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United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (formerly 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information.

_X_____ New Submission _____ Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

United States Forest Service Recreation Facilities

B. Associated Historic Contexts

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

Forest Reserve Era 1891-1904, Early Forest Service 1905-1911, Custodial Management 1912-1932, Depression Era 1933-1942, World War II and Post-War Recreation Planning 1942-1956, Operation Outdoors 1957-1969, Beyond Operation Outdoors.

C. Form Prepared by:

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D. Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation.

Douglas Stephens | FPO Forest Service | May 7, 2024
Signature of certifying official | Title | Date

State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

James Gabbert | 6/27/2024
Signature of the Keeper | Date of Action

Table of Contents for Written Narrative

Create a Table of Contents and list the page numbers for each of these sections in the space below.

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

United States Forest Service Recreation Facilities | Nationwide
Name of Multiple Property Listing | State

Provide narrative explanations for each of these sections on continuation sheets. In the header of each section, cite the letter, page number, and name of the multiple property listing. Refer to *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* for additional guidance.

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Name of Property
County and State US Forest Service Recreation Facilities
Name of multiple listing (if applicable)

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

Introduction

The US Forest Service (USFS) was established in 1905 as part of the US Department of Agriculture and currently manages 193 million acres of public lands, including more than 8,000 recreation sites. The agency has evolved over time to effectively manage its multiple use mission to sustain the health, diversity, and productivity of the nation's forests and grasslands to meet the needs of present and future generations. Recreation was not initially a management priority for the agency, and yet there was a long tradition of access to nature on Forest Service lands:

> Long before the National Forests were established men went hunting in the woods and fishing in the streams. Camping and picnicking in the wilds had an ancient priority over the administration of those same areas by the Federal Government for the production of timber and the conservation of water. These conditions were not changed by the assignment of the lands to the care of the National Forest Service, except that such recreation uses were multiplied and intensified.[1]

The planned development of Forest Service recreation infrastructure coincided with major historic events that fostered the expansion of other public infrastructure. Historic research and review of real property data has revealed two major periods of growth; the majority of the existing inventory of USFS recreation sites date to these periods: the Depression Era (1933-1942), and the mid-20th century Operation Outdoors Era (1957-1969). The historic context presented below focuses on the factors that led to these periods of recreation expansion, including social, economic, and political forces that shaped the Forest Service as an agency and, more specifically, its approach to managing recreation as part of its multiple use mission. The resulting vast network of recreation facilities includes those associated with camping, hiking, skiing, boating, scenic drives, historic sites, day-use areas, and picnicking, among others. Brief discussions of other important development periods are included for continuity, and a few influential individuals active in the early part of the 20th century whose work helped shaped Forest Service recreation design and planning are described. Understanding the recreation history of the agency will illustrate themes and ideas that have been carried from one generation of recreation planners to the next, providing a foundation for this broad evaluation of recreation facilities spanning the agency's history.

USFS recreation site design and planning outside of the Depression and Operation Outdoors eras was often conceived at a local level and displays a wide variety of styles and designs. The focus on expanding recreation development during these two periods resulted in a broadening of the recreation opportunities available to the visitors in both scale and scope. These two expansion periods also fostered the standardization of the design and appearance of Forest Service recreation sites into distinct and recognizable types, planned according to common principles developed by professional designers and issued to individual forests at the regional or national level. As a result, sites of a particular era display a degree of design continuity, reassuring contemporary visitors about what to expect from Forest Service recreation sites and allowing construction and maintenance to proceed in an efficient manner.

This Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) provides a means for evaluating the historical significance of Forest Service recreation facilities and structures, many of which will be very similar as representatives of these two primary periods of planning and development. Following the historic context in Section E, the property types and registration requirements given in Section F address the Depression and Operation Outdoors Eras specifically, and it is expected that these requirements will apply to the majority of extant Forest Service recreation sites. An additional set of more general requirements for "Other Recreation Facilities" is provided for the evaluation of those properties that do not correspond to the common design features of structures constructed during the two primary eras.

This MPDF is intended to broadly address USFS recreation facilities. While Forest Service recreation policy and management practices across the United States became increasingly directed at a national scale from the agency's Washington Office, regional offices also provided specific direction (see USFS Region Maps in Appendix A). It is anticipated that additional documentation to this MPDF will be provided at the regional level with specific property type descriptions and variations on national trends. Additional documentation may also be provided to address recreation property types not planned and designed directly by the Forest Service but built instead by private individuals or corporations under permits issued by the Forest Service. These include recreation residences, ski resorts, and other commercial developments. While the historical use of recreation facilities across Forest Service lands was an activity largely aimed at providing recreation access to the white population of American citizens, the lands managed by the Forest Service were originally the homelands of Native American tribes. Many tribes continue to access Forest Service lands through developed recreation facilities and collaborate with Forest Service staff to manage resources and carry out traditional practices. Jim Crow laws limited access for African Americans to public recreation facilities in the South until the 1960s, and there may be Forest Service recreation facilities associated with segregation. These and other related topics are expected to be assessed more thoroughly through additional documentation efforts that will supplement this MPDF. In the absence of additional documentation for specific property types not addressed in this MPDF, properties may be evaluated and nominated to the National Register of Historic Places outside the scope of this document.

Forest Reserve Era, 1891-1904

By the mid-19th century, the United States was expanding its geographic boundaries to the west as populations in eastern urban areas continued to increase. At the same time, the federal government's plan for management of public lands in the American West took the form of transferring land from public domain to private ownership. Land was at a premium in the east and families began to look west for opportunities to own their own land. The federal government incentivized this movement with the passage of the Homestead Act of 1862. This act allowed for the government to transfer 160 acres of land to private individuals in the hopes that citizens would permanently settle, manage, and farm the land and in doing so extend the occupied landmass of the United States. The Homestead Act of 1862 was merely one of many pieces of legislation designed to put land into private hands as quickly as possible. Others included the Pacific Railroad Acts, the Timber Culture Act of 1873, the Desert Land Act of 1878, and

numerous others. The General Land Office (GLO) of the Department of the Interior was the first federal land management agency to control land sales and oversee the rapid transfer of public lands to private ownership in the hands of both private citizens and corporations such as railroads.

By the late 19th century, the American landscape was impacted by uncontrolled exploitation of natural resources. The construction of railroads and unrestrained logging had degraded natural ecosystems across the country. Throughout the 19th century, domestic and foreign observers bemoaned the destruction of American forests. The first government report threatening a timber famine appeared in 1865, but mid-19th-century American timber regulations made little impact on the production or protection of forest resources. Early railroad logging typically removed about 70% of the timber in an area, leaving behind fire hazard in the form of scattered tops, limbs, and slash, and leaving watersheds vulnerable to flooding.[2] The federal government and the American public at large noted the need to reserve land and resources for public use.

The Forest Service was established under the Department of Agriculture as part of the Transfer Act of 1905, which transferred the management of forest reserves from the General Land Office of the Interior Department to the Bureau of Forestry, henceforth known as the United States Forest Service. The large acreage of agency-managed land and modest staff numbers created a difficult environment for the Forest Service to focus on any policy priorities beyond those of fire detection and basic timber resource management. The major duties of field staff were dedicated to fire detection activities, along with the creation of local administrative facilities and trails to access key vantage points and fire lookouts; recreation was largely an afterthought. Any recreation facilities developed during this period are unique; not planned as part of a national recreation design program, but instead driven by the needs and interests of the local community. Recreation development on a larger scale was not possible without the growing regional transportation networks that resulted from public investment in road infrastructure, an outcome of federal funding to states for the improvement of roads under the supervision of the federal government through the Federal Highway Act of 1916.

The Progressive Movement & Creation of Forest Reserves

Industrial and urban development in the United States spurred important changes in the way the American public related to each other and to nature, leading to the growth of two related movements: Progressivism and Conservation. The Progressive Era, a sea change in American politics and life roughly spanning from the 1880s to the end of World War I, began as a social reform movement by educated middle-class urbanites, who looked around them and saw an America with great potential and perhaps even greater problems. As settlement expanded from coast to coast, the relationship of Americans to nature began to change. Natural and wild areas shifted from places that needed to be tamed to places that could provide enjoyment and character development. Progressives believed the ills of society — among them poverty, squalor, overcrowding in rapidly expanding cities, excessive industrialization, and corruption and inefficiency in government — could be solved through education, an efficient workplace, and a safe wholesome environment. To achieve these ends, reformers believed that the government should regulate industry corrupted by greedy corporations and employ scientific methods to reform all walks of American life.

While Progressivism has often been studied simply as a period of social engineering and increasing attempts at regulating big business, the natural world and Americans' relation to it was just as worthy of reform in the eyes of many Progressives. Progressive reforms aimed at improving urban working conditions, such as the eight-hour day, as well as unionism and welfare capitalism, helped ensure that urban workers now had more leisure time and money to spend on their recreational activities. Reformers such as Frederick Law Olmsted and John Muir believed the public was too disconnected from nature and that they should be more fully immersed in the natural environment to improve their health.

Most progressive reformers were associated with affluent, well-educated, urban circles who emphasized a "back to nature" ideal encompassing both spiritual and recreational values. Such ideals were integrated into society through art and literature advocating for the preservation of nature, the value and beauty of nature, and the moral elevation that could arise as a result of recreating in nature by camping and mountain climbing to access scenic wonders. From the east coast to the west coast, outdoor clubs were established to form communities of like-minded recreational enthusiasts, such as the Appalachian Mountain Club founded in 1876 in Boston, and the Mazamas founded in 1894 on the summit of Mount Hood in Oregon. The Chicago-based Prairie Club organized nature hikes and identified scenic locations around the Great Lakes. A group of Californians, including John Muir, founded the Sierra Club in 1892 to sponsor wilderness outings. Similar groups existed in Europe around the same period, such as a group called *Wandervogel* (or "wandering bird") in Germany from 1896-1933 that protested industrialization by hiking in the country and communing with nature.

Progressives like Frederick Law Olmsted saw recreation in nature as a potent force for social good. The Progressive Era's growing interest in nature and outdoor recreation dovetailed with, and to some extent stemmed from, an increasing sense that civilization had environmental as well as social costs. Beginning at least as early as the 1850s, a few isolated voices of warning grew into a chorus by 1900. The nation's natural landscape was in danger of being lost as timber, mining, railroads, and livestock grew into ever-expanding and unregulated juggernauts of production and destruction, rapidly converting the forests, grasslands, and mountains into unsightly and unproductive wastelands. In the minds of many Progressives, this environmental destruction had a similar effect on the American people. Aided by generous government policies, extractive industries and the railroads that provided access had deforested vast stretches of mountains and valleys, while industrial ranchers overran and denuded grasslands with cattle and sheep.[3] Even the nation's newly discovered cultural history was in danger of vanishing forever as pot hunters looted their way through site after site of archaeological significance. The results were desolated landscapes, floods, fires, and risks to the potable water supplies of cities, even as the United States grew into a world industrial power.

In response to this indifference to the depletion of natural resources by corporations and industrial ranchers, a national conservation movement developed by the late 19th century. This conservation movement was by no means universal. It was driven largely from the northeastern United States and informed by the work of George Perkins Marsh, Susan Fenimore Cooper, Henry David Thoreau, and Ralph Waldo Emerson, among others. Advocates like naturalist John Muir, who camped with Emerson in the Yosemite Valley in California, highlighted natural wonders in the western US as worthy of not only conservation, but preservation from development in perpetuity. The movement found increasing

traction in Congress, with a succession of progressive-minded Presidents, and more slowly, in American middle- and upper-class society. Perhaps the most important way the conservation movement impacted the growing United States was in its effect on shaping land management.

The Progressive Era was a period marked by an increase in the array of government services designed to improve the everyday lives of average Americans. It also informed the growth of the American land management apparatus. The dawn of the Progressive Era and the nearly simultaneous close of the frontier saw a shift in government land policy. As in social policy, the American government grew from a mere custodian of land to an active manager, with much of that management increasingly informed by a conservationist sensibility. No longer would the federal government seek to give the public domain away with both hands, a process attended by high levels of fraud and corruption. Instead, as concerned intellectuals and a growing number of vocal professionals exerted their influence, the pendulum began to shift the other way. Congress and President Ulysses S. Grant established the nation's first national park, Yellowstone National Park, in 1872. This marked the first time the federal government took an active role in preserving portions of the public domain for preservation, resource management, and public use. Yellowstone, with its approximately two million acres, became the federal government's first major land reservation for something other than commercial purposes. It also set the stage for a new era of public land creation and management.

With the establishment of Yellowstone National Park as the first national park in 1872, followed by others such as Yosemite National Park, first granted to the state of California by Abraham Lincoln in 1864 for public use and recreation and established as a national park in 1890, along with state reservations such as New York's Adirondack Forest Reserve (1892), land management in the United States grew from a system historian Richard White characterized as a warehouse made mostly of doors facilitating the disposal of public lands into a major professional component of the growing federal bureaucracy.[4] The United States government began to reserve lands for conservation purposes, whether to safeguard natural resources for further use, mitigate visible environmental damage, or develop scenic resources for tourism. In a series of legislation beginning at least as early as the Yellowstone Act of 1872, Congress and the office of the President created an entire infrastructure for managing public lands and waters and increasingly set aside lands for conservation purposes.[5]

The Department of Agriculture created the Division of Forestry in 1881 and made it a permanent fixture in 1886, indicating the rising influence of professional foresters in a growing federal government. Moreover, the government's ability to set aside land for protection of forests expanded in 1891 with passage of the omnibus General Revision Act, section 24 of which is more commonly known as the Forest Reserve Act. The Forest Reserve Act enabled the President to create forest reserves that retained public lands for the future use of citizens, as opposed to the previous General Land Office policy of rapid sale or disposal of federal lands into private ownership in the American West.[6] This piece of legislation sought to set aside and protect tracts of publicly managed land from overuse and exploitation by private and commercial interests. These early efforts to set aside and designate public parks and forests reflected changing public and policy perspectives towards the outdoors.

The Forest Reserve Act of 1891 authorized the President to withdraw forest reserves from settlement

and other private and commercial uses, but it made no provision for their management. Over the next six years, approximately forty million acres of land were withdrawn. An uproar from industrial and commercial interests over the establishment of Forest Reserves prompted the 1897 Forest Management Act (also known as the Organic Act of 1897 or the Pettigrew Amendment), which officially placed Forest Reserves under the General Land Office and established guidelines for their management. Reserves, the law specified, must only be created to "improve and protect the forest within the reservation, or for the purpose of securing favorable conditions of water flows, and to furnish a continuous supply of timber for the use and necessities of citizens of the United States."[7] The guidelines contained in the 1897 Forest Management Act served as the primary principles for federal forest management until superseded by the Multiple-Use Sustained Yield Act of 1960.[8]

Forest management included both natural resources conservation and recreation by the early twentieth century. A key element of Progressive reform thinking was that people and especially youth must be removed from insalubrious city influences and placed in a "healthful environment," as historian Neil Maher put it. Progressives such as John Dewey, the park pioneer Frederick Law Olmsted, and the City Beautiful movement that they influenced worked to bring healthful environments into the cities, but also to bring urban youth to the country. In the early twentieth century, belief in the healing power of nature spanned the American middle and upper classes.[9] Progressives were of course hardly the originators of the idea that bringing people out of cities and onto the land was essential to individual and societal wellbeing. From before independence, American thinkers had focused on rural farm life and pastoralism as ideal states of being, echoing far older strains of thought.[10]

Forest reserves were largely undeveloped, and road and trail systems were sparse. Early visitors utilized existing road and trail networks established by mining and timber companies to access forests for recreation purposes. As outdoor camping expanded as a form of recreation at the turn of the twentieth century, hunters, fishers, and well-to-do men and women who had the means began to venture into the forest reserves through recreation associations and clubs, which often included group trips. The small group of visitors who ventured into the reserves forged their own campsites and trails. They were generally met with little management or regulation, primarily limited to forest rangers ensuring that campfires were properly put out.[11] The agency would not have significant funds to develop recreation facilities for nearly 30 years.

In part, the growth in recreation popularity was spurred by the intrigue of new national parks. While the forest reserves were generally regarded as land for resource use and management, the national parks were marketed as travel destinations. Railroad companies, recognizing their allure, built lines to the new national parks and promoted their "See America First" campaign to attract visitors. The Northern Pacific Railroad built a line from Livingston, Montana, to Yellowstone National Park in 1883 and named it the "Park Branch." In addition to promoting visitation to the parks via their railways, railroad companies took an active role in lobbying for new parks, as with Grand Canyon and Glacier National Parks.[12,13]

Early Forest Service, 1905-1911

The first professionally trained forester in the US, Gifford Pinchot, wielded enormous power over federal forestry policy. By the mid-1890s, he advocated for the maintenance and establishment of

permanent federal forests, continuity of oversight, and most of all, professional management, a hallmark of Progressive thinking. Any job worth doing, Progressives tended to think, was worth doing well, and doing a job well meant removing it from the hands of moneyed interests, politicians, and common people and placing it in the hands of professionally trained experts. Pinchot worked tirelessly to expand and promote federal forestry policy but did not get far until his friend Theodore Roosevelt succeeded William McKinley in the Oval Office. Pinchot's greatest bureaucratic coup came in 1905 when he engineered the transfer of the ever-growing forest reserves from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture. On July 1, 1905, the US Forest Service was created by President Theodore Roosevelt. Gifford Pinchot was named the first Chief of the Forest Service and given authority over all the nation's 63 million acres of forest reserves, granting federal forest management actual power and responsibility.

To support, augment, and institutionalize the utilitarian concept of the greatest good, one of Pinchot's first acts as the first Chief Forester of the newly formed Forest Service was to issue a manual to lay out regulations and instructions for lawful and appropriate uses of national forest lands, the so-called Use Book. Since its inception the Forest Service has emphasized the protection of valid and established uses of the land, so long as they do not impede on the sustainability of natural resources or the health and wellbeing of literal and metaphorical downstream users. The first Use Book was published in 1905. It encouraged "legitimate improvements and business enterprises" such as "hotels, stores, mills, stage stations, apiaries, miners' camps, stables, summer residences, sanitariums, dairies, trappers' cabins, and the like." It is in large part silent on the topic of non-business-related public recreation save for an allowance to graze a few head of livestock while camping and the promulgation of regulations around size and care of campfires.[14]

Some of the few duties of forest officers in the early years of the Forest Service were to develop trails for administrative travel and provide resource protection. Miners and stockmen also developed trails to reach mineral mines and grazing lands. In 1906, the Forest Service Use Book was updated, and encouraged Forest Service personnel to construct telephone lines between ranger stations and offices, as well as more roads and trails in coordination with local county officials. These trails and roads provided a basis of infrastructure for all the agency's projects and programs throughout the century, including providing access points for increased recreation on national forest lands.

The National Forest System was established primarily to protect watersheds and grow trees, with secondary interests such as grazing and fire prevention. The agency was slow to embrace campground construction and Gifford Pinchot was not overly concerned with recreation. But from even before the Forest Service's creation, it was clear that more public uses had to be regulated on forests than just the utilitarian elements. In 1905, summer residence permits were added to the list of accepted private enterprises on national forest lands as public demand grew for seasonal homes on the forests. Conflict over short term leases quickly arose, however, as recreational residence owners built inferior temporary structures because their permits allowed for a yearly lease with no guarantee of renewals and the threat of imminent possession by the government.

The hands-off approach to managing recreation development worked for the agency in the early years.

The agency hesitated to install signage and instead relied on roads and infrastructure to guide visitors to the right areas. However, crowds naturally ventured wherever seemed the most interesting, which was often the areas of the forest that were vulnerable to degradation, such as areas of high scenic or geological value. In the next two decades, the agency endeavored to plan for and manage visitors on national forest lands as the transportation revolution-- first trains and then automobiles-- readily facilitated escape from increasingly crowded cities to national forests. By the early twentieth century, city populations around the United States were heading outdoors in increasing numbers.[15] Outdoor recreation became a larger management concern for the Forest Service as unmanaged recreation use increased, especially on forests close to urban areas, such as the Angeles National Forest (CA), Oregon National Forest/Mt. Hood NF (OR), Pike and San Isabel National Forests (CO).[16]

Custodial Management Era Recreation Planning, 1912-1932

In the decade following Pinchot's departure as Chief of the Forest Service in 1910, the Forest Service grew increasingly interested in outdoor recreation. The popularity of the national forests flourished due to the expansion of the National Forest System of lands, the rapidly spreading use of the automobile, and the commensurate increase in road construction within and to the newly formed national forests.

The increasing reliance on automobile transport informed recreation development on forests and parks, leading to the development of what historian David Louter called "windshield wilderness," and the dawn of industrial automotive tourism.[17] It was wildly popular; the Forest Service recorded 1.5 million recreational visitors to the national forests in 1913 with concentrations in central Colorado, northern Oregon, and southern California. The 1913 Annual Report of the Forest Service authored by Chief Forester Henry S. Graves noted:

> "Recreation use of the Forests is growing very rapidly, especially on Forests near cities of considerable size…This is a highly important form of use of the Forests by the public, and it is recognized and facilitated by adjusting commercial use of the Forests, when necessary, to the situation created by the needs of the recreation seekers"[18]

Problems with recreational use on national forests developed immediately, including sanitary regulation, increased fire hazards, conflict over short term leases, and controversy over public domain and states' rights to undeveloped land in the West. Tension between state and federal governments resulted largely from western states' resentment at the enclosure of the public domain. Western land users, accustomed to using public land as they wished, increasingly lost free grazing access and were asked to meet Forest Service permit requirements, created to generate revenue, prevent monopoly, and protect the nation's fragile natural resources from overuse. In the words of the historian Richard White, national forests acted as "a lightning rod of federal management" and "embodied the very essence of restricted access in order to promote efficiency," the hallmark of the Progressive Era.[19] In an effort to both ease tensions regarding public and private recreation and to generate much needed revenue for the national forests, Congress enacted the Term Occupancy Permit Act on March 4, 1915. The Act allowed members of the public to acquire a thirty-year lease for a summer home, hotel, or store on five acres or less of national forest land:

> That hereafter the Secretary of Agriculture may, upon such terms as he may deem proper, for periods not exceeding thirty years, permit responsible persons or associations to use and occupy suitable spaces or portions of ground in the national forests for the construction of summer homes, hotels, stores or other structures needed for recreation or public convenience, not exceeding five acres to any one person or association, but this shall not be construed to interfere with the right to enter homesteads upon agricultural lands in national forests as now provided by law.[20]

The Term Occupancy Permit Act changed the earlier permit system, which had been terminable at any time, into a 30-year lease program. This new lease system encouraged more private development on national forests, bringing more visitors as developers constructed facilities such as hotels and summer camps. In 1916, the establishment of the National Park Service encouraged even more people to travel to public lands and to a small extent, put pressure on the Forest Service to increase its recreational offerings. The agency found itself thrust into the business of recreation development, and forests in Oregon and Colorado developed the first planned campgrounds, the Eagle Creek Campground constructed in 1916 by the Oregon National Forest and the Squirrel Creek Recreational Unit constructed in 1921 on the San Isabel National Forest in Colorado.

Sanitation issues emerged with recreational use on national forest lands, and the 1918 edition of the Forest Service Use Book included instructions that, "In large or permanent camps latrines must be dug in suitable locations remote from the water, and disinfectants should be used freely." Recreation regulation and planning were slowly incorporated into the fold of the agency's mission and executed at the regional and forest levels. In the 1920s, the efforts of botanist Emilio P. Meinecke and guidance provided earlier by Frank Waugh, forever altered the design of recreation facilities in the spirit of natural resource protection and recreation management. While the developments in the 1920s were largely serendipitous, when the Forest Service benefited from a surge of funds and labor during the 1930s, these foundational ideas and plans were put to work. The projects of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) during the 1930s largely defined recreation planning in the national forests; however, significant advancements were made during the 1910s and 20s that made possible the monumental projects of the CCC.

Better Roads and Better Access to the National Forests

Increasing automobile travel to national forests underscored mounting pressure to provide infrastructure and control recreation during the late 1910s and 20s. As historian Gail Throop points out, the Good Roads movement of the early 1900s had raised Americans' expectations about highway travel, and the roads in the national forests were few and far between. The 1912 Agricultural Appropriations Act reserved 10% of all forest receipts for road and trail construction, extending the Good Roads movement into the national forests. In addition, automobiles were becoming more affordable, and more reliable.

In 1915, the first year that automobiles were allowed into national parks, visitation to the parks hit 335,000.[21] Around the same time, Henry Ford's Model 'T' sold for under $400, making it the most affordable automobile that had ever been made. Just five years later in 1920, the national park's nationwide visitation record soared to 920,000, with over half of visitors staying to camp, nearly triple the amount from five years earlier.[22] Though these numbers are for national parks rather than forests, they highlight how monumental a change the automobile brought to public lands, as they did nearly

every other aspect of society. The automobile did not only make it easier to access campgrounds in the 1910s and 1920s, but also aided in the act of camping. As an alternative to expensive and bulky canvas tents of the time, many companies created cots that would easily assemble into the confines of a car to provide for sleeping quarters.[23] This reliance on the automobile for camping informed the design of nearly every recreation facility on Forest Service land throughout the century, as it continues to do to this day.

Books, radio shows, and even fiction stories detailed the eventful and exhilarating thrill of packing automobiles for touring vacations. The nation was smitten with automobile touring, and the journey itself was often the destination. Several notable highways were constructed during this time on Forest Service and Park Service land for the purpose of pleasure drives, including the Columbia River Gorge Highway in Oregon, begun in 1915, and the Going-to-the-Sun Road in Glacier National Park, begun in 1921. Across the country, individual states were establishing highway departments and working with cities and rural areas to construct scenic highways to the great pleasure of new automobile owners.[24]

A milestone in road construction occurred in 1916 with the passage of the Federal Aid Road Act, signed by President Woodrow Wilson. The act provided federal matching funds to states to improve their highway systems, requiring them to meet specified national road construction standards to receive funding. This drastically aided in expanding automobile access to the national forests. Up until well after this Act was passed, the roads and highways of America were largely unimproved, unreliable, and unpleasant to travel on.[25] While the 1912 Agricultural Appropriations Act provided funds for road improvement on the national forests, the Federal Aid Road Act greatly improved the highways that led to the forest boundaries and increased automobile travel generally, supporting the new trend of scenic byways, automobile touring, and camping.

Also in 1916, the Federal Highway Act allocated 75 million dollars over 10 years for the construction of roadways in the United States. The Forest Service received 10 million dollars (1 million per year) for road construction, with increased funding arriving in 1919 and 1921. By 1921, road development on national forests was tied to two types of roads. Development roads were used for fire suppression, administration, and timber (which received an additional 5.5 million dollars), and forest highways to complement existing state and county road systems connecting people to forests. Road improvements on national forests brought about increased administrative control of lands, reduced isolation of mountain communities, and increased the emphasis on recreation.

The first rivulets of automobile recreators on America's public lands turned into a flood after World War I, as automobiles became cheaper and more accessible to a larger proportion of the American public. Tourism groups and booster clubs such as the AAA latched on to road improvements to increase tourism. Because of these efforts, recreation use skyrocketed on national forests. Forest visitation quadrupled between 1917-1924.[26] With 'car camping,' families now had the ability to chart their own journey to the wilderness, as opposed to railroad access that only provided a pre-determined route. This period also saw the advent of municipal auto-campgrounds.[27]For example, on the West Michigan Pike, a scenic highway established in 1911 to connect Chicago to Traverse City, the West Michigan Tourism Association worked to establish either a state park campground or a municipal auto campground within

a day's drive of each other all along the route. Across the country in cities and rural areas, the nation was constructing scenic highways to the great pleasure of new automobile owners.[28] The tradition of scenic highway travel has endured in the United States and was recognized in the National Scenic Byway program established by Congress in 1991.

Winter Recreation

Skiing began to grow in popularity across the US in the 1920s, spreading beyond the immigrant Scandinavian communities where it first appeared. Some private entrepreneurs developed small ski areas and lodges throughout the United States, but these facilities did not fully accommodate the growing demand for skiing and many hopeful visitors found the areas inaccessible. Rather, as the public looked to the national forests to serve an increasingly diverse summer recreational function, they also advocated for the establishment of winter sports facilities. As a result, the Forest Service sought to provide winter sports areas on national forest lands by partnering with ski clubs and private commercial interests under the Term Occupancy Act. In conjunction with outdoor clubs, the agency implemented various studies of the regions where winter sports areas might be beneficial and allowed private interests to construct ski and winter sports areas under occupancy permits.[29]

Early Recreation Planning

The Forest Service as an agency was slow to adopt the practice of recreation planning, in part because of ideas in early federal policy that only National Park Service properties were to be focused on recreation. For its first twenty years as a nascent federal agency, the Forest Service was drastically underfunded, with only a small field staff overwhelmed by their primary duties of fire detection, protecting watersheds and monitoring grazing areas.

The foundations of recreation planning in the Forest Service were laid between 1918 and 1930 in the contributions of Frank Waugh, Albert D. Taylor, Emilio Pepe Meinecke and Arthur Carhart. These individuals had a major impact on Forest Service recreation facility design and management prior to and during the Great Depression. Their ideals became the basis for recreation facility design and are still prominent today. Their conservation-minded philosophies and scientific approaches to recreation planning, scenery preservation, wilderness preservation and recreation site planning were woven into multiple iterations of Forest Service manuals and guides for recreation site and trail planning. Twentieth century recreation facility planning built upon their work to generate improved methods and recreation design concepts.

For campers looking for recreational opportunities on national forests, the Forest Service during this early era began to offer a few public campground areas. After Pinchot departed as Forest Service chief in 1910, he was succeeded by Henry Graves, who was much more interested in developing recreational opportunities on the national forests. Under Graves, the first Forest Service developed campground, the Eagle Creek Campground, was constructed in the summer of 1916 by the Oregon National Forest in the Columbia River Gorge Park. Previous camping areas on national forests had merely consisted of lands set aside for campers with no facilities or features provided by the forest. At Eagle Creek Campground, the Forest Service built camp tables, restrooms, a check-in station, a ranger station, and the 13.5-mile scenic Eagle Creek Trail. The investment was clearly attractive to visitors. In the summer of 1919,

approximately 150,000 tourists visited the Eagle Creek Campground. By this period the National Park Service, the Forest Service's increasing rival for funding, land, and visitors, was also building dedicated automobile-friendly campgrounds.[30]

By the time Congress passed the Clarke-McNary Act in 1924, the federal government actively managed approximately 166 million acres of land through just two bureaus, the US Forest Service and the National Park Service. Meanwhile, the General Land Office and the War Department, the grand old men of federal land management, oversaw nearly 200 million acres more. Indeed, of all the federal land management agencies, only the GLO and the War Department predated the Civil War. The U.S. Geological Survey, the Biological Survey (now the Fish and Wildlife Service), the Forest Service, and the National Park Service were all recently founded agencies tasked with studying and, in the case of the US Forest Service and the National Park Service, administering federal lands. Of all the federal agencies named above, the Forest Service actively administered by far the most land, approximately 157 million acres in 1924. Therefore, it was inescapable that the Forest Service would play a major role in the growing field of outdoor recreation.

Arthur Carhart, Landscape Architect

In 1919, the Forest Service hired its first Recreation Engineer, Arthur Carhart. Carhart graduated from Iowa State College in 1916 with a degree in Landscape Architecture. He used his understanding of landscape design and city planning to design recreation facilities for the Forest Service. After college, Carhart enrolled in the army where he worked as an engineer at Camp Meade in Maryland. Carhart employed his landscape design skills to create a harmonious military base where disease would be curtailed by good design. Working for the Forest Service in 1918, Carhart developed the first forest-wide recreation plan for the San Isabel National Forest in Colorado. His plan drew from city planning techniques, to create a harmonious experience for travelers and campers alike.

Part of Carhart's plan for the San Isabel National Forest included a campground at Squirrel Creek, which may be the earliest campground on national forest land designed by a professional landscape architect.[31] It included a scenic access road, resort lodge, hiking trail, and a campground. At Squirrel Creek Campground, Carhart designed 12 clusters of 3-6 campsites for a total of 55 individual campsites. Each campsite featured a rock fireplace and picnic table. Each cluster featured a below-ground garbage pit within 10-15 feet, a latrine within 70 feet, and a water well within 10-25 feet. Clusters were placed from 400 – 1,000 feet apart and placed near Squirrel Creek.[32] There was not a single large parking lot as with the earlier Eagle Creek Campground in Oregon, but rather cars were parked along the road adjacent to individually established campsites. Though designated, the campsites were still much closer together than they would be in later campground designs, often less than 40 feet apart with no plantings or vegetation to provide privacy screens. Squirrel Creek is notable for its early design of a collective campground with campsites spaced at intervals along primary and secondary roads. In addition, the campground provided ample infrastructure for sanitation and comfort with its multiple outhouses and amenities at each camp site and/or cluster. In the 1920s and 30s, based on the recommendations of subsequent campground designers, campgrounds would evolve and improve upon Carhart's early design, reflecting a standard campsite with ample space between sites (by the 1950s and 60s, at least 100 feet), vegetation to provide privacy screens, and designated automobile parking spaces off the main road.

Frank Waugh, Landscape Architect

Chief Forester Henry S. Graves initiated several measures to ensure the Forest Service's relevance in managing recreation on public lands. In 1917 he hired Frank A. Waugh to study recreation on the national forests and recommend a recreation management policy. Frank Waugh was a landscape architect formally trained in universities in the wake of Frederick Law Olmsted's popularization of the ideas of picturesque landscape design. Waugh employed concepts of the emerging field of ecology to support his belief in "natural" design, a term for a style akin to the Picturesque in its embrace of localized scenic beauty, native species, and the irregular forms found in nature.

Waugh published *The Natural Style in Landscape Gardening,* in which he advocated for retaining the spirit of the landscape in natural landscape design, stating that "we should all greatly reverence [sic] the native landscape, should seek to conserve it for human use and enjoyment, should endeavor to make it physically accessible to all, should try to make it intelligible to all, should work to open up for it the way to men's hearts."[33] In his book *Wilderness by Design,* landscape architect Ethan Carr suggests that Waugh was influenced by the early plans of Mark Daniels for the National Park Service. Waugh and Daniels aligned on many aspects of landscape design including the importance of preserving landscapes and making them available to the public, as well as the economic value to be found in recreation in natural landscapes.

In 1918, Waugh spent five months traveling to national forests around the country. In September of that year, he wrote *Recreation Uses in the National Forests,* which illustrates the recreation developments that had naturally evolved on national forest land at a forest and district level during the first two decades of the twentieth century. Waugh discovered campgrounds wherein the agency had begun to provide limited infrastructure. These sites were planned locally, as there was no national or regional guidance for their development. He noted their popularity and utility for managing fires:

> Along these automobile and wagon trails camps are in strong demand. Many trail tourists do not mind patronizing the hotels a part of the time, but for the rest they greatly prefer the tent and the campfire. To meet their needs the Forest Service has laid out and equipped a large number of camps. These are always located where good water is available, and usually a practicable wood supply is an item of the equipment. Simple provisions are made for sanitation, and cement fireplaces are often installed… to a certain degree they prove a protection for the Forests, since the campfires of the tourists, instead of being set in out-of-the-way and dangerous places, are made in safe areas.[34]

Waugh also highlighted private developments, including lodges and summer homes throughout the country. Generally, Waugh found that "recreation uses on the National Forests are rapidly increasing, and that they have reached a stage where more definite and systematic provision must be made for them in the plan of administration."[35] Waugh advocated for equal prioritization of recreation among other management arenas of the Forest Service, and even quantified the economic value of outdoor recreation in the national forests. He suggested the agency develop permanent camp areas under the direction of trained landscape engineers, just as the agency typically hired professionals in other disciplines.

Across the country during the 1920s, the Forest Service continued to construct campgrounds that were minimally improved with signage, concrete camp stoves, and picnic tables made of dimensional lumber. The Forest Service's first request for recreation funds occurred in 1920 but was not successful until 1922. Even then, the congressional appropriation provided only $25,000 to combat the fire danger and sanitary problems created by visitors at campgrounds and picnic areas. The Forest Service used part of the new funding to integrate recreation facilities into its building program. Waugh was again contracted by the Forest Service in 1922 to study several more western forests. The agency hired him that same year to help complete a plan for the Grand Canyon Village, which was still under Forest Service jurisdiction at the time. Prior to Waugh's involvement, Forest Supervisor Don P. Johnson and Forest Examiner Aldo Leopold created a design for the village based on land use zones. Zoning was a new concept in city planning at the time and had yet to achieve national affirmation in supreme court cases in the 1920s. Waugh employed his natural landscape design philosophy to create a layout and landscape design for Johnson and Leopold's plan, adding streets that conformed to the natural topography and a central, grassy park. The following note appeared in the 1922 September issue of *American Forestry* magazine:

> Dr. Frank A. Waugh, professor of landscape engineering at the Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass., has been appointed recreation engineer in the Forest Service, USDA. Dr. Waugh… will spend the summer formulating plans for the development of public campgrounds and summer-home sites in the National Forests of Colorado, Wyoming, Utah, Idaho, and other western states. This study is a part of the established plan of the Forest Service toward providing adequate camp and sanitation facilities for the 5,500,000 persons who yearly seek rest, health, and enjoyment in our National Forests.[36]

Based on the observations of Waugh and others, sanitation at recreation facilities drove some of the first direction and guidance on campground design. The below guidance is from the 1923 National Forest Regulations and Instructions manual regarding campground sanitation:

> The concentration of large numbers of people at campgrounds inevitably creates conditions hazardous to public health and property, unless the facilities required for good sanitation and effective fire protection are promptly installed… The primary facilities required for the reasonable protection of public health and safety, or to secure adequate protection against the increased fire hazard due to the presence of large numbers of people in the national forests, are given below. The order of their relative importance varies in different districts, and even in different parts of the same district, but on the basis of general experience it is as indicated by the order in which each class of utilities is discussed.
>
> Sources of pure water supply.
> Toilets – fly proof and well ventilated.
> Garbage pits and incinerators.
> Fireplaces.
> Tables and benches.
> Overnight shelters.
> Footbridges.
> Registration and information booths.
> Protective fences and pastures.[37]

Although many of the early improvements were focused on sanitation, health, and safety (water, toilets,

garbage, and fireplaces), the manual does suggest that the addition of tables and benches would attract more visitors who might otherwise camp in more remote locations where they would trample vegetation and pose a fire risk. The manual provides no recommendations for campground layout, although it does give some guidance of style and materials for fireplaces and benches. For fireplaces, the manual states that "Fireplaces formed by low walls of native stone set in cement, with cast or sheet iron tops and simple flues, have proved entirely adequate upon the majority of the campgrounds." As to tables and benches, "Combination tables and benches have proven most satisfactory, and several good types evolved by forest officers have become more or less standard. These proved types should be preferred over novel and untried types."

In 1925, there were 1,500 campgrounds, both developed and undeveloped, on the national forests. Of the 1,500 campgrounds, Chief Forester Greeley estimated only approximately 500 were developed with toilets, firepits, or garbage facilities. That year, Greeley estimated that the cost of improving a single campground was $200 and the budget for campground development for every forest was $37,631.[38]

As Waugh was exposed to more national forests and parks, he began to synthesize basic foundational knowledge of recreation planning. Waugh created guidance on the development of forested lands for recreational purposes in several defined areas: Human use and enjoyment, order, cleanliness, beauty of scenery, conservation, restoration, economy, and circulation. These elements were integrated into forest service recreation planning and are still apparent in scenery and recreation planning guidance today. The idea of order was for a simple and orderly arrangement of groups of buildings into clusters. Cleanliness referred to easy maintenance and proper disposal of waste. Economy was integrated into building and site construction by utilizing sound building methods with economical maintenance. Waugh urged recreation planners and foresters to study the landscape and experience it in all kinds of weather conditions at varying times of the day and season.[39] For the principles of conservation and restoration, Waugh urged a focus on preservation of native flora and fauna and the restoration of native species. This style of landscape design had much in common with Frank Lloyd Wright and the Prairie School, promoted by landscape architects like Wilhelm Miller, Jens Jensen and O.C. Simmonds.

Waugh emphasized circulation because roads and trails served as the foundation for the design of a recreational area, providing access to principal points of interest. He encouraged adequate systems of circulation with main roads, side roads, trails, footpaths, bridle trails and water suitable for canoeing.[40] He stressed the importance of not overdeveloping the road and circulation system and only designing what was necessary.[41] The recreation planner's objective was to identify the primary points of scenic value, such as overlooks, groups of trees, or objects of local interest, and to layout trails to connect these areas. Trail tread was to be designed so that the best views were seen at turning points against a rising grade. Scenic objects and features were best viewed straight ahead and at a distance, and broad outlooks over valleys, mountains and water could be viewed at a variety of angles on the trail. Waugh was also concerned with the effects of forestry activities on visitor's experience and provided guidance that later helped CCC workers shape the boundaries of tree plantations to fit pleasingly into the landscape and blend the forest into meadow or prairie.

The recreation planning ideas developed by Waugh in the 1920s and 1930s had a primary and lasting

influence on recreation facilities on the national forests. In 1937, the CCC published a series of manuals known as Project Training Series that covered vocational skills enrollees needed for conservation work. This included supplemental manuals, including Waugh's "Landscape Conservation," which was Number 6 in the series, and covered recreation planning principles including selection of sites, trail planning, road locations, camping, picnic grounds, sanitation, forest plantations, roadside vegetation, lakes and ponds and use of signs.

Emilio Pepe Meinecke, Botanist

Emilio Pepe Meinecke made one of the most significant contributions to the evolution of campground design. Meinecke was a plant pathologist by training and education, hired in 1910 by the US Department of Agriculture's Bureau of Plant Industry (BPI) and assigned as a consulting forest pathologist to the Forest Service in California. In 1925, the National Park Service consulted the BPI and asked Meinecke to examine the damage caused to the vegetation of national parks in California by park visitors. He was dismayed by the negative impact campers and their automobiles were causing at Sequoia National Park and submitted a report to the National Park Service Director, Horace Albright, who then forwarded it to every national park in the country.[42] The report outlined the pervasive damage caused to parks by visitors and advocated for a system of crowd controls that blended with the environment, such as thoughtfully placed logs and shrubs to guide visitors along paths and away from sensitive areas.[43]

After this initial report, Meinecke continued to be solicited for advice and consultation by managers of both national parks and national forests, and took another tour of forests, parks, and municipal campgrounds across the country to assess the management of automobile campgrounds. He found that automobiles were more degrading to the environment than had been previously considered – hitting saplings, breaking branches, and leaking motor oil that led to the swift decline of every new patch of ground campers claimed for their vacations. Because there were no designated individual campsites, every new visitor spread farther to the peripheries of a site, spreading the damage over an increasingly larger area.

Meinecke presented his campground recommendations at a Forest Service conference in San Francisco in 1932. Meinecke's presentation was then issued to the Forest Service as a report, titled "A Camp Ground Policy." In the report Meinecke begins:

> The use of publicly owned land for camping has grown in the last decades from modest beginnings to such enormous proportions that the entire administrative machinery is affected thereby. Where formerly the tourist business was but a negligible item… it now presents one of the biggest and most difficult problems of adjustment to changing conditions. The liberality with which the public has been invited to make itself at home in parks and forests has borne far heavier fruit than could have been expected. The growth once started cannot now be stopped. The tourist business will continue to increase, and it must be adequately provided for. The administration of public lands no longer has a choice in the matter.[44]

Meinecke outlined the issues he saw with unregulated camping on public lands. Though campgrounds had been designated, individual campsites within the campground were not defined. This led to the slow but steady degradation of trees and vegetation in campgrounds by campers, cars, and fires. In addition,

without delineated campsites, campers tended to spread out farther than necessary, leading to an uneconomical use of space. After a campground was degraded to the point of unattractiveness, the campers would move to another, destroying the value of more and more sites. Meinecke states that "the present lack of system and regulation, to which there are but a few exceptions, must lead to an intolerable condition." Along with his description of the issues present in campsites, Meinecke provided a remedy:

> The choice of camp sites within a designated camping ground and the physical arrangement can no longer be left to the tourist but must be planned in advance, and the plan must be rigidly adhered to.[45]

This prescription for the new campsites focused on controlling automobiles with one-way roads and designated parking spots referred to as "garage spurs" at the edges of campsites. Both roads and parking areas would be clearly established, with parking areas outlined with boulders or logs. Meinecke also provided guidance for optimal placement of the camp stove, such as perpendicular to prevailing winds and with adequate distance between the car, stove, table, and tent space. Travelers would be able to easily identify an individual campsite's boundary, and its arrangement would discourage campers from altering the space and further damaging the environment.

Although published by the Forest Service, Meinecke's report was also used by national and state park superintendents. One of the first campgrounds to employ Meinecke's recommendations was Lodgepole Campground in Sequoia National Park. It is possible that this is the first campground on either national park or forest land to use Meinecke's model, with multiple clearly established sites for automobile camping. Soon, National Park Service employees simply referred to the system as "The Meinecke Plan" and it was adapted, though oftentimes not by name, in regional handbooks for both national parks and forests.

In 1934, the Forest Service commissioned Meinecke to create a more detailed publication on campgrounds. Titled *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction*, the guidebook provides recommendations for campground development in addition to the regulation of one-way roads, parking spaces, and camp stoves illustrated in his previous publication. Meinecke elaborated on all topics in this publication and added new considerations to camp planning, including the necessity of privacy screens between campsites and roads, the equal distribution of features such as garbage cans and toilets, and considerations for tree shade in relation to camp placement (full sun in morning and shade in the evening if possible). Though Meinecke's guidance for camp planning was widely adopted and remains so today, some of his suggestions for camp planning do not seem to have been successful, such as using small paint marks on trees to designate camp boundaries or metal "fasteners" on vulnerable parts of barrier logs to deter their use as firewood.

Meinecke's reports were disseminated at a serendipitous moment – in 1932 and 1934, respectively. Following the stock market crash of 1929 and the subsequent Great Depression, President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal emergency work relief programs provided the funding and manpower to upgrade campgrounds nationwide. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was the primary work program used

by public land managing agencies beginning in 1933 until 1942. In 1935 the Forest Service issued a publication entitled *Public Camp Manual* that established "standards of construction for many items relating to camp ground improvements" in the national forests based on Meineke's ideas.[46] The CCC men worked under USFS regional and district foresters who were required to follow the standards and were directed to destroy any previous instructions developed prior to the issuance of the manual.

Though later expanded and modified, Meinecke's ideas were groundbreaking in the 1930s for Forest Service employees. His camp planning publications helped agencies save precious resources and take control of recreation on public lands. Meinecke's ideas for rigid automobile control, garage spurs, and camp feature placement remain the fundamental building blocks of nearly all campgrounds today.

Albert Davis Taylor, Landscape Architect

Albert Davis Taylor was a practicing landscape architect and the President of the American Association of Landscape Architects when the Forest Service contracted with him in 1935 to review the existing approaches to recreation planning and designs, explore problems and propose solutions. Taylor, once a student of Frank Waugh's at Massachusetts Agricultural College, agreed to the task and produced three volumes of reports and recommendations entitled *Problems of Landscape Architecture in the National Forests*. Taylor traveled to many national forests in every region (except for Alaska) and state forests to document the existing condition of recreation facilities, identify problems, and provide thorough reports with many black and white photos of recreation facilities, roads, parking areas and other aspects of the forests. The observations Taylor made provided the evidence needed to change site and road placement, and informed future recreation facility design. His detailed observations provided solutions to improving features at recreation facilities.[47] Below is a summary of his general observations, followed by more specific ones:

- The agency needs to continue to employ trained professionals in landscape architecture to continue to improve the existing work.
- For structure construction, there is a need to advocate for better design to reduce maintenance costs. Future maintenance problems, in view of the probable decrease in appropriations, will present a difficult situation.[48]
- Structure placement is not taking full advantage of topography. With few exceptions, the structures should not be dominating or a contrasting element in the immediate landscape composition.
- For water areas, further recommendation on spillway, earthen dams, and placement of features in relation to site areas of activities.[49]
- Campgrounds: Noted problems with traffic and picnic areas. Need to provide separate parking spaces for different sites, minimize roads in picnic areas and prohibit automobiles from driving indiscriminately over picnic areas.[50]
- Recreation facility placement: Allow for more adequate room for campgrounds and picnic areas to grow. Some instances are cited where summer home groups abut existing campgrounds, limiting future growth of the sites.

- Strong opposition to trailer use in campgrounds and recreation facilities, as design on such sites does not accommodate trailers and signage discouraging trailer use should be emphasized.[51]
- Landscape developments near highways- further consideration of planning highway routes through national forests and more collaborative study to look at where scenic strips could be added to areas that are congested.

Taylor continues with further observations and recommendations for maintenance (problems and costs), planting problems (selection and arrangements) and especially public relations advocating for better communication between the agency and recreating visitors. Taylor's documentation of a variety of recreation and road types throughout the forests illustrated that while some recreation development was occurring in a somewhat uniform matter, there was still a great need in the agency for standardized processes and designs. Taylor's observations during this period allowed some of his recommendations to be directly applied in CCC work programs, advancing his goals for a more uniform approach to recreation planning.

These early recreation experiments and studies at Eagle Creek Campground, Carhart's Squirrel Creek Campground, Waugh's *Recreation Uses,* and the expansive studies undertaken by Meineke and Taylor, laid a blueprint for future recreation planning. The proliferation of good roads associations, combined with state and federal funding for highway development and the increasing industrialization of the nation, which reduced the cost of automobiles and provided factory jobs that allowed unskilled workers to purchase them, spurred tremendous increases in motor traffic and motorized recreation. The federal government both pushed recreation and struggled over how to manage it. Early attempts by both the Forest Service and Park Service to study and standardize recreation management and design would play important roles in informing policy when initiatives of the 1930s and 1960s brought influxes in funding for recreation infrastructure development.

In 1924, President Calvin Coolidge called for a national recreation policy and created the National Conference on Outdoor Recreation (NCOR), and the first funding for campground development came shortly after. Congress appropriated $37,631 in 1925. Chief Forester William B. Greeley, who replaced Henry Graves in 1920 and who was just as interested in recreation, estimated it would cost less than $200 each to improve the estimated 1,500 campgrounds, only about one third of which had basic facilities. Coupled with donated cash and labor, the federal government disbursed $329,922 to achieve a total of 1,493 fully or partially developed campsites on the national forests by 1930. This surge of development, though small in comparison with the New Deal programs that would soon follow, came as voices within the Forest Service increasingly clamored not for more development on the forests, but for less. The concerns of Robert (Bob) Marshall, Arthur Carhart, and other agency personnel would soon lead to the formation of the first wilderness policy in the United States. But campground, summer camp, resort, and summer home development soon soared to heights that made even the development push of the 1920s look mild by comparison.[52]

Origins of the Wilderness Policy
Forest Service developed recreation, like that in sister agency and sometime rival the National Park

Service, had focused strongly on camping and automobile-centered experiences. Led by advocates within the agency such as Arthur Carhart and Aldo Leopold, the Forest Service in the 1920s began to explore a different avenue: that of wilderness preservation. Primitive and wilderness areas are an outgrowth of the mission creep that has characterized the Forest Service since its inception. Recreation was not conceived of as a use in the 1897 enabling legislation that guided Forest Service policy for the next six decades. Nonetheless, even prior to the passage of the Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act of 1960, the agency had managed to incorporate recreation into its operations. Environmental attitudes shifted significantly during this time.

Environmental management thinking in the United States had always had at least two sides: preservation and conservation. The Forest Service ethic of utilitarian conservation, embodied in Pinchot's favorite mantra "the greatest good for the greatest number," essentially regarded the Forest Service's mission as a practical one. Trees protected watersheds and provided wood, a critical and potentially extremely profitable natural resource. They also provided recreation, but there was little room for John Muir's unorthodox conception of "beauty as well as bread," an aesthetic principle connoting divine communion with nature. In practice, neither the Forest Service nor the Park Service was particularly interested in preserving wilderness areas, at least not if they were out of the public view. Both were, in a sense, peddling consumption: either of material goods or of an idea presented through tourism. Still, the Forest Service became involved with wilderness as a concept and as a political entity in the early 1920s, though mostly in a way oriented toward recreation — recreation of a primitive nature, rather than what Edward Abbey later termed "industrial tourism," the preferred mode of American outdoor tourism at the time.

Two Forest Service employees, Aldo Leopold and Arthur Carhart, are popularly credited as the first vocal advocates for wilderness preservation within the agency. Carhart, one of the Forest Service's first landscape architects, successfully advocated for the lack of development on Trapper's Lake on the Pike-San Isabel National Forests in Colorado in 1920, and surveyed and prepared plans for the Boundary Waters wilderness area on the Superior National Forest in Minnesota. Aldo Leopold, a conservationist, philosopher, and writer whose fame extends far beyond the Forest Service or even the wilderness movement, was responsible for the designation of the Gila Wilderness Area, the nation's first dedicated wilderness area, in 1924.

Not long afterward, under Chief William B. Greeley, the agency conducted a wilderness area inventory. By 1929, the Forest Service had come up with two basic wilderness designations, research reserves and primitive areas. These were not rigidly conceived entities. Logging or grazing might be perfectly acceptable uses depending on the situation. This 'middle way' suited Forest Service management needs admirably and got at least some members of the agency thinking about aesthetic and scientific land preservation, though it failed to satisfy a growing number of critics. Carhart had already left the agency in 1922, frustrated at the lack of commitment to careful recreation planning and funding. In 1935, Leopold and another Forest Service employee, Robert (Bob) Marshall, joined with several prominent national park and hiking advocates and founded the Wilderness Society, which strenuously advocated for the preservation of wilderness on aesthetic and scientific grounds based on the rapidly developing science of ecology. Carhart, Leopold, and Marshall's efforts, along with those of many others, would ultimately help to bring the Wilderness Act of 1964 into being, decades after Carhart and Leopold first began advocating the idea within the Forest Service.[53]

Depression Era Recreation Planning, 1933-1942

The Great Depression of 1929-1942 left the nation reeling financially and psychologically.[54] Even as incomes and employment plummeted, Americans turned more and more to the outdoors. In the spring of 1933, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR) convinced Congress to fund a variety of aggressive social programs that would enormously impact the nation. FDR's New Deal program of public works and financial reforms translated "visionary solutions to national problems into political and economic realities, the enactment of legislation, and the mobilization of resources."[55] One significant piece of legislation enacted within the framework of the New Deal program was the Emergency Conservation Work Act, which became law on March 31, 1933, less than one month after Roosevelt assumed the presidency.

Enabled by this legislation, Roosevelt issued Executive Order 6101 on April 5, 1933, which established the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) for the dual purposes of increasing national morale through employment of young men and addressing the country's pressing conservation needs through public works projects. These projects addressed several natural resource problems of the day, including soil erosion, water conservation, flood control, forest fires, forest health, and reforestation. Given the focus on natural resource conservation, the Forest Service was ideally suited to host CCC work camps and construction projects. Ultimately, the Forest Service administered over half of all the CCC public works projects during the CCC's nine-year existence, and a common moniker of the CCC was 'Roosevelt's Forest Army.'[56]

The CCC essentially transformed public lands into centers of recreation. During nine years of the CCC program, the focus of projects on the national forests expanded from fire protection, tree planting, erosion control, and other conservation tasks to include public improvements such as roads, trails, buildings, campgrounds, bridges, and dams. In just nine years of the program's existence, the CCC planted 2.3 billion trees. On national forests and in national and state parks they built dozens of visitor centers; over two hundred museums, interpretive sites, and lodges; 2,000 hiking shelters; and 2,500 rustic cabins. They maintained 100,000 miles of hiking trails and established 28,000 more, among many other activities. This output of concerted recreational infrastructure development marked a watershed moment in the Forest Service's self-perceived philosophical and functional role in the provision of outdoor recreational opportunities for the public good.

In 1933, Senator Royal S. Copeland launched a United States Congressional investigation of forestry which directed the Forest Service to examine forestry practices and develop a plan that would "insure all the economic and social benefits which can and should be derived from productive forests." This report became the foundational document for forestry in President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal. [57] Known as the Copeland Report, it detailed a program of work that included fire control, tree planting, research on tree disease and infestation, and recreation.[58] The section on recreation, written by Robert Marshall, espoused the tenets of Emilio Meinecke's campground design philosophy and advocated for the designation of campgrounds for the comfort and security of the camper. He stated that campgrounds ought to receive the highest degree of care from landscape architects and recreation planning professionals. This was ostensibly the first time that the agency provided widespread guidance for recreation facility development on a national policy level, but the agency still did not have a nationwide

agenda for cohesive and deliberate recreation planning. In 1934, John Guthrie, an inspector for the Emergency Conservation Work Act (ECWA) program, noted that Forest Service recreation improvements were inferior compared to improvements made by both the National Park Service and state parks in the previous year by CCC labor.[59] The Park Service used NIRA and ECWA funds to hire landscape and building architects who oversaw CCC developments, while the Forest Service continued to entrust regional and district forest staff to build ad-hoc improvements as they had in previous decades.

After Guthrie's assessment of the agency's infrastructure shortcomings, Chief Forester Ferdinand Silcox issued a brief policy statement in 1934 to all Regional Foresters encouraging them to direct their regional staff to focus Depression-Era funds and labor on permanent recreation improvements. Silcox's statement declared that opportunities for higher-caliber recreation development were "almost unlimited" and that he "should like very much to see [those] opportunities better realized." He advocated for concentrated, higher-quality facilities, stating that, "Real centers of recreational opportunity appropriately may be created by provision of more adequate and pretentious facilities than those hitherto regarded as proper under our limitations… In the future… projects of such types will be given higher priority and preference than hitherto has been practicable."[60] Despite this guidance, it was not until later in the decade that the Forest Service embraced widespread employment of landscape architects dedicated to recreation planning.

The shift in emphasis toward recreation was fueled by several factors, including public demand, competition with the National Park Service, the availability of CCC labor and funds, and by landscape architect Albert D. Taylor's September 1935 study of recreation problems on the national forests. This 4-inch-thick tome found that recreational preparedness, planning, and implementation varied widely from region to region, with some regions well-equipped and conducting sophisticated planning, while other regions lagged far behind. Taylor concluded that the remedy was more landscape architects — at least one for each region. His report bolstered opinions already contained in the agency's recent reorganization study. In late 1935 and 1936, Regions 1, 5, 6, and 9 each created a Division of Recreation and Lands (see Appendix A for maps of regions). Other regions followed less enthusiastically. Regardless, "Two and one-half years into the New Deal," historian William C. Tweed writes, "recreation had finally arrived as a national administrative priority of the Forest Service." In 1937, the indefatigable Taylor released another far more thorough report which Chief Ferdinand A. Silcox promptly disseminated to the regional foresters along with a message stressing the importance of recreation planning and services.[61]

Thanks in part to Taylor's reports, the Forest Service, flooded with labor and funding, began officially considering the value of hiring landscape architects and formally planning recreation development at the level of the national Washington Office, as opposed to leaving it to the regions. The Forest Service reorganized in 1935 and for the first time included a Division of Recreation and Lands in its Washington Office.[62] In May 1937 Robert (Bob) Marshall was named the first Chief of the Division of Recreation and Lands of the Forest Service. The Chief's Report of that same year stated that the Forest Service was employing 75 professionally trained landscape architects (or landscape engineers as they were termed at the time), but that most of the funds to pay their salaries were coming from the CCC program as opposed to regular congressional appropriations. Region 5 was in the forefront of regional Forest

Service recreation planning. In 1936, the region hired its first recreation and uses specialist to oversee a recreation survey.[63]

Design plans for recreation facilities during this period drew heavily from the foundational planning elements of Waugh, Meinecke and Taylor and were incorporated into instructional booklets that would be used by CCC crews. The booklets were instructional manuals in everything from laying out trail tread to designing campgrounds and wayside picnic areas. Each region issued a set of standard plans to its forests, with detailed designs for large recreation site layouts and buildings and structures, all the way down to small features such as signs, guardrails, benches and picnic tables. These designs allowed for slight variation or local adjustment if needed, but uniformly emphasized the use of locally obtained and minimally processed materials, and a naturalistic rustic aesthetic. Specific designs for more complex sites and projects were prepared for forests by regional staff. These developments created much greater continuity in the appearance of recreation facilities, especially among forests within a region of the Forest Service. This standardization facilitated recreation expansion across the Forest Service at a scale new to the agency.

The Forest Service demonstrated that its recreational sophistication extended beyond campgrounds and leases to compete with the best rustic architecture the Park Service could offer. Downhill skiing first burst onto the national forests in a major way during this period. In conjunction with the Forest Service, the Works Progress Administration built the grand Timberline Lodge on Mount Hood in Oregon and the Mount Magazine Lodge in Arkansas.[64] By the time the United States entered World War II in 1941, the national forests maintained 2,300 planned campgrounds, 572 picnic sites, 1,381 recreation sites with camping and picnicking, 254 winter sports areas, 54 federally built organization camps, and 11 federally financed resorts on its land.[65] The Forest Service was in the recreation business to stay, and in a major way. The Chief of the Forest Service informed the regions in 1939 that henceforth CCC funds could only be used for projects directly completed by the CCC. The work of agency landscape architects was severely limited by this new policy, with congressional appropriations for the Forest Service declining in 1941 to less than 60% of what it had been in 1937.

The CCC program was on the wane and was ultimately discontinued in 1942, as the entry of the United States into World War II meant that funding, materials, and men were now being funneled toward the war effort. As national defense spending became the foremost priority, funding for public recreation in the Forest Service ceased altogether. Regardless of this reduction, the philosophical approach to outdoor recreation, as well as the Forest Service's self-perceived role in its development, was permanently altered. Recreation in the agency became a national administrative priority. A 1939 publication entitled *Work of the United States Forest Service* states that from 1917 to 1937, visits to the national forests for use of planned recreation areas increased from 3,000,000 to 33,000,000. It also states that "Water facilities, fireplaces, and comfort stations are being constructed for the convenience of visitors as rapidly as available funds permit" indicating that even at the tail end of the CCC era, construction and demand were still growing.[66]

Recreation Planning and the Rustic Style

In 1937, the CCC published a series of manuals known as Project Training Series. This series covered

vocational skills that enrollees needed for conservation work in a variety of areas including concrete, lumber, brick, stonework, carpentry, lawns, common range plants and forestry. These manuals were the agency's attempt to distribute a more formal standardized approach to recreation facility planning and design. Many of the observations, thoughts and ideas of Frank Waugh, A.D. Taylor and Emilio Meineke are found throughout the guidance. The introductory thoughts on recreation facility placement, scenery, sanitation, trail design, parking/traffic controls, use of native flora, plantings screening and overall recreation corridor development was translated into many of the manuals and publications at the time. The CCC program continued to utilize vocational training manuals to educate CCC crews on the range of recreation and trail projects that they would construct. Part of the reason why there is variation in CCC recreation facilities was because of the apprentice / craftsperson approach to the CCC crews. Crews put skilled laborers alongside unskilled laborers to facilitate knowledge transfer, training enrollees in the building trades to help them find employment upon leaving the CCC.

Recreation planners designed recreation facility types that were narrowly focused on providing critical needs for forest visitors. These included campgrounds, picnic areas, roadside improvements, parking areas and water recreation areas with access to swimming pools, bathing beaches and dams and spillways. While the automobile was becoming more affordable and commonly used by visitors, most campground sites, picnic areas and parking areas did not accommodate trailer use, even though camping trailers were commercially available. Meineke in particular was opposed to trailers in campgrounds. More attention in design was dedicated to the following site features: bridges, bathhouses, bulletin boards, shelters, toilets, amphitheaters, fences, barriers, tables, seats, drinking fountains, garbage receptacles and camp stoves or fireplaces.

Camp Stoves and Fireplaces was the first national guidance for the development of Forest Service campground improvements. In the foreword, the book states:

> Because of the public demand for use of these recreational areas, the Forest Service, within the limits of the funds available and consistent with the primary purposes for which the national forests have been created, is doing everything possible to properly and adequately develop these recreational resources for public use. The Civilian Conservation Corps, during the last 3 years, has made it possible to carry on an extensive program of work in the development of these recreational areas which otherwise would have been impossible or long delayed. In order to protect the forests from fire, to provide sanitary safeguards, and to furnish suitable public conveniences, it has been necessary to designate thousands of campgrounds and picnic areas and to provide these areas with simple and adequate improvements.[67]

The book provides construction guidance for camp stoves built largely in a Rustic style with local stones. Of concrete stoves and fireplaces, the book states that "…concrete is out of place in any natural surroundings. The concrete fails to weather sufficiently to produce any softening effect and it disintegrates under extreme changes of temperature." This was often the case when used for campfires in sometimes cold and wet environments. *Camp Stoves and Fireplaces* also included guidance for the layout of improvements within a camp site, with suggestions for accommodating a trailer campsite, either with a long spur or pull-through half-moon shape, and an option to park the trailer next to one or two automobiles. Additional designs show campsites that accommodate tent spaces where campers do not have trailers. These layouts adapt Meinecke's and Chief Silcox's guidance for camp layout,

including a parking spur at an angle for one-way roads and at 90-degree angles for primary two-way roads. They also show screening between campsites, and small arrows indicate prevailing winds for optimum camp stove placement.

Seeking a new architectural style to reflect pride in land management, natural resources agencies embraced a style that embodied nature's grandeur. Originally developed in the Adirondack region of New York State, "Adirondack Rustic" architecture (c.1875-1930) refers to the elaborate family compounds, or "Great Camps," of the Adirondack region built of native materials, such as logs and stone, and "demonstrating a conscious design response to the natural setting."[68] The Rustic style was adopted and expanded by the architects designing recreational structures and landscapes in national parks and national forests. The public works programs of the 1930s, such as the Civilian Conservation Corps, further utilized and expanded the style for recreational and administrative structures on public lands.[69] According to Region 6 Historian Gail Throop, "The basis of rustic architecture was a design philosophy founded on an ethic of non-intrusiveness. Architectural design related to the landscape, expressed in forms and materials responsive to the environment in scale and proportion to the physical features."[70]

Principles of the Rustic style, including harmony of the built environment with the landscape, local or regional historical themes, and master planning all informed guidelines for development specific to each region.[71] The Rustic style typically employed native materials which were minimally processed and complimented the natural environment with an emphasis on horizontal lines and organic forms. Though fundamentally rustic, its ornamentation was derived from its hand-hewn accents and novel unrefined component parts. These included elements such as carved ends of full log purlins, tree cutouts in wood shutters, and covered porches accented with log railings. It was typically material and labor-intensive, eschewing available modern materials and machinery to create a sense of high workmanship. At some campgrounds, improvements included Rustic style kitchen shelters, playgrounds, amphitheaters, water pump shelters, and restrooms. Unfortunately, few of these improvements have survived to this day, either having been replaced during the c. 1957-1969 Operation Outdoors recreation infrastructure campaign or gradually lost in subsequent years.

Examples of Rustic style Forest Service recreation facilities include the following:

The **Blue Bend Recreation Area on the Monongahela National Forest in West Virginia** was listed in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) in 1994, and is significant under Criteria A and C. Constructed by the CCC from 1936 to 1938, the recreation area's original features include 21 constructed campsites with tent pads, picnic table sites, parking areas and paths, iron pump, an elaborate system of retaining walls and stabilized creek banks, two stone-paved beaches, a concrete water-retention reservoir, a large log picnic shelter/administration building, a smaller log picnic shelter, and four privies. The site of the campground was chosen to maximize access to a natural pool in the river. Since 1938, it has lost two bath houses and one pedestrian suspension bridge but remains an outstanding example of work by the Civilian Conservation Corps and an intact example of rustic landscape design. Post-1930s elements, added in the mid-1960s and 1970s, are "few and unobtrusive," and include one

more campsite, three modern privies, stone-clad drinking fountains, and large-stone bank stabilization. "Blue Bend displays the best of CCC-era workmanship in the high quality of stonework and the craftsmanship of the log buildings. Design details and construction display a great sensitivity for local materials and uses of regionally typical materials. The log buildings display skilled craftsmanship in the construction of joints and details of assembly.[72]

The **Franklin Lake Campground on the Chequamegon-Nicolet National Forest in Wisconsin** was listed in the NRHP in 1988 and is significant under Criteria A and C. Situated on the shore of the lake, the campground was constructed in 1936 with 42 campsites, a picnic area, swimming beach and ten associated buildings, including a large log bathhouse and fieldstone comfort stations, well house, and reservoir building. The buildings were constructed from both standard and original Region 9 Forest Service plans and fit stylistically within the Rustic architectural theme. The Franklin Lake Campground buildings are unchanged from their 1936 appearance except for routine maintenance and minor modifications such as the skylights in the comfort stations. The camp sites are significant landscape features and include a graveled rectangular tent pad, wooden picnic table, and fire ring. Campground facilities are accessed by bituminous-surfaced roadways. All railings and barriers within the campground are made of hewn logs to complement the buildings. The Franklin Lake Campground is significant both in terms of the number and concentration of structures, but also in the architectural sophistication of their designs. Further, Franklin Lake is distinctive because of its high degree of integrity in terms of materials, workmanship, and siting.[73]

Union Creek Historic District, Rogue-River Siskiyou National Forest in Oregon was listed in the NRHP in 1980 and is significant under Criteria A and C. Union Creek became a favored rest stop for excursions to Crater Lake National Park. The historic district was planned by the Forest Service and constructed primarily by the Civilian Conservation Corps from 1935-1938, with earlier resources within the district. The historic district includes: two points of scenic geo-hydrological interest, Rogue Gorge and Natural Bridge; identifiable traces of three historic roads; historic segments of two recreational trails; three campgrounds; a picnic area with a community kitchen, community bonfire ring, and a combined registry booth-comfort station; a winter sports area; three tracts of summer homes; a rock quarry; the Union Creek Resort complex; the Union Creek Ranger Station compound. Most of the recreation infrastructure was planned to use the principles developed by Waugh and Taylor and follows the rustic style in design and use of native materials of wood and stone. The Union Creek Resort has retained its integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and association despite continuous use by the public.[74]

Lasting Impact of the CCC on Recreation Infrastructure

In 1940 the Forest Service published *National Forest Vacations,* a pamphlet promoting the bountiful recreation opportunities on national forest land. The pamphlet aimed to raise public awareness of new facilities, emphasizing that recreation facilities were free of charge and furnished with tables, stoves, restrooms, garbage services, and water supplies.[75] However commonplace they may seem today, in the late 1930s and 1940s widespread and well-planned amenities for outdoor recreation were novel and

exciting.

In 1940, Forest Service employees, both administrators and specialists, contributed to a collection published under the title *Forest Outings*. In the book, the number of camp and picnic grounds nationwide on national forests was estimated at 3,819. The booklet states that despite this increased number of campgrounds, "Development of additional campgrounds and the installation of necessary facilities are urgently needed to keep pace with the annual increase in use. If campground use should double or perhaps treble within the next 10 years, as now seems probable, either large numbers of campers will have to be turned away, inadequately served, or the campground-improvement program must be expanded."[76] The booklet continues that the need for new campgrounds is not due to lobbyists, Congress, nor public opinion, but rather "an actual pressing swarm of the people, themselves."

Throughout the nine-year CCC program, the total contribution across all agencies includes: 48,060 bridges; 13,513 cabins and dwellings; 10,231 fire lookout houses and towers; 360,449 miles of telephone lines; 707,226 miles of truck trails (forest roads); 142,102 miles of foot and horse trails; 101,777 acres of campground development; 35.8 million rods of fences; 168 emergency landing fields; 13.3 million acres of insect control work; 6.4 million man-days of fighting forest fires; over 2.6 million acres of planting and seeding; and almost 1 billion fish stocked.[77]

Although stylistic trends would move away from the Rustic style in later periods, during the Depression Era the professionally designed recreational landscapes built by the CCC were intentionally naturalistic in appearance and buildings and features were constructed of materials found in nature like stone and wood. The driving idea was that the designs should blend with their natural setting and be as unobtrusive as possible in the landscape. Standard plans had been introduced and widely distributed, creating a more uniform image of the Forest Service among the visiting public, particularly at the regional level.

World War II and Post-War Recreation Planning, 1942-1956

In 1940, the Forest Service publication *Forest Outings* concluded that if forest visitation doubled, based on visitation numbers projected from the 1930s, the newly expanded recreation infrastructure would quickly be overwhelmed. Recreation infrastructure development by the CCC came to an end in June 1942, six months after the United States entered World War II. National forest visitation numbers plummeted as gasoline was rationed for wartime uses and public attention quickly shifted to the needs of a wartime economy. From 1942 to 1946 very little agency recreation development occurred and use numbers were low due to wartime constraints.

The Forest Service lost its CCC crews and 2,000 employees to the Armed Forces but gained the labor service of conscientious objectors who were stationed at former CCC camp sites and worked on some limited infrastructure and fire suppression projects.[78] During the war, the agency focused on controlling fire (both from wildfire and from potential enemy attacks) by using "fire lookouts" to man Aircraft Warning Systems. In part, the goal was to conserve timber that was critically needed for the war effort. In 1943, Forest visitation numbers fell to their lowest since before the Depression Era, with 6,500,000 annual visits. World War II had put an end to both the New Deal and the recreation construction boom, leaving national forest recreation facilities and national parks temporarily languishing and underfunded.

Several factors contributed to the increased demand in recreation development during this time including previously created laws which institutionalized the 40-hour work week. In 1926, Henry Ford had established a 40-hour work week with weekends off, partially to benefit morale but also to give his workers down time to buy consumer products and keep money circulating through the economy. The United States officially adopted a five-day system in 1932, also to try and lessen the unemployment caused by the Great Depression. Similar ideas were being generated in Great Britain in 1933, where the Boots corporation acknowledged that if the factories were closed on Saturdays and Sundays, it would create less surplus supply than being in operation seven days a week. John Boot also noticed that his employees came to work Monday happier and more invigorated. In 1940, Congress passed the amended Fair Labor Standards Act that established a 40-hour work week and overtime pay. The government was partially motivated to pass this act in to combat the massive unemployment at the time and spread the remaining labor over more people.[79]

The shorter work week, coupled with the economic prosperity of the 1950s, provided the perfect environment for increased leisure time. Americans not only had the time off to enjoy their free time but also had the money and automobiles to enjoy it. The expansion of the highway system and new access roads created more points of entry to national forests for recreational opportunities.[80]

As a result of the wartime development hiatus, public land managers were ill-equipped for the onslaught of recreational visitors to forests after the war. Americans began to return to public lands, both as a refuge from bustling urban life and an opportunity for affordable access to nature. There are several reasons that Forest visitation grew rapidly, including the initial availability of relatively new recreation infrastructure completed by the CCC, the much-improved quality and lower prices of automobiles, and the development of modern lightweight outdoor recreation equipment. Prior to the War, the country had been in the middle of an economic depression; neither automobiles nor recreation facilities existed in sufficient quantity to encourage widespread outdoor recreation activities. The post-war public tired from 13 years of economic deprivation and war, wanted to enjoy the benefits of the postwar economic boom. Now they finally had the time, the money, and the means for travel and recreation in the national forests.

As early as 1951, internal Forest Service memos begin to acknowledge the dual threat of increased recreation use and decreased funding for recreation facilities. In March 1951 the agency report, "National Forest Recreation Areas Overcrowded," summarized many of the issues facing recreation on national forests. Public recreation areas were being deteriorated beyond repair, acute sanitation problems existed in many areas, recreation use on national forests was increasing, and opportunities for "wholesome" inexpensive outdoor recreation were important to the health and well-being of the American people. The memo concluded by offering three solutions to these problems. The first was to invest in and repair existing infrastructure, the second to build new recreation areas to accommodate for rise of visitation, and the third to hire additional staff.[81]

Even though the agency was internally voicing concern over the overuse of recreation facilities, during the same period the Forest Service was actively publicizing recreation opportunities on national forests. In 1952 a brochure titled "Recreational Facilities in the Eastern National Forests" was printed to

highlight recreation in Region 7[82]. The brochure is useful in providing a snapshot of recreation facilities following World War II and before the massive Operation Outdoors building program that began in 1957. It shows that most recreation facilities offered drinking water and sanitation amenities. Hiking trails, picnic areas, shelters, horse trails, ski trails, and nature areas are also mentioned as recreation facilities available for public use. Other types of recreation development becoming more evident during this period are "scenic areas" and "scenic roads." These areas were intended to be easily accessible using an automobile. The nature of recreation was changing during this period as more Americans began to tour national forests through their windshields in the comfort of their automobiles, instead of backpacking or camping in the wilderness.

Region 7 Regional Forester Charles L. Tebbe noted in 1956, "the Eastern National Forests offer the only opportunities to people within the Region to enjoy fishing and hunting unrestricted by no-trespassing signs, and to participate in other types of recreation which are unique and are found only in the national forests."[83] By 1956 the recreation use on national forests had begun to outpace the public's recreation use of national parks. The head of Recreation and Land Use Division in the Washington Office John Sieker was so astounded that he asked for the numbers to be confirmed and asked the Forests if the rise was across the board or only occurring at certain national forests. Region 7 Forester Charles Tebbe responded to John Sieker saying that the increase was across the board in the Region, and not specific to one Forest.[84]

After continued record visitation to all national forests during the 1950s, forest managers faced the challenge of a severely underdeveloped recreation infrastructure with aging Depression-era facilities that were failing to meet visitor needs. The Forest Service struggled to meet accelerating public demand for amenities and services. Many recreational facilities constructed with New Deal relief funds and labor deteriorated as Congress neglected to allocate funds for maintenance or construction. Not only had the Forest Service been unable to update its capital infrastructure during this period, but modest operational funding meant that the enormous New-Deal-era building spree had left the agency without the means to maintain what it already had.[85]

Recreation pressures on public lands were such by the early 1950s that public outcry, fueled by ever-increasing numbers of visitors dismayed at what they found, demanded response. National Parks received the brunt of scrutiny, embodied in Bernard DeVoto's pointed "Let's Close the National Parks," which a wide swath of the public saw in *Harper's Magazine* in October 1953. The acid-tongued columnist neatly captured the overuse, lack of maintenance, and financial difficulties when he suggested that if "starvation rations" continued to be the only funding level for recreation, flagship National Parks ought simply to be closed until such time as the nation could be brought to care. DeVoto's advice to readers was to "build a fire under your congressman."[86]

Although funding to support recreational development was scarce during this period, some recreation development did occur on national forests. On the Monongahela National Forest in West Virginia, the Lake Sherwood Recreation area was developed after the public demanded additional recreation facilities due to overcrowding of the nearby Blue Bend Recreation Area. A planning memo from 1956 highlights the relationship that regional planners had with Forests on the ground. Regional Forester Chas Tebbe

sent to the Monongahela National Forest Supervisor E. M. Oliver correspondence stating that P.J. Hanlon would be traveling to the Forest to help plan for the development. Hanlon was to help develop a plan that included: integrated wildlife benefits from the impoundment, provided integrated recreation use, related area development to nearby recreation areas, provide adequate access and road systems, develop cost estimates, and prepare a logging plan for the site and related public use area. This memo shows that the development of a recreation area during this period had to be compatible with other key Forest uses, such as logging and wildlife management. The second page of the memo suggests that screening of the main areas and road "must be considered in the light of future logging plans", showing consideration of aesthetic values for public areas.[87] The Forest Service, in cooperation with the West Virginia Conservation Commission, dammed an area and created an impoundment to create the recreation area, foreshadowing the types of improvements that would occur during the construction of other recreation projects.

The broad surge in popularity of all forms of outdoor recreation would inspire the agency to propose a new recreation development plan in 1957 called Operation Outdoors. The initial goal was to create a dedicated five-year funding program to support the development of new recreation infrastructure. It was the largest investment in recreation planning proposed for the national forests since the Depression Era. The Operation Outdoors program would ultimately come to be the largest investment the agency had ever made in the development of dedicated recreation infrastructure.

Federal Outdoor Recreation & Environmental Protection 1960s-1970s

In 1958, Congress authorized the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) to conduct a study of recreation uses existing throughout the country and suggest best management practices for the future. In 1962 the Commission released its findings in a report to the President and Congress titled *Outdoor Recreation for America*. The report found that simple outdoor recreation activities, especially those close to water, were the most popular in the country, but that driving for pleasure was the most popular recreational use of all. Recreation needs for all manner of sites were growing swiftly. The report recommended increased recreation investment across all government agencies, which was thought to also improve economic prosperity for local communities.

The ORRRC report recommended to the President and Congress several policies for federal agencies to follow to supply outdoor recreation opportunities to the public. These included preserving and managing areas of high visitation for their scenic and/or historic significance, melding recreation with other responsibilities, cooperating with states to create a network of recreation, and being a leader in a "nationwide recreation effort." The report suggested a classification system for outdoor recreation areas, ranging from "High Density Recreation Areas" to "Primitive Areas" and "Historic and Cultural Sites." It is unclear if the Forest Service formally adopted these classifications, although longstanding agency practices had already effectively integrated that type of informal designation as part of efforts to balance ongoing forest uses. In addition, the commission recommended the creation of a Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, who would coordinate recreation planning between Federal agencies, State, and local governments, as well as a Recreation Advisory Council, where the Secretaries of the Interior, Agriculture, and Defense would address planning and policy issues at the highest level. Of note is that the commission recommended that "Public agencies should adopt a system of user fees designated to

recapture at least a significant portion of the operation and maintenance costs of providing outdoor recreation activities that involve the exclusive use of a facility or require special facilities."

Through several Congressional Acts, the Forest Service also became the stewards of new areas of land in the 1950s and 60s that would host increased recreation uses. In 1954, the Forest Service became the steward of lands from the Government's Land Utilization Program (LUP). The LUP lands were reclaimed lands that had been deserted during the Dust Bowl and Great Depression in the 1930s. In 1960, the Forest Service designated these LUP lands as National Grasslands. The National Grasslands became an integrated part of the Forest Service's public recreation infrastructure, and the agency eventually constructed recreation facilities, reservoirs, and visitor centers on national grasslands across the country.[88]

Another new type of land classification that came to the Forest Service in the 1960s was National Recreation Areas. Throughout the twentieth century, the Bureau of Reclamation (BOR) and the US Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) built several dams and thereby large lakes that became hubs of new recreation opportunities for which the BOR and USACE were not staffed to plan for or manage. The first such project to highlight the issue was the Hoover (then Boulder) Dam and the resultant Lake Mead in the 1920s. The area around the lake was recommended to be a national park by the Secretary of the Interior, but the Director of the National Park Service noted the inherent contradiction of reservoir lakes being unnatural. However, the NPS eventually become stewards of the lake, calling it the Boulder Dam Recreation Area, then renaming it the Lake Mead National Recreation Area in 1947.[89] Several new dams and lakes were created over the next several decades, and through Congressional Acts, National Recreation Areas were created and managed almost exclusively for recreation or with recreation as a priority often due to the proximity of national forests to large population centers. Many were assigned to the Forest Service, usually due to proximity to national forests. These new areas increased the availability of recreation in the national forests and the need for recreation planning.

Federal law and policy impacts on mid-century recreation planning

In the 1960s, several federal laws tangentially related to recreation planning were passed, including the Wilderness Act of 1964, the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965, the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966, the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act (WSRA) of 1968, the National Trails Systems Act (NTSA) of 1968, and the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1970. The Land and Water Conservation Act had an immediate impact on developed recreation facilities. It authorized the agency to collect fees for campgrounds and recreation use at select facilities, which helped support the purchase of additional land.

In 1960, Congress also passed the Multiple Use Sustained Yield (MUSY) Act. The act stated that "it is the policy of the Congress that the national forests are established and shall be administered for outdoor recreation, range, timber, watershed, and wildlife and fish purposes." Though in the past the agency's policy was to ensure the greatest use for the greatest number of people, the MUSY Act ensured that recreation, alongside natural resource management, would be a chief priority of the agency in perpetuity. This Act empowered proactive recreation planning actions by the agency and permanently authorized its involvement with more widespread and highly developed forms of recreation facilities.

National Recreation Areas

In 1963, the Recreation Advisory Council, created by executive order of President John F. Kennedy and composed of five major government officials, issued a policy that recognized the need for criteria for establishing NRAs. The council recommended that NRAs should focus on growing "recreation demand" more than preservation, conservation, or development; have significant natural and recreational quality greater than that of state lands, even if not as unique as other parts of the National Park System; and provide opportunity for recreation consistent with other federal public lands programs. It outlined seven mandatory criteria and six secondary criteria for establishing NRAs, including a minimum size, ability to attract a significant number of visitors from nearby and beyond its state, and filling a regional need with recreation as the dominant purpose. The policy also called for national recreation areas to be established by acts of Congress and for them to be able to be managed by multiple agencies as necessary, including as partnerships with states. The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation (rather than the NPS) was charged with studying proposals and referring them to the council for recommendation. This process gave flexibility to the NPS and USFS to develop their own guidelines for unmet future recreational needs. Region 9 was home to the first national recreation area established under Forest Service Control. Spruce-Knob Seneca Rocks National Recreation Area was established in 1965 on the Monongahela National Forest.[90]

The Wilderness Act of 1964

The Wilderness Act's origins lie at least as far back as the Great Depression era, when Aldo Leopold and Robert Marshall, among others, cofounded the Wilderness Society, an organization that strenuously advocated for the preservation of wilderness on aesthetic and scientific grounds based on the rapidly developing science of ecology. Neil Maher, a historian of environmental thinking and political history in the New Deal, World War II, and postwar eras, ties together the Wilderness Society's foundation and other early pushes for serious environmental preservation with a powerful grassroots movement following World War II. Maher contends that New Deal programs like the Civilian Conservation Corps that brought Americans into nature more than ever before — largely through recreational development — spurred both a growing awareness of the natural world and a backlash against unnecessary development.

By the 1950s, a national wilderness preservation movement was taking shape, albeit with a diffuse and grassroots nature. Public intellectuals such as Bernard DeVoto, writing from his Easy Chair column in *Harper's*, agitated ever more stridently for a reexamination of the nation's conservation values and relationship with public lands. Howard Zahniser, a particularly forceful secretary of the Wilderness Society, exhorted "Let us be done with a wilderness preservation program made up of a sequence of overlapping emergencies, threats, and defense campaigns," and subsequently drafted the first wilderness bill. It was introduced into the United States Congress by Minnesota Senator Hubert Humphrey in June 1956, even as the Forest Service developed Operation Outdoors, and the Park Service secured passage of its Mission 66 program. David Brower and the Sierra Club mounted their own forceful assault against multiple-use management and what they saw as the destruction of American wild spaces. Adding further impetus, former US Fish and Wildlife Service biologist Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring*, a damning critique of the costs of industrial modernity, publicized the severe ecological and biological damage that

attended the machine age. Facing opposition from timber, oil, grazing, mining, and recreation industries, the Wilderness Bill was delayed for eight years and revised 66 times before being enacted into law on September 3, 1964, by Lyndon B. Johnson. The Wilderness Act placed 54 Wilderness Areas into the National Wilderness Preservation System, encompassing 9.1 million acres in 13 states.[91] The legislative process and acrimonious debates leading to the Act, among them opposition from the National Park Service to any kind of serious Forest Service recreation program, strongly influenced the Forest Service's embrace of multiple-use management as a concept.[92] The Wilderness Act ultimately cut off an enormous quantity of lands to recreational *development*, but recreational *use* continued to expand, including nonmotorized pursuits such as hiking. The Wilderness Act, with its prohibitions on motorized use and development, was ready-made for hikers and aligned with the Forest Service's emphasis on dispersed recreation opportunities in the 1970s.

Land and Water Conservation Fund of 1964

The Land and Water Conservation Fund (LWCF) was established by Congress in 1964 to fulfill a bipartisan commitment to safeguard our natural areas, water resources and cultural heritage, and to provide recreation opportunities to all Americans. Using zero taxpayer dollars, the LWCF invests earnings from offshore oil and gas leasing to help strengthen communities, preserve our history and protect our national endowment of lands and waters. The LWCF supports increased public access to and protection for federal public lands and waters — including national parks, forests, wildlife refuges and recreation areas — and provides matching grants to state governments for the acquisition and development of public parks and other outdoor recreation facilities. The Land and Water Conservation Fund was permanently reauthorized in the Dingell Act of March 2019, and in August 2020 the Great American Outdoors Act fully and permanently funded the program.

National Trails System Act of 1968

Building on the momentum of the Mission 66 and Operation Outdoors programs, the National Outdoor Recreation Act of 1963 formally established a Bureau of Outdoor Recreation as recommended in the ORRRC's 1962 report. This new bureau placed within the Department of the Interior was tasked with planning outdoor recreation opportunities on a nationwide scale. The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation released a 1966 report entitled *Trails for America*, which made the recommendation for a network of national scenic trails. The National Trails System Act followed in 1968 "in order to provide for the ever-increasing outdoor recreation needs of an expanding population and in order to promote public access to, travel within, and enjoyment and appreciation of the open-air, outdoor areas of the Nation."[93] This act provided for the establishment of national recreation trails and national scenic trails, followed in 1978 by a third category of national historic trails. The National Trails System Act also comprised the enabling legislation for the designation of the first two national scenic trails: the Appalachian National Scenic Trail and the Pacific Crest National Scenic Trail, running the entire length of California, from its border with Mexico in the south to its border with Oregon in the north. Both national scenic trails and national historic trails must be designated by acts of Congress, while national recreation trails can be established by Secretaries of the Interior or Agriculture. Many miles of both the PCT and the AT traverse national forest lands.

Wild and Scenic Rivers Act of 1969

The Wild and Scenic Rivers Act of 1969 was less impactful than the major 1960s environmental laws like the Wilderness Act and the National Environmental Policy Act. Nonetheless, it played a part in refining management of Forest Service lands in California. Passed to enable "preservation of selected rivers in their natural state," the act was a pushback against the great age of hydraulic development. Since the passage of the Newlands, or Federal Reclamation, Act of 1902, the United States government had been in the business of building dams, whether for flood control, for irrigation water, or for hydroelectric power. Dams and water projects led to intense controversies around the place of humans in relation to nature and provided flash points for the environmental movement, such as the historic 1913 Hetch Hetchy controversy that pitted Yosemite National Park's protected lands and waters against the needs of the fast-growing city of San Francisco. In the 1950s and 1960s, a number of major hydroelectric projects drew public outcry, among them the Echo Park Dam controversy in Colorado; the Glen Canyon Dam project in Utah and Arizona, and the proposed Rampart Dam on the Yukon River in Alaska.[94] The Act specified that rivers could be classified as "wild, scenic, or recreational" — a classification system running the gamut from full wilderness preservation to general public access and enjoyment. A great many of the rivers managed under this designation either flow from or through national forests, and by the mid-2000s the Forest Service would oversee 4,000 miles of wild and scenic rivers.

The spate of attention to recreation-related legislation that followed on the heels of the Forest Service's Operation Outdoors initiative and the Park Service's Mission 66 program was followed in the 1970s by a broad series of environmental actions that laid the foundations of modern-day environmental policy. These laws have included the National Environmental Policy Act, the Clean Air Act, the Endangered Species Act, the Clean Water Act, the Comprehensive Environmental Response, and the Compensation, and Liability Act, among others. The Environmental Protection Agency was also created in 1970 to oversee coordination and enforcement of environmental laws across public and private jurisdictions.

National Environmental Policy Act

The National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) mandated the analysis of environmental effects resulting from federal projects and required the formulation of alternative actions, among other regulations, for nearly all projects occurring on federal lands or utilizing federal funds. The implementation of this planning practice included recreation and infrastructure projects planned by the Forest Service. NEPA, with its required public engagement and scoping, influenced the subsequent design, siting, and implementation of recreation facilities on national forest lands. The Forest Service no longer could complete all planning and construction of recreation facilities in a vacuum and was required to engage with the public at some level. Future research is likely to identify changes associated with the implementation of NEPA-influenced development on recreation facilities, most likely in association with changes to the placement and functionality of sanitary infrastructure, as well as roadway design.

National Forest Management Act of 1976

Ideas of "beauty" and large landscape management began to gain support by the Forest Service Chief and led to regional workshops in the early 1970s. In 1971, the Northern Region published a book with a focus on Timber management, roads, and how "aesthetic values can be retained in the process of

management."[95] As recreation use continued to rise in the 1970s on national forests, the public expected certain qualities to be associated with outdoor experiences on public lands. These included scenic views and quiet natural surroundings as well as recreation facilities such as toilets.

In 1973 *National Forest Landscape Management* was published. This two-volume work explored ways that national forests could be managed as a whole, with a focus on the "visual" impact of forest developments such as roads, mining, and timber harvests. Volume I was intended to "illustrate the concepts, elements, and principles" of the landscape management program and "identify the visual characteristics of landscape and analyze, in advance, the visual effects of resource management actions." This document introduced ideas that large-scale landscape planning depends on the type of landscape such as: panoramic landscape, feature landscape, enclosed landscape, focal landscape, canopied landscape, detail landscape, and ephemeral landscape. Volume II contained chapters each published by a different Forest Service region highlighting a specific function or concern related to that region in relation to landscape management, such as road development. The support of this program by Chief John McGuire in 1974 signaled the support for the positive impacts that landscape architects and large landscape management could have on national forests, including that the impact on recreation.[96]

The National Forest Management Act of 1976 mandated that each individual national forest create and continually revise a forest plan for the sustainable management of resources. These individual forest plans were designed to integrate the multiple uses of national forest lands, and often resulted in land allocations that designated specific uses within specific areas of a national forest. Forest plans could assign recreational use designations to swaths of National Forest System lands. The use of recreation "Area Classifications" was first enumerated by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation of the Department of the Interior to include 1.) high-density recreation areas, 2.) general outdoor recreation areas, 3.) natural environment areas, 4.) unique natural areas, 5.) primitive areas, and 6.) historic and cultural sites.

The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation was dissolved in 1977, and so it fell to recreation planners of the Forest Service to devise a new framework of recreational uses and their associated settings, known as the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS). The ROS was defined by Roger N. Clark, a recreation research project leader, and George H. Stankey, a research social scientist, in 1979 as "a framework for managing recreation opportunities based on six physical, biological, social, and managerial factors that, when combined, can be utilized by recreationists to obtain diverse experiences."[97] This framework was designed to function as a management tool to define, classify, allocate, manage, and monitor the full breadth of recreation settings and opportunities on national forest lands. The Recreation Opportunity Spectrum consists of six primary classes of settings and opportunities: primitive, semi-primitive non-motorized, semi-primitive motorized, roaded natural, rural, and urban. Sub-classes can also be devised to address unique aspects or conditions in a certain area. The concepts and application of the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum continue to be a driving force in recreation planning in the Forest Service today.

The first planning regulations promulgated under the National Forest Management Act were published in the Federal Register in 1979. These planning regulations directed national forests to identify recreational preferences, needs, demands, and opportunities, and to supply recreational facilities and alternatives to adequately respond to those identified needs and demands. The management of visual resources also figured into the 1979 planning regulations to address "both the landscape's visual attractiveness and the public's visual expectation."[98] In this way, visual quality objectives (VQO) became an integral part of Forest planning. This type of analysis for recreational facilities effectively memorialized the broad integration of landscape design practices for recreation facilities that was successfully implemented during the Operation Outdoors era.

Operation Outdoors Era, 1957-1969

During the period from 1957-1969, recreation use at national parks and forests increased significantly. With the passage of the Multi-Use Sustained Yield Act of 1960, outdoor recreation became an official function of the Forest Service, the first time that recreation was formally recognized as a program area. After WWII, the technical development of nylon and aluminum outdoor camping and mountaineering equipment made recreational pursuits readily accessible to average Americans. For the next twenty years, outdoor recreation equipment transformed to introduce the internal frame backpack, nylon tents and sleeping bags, better climbing rope and associated gear technology, Gore-Tex, and fiberglass skis.[99] The American public now had regular weekend and summer leisure time, large accessible playgrounds (road systems into national forests) and more disposable income to purchase affordable automobiles and gear.

Recreation development on national forest lands experienced a pronounced revitalization beginning in 1956, when federal appropriations for 'construction and rehabilitation' for the first time exceeded one million dollars on a national level. The federal funds subsequently came to the agency's recreation programs through the Operation Outdoors Program of 1957 and eventually the Accelerated Public Works (APW) Program of 1962. Operation Outdoors, inaugurated in 1957, was a five-year plan to expand and improve recreation infrastructure on the forests in response to recognition of a growing public need. Inspired by the National Park Service's ambitious 'Mission 66' program of the year before, Operation Outdoors revitalized Forest Service recreation in a now characteristic multiple-use fashion. Operation Outdoors was intended to be a five-year program to modernize existing facilities, improve recreation services for increasing numbers of visitors and to address growing public opposition to the visual impacts of clear-cutting. Less officially, the initiative was perceived within the agency to compete with the National Park Service in providing recreation facilities for the public.[100] One primary aspect of the Operation Outdoors initiative was the rehabilitation and development of recreational facilities, while a second aspect was the promotion of national forest lands as prominent settings to pursue the practices of hunting and fishing. The Forest Service endeavored to create recreational opportunities where visitors with different backgrounds and experiences in the outdoors could find amenities that enabled them to interact with nature, as opposed to simply viewing it as passive visitors.

In 1958, the first full year of Operation Outdoors funding, the Forest Service received approximately $6.5 million from the program for recreation-related expenditures, a multi-million dollar jump from previous funding levels.[101] By the second year of Operation Outdoors, Congress had formed the Outdoor

Recreation Resource Review Commission (ORRRC) with its own budget of $2.5 million to comprehensively evaluate outdoor recreation across America. Supported by the administration of President Dwight D. Eisenhower, Operation Outdoors had gained the much-needed attention of Congress, who responded positively by increasing funding to more than $10 million by the 1961 fiscal year. Congress steadily increased funds throughout the remainder of Eisenhower's term, which ended in January of 1961. Funding not only allowed the agency to rehabilitate existing facilities and develop new recreation areas, but also provided for a full-time recreation staff, a new Forest Service benchmark.[102]

The ORRRC was charged with reporting on future outdoor recreation trends and suggesting policies and programs to meet needs, aided by a National Forest Recreation Survey to provide statistical information. The National Forest Recreation Survey took place across national forests in the late 1950s and helped inform improvements needed to existing recreation facilities and identified future sites to be constructed based on certain development criteria. The ORRRC advanced the recreation management capabilities of land-managing agencies by releasing its findings and recommendations in a 1962 report titled *Action for Outdoor Recreation in America.* It became the catalyst for federal and state legislation affecting recreation, including the Wilderness Act of 1964 and acts creating the National Wild and Scenic Rivers System (1968), the National Trails System (1968), and the Land and Water Conservation Fund (1965). Additionally, the National Forest Recreation Survey, initiated by the Forest Service in 1960 and updated periodically, became a critical source of data on outdoor activities and demographics of visitors.

In 1962, Congress passed the Accelerated Public Works Program which provided government funds to hire unemployed citizens from poverty-stricken regions.[103] Six years prior in July 1956, Congress had passed an amendment to the original 1915 Term Occupancy Permit Act, which expanded the maximum acreage limit for special-use permits to 80 acres and broadened the allowed purpose for private structures located on Forest land to include public safety, education, and communal, industrial, or commercial uses as long as they were relevant to the mission of the national forests.[104] Organization camps and summer homes continued to proliferate. Ski resorts also benefitted from this amendment to the Term Occupancy Permit Act as they grew to fill out the maximum acreage allowed for their permits.[105]

While Operation Outdoors as a funding program formally ended in 1962, Congressional funding of recreation in the Forest Service continued, marking the advent of modern levels of investment in recreation as one of the Forest Service's newly designated multiple uses. In September 1962 the Accelerated Public Works Program was signed into law, which created the Job Corps program, a program that provides youth ages 16 to 24 to the opportunity to earn high school diplomas, GEDs, and certifications in traditional vocational trades, including carpentry, welding, heavy equipment operations, and natural resources trades such as forestry, firefighting, and urban forestry. The Accelerated Public Works Program had constructed 6,967 camp and picnic family units alone between 1962-1965. Nationwide, recreational use was higher than ever, with 102 million recorded visitors in 1961, and funding levels for recreation approaching $20 million in 1963 (after the formal end of Operation Outdoors).[106]

The planning goals and outcomes of Operation Outdoors initiatives continued to influence thinking on

the management and development of facilities. The Forest Service recreation program was now an established and funded administrative entity, supported by the ORRRC, and provided with data by the National Forest Recreation Survey. With the help of money from the Land and Water Conservation Fund, the Forest Service's dedicated recreation program matured under Richard Costly, who served as the agency's national recreation director from 1964 to 1971. He shifted attention to managing broad landscapes and large areas for recreation purposes. The agency gave more attention to scenery or "visual resources," hired additional landscape architects, expanded its recreation offerings, and rehabilitated or constructed additional visitor facilities. The roadway-oriented recreation development of the CCC era was broadened to include landscape designs with a more diverse recreational infrastructure, offering a greater concentration of activities within planned recreation areas. The agency also looked to cooperate with local, state and other federal agencies in recreation planning. For example, the Forest Service worked with the Army Corps of Engineers on projects to identify future recreation opportunities created by dams and impoundments. This was the case on the Allegheny National Forest when the Kinzua Dam built by the Army Corps of Engineers dammed the Allegheny River and created the Allegheny Reservoir.

By 1969, the Forest Service had designated thousands of acres as Wilderness Areas, established over 100 Scenic Areas, developed, or expanded 30 new winter sports areas, created two National Recreation Areas, opened several visitor centers, and constructed recreation facilities to accommodate 1.2 million visitors. By the end of the decade, recreation use on the national forests totaled 162.8 million visitor days.[107] Recreation on the forests was at last to be congressionally provided for in a manner that allowed the agency to meet visitor expectations and prevent undue damage to infrastructure and resources. This mid-century expansion in recreation facilities drew on the design and planning principles that had been espoused by the landscape architects who provided the template for recreational development. But the Forest Service had also learned a hard lesson in the need for regular maintenance funding, along with clear administrative policies that could help regional staff provide for the safe use of public infrastructure. During this period more than any since the agency's founding, the Forest Service repeatedly engaged in short-term and long-term planning efforts to guide recreation planning and to justify consistent, evidence-based federal funding requests to their new congressional partners.

Operation Outdoors Short-Term Visitation and Funding Predictions

In 1957, the Forest Service predicted that by 1962 the national forests would receive 66 million visitors, approximately a 50% increase from their 1955 visitation numbers. To accommodate these visitors, the Operation Outdoors plan proposed to rehabilitate 41,400 of the 42,375 existing family camp and picnic units and construct 2,150 new camp and picnic areas with a total of 40,500 new units. Somewhat curiously, there was no metric to track new trail or trailhead construction, or for trail maintenance. These goals would increase the supply of recreation facilities by approximately 50% and double the number of units overall.[108] However, the agency substantially underestimated its long-term visitation numbers, which had already exceeded their long-term projections by 1962 when visitation reached 113 million, nearly a 150% increase from 1955.[109]

Despite the overwhelming growth in visitation, funding rates for new construction still trended conversely and less money was appropriated to the Operation Outdoors program than had initially been

proposed, even at the lower projected rate of growth. By 1960, only $44.2 million was appropriated of the $58 million in funding that had been proposed and $13.8 million was distributed to the regions for "rehabilitation and new construction work," based on regional need.[110] It is likely that the remainder of the funding was distributed for administration, planning, sanitation, and maintenance.[111]

By 1961, the stated order of priority for the use of the available Operation Outdoors funds had been redefined as "(1) Administration, Supervision, Policing, Sanitation, Cleanup and Maintenance… (2) Rehabilitation and expansion of existing areas… (3) new facilities… at congested areas… regional foresters may decide to do this if it is more important than rehabilitation of less heavily used areas elsewhere." These priorities may have become developed in response to the need to shift priorities as the program was implemented, as they were not included in the initial 1957 programming goals. Assistant Chief Edward Cliff in 1961 wrote that the Forest Service regions had generally advanced new recreation facility construction, but that site rehabilitation was only approximately 30% complete with only a year and a half left in the 5-year program. He was optimistic that six of the ten regions would be able to complete rehabilitation work by the end of the program, but was not as hopeful for the remaining four, which were not named.

It is unclear how much dedicated Operation Outdoors funding was appropriated and expended by the end of the program, but it is known that the agency fell short of its initial rehabilitation and construction goals by the end of 1962. During the Operation Outdoors program, the agency renovated 22,000 existing units of the 41,400 that were planned and added 17,000 new units of the proposed 40,500. In addition, during this era the agency added 30 winter sports areas and 59 swimming sites, as well as boating and observation sites.[112] The shortfalls in recreation development for picnic and camp sites would be addressed in new planning efforts, in particular as part of the 10-year Development Program for the National Forests (DPNF) of 1961. The DPNF provided updated plans for solutions to recreation demands and established the principles that ensured that recreation would be included in long-term resource planning in national forests.

Operation Outdoors Recreation Planning

The Operation Outdoors program was initially proposed to cost $85,000,000 over the course of 5 years, with nearly half of that funding going to the construction of new facilities. After 5 years, annual recreation maintenance was then projected to cost $17 million annually.[113] This maintenance figure was built into the Operation Outdoors agency planning efforts, indicating the lesson learned from the dilapidated Depression era structures that had largely gone unmaintained for twenty years due to a lack of dedicated funding.

In 1957, the agency released a Part 1 of a two-part series detailing the broad goals of the Operation Outdoors program.[114] Part 1, titled *National Forest Recreation*, detailed the need to improve recreation offerings:

> In 1955 the national forests received over 45 ½ million visits for recreation – four times as many as 20 years ago. One-fourth of the visitors were hunters and fisherman; the rest came to camp, picnic, swim, hike, ride, ski, enjoy the scenery, or just to relax. National-Forest camp and picnic

> grounds, however, couldn't stretch enough to accommodate this increase in use. Recreational facilities built in the 1930s have been deteriorating under the heavy wear and tear. In recent years the overflow of people has gone into unimproved areas where there are no sanitary facilities and no fireplaces. Streams that supply water to nearby towns and cities are threatened with pollution, and forest fire danger is increasing.[115]

The publication attributed the growth in recreation to "not only population levels but also… great improvements and extension of transportation routes, almost universal ownership of an automobile, higher standards of living, and more leisure time." It also highlighted the increased average salaries of Americans in the post-war years. It emphasized that insufficient recreation facilities endanger the health and safety of not only visitors, but also forest ecosystems and water supplies. During the post-war years, automobile touring remained a popular pastime with many tourists coming to the forests to picnic. Records from 1934-1955 indicated that picnic areas were the most popular resource on the forests, with nearly double the annual visits of campsites. During the same years, picnicking and camping were typically followed in popularity by an "Other" grouping of wilderness areas, organization camps, and other forested areas, then hotels and resorts, winter sports areas, and summer homes.[116]

The 1957 publication included two goals and an 11-point policy section, which initially guided recreation programming and funding. These 11 points are seemingly the most detailed information provided by the Washington Office to the Forest Service regions during this period to direct their own regional recreation planning. The policies are broad and focus on the types of sites that were to be permitted on USFS land and which were to be developed by the agency, as opposed to concessionaires.

The two goals highlighted in the document are:

- Rehabilitate existing recreation facilities so that they will be safe and usable.
- Plan, develop and install new areas to alleviate present overuse and accommodate future use as it develops.

The 11-point policy includes:

1. The recreation resources of the national forests will be made available for public use and enjoyment.
2. Public recreation areas and facilities suitable for forest-type recreation will be developed and maintained in sufficient number to accommodate public use in a safe and sanitary manner without overcrowding, except for peak holiday and weekend use.
3. Public recreation area and facilities will be appropriate to the forest environment. Only facilities for forest-type recreation, such as camping, picnicking, skiing, swimming, hiking, and riding will be provided. Facilities for such types of recreation such as spectator sports, golf, tennis will not be constructed by the Forest Service.
4. Special services and facilities, such as large shelters, amphitheaters, ski warming shelters, utility connections for trailers, hot showers, electric lights, stove-length firewood, and clothes checking at bathhouses ordinarily will not be provided by the Forest Service at public recreation areas,

unless it is practicable to make a charge for such services. Developments of these types will be left for private capital to provide where feasible.

5. Large, popular, public recreation areas that are in good condition and have special features or facilities will be operated as charge areas by concessionaires where satisfactory arrangements can be made. The Forest Service will supervise the concessionaire's operation and regulate fee.
6. Organization camps for youth groups ordinarily will not be constructed by the Forest Service.
7. Public service facilities, such as filling stations, restaurants, resorts, motels, ski lifts, ski tows and boat docks will not be constructed or operated by the Forest Service. Competent concessioners will be encouraged to develop such facilities.
8. Roadside zones, trailside zones and waterfront zones will be protected and preserved for public use and enjoyment. These zones will be kept in more or less natural condition and will be wide enough to preserve the forest environment along highways, roads, trails, streams, and lake shores that are important for public recreation use.
9. Wilderness and wild and primitive areas will be protected and maintained in substantially primitive condition to accommodate public use.
10. General public recreation values, such as hunting and fishing, will be recognized in all resource management and necessary steps will be taken to develop and enhance recreation opportunities wherever there is public interest to do so.
11. Preferential private recreational uses of national forest lands, such as summer homes, may be permitted only where the lands are clearly suitable or not needed for public use.[117]

The above 11 policies significantly impacted how future recreation planning was implemented. Several of these policies are a reiteration of the themes that Frank Waugh instituted as basic foundational knowledge for recreation planning: human use and enjoyment, order, cleanliness, beauty of scenery, conservation, restoration, economy, and circulation. The policies above reflect not just how Waugh's views influenced planning and design of recreation facilities, but also A.D. Taylor and Emilio Pepe Meinecke's ideas. Waugh stressed the importance of protecting roadside, trail, and waterfronts from development and to conserve the natural environment as much as possible, whereas Taylor was concerned with future costs of maintaining recreation infrastructure. Meinecke's concepts on campground layout and in particular circulation systems to protect the natural environment were applied to all manner of recreation facilities beyond campgrounds. These policies and future policies would be concrete examples of how earlier recreation planning ideas evolved and became integrated into modern recreation planning efforts.

While in the 1920s and 1930s the agency had aspired to provide an array of recreation opportunities, in the 1950s unprecedented visitation levels and management complexities of these resources required outsourcing of key recreational functions to concessionaires or special use groups. In some cases, these resources had previously been included in agency developments, such as large group shelters, trail shelters, bath houses, ski trails, ski warming huts, shower houses with hot water, or amphitheaters. In other cases, the uses do not appear to have ever been developed by the agency itself, such as filling stations, restaurants, resorts, or motels.

The publication also states that Forest Service managed recreation developments would be restricted to

those that were "appropriate" for the forest environment, such as camping and fishing, as opposed to sport fields and courts for activities such as golf, tennis, and the like. Guidelines for these types of facilities, including golf and basketball courses, soccer fields, and tennis courts had been included in 1930s Recreation Handbooks from Regions 4 and 6. In addition, the 1957 planning publication emphasized prioritizing public uses of the land over private, stating that uses such as summer homes should only be permitted where "the lands are clearly not suitable or not needed for public use." Other policy guidelines emphasized the need to consider recreation in planning for all types of resource management, to protect and classify wilderness areas, and to protect roadside, trailside, and waterfront zones from development or timber harvest to protect the ambiance of the natural environment.

Aside from this guidance, detailed site-specific Operation Outdoors planning and landscape design was to be completed at a regional or forest level. To begin planning their recreation expansion, each national forest was to survey its existing resources and rehabilitation needs, to identify new facility needs, and to identify levels of planning, supervision, and maintenance for current and proposed facilities through the completion of the National Forest Recreation Survey. In response, Region 6 updated the existing 1945 handbook in 1958, and Region 4 created a new Handbook in 1957 to guide its Operation Outdoor planning.

Operation Outdoors Implementation: Upgrading & Expanding Recreation Infrastructure

Operation Outdoors had two primary goals; to upgrade the existing recreation facilities constructed by the CCC, and to construct new facilities to meet increased public demand. The existing Rustic Style recreation facilities had suffered from a lack of maintenance and the natural deterioration of the locally sourced building materials. In planning for the repairs to existing recreation facilities and the construction of new ones, the Forest Service was conscious of their experience with inconsistent maintenance budgets, as well as their need to provide low-cost structures that could more easily be repaired, or even replaced in kind with another standard design and readily obtained materials. New recreation facilities constructed between 1957 and 1969 served some of the same uses as those built during the CCC era, but they were built with contemporary materials and more modern design elements. The adoption of more durable building materials to reduce overall deferred maintenance was a constant theme in agency planning documents from as early as 1936 in A.D. Taylor's observations.

New recreation facilities were designed to combine multiple recreation opportunities within an area, adding a swimming beach, fishing pier, picnic site or larger group camps to existing and new campsites. A notable change from earlier recreation planning was the spacing of recreation facilities. In the 1930s, recreation corridors were planned with multiple recreation facility types that left little room for expansion. During Operation Outdoors, new sites were designed with recognition of the need to expand as visitation increased, and sites were larger in terms of number of campsites and multiple uses within a single recreation area. Campgrounds, picnic areas, bathhouses, toilets, swimming areas, boat launches, informational bulletin boards, camp stoves, picnic pavilions, and picnic tables were all added to forests to accommodate additional visitors. Where existing Depression era facilities were still in use, repairs were made if practicable, but often the campgrounds were expanded or even replaced with Post-War Modernist design versions to serve similar purposes. The focus for planning recreation facilities was to first expand where possible at existing site locations and integrate other recreation opportunities into the

expansion where possible. This method of using the existing infrastructure as a footprint for expansion preserved the original intent of the recreation areas or corridors identified in earlier recreation planning.

As with the earlier Depression Era program, during Operation Outdoors the regional engineers and architects were encouraged to produce standard designs for new construction within their individual regions. There was a decided move away from the Rustic character of the earlier era to an architectural style that embodied Post-War Modernist design characteristics. This included the incorporation of modern, prefabricated materials such as T1-11 plywood siding (invented by the Forest Service Products Lab), as well as the use of vertical channel siding, aluminum windows, poured concrete foundations, dimensional lumber, and asphalt shingles. Prefabricated materials drove down construction costs and helped create a consistent appearance among new units. Building types of the mid-century building program included bathhouses with lower roof pitches, side gables, rows of clerestory windows, wooden louvered windows, and skylights to allow natural light.[118]

Trails and roadways were often paved or hardened with concrete, asphalt paving or crushed gravel, both for durability and safety. Logs were still used to help contain trails and natural materials were used when they were the most economical and available option. Efforts were made to delineate the areas meant to accommodate the movement of visitors using enhanced signage and new interpretive offerings in kiosks. More defined trails within campgrounds were used to connect visitors between individual campsites, comfort stations, shower buildings and other amenities, as well as to guide them to active recreation facilities that were somewhat removed from the overnight lodging areas.

Visitors using automobiles to experience forests led to the development of a new recreation experience, the visitor center. The visitor center was a new type of building spearheaded by the National Park Service during the Great Depression and perfected during their Mission 66 development program. Visitor centers were designed as a “one-stop centralized service center” and were “accessible to large number of people in automobiles.”[119] Visitor centers were designed to centralize visitor services, interpretative experiences such as museums and amphitheaters, office space, and restrooms at locations near scenic attractions with large parking lots to accommodate a traveling public. The Forest Service did not construct visitor centers during Operation Outdoors as aggressively as the National Park Service, but several visitor centers were planned and erected during this period, and some were designed by known regional architects. The Mendenhall Glacier Visitor Center in Alaska, the first in the National Forest System, was built in 1962 on the Tongass National Forest to serve as a large observatory where visitors could get reprieve from the weather to view Mendenhall Glacier. It is anticipated that future research efforts will be able to associate the development of unique architectural designs like visitor centers to some of the same regional architects that developed the standard design plans for more routine structures.

Examples of existing Operation Outdoors Era historic properties evaluated through consultation between Forest Service and state historic preservation offices:

The Frying Pan Campground Group Uphill Restroom, Fishlake National Forest in Utah is an example of a site that was established as a CCC camp in the 1930s and developed into a campground in 1962. The

campground is not eligible for the Depression Era, as it does not retain features that date to this era. It is also not eligible for the Operation Outdoors Era because of modifications to the original circulation pattern. One of the two toilet buildings, the Group Uphill Restroom, has been found individually eligible through concurrence and retains integrity to the Operation Outdoors period.[120]

The Laguna Mountain Recreation Area Operation Outdoors Historic District, Cleveland National Forest in California is a historic district of facilities "linked through their design, which permitted the Forest Service to offer a greater variety of recreational opportunities to greater numbers of visitors from 1945-1970. The Forest Service facilities refurbished or constructed as a part of the Operation Outdoors building program can be considered a 1950s/1960s LMRA Operation Outdoor Historic District under Criterion A." [121]

The Kiasutha Recreation Area, Allegheny National Forest in Pennsylvania**,** was primarily constructed between 1962 and 1968. "The Kiasutha Recreation Area is Eligible under Criterion A as a locally significant representation of mid-century recreation planning and development by the US Forest Service and the Allegheny National Forest connected to the creation of the Allegheny Reservoir. The Kiasutha Recreation Area, as a designed cultural landscape, maintains a high level of integrity in both the built environment and landscape characteristics. Through comparative analysis, it is believed that the Kiasutha Recreation Area is the best example of a large multi-use recreation facility in the area, and certainly within the Allegheny National Forest." [122]
[123]
The Operation Outdoors period saw the largest investment in recreation facilities in the Forest Service's history since the New Deal. By the conclusion of Phase I in 1962, the Forest Service renovated 21,578 family camp and picnic units and constructed an additional 17,051 new campground units nationwide, along with 30 new winter sports areas, 59 swimming sites, and many boat launches and scenic areas. Though formal funding for this aspect of Operation Outdoors ended in 1962, labor for the construction of new recreation facilities continued to be provided through various means, including the newly created Job Corps program and the Accelerated Public Works Program. The Accelerated Public Works Program constructed 6,967 camp and picnic family units for Forest Service use between 1962-1965 nationwide.[124]

Establishment of Agency-Wide Recreation Program
At a national level, the Forest Service had generally provided limited guidance for designing recreation facilities, and rather relied on regional offices to provide guidance to national forests. In 1963, the agency released *Campgrounds for Many Tastes*, which provides insights into the agency's evolving policy on recreation facility planning. It made a distinction between Central Camps and Forest Camps – Central Camps were to be located near a multitude of recreational opportunities, while Forest Camps were to be located in a more isolated environment with minimal improvements. In some cases, Forest Camps could be arranged around the location of a Central Camp, so that Forest Camp campers could visit Central Camps if necessary for amenities.

It also provided insight into campground design, stating that campsites that were widely spread out were best to maintain the natural environment. For example, site furnishings and tent spaces orginially were placed at a comfortable distance from cars. However, with the introduction of trailer camping, parking spurs could be placed closer to the campsite furnishings. Campgrounds could have up to several hundred sites, though this size of campground was certainly rare. They were to be many miles from primary highways for audio isolation, an issue that had not been present in the 1930s and 40s when cars were much slower. The publication also addresses backcountry camps, stating generally that in any area where use is heavy and deterioration is imminent, it may be necessary to clear large backcountry areas and/or establish a fire ring for safety. It recommends that the campgrounds in a forest be listed by type within a directory, so that visitors may find their preferred type of destination more easily.

A campground plan is also included in the 1965 publication *Outdoor Recreation in the National Forests.* It includes some of the design concepts that had been developed over the past several decades. These include introducing a buffer zone between the site and the roadway, one-way loop systems, parking spurs, back-in trailer parking areas for camp sites, a boat trailer parking next to the boat ramp, and area for expansion. The change in scale between the Depression Era construction and that of Operation Outdoors had manifested itself in practical ways like the increase in parking spaces and road turn radius to accommodate larger modern vehicles, but also was reflected in practical considerations like creating larger campsites designed to offer campers enhanced privacy from other visitors. Changes in the materials of picnic tables from the Rustic Style wood to fixtures like metal loop tables provided the same basic functionality, but these practical factors also reflected an evolution in the way that the agency had matured in its administrative approach to modern unit cost purchasing, rather than continuing to seek local design solutions to accommodate the recreation needs of its visitors. Changes in the administrative planning process for recreation mirrored the larger changes of an agency that had grown to manage massive public land areas and was poised to continue well-tested recreation management methods in coming decades.

Shortly after Operation Outdoors was proposed, additional ideas emerged in the Forest Service which highlighted the increasing importance of recreation planning to agency leadership. These ideas included a Program for the National Forests, the similarly named Development Program for the National Forests, and a National Forest Recreation Survey. These initiatives illustrate lessons learned from the CCC and the Operation Outdoors programs – temporary initiatives to plan for recreation were insufficient to truly serve the public's recreation needs. Rather, the agency would need to prioritize recreation management indefinitely in its agency planning, both for the long-term health of the forests and their recreation visitors.

In 1959, Chief McArdle presented testimony in support of the Program for the National Forests (PNF) to the Sub-Committee on Forests of the Committee on Agriculture in the House of Representatives. It was later dubbed "Operation Multiple Use."[125] The presentation summarized objectives and actions for the agency to manage its renewable resources from 1960-2000, including timber, water, rangeland, wildlife, forest protection, roads, and recreation. McArdle noted that recreation would be "probably the most phenomenal increase in any use of the National Forests in the next few years" and estimated recreation visitation would grow ninefold by the year 2000. The agency proposed 13 major actions to address this

growing need, many of which related directly to recreation, or indirectly, through the conservation of wildlife habits for wild game management. To address recreation, the PNF would come to absorb and expand the recreation planning goals of Operation Outdoors, calling for 10,000 new campground and picnic sites containing 102,000 units. For comparison, the Operation Outdoors program created just two years earlier called for just 2,150 new sites and 42,400 units. In addition, the PNF called for a national survey of recreation needs, management plans for health and safety in Recreation Units, managing dams and spillways for safety to facilitate recreation, and for surveying and managing wilderness and primitive areas to ensure healthy and stable wildlife populations.

The agency completed the recommended survey in 1960, known as the National Forest Recreation Survey (NFRS), and it was subsequently repeated. The national survey was a compilation of the efforts of each national forest, who were required to survey potential new sites for recreation developments, including campgrounds, winter sports areas, and summer home tracts.[126] The NFRS estimated that by 1970, there would be 195 million annual visits to the national forests.[127] By 1970, visitation was at 173 million, slightly lower than expected. This may be because in 1965, the agency changed its method of calculating visitation, using 12-hour "Visitor Day" increments to determine visitation numbers. While this increased the impact of multiple-day trips, which in the past would have been counted as a single visit, it reduced the apparent impact of day trips of less than 12 hours, which were by that point much more common than multi-day trips.[128]

In 1961, the Forest Service created the Development Program for the National Forests (DPNF). The DPNF expanded on the 1959 PNF, increasing recreation visitation projections, infrastructure needs, and management guidelines. As with contemporary policies, the DPNF emphasized the importance of managing recreation. Recreation was becoming accessible to more people, as highways, equipment, and recreation facilities continued to improve. It was swiftly outpacing the rate of population growth and the Gross National Product.[129] The Development Program again increased the goal for new picnic and campsite development – 28,000 new facilities with 283,000 units, over double the numbers from the 1959 PNF, seven times the unit goals and thirteen times the new facility goals of Operation Outdoors. In addition, it called for 4,000 other recreation facilities, such as winter sports, boating, and swimming areas.

In a departure from earlier programs and policies, the DPNF introduced the concept of interpretation and visitor centers to Forest Service policy and recreation planning. It stated that the Forests would "provide information facilities and services at 180 major recreation centers in addition to the development of demonstration areas, museums, exhibits, nature trails, outdoor amphitheaters, and scenic vistas to meet public educational needs."[130] Planning for interpretation and education had previously not been included in the agency' mission; however, it introduced new reasons for visitors to visit and stay longer within the national forests.

In 1961, the Forest Service released Phase 2 of Operation Outdoors, which related primarily to the creation and protection of wildlife habitats for hunting and fishing. Hunters and fishermen accounted for a $3 billion industry of equipment and services and were found in every third household. Phase 2 set forth a policy to balance the protection of wildlife habitats with other forest uses and to cooperate with

state agencies to manage game and fish populations. The agency sought to improve wildlife habitats, resources, and population levels over a 10 to 15-year period with a budget of $25.6 million. The effective management of these resources no doubt improved the natural environment for visitors generally and continued to bring hunters and fishermen to recreation facilities across the national forests and grasslands. Through the second phase of Operation Outdoors and the DPNF, the agency had also embraced the management of wildlife habitats, primarily for the purposes of furnishing game for visiting hunters and fishermen who might return regularly to take advantage of well-managed habitat areas.

Recreation Ways

In 1965, the Forest Service published *Outdoor Recreation in the National Forests*. Like its policy predecessors, it emphasized the need for increased recreation development. It also summarized popular uses on the national forests, with campgrounds and picnic areas being the most popular forms of recreation, followed by winter sports areas and organization camps. It provides insight as to how recreation was not only growing in popularity but changing in form. In the past, the agency provided uniform types of sites, such as campgrounds, to suit the entire public. However, by the 1960s, two types of visitors had emerged: those who wanted developed sites with more luxurious amenities, and those who sought more rustic and less popular sites. The publication cites a survey wherein three-quarters of campers stated that they preferred campgrounds that were larger and more developed with resources such as hot showers, electricity, flush toilets, even laundry facilities. The increased heavy use created a need to "harden" sites with paved roads and some updated facilities such as flush toilets to maintain proper sanitation. However, the report also acknowledged the increased number of visitors who sought isolation in the forests, or those whose chosen activities did not require developed sites, such as boating, swimming, fishing, horseback riding, hiking, and mountain climbing. These visitors often did not communicate with Forest Rangers and as such, the number of visitors participating in dispersed activities was unknown.

Outdoor Recreation also suggests that new venues for recreation development and types of recreation were catalyzing the need for increased recreation development. These include places such as reservoirs, scenic highways, and winter sports areas. New recreation forms included "travel trailers, camper units on pickup trucks, powerboats, scooters, telephoto lenses, and aqualungs" as well as skiing, sailing, "surfboarding," and spear fishing.[131] The popularity of motor boating created increased demand for boat launching sites, which were expensive to construct, as well as parking lots to service them. Campers with trailers often outnumbered tent campers, increasing need for utility hookups at campsites and larger parking spots and turnaround areas. In the 1960s, the popularity of dispersed recreation such as backpacking grew. Backcountry camping sites had been included in a publication titled *Campgrounds for Many Tastes* in 1963, and became increasingly popular, highlighted in a 1969 publication titled *Backpacking in the National Forest Wilderness: A Family Adventure.*

To accommodate and expand infrastructure for the most popular form of recreation, driving for pleasure, the agency created a 10-year development program for Recreation Ways in a 1963 publication titled *National Forest Recreation Ways: A Development Opportunity.* Recreation Ways were to have "top-quality facilities such as picnic and camp areas, overlooks, information centers, and rest areas established to add to the enjoyment of the route," and be "distinctly different" from other Forest Service

roads and recreation developments.[132] Although the publication recommended set numbers for construction, it is unclear how many of these Recreation Ways were completed.

Outdoor Recreation also found that trips to the national forests were shortening; whereas in the past families would take 1 to 2-week trips in the summer to camp, in the 1960s visitors were more likely to come to the forests for a day or weekend trip. Visitors were also likely to be more affluent, travel farther, and be older than visitors in the past. Picnic sites remained by far the most popular facility type, as picnicking was usually the chosen activity of those who drove through the forests for pleasure, the most popular form of recreation found in the ORRRC report of 1962. In 1964, 21.48 million visitors came to the national forests to picnic, while only 14.15 million came to camp.[133] This trend was expected to continue, as automobile touring remained an immensely popular form of recreation nationwide.

By 1971, most of the recreation development programs initiated in the 1960s were over, with the funding and planning goals for both phases of Operation Outdoors formally ended. The Development Program for the National Forests ended in 1971, along with the Accelerated Public Works program, which was terminated by President Nixon in 1971. From 1961 to 1967, construction projects constituted over 50% of the appropriations for recreation in the Forest Service nationally. By 1971, the federal appropriations for recreation were approximately 75% operation and maintenance, 15% water pollution abatement, and just 10% aimed towards new construction.

To compare the outcomes of the two building campaigns, a close evaluation of the design and layout of the Depression Era and the Operation Outdoors Era is instructive. The CCC-built campgrounds and day use sites tended to be linear in their layout, organized along transportation corridors that were improved from existing roads or purpose-built to provide access to designated areas where recreation uses could readily be accommodated without undue damage to natural resources. The recreation facilities constructed under the Operation Outdoors plan broadened the areas for public use beyond the limits of the transportation corridors, not just providing properties like basic campgrounds, but adding entire new groupings of recreation facilities that were oriented towards more intensive, activity-based visits.

While the mid-century projects often provided visitors with the ability to take advantage of scenic vistas and trails, a key shift in the later period was the movement towards providing visitors with multiple opportunities for interaction with the environment within a more comprehensively planned designed recreation landscape. Although proximity to natural features like rivers and streams was often found in CCC-built recreation facilities, those constructed during the 1960s went even farther, through the enhancement of natural features or even the wholesale creation of large manmade lakes through construction of dams. The evolution in the field of landscape architecture since the early pioneers of landscape design during the Depression was evident in the implementation of more modern landscape plans during Operation Outdoors. Recreation facilities from this period reflected changing public tastes, providing opportunities both for the passive appreciation of the landscape and new facilities that supported more active recreation activities.
The public continued to utilize the recreation infrastructure developed through Operation Outdoors into the 1980s with a slight decline in use during the economic recession in the 1980s coupled with a decline in federal funding.[134] Public-private partnerships were created during this time to assist in managing

recreation areas and fee-based recreation access increased. The privatization and commercialism of recreation, which had roots in the mid-century were becoming prominent avenues for the American public to experience recreation.

Beyond Operations Outdoors

Though the public typically associates historic recreation facilities with Rustic-Style Depression Era picnic pavilions, most people visiting forests today are interacting with historic era recreation sites that were built or more fully developed during the Operation Outdoors period. In that sense, recreation within the national forests is defined by the broad program of improvements made during this era. While existing Depression Era facilities were often repaired or expanded, new recreation facilities were often grouped together to increase the availability of activities and the public's access to nature within a much larger designed and potentially historic designed landscape. The linear orientation of Depression Era recreation facilities was broadened to present the visiting public with a more immersive experience of services and access within a larger area of recreation infrastructure that accommodated much larger numbers of overnight and day use visitors. Recreation planning concepts and guidance from the early days of the agency were built upon and integrated into modern recreation planning efforts. Mid-century recreation planning emphasized the need to accommodate public access using design principles that provided sanitation and order for visitors, while fostering the conservation of the natural environment and scenic qualities. These planning concepts form the basis for Forest Service Manual and Handbook direction today.[135]

As had occurred after the Depression Era, the quality and appeal of recreation facilities noticeably diminished as the Operation Outdoors facilities were heavily used and once again, Congress responded with an increase in construction funding. By 1990, there were 263 million RVDs to the national forests across the country, an increase of 75% from the visitation of 1966. Secretary Orville L. Freeman in 1963 had noted the importance of recreation development and its connection to economic development: "Recreation development is the fuse that will set off a great economic boom in the Lake States in the years ahead. The economic progress will come as we apply multiple use conservation to timber, mining, and agriculture. The big target is water and the recreation potential it holds."

Operation Outdoors and the subsequent funding that facilitated recreation improvements and planning during this period was larger in scope than the Depression Era CCC-building program and constitutes a seminal period of the agency's recreation history. More campgrounds were constructed during this period than any other period in its history. Recreation became part of the official agency mission following the passage of the Multiple-Sustained Use Act of 1960, as recreation visits to national forests continued to increase, with the planning goals and design aesthetic of the mid-century program setting a new standard for visitors experiencing recreation on the national forests.

As a result of Operation Outdoors, Depression Era recreation facilities were either repaired, expanded, overlaid with new Post-War Modernist style structures and features, or replaced entirely by more contemporary facilities. Our challenge in evaluating these recreation facilities is in seeking the characteristic design qualities of both periods, reconciling the impacts of two major development initiatives, and recognizing the key historic features that have survived their active and enthusiastic use

by generations of recreation visitors.

American architectural trends of the modern era have branched in several directions, retaining styles and forms that had been introduced throughout the 20th century; innovating new styles and forms made possible by materials such as concrete, reinforced glass, and structural steel; and often utilizing the convenience and cost of prefabricated forms that are manufactured offsite, then delivered and assembled at their final location. To a large degree, newly constructed recreational infrastructure of the Forest Service during the past 50 years has followed this third category of prefabricated forms. Manufacturers, such as CXT and Romtec for instance, have come to dominate the design of vault toilet buildings installed on Forest Service lands. The outsourcing to contracted design firms has occurred in the modern era for other major building designs as well, such as for visitor centers and administrative sites. This has resulted in a variety of new Forest Service building forms that integrate modern materials, amenities, and fixtures, but that hearken back to a variety of styles, such as the Craftsman Style, the Ranch Style, or even the Shed Style.

Energy efficiency and 'green' or eco-friendly construction has influenced materials and techniques of design and construction since the environmental movement of the late 1960s and 1970s. Reducing costs and maintenance needs of infrastructure has also been a driving motivator behind the materials and techniques of modern-day recreation-related construction. Visual quality objectives have also remained a priority at developed recreation facilities, as harmonization with the surrounding natural setting has almost always been and remains to this day at the core of design plans for recreation-related Forest Service infrastructure. This has manifested in a continued use of the Depression Era 'Meinecke system,' with vegetative screening between campsites, one-way loop circulation patterns, trailer spurs, and other small-scale design techniques to reduce user conflict and natural resource damage.

In 1991, the agency initiated a media campaign known as "Room to Roam," which encouraged the public to travel to lesser-known sites in the national forests, likely in part to spread the impacts of visitation on popular sites. Recreation became the highest revenue generator on national forest lands in terms of gross receipts, with an accompanying economic benefit to nearby communities.[136] Recreation became the single most common use of national forest lands, among all the uses authorized by legislation.

Recreation trends from 1980-2020 focused on these primary activities:

- Visiting developed recreation facilities, including family gatherings, picnicking, developed campground use, visits to interpretive sites, visitor centers, historic and prehistoric sites.
- Viewing and photographing nature, including birding, wildlife viewing, viewing natural scenery, flowers and gathering (mushrooms).
- Backcountry activities, including challenge events (marathons, multi-sport competitions), day-hiking, equestrian use, visiting primitive areas/wilderness areas, caving, mountain climbing, rock climbing and backpacking.

- Motorized activities, including motorized off-road use, motorized snow use, motorized water use.
- Non-motorized winter sports, including developed skiing areas.
- Hunting and fishing.

It is likely that the future evaluation of this modern trend in recreation facility development will require the consideration of these factors, as well as how the technological innovations of the modern era have changed the face of recreation on the national forests. These technological innovations have included the use of recreational snowmobiles, all-terrain vehicles, electric bicycles, rock crawlers, and other motorized vehicles that both deliver visitors to their preferred destinations and represent forms of adventure tourism in themselves.

Through the development of this MPDF, the Forest Service seeks to continue its efforts to steward the historic resources that have welcomed visitors to forest lands since the agency's inception. The recreation facilities that accommodated the trends in American recreation since the early walking clubs of the late nineteenth century were expanded by the service of Depression Era workers. The successful designs of early landscape architects and the implementation of scientifically based recreation planning have left the Forest Service with a rich legacy of recreation facilities that it will continue to steward, while serving the public's need for access to our forests.

F. Associated Property Types

Most Forest Service recreation facilities within the agency's current real property inventory are likely to have been constructed during one of the two identified primary periods of significance: the Depression Era (1933-1942) and Operation Outdoors Era (1957-1969). There are also rare early survivors that predate these periods, and a limited number of recreation facilities that do not share the common characteristics of these two periods.

In this section, common recreation property types are defined, followed by characteristic features of recreation development for each of the two primary periods of significance. More general evaluation guidelines are also included below for "Other Recreation Facilities." During the two primary development periods, recreation facilities were typically planned as designed landscapes by professional landscape architects, with component parts intended to function as a whole to provide a specific recreation experience for visitors. Most recreation facilities should be evaluated under the tenets of the designed historic landscape property type as a site.

The treatment of properties from the Depression Era (1933-1942) and Operation Outdoors Era (1957-1969) is differentiated in these Registration Requirements in recognition of the larger number of surviving mid-century recreation facilities. For Depression Era properties, the necessities of maintenance for highly used recreation facilities have resulted in sites that retain most design characteristics but may have more replacement materials. Facilities from the Operation Outdoors Era are more numerous and have the benefit of being constructed more recently and with more durable modern materials. Facilities from the Operation Outdoors Era will therefore need to demonstrate a higher level of historic integrity and retain more character defining features to qualify as eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

Forest Service designed historic landscapes typically fall within two sub-types, as defined within the National Register Bulletin "How to Evaluate and Nominate Designed Historic Landscapes." Those sub-types are "*parks (local, state and national) and camp grounds*" and "*grounds designed or developed for outdoor recreation and/or sports activities… that are not part of a unit."* The majority of the designed historic landscapes that are related to the recreation facilities documented within this MPDF fall within the "*parks and camp grounds*" sub-type due to their planned construction as cohesive, multi-component designs within the two primary periods of significance. Most "*grounds designed or developed for outdoor recreation"* are likely to either be isolated from planned recreation facilities constructed during the two primary periods, or they may be included within discontinuous historic district boundaries when their construction can be linked to a larger planned development.

This MPDF addresses broad themes in Forest Service recreation development that are applicable to the majority of recreation facilities that were constructed within the two primary construction eras. These registration requirements seek to identify the most common characteristics of recreation facilities that were constructed within the two primary development periods. When site specific information is available about the history of individual recreation facilities, that information should be used to supplement the historic context information that has been compiled within this MPDF. The evaluation of individual recreation facilities should consider the historic significance and integrity within this

continuum of recreational development. The individual evaluation will use local research and field survey data to support decisions about the appropriate period of significance for each facility and whether eligible properties should be listed at the local, state or national levels of significance.

Character-defining features and aspects of historic integrity that a recreation facility must demonstrate to be eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places are described for each period of significance below. While recreation facilities will typically include groups of resources placed within designed historic landscapes, individual buildings or structures that embody the distinctive characteristics associated with a particular period of significance may also be individually eligible for listing as exemplar properties representing a particular architectural style. These recreation-related individual properties may include buildings and structures that were constructed without known associated landscape features. They may also include buildings and structures which may have lost some designed landscape elements, but the individual building or structure demonstrates exceptional integrity otherwise. Future research and additional documentation may identify other property types and periods of significance that can be included under these registration requirements, but the majority of currently identified recreation facilities are addressed by the property types and periods of significance discussed below.

The small percentage of recreation property types constructed outside of these primary time periods should also be evaluated for their historic significance and integrity in comparison to the features and design characteristics that have been identified as common to Forest Service recreation facilities. Registration requirements for facilities constructed outside the two main eras are described to encompass the full range of potential historic properties. These may be expanded or replaced as ongoing research is conducted and additional documentation is completed. Other property types may also be more specifically addressed in future amendments and/or additional documentation, such as recreation residences/summer homes and winter sports facilities and resorts.

US Forest Service Recreation Property Types and Description:

1. **Designed Historic Landscapes:** A designed historic landscape is defined as "a landscape that has significance as a design or work of art; was consciously designed and laid out by a master gardener, landscape architect, architect, or horticulturist to a design principle, or an owner or other amateur using a recognized style or tradition; has a historical association with a significant person, trend, event, etc. in landscape gardening or landscape architecture; or a significant relationship to the theory or practice of landscape architecture." Forest Service recreation facilities developed during one of the defined primary phases of recreation growth are likely to be the product of planning by landscape architects, architects, engineers, visual quality specialists, and other trained professionals and follow a defined style, such as the Rustic Style or Post-War Modernist Style. Evaluating a recreation facility as a designed historic landscape permits focus on the design of the site within the landscape, separating the integrity of the overall site from individual built features, emphasizing the importance of setting and environment, and providing a realistic model by which sites can be managed to retain integrity. Within these

landscapes, the circulation patterns, vehicle driveways and parking areas, strategic plantings, retained native vegetation, integration of natural features, and other small-scale elements combine to present a comprehensive experience for the visitor, taking advantage of natural elements related to each location in order to select designed features that collectively add to the visitor experience. A designed historic landscape may be eligible if the grouping achieves distinction and significance as a whole, considering not just extant buildings, but also structures, objects, sites, and landscape features. Common Forest Service recreation designed historic landscape subtypes include:

- **Campgrounds,** defined as areas with access roads, designated camp sites with parking spurs, camp site furniture such as picnic tables and fire rings, support structures such as toilets, bathhouses, group shelters, and other activity areas.
- **Day Use Areas,** such as picnic areas, observation/wildlife viewing sites, trailheads, water-feature sites, or other recreation facilities that include designed access, parking, and activity areas not intended for overnight use.
- **Recreation Areas** have combined campground and day use areas.
- **Recreation Corridors** include multiple recreation facilities, trails or other features centralized off a defined transportation corridor.

In most cases, an individual designed landscape, such as a recreation facility, should be classified in a National Register evaluation or nomination as a "site." A group of recreation facilities, such as several campgrounds or day use areas along a planned recreation corridor, should be classified as a "district" for National Register evaluation. Exceptionally large or complex recreation areas with individual components that are considered sites may also be defined as a district. To determine features of a potential recreation historic landscape, the features should represent a distinguishable entity with historic character and design dating to the property's documented period of significance. Boundaries of a designed historic landscape should be large enough to include all significant features but should not include buffer zones or acreage not directly contributing to the landscape's significance. The use of standard plans may influence the development of appropriate boundaries, particularly for historic landscapes whose individual designs are not clearly documented within Forest Service records.

Multiple character defining features of a historic landscape must be present, must collectively be able to convey significance, and must have retained historic integrity. Character defining features include engineered or designed features, as well as natural features that contribute to the landscape's setting and feeling. For a landscape with multiple character defining features within a historic site or district, the buildings or structures may lack individual distinction or have a lower degree of integrity but may still contribute to the larger historic landscape. Potential character defining features of a recreation property could include:

- Designed circulation patterns (pathways or road systems that may include controls such as gates, barriers, fee stations, or one way traffic flow)

- Parking spurs or other designed parking areas
- Interpretive trails
- Signs and informational kiosks
- Site furniture (fireplaces, picnic tables, water fountains, wells, pumps, trash receptacles)
- Site grading and layout (spatial organization of site reflecting use patterns)
- Strategic plantings that provide screening and privacy
- Small-scale elements such as retaining walls, fences, wells, tent pads, and similar elements, and other landscape features that give insight into historic design, function, and other aspects of facilitating outdoor recreation.
- Rivers, streams, lakes, ponds, and other bodies of water or topographic/geological features may contribute to property setting. Those that have been manipulated as intentional elements within a designed recreation landscape, such as a dammed pond for swimming or a canal or other human-made feature, may be character defining.
- Utilities
- Buildings and structures

2. **Buildings and Structures:** Buildings and structures may be contributing resources within designed historic recreation landscapes, as described above. They may also be individually eligible as architectural or engineered properties, even if they were not originally or are no longer associated with an intact designed recreation landscape. Individual eligibility refers to a single resource that maintains a high level of physical and design integrity and can independently convey its significance under one or more NRHP criteria. There can be instances when an individual building or structure is unique or the last of its kind, has distinctive architectural or aesthetic qualities, or has specific associations with important individuals or events. When individual buildings and structures are based on standard designs, eligibility will typically require the retention of most aspects of integrity. Common Forest Service recreation buildings and structure types include (but are not limited to):
    - Visitor Centers
    - Amphitheaters or campfire circles
    - Pavilions / picnic shelters
    - Cabins and open lean-to shelters
    - Bathhouses and toilet buildings / comfort stations
    - Fish-cleaning stations
    - Boathouses
    - Bridges
    - Dams
    - Boat launches, piers, and docks

Areas of Significance

Areas of Significance may aid in further distinguishing similar recreation facilities from each other and establishing a comparative analysis. Individual resources that can be demonstrated to have strong historic association with one of these areas, but a less robust association with a designed landscape, may be considered for listing.

Architecture

The theme of Architecture is defined as "the practical art of designing and constructing buildings and structures to serve human needs." Architecture associated with developed recreation has been in existence on national forest lands since the early 20th century. Styles employed have consisted of Arts-and-Crafts or Craftsman, Rustic, and Post-War Modern, as well as vernacular and utilitarian forms. Architecture will not be the most common Area of Significance pertaining to recreation facilities, though it is likely to apply to historically significant visitor centers and other facilities that were designed to evoke distinction and intentionality and stand out as embodiments of a particular style or period.

Community Planning and Development

The theme of Community Planning and Development is defined as "the design or development of the physical structure of communities." Forest-adjacent communities that border on national forest lands through the first three quarters of the 20th century have been provided with permits to develop such infrastructure as playgrounds, cemeteries, and other community-based infrastructure. Though a number of these permits have expired over time, a number are still extant and could fall within this Area of Significance.

Conservation

The theme of Conservation is defined as "the preservation, maintenance, and management of natural or manmade resources." Nearly all outdoor recreation on public lands is borne out of late 19th-century conservation efforts of the Progressive Movement. Documentary and interpretive sites can readily fall within this area of significance, as well as congressionally designated recreation areas such as National Recreation Areas and Wild and Scenic River corridors.

Engineering

The theme of Engineering is defined as "the practical application of scientific principles to design, construct, and operate equipment, machinery, and structures to serve human needs." Applications of engineering to recreation include such basic amenities as culverts, water systems, and lighting fixtures, as well as more intensively engineered structures such as roads, bridges, and dams. Applied engineering is an essential tool in the outdoor recreation industry for the management of the effects of natural phenomena on recreational infrastructure and of visitors' effects on natural resources. An important example of a type of structure, such as a bridge or dam, may have engineering significance. Significance in this area may also be demonstrated through design solutions to address a specific problem.

Entertainment/Recreation
The theme of Entertainment/Recreation is defined as "the development and practice of leisure activities for refreshment, diversion, amusement, or sport." Practically any historically significant recreation resource, property, or piece of infrastructure is liable to fall within this Area of Significance, which essentially defines the industry of outdoor recreation.

Ethnic Heritage
The theme of Ethnic Heritage is defined as "the history of persons having a common ethnic or racial identity." Though this theme will not broadly apply to recreation facilities, certain documentary and interpretive sites could potentially fall within this Area of Significance. Additionally, National Historic Trails could also fall within this Area of Significance.

Landscape Architecture
The theme of Landscape Architecture is defined as "The practical art of designing or arranging the land for human use and enjoyment." Since the origins of modern American landscape architecture, outdoor recreation and public lands have figured prominently in the history and development of the public park concept and its execution of design. Frederick Law Olmsted, the father of modern American landscape architecture, was himself the first chair of the commission created to manage and propose developments on the nation's first preserved recreational grounds carved out of the public domain: Yosemite Grant in California. Olmsted's, and future landscape architects such as Arthur Carhart's minimalist recommendations introduced the concepts that that would come to characterize landscape architecture on American public lands up to the present day.

Social History
The theme of Social History is defined as "the history of efforts to promote the welfare of society; the history of society and the lifeways of its social groups." The creation, restoration, and eventual recreation use of forests in the 20th century resulted in the creation of public lands "for the benefit and enjoyment of the people" and for "public use, resort, and recreation." This movement created the space and advocated for the nature-based aesthetics that would characterize outdoor recreation on national forest lands throughout the 20th century.

Transportation
The theme of Transportation is defined as "the process and technology of conveying passengers or materials." The outdoor recreation industry has always relied on roads and trails to deliver visitors to recreational destinations. Not only did recreation adopt and improve roads and trails from prior trailblazers, but 'landscape engineers' of the first half of the 20th century revolutionized the way a road could be built without sacrificing the scenic resources that the road was designed to access.

REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

The below registration requirements focus on three different groups of resources: Depression Era; Operation Outdoors Era; and other recreation facilities constructed outside the two major periods. Most Forest Service recreation historic properties will have a period of significance dating to either the

Depression Era from 1933-1942 or the Operation Outdoors Era of 1957-1969, but resources from other periods may also be historically significant and general registration requirements are provided at the end of this section. Other periods of significance may be identified or further developed in supplemental or regional additional documentation.

Depression Era, 1933-1942

Depression Era Overview and Character Defining Features

The Depression Era extends from 1933 to 1942 and includes the implementation of the Civilian Conversation Corps program on National Forest System lands. In 1933, President Franklin Roosevelt took office and quickly enacted his plan to alleviate unemployment across the country. This plan, known commonly as the New Deal, created a variety of agencies to employ young men to work on infrastructure and conservation projects. One of the agencies, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), provided labor to the Forest Service to complete a wide array of infrastructure and conservation projects. Money was allocated to the Forest Service to fund these improvements through the Emergency Conservation Work Act (ECWA) in March of 1933 and the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) in June of 1933. By July, approximately 225,000 men enrolled in the CCC across the country were working on Forest Service projects.

The CCC-built improvement projects from the Depression Era improved the quality and number of recreation facilities on national forests and advanced Forest Service focus on recreation planning, concurrent with CCC recreation development in national and state parks. For many Americans, the Rustic style CCC-era improvements are the physical representation of public land management. During the New Deal, the Forest Service invested in recreation on a scale never seen in the agency's short history. Regional planners, architects, and engineers provided plans for the development of campgrounds, day-use and recreation areas. Individual national forests created forest specific recreation handbooks and plans to focus recreation development. Agency officials began to implement large-scale standardization of campground design, often incorporating E.P. Meinecke's ethos of one-way loop internal circulation patterns with parking spurs. Campgrounds during this period were often sited near attractive natural settings with easy access to water and recreational opportunities such as fishing. Camping trailers came into use on national forest lands during this period and were also incorporated into campground planning. Regional architects provided standard plans for buildings and structures to provide standardization and consistency amongst the national forests. Landscaping work completed by the CCC included using native stone to construct culverts, steps, impoundments, and parking barriers. CCC labor was also used to replant trees and vegetation as many areas needed reforestation efforts due to previous extractive land use and fires.

Campgrounds were designed to include features such as pavilions, toilets, bathhouses, water wells, and other sanitary facilities that were needed for a dual purpose of protecting forest resources and providing services for the public. An approximately 12x12 foot level and open area allowed space to pitch a tent and contained a camp stove and picnic table. Larger campgrounds that contained a high investment in visitor infrastructure included additional recreation facilities, which could include playgrounds, swimming areas, impoundments and dams, sports fields, amphitheaters, and other such amenities. In

1935, consulting landscape architect A.D. Taylor completed an inspection trip across all national forests. His images and analysis provide a glimpse into the conditions of campgrounds before 1932, as early CCC labor began improving sites.

Much of the construction work on national forest campgrounds of this period was done by CCC labor, favoring natural and locally procured building materials such as native stone and wood. The extant products of the collaboration between CCC laborers, foremen, and Forest Service landscape architects of the 1930s often exhibit a high degree of craftsmanship, use of native logs and stones in the construction of campground improvements ranging from garbage cans to shelters, and the presence of amenity features such as dividing walls, stone-lined walkways and driveways, camp stoves and fireplaces, water fountains, and other campground amenities. Roadways were demarcated with stone or log barriers to keep traffic and visitors on designated pathways, and such barriers and bollards during the CCC period reflect the Rustic design ethos.

Many recreation areas and campgrounds developed during the Depression Era contain large Rustic style pavilions and picnic shelters. These structures vary in size, and may be constructed with large, rounded logs milled and finished smooth and stained brown. The logs are often not chinked and are set closely to each other. Corner notching can vary and include tongue and groove notching, corner posts, double notching, V-notching, and saddle notching. Log posts are set in concrete footings. Shelters and pavilions were also designed and constructed using wood frames with either lap or board and batten siding. Larger shelters contain stone fireplaces placed on one end wall, are based on concrete footings, and finished with fieldstones curbing the exterior. Depression Era shelters may have a combination of stone-masonry fireplaces and stoves, tables, and sinks. The larger community kitchen shelters have two or more cookstoves, while smaller shelters were intended for smaller groups and have only one cookstove. The flooring inside the shelters and pavilions could be flagstone, gravel, or concrete. Plans often called for cedar shake or shingle roofs. CCC-constructed Rustic picnic shelters and pavilions are some of the most identifiable landscape features associated with public use recreation areas, whether on federal or state lands. CCC-constructed picnic pavilions should be considered eligible for the National Register of Historic Places as a contributing landscape feature to a historic district, or in some cases as an individually eligible structure.

Providing adequate sanitation facilities for visitors to campgrounds was a high priority for early Forest Service recreation planners. Keeping an area clean of debris and human waste was important to protecting surrounding natural resources such as water ways. Pit (or chemical) toilets from this period were constructed in both frame and log construction and were often single-unit or double-unit structures. Tanks were dug underground to hold waste and had venting pipes through the roof to allow odor to escape. Pit toilets were placed across all types of forest areas including recreation facilities such as campgrounds, winter sports areas, trailheads, and work areas.

Bathhouses are significantly larger than pit toilets and can contain running water, flush toilets, changing rooms, and showers. Often women’s changing rooms had partitions that created individual interior spaces, while men’s dressing rooms were open with benches. Bathhouses are located at larger recreation facilities that often contain swimming areas. Bathhouses are also found at larger

campgrounds, with one bathhouse being associated with each loop of the campground. Though most toilet and bathhouses followed standard plans, some recreation areas saw local variations. This is the case at Franklin Lake Campground on the Chequamegon-Nicolet National Forest in Wisconsin, where comfort stations were constructed with native cobblestone walls instead of typical log or frame construction. Building materials generally included both rustic round log construction and frame construction. Siding includes both lap and wavy edge. Stone chimneys were added to the larger bathhouses. Foundations and flooring were either flagstone or concrete in bathhouses, and concrete in toilets or comfort stations. The windows on toilet buildings were often bottom hinged to allow them to open for ventilation, or fixed casement windows at bathhouses.

Extant character-defining features of Depression Era recreation facilities that date to between 1933 and 1942 could include:

- Rustic-style shelters, toilet buildings, and site furniture
- Log and half log construction for buildings and picnic tables
- Stone-and-mortar fireplaces and chimneys
- Buildings with gabled or hipped roofs and exposed log rafters and purlins
- Wooden shingle or shake roofs (may have been covered/replaced with asphalt or metal)
- Stone-masonry rockwork using native stones and concrete mortar
- Stone retaining walls, campsite dividers, water features, gates, and entrance features
- Native logs and timbers, peeled or hand-hewn, with unconcealed knots and irregularities
- Symmetrical building footprints
- Thick dimensional wooden beams used for structural framing and/or posts
- Narrow roadways that often align with waterways or other natural features
- Log and post vehicle barriers.
- Campgrounds have a stacked-loop (loop roads branching off each other) or butterfly-loop (loop roads branching off a central roadway) circulation pattern. One-way loop roads are lined with individual campsites
- Small turn-around loops at the ends of roadways or within individual campsites
- Play structures including baseball fields, volleyball fields, horseshoe pits, and (though rarely surviving) swimming pools

Depression Era Significance and National Register Criteria:

Most Depression Era Recreation facilities should be considered for National Register of Historic Places eligibility primarily under Criteria A and C. Criterion B will apply only in very rare circumstances, and Criterion D may occasionally apply.

Criterion A

To be considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, Depression Era property types considered under Criterion A as eligible must have been constructed between 1933 and 1942. Recreation planning design and implementation was part of a nationwide effort to ease unemployment during the depression. Variations in standard recreation plans were produced nationally, regionally and

sometimes at the forest level. These property types may be significant in local, state or national recreation planning and social history.

Criterion B
For a property to be listed under Criterion B it would need to have an established personal association with an architect, landscape architect, or engineer's productive life, such as a primary residence or studio. It will rarely apply to recreation facilities. The works of prominent landscape architects and landscape engineers, including Frank Waugh, A.D. Taylor, Emilio Pepe Meinecke or Arthur Carhart, or other regional or national landscape architects, should be evaluated under Criterion C.

Criterion C
Depression Era recreation property types are architecturally significant as excellent examples of Rustic style architecture which represents a distinctive and uniquely American architectural style possessing high artistic value. These stone, log and timber structures feature irreplaceable labor-intensive methods and finely crafted detailing based on the Forest Service design philosophy. A property may be eligible as the first of its type, a highly representative example of the Rustic design principles, or a particular innovation in design or construction. They may be eligible at the local, state or national level of significance, based on the level of documentation showing a relationship to shared design features within a forest or region, or more unique characteristics that are examples of high-style designs.

Criterion D
There may be surviving examples of historic archaeological sites associated with the early history and construction of Depression Era recreation facilities. Abandoned facilities or sections of circulation systems or features, such as trash pits, dumps, swimming areas, or other recreation features may be considered eligible under this criterion, particularly if they exhibit close adherence with design principles that are associated with a known landscape design. For all recreation facilities evaluated under Criterion D, considerable weight should be given to credible historic accounts of their construction that may further contribute to knowledge of recreation facilities from this era. Historic archaeological sites that cannot be associated with a known landscape or building design or do not add important information are unlikely to individually qualify for listing or be considered as contributing elements to recreation landscapes.

Depression Era Registration Requirements:

To qualify for listing in the National Register, a property must exhibit both significance and integrity. Property types can have both associative values and architectural, engineering, or landscape values. Thus, much of a property's significance is carried in its character and appearance. For a recreation facility to meet National Register Criteria A or C, an original design must be clearly discernible, and workmanship evident. A property should be in its original (or settled) location, with the immediate natural or built setting at least partially intact. Finally, a facility must have retained essential physical characteristics that can convey its period of significance.

To be considered eligible for listing in the NRHP, Depression Era recreation facilities must possess all the following characteristics:

1) Constructed between the period of significance from 1933-1942.
2) Embody distinctive characteristics of the type or method of construction that represents the artistic values and principles of the Rustic style: Emphasis on natural and native materials, such as peeled logs and stone, and high craftsmanship. May include minimally processed or locally obtained materials such as rough-sawn beveled siding, lap siding, board-and-batten siding, shingles/shakes, poured concrete, or other regional/local variations.
3) No substantial modification from original construction date and/or design. Majority of physical features intact to identify with this period of construction and sufficient features retained to identify original use.
4) Included in national or regional recreation planning documents OR reflects principles (character defining features) included in such planning documents.
5) Historic landscape sites should exhibit features of landscape design principles: Circulation patterns and access points with associated built features/developments that together constitute a designed landscape. Recreation facility features may include roads and paths/trails that connect one or more comfort stations, activity areas, or provide access to nearby scenic areas or natural features, and associated objects and structures such as bridges, retaining walls, steps/stairs, railings, registration booths, fountains, boat ramps, beaches/swimming areas, campground stoves, fireplaces, and outhouses and other utilitarian structures designed to harmonize with the surrounding natural setting in form and material.
6) Building and structure site types should demonstrate a high degree of design and integrity. A building's original exterior materials must remain a dominant feature, with original form, roofline, and Rustic design details and ornamentation. Relocated buildings and structures are unlikely to retain the features of location, setting and association that are significant to most recreation facilities evaluated under this MPDF.

Depression Era Integrity Considerations

A Depression Era recreation facility that possesses the above characteristics must also maintain sufficient historic integrity to be considered eligible for listing in the NRHP. The seven aspects of integrity are location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. For the Depression Era, a historic property should retain integrity of design, setting, materials, workmanship, and association to be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Recreation facilities should retain original construction materials, their basic original form, and their original relationship to other landscape features. Later additions should not substantially alter or overwhelm the original design.

Design

The layout of the recreation facility should be largely consistent with its original Rustic Style design from the period of significance. For example, a campground must retain its circulation pattern for vehicles, vehicle parking areas, pedestrian travel and activity areas that align with the recreation use of the site. Original design features such as camp sites, picnic areas, related recreation sites, toilets, and

group-use areas (fire circles, picnic areas, trailheads, etc.) should still be part of the site. Changes to the layout of grills, picnic tables, and tent spaces within individual camp sites may be expected and would not result in a loss of design integrity, even if more contemporary furnishings have been introduced into the site/area. Individually eligible Depression Era buildings should closely resemble original design drawings or retain sufficient physical features to identify them as having been built during this period and should retain sufficient features to identify them with their original use. Later additions should not overwhelm the original structure.

Setting
Recreation facility setting is an important aspect of integrity under Depression Era design principles. For a recreation facility to retain integrity of setting, no modern intrusions should exist that impair the natural viewshed from individual camp sites or primary activity areas. The setting should resemble the setting of the property during its period of significance. While natural features change over time, the view from the recreation facility should retain a similar scenic quality found during the period of significance. Individually eligible buildings should retain original features in their immediate surroundings, such as walkways and other landscaping features.

Materials
Use of native and minimally processed materials such as wood and stone are prominent characteristics in Depression Era recreation facilities. The use of contemporary replacement materials for small-scale features and site furnishings, such as picnic tables and fire rings, may be acceptable if overall design and association of the site have been retained. Repairs and maintenance using similar materials and methods of construction or modifications that are easily reversed or removed do not diminish integrity. Circulation patterns and recreation facility roads are expected to have been paved and periodically re-paved and resealed during and following the period of significance. Buildings should retain original material types, especially on the primary façade. Acceptable alterations might include a change in compatible roofing material (such as from wood shingle to asphalt or metal). Minor alterations to less visible parts of the building do not diminish overall integrity.

Workmanship
A high degree of craftsmanship in carpentry, log-work and masonry is a hallmark of recreation facilities constructed during the Depression Era. Handwork and traditional construction techniques are exhibited on buildings and other structures and features.

Association
A recreation facility must continue to function in its historic use (campground, day use, etc.) to maintain its association with the Depression Era. Recreation facilities must still provide access to recreational activities.

Operation Outdoors Era, 1957-1969

Operation Outdoors Era Overview and Character Defining Features

In 1957, the Forest Service implemented Operation Outdoors (OO), a five-year program to improve and

expand the recreation infrastructure on the national forests across the country. The program was unofficially a competitive response to the National Park Service's "Mission 66" program, a 10-year building program in anticipation of NPS's 50th anniversary in 1966. The Operation Outdoors program was expected to cost $85,000,000 over the course of 5 years, with nearly half of the funding going to new facilities. After 5 years, annual recreation maintenance was projected to cost $17 million annually. This maintenance figure was built into the Operation Outdoors planning, indicating a lesson learned from the dilapidated Depression Era structures that had largely gone unmaintained due to lack of funding for 20 years.

The 1957 publication included an 11-point policy section, which initially guided recreation programming and funding. The policies are broad and focus on the types of sites that were to be permitted on forest land and developed by the agency. The agency was directed to develop and maintain "Public recreation areas and facilities suitable for forest-type recreation…" defined as "camping, picknicking [sic], skiing, swimming, hiking, and riding…" The publication also states that recreation developments would be restricted to those that were "appropriate" for the Forest environment, such as camping and fishing, as opposed to sport fields and courts for activities such as golf, tennis, and the like. In addition, it emphasized prioritizing public uses of the land over private, stating that uses such as summer homes should only be permitted where "the lands are clearly not suitable or not needed for public use." Other policy guidelines emphasize the need to consider recreation in planning for all types of resource management, to protect and classify wilderness areas, and to protect roadside, trailside, and waterfront zones from development or timber harvest to protect the ambiance of the natural environment. While regional architectural distinctions were still condoned for high-investment and high-profile projects, standard designs for the basic amenities of recreational facilities such as toilets, comfort stations and bathhouses were readily available as presented in the Recreation Management Handbook. There are likely to be examples of Operation Outdoors related recreation facilities that were completed in part after 1969 in conjunction with planning efforts that date to the Operation Outdoors Era.

Forest Service design philosophy shifted towards an aesthetic that took advantage of new, more durable and commercially available materials that were without the need for excessive labor costs during construction and could be economically maintained. The style of some comfort stations and other recreation structures is analogous to the design principles of the Mid-Century Modern Contemporary style house (c.1945-1990), a style influenced by Frank Lloyd Wright's Usonian houses and characterized by a low-pitched gabled roof with widely overhanging eaves, gable clerestory windows, broad expanses of uninterrupted wall surface, screening fences, and obscured entry doors. Other mid-century characteristics include use of various materials / textures on exterior wall surfaces but minimal ornamentation, clean simple lines, frequent use of windows, skylights, and louvers for natural light and airflow, with broad horizontal massing.

Renovation and addition to existing Depression Era facilities was a common practice during Operation Outdoors. Some recreation facilities may retain elements from both periods of significance, such as a campground originally constructed during the Depression Era that retains the original loop road and associated features in the Rustic style and has additional loops added during Operation Outdoors in the Post-War Modernist style. In this case, both periods of significance should be noted. A site established

during the Depression Era but subsequently modified during Operation Outdoors to such a degree that it no longer retains integrity for the Depression Era period may be determined to have integrity only for the Operation Outdoors period of significance. Properties that are evaluated using these Registration Requirements will reflect the design aesthetics and use of modern materials that are characteristic of this extended historic period; they do not need to demonstrate a direct connection to the use of dedicated Operation Outdoors program funding.

Based on observations of various plans and archival materials that illustrate a pattern of similar design features, character defining features of Operation Outdoors Era recreation facilities from 1957-1969, including updates to earlier recreation facilities, include the following:

- Site developed with multiple recreational opportunities within it (i.e., a campground with boat launch, swimming area, trailhead).
- Loop roads added to existing access roads/loops, increasing the number of campsites, or new layout of camp or picnic loops and sites at campgrounds where old designs were overhauled. New plans often have two one-way loops connected to a primary two-way road system. Typical features include:
    - Stacked-loop (loop roads branching off each other) or butterfly-loop (loop roads branching off a central roadway) circulation pattern of one-way campground roadways
    - Parking spurs for individual campsites 25 feet or longer to accommodate larger RVs and tow-behind campers. Trailer sites have both pull-through C-shaped parking spots and longer and wider parking spaces.
    - Parking spurs angled at 45 degrees from the campground roadway, often with prefabricated chemical treated wooden vehicle barriers, or precast concrete barriers.
- Picnic sites converted to campsites and vice-versa, often with the opposite site type added to a new attached loop.
- New camping spots or picnic sites weaved between existing sites on existing loops.
- Addition of electric hookups at some campsites, upgrades of water & sewer systems.
- New campsite clusters often located in proximity to water features, either natural or dammed, reflecting increased interest in water related activities.
- Buildings and structures characterized by:
    - Prefabricated building materials, such as dimensional lumber, T1-11 plyboard siding, concrete/cinder block, or stone veneer.
    - Irregular building footprints
    - Broad horizontal massing
    - Flat or shed roofs with low-pitched gables
    - Unorthodox fenestration (non-traditional size or placement), often with clerestory windows, skylights, and wooden or aluminum louvered vents (especially on toilet buildings)
    - Aluminum-casement windows
    - Rock boulders as road barriers

- Cast Iron hand pump wells
- Hardened or paved surfaces on roadways and trails
- Chamfered ends used on wooden features, such as vehicle bollards and waterspout posts

Operation Outdoors Era Significance and National Register Criteria

Most Operation Outdoors recreation facilities should be considered for National Register of Historic Places eligibility primarily under Criteria A and C. Criterion B will apply only in very rare circumstances, and Criterion D may occasionally apply.

Criterion A

To be considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A, Operation Outdoors Era property types must have been constructed or renovated between 1957-1969, although some properties planned during that period but completed thereafter may still qualify. This planning effort was part of a nationwide push to increase the availability of recreation facilities after World War II for a growing population with options for travel and expanded incomes supporting their pursuit of outdoor recreation. These property types may be significant in local, state or national levels in recreation planning, in architecture & engineering for their use of modern materials and methods, and in social history.

Criterion B

For a property to be listed under Criterion B it would need to establish an association with an architect, landscape architect, or engineer's personal productive life, such as a primary residence, or studio. Criterion B will rarely apply to recreation facilities. Most typically, the work of significant landscape architects or designers related to the design and construction of properties during the Operation Outdoors Era should be evaluated under Criterion C.

Criterion C

Operation Outdoors Era recreation property types may be architecturally significant as examples of mid-century construction using modern materials and cost-efficient construction methods. Historic properties from this period took advantage of their placement within the landscape to refocus visitors on their recreation activities and proximity to the natural environment around them. A property may be eligible as the first of its type, as a highly representative example of midcentury design principles, or as a particular innovation in design or construction. A property may also be eligible for its close adherence to the landscape principles evident in its design, particularly those that demonstrate design trends related to vehicle-based visitor access. They may be eligible at the local, state or national level of significance, based on the level of documentation showing their adherence to shared design features present within a forest or region, or more unique characteristics that are examples of high-style designs.

Criterion D

There may be examples of historic archaeological sites associated with the history and construction of

Operation Outdoors recreation facilities, or with earlier recreation facilities that were renovated or expanded during this period. Abandoned facilities or sections of circulation systems or features, such as trash pits, dumps, swimming areas, or other recreation features may be considered eligible under this criterion, particularly if they exhibit close adherence with design principles that are associated with a known landscape design. For all recreation facilities evaluated under Criterion D, considerable weight should be given to credible historic accounts of their construction that may further contribute to knowledge of recreation facilities from this era. Historic archaeological sites that cannot be associated with a known landscape or building design or do not add important information are unlikely to individually qualify for listing or be considered as contributing elements to historic landscapes.

Criterion Consideration G

For properties less than fifty years of age, it is only anticipated that those properties of exceptional importance may be considered individually eligible. However, it is anticipated that those properties that are less than fifty years of age but that were constructed in fulfillment of a previous plan within the OO Era, with similar design characteristics, may be considered as contributing properties to a historic district or historic landscape.

Operation Outdoors Registration Requirements

To be considered eligible for listing in the NRHP, Operation Outdoors Era recreation facilities must possess all the following characteristics:

1) Constructed or modified during the period of significance from 1957-1969 as part of the Operation Outdoors Program, or completed shortly thereafter for recreation facilities that were initially planned during this era.
2) No substantial modification from original construction date. Substantial modification includes: change of circulation pattern, removal of structures from original locations or changes in materials, compromised setting, changes in use of site which directly impact the layout of the site, expansion on camp sites, picnic areas, etc. which disrupts original design. Sufficient physical features are intact to identify with this period of construction and sufficient features retained to identify original use or reflect designs from national or regional recreation planning documents. Relocated buildings and structures are unlikely to retain the features of location, setting and association that are significant to most recreation facilities evaluated under this MPDF.
3) Included in or reflect principles (as represented by character defining features) included in national or regional recreation planning documents.
4) Historic landscape site types should exhibit features of landscape design principles: Include circulation patterns and access points with associated built features/developments that together constitute a designed landscape. Recreation facility features may include roads and paths/trails that connect one or more comfort stations, activity areas, or provide access to nearby scenic areas or natural features, and associated objects and structures such as bridges, retaining walls, steps/stairs, railings, registration booths, fountains, boat ramps, beaches/swimming areas, campground stoves,

fireplaces, and outhouses and other utilitarian structures designed to harmonize with the surrounding natural setting in form and materials.

Operation Outdoors Era Integrity Considerations

Building and structure site types should demonstrate a high degree of integrity. A building's original exterior materials must remain a dominant feature, with original form, roofline, and Post-War Modernist design details and ornamentation. They should retain sufficient physical features to identify them as having been built during this period and retain sufficient features to identify them with their original use. Later additions should not overwhelm the original design or structures. Repairs and maintenance using similar materials and methods of construction or modifications that are easily reversed do not diminish their integrity.

Typically, the most critical aspects of integrity for Operation Outdoors era sites and districts to retain will be their design, setting, materials and association. Since both natural and adapted landscape features were commonly found within mid-century recreation facilities, careful consideration should be given to the collaborative landscape designs that fostered a unified visitor experience. The carefully managed circulation of both vehicles and visitors should be recognized in the transportation-related features of sites and districts.

Design

The layout of the recreation facility should be largely consistent with the original Operation Outdoors design from the period of significance. The recreation facility must maintain its circulation pattern for vehicles and layout of parking spurs. Campsites, picnic areas, trailheads, water related recreation sites, toilets, water systems, and group-use areas (fire circles, picnic areas, and trailheads, etc.) should still be part of the facility design. Modern additions should be consistent with the original design and not overwhelm or obscure original design elements. Changes to the layout of grills, picnic tables, and tent spaces within individual campsites is to be expected and would not result in a loss of design integrity. Landscape design retains the features that date to their period of construction, although it is expected that plant or tree specimens may have been replaced or supplemented with modern varietals.

Setting

Recreation facility setting is an important aspect of integrity under Operation Outdoors design principles. For a recreation facility to retain integrity of setting, no modern intrusions should exist that impair the natural viewshed from individual camp sites. While natural features change over time, the view from the campground should retain a similar scenic quality as that found during the period when it was designed. Nearby development that substantially intrudes on the recreation facility's scenic views would result in a loss of setting.

Materials

It is expected that picnic tables, grills, water systems, signage, and toilets will have been rehabilitated and replaced during and after the period of significance for Operation Outdoors. Natural wear-and-tear damage, and factors such as updated hygiene and safety standards were routinely thought to justify such replacements. Recreation facility roads are expected to have been paved and periodically re-paved and

resealed during and following the period of significance. For buildings and associated landscape features to contribute to recreation facility significance, previous rehabilitations should have retained integrity of design and generally have used similar materials, but original building materials do not need to be intact.

Association
A recreation facility must continue to function in its historic recreation use (i.e., campground or day use) to maintain its association with Operation Outdoors. Recreation facilities must still provide access to recreational activities such as hiking trails, fishing, or driving.

Workmanship
The workmanship of Post-War Modernist construction may be perceived as having less architectural or aesthetic value than the Rustic designs used during the Depression Era building boom; however, there is likely to have been a significant use of modern materials in fulfilling mid-century design principles, or the use of materials that were produced using manufacturing methods that are unique to the Operation Outdoors era. Although they may be more utilitarian in design than earlier recreation facilities, these mid-century building materials and their manufacturing methods should be intact or have been replaced with similar materials for Operation Outdoors recreation facilities to retain integrity of workmanship.

Feeling
Feeling is an intangible quality derived from the cumulative effect of the other aspects of integrity. Setting, design, and association should be intact for the property type to convey the feeling of an Operation Outdoors recreation facility.

Other Recreation Facilities: 1891-1980

Other Recreation Facilities Overview and Character Defining Features

This broad period of significance for "Other Recreation Facilities" is intended to allow for the evaluation of recreation facilities that fall outside of the two primary phases of recreation development that are described above. However, the registration requirements for these peripheral periods are influenced by characteristics of the two most active periods of recreational development during the Depression and Operation Outdoors eras.

It is also appropriate to include for evaluation under this section any properties that were constructed during those two primary eras, but which may represent a unique local/regional construction method or exhibit atypical design features that are not described in the registration requirements above. These additional requirements will allow for the evaluation of uncommon recreational facilities on an individual basis, while retaining a critical link to the recreation functions that are shared with the more common recreation facilities identified in this document. Properties that are evaluated under this section will have a recreation-related function and typically will have adaptive landscape features that contribute to their overall setting. However, they may have very different design aesthetics than the Rustic or Post-War Modernist properties that make up most of the recreation facilities managed by the Forest Service.

The development of Forest Service recreation facilities spans a broad time frame that predates the agency's formal creation in 1905 as part of the United States Department of Agriculture. During the early years of the agency, its internal focus was on establishing management policies and procedures and addressing natural resources concerns such as timber stock, water supply, and fire prevention. As the lands under the protection of the Forest Service expanded to include additional areas, particularly east of the Mississippi River, the variety of properties that were taken into its care also broadened to include properties that were completed before 1905 and ones that reflected functions that had not been part of its initial conservation mandate.

The public's interest in recreation, coupled with the availability of long-distance travel by automobile, contributed to a growing agency awareness of the need to provide safe public access to natural resources within the agency's jurisdiction while simultaneously protecting the resources that were within its care. During this early period, recreation facilities were likely to be designed by local Forest Service staff in response to local demands and needs, often with a focus on improving sanitation and preventing forest fires and may demonstrate unique local or regional features and styles. Intact facilities and features from this early period of Forest Service recreation are likely to be rare and may be significant as the only surviving example of early recreation development on a unit or in a region of the Forest Service.

Facilities designed outside the two primary construction periods may share many of the functional characteristics of either the Depression Era or Operation Outdoors in terms of purpose-designed landscapes, although they are less likely to conform to a defined style aesthetic and were not designed at the same scale or numbers. Recreation facilities that were completed after the formal end of the Operation Outdoors period were typically built using the most successful design characteristics of both key development eras, reflective of the public's positive perception of the now common design features that came to embody American outdoor recreation facilities.

In evaluating Forest Service recreation facilities, these registration requirements may be used to consider properties constructed from 1891 to 1980 at the local and state levels of significance. For properties that may be eligible at the national level of significance, it is likely that the level of research necessary to support such analysis may require an individual nomination effort. It is also possible that "Other Recreation" facilities of later construction dates may be evaluated under similar criteria in the future, after considering the relevant NRHP criterion considerations, but with additional research that will better identify the design elements and historic events that influenced post-1980 recreational development for the Forest Service.

Other Recreation Facilities Significance and National Register Criteria

A small percentage of Forest Service historic recreation facilities were constructed outside the two primary eras of significant infrastructure investment (Depression Era 1933-1942 and Operation Outdoors Era 1957-1969). The properties built prior to 1933 are typically unique properties designed by unit Forest Services staff that did not follow standard plans. Some of the properties developed during the early agency eras (1891-1932) may have been properties the agency acquired through the Weeks Act or other means of acquisition and incorporate pre-existing structures. During the post World War II period, some transitional properties may display some of the character-defining features of the Depression Era

but may also exhibit early features that demonstrate the shift to the Operations Outdoors Era by incorporating new materials and stylistic elements.

Individual properties that were constructed during those two primary eras, but which represent a unique local/regional construction method or exhibit atypical design features, may also be evaluated for their significance. These individual properties should reflect design characteristics that do not adhere to more standard design principles used during the Depression and Operation Outdoors eras, conveying instead a distinctive treatment of architectural or engineering design elements that supported a recreational use.

After 1970, development of new recreation facilities slowed significantly as Forests struggled to find funding for ongoing maintenance of existing infrastructure. Design work for new sites or reconstruction/improvement projects at existing sites was likely to have been outsourced through contracts with private engineering firms and will display a variety of unique forms. Properties dating to these peripheral periods may be significant in demonstrating the evolution of Forest Service recreation planning, design, and management and in understanding the context for the two primary periods of recreation development.

Criterion A

To be considered eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, other recreation facilities and property types should be considered under Criterion A as potentially significant examples of the changing visions for national forest recreation development during the early, mid, and later years of the agency. They may be considered significant at the local or state level of significance, with appropriate documentation demonstrating their place within the context of recreational planning, in architecture & engineering or in social history.

Criterion B
For a property to be listed under Criterion B it would need to establish an association with an architect, landscape architect, or engineer's productive life, such as a primary residence, or studio. Criterion B will rarely apply to recreation facilities. Most typically, the work of significant landscape architects or designers related to the design and construction of properties should be evaluated under Criterion C.

Criterion C
These property types should also be considered under Criterion C as potentially significant at the local or state level of significance if they:

a) Demonstrate a unique construction of a property type prior to the development of standard regional or national plans.

a) Were constructed outside the Depression Era (1933-1942) and Operations Outdoors Era (1957-1969) but display similar characteristics to recreational facilities constructed during those time periods.

b) Were constructed within the two major eras but represent a unique local or regional construction method, or used atypical design features or materials that are not otherwise documented within the Rustic and Post-war Modernist styles.

Criterion D

There may be examples of historic archaeological sites associated with the history and construction of recreation facilities that fall outside the two primary periods of construction. Abandoned facilities or sections of circulation systems or features, such as trash pits, dumps, swimming areas, or other recreation features may be considered eligible under this criterion, particularly if they exhibit close adherence with design principles that are associated with a known landscape design. For all recreation facilities evaluated under Criterion D, considerable weight should be given to credible historic accounts of their construction that may further contribute to knowledge of recreation facilities. Historic archaeological sites that cannot be associated with a known landscape or building design or do not add important information are unlikely to individually qualify for listing or be considered as contributing elements to historic landscapes.

Criterion Consideration G

A property achieving significance within the past 50 years is eligible if it is of exceptional importance and if it meets the following tests for listing on the National Register under the Multiple Property Listing.

Examples of properties that should meet Criterion G according to National Register Bulletin 16A:

- A property that is less than 50 years old
- A property that has significance in a period less than 50 years before the nomination
- A property that has non-contiguous periods of significance, one of which is less than 50 years before the nomination.
- A property that is more than 50 years old and had no significance until a period less than 50 years before the nomination.

Examples of properties that DO NOT need to meet Criterion G:

- A resource whose construction began over 50 years ago but whose completion overlaps the 50-year period by a few years or less.
- A resource that is significant for its plan or design, which is more than 50 years old, but the actual completion of the project overlaps the 50-year period by a few years.
- A historic district in which a few properties are newer than 50 years old, but most properties and the most important period of significance are greater than 50 years old.

Other Recreation Facilities Registration Requirements

To be considered eligible for listing in the NRHP, Other Recreation Facilities must possess the following significant characteristics:

1. They must have been constructed or modified outside the periods of significance for the Depression and Operation Outdoors eras, or they may have been constructed within those eras

but with characteristics or design features that are clearly distinguished from those documented in association with the Rustic or Mid-Century styles.

2. Sufficient physical features are intact to identify with the period of construction and original use. Because properties constructed during peripheral time periods are likely to be rare survivors or represent unique forms, integrity requirements are more flexible than those for the Depression and Operation Outdoors eras, for which there are many examples of similarly designed properties.
3. Historic landscape site types must exhibit features of landscape design principles:
    a. Include circulation patterns and access points with associated built features/developments that together constitute a designed landscape. Recreation facility features may include roads and paths/trails, and associated objects and structures such as bridges, retaining walls, steps/stairs, railings, registration booths, fountains, boat ramps, beaches/swimming areas, campground stoves, fireplaces, and outhouses and other utilitarian structures designed to harmonize with the surrounding natural setting in form and material.
    b. Contributing resources within a historic district should retain original construction materials; their basic and original form, original design of landscape features (i.e. culverts must continue to provide drainage for roads and trails); and sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials.
4. Individual recreation facilities should:
    a. Embody design characteristics of an identifiable type or method of construction that represents the artistic values of a period of architecture and principles of recreation design. Functional recreation facilities should be able to fulfill their intended recreational use, with some consideration given to deferred maintenance needs.
    b. Building and structure site types should demonstrate a high degree of design and integrity. A building's original exterior materials must remain a dominant feature, with original form, roofline, and period design details and ornamentation. They should retain sufficient physical features to identify them as having been built during a specific period and retain sufficient features to identify them with their original use. Later additions should not overwhelm the original structure. Repairs and maintenance using similar materials and methods of construction or modifications that are easily reversed or removed do not diminish integrity.

Other Recreation Facilities Integrity Considerations

"Other Recreation Properties" that possess the above listed significant characteristics must also maintain sufficient historic integrity to be considered eligible for listing in the NRHP. In the evaluation of properties that were constructed outside the Depression and Operations Outdoors eras, or individual properties of those periods which do not share their design characteristics, it is important to carefully consider whether their integrity of design, feeling, setting and association remain intact.

Design

The layout of the recreation facility should be largely consistent with the original design. The recreation facility should maintain its circulation pattern for vehicles and layout of parking spurs. Camp sites, picnic areas, trailheads, water related recreation sites, toilets, and group-use areas (fire circles, picnic areas, and trailheads, etc.) should still be part of the site design. Minor alterations to layout for early (pre-1933) sites and changes to the layout of grills, picnic tables, and tent spaces within individual camp sites is to be expected and would not result in a loss of design.

The design of unique recreational properties should be compared to more traditional designs used by Forest Service properties, with the characteristics that distinguish them from more standard designs carefully defined. Individually significant properties need not retain their associated historic landscape features, particularly for properties that are rare survivors of early recreational development. However, they should retain sufficient of their original characteristics to convey their architectural or engineering features, or their designed recreational function.

Feeling
Feeling is an intangible quality derived from the cumulative effect of the other aspects of integrity. Setting, design, and association should be intact for the property type to convey the feeling of a Forest Service recreation facility.

Association
A recreation facility may continue to function in its historic use (campground, day use, etc.) to maintain its association with Forest Service developed recreation. While "Other Recreation Properties" may provide access to recreational activities such as hiking trails, fishing, or driving, a close adherence to this aspect of integrity need not be present for early recreation facilities.

Setting
Recreation facility setting is an important aspect of integrity. For a recreation facility to retain integrity of setting, no significant modern intrusions should exist that impair the natural viewshed. Nearby development that intrudes on the recreation facility's scenic views would result in a loss of setting.

Materials, Workmanship
It is expected that picnic tables, grills, water systems, signage, and toilets will have been rehabilitated or replaced over time. Natural wear-and-tear damage, and factors such as updated hygiene and safety standards routinely warranted such replacements. Recreation facility roads are expected to have been paved and periodically re-paved and resealed during and following the period of significance. For buildings and associated features to contribute to recreation facility significance, previous rehabilitations should have retained integrity of design and generally used compatible materials.

Location
The boundaries of a recreation facility should largely remain intact, as should the location of the associate roads and individual facilities.

G. Geographical Data

Forest Service recreation facilities are located nationwide in the national forests, grasslands, prairies, and management units. For reference, forests that may have recreation facilities are listed below.

Allegheny National Forest
Angeles National Forest
Angelina National Forest
Apache-Sitgreaves National forests
Apalachicola National Forest
Arapaho and Roosevelt National forests
Ashley National Forest
Beaverhead-Deerlodge National Forest
Bienville National Forest
Bighorn National Forest
Bitterroot National Forest
Black Hills National Forest
Black Kettle National Grassland
Boise National Forest
Bridger-Teton National Forest
Buffalo Gap National Grassland
Butte Valley National Grassland
Caddo National Grassland
Caribou-Targhee National Forest
Carson National Forest
Cedar River National Grassland
Chattahoochee-Oconee National forests
Chequamegon-Nicolet National Forest
Cherokee National Forest
Chippewa National Forest
Chugach National Forest
Cibola National Forest
Cimarron National Grassland
Cleveland National Forest
Coconino National Forest
Columbia River Gorge National Scenic Area
Colville National Forest
Comanche National Grassland
Conecuh National Forest
Coronado National Forest
Croatan National Forest
Crooked River National Grassland
Curlew National Grassland

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Name of Property

County and State
US Forest Service Recreation Facilities

Name of multiple listing (if applicable)

Custer Gallatin National Forest
Daniel Boone National Forest
Davvy Crockett National Forest
De Soto National Forest
Delta National Forest
Deschutes National Forest
Dixie National Forest
El Yunque National Forest
Eldorado National Forest
Fishlake National Forest
Flathead National Forest
Fort Pierre National Grassland
Francis Marion and Sumter National forests
Fremont-Winema National Forest
George Washington and Jefferson National forests
Giant Sequoia National Monument
Gifford Pinchot National Forest
Gila National Forest
Grand Mesa, Uncompahgre and Gunnison National forests
Grand River National Grassland
Green Mountain and Finger Lakes National forests
Helena-Lewis and Clark National Forest
Hells Canyon National Recreational Area
Hiawatha National Forest
Holly Springs National Forest
Homochitto National Forest
Hoosier National Forest
Humboldt-Toiyabe National Forest
Huron-Manistee National Forest
Idaho Panhandle National forests
Inyo National Forest
Kaibab National Forest
Kiowa National Grassland
Kisatchie National Forest
Klamath National Forest
Kootenai National Forest
Lake Tahoe Basin Management Unit
Land Between the Lakes National Recreational Area
Lassen National Forest
Lincoln National Forest
Little Missouri National Grassland
Lolo National Forest
Los Padres National Forest

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Name of Property

County and State
US Forest Service Recreation Facilities

Name of multiple listing (if applicable)

Lyndon B. Johnson National Grassland
Malheur National Forest
Manti-La Sal National Forest
Mark Twain National Forest
McClellan Creek National Grassland
Medicine Bow-Routt National Forest
Mendocino National Forest
Midewin National Tallgrass Prairie
Modoc National Forest
Monongahela National Forest
Mount St. Helens National Volcanic Monument
Mt. Baker-Snoqualmie National Forest
Mt. Hood National Forest
Nantahala National Forest
Nebraska National Forest
Nez Perce-Clearwater National forests
Ocala National Forest
Ochoco National Forest
Oglala National Grassland
Okanogan-Wenatchee National Forest
Olympic National Forest
Osceola National Forest
Ottawa National Forest
Ouachita National Forest
Ozark-St. Francis National Forest
Pawnee National Grassland
Payette National Forest
Pike and San Isabel National forests
Pisgah National Forest
Plumas National Forest
Prescott National Forest
Rio Grande National Forest
Rita Blanca National Grassland
Rogue River-Siskiyou National Forest
Routt National Forest
Sabine National Forest
Salmon-Challis National Forest
Sam Houston National Forest
Samuel R. McKelvie National Forest
San Bernardino National Forest
San Isabel National Forest
San Juan National Forest
Santa Fe National Forest

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Name of Property

County and State
US Forest Service Recreation Facilities

Name of multiple listing (if applicable)

Savannah River Site
Sawtooth National Forest
Sawtooth National Recreational Area
Sequoia National Forest
Shasta-Trinity National Forest
Shawnee National Forest
Sheyenne National Grassland
Shoshone National Forest
Sierra National Forest
Siuslaw National Forest
Six Rivers National Forest
Stanislaus National Forest
Superior National Forest
Tahoe National Forest
Talladega National Forest
Thunder Basin National Grassland
Tombigbee National Forest
Tongass National Forest
Tonto National Forest
Tuskegee National Forest
Uinta-Wasatch-Cache National Forest
Umatilla National Forest
Umpqua National Forest
Uwharrie National Forest
Wallowa-Whitman National Forest
Wayne National Forest
White Mountain National Forest
White River National Forest
Willamette National Forest
William B. Bankhead National Forest

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

The Forest Service manages over 10,000 recreation facilities dating from 1905-1980. This Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) primarily focuses on structures and landscape features that were constructed within two major eras of investment in Forest Service recreation infrastructure, the Depression Era, and the Operation Outdoors Era. The Forest Service first approached the evaluation effort at a regional level to prepare for the large upcoming investment in recreation facilities using dedicated funding authorized by the Great American Outdoors Act. Staff from the Forest Service Enterprise History Program has prepared multiple historic context studies based upon research and fieldwork that was conducted from 2021-2023 for Regions 2, 4, 5, 6 (Region 6 Heritage Staff), 9, and 10.

These regional historic contexts focus on the development of recreation infrastructure across the 193 million acres encompassed by 154 national forests and 20 national grasslands. The preparation of these contexts included archival research and fieldwork for representative samples of recreation property types from significant time periods in recreation development. Using real property data from the INFRA system as a baseline, Enterprise historians developed a regional survey and evaluation strategy that focused on 1) properties that were likely to be subject to future project impacts, 2) properties that were already identified as likely to be eligible for the NRHP by regional staff, 3) properties that were known to be some of the oldest examples of their type within individual Forest Service units and 4) properties that were observed during fieldwork to be unusual examples of their particular structural types. At the regional level, sampling goals included reconnaissance field survey for at least 10% of the extant resources that had been preliminarily identified as meeting those four criteria. Fieldwork consisted of photo documentation and observation of circulation patterns, roadways, landscape features, overall landscape design, existing structures, building materials, measurements of building footprints, noticeable additions or changes, and overall integrity. Enterprise historians reviewed existing NRHP nominations, evaluations, and determinations of eligibility and conducted historic records searches at local forest and regional offices to identify historic photos, regional and forest recreation plans, recreation handbooks, and site plans, as well as identifying primary sources and reports illustrating recreation planning and development trends at the national level.

In addition to the recent focused effort by the Enterprise History program, over the last few decades Forest Service Heritage Program staff across the United States have evaluated numerous Depression Era resources scattered throughout national forests as part of the NHPA Section 106 review process. These evaluations include historic context research and examples of significant Depression Era Rustic-style design and property types. The recent fieldwork efforts of the Enterprise historians have provided a representative sampling of the much larger number of properties that were constructed during the mid-century Operation Outdoors Era. The combined documentation work completed by the Forest Service Enterprise History Program and Heritage Program staff provides a foundational inventory in the identification and evaluation of recreation facilities from these two periods of significance and provided a wealth of source material for the current MPDF.

After consideration of the results of the Enterprise History Program's recent historic context effort within Region 9 and the review of preliminary results from Regions 4, 5 and 10, Heritage staff recommended that the Forest Service prepare an MPD to allow for the consistent evaluation of large numbers of properties built in similar styles for similar functions and based on the same design principles during two major eras of recreation development. The abundance of properties, many built identically from standard plans, constructed during the two eras resulted in relatively stringent integrity requirements. Properties must clearly demonstrate the stylistic design principles of their era. Since both recent survey and previous evaluation efforts have indicated that extant

properties built during these eras were primarily planned as designed landscapes, registration requirements and integrity considerations view them through this lens.

There are a significant number of existing nominations and statewide MPDs for Depression Era rustic-style recreation structures that can be compared to properties found within forests, many featuring a common design vocabulary that has become associated with outdoor recreation by the public. Relatively few examples of individual nominations or MPDs that comprehensively evaluate mid-century recreation structures have been completed, although the MPDF for "National Park Service Mission 66 Era Resources" targeted a similar mid-century construction boom for national parks and served as an important resource for the development of the current document. One key difference that has become evident between the Mission 66 building effort and the Operation Outdoors Era relates to the broad patterns of the two agencies' design development processes.

While many Mission 66 structures can be traced to the design efforts of centralized design teams, the Forest Service has found a significantly lower level of unique architectural designs that can be associated with known agency or contract architects. A high reliance on the use of easily replicated and economical designs was observed during Enterprise fieldwork, with only a few high style examples of mid-century design that can be associated with regional architects. It became clear that the use of standard designs for campgrounds and comfort stations, for instance, resulted in the construction of hundreds of very similar structures that could effectively be evaluated using an MPDF with robust registration requirements.

It is the intention of the Forest Service to build on the current MPDF by adding content that reflects the evolving research underway at the regional level for significant properties associated with the two major eras. This document is formatted to focus first on the historic context and recreation planning that occurred in the overall period of significance and how those changes impacted recreation development on national forests as practices evolved. It is likely that this MPDF will be expanded in the future through the addition of more detailed information to support the evaluation of property types associated with specific regions or with targeted recreational activities.

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[88] United States Forest Service, *National Grasslands: Interpretive Master Plan,* (Washington D.C.: USDA Center for Design and Interpretation, 2013), 20.
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[101] Earl Bachman, *Recreation Facilities: A Personal History of their Development in the National Forests of California* (Berkeley: United States Forest Service Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, 1967), 4.
[102] Lewis, 126; Coutant, 11-14.
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[104] See, 16 U.S. Code § 497. Use and occupation of lands for hotels, resorts, summer homes, stores, and facilities for industrial, commercial, educational, or public uses. Legal Information Institute, Cornell Law School, https://www.law.cornell.edu/uscode/text/16/497
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[108] United States Forest Service, "Operation Outdoors Progress Report," December 31, 1960, Region 6 Heritage Files.
[109] United States Forest Service, *Managing Multiple Uses on National Forests, 1905-1995*, (Washington DC: US Government Printing Office, 1995), 59.
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[111] In 1965, the agency changed the way it calculated recreation visitation. In the past, a visit by a recreationist was counted as a single visit, regardless of the length of stay. In 1965, the new system of Recreation Visitor Days (RVDs) calculated the

number of visits by a single recreationist for up to 12 hours, e.g. a 6-hour visit would count as .5 RVDs and a 48-hour visit would count as 4 RVDs.

[112] United States Forest Service, *Managing Multiple Uses*, 58.

[113] United States Forest Service, *Operation Outdoors: Part 1,* (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1957), 8.

[114] The Operation Outdoors publications were in two parts: *National Forest Recreation,* published in 1957, and *Wilderness Areas,* published in 1961.

[115] United States Forest Service, *Operation Outdoors: Part 1,* 1.

[116] United States Forest Service, *Operation Outdoors: Part 1,* 13.

[117] Operation Outdoors, Part I reference pg.6-7

[118] For discussion on the Forest Service mid-century building program of administrative sites see: Rachel D. Kline, *Beyond Rustic: Wartime and Mid-Century Administrative Facilities of the USDA Forest Service Pacific Northwest: 1941-1970,* (USDA Forest Service Pacific Northwest Region, 2018).

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[127] United States Forest Service, *Development Program for the National Forests* (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1961), 1.

[128] See page 72 for a discussion of the changing form of recreation in the post-war years.

[129] United States Forest Service, *Development Program for the National Forests,* 3.

[130] United States Forest Service, *Development Program for the National Forests,* 10.

[131] United States Forest Service, *Outdoor Recreation in the National Forests,* 9.

[132] United States Forest Service, *National Forest Recreation Ways: A Development Opportunity* (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1963).

[133] United States Forest Service, *Outdoor Recreation in the National Forests,* 34.

[134] Coutant, 43.

[135] USDA Forest Service. Forest Service Handbook 2309. Recreation Site Handbook Chapter 10- Planning and Design of Developed Recreation Sites and Facilities 1/25/2018. Pg.6

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[136] Ethan Carr, Wilderness by Design: Landscape Architecture and the National Park Service (Lincoln and London:University of Nebraska Press, 1998), 26-27.

APPENDIX A: Maps of Forest Service Regions

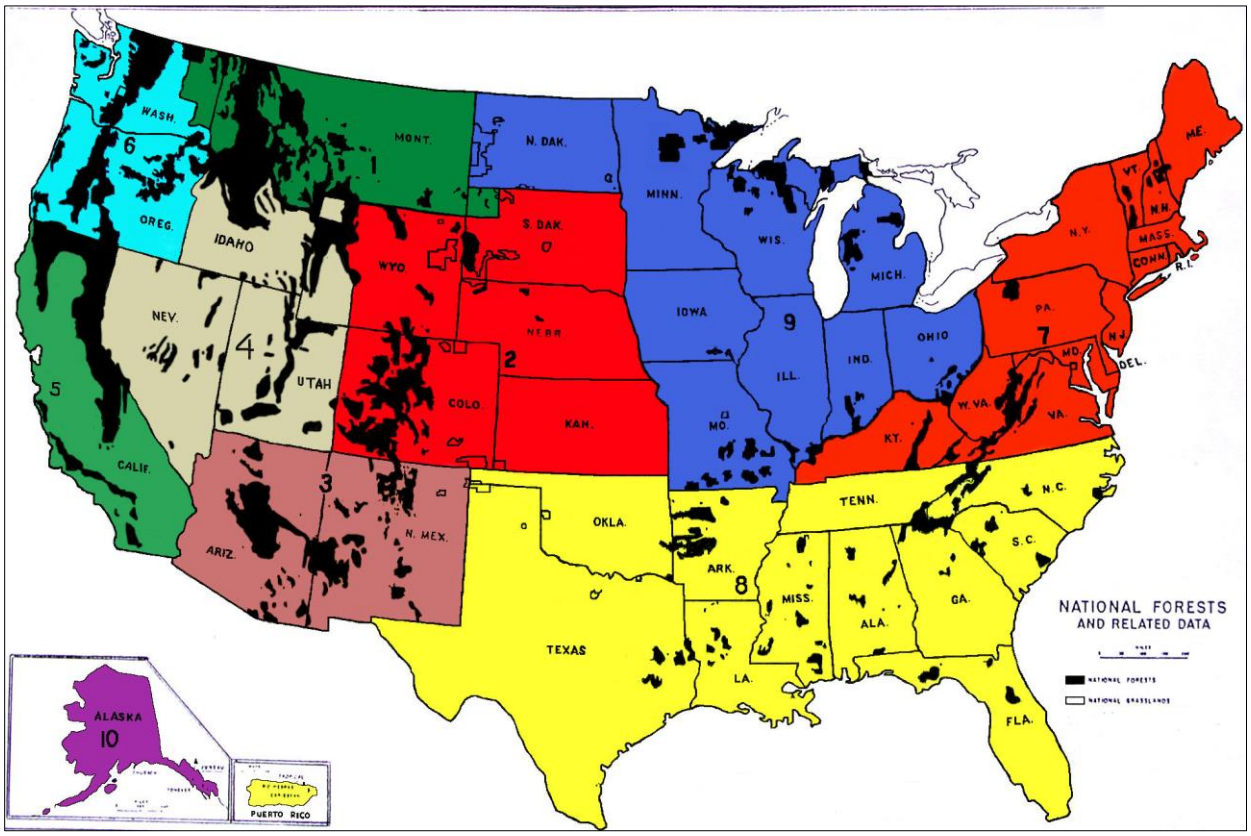

Figure 1. Map of USDA Forest Service Regions, 1961, prior to the dissolution of Region 7 in the northeast. Kentucky and Virginia were absorbed into the Southern region, Region 8, and the rest of Region 7 was absorbed into Region 9, the North Central region, which then became known as the Eastern Region. See Figure 2 below. Source: Forest Service Files, 2023.

Figure 2. Current Map of USDA Forest Service Regions. Source: Forest Service, 2023.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
NATIONAL PARK SERVICE

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
EVALUATION/RETURN SHEET

Requested Action:	COVER DOCUMENTATION
Multiple Name:	United States Forest Service Recreation Facilities MPS
State & County:	,

Date Received: 5/14/2024
Date of 45th Day: 6/28/2024

Reference number: MC100010453

Reason For Review:

__ Appeal	__ PDIL	__ Text/Data Issue
__ SHPO Request	__ Landscape	__ Photo
__ Waiver	__ National	__ Map/Boundary
__ Resubmission	__ Mobile Resource	__ Period
__ Other	__ TCP	__ Less than 50 years
	__ CLG	

__**X**__ Accept _____ Return _____ Reject __**6/27/2024**__ Date

Abstract/Summary Comments: Provides the historic context for evaluating recreational facilities within US National Forests. Provides description of property types and the registration requirements necessary for listing significant examples. The document acknowledges that further information related to specific USFS regions will likely be forthcoming and this Cover will be amended in the future

Recommendation/ Criteria: Accept Multiple Cover

Reviewer Jim Gabbert Discipline Historian

Telephone (202)354-2275 Date _____

DOCUMENTATION: see attached comments: No see attached SLR: No

If a nomination is returned to the nomination authority, the nomination is no longer under consideration by the National Park Service.

USDA United States Department of Agriculture | Forest Service | Washington Office Recreation, Heritage, Volunteer Resources | 1400 Independence Ave, SW Washington,, DC 202-205-1414

File Code: 2360
Date: April 18, 2024

Ms. Joy Beasley
National Register Keeper of the National Register of Historic Places
1849 C Street NW
Mailstop 7228
Washington, DC 20240-0001

Dear Ms. Beasley:

The USDA Forest Service (Forest Service) is pleased to submit the enclosed Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) for Forest Service Recreation Facilities to the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). This MPDF is a nationwide overview of the development of Forest Service recreation facilities throughout 154 national forests and 20 national grasslands covering 193 million acres.

This MPDF was developed as a planning tool for the Forest Service to gain a better understanding of the variety of recreation property types scattered across the landscape but also how the properties are significant under the NRHP Criteria. The registration requirements were established to provide further internal direction on character-defining characteristics and integrity of the property types included within the MPDF. It is the intent of the Forest Service in the future to build upon this document with additional documentation specific to regions of the Forest Service and for winter sports areas, summer resorts, organization camps and recreation residences.

Over the past several years, with the passing of the Great American Outdoors Act, the Forest Service has invested significant time and resources in the development of regional recreation historic contexts in over half of its regions. After the review of these recreation contexts, it was clear that the use of one nationwide MPDF for similar property types that utilized standard plans in their design and construction was needed. The designs have slight variations across the regions, but overall, similar design principles and construction methods were used in their development.

The agency worked in partnership with the National Conference of State Historic Preservation Officers (NCSHPO) to solicit a small group of State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) reviewers. This small group of SHPO reviews (AZ, NC, NV, MI, MN, WI) provided a courtesy review of the 80% draft MPDF nomination. A summary of the SHPO comments are as follows:

- Comments relating to adding regionally specific historic information in the historic context.
- Several comments asking for further clarification on registration requirements in terms of whether all the requirements apply and can there be a comparative analysis process added.
- Comments relating to format, typos, and grammar corrections.

These comments were put into an Excel spreadsheet and tracked, which we can share upon request. The agency looked at each comment and incorporated edits that improved the clarity and substance of the document. Doug Stephens, Federal Preservation Officer, Forest Service, signed the nomination as Certifying Official. We appreciate the opportunity to highlight the significance of the recreation facilities on National Forest System lands.

Please contact Doug by email at douglas.stephens@usda.gov or by phone at (202-205-1414) for additional correspondence regarding this nomination.

Sincerely,

/s/
DOUG STEPHENS
Federal Preservation Officer, Forest Service