IDENTIFYING and ASSESSING HISTORICAL CULTURAL RESOURCES in the PACIFIC NORTHWEST

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The forest lands of the Pacific Northwest constitute an immense national resource. The potentials for lumber, minerals, water, fish, wildlife, and recreation have long drawn attention to the region. The U. S. Forest Service has, over a period of decades, brought a variety of managements to these lands. One of the more recent challenges and mandates to the Forest Service is to identify, assess, restore, interpret, and maintain sites and structures which constitute the nation's cultural heritage.

Cultural Resource Management relates directly to the prehistoric and historic sites and activities which have occurred on public lands. The following guide is designed to serve as a general introduction to assist Forest Service personnel charged with the management of the historical component of the Region's cultural resources. The guide is not definitive. It is, however, representative of the types of sites, structures, objects, and features confronting those who have to work with cultural resources.

Historians assert, with a large measure of confidence, that nearly every American who has lived in this nation in the last 150 years has left behind a variety of materials documenting his or her existence. Historical cultural resources, even if they survive only as a site to be excavated by the historical archaeologist, have often been the focal points of those people or projects which are partly described in the documentary record. Homestead applications, deed records, census files, newspaper accounts, probate records, fire permit applications, right-of-way agreements, C.C.C. daily work reports—a host of "solid" material survives to document and add to the interpretive potential of those sites, structures, and objects on federal lands.

Several persons in the Region have helped make this guide possible. The questions and contributions of technicians and planners at the Cultural Resource Management workshops have provided special insights and suggestions. Dr. Leslie Wildesen, Regional Archaeologist, has aided and abetted this project at every stage. Toby Hastie (Winema), Hugh Bunton (Fremont), Ted Cobo and Jeff Lalande (Rogue River), and others working in Region 6 helped locate representative resources for inclusion in the narrative. Several of the historic photographs were located by the staff in the Regional Office. Other photos have been drawn from the Statewide Inventory of Historic Places maintained by the State Historic Preservation Office in Salem, Oregon.

To all who have helped make this project possible, I am thankful.

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"For it seems that long before the first enterprising man bent some twigs into a leaky roof, many animals were already accomplished builders."

Rudofsky, *Architecture Without Architects* (1964)

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TYPES OF HISTORICAL RESOURCES

The historical resources on U. S. Forest Service lands are representative of both public and private human activities in the Pacific Northwest over the past 140 years. The resources are varied and include sites of historic events and activities, objects associated with the past, and structures which have sheltered humans, their livestock, and their labors. Some of these resources are of importance only to the local area; others have regional and national significance.

The number and variety of historical resources mounted steadily with the influx of settlers to the Pacific Northwest in the 1840's and 1850's. Some of the structures in the region were constructed solely for residential purposes or commercial use. Others, such as carriage houses, smoke houses, water towers, outhouses, and garages were associated with various activities at a place of residence. Specialized structures served agriculture, stock-raising, logging, lumbering, mining, commerce, transportation, recreation, and land management.

Some activities created unique structures or objects. On a farm, for example, the structures might include barns, silos, lambing sheds, corrals, water towers, milk houses or coolers, watering troughs, tool sheds, bunkhouses, well houses, tack rooms, or even apiaries for processing honey. At recreation sites such as mineral springs or spas were hotels, mud bathhouses, gazebos with pumps for mineral water, cabins, and, sometimes, elaborate landscaping. In the 1930's the depression-era projects created a great variety of structures on forest lands: lookout towers, bridges, community kitchens, fireplaces, registry booths, trails, and "improved" camp sites.
Residential Structures

The initial stages of white residency in the Pacific Northwest led to the erection of temporary or semi-permanent housing. These structures included dugouts, log cabins, and frame "shacks." In the nineteenth century the lack of convenient milling operations for cutting lumber and the difficulty of lumber transport contributed to the popularity of these sometimes crudely built residences. The cost of milled lumber was, of course, a major factor. The building of such structures continued into the twentieth century on the newer frontiers in the Pacific Northwest following the passage of the Enlarged Homestead Act of 1910 and the Stock-raising Homestead Act of 1916.

The dugouts, log cabins, and frame "shacks" of the period of initial settlement in various parts of the region have suffered from many factors. Often, such buildings were viewed as temporary housing and were quickly abandoned when milled lumber and more substantial buildings could be erected. Sometimes these buildings were abandoned when the homesteader or early settler found the rigors of life on the claim too burdensome. Weather, fire, insects, and dry rot likewise took a heavy toll on such structures. Relic collectors and those intent upon securing "barn-board" paneling have also contributed to the disappearance of such "resources."

**Dugouts** Although not intended for permanent residence, dugouts often served early land claimants and temporary settlers on public lands. Dugouts were simply excavations into a bank. A builder might, if ambitious, line such a shelter with walls of rubble stone or with upright posts against which he stacked boards or brush and then an earth fill. A frame of poles or timbers supported the ceiling which was covered with thatch, boards, or brush and a layer of earth or sod.

The conditions of construction mitigated against the preservation of dugouts. The dampness of such shelters made them unpopular dwellings. The constant moisture contributed to the fairly rapid deterioration of the wood supports. A few dugouts survived, however, because settlers found reasons for maintaining those first places of residence. Sometimes dugouts became storage buildings, coolers, or root cellars. Some of these structures thus had limited use as residences but fairly long utilization for storage.
Occasionally a dugout was lined with logs and covered with a split shake roof.

Log Cabins. This popular shelter of the seventeenth and eighteenth century Atlantic frontier was carried by American settlers over the Appalachians and from the valley of the Mississippi to the Oregon Country in the mid-nineteenth century. Although built of unsawn logs, the log cabin possessed a variety of external features. The logs might be peeled or used with the bark in place. The log ends could be left with random axe cuts, battered cuts, or neatly finished with saw cuts. The builder might leave the logs round or hew them square with a broad axe or adze.

Some log cabins were single rooms. Others were one-and-one-half story or even two stories high and contained several rooms with a lean-to attached to the rear elevation.

From the 1890's until the 1920's, many U. S. Forest Service guard stations and ranger stations were constructed of logs. Far from mills and roads, the construction crews took materials available at the site for the erection of the buildings. A new era in construction of log cabins came again with the work of the C. C. C. and the W. P. A. in the forests in the 1930's. Both service buildings and recreational structures were constructed of logs because of the rustic quality of the materials and the strong sense of place and aesthetics of that era's designers and builders.
Many builders of log cabins took great pride in their skills as craftsmen. One evident hallmark of a true master with the broadaxe and saw was the way in which the logs were notched and joined at the corners. Some pioneer builders constructed their interlocking corners so tightly that they withstood both ravages of time and the buffeting of winter storms for decades. The Pacific Northwest contains many different examples of log cabin corner treatments.

**Frame Buildings** Frame buildings date from the earliest periods of white settlement in the Pacific Northwest. Many early settlers never resided in a log cabin. They whipsawed their own lumber or purchased materials from a mill to erect their residences. The Hudson's Bay Company, the fur trade firm dominating the economy of the Pacific Northwest from 1821 until the 1840's, erected a number of buildings which were, in some ways, a transition from hewn log to frame construction.

Employees of the Hudson's Bay Company were often veterans of that firm's operations in Canada. These men carried with them the concept of post-on-sill construction. They erected heavy, vertical timbers and infilled them with horizontal, hewn logs. The rather massive post-on-sill buildings were locked together by use of mortise and tenon joints and wooden pegs. The builders cut notches and joints to lock the beams together. The wooden pegs which they drove into the beams secured the frame.
The post-on-sill technique appeared in a variety of buildings in the region erected after 1821. Granaries, trading posts, residences—any might be built of this type of construction.

In the 1930's the C. C. C. erected some buildings on forest lands very similar to the post-on-sill style of the Hudson's Bay Company. These structures, often rest room facilities with a central store room, were infilled with horizontal boards rather than hewn timbers. Occasionally the crews covered the exteriors of these buildings with cedar bark. Only when the bark has been removed does the affinity to the old Hudson's Bay Company technique become visible.

In the late 1840's sawmills at the falls of the Willamette River cut lumber for structures in the nearby settlements spreading southward into the broad valley of the Willamette. By the early 1850's sawmills were built on Puget Sound, along the lower Columbia, and, by 1855, at Coos Bay on the southwest coast of Oregon. These mills, often powered by waterwheels, had a capacity of cutting 10,000 or sometimes more board feet per day. These milling enterprises quickly supplied the lumber for a booming frontier region. Sometimes within months an initial whipsaw operation in a district was replaced by an undershot waterwheel and its accompanying Muley Sash Saw.
From the 1850's through the 1920's the frame buildings erected in the Pacific Northwest often mirrored national tastes and styles. That which was nostalgic, pretentious, and familiar often dictated the architectural style. Imitation was a byword in the region through much of these years and architecture, perhaps more fully than any other taste, reflected the region's interest in following the styles and ways established to the east.

Residents of the region first expressed a strong taste for the Greek or Classical Revival architecture which had been in vogue since the 1820's in the Mississippi Valley. This style, possessing clean lines, sometimes neared the "Greek Temple" mania which gripped much of the ante-bellum American South. While some buildings in the region did possess porticos and columns, far more popular were the simple, wood frame buildings with low, gable roofs, boxed eaves, and strongly symmetrical lines.

Residences, churches, and commercial buildings were equally erected in the Classical Revival Style. This one and one-half story residence has six-over-six, double hung sash windows, boxed eaves with a partial eave return on the front elevation, sidelights beside the door, and a low, gable roof. It was built in 1854.

Sometimes through purchase of property for special use the Forest Service acquires structures from earlier decades of human activity. In many rural areas of the Northwest and, occasionally, on federal lands stand "vernacular" versions of the Classical Revival Style. These buildings are localized expressions of the vaguely remembered style from "back home" in the East. The craftsmanship is often good, but the vernacular rendering often exhibits greater height, less symmetry, and addition of other design motifs from other styles. In a sense the
"vernacular" is a style unto itself, but the close scrutiny of such a building yields information about style elements that can be found in purer expressions of building.

The narrow, four-over-four, double hung sash windows, the high roof pitch, and the open verandah with turned posts and brackets indicate this building's break with the Classical Revival Style. It dates from the 1870's.

Exhibiting the partial eave returns with boxed cornice on its front elevation, this building is, nevertheless, a vernacular expression of the Classical Revival Style. The projecting window bay on the left, the building's height, and the steep roof suggest departure from the purer versions of the style.
In the 1860's and 1870's the Gothic Style became very popular in the Pacific Northwest. This style had come into vogue in England in the 18th century and was popularized in the United States by the designs of Andrew J. Downing and Alexander J. Davis prior to the Civil War. The style was an attempt to capture the Gothic elements of the medieval period. Strong emphasis upon the vertical line, accenting of features to create height, constructing lancet bays for windows and doors with distinctive pointed arches, and even using turned, brick chimneys--all of these features might appear in Gothic Revival Style buildings.

The Gothic Revival became a major force in the region's religious architecture in the nineteenth century. Indeed, well into the mid-years of the twentieth century churches designed by carpenter-builders, rather than architects, continued to exhibit lancet windows. This style was also popular in residential architecture as well.

Some of the finest renderings of the Gothic Revival Style occurred in churches east of the Cascades. The steep roof, lancet entry bay, and use of board-and-batten siding accentuated the feeling of height in Ascension Episcopal Church in Cove, Oregon.
Steep, gable roofs, narrow dormers, lancet or pointed transom lights above the windows, and board and batten siding are typical of the Gothic Revival Style in residential architecture.

Some Gothic buildings used horizontal clapboard siding. They attained affinity with the style by employing steep, gable roofs, ornate eave decorations, narrow window bays, and, in this case, a projecting "hood" porch above the main entry.
By the 1880's the Italianate Style had replaced the Gothic and the Classical or Greek Revival styles in popularity in the region. In a few urban areas some builders favored the mansard roofs of the Second Empire Baroque Style which developed in France in the 1850's. The Italianate Style spread widely throughout the region and found expression not only in urban dwellings and business structures, but in some rural farm houses as well. Italianate buildings were often of two story, wood frame construction. The buildings possessed a low, hip roof and boxed eaves. A hallmark of the style was the application of heavy, decorative brackets at the eaves. Sometimes the brackets were repeated in the decorative surrounds above the windows. The narrow window bays used in this style often contained one-over-one, double hung sash windows.

The two story, projecting window bays, decorative eave brackets, low hip roof, ship-lap siding, and one-over-one, double hung sash windows in segmental bays are clear signs of the Italianate Style in this residence.

In the 1890's architecture went slightly beserk in the region. Balance, proportion, and symmetry were out of style. The popular taste demanded ostentation and celebration. In this decade the Queen Anne Style, a mishmash of virtually every possible building feature, ruled supreme. The region's abundant wood and the ever-present lathe and jigsaw enabled carpenters to range widely, in fact to build as far as the owner's financial resources might permit.

Buildings in the Queen Anne Style employed virtually every type of roof: cone, hip, gable, octagonal, and hip-on-gable. The exteriors of such buildings exhibited many textures and were stated by use of
Porches, balconies, towers, turrets, spindles, stained glass, lattice, brackets, and chimneys with elaborate corbelled tops were common in the Queen Anne Style.

Many Queen Anne buildings used a variety of roof types: hip, gable, and octagonal, and created a feeling of pretension by use of shingles and brightly painted siding and wood decorations.
imbricated or fancily cut shingles, vertical boards, horizontal ship-lap siding, spindles, irregular window bay size and treatment, decorative moldings, cut woodwork at the eaves, and stained glass windows. All of the exuberance of the Queen Anne Style was further accentuated by the painting of the decorative features in contrasting colors. Green houses with maroon trims, gold colors with brown and white trim--any and all might add to the celebration of this style.

By 1900 many Americans had wearied of the elaborate and, at times, wild appearance of the Queen Anne Style. Popular with some were the "revivals" of earlier styles. The Mission Revival captured in stucco and tile roofs the feeling of the California and Southwest Spanish missions. Egyptian Revival buildings, ranging from banks to mausoleums, became vernacular expressions of temples from Karnak and other structures believed by their designers to have once stood near the Nile River. The Egyptian Style burst forth with new energy in the late 1920's following the discovery of the tomb of King Tutankhamen.

Widely popular in the region was the Colonial Revival Style. Reminiscent of the Classical or Greek Revival styles, this new form found strong inspiration in the eighteenth century architecture of Georgian England and colonial America. The hip and gable roofs and columned porticos gave pretension and an appearance of stability to the homes of the region's wealthier citizens. These building's large bay windows and more subdued and symmetrical appearance indicated a

Between 1900 and the 1920's the Colonial Revival Style was one of many "revivals" sweeping the region. This building's lines and portico suggest its break with the 1890's.
clear change in taste from the ostentation of the Queen Anne Style.

Between 1890 and the first World War the Transitional Box Style of house was popular in many parts of the Pacific Northwest. The building usually had a hip roof; sometimes its rafters were exposed at the eaves; other times they were enclosed. Often the roof was broken with dormers for attic lighting. The two story examples of the style often had attached verandahs or porches. Large, one-over-one, double hung sash windows appeared in most of these structures. Varnished fir wainscoting and stair railings were common interior treatments.

The McCreadie house is a well-preserved example of the Transitional Box Style standing on the nursery of the Rogue River National Forest near Medford, Oregon. The building has especially fine detail work in its doors, interiors, and porch treatment.

About 1905 the Bungalow Style began appearing in the region. This one and one-half story type was characterized by gable roofs with wide, over-hanging eaves. Often the rafters were exposed beneath the eaves. Typically these buildings had a dormer on the front elevation, wide verandahs, and heavy, square porch posts. The porches, sometimes enclosed at the base by lattice or shingles, occasionally had posts made of brick or stone. This style was uniquely American.
Bungalow Style houses ranged from modest cottages to large, rambling residences. Plantings of lilacs, roses, and other shrubs close to these buildings were common features of their landscaping. Exterior materials included both narrow, lapped siding or shingles.

Between 1900 and 1930, the English Cottage Style appeared in many urban areas in the Pacific Northwest. Narrow windows, steep roofs, and use of stucco were characteristic of the style.
The Tudor Revival structures of the 1920's were especially popular for the region's fraternity and sorority houses and for the homes of the wealthy. Stucco, exposed beams, and slate roofs were exterior design features.

The Mission Revival employed brick or stucco and tile to state itself. Iron grills, glazed decorative tiles, and heavy woodwork underscored the effort of this style to link to America's Hispanic heritage.
With each revival or emergent new style, local builders devised vernacular expressions. Vernacular buildings often stated in a debased way the major elements of a style. Sometimes they merged elements of several different styles. Vernacular buildings ranged from humble, one room cabins to rambling houses that easily sheltered ten or more persons.

Careful scrutiny of a single room house with its shed-like attachment may reveal that the vernacular building is a log cabin which was "modernized" a century ago by a new exterior of shiplap siding. Wall thickness is a ready clue that a hewn log or peeled log cabin may be preserved beneath another exterior.

Most wood frame buildings erected by the U. S. Forest Service between the 1890's and the 1930's were of a vernacular character. Located far from mills and in areas of difficult transportation, these buildings had no need of pretension, decoration, or elaborate treatment. Towers, stained glass windows, mansard roofs, and decorative woodwork were impractical and unnecessary. Often these buildings were constructed of rough, unplaned lumber. Vertical board and batten siding was common. However, some of these buildings were covered with wide clapboards. Simple, shingled gable roofs were almost always preferred by the builders.
Some of the Region's earliest guard stations had nothing to distinguish them from settlers' houses. This one-and-one-half story, wood frame building has a board and batten exterior with an open porch on its front elevation.

Another type of Forest Service structure was the seasonally-occupied cabin for fire patrols and trail crews. This building has wide, rough, horizontal clapboard siding.
Stone Buildings In the region east of the Cascades in Washington and Oregon builders have made more extensive use of stone than in the more heavily forested areas to the west. In the 1930's the C. C. C. crews erected several very attractive complexes of stone buildings for ranger district headquarters, guard stations, and recreation areas.

Rock-faced stone set in broken course gave a strong feeling of place and permanence to government buildings in the 1930's. Bath houses, residences, rest stations, and viewpoint structures equally received use of stone as primary building materials in that era.
The Bly Ranger Station in the Fremont National Forest has an impressive set of stone buildings from the 1930's. The structures include the warehouse, gas house, offices, and residences.

Rubblestone walls with board and batten enclosures at the roof gables give rustic appearance to the buildings. The Forest Service tree decorates the gable ends of many of the structures.
Structures Associated With Residences

Not all human activity occurs in the structure of residence. At each residency site many aspects of life occur. In the past, food-processing, storage, acquisition of water, and a landscape might all result in the construction of special structures or objects. These minor or subsidiary buildings or objects are nevertheless part of the total fabric of human activity and constitute part of the Region's cultural resources.

Water towers and windmills were an important feature of life in rural areas prior to the development of electrical pumps. In the Pacific Northwest many residents constructed four-sided water towers which flared at the base. Sometimes these towers are found on federal lands, especially at sites leased to resort developers in the years between 1900 and 1925. Pump houses and spring houses also protected wells and water sources from leaves and pollution. Occasionally these buildings were of rustic styling, using logs, shakes, and "natural" materials.

Outhouses were essential structures in the era before running water. Sometimes the outhouse was erected at the same time as the dwelling and repeated the exterior features and materials of the main building. Near the foot of the Wallowa Mountains in eastern Oregon is a five seat outhouse constructed in the 1880's. This building not only has seats with graduated sizes for various family members, it has a wallpapered interior and two diamond-shaped windows.

Water towers, often covered with shingles, afforded storage areas as well as a structure for supporting a windmill and water tank.
The designs on the outhouse door often reveal the attention or whimsy which a builder gave to a particular project.

In the 1930's with the extensive development of recreational areas in the national forests, the construction crews erected some elaborate rest room facilities. Bark-covered outhouses, rest rooms with dressed stone and log exteriors, and post-on-sill outhouses were all part of the complex of structures erected at picnic and camping sites.

Before the development of refrigeration, many residents constructed coolers or milk houses near their kitchens. These separate buildings, usually placed at a site near the back door of a house, were often dug a foot or two into the ground to hold the cool air. The builders often employed double-wall construction to create a dead air space or a place that might be filled with sawdust as insulation. Brick, stone, and wood were all used in the coolers in the region. The roof and gable end treatments often matched the style of the nearby house.

Constructed solidly, often of brick, coolers have survived well and in the latter 20th century frequently serve as storage buildings.
In rural areas homesteaders might erect smoke houses near their cabins for curing meat. Additionally their lean-to barns could shelter a blacksmith shop, contain a small chicken house, or possess a series of dovecotes along the gable end for pigeons. Places of residence also possess landscape structures and objects. Decorative gates, fences, arbors, stairways, fountains, garden houses, ponds, paths, and plantings are part of a residential environment. The plants used in the landscape can be wholly natural or may include ornamental trees and shrubs as well as well-defined flower beds.

Octagonal gazebos were popular garden houses in the 19th century. Often the walls of the gazebo were left open or were enclosed with wood lattice. Plantings of honeysuckle, wisteria, and climbing roses were common with these structures.

Small barns or carriage houses served many purposes. Usually located behind a residence, these buildings sometimes had a hay loft, attached storage rooms, and stalls for horses.
In the 1930's government employees constructed extensive landscaping at recreation areas and surrounding government buildings. Ranger stations sometimes were enclosed by elaborate stone walls, hewn log fences, or fences of rough timbers. Unpeeled logs sometimes framed entrances to forest lands and management areas.

Low, heavy rubble stone walls create a substantial setting for the Bly Ranger Station in the Fremont National Forest. The concrete capstones were added later.

Rough timbers were popular fencing materials for C. C. C. crews at Forest Service sites in the 1930's.
Rubble stone without mortar topped by a massive cap creates an impressive entry gate post. The use of natural materials helps shape the integration of human activities with the environment.

Random plantings of flowering shrubs and decorative cedars were integral parts of the late 19th century landscape.
Agricultural Structures and Objects

The Homestead Act, its amendments, the Taylor Grazing Act, and the Bankhead-Jones Act are among the measures which have brought agricultural activity to federal lands in the Pacific Northwest. Likewise, the maintenance of trails and fielding of fire-fighting crews has led the U. S. Forest Service to construct barns, corrals, sheds, and other buildings commonly associated with agriculture and stock-raising activity.

Barns, often unassuming, may have stood on a farm for decades. Several barns west of the Cascades date from the 1860's and the 1870's. In the more arid regions east of the mountains the preservation of these structures has been even better. In part barn preservation has been the result of the large initial cost and labor in erecting such a structure. Farmers and stockmen have generally given some maintenance to barns. Unlike houses, barns seldom are "out of style." Their functional use has helped assure their preservation and they have been much less subject to neglect because of changing taste.

Gambrel roofs have been popular features of barn architecture in the Pacific Northwest since the 19th century. This barn, erected in 1891, was an elegant structure for race horses. The exterior is covered with vertical board and batten siding.
Special features on barns include cupolas for ventilation and dormers for light in the hay mow.

In the 19th century a common means of framing a large barn was to place the superstructure or major beaming on top of a pair of two story, hem log cribs.
Side-entry barns were used by farmers who drove loaded wagons into the center of the building so that they could lift hay into the loft from a track system running the length of the barn.

Government barns from the 1930's include some of stone and cement construction. Windswept areas east of the Cascades often had barns with partial stone construction.
Barns have many different shapes and sizes. The region has at least one sixteen-sided barn, several octagonal barns, and structures built of wood, hewn logs, stone, and shakes over a pole frame. Ship-lap, vertical boards and battens, and, most recently, sheet metal, have been employed to cover the exteriors of these structures.

The care and craftsmanship of builders of earlier generations is often evident in buildings. This hewn log barn of generous proportions, its peeled pole roof framing, and the split shakes that once covered the roof represented hundreds of hours of hard labor for the farmer who erected it.

Farmsteads, too, possessed landscapes. In the nineteenth century several of the county histories written about the Pacific Northwest contained panoramic views of farm landscapes. The arrangement of residence, barn, service buildings, water tower, pond, garden, and orchard was often the result of conscious planning. Some of these century-old farm landscapes survive.

Stock raising and agriculture have called for more than barns or sheds. Corrals, fences, and objects sometimes remain at sites of these enterprises. The National Register of Historic Places includes objects as well as structures. Locomotives, ships, and other "things" from the past are part of the federal inventory.
Beef wheels were used on ranches for butchering cattle. The steer was hoisted off the ground for cleaner and more convenient work by the man skinning and cutting up the meat.

Carts, wagons, buckboards, and other animal drawn equipment may be objects which contribute to the total ensemble value of buildings at an agricultural site.
Fences, too, are an important aspect of ranching and farming. They have become important visual features of a landscape and are part of the total picture of human activity at a site. The various fencing materials include: split rails, peeled poles, vertical posts, brush, adzed beams, boards, stones, pickets, barbed wire, wire mesh, and electrified wire. Stockmen have developed an impressive array of employing these materials to fence in the American West.
Transportation Structures and Objects

Transportation of humans and their possessions and products has left many marks on the region's environment. Structures, objects, and routes of travel are aspects of the cultural resources of the Pacific Northwest. Some of these resources are of historical nature. Others, such as the remains of wrecked ships in the Oregon Dunes National Recreation Area administered by the Siuslaw National Forest, largely have potential for work of the archaeologist and only later for interpretation by the recreation specialist.

Trails have crossed many federal lands. In the 19th century emigrants trekked by the thousands over the Oregon Trail to the land of the great River of the West. This main route of overland travel was supplemented by several cutoffs or branch trails into the Cascades of Oregon and Washington and by the survey and construction of several military and wagon roads financed by the U. S. government in the 1860's and the 1870's. Wagon ruts, rope-scarred stumps at steep inclines, rocks carved with the graffiti of travelers of 110 years ago, lonely graves marked with a stone slab, initials, and perhaps a date--these are part of the historic resources of the trails.

In spite of the development of newer routes and other modes of transportation, many of the old trails can easily be traced on federal lands. On-site surveys, use of emigrant diaries, reference to the field notes and maps of the surveyors from the General Land Office, and aerial reconnaissance photographs help to document the routes of the American West.

The railroad came to the Pacific Northwest in the 1850's. In the mid-years of the decade government-financed exploring parties searched for transcontinental routes and penetrated most of the major passes of the Cascades. Their colorfully illustrated, multi-volume reports constituted some of the first scientific assessments of parts of the region. From the mule-drawn carts on wooden rails at Cascade Locks to the ore carts on iron rails in the gold mines of southwest Oregon, the transition to steam-powered railroading was steady and swift. A number of historical resources are associated with railroads. These include trestles, grades, water towers, coal bins or bunkers, depots, bridges, and sites of construction camps. Several of these structures or objects are located on U. S. Forest Service lands because of the use of railroads for log transportation. Commencing in the 1890's and continuing through the 1930's, log transport by rail was of major importance to the region's lumber economy.
Old grades for railroads may be the only remaining sign of important transportation links in an area. Some roadbeds have become recreation hiking trails.

Water towers were once familiar sights in the era of steam locomotives. Most have now vanished from the Pacific Northwest.
Early in the 20th century when heavy road construction equipment was unavailable or impractical in difficult terrain, many logging railroads made extensive use of trestles constructed of log cribs.

Wood was once cheap and seemingly inexhaustible. Remains of logging railroad trestles moulder in the reforested mountains of many national forests in the Region.
Travelers, private contractors, operators of toll roads, and the state and federal governments have all erected bridges for crossing streams in the region. Bridges are both part of America's aesthetic as well as engineering heritage. The Advisory Committee on Historic Preservation in Oregon has recognized, for example, the strong public interest in covered, wood bridges and in 1976 nominated all remaining such structures, nearly 60 in number, to the National Register. Some bridges have special association with a distinguished engineer. Others are rare examples of a type. Still others were erected by special work crews such as the C. C. C. or the U. S. Army. The Pacific Northwest possesses a variety of bridges: covered, suspension, concrete, log, and stone structures.
In the 1930's the Forest Service erected several long-span, cable suspension bridges on major fire trails in the Region. The Grave Creek Bridge spanned the Rogue River in the Siskiyou National Forest.

Some suspension bridges had rustic guards to protect the cables from the weather. The Illahe Trail Bridge erected in 1939 stood in the Umpqua National Forest.
Loggers constructed many cable suspension bridges in order to cross streams and canyons to sites of a timber harvest. These structures, often known as "swinging bridges," provided minimal railings.

Covered bridges were very practical west of the Cascades. The wood housing protected the timbers and roadbed from constant exposure to moisture.
Company F of the 351 Engineers, U. S. Army, erected a log, Howe Truss bridge on concrete piers over Elliott Creek in the Ochocho National Forest in 1943. Howe truss construction was used widely for several decades in covered bridges in the Pacific Northwest.

Peeled logs supported the Wells Creek Bridge over the Nooksack in the Mt. Baker National Forest. Erected in the spring of 1936, this bridge made extensive use of materials found near the site.
Bridges, like many human projects, often reflect the times in which they were built. The Laughing Waters River Bridge erected in the spring of 1936 was a poured concrete span which had strong but simply stated Art Deco lines. The functionalism of the 1930's is readily evident in the structure.

At least one other aspect of transportation history is the way by which routes were marked. Stone cairns, blazes, and occasionally the carved inscription of a survey party may remain on federal lands.
Industrial Structures and Objects

Over the past 130 years many human enterprises have occurred on federal lands in the Pacific Northwest. Among the more common of these undertakings have been logging, log transportation, lumbering, and mining. Each of these commercial ventures has produced a variety of structures and objects associated with it.

Mining was the magnet drawing tens of thousands of emigrants to California in 1849 and 1850. Many of those ambitious wealth-seekers spied out the gold fields of the Pacific Northwest in subsequent decades. Remaining in some areas today are the tremendous piles of stone and debris, the worked tailings from their sluicing operations a century ago. In places there are cavernous ravines, laid bare by the powerful nozzles of hydraulic giants washing down entire mountain sides. Decaying headgates, partially clogged ditches, and rusting pipe from the hydraulic mining days lie scattered on the forest floor.

One of the more ambitious and early modes of extracting ore from quartz rock was the arrastra. A machine constructed to pulverize rock and release gold, the arrastra was a crude stamp mill used as early as the seventeenth century in Mexico. Powered by oxen or mules, water power, or an internal combustion engine, the arrastra was one means of breaking up quartz without the expensive investment in a full stamping operation.

This water-powered arrastra had a split shake roof to protect it from mountain snows. The drag stones moved round and round over the quartz to release the gold.
The arrastra of the Bobbit Mine in the Rogue River National Forest is constructed of 50 gallon drums and old automobile parts. It was water-powered.

At some mining centers entire complexes of buildings remain. A gold or quicksilver mine may have had a building housing a stamp mill or mercury-processing retorts, a blacksmith shop, an assay office, bunkhouses, store or commissary, shaft houses, bunkers, and tunnels into the mountain. At some locations

Construction of shafts, cuts, and tunnels involved endless hours of hand labor in the mines of the Northwest. Coal, gold, silver, and mercury were obtained by ambitious miners gingerly exploring beneath the earth.
miners constructed miles of diversion ditches to drain a river for prospecting or to bring water to a processing site.

The Bonanza Quicksilver Mine Mill contains large furnaces for heating quicksilver or mercury. This operation, in the western Cascades, is one of several mining complexes remaining in the Pacific Northwest.

The headgates of an hydraulic mining operation included filters. The water swept from a ditch through the gates and plunged into the hydraulic pipe and out of a nozzle.
Structures and objects associated with logging have had less permanence than the material artifacts associated with mining. Spar trees rotted and fell. Bunkhouses in logging camps were often towed away to newer sites or were burned when an operation was completed. Steam donkey engines were dragged out of the woods and sold for scrap or were relegated to the outdoor exhibit areas of local museums. Sawmills, quickly becoming technologically obsolete or subject to fires, have had limited lifetimes.

Among the most interesting of the objects associated with logging and lumbering have been the region's splash dams. Erected commencing in the 1880's in coastal Oregon and Washington, these dams spanned the region's creeks and rivers to back up ponds in which the men of the woods stowed thousands of board feet of logs. Constructed usually of log crib design and faced on the upstream side with planks, these dams enabled the loggers to create an artificial freshet for sweeping logs wildly down the rivers to the sawmills on tidewater.

Although the last of the splash dams was breached and burned in 1958 on the South Fork of Coos River in southwest Oregon, many of the dam sites remain. The old ponds created by these structures have become popular tourist areas, especially since the remains of the dams have often created good swimming holes in the streambeds. These locations have much potential for the interpretation of the former technologies used in lumber production in the Pacific Northwest.

Log cribs set in bedrock held back rivers and logs which were then sluiced down the stream on artificial freshets.
Almost as soon as parts of the American West were discovered by white Americans, sight-seers, campers, hunters, and fishermen came rushing into the regions to "enjoy" nature. Gradually, by the 1880's, purposeful tourist enterprises emerged in rural areas to supplement the hotels, inns, and boarding houses providing food and lodging to travelers and recreation-seekers. Among the first of the resort areas to develop in the Pacific Northwest were seaside bathing beaches and mountain mineral springs and spas.

For many Americans, some but a few years removed from their residency in Europe, the mineral waters and hot spring baths of the Pacific Northwest were one of the attractions most closely associated with customary recreation at home in Germany, France, Italy, or Scandinavia. By the hundreds these pleasure-seekers packed their gear and families over the trails of the western Cascades to the mud baths and putrid watering holes for an outing at a spa. At several locations east of the Cascades these tourists frequented hot water baths and sought to cure ailments ranging from dandruff and fallen arches to stomach cancers and intestinal disorders.

Many mineral springs were famed for their "waters." Reeking of minerals, these odorous resources were often available at pumps or fountains beneath rustic gazebos.
Patrons of Buckhorn Springs in southwest Oregon's Siskiyou Mountains could frequent the Carbon Dioxide Vapor Bathhouse, endure electric shock therapy and colored light treatments in the "hospital," or receive daily mineral water enemas.

Small cabins, lodges, log amphitheaters, mud baths, trails for nature walks and other structures completed the variety of improvements found at springs and spas. The heyday for these sites passed in the 1930's. Improved standards in medicine, the exposure of quackery and fakery, and changing tastes in outdoor recreation contributed to the end of an era in pleasure and health seeking.

Camping was a feature of life for thousands of emigrants bound for the Pacific Northwest in the nineteenth century. Those who traveled the Oregon Trail had little choice but to camp during their transcontinental journey. For some, even as early as the 1860's, camping remained as a favorite, summer recreation. Escape from the city, the opportunity to fish and hunt, and the chance to associate closely with family and friends drew early visitors to the wilds. Mountaineering gripped some and parties set out to scale the region's peaks, fish its rivers, and explore its matchless scenery.

The U. S. government gave major impetus to outdoor recreation when in the 1930's depression era work crews began to develop the region's forests for camping, picnicking, and outdoor activities. Many of the structures erected in that era now near the point for consideration for the National Register.
Designed by Portland architect A. E. Doyle, the chalet at Multnomah Falls was erected in 1925 by the City of Portland for recreation-seekers in the Columbia Gorge. The structure passed to the Mount Hood National Forest in 1939.

Many of the outdoor recreation structures erected in the twentieth century in the Pacific Northwest have made extensive use of log, stone, and roughly finished wood. Materials and siting have been important ingredients in these buildings for setting a style, sometimes called "Cascade Architecture" for the region. Timberline lodge is the most spectacular of the massive, outdoor recreation buildings standing on forest lands in the Pacific Northwest. The lodges at Mount Rainier and Crater Lake national parks as well as a host of smaller buildings, however, exhibit similar fine taste in design and craftsmanship.

To guide the depression-era workers erecting many of the recreation structures on federal lands in the 1930's, Forest Service architects provided detailed designs for a host of structures: registry booths, car barriers, community kitchens, fireplaces, outhouses, and campfire areas. These plans survive in the files of the Recreation Section of the Regional Office and give specifications for materials, dimensions, and modes of construction.
In the years before charcoal briquets and portage gas stoves recreation areas contained large, community kitchens. Constructed of peeled logs, stone, and split shakes, these buildings have served the public for nearly 50 years.

Forest Service architects prescribed log tables and peeled pole braces to support the counters in the community kitchens of the 1930's. Many of these buildings have collapsed because of lack of maintenance.
Some rest stations at the recreation sites of the 1930's were designed with hip-on-gable roofs and exteriors of shake, cedar bark, or rough boards.

The architects in the Regional Office provided designs for a half dozen different types of fireplaces in recreation areas. Many of these still stand.
Attention to detail was a hallmark of some of the pre-World War II Forest Service construction. This mailbox at a ranger station exhibits the commitment to harmonious structures at a site.

C. C. C. crews made extensive use of stone. Rock walls, posts, campfire areas, drinking fountains, dams, bridges, and entry posts equally received their use of natural materials.
Trail bridges at recreation areas also received the attention of forest architects. Rough logs, stone, and planks were the favored materials prescribed for these structures.

Dozens of plans remain in the files of the Regional Office for ski warming shelters, lodges, mineral water buildings, community buildings and other recreation structures which were on the drawing board at the outbreak of World War II.
Swings, rocking horses, diving boards, and other playground equipment also received the "rustic" prescription of Forest Service architects in the 1930's.

In addition to the government-erected recreation structures and objects, many other structures stand on lands owned by the U. S. Forest Service which have been leased to private operators for decades. Many of these structures now fall within the review of National Register criteria and are of special interest because of their use of natural materials, choice of site, and familiar association with long-popular recreation areas.
Government Structures

The administration of federal lands has required that the federal government construct a variety of structures and objects on those lands. For the U. S. Forest Service this activity has ranged from trails and recreation sites to bridges, roads, lookout towers, guard stations, ranger stations, warehouse complexes, work camps, and scenic vista shelters.

Among the earliest government buildings on forest lands were the guard stations erected in the late nineteenth century. Differing little or not at all from the rude residences of homesteaders, these buildings often served field crews for decades and, in a few instances, have continued to stand at sites of government work to serve as woodsheds and storage buildings.

The old guard station at Hille Peak in the Umpqua National Forest saw many years of additional use as a woodshed. The building was covered with split shakes, probably made at the site.
Many of the Region's earliest lookout towers were simply wood platforms fastened in the top of a tree. Precarious ladders permitted the forest employees to climb up and down the tree to keep watch for fires. The remote nature of many of the lookouts meant that materials at the site were often used for construction. Gradually, however, as pack trails and then roads made access easier, standard plans and specifications led to uniformity in lookout construction and design.

Rattlesnake Lookout in the Willamette National Forest was one of a once common type of forest control structure. This design with its hip roof and cupola was popular in the 1930's and 1940's.
Some lookouts, such as Indian Ridge in the Willamette N. F. (above) stood on the ground. Tenas Peak Lookout in the Umpqua N. F. stood on peeled, log poles set on concrete blocks when photographed in 1942.

Signal Tree Lookout was a tower 100 feet high of ring-connected, creosote timbers. The cabin at its top measured 7 x 7 feet. The lookout was erected in 1935 in the Wallowa-Whitman N. F.
The Port Orford Cedar Experimental Forest on the south fork of the Coquille River was developed in the 1930's. One of the surviving structures at the site is the Cedar House, a one and one-half story, wood frame building whose exterior is covered with cedar bark.

An important part of the aesthetic and cultural resource value of a site and set of structures is the ensemble character. Does the site possess integrity, compatibility, and excellence of design? Some ranger station complexes well reveal the total design planning of former eras of construction. Residences, offices, warehouses, gas houses, shops, garages, and storage buildings were all constructed in the same design, of similar materials, as part of a totally planned complex. In some instances the design included the hardware and even the furniture for the structures.
The gas house at the Bly Ranger Station in the Fremont National Forest reveals the care and quality of design of government facilities in the 1930's.

The warehouse-shop building at the Bly Ranger Station has the Forest Service tree logo set in green stone in the pillars supporting the structure's gablet roof.
Government workers constructed heavy and durable furniture in the 1930's. Chairs, desks, beds, and sofas were often made of fir or pine. Many Forest Service buildings contain these functional pieces of C. C. C. and W. P. A. craftsmanship.

Close scrutiny of a building may reveal that fireplace tools, screens, and other metal work were manufactured at the site and are part of the total design of the structure.
Other sites of government activity include C. C. C. camps and barracks, field experiment stations, and tree farms. Each of these undertakings has produced structures and objects associated with the past federally supported activity at such a site.

One further element of government activity has been military operations on lands managed in later times by the U. S. Forest Service. Occasionally some structural remains are at these sites. The rocks surrounding a waterhole, a clearing in the forest for a parade ground, the rotting posts of an Army Corps railroad for hauling rock to a jetty site--these are among those remains of old work. Sites of armed conflict also sometimes occurred on forest lands. The letters of military officers, diaries of combatants, and cartographic records help to pinpoint those locations of interpretive potential related to military operations.

Store Gulch Guard Station on the Illinois River in the Siskiyou National Forest is one of the increasingly rare surviving cedar bark buildings erected on the forests in the 1930's.
Cemeteries

In usual circumstances cemeteries do not become nominated to the National Register. However, cemeteries are a unique kind of cultural resource and merit special management for several reasons. On one basis a cemetery is a landscape, especially if it was laid out with purpose. The placement of tombstones and planting of trees and shrubs bespeak former concepts of landscape design. Secondly, a cemetery may preserve in its tombstones some special expressions of folkart and folklore. Tombstone inscriptions occasionally carry interesting elements of social commentary and history. Thirdly, a cemetery may be important not so much as a cultural resource but as a natural resource. Often fenced and guarded from grazing and cultivation, cemeteries often have become ecological preserves--small islands in which native plants have continued to thrive. Plans for clearing and killing vegetation in old cemeteries need to be critically evaluated for what impact they may have upon endangered species.

A boulder of native sandstone proclaims that the man buried at this site was both a Mason and an Elk. Social affiliations and fraternal ties were once popularly proclaimed on tombstones.
This tombstone contains a moral message for those who read it and provides specific biographical information about the immigrant origins of Hugh Donelly, "a native of the Co. Louth, Ireland."

The "graven images" of America's past sometimes exhibit works of folkart and maudlin sentiments. Carvings of praying hands, doves, trees of life, and the pearly gates are found on many 19th century tombstones.
Ethnic origins are also revealed in tombstone inscriptions. This Hebrew message indicates Jewish presence in the 19th century American West.
FEATURES OF HISTORICAL RESOURCES

The identification, inventorying, description, assessment, management, and interpretation of historical resources necessitates some acquaintance with gross features, styles, shapes, and materials. A good inventory contains both file photographs of each elevation of a building and a narrative description of the major and special features of such a structure. Certain features are obvious: roofs, foundations, windows, exterior covering, doors, and landscaping. To avoid confusion and to assist in the accurate designation of design and construction elements, architects, historians, and builders have developed a basic vocabulary describing structural features.

The identification and recording of a building's features requires careful observation. To some, a log cabin is merely a cabin. Yet, for inventory purposes, it is necessary to note whether or not the logs are peeled or left with the bark on. Also the recorder needs to note whether the logs have been partially adzed, squared, cupped, or altered for stacking. An accurate description coupled with photographs may help others, far removed from the resource, make decisions that are of great consequence to that historical resource.

The ultimate inventory contains both photographs and narrative description of a building or object as well as measured drawings. The drawings, done to scale, become, in essence, architectural plans which would enable someone at some future date to reconstruct the cultural resource exactly as it had been. The original plans and specifications for bridges, towers, and a great variety of government buildings survive in the files in the Regional Office, warehouses, and ranger stations.
Exterior Wall Material

Log

(1) Unpeeled logs: the builder left the bark on the logs and stacked them into position in a crib arrangement

(2) Peeled logs: the builder peeled off the bark prior to notching and stacking the logs

(3) Hewn logs: the builder, often using a broadaxe or an adze, flattened the logs before notching and stacking them

Log cabins possessed not only a variety of log treatments but also various ways of assembling the individual logs. Builders constructed cabins with round logs, cupped logs, grooved logs, or flattened logs.

Round Logs  Cupped Logs  Grooved Logs  Flattened Logs

Logs might also be placed vertically rather than horizontally. The frame of vertical log buildings was, of course, different from the horizontal, crib construction common with most log cabins.
The log terminations also had variable treatments. Builders used random axe cuts, saw cuts, or battered terminations.

- Random Axe Cuts
- Saw Cuts
- Battered Cuts

Diagonally-notched, hemi logs with battered ends

Cup-notched, peeled logs with sawn ends

Cup-notched, unpeeled logs with sawn ends
Log cabins were constructed with a variety of chinking materials. Mud mixed with hair and moss, old newspapers, rags, and tightly driven wooden wedges might serve to fill the cracks and keep warmth in a log building.

This log cabin has been carefully chinked with narrow wood slits, cut and driven between the logs. Such fine construction made a cabin secure from winter storms.

*Milled Wood*

(1) Rough timbers
(2) Clapboard or weatherboards (planed, four inch width)

(3) Shiplap or novelty siding (planed, tongue and groove)

(4) Shakes

(5) Shingles (alternate rows with staggered butts)
(6) Imbricated shingles

(7) Undulating shingles

(8) Shingles

(9) Boards (vertical, no battens)
(10) Boards and battens (vertical)

Metal

(1) Corrugated metal

Composition

(1) Shingles or sheets

(2) Slate

(3) Tile

(4) Plaster or stucco
**Stone (shape and coursing)**

(1) Rubble, random

(4) Rubble, squared

(5) Cut stone, coursed

(6) Cut stone, broken course

(2) Plain (fieldstone)

(3) Shale

**Stone (texture and finish)**

(1) Natural

(3) Smooth dressed

(2) Sawn

(4) Rock-faced
(5) Rusticated

(6) Vermiculated

Brick

(1) Stretcher bond

(2) Common bond

(3) Flemish bond

(4) Header bond

Concrete

(1) Poured

(2) Block
(1) One-over-one, double hung sash windows

One-over-one, double hung sash

One-over-one, double hung sash with lowered shutters
One-over-one, double hung sash windows, three per bay, in a two story projecting window bay.

One-over-one, double hung sash frames containing leaded, stained glass windows with a lancet window in the upper sash.
(2) Two-over-two, double hung sash windows

Two-over-two, double hung sash window in a segmental bay

(3) Four-over-four, double hung sash windows

Four-over-four, double hung sash window in a segmental bay
Four-over-four, double hung sash window

Four-over-four, double hung sash window with a lancet transom
(4) Six-over-six, double hung sash windows

Six-over-six, double hung sash window

Six-over-six, double hung sash window with a lunette transom

(5) Eight-over-eight, double hung sash windows

Eight-over-eight, double hung sash windows with rough board shutters decorated with cut-out designs of the Forest Service logo
(6) Irregular window treatment

A mullion window in this District Ranger's residence has a six-over-six, double hung sash window in the center, is flanked by a pair of four-over-four, double hung sash windows, and is surmounted by transom lights. Storm windows enclose each bay.

Pair of one-over-one, double hung sash windows with decorative panes in the upper sections set in a projecting, second story window bay.
(7) Casement windows

Single pane casement window

Pair of single pane casement windows with aluminum frames

Pair of ten pane casement windows in wood frames

Window Trims

(1) Cornice

(2) Triangular pediment

(3) Segmental pediment

(4) Plain trim
Foundations

(1) Rubble stone, random coursed
(2) Rubble stone, squared

(3) Rubble stone, coursed
(4) Brick, stretcher bond
(5) Brick on cut stone, broken course
(6) Log on stone footing

(7) Log on concrete footing
(8) Log foundation

(9) Mortise and tenon timbers on brick piers
Roofs possess many different designs and pitches. The various roof types may have a low, medium or high pitch. Many of the different roof types exhibit a bellcast quality, bending outward at the base. The following examples are illustrative of some of the more common roof types found in the Pacific Northwest.

Gable with open eaves, rafters exposed

Cross gable with boxed eaves
Hip-on-gable or hipped gable with boxed eaves

Hip

Gabled hip or gablet
Beilcast hip with boxed eaves

Beilcast gambrel with boxed eaves

Cable with shed roofs on attachments
Roof Materials

Shingles

Composition shingles

Imbricated shingles
Shake

Corrugated metal

Doors

Single leaf wood, four panels
Double leaf iron, six panel

Single leaf wood, four panel with sidelights and lunette transom

Vertical wood with z-shaped brace
Decorative

Special Features

Hand-forged hardware

Knotty pine paneling
Chamfered newel post with turned railing spindles and vertical fir wainscoting

Brackets at boxed eave or cornice

Turned spindles and porch post
OUTLINE FOR NARRATIVE STATEMENTS ABOUT FEATURES

Opening Statement

Original use
Style
Date of erection
Architect if known
General condition and present use

Site

Township, range, section
Orientation on site
Surrounding landscape characteristics

Basic shape and dimensions

Basic structural details

Foundation
Walls and exterior covering
Roof
Windows

Original spatial organization and subsequent alterations

Original interior finish and subsequent alterations
ASSESSING THE SIGNIFICANCE OF HISTORICAL CULTURAL RESOURCES

The assessment or evaluation of significance of historical cultural resources is one of the difficult challenges facing those charged with the administration of federal laws and orders relating to those resources. An immediate evaluation is required when a Forest Service program, activity, or project will have any effect upon an identified cultural resource, or when a program, activity, or project licensed or permitted by the Forest Service will have any effect.

The federal mandates relating to cultural resources, both prehistoric and historic, are several: Antiquities Act of 1906, Historic Sites Act of 1935, Reservoir Salvage Act of 1960, Historic Preservation Act of 1966, National Environmental Policy Act of 1969, Executive Order 11593, Secretary of Agriculture's Memorandum No. 1760, and the Archaeological and Historical Preservation Act. These measures and the practices which they have instituted constitute the legal basis for the special identification, assessment, and administration of cultural resources on public lands.

The National Register of Historic Places, a federal inventory of cultural resources deemed significant to a local area, a state, or the nation, provides guidance on carrying out assessment of significance.

The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:

A. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

B. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

C. 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

D. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.
Ordinarily cemeteries, birthplaces, or graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that have been moved from their original locations, reconstructed historic buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years shall not be considered eligible for the National Register. However, such properties will qualify if they are integral parts of districts that do meet the criteria or if they fall within the following categories:

A. a religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or

B. a building or structure removed from its original location but which is significant primarily for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or

C. a birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no other appropriate site or building directly associated with his productive life; or

D. a cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or

E. a reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or

F. a property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own historical significance; or

G. a property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance
Many cultural resources on U. S. Forest Service lands are ready candidates for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places under these stated criteria. Hundreds of buildings and bridges were erected in Region Six by the C. C. C. and W. P. A. which readily exhibit "integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association." Among the specific resources falling within these considerations are the following:

--recreation areas with stone fireplaces, rustic landscaping, community kitchens, log tables, and rustic rest room facilities

--guard stations, such as those constructed with cedar bark exteriors

--ranger stations, such as those constructed of stone and rough wood, including offices, residences, gas houses, warehouses, pump houses, and landscapes

--lookout towers

--trail bridges constructed by cable suspension, of stone, logs, planks

--trail signs, carved by artistic craftsmen showing scenes of life from a former era

Crossing through many forest lands are the routes of former emigrant travel. The Barlow Road, that segment of the Oregon Trail traversing the southern slopes of Mount Hood, runs, for example, through more than forty miles of the Mt. Hood National Forest. This pioneer road, whose dusty and muddy ruts yet meander across the forest floor, is clearly "associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history."

On some forest lands stand bridges, industrial mining structures, and other resources associated with major figures in the economy and politics of an area. Both because of their engineering and industrial qualities as well as their association "with the lives of persons significant in our past" are such locations worthy of assessment of significance.

Timberline Lodge in the Mount Hood National Forest clearly embodies "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..." In similar ways the old buildings at a hot springs, the mastery of a stone mason, or the craftsmanship of local artist-builders of Skyliners Lodge in the Deschutes National Forest meet this criteria.
Some sites also meet the last of the general criteria: "that have yielded or may be likely to yield information important in prehistory or history." In the Oregon Dunes National Recreation Area, administered by the Siuslaw National Forest, is a lonely bend in the Umpqua River. On a pine-covered flat surrounded by the estuary and the nearby sand dunes is the site of the U. S. Army's Fort Umpqua. Built in 1856 to guard the Indian village, a post office, a fort, an office of the Oregon Superintendency of Indian Affairs, and the location of perhaps the first photography in coastal Oregon. Photographs of 1858 as well as line drawings of 1857 graphically illustrate the structures, activities, and residents of this location. In terms of prehistoric and historic archaeology this location readily meets National Register criteria. Being in a specially designated recreation and scientific study area it also has extensive potentials for interpretation.

The assessment of significance of cultural resources requires work. The technician carrying out the assessment must prepare a clear description of the property. He must become aware of the broader context of resources in the local area, the Region, and the nation. He needs to check on documentation. Documenting an historic resource may require a check of deed records, interviews with knowledgable nearly residents, or a survey of homestead relinquishment files. Above all the technician carrying out the assessment must be clear thinking and conscientious. Federal enactment requires him to be so.
OUTLINE FOR NARRATIVE STATEMENTS ABOUT SIGNIFICANCE

Opening Statement

Merit of property as an example of type, or uniqueness or rarity of property and its direct relationship to established National Register criteria

Persons and noteworthy events associated with property

Original and subsequent uses of the resource and dates of importance in the resource's history

Architect (if known) or builders

Training
Practice in relationship to other local or regional architectural designs
Notable examples of work
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