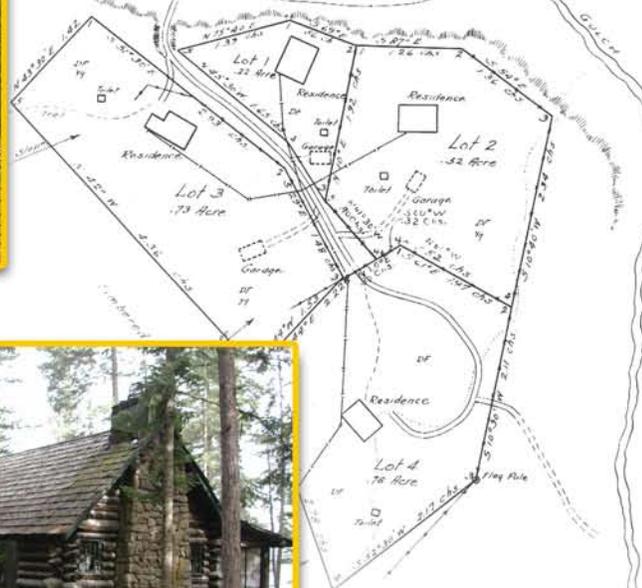


FINAL

RECREATION RESIDENCE HISTORIC CONTEXTS FOR EIGHT NATIONAL FORESTS IN USDA-REGION 1

Idaho Panhandle National Forest Montana



PREPARED BY:
HHM INC.
AUSTIN, TX

PREPARED FOR:
USDA FOREST SERVICE
NORTHERN REGION ONE
P.O. BOX 7669
MISSOULA, MT 59807-7669

JULY 2006

U.S.D.A. FOREST SERVICE CONTRACT
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SECTION I - PROJECT OVERVIEW

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 (Public Law 89-665; 16 U.S.C. 470-470w) mandates federal agencies to identify, document, and assess cultural resources under their stewardship. Specifically, Section 106 of the NHPA and its implementing regulation (36 CFR Part 800) requires federal agencies to assume responsibility for their cultural resources that meet the criteria for eligibility in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). The USDA Forest Service will renew permits for recreation residences in eight of the twelve forests within Region 1 between December 1, 2006, and December 1, 2008. The renewal of these permits constitutes a federal undertaking. Under the provisions of Section 106 of the NHPA, the agency must assess the effect of the undertaking on historic resources.

The following report provides a uniform, consistent, and Regional-level approach to understanding and evaluating the historical significance of recreation tracts and their individual residences across Region 1 forests. The report provides information essential to the first steps in the identification of historic resources, which is part of the Section 106 process. This information is in the form of a national and regional historic context for the recreation residences in the Region 1 forests, as well as a forest-specific context for Idaho Panhandle National Forest. The study also includes information that will help guide the NRHP evaluation of individual properties or tracts. A discussion of recreation residence tract and lot property types, how to apply significance, and assess the integrity of the resources follows the historic context. Finally, recommended actions and suggestions for additional research and documentation methods conclude the report.

Several important details and trends were identified during the historical investigation of recreation residences on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest. In particular, 12 recreation residence tracts were identified. Significant development on these tracts occurred in multiple periods, beginning in 1908 and continuing through the 1910s, 1920s, 1930s, and the postwar period (1946-1960). The earliest recreation residential development occurred in 1908 at the Fish Bay tract on Priest Lake. The types of recreation residences present within these tracts are consistent with property types found on other Region 1 national forests.

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

This study provides an historic context for Forest Service-designated recreation residence tracts located within the Idaho Panhandle National Forest in Montana. This report is part of a larger study designed to help guide the process of identifying and evaluating historic-age recreation residences within eight Region 1 national forests that may be eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). Figure 1 highlights the location of Idaho Panhandle National Forest within Montana and in relationship to the other Region 1 forest participants in this project.

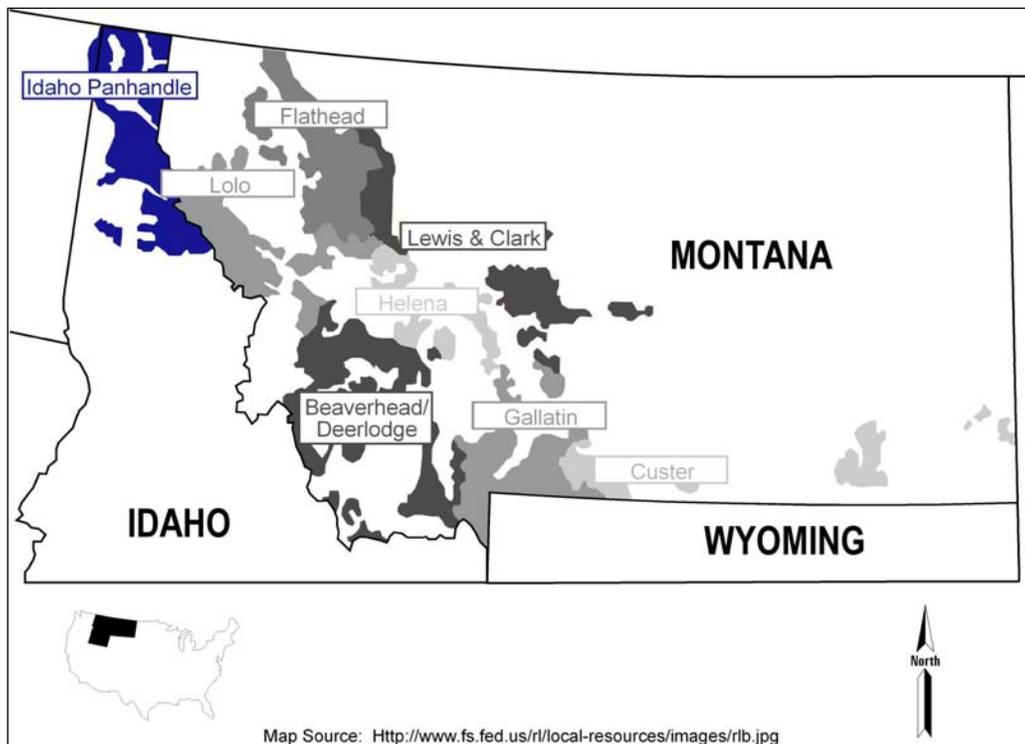


Figure 1. Project Location Map: Idaho Panhandle National Forest.

PROJECT BACKGROUND

Recreational residences consist of privately owned structures on Forest Service administered lands. The Forest Service periodically issues permits to the individual owners of recreation residences, who are assessed a yearly fee for the use of the lot on which their dwelling sits. Within Region 1 of the Forest Service, a typical recreation residence consists of a small dwelling, often constructed from locally available materials, frequently with a porch or deck, as well as a garage or other similarly sized outbuilding on the designated lot. Several recreation residences might be grouped together in tracts, or exist as isolated entities. This report focuses on those residences situated within Forest Service designated tracts, rather than isolated cabins. The majority of recreation residences within the Forest Service system date to within the last 100 years. Most recreation residences were originally laid out in tracts with individual permits within the tracts ranging from 1 to 385 residences per tract with the average number of recreation residences per tract being less than 100. Currently, recreation residences are managed within the Special Uses Division of the USDA-Forest Service with permit renewals occurring every 20 years. Most recreation residences on national forest lands are now over 50 years old and will need to be evaluated for eligibility for the NRHP as permit holders propose changes to their historic buildings.

Pursuant to 36 CFR 800.16 (y) the renewal of special use permits, such as those needed for recreation residences, requires consideration of the effect on historic properties. The Forest Service is required under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) to assess whether the granting of a renewed permit for the recreation residence will have an effect on historic properties. In addition, recreation residence permits require authorized approval by the Forest Service for improvements, and if unauthorized improvements have been made, their removal may be required as part of the permit renewal process. The Section 106 compliance process is summarized below.

NHPA SECTION 106 COMPLIANCE

Section 106 of the NHPA of 1966, as amended, is the most important piece of Federal legislation dealing with cultural resource issues. As implemented under 36 CFR Part 800, the law requires federal agencies to take into account the effects of their actions or undertakings on properties that qualify for the NRHP and to afford the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (ACHP) a reasonable opportunity to comment on such undertakings. The Section 106 process is designed to identify any NRHP-eligible resources that the undertaking will affect, determine how the undertaking will affect these properties, and establish what steps can be taken to offset or mitigate any effects the undertaking will have on resources that qualify for the NRHP.

The NHPA also provides opportunities for a federal agency to develop its own alternatives or counterpart regulations to the Section 106 process. The two most common alternate procedures are the Programmatic Agreement (PA) and Memorandum of Agreement (MOA). When the effects of an undertaking are not fully known, a PA is used because it establishes guidelines for compliance and deals with a wide range of issues and concerns. In contrast, an MOA resolves known and definable adverse effects and typically relates to a single action or undertaking. After concurrence from the ACHP, such counterpart regulations can provide maximum flexibility for a federal agency to tailor these measures to its specific needs and streamline the review and compliance procedures.

The ACHP has developed a summary of the Section 106 process, and the following paragraphs, extracted from the ACHP website (<http://www.achp.gov/>) and slightly modified, provide important information about NHPA compliance.

Initiate Section 106 Process

The responsible federal agency first determines whether it has an undertaking that is a type of activity that could affect historic properties. Historic properties are properties that are included in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) or that meet the criteria for the NRHP. If the undertaking will affect a historic property, the federal agency must identify the appropriate State Historic Preservation Officer/Tribal Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO/THPO) to consult with during the process. It should also plan to involve the public, and identify other potential consulting parties. If it determines that it has no undertaking, or that its undertaking is a type of activity that has no potential to affect historic properties, the agency has no further Section 106 obligations.

Identify Historic Properties

If the agency's undertaking could affect historic properties, the agency determines the scope of appropriate identification efforts and then proceeds to identify historic properties in the area of potential effects. The agency reviews background information, consults with the SHPO/THPO* and others, seeks information from knowledgeable parties, and conducts additional studies as necessary. Districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects listed in the NRHP are considered; unlisted properties are evaluated against the National Park Service's (NPS) published criteria, in consultation with the SHPO/THPO* and any Indian tribe that may attach religious or cultural importance to them.

If questions arise about the eligibility of a given property, the agency may seek a formal determination of eligibility from the NPS. Section 106 review gives equal consideration to properties that have already been included in the NRHP, as well as those that have not been included but meet NRHP Register criteria.

If the agency finds that no historic properties are present or affected, it provides the documentation to the SHPO/THPO and, barring any objection in 30 days, proceeds with its undertaking.

If the agency finds that historic properties are present, it proceeds to assess possible adverse effects.

Assess Adverse Effects

The agency, in consultation with the SHPO/THPO, makes an assessment of adverse effects on the identified historic properties based on criteria found in ACHP's regulations.

If they agree that there will be no adverse effect, the agency proceeds with the undertaking and any agreed-upon conditions.

If they find that there is an adverse effect, or if the parties cannot agree and ACHP determines within 15 days that there is an adverse effect, the agency begins consultation to seek ways to avoid, minimize, or mitigate the adverse effects.

Resolve Adverse Effects

To resolve adverse effects, the agency consults with the SHPO/THPO and others, who may include Indian tribes, local governments, permit or license applicants, and members of the public. ACHP may participate in consultation when there are substantial impacts to important historic properties, when a case presents important questions of policy or interpretation, when there is a potential for procedural problems, or when there are issues of concern to Indian tribes.

Consultation usually results in an MOA, which outlines agreed-upon measures that the agency will take to avoid, minimize, or mitigate the adverse effects. In some cases, the consulting parties may agree that such measures are not possible, but that the adverse effects must be accepted in the public interest.

Implementation

If an MOA is executed, the agency proceeds with its undertaking under the terms of the MOA.

Failure to Resolve Adverse Effects

If consultation proves unproductive, the agency or the SHPO/THPO, or ACHP itself, may terminate consultation. If a SHPO terminates consultation, the agency and ACHP may conclude an MOA without SHPO involvement. However, if a THPO terminates consultation and the undertaking is on or affecting historic properties on tribal lands, ACHP must provide its comments. The agency must submit appropriate documentation to ACHP and request ACHP's written comments. The agency head must take into account ACHP's written comments in deciding how to proceed.

Tribes and the Public

Public involvement is a key ingredient in successful Section 106 consultation, and the views of the public should be solicited and considered throughout the process. The regulations also place major emphasis on consultation with Indian tribes, in keeping with the 1992 amendments to NHPA. Consultation with an Indian tribe must respect tribal sovereignty and the government-to-government relationship between the federal government and Indian tribes. Even if an Indian tribe has not been certified by NPS to have a THPO who can act for the SHPO on its lands, it must be consulted about undertakings on or affecting its lands on the same basis and in addition to the SHPO.

Government-to-Government Consultation

Through various federal laws and policy, the United States government must consult with federally recognized American Indian Tribes, traditional religious leaders, and lineal descendants if an agency owns, maintains, and manages archaeological sites and/or cultural properties related to aboriginal cultures. These aforementioned mandates also require federal agencies to treat consulting Tribes as sovereign nations; therefore, negotiations between a federal agency and a Tribal nation are classified as government-to-government consultations.

Existing Agreements Regarding NHPA Compliance

Idaho Panhandle National Forest has not executed a PA or MOA regarding the management of its historic resources. The lack of any such agreement means that the forest must adhere to the provisions of 36 CFR Part 800 in order to comply with the NHPA.

PROJECT PURPOSE

In Region 1, 673 recreation residence permits are set to expire between December 1, 2006 and December 1, 2008. These recreation residences are located on eight national forests in Region 1, including the Beaverhead-Deerlodge, Custer, Flathead, Gallatin, Helena, Lewis and Clark, and Lolo National Forests in Montana, and the Idaho Panhandle National Forests in Idaho.

In order for the national forests to evaluate whether re-issuing recreation residence permits will have an effect on historic properties, forests need to analyze individual residences within an historic context of the overall and the specific recreation history of their particular forest. And since these forests remain part of an agency with a long history of land stewardship directed from both national and regional programs, a national and regional perspective of recreation residences will further help in the evaluation of properties within individual forests.

In addition, an understanding of historical recreation residence property types, architecture, and previous historical uses of recreation residence properties are also needed. Several Region 1 forests have evaluated recreation residence in certain districts or as individual buildings, but overall recreation residence and historic context statements are lacking for the eight forests included in this contract. This information is needed so that National Register eligibility for these recreation residences can be more accurately determined. Individual recreation residences on the eight Region 1 national forests included in this study will be evaluated as recreation residence permit holders propose changes to their historic buildings. The context statements produced as a result of this study, which is part of the identification phase in the Section 106 process, will facilitate the site-by-site or tract-by-tract recreation residence NRHP eligibility assessments. These context statements will also help the Forest Service decide what is “significant” in terms of recreation residence, as well as what might constitute an adverse effect to a recreation residence in terms of a permit holder’s proposed changes and modifications. The historical context does not evaluate individual forest buildings or tracts for National Register eligibility. Instead, it provides a tool for such an evaluation to be led by individual forest heritage program managers.

HHM has prepared an historic context that addresses historic recreation residences within the U.S. Forest Service units in Region 1 that were referenced above. The forests and the numbers of recreation residence that were a part of this study are found in Table 1 below.

USDA Forest Service Region 1 Forests in Study	# Recreational Residence
<i>Beaverhead-Deerlodge National Forest</i>	133
<i>Custer National Forest</i>	99
<i>Flathead National Forest</i>	58
<i>Gallatin National Forest</i>	196
<i>Helena National Forest</i>	10
<i>Idaho Panhandle National Forests</i>	138
<i>Lewis and Clark National Forest</i>	161

<i>Lolo National Forest</i>	33
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Table 1. Region 1 forests in study and numbers of recreation residence within each.

Although the original request for quotation outlined one combined report in which historic contexts for each forest were presented, HHM proposed that one report for each forest be prepared. Each report will have elements in common, especially since the Forest Service developed, directed and administered the recreation residence program from primarily a regional level. However, since each forest has its own history and unique circumstances for surrounding its recreation residences, certain sections of the report will be tailored to the specific forest.

FOREST-PROVIDED RESEARCH MATERIALS

At the study's initiation the cultural resources staff within each of the study's forests were instructed to send the following material to HHM during the week of July 1, 2005.

- Pertinent forest maps, including historical maps on file and forest maps
- A geographic description of each forest
- Copies of all existing and pertinent background historical data that the forest has on file (especially any context statements already prepared that relate to individual forest history, especially recreation history)
- Photos of recreation residences on file
- Site forms of recreation residences on file
- Recreation residence tract and permit information including tract site plans

The data from the majority of forests, however, did not arrive until late August. The last package of materials arrived during the last week of September 2005.

The materials received in HHM's offices from individual forests varied widely. Generally, permit or recreation residence files were sent (within which the materials also varied), however some forests did not send even these files, if indeed they exist at those locations. A few forests included materials on previous cultural resources studies that had been conducted at their vicinity. Recent photographs of recreation residences were generally included, although not always. Maps, both historic and modern, varied in their usefulness, indeed forest overview maps were included by only a few of the forests in the study. Although HHM followed up with contact persons at forests, we were not able to ascertain in some instances whether the missing materials even exist. The quality and availability of supporting materials on hand at individual forests will affect the ease and accuracy with which NRHP eligibility evaluation reports can be prepared in the future.

SUPPLEMENTAL RESEARCH

To augment the materials sent by the forests, HHM's project historian traveled to the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) regional facility in Seattle, Washington, to examine Region 1 archival materials that related to Forest recreation history, and, specifically, the recreation residence program history. In addition, reports sent by various Forest Service personnel, online resources, materials available through The University of Texas at Austin library system, and inter-library loans supplemented the primary materials obtained at NARA.

Once sufficient supporting material was collected and synthesized, HHM's project historian prepared the recreation residence historic context from three perspectives: national, regional, and forest-specific. Each report in this study will include the same national and regional context. This context weaves in an overview of recreation residence developments on a national scale, as well as links to broader social and economic history themes on public works programs during the Great Depression and afterward. Since some of the recreation residences were built to support a dam development project, and others derived from a railroad camp, a brief background on these projects is tied to the context for the applicable forest.

REPORT CONTENTS

Each report contains a forest-specific historic context with a specific recreation history for each administrative unit, along with an explanation of how that history relates to the broader historic patterns of that forest. This context identifies key historic themes and sub-themes within each forest. An explanation of the selection process for recreation residence sites and tracts is provided, when supporting material allows, and includes landscape features that may have influenced site decisions. Noteworthy cultural and natural landscape elements and famous historic persons associated with any recreation residence or tracts are also highlighted. Descriptive data on recreation tracts such as how many there are and how many recreation residence are found in each tract are provided as part of the context, along with maps that allow for visual orientation as to the relationship of tracts within a particular Forest. A succinct executive summary introduces each individual Forest recreation residence context.

Using the historic context and examining the maps, photographs, and descriptive information provided on recreation residences within each forest, HHM architectural historians next identified periods of significance for the recreation residence, summarized the architectural styles of recreation residence in general, and identified the styles present in each Forest, along with an assessment of what may be architecturally significant in each Forest. An explanation of the NRHP criteria as they might apply to recreation residence is provided, along with a discussion of assessing the integrity of recreation residence lots or tracts and the typical modifications that would possibly make a recreation residence or a grouping of recreation residences ineligible for listing on the NRHP. Typical (or unusual) data sources are identified, and a process for systematically acquiring the information is provided. Additional management processes for conducting condition assessments and cyclically monitoring individual recreation residence conclude this section of the study.

This historic context report provides the foundation for the considerable but rewarding effort facing Forest Service cultural resources staff and volunteers as they begin the survey and evaluation of individual recreation residences, tracts, and cultural landscapes for their eligibility for listing on the NRHP. It is the desire of the preparers of this context that this information will provide a basis for an efficient process that helps identify significant historic resources in the Region 1 forests while conserving the limited agency funding earmarked for such endeavors.

IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST

Idaho Panhandle National Forest has the third largest number of recreation residences of the eight forests in this study. The recreation residences are clustered within tracts. Table 2 identifies the tracts and the numbers of recreation residences within each.

Table 2. Recreation Residence Tracts within IdahoPanhandle National Forest.

Tract Name	#Rec. Residences
Fish Bay	4
Ledgewood Bay	9
Promontory	12
Luby Bay	18
Shoshone Bay	24
Neopit	24
Neopit View	14
Osprey	12
Outlet	4
Garfield Bay	11
Hayden Lake Rockaway Beach	2
Killarney Lake	2



Figure 2. Resource Location Map: Idaho Panhandle National Forest, Lewis and Clark Recreational Residence Historic Context



Figure 3. Resource Location Map: Idaho Panhandle National Forest, Lewis and Clark Recreational Residence Historic Context

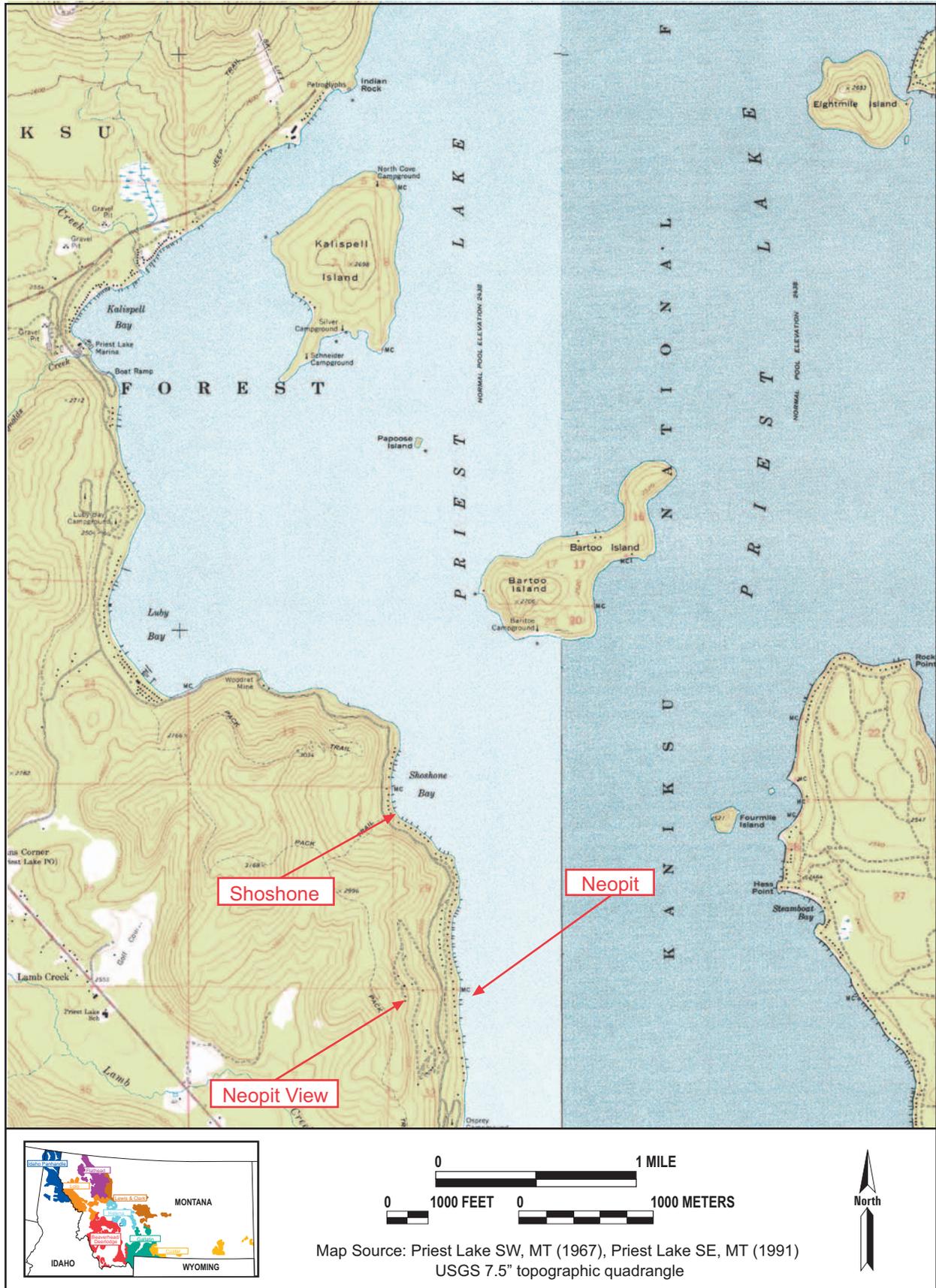


Figure 4. Resource Location Map: Idaho Panhandle National Forest, Lewis and Clark Recreational Residence Historic Context



Figure 5. Resource Location Map: Idaho Panhandle National Forest, Lewis and Clark Recreational Residence Historic Context

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the project was to prepare an historic context for recreation residences in Region 1 national forests, as well as to define the areas of significance, provide registration requirements, and suggest management guidelines. These materials were developed as a first step in an effort that the Region 1 forests will undertake to determine NRHP eligibility of their historic-age recreation residences.

PROJECT INITIATION

The project initiation was conducted through phone calls and email directives between Forest Service Project Coordinator Sara Scott and HHM History Program Director/Project Manager Anna Madrona and HHM Project Historian Justin Edgington. Fieldwork and on-site visits to individual forests were not included in the Scope of Work, therefore any meetings were conducted as conference calls. The Region 1 forests in the study were to send any applicable research materials to HHM during the first week of July. Understandably, during a busy field season, most forests found it challenging to meet that deadline. The Forest Service project coordinator sent two applicable reports and suggested additional references and contacts so that work could proceed in advance of the receipt of research materials from the forests. The majority of materials from the Region 1 forests arrived in August and the final package arrived in late September.

AVAILABLE MATERIALS

The materials from Idaho Panhandle National Forest arrived at HHM on July 11 and comprised one of the most thorough and usable of the materials from the forests in the study. Two boxes containing folders for each recreation residence arrived from Idaho Panhandle. The folders include a range of items, including the special permit applications for the site, photographs, location and tract maps, survey and inspection reports, as well as applications for alterations and improvements.

Other materials sent by Idaho Panhandle National Forest included, historical tract maps, cultural resource reports, and a database incorporating information for each recreation residence within the forest.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Starting in August, 2005, the HHM project historian obtained archival materials, including inspection reports, Forest Service biographies, and correspondence, were obtained from the Forest History Society at Durham, North Carolina. The project historian conducted archival research at the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) regional facility in Seattle during the week of October 24, 2005. An abundance of material relating to the Forest Service recreation residence program in Region 1 was located and copied as reference material. The records are comprised of correspondence from national and regional headquarters as well as individual forests from Region 1. Statistical reports detailing the number of summer homes, visitors, permit holders, etc., were also collected in Seattle. Records date from 1909 to 1965, with the majority dating from the 1930s and 40s.

While the materials collected during this visit were sufficient for the preparation of the context, the full extent of NARA's considerable holdings on Region 1 national forests could not be examined. These holdings may yield additional information to future researchers on similar topics.

In November 2005, the project historian collected additional materials including secondary references on the Forest Service, as well as Federal bills and legislation, at The University of Texas at Austin library. These materials were augmented by inter-library loans from other institutions.

At the conclusion of the research phase, on December 13, 2005, a conference call served as a status meeting between Sara Scott and Sandra French of the Forest Service and Anna Madrona and Justin Edgington of HHM.

ANALYSIS AND REPORT PREPARATION

Once the research phase ended, using the primary source materials obtained at NARA, as well as the secondary materials sent by the forests or obtained from the Forest History Society, the Project Historian prepared a general national and specific Region 1 historic context on recreation residences. This context is included in each of the reports for forests in this study. Next, the individual forest recreation residence context was prepared for Idaho Panhandle National Forest wherein periods of historical significance were identified. Applicable materials sent by the forest were incorporated into the report, and additional materials were reviewed for the context they provided. Since the recreation residence program was regionally directed for the most part, the periods of significance will remain fairly consistent throughout the region.

Concurrent with the individual forest context preparation HHM Project Architectural Historian Olivia Chacon prepared registration requirements and management guidelines, with the assistance and oversight of HHM Architectural Program Director Karen Hughes. Photographs and recreation residence files were examined to determine prevalent architectural styles and building forms, and USGS maps as well as site plans and historic maps were examined to gain insight into cultural landscape features and influences. This level of analysis was possible for Idaho Panhandle National Forest with the amount and types of information provided by the forest. However, some forests sent only minimal information and the analysis for those forests is much more general.

HHM Graphics Specialist Holly Prather prepared the recreation residence tract maps using USGS 7.5' quads as a base.

All HHM report content contributors collaborated on the Recommended Actions section. Suggested forms for the historic resources survey and condition assessments were adapted from those that HHM has successfully used in the past for collecting the information. These forms have been compared with the information required by the Idaho SHPO.

Individual contributors to this report all meet the Secretary of Interior's Professional Qualifications Standards (36 CFR Part 61) as historians or architectural historians. In addition to these minimum qualifications, all content contributors have at least four years of experience working as a professional historian or architectural historian.

All work was conducted in accordance with applicable Federal regulations and guidelines, including those National Register Bulletins and Brochures listed below:

- Defining Boundaries for National Register Properties
- Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Properties Associated with Significant Persons
- Guidelines for Evaluating and Nominating Properties That Have Achieved Significance Within the Last Fifty Years (rev. 1996)
- Guidelines for Local Surveys: A Basis for Preservation Planning (rev. 1985)
- How to Apply the National Register Criteria of Evaluation
- How to Complete the National Register Multiple Property Documentation Form
- How to Complete the National Register Registration Form
- How to Evaluate and Nominate Designed Historic Landscapes
- Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes

SECTION II - HISTORIC CONTEXTS

NATIONAL AND REGIONAL HISTORIC CONTEXT

HISTORIC BACKGROUND OF RECREATION RESIDENCES AT THE IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST

NATIONAL AND REGIONAL HISTORIC CONTEXT

INTRODUCTION

The following national historic context traces the evolution of the Forest Service's recreation residence program from the late nineteenth century to 1960. In particular, the context examines the inception of the permit program in 1915 and its subsequent management by the Forest Service during the 1920s, the New Deal, and the postwar period. In addition, the rising importance of the recreation movement in the early twentieth century and its influence upon recreation residences is detailed. The context provides a general outline of national policy to help explain the evolution of summer homes in Region 1.

NATIONAL TRENDS IN RECREATION RESIDENCE DEVELOPMENT

EMERGENCE OF OUTDOOR RECREATION AND CONSERVATION MOVEMENTS

In the decades leading up to the twentieth century, industrial development and urban growth transformed the American landscape. With increasing numbers of Americans living in urban centers, the benefits and virtues associated with the natural environment achieved a greater prominence. National publications highlighted the numerous outdoor sites and natural landscapes available to Americans and promoted tourism for those desiring to escape city life. Writers extolled the virtues of outdoor recreation and described how natural environments encouraged contemplation and relaxation. In addition to the increased focus on the outdoors, some American workers began earning more and working less hours, thus affording individuals the time and money for leisure activities. As a result, Americans embraced outdoor recreation activities in increasing numbers in the last decades of the nineteenth century.

Closely related to the popularity of outdoor recreation, the conservation movement of the late nineteenth century emerged in direct opposition to the rapid depletion of America's natural environment. Emerging from the Progressive reform period of the early twentieth century, the conservation movement sought to preserve America's forests, rivers, and mountains from unregulated use by industry. In addition to describing the beauty and importance of America's great outdoors, national publications pointed to the gradual destruction and decline of many natural areas due to industrial development. As a result, a gradual shift in public sentiment towards conserving the natural environment occurred and resulted in federal legislation, including the passage of the Forest Reserve Act in 1891. Thus, the emergence of the outdoor recreation and conservation movements helped to shape later developments in the Forest Service's recreation residence program and its overall approach to recreation.

EARLY RECREATION DEVELOPMENT IN THE NATIONAL FORESTS (1905-1919)

Gifford Pinchot, Recreation, and the Forest Service

The growing national outdoor recreation movement was especially prominent in the vast forests of the western states and the forests of the heavily populated northeast. Long before the establishment of forest reserves in 1891, people viewed the forests as prime areas for recreation, including fishing, hunting, and camping. From 1897, the year that trained forest rangers began managing forest reserves, to 1905, oversight of the nation's forests focused primarily on logging, water supply, and grazing with little attention given to recreational issues.¹ In 1905, Gifford Pinchot, the chief of the Bureau of Forestry, successfully lobbied President Roosevelt and members of Congress to transfer administration of the forest reserves from the General Land Office of the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture. Pinchot assumed the title of Chief Forester of the newly designated Forest Service and was instrumental in establishing forestry management principles that continue to shape the organization today.²

Pinchot's 1905 *The Use of the National Forest Reserves* outlined new Forest Service administrative policies, which emphasized active, professional management of forest resources with regulatory powers added to ensure forest preservation. Included in the 1905 regulations was language addressing special occupancy permits. In 1902, the Forest Service instituted policies addressing permits for hotels, stores, and mills to regulate the growing commercial tourist industries serving the general public in the forests. The 1905 regulations added summer residence permits to this list as several regions were experiencing increasing demand for residential sites in the forest reserves. Despite such provisions, Pinchot did not view recreation as a high priority. Instead, logging, grazing, and water supply uses defined the early administrative and financial goals of the Forest Service.³

By 1910, however, several factors altered Forest Service administrators' views concerning recreation priorities. Between 1901 and 1910, a dramatic increase in the Forest Service's landholdings occurred, with President Roosevelt and Pinchot responsible for adding new national forests, many near large population centers. As a result, tourists and city dwellers increasingly turned to nearby forests for recreation opportunities. Equally important, the popularity of the automobile and increased road building allowed thousands of new visitors each year to explore forested regions. Roads built by individual national forests for administrative and trail purposes were soon used by tourists and local citizens as recreational roadways for fishing, hunting, and camping activities. The national forest road building campaigns coincided with the rising popularity of the automobile and its alluring promise of escape from the noise and dirt of the cities. These factors encouraged national forest administrators to reassess the issue of recreational activities on public lands.⁴

Official Forest Service recognition of public recreational use of the forests first occurred in the 1912 *Report of the Forester* annual report. Chief Forester Henry S. Graves, (Pinchot left his position in 1910 due to a political dispute) pointed to recreation developments driven by the public's eagerness for both the automobile and the additional access it granted for outdoor recreation:

...With the construction of new roads and trails the forests are visited more and more for recreation purposes, and in consequence the demand is growing rapidly for sites on which summer camps, cottages, and hotels may be located. In some of the most accessible and desirable localities the land has been divided into suitable lots of from

1 to 5 acres to accommodate as many visitors as possible. The regulations of the department for handling this class of business seem to be entirely satisfactory. Permits are issued promptly and on conditions with which permittees willingly comply....⁵

The 1913 annual report also addressed recreation and in particular the need for proper sanitation in the new developments. Fire prevention and competition with logging and grazing uses also developed as potential problems as the population of visitors and summer residents increased each year. The need for established guidelines and recreation planning became increasingly clear to administrators at the Forest Service. In addition, the rigid use hierarchy established by Pinchot, in which logging, water supply, and grazing were of chief concern and other uses were incidental, came under question by those forestry officials who recognized the growing presence of recreation in the national forest system.⁶

Summer Home Construction and the Passage of the Term Occupancy Act, 1915

Of the 1.5 million recreational visitors to national forests in 1913, a large number congregated in forests near populous cities in California, Oregon, and Colorado. In particular, California national forests housed a majority of the summer home and hotel industry construction. Despite the Forest Service's implementation of a summer home permit system, problems with recreational facilities and visitors arose, such as inadequate trails, fire danger, and sub-standard short-term construction. Visitors and commercial interests complained that there was little incentive to erect permanent structures with only a yearly permit system in place. Thus, interest groups and the Forest Service lobbied Congress to pass a long-term permit act that would establish federal regulations for recreational use of the forests. On March 4, 1915, Congress enacted the Term Occupancy Act, which allowed for private development and use of national forest lands for up to 30 year terms. As a result, individuals and organizations could now build summer homes, hotels, and sanitariums without fear of imminent possession by the federal government. The act also stipulated that the land would remain under federal ownership and upon completion of the 30 year permits, the government would retain the right to cancel further renewals. Though summer home construction had occurred in the national forests for years before 1915, the Term Occupancy Act served to accelerate the pace of new developments as well as formalize the Forest Service's commitment to recreation.⁷

The Forest Service and the National Park Service Dispute

The Forest Service's gradual embrace of recreation as a major use of the national forests was due in large part to the increasing demands of the American public and their desire to enjoy the natural wonders of the country. Historian Harold K. Steen introduced another explanation when he asserted that the Forest Service turned to recreation because of an institutional fight with the National Park Service. Reorganized as a separate bureau in 1916 within the Department of the Interior, the National Park Service had been engaged in a struggle with the Forest Service since 1910 over jurisdiction of public lands. Pinchot and Graves argued that the Forest Service should logically oversee the national parks, rather than their oversight by a separate organization. Supporters of the National Park Service countered that the Forest Service was only interested in exploiting natural areas for logging, grazing, and water supply uses, rather than preserving them in their natural states. The creation of the National Park Service resulted in large tracts of land being removed from the Forest Service's domain, converted to national parks and managed by the Department of Interior. The creation of multiple national parks during this period and the

subsequent reduction of acreage under their control concerned many Forest Service leaders. They also viewed the creation and strict preservation of such large areas as wasteful.⁸

After initially fighting the creation of new national parks, the Forest Service realized that the majority of the American population favored the formation of national parks dedicated to recreation. As a result, Steen argued that the Forest Service turned to the development of recreation as a way to stem the transfer of land to the National Park Service. By constructing recreational facilities, trails, and roads, the Forest Service could demonstrate its own commitment to providing recreational opportunities for the population, and thereby counter the argument that resource development was its only goal. In a 1916 journal article, Assistant Forester E.A. Sherman referenced the recent efforts by the Forest Service to incorporate recreation into the institution's larger mission:

Great as is the economic importance of the National Forests as sources of timber supply, water supply, and forage production, it is not improbable that their value as playgrounds for the public will in time come to rank as one of the major resources. The Forest Service is giving due consideration to this fact. It has definitely aimed to foresee what the public needs in this respect will require, and to plan accordingly...⁹

Sherman and other Forest Service administrators recognized that to compete with the National Park Service for recreation visitors, a comprehensive plan was needed. In 1917, the Forest Service hired Frank Waugh, a professor of landscape architecture at Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, to perform a nationwide survey of recreation uses of the national forests. After surveying recreational resources in all seven districts of the Forest Service, Waugh published his findings which consisted of an inventory of current facilities and recommendations for future development. Waugh noted the presence of small groupings of summer residences throughout the national forests as well as roads and trails that facilitated recreational use.¹⁰

Waugh's recommendations, however, proved to be the most significant component of the report. Recreation, he argued, must become a major use of the national forests, alongside grazing, logging, and water supply. The potential for recreation in the national forests was so large, he continued, that the Forest Service and the National Park Service could continue developing recreational plans as separate institutions.¹¹

Waugh specifically addressed summer home development by emphasizing the need to carefully plan tract layout. Lots and summer homes, he argued, must be arranged according to environmental conditions and with minimal impact upon the natural beauty of the landscape. For example, good tract design might follow a natural element like a stream or lakeshore as well as consider slope and the type of topography. In the coming years, Waugh's outline for summer home development served as the chief reference for recreation residence tract design in the national forests.¹²

An additional component of Waugh's report included his recommendation that all future Forest Service recreation planning be managed by professional landscape architects or engineers. Professional landscape design would ensure that recreation development in the national forests met or exceeded the standards established by the National Park Service, and thus allow the Forest Service to develop recreation as a primary resource. Overall, Waugh recommended that forest supervisors anticipate and plan for future recreation needs. Waugh's professional recommendations and insight heavily influenced the Forest Service's subsequent decisions in

recreation planning. Following World War I, forestry officials increasingly regarded recreation as a priority.¹³

THE FOREST SERVICE AND RECREATION IMPROVEMENTS, 1919-1929

Arthur Carhart and Early Landscape Plans

Soon after the end of World War I, Assistant Forester E.A. Sherman turned his attention to hiring a permanent landscape engineer for the Forest Service. Sherman's focus on recreation planning was encouraged by foresters in the California and Rocky Mountain districts, which were experiencing heavy recreational usage. In March 1919, Sherman hired landscape architect Arthur Carhart, thus initiating the Forest Service's formal attempts at recreation planning in the national forests. Carhart's initial work occurred in the Rocky Mountain district, which included Colorado, Wyoming, South Dakota, and Minnesota. Believing that effective recreation plans had to be comprehensive rather than piecemeal, Carhart produced an overall plan for the San Isabel National Forest in Colorado. The plan included an extensive campground system, picnic grounds, roads, and trails.¹⁴

Aiding Carhart's recreation plan at the San Isabel National Forest was the newly created San Isabel Public Recreation Association, a private group dedicated to improving recreation facilities at the forest. The Forest Service at this time received no monies from Congress for recreation purposes, with special permit fees for summer homes, hotels, and resorts providing the only income related to recreation. New Assistant Forester, Leon F. Kneipp, attempted in 1920 to obtain funds for recreation development from Congress. No funds were given, however, until 1922, when Congress appropriated the small sum of \$10,000 for sanitation and fire prevention. As a result, Carhart and the Forest Service encouraged public/private relationships such as the one with the San Isabel Public Recreation Association, as it funded comprehensive recreation developments. Ultimately, however, the lack of public funding for recreation improvements greatly discouraged Carhart, whose vision required much more commitment from Congress. By the end of 1922, Carhart's frustration with the lack of federal funding convinced him to resign.¹⁵

Though brief, Carhart's tenure with the Forest Service was influential in shaping how recreation improvements were designed in the national forests. Following the advice of Frank Waugh's 1917 report, Carhart developed recreation sites that preserved the pristine beauty of individual forests by limiting the amount of summer home and hotel development and in some cases eliminating their presence altogether. Cars were also excluded in many of his plans. Historians have since classified Carhart and other Forest Service employees as early pioneers of the wilderness concept in the national forests, which limited unnecessary development in order to preserve a natural state of beauty for thousands of recreational visitors.¹⁶

William B. Greeley and the Forest Service's New Commitment to Recreation

By 1924, the Forest Service no longer hired trained landscape architects, and instead shifted recreation planning responsibilities to foresters at each national forest. Despite such a decision, the national office's commitment to recreation accelerated during the 1920s under the leadership of Chief Forester William B. Greeley and Assistant Chief Forester Leon F. Kneipp. Taking over as Chief Forester in 1920, Greeley, early in his tenure, announced that recreation was a major use of the national forests. Greeley instructed foresters in the U.S. Forest Service to conserve areas of the national forests that were suitable for recreation activities. Influenced in part by Carhart's advocacy of wilderness preservation as well as Greeley's views on recreation, Forest Service

administrators in the 1920s pursued a policy of setting aside large tracts of national forest land called “primitive areas” exclusively for recreational use. In addition to establishing primitive areas, Greeley was directly involved in the cancellation of three developments in the national forests during the 1920s. The three projects included a highway, a toll road, and a cable car, all of which Greeley argued would have diminished the pristine nature of the sites, as well as limiting future recreational use.¹⁷

In addition to setting aside large tracts of land for recreation, the Forest Service built campgrounds, roads, and recreational facilities in the 1920s. The first Congressional appropriation for Forest Service recreation occurred in 1925 and totaled \$37,631. The funds were specifically set aside for new campground construction at national forests across the country.¹⁸

Though the initiation of federal funding for forest recreation was encouraging, the amount remained inadequate throughout the 1920s. In addition, forest recreation visits were increasing each year. In 1924, the total number of recreational visits to the national forests totaled 4,660,389; by 1929, the number reached 7,132,058 visitors. The increasing visits to the national forests reflected a national recreational trend. In 1924, President Calvin Coolidge held a national conference on outdoor recreation to highlight emerging recreational opportunities and to better coordinate institutional efforts at satisfying the public’s growing demand. The conference revealed the federal government’s recognition of its growing role in public recreation.¹⁹

The Forest Service and Summer Homes in the 1920s

In addition to building public recreational facilities, the Forest Service continued to oversee its growing summer home special permits program. As indicated by a 1924 Forest Service brochure, the program included clear instructions for lot size, availability, permit prices, and the secondary status of permit holders compared to the general public:

The Forest Service wishes to accommodate as many people as practicable. For this reason tracts desirable for summer-home purposes, except in unusual instances, are limited to 1 acre or less in area, and term permits run for a period of from 5 to 15 years, with privilege of renewal. Undue crowding between permittees is avoided, and provision is made for those who especially seek isolation and privacy. The annual rental charge for lands occupied for summer homes varies from \$5 to \$25, depending on the location....

On a few of the smaller Forests no permits for private summer homes are granted because of the limited amount of Government land available and because there are private lands near by which may be leased or purchased....General use, through the reservation of open camp grounds, is always given first consideration.²⁰

The priority of “general” or public use over private use suggests that the Forest Service intended early on to focus its recreation efforts on public developments. Nevertheless, the number of summer home permit holders and guests visiting the national forests increased each year in the 1920s. In 1924, the number totaled 181,825 visitors; by 1929, that number increased to 376,780. Fees collected by the Forest Service for summer homes provided needed funds.²¹

The 1928 *National Forest Manual* issued by the Forest Service included summer home regulations, thus providing additional information regarding the management of recreation residences in the 1920s:

The use of national forests as places of residence should be especially encouraged if not in conflict with other more important uses or with good administration. A residence occupied under the restrictions imposed by a permit not only reduces the fire risk as compared to transient camping, but makes of the permittee a volunteer fire fighter whose interest in forest problems is increased by reason of close contact with them and financial investment in a forest....

In the discretion of the forest supervisor, intelligible plans and estimates of proposed buildings may be required of applicants. Plans will always be required in the case of term permits. Design, rather than cost, will determine the acceptability of the plan. All structures within summer residential areas upon national forest land must harmonize with their environment. In some areas simple log huts are both suitable and adequate; in others, only buildings of good design should be permitted. It would be unfair to a permittee who had erected an expensive and attractive residence to allow an unsightly shack to be placed upon an adjoining tract....

Where tracts of land have been classified as suitable for residence purposes under the recreation plan, they may be surveyed, mapped, and laid out as lots, blocks, and groups of lots and blocks, or both. Provisions should be made for roads, trails, water systems, proper sanitation, public camp grounds, and the location of stores, hotels, and other commercial enterprises (sic), so as not to detract from the residence value of other lots. This work should be executed by men qualified by training and experience to establish and adhere to good engineering standards. All plans should be submitted to the district forester for approval. Where there is need of a community water system, or other like utilities, forest officers should endeavor to have them constructed and managed by some individual as a business enterprise, or by the permittees themselves under the provisions of Regulation L-4. Where this fails the facts should be reported to the district forester.²²

Despite the official encouragement by the Forest Service of summer home construction, many Forest Service supervisors by the late 1920s expressed concern about the growing summer home program and how prime recreation tracts developed by permit holders were inaccessible to the public. Such a trend contradicted the Forest Service's mission of recreation for the greatest good for the greatest number. As a result, some national forest administrators began limiting the number of summer home tract developments in order to develop more general public recreational facilities.²³

Overall, the 1920s marked a period of remarkable growth in recreation activities nationwide. To accommodate such growth, the Forest Service committed manpower and limited funding to developing recreational facilities and sites during the period. The 1920s, however, paled in comparison to the dramatic growth and change brought on by the Great Depression and the changing political climate introduced by President Franklin D. Roosevelt.

FOREST SERVICE RECREATION PLANNING AND THE GREAT DEPRESSION, 1929-1941

The Forest Service's approach to recreation and its development in the national forests shifted significantly in the 1930s. President Roosevelt's New Deal provided the Forest Service with unprecedented funds and labor for recreation improvements. As a result, new policies and approaches to recreation problems emerged, in particular a more centralized management structure that endures to this day. In addition, the Forest Service during this period underwent a fundamental shift in its recreation philosophy. Public recreation developments as opposed to private (resorts, summer homes) became the priority for Forest Service administrators. Thus, the

1930s represented a critical period in the transformation of the Forest Service's recreation program.

The Forest Service and its Early Reaction to the Great Depression, 1929-1932

In 1928, Robert Stuart assumed the role of Chief Forester from William Greeley. Under Stuart's leadership, the recreation program continued to be supervised by Regional Foresters and run by forestry personnel trained in recreation engineering to develop sites and facilities. In some regions, foresters responsible for recreation had no recreation training. Overall, the Forest Service continued with its conservative approach to recreation, with limited public improvements and a reliance on private financing and summer home development.

The belief that foresters, rather than landscape architects, knew what was best for individual forests continued to hold sway at the agency. Nevertheless, Stuart and Assistant Chief Forester Kneipp recognized the growing recreation demands of the public and eventually realized the usefulness of foresters with specific technical training in recreation planning. In 1930-31, Kneipp proposed new funding for three technically trained personnel, one of which would be assigned at the central office in Washington, DC, with the remaining two assigned to regions across the country. Such an arrangement would aid communication and result in faster recreation development throughout the national forest system. The economic climate at this time prevented such a plan from being implemented, however, as Congress reacted to the Depression with significant spending cuts.²⁴

Despite funding setbacks, Stuart initiated a national study in 1932 to delineate the management challenges and the problems facing the agency. The Copeland Report, as it came to be known, was finished a year later, and argued that by approaching forestry endeavors as a "single national enterprise," the Forest Service could alleviate social problems associated with the Depression. The report served as a blueprint for future development and provided detailed plans for each category of forestry, including recreation.²⁵

Authored by forestry official Robert Marshall, the recreation chapter of the report proved a critical component of the Forest Service's recreation program in the 1930s. Marshall outlined seven distinct types of recreation at the national forests, which included primitive areas, research reserves, scenic roadside areas, campgrounds, summer homes, and other developed sites. These types of recreation in total should make up ten percent of all national forest land. Thus, Marshall argued that by identifying the types of recreation, and planning for their use and development, the Forest Service could ensure recreation's coexistence with logging, grazing, and water systems. Overall, the specific proposals contained within the Copeland Report supplied the Forest Service with a distinct course of action. More importantly, the report was published during a period of tremendous national political change.²⁶

The Forest Service and the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942

The election of Franklin Delano Roosevelt in 1932 resulted in a major shift in the direction of recreation policy at the Forest Service. While private development like resorts and summer homes dominated Forest Service recreation in the 1920s, Roosevelt's New Deal programs placed the emphasis upon public development. Fortunately for the Forest Service, President Roosevelt had long held a strong interest in forestry. Days after being sworn into office in March 1933, Roosevelt passed by executive order the framework for a conservation army that would perform

numerous public activities in forest, water, and soil conservation. By April, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was officially organized and sent to perform public works across the country.²⁷

The quick organization of CCC camps at national forests initially resulted in confusion, as forest supervisors were unsure of how to use the free labor. The specific plans developed by the authors of the Copeland Report greatly aided some activities of the CCC, such as fire fighting, thinning forests, planting trees, and soil erosion prevention. However, foresters at individual national forests began inquiring about using CCC labor to erect recreational facilities and campgrounds. Influencing these inquires were the significant advances in recreational design and planning made by state forests and the National Park Service through the use of CCC labor. In mid-1933, however, Kneipp and other Forest Service administrators responded to these requests by stating that CCC labor could only construct simple facilities rather than large planned recreational sites. As a result, the Forest Service in the early years of the CCC program erected only basic facilities. The hesitation to use CCC labor for recreational development most likely grew out of the Forest Service's lack of experience in developing public sites on a large scale. By 1934, however, forestry officials in Washington DC began to discuss plans for recreation that were larger and more ambitious than ever before.²⁸

Ferdinand A. Silcox and the Development of a Recreation Program at the Forest Service

Following the death of Chief Forester Stuart in October 1933, Ferdinand A. Silcox assumed control of the Forest Service and quickly turned his attention to the challenges and opportunities his agency faced. Regarding recreation, Silcox was soon faced with complaints by some in the Forest Service about the agency's slow progress in recreation development, especially compared to the National Park Service. Silcox gathered comments from nine of the regional foresters about their views of recreation development and how it should proceed. The results were varied. The California region, because of its heavy recreational usage, had already employed technical personnel, including landscape architects, for recreation development. Other regions reported having used foresters trained in recreation engineering who worked exclusively on campground development and other recreation facilities. Assistant Chief Forester Kneipp contributed to the comments by suggesting that the different regions required coordination through a national office, which would include two technical employees, with eight other personnel being shared among the regions. Silcox, however, disagreed with opening a national office, and instead ordered the regional foresters to hire technical personnel (including landscape architects), and develop permanent recreational improvements like swimming pools, shelters, and community buildings. Historian William Tweed attributes Silcox's decision to the longstanding Forest Service tradition of regional autonomy, as each region best understood its specific needs. As a result, national forests by 1934 began fully utilizing New Deal funding and CCC labor for recreation development.²⁹

The unprecedented scale of the New Deal program soon exposed problems with the regional approach to recreation planning in the national forests. By 1935, Silcox became convinced of the need for a central office in Washington DC that could coordinate recreation efforts across the country. In July 1935, he hired Ernest E. Walker, a landscape architect, to serve at headquarters. Silcox appointed Albert D. Taylor, also a landscape architect, to complete a national survey of recreation in the national forests. After touring several regions, Taylor made several key observations, some of which highlighted an overall variance between the regions in quality, professional staff, and overall approaches to recreation. Taylor recommended to Silcox that the

Forest Service hire trained landscape architects to work at each regional office and report directly to Ernest Walker and a newly created recreation division in Washington.³⁰

By late 1935, Silcox agreed with Taylor's recommendations and established a Division of Recreation and Lands in the national office. The creation of the division introduced centralized recreation decision-making to an institution accustomed to a decentralized structure. Consequently, the new department was slow to form; a new director was not hired until 1937. In 1936, Taylor was again commissioned to perform a national study of recreational development in the Forest Service. Taylor found significant improvements in design and planning in every region, however, he continued to be concerned about a lack of central control over recreation goals. In his tour of each region, Taylor noted the continuing regional approach to recreation including hiring, plans, and design, despite the creation of the central Division of Recreation and Lands in Washington. To avoid future divergence in recreational development, Taylor recommended to Silcox that the Forest Service strengthen the authority of the department.³¹

Robert Marshall and the Division of Recreation and Lands, 1937-1939

In 1937, Robert Marshall, a prominent forestry official who authored the recreation guidelines in the 1933 Copeland Report, became the first Chief of the Division of Recreation and Lands. Despite the department's slow start, Marshall quickly took control and helped institute many of the centralized control ideas espoused by Taylor and others at the Forest Service. Most importantly, Marshall established recreation as one of the primary goals of the agency during the New Deal, one that was equal to logging, grazing and other traditional uses.

To ensure effective coordination, Marshall visited regional foresters and introduced them to a more uniform, central approach to recreation planning. As a result, the goal of a central office guiding recreation design and policy became a reality under Marshall's leadership. During his first year as chief, the Division of Recreation and Lands oversaw the improvement of 2,966 acres and the construction of national forest campgrounds across the country. In addition, the department spearheaded an effort to hire additional landscape architects; by 1938, 75 personnel trained in landscape architecture worked for the Forest Service.³²

To ensure that recreation in the national forests did not damage or spoil primitive areas, Marshall drafted the "U Regulations," which classified wilderness, wild, recreation, experimental, and natural sites. The regulations protected primitive and wilderness sites by banning timber production, road construction, and summer homes. Marshall also led efforts to incorporate additional primitive and wilderness areas into the Forest Service. In 1939, however, Marshall succumbed to a heart attack. During his short term as division chief, he transformed the role of recreation development in the Forest Service and instituted a number of regulations that remain to this day.³³

Summer Home Construction and the New Deal

The dramatic growth of summer home construction and tract development in the 1920s slowed during the New Deal. The economic effects of the Depression coupled with the Forest Service's focus on public recreation hindered public interest in summer homes. Forestry officials also increasingly viewed summer homes as a low recreational priority, as they served only a small portion of the populace. The massive public works program undertaken by the CCC became the primary focus of forestry personnel. Instead of surveying and designing summer home tracts, forestry workers turned their attention to designing and building picnic sites, public campgrounds,

hiking trails, roads, and public lodges. Along with the new emphasis on public recreational development, officials recognized the limitations of summer homes, especially upon the expansion of public recreation facilities.

In 1938, Marshall forwarded a list of 32 new recreation policies affecting all regions of the Forest Service. The first general policy stated succinctly the Forest Service's overall recreation mission: "The recreational resource of the National Forests will be managed for the fullest use of the general public and not for the exclusive use of individuals or small groups." Policies 24 and 25 dealt specifically with summer homes and made clear the new public recreation direction of the Forest Service:

24. Permits for additional summer homes will be granted only where there appears to be no reasonable possibility of any need for the areas under consideration by recreational uses of a less exclusive nature. Where permits are granted, summer home lots will be kept sufficiently small so as not to tie up any appreciable area of National Forest land.

25. Where land at present covered by summer home permits is needed for campgrounds, picnic grounds or other higher priorities of recreational use, the permits will be terminated after due notice. The permittee will be given a reasonable period to amortize his investment, the length of which will vary with the amount invested and the number of years that the permit has been in effect.³⁴

Thus, unlike the 1920s when summer home construction was encouraged, the Forest Service in the 1930s viewed recreation residences with much more limited enthusiasm.

In addition, the fees collected by the Forest Service for summer home permits no longer matched the rising infrastructure costs related to the sites. As the number of summer home visitors increased, so did the need for road improvements, sanitation, and snow removal. As a result, the 1930s introduced a shift in the Forest Service's approach to summer homes, with public recreation moving to the forefront. In the coming decades, the agency's relationship with the summer home program would continue to evolve.³⁵

The End of the New Deal

By 1940-41, New Deal funds for the Forest Service were dramatically lower than at the program's peak in 1936-37. The massive public funding of the CCC declined in the late 1930s as a result of waning interest by Congress and the public. At its peak in 1936, the CCC program had incorporated 644 camps in the national forests; by 1941, that number dropped to 322. Nevertheless, the New Deal transformed forest recreation development by funding new facility construction across the country. The dramatic increase in facilities encouraged recreation visits by the population. At the beginning of the New Deal in 1933, 7,895,000 people visited the national forests. By 1941, the number of visitors increased to 18,004,000. Most importantly, however, the New Deal forced Forest Service officials to alter their overall philosophy of recreation in the national forests. Previous attitudes concerning recreation as a second tier endeavor and one that should be funded by private interests, gave way to a vision of recreation as a priority. The creation of a centralized structure for recreation planning during the New Deal transpired because of this change in attitude.

FOREST SERVICE RECREATION DURING WORLD WAR II AND THE POSTWAR PERIOD, 1942-1960

World War II and the Slowdown in Recreation Development

In 1941, the end of the New Deal resulted in the loss of a majority of the Forest Service's landscape architects. By December 1941, the United States' entry into World War II ceased all public recreation expenditures. Recreation personnel were either reassigned to other work or left the Forest Service to join the war effort. War demands forced the Forest Service to focus on core activities like forest fire prevention and logging. Additional wartime activities included an emergency rubber project, the logging of spruce trees in Alaska for aircraft production, and the manning of lookout stations for the detection of enemy aircraft. As a result, recreation development and summer home construction in the national forests came to a standstill during World War II.³⁶

The Growth of Recreation Development in the Postwar Period, 1945-1960

With the end of World War II, Forest Service officials turned their attention once again to recreation issues. Because of the tremendous strides made in the 1930s, the recreation planning program included many key elements, including visual management of roadways and water corridors, limitations on cars and boats in the national forests, and a detailed land classification system outlining types of recreation use. Recreation visits to the national forests during the war fell to 6 million. However, by 1946, visits increased to 18 million, as millions of Americans were eager to forget the hardships of the war. The Forest Service successfully lobbied Congress in the 1950s for increased recreation development funding to support the increased attendance by the general population. In 1957, the Forest Service began a five-year program funded by Congress called "Operation Outdoors." The program was a concerted effort to build new campgrounds and recreational facilities, as well as to improve and maintain facilities built in the 1930s.³⁷

While the Forest Service's postwar plans continued to emphasize public recreation development begun in the New Deal, the recreation residence program underwent more restrained growth in the postwar period. Because of the emphasis on public recreation, summer homes continued to rank low on the priority list for Forest Service recreation uses. In some regions, new summer homes were constructed only in areas unsuitable for public use and far from scenic attractions or public use campgrounds. Regional and national design guidelines for summer homes further limited new development, as compliance was often too expensive for those interested in new construction. In addition, the Forest Service in 1955 instituted a national policy stating that all new recreation residence tract design would be approved by the national office. As a result, new tract development gradually dropped off in the late 1950s.

In addition, special-use permit administration of summer homes diminished as a result of more important recreation priorities, such as campground development to meet the continually growing recreation needs of the public. As a result, summer home oversight in some cases suffered, resulting in unauthorized cabin modifications, poorly monitored ownership changes, site sprawl, vandalism, and other problems. These developments further shifted Forest Service policy away from new summer home development.

Thus, the early embrace of summer homes by the Forest Service in the early twentieth century diminished by the 1950s, as new priorities and directions limited new growth. Despite the decline of new recreational residence development, the Forest Service continued to negotiate with

summer home permit holders over fees and infrastructure improvements. By the late 1960s and 1970s, new summer home development was essentially ended by Forest Service policies.³⁸

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF RECREATION RESIDENCES IN THE NORTHERN REGION

INTRODUCTION

The following regional context explains how Region 1 approached the management of recreation residences, beginning with the inception of the district office in 1908, to 1960. In addition, a discussion concerning the early settlement of the region and its impact upon homestead development is provided. Because of its relative isolation, vast size, and rough landscape, Region 1 and the growth of summer homes in the national forests of Montana and northern Idaho represent a unique chapter in the overall history of the Forest Service recreation residence program. While a majority of the national summer home development occurred in California, Oregon, and Colorado, the national forests of Region 1 provided permit holders with numerous recreation opportunities, as well as pristine landscapes untouched by modern development. Though national trends and policies shaped the region's recreation approach, summer homes in the area primarily evolved according to a range of local factors, including geography, transportation, and the leadership of regional and local individuals. The context addresses these factors within each period of significant development during the twentieth century.

EARLY RECREATION AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NORTHERN DISTRICT

Nineteenth Century Recreation Trends in Montana and Idaho

Prior to the establishment of forest reserves in the western states in 1891 and 1897, the area incorporating Montana and northern Idaho was characterized by vast tracts of undeveloped forests. Settlements in the area were small and organized around mining, trapping, and timber interests. Transportation through the area included primitive trails used by miners for hauling supplies and materials. Because of limited trails and the harsh environment, the forests were relatively unknown to outsiders and thus remained mostly unexplored during the period. Recreation activities were limited to hunting and fishing and were most likely undertaken for subsistence rather than enjoyment. As towns grew in population in the late 1890s, additional forest trails were developed and recreation emerged as an activity in the region. Nevertheless, the vastness of the region and limited transportation options continued to restrict the growth of recreation.³⁹

Federal Management of Western Forests and the Establishment of the Northern District

In 1891, the federal government, in reaction to progressive sentiments in the general population, passed the Forest Reserve Act, which established forest reserves from large tracts of land in the western states. Though unpopular to many in the west, the creation of the reserves ushered in a new era of federal land management. In 1897, President Grover Cleveland added an additional 13 forest reserves, four of which included the first reserves in today's Region 1: Lewis and Clark, Bitterroot, Flathead, and the Priest River Forest Reserves. Over the next eight years, the new federal reserves were managed under the General Land Office and suffered from poor management and poorly trained administrators. As a result, General Land Office critics such as Gifford Pinchot were able to persuade Congress and President Theodore Roosevelt in 1905 to transfer administration of the forest reserves to the Department of Agriculture under the newly created U.S. Forest Service.⁴⁰

After a short period of hiring and training forestry personnel, Chief Forester Pinchot reorganized the Forest Service in 1908 into a decentralized structure made up of six districts or regions.

Northern Idaho and Montana were placed under the jurisdiction of District 1 (changed to Region 1 in 1930) with Missoula, Montana as the district headquarters. Pinchot broke the Forest Service into districts in order to encourage better local management as well as to streamline supervision of the national forests. At its inception, District 1 included 25 national forests. W.B. Greeley served as the first District Forester; Greeley would later serve as the Chief Forester of the Forest Service.

RECREATION DEVELOPMENT IN DISTRICT 1, 1908-1918

Homesteading and Recreation Trends in District 1

The early years of the establishment of District 1 were shaped by the undeveloped and vast nature of the region. Because of the numerous mining and livestock interests in the area, forest rangers dealt primarily with miners and ranchers. In addition, homesteading emerged as a pressing concern for the new district office, as settlers took advantage of the Forest Homestead Act of 1906, which permitted individuals to claim land for agricultural purposes.

As homesteading interest increased, so too did the development of new trails into the national forests of the region. By the turn of the century, towns in Montana and northern Idaho continued to grow, with some citizens venturing into the forests for recreational purposes. Hunting and fishing continued to be the most popular recreation activities in the region. Taking advantage of such interest were mining establishments and cattle ranches who entertained outside visitors to the forests with these activities. These small-scale enterprises later developed into dude ranches and resort industries. By 1915, the automobile had introduced a new form of transportation for city dwellers eager to see the wild beauty of the national forests. Nevertheless, the lack of quality roads at this time limited automobiles to a few select locations in the forests.⁴¹

Early Growth of Summer Homes in District 1

Just as California, Colorado, and Oregon experienced widespread summer home interest in the national forests during the early years of the twentieth century, District 1 saw a steady stream of individuals erecting summer homes in Montana and northern Idaho. Unlike the primitive cabins and shelters constructed by miners and trappers in the nineteenth century, the summer homes of the early twentieth century were built by fishermen and hunters who desired a place to live during the summer months. Additional buildings included those erected by hunting clubs or youth groups. To facilitate the growing interest in summer homes, the district office granted special permits which allowed individuals to erect residences on national forest land for a set period of time. Table 3 illustrates the steady growth of summer home permits issued from 1909 (the first year records were kept) to 1918.

Table 3. District 1, Special Use Residence Permits, 1909-1918	
Year	Number of Permits
1909	66
1910	139
1911	202
1912	220
1913	220
1914	206
1915	218
1916	266
1917	336
1918	325

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

The number of District 1 permit holders was low compared to the national forests in California and Oregon because of poor or nonexistent roads in Montana and northern Idaho, as well as the area's lack of large population centers. As a result, summer home construction in District 1 during this period primarily occurred in areas with developed roads and close proximity to cities. Of the sites chosen, local residents claimed pristine sites located near lakes, mountains and streams.

An excellent example of this trend occurred at Priest Lake in northern Idaho around 1910. Located near the growing city of Spokane, Washington, Priest Lake emerged as a very popular site for summer home construction because of its large size and ample recreation opportunities. The high level of interest prompted the forest supervisor at Kaniksu National Forest in 1910 to initiate a survey of the Priest Lake shoreline for summer home lot construction. Materials collected from the Region 1 historical archives include a memorandum from the forest supervisor detailing the appropriate size of lots at the lake, as well as instructions to consider the future recreational demand of the area. The detailed surveying instructions suggest that from an early date, forest administrators demonstrated an interest in overseeing the growth and spread of summer homes in the national forests.⁴²

Nationwide, summer home construction in the early twentieth century emerged as a popular trend, especially in California, Oregon, and Colorado. The popularity of summer homes and the influence of interested parties finally convinced Congress in 1915 to pass the Term Occupancy

Act. The new law allowed individuals with special permits for summer homes to live on the sites for 30 years before having to renew. Because special permits issued prior to 1915 required renewal after a year, the new 30 year permits reassured individuals concerned about losing their residences to the Forest Service. Subsequently, the 1915 legislation significantly increased additional applications for permits in District 1, as seen in Table 1. Between 1915 and 1916, permit applications rose by 18 percent; from 1916 to 1917, they rose 21 percent.

To accommodate the growth of special permits after 1915, forest supervisors at District 1 national forests surveyed and developed new areas for recreation residences. An example of the efforts made by forest administrators occurred at Beartooth National Forest (now part of Custer National Forest) in 1915, months after the passage of the Term Occupancy Act. Correspondence from the District 1 office to the Beartooth National Forest Supervisor highlighted the “very considerable demand for term occupancy sites around Sioux Charlie Lake,” a situation similar to the demand seen at Priest Lake in 1910. Written by Assistant District Forester F.A. Fenn of the District office, the letter detailed the proper methods of surveying the lake and included detailed instructions on how to site recreation residences:

In laying off the lots, it is necessary that all lot corners be definitely established and marked by suitable stones well set. The dimensions of each lot should be determined and the lots numbered serially. Then the site may be given a name, as Sioux-Charlie Summer Site, for instance. A plat drawn to a scale of approximately one inch equals two chains should be prepared with each lot and public camping ground properly shown thereon.

Thereafter permits may be issued for certain described lots ‘according to the plat of the Sioux-Charlie Summer Site now on file in the office of the Supervisor of the Beartooth National Forest.’ Surveys may be made with ordinary compass and chain the same as in settlement cases and field notes, of course, should be kept in the same manner as in other metes and bounds surveys.⁴³

In addition to providing instructions for tract development, Fenn advised the forest supervisor to account for future public use of the area:

That there may be no discrimination against people who do not desire to secure permanent summer homes but who do want to spend a while at times at the lake, it is essential to leave one or more tracts of goodly size for public camping places.⁴⁴

The statement demonstrates the Forest Service’s burgeoning awareness of recreation planning and its early attempts to accommodate public recreation use. Fenn’s letter also hints at the issue of public versus private development, a matter that would increase in importance in the coming years.

The Sioux-Charlie Lake correspondence detailing summer house development, arose from a 1915 directive given by Chief Forester Graves at the national office. Graves instructed forest supervisors to survey recreation residence tracts in areas where demand was high. As a result, forest supervisors and forest rangers in District 1 became responsible for developing summer home tracts, with the district office providing coordination and oversight functions. In the years ahead, the roles of the district office and the national forests regarding recreation development underwent numerous changes.⁴⁵

Another important development during this period was Frank Waugh's recreation survey of the Forest Service. A landscape architect, Waugh's survey highlighted the many poor decisions made by Forest Service personnel in surveying and laying out summer home tracts. His recommendations emphasized proper recreation planning and incorporating professional landscape design theories into future developments. Waugh's report directly shaped the Forest Service's basic criteria for future summer home tract layout. As with other districts across the country, District 1 incorporated Waugh's recommendations.

Overall, however, the Forest Service in the early years after its creation did not view recreation planning as a priority on the same level as logging and grazing. As a result, most recreation development in the national forests was funded by private and individual interests, such as resorts, recreation clubs, and summer home permit holders. Between 1908 and 1918, summer home development in District 1 was characterized by steady growth driven by local residents interested in recreation opportunities in the national forests, as well as the passage of the 1915 Term Occupancy Act. The lack of adequate roads in the region and limited recreation planning by the Forest Service, however, checked further growth during this period.

DISTRICT 1 AND THE GROWTH OF RECREATION PLANNING, 1919-1932

Recreation Trends in District 1, 1919-1932

Following World War I, the U.S. Forest Service increasingly turned its attention to the issue of recreation planning. Given the heavy visitation of national forests in California, Oregon, and Colorado, Forest Service administrators recognized the need to plan for future developments. Driving the increase in visitation in these states was the close proximity to large centers of population eager to visit the national forests for relaxation and recreation activities. On a smaller scale, the Montana and northern Idaho region also experienced an increase in recreation visitors. Table 4 details the number of recreation visitors in the District 1 national forests.

Table 4. Approximate Recreation Use on National Forests in District 1, 1921-1926						
	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
Recreation Visitors*	296,000	426,000	599,500	668,746	728,654	665,041

* Recreation visitors included summer residence permittees, campers, hunters/fishermen, automobile passengers, pedestrians, and other travelers.

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

A critical factor spurring the growth of recreation in District 1 was road improvements. In 1910, a severe forest fire season decimated thousands of acres of forestland in the region, forcing district officials to improve the agency's ability to prevent and fight forest fires. A key to fighting fires was the creation of adequate roads throughout the national forests so that trouble spots could be reached more quickly and with better coordination. With Congressional funding, the Forest Service was able to construct a network of new roads throughout the national forests of District 1. In 1925, 2,700 miles of roads and highways had been built in the region; that number increased to 4,207 miles in 1930. The rising popularity of the automobile combined with the creation of these

new roads resulted in a steady increase of recreation visitors to the national forests of Montana and northern Idaho.⁴⁶

Marketing efforts by the District 1 office also brought visitors to the national forests. For much of the early twentieth century, private businesses catered to local and out-of-state visitors by running dude ranch and summer resort businesses. Recognizing the numerous recreation opportunities their forests offered, the District 1 Office of Engineering in 1920 prepared “Recreation Realm” maps, which highlighted the recreation possibilities of different regions within Montana and northern Idaho. The marketing maps were displayed in local hotels and businesses across the region. Such efforts suggest that forest administrators were increasingly viewing recreation as an important resource.⁴⁷

On a national level, in the 1920s, the Forest Service officially recognized the growing importance of recreation as a part of its mission. Shortly after assuming the role of Chief Forester in 1920, William B. Greeley expressed his belief to all district foresters that recreation was a major use of the national forests. Fred Morrell, the head of District 1, echoed these sentiments in a January 1921 letter to District 1 Forest Supervisors:

Recreation should be considered as a major use of the National Forests. It should be stimulated as a resource just as we stimulate the use of any other resource. Care should be taken that areas most ‘available’ should be used to satisfy present demands. We should not, for example, advertise broadcast the Forests in the Western part of this District, if to do so will result in an increased load on the local organizations which now have more than they manage in the fire problem, so long as there is plenty of available country in the Forests where the fire hazard is not considerable and the organizations are better able to look after the work. Sufficient attention should be given the activity to see that there is not ‘over-organization,’ meaning a concentration beyond the point where recreationists may get the maximum benefits; that no harm results to the area from over-crowding, such as tramping out ground cover, destruction of young growth and flowers; that areas be kept in sanitary condition (this means frequent, perhaps weekly, inspections of heavily used areas); that there be proper ‘distribution,’ that is, that new areas be opened up and the use distributed so as to get the maximum beneficial results.⁴⁸

Morrell’s letter provides an important window into the early development of recreation management in District 1. His concerns about forest fires, sanitation, and the general environment suggest that the district office was well aware of recreation’s potential effects from a very early stage.

Such sentiments, however, required substantial planning in order to coordinate recreation efforts with the myriad other uses forests were required to consider. Understandably, forestry officials affiliated with logging, grazing and other uses were wary of the Forest Service’s embrace of recreation, as the different uses were often in direct opposition. As a result, District 1, like other districts across the country, began to emphasize recreation planning in the early 1920s as a way to prevent problems between, for example, logging and recreation uses.

As outlined in Frank Waugh’s 1917 recreation survey, recreation planning required individuals professionally trained in recreation and landscape architecture. After the national office hired landscape architect Arthur Carhart in 1919 to provide comprehensive recreation plans for individual forests, an effort was made in the early 1920s to hire professionally-trained experts and

locate them throughout the national forest system. However, the lack of Congressional funding and the resignation of Arthur Carhart in 1922 ended the Forest Service's interest in hiring landscape architects for the next ten years. Instead, the national office instructed each district to assign recreation planning duties to foresters with some training in recreation issues.

With each district more or less responsible for managing recreation issues on its national forests, District 1, in 1924, issued several circulars and a guide instructing forestry personnel how to make recreation land use plans within their individual forests. Land use plans allowed forestry officials to set aside specific tracts of land for different uses and plan for development at those sites accordingly. Before any development could occur, however, the District 1 office had to approve the land use plan. Because of the Forest Service's recognition of recreation as a use, new land use plans incorporating recreation were created. The first recreation land use plan in District 1 was developed in 1921 by forestry officials at Gallatin National Forest before the 1924 circulars were issued. A 1920s document titled "Recreation Section of Lands Handbook," outlined the key components of recreation plans and emphasized their necessity:

There is an urgent need for an approved policy and general plan for development of recreational use that we may be prepared to serve the public promptly and effectively. In all forests it is desirable to have a clear-cut policy statement in regard to recreation. These statements may be rather brief for Forests where there is little recreational business at present, or where little may be expected in the immediate future; plans for other Forests may be quite full.⁴⁹

The document also included general policies integral to recreation plans:

- (1) There should be effective guidance of recreation use through careful planning and proper correlation with other Forest activities, and of one form of recreation with another, so that each will be given its proper place.
- (2) Adequate fire protection and sanitation must receive primary consideration in the plan for any unit.
- (3) Every effort of private interests to encroach upon public land under the guise of mineral claims for the purpose of securing control of valuable sites for recreational areas will be contested by every practical means.
- (4) Adequate provision must be made for Forest Management activities so that recreational use will not interfere with harvesting the timber. Timber will be cut according to the Forest Management plan for the Forest where the highest use of the land is timber production. Necessary trees should be reserved around campgrounds and other uses for shade.
- (5) Well-regulated grazing ordinarily does not interfere with recreation and should be permitted except on areas where recreational or other use is the highest use applicable to the land.⁵⁰

These general policies demonstrate the progress that District 1 and other districts had made during the 1920s in recreation planning. Despite the implementation of recreation plans, Forest Service administrators who believed in the importance of recreation were challenged internally and externally by critics who favored logging and grazing over recreation. In addition, Congress in the 1920s showed little interest in financially supporting any Forest Service recreation

improvements. As a result, District 1 national forests relied on special permits and the high level of interest in summer homes as the primary source of recreation development during the 1920s.⁵¹

Summer Home Expansion in District 1, 1919-1932

Because of the dearth of federal funding for public recreation improvements in the national forests, the Forest Service in the 1920s turned instead to private developments like summer homes, resorts, and other special permit uses to accommodate increasing numbers of visitors. Permits issued for summer homes especially underwent rapid growth during this period as seen in Table 5. The most important factor fueling this growth was the construction of new roads into the national forests of Montana and northern Idaho. Overall, the period from 1919 to 1932 represented the most active period of recreation residence development in District 1.

Year	Number of Permits
1919	355
1920	354
1921	421
1922	450
1923	492
1924	515
1925	567
1926	620
1927	665
1928	700
1929	725
1930	789
1931	808
1932	827

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

Summer home development in the 1920s was concentrated in certain national forests within the district. Areas that were popular with recreation visitors and locals tended to attract the greatest interest in development. District 1 records from 1923 to 1925 (see Table 6) provide a sense of where summer homes were being constructed. The information also suggests that these national forests had developed recreation land use plans as a result of high recreation demand.

Table 6. Number of Summer Homes on District 1 National Forests, 1923-1925. (* - No. of Summer Homes Not Recorded)		
1923	1924	1925
Kaniksu--64	Kaniksu—73	Kaniksu—89
Gallatin—62	Deerlodge—64	Deerlodge—78
Missoula—52	Helena—55	Helena—60
Helena—35	Gallatin—50	Gallatin—58
Madison—28	Madison—48	Jefferson—49
Pend Oreille—23	Jefferson—36	Missoula—47
Jefferson—17	Pend Oreille—25	Madison—38
Bitterroot—16	Coeur d'Alene—22	Beartooth—26
Beaverhead—14	Beaverhead—16	Pend Oreille—25
Absaroka—11	Bitterroot—16	Coeur d'Alene—22
Coeur d'Alene—10	Missoula—12	Beaverhead—18
Beartooth—8	Beartooth—10	Lewis and Clark—12
Lewis and Clark—6	Lewis and Clark—7	Flathead—10
Flathead—6	Absaroka—7	Absaroka—9
Kootenai—3	Flathead—6	Kootenai—4
Lolo—2	Kootenai—4	Lolo—1
Deerlodge—1	Lolo—2	Selway—1
Cabinet—0	Cabinet—1	Cabinet—1
Nezperce—0	Selway—1	Nezperce—0
Blackfeet—0	Blackfeet—*	Clearwater—0
St. Joe—0	St. Joe—*	St. Joe—*
Custer—0	Custer—*	Custer—*
Clearwater—0	Clearwater—*	Blackfeet—*
Selway—0	Nezperce—*	Bitterroot—*

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

The sudden increase in summer home applications caused some national forests to reevaluate their approach to special use permits in order to manage and control growth. In April 1923, a year before the District 1 office issued circulars and a guide explaining recreation use policies, the Forest Supervisor, W.J. Derrick, at Madison National Forest wrote a memorandum to all forest officers under his control complaining of the lack of definite policies regarding special use permits. The memorandum established detailed policies related to all commercial and non-commercial special use permits. In discussing new policies for permit applications, Derrick stated that construction and improvement requests must be approved by the forest supervisor. He went on to comment on the lack of oversight of construction standards for summer homes:

Heretofore, especially in the case of summer homes or residences, both for commercial and non-commercial purposes not enough attention has been paid to the class of structures which permittees have been allowed to build, resulting in a number of special use sites on the Forest on which the improvements constructed present a shabby appearance, detracting from the appearance of that particular area, and all the neighboring areas. It is our desire to discontinue the practice of allowing the construction of unsightly buildings and to do away with those already constructed as rapidly as possible.⁵²

Derrick's comments about aesthetics were an early example of the Forest Service's growing interest in both controlling and shaping summer homes in the national forests. Concerns about the intrusion of private summer homes upon public recreation areas as well as complaints about the unregulated nature of design were common during this period. These issues would later shape official Forest Service policy towards summer homes.

Region 1 Recreation and the Great Depression, 1929-1932

By the late 1920s, the Forest Service expressed increasing interest in hiring landscape architects to aid national forests by developing recreation plans. However, federal funding collapsed due to the onset of the Great Depression in 1929, and as a result, national forests continued to rely on foresters trained in recreation to manage planning efforts. Region 1 (all Forest Service Districts were renamed Regions in 1930) in particular relied on recreation-trained foresters rather than landscape professionals. Despite the devastating economic effects of the Depression, recreation use increased during this period. The inexpensive costs associated with leisure activities in the national forests made them a popular choice for visitors with little money. Summer home construction, as well, continued to increase during the Depression.

Throughout much of the 1920s, Region 1 foresters trained in recreation completed a number of recreation land use plans. Thus, by the end of the decade, Region 1 had made significant progress in promoting recreation as a major use of the national forests. Unfortunately, the lack of federal funding for public recreation, as well as the downturn in the nation's economy resulted in little actual development during the period. The election of Franklin Delano Roosevelt in 1932 quickly changed the fortunes of the Forest Service.

REGION 1 RECREATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS DURING THE NEW DEAL, 1933-1942

Assuming control of Region 1 in 1929, Evan W. Kelley oversaw the agency during the first years of lean Congressional appropriations related to the Great Depression. However, Kelley's tenure, which lasted until 1944, was best known for his leadership during the New Deal (1933-1942), a period defined by dynamic changes and new developments in recreation and summer home policies. Instead of facing little money for basic forestry management, Kelley, beginning in 1933,

suddenly had to incorporate the largest federal appropriations ever given to the agency up to that date. In the ensuing years, Region 1 foresters trained in recreation surveyed and developed numerous recreation residence tracts, established region-wide construction standards for recreation improvements, developed land-use and recreation plans, and greatly enhanced recreation opportunities at each of the region's national forests. Most importantly, the New Deal period shifted the Forest Service's previous recreation mission of developing opportunities for private use, like summer homes, to one that incorporated the needs of the public, such as campground and scenic area development.

Region 1 and the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942

Shortly after taking office in 1933, President Roosevelt made the creation of a conservation army one of his first priorities. Comprised of unemployed young men from across the country, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) formed into camps by April 1933 and spread across the country. While CCC camps operated within numerous agencies, the Forest Service emerged as the one of the primary beneficiaries of the public works program. The first CCC units arrived at the Region 1 headquarters at Missoula, Montana in May 1933. The units were shortly thereafter assigned to individual national forests within the region, with Beaverhead and Clearwater National Forests accepting the first camps. By the end of the 1933 summer season, the regional office had assigned 55 CCC camps throughout 17 national forests. Initially, camps at the end of the summer were reassigned to warmer regions; however, the regional office shortly thereafter began organizing winter camps to take advantage of the program.⁵³

During the first years of the program, forestry officials exclusively used CCC labor to address traditional forestry issues, such as blister rust control, tree planting, and firefighting activities. As the breadth and scope of Roosevelt's vision for the program became evident, foresters at the regional office assigned camp crews to additional tasks, including road building, the construction of bridges, telephone lines, buildings, airplane landing fields, as well as landscape and recreation activities. In 1935, the CCC presence at Region 1 reached its peak with 164 camps located at multiple national forests.⁵⁴

In the following years, funding for the program gradually diminished as Congressional support for Roosevelt's large-scale programs faded. The onset of World War II signified the end of the CCC with the last Region 1 camp closing in 1942. Regional Forester Evan W. Kelley summarized the work of the CCC at Region 1 in a letter to the Chief Forester in Washington DC in June 1942:

Since 1933 the CCC organization has brought to the Northern Region of the Forest Service many features of sound administrative policy and improved construction achievement required for essential development and maintenance of our forest resources not otherwise obtainable. This applies equally to national forest as well as State and private forest lands. It has done much to promote economic stability in our highly important resources of grass and trees....

The nine years' activity of the CCC in the Northern Region leaves improvements of permanent value to our forest resource. Practicing foresters fully realize the significance and importance of the CCC. Developments made in these nine years by the CCC have advanced forestry programs more than any other cooperating agency.⁵⁵

Overall, the program proved highly successful and strengthened the Forest Service’s mission of improving and developing resources for the public good. The tremendous growth in public recreation improvements by the CCC easily illustrates this point.

Recreation Developments in Region 1, 1933-1942

In addition to the numerous buildings, bridges, and lookout towers, the CCC developed numerous recreation sites in the national forests. Regional Forester Kelley stated that CCC contributions to public recreation represented one of its greatest acts. In total, CCC enrollees constructed 1,525 acres of public campgrounds, and 35 acres of public picnic ground development. Areas near population centers like the Priest Lake-Sullivan Lake District on the Kaniksu National Forest underwent extensive recreation improvements given their past and projected future use.⁵⁶

Perhaps the most important CCC development affecting recreation, however, was the construction of 3,500 miles of new roads throughout the national forests of Montana and northern Idaho. With more Americans owning automobiles, new national forest roads opened up recreation opportunities for thousands of local and out-of-state visitors during the Depression. In many instances, new roads fueled new forest recreation development, including public campgrounds, picnic areas, and recreation residence tracts. Indeed, in 1937 one Region 1 forestry official claimed that the massive construction of new roads in the forests “has done more to promote recreation use of the forests than any other influence.”⁵⁷ Table 7 lists the number of cars registered in the Region 1 territory as well as the number of recreation visitors using the national forests from 1925 to 1937. As the table illustrates, the proportional increase of recreation visits during the 1930s was quite significant.

	Passenger Cars Registered	Mileage of Forest Highways and Roads	Recreation Usage or Visitation at National Forests
1925	159,259	2,700	291,746
1935	200,309	4,207	333,768
1936	209,774	7,091	643,780
1937	244,861	8,261	1,109,317

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

In addition to the increased number of roads, the new CCC campgrounds, picnic areas, and landscaping improvements enticed more and more national forest visitors as well. In 1939, recreation activities in Region 1 forests included the following: 31 percent fishing; 16 percent hunting; 6 percent winter sports, and 47 percent incorporating picnicking, swimming, camping, boating, and other activities. Visitation reached such high levels in the late 1930s, that according to Regional Forester Kelley, the region could not develop campgrounds fast enough despite the contributions of the CCC. The most heavily visited forests in Region 1 were Deerlodge, Beaverhead, Gallatin, Lewis and Clark, Kaniksu, Helena, and Coeur d’ Alene.⁵⁸

Region 1 Recreation Planning During the New Deal

Fortunately for the Forest Service and Region 1, during the 1920s forestry officials had prepared numerous recreation land use plans despite the lack of Congressional funding for recreation. As a result, Region 1 made significant progress in recreation development shortly after New Deal public works funding became available. As was common during the 1920s and early 1930s, Region 1 employed foresters trained in landscape theory and recreation planning to manage new developments. Sometime in the early 1930s, the regional office hired Victor T. Linthacum as a recreation specialist, and Clarence B. Swim as a recreation sites inspector. Both foresters worked under the regional department known as the Lands Division supervised by M.H. Wolff. Linthacum in particular developed many of the recreation land use plans and surveyed new recreation sites during the 1930s.

Guiding much of Linthacum and Swim's work was Robert Marshall's recreation chapter in the 1932 Copeland Report, which provided a general planning guide for the Forest Service. Marshall's chapter designated seven types of recreation, including primitive areas, research reserves, scenic roadside areas, campgrounds, and summer homes. With this framework in mind, Region 1 recreation planners were better able to classify proper uses of national forest land. Before recreation planning could commence, however, an overall land use plan was to be completed in order to identify the individual resources available at each forest. With such a plan, recreation specialists could then identify which types of recreation developments were appropriate.

Despite the efforts of Linthacum and Swim, recreation planning at Region 1 lagged behind other regions. In 1935, the Forest Service hired Albert D. Taylor, a landscape architect, to complete a national survey of recreation in the national forests. During his inspection trip, Taylor visited Regions 1, 2, 4, and 6. Of these regions, Region 1, because of its relative isolation and distance from large centers of population, faced a lower percentage of recreation visitors and as a result, had a less advanced recreation program. Taylor's overall comments regarding organizational planning mentioned that all four regions were giving recreation planning adequate emphasis. The main difference, he noted, was the number of trained landscape architects employed by the regions to aid in recreation planning. Of the four, Region 1 was the only one without a qualified landscape architect. Thus, in 1935, Region 1 continued to rely on forestry officials with recreation training, like Victor Linthacum and Clarence Swim.⁵⁹

Shortly after Taylor's report, Region 1 headquarters hired landscape architect Pete Peterson and an apprentice landscape architect, Mr. Beardsley. The role of the landscape architect was to provide guidance and supervision during the recreation and landscape programs of construction. The addition of Peterson and Beardsley greatly improved the region's ability to plan and construct recreational resources that were sensitive to their environment.

With Linthacum, Swim, Peterson and Beardsley leading recreation planning efforts in Region 1, a distinct regional approach to recreation began to take shape. In a presentation to the Northwest Regional Planning Conference in February 1936, Linthacum outlined several key themes in the regional office's recreation philosophy. Linthacum first emphasized the benefits of recreation and the Northern Region's firm commitment to providing "outdoor enjoyment" to the general public. He also revealed the regional office's recognition of the link between transportation improvements and the increasing demand for recreation. Though the region was spread out and sparse in population, he disagreed that recreation demand would remain stagnant:

Uneven distribution of population places only 3 or 4 percent of the people in our great Mountain Division which has 28% of the total land area. This will become less and less a restricting factor as transportation is improved, and the demand for our recreation resources will increase in proportion.⁶⁰

Most importantly however, Linthacum addressed the regional office's evolving hierarchy of recreational uses. Leading recreation priorities were campgrounds, picnics and playgrounds which were "open to use by all on equal terms." Such a sentiment mirrored the Forest Service's emphasis towards public recreation development, as opposed to private development, during the New Deal. The remaining uses, in order of priority, were public or semi-public charitable or fraternal organization sites, commercial uses such as hotels, resorts and stores, sites developed by clubs with limited membership, and finally, private development such as summer homes. Linthacum emphasized that proper planning was vital to the region's success in adequately meeting the rising demand for recreation resources.⁶¹

By 1937, however, the region was still behind in recreation planning. As part of a 1937-38 Region 1 recreation study, a forester addressed his concerns:

Our recreation planning, particularly comprehensive Forest plans and land use classification and management plans, is behind. Until the present project study, none of the Region Forests was entirely covered by recreation survey. This study, because of insufficient time for adequate analyses and field examinations, is, of course, only generally indicative. Additional and more dependable data are needed (except perhaps for areas of minor recreation value) before the information can be worked up into definite management plans....

Our recreation planning has been handicapped by lack of general land use plans, since, where these are not available, they must be prepared, or at least the larger pattern pretty well thought out hand in hand with the recreation plan....Shortage of planning personnel doesn't permit sufficient time to be given to either phase for proper analyses while trying to keep up with development.⁶²

Despite such concerns, Region 1 and its recreation personnel accomplished a great deal during the 1930s. In 1937, Forest Service headquarters tasked landscape architect Ernest Walker to perform a national survey of recreation sites and facilities. His Region 1 inspection report was highly complimentary:

In concluding this report of the landscape and recreational planning being done in the Northern Region, it is obviously apparent from comments and photographs that there is a great deal of work of commendable nature being done on recreational areas, administrative developments, and other projects. Much of this work is excellent, and shows definitely measurable progress in the direction of accomplishment of high order embracing the design and construction of improvements pertaining to recreational development.

The technical personnel, Peterson and Beardsley, responsible for recreational planning and administrative site layouts is an excellent combination of ability and tact in getting results of satisfactory nature. These men are well trained and the former highly experienced in works of landscape design and construction, in fact one of the best anywhere. Per unit of personnel the Northern Region is doubtless doing as

fine a job as can be found throughout any department of Government which has to do with landscape designing.⁶³

Additional praise for recreation planning efforts at Region 1 came in 1939 from the Chief of the Division of Recreation and Lands in Washington, DC, Robert Marshall. In his annual inspection report for Region 1, Marshall succinctly stated his approval: “Region 1, I think, has gone further, both in multiple-use planning and in recreation planning, than any other region in the country.” Considering the challenges resulting from the relative isolation and vast territory of Region 1, this was high praise indeed.

Summer Home Development in Region 1, 1932-1942

With the increased emphasis upon recreation planning during the New Deal, Region 1 and its approach to summer home development underwent important changes. Prior to Roosevelt’s election, the region encouraged the rapid development of summer homes throughout the national forests of Montana and northern Idaho. Given the high demand and fast growth of the residence program in the 1920s, regional foresters adapted forest recreation policy to fit the need. However, with increased recreation funding and trained staff as a result of the New Deal, the regional office developed more definitive and well-thought out planning guidelines for summer homes. In keeping with the overall Forest Service mission of “the greatest good to the greatest number,” recreation planners focused their efforts to developing public campgrounds, picnic areas, scenic areas, and other facilities. Nevertheless, the region made substantial progress in developing new recreation residence tracts in anticipation of the program’s future growth.

Nationally, summer home interest among the public diminished during the New Deal. Region 1, however, continued to experience growth in summer home development, albeit on a much smaller scale than in the 1920s. The continued rise in permits during the Depression might be explained by the slow start the region experienced due to its relative isolation and vastness. Table 8 reveals the steady growth of residence permits (including isolated cabins and recreation residences) from 1932 to 1937.

Year	Number of Permits
1932	827
1933	831
1934	845
1935	870
1936	892
1937	908

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

Helping to drive the development of summer homes in the 1930s was the region’s commitment to recreation surveys and land use plans. Supervisors at each national forest within the region located potential areas for recreation residence tracts. Regional foresters like recreational

specialist Victor T. Linthacum provided support and performed recreation surveys at these sites. Before the tract could be developed, however, the regional office had to approve the tract's design and placement. Once approved, individual forests could then issue residence permits to interested parties.

A key development during the 1930s was the establishment of a formal process for recreation plans, residence tract planning, and recreation surveys. Many of the Region 1 planning guides were developed by Linthacum. A section entitled "Residence Tract Planning" from Linthacum's guide *Tract and Site Planning* reveals the type of planning documents the regional office produced during the New Deal (See Appendix A). The document lists the type of issues considered when laying out a new residence tract:

Don't subdivide an area into lots mechanically like cutting a cake or pie.

Lot lines back from lake or stream enough to allow free community or public passage, usually minimum of 50 feet.

All structures on lots back far enough or well screened out of view from lakes or public roads.

Don't put a lot out on a prominent point in a lake or other water or in such relation to its approach as to interfere with community access to it.

Don't lay out a lot across any stream, however small. Keep lot lines clear so all permittees may have equal privileges in the stream.

Some adjustments or shifting of tentative road and building locations probably necessary to get best layout.⁶⁴

These considerations point to the efforts made by regional and local forestry officials to preserve the natural setting for the public good.

In addition to planning guides, the Region 1 office developed general construction standards for summer homes in an effort to limit the number of designs that conflicted with a natural forest setting. A 1934 document issued to the national forests within Region 1 provided detailed standards for construction (See Appendix B). The document addressed such topics as the location of the structure within a tract, the adaptation of the resource to its site, appropriate building materials, building design and architecture, plans and specifications, and landscaping advice. Despite the detailed suggestions, the regional office stated in the preface that it remained somewhat flexible regarding summer home design:

They [construction standards] do not demand any one specific treatment applicable to all cases, nor are they intended to restrict individual tastes. Instead they are a guide indicating the kinds of construction and development that are to be avoided or cannot be condoned.⁶⁵

In addition to standards set by the regional office, additional national policies began to shape recreation and summer home developments during the mid to late-1930s. In 1938, a list of 32 recreation policies sent to each regional forester did much to shape regional approaches to recreation. Following a 1939 inspection trip, Robert Marshall, the Chief of the Division of Recreation and Lands, reminded regional foresters of the need to carefully plan for summer homes and limit their impact upon public enjoyment of the forests:

On the basis of this policy, summer-home areas should be laid out very conservatively. They should no longer be established within sight of lake shores, nor so close to them that people following trails along the lake shore or fishing there will be seriously disturbed by the presence of the summer homes.

In many cases summer homes were observed to be as close as 50 or 75 feet apart. There should generally be at least 125 feet between the center of summer homes in order to permit people to escape from the crowding which engulfs them during their normal life in city slums or suburbs.⁶⁶

Marshall's specific observations of Region 1 and its summer home program were very positive. In a letter to Regional Forester Evan Kelley in November 1939, Marshall ranked Region 1 as "one of the two or three regions at the very top," and that its recreation developments "show outstanding originality."⁶⁷ An earlier 1937 recreation survey of all regions performed by landscape architect Ernest E. Walker also referenced the excellent summer home development of Region 1:

To me one of the most discouraging phases of planning in the Forest Service is that of summer home layouts, from the standpoint of land subdivision design where inadequate consideration has been given to topography, sanitation, roadways, etc., in fact about every feature of logical planning procedure, resulting in an accumulation of errors which reflect no credit to the Forest Service. It was the source of considerable satisfaction to find that the Northern Region had not wandered away on such a tangent of summer home enthusiasm as is general throughout the Service. The practice of keeping summer homes out of sight of highways, and trails, as well as back from lake shores and streams is especially commendable.⁶⁸

By 1937, 57 tracts and groups of summer homes had been planned and surveyed in the region. Nevertheless, foresters noted that the region needed an equal number of additional surveys and new residence tracts to meet the demand from the public.⁶⁹

Nevertheless, despite the Forest Service's shift to public recreation developments in the 1930s, Region 1 made significant progress in its management of the summer home program. The establishment of new standards and planning guidelines greatly facilitated the region's ability to manage and control the spread of summer homes in the national forests. Appendix C includes the Forest Service's summer home policy from 1941, which details the agency's approach to recreation residences at this time. With the end of the New Deal in 1942, however, the Forest Service's recreation program was put on hold, as the nation turned its attention overseas.

WORLD WAR II AND REGION 1, 1941-1945

America's declaration of war in December 1941 effectively ended the region's recreation efforts. CCC camps established in the national forests in northern Idaho and Montana promptly disbanded as funding evaporated and personnel enlisted to fight overseas. The national office of the Forest Service directed each region to emphasize civil defense, operating efficiencies, and war production. For Region 1, forest fires set by enemy incendiary bombs or saboteurs as well as the lack of adequate labor to fight those fires emerged as a top concern. Regional Forester Evan Kelley adequately summed up the region's wartime goal and the need to drop nonessential tasks:

If the forests and ranges can be saved from enemies and so managed that they will contribute their part to defense needs and still leave them in condition to produce more, we will have done our part.⁷⁰

In order to manage new wartime roles, Region 1 foresters working with recreation were reassigned. Recreation specialist Victor Linthacum became the Assistant Supervisor at the Deerlodge National Forest and Clarence Swim was reassigned to Gallatin National Forest as the Assistant Supervisor. Landscape architect positions in the region were also eliminated. In addition to a reduction in recreation staff, funds for recreation improvements were minimal. In 1944, Lolo National Forest in Region 1 maintained a remarkably low \$75 annual recreation budget.⁷¹

Despite the slowdown in recreation development within the region, summer home permits continued to be issued, though on a much smaller scale. Nevertheless, the World War II period represented a stagnant period for Region 1 regarding recreation improvements.

POSTWAR RECREATION DEVELOPMENT IN REGION 1, 1946-1960

Postwar Expansion of Recreation Demand

In November 1945, newly appointed Regional Forester P.D. Hanson presented to Region 1 Forest Supervisors his view of the postwar challenges facing the region. In his memorandum, he acknowledged the hard work and sacrifice undertaken by forestry personnel during the war. In particular, Hanson recognized the region's need to "put our house in order," after years of inattention to certain resources, such as recreation:

The public will be traveling next year. They will be back in great numbers along our highways, following the trails into the wilderness, fishing from the shores of our streams and lakes, and calling again at our ranger and guard stations....

Supervisors should develop plans for complete renovation of the recreational improvements and facilities on their respective units. Your plan should establish priority jobs and a tabulation of material, supplies and labor that are required for replacing worn-out improvements and renewing the original standards for all phases of your recreational facilities....⁷²

Hanson's assessment of a traveling public was correct. Eager to leave behind the stress, sacrifice and hard work of the war years, the public embraced recreation like never before. In 1947, nearly 2,000,000 visitors came to the national forests of Region 1; comparatively, 1,100,000 visited in 1937 at the height of the New Deal. A large number of these visitors were not local. Additional highway construction and increased recreation marketing efforts by Montana and Idaho resulted in steadily increasing numbers visiting the national forests in Region 1. By the end of World War II, recreation was among the largest economic activities in Montana with annual revenues in 1947 totaling \$15 million.⁷³

Despite the postwar increase in visitation, the regional office was initially slow to renew its recreation efforts, due to limited personnel and minimal funding. Assistant Regional Forester R.U. Harmon, in a 1947 letter, detailed the Region's predicament in the early postwar years:

During the emergency work-program period of the thirties, the days of the CCC and other emergency workers, we accomplished a lot of the recreational unit planning as above outlined. Unfortunately that program closed down before we had much of any backlog to meet the demands of the post-war period. Several such unit plans had to be left unfinished because there were no funds to continue the employment of the recreational specialists required. And during the war emergency the demands on our reduced personnel for assignment to activities contributing more directly to the war effort precluded any work on this and other nonessential activities. Right now we again have one trained man assigned to complete the several unfinished recreational unit plans and to make the additional needed plans on our seventeen forests of the Region. It's a big job. We will continue to be severely handicapped in this activity until it is financially possible to employ more such trained men and until some of the local forest officers on the forests can be given the necessary training.⁷⁴

Consequently, national forests in the region experienced overcrowding in campgrounds and recreational areas, resulting in maintenance and sanitation problems. In addition, recreation improvements from the CCC period were showing signs of deterioration. By the late 1940s, national forests across the country began charging fees for campground usage in order to help pay for maintenance.

At the same time, Region 1 began to see increasing interest in winter sports within the national forests. Between 1946 and 1955, the region experienced a 250 percent increase in recreation visits. As a result of high visitation and deteriorating facilities, the Forest Service announced in 1957 a nationwide recreation improvement program referred to as Operation Outdoors. The program allowed Region 1 to keep pace with recreation demand during this period.

Postwar Summer Home Development

As recreation visits to Region 1 increased in the postwar years, so too did public interest in summer homes in national forests. Table 9 illustrates the growth of summer home visitors to Region 1 national forests in various years between 1946 and 1957. Like other recreation developments, however, the region was initially unable to match the increased demand. Assistant Regional Forester R.U. Harmon attributed the delay in summer home development to two factors. The lack of building materials and equipment following the war affected not only family home construction, but individuals interested in building summer homes. The second factor limiting summer home construction in the national forests was the region's inability to provide enough sites to accommodate the numerous applications for special use permits. Because the Forest Service in the 1930s began setting aside increasing amounts of land for public use, new sites for summer home developments decreased. In addition, new Forest Service recreation regulations excluded summer homes from certain areas such as lakeshores, streams, roadside zones, and scenic strips. As a result, applications for summer homes in Region 1 by 1948 were significantly delayed, with over 1,000 applications waiting to be approved.⁷⁵

Year	Number of Recreation Residence Visitors
1946	25,800
1949	65,481
1952	80,120
1953	79,470
1955	95,823
1957	82,160

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

By the early 1950s, Region 1 recreation planners began making progress in surveying and setting aside new residence tracts for summer homes. In 1955, approval for summer home tract development was shifted from the regional office to the national office. That same year, the total number of recreation residences in Region 1 was 1,025.⁷⁶

Nevertheless, Forest Service resistance against expanding the program grew stronger each year. In addition to the region’s emphasis upon public recreation, the costs associated with the residences grew higher and higher. Snow removal, sanitation, and road construction all contributed to higher costs, the majority of which were not covered by permit fees. To compensate, the regional office raised summer home fees during this period. In addition, intermittent Forest Service oversight of special-use permits resulted in the decline of summer home design standards and administration. As a result, the Forest Service by the late 1950s and 1960s began to greatly limit the expansion of the summer home program. By 1960, applications for new permits in Region 1 significantly decreased given the limited development of new sites and tracts. National policy directives in the late 1960s and 1970s ended further summer home development nationally and in Region 1.

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HISTORIC BACKGROUND OF RECREATION RESIDENCES ON THE IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The history of recreation residences on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest represents a unique and important chapter in its development. Like other forests in Region 1, the Idaho Panhandle National Forest has historically been defined by its rugged, isolated geography and its location in sparsely populated parts of the West. Nevertheless, the unsurpassed recreation opportunities associated with its scenic mountains, rivers, lakes, and streams have emerged as one of its primary resources. The development of recreation residences on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest grew out of a larger effort by the national and regional offices of the Forest Service to satisfy the recreation desires of the American population in the early twentieth century. With the rising popularity of the automobile in the 1920s, increasing numbers of people began exploring the recreation opportunities of the national forests. Originally established as independent forests until combined in 1973, the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests underwent early recreation residence development relative to other Region 1 forests. The earliest permits issued for summer homes occurred along Priest Lake in ca. 1910, with additional development occurring from the 1920s to the 1960s. For much of the twentieth century, the evolution of summer homes on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest has mirrored the varying recreation policies and views of the Forest Service. The continued presence of summer homes on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest today reflects the rich and distinctive history of forest recreation in the twentieth century.

THE SETTING

The Idaho Panhandle National Forest encompasses a total of 2.5 million acres and lies in the panhandle of northern Idaho. The forest includes five districts—the Priest Lake, Bonners Ferry, Sandpoint, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe Ranger Districts. The forest includes a mountainous terrain and includes three large lakes, the Pend Oreille, Coeur d'Alene, and Priest. Recreation opportunities on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest today include hunting, fishing, camping, snowmobiling, and skiing; the forest also includes numerous recreation sites.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST

In 1973, the Forest Service combined the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests into a single administrative unit named the Idaho Panhandle National Forest. In 1906, President Theodore Roosevelt established the Coeur d'Alene National Forest. Five years later, President Taft created the St. Joe National Forest from the Coeur d'Alene National Forest. The Kaniksu

National Forest began as the Priest River National Reserve established in 1897. In 1908, the Priest River National Forest was renamed Kaniksu.

THE GROWTH OF RECREATION IN THE IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST

Like other forests in the Northern District, the Kaniksu, Coeur d’Alene, and St. Joe National Forests experienced limited recreation activity at the turn of the century. Because of the isolated nature of the region and the lack of large population centers, recreation at the forests was entirely a local affair pursued by hunters, fishermen, miners, and trappers living in the area. Recreation as a leisure activity developed primarily with the widespread use of automobiles in the 1910s and 1920s. Local residents, primarily from the growing city of Spokane traveled forest roads to gain access to pristine lakes, rivers, and mountain ranges for recreation activities.

Recreation statistics collected by the District 1 office in the 1920s reveal recreation usage at the Kaniksu, Coeur d’Alene, and St. Joe National Forests from 1922 to 1926 (See Tables 10, 11 & 12). Based on these numbers, the Coeur d’Alene National Forest received a much greater number of recreation visitors during this period compared to the Kaniksu and St. Joe National Forests. The number of visitors to the Coeur d’Alene National Forest ranked second only to Gallatin National Forest among all District 1 national forests.¹ A likely factor influencing such high visitation was road infrastructure which served the area in the early 1920s. Adequate roads in other parts of District 1 were limited in the 1920s, thus explaining the lower recreation numbers in other forests. In addition, the nearby presence of Coeur d’Alene likely spurred recreation interest in the Coeur d’Alene National Forest. The reason for lower recreation numbers on the Kaniksu National Forest is unclear, especially given the popularity of Priest Lake and the large population center of nearby Spokane.

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
Number of Recreation Visitors	7,958	6,200	7,400	6,500	5,400

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
Number of Recreation Visitors	144,980	106,000	142,700	102,540	96,797

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926
Number of Recreation Visitors	3,352	3,000	3,180	2,770	3,269

Source: National Archives – Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle)

The Forest Service and District 1 were slow to accommodate the increasing demand for recreation during the 1920s. With the exception of private development, such as summer homes and commercial resorts and hotels, the Forest Service during this period invested little if any funds or manpower in public recreation improvements.²

With the beginning of the New Deal in 1932, the Forest Service increasingly emphasized public recreation development over private, such as summer homes and resorts. Greatly aiding these efforts were Civilian Conservation Corps camps organized on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests. First appearing in Region 1 in the spring of 1933, CCC camps specific to Kaniksu National Forest included Sullivan Lake, Kalispell Creek, Usk, Blowdown, and Four Corners. At the Coeur d'Alene National Forest, CCC camps included Big Creek, Deception Creek, Devils Elbow, and Wolf Lodge. Camps on the St. Joe National Forest consisted of Red Ives, St. Joe River, Willow Creek, Drysdale, and Quinn. Specific CCC recreation improvements included campground construction, road construction, recreation signage, and trail maintenance.

In addition to the development of recreation infrastructure, Region 1 and the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe forestry personnel in the 1930s addressed concerns by creating recreation land use plans and surveying potential recreation sites for future development. These plans allowed forestry personnel to classify and prioritize recreation uses such as camping, picnicking, and summer home development within a certain area of land. On the Kaniksu National Forest, forestry personnel placed considerable emphasis on recreation planning for Priest Lake, given the area's popularity and potential for future recreation usage. The onset of World War II, however, brought recreation development to a standstill, with forestry personnel either being reassigned to wartime forestry duties or serving overseas.

The end of the war, however, signaled a new period of increased growth at the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests. Similar to other national forests in Region 1, the three forests experienced a dramatic rise in recreation interest following World War II. Tired of the sacrifice of war, the public turned to the recreation opportunities provided by the Forest Service in increasing numbers in the late 1940s and 1950s. In 1946, the Kaniksu National Forest included ten campgrounds, one winter sports sites, and five private hotels or resorts. The Coeur d'Alene National Forest the same year included 13 campgrounds, two winter sports sites, and one private resort. The St. Joe National Forest consisted of 15 campgrounds, two winter sports sites, and one private resort.³ Regional statistics from 1949 list recreation visitation to the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests at 95,885, 86,211, and 31,566 people, respectively. These statistics indicate that the Kaniksu and Coeur d'Alene National Forests were among the more visited national forests in Region 1, with St. Joe being somewhat less attractive for recreation purposes.⁴

Recreation visits continued to rise in the 1950s as additional highways provided access to the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests. In addition, the area's close proximity to large centers of population like Spokane and Coeur d'Alene further spurred recreation interest. Increasing federal budgets for recreation development on the national forests also resulted in additional public recreation development in Region 1. Today, numerous campgrounds are located within the Idaho Panhandle National Forest and recreation opportunities continue to meet the needs of thousands of annual visitors.

RECREATION RESIDENCE DEVELOPMENT ON THE IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST, 1907-1960

1907-1915

Before the federal government's presence in the region, the forests of Idaho were inhabited by a limited number of homesteaders, many of whom were engaged in trapping and mining activities. These individuals often erected primitive cabins for shelter. After the establishment of the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests in 1908, 1906, and 1911, special use residence permits were issued by forestry officials to those who owned isolated cabins on federal land. In addition to mining and trapping, hunting and fishing became increasingly popular among local residents. As a result, some cabins were built as hunting and fishing lodges and used by groups of individuals who visited the national forest on a seasonal basis. On the Kaniksu National Forest, a particularly active area for summer home construction was at Priest Lake. A 1910 survey of cottage sites at Priest Lake prepared by the forest details the high level of recreation interest among the general public. Statistics regarding Region 1 special use permits are only available beginning in 1909; therefore, it is not possible to determine when the first permit was issued for the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests. However, historical records from the Idaho Panhandle National Forest indicate one recreation residence erected in 1908 at Fish Bay on Priest Lake. The active development of cabins at Priest Lake at this time was unusual when compared to other Region 1 forests, where summer home interest began after the passage of the Term Occupancy Act in 1915.

1915-1932

In 1915, the Forest Service passed the Term Occupancy Act, which enabled forests to issue longer term special use permits for recreation residences. The act resulted in increased applications for special permits.

Available regional statistics from the mid-1920s as well as permit records reveal a significant number of summer homes present on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests. In 1923, 64 Kaniksu, 10 Coeur d'Alene, and 0 St. Joe summer residences had been erected; in 1924, 73 Kaniksu, 22 Coeur d'Alene, and 0 St. Joe residences were present. By 1925, 89 Kaniksu, 22 Coeur d'Alene and 0 St. Joe summer homes were situated on each forest.⁵ These statistics confirm that recreation residence growth on the Kaniksu National Forest was the highest for the region, Coeur d'Alene was relatively active, and St. Joe with no residence development. Permit records suggest that the Promontory and Luby Bay tracts on Priest Lake experienced heavy growth during this period. Nevertheless, the period between 1915 and 1932 represented a very active period of growth for recreation residence tracts on the Kaniksu National Forest and to a lesser extent the Coeur d'Alene National Forest.

1933-1942

Recreational interest in the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests remained steady in the 1930s as well. Special permits continued to be issued for recreation residences within residence tracts at this time. As indicated by their names, most of the new tracts were sited near along lakeshores and bays in order to provide scenic settings for private owners. Aiding the issuance of special permits in these areas were the increased recreation efforts of the regional office during the New Deal. Additional funding for recreation programs allowed the regional office to hire trained landscape architects and recreation specialists. These personnel as well as Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe foresters were responsible for the numerous recreation land-

use plans as well as recreational residence surveys which identified potential recreation residence areas. The Region 1 office and its team of recreation staff focused much of their recreation planning efforts at Priest Lake in order to minimize the negative effects of private summer home development and to promote public recreation developments. Though Forest Service recreation work during the New Deal focused on public development, overall planning efforts greatly aided the establishment of private endeavors like new recreation residences.

Like other recreation uses, summer home development on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests during World War II dramatically declined. Funding for recreation improvements and planning plummeted as a result of wartime priorities.

1945-1960

As with Region 1 in general, the postwar period on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests brought increased demand for recreation residences. As a result, recreation residence development was active during this period. Many individual recreation residences were also added to pre-World War II residence tracts as demand for new lots continued to grow in the late 1940s and 1950s. This was especially true for Priest Lake on the Kaniksu National Forest, where the growing neighboring city of Spokane brought increasing numbers of people into the forests, many of whom wanted residences along the lakeshore. Additional lots were added to the Ledgewood Bay, Neopit, and Neopit View tracts during the postwar period to meet the increasing demand. New highways and increased marketing efforts by the state of Idaho greatly increased the number of recreation visitors as well. Statistics from 1949 reveal the following number of recreation visits related to summer homes on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests, respectively: 3,800, 66, and 540.⁶ These numbers suggest that Priest Lake on the Kaniksu National Forest continued to be the greatest recreation attraction in the region.

By 1960, however, recreation residence development declined significantly as the number of new lots dwindled and the national office shifted its focus to public recreation development. Despite these developments, the Idaho Panhandle National Forest today oversees special permits for 138 recreation residences.

IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST, RECREATION RESIDENCE PERIODS OF SIGNIFICANCE

The following periods of significance provide a basis for understanding the historical evolution of recreation residences on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest.

EARLY YEARS OF IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST, 1906-1915

From 1906 through 1915, the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests did not include coordinated recreation residence programs. Instead, supervisors for each forest managed summer home development on an individual basis, with the first recreation residence permits issued in ca. 1910 at Priest Lake on the Kaniksu National Forest.

TERM OCCUPANCY ACT AND THE EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF RECREATION RESIDENCES, 1915-1932

Following the passage of the Term Occupancy Act in 1915, interest in recreation residence special permits on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests grew at a healthy pace between 1915 and 1931. The presence of good roads and the growing towns of Spokane and

Coeur d'Alene likely spurred summer home growth in these years. Despite the lack of funding for recreation development, Kaniksu National Forest emerged as one of the most visited Region 1 national forests for recreation and summer home activities. In addition, the forest included the greatest number of recreation residences within District 1 during this period.

NEW DEAL RECREATION PLANNING, 1933-1942

Continued summer home development on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests occurred during the New Deal. Increased construction of roads and large Congressional appropriations for Forest Service recreation work fueled this growth. In addition, the hiring of landscape architects and recreation specialists by the regional office enabled the creation of many new recreation land use plans and residence tracts. As a result, interest in summer homes strengthened as the public viewed favorably the Forest Service's public works investments in recreation. The start of World War II and the cessation of New Deal funding in 1942 represents the end of this period.

POST-WORLD WAR II RECREATION RESIDENCE DEVELOPMENT, 1945-1960

The increased interest in recreation opportunities on the Kaniksu, Coeur d'Alene, and St. Joe National Forests following World War II resulted in the establishment of additional recreation residences from 1945 to 1960. New highways and marketing by the state of Idaho facilitated the expansion of the summer home program on each forest, especially at Priest Lake on the Kaniksu National Forest. By 1960, new permits for recreation residences were greatly reduced as the national and regional office began discouraging the further growth of the program.

IDAHO PANHANDLE NATIONAL FOREST RECREATION RESIDENCE TRACTS

The following section separates each individual recreation residence tract established on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest. Historical information and development patterns are addressed for each tract. In addition, an assessment of the period of significance for each tract is provided. In some cases, tracts include more than one period of significance as a result of primary development that spanned multiple decades. In addition, some areas of information for individual tracts are unknown due to a lack of sufficient historical material. In these cases, it is best to consult the general periods of significance for recreation residences listed above. Table 13 lists each tract and its associated physical and historical information in tabular form.

Based upon photographs supplied by the forest, several architectural styles are present on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest. Using the seven property subtypes identified in *Chapter 7: Property Types Analysis and Registration Requirements for Recreation Residences* (pgs. 7-10 to 7-16), the forest includes examples of the following cabin types: Group 1 rectangular-plan cabins; Group 2 log cabins; Group 3 L-plan cabins with cross-gable roofs; Group 4 rectangular-plan cabins with modified gable; Group 5 irregular-plan cabins with shed roofs; Group 6 A-frame cabins; and Group 7 contemporary two-story cabins. The most common property subtypes on the forest are the Group 1 rectangular-plan cabin and the Group 2 log cabin. Overall, these varying architectural styles represent distinct periods of significance for recreation residence development. For further information concerning property subtypes and their typical dates of construction, please consult Chapter 7.

Fish Bay Tract

The Fish Bay tract includes four cabins and is located along Priest Lake. Permit information indicates that development on the tract occurred in 1908, 1912, 1919, and 1939. Thus, the period

of significant development occurred during the early years of the Kaniksu National Forest (1906-1915).

Ledgewood Bay Tract

The Ledgewood Bay tract includes nine cabins and is located along Priest Lake. Permit information indicates that development on the south group of the tract occurred from 1931-1933, while the north group developed in the postwar period from 1948-1953. Thus, the Ledgewood Bay tract underwent two periods of significant development: the New Deal (1933-1942) and the post-World War II years (1945-1960).

Promontory Tract

The Promontory tract includes 12 cabins and is located along Priest Lake. Permit information indicates that development on the south group of the tract occurred in 1926, while the north group developed in 1930, 1931, 1932, and 1933. Thus, the majority of development on the Ledgewood Bay tract occurred during the early development of recreation residences on the Kaniksu National Forest (1915-1932.)

Luby Bay Tract

The Luby Bay tract includes 18 cabins and is located along Priest Lake. Permit information indicates that development on the tract first occurred in 1912 and again in 1918. Subsequent development occurred in the 1920s. Thus, the majority of development on the Luby Bay tract occurred during the early development of recreation residences on the Kaniksu National Forest (1915-1932.) The tract likely contains the oldest recreation residence (Luby Bay 565) on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest.

Shoshone Bay Tract

The Shoshone Bay tract includes 24 cabins and is located along Priest Lake. Though the tract was established in 1947, permit information indicates that early development occurred in 1932, 1933, and 1937. However, the majority of development occurred in 1947 with the establishment of the tract. Thus, the majority of development on the Shoshone Bay tract occurred during the post-World War II period.

Neopit Tract

The Neopit tract includes 24 cabins and is located along Priest Lake. Permit information indicates that early development occurred in 1932, 1933, and 1937. However, the majority of development occurred in 1947 and 1948 and again between 1953 and 1958. Thus, the majority of development on the Neopit tract occurred during the post-World War II period.

Neopit View Tract

The Neopit View tract includes 14 cabins and is located along Priest Lake. The tract was the last to be developed on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest, with development occurring from 1958 to 1960. Thus, the majority of development on the Neopit View tract occurred during the post-World War II period.

Osprey Tract

The Osprey tract includes 12 cabins and is located along Priest Lake. The tract was established in 1935, with the first permit issued in 1934. However, the majority of development occurred from

1947 to 1949 and again in 1959. Thus, the majority of development on the Osprey tract occurred during the post-World War II period.

Outlet Tract

The Outlet tract includes four cabins and is located along Priest Lake. The tract was established in 1935, with development occurring between 1936 and 1948. Thus, the Outlet tract underwent two periods of significant development: the New Deal (1933-1942) and the post-World War II years (1945-1960).

Garfield Bay Tract

The Garfield Bay tract includes 11 cabins and is located along Priest Lake. Permit information for the tract is incomplete, thus preventing a determination of a period of significance for the site.

Hayden Lake Rockaway Beach Tract

The Hayden Lake Rockaway Beach tract includes two cabins and is located along Hayden Lake. Permit information for the tract is incomplete, thus preventing a determination of a period of significance for the site.

Killarney Lake Tract

The Killarney Lake tract includes one cabin and is located along Killarney Lake. The tract was established in 1927, and included five lots. By 1947, two lots had been developed. However, today only one recreation residence remains. The period of significance for the Killarney Lake tract is the post-World War II era.

Table 13. Idaho Panhandle National Forest Recreation Residence Tracts

Tract Name	# of Residences	Tract Establishment	Tract Design	Number of Sites Evaluated in Tract	Residence Development	Primary Period(s) of Significance
Fish Bay	4	Unknown	Lakeshore	4	1908, 1912, 1919, 1939	Early Years of Idaho Panhandle National Forest
Ledgewood Bay	9	Unknown	Lakeshore	9	1931, 1933, 1948-1953	New Deal Recreation Planning, Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development
Promontory	12	Unknown	Lakeshore	12	1926, 1930-1933	Early Development of Recreation Residences
Luby Bay	18	Unknown	Lakeshore	18	1912, 1918, c. 1920s	Early Development of Recreation Residences
Shoshone Bay	24	1947	Lakeshore	24	1932, 1933, 1937, 1947, 1948	Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development
Neopit	24	Unknown	Lakeshore	24	1936, 1947-48, 1953-58	Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development
Neopit View	14	Unknown	Lakeshore	None	1958-1960	Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development
Osprey	12	1935	Lakeshore	12	1934, 1947-49, 1959	Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development
Outlet	4	1935	Lakeshore	4	1936-1948	New Deal Recreation Planning, Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development
Garfield Bay	11	Unknown	Lakeshore	None	1937, 1946	Not enough information to determine
Hayden Lake Rockaway Beach	2	Unknown	Lakeshore	2	Unknown	Not enough information to determine
Killarney Lake	1	1927	Lakeshore	1	1947	Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development

NOTES

¹ Recreation Use – Calendar Year 1926; Recreational Use of National Forests FY 22-32; 2300 Recreation; Region 1; Record Group 95, Records of the US Forest Service; National Archives and Records Administration--Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle).

² U.S. Department of Agriculture Forest Service, *Early Days in the Forest Service, Volume I* (Missoula, Montana: USDA Forest Service, Northern Region, 1944), 199-200.

³ Recreation Areas, Facilities and Services, Beaverhead National Forest and Deerlodge National Forest; U Statistics – R-1; Region 1; Record Group 95, Records of the US Forest Service; National Archives and Records Administration--Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle).

⁴ Recreation Record – Region One (C.Y. 1949) Users of Recreation Resources – Number of Visits; U Statistics – R-1; Region 1; Record Group 95, Records of the US Forest Service; National Archives and Records Administration--Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle).

⁵ Recreational Use F.Y. 1923, 1924 and 1925; Recreational Use of National Forests FY 22-32; 2300 Recreation; Region 1; Record Group 95, Records of the US Forest Service; National Archives and Records Administration--Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle).

⁶ Recreation Record – Region One (C.Y. 1949) Users of Recreation Resources – Number of Visits; U Statistics – R-1; Region 1; Record Group 95, Records of the US Forest Service; National Archives and Records Administration--Pacific Alaska Region (Seattle).

SECTION III - NRHP CONSIDERATIONS AND MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

**PROPERTY TYPE ANALYSIS AND REGISTRATION
REQUIREMENTS FOR RECREATION RESIDENCES**

**RECOMMENDED ACTIONS FOR EVALUATING RECREATIONAL
RESIDENCES FOR NRHP ELIGIBILITY**

REFERENCES

PROPERTY TYPES ANALYSIS AND REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS FOR RECREATION RESIDENCES

INTRODUCTION

The national and regional historic context for recreation residences in Region 1 describes and analyzes the history of the Forest Service Region 1's recreation residences and examines the principal events, trends, and individuals associated with their development. Whereas the historic context presents the story of the Forest Service's recreation residence program on a nationwide scale, associated property types link the historic context to specific kinds of resources. For the purposes of this study, all resources associated with the program fall within broad categories and share common physical characteristics and associative qualities. The property type analysis serves as an effective tool to identify, analyze, and evaluate resources for future management, state or local landmark listing, or potential listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP).

I. PROPERTY TYPE IDENTIFICATION

Recreation residences in the eight forests of Region 1 encompass an array of resources, including those planned, designed, and constructed by the U.S. Forest Service or its agents, such as residential tracts and related infrastructure; and those designed, built and maintained by private citizens on land belonging to the U.S. Forest Service, such as the residences themselves. The vast majority of residences were built after owners obtained renewable 30-year permits through a permitting system instituted in 1915, and are constructed on planned tracts of various sizes surveyed and approved for development by the Forest Service between the 1910s and 1960s. Exceptions are the early miner, trapper and hunter cabins scattered throughout the eight forests, which were not originally subject to permits, but were later grouped with other recreation residences under the permit system.

Within the broad spectrum of Region 1 recreation residences, several property types may be distinguished: the tract, the residence within a tract, and isolated residences. Within these broad groupings, subtypes exist. For tracts, these subtypes are based upon form or location, while in the case of residences, subtypes are based on architectural features. The property types and sub-types described below should cover all recreation residences within Region 1.

The first residence tracts in the Region 1 forests were planned and permitted beginning in the 1910s, but the popularity of auto travel and family vacations in the 1920s caused a spike in the number of residence permits granted and, consequently, the number of summer cabins and

cottages appearing in the region's forests. The growth trend continued through the Depression era, when national forests and lots attracted tourists by providing inexpensive travel opportunities. In addition, President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal provided increased spending on the nation's natural resources, which benefited from the labor of work relief programs such as the Civilian Conservation Corps. Many existing cabins date from this growth period, and may be recognized by their simple plans and wood exterior cladding. The Forest Service issued general guidelines and regulations for the landscaping and configuration of these early cabins, and recommended rustic designs that complemented the surrounding landscape. However, the design of each cabin fell to private homeowners and their contractors, and varied according to changing tastes and construction techniques. New regulations passed in the late 1930s changed the Forest Service's standards for designing residential tracts, prohibiting lots fronting on or in view of scenic attractions such as lakes, and limiting the number of new tracts surveyed. However, new construction continued at the older tract after a decline during World War II, and surged after 1945. By 1960, the Forest Service significantly cut back the residential residence permit program, granting few new permits but allowing existing permit holders to retain their permits. Permit holders continued to modernize and rebuild their residences throughout the 1960s until the present.

The typical historic-age recreation residence occupies a lot of one acre or less, with construction limited to the center of each lot to avoid visual contact with neighbors. Resources are predominantly wood-framed, but feature varying plans and exterior materials that may be easily associated with certain historical trends/periods. In addition to the primary residence, associated outbuildings on each lot may include small guest cabins, sheds, outhouses, garages or pumphouses. Many of the residential tracts are planned with reference to the surrounding topography and natural features, especially on the banks of lakes or ponds or within attractive viewsapes. Although the 1938 regulations prohibited planning tracts within view of important landscape features in order to make them more accessible to the general public, the majority of residential tracts were planned before this regulation. Thus, many cabins feature access to waterways and may include public infrastructure such as signage, bridges, roads, sidewalks or boating facilities.

Cultural Landscapes

The National Park Service (NPS) defines a cultural landscape as "a geographic area, including both cultural and natural resources and the wildlife or domestic animals therein, associated with a historic event, activity, or person or exhibiting other cultural or aesthetic values." NPS has defined a classification system to identify different types of cultural landscapes. These include: historic designed landscapes, historic vernacular landscapes, historic sites, and ethnographic landscapes. National forests likely contain cultural landscapes that may affect the determination of significance for either tracts or individual residences within Region 1. The landscape surrounding a tract or residence can comprise an essential factor in the resource's historical importance: for example, a residence originally built in a densely forested area may lose a major part of its context if the forest is thinned or eliminated. Likewise, tracts spread around the shore of a lake or pond are negatively affected if the lake is filled in or if the shape of its shore is drastically modified. Magnificent viewsapes, unusual rock formations, and historically important features (such as a Native American burial ground or a subterranean cave system) are inherently essential to the historical significance of the resources that enjoy them. For more information on planning, treatment and management of historic landscapes, see *Preservation Brief #36: Protecting Cultural Landscapes*, published by the Technical Preservation Services branch of NPS. Other helpful resources include *National Register Bulletin #18: How to Evaluate and*

Nominate Designed Historic Landscapes, National Register Bulletin #30: Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes, and The Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties with Guidelines for the Treatment of Cultural Landscapes.

A. TRACTS

For the purposes of this study, tracts will be considered separately from residences, each forming a separate category containing subgroups of property types. For NRHP purposes, tracts would be considered historic districts, registered via a Multiple Resource Nomination (See National Register Bulletin 16A: How to Complete the National Register Registration Form). Residential tracts may be grouped according to their general layout, construction period, and interaction with the natural environment. Topography seems to have been the single most important factor influencing the shape and size of each lot, which were then combined to form tracts, usually planned to conform to natural features. Forest Service policy, existing or planned infrastructure, and trends in suburban planning also affected tract development. Tract sites were historically named, with lots numbered according to plat maps filed with the Forest. In the mid-1930s, some tracts were designed by professional landscape architects who created recreation plans for some individual forests during the New Deal.

Tract Types:

Lakeshore tracts: Tracts laid out to closely follow the contour of a lake, pond, or other body of water (Figure 6). These tracts were developed by the Forest Service prior to 1938, when “U-Regulations” prohibited placement of private recreation residences within view of public attractions.

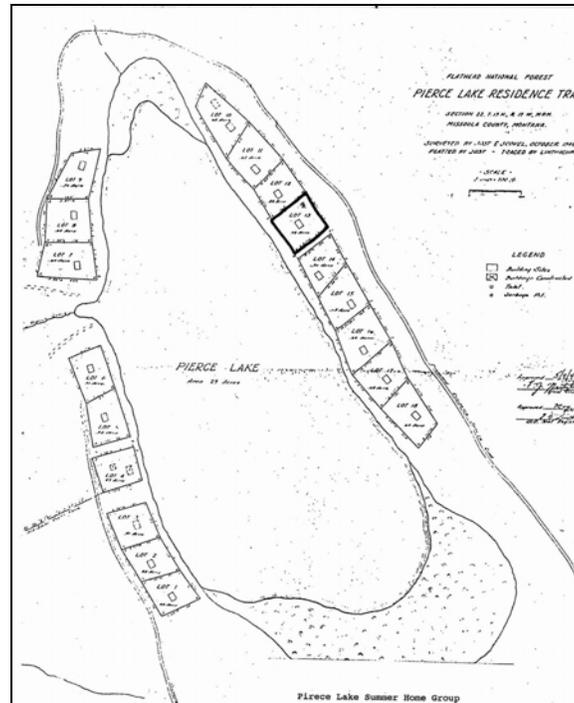


Figure 6. A Lakeshore tract in Region 1

Ridgeline/Rectilinear tracts: Ridgeline or Rectilinear tracts are laid out in single or multiple roughly parallel lines, often conforming to mountain ridges or terraces on steeply sloped areas (Figures 7 and 8).

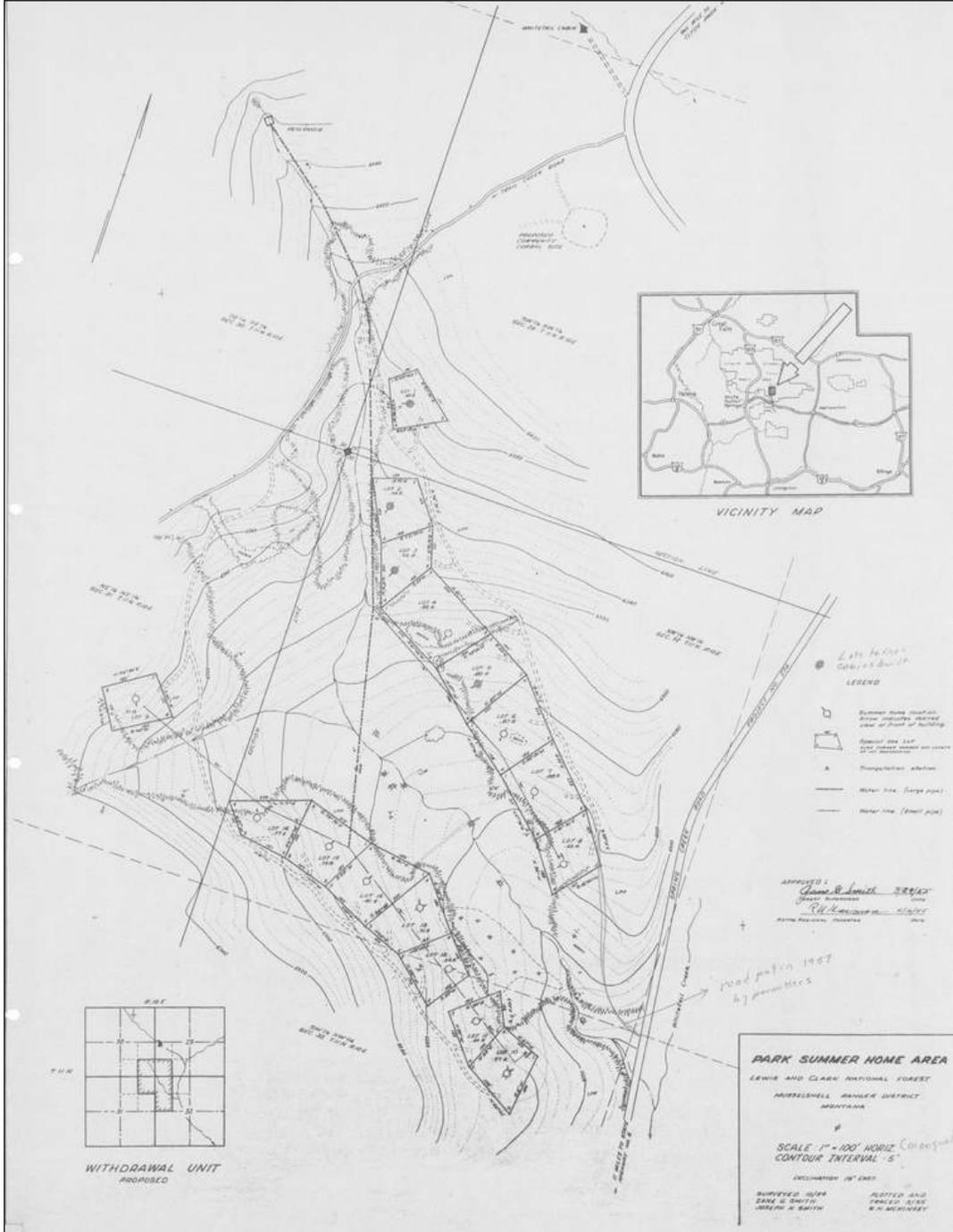


Figure 7. A ridgeline tract conforming to topography.

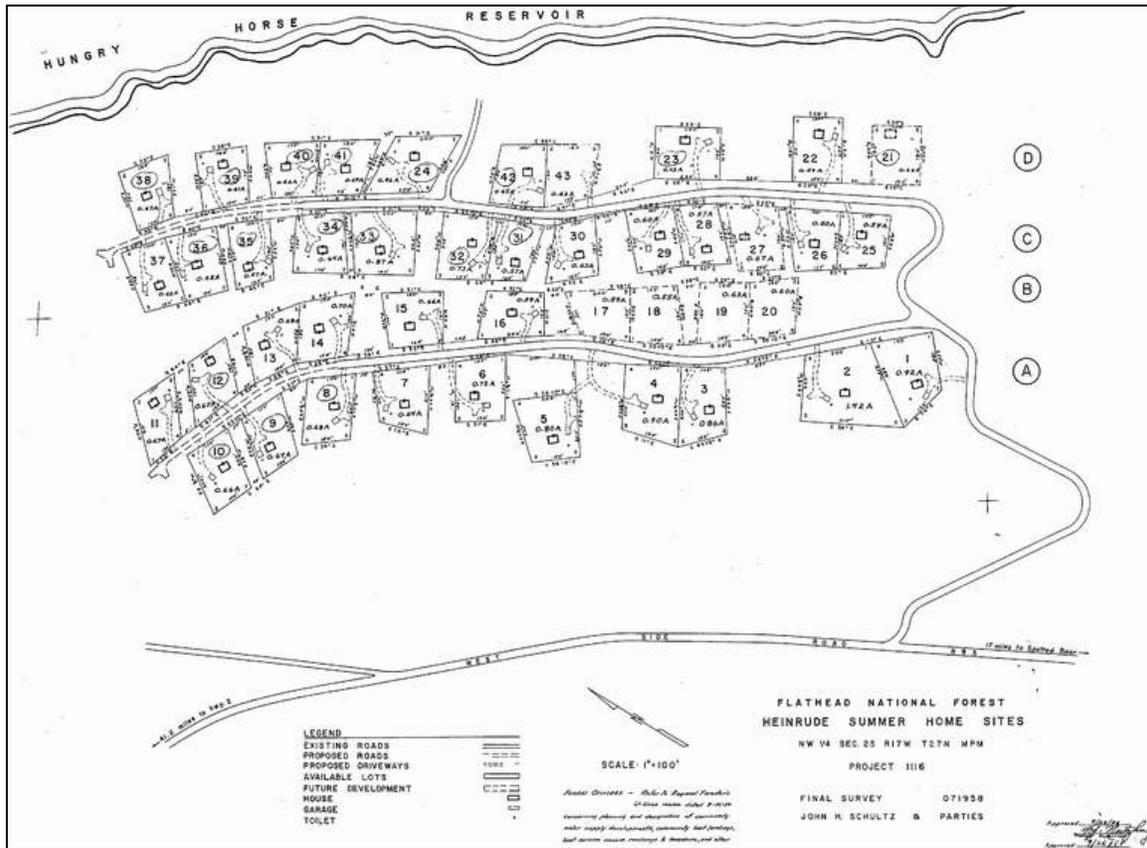


Figure 8. A rectilinear tract in Flathead National Forest.

Branching and Radial tracts: Branching and radial tracts are well-suited to forest residences because they conform to varied topography, maximize the privacy of residents, and shield residences from view from roads and public areas (Figure 9). Branching tracts are planned around a single road providing access to multiple residential lots spaced in secluded groups along the length of the central artery. Residences generally face away from the public roadway. Radial tracts are laid out with single or multiple lines radiating from a central point. The radiating streets may be either straight or curvilinear.

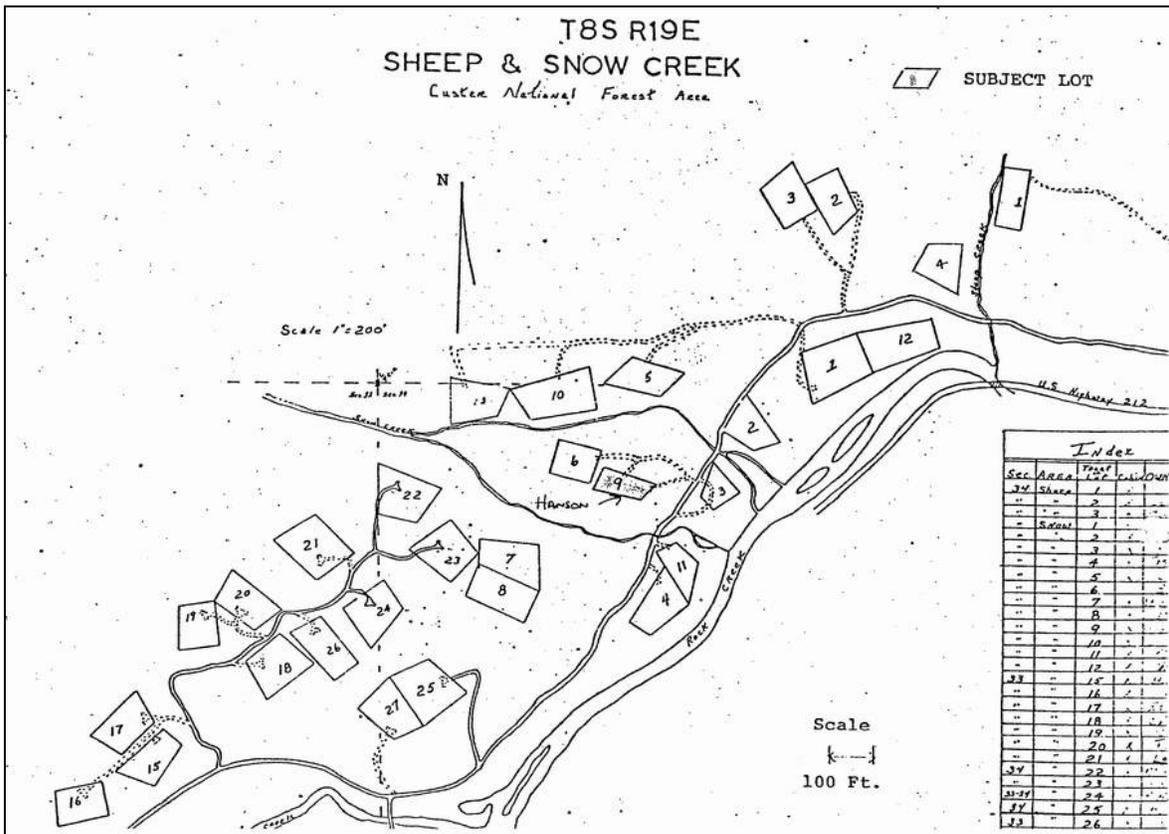


Figure 9. A branching tract in Custer National Forest.

Curvilinear tracts: Curvilinear tracts feature long, winding roads with residences facing the roadway (Figure 10). Lots may not be regularly spaced in curvilinear tracts, allowing for increased vegetation that masks the residences and increases privacy.

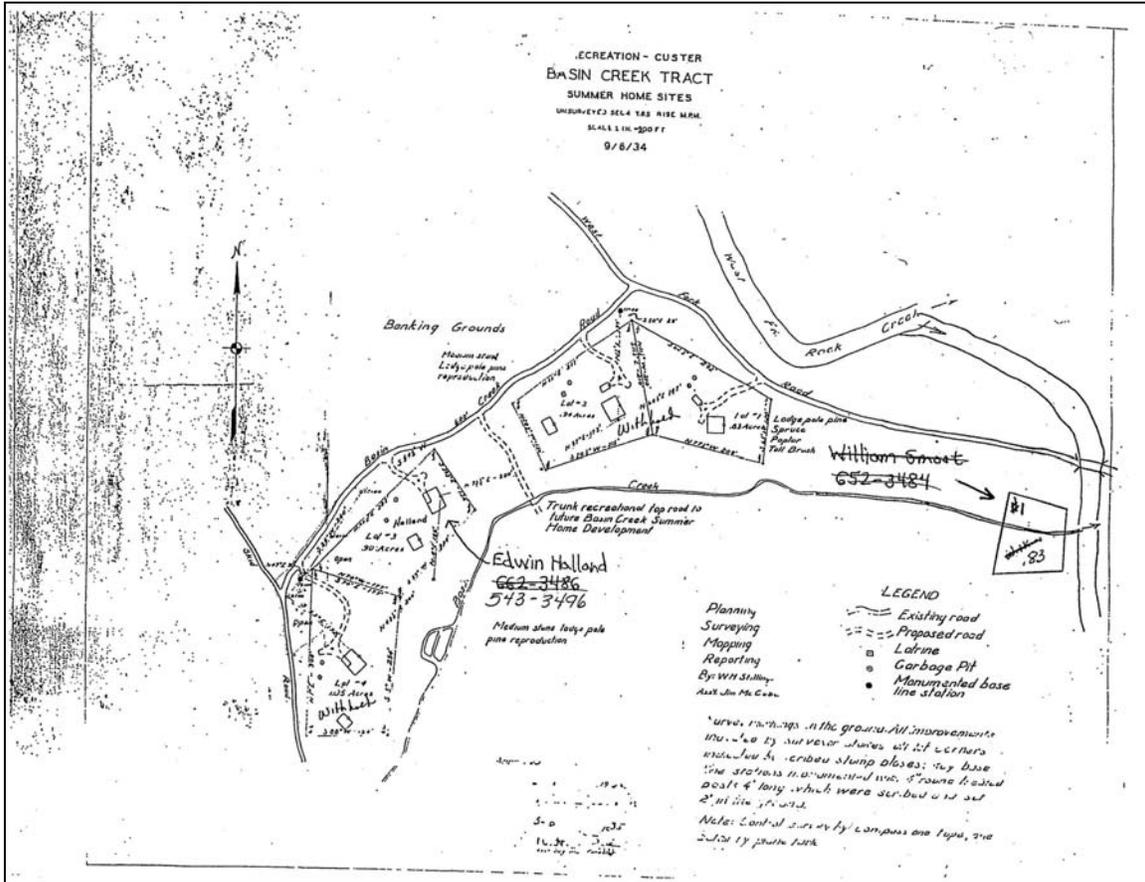


Figure 10. A curvilinear tract in Custer National Forest.

Gridiron tracts: Gridiron tracts are based on the design of typical early twentieth century suburban neighborhoods, with regularly-shaped lots double-loaded along multiple rectilinear streets with intersecting streets. These tracts are rare in most forests, since their gridded plan does not easily accommodate topographical variations, and is best suited to wide, flat expanses.

Lots

Typical lot features

Early restrictions in the 1920s limited lots to less than one acre in area, in order to accommodate as many permit-holders as possible, and this guideline continued to govern lots until 1960, when new lot development was greatly reduced. Lots are generally rectangular or trapezoidal in shape, and may abut one another or be separated by undeveloped land to maximize privacy. Most lots do not exceed 200 feet on a side, although there are exceptions to this rule. The shape and orientation of each lot is primarily determined by its relation to natural features, such as a lake shore or mountain ridge, or manmade features, such as a road. Residences and outbuildings are generally

sited near the center of the lot to decrease visibility from public access areas. Although each lot is governed by a single permit, each parcel may have a number of architectural resources on it, including the primary residence and associated outbuildings. In addition, infrastructural elements such as roads, bridges or drainage structures may exist on the lots, and may have historical significance of their own. Finally, tracts, lots, and residences in national forests are all subject to the influence of the cultural landscape features surrounding them, and may in fact comprise part of a cultural landscape themselves. A further discussion of cultural landscape issues is given above.

Residences

The primary architectural resources to be considered for eligibility are the recreation residences found on each lot, whether within tracts or freestanding. Both aesthetically and structurally, the resources are simple, foregoing prominent high-style design features in favor of a more rustic sensibility based on wood-frame construction with wood exterior cladding. In some cases, residences within the same tract may share similar features due to simultaneous development or a permit holder's use of the same contractor as a neighbor, but in general tracts do not share a uniform style or look. Although the lots in each tract were likely surveyed at the same time, each lot was developed by individuals, who decided on stylistic features for their residences using only the general guidelines issued by the Forest. Therefore, most tracts contain a variety of cabin types or various dates, instead of uniform, suburban-type homes. Furthermore, the original residences have been subject to periodic renovations and additions, or may even have been razed to make way for new construction.

Outbuildings

Each lot generally contains one or more outbuildings, in addition to the primary residence. Outbuildings include modest structures such as storage sheds, well or pump houses, latrines, and more recently, garages and guest cabins. These associated structures are typically of wood-frame construction, with a small, rectangular footprint, and often consist of only one room. If the outbuildings are of historic age and maintain their integrity, they should be classed as elements contributing to the historic significance of the primary resource. If they have lost integrity or are not of historic age, they will likely be determined to be "non-contributing."

Designed Landscape Elements

Man-made landscape elements on the individual lots within a tract may add to the significance of the tract as a whole. Such resources may include utilitarian features, such as a well, fence, wall, or gate, or decorative elements, such as a garden sculpture. These elements must be of historic age, maintain integrity, and add to the significance of the tract in order to be deemed "Contributing" structures.

Infrastructure Resources

Although recreation residence permits allow for construction of private property in the national forests, the lots themselves are the property of the Forest Service, and may contain structures or objects built and managed by the Forest Service for the benefit of forest maintenance. Such structures and objects may include roads, bridges, sidewalks or pathways, drainage culverts, signage, and a host of other small objects necessary for the management of the forest. Larger public structures such as bathhouses, latrines or administrative buildings are normally separated from the recreation residence tracts, but may influence the tracts' design or general appearance. Depending on their age, integrity, and relationship to the tract, infrastructural resources could be determined to be contributing resources.

B. RECREATION RESIDENCES WITHIN TRACTS

Individual residences within tracts are valuable resources that reflect national and local trends in the recreation use of national forests. Many of these resources may be eligible for listing in the NRHP. Region 1 contains approximately 673 recreation residences, most of which are part of tracts. Some residences, however, are isolated, and treated separately for the purposes of this study (see below). Residences vary widely in age. Very few resources date from the earliest period of development in the 1910s, but a more substantial number of original cabins were built during the 1920s and 1930s. The majority of resources date from the late 1940s through 1960, when the Forest Service greatly reduced the number of new special use permits. Nonetheless, a large number of cabins were constructed after 1960 as replacements for older cabins, and new construction continues today.

Architecturally, most of the resources are simple, wood frame structures of modest size built by regional contractors using commercially available or manufactured materials, including conventionally milled lumber, composition roof shingles, and manufactured windows, particularly after the 1930s. Single-story residences predominate, although some residences take advantage of steeply pitched gable roofs to accommodate extra loft space at the attic level, and some newer construction is two stories. Although the cabins are often termed ‘rustic’ or ‘vernacular,’ stylistically most are only distantly related to the Rustic Style widely associated with National Park Service building projects in the west during the 1920s and 1930s. Those buildings featured construction using massive stonework or large, rough-hewn timbers to blend with their natural surroundings. While some residences utilize design elements associated with the Rustic Style, such as broad, sloping rooflines and exterior stone chimneys, they are typically smaller in scale and more subdued in style. Furthermore, although some residences feature aspects of vernacular or folk building styles, such as log construction, most are typical of recreation cabin designs across the country, and are not unique to the region. Notably, ranger stations and other administrative structures built in Region 1 during the 1920s and 1930s did employ both Rustic and vernacular idioms in their design, although Forest Service architects also used widely varying styles. Examples include the log-built Twin Lakes Ranger Station (1924), embodying the vernacular building tradition, and the Fenn Ranger Station Administration Building in Nez Perce National Forest, designed in the Georgian Style by William Fox. The latter building was detailed with ‘rustic’ elements including stone cladding on the lower levels. For the most part, the tastes of the Forest Service architects do not seem to have had a measurable impact on designs for private cabins.

Although most recreation residences do not fall into recognized stylistic groupings, they do share certain features, many of which were prescribed by construction standards distributed by each forest region. A set of ca. 1934 guidelines for Region 1 advised homeowners that “Buildings should be adapted to the site [and] harmonize with the setting,” avoiding high foundations and materials not “suitable to the forest,” including brick, stucco, and cement. Preferred building materials were logs, unplaned lumber, and natural stone, and the guidelines recommend the bungalow as the best type of home. Flowerbeds were discouraged, and rock gardens, wild flowers, or other native plants were allowed if inconspicuous. By the 1960s, the construction standards allowed a greater variety of materials, such as manufactured siding, brick, concrete block, and composition roof shingles, while recommending “simplicity, good proportions, and an appearance of naturalness to the forest,” according to a ca. 1965 Forest Service Information Sheet. Forbidden elements included corrugated iron, tar paper, cobblestones, and brightly colored mortar or stucco. The policy statement did not suggest any particular style or plan for residences,

and by the late 1960s and early 1970s, a wider variety of cabin types proliferated in the forests, including shed-roofed, asymmetrical plans and A-frames.

Property Subtypes

Most residences fall into one of the subtypes listed below. This preliminary typology is based on information provided by the Forest Service. Gaps in the data preclude a final determination of all subtypes, but this broad description will provide a basis for future work, and should be revised after completion of a comprehensive survey of all recreation tracts and residences.

Group 1: Rectangular-plan cabins with gable or hip roof (varied dates). These resources are of conventional wood-frame construction with exterior wood shingles or siding (*Figure 11*). This is one of the most common property subtypes, utilizing a basic approach to recreation residence design, and is ubiquitous in all the Region 1 forests.



Figure 11. A Group 1 type cabin on Lewis and Clark National Forest.

Group 2: Log cabins (1920-1960s). Although the most primitive examples of this subtype have been replaced by more permanent residences, log cabins represent some of the earliest recreation residences in the forests (*Figure 12*). Early examples have simple, rectangular plans with gable roofs. Later examples of entirely log-built homes were made with manufactured pieces assembled on-site by homeowners or contractors, and sometimes have more complex, irregular plans.



Figure 12. A Group 2 log cabin on Idaho Panhandle National Forest.

Group 3: L-plan with cross gable roof (typically late 1940s). L-plan residences with a corresponding cross gable present a more complex façade and irregular footprint that blends well with the forest landscape (*Figure 13*). These may feature a variety of exterior siding textures, and may have porches or decks on several sides.



Figure 13. A Group 3 cabin on Idaho Panhandle National Forest.

Group 4: Rectangular-plan cabins with modified gable, typically 1.5 stories (1945-65). These simple cabins take advantage of the space beneath the gable to provide an extra room, reflecting the needs of vacationing families (*Figure 14*). These wood-frame structures are some of the most common residences.



Figure 14. Group 4 rectangular-plan cabin with modified gable on Lewis and Clark National Forest.

Group 5: Irregular-plan cabins with shed roof (mid-1950s-mid-1970s). The asymmetry of these cabins lends a more modern edge to the typical wood-frame forest cabin (*Figure 15*). Fenestration may also be asymmetrical or feature clerestory windows.



Figure 15. Group 5 cabin on Idaho Panhandle National Forest.

Group 6: A-frame cabins (mid-1960s-mid-1970s). The simplicity and lofty interiors of the A-frame cabin made it a popular choice for homeowners in the 1960s and 1970s (*Figure 16*). Some examples have been modified with exterior wings or interior lofts, but remain easily identifiable.



Figure 16. Group 6 A-frame cabin on Flathead National Forest.

Group 7: Contemporary two-story cabins (late 1970s-present). More recent recreation residences are typically two-story, rectangular-plan structures designed to fit as much living space as possible into a small footprint (*Figure 17*). Like their predecessors, the cabins typically have wood-frame structures and exterior wood siding, but often have larger windows and more prominent entries.



Figure 17. Group 7 cabin on Flathead National Forest.

The following table summarizes essential features of the seven property subtypes:

Table 14. Property Subtype Characteristics

Property Subtype	Architectural Characteristics	Time Frame	Significance Period
Group 1	Wood-frame construction, rectangular floor plan, gable or hip roof, exterior wood shingles or siding	1908-1960s	Formation of Region 1; Early Development of RRs; New Deal; Postwar Development.
Group 2	Log construction, rectangular to complex & irregular floor plans, gable roof, original and prefab construction	1920s-1960s	Formation of Region 1; New Deal; Postwar Development.
Group 3	Wood-frame or log construction, L-plan, cross-gable roof	Late 1940s	Postwar Development
Group 4	Frame construction, rectangular floor plan, modified gable roof	1945-1965	Postwar Development
Group 5	Frame construction, irregular floor plan, shed roof,	1950-1970s	Postwar Development
Group 6	A-frame construction, rectangular floor plan, exterior wings, interior lofts	1960s-1970s	Non-historical period.
Group 7	Wood-frame 2-story construction, rectangular floor plan, wood siding, large windows & entrances	1970s-present	Non-historical period.

Alterations

Many residences have modifications that may affect their eligibility for NRHP or other historic designations. Common exterior alterations include the addition of porch or deck areas on either the back or front of the residence, replacement of windows and doors, enlargement of the original building footprint, and change of roof material, configuration or exterior siding. In addition, drastic changes to the resource’s site or setting can negatively impact eligibility. Each resource must be analyzed individually to determine whether it has maintained its integrity, as described below in “Section III: Registration Requirements,” and a group of modified residences may compromise the integrity of an entire tract. Generally, architectural features should retain their original design, materials, and workmanship in order to express the historic character of the resource. Additions or changes that are incompatible with the historic character may compromise integrity. When assessing the affect of alterations on a resource’s integrity, one should keep in mind that modifications that occurred during the historic period may have acquired significance in their own right.

Building owners should take care that routine maintenance, such as repainting of wood siding or repairs to roofing materials, does not compromise the residence’s integrity, and that repairs are made with compatible colors, materials and techniques. Methods to determine if maintenance actions affect the resource’s integrity are discussed in the “Monitoring and Maintenance” chapter.

Outbuildings

Service structures are commonly built alongside the principle recreation residence on the same lot, and serve a variety of purposes. Storage sheds, garages, and even guest cabins are common to newer residences, while outhouses and water pumphouses are typical of older cabins. Outbuildings are typically small in size, with a simple, square or rectangular footprint, and consist

of wood-frame construction with minimal fenestration. Older structures may be of log construction. Exterior cladding often takes the form of wood shingle, clapboard, or board-and-batten siding. Such associated buildings may be historically significant in their own right, or may contribute to the significance of the primary resource, and their condition should be taken into account when determining the significance of the resource.

Designed Landscape Elements

Lots may feature man-made landscape elements that add to the significance of the lot. These may include utilitarian features, such as a well, fence, wall, or gate, or decorative elements, such as a garden sculpture. These elements must be of historic age, maintain integrity, and add to the significance of the primary resource in order to be deemed “Contributing” structures.

Infrastructure

Although recreation residence permits allow for construction of private property in the national forests, the lots themselves are the property of the Forest Service, and may contain structures or objects built and managed by the Forest Service for the benefit of forest maintenance. Such structures and objects may include roads, bridges, sidewalks or pathways, drainage culverts, signage, and a host of other small objects necessary for the management of the forest. Larger public structures such as bathhouses, latrines or administrative buildings are normally separated from the recreation residence tracts, but may influence the tracts’ design or general appearance. Depending on their age, integrity, and relationship to the tract or individual residence, infrastructural resources could be determined to be contributing resources.

C. ISOLATED RESIDENCES

A number of resources in the eight Region 1 forests are isolated residences that are not part of a tract. Because they are not associated with tracts surveyed after the Term Occupancy Act of 1915, their history is somewhat more obscure than other recreation residences. Some isolated residences may be early hunter, trapper, or miner cabins that pre-date the establishment of the forest reserves, and were later made subject to special use permitting requirements; or, they may be replacements of such structures. Secondly, isolated residences may have been constructed in association with non-recreational forest activities, including mining, logging or other forest management projects. Finally, a few cabins may have been privately built prior to 1915 as part of a special use permit, and later were allowed to remain under the new permit system. In the case of these isolated residences, they cannot be compared to neighboring residences, as in tracts. Instead, investigation should ascertain the origin and history of each resource as accurately as possible, attempting to relate it to nearby surroundings. For example, a cabin near an old mining site may have been constructed by a worker during the mine’s period of operation. Also, isolated resources must be tied to the surrounding natural landscape features that likely dictated their location. Isolated residences may also have associated outbuildings, designed landscape elements, and infrastructure, which should be considered and treated as described above for tracts or recreation residences within tracts.

II. DETERMINING SIGNIFICANCE

ASSOCIATIVE QUALITIES

This study will ultimately aid the Region 1 forests and other responsible parties with the identification of recreation residences that are eligible for listing in the NRHP. A vital part of that

process is establishing the significance of each resource within the historic context of the recreation residences system. The context identifies and assesses important trends, events and themes relevant to the origin, history, and development of recreation residences, and provides a framework for evaluating the relative significance of individual resources. Another important tool for identifying and assessing historic properties is a comprehensive inventory resulting in a database of resources. Such an inventory, combined with the historic context, yields valuable information needed to compare potentially NR-eligible properties.

Significance assessments must be made according to the NRHP Criteria for Evaluation. A resource may be deemed significant for its historical associations, for its physical attributes or qualities, or for its research potential. Each of the NRHP Criteria should be closely examined for its applicability to the resource. Furthermore, the resource should retain its historic integrity to such a degree that it still conveys its significance and remains recognizable to the period in which the resource achieved significance. To determine if the resource retains its integrity, the NPS defines seven aspects of Integrity that are to be applied to the resource as a test, with appropriate emphasis given to exceptionally relevant features. For example, a recreation residence eligible for the NRHP for its historical associations (NRHP Criterion A or B) should maintain its integrity of feeling, association, and setting to a higher degree than those aspects of integrity pertaining to the resource's physical attributes and characteristics (integrity of design, materials, and workmanship). The reverse would be true of a property being considered under Criterion C. Finally, resources less than 50 years old must possess exceptional significance and retain their integrity to a very high degree to be eligible for the NRHP (see the discussion of Criteria Consideration G below for further guidance on determining exceptional significance).

To be eligible for listing in the NRHP, a resource must be significant within its historic context and retain sufficient integrity to convey its significance. In the case of recreation residences, each resource must be evaluated against the historic context in order to determine its relative significance among similar resources. For example, a resource built in 1917, during the early years of the special-use permit program, is likely to have greater significance than later recreation residences due to the relative scarcity of early resources.

In addition, NRHP Criteria require resources to have significance within a given context or theme (Area of Significance) to be eligible for the NRHP. Recreation residences are likely to have significance under the areas of Architecture, Community Planning and Development, Conservation, Landscape Architecture, Social History and/or Recreation. To attain significance in any of these areas, the resource must somehow be a unique and important to field in question. For example, to attain significance in the field of Landscape Architecture, a property may be an outstanding example of the work of an important landscape architect, master gardener, horticulturist, or architect, or of an amateur working in a recognized style or tradition. The resource may illustrate an important development in the theory or practice of landscape architecture, or be associated with a significant person, trend, or event within the professional field of Landscape Architecture. The most likely field of significance for recreation residences in the Region 1 Forests is Recreation, due to the resources' association with the growth of recreation travel and tourism in the National Forests. However, further investigation into potential areas of significance will strengthen the argument for historical significance, and provide added insight into the resource's past.

Lastly, a resource can be significant at a national, state, or local level. Since the historic context developed for this study examines trends and resources from both a national and regional

perspective, recreation residences are effectively evaluated for their significance at a national or state level. However, recreation residences may also possess significance at a local level. If noteworthy at a national level of significance, the resource must possess exceptional physical qualities and/or historical associations that are important to the nation as a whole. At a local level, a recreation residence may be the only example of its kind in a tract, forest, or region, but that fact alone does not necessarily mean that the lot possesses local significance. An argument must be constructed to demonstrate that the resource is significant within a local setting. A comparative analysis of regional recreation residences should produce compelling evidence for the significance of any single example, as outlined in the following section.

APPLYING THE NRHP CRITERIA FOR EVALUATION

NRHP Criterion A

A resource that is representative of an important trend or event at a national, state, or local level may be eligible for the NRHP individually, as part of a group, or as part of a historic district under NRHP Criterion A. This broad definition provides flexibility when determining the kinds of significant historical associations that apply to recreation residences in Region 1. Examples of the most important historical associations and themes associated with the recreation residences system are examined more thoroughly in the historic context, and include the following:

- **Formation of Region 1, 1908-1915.** From 1908 through 1918, Region 1 developed into a system of regulated forests with conservation and management of natural resources as its primary goal. Isolated cabins used by miners, trappers, and hunters, were joined ca. 1910 by the first private summer residences in the Idaho Panhandle National Forest. The 1915 Term Occupancy Limit established 30-year renewable permits, encouraging more permit requests for summer recreation residences.
- **Term Occupancy Act and the Early Development of Recreation Residences, 1915-1932.** The National Forest Service was originally established to manage natural resources and related industries, including logging, mining, and hunting. Recreation for the public was a secondary concern initiated in the 1910s and became increasingly important in the 1920s and 1930s. Auto tourism contributed to the popularity of National Forests as vacation destinations for American families, and special use permits allowed families to build private cabins on federally owned land.
- **New Deal Recreation Planning, 1933-1942.** The CCC and other New Deal work-relief programs helped develop infrastructure and recreation facilities such as campgrounds, bathhouses, and picnic sites in the National Forests. Although these groups did not work directly with recreation residences, their projects improved forest access and facilities, encouraging further development of recreation residence tracts and tourism in general.
- **Post-World War II Recreation Residence Development, 1945-1960.** After coming to a standstill during World War II, recreation in Region 1 forests increased dramatically due to increased leisure time and improved highways in the region. During the 1950s, the Forest Service limited the number of available permits in order to focus resources on public, versus private, recreation needs. By 1960, only a small number of new permits were issued in the region.

In addition to the major themes listed above, a recreation residence may have historical associations that are significant outside the nationwide context and may still be eligible under NRHP Criterion A. For example, an important local organization may have used a cabin as a meeting place during a formative period of its history. In such cases, the documentation should provide sufficient contextual information that justifies significance within a local framework.

To determine that a recreation residence is eligible under Criterion A, a firm association with one of the above historical themes must be established. The resource should meet the following tests:

- Was the resource built, developed, or initiated during the time frame for any of the themes listed above and described in more detail in the historic context?
- Was the resource developed using Forest Service land with private construction of residences, as established in the historic context?
- Does the recreation residence retain physical characteristics that make it representative of its type?

After historical association is firmly established, significance must be determined based upon a comparative analysis of the recreation residence with other resources of its type or period. Considerations in determining the significance of each recreation residence within its context should include:

- How many similar recreation residences (or tracts) exist with the same historical associations? Provide sufficient documentation to confirm any such claims.
- How does it compare with others within its region or district? Consider its age, size, location, geographic distribution, physical characteristics, and the degree to which changes over time have affected the ability to convey its significance. For example, is it one of a series of recreation residences that were built along an extended mountain ridge or lake shore? Does it embody features that reflect regionalization of design or are found in a specific region or geographical area of Region 1?
- Is the resource associated with more than one historic theme? Do these historical associations make the residence more or less significant? Are these associations typical of other contemporaneous recreation residences?
- Is the resource the earliest, latest, or only remaining example of its type? By themselves, these considerations do not necessarily mean that a recreation residence has significance, but they can be part of a broader argument that can help determine significance.
- Is the resource the most intact example of its type? What are the characteristics and qualities that make it an intact example of its type and are these attributes sufficient to argue that the recreation residence has significance for its historical associations?
- Do other unique factors exist that might establish the resource's significance within its historical association?

NRHP Criterion B

A resource may have significance under NRHP Criterion B if the recreation residence is directly associated with an individual who played an important role in the past. However, it is important

to determine not only what the individual's contributions were and how they compare with those of other persons, but also how the resource represents or is linked to that individual and his or her accomplishments. A resource eligible for the NRHP under this Criterion is usually the individual's residence, workplace, or business, but it could also mark the location of an important event in which the person played a key role. Historical associations that typically lack sufficient significance to be eligible under NRHP Criterion B include ownership, ownership by a relative or associate, a single visit, or other types of brief or tangential relationships and are not applicable for this study. For example, a locally important individual who merely built a recreation residence is not sufficient to be eligible under NRHP Criterion B. If, however, that same individual built the residence and subsequently convinced others to follow his example, leading to a recognizable movement or historically important trend, the recreation residence may have significance under NRHP Criterion B.

NRHP Criterion C

Unlike NRHP Criteria A and B, which deal with historical associations, NRHP Criterion C applies to resources whose significance is derived from the physical qualities of design, construction, and/or craftsmanship. To be eligible for listing under NRHP Criterion C, a property should embody distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; represent the work of a master; possess high artistic value; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction. A comparative analysis of the resource with others of its type will help to determine significance. A recreation residence may be considered eligible under Criterion C if:

- It is a unique or otherwise important example of a recreation residence or tract on a local, state, or national level. A resource determined important in Region 1 would likely be nominated on a national level. An example of a potentially important resource would be a large tract with numerous intact historical residences and landscape elements,
- It contains excellent early and relatively unaltered examples of an architectural style or trend, such as the Rustic Architecture movement, in Region 1, or
- It represents a good and intact example of a distinctive regional or local recreation residence design and retains most of the unique and distinctive elements associated with that design.

NRHP Criterion C requires that a resource must retain its historic character and character-defining features to a higher degree than those that are significant for their historical associations (NRHP Criteria A and B). Specifically, the resource must retain its integrity of design, workmanship, and materials and still convey its significance. It must be easily recognizable to the period in which it achieved significance.

NRHP Criterion D

The last of the four NRHP Criteria for Evaluation deals with the significance of resources that have the potential to yield important information about the past. Criterion D is applied most often to archeological resources, but it may also be used to evaluate the significance of extant buildings and structures.

Applying the NRHP Criteria Considerations

Certain kinds of properties usually are considered ineligible for listing in the NRHP and include such resources as religious properties, moved properties, birthplaces or graves, cemeteries, reconstructed properties, commemorative properties, and properties achieving significance within the past 50 years. However, these properties could be eligible for the NRHP 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 primarily significant 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 appropriate site or building associated with his or her productive life; or
- D.** A cemetery that derives its primary importance 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 exceptional significance; or
- G.** A property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance.

Of the seven categories listed above, the one most applicable to recreation residences is NRHP Criteria Consideration G. Any resource that is eligible for the NRHP through this consideration must be associated with a historical event, trend or person or display design or physical characteristics whose significance is of transcendent importance. The documentation should contain sufficient contextual information to justify why the property can be determined to be of exceptional significance and why the context and the resources associated with it can be judged to be "historic." It is important to realize that the resources must still be significant within at least one of the four NRHP Criteria for Evaluation. The Criteria Considerations merely serve as a vehicle by which properties that ordinarily are not considered for NRHP designation can indeed be eligible for listing in the NRHP.

Determining The Period of Significance

National Register guidelines also state that the significance of a resource should be defined within a logically determined timeframe (period of significance). The length of time in which a resource achieved significance may span many years, especially if it is associated with a historical trend (NRHP Criterion A) or with a prominent individual (NRHP Criterion B). However, the period of

significance could also be as short as a single year, which would be applicable if a resource achieved significance because of its association with an important historical event (NRHP Criterion A). In addition, in some instances a resource that has developed over time or has several distinct periods of development may have multiple periods of significance. The date of construction typically defines the period of significance for a resource that is significant for its physical attributes (NRHP Criterion C). Establishing the period of significance is also important while developing an inventory of features within the recreation residence and determining if these elements add to or detract from the lot's ability to convey its significance.

III. REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

These Registration Requirements are intended to evaluate conditions that must exist in order for a resource to be eligible for listing in the NRHP. Significance is determined by applying the NRHP Criteria for Evaluation, as described earlier in this report, in conjunction with national, regional, and local historic contexts provided in this report. To be significant within these contexts, a property should:

- Be a recreation residence tract, individual residence within a tract, or an isolated recreation residence as defined in the section “Property Type Identification;”
- Be at least 50 years old;
- Possess “exceptional significance” and retain a high level of integrity if it does not meet the recommended 50-year NRHP age threshold;
- Be significant within the historic context, either for its association with important trends or events (NRHP Criterion A) or association with a historically significant person (NRHP Criterion B). The resource could also be a good and well-preserved example of its type, or it may embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction (NRHP Criterion C). Finally, the property could hold potential for future information, as in an archeological site (Criterion D);
- Have significance within the areas or themes of Architecture, Community Planning and Development, Conservation, Landscape Architecture, Social History and/or Recreation; and
- Retain sufficient integrity to convey its significance because of its historical associations and/or design/physical qualities.

ASSESSING INTEGRITY

In order to be eligible for listing in the NRHP, a recreation residence must retain sufficient integrity to convey its significance under the Criteria for Evaluation. Seven qualities—Location, Design, Setting, Materials, Workmanship, Feeling, and Association—comprise a composite picture of the resource's overall integrity, although each quality may be weighted and examined individually. These qualities are called the Seven Aspects of Integrity, as defined by National Register Bulletin 15. A resource may lack integrity of one or more of these qualities, and still be eligible for listing as long as it strongly retains integrity in several of the other aspects. For example, a resource meeting NRHP Criterion C for its distinctive physical character or design qualities may be eligible for listing in the NRHP if it still retains its Integrity of Design, Materials, and Workmanship, despite lacking other aspects of integrity. Conversely, a resource that is significant for its historical associations and is eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or

B, must retain its Integrity of Association, Setting, Location, and Feeling to a higher degree than those aspects that deal with more physical traits and characteristics (Workmanship, Design, and Materials). The guidelines listed below should be applied in conjunction with the historic context to determine a resource's overall integrity.

Integrity of Location is the condition of remaining in the place where the resource was constructed or the place where the historic event occurred. All recreation residences that meet any of the NRHP Criteria must retain Integrity of Location in order to be eligible for the NRHP. Actions that would affect a property's Integrity of Location include:

- Moving the resource to another site.

Integrity of Design describes the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property as originally intended. The resource should appear substantially as it appeared when it was completed or reached its final form. This includes plan, original boundaries, and spatial organization. The original design intent should be clearly evident from these features taken together. Natural features that impact the overall appearance of the landscape, such as vegetation, rock formations, viewsapes, water features and grading, should also remain intact, since they influence the overall look and feel of the original design, and may affect specific aspects of the resource's design. Because of the unstable nature of vegetation, it should be evaluated as a whole to assess whether it reinforces or supports the original design intent; however, original plant material is not a necessity if the appearance of newer vegetation coincides with the spirit of the original design. A recreation residence or tract that meets NRHP Criterion C must retain its Integrity of Design. Actions that might affect a property's Integrity of Design include:

- Adding new wings or rooms;
- Enclosure or covering of windows or doors;
- Altering the size of window or door openings;
- Removing or changing porches or chimneys;
- Removing distinctive architectural detailing or ornamentation; and
- Changing the roof form or pitch.

Integrity of Setting describes the physical environment of a historic property and refers to the relationship between a resource and the open spaces that link it to its surroundings. A resource's surroundings should appear substantially as they did during the period of significance, especially where a resource's setting was an important part of its character. For recreation residences and tracts, this relationship is of particular importance, and viewsapes, topographic features, and the relation of the resource to the ground are also of particular interest. Note that alterations to settings mandated by fire codes or other public safety rules should be sensitive to historical requirements whenever possible. All recreation residences and tracts that meet any of the NRHP Criteria must retain Integrity of Setting. Actions that might affect a property's Integrity of Setting include:

- Removing or altering existing landscape features that define the property's historic character and/or use;
- Introducing new and historically inappropriate landscape features;
- Paving or covering areas that have been undeveloped or maintained as lawns or farmland;
- Re-orientation of a building on its site; and
- Constructing new buildings on property historically associated with the resource.

Integrity of Materials refers to the physical elements that, either individually or combined, form a historic property. A resource should maintain a significant portion of its original materials, since these are the best communicators of historic character. In the case of recreation residences and tracts, the primary residences and associated outbuildings should retain a majority of their original materials. Replacement materials that complement the originals may not detract from the resource's Integrity of Materials. The same is true of built landscape elements, such as bridges, pools, or paths, and infrastructure, such as roads or drainage structures. Original vegetation is not a requirement for retaining integrity, but existing vegetation should be consistent with the original patterns in feeling and overall appearance as they relate to the original design intent. Replacement plantings should be of the same or similar species as the original, be in the original location or configuration, and be in good condition. Original vegetation, where present, should be healthy and in good condition. A recreation residence or tract that meets NRHP Criterion C should retain its Integrity of Materials. Actions that might affect a property's Integrity of Materials include:

- Replacing original windows or doors;
- Covering original exterior finish (such as wood siding) with synthetic or alternate materials such as vinyl, aluminum, or stucco;
- Painting masonry surfaces; and
- Repointing mortar joints with an inappropriate cement composition.

Integrity of Feeling is the property's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time and is conveyed by the degree to which a resource evokes its aesthetic and historic character. A resource that retains its Integrity of Feeling closely resembles its appearance at the time it achieved significance. Changes to the layout and the introduction of new or different materials or plantings can detract from the Integrity of Feeling of a recreation residence, and some changes that negatively impact Integrity of Design, Materials, or other aspects of integrity may also affect a resource's integrity of feeling. All recreation residences that meet any of the NRHP Criteria must retain Integrity of Feeling. Changes that could affect a property's Integrity of feeling include:

- Installing windows with different light configurations than the original;
- Painting masonry surfaces;
- Changing the roof type or pitch;

- Erecting a new wing or addition; and
- Allowing a resource to fall into extreme disrepair.

Integrity of Workmanship is the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory. It should demonstrate the skill of a craftsman's labors or expertise and can be based on common building traditions, a popular architectural style or form, or innovative work techniques. For a recreation residence, the skills of a craftsman can be evidenced by architectural features, but can also include landscape elements such as walkways and plantings. A recreation residence that meets NRHP Criterion C should retain its Integrity of Workmanship. Actions that could affect a property's Integrity of Workmanship include:

- Removing or covering architectural details or ornamentation; and
- Changing salient features such as replacement of architectural or decorative elements with modern or anachronistic elements.

Integrity of Association is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property. A recreation residence or tract retains its Integrity of Association if it continues to be used for its original function. This aspect of integrity is a requisite for any recreation residence that meets any of the NRHP Criteria. Actions that could affect a resource's Integrity of Association include:

- Selling a federally owned property;
- Transferring a property to another federal agency; and
- Using a property for an activity unrelated to its original function or use.

NRHP Criterion C requires that a resource must retain its historic character and character-defining features to a higher degree than those that are significant for their historical associations (NRHP Criteria A and B). Specifically, the resource must retain its Integrity of Design, Workmanship, and Materials and still convey its significance. It must be easily recognizable to the period in which it achieved significance.

The following table summarizes requisite aspects of integrity that a resource must retain in order to be eligible under NRHP Criteria.

Table 15. The Seven Aspects of Integrity.

Aspect of Integrity	Criterion A	Criterion B	Criterion C
Integrity of Location	Requisite	Requisite	Requisite
Integrity of Design			Requisite
Integrity of Setting	Requisite	Requisite	Requisite
Integrity of Materials			Recommended
Integrity of Feeling	Requisite	Requisite	Requisite
Integrity of Workmanship			Recommended

Aspect of Integrity	Criterion A	Criterion B	Criterion C
Integrity of Association	Requisite	Requisite	Requisite

Alterations and Integrity

Alterations made to potentially eligible resources may undermine the resource’s integrity, thus threatening its eligibility for NRHP listing. The following table illustrates typical alterations that affect a recreation residence’s potential eligibility. However, it is important to understand that each resource should be evaluated individually to determine eligibility, and all final determinations of eligibility are made by the SHPO. Alterations to resources or their environs mandated by fire or building codes should be sympathetic to historic integrity issues to the extent possible, but may still affect the overall eligibility of a resource.

Table 16. Alterations and How They Affect Integrity.

Alteration	Compromised Aspect of Integrity	Affected Eligibility Criteria	Recommended Mitigation to Minimize Effects
Moving the residence	Integrity of Location	A, B, and C	None
Building additions	Integrity of Design Integrity of Feeling	A, B, and C	To minimize impact, additions should be modest in size and positioned for minimum public visibility. Materials and design should complement the style and feeling of the historic residence.
Replacing historic wood windows or doors with modern aluminum ones	Integrity of Materials Integrity of Design Integrity of Feeling	A, B, and C	Replacement windows and doors should be of the same or similar materials and design as the historic ones
Changing roof materials	Integrity of Materials	C	Replacement roofing materials should be the same or similar in appearance to originals
Changing roof configuration or pitch	Integrity of Design Integrity of Feeling	A, B, and C	Any changes to original roof configuration should closely mimic the original and utilize similar style, massing, and materials.
Covering or replacing original exterior siding with new materials	Integrity of Materials Integrity of Feeling Integrity of Design	A, B, and C	Original materials should not be covered or replaced, and if replacement becomes necessary due to damage or wear, new materials should mimic the originals.

DETERMINING CONTRIBUTING AND NONCONTRIBUTING RESOURCES

For the purposes of this study and NRHP standards, a recreation residence or tract is considered as a separate and distinct entity and is classified as a site. The NPS defines a site as “the location of a significant event, a prehistoric or historic occupation or activity, or a building or structure, whether standing, ruined, or vanished, where the location itself possesses historic, cultural, or archeological value regardless of the value of any existing structure.” In addition, recreation residences and tracts may be evaluated as designed cultural landscapes, acknowledging the interdependence of natural and manmade elements in the resource’s overall design and appearance. For more information, see *Preservation Brief #36: Protecting Cultural Landscapes*, published by the Technical Preservation Services branch of NPS. Other helpful resources include *National Register Bulletin #18: How to Evaluate and Nominate Designed Historic Landscapes*, *National Register Bulletin #30: Guidelines for Evaluating and Documenting Rural Historic Landscapes*, and *The Secretary of the Interior’s Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties with Guidelines for the Treatment of Cultural Landscapes*.

Although a recreation residence or tract is classified as a site, it still may contain multiple elements and features, which are to be inventoried and classified as either contributing or noncontributing elements, in accordance with NPS standards. All of the man-made features within each lot or tract, such as buildings, as well as landscape features that are particularly important in defining the character of the lot or tract, such as fences and walkways, or natural elements such as grade changes, bodies of water or important tree groves, should be identified, documented, and included in a comprehensive inventory. If other substantial resources also exist, they too should be documented. Historic photographs are particularly useful for documenting the original vegetation at recreation residences or tracts. Any resource included in the inventory that was built during the residence’s period of significance, retains its character-defining features, and adds to the ability of the lot to convey its significance is classified as a contributing resource. Conversely, any resource that was not present during the period of significance, is not associated with the significance of the lot, or has been subject to change so that is no longer possesses its historic character is classified as a noncontributing resource. In most cases, at least 50 percent of the resources at a recreation residence or tract should be classified as contributing resources; however, that benchmark is flexible and depends on the types of changes and the degree to which the resources define the lot’s historic character.

IV. MONITORING AND MAINTENANCE OF ELIGIBLE OR LISTED PROPERTIES

Maintaining a building in good repair is important for preserving the architectural integrity of a resource, protecting their salient and character-defining elements and preventing the loss of original materials. Monitoring of the properties through regular inspections helps identify deteriorated features and areas of potential failure. Forest Service or property owners should conduct regular inspections of residences and auxiliary buildings to determine their maintenance needs. All maintenance should be reviewed by Forest Service Officials to ensure compliance with the *Standards and Guidelines for Rehabilitating Historic Buildings* published by the Secretary of the Interior (<http://www.cr.nps.gov/hps/tps/tax/rhb/index.htm>) and Forest Service standards and practices. Forest Service Officials should work with property owners to help them understand the

integrity of the recreation residences and associated buildings and how they could be eligible for the NRHP.

The Standards provide guidelines for the preservation of historic materials and features. They include specific information pertaining to materials, construction methods, building components, and other systems. Site features and, landscape elements are also addressed in the Standards. State Historic Preservation Officers (SHPOs) use this publication as a primary source to educate individuals, in both the public and private sectors, about National Park Service (NPS)-approved preservation strategies and to assist them with carrying out these strategies. Additional technical information about the repair of historic buildings and architectural features may be obtained in the Preservation Briefs published by the NPS (<http://www.cr.nps.gov/hps/TPS/briefs/presbhom.htm>).

This information provides a framework for Forest Service Officials to develop a plan for their forest and integrate it into their regular operating procedures. Discussions with other forests may also help to develop consistent processes for the monitoring and maintenance of eligible or listed properties. A maintenance checklist and example of a condition assessment form may be found in Appendix D.

CONCLUSION

The preceding Property Types Analysis, Registration Requirements and Monitoring and Maintenance discussions are intended as interim documents for use in inventory and initial evaluation of recreation residences and their subtypes for NRHP eligibility. Every effort has been made to apply professional standards and account for the specific needs of the resources, as identified in the historic context for recreation residences in Region 1. Nonetheless, these should be revised following a careful review and development of a plan for comprehensive inventory and documentation of recreation residences and tracts in the National Forests.

RECOMMENDED ACTIONS FOR EVALUATING RECREATIONAL RESIDENCES FOR NRHP ELIGIBILITY

INTRODUCTION

While the steps for evaluating recreation residence NRHP eligibility are easily listed, the process for evaluating historic resources can be time-consuming. The most efficient manner of evaluating resources would be for Idaho panhandle National Forest to undertake a historic resources survey of all recreation residences, so that consistent information can be collected and analyzed in one coordinated effort. The Region 1 forests face several challenges as they identify, analyze, and evaluate their historic recreation residences. The forests' staff, schedule, seasonality, and funding constraints combined with the sheer number of dispersed resources in a topographically challenging environment mean that any plan to survey and evaluate the resources will require intensive coordination and careful attention to details. Given that accessibility to some of the resources is challenging, and indeed, hardly possible during certain seasons, historic resources survey fieldwork requires accurate and thorough documentation so as not to have to repeat field visits.

Previous cultural resource investigations on the Idaho Panhandle National Forest include a 1986 cultural resource inventory of eight summer homes on Priest Lake. In addition, a recreation residence database provided by the forest indicates that all residence tracts have been surveyed, with the exception of Neopit View and Garfield Bay.

The following provides an outline of the process an individual or agency would follow to evaluate recreation residences or tracts for NRHP eligibility. A discussion of each step is found below the outline.

THE NRHP ELIGIBILITY EVALUATION PROCESS

Identification

Develop historic context

Conduct resource-specific historic research; adjust context if necessary

Survey the resource(s)

Analysis and Evaluation of NRHP Eligibility

Define significance

- Apply the National Register criteria
- Select areas of significance
- Define period of significance

Assess integrity

- Apply qualities of integrity
- Identify changes and threats to integrity
- Classify contributing and noncontributing resources (for properties/districts/landscapes)
- Weigh overall integrity

Select defensible boundaries

- Define the historic property
- Decide what to include

Determination of NRHP Eligibility

- Prepare comprehensive survey report with recommendations of eligibility
- Submit survey report to SHPO for determination of eligibility

IDENTIFICATION

The essential first steps in the documentation and evaluation of historic resources involve the identification of the resources and the context in which they developed.

Historic Context

This report provides most of the first step in the identification, however, the historic context might best be considered as a living document until more intensive research and surveying of actual resources has taken place. Research material collected during the individual resource research step of the identification process could provide additional insight into the topics covered in the historic context, and may affect the assigning of significance to resources.

Resource-specific Research

Historic research in support of individual resources will need to be conducted by Forest Service personnel, recreation residence owners, or volunteers. Additional research on identified cultural landscapes or on vernacular historic properties built in remote locations may require innovative use of non-traditional reference sources, such as engineering records associated with road or dam-building or lakeshore improvements. Permit holders' personal records might prove useful for additional photography or timelines for property modifications. Idaho panhandle National Forest has some of the required information on hand, such as U.S.G.S. maps with resource locations noted, along with historic tract maps. Appendix E provides a sample permit-holder questionnaire which may offer another venue for obtaining historical information about specific recreation residences and tracts.

In addition, further research at NARA—Pacific Alaska Region in Seattle may prove beneficial to researchers in individual forests. Due to the voluminous archival materials present at the Seattle branch, the Project Historian limited the scope of research, with an emphasis on materials relating to the regional context. Given the variety of available material, it is likely that further research of individual forest archival records will provide additional insight into the development of

recreation residences. In particular, correspondence found within individual forest records that relates to recreation residence development would prove especially helpful. Adequate time should be afforded such research, however given the lack of quality finding aids and size of the collection.

Survey

The final step in the identification process is the actual survey of the property or properties. A comprehensive survey of all recreation residences within a forest or within an entire region is an essential tool for evaluating the significance and integrity of each individual tract or residence. Having compiled relevant information on the resources, preferably in database form, along with maps and photos, the Forest or its agent may then assess each resource in comparison with its neighbors, revealing sometimes surprising results. For example, a resource previously considered undistinguished architecturally may gain significance if the survey reveals that it is the only unaltered example of its type in the region. Data collected in the survey should include architectural style, structural types, building materials, construction date, alterations data, and observations on landscape and setting. All of these can be used to reveal the relationships between the resources and establish significance. This report includes a suggested survey form for documentation and evaluation of recreation residences in Region 1 (Appendix F). A form for each resource should be filled out by knowledgeable staff or volunteers and collected in a central location where the data may be processed and analyzed for assistance in making eligibility determinations. The survey forms should also be reviewed by the SHPO for compliance with their own survey standards.

ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF NRHP ELIGIBILITY

Define Significance

The next steps in the determination of an historic resource's eligibility for listing in the NRHP involve a thorough evaluation of the property or site. A resource or group of resources could be recommended as not eligible for listing in the NRHP at any stage in the evaluation process. Resources that do not meet the 50-year threshold are typically not eligible unless the case for exceptional significance can be successfully argued. A recreation residence that has experienced significant modifications to both its site and the built resources may be recommended as ineligible for lack of integrity. The previous section of this report provides the basis for identifying and applying the areas and periods of significance, as well as supplying direction for applying the National Register criteria. The field surveyor and/or preparer of the nomination will need to choose from the appropriate criteria and develop the statement of significance as applies to the individual (or group of) resources.

Assess Integrity

The previous section also provides a discussion of integrity as pertains to the resources related to recreation residences in the Region 1 forests and explains how to assess integrity. Changes and threats to integrity have been addressed at a high level in that section, as well. It will be incumbent upon the field surveyor and/or preparer of the survey report to record appropriate site features, and then articulate the seven aspects of integrity as they apply to the particular resource. At this point, the preparer will likely be prepared to provide an eligibility recommendation for individual resources. If more than one resource is being evaluated the preparer will need to determine what would constitute a contributing resource to a district, site, or cultural landscape, and what series of modifications or qualities would render a resource as non-contributing.

Select Boundaries

The boundary of a historic district or cultural landscape will need to be defined. Two NPS bulletins address the process for determining site boundaries, and should prove especially good resources for determining boundaries of cultural landscapes and rural historic districts. All NPS bulletins addressing NRHP nomination procedures and special considerations can be found at the following address: <http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/publications/bulletins.htm>

Determination of NRHP Eligibility

Along with the survey report, which includes recommendations for NRHP eligibility for specific resources or resource groupings, the preparer may need to complete and submit a Determination of Eligibility form to the Idaho State Historical Society if required to do so by the State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO). Using the information in the report and/or the form, the SHPO will provide a determination of eligibility for each documented resource. The state form can be found at the following address: <http://www.idahohistory.net/shpo.html>.

HELPFUL CONTACTS

Idaho State Historical Society
2205 Old Penitentiary Road
Boise, Idaho 83712
Phone: (208) 334-2682

Steve Guerber, Acting State Historic Preservation Officer
(208) 334-2682
Email: steve.guerber@ishs.idaho.gov

Belinda Davis, Historic Sites Registrar
(406) 334-3861
E-mail: belinda.davis@ishs.idaho.gov

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APPENDIX A

RESIDENCE TRACT PLANNING, CA. 1935

Residence Tract Planning
(From Linthacum's Copy, "Tract and Site Planning")

1. Don't subdivide an area into lots mechanically like cutting a cake or pie.
2. Pick best sites for main residence building and plat these with the idea of laying out a lot use area around it.
3. Lots should have a max. of 125 feet frontage under average cover conditions. They should not be over an acre.
4. Have good screening between the main bldgs. and adjacent lots to give separation and some privacy.
5. Have a policy for each tract as to what facilities will be allowed for each lot, i.e., garages, guest cabins, boat wharfs and shelters, etc.
6. Lots should not be joined in long, unbroken strings. Have right of way break every fourth or fifth lot as minimum.
7. Lot lines back from lake or stream enough to allow free community or public passage, usually minimum of 50 feet.
8. All structures on lots back far enough or well screened out of view from lakes or public roads. General practices (R-4) under current policy to be at least roadside and waterfront zone distance 200 feet on principle roads and public waters.
9. Don't put a lot out on a prominent point in a lake or other water or in such relation to its approach as to interfere with community access to it. Likewise a single lot should not command monopoly of a bay suitable for a community use wharf or other facility.
10. Don't lay out a lot across any stream, however small. Keep lot lines clear so all permittees may have equal privileges in the stream.
11. Select and designate area for community playgrounds or other purposes as needed or possible. Community wharfs desirable to reduce numbers.
12. Make tentative location of trunk services road and spur entrances to lot. ~~Entrances~~ roads curve enough not to open view to buildings.
13. Have approved policy for kinds of structures and developments that will be allowed on the tract; i.e., garages, guest cabins, boat wharf and shelter, ice-house, storage building, etc.,. On each lot stake location for all improvements and structures which it is proposed ever to allow on that lot.
14. Some adjustments or shifting of tentative road and building locations probably necessary to get best layout.
15. The trunk or entrance road should not pass through any lot to reach another.
16. When all roads and other improvements staked in final locations, establish corners of lots to give a balanced use area around the residence building. Suggest trees for corners with scribed stump blazed facing center of lot.
(Corner # over lot #, 1/2 is corner 1 of lot 2)

APPENDIX B

GENERAL CONSTRUCTION STANDARDS, 1934

GENERAL CONSTRUCTION STANDARDS FOR SUMMER HOMES

UNDER NATIONAL FOREST PERMIT.

REGION ONE.

Foreword:

As evidences of man increase in the forests, so decrease many of the attractions sought by those visiting the forests for recreation. In developments on recreational areas, the Forest Service seeks to save these attractions, - to preserve an environment as nearly natural as possible.

Towards these aims, the guides or standards below are designed. They do not demand any one specific treatment applicable to all cases, nor are they intended to restrict individual tastes. Instead they are a guide indicating the kinds of construction and development that are to be avoided or cannot be condoned.

Location of Structures and their Number

One prerequisite for natural conditions is that man-made structures be inconspicuously located; another, that their number be held to a minimum.

Structures must be set back from main highways and other public travel routes, lake shores and streams, - the distance back depending on configuration of the ground and available tree and shrubbery screening. Similar screening is necessary between adjoining permittees, to insure privacy and seclusion. In most cases, the Forest Service sets the limits within which structures may be placed on any lot, at the time of its survey.

A few moderate-sized buildings are better than a greater number of small ones. Less attention is attracted, thus retaining more of natural appearances, and the fewer buildings are more easily designed and located to blend with natural surroundings. (Incidentally there is greater convenience for the occupants, and usually greater economy in construction and maintenance.)

Adaptation to Site

Buildings should be adapted to the site, harmonize with the setting, "fit the ground."

High foundations must be avoided; on a sloping site the foundation may be kept lower by a little excavating on the uphill site and terracing of the location for the building. Noticeable variation in height of foundation of buildings on

*Refers to B...
each also 40...
6/11/30*

the same site is undesirable.

The bungalow type of residence is preferable. Tall buildings rarely "fit" the forest; low structures are best.

Building Materials

Building materials should be suitable to the forest, and those native to the locality are preferable.

Log houses will harmonize with nearly all forest settings and landscapes; variations are obtainable with peeled, sawed or hewed logs.

Lumber buildings may be made quite suitable in some cases. Unplaned lumber will finish or weather with a more "natural" appearance than planed lumber.

A neutral-toned stain or oil finish is less artificial than paint, although painting is acceptable if neutral colors are used. Do not use bright or gaudy color schemes which clash with the natural forest scheme; sienna browns, nature greens or battleship grays are best.

Construction of natural stone will be satisfactory where rock is plentiful naturally on the site, if startling design and finish are avoided. Bright-colored mortar in masonry work is out of place in the usual scheme of forest color.

Brick, cement, stucco and similar materials for structures are inappropriate and not permissible.

Building Design and Architecture

1. Foundations should be kept as inconspicuous as possible. They may be partially hidden or screened with natural growth or foundation plantings of shrubs, vines, ferns, et cetera. Plants native to the locality are best.

Buildings on slopes may not have an opening left underneath where they are off the ground on the lower side; nor may porches be open between the floor and the ground. Such construction appears unfinished. The space may be logged up or latticed with pillar type of foundation, or the foundation itself extended.

Pillars are inferior to a wall foundation, and where used should be ample in number and substantially made.

Where exposed to view, foundations should preferably be rock masonry than cement, but the latter is not objected to.

2. Walls should present clean, pleasing surfaces, and the various wall areas of a building should keep some geometrical

relation to each other.

No wall or portion of a wall of a building should be so placed in relation to the others or be of such a marked difference in shape or dimensions that a portion of the building appears to have been "stuck on".

3. Windows and doors should be of uniform shape and should be placed with relation to each other so that the result will be balanced and pleasing.

The sizes of doors and windows should ordinarily be fairly uniform throughout the building, but this may necessarily have to be varied a little to maintain "balance" in the appearance of a wall. A large door and large window in a small wall surface are not good, and a very small window and door (or none at all) in a large wall are not pleasing.

Large, blank wall surfaces should be broken up, if possible, with windows, a door or a fireplace.

Round, diamond-shaped or other odd windows must not be used with the usual building design in the forest.

4. Roofs should present a simple and pleasing pattern.

Slopes of various roof areas on a building or on several buildings on the same site should be consistent.

Roofs should not be too much broken up. Broken ridges and valleys should be avoided. Combinations of a hip-and-box-car roof or roofs of different pitches on the same building or on two or more buildings associated in a group are not good.

Shingles or shakes are most suitable for roofs in the forest. Slate or sand-surfaced composition roofings are satisfactory if of subdued green or other harmonizing color.

5. Porches should fit the house. Preferably they should be integral with the building. An appearance of being "stuck on" is not good; an example is a log porch on a frame building, or vice versa. If the house would look as well or better with the porch removed, the design is not good.

All porches should be substantially constructed. A flimsy porch might spoil an otherwise satisfactory building. The foundation of the porch is as important as that of the house.

6. Chimneys must be fire-safe and as substantial as circumstances permit. A stovepipe through the roof is unsightly as well as dangerous.

Native stone material is preferred as most natural. Cement or neutral-colored tile is acceptable. Brick chimneys are least appropriate.

7. Fireplaces of as rustic construction as possible often may be made to add considerably to the appearance in a forest setting. They should be safe and substantially made.

Stone is most suitable and fitting. Cement is acceptable, especially if it is made pleasing with rubble work. Brick is less adaptable to natural settings.

Lines of the fireplace on building exteriors should be simple, without swellings and bumps, and angular construction.

8. Decorations, if any, on the building should be very simple. "Doodads", scroll work or curlicues of any kind are unsuited to a forest residence.

9. In general, simplicity is the keynote of good design. Proper proportions, a feeling of naturalness and an air of simple dignity are the essentials. Things ornate, elaborate, pretentious, showy, tricky, fussy or peculiar are bad.

Plans and Specifications

Elaborate or expensive plans made by an architect are not required, though a prospective summer-home builder will often find benefit in referring to one or to suggested plans of which many are published in lumber trade journals or home and garden magazines or the like, or can be furnished by lumber retailers.

Simple plans definitely showing that no undesirable features are contemplated, and putting emphasis on the "layout" of structures, - their location, relationship and number, - and on their dimensions and exteriors, are adequate. Interior floor plans are not needed.

Landscaping

To preserve naturalistic conditions, landscaping is best along informal, natural lines rather than of formal character foreign to the specific locality, and should contemplate moderate rather than extreme results. Simplicity and as close as possible approach to the way Nature would establish its components on any area are the keynote to most desirable effects and to the most pleasing, permanent and increasing returns for the effort. ~~Landscaping effects should aim at directing attention to the natural conditions on any site, and to obscure so far as possible the evidences of artificiality due to occupancy.~~

1. The fine litter and humus cover on the ground must not be removed; not only is the bare,unnatural ground unsightly, but also in many locations it increases dust and reduces fertility of the soil.

2. Existing trees, shrubbery, vines, et cetera, must be preserved so far as practicable. They must not be cut, trimmed or pruned, except in making space for structures or unless approved by the local Forest officers. Blazing, carving or

otherwise defacing trees is prohibited. Buildings should be adjusted or adapted to the terrain and the native rocks and trees, rather than altering these to fit the structures.

3. Plantings when required would obviously fit in far better with the surrounding growth if of trees, plants, vines, ferns, et cetera, native to the locality, or when that is not feasible, of a selection of foreign plants resembling the native as closely as possible. Bright-colored plants in exaggeration of what may naturally be found manifestly clash with the natural.

4. Just as flowers do not occur naturally in artificial beds, so, plainly, flowers in artificial beds at forest residences depart from natural conditions. Naturalistic rock gardens of native plants or cultivation of wild flowers are preferable, and even those would be better - since breaking away from the natural - if not too conspicuous.

5. Fences and gates should be avoided if possible. When necessary, they should be of native materials and of utmost simplicity. They must be inconspicuous, screened with natural shrubbery growth wherever possible. A painted fence, especially white or bright color, is startlingly artificial in an otherwise natural background.

6. Roads, walks, paths and trails, when necessary, preferably should be gently curving or winding, not crooked, rather than straight. A straight-line clearing for a road is more unnaturally conspicuous than one that is curved.

Flagstones or gravel or sand are best for walks or paths. Brick walks and cement walks do not fit in a forest atmosphere, although irregular cement blocks - neutral stained, in imitation of flagstones - may be found compatible.

7. Decoration of the grounds with whitewashed or painted rocks or stones or by whitewashing tree trunks, even though neatly done, is not permissible. Fancy or elaborate rock work on fountains, or ornate rustic or garishly-colored furniture and yard fixtures, are not desirable in good landscaping as in other good architecture.

APPENDIX C

FOREST SERVICE SUMMER HOME POLICY, 1941

FOREST SERVICE
United States Department of AgricultureU
USES
General

February 1941

FOREST SERVICE SUMMER HOME POLICY

The national forests are public property and are managed for "the greatest good to the greatest number in the long run."

Since a summer home is an exclusive use of national forest land it naturally and properly must not be allowed to interfere with public or semipublic uses. Summer homes may only be permitted on areas which because of topography or location are unsuited for public use or on areas which, as far as can be seen, will not be required for present or future public needs and where the presence of summer homes will not interfere with public enjoyment of other areas.

Areas to be designated for summer homes are selected by experienced forest officers in accordance with the above principles. Fortunately, summer homes do not require a large area and places can be found which are very satisfactory for summer homes and yet do not interfere with public use. Such areas are surveyed into individual lots of one-half to one acre in size. As a general rule, it is both impracticable and undesirable to permit single summer homes in isolated, scattered locations. Several lots usually are surveyed in a group, with adequate spacing between the individual summer homes for separation and privacy.

In order to prevent unnecessary intrusion into the forest scene and interference with general public use, summer homes are not permitted within sight of highways, on lake shores, along the frontage of fishing streams, near public-use areas, or within areas of scenic natural features and attractions. However, the objective is to locate them in places which are suitable for summer home use and in attractive country with good forest cover, and they may often be within convenient distance of fine recreation areas.

The location and plotting of summer home areas is just one of the many things which the men charged with administration of the national forests have to do, so it is not possible to have a large supply of sites ready at any one time. Persons desiring a summer home should get in touch with the forest supervisor of the particular national forest in which they are interested. If summer home sites are available on that forest, the forest supervisor will arrange for an inspection of available tracts so the prospective summer home permittee may select a site from the unoccupied surveyed lots available. If no summer home sites are available on that national forest, the forest supervisor will, if practicable, direct the summer home applicant to another national forest on which lots may be available.

When a person has selected a summer home lot he is issued a special-use permit for the area, which grants him exclusive use with certain restrictions. The fee for a summer home lot is generally from \$15 to \$25 a year. The permit is renewable each year by payment of the annual fee, if its conditions and requirements have been complied with, but in case the Government has need of the area for higher use the permit may be canceled after giving the owner due notice and a reasonable time to amortize his investment. Since summer home sites are now so carefully selected, this would happen only under unusual and unforeseeable conditions.

APPENDIX D

CONDITION ASSESSMENT FORM

MAINTENANCE FORM AND CONDITION ASSESSMENT

The Forest Service should develop a maintenance management program for incorporating regular field inspections to identify the maintenance and repair requirements for all resources. The inspection of each building should follow a standard list of procedures and checks to ensure consistent and thorough assessments of the resources. The inspection should consist of filling out a survey form followed by the Condition Assessment and Maintenance Form. Forest Service resource staff should consider completing the following tasks:

- Develop field inspection forms to track the physical condition of a building's structural system, exterior envelope and interior features. The following form is an example of a maintenance checklist and may be adapted to meet the requirements of the natural and built environment at each forest;
- Inspect each building for maintenance deficiencies and code compliance issues;
- Compile and evaluate information. Prioritize work requirements and develop an annual maintenance and repair plan for each building to ensure all buildings are maintained in proper condition; and/or,
- Place all buildings on a cyclical inspection and maintenance program to ensure the continued preservation of the buildings. Conduct periodic inspections to update the condition assessments.

The goal of the maintenance and condition assessment form is to establish a baseline evaluation of each historic building at each Forest and to supervise the maintenance and repair of buildings. A template for field inspection forms follows this text.

**Lewis and Clark National Forest
Condition Assessment and Maintenance Form for
Historic Recreation Residences**

Lot No: _____ **Date:** _____
Tract Name: _____ **Property Record No.:** _____
Current Permit Holder: _____ **Date of Construction:** _____

Changes to Site Features/Setting

Location: _____
_____ Landscape Features _____ Roadways _____ Pathways
_____ Fences _____ Outbuildings _____ Infrastructure
_____ Other _____

Comments: _____

Additions to Building Exterior

Location: _____
_____ Additions _____ Porches _____ Stairs/ramps _____ Air conditioners
_____ Lighting _____ Vents
_____ Other _____

Comments: _____

Changes to Building Foundation

Location: _____
Type: _____

Comments: _____

Changes to Roof Structure and Material

Location: _____
_____ Roof pitch _____ Roof Material _____ Chimneys
_____ Skylights _____ Exhaust vents _____ Down spouts and gutters
_____ Other _____

Comments: _____

Changes to Fenestration

Windows
Location: _____

____ Filled-in ____ Replaced ____ Added Features _____
Other _____

Comments: _____

Changes to Doors

Location: _____
____ Filled-in ____ Replaced ____ Added Features _____
Other _____

Comments: _____

Condition of Building Materials:

Wood

Location: _____
____ Sagging ____ Wear ____ Splintering ____ Looseness ____ Warping
____ Scratches ____ Rotting ____ Staining ____ Discoloring ____ Moisture penetration
____ Cracked ____ Missing Boards ____ Alligatoring from leaks
____ Indentations ____ Absence of protective coatings ____ Shrinkage cracks
____ Insect infestation: ____ Sawdust ____ Wood pellets ____ Round emergence holes
____ Damp areas: ____ Infestation ____ Fungus growth
____ Other _____

Concrete

Location: _____
____ Wear ____ Pitting ____ Roughness ____ Discoloring ____ Staining
____ Settling ____ Shrinkage cracks (particularly over wood framing)
____ Chipping ____ Looseness ____ Missing ____ Water Damage
____ Exposed reinforcing ____ Other _____

Clay, quarry tile and brick

Location: _____
____ Sandy and eroded mortar joints ____ Stained ____ Broken ____ Chipped
____ Cracks ____ Missing units ____ Loose units
____ Other _____

Metal

Location: _____
____ Wear ____ Corrosion ____ Looseness ____ Bending ____ Stains
____ Holes ____ Sagging ____ Buckling ____ Rust ____ Support failure
____ Broken welds ____ Loose, missing or damaged nuts, bolts, rivets, and screws
____ Other _____

Paint

Location: _____
____ Blistering ____ Blistering ____ Scaling ____ Peeling ____ Alligatoring
____ Wrinkling ____ Fading ____ Chalking ____ Mildew ____ Bleeding
____ Staining ____ Bonding Failure ____ Other _____

Asbestos

Location: _____
____ Weathering ____ Broken ____ Cracked ____ Loose ____ Missing units
____ Sufficient side/end lap ____ Alligatoring from leaks
____ Other _____

Glass

Location: _____
____ Missing ____ Broken Panes ____ Disintegration of putty
____ Other _____

APPENDIX E

PERMIT QUESTIONNAIRE

Permit-holders Questionnaire

Suggested text for an introductory letter and attached questionnaire follows below. The letter has been crafted from a perspective that mail-merge would be used to insert permit holder names, addresses and property information. Any other highlighted and/or italicized text is provided as a suggested option.

LETTER:

John Q Public, Permit-holder for Lot X, XXX Tract
Address on file
Anywhere, USA

Dear John,

As a part of the permit renewal process for your recreation residence in the Lewis and Clark National Forest, Forest Service employees (*and/or volunteers*) will conduct a field survey to evaluate your property's eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. In support of this effort, Lewis and Clark National Forest is requesting copies of, or the opportunity to examine, any available historic records, maps, or photographs that you and your family may have in your possession that would assist with background research for this evaluation process. Should you have questions about this documentation effort, or would like to know more about the National Register of Historic Places, contact the Forest Heritage representative listed at the end of the questionnaire, or go online to: <http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/about.htm>.

We request that you fill out this questionnaire and return it to the address listed below no later than *August 15, 2006*. Your assistance is vital to the timely renewal of the permit for your recreation residence.

Thanks in advance for your cooperation,

Sincerely,

XXXXX XXXX, Forest Supervisor

USDA Forest Service

QUESTIONNAIRE:

John Q. Public

Lot X, XXX Tract:

1. Do you have any family histories, historic photographs, scrapbooks, or other historical materials related to your recreation residence? If so, are you willing to share any historical information with the Forest Service to document the cabin's historical significance? Please list any materials below.

Family history:

Historic Photographs (subject and date):

Maps (describe type, location depicted):

Scrapbooks (description of contents):

Other historical information (newspaper clippings, historic objects, etc.):

2. Are you aware of any notable individuals or historical figures who have owned or had some significant influence on your recreation residence, or those nearby, in

6. *Would you be interested in volunteering to assist with the historical survey and documentation of recreation residences in your tract? Could you briefly explain your availability and list any skills or experience that might be especially useful for this documentation effort (such as: photography, cartography, historic research, writing, interviewing, construction trades, etc.)?*

Please return questionnaire to:
Sandi French
Lewis and Clark National Forest
1101 15th St. North
Great Falls, MT 59403
(xxx)xxx-xxxx
email:

APPENDIX F

RR SURVEY FORM

**Lewis and Clark National Forest
Survey Form for Historic Recreation Residences**

Tract Name:

Property Record/Survey No.:

Lot No.:

Current Permit Holder:

Date of Construction:

Surveyor:

Photolog:

Disc No.	Photo No.	View	Camera Facing

Architectural Features:

Structural System

- wood frame
- steel frame
- log construction
- load-bearing masonry
- other: _____

Foundation Type

- pier and beam
- slab on grade
- raised slab
- other: _____

Foundation Materials

- wood
- concrete
- stone
- brick
- other: _____

Foundation Features

- basement
- skirt wall
- screening
- other: _____

Plan Type

- rectangular
- L-plan
- irregular
- other: _____

Stories

- one
- one-and-a-half
- two

other: _____

Roof Type

- gabled
- modified gabled
- cross-gabled
- hipped
- hipped with gables
- shed
- other: _____

Roof Material

- wood shingles
- composition shingles
- metal
- roll roofing
- other: _____

Roof Features

- dormers: gabled
- dormers: shed
- dormers: hipped
- exposed rafter ends
- kneebraces/brackets
- bargeboards
- cornice
- parapet
- other: _____

Chimneys

No. of Chimneys

Chimney Materials

- stone
- brick
- concrete
- other: _____

Porches and Decks

of porches/decks

Porch/Deck Location

- north
- south
- east
- west

Porch Type

- partial-width
- full-width
- wraparound
- inset
- entry
- other: _____

Porch/Deck Materials

- wood
- metal
- masonry
- other: _____

Porch Roof

- shed
- gabled
- hipped
- unroofed
- other: _____

Porch Roof Supports

- turned
- square
- tapered
- box

chamfered
other: _____

Exterior Materials

- log
- horizontal wood siding
- vertical wood siding
- wood shingles
- asbestos shingles
- vinyl siding
- stone veneer
- brick veneer
- other: _____

Doors

of doors

Door Materials

- wood
- metal
- vinyl
- other: _____

Door Features

- transom
- sidelights
- glazing
- panels
- other: _____

Window Types

- double hung
- single hung
- fixed
- casement
- awning
- hopper
- other: _____

Window Materials

- wood
- metal
- vinyl
- other: _____

Alterations

- plan
- windows and doors
- porches
- roof
- foundation
- exterior materials
- outbuildings
- landscape
- infrastructure
- other: _____

Lot Features:**Outbuildings**

- shed
- garage

- pumphouse
- guest cabin
- latrine
- other: _____

Other Features

- well
- cistern
- retaining wall
- driveway
- garden structures
- fence or gate
- other: _____

Infrastructure

- road
- bridge
- culvert
- other

Landscape Features:**The lot's surroundings are:**

- densely wooded
- sparsely wooded
- prairie or grassland
- on a lakeshore
- on a mountain ridge
- other: _____

Log Construction**Log Types**

- unhewn
- rough hewn
- square hewn
- planked
- half log
- hewn half log
- other: _____

Chink

- depth between logs: _____
- fill material: _____
- _____
- exterior siding (if applicable): _____
- _____

Corner Notching

- full-dovetail notch
- half-dovetail notch
- V notch
- square notch
- semilunate notch
- half notch
- double notch
- saddle notch
- half-notched false corner timbering
- posted corner

- other: _____

Log Roof Structure

- ridgepole and purlin
- ridgepole and rafter
- anglo western
- other: _____

Floor Plan Type

- single-pen
 - rectangular
 - continental
 - dugout
 - semidugout
- double-pen
 - central-hall
 - central-chimney
 - dogtrot
- triple-pen
 - dogtrot ell
 - dogtrot "T"
 - basic ell
 - linear basic
 - linear dogtrot
- four-pen
- other: _____