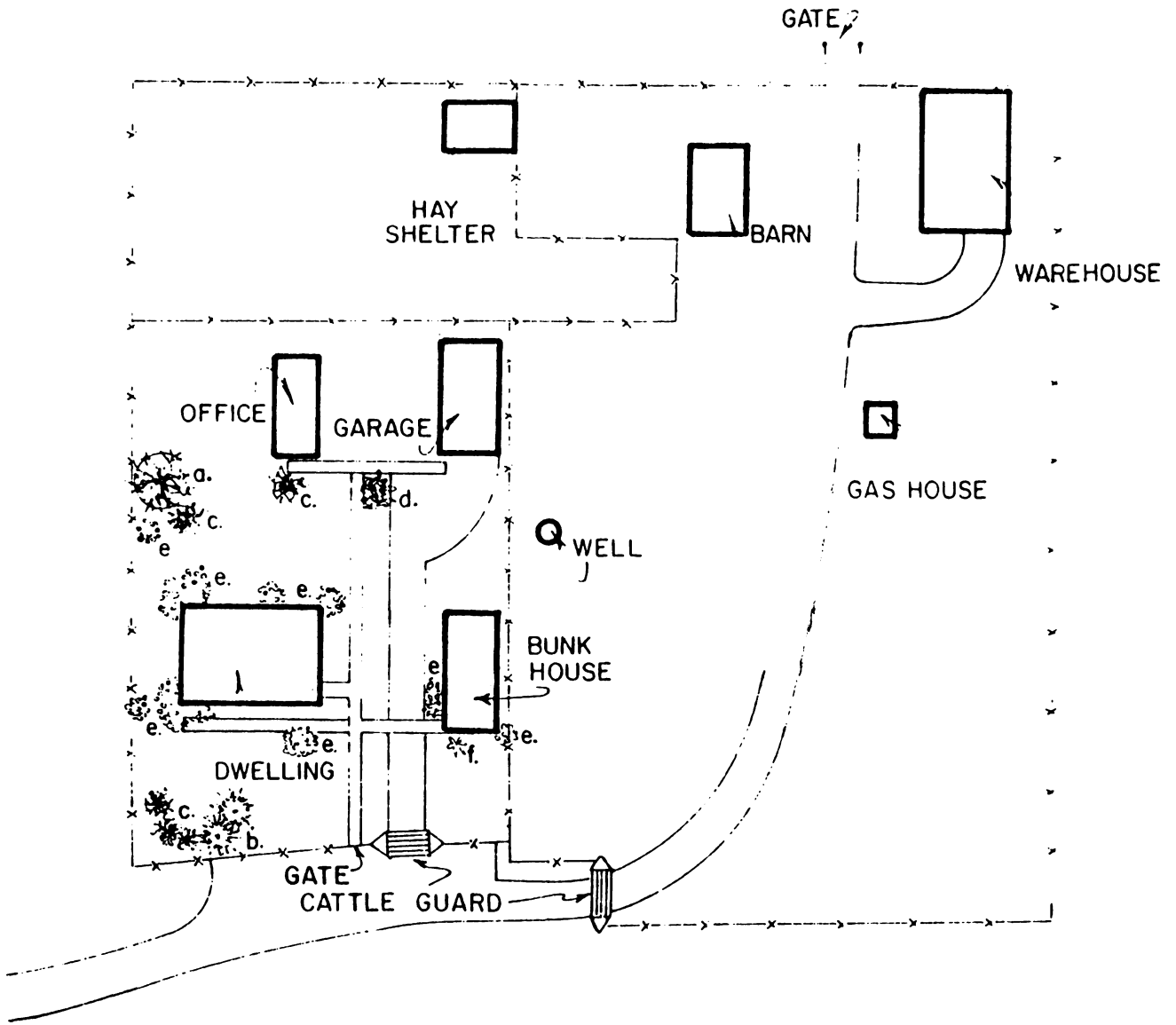


Figure 137--The 1934 Improvement Plan map of the Snake River Administrative Site.



533483

Figure 138--Map of Snake River Administrative Site when the nomination form was drawn up.

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SEE INSTRUCTIONS IN *HOW TO COMPLETE NATIONAL REGISTER FORMS*
TYPE ALL ENTRIES -- COMPLETE APPLICABLE SECTIONS

1 NAME

HISTORIC
Snake River Ranger Station

AND/OR COMMON
Snake River Administrative Site

2 LOCATION

STREET & NUMBER
U.S. Highway 26

CITY, TOWN
Swan Valley

STATE
Idaho

VICINITY OF
CODE
16

NOT FOR PUBLICATION
CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICT
2

COUNTY
Bonnevillle

CODE
019

3 CLASSIFICATION

CATEGORY	OWNERSHIP	STATUS	PRESENT USE	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> DISTRICT	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> PUBLIC	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> OCCUPIED	<input type="checkbox"/> AGRICULTURE	<input type="checkbox"/> MUSEUM
<input type="checkbox"/> BUILDING(S)	<input type="checkbox"/> PRIVATE	<input type="checkbox"/> UNOCCUPIED	<input type="checkbox"/> COMMERCIAL	<input type="checkbox"/> PARK
<input type="checkbox"/> STRUCTURE	<input type="checkbox"/> BOTH	<input type="checkbox"/> WORK IN PROGRESS	<input type="checkbox"/> EDUCATIONAL	<input type="checkbox"/> PRIVATE RESIDENCE
<input type="checkbox"/> SITE	PUBLIC ACQUISITION	ACCESSIBLE	<input type="checkbox"/> ENTERTAINMENT	<input type="checkbox"/> RELIGIOUS
<input type="checkbox"/> OBJECT	<input type="checkbox"/> IN PROCESS	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> YES: RESTRICTED	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> GOVERNMENT	<input type="checkbox"/> SCIENTIFIC
	<input type="checkbox"/> BEING CONSIDERED	<input type="checkbox"/> YES: UNRESTRICTED	<input type="checkbox"/> INDUSTRIAL	<input type="checkbox"/> TRANSPORTATION
		<input type="checkbox"/> NO	<input type="checkbox"/> MILITARY	<input type="checkbox"/> OTHER:

4 AGENCY

REGIONAL HEADQUARTERS: (If applicable)
USDA Forest Service, Intermountain Region

STREET & NUMBER
324 25th Street

CITY, TOWN
Ogden

VICINITY OF

STATE
Utah

5 LOCATION OF LEGAL DESCRIPTION

COURTHOUSE,
REGISTRY OF DEEDS, ETC. Targhee National Forest Supervisor's Office

STREET & NUMBER
420 North Bridge Street

CITY, TOWN
St. Anthony

STATE
Idaho

6 REPRESENTATION IN EXISTING SURVEYS

TITLE
Targhee National Forest Cultural Resource Inventory

DATE
September 13, 1982

FEDERAL STATE COUNTY LOCAL

DEPOSITORY FOR
SURVEY RECORDS Targhee National Forest Supervisor's Office (Listed as TG-464)

CITY, TOWN
St. Anthony

STATE
Idaho

7 DESCRIPTION

CONDITION		CHECK ONE	CHECK ONE
<input type="checkbox"/> EXCELLENT	<input type="checkbox"/> DETERIORATED	<input type="checkbox"/> UNALTERED	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ORIGINAL SITE
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> GOOD	<input type="checkbox"/> RUINS	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ALTERED	<input type="checkbox"/> MOVED DATE _____
<input type="checkbox"/> FAIR	<input type="checkbox"/> UNEXPOSED		

DESCRIBE THE PRESENT AND ORIGINAL (IF KNOWN) PHYSICAL APPEARANCE

The Snake River Ranger Station consists of eight buildings situated on 132 acres of land on the south bank of the South Fork of the Snake River. Now used by the Targhee National Forest's Palisades Ranger District as a base for work crews, the Station was originally the headquarters for the Caribou National Forest's Snake River Ranger District.

The grounds: The Ranger Station site was withdrawn from the public domain by Presidential Proclamation in 1908. The withdrawal included the SE $\frac{1}{4}$ and that part of the S $\frac{1}{2}$ of the NE $\frac{1}{4}$ lying south of the Snake River in Sec. 32, T.2N., R.43E., Boise Meridian. In 1928, the W $\frac{1}{2}$ of the SE $\frac{1}{4}$ of Sec. 32 was released and lots 4 and 5 and the SW $\frac{1}{4}$ of the SW $\frac{1}{4}$ of Sec. 33, T. 2N., R.43E., were added. This action exchanged unwatered for watered pasture. At the present time, the Forest Service utilizes only that portion of the Ranger Station site that lies north of U.S. Highway 26. This is the area included in the proposed National Register District. The balance of the site is being considered for release into the public domain, as part of Targhee and Caribou National Forest land management planning. It is now being used by ranchers to hold cattle before they are placed on local allotments.

The area around the Ranger Station has been leveled. The ground around the dwelling, bunkhouse, office and fire cache have been seeded with grass. Two spruce trees have been planted in front of the dwelling, and lilacs have been planted around the grounds. The un-landscaped portion of the Station site is used as pasture, and is covered with meadow fescue, clover and weeds. Cottonwoods, Russian Olive and willows grow along the banks of the Snake River and in the pasture.

The riparian and meadow vegetation retain the appearance of the time the proposed District achieved significance. The ornamental vegetation around the building has changed. A narrative for an Improvement Plan (a map of the facilities) prepared in 1936 describes attempts to plant ash, elm, box elder, maple and other trees and shrubs. These attempts ultimately failed because of a lack of irrigation water and winter kills. During the 1930's and 1940's, there were practically no ornamentals on the grounds.

Dwelling (Maps 2 and 3, Building No. 1): The dwelling is a rectangular two-story wood structure with a hip roof. Its original construction date is unknown. The above-mentioned Improvement Plan narrative states that the Station site had been the year-long headquarters for the Snake River Ranger District since 1908, and the dwelling may have been constructed at that time. Informants say that the dwelling was standing at the time of the Gros Ventre Flood in 1927. The Improvement Plan narrative says that the dwelling was "completely revised" and "reconstructed throughout" in 1933. Reconstruction substantially altered the appearance of the dwelling. Forest Service records describe the building as "frame." However, walls in the building are relatively thick, and reconstruction may have covered a log structure.

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As it now stands, the building has unpainted wood shingles, white shiplap wood siding and white trim. The shingles and trim were painted green from the 1930's to the 1970's. There is a centered porch supported by four square pillars on the east side of the house. There is an enclosed porch and cooler on the north side of the house, and an exposed stone chimney on the west side. In addition to the enclosed porch and cooler, the dwelling includes a kitchen, living room, bathroom, three bedrooms, and four closets. The interior walls are lath and plaster, and the floors are wood. These features are the result of the 1933 reconstruction. Plan R4-1C was used in the reconstruction. Elevations and floor plans for this plan are not available, but a list of materials used in construction is available.

Bunkhouse: The bunkhouse is a rectangular one-story building with a gable roof. The structure is wood-frame. Siding is white wood, clapboard type. The roof consists of unpainted wood shingles, and the trim is white. It includes a kitchen/dining room, living room, bedroom and bathroom. The interior is panelled and the floors are carpeted.

The building was originally constructed in 1933 to the specifications of Plan R4-51 and served as the Snake River Ranger District Office. Deviations from the plan included a bathroom on an enclosed 6 x 8 foot area of the back porch, and built-in cabinets in the office and bedroom. There was no kitchen/dining room. Siding was shiplap type. Roof and trim were green. Interior walls were lath and plaster, and the floor wood. In 1958 the building was remodeled. The office was moved elsewhere, the remainder of the back porch enclosed and the kitchen/dining room added. Following the remodeling, the building served as a bunkhouse. In 1978 a new shower, linoleum, and the carpeting and panelling were installed. The new siding may also have been installed at that time. Elevations and floor plans for the original (1933) plan are available.

Fire Cache (Maps 2 and 3, Building No. 3): The fire cache is a rectangular one-story building with a gable roof. The structure is wood-frame. Siding is white wood, shiplap type. The roof consists of unpainted wood shingles. Trim is white. The building includes a large and a small storage room. The floor is concrete.

This building was originally constructed as a two-car garage, in 1933, according to the specifications of Plan R4-21. Departures from the standard plan, according to the Improvement Plan narrative, consisted of leaving out the side entrance to the garage room and replacing it with a window. The roof and trim were originally green. The exterior of the building has remained unchanged, except for the repainting and reshingling, since 1933. However, the foundation on the north side of the building is settling and will require repair soon. The interior storage rooms have had new shelving installed, but are substantially unchanged. Floor plans and elevations for Plan R4-21 are available.

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Office/Storage Building (Maps 2 and 3, Building No. 4): This is a rectangular one-story building with a gable roof. The structure is wood-frame. Siding is white wood, shiplap type. The roof consists of unpainted wood shingles. Trim is white. The rooms include an office and a pump room.

The building was originally constructed in 1932 as a woodshed, using Plan R4-66. Departures from the standard plan consisted of a hand-made door at the back through which to pass wood. The building was then a one-room, 14 x 18 foot structure with green roof and trim. According to the Forest Service Form 7300-2 for this building, an addition was made to the front (east side) of the building in 1957 that more than doubled its size. The Ranger Station Office was then moved into this addition. This information is probably incorrect. The front of the building more closely resembles the woodshed in design, and is located correctly with respect to the existing sidewalks, which are the original sidewalks. The addition was probably made to the back (west side) of the woodshed, and consisted of the pump room. The woodshed was remodeled into an office. The addition is marked by a section of vertical molding on the north and south walls that covers the joins in the siding. A copy of Plan R4-66 is available.

Barn (Maps 2 and 3, Building No. 5): The barn is a rectangular one-and-a-half story wood-frame building with a gable roof. Siding is wood, shiplap type, and painted white. Trim is also white. The roof consists of unpainted wood shingles. A tack room occupies 1/3 of the floor and a lumber storage area occupies the remainder.

The barn was constructed in 1933 according to the specifications of Plan R4-11. Departures from the standard plan included the use of shiplap siding to harmonize with the other buildings, omission of the rear door and installation of a half-sized window, and a large grain bin installed in the mow with an opening in the bottom leading to a small bin in the rodent-proof room. The barn was originally a four-horse barn. Roof and trim were originally green. The exterior of the building has remained essentially unchanged since 1933. By 1981 the rodent-proof room was in use as a tack room. In that year the tack room was enlarged. There is now a door at the rear, and the side door has been removed and the area covered with siding. A copy of the original plan is available.

Warehouse (Maps 2 and 3, Building No. 6): This is a rectangular one-and-a-half-story wood-frame structure with a gable roof. Siding is white-painted wood shiplap. Trim is also painted white. The building is roofed with unpainted wood shingles. There are three rooms: an upstairs storage area, another storage area downstairs, and a first-floor shop. Ceilings and walls are insulated and finished with painted plywood.

The warehouse was constructed in 1933 or 1934 in accordance with a plan listed as "Fig. 537" in the Improvement Plan narrative. This was not a standard plan, and no copy is available. Originally the building had an open workroom in one

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corner, plus a storage area above the workroom. The rest of the interior was not subdivided. Now the upstairs storage is equal in area to the entire first floor, and the workroom has been enclosed to form a shop occupying approximately one-third of the first floor. The original interior walls were open studs, except in the workroom. Insulation and plywood were installed in 1978, and the original sliding door replaced with an overhead door. The date(s) of the other modifications are not known. The exterior of the building largely retains its 1930's appearance, although original roof and trim colors are not known.

Latrine (Maps 2 and 3, Building No. 7): This is a double-unit wood-frame latrine with shiplap siding and a gable roof of wood shingles. The roof is painted green and the sides of the latrine are painted white.

The latrine was built to specifications similar to Plan R4-70 (a "one-holer"). The Improvement Plan narrative states that it was being used by "outside help." It was still in use in 1963 but by 1978 it had been removed from its original location between the garage and barn, and placed in the pasture to the west of the warehouse. It is still there, original in construction detail and finish, but in considerable disrepair. A copy of Plan R4-70 is available.

Gas House (Maps 2 and 3, Building No. 8): The gas house is a one-story rectangular wood-frame building with a gable roof of unpainted wood shingles. Siding is white wood, shiplap type. There is a single door on the south side of the building, with a plywood panel to one side of it. The building has one room.

The Improvement Plan map, drawn in 1934, shows a structure described as an "oil house" in the location of the gas house, and they are likely to be the same building. The Form 7300-2 for the gas house states that it was completed in 1934. However, the 1936 Improvement Plan narrative does not list this building, and the reason for the discrepancy is unknown. Originally the door on the south side was a double door, with the plywood panel being installed sometime after 1978. The roof was originally painted green.

Other Structures: The Snake River Ranger Station also includes driveways, walkways and fences as shown on Map 3. Changes from the original plan can be seen by comparing Map 2 with Map 3 (Map 2 is based on the 1934 Improvement Plan map, Map 3 is based on the existing layout). The most significant changes are the realigning and paving of the access roads and replacement of the yard fence. The former took place in the early 1970's and was done to provide safer access to U.S. Highway 26. The latter occurred at some unknown time. The original fence was woven wire supported by lodgepole pine posts and with a pole along the top. The present fence is a pole-and-rail design.

Several other structures appear in earlier maps and documents, but are no longer extant. The 1934 Improvement Plan map shows an icehouse located 700 feet west

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of the southwest corner of the fire cache (garage). This structure is not described in the 1936 narrative and it is not now visible on the ground. The corral shown on the Improvement Plan map has also been replaced. The 1936 narrative described two powder houses, constructed according to Plan R4-61 (a copy of which is available). However, there is no description of their locations and they are no longer in existence. Also mentioned in the narrative is a garbage pit with cover (Plan R4-103, with an available copy) that is no longer evident. Finally, a photo, probably taken in the 1940's, shows a second barn located to the west of the office/storage building. This barn was evidently constructed after the Improvement Plan narrative was written, and had been removed by 1969, when it no longer shows on a photo of the Station.

Recent Intrusions: Recent intrusions on the Station consist of a 30-foot gray steel radio tower behind the office/storage building, and a hay shelter to the south of the barn. (Map 3, Building No.9.) The radio tower was construction between the 1940's and 1969 (perhaps during the relocation of the office in 1958) and is not obtrusive because of its relatively low height and color. The hay shelter was constructed in 1978. It is somewhat obtrusive, primarily because its unfinished woodwork contrasts with the paint on the other buildings.

Station History: This site became the year-long headquarters of the Snake River Ranger District in 1908. The Station facilities expanded in the 1930's. Between 1936 and 1958, the Ranger District's winter headquarters were moved to Idaho Falls. Between 1958 and 1961, summer headquarters were also moved to Idaho Falls and the Station became a Work Center; field crews resided at the Center when there was Forest work to be done in the vicinity. It has continued to be used in this capacity to the present. In 1975, administration of a portion of what had been the Snake River Ranger District was transferred from the Caribou National Forest to the Targhee National Forest. The transfer included the Snake River Ranger Station.

8 SIGNIFICANCE

PERIOD	AREAS OF SIGNIFICANCE -- CHECK AND JUSTIFY BELOW			
<input type="checkbox"/> PREHISTORIC	<input type="checkbox"/> ARCHEOLOGY-PREHISTORIC	<input type="checkbox"/> COMMUNITY PLANNING	<input type="checkbox"/> LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE	<input type="checkbox"/> RELIGION
<input type="checkbox"/> 1400-1499	<input type="checkbox"/> ARCHEOLOGY-HISTORIC	<input type="checkbox"/> CONSERVATION	<input type="checkbox"/> LAW	<input type="checkbox"/> SCIENCE
<input type="checkbox"/> 1500-1599	<input type="checkbox"/> AGRICULTURE	<input type="checkbox"/> ECONOMICS	<input type="checkbox"/> LITERATURE	<input type="checkbox"/> SCULPTURE
<input type="checkbox"/> 1600-1699	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ARCHITECTURE	<input type="checkbox"/> EDUCATION	<input type="checkbox"/> MILITARY	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> SOCIAL/HUMANITARIAN
<input type="checkbox"/> 1700-1799	<input type="checkbox"/> ART	<input type="checkbox"/> ENGINEERING	<input type="checkbox"/> MUSIC	<input type="checkbox"/> THEATER
<input type="checkbox"/> 1800-1899	<input type="checkbox"/> COMMERCE	<input type="checkbox"/> EXPLORATION/SETTLEMENT	<input type="checkbox"/> PHILOSOPHY	<input type="checkbox"/> TRANSPORTATION
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 1900-	<input type="checkbox"/> COMMUNICATIONS	<input type="checkbox"/> INDUSTRY	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> POLITICS/GOVERNMENT	<input type="checkbox"/> OTHER (SPECIFY)
		<input type="checkbox"/> INVENTION		

SPECIFIC DATES

BUILDER/ARCHITECT

STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

The significance of the Snake River Ranger Station lies in its ability to represent work done by the Civilian Conservation Corps for the Forest Service, and the characteristic organization of the Forest Service from the 1930's to the 1940's. It is of unusual importance to the Targhee National Forest because it is well preserved and the best-documented example of a C.C.C. - era Ranger Station now administered by the Targhee.

Virtually all of the buildings now present at the Station were constructed with the use of Civilian Conservation Corps labor. The exceptions are the house, which was rebuilt with C.C.C. labor, and the hay shelter. Facilities construction loomed large among the jobs which the Corps performed for the Forest Service. The Corps provided manpower resources commensurate with the Service's management tasks for the first time in the Service's history: new Ranger Stations were built, new roads constructed, and large scale resource protection and management activities were begun. On the Targhee National Forest there were eight Ranger Districts during the C.C.C. era. All were served by facilities constructed largely by the C.C.C. (McDonald, 1983). Although originally part of the Caribou National Forest, the situation was the same on that Forest, and so the Snake River Ranger Station is associated, by virtue of its C.C.C. construction, with this important phase in the Forest Service's development.

Rapid development of Forest Service facilities was aided by the use of standardized plans in their construction. The buildings of the Snake River Ranger Station were constructed in accordance with these plans, and therefore embody "the distinctive characteristics of a type, period or method of construction." Although the buildings have undergone subsequent modifications, exterior details and the scale of the Station remain largely unchanged, and it is in these details that the significance of the Station inheres. In addition, the available documentation, which in most cases includes the original plans, does make it possible to establish their original appearance. In this respect, the Snake River Ranger Station would be better able to represent Forest Service building types of the 1930's than would other facilities, many of which lack the original plans or records of subsequent modifications, making it more difficult to establish their original appearance.

The ability of the Snake River Ranger Station to represent a type of construction goes beyond its ability to represent individual building plans. The Station as a whole represents Forest Service Ranger Stations of the 1930 to 1950 period, and in turn

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represents the structure of the organization which it served. An important characteristic of the Station is that prior to the conversion of the original office into a bunkhouse, the residential facilities consisted of a single-family dwelling and a one-bedroom office. Until the 1940's, many Ranger Districts were managed solely by a Ranger and assistant (often seasonal), and the Snake River Ranger Station reflects this administrative structure. This form of administration was suited to an organization which was not intensively managing resources. In the 1950's, demands on Forest Service resources began to increase, with exponential increases occurring in the late 1960's and 1970's. As this occurred, more intensive resource management became necessary and the Forest Service organization expanded, with an increasing number of resource specialists being hired. The result was often an increase in the size of the administrative facilities. The Snake River Ranger Station was spared this expansion because, by the time it occurred, administrative headquarters for the District had been moved to Idaho Falls. Consequently, the Station retains its original scale (the bunkhouse is virtually the same size as the original office, and the hay shelter is not out of keeping in size or function with a Ranger Station that also has a barn). Again, significance inheres primarily in the exterior scale and appearance of the Station.

The Snake River Ranger Station is unique on the Targhee in retaining its original scale and coherence of design. Other C.C.C. - associated Ranger Stations either have more in the way of recent intrusions, as a result of organizational expansion, or have been abandoned as unsuited to current needs, frequently with the structures or land having been sold as excess property. As such, it is exceptionally important at the local level, and merits an exception to the consideration that places having achieved significance within the last 50 years are not normally eligible for the National Register.

9 MAJOR BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

McDonald, James A.

1983 Cultural Resource Evaluation, Targhee National Forest Administrative Sites of the Civillian Conservation Corps Era. Ms., Targhee N.F., St. Anthony, ID. USDA Forest Service, Intermountain Region, Targhee National Forest, Palisades Ranger District 7300 (Buildings) File

10 GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

ACREAGE OF NOMINATED PROPERTY 132

UTM REFERENCES

A	1,2	4,6,6,1,1,0	4,8,1,2,0,4,0	B	1,2	4,6,7,6,0,0	4,8,1,2,0,2,0
	ZONE	EASTING	NORTHING		ZONE	EASTING	NORTHING
C	1,2	4,6,7,5,8,0	4,8,1,0,7,8,0	D	1,2	4,6,6,1,4,0	4,8,1,0,7,9,0

VERBAL BOUNDARY DESCRIPTION

From the signed entrance to the Station grounds along U.S. Highway 26, proceed east along the highway 5,000 feet (approximately). At this point a fence runs due east from the highway to the Snake River. The boundary follows this fence line to the river. At the river, follow the bank downstream 7,340 feet. At this point, a fence runs due south from the river. The boundary follows this fence to Highway 26. At the highway, turn east and follow the highway back to the Station entrance.

LIST ALL STATES AND COUNTIES FOR PROPERTIES OVERLAPPING STATE OR COUNTY BOUNDARIES

STATE	CODE	COUNTY	CODE
Idaho	16	Bonneville	019
STATE	CODE	COUNTY	CODE

11 FORM PREPARED BY

NAME / TITLE

James A. McDonald, Forest Archaeologist

ORGANIZATION

Targhee National Forest

DATE

1-7-83

STREET & NUMBER

420 N. Bridge Street

TELEPHONE

(208) 624-3151

CITY OR TOWN

St. Anthony

STATE

Idaho

12 CERTIFICATION OF NOMINATION

STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICER RECOMMENDATION

YES___ NO___ NONE___

STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICER SIGNATURE

In compliance with Executive Order 11593, I hereby nominate this property to the National Register, certifying that the State Historic Preservation Officer has been allowed 90 days in which to present the nomination to the State Review Board and to evaluate its significance. The evaluated level of significance is ___ National ___ State X Local.

FEDERAL REPRESENTATIVE SIGNATURE

TITLE

DATE

FOR NPS USE ONLY

I HEREBY CERTIFY THAT THIS PROPERTY IS INCLUDED IN THE NATIONAL REGISTER

DATE

DIRECTOR, OFFICE OF ARCHEOLOGY AND HISTORIC PRESERVATION
ATTEST:

DATE

KEEPER OF THE NATIONAL REGISTER

Appendix C—Archival Sources for CCC History

General Sources

National Archives and Record Service

The researcher should consult the Preliminary Inventory of the Records of the Civilian Conservation Corps, compiled by Douglas Helms, for appropriate Record Groups

Center for Research Libraries, Chicago, IL

Contains only extensive collection of CCC camp newspapers; in permanent storage and unavailable for research

National Association of CCC Alumni, Falls Church, VA

List of Chapter Offices

Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library,

Hyde Park, N.Y.

University of California Bancroft Library Regional Oral History Office, Berkeley

Foresters and conservationists

Transcript of interview by Amelia Fry of S. Bevier Show, "National Forests in California," 1962, 215 pp.

Transcript of interview with Arthur C. Ringland, 1970, 368 pp.

Forest History Society, Santa Cruz, California

Papers of the American Forestry Association and the Society of American Foresters

Information Sources By USDA Forest Service Regions

Region 1

Forest Service Regional Office, Missoula, MT

Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests

Ranger District Offices

National Archives Regional Record Center, Seattle, WA, Denver, CO

Montana State Historical Society, Helena

Idaho State Historical Society, Boise

North Dakota State Historical Society, Bismarck

Museum of the Rockies, Bozeman, MT

Local community historical societies

Local libraries

University collections

State libraries

State archives

Region 2

Forest Service Regional Office, Lakewood, CO

Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests

Ranger District Offices

National Archives Regional Record Center, Denver, CO, Kansas City, MO

Colorado State Historical Society, Denver

Wyoming State Historical Society, Cheyenne

South Dakota Historical Society, Pierre

Nebraska Historical Society, Lincoln

Conservation Library, Denver Public Library, Denver, CO

Local community historical societies

Local libraries

University collections

State libraries

State archives

Region 3

Forest Service Regional Office, Albuquerque, NM

Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests

Ranger District Offices

National Archives Regional Record Center, Laguna Niguel, CA

New Mexico State Historical Society, Albuquerque

Arizona State Heritage Society, Tucson

Arizona Department of Library, Archives and Public Records, Phoenix

Phoenix Historical Society and Museum of History

Local community historical societies

Local libraries

University collections

State libraries

State archives

NACCCA collection at Arizona State University Library, Tempe

Region 4

Forest Service Regional Office, Salt Lake City, UT

Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests

Ranger District Offices

National Archives Regional Record Center, San Bruno, CA, Denver, CO, Laguna Niguel, CA, Seattle, WA

Idaho State Historical Society, Boise

Utah State Historical Society, Salt Lake City

Nevada State Historical Society, Reno

Local community historical societies

Local libraries

University collections

State libraries

State archives

Region 5

Forest Service Regional Office, San Francisco, CA

Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests

Ranger District Offices

National Archives Regional Record Center, San Bruno, CA, Laguna Niguel, CA

California State Historical Society, San Francisco

Local community historical societies

Local libraries

University collections

State libraries

State archives

Region 6

Forest Service Regional Office, Portland, OR

Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests

Ranger District Offices

National Archives Regional Record Center, Seattle, WA

Oregon Historical Society, Portland

Washington Historical Society, Tacoma

Local community historical societies

Local libraries

University collections

State libraries

State archives

Region 8

Forest Service Regional Office, Atlanta, GA
Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests
Ranger District Offices
National Archives Regional Record Center, Fort
Worth, TX, East Point, GA, Philadelphia, PA
State Historical Societies
Local community historical societies
Local libraries
University collections
State libraries
State archives

Region 9

Forest Service Regional Office, Milwaukee, WI
Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests
Ranger District Offices
National Archives Regional Record Center,
Waltham, MA, Bayonne, NJ, Philadelphia, PA,
Chicago, IL, Kansas City, MO
State Historical Societies
Local community historical societies
Local libraries
University collections
State libraries
State archives

Region 10

Forest Service Regional Office, Juneau, AK
Forest Supervisor's Office—individual forests
Ranger District Offices
National Archives Regional Record Center,
Seattle, WA
Alaska State Historical Society, Juneau
Local community historical societies
Local libraries
University collections
State libraries
State archives

Hawaii

National Archives Regional Record Center,
San Bruno, CA
Local libraries
University collections
State library
State archive

Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands

National Archives Regional Record Center,
Bayonne, NJ

**Appendix D—Chapters of the National Association of CCC Alumni
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Appendix E—Evaluation of CCC-Era Structures

This appendix is provided to assist the reader through the various procedures involved in the recording of CCC-era structures and features. Recommendations for determining significance are also included. Prior to any field investigation, it is most important to become familiar with the CCC architectural design philosophy. The best source for a summation is the USDA Forest Service Division of Engineering's "Acceptable Building Plans: Forest Service Administrative Buildings" compiled by Ellis Groben in 1938. All regional and supervisor's offices should retain copies of this manual.

"Acceptable Building Plans" consists of a written description of regional styles, site locations, orientation, building materials, and a series of existing and future building plans. Groben states in the foreword, "No matter how well buildings may be designed, with but few exceptions, they seldom enhance the beauty of their natural settings." He suggests, "... erecting only such structures as are absolutely essential . . . and then only of designs which harmonize with, or . . . are the least objectionable to nature's particular environment." This particular design philosophy is now referred to as non-intrusive architectural design.

Groben favored a regional style rather than a universal style. He claimed earlier building styles of the Forest Service failed to "... possess Forest Service identity or to adequately express its purposes." He encouraged each region to base its architectural styles upon "climatic considerations, vegetation and forest cover" and set forth this example to be used by the regions.

The following outline is helpful when attempting to identify various CCC sites:

<u>Type of country</u>	<u>Style of Architecture</u>
Desert or semidesert	Adobe or pueblo
Grassland	Ranch-house type
Woodland--pine, fir, spruce	Timber type
Alpine	Alpine type (stone or stone and rough timbers)

Another excellent resource is the "Recreation Plans Handbook" published by the Forest Service in 1936. It includes plans for recreational structures of all types and many existing resources can be traced to this handbook. Copies of this work should be obtained for consultation.

The aforementioned documents must be reviewed before researching any CCC site. Any existing plans will help document and add to the significance of a site evaluation. Whether such plans exist should be noted on the site inventory form.

Collecting information regarding any site can be as general or as detailed as is feasible. These guidelines are an attempt to make the recording process simple yet thorough enough to allow for an accurate evaluation. The CCC Site Inventory Form included here was designed for this purpose. Three categories of CCC sites should be noted: CCC campsites, CCC-built

recreation sites, and CCC-built administrative sites. A list of building types found in each of the three categories is as follows:

CCC Campsites and Structures--Barracks, offices, tents and tent platforms, mess halls, kitchens, latrines, showers, infirmaries, educational buildings, recreation halls, pumphouses, garages, machine shops, blacksmith shops, barns, officer quarters, offices, dispensaries.

CCC-Built Recreation Areas--Tent camps/campgrounds, drinking fountains, fire pits, community kitchens, picnic shelters, tables, restrooms, bathhouses, swimming pools and lakes, beach areas, paths, footbridges. Organizational camps, mess halls, barracks, concession buildings, showers, playing fields, latrines, swimming pools. Trail shelters, trails, ski lodges, and warming huts.

CCC-Built Administrative Sites--Ranger stations, ranger's residences, assistant ranger's residences, crew residences, bunkhouses, offices, mess halls, pumphouses, garages, barns, blacksmith shops, machine shops, latrines. Lookout towers and houses, guard stations.

One of these three categories should be circled at the top of the form. The Lowell Ranger Station in Coronado National Forest and the Eagle Creek Campground in Mount Hood National Forest are used in figures 139 to 142 as examples to explain correct procedures.

The general information sheet contains information about the site in general and the location of important historical materials (fig. 139):

Site

1. List the location, climate, and surrounding terrain in either a general or specific manner noting plant types, rock formation, and similar information of this nature.
2. Describe the original site plan and list any changes that have occurred. Describe the landscaping generally or specifically. Include a site plan.

Historical Information

1. If original drawings and plans exist, list location, name of architect/draftsman, and date. If originals cannot be located, list any later drawings or plans that exist and note location, name of architect/draftsman, and date.
2. If original photos exist, list their location, name of photographer, and date. Also specify any later photos that may document alterations or additions.
3. List the locations of various files and records that contain information concerning the site and describe the types of records, such as inspection reports, camp newspapers, correspondence, and interviews.
4. Give the name, date, and page number of any newspaper articles that mention the site.
5. List the names, dates, position, address, phone number, and transcript location of any person interviewed who discussed the site in an interview.
6. General comments might include the researcher's recommendations regarding the site and its significance in terms of National Register criteria.

Primary sources for historical information include correspondence, inspection reports, drawings, and plans found at ranger district offices and the divisions of

CCC SITE INVENTORY FORM
Individual Resource Sheet

Administrative Site/Recreation Area/CCC Camp

Site: Lowell Ranger Station
Forest: Coronado National Forest
No. or Resources per Site: 3
Residence?, Office, Barn _____
Township/Range/Section: _____
T12S, R14E, S9

Recording Date: 11/8/82
Recorder's Name: Kimberly Lakin
Title: Researcher

Site:

Location: At the base/entrance to the Sabino Canyon Recreation Area

Climate: Desert--arid

Surrounding Terrain: Low hills, mesquite, scrub oak, saguaro cacti

Siteplan: Original site plan is still evident. Residence and garage face east, office faces north (see attached sketch), circular driveway with ring of rocks in center.

Landscaping: Circle of rocks would have originally contained flagpole, now missing. Small trees, bushes, rocks, and cacti make up landscaping, which is now overgrown and unruly.

Historical Information:

Drawings and Plans:

Location: Engineering Dept. of S.O.
Name(s): Engineering Dept. of S.O.
Date(s): 1977

Photographs:

Location: Washington, D.C. U.S.F.S.
Photo Section: S.O. in Tucson
Name(s): Lee Kirby

Date(s): 1934, 1935 during and after construction

Files and Records:

Location: U. of Arizona Hist. Society, National Archives, S.O. in Tucson.
Types of Records/Files: University of Arizona has general information. National Archives has CCC camp inspection reports, mention Lowell R.S. S.O. has progress reports. Coronado Bulletins 1934-35.

Newspaper Articles:

Name(s): Unknown.
Date(s) and Page #: _____
Location: _____

Interviews:

Name: _____
Date: _____
Position: _____
Address and Phone: _____

Name: _____
Date: _____
Position: _____
Address and Phone: _____

Transcript Location: _____

Transcript Location: _____

General Comments: Good example of CCC southwestern style architecture, excellent condition and unaltered. Recommend National Register status.

Figure 139--General information sheet of a CCC site inventory form. (Recorded by Kim Lakin, 1982)

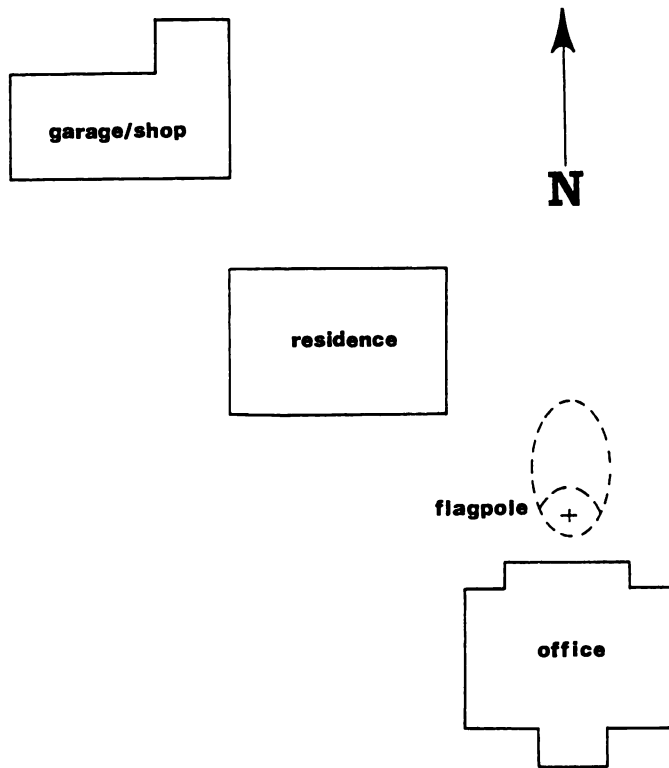


Figure 140--Siteplan sheet of a CCC site inventory form. (Drawing by Kim Lakin, 1982)

engineering, information, and recreation in supervisors' offices. Historical societies and libraries own photographs, interviews, newspapers, diaries, maps, and memorabilia as part of their collections. The Photographic Section of the Forest Service in Washington, DC, is an excellent source for historical photographs. Their collection is cataloged by State and cross-indexed by subject on computer printouts. Retired Forest Service personnel may also have special knowledge or camp newspapers, photographs, and other documents. It is always helpful to interview an alumnus at the site because the setting often stimulates recollection.

The second page of the CCC Site Inventory Form is the site plan (see fig. 140). This page should list the site name, person who sketched the plan, date, and scale of plan. The plan can be very simple, merely locating each structure or resource within the site boundaries. It should be detailed enough to include landscaping and measurements. North should always be at the top of the sheet and be indicated by a directional marker. Draw the site plan in pencil.

Include an individual resource sheet for each resource located on the site. Separate sheets have been developed for structures located on administrative sites or CCC camp sites and recreation areas. When working with structures, use the individual resource sheet labeled "Structure" and for a recreation area use the inventory sheet marked "Resource." Examples of both are included:

Individual Resource Sheet, Structure (fig. 141)

1. Fill out the general information at the top of the page. Include a 5 by 7 black and white photograph of the structure.

2. List the structural details of the building. Consult an architectural terminology glossary when in doubt about how to describe a particular detail. Identifying American Architecture by John J.G. Blumenson is helpful and easy to use.
3. Dimensions of the building should be noted. This can be done by consulting existing floor plans or by measuring the building with a tape measure.
4. The general shape should be noted. Is it square, rectangular, L-shaped, or some other configuration?
5. Describe the special features including any interior or exterior detail which may be unique or finely crafted.
6. Describe the original spatial organization if it still exists. If the building has been significantly altered inside, describe the alterations in the next space.
7. List any alterations or additions to the buildings and include dates, if known.

Individual Resource Sheet, Resource (fig. 142)

1. Use this sheet for resources such as bridges, paths, picnic tables, drinking fountains, picnic shelters, or any other resources located in recreation areas.
2. Fill out the information at the top of the page. List the type of feature. Include a 5 by 7 black and white photograph.
3. List all building materials including stone, brick, peeled logs, or lumber.
4. Give the condition and dimensions. Dimensions can be helpful especially with picnic shelters. Always include the circumference of the peeled logs. A

CCC SITE INVENTORY FORM
Individual Resource Sheet

Site: Lowell Ranger Station
Photo Taken by: Kimberly Lakin
Date: 11/8/82
Negative #: 33A

STRUCTURE
Original Use: Residence
Present Use: Storage
Type/Style: Adobe
Construction Date: 1934
View: Front, facing east



Structural Details:

Foundation: Concrete
Roofing: Unknown
Walls: Adobe 13" thick and plastered
Flooring: Wood plank
Ceiling: Wood plank and peeled logs
Windows: Two-over-one wood frame,
bathroom has two four-over-one windows

Condition: Excellent
Architect: Unknown
Dimensions: 33 feet by 43 feet
Shape: Rectangular with projecting
south porch

Special Features: Interior had double French doors in bedrooms opening onto south porch,
built-in shelves in living room, stone fireplace, original kitchen intact, ceiling design,
iron sconces, curtain rods.

Original Spatial Organization: Two bedrooms on south side, living and dining rooms on north
side, kitchen in rear. Back porch, front porch screened in, south porch now open, basement
with coal furnace and shute.

Alterations/Additions: No additions, south porch was originally glassed-in--has been
removed and now only concrete wall remains.

Figure 141--Individual resource sheet for a structure. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

CCC SITE INVENTORY FORM
Individual Resource Sheet

RESOURCE

Site: Eagle Creek Campground

Type of Resource: Sign-in Booth

Photo Taken by: Kimberly Lakin

Construction Date: circa 1936

Date: 8/20/82

Negative #: 12



Materials: Stone walls, log supports,
roof shingles

Condition: Very good

Dimensions: 8 feet by 8 feet

Log supports 10 inches diameter

Log rafters 6 inches diameter

General Description: Small rectangular structure with shingled gable roof, cement and
stone foundation wall four feet high forms the base. Log supports and rafters. Stone
shelf projects from back wall where logbook was held.

Special Features: Plans for the booth can be found in the Recreation Plans Handbook in the
Supervisor's Office. Plan approved April 2, 1936.

Alterations/Additions: _____

Figure 142--Individual resource sheet for a resource. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)



Figure 143--CCC-built adobe structure, Coronado National Forest, AZ.

measuring tape can be used to take dimensions of most features.

5. Give a general description.
6. List any special or unique aspects such as notching techniques, type of stone, and ornamentation. List any characteristics that distinguish the resource from others of the same type.
7. List any additions or alterations and give dates, if known. Examples of alterations include a bridge that has had concrete slabs added over the original stonework, windows cut into picnic shelter walls, or brickwork that has been repointed or stuccoed over.

Floor plans are an extremely helpful aid in evaluation. They are, however, time consuming, and if the structures have had alterations and additions, they can be difficult to render. A search should first be made for existing floor plans. Often the engineering department of the supervisor's office will have plans.

If floor plans do not exist, then the researcher must sketch these plans. It helps to have two to three people on a project, one for taking notes and the others for measuring. A tape measure and a surveyor's level are used for measurements. Basic measurements include shape, layout and location of doors, windows, and stairways. Be sure to indicate structural supports and each primary level of the building. The thickness of partitions, walls, and floors are measured and included in the final drawing. All measuring should be done with the tape at a constant height. If necessary, a level chalk line may be snapped along the walls as a guide. The team can measure each portion of the building, taking notes and sketching a rough plan. Later these notes can be compiled into a scaled floor plan. It is best to keep these plans to an 8-1/2- by 11-inch size unless a drafts-person is planning a full set of measured drawings.

If a full set of measured drawings is to be executed for a particular site, an excellent source is "Recording His-

toric Buildings" by Harley J. McKee, published in 1970, which gives a step-by-step description of procedures. If, however, this kind of intensive rendering cannot be done, a basic floor plan with some accurate measurements can add to the understanding of a structure. For features such as bridges and drinking fountains only a few basic measurements such as width and height are necessary. This information can be recorded on the individual resource page.

Evaluation Procedures--Since the National Historical Preservation Act of 1966, the Forest Service and other Federal agencies have been responsible for locating, identifying, protecting, and enhancing cultural resources on lands under their jurisdiction. Cultural resources are considered significant according to a set of criteria established by the National Register of Historic Places.

These criteria are:

The significance in American history, architecture, archeology and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects of State and local importance. Significance is determined by the extent to which these possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association and:

- That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
- That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
- That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
- That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important to prehistory or history.

The researcher should consider these elements when evaluating a site. Since many CCC era sites are less than 50 years old, they are often excluded from the National Register. Therefore, sites must be of exceptional importance to a community, region, State, or the Nation. The social, political, and economic impact of the Great Depression and the subsequent development of the CCC gives these sites an exceptional status. The nonintrusive design and certain construction techniques help establish the unique identity of buildings from this era.

The romantic ideal of incorporating traditional or native styles into the Forest Service architecture resulted in a distinctive building type belonging solely to the depression era. These native or traditional styles were imitated in a purely decorative sense. There was no intention on the part of the Forest Service and its architects to copy native or traditional construction techniques, but merely to give the appearance of something native or indigenous. In "Acceptable Building Plans," for example, Groben suggests the use of brick or hollow tile as a substitute for adobe, claiming it was "to all intents and purposes similar in architectural appearance to the traditional adobe prototypes."

As an example, the adobe ranger stations of the Coronado National Forests suggest the native architecture of the region but do not follow its construction techniques. The adobe bricks were made in the traditional manner, but the walls were held together with a lime mortar rather than mud. The walls were then plastered rather than using the traditional mud wall covering.

The tops of the CCC-built adobe structures were constructed of wood and covered with tar paper to achieve a parapet shape. The result was a squared-off version of the traditional adobe structures, which had rounded corners and rooflines (fig. 143).

Another example of this striving for architectural appearance is the log construction of the CCC-built picnic structures following the traditional notching techniques. In many cases, however, metal tie rods and bolts were used rather than wooden pegs. Because the picnic shelter was a new building type, there were no hard-and-fast rules regarding construction or style. The *Recreation Handbook* carried several designs. Some of them employed traditional log construction techniques and others new designs and techniques. In some cases, a shelter's back walls were filled in with a series of upright logs (fig. 144), or the logs were stacked and notched. Sometimes they were not notched, but only stacked. Often these back walls have windows. Other shelters are open on all sides. Roofs vary between gables and hips. Logs are often used for railings, window sills, and lintels (fig. 145). Gable ends were either left open with a bracing system or filled with diagonal log patterns. Some shelters had gabled porch stoops. Others had fireplaces and built-in log picnic tables and benches.

An especially distinctive picnic shelter is located in the Forest Service's intermountain region. It is constructed completely of whole aspen logs. The circular form recalls a gazebo. The wavy horizontal logs and the multitude of knots create a lyrical form. Obviously this structure was not based on traditional styles, but was built from the pure whim of the designer. The structure, however, achieves the "expression" of nature that Groben discusses; it uses the natural qualities of the aspen trees

for its basis in design. The possibilities for the picnic shelter were endless, and perhaps no two shelters are exactly alike.

Administrative sites within the Mount Hood National Forest often have the half shake, half half-log siding, and the half-log portion being a paneling rather than true half logs. Another decorative rather than functional feature is the large, false exposed rafters under the eaves. The situation is reversed in the administrative buildings on the Coronado National Forest. Many of the buildings have the peeled log and wood or plaster ceilings, a typical Spanish feature, but the logs do not extend beyond the interior walls. Therefore, they do not follow through with the traditional function of the viga, which is to support the roof of the adobe building. Instead, this feature is purely decorative (fig. 146). Another example of the decorative, nonfunctional tendencies of this period are the rock or stone buildings in the Coronado National Forest that are actually frame buildings with a rock or stone veneer. Foundations were often concrete with a veneer of stone on the exterior to create the appearance of the traditional architecture.

This decorative rather than functional design element was carried over from the 1920's. The revival styles of the 1920's imitated earlier styles without reviving the earlier construction techniques. The most common example is the half-timbering of the English cottage, a prevalent style of the 1920's. The half-timbering was no longer a structural aspect of the building, but merely decorative. Although the CCC era did away with the "foreign styles" of the 1920's, they did not alter the basic concept, which was concerned primarily with appearance and not authenticity of structure or construction techniques. The Forest Service design philosophy of the 1930's created a completely new architectural style very loosely based on the traditional native styles of each region and even created styles imagined to be traditional in areas where there were no previous examples.

By the 1940's, this approach was viewed by some as ". . . an affectation, deliberate, and self-conscious, overly sophisticated, and romantic." The design emphasis had shifted to uniformity and functionalism, a philosophy that still exists today, partially as a result of the high cost of labor, but also because of a shift in basic design concepts. Because of this, the CCC-era structures must be considered unique to a particular period of American history.

Regional Evaluation--The unique design philosophy of the CCC era caused each region to develop within limits its own style or building type. Most likely each region will contain variations on two or more of the types listed in the "Acceptable Building Plans" manual. Because the regions employed their own staffs of architects and landscape architects, each region has characteristics distinct to that region even though the types may have been based on the "Acceptable Building Plans" examples. The following is a comparison of regional styles using the case study areas as examples.

Administrative Sites. Within the three case study areas it is easy to distinguish between the adobe type and the other types used for administration buildings, however, there are other distinctions as well. In addition to differences in building materials, there are also



Figure 144--Back walls filled with upright logs, Bear Springs Picnic Shelter, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

differences in overall shape and plan. The ranger station buildings on the Coronado National Forest are much smaller than those in the East and Northwest. Their shape is more square than rectangular. The buildings are almost always equipped with large front and back porches. The entire administrative compound is smaller, with only three or four buildings to a site. An exception is the Nogales Ranger Station, which is slightly larger.

Though George Washington National Forest has few administrative buildings compared to the other two areas, these few examples display a very different style from the wood buildings of the Northwest. Though the waney-edge siding is the most obvious difference, the general shape of the structure is different. The buildings are generally one story and rectangular in shape, with small front stoops (fig. 147). The roofline is a medium-pitched gable. George Washington National Forest does not have ranger station complexes, but occasionally an administrative building will be located within a recreation area. Thus the site for these buildings is quite different from the other two study areas, which contain full ranger station administrative sites having three or more buildings per site.

In the Mount Hood National Forest, administrative buildings are often two-story with a steep pitched roof reminiscent of a Gothic roofline. The overall shape is a shorter rectangle with shakes and/or half-log siding. Porch stoops are built with peeled logs or squared porch posts with curving brackets. The ranger station sites here are quite large with as many as 10 to 20 buildings on one site.

Differences in terrain and environment are reflected in these buildings and sites similar to what Groben outlines in the "Acceptable Building Plans" manual. The long, medium-pitched buildings of the George Washington National Forest echo the gentle and deciduous forested mountains of the Virginia countryside. The steep rooflines of the buildings in the Mount Hood area blend with the tall Douglas-firs and rugged Cascade Mountains and protect the roofs from heavy snowfall as well. Flat roofs and adobe blend better with the desert environment than any wood structure.

Recreational Areas. Recreational sites also differ according to region. George Washington National Forest recreation sites tend to be large picnic or campground areas in grassy meadows and open spaces. Manmade



Figure 145--Logs used as railings, window sills, and lintels, Bear Springs Picnic Shelter, Mount Hood National Forest, OR. (Photo by Dennis Egner, 1982)

swimming ponds and beaches, bathhouses, and large-scale picnic shelters with attached buildings are characteristic of this forest. The landscaping is carefully planned and well manicured. There are many recreation sites in this forest, and all are easily accessible from the nearby towns.

Very few recreation areas exist in the Coronado National Forest. Those that do exist are located close to major population centers such as the Sabino Canyon recreation area, just outside of Tucson. Because Sabino Canyon contains a water source, the vegetation is denser here than in other parts of the forest. Though the canyon is dry desert country with an abundance of rock and cacti, it is a gentle landscape surrounded by rolling hills. By building many of the structures and details such as the drinking fountains out of rock from the nearby hillsides, a marvelous connection between landscape and facilities was created. Bridges, firepits, and picnic tables look so much a part of their environment that in places they seem to grow out of it just like cacti.

The recreation areas in the Mount Hood National Forest are different from the other case study areas. The

terrain in the lower portion of the forest is wet, and there is an abundance of moss and ground cover. Moss grows on the roofs of the picnic shelters and can cause structural damage. Higher up the mountain, the air is drier, there are more conifers and snow. Recreational structures must be built so their roofs will not collapse from the snow. Above timberline the structures are built with the rock from the ground and mountainsides (fig. 78). Picnic areas are more overgrown than those in the George Washington National Forest. There are no pools made for swimming, though there are lakes for fishing and skiing is available on Mount Hood. The picnic areas are smaller, but much more plentiful. Many have trails and paths through the forest. With the exception of the Eagle Creek campground, the camping/picnicking areas are smaller than the areas in George Washington National Forest or Coronado National Forest. Most often a single picnic shelter would accompany a campground or picnic area. One drinking fountain and several firepits are often in the area.

Camp Sites and Structures. Though the CCC campsites and structures were planned to be standard and

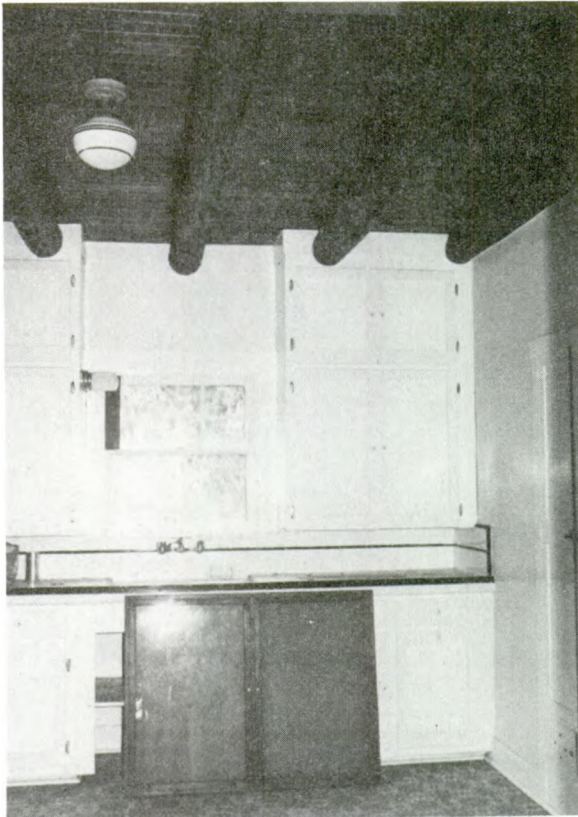


Figure 146--Interior ceiling view of the kitchen, showing decorative log rafters, residence, Lowell Ranger Station, Coronado National Forest, AZ. (Photo by Kim Lakin, 1982)

not distinctively related to the environment, certain features do vary according to region. For example, the type of wood used for building purposes varies from one region to the next. Coronado National Forest used lodge-pole pine from forests in the northern portion of Arizona. Lumber for structures in the Mount Hood National Forest was Douglas-fir, milled locally. The local mills bid on camp projects and whoever received the job adhered to strict instructions and specifications. The lumber was cut to order and included such items as the bolts for constructing the portable buildings. This stimulated the local economy and helped to avoid isolating a Federal government project from the inhabitants of nearby communities.

Another unique quality of each CCC campsite was landscaping and site planning. In many cases, the enrollees pitched in to landscape a camp in their free time. In almost all cases one or more of the men would enjoy caring for the grounds on a voluntary basis during off-hours.

The site plan was often determined by the environment. Some camps were located in canyons and confined by the steep rise of hills on either side, such as the Madera Canyon Camp on the Coronado National Forest. Other camps were surrounded by thick forests where

only a bare minimum was cut for a CCC campsite, such as Camp Roosevelt in the George Washington National Forest.

Many campsites contained both the portable and rigid buildings. Determination of these two site types help in dating a site. This information can be determined through the use of existing records or by a physical search for the bolt system employed in the portable buildings. Often campsites will have unique building details such as the adobe recreation hall and kitchen at the Pena Blanca Camp in the Coronado National Forest.

The history and lore of each camp is as unique as the camp's relationship to the nearby population and the Forest Service personnel. Former enrollees have many stories to tell about the events and personal relationships within each camp. Tapes and transcripts of interviews add to the significance of each campsite.

Evaluation of Significance of Individual Sites--In addition to considering the unique qualities of the region, the researcher may also evaluate the site by comparing it to others of the same type. However, comparison of different types should be avoided. For example, the Lowell Ranger Station of the Coronado National Forest, an adobe type, could be compared to the Patagonia or Nogales Ranger Stations of the same forest or even a ranger station located in New Mexico or elsewhere if it were of the same general type. It would not be appropriate, however, to compare the Lowell Ranger Station to a ranger station located in the mountains of northern Arizona, which would be comparing an adobe type to a timber or alpine type.

The differences and similarities between CCC sites make sites both uniquely and collectively important. Therefore, there are certain elements to consider when examining these sites in relation to one another. Though regional distinctions are important, so are the distinctions within each forest. For example, consider the special features and unique elements of a site. Through the inventory process, these features should become evident. As individual craftsmen worked upon each site, each contained a quality different from other sites within the same region or even the same forest.

Conclusion--Researchers must first familiarize themselves with CCC-era history and design philosophy and gain an overall insight into the period. Then they can focus specifically on a given site. After inventory forms have been completed and drawings executed, an evaluation can be made. The researcher should consider the regional distinctions, the unique aspects of the individual forest, and finally the significant character of the site in relation to these other aspects. The National Register criteria should then be applied and the decision can be made for nomination of the site or structure. An example of a nomination form is included in appendix B.

Many forests need to decide how to manage these sites. By following a careful evaluation process, a determination can begin to be formulated. Some structures will merit nomination to the National Register whereas others will not. The decision as to the fate of the CCC sites and structures ultimately lies with each region and forest. It is therefore important that the Forest Service make every effort to collect all information relating to these sites for the correct decision to be made. Even when demolition is the only recourse, the sites should be



Figure 147--Administration building (side view) built in 1933-34, Sherando Lake Recreation Area, George Washington National Forest, VA. (Photo by Alison T. Otis, 1982)

fully recorded, including drawings, photographs, an inventory, historical information, interviews, and any other pertinent information. With this information, a complete record can be developed for a site, and new information can be added as it is discovered. In this manner, if a site no longer exists, the information collected may help another similar site to be preserved.

If a decision is made to preserve a site, there are several methods of preservation to follow. The minimum level of preservation is "stabilization," a process by which a site is stabilized from further deterioration, but is not restored or reconstructed in any way. This type of preservation may prove the best recourse when a site is considered significant but is in very poor condition, or if a site is considered less significant but is in fairly good condition.

"Rehabilitation" is a step above stabilization and is the most frequent method of preservation. A site will be rehabilitated to include some updating of certain

elements, but all efforts are made to preserve the most significant aspects of the sites.

"Restoration" is the purest form of preservation and may be applied in cases where a site is in poor condition but is extremely significant. An intensive effort is made to restore the site to its original condition. This is the primary goal of restoration; function or use is secondary. A professional restoration job includes restoring sites using the original materials and construction techniques.

There are many details to consider before deciding upon any of these preservation methods. All three are legitimate solutions; however, a careful review of all three possibilities should be based on the evaluation of the site. Bear in mind the significance of all CCC-era sites and structures as they relate to the general design philosophy of that era. Compare the site to other similar sites in the Nation, State, region, and individual forest in order to help determine the significance.

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