



United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations for individual properties and districts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin, *How to Complete the National Register of Historic Places Registration Form*. If any item does not apply to the property being documented, enter "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, architectural classification, materials, and areas of significance, enter only categories and subcategories from the instructions. Place additional certification comments, entries, and narrative items on continuation sheets if needed (NPS Form 10-900a).

1. Name of Property

historic name Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities

other names/site number **South Fork Facilities:** Spotted Bear Ranger Station (24FH0027), Big Prairie Ranger Station (24PW1003), Black Bear Guard Station (24FH0429), Salmon Forks Guard Station (24FH1243), Basin Creek Guard Station (24PW0489), Danaher Guard Station (24LC0923), Shaw Creek Guard Station (24PW0491), Hahn Guard Station (24PW0492), Pendant Guard Station (24MO0064), Trail Nos. 80 / 126 (South Fork Trail), Trail No. 263, Trail Nos. 110 /212/35, Trail No. 125, Trail Nos. 88/83, Trail Nos. 90/112 (White River Trail), Trail No. 100 (Helen Cr. Trail), Telephone system
Middle Fork Facilities: Schafer Ranger Station (24FH0428), Silvertip Guard Station (24FH1241), Pentagon Guard Station (24FH0431), Gooseberry Guard Station (24FH0430), Granite Guard Station (24FH0444), Spruce Park Guard Station (24FH1242), Challenge Guard Station (24FH0020), Trail No. 155 (Big River Trail), Trail No. 156, Trail No. 154, Trail No. 327, Trail No. 173, Trail Nos. 241/177, Trail No.160.

2. Location

street & number Flathead National Forest

N/A not for publication

city or town Hungry Horse

X vicinity

state Montana MT Flathead, Powell, Lewis and Clark, 029, 077, county Missoula code 049, 063 zip code 59918

3. State/Federal Agency Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended,

I hereby certify that this X nomination ___ request for determination of eligibility meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60.

In my opinion, the property X meets ___ does not meet the National Register Criteria. I recommend that this property be considered significant at the following level(s) of significance:

national statewide local

Signature of certifying official/Title

Date

State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

United States Department of the Interior
 National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

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2. Location

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X

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___ national **X** statewide ___ local

Cathy Davis Regional Archaeologist / Delegate FPO 11-20-2014
 Signature of certifying official/Title Date

US Forest Service, Northern Region
 State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

In my opinion, the property meets does not meet the National Register criteria.

Signature of commenting official: Mark F. Baumber Date: 10/28/2014

Title: STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICER State of Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government: MONTANA STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICE

4. National Park Service Certification

I hereby certify that this property is:

entered in the National Register determined eligible for the National Register

determined not eligible for the National Register removed from the National Register

other (explain:)

Signature of the Keeper _____ Date of Action _____

5. Classification

<p>Ownership of Property (Check as many boxes as apply.)</p> <input type="checkbox"/> private <input type="checkbox"/> public - Local <input type="checkbox"/> public - State <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> public - Federal	<p>Category of Property (Check only one box.)</p> <input type="checkbox"/> building(s) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> district <input type="checkbox"/> site <input type="checkbox"/> structure <input type="checkbox"/> object	<p>Number of Resources within Property (Do not include previously listed resources in the count.)</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Contributing</th> <th>Noncontributing</th> <th></th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>55</td> <td>10</td> <td>buildings</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4</td> <td>0</td> <td>sites</td> </tr> <tr> <td>8</td> <td>1</td> <td>structures</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td>objects</td> </tr> <tr> <td>67</td> <td>11</td> <td>Total</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Contributing	Noncontributing		55	10	buildings	4	0	sites	8	1	structures			objects	67	11	Total
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8	1	structures																		
		objects																		
67	11	Total																		

Name of related multiple property listing
(Enter "N/A" if property is not part of a multiple property listing)

N/A

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register

N/A

6. Function or Use

<p>Historic Functions (Enter categories from instructions.)</p> <p>GOVERNMENT: government office</p> <p>TRANSPORTATION: pedestrian-related, air-related</p> <p>AGRICULTURE/SUBSISTENCE: animal facility</p> <p>AGRICULTURE/SUBSISTENCE: agricultural field</p> <p>DOMESTIC: single family</p> <p>DOMESTIC: multiple dwelling</p> <p>DOMESTIC: secondary structure</p>	<p>Current Functions (Enter categories from instructions.)</p> <p>GOVERNMENT: government office</p> <p>TRANSPORTATION: pedestrian-related, air-related</p> <p>AGRICULTURE/SUBSISTENCE: animal facility</p> <p>AGRICULTURE/SUBSISTENCE: agricultural field</p> <p>DOMESTIC: single family</p> <p>DOMESTIC: multiple dwelling</p> <p>DOMESTIC: secondary structure</p>
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In my opinion, the property meets does not meet the National Register criteria.

Mark F. Zaunber
 Signature of commenting official

11/17/2014
 Date

STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICER
 Title

MONTANA SHPO
 State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

4. National Park Service Certification

I hereby certify that this property is:

- entered in the National Register determined eligible for the National Register
- determined not eligible for the National Register removed from the National Register
- other (explain: _____)

[Signature]
 Signature of the Keeper

12/17/2014
 Date of Action

5. Classification

Ownership of Property
 (Check as many boxes as apply.)

Category of Property
 (Check only one box.)

Number of Resources within Property
 (Do not include previously listed resources in the count.)

- private
- public - Local
- public - State
- public - Federal

- building(s)
- district
- site
- structure
- object

Contributing	Noncontributing	
55	10	buildings
4	0	sites
8	1	structures
		objects
67	11	Total

Name of related multiple property listing
 (Enter "N/A" if property is not part of a multiple property listing)

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register

N/A

N/A

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions

(Enter categories from instructions.)

- GOVERNMENT: government office
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Current Functions

(Enter categories from instructions.)

- GOVERNMENT: government office
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- DOMESTIC: secondary structure

Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative
Facilities

Flathead, Powell, Lewis &
Clark, and Missoula counties,
Montana
County and State

Name of Property

7. Description

Architectural Classification

(Enter categories from instructions.)

Other: Vernacular / Rustic log

Materials

(Enter categories from instructions.)

foundation CONCRETE; STONE: Granite

walls: WOOD: Log, Shingle, Board

roof: WOOD: Shingle; METAL: Steel

other:

Narrative Description

(Describe the historic and current physical appearance of the property. Explain contributing and noncontributing resources if necessary. Begin with a **summary paragraph** that briefly describes the general characteristics of the property, such as its location, setting, size, and significant features.)

Summary Paragraph

The administrative facilities included in this nomination (three ranger district headquarters complexes, thirteen guard stations, and the trails and phone lines that connect them) are located in northwestern Montana, within the drainage basins of the South and Middle forks of the Flathead River. Much of the South Fork falls within the Bob Marshall Wilderness (established by the US Forest Service in 1940 and formally designated by Congress in 1964), while the Middle Fork drainage is located within the Great Bear Wilderness (designated in 1978). Long before their wilderness designation, however, the US Forest Service set these lands apart as "primitive areas," the South Fork Primitive Area created in 1931 and the Pentagon Primitive Area, established in 1933. The current undeveloped character of these areas is owed in large part to the early recognition that they possessed the essential qualities of 'wilderness,' as would be codified in the Wilderness Act of 1964. Borrowing from a 1936 Northern Region pamphlet on primitive areas:

... there are those areas which only a minimum of civilization has reached, where only the trails and habitations are those required in providing adequate protection from forest fires, and a means of travel for visitors on foot or horseback. These are the "Primitive Areas," on which further encroachment by advancing civilization has been prohibited. They are to remain forever in their present state, with their primitive conditions of environment, transportation, habitation and subsistence, visited only by the more intrepid of present and future populations.¹

The following description of the Flathead National Forest's system of backcountry administrative sites includes: a description of the natural features and systems that influenced development of administrative facilities within the district; a discussion of the general spatial organization and land use associated with the administrative sites; a description of the circulation systems that provide access to and communications between the sites (trails and telephone line); a description of the buildings and structures currently located at the ranger stations and guard stations (segregated by drainage basin); and a description of the variety of small-scale features typically associated with the district. Note that three of the administrative sites lie outside a designated wilderness boundary: Spotted Bear Ranger Station, Silvertip Guard Station, and Challenge Guard Station. Spotted Bear and Challenge are accessible by road, whereas Silvertip is only reached by pack trail. The web of trails and administrative sites extends through parts of Flathead, Powell, Lewis and Clark, and Missoula counties.

¹ *Information on the South Fork of the Flathead, Sun River, and Pentagon Primitive Areas, Flathead and Lewis & Clark National Forests, Montana.* Forest Service, Northern Region, U.S. Department of Agriculture. 1936? Heritage Files Flathead National Forest (Hereinafter HF FNF).

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Narrative Description

Natural Features and Systems of the Historic District

The Flathead National Forest's system of backcountry administrative facilities extends throughout the drainage basins of the South and Middle forks of the Flathead River. The Flathead River system derives its volume from several mountain ranges, the Swan Range, the Flathead Range and the Lewis & Clark Range, all of which are part of the Northern Rocky Mountains. This is a geologically diverse area, consisting of sedimentary rocks of various ages (limestone, sandstone, and shale) that have been uplifted and folded. This folding effect coupled with differences in rock hardness, resistance to weathering, and several periods of glaciation, has created a complex physiographic canvas, consisting of systems of parallel ridges and mountains that rise high above deeply incised drainages. Some of the area's most distinctive topographic features are carved from Cambrian limestone within the Lewis and Clark Range. The "Chinese Wall," a 22-mile-long, limestone escarpment that rises roughly 1000 feet above its base is one such feature. The wall forms part of the Continental Divide, which marks the boundary line between the Flathead forest and the adjacent Lewis and Clark forest to the east.

In general, the area can be described as heavily timbered. However wild fire has always been an integral part of this ecosystem, periodically destroying landscape-scale swaths of forests and opening vistas long closed by mature and decadent forest. Depending upon the route, one may traverse old growth forest, as well as vast areas of burned timber, in various stages of regeneration. Dominant forest types include mixed stands of lodgepole pine and Douglas fir, with pine predominating. Some pure stands of Engleman spruce also occur as do regenerated mixed stands of lodgepole, Douglass fir and spruce. Above 6000 ft, subalpine vegetation transitions to barren ground at the mountain tops, many of which rise to between 8000 and 9000 ft. above sea level—4000 ft. above the adjacent drainage bottoms. In the broad valley bottoms that characterize the main South Fork and its tributaries, bands of riparian vegetation, including cottonwoods and aspen, parallel the stream courses and give way to meadows of native grass.

The South Fork contains the majority of the Flathead's backcountry administrative sites. Including its headwater stream, Danaher Creek, administrative sites and the trails that connect them extend about 50 linear miles along the South Fork Flathead River. The stream flows north, collecting volume from its major headwater and tributary streams most of which drain the east slope of the Swan Range, with some originating on the west slope of the Lewis and Clark Range. These include: Danaher Creek, Hahn Creek, Gordon Creek, Big and Little Salmon rivers, White River and Spotted Bear River. While most of the tributary streams flow through relatively narrow, steep-sided drainages, the headwaters Danaher Creek has a wide, level drainage bottom with a meandering stream channel, with willow bottoms bordered by dry meadows. These conditions are similar to the South Fork main stem, below the confluence of Danaher and Hahn creeks, where place names such as Cayuse Meadows, Big Prairie, and Bartlett Meadows, attest to the character of the area. In these areas, the South Fork channel meanders widely, with numerous oxbow scars remaining to mark its former course. With its abundant native grasslands, timber suitable for building logs, the forest selected Big Prairie as the site of its district headquarters complex. Although the South Fork backcountry contains a number of small lakes, Big Salmon Lake, which is fed by Big Salmon Creek, is the largest natural body of water in the South Fork drainage basin, extending roughly four miles east to west within the creek bottom, less than a mile above its confluence with the South Fork. Below its confluence with Big Salmon Creek, the South Fork drainage bottom narrows gradually until just north of Black Bear Creek, where the stream flows through a steep-sided canyon, before opening once again south of Spotted Bear Ranger Station, which lies at the confluence of the South Fork and Spotted Bear River.

The Middle Fork drainage basin is located north and east of the South Fork. As stated in a 1940 description of the newly established Bob Marshall Wilderness Area, the area is "of intricate and confusing topography."² Historically, the area

² Ralph Space "Bob Marshall Wilderness Area," December 18, 1940. Folder: Bob Marshall Wilderness, Flathead National Forest, Box 69, Historical Collection ca. 1905-1990, Record Group 95, Records of the Forest Service, Region 1, Missoula, Montana, National Archives and Records Administration, Seattle, Washington (Hereinafter RG 95, NARA Seattle).

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was referred to as Big River, and the Big River Trail (No. 155) that parallels the north bank of the Middle Fork is the main route through this section of backcountry. The Middle Fork is bounded on the west by the Flathead Range and on the east by the Lewis and Clarke Range. The two headwaters streams that form the Middle Fork (Strawberry Creek and Bowl Creek) originate from the east slope of the Lewis and Clark Range. Strawberry Creek begins on the Continental Divide, just below Badger Pass, and flows south roughly 8 miles until it hits the northwestern flank of Mount May where it heads southwest to its confluence with Bowl Creek and the beginning of the Middle Fork. Bowl Creek also begins on the west slope of the Continental Divide towards the south end of the rock outcrop known as Corrugate Ridge. This stream flows southwest then northwest to its confluence with Strawberry Creek. A third stream, Clack Creek, joins the Middle Fork just below the Strawberry / Bowl creek confluence. Clack Creek originates on the north side of 8,873-ft.-high Pentagon Mountain, flowing northwest and then northeast along the base of Trilobite Ridge—a prominent limestone outcrop that extends north from Pentagon Mountain. From the mouth of Clack Creek, the Middle Fork flows north and then west to its confluence with Schafer Creek a major tributary that drains the east slope of the Flathead Range. Another major drainage of the Flathead Range is Dolly Varden Creek, which joins Schafer Creek, just above the latter's confluence with the Middle Fork. Schafer Meadows, a broad expanse of wetlands and pothole lakes, is located on the north side of the Middle Fork, adjacent to the mouth of Schafer Creek. Downstream from Schafer, the Middle Fork canyon narrows considerably. Here, the Big River Trail, which in the upper reaches is located close to the stream channel, moves to the hill slopes above the rock gorges, where it contours into and out of the many tributary streams that drain the west slope of the Lewis and Clark Range. In a few confluence areas the trail takes straight tangents across level timbered benches above the river. On the south side of the river numerous tributaries gather flow from the steep slopes of the Flathead Range.

Spatial Organization and Land Use within the Historic District

The organization of administrative improvements within the backcountry areas of the Flathead National Forest occurs at various levels. At the landscape level, the most prominent choice for land use is seen in the selection of sites for administrative withdrawals used to establish district headquarters complexes and guard stations. Ranger district headquarters were designed to support a number of employees, and in some cases, their families for a good portion of each year. They also support livestock—mostly the horses and mules used to move all manner of supplies through the backcountry. Historically, sites withdrawn for use as district headquarters required sufficient level ground to accommodate improvements (office buildings, dwellings, bunkhouses and agricultural outbuildings), sufficient timber for building construction, a water supply for domestic and sometimes irrigation use, and sufficient land for hay production to support livestock for the duration of the operating season. Ideally, headquarters would be located as close as possible to the center of the administrative unit, while still accommodating the range of required activities. Although not part of the original forest service mission, by the late 1920s and early 1930s, improvements at district headquarters complexes expanded to include airstrips—used to transport supplies and fire-fighting personnel. In some instances, horse pastures were expanded to accommodate the airstrips.

Guard stations also required level land for buildings and structures; however, these sites were used principally for short stays by a few employees completing routine tasks such as fire patrol, trails maintenance and construction, and game patrols. Many sites were withdrawn from the public domain principally because of their potential to pasture a government pack string traveling through the forest delivering supplies. Much more numerous than the district headquarters complexes, the guard stations occur between 10 and 15 miles apart along the trails system. Many are located at stream confluences, where the underlying landforms provide suitable level ground for building improvements as well as pasture for livestock.

Within the administrative sites themselves, there is some separation of improvements by function. Specifically, buildings associated with handling stock (hay barns, corrals, and other small scale improvements) are typically located away from buildings used for residential and administrative purposes. At district headquarters complexes, buildings designed for single families (i.e., rangers' residences) are slightly removed from both administrative and barnyard areas.

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Summary: The historic pattern of spatial organization within the district remains evident within the landscape and contributes to the significance and eligibility of the property. Although a few guard stations have been destroyed by natural disasters (fire and flood), the overall organization of the historic district, with its district headquarters, guard stations, trails, and telephone lines, remains intact.

Circulation within the Historic District

Trails System (primary and secondary trails; trail system counted as one contributing structure)

The 355-mile long trail system that links the backcountry administrative sites is the historic district's principal circulation feature. Before the adoption of airplanes for resupply, pack trails were the only means of accessing the backcountry—initially for fire protection and resupply and later for recreation access. By 1941, the Flathead forest's trails system was complete. Even after the service integrated the use of planes into its protection system, forest trails remained important to the Flathead's protection and recreation programs. After 1964, when airfields were banned from the Bob Marshall Wilderness, the forest returned to using pack stock to carry goods and people into its backcountry stations. Although Schafer Airfield in the Middle Fork was specifically excluded from the airfield ban when the area was incorporated into the Great Bear Wilderness in 1978, a large portion of its supply chain relies on pack stock.

Forest Service trails standards as well as the topography of the country traversed by the trail system influenced trail construction and ultimately their character. In general, trail tread varies between 24 and 30 in. width. In some areas the South and Middle forks of the Flathead River flow through narrow, rocky canyons, requiring location of the trail on steep slopes or upland benches far above the stream channels. Where trails are located mid-slope, they contour into and out of the numerous tributary drainages that flow into the major stream courses. Undulating grades are typical, reflecting the practice of locating trails along routes that required the least amount of heavy construction. In the wide open parts of the South Fork drainage, from Big Prairie south to Danaher, the trails tend to remain in the drainage bottoms where they run parallel with the stream channel. Where stream channels meander, instead of directly paralleling the stream, trails often take straight tangents on dry ground between the meanders, thus reducing the distance traveled.

Besides the constructed tread, appurtenant trail structures include log water bars and, in boggy areas, "corduroy." Water bars are generally made of logs or rocks, laid at an angle across the trail tread in order to divert runoff to the downhill side of the trail. Corduroy usually consists of log sills (with a diameter of 6 in. or greater) with flattened tops. Split or milled plank "flooring" (4 in. thick) are laid atop and perpendicular to the sills then nailed in place and sometimes covered with dirt. A 1935 "Forest Trail Handbook," recommended that the entire structure be placed below the mud line (if practicable) in order to prevent rot. Although the Flathead backcountry does contain three substantial timber bridges, all are modern—built since 1968.

South Fork trails include:

Trail No. 80/126: This is the main South Fork Trail, begun prior to 1906 and completed by the mid 1920s. It extends from Spotted Bear Ranger Station to Big Prairie Ranger Station, along the east side of the South Fork Flathead River. From Big Prairie south, the trail (now called 126) continues along the east bank of the river to its headwaters at the confluence of Youngs Creek and Danaher Creek. From this confluence, the trail continues south along the east bank of Danaher Creek to the guard station of the same name. The trail extends about seven miles south of Danaher Guard Station to the divide separating the South Fork drainage from the Blackfoot River drainage.

Trail No. 263: This trail extends along the west bank of the South Fork Flathead River, connecting Black Bear Guard Station with Salmon Forks Guard Station and southward to Big Prairie, where it crosses the river via a pack bridge built in 1968. (This trail also accessed Holbrook Guard Station, which was destroyed by fire in 2000.)

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Trail No. 110/212/35: These contiguous trail segments form an open sided loop that connects Salmon Forks Guard Station and Big Prairie Ranger Station (both located adjacent to the South Fork) with Pendant and Shaw guard stations, located on the east slope of the Swan Range. From Salmon Forks Guard Station, Trail 110 extends eastward along the north bank of Big Salmon Creek (passing Big Salmon Lake) to a point just west of its confluence with its tributary stream, Cataract Creek, and its junction with Trail 212. Trail 212 continues southeastward, paralleling the upper reaches of Big Salmon Creek to Pendant Guard station. From Pendant, the trail continues southeast, paralleling Big Salmon Creek, then across a low divide into the Shaw Creek Drainage, a southeast-flowing tributary of Gordon Creek. The trail parallels Shaw Creek to its confluence with Gordon Creek, the site of Shaw Guard Station and its junction with Trail 35. From Shaw station, Trail 35 continues east along the north bank of Gordon Creek to its confluence with the South Fork Flathead River then northward along the west bank of the river for a short distance to Big Prairie Ranger Station.

Trail 125: Trail 125 links Big Prairie Ranger Station with Hahn Guard Station. Beginning on the east bank of the South Fork Flathead River, about three miles south of the ranger station, the trail heads south for about a half a mile to a ford on the river. South of the river the trail continues on the west bank of the South Fork to its confluence with Youngs Creek. From this confluence the trail extends up the west side of the creek to its junction with Hahn Creek and the location of Hahn Guard Station. From the station, the trail continues southward up Hahn Creek to the divide between the Flathead and Blackfoot river drainages at Hahn Creek Pass.

Trail No. 83: This trail extends from Spotted Bear Ranger Station east along the south bank of the Spotted Bear River to a river ford opposite Beaver Creek Campground, where it crosses to the north side of the river. It remains on the north bank of the river to access Silvertip and Pentagon guard stations.

Trail Nos. 90/112: Referred to as the White River Trail, together, these trails connect the Middle Fork and South Fork drainages. The north end of Trail No. 90 begins about a mile and a half south of Pentagon Guard Station, at the mouth of Wall Creek, a northward flowing tributary of the Middle Fork Flathead River. Here, the trail branches from the trail along the Spotted Bear River (No. 83), and extends up Wall Creek to its headwaters, around the south end of Wall Cliff and over a divide into the head of Juliet Creek, a southward flowing tributary of the White River. About two miles south of the divide, the south end of Trail 90 meets the north end of Trail 112, where the latter turns east to access Spotted Bear Bass. South of this trail junction, Trail 112 continues to parallel Juliet Creek into the White River drainage proper. The trail follows the river, which flows south and then west around the southern flank of Rampart Mountain, before turning northwest to its confluence with the South Fork. The south end of Trail 112 joins the main South Fork Trail (No. 80) about a mile above the White River / South Fork confluence.

Trail No. 100: This east-west trail, also known as the Helen Creek Trail, connects the main South Fork Trail (No. 80) in the vicinity of Black Bear Guard Station with the White River Trail leading to the Spotted Bear River and to trails that connect with the Middle Fork. The west end of the trail begins about a mile from the mouth of Helen Creek, where Trail No. 80 contours into the creek drainage. From this point, the trail parallels Helen Creek to its headwaters on the west slope of Pagoda Mountain. The trail contours around the south flank of the mountain and joins Trail No. 112 just north of the mouth of Pagoda Creek.

Middle Fork trails include:

Trail No. 155: Trail 155, known as the Big River Trail, connects the four administrative sites located adjacent to the Middle Fork Flathead River; Schafer Ranger Station and Granite, Spruce Park and Gooseberry guard stations. Beginning at Black Bear Trailhead, just outside the north boundary of the Great Bear Wilderness, the trail extends eastward along the north bank of the Middle Fork for its entire length (roughly 40 miles) to Gooseberry station.

Trail 156: This trail connects Granite Guard Station with Challenge Guard Station. Beginning at its junction with Trail 155 at the mouth of Granite Creek (a southward flowing tributary of the Middle Fork Flathead River), Trail No. 156 extends northward to Challenge, keeping to the east bank of the creek for most of its length. The north half mile of this trail overlaps with Skyland Road.

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Trail 154: Trail 154 connects Schafer Ranger Station with Challenge Guard Station. At its southern end the trail begins at a junction with Trail 155 about four miles west of Schafer then extends northward along Morrison Creek, crossing that stream several times before ending at Challenge Station. The last three miles of this trail overlap with Skyland Road.

Trail No. 327: This trail links the Spotted Bear River drainage (a tributary of the South Fork Flathead River) with Schafer Ranger Station, in the Middle Fork drainage. Known as the Spotted Bear-Schafer Trail, at the south end it begins roughly 2 miles northwest of Beaver Creek Campground at the end of Forest Service Road 564. From this point, the trail ascends the south/east slope of the Flathead Range, around the west flank of Big Bill Mountain. The trail crosses the Flathead divide on the west side of Whitcomb Peak and drops into the Middle Fork Flathead River drainage via Schafer Creek. The trail follows this creek to its confluence with the Middle Fork, just east of Schafer Ranger Station, where it crosses the river at a ford to join the Big River Trail on the north bank of the river (No. 155).

Trail No. 173: Trail 173 links Schafer Ranger Station in the Middle Fork, with Pentagon Guard Station located in the upper reaches of the Spotted Bear River drainage. From its junction with Trail 327 on the south bank of the Middle Fork slightly east of Schafer Ranger Station, this trail extends south, the length of Dolly Varden Creek to its headwaters, through a pass in a narrow ridge system and into the headwaters of Pentagon Creek a south-flowing tributary of the Spotted Bear River. From this point the trail follows Pentagon Creek to its confluence with the river, where it intersects with Trail No. 83 near Pentagon Guard Station.

Trail Nos. 241 / 177: These two trails provide another connection between the Middle Fork and South Fork drainages. At the north end, Trail 241 extends east from its junction with Trail No. 173 to the top of Chair Mountain via a series of switchbacks. From there the trail trends south along the west side of the Gable Peaks and a series of open exposed rocky ridges associated with the Trilobite Ranger. The trail crosses to the east side of the Trilobite Range then continues south to cross back to the west slope at Switchback Pass, where it meets the north end of Trail 177. From Switchback Pass, Trail 177 drops precipitously into the Spotted Bear River drainage via a series of over thirty switchbacks into the bottom of the East Fork Pentagon Creek. Keeping to the east side of the creek, the trail heads south paralleling East Fork and Pentagon Creek proper to its south end at its junction with Trail No. 173, about two miles north of Pentagon Guard Station.

Trail 160: This short segment of trail connects Gooseberry Guard Station in the upper reaches of the Middle Fork with Trail No. 241. se contiguous trails connect Gooseberry Guard Station (in the Middle Fork) with Pentagon station (in the South Fork). Heading south from Gooseberry station, Trail 160 follows Clack Creek before crossing the divide between the Middle and South forks via Switchback Pass. South of the pass Trail 241 consists of a series of nearly thirty switchbacks before hitting the South Fork drainage. This trail joins Trail 173 about four miles above Pentagon Guard Station.

The trails system is counted as one contributing structure.

Ground-return Telephone Line (counted collectively as one contributing structure)

Roughly 45 miles of ground-return telephone line remains in service between Black Bear Guard Station at the north and Danaher Guard Station at the south. This line is directly associated with the main South Fork Trail (No. 80/126), which extends along the east bank of the river between Spotted Bear Ranger Station and the Dry Fork Flathead Divide. The line links Black Bear, Big Prairie, Basin and Danaher stations, all of which have phones installed in the station buildings. Although most of the other stations in the Flathead backcountry rely on radios, reception in the South Fork Flathead River valley is poor, and the stations in the middle and upper reaches of the drainage continue to rely on telephone communications. The No. 9 telephone line attaches to both live trees and telephone poles with mostly brown, split-tree ceramic insulators. In some open areas far from timber stands (such as the area in the vicinity of Danaher Guard Station, the phone line is strung from locally harvested poles. Original telephone boxes are located in Black Bear Cabin, Salmon Forks Cabin, the Big Prairie combination building and ranger's residence, Basin Cabin, and Danaher Cabin. In addition,

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tree-mounted phone boxes are located adjacent to the main South Fork Trail just south of Salmon Forks Cabin and half a mile north of Danaher Guard Station.

The system of telephone lines is counted collectively as one contributing structure.

Airfields (three contributing sites, included in totals for the larger associated property)

Between the late 1920s and 1964, the Flathead National Forest relied on airplanes to transport personnel and equipment into and out of the backcountry. By 1940, the South Fork had completed airfields at Black Bear, Holbrook, Big Prairie and Basin. Of these, the field at Big Prairie, headquarters for the Big Prairie district, received the most use. The Middle Fork stations relied on one airfield—at the Big River District’s headquarters at Schafer Meadows. With the passage of the Wilderness Act in 1964, all of the airfields in the South Fork that were part of the Bob Marshall Wilderness were abandoned. Even though they have not been used for 50 years, two of the South Fork airfields remain discernible as landscape features—leveled areas cleared of timber with a few small-scale improvements such as wind socks and field markers. Although Schafer Ranger Station is part of the Great Bear Wilderness, its associated airfield was specifically excluded from the provision of the Wilderness Act prohibiting airstrips in congressionally designated wilderness. Schafer Airfield remains in current use and is open to both private and agency planes.

Big Prairie Airfield (contributing site): Big Prairie Field is roughly 2,500 ft. long by 375 ft. wide. Its long axis is oriented east to west, adjacent to the north side of the administrative building cluster. The area is currently used to pasture government livestock.

Black Bear Airfield (contributing site): Black Bear Field measures about 2,000 ft. long by 250 ft. wide. Located on a wide, level, timbered bench above Black Bear Cabin, its long axis is oriented northwest to southeast.

Schafer Airfield (contributing site): Schafer Field remains in active use. The cleared area measures roughly 4,000 ft. by 350 ft. Its long axis is oriented east to west, adjacent to the north side of the Schafer Ranger Station building cluster.

Circulation Summary: The historic district’s system of administrative trails and a 45-mile-long section of the historic, ground-return telephone line remain in current use and possess all seven aspects of historical integrity. The trails system is counted as one contributing structure. The forty-five mile long section of ground-return phone line is counted as one contributing structure. The three airfields are counted as three contributing sites.

Buildings and Structures within the Historic District

The buildings associated with the Flathead forest’s backcountry administrative sites represent several generations of improvements. The majority are log bearing buildings constructed with locally harvested timber. However, whether built of logs or dimensional lumber, all display simple vernacular forms. Most have rectangular plans and are one story in height with front-gable roofs of moderate to steep pitch. A few incorporate living space in attics or in half stories. Construction dates range from 1916 (the combination residence/office building at Big Prairie Ranger Station) to 1965 (a hay barn at Silvertip Guard Station), however most were built between the early 1920s and 1940. The few buildings that date to the 1960s (a barn at Big Prairie Ranger Station in the South Fork and two patrol cabins in the Middle Fork) were built to replace deteriorated or destroyed buildings at previously established administrative sites, according to plans developed earlier during the 1930s and 1940s.

Description of South Fork Administrative Sites: The nine administrative sites in the South Fork drainage include: Spotted Bear Ranger Station (Flathead County), Big Prairie Ranger Station (Powell County), Black Bear Guard Station (Flathead County), Salmon Forks Guard Station (Flathead County), Basin Guard Station (Powell County), Danaher Guard Station (Lewis and Clark County), Shaw Guard Station (Powell County), Hahn Guard Station (Powell County), and, Pendant Guard Station (Missoula County).

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Spotted Bear Ranger Station (24FH0027; four contributing buildings, four noncontributing buildings): As indicated previously, Spotted Bear Ranger Station serves as the administrative headquarters for the Flathead National Forest's backcountry facilities in the Bob Marshall and Great Bear wilderness areas. This station, lying at an elevation of 3740 ft. above sea level, is located on a level timbered terrace on the south bank of the Spotted Bear River, just east of its confluence with the South Fork Flathead River (Figure 1). The station contains four buildings that date to the period of significance. The three earliest buildings are oriented adjacent to the original alignment of the South Fork Road, completed in 1925. These three buildings (office, warehouse and ranger's residence) all face southeast onto this road, which now serves as an internal access road. A fourth building, moved into the area in the 1950s to be used as a bunkhouse, sits just east of the warehouse.

Office (contributing building): Built in 1923, the original component of the office is a rectangular log bearing building, with a front-gable roof. The wall of an enclosed half story extends beyond the front and rear walls of the ground floor. It is constructed over a full concrete basement excavated into the edge of a natural terrace so that the basement level is accessible from the rear of the building. The ground floor measures 20 ft. by 30 ft., while the half story measures 20 ft. by 40 ft. The full wall logs join at the corners with full dovetail, and the roof and gable ends are covered with sawn cedar shingles. The top of an interior brick chimney extends above the ridge line of this original component.

The front (southeast) wall contains a double entry with a pair of wood doors with four lights and three panels. A window in the wall west of the entry contains a six-light hopper sash. A window opening in the gable end above the entrance contains two six-light sliding sash. The west wall contains two window openings, each with two, six-light sliding sash. The rear wall contains one window in the gable end, two in the main floor, and a door at the basement level. The large basement doorway has been framed in to form a smaller opening, which now contains a five-panel wood door. A one-story log addition extends from the east wall of the original component—its side-gable roof intersecting with the gable roof of the original building just above the latter's eave. The notching matches that of the original building. The addition features a recessed porch on the front (south) wall, the edge of which is supported by four log columns. Two entries, each with a five-panel wood door, are located in the front wall, beneath the porch. A six-over-one-light double-hung window is located between the two entries, and a smaller six-light hopper window is located at the east end of the wall. The east wall of the addition contains an entry at the north end of the wall, with a glazed and paneled wood door and a wood-frame screen door. This entrance is accessed from a wood stoop. A six-over-one-light double-hung window is located in the center of the ground floor and a one-over-one-light double-hung sash is centered in the gable end. The rear wall of the addition contains two evenly spaced openings each with a six-over-one-light double-hung sash. A small wood-frame porch is located at the rear of the addition where it adjoins the original building.

Warehouse (contributing building): The warehouse, built in 1926, is similar to the original component of the office. Its dimensions are the same, but it lacks an interior chimney. In addition, the front entry features a 1960s wood door, with diamond-shaped lights. Both sides of the concrete basement have a window opening with two six-light sliding sash. The basement entry appears to retain its original double doors, made with heavy tongue-and-groove boards. This building currently functions as the districts' fire cache.

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Figure 1. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of the Spotted Bear Ranger Station showing site boundary.

Ranger's dwelling (contributing building): Built in 1927, the ranger's dwelling is the same construction style as that of the office and warehouse with an extended half story, built with full logs joined with full dovetail notches. It has a partial basement. The main difference between this and the earlier buildings is that the dwelling has enclosed porches on the front and rear. Wood shingles cover the exterior porch wall and the upper portion is enclosed with fixed screens. Both porches are accessed from doors in the northeast side.

CCC-era bunkhouse (contributing building): The fourth contributing building, a bunkhouse, is located at the east end of the three original buildings. This 14 ft. by 40 ft. wood frame building was moved onto the site in the mid 1950s from the Swan Lake Ranger Station. Originally built as part of a CCC camp, it bears the characteristics of the "temporary," construction typical of this era. The exterior walls are covered with drop-lap siding and the front-gable roof is covered with metal. Window openings in the two sides of the building contain six-light sliding wood sash and the entry in the southwest wall contains a five-panel wood door.

In addition, there are three modern frame buildings (which include two wood-frame generator sheds, and a wood frame outhouse), and a trailer moved to the area in 1979. Both generator sheds are recent construction, the outhouse dates to the late 1960s, and the trailer was moved to the area in 1979. All four of these buildings are considered noncontributing resources.

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Big Prairie Ranger Station (24PW1003; nine contributing buildings, four contributing structures, two contributing sites): The Big Prairie Ranger Station building complex sits on the west bank of the South Fork Flathead River, at an elevation of 4653 ft. (Figures 2 through 4). Buildings are arranged linearly along the edge of a terrace above an abandoned oxbow river channel; the Big Prairie airfield is located northeast of the buildings. Scattered stands of mature lodgepole pine with an open grassy understory surround the station buildings. The station's combination building, which incorporates a storeroom, kitchen/mess hall, ranger's office, and bunk space in the half story, is located at the north end of the complex, directly adjacent to the west edge of the airstrip. A large warehouse sits at the south end of the complex—also directly adjacent to the airstrip. The locations of both buildings reflect the dependence upon air supply, which ended in 1964. Although the Big Prairie airstrip has not been used since the mid 1960s, its footprint remains discernible on the landscape. Its condition is likely the result of the practice of grazing pack stock on the former airstrip. The Big Prairie Ranger Station building complex features nine contributing buildings, three contributing structures, and two contributing sites. The contributing sites include the airfield (described previously) and a gravesite (the Roush Grave).



Figure 2. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Big Prairie Ranger Station showing site boundary.

Name of Property



Figure 3. Panorama of the Big Prairie Ranger Station building cluster from the middle of Big Prairie Airfield

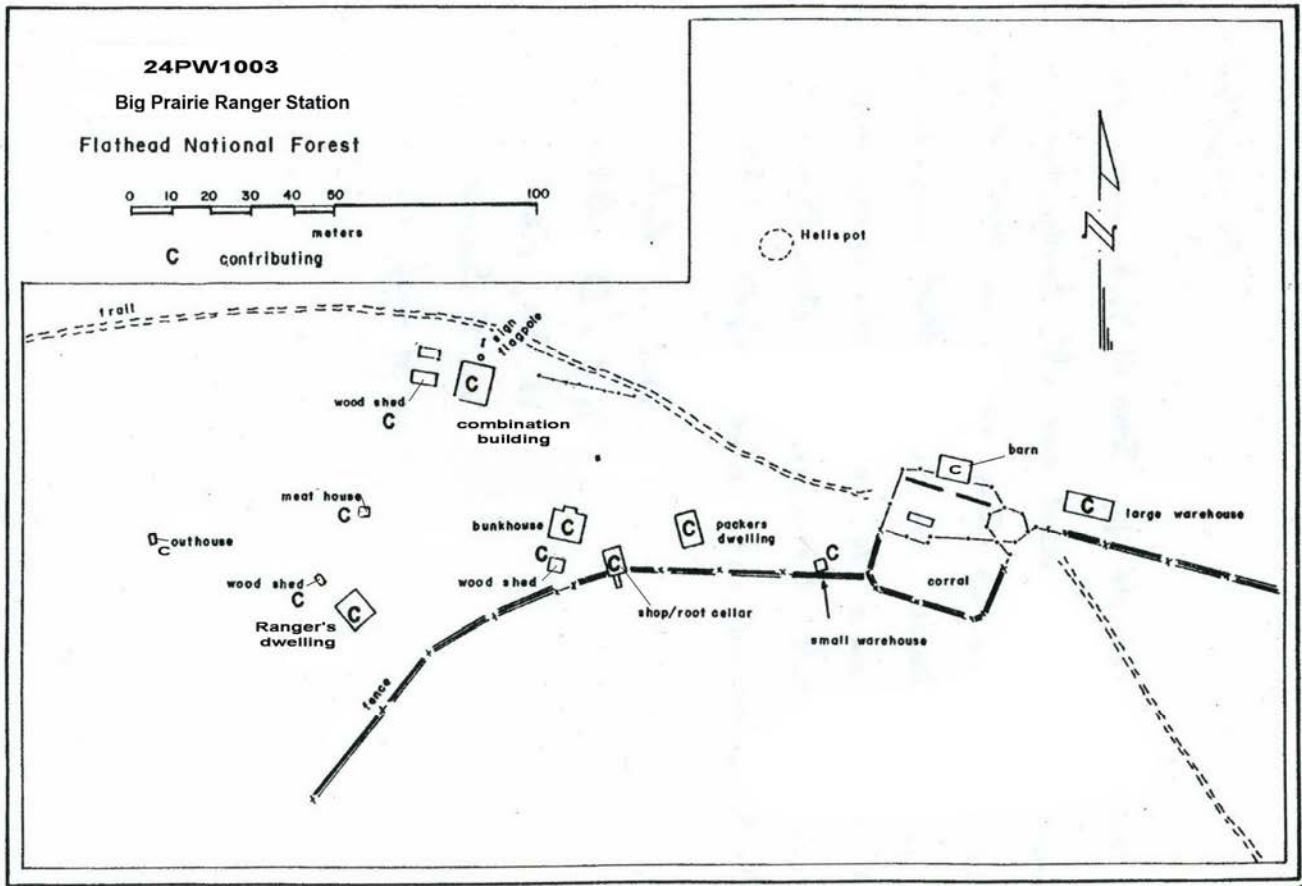


Figure 4. Big Prairie Ranger Station Site Plan.

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Packer's dwelling (contributing building): The earliest extant improvement at the site is the original office residence built in 1916. Currently referred to as the "packer's dwelling," it is a rectangular (19 ft. by 25 ft. with a 6 ft. open porch) one-story log bearing building with a front-gable roof built on a concrete foundation wall. The roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles. The top of an internal concrete block chimney extends above the roof's ridge line. Wall logs are joined at the corners with square notches and daubed with cement mortar with pole stops. An open porch with a half-hipped roof supported by log columns extends across the front (east) wall. The porch shelters an entry offset left of center, with a wood, one-panel, one-light door. The rear wall contains another entry with a one-panel one-light wood door, and one window with a six-light by six-light sliding window. Window openings in the two side walls and in both gable ends contain one, six-over-six-light double-hung wood sash.

Shop / Root Cellar (contributing building): Just north of the packer's dwelling stands a shop, built in about 1922. It is very similar to the original 1916 office/ranger dwelling: a log bearing building with a slightly rectangular plan (21 ft. by 22 ft.), built on a concrete foundation wall. It sits at the edge of the terrace overlooking the abandoned river channel where a separate entry leads to a storage cellar beneath the shop at the basement level. The wall logs are joined with square notches, daubed with a cement mortar mix that is held in place on the bottom with pole stops. The front-gable roof and gable ends are framed with dimensional lumber and covered with wood shingles. The front (north) wall has an open porch with a shed roof supported by two log columns. An entry with a vertical board door is centered in the front wall. Wood sash windows include: six-by-six-light sliding sash in the east wall and in the south gable end; a four-light hopper sash in the north gable end, and a six-light fixed sash in the center of the rear wall.

Bunkhouse (contributing building): The bunkhouse, built in 1938, is located northwest of the shop. Like the earlier buildings described above, it is a one story, rectangular (27 ft. by 31 ft.) log bearing building. However, regional architect, William Fox, designed this building specifically for Big Prairie in 1937, and some components of its design reflect the conscious rustic style popular in the 1930s. These include coped wall logs joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches, with chopper-cut log ends. The side-gable roof features log purlins and pole rafters (the latter with chopper-cut ends) and is covered with wood shingles. Unlike the plain concrete foundations of the earlier buildings, the bunkhouse features a foundation of mortared native stone. The front (north) wall has a small open porch with a continuous shed roof. The front edge of the porch roof is supported by two log columns that rest directly on a mortared stone porch floor. The front porch shelters a central entry, with a door made of knotty pine paired with a wood screen door. Window openings on either side of the porch contain six-over-six-light double-hung wood sash. A shed-roof dormer is located in the roof above the porch. Its side walls are covered with vertical boards and battens, and the north wall contains a window opening with three, six-light sash: a fixed sash in the middle flanked on either side by casement sash. In the ground floor, the west wall contains three window openings and the east wall has two openings, all with six-over-six-light double-hung sash. Both gable ends contain one opening with two, six-over-six light, double-hung sash. The rear (south) wall has a central opening with a flush wood door with one light. Window openings on either side of the door contain one, six-over-six-light, double-hung sash. The rear door is accessed from a concrete and stone stoop and is sheltered by a shallow extension of the eave line.

Bunkhouse wood shed (contributing structure): A rectangular (12 ft. by 14 ft.) post and beam wood shed is located behind the bunkhouse. It has a gable roof covered with shingles: walls are open.

Combination building (contributing building): The combination building is located about 115 feet from the bunkhouse. This building serves as the nerve center of the district, combining a large warehouse, a kitchen and mess, an office for the ranger, and sleeping quarters in the attic. Built in the early 1930s, this rectangular (22 ft. by 40 ft.) log bearing building sits directly adjacent to the edge of the airstrip, where planes loaded with supplies could taxi up to the warehouse porch. A flagpole and routed wood sign identify this building as the site's administrative headquarters. The combination building is a one-story, log bearing building with a side-gable roof, built on a concrete and stone pier foundation. The roof is framed with log purlins and pole rafters and covered with wood shakes. The top of an interior brick chimney extends above the roof. The wall logs are coped, joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches, and chinked with oakum. A recessed porch (7 ft. deep by 24 ft. wide) extends along the north half of the front (east) wall. Three log

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columns support the eave of the porch roof. The walls beneath the porch are framed with dimensional lumber and covered with horizontal drop-lap siding. In the east wall beneath the porch, a wide board door that slides sideways on an overhead rail porch leads to the food warehouse. A five-panel wood door leads to the ranger's office. The log wall south of the porch contains a large window opening with two, six-over-one-light double-hung windows. On the south side of the building, the ground floor contains another entry with a three-panel wood door and a wood screen door, one six-by-six-light sliding window, and one six-over-one-light double-hung window. On the north side, the ground floor features two window openings, each with a pair of six-light sliding sash. Both gable ends have one window opening with a pair of six-light sliding sash. The rear (west) wall contains another entry with a three-panel wood door and a wood-frame screen door in the south half of the wall. North of the door are two window openings each with six-light by six-light sliding sash. An opening south of the entry contains two, six-over-one-light double-hung windows.

Combination building wood shed (contributing structure): A large rectangular (10 ft. by 25 ft.) wood shed is located behind the combination building. This is a post and beam structure with a gable roof covered with wood shingles. The west end of the structure is enclosed with vertically placed small diameter logs.

Ranger's dwelling (contributing building): The ranger's dwelling is located south southwest of the combination building, within a stand of mature pine trees that screens the house from the more public areas of the site. Built in 1933 or 1934, this building is similar to standard plan R-15, as published in the region's 1935 improvements manual. It is a rectangular (29 ft. by 24 ft.) log bearing building with a side gable roof and a concrete foundation. The wall logs are coped, joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches, and chinked with oakum. The roof features log purlins and pole rafters (the latter with exposed tips) and is covered with wood shakes. The top of an interior brick chimney extends above the roof on the rear slope. A recessed porch extends across the front (northeast) wall. Four notched log columns support the outer eave, and low notched log walls enclose the lower third of the porch wall. An entry with a wood door with three panels and one light is centered in the front wall. Window openings on either side of the entry contain six-over-one-light double-hung wood sash. The northwest side of the building contains one six-over-one-light wood sash window, while the southeast side has two window openings, one with two, six-over-one-light double-hung wood windows and one with a single window. Both gable ends contain one window opening with six-light-by six-light sliding sash.

Ranger's woodshed (contributing structure): The ranger's woodshed is a small (6 ft. by 8 ft.) post and beam structure with a gable roof. The walls are open and the roof is covered with wood singles.

Outhouse (contributing building): An 8 ft. by 4 ft. frame outhouse (built in 1950) is located about 100 feet behind the ranger's dwelling. Exterior walls are covered with imitation log siding and the steep roof with wood shingles.

Meat house (contributing structure): The meat house is located about half-way between the ranger's dwelling and the combination building. Forest engineering records indicate its construction in 1933. This is a one-story 9 ft. square structure with a gable roof, resting on two hewn timbers. The roof is made with dimensional lumber, and covered with wood shakes. Both gable ends are also covered with shakes on the exterior; both sport diamond-shaped openings just beneath the ridge line. On the walls, the lower half is enclosed with vertical half logs, with log-framed window openings above. Window screen is attached to the inside of the openings, and a grid of heavy wire is attached on the exterior. The building has been "rodent-proofed" by nailing strips of galvanized metal along joints in the fabric. An entry in the north wall contains a plywood door.

Barn (contributing building): Built in 1964, the barn is located at the east edge of the developed area, near the warehouse that is also known as the "chute shed" and another small log warehouse. A pole corral extends from the south wall of the barn, enclosing feed bunks and a small roofed log structure used to store saddles. The barn itself is a rectangular (29 ft. by 31.5 ft.) log bearing building with a front-gable roof, built on a concrete foundation wall. The full log walls are coped and joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches and have chopper-cut ends. The ends of the log purlins and ridge pole also have chopper cut ends, but the pole rafters have flush-cut ends. Vertical board and batten siding covers the gable ends. The barn contains three oversized entries, one each in the east, west, and south walls. The six-foot-wide entries contain vertical board and batten doors that slide sideways on an overhead rail.

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Large warehouse aka "chute shed" (contributing building): The large warehouse is located at the south end of the Big Prairie building cluster, adjacent to the west edge of the airstrip. Built in about 1942, this rectangular (18 ft. by 48 ft.) building is framed with logs and sits on a concrete slab foundation. The gable roof has pole rafters and is covered with wood shingles. Exterior walls are covered with horizontal 8 in. tongue-and-groove boards. The west wall contains an entry with a five-panel wood door and a boarded window opening. The north wall (facing the airstrip) features a wide entry with a pair of hinged doors. Three window openings, one on the west side and two on the east side of the door, each contain one six-light, fixed wood sash. The south wall has four evenly spaced window openings, each with a six-light fixed sash.

Small warehouse (contributing building): The small warehouse is located at the edge of the terrace between the corral complex and the packer's dwelling. Built in 1933, it is an 8 ft.-square, one-story log bearing building with front-gable roof and a stone pier foundation. The full wall logs are joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches, and feature flush-cut ends. Exterior walls are chinked with poles. The roof has exposed pole rafters, is covered with split shakes, and has a central metal vent.

Roush Grave (contributing site): The grave of the two-year-old daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Clayton Roush is located southeast of the building cluster on a low, grass-topped knoll overlooking the South Fork Flathead River. This grave dates to the winter of 1922/1923. The grave site is defined by a low, rectangular (3 ft. by 4 ft.) mound of cobbles. A flat stone engraved with "Roush Daughter" is set upright at the east end of the cobbles.

Black Bear Guard Station (24FH0429; four contributing buildings, one contributing site [airfield previously described]): Situated at 4268 ft. above sea level, Black Bear Guard Station is located on the west bank of the South Fork Flathead River, just north of its confluence with Hungry Creek, at the junction of three pack trails (Nos. 263, 105 and 80). The four buildings located at the station occupy a wide, gently sloping terrace above a U-shaped bend of the river (Figures 5 and 6). Black Bear Cabin and an adjacent outhouse sit at the edge of the tree line at the upper margin of the terrace, while the barn, tack shed, and corral are located in the lowest part of the terrace adjacent to the river bank. The station's associated airstrip (described previously under "circulation") is located on a level bench about 30 feet above and north of the terrace.

Black Bear Cabin (contributing building): Built in the early 1920s, Black Bear Cabin is identical to the three original Spotted Bear buildings and the combination building at Schafer Ranger Station in the Middle Fork. It is a log bearing building, with an enclosed half story that extends beyond the front and rear walls. It is constructed over a full concrete basement cut into the edge of the terrace bank. The ground floor measures 20 ft. by 30 ft., while the half story measures 20 ft. by 40 ft. Like the other buildings constructed in this style, the wall logs in Black Bear Cabin are coped and joined at the corners with full dovetail notches. The front gable roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles and the top of an interior brick chimney extends above its southwest slope. Window openings contain pairs of six-light by six-light sliding wood sash. The front (northwest) wall of the cabin features a double-wide entry offset left of center. The entry contains two pairs of doors: the inside doors are paneled doors typically used for interior rooms, while the outside doors are heavy, board and batten. The entrance is further secured with a 2 by 4 bar. A small door to the right of the entry opens to access the telephone cabinet, also accessible from the interior. A window opening is located in the gable end above the front entry. The two side walls both contain two window openings. The rear (southeast) wall has a pair of side-hinged board and batten doors at the basement level, and single window openings in the center of the main floor and in the gable end.

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Figure 5. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Black Bear Guard Station showing site boundary.

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Figure 6. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Black Bear Guard Station building cluster.

Outhouse (contributing building): The outhouse sits about 120 ft. from the cabin, just inside the tree line. This is a frame building, with a front gable roof, leveled on stones. The exterior walls are covered with half logs and the roof is covered with wood shingles. The front wall contains a vertical board door.

Tack shed (contributing building): The tack shed stands about 150 feet east of the cabin, in association with a hay barn and a corral. The shed is a rectangular (10 ft. by 12 ft.), one-story wood frame building, built on concrete piers. Sawn cedar shingles cover the front-gable roof and the exterior walls are covered with horizontal boards with vertical corner-board trim. The front (west) wall of the building contains a central entry with a vertical board and batten door; a hinged iron “shutter” (to prevent bear break-ins) closes over the top of the board door.

Hay barn (contributing building): A small hay barn is located about 30 feet southeast of the barn, outside the corral fence. This is a rectangular log building with a front-gable roof. Split shakes cover the gable roof which features exposed pole rafter ends. The horizontal wall logs appear to be attached to the vertical corner logs with a tongue-and-groove joint. Small-diameter poles are used for exterior chinking. The gable ends are covered with lapped boards. The front (northwest) wall has a central entry with a vertical board door.

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Salmon Forks Guard Station (24FH1243; three contributing buildings): Salmon Forks Guard Station is located on a level, timbered terrace (elevation 4316 ft.) on the west bank of the South Fork Flathead River, just above its confluence with Big Salmon Creek (Figure 7). The guard station was established sometime in the late 1930s, presumably to replace the old White River administrative site, located on the east bank of the South Fork about four miles farther south. There are three buildings at this site: a log cabin, a frame barn, and a log privy. All three count as contributing buildings.

Salmon Forks Cabin (contributing building): Built in 1963, Salmon Forks Cabin is a rectangular (17 ft. by 24.5 ft), one-story log bearing building with a side gable roof, built on a concrete foundation. In overall dimension and construction style, it is similar to a Plan C-4 Cabin, published in the 1935 edition of the Region One improvements handbook. The wall logs have a groove or “cope” along the length of the bottom and joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches. The staggered-length log ends are finished with a ‘chopper’ cut. Sawn cedar shingles cover the roof, which has log purlins and rafters, both with exposed, chopper-cut ends. The front (north) and rear (south) walls each contain a central entry with a vertical board and batten door; while each end wall has two window openings with a one-by-one-light sliding sash. Both the door and window openings are fitted with removable board shutters with barbed wire bear protection.

Tack barn (contributing building): The 12 ft. by 16 ft. frame building that currently serves as the tack barn is believed to have been the first guard cabin, probably built at the site between 1936 and 1941. It is a one-story, front-gable building with a partial concrete foundation. Originally, sawn cedar shingles sided the building, however, sometime after 1990, the shingles were replaced with 1 by 6-inch tongue-and-groove siding. Shingles remain in the gable end and on the roof. The barn has a door offset left of center in the west wall, and a boarded over window opening in the east wall.

Outhouse (contributing building): The 6 ft. by 6 ft. frame outhouse is a frame building with a front-gable roof. The walls are enclosed with vertical logs and the roof covered with sawn cedar shingles. Two vertical log columns support an extension of the roof to shelter the entry, which contains a board and batten door.

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Figure 7. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Salmon Forks Guard Station showing site boundary.

Basin Creek Guard Station (24PW0489; three contributing buildings): Basin Creek Guard Station is located adjacent to Basin Creek, just above its confluence with Danaher Creek (Figure 8). The station consists of three contributing buildings: a cabin, a hay barn, and an outhouse. The cabin stands at the edge of a clearing (elevation 4972 ft.), on the north bank of Basin Creek, while the barn and its associated corral and the outhouse is located about 400 feet southwest on the south bank of the creek.

Basin Creek Cabin (contributing building): Built in the mid-1920s, Basin Cabin is a C-1 style building. It is rectangular (15.5 ft. by 17.5 ft.) one-story log bearing building built on a concrete foundation wall. Its walls are made with whole logs, joined at the corners with square notches, daubed with cement mortar and chinked with small-diameter poles. The two gable ends are covered with shiplap boards. The steep gable roof displays exposed log purlins and pole rafters and is covered with wood shakes. A metal stove pipe extends above the roof. On the front (north) wall, the front-gable roof extends roughly 4 ft. beyond the edge of the building to create an open porch. The porch roof is supported by two vertical log columns. The entry, offset east of center in the front wall, contains a vertical board door. Each side wall contains a central window opening with two four-light sliding sash. External barbed wire grids and hopper-style board

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shutters on both windows provide protection from bears. On the rear wall, a shed-roof overhang supported by log posts shelters a wood storage area.

Hay barn (contributing building): The barn (a.k.a. hay shed) at Basin station is a rectangular (12 ft. by 8 ft.) log frame building with a side gable roof, built on a cribbed log foundation. The exterior walls are enclosed with small-diameter poles attached horizontally to the log frame. The roof has exposed pole rafters and is covered with swan cedar shingles. A vertical board door is offset north of center in the east wall.

Outhouse (contributing building): The outhouse is located about 65 feet northeast of the cabin, almost hidden within the dense timber. This small, 3 ft. by 4 ft. building is similar to the barn. Its log frame rests on a gravel pad. The walls are enclosed with vertical logs and chinked with small-diameter poles. The front gable roof is covered with sawn wood shingles and features exposed pole rafter ends. A vertical board and batten door is located in the front wall (south).

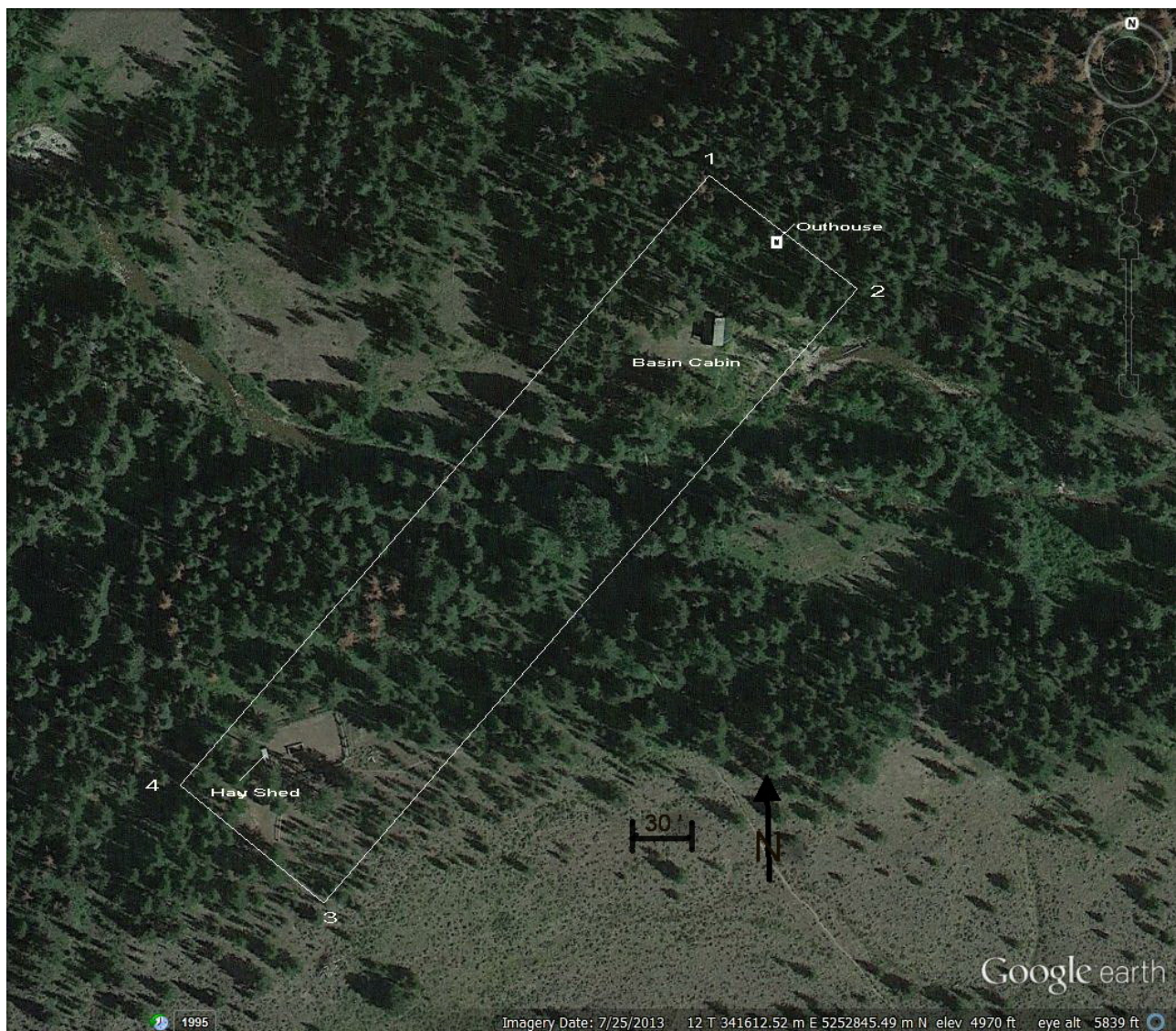


Figure 8. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Basin Creek Guard Station showing site boundary.

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Danaher Guard Station (24LC0923; two contributing buildings): Danaher Guard Station is located adjacent to Spring Creek, an intermittent tributary of Danaher Creek, just upstream from its confluence with the larger stream (Figure 9). The station buildings sit within the tree line (elevation 5746 ft), just east of Danaher Meadows—a miles long expanse of prairie grasses and forbs adjacent to Danaher Creek. The main South Fork trail passes along the east side of Danaher Creek, in front of the buildings. This station consists of a frame cabin and its associated outhouse. Both are counted as contributing buildings.



Figure 9. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Danaher Guard Station showing site boundary.

Danaher Cabin (contributing building): Built in the 1930s, Danaher Cabin is a rectangular (14 ft. by 16 ft.) one-story wood-frame building with a front-gable roof, resting on a log and stone foundation. Sawn wood shingles cover the roof, which features exposed rafter ends. The exterior walls are covered with horizontal drop-lap (aka rustic) siding with

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vertical corner board trim. The front (south) wall contains an entry in the east half of the wall and a window opening with a fixed, nine-light wood sash in the west half of the wall. The entry is accessed from a free-standing board stoop and contains two doors: the interior door is vertical board and batten while the outer door is made with horizontal boards. The two side walls each have a central window opening with a pair of six-light sliding sash. The windows are protected on the exterior with a barbed wire grid. Removable plywood shutters are hung on the wall beneath the windows: when the cabin is not in use, the shutters slide behind the barbed wire grid and are bolted in place. A fourth window opening on the rear (north) wall has been boarded over.

Outhouse (contributing building): The outhouse is located within a stand of trees about 150 feet behind the cabin. This 4 ft. by 4 ft. wood-frame building is built on a board and stone foundation. It has a gable roof with exposed rafter ends. The exterior walls, roof, and wood door are all covered with wood shingles.

Hahn Guard Station³ (24PW0492; two contributing buildings): Hahn station is located on the east bank of Hahn Creek, just above its confluence with Youngs Creek, the latter a major eastward-flowing tributary of the South Fork Flathead River (Figure 10). The station, which lies at an elevation of 5585 ft., consists of two buildings, a C-1 style cabin and a second building that incorporates a pit toilet and a hay storage area. Although forest engineering records indicate construction of the cabin occurred in 1940, it is almost certainly much older, probably built at approximately the same time as Shaw Cabin, in 1928.

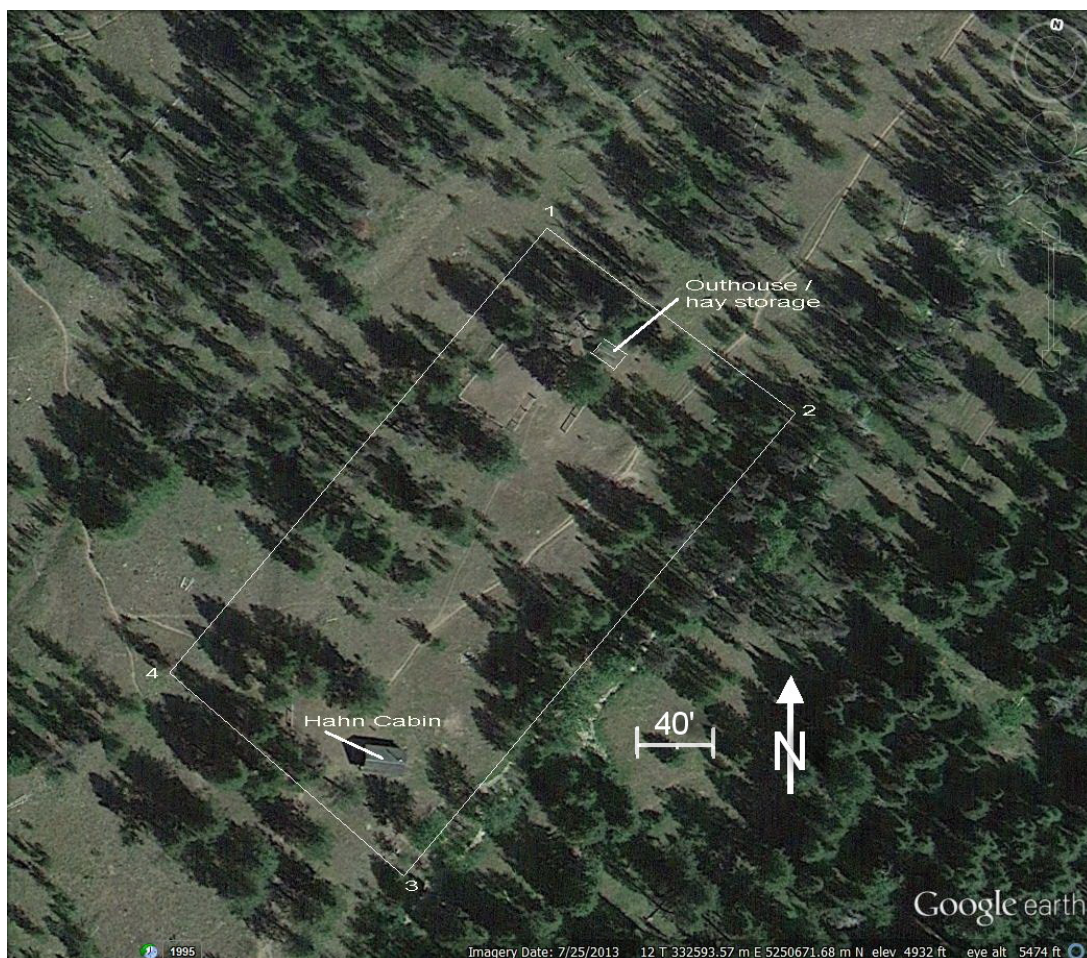


Figure 10. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Hahn Guard Station showing site boundary.

³ Note that Hahn is also spelled Haun in some early inspection reports.

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Hahn Cabin (contributing building): Hahn Cabin is virtually identical to the cabin at Shaw Guard Station, which is located in Gordon Creek, the next drainage north. It measures 12 ft. by 16 ft. with a 5-ft. deep porch and is made of full logs joined at the corners with saddle notches with flush-cut log ends. On the exterior the wall logs are daubed with cement mortar with pole stops. The gable roof has pole rafters with exposed ends and is covered with sawn cedar shingles; a metal stove pipe extends above the roof towards the rear of the building. Door and window placement is also similar to Shaw Cabin, except that both side walls contain one window opening with four-light by four-light sliding sash. In addition, the four-light hopper window adjacent to the door has a hinged shutter that opens awning style. Like most of the other backcountry facilities, Hahn Cabin is supplied with barbed wire mesh on its windows.

Outhouse / hay storage (contributing building): The second building at the site, which incorporates a pit toilet within a hay storage shed, is unique among the forest's backcountry improvements. This 6 ft. by 9 ft. building is located about 200 feet north of the cabin. It is of the same style of construction as the hay barn at Shaw station—built with vertical log walls atop notched log sills. Its gable roof has exposed pole rafters and is covered with wood shingles. The gable ends are also covered with shingles. Forest engineering records indicate that it was built in 1960.

Shaw Guard Station (24PW0491; three contributing buildings): Located at an elevation of 5144 ft., Shaw Guard Station lies adjacent to the confluence of Shaw and Gordon creeks—the latter a major, eastward-flowing tributary of the South Fork Flathead River (Figure 11). Established in 1908, this station consists of a C-1 style log cabin, a hay barn, and an outhouse. The vicinity of the station is heavily timbered, and the cabin occupies a small clearing just south of the Gordon Creek Trail. An outhouse is located in the timber about 100 feet west of the cabin, while the barn and an associated corral are located about 300 feet north. Forest engineering records indicate that the cabin and barn both were built in 1928, while the outhouse was built in 1960.

Shaw Cabin (contributing building): Shaw Cabin is a rectangular (16 ft. by 14 ft.) log bearing building constructed on a concrete pier foundation. The walls are built of full, horizontal logs, joined at the corners with saddle notches, daubed with cement mortar and chinked with small-diameter poles. Log ends at the building's four corners are cut flush. The two gable ends are covered with drop-lap (rustic) siding painted white. The front-gable roof features log purlins and rafters, both with exposed ends. The edge of the 5 ft. deep extended-roof porch is supported by two log columns that rest on the porch decking. The front (east) wall contains an entry with a board and batten door and a window-opening with a four-light hopper sash. The two side walls each contain a central window opening: the opening on the north wall contains a six-light fixed sash, while the south opening contains a four-by-four-light sliding sash. All window openings are covered with a barbed-wire grid for bear proofing.

Hay Barn (contributing building): The hay barn is a rectangular (12 ft. by 14 ft.) one-story building with a front gable roof. It is best described as a log post and beam building: log sill and spandrels, joined at the corners with a lapped notch, rest on stone piers. The steep gable roof and the gable ends are covered with wood shingles. Vertical whole logs, chinked with small-diameter poles form the exterior walls. A large entry with a vertical board door and a window opening are located in the front (southwest) wall. The southeast side also contains a window opening; both window openings are in-filled on the interior with dimensional lumber and on the exterior with plywood.

Outhouse (contributing building): The outhouse (4 ft. by 4 ft.) is built in the same fashion as the barn, with vertical log walls fixed to a cribbed log foundation.

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Figure 11. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Shaw Guard Station showing site boundary.

Pendant Guard Station (24MO0464; two contributing buildings): Pendant Guard Station is located about a quarter of a mile above the confluence of Pendant Creek and Big Salmon Creek—the latter the source of Salmon Lake, on the east slope of the Swan Range (Figure 12). The two buildings at this site, a cabin and an outhouse, occupy a small clearing within a heavily timbered area adjacent to the creek at approximately 5849 ft. above sea level. A modern corral, built since 1989, is located north of the cabin.

Pendant Cabin (contributing building): Pendant Cabin is a rectangular (12 ft. by 16 ft.) one-story, wood-frame building with a front-gable roof. The frame building rests on log sills, which in turn, are supported by concrete piers. Built in 1953, the exterior walls of the building are covered with horizontal drop-lap siding with vertical corner board trim. The roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles, and displays exposed rafter ends. An interior concrete block chimney extends above the roof. The front (south) wall contains an entry in the west half of the wall. The entry contains a vertical board door and a separate welded iron grill that can be closed over the board door. The entry is accessed from a wide wooden stoop. The two sides and rear (north) wall each have two window openings, all located high on the wall, just beneath the eave line. Window openings contain three-light wood sash that open awning style towards the interior of the building. Wire bear proofing covers the exterior of all windows. A frame addition with a shed roof covers the lower half of the rear (north) wall.

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Outhouse (contributing building): An outhouse is located about 65 feet northeast of the cabin. This 4 ft. by 4 ft. building is wood-frame construction, with a shed roof. It is leveled on a foundation of river cobbles. Exterior walls are covered with vertical boards and the roof with wood shingles. A vertical board door occurs in the west wall of the building.



Figure 12. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Pendant Guard Station showing site boundary

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Description of the Middle Fork Administrative Sites: The seven administrative sites in the Middle Fork include: Schafer Ranger Station, Silvertip Guard Station, Pentagon Guard Station, Granite Guard Station, Spruce Park Guard Station, Gooseberry Guard Station, and Challenge Guard Station. All of these sites are located in Flathead County.

Schafer Ranger Station (24FH0428; ten contributing buildings, two contributing structures, one contributing building, one noncontributing structure): Schafer Ranger Station, established as the headquarters for the Big River District, is located on the north bank of the Middle Fork Flathead River in the area known as Schafer Meadows (Figure 13). In the vicinity of the station, which lies at an elevation of 4855 ft., the Middle Fork occupies a wide drainage bottom that accommodates a meandering stream channel. Improvements are located on a level terrace above the river. This area is heavily timbered, except for the cleared and leveled airfield, which is still in active use. The station buildings are located on the south side of the airfield, just inside the tree line, arranged in a roughly linear fashion adjacent to the Big River (Middle Fork) Trail (Figure 14). A post and pole fence surrounds the administrative and domestic buildings, separating them from the corral complex which consists of a barn, hay shed, and tack shed. The corral complex is situated at the northeast corner of the developed area. Ten contributing buildings and two contributing structures are among the station's improvements. Noncontributing resources include one building and one structure.



Figure 13. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Schafer Ranger Station with airstrip and site boundary.

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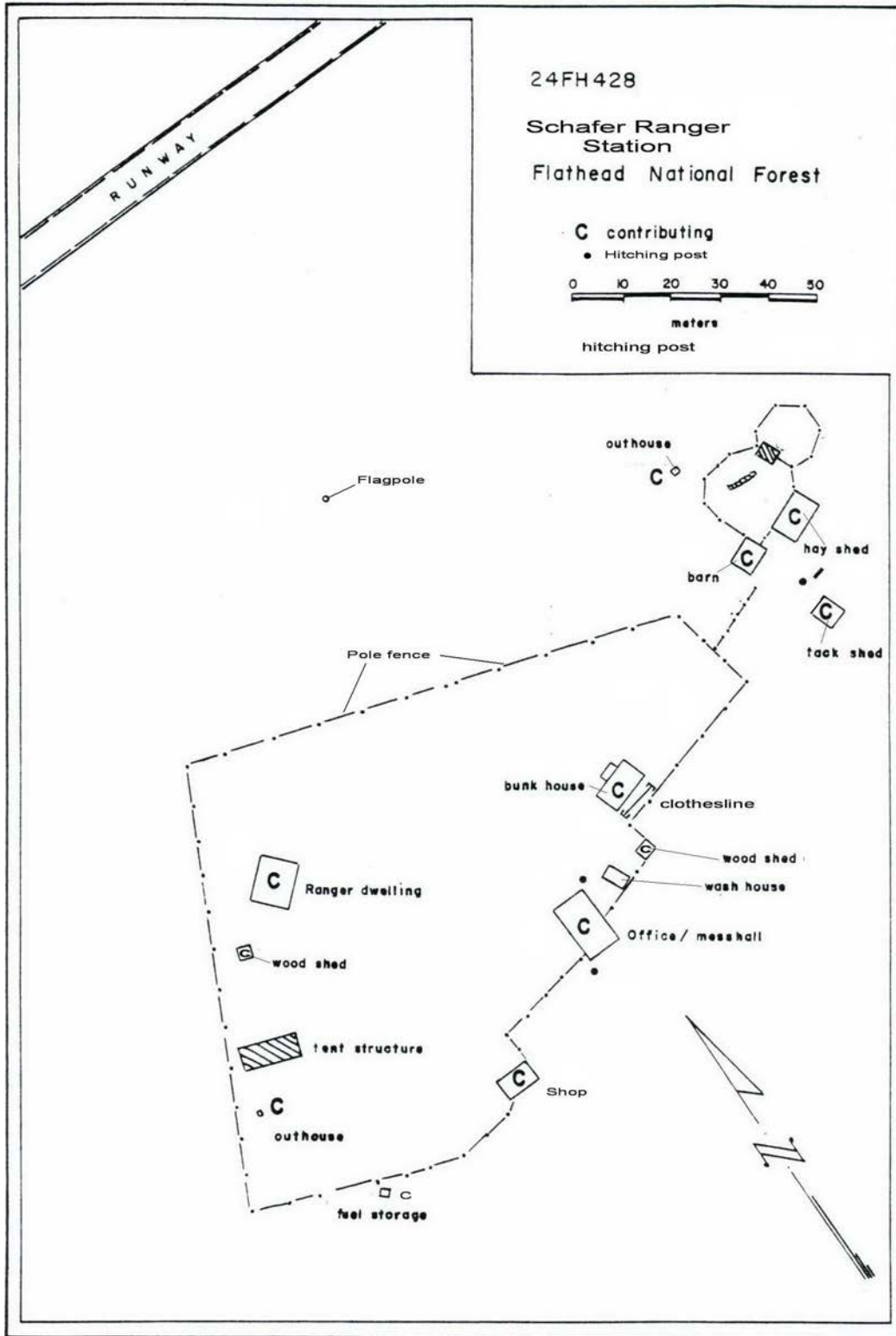


Figure 14. Schafer Ranger Station building cluster site plan.

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Office/mess hall (contributing building): The office / mess hall is virtually identical to the three original buildings at Spotted Bear (built between 1923 and 1925) and Black Bear Cabin (built in about 1926). The Schafer office/mess is a one and one-half story log bearing building constructed over a full concrete basement. The ground floors measure 20 ft. by 30 ft., while the half story measures 20 ft. by 40 ft. The wall of the enclosed half story extends beyond the ground floor wall at the front (north) and rear (south) of the building. Full wall logs are joined at the corners with full dovetail notches. The roof and gable ends are covered with sawn cedar shingles. An interior brick chimney and a metal stove pipe extend above the roof. Window openings contain six-light by six-light sliding wood sash. On the front (north) wall, two log columns support the edge of the half-story. A wide entry with a pair of wood doors (each with four lights above two panels) is centered in the ground floor. A single window opening with a pair of six-light sliding sash is centered in the gable end. Both side walls contain one window opening at the basement level and two evenly spaced windows in the ground floor level. At the rear of the building, the concrete basement is accessed from a heavy board and batten door that slides sideways along an overhead rail. Windows are centered in the ground floor level and in the gable end.

Bunkhouse (contributing building): The bunkhouse is located east of the office/mess hall. This rectangular (17 ft. by 30 ft.) one-story, side-gable building is made with full logs, joined at the corners with compound dovetail notches, and daubed with tar. It is built on a concrete foundation wall. Sawn cedar shingles cover the roof and horizontal drop-lap siding covers the gable ends. An interior brick chimney extends above the roof ridge. On the front (north) wall, a small, open, shed roof porch protects the central entry with a board and batten door and a wood-frame screen door. The porch roof is supported by two log columns. Window openings on either side of the entry porch contain two, two-light sliding sash. Central window openings in each side wall contain two, four-light sliding sash. All of the windows have fixed exterior screens. A clothesline is located adjacent to the rear wall.

Washhouse (noncontributing building): A wood-frame washhouse is located between the office/mess hall and the bunkhouse. Built in about 1970, this one-story building features a front-gable roof that extends past the front (north) wall to form an open porch. The porch roof is supported by two log columns. Exterior walls are covered with log slabs and the roof is covered with wood shingles. A vertical board door is located in the front wall.

Woodshed (contributing structure): A small woodshed is also located adjacent to the southwest corner of the bunkhouse. It is a post and beam structure, enclosed on three sides with horizontal boards. The front north wall is open. The shed roof is covered with wood shingles.

Shop (contributing building): The shop is situated west of the office/mess hall. Built sometime before 1935, this is a rectangular (12 ft. by 16 ft.) one-story log bearing building constructed on concrete piers. It is similar in design to a C-1 style cabin, with a continuous front gable roof that extends beyond the front wall to form an open porch about 5 ft. deep. The overhanging gable at the front of the building is fully enclosed to provide additional interior space. The full wall logs are coped and joined at the corners with compound dovetail notches. Both gable ends are covered with drop-lap siding and the roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles. The front (east) wall has an entry at the south end with a five-panel wood door. A four-light fixed window is centered in the front gable end. The two sides of the building each have a centered window opening with two, six-light sliding sash.

Fuel storage shed (contributing building): The small fuel storage building (built in the early 1960s), is a 5-ft. square, wood-frame building resting on concrete piers. It has a front-gable roof covered with sawn cedar shingles, and its exterior walls are covered with drop-lap siding with vertical corner board trim. A vertical board door is centered in the front (east) wall.

Ranger's dwelling (contributing building): The ranger's dwelling is situated about 150 feet northwest of the office/mess hall. Built in about 1933, this single-family house is virtually identical to the ranger's house at Big Prairie, conforming to the R-15 building plan. It is a rectangular (roughly 24 ft. by 30 ft.) log bearing building with a side gable roof, built on a concrete foundation wall. The full wall logs are coped, joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches, and daubed with tar. The roof sports pole purlins and rafters and is covered with wood shingles. An interior brick chimney extends above the roof on the rear slope. A recessed porch extends across the front (northeast) wall. Four log columns support

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the outer eave, and rest on top of the log walls that enclose the lower third of the porch wall. An entry with a wood door with three panels and four lights is centered in the front wall. Window openings on either side of the entry contain six-over-one-light double-hung wood sash. The northwest side wall contains two windows openings in the ground floor, the larger opening contains two, six-over-one-light wood windows and a smaller opening contains one double-hung window. On the southeast side, the ground floor contains a single, six-over-one-light double-hung window in the front half of the wall, and a six-light hopper window towards the rear of the building. Both gable ends contain two, six-light sliding sash. The rear wall has a central entry with a wood door with three panels and four lights; window openings on either side of the entrance contain one, six-over-one-light double-hung sash.

Ranger's woodshed (contributing structure): A small post and pole woodshed similar to the one adjacent to the bunkhouse is located behind the ranger's dwelling.

Tent frame (noncontributing structure): A post and pole tent frame is located within the timbered area behind the ranger's dwelling. A canvas tarp is attached to the gable top of the frame. During the field season, a canvas wall tent is erected beneath the frame to provide housing for employees passing through the district. This tent frame was built in the late 1980s—outside the period of significance established for the historic district.

Outhouse (contributing building): A small wood frame outhouse is located just south of the tent frame. This 4 ft. by 4 ft. building has a front-gable roof. The exterior walls and the roof are covered with sawn cedar shingles. The front (southeast) wall has a vertical board door with a quarter moon and star cut out.

Barn (contributing building): The barn, built sometime prior to 1935, is a rectangular (15 ft. by 20 ft.), one-story log bearing building with a front-gable roof built on a concrete foundation wall. The wall logs are coped and joined at the corners with full dovetail notches. Sawn cedar shingles cover the roof and the gable ends are covered with horizontal drop-lap siding. The front (northeast) wall contains an entry offset at the right edge of the wall, with a board and batten door paired with a wood screen door. A large, one-light fixed window is located in the gable end above the door. The northwest wall contains a double entry with a sliding board and batten door at the west end of the wall. The rear (southwest) wall features a large fixed window centered in the ground floor.

Hay shed (contributing building): Built circa 1933, the hay shed is a rectangular (19 ft. by 22 ft.) one-story, front-gable, log bearing building built on a concrete foundation wall and stone piers. Walls are constructed of full logs jointed with ventral saddle notches. It appears that the walls on the east half of the hay shed were originally open, but were filled-in with logs at an unknown date. The roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles and the gable ends are covered with vertical boards. The front (southwest) wall contains a vertical board and batten door at the left edge of the wall. A large opening with a board and batten door that slides sideways on an overhead rail is located in the rear (northeast) wall. On the northwest side, another vertical board door opens into the corral. A window opening with one six-light fixed sash is located near the west edge of the wall.

Tack shed (contributing building): The tack shed is located south of the barn and hay shed. It is a rectangular (8 ft. by 12 ft.) log bearing building with a front-gable roof built on a concrete foundation wall. The full wall logs are joined at the corners with square notches and chinked with poles. The roof is covered with wood shingles and has exposed rafter ends. A board and batten door is located in the front (northwest) wall. A one-light fixed window is located in the rear (southeast) wall.

Outhouse (contributing building): A small wood-frame outhouse is located just outside the corral complex. Built circa 1940, this is a 4 ft. by 4 ft. wood-frame building with a shed roof. Vertical log slabs cover the exterior walls and the roof is covered with wood shingles. The door is also made with log slabs.

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Silvertip Guard Station (24FH1231; three contributing buildings): Lying at an elevation of 4392 ft., Silvertip Guard Station is situated on a level, densely forested terrace on the north side of the Spotted Bear River (Figure 15). The three contributing buildings at this site occupy a small clearing within the forest, about 400 feet from the north bank of the river and just north of the Big River Trail. The forest established this station in 1964, after a spring flood destroyed Limestone Guard Station, which was located in the same vicinity.



Figure 15. 2013 GoogleEarth aerial view of Silvertip Guard Station showing site boundary.

Silvertip Cabin (contributing building): Built in 1964, Silvertip Cabin is virtually identical to Salmon Forks Cabin, constructed in the South Fork a year earlier. It is a rectangular (18 ft. by 25 ft.), one-story log bearing building with a side gable roof, built on a concrete foundation. In overall dimension and construction style, it is similar to a Plan C-4 Cabin, published in the 1935 edition of the Region One improvements handbook. The wall logs have a groove or “cope” along the length of the bottom and are joined at the corners with ventral saddle notches. The staggered-length log ends are finished with a ‘chopper’ cut. Sawn cedar shingles cover the roof, which has log purlins and rafters, both with exposed, chopper-cut ends. The top of an interior, concrete block chimney extends above the roof. The front (southwest) and rear walls both have entries with vertical board and batten doors; window openings with one-light by one-light

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sliding sash are located on both sides of the doors. The two side walls each have two window openings with one-light by one-light sliding sash. All windows are fitted with heavy board and batten shutters.

Hay Barn (contributing building): A wood-frame barn, built in 1965 is located about 40 feet west of the cabin. This one-story wood-frame building has a front gable roof and is built on a concrete foundation wall. The roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles and the exterior walls are covered with lapped board siding. A vertical board and batten door is centered in the front wall. A pole corral is located adjacent to the west side of the barn.

Outhouse (contributing building): A wood-frame outhouse, built in 1965, is located inside the tree line behind the cabin. It measures 4 ft. by 5 ft. and has a front-gable roof. The walls are covered with boards and battens and the roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles.

Pentagon Guard Station (24FH0431; three contributing buildings): Situated at an elevation of 4870 ft., Pentagon Guard Station occupies a level terrace on the north bank of the Spotted Bear River, just below its confluence with Pentagon Creek (Figure 16). The area is heavily timbered and the three contributing buildings, a cabin, a small hay barn, and an outhouse, sit within a clearing between the Big River Trail and the river channel.



Figure 16. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Pentagon Guard Station showing site boundary.

Pentagon Cabin (contributing building): Pentagon Cabin, built in the late 1920s or early 1930s, is a C-1 style cabin, modified by enclosing the gable end of the extended porch roof to create an interior sleeping loft. This one-story, log bearing building measures roughly 11 ft. by 15 ft. with a 5 ft. deep porch and sports full log construction joined at the

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corners with expertly executed compound dovetail notches. The walls are daubed on the exterior with cement mortar. Horizontal drop-lap siding covers the front and rear gable ends. The front-gable roof has pole rafters and is covered with sawn cedar shingles. The front (northeast) wall features an entry with a board and batten door offset left of center, with a window adjacent to the right. The two side walls each contain a central window opening with six-light by six-light sliding sash. The two gable ends both have six-light hopper winds. All of the windows are fitted with heavy wire mesh screens for protection against bear break-ins.

Hay barn (contributing building): The hay barn is located about 40 feet southwest of the cabin, adjacent to a circular corral. It is believed to have been built about ten years after the cabin, or between 1935 and 1945. It is a rectangular one-story wood frame building with a front gable roof and a stone pier foundation. The exterior walls are covered with horizontal boards with vertical boards at the corners; sawn cedar shingles cover the roof. The front (northwest) wall has a vertical board door and a six-light fixed window in the gable end. The window is boarded over on the exterior.

Outhouse (contributing building): The outhouse sits west of the cabin. It is a frame building with exterior walls enclosed with whole, vertical logs. Its front-gable roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles. A vertical board door fills the front wall. The date of construction of this building is unknown. However, its style is typical of the 1930s and 1940s and it is believed to date to the historical period.

Gooseberry Guard Station (24FH0430; three contributing buildings): Gooseberry station is situated on the north bank of Strawberry Creek, about a mile above its confluence with Clack Creek, at an elevation of 5302 ft (Figure 17). Strawberry and Clack creeks merge to form the Middle Fork Flathead River. The three contributing buildings at this site, a cabin, a hay barn, and an outhouse, are located within a small clearing between the creek and the main trail that extends up Strawberry Creek to the Continental Divide at Badger Pass.

Gooseberry Cabin (contributing building): Gooseberry Cabin is almost identical to Pentagon Cabin. Measuring roughly 15 ft. by 12 ft. with a 5 ft.-deep porch, it is a modified C-1 style cabin, with compound dovetail notches. Both the front and rear gable ends are covered with drop-lap siding and the front-gable roof is covered with sawn wood shingles. An interior, concrete block chimney extends beyond the ridge line at the rear of the building. The front (south) wall has an entry offset at the east edge of the wall. The two side walls each have one window opening containing two, six-light sliding sash. The front gable end has a four-light hopper-sash window.

Hay barn (contributing building): The hay/tack barn (believed to have been built in 1960) is located west of the cabin at the edge of the tree line. It is a small, one-story, wood-frame building with a front-gable roof, built on stone piers. The exterior walls are covered with vertical half log slabs, and the roof is covered with wood shingles. The front of the building opens into a roughly circular, pole corral.

Outhouse (contributing building): A wood frame outhouse (built in 1960) is located about 100 feet east of the cabin, just inside the tree line. It is wood-frame, and finished on the exterior with half-log slabs, and with wood shingles on the gable roof.

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Figure 17. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Gooseberry Guard Station showing site boundary.

Granite Guard Station (24FH0444; two contributing buildings, one noncontributing building): Located at an elevation of 4378 ft, Granite station, consisting of two contributing and one noncontributing buildings, occupies a rocky bench above the Middle Fork Flathead River adjacent to the main “Big River” trail (Figure 18). The cabin, near the edge of the terrace, is separated from the barn/corral area by a stand of trees. Granite Cabin was built between 1928 and 1929. In 1964 the cabin was swept off its foundation by a massive flood that poured through the Middle Fork canyon. The cabin was placed back on its foundation atop a flat rock outcrop.

Granite Cabin (contributing building): Granite Cabin is a one-story wood-frame building with a front gable roof. This 13 ft. by 17 ft. building is situated atop a level rock outcrop overlooking the river. Wood shingles cover the roof and the exterior walls are covered with 1 by 12-inch lapped boards with vertical corner boards. The lapped board siding has been applied over the original drop-lap siding. The front (northeast) wall contains an entry with a board and batten door offset right of center. The two side walls each contain one window opening; the northwest wall has a six-light fixed sash and the southeast side has a three-light fixed sash. A window in the gable end of the rear wall has a three-light hopper sash that opens inward. All of the windows openings contain fixed metal grates to protect the building from bear break-ins. The entrance also has a metal grate that can be latched over the door when the cabin is vacant.

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Figure 18. 2012 GoogleEarth aerial view of Granite guard Station.

Hay barn (contributing building): The hay barn is located about 100 feet northwest of the cabin, at the edge of the tree line. The 10 ft. by 8 ft. barn has a front gable roof covered with shingles. Exterior walls are covered with ship-lap boards. The front (south) wall of the barn, which faces into the corral, has an entry with a vertical board door.

Outhouse (noncontributing building): A 4 ft. by 4 ft. outhouse is located about 50 feet west of the cabin at the base of a steep hill slope. It is a wood-frame building with a shed roof. Exterior walls are covered with T-111 plywood siding and the roof is covered with fiberglass. A vertical board door is located in the front wall.

Spruce Park Guard Station (24FH1242; one contributing building, two noncontributing buildings): Spruce Park Guard Station (elevation 4092 ft.) is located on a terrace above the east bank of the Middle Fork Flathead River, about 12 miles west of Granite Guard Station (Figure 19). Although the station was established between 1928 and 1929, the 1964 flood destroyed the original improvements at this location. In 1965, the forest built a new cabin at Spruce Park, followed by an outhouse in 1970, and a hay barn in 1980. The cabin is a contributing resource to the district while the outhouse and hay barn are noncontributing.

Spruce Park Cabin (contributing building): Spruce Park Cabin is a rectangular (16 ft. by 24 ft.), one-story, wood-frame building with a side-gable roof, built on a concrete foundation wall. The roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles and has exposed rafter ends. A concrete block chimney extends above the roof near the center of the building. Window

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openings contain one-by-one-light sliding and one-light fixed wood sash. All of the windows opening feature heavy board, top-hinged shutters that can be lowered and secured when the building is vacant. Exterior walls are covered with lapped board siding with metal end finishes. The front (north) wall has a 6 ft. by 6 ft. open porch with an intersecting gable roof. Square posts support the edge of the porch roof. The wall beneath the porch has an entry with a vertical board door that is paired with a wire mesh “bear” screen.



Figure 19. 2013 Google Earth aerial view of Spruce Park Guard Station showing site boundary.

Hay barn (noncontributing building): The hay barn is located about 60 feet east of the cabin adjacent to a pole corral. It is a rectangular (10 ft. 4 in. by 16 ft. 3 in.) one-story, wood-frame building with a side-gable roof. The exterior finishing materials are the same as those found on the cabin. The barn has two entries, one at the north end of the east wall and another at the west edge of the north wall. Both entries contain board and batten doors with a diagonal brace.

Outhouse (noncontributing building): A 4 ft. by 4 ft. wood-frame outhouse is located inside the tree line behind the cabin. It is a wood-frame building with a gable roof. Exterior walls are covered with vertical boards and the roof is covered with sawn cedar shingles. A vertical board door is located in the front wall.

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Challenge Guard Station (24FH0020; one contributing building, two noncontributing buildings): Challenge Guard Station (elevation 5018 ft.), is located adjacent to the confluence of Dodge and Challenge creeks, the two streams that form the headwaters of Granite Creek, a major southward flowing tributary of the Middle Fork Flathead River (Figure 20). This station is about three miles north of the Great Bear Wilderness boundary and is directly accessible from Forest Road 569. Improvements consist of a modified C-1 style log cabin (contributing), two modern buildings (an outhouse and a storage building) that are counted as noncontributing resources, as well as a pole corral.



Figure 20. 2012 Google Earth aerial view of Challenge Guard Station showing site boundary.

Challenge Cabin (contributing building): Built in about 1925, Challenge Cabin is a modified C-1 style cabin with an enclosed sleeping loft, similar to Pentagon and Gooseberry Park cabins. Measuring roughly 11 ft. by 20 ft. (including the porch), it is made of full logs with compound dovetail notches and tar daubing. Its gable ends are covered with drop-lap siding and the front-gable roof is covered with corrugated metal. A metal stovepipe extends above the roof. The front (south) wall contains an entry at its east edge; the entry contains two doors: the interior door is a five-panel wood door, while the outer door is a heavy vertical board and batten door. Both side walls have a central window opening with six-light by six-light sliding sash. A four-light hopper window is located in the front gable end.

Outhouse (noncontributing building): A modern vault toilet built within the last 15 years is located west of the cabin, across an internal access road. Its exterior walls are covered with tongue-and-groove log siding and its gable roof is covered with enameled raised-rib steel roofing.

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Storage building (noncontributing building): The storage building is a one-story post and beam building with a metal covered gable roof.

Buildings and Structures Summary: The buildings and structures associated with the administrative sites within the historic district possess all seven aspects of historical integrity. Because of the extreme isolation of most administrative sites, integrity of location, setting, feeling and association remains strong. Most also possess integrity of materials, workmanship and design: Minor modifications have been made to a few buildings—mostly for the sake of safety. These include the replacement of original interior stone chimneys with concrete block chimneys and the addition of second story egress stairways. Although a few improvements have been removed from the historic district, the majority of the built environment remains intact and is an excellent example of the vernacular buildings designed and built by the Flathead National Forest for its backcountry administrative facilities, from the beginning of its permanent improvements program through the mid 1960s.

Small-scale features

The ranger stations and guard stations in the Middle and South forks of the Flathead River drainage have numerous small-scale features directly associated with the activities that occur at the sites. Although most are of a scale that precludes their inclusion in the resource count for the nomination, and most cannot be dated reliably, collectively they contribute to the historical character of the district. Because so many of the sites depend upon pack stock, many small-scale features are associated with managing and handling livestock. For example, most of the sites have corrals made of locally available logs and poles. Other common small-scale features include feed bunks, hitching posts and rails.

Other features directly associated with the administrative functions are the flagpoles located at Big Prairie and Schafer ranger stations. The poles, flying the America flag, immediately identify the buildings as government facilities. Both are simple structures, made by bolting a peeled pole between two posts. Other small-scale features that reflect domestic activity are the clothes lines that occur at both ranger stations.

Small-scale Features Summary: The variety of small-scale features associated with administrative, domestic, and agricultural activities, found at the administrative sites contributes to the historical character of the historic district. They are not included in the resource count.

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SUMMARY OF CONTRIBUTING AND NONCONTRIBUTING RESOURCES				
Contributing Buildings	Noncontributing Buildings	Contributing Structures	Noncontributing structures	Contributing Sites
Spotted Bear Ranger Station (24FH0027)				
Office	Generator shed			
Warehouse	Generator shed			
Ranger dwelling	Outhouse			
Bunkhouse	Trailer			
Big Prairie Ranger Station (24PW1003)				
Packer's Dwelling		Bunkhouse wood shed		Big Prairie Airfield
Shop		Combination building wood shed		Roush Gravesite
Bunkhouse		Ranger's wood shed		
Combination building		Meat house		
Ranger's dwelling				
Outhouse				
Barn				
Large warehouse				
Small warehouse				
Black Bear Guard Station (24FH0429)				
Black Bear Cabin				Black Bear Airfield
Outhouse				
Tack shed				
Hay barn				
Salmon Forks Guard Station (24FH1243)				
Salmon Forks Cabin				
Tack barn				
Outhouse				
Basin Guard Station (24PW0489)				
Basin Cabin				
Hay barn				
Outhouse				
Danaher Guard Station (24LC0923)				
Danaher Cabin				
Outhouse				
Shaw Guard Station (24PW0491)				
Shaw Cabin				
Hay barn				
Outhouse				
Hahn Guard Station (24PW0492)				
Hahn Cabin				
Storage / pit toilet				
Pendant Guard Station (24MO0064)				
Pendant Cabin				
Outhouse				

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SUMMARY OF CONTRIBUTING AND NONCONTRIBUTING RESOURCES				
Contributing Buildings	Noncontributing Buildings	Contributing Structures	Noncontributing structures	Contributing Sites
Schafer Ranger Station (24FS0428)				
Office/mess hall	Wash house		Tent frame	Schafer Airfield
Bunkhouse		Bunkhouse woodshed		
Shop		Ranger's wood shed		
Fuel storage				
Ranger's dwelling				
Outhouse				
Barn				
Hay shed				
Tack shed				
Corral outhouse				
Silvertip Guard Station (24FH1241)				
Silvertip Cabin				
Hay barn				
Outhouse				
Pentagon Guard Station (24FH0431)				
Pentagon Cabin				
Hay barn				
Outhouse				
Gooseberry Guard Station (24FH0430)				
Gooseberry Cabin				
Hay barn				
Outhouse				
Granite Guard Station (24FH0444)				
Granite Cabin	Outhouse			
Hay barn				
Spruce Park Guard Station (24FH1242)				
Spruce Park Cabin	Hay barn			
	Outhouse			
Challenge Guard Station (24FH0020)				
Challenge Cabin	Outhouse			
	Storage building			
Other				
		Trails System • (355 miles)		
		Telephone Line • (45 miles)		
Total Contributing Buildings = 55	Total Noncontributing Buildings = 10	Total Contributing Structures = 8*	Total noncontributing structures = 1	Total Contributing Sites = 4

- The historic trail system and the telephone system are each counted as one structural system.

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8. Statement of Significance

Applicable National Register Criteria

(Mark "x" in one or more boxes for the criteria qualifying the property for National Register listing.)

- A Property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history.
- B Property is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past.
- C Property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components lack individual distinction.
- D Property has yielded, or is likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Criteria Considerations

(Mark "x" in all the boxes that apply.)

Property is:

- A Owned by a religious institution or used for religious purposes.
- B removed from its original location.
- C a birthplace or grave.
- D a cemetery.
- E a reconstructed building, object, or structure.
- F a commemorative property.
- G less than 50 years old or achieving significance within the past 50 years.

Areas of Significance

(Enter categories from instructions.)

ARCHITECTURE

CONSERVATION

POLITICS/GOVERNMENT

Period of Significance

1905-1965

Significant Dates

1905 (construction of Flathead backcountry trail system begins)

1931 South Fork Primitive Area established.

1933 Pentagon Primitive Area established

1941 (Bob Marshall Wilderness established by the Secretary of Agriculture)

1964 (Passage of the Wilderness Act)

Significant Person

(Complete only if Criterion B is marked above.)

N/A

Cultural Affiliation

N/A

Architect/Builder

Victor Holmlund, Evert Hart, Art Whitney
(builders)

William Fox (FS Architect)

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Period of Significance (justification)

The period of significance reflects the time during which the Flathead National Forest managed its backcountry resources according to its own internal guidelines and policies, from 1905, when the forest began constructing trails into the backcountry, to 1965, when the Forest replaced the improvements at Spruce Park Guard Station which had been destroyed by a massive flood in the spring of 1964.

Criteria Considerations (explanation, if necessary)

N/A

Summary Statement of Significance

The Flathead National Forest's system of administrative sites in the backcountry of the Middle and South forks of the Flathead River is eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places at the state level of significance under Criteria A and C. Ranger district headquarters, guard stations, and the trail and communication systems that connect them, are representative of USDA Forest Service management policies and of the aesthetics that guided the agency's permanent improvements program. Unlike the service's front-country facilities, these physically isolated resources reflect the principals of limited development as it applied first to designated primitive areas (established in 1931) and, in 1940, to the service's own wilderness area policy. The period of significance extends from 1905, when the Forest Service first initiated construction of the South Fork Trail, to 1965, when the Flathead National Forest completed reconstruction of improvements at Silvertip Guard Station lost during a massive flood that impacted the Middle Fork in 1964. Passage of the federal Wilderness Act in 1964 has ensured that the backcountry infrastructure is maintained in a manner consistent with the wilderness principles first espoused by the Forest Service in the early 1920s.

Origins of the Forest Service and the Development of its Permanent Improvement Program⁴

In the latter part of the nineteenth century the United States experienced an industrial revolution. The process of industrialization greatly accelerated the settlement of the West. The industrializing nation's thirst for precious ores spurred the development of mining camps and towns in the mountainous regions, booming beef prices gave rise to cattle kingdoms on the high plains, cities and towns blossomed along the new transcontinental railroad routes, while improvements in agriculture encouraged farmers to homestead the semi-arid intermountain and plains regions. The federal government greatly abetted the process by vanquishing the western Indian tribes and placing them on reservations, and by giving away millions of acres of public domain in the space of a few decades. Critics termed the period "the great barbecue." When the census of 1890 revealed that the western frontier was officially gone, many Americans began to wonder if it had all happened too hastily, with too little regard for native peoples and the environment.

One of the first glimmers of this new thinking occurred with the Forest Reserve Act of 1891, which authorized the President to set apart and reserve forest lands for the public interest. Although this marked an important turning point in federal land policy, the legislation was flawed by a lack of provisions for administration or protection of the forests from trespass and fire. As a result, the General Land Office (GLO) simply closed the reserves to entry or utilization of any kind, pending further congressional action. The withdrawal of these tracts from the public domain angered western stockmen, settlers, miners, and lumbermen and established a pattern of western opposition to forest reserves.⁵

President Grover Cleveland expanded the forest reserve system with his proclamation of thirteen new forest reserves in the West, including the first four in today's Region One: the Lewis and Clark, the Bitter Root, the Flathead, and the Priest

⁴ The first part of Section 8 is summarized from the historic context written by Theodore Catton in 1991. Janene Caywood, Ted Catton, and James R. McDonald, "Evaluation of Region 1 Forest Service-Owned Buildings for Eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places," contracted report prepared for Region 1, Missoula Montana, 1991.

⁵ Samuel Trask Dana, *Forest and Range Policy: Its Development in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956), 100-2.

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River forest reserves. Cleveland's action, taken at the end of his term on February 22, 1897, outraged many westerners, and Congress reacted with a bill authorizing the next President to cancel forest reserves, which Cleveland pocket vetoed shortly before leaving office.

In July, Congress passed the Organic Administrative Act. This law stipulated that the purpose of forest reserves was to protect watersheds and lands that were chiefly valuable for sustained timber production. It exempted lands that were better suited for agricultural or mining purposes, and it provided for the rudiments of administration. Gifford Pinchot later described this act as the second most important law in the history of American forestry, marking the "beginning of Government Forestry in the woods."⁶

The Department of Interior quickly issued regulations for the administration of the forest reserves, one of which was the appointment of a forest supervisor for each reserve. The forest supervisor was responsible for hiring rangers and assigning these men to ranger districts. This early administration of the forests by the GLO had many shortcomings. The forest reserves were unsurveyed and much confusion about ranger district boundaries existed. All personnel were overburdened with paperwork, which diverted them from more urgent tasks in the field. Moreover, the GLO's use of the political patronage system led to the appointment of many incompetent or negligent administrators. The whole bureaucracy suffered from over-centralization, and a lack of appreciation in the nation's capital for the frontier conditions that pertained on the forest reserves.⁷

One of the GLO's most persistent critics was Gifford Pinchot, chief of the Division of Forestry in the Department of Agriculture. Pinchot replaced Bernhard Fernow as head of the division in 1898. Fernow, a German, stamped the research-oriented Forestry Division with the scientific methods of the German school of forestry. The aggressive new chief forester was not satisfied with the Division of Forestry's traditional role as a research institution; he pushed for more involvement in the administration of forest lands. Pinchot was convinced that American forestry must be adapted to a situation of resource abundance, substituting practical, extensive forestry methods for the intensive forestry practices being developed in Europe. Under Pinchot, forestry soon achieved bureau status, while its staff increased from 11 to 179, including 81 student assistants, by 1901.⁸ These dedicated young men, mostly educated in the new professional forestry schools, later formed a cadre for the U.S. Forest Service.

The chief forester's second objective was to affect a transfer of the administration of forest reserves from the GLO to his own bureau. In 1899, Pinchot personally inspected the Priest River, Flathead, and Lewis and Clark forest reserves, presenting his ideas for a reorganized forest service to the GLO commissioner. Under President Theodore Roosevelt's administration, Pinchot's Forestry Division regularly advised the GLO on management of forest reserves. Not satisfied, however, Pinchot had a bill introduced in Congress in 1902 for the transfer of the forest reserves from the Department of Interior to the Department of Agriculture. Although this bill was defeated, a similar bill passed both houses of Congress and was signed into law by President Theodore Roosevelt in 1905.

The Transfer Act of February 1, 1905 marks the beginning of the U.S. Forest Service and the jurisdictional transfer of millions of acres of forested land from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Agriculture. The secretary of agriculture was charged with the protection, administration, improvement, and extension of forest reserves. Five months after the passage of the Transfer Act, the Bureau of Forestry was officially renamed the U.S. Forest Service. Pinchot's utilitarian philosophy received expression in Secretary James Wilson's directive to the new agency that "all land is to be devoted to its most productive use for the permanent good of the whole people."

These three acts of legislation, the Forest Reserve Act of 1891, the Organic Administrative Act of 1897, and the Transfer Act of 1905, were fundamental to the development of the Forest Service in the Northern Region. The legislation set a pattern of federal leadership in the development of wise land use practices. The transfer of the forest reserves to the Department of Agriculture effectively combined in one agency the responsibilities for scientific resource planning and

⁶ Gifford Pinchot, *Breaking New Ground* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1947) 113-117.

⁷ E. T. Allen "Lest We Forget!: A Tribute to the National Forest Pathfinders." *American Forests* 36:392-395, 1939.

⁸ Dana, *Forest and Range Policy: Its Development in the United States*, 143.

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extensive land management. Most of the forest reserves were located in the West, and included lands that were wild and undeveloped. Thus, the federal government's venture into forestry had to reconcile a scientific approach with frontier conditions. Rustic accommodations, long periods of isolation, and frequent travel on foot or horseback became a way of life in the Forest Service. These frontier conditions are reflected in the buildings and other improvements constructed or used by the Forest Service.

The origins of the Forest Service also established the new agency's historic relationship to the West. Since a large majority of the national forest system is located in the West, western political support of Forest Service policies has remained vital to the agency. In the early days of the Forest Service, the attitude of westerners was problematical. Not only did rangers risk violent confrontation with the local population in implementing Forest Service regulations, but the entire agency was threatened with fiscal strangulation by hostile western congressmen. The land management policies of the Forest Service were at odds with traditional western land use patterns. Restrictions on homesteading the open range, and game and timber harvests were greeted with open opposition. A hostile west was for the first time faced with an agency for which progress meant the management and not the taking of natural resources.

Because of the conflict and opposition to management, the Forest Service tried to blend in with the local culture. A significant provision in the Transfer Act required administrators to hire local men whenever possible. On many forests, early development work focused on improving the range for stockmen, and in some cases, rangers and cowboys shared quarters—the rangers occupying a cabin in the summer and the cowboys using it in spring and fall. Every effort was made to assure the local population that lands most suitable for agriculture would be reserved for homesteaders, and that the interests of the local settler would be best served by Forest Service controls:

Had not the president created these additional reserves, a long time would have elapsed before the reassemblings of the congress, during which the timber syndicates would have as heretofore continued to gobble the public timber lands. ... The forest bureau proposed to protect the small live stock owner from the aggressions of the wealthy stockmen, and as in the past to see that the settler has his rights conserved. Most people believe that miners and settlers whose lands are included within these reserves are losing their privileges. On the contrary, every privately owned tract remains exactly as it was before the reserve was created We want to prevent ... large bodies of the public domain from passing into the possession of greedy syndicates.⁹

Such rhetoric was not simply a reiteration of Progressive theory, it was designed to alleviate Western fears that homestead and ranching opportunities were being circumvented by an Eastern bureaucratic invention. The agency's desire to blend with local culture is reflected in Forest Service buildings. For the most part, building construction incorporated indigenous materials and vernacular styles of architecture.

Administration by the General Land Office, 1898-1904

Initially, the GLO assigned the administration of forest reserves to state superintendents. Later, the superintendents gained the assistance of forest supervisors, who were placed in charge of each reserve. Both the superintendents and the forest supervisors were politically appointed, often with the patronage of their congressmen. Critics like Pinchot charged that some of these men were patently unfit for their jobs. Others have argued that the political patronage system, despite its flaws, yielded fairly high caliber men for the job. As one early forester later wrote, "At that time there existed nowhere, in any Government department or in private life, a source of men technically and administratively trained to combine the varied and difficult requirements of forest management under conditions confronted."¹⁰

Superintendents, and then forest supervisors, hired a force of rangers to patrol the back-country and to protect the reserves from destruction by forest fire or timber trespass. These early rangers were usually local men, skilled with a horse and an ax but without much practical knowledge of forestry. They furnished their own horses and gear, and payed their own expenses for a modest compensation of \$50 per month. Frequently they were placed in charge of a district with a minimum of instruction as to how they were to make themselves useful. "They had little or no experience in

⁹ *The Western News* (Hamilton, Montana), March 4, 1909.

¹⁰ Allen, "Lest We Forget!: A Tribute to the National Forest Pathfinders."

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representing Uncle Sam,” one of them wrote later, “and found it hard, in the contests into which they were plunged, to know whether he expected firmness or leniency. Anyway he seemed very distant when some delegate to Congress vigorously supported their adversaries.”¹¹ Western opposition to the forest reserves was still intense; it was commonly believed that government forestry was a Republican idea that would be eliminated by the next Democratic administration. Ranger Clarence B. Swim recalled one resistant westerner in 1904 commenting to him, “Are you a forest ranger? God, rangers are getting thicker than fiddlers in hell!”¹²

The six years of forest administration by the GLO were a time of training and experimentation. Congress allotted scant funding for salaries and none for improvements such as administrative buildings. Forest supervisors did not attempt to develop systematic plans for development of roads and trails; instead, forest rangers built trails and other improvements on the basis of immediate need with whatever time they had available.

Perhaps the most important development during these years was the dramatic expansion of the forest reserve system by presidential proclamation. When Theodore Roosevelt became President in 1901, Gifford Pinchot knew at once that the time was propitious to extend the forest reserves in the West. Between 1902 and 1904, Pinchot directed his Forestry Bureau to undertake boundary surveys of all the forest reserves and to recommend additional forest areas. Most of these surveyors were young men recently graduated from the new forestry schools in the East. Using a combination of GLO township plats, county maps, and U.S. Geological Survey maps, they rode through each township constructing their own rough maps of the forest cover. As each unit was completed a proclamation was drafted and submitted to President Roosevelt for his approval. In this way, most of the forested lands in the West, including a large portion of the national forest system in today’s Region One, were added to the forest reserves.¹³ Many Montana forests, such as the Big Belt, Ekalaca, Hell Gate, Long Pine, and Missoula, had only a brief existence until they were combined with other forests. By 1907, the region contained nearly 30 million acres under federal protection. This total eventually dropped to 22 million as certain lands were determined to be more appropriate for agricultural use than they were for timber production or watershed protection.¹⁴

Establishment of the U.S. Forest Service, 1905-1910

The U.S. Forest Service of today traces its origins to the Transfer Act of 1905. This law reassigned administration of the forest reserves to the Forestry Bureau in the Department of Agriculture. It also provided for increased expenditures by the Forest Service for the protection, administration, and development of the forest’s resources. Chief Forester Pinchot, in order to demonstrate to the American public his agency’s commitment to the use of the forests both by the present and future generations, had the forest reserves renamed national forests a year later.

Pinchot’s first action was to appoint inspectors to visit the various superintendents and forest supervisors and recommend their retention or dismissal. Even though Pinchot railed against the poor quality of politically appointed forest supervisors, many were found to be competent and sincere men and were invited into the ranks of the new agency. Still, there was an immediate need for new personnel, and a series of ranger examinations were held in Missoula, Bowman, and Neihart, to attract good local men.

As Pinchot had promised westerners, he wanted his agency’s field administration to draw upon the local population and to reflect its traditions. The examinations included two days of outdoor events — riding a horse, packing a horse or mule, rifle and pistol shooting, use of an ax, and basic compass surveying and pacing — and one day for a written test. Elers Koch administered several ranger examinations between 1905 and 1910. The examinations, he later wrote, were a

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² USDA Forest Service *Early Days in the Forest Service Vol. 1*(Missoula, Montana, USDA Forest Service, Northern Region, 1944),185.

¹³ Elers Koch, “Launching the U.S.F.S. in the Northern Region,” *Forest History*, October, 1965.

¹⁴ Robert D. Baker, Larry Burt, Robert S. Maxwell, Victor H. Treat and Henry C. Dethlogg, “A Living Legacy; The National Forests of the Northern Region 1908-1988.” Draft Report, unpublished manuscript prepared for the Washington Office of the Forest Service, 1987.

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great success. "They included all sorts, from packers and bar-keeps to first-class woodsmen or cowpunchers The written test eliminated the illiterates and the field tests insured that we got experienced hands."¹⁵

The Forest Service soon acquired a reputation in the federal government for bureaucratic efficiency and extraordinary *esprit d'corps*. In part, this was due to the relative youth of the large majority of its field personnel. It was also due to the dynamism of Gifford Pinchot, who infused the agency with a strong sense of mission and institutional pride. A third factor for the high morale in the Forest Service was Pinchot's emphasis on decentralized authority, a tradition that his successors by and large continued.

One of the most significant innovations of the Forest Service after the Transfer Act of 1905 was the adoption of a pocket-sized "Use Book," containing a brief digest of forest regulations. Intended for both field personnel and the general public, this handbook set forth in simple prose the agency's standards and goals. It served to familiarize the new force of rangers with Forest Service policy, and to allay the public's fears that the agency intended to "lock up" resources on the national forests. The use book went through several editions during the first decade of the agency's existence, and was eventually expanded into several volumes on such topics as forest protection and timber sales. In its original form, it could be easily carried in a coat pocket or a saddle bag for quick reference whenever the ranger needed to explain the government's policies to a wary public.

In Montana and northern Idaho, the ranger's most common contacts with the public were not, as one might expect, with lumbermen; rather they were with stockmen, miners, and homesteaders, all of whom were intent on using national forest lands for their own purposes. The rangers instituted grazing permits among the range users, organized stock associations, and promoted an understanding of wise range management among the public. They investigated mining and homestead claims to verify that the requirements of the law were followed. These activities frequently incited resistance, although most rangers reported that the local opposition to the Forest Service generally melted as the rangers made the government's regulations better understood. Ranger Roy Phillips recalled that he "learned to mingle and avoid heated arguments."¹⁶ Ranger Albert F. Cole remembered that he accomplished his first task on the Deerlodge National Forest—the formation of a livestock association—with surprising speed, for the cattlemen were anxious to form such an association, but had been under the impression that the Forest Service would not cooperate.¹⁷

The Forest Homestead Act of June 11, 1906 provided for the withdrawal of national forest lands for agriculture upon the request of a claimant after examination and approval by the Forest Service. From the agency's standpoint, this law produced something of a land rush. Many forest rangers experienced a deluge of requests for surveys of these so-called "June 11 claims." It became evident that the sizable number of claims threatened to preempt the Forest Service from securing good agricultural and pasture land for its own administrative sites; farsighted officials believed that the Forest Service must make its own withdrawals in order to preserve the agency's ability to develop administrative sites in the future. Over the next several years, rangers were very busy not only investigating the June 11 claims, but recommending and surveying administrative site withdrawals for the government as well.

The use book provided rangers with a clear guide for selecting the most suitable administrative sites. "Eventually all the rangers who serve the year round will be furnished with headquarter cabins on the reserves," the 1905 edition states. According to the use book:

Rangers' cabins should be located where there is enough agricultural land for a small field and suitable pasture land for a few head of horses and a cow or two, in order to decrease the often excessive expense for vegetables and feed. In course of time several rangers' camps will be needed for each township, and selections of sites should be made with this in view. The amount of agricultural land necessary to supply a ranger's family with vegetables and to raise hay and grain enough to winter his saddle and other stock will vary greatly in different localities, but as a general rule it will not be less than 10 nor more than 40 acres. The field must, of course, be inclosed by a stock-proof fence.

¹⁵ Elers Koch, "Launching the U.S.F.S. in the Northern Region."

¹⁶ Roy Phillips in, *Early Days in the Forest Service Vol. II* (Missoula: USDA Forest Service, Northern Region, 1955).

¹⁷ Albert F. Cole in, *Early Days in the Forest Service Vol. II* (Missoula: USDA Forest Service, Northern Region, 1955).

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The pasture should be of sufficient size to support the stock not in use by the ranger during the summer, and only in cases where it is obviously necessary should they include land that could be used for agriculture. They will vary in size, according to the quality of the feed, from 40 to 200 acres. A two or three wire fence strung on posts or trees 30 feet apart will, in most cases, be sufficient to protect these pastures from range stock.¹⁸

Forest supervisors had to approve all administrative site withdrawals. Care needed to be taken that the recommended sites did not conflict with prior mineral or homesteading claims. In subsequent years, Forest Service regulations required rangers to evaluate the potential for irrigation on all recommended administrative sites and to avoid sites which would “unnecessarily retard development by settlers of agricultural land within the national forest.”¹⁹ Rangers prepared a standard administrative site withdrawal form for each recommendation, which included such information as acreage, water supply, prior claims, existing improvements, and explanation of need.

Administrative sites functioned as staging areas for the re-supply of back-country rangers, seasonal forest guards and lookouts. Forest rangers selected administrative site parcels along common routes of travel — generally no more than one days horse ride from one another. Prior to the 1920s, there were few roads in the national forests, and travel by horse was the rangers’ primary mode of travel. Therefore, selection of administrative sites with adequate pasture was of primary concern. Other considerations included providing convenient access to the general public, proximity to timber sale areas, or to areas with exceptional fire hazard.

In the early years, nearly all forest officers had to find or construct their own living accommodations, even in the back-country. Superintendents usually established their headquarters at some convenient point near the reserve, on a ranch, in a hotel room, in a house in town. Rangers often scrounged to find a livable place in their district. They frequently occupied cabins left vacant by prospectors or trappers, or simply spent the summer in tents.

To some it seemed an enviable way of life. Clyde P. Fickes, who later contributed greatly to the development and formalization of Region 1’s building program, was camped with his cousin on the South Fork of the Flathead River one fall evening when he met two forest rangers and their packstring “bringing out the camps used during the summer.” The pleasing impression that this made on Fickes led him to apply for a ranger job a year and a half later. In 1907, Fickes began his Forest Service career as the ranger of the Sun River district on the Lewis and Clark National Forest.²⁰

In the early years, funds for improvements were still so scarce that authorization to spend anything for new building construction had to come from the chief forester. Nevertheless, the use books attempted to lay out standards for agency buildings. Cabins were to be built of logs wherever possible, with shingle or shake roofs. They were to be large enough to accommodate a ranger’s family, and the ranger was to take proper care of the building and grounds. A 1907 circular to forest supervisors stated that all rangers’ privies had to be more than fifty yards from the cabin, with at least a 6-foot vault.²¹ Forest Service personnel, who generally had to donate the time needed to construct improvements, did not necessarily follow these instructions to the letter. However, the existence of these guidelines at such an early period, portended a time when greater funding would allow more direction and uniformity in building design and site development.

Meanwhile, the bureaucratic organization for administration of the national forests was evolving rapidly. As Pinchot gained confidence in the men that he had inherited from the General Land Office, he steadily shifted authority from his hand-picked “investigators” to the forest supervisors. William B. Greeley, head of the new Region One office in Missoula in 1909, supported the chief forester’s aim of decentralization. Greeley recommended to Pinchot that the chief forester apportion annual improvement funds directly to each forest, based upon the forest supervisor’s annual estimates for permanent improvements. Greeley’s purpose was to allow the forest supervisor to transfer funds from one class of

¹⁸ United States Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, *The Use of the National Forest Reserves: Regulations and Instructions* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1905).

¹⁹ United States Department of Agriculture, *Forest Service National Forest Manual 1911-1913* (Washington: Government Printing Office).

²⁰ Clyde P. Fickes, *Recollections* (Missoula: USDA Forest Service, Northern Region, 1972).

²¹ Harold K. Steen, *The U.S. Forest Service: A History* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1976).

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improvement work to another, without permission from the regional office, in order to ensure the completion of more projects.²² As Greeley's plan was put into effect, forest supervisors became the key actors in planning and authorizing new building construction. The regional office thus assumed an oversight role, providing an increasing amount of technical assistance through its staff of civil engineers, architects, and landscape architects as the years went by.

The Beginnings of Management Planning

In 1910, President William H. Taft fired Gifford Pinchot from the position of chief forester and appointed Henry S. Graves, dean of the Yale Forestry School, in his place. Graves headed the Forest Service from 1910 to 1920, during which time his greatest challenge was to wring adequate annual appropriations from Congress to keep his agency viable. Five years of experimentation in fire control and preliminary administrative site surveys by the Forest Service had prepared the ground for a concerted program of management planning under the direction of Chief Forester Graves. Working with stringent budgets imposed by a skeptical Congress, Graves devised a system for management planning oriented around each national forest.

Graves required forest supervisors to prepare three types of plans. The preliminary forest plan provided an overview of long range objectives. The working forest plan was a more finished rendition of the preliminary plan, and would be the main management planning tool. The annual forest plan provided budget estimates for improvement projects in the forthcoming fiscal year. Each plan had to cover 1) general administration, 2) silviculture management, 3) grazing management, 4) permanent improvements, 5) forest protection, and 6) uses of the forest, such as settlements, special uses, water power, and administrative sites. Under the fourth category, permanent improvements, the plan had to address all classes of improvements relating to protection, administration, and development of the forest. These included trails, roads, bridges, telephone lines, signal systems, permanent and temporary quarters, pasture fences, lookouts, fire lines, fire tool caches, stock driveways, and anything else that was necessary for the use of the range or to improve timber access. The chief forester wanted cost estimates and maps. In addition, he requested a map of the whole forest showing all administrative sites either "selected" or "proposed," together with patrol and lookout stations, tree nurseries, and sites needed for logging operations²³.

Graves allotted funds to each forest for permanent improvements based upon the forest supervisors' plans and cost estimates. Following Greeley's recommendation to Pinchot, Graves authorized forest supervisors to transfer funds from one approved project to another, as long as it did not entail the abandonment of a project. Finally, the chief forester apportioned five percent of the total improvement allotment to the regional offices, as a contingent fund for completing projects that were experiencing cost overruns.²⁴

Graves explained the necessity of permanent improvements on the national forests in his annual report for 1911. All construction projects were aimed at facilitating 1) forest protection from fire, 2) administration of the business of the forest, and 3) development of the forest's resources. These three broad categories — protection, administration, and development — served for years as a shorthand method for describing the agency's progress to Congress. They also neatly set priorities for the various projects in each forest's permanent improvements plans.²⁵ It was no coincidence that these categories echoed certain language in the Transfer Act, which charged the secretary of agriculture with the "protection, administration, improvement, and extension" of the national forests. Improvements relating to forest protection received first priority. Initially, the most vital forest protection work involved the development of communications — primarily roads and trails. Graves reported at the end of 1911, "The building of lookout towers and establishing of telephone communications has as yet been hardly ... begun." In his 1912 annual report, Graves noted that the "main effort" continued to be construction of "trails, telephone lines, and lookout stations."

²² William B. Greeley to Gifford Pinchot, May 11, 1909. USDA Forest Service, Northern Region Archives, Missoula, Montana.

²³ USDA, *Forest Service National Forest Manual 1911-1913* (Washington: Government Printing Office).

²⁴ *Ibid.*

²⁵ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Forester for 1911* by Henry S. Graves (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1911).

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Administrative buildings received second priority. The chief forester deemed that quarters were essential for the efficient transaction of business, the safeguarding of government property, and the convenience of the public. Nevertheless, construction of new ranger stations was allowable only where no other accommodations were available; in most cases, rangers were expected to find their own housing and perform their official duties out of their home. The agency's stringent policy was in direct response to legislation, which stated that the cost of any Forest Service building could not exceed \$650.²⁶

Permanent improvements aimed at developing the resources of the forest were given last priority. Still, the Forest Service could report such improvements in this category as stock driveways, range fences, stock dams, and forest access roads, mostly built and paid for by the forest and range users themselves. In some cases, the Forest Service entered agreements with private interests for construction of such improvements on the condition that title would pass to the government after a given amount of years. In other cases, title was immediately vested in the government while private interests were allowed the use of the new facility.

The Influence of Automobile Travel on Forest Service Management and Facilities Development

The growing importance of the automobile in American life and the national economy did much to alter the frontier conditions of the first two decades of the twentieth century. The automobile helped to stimulate a construction boom in the 1920s that featured massive federal spending on road and highway development, with a sizable portion earmarked for roads on the national forests. New roads allowed an increasingly mobile public to visit the forests for sightseeing, picnicking and camping. The roads increased the value of the forests' timber and mineral resources by bringing them closer to markets. The Forest Service's adoption of motorized transport in the 1920s facilitated administration, resulting in the consolidation of many ranger districts. It also aided the movement of men and supplies for firefighting. Finally, roads on the national forests brought grocery stores and other amenities within a day's automobile trip for most forest officers, allowing the men in the field to enjoy a more domesticated lifestyle. All of these changes in forest development, forest use, and the Forest Service's budget profoundly influenced the agency's permanent improvement program in the 1920s.

As early as 1912, Congress took action to stimulate road building on the national forests. The Agricultural Appropriation Act of August 10, 1912 entitled the Forest Service to 10 percent of all receipts from timber sales on national forests for construction of roads and trails in the forests where the sales were made. Between 1912 and 1916, the Forest Service spent \$780,000 on road construction and maintenance, repairing 580 miles of road and completing 860 miles of new ones. Within Region One, this included a new road between the Big Hole and Bitterroot Valleys, and an important road link between the Flathead Valley and the Spokane area, which was known as the Inland Empire.²⁷

Despite this new source of funds, it became apparent that some other boost by the federal government was needed to provide the national forests with an adequate road system. Timber sale receipts on many forests were very small, owing mainly to the very lack of roads that the 10 percent fund was meant to overcome. Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson asked Congress for the means to plan road development in conjunction with timber appraisals and forecasts of the future income of each forest. Congress responded with the Federal Aid Road Act in 1916. This act included an appropriation of \$1,000,000 a year for ten years for road construction on national forests. The Forest Service entered a cooperative agreement with the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering, whereby the former agency approved the projects and the latter performed the surveys, developed specifications, and supervised construction work.²⁸

In 1917, Region One timber sales receipts rose significantly as lumbering increased in response to production requirements associated with the World War. As a result, the Forest Service's appropriation of \$400,000 for permanent improvements and \$1,000,000 for road construction in that year was augmented by an additional \$427,305.77 available

²⁶ Ibid.

²⁷ O. C. Merrill "Opening Up the National Forests by Road Building," in Yearbook of the United States Department of Agriculture (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1916).

²⁸ Ibid.

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from timber sale receipts.²⁹ Further funds for road construction on national forests were included in legislation enacted in 1919 and 1921. The largest sums yet for road construction on national forests were provided by the Federal Highway Act of November 9, 1921.³⁰ By 1924, the Forest Service's annual budget for road construction had risen to \$9,351,142.78, outstripping all other expenses by the agency by more than a million dollars.³¹

Prior to the 1921 act, construction of roads and trails consumed most of the Forest Service's annual appropriation for permanent improvements. After the Federal Highway Act was passed, roads became a separate line item in the Forest Service's annual budget, and the agency was able to devote most of its improvement funds to building construction. The chief forester's annual reports indicate that expenditures for new building construction reached a high in this decade of \$1,177,937.76 in the 1924 fiscal year, dropped to \$550,659.94 the next year, and rose incrementally to \$932,680.28 by fiscal year 1930. Thus the Federal Highway Act contributed indirectly to a significantly expanded building construction program on the national forests in the 1920s.

Forest Protection in the 1920s

Communications were critical to the protection of forest resources, as indicated by the high priority given to the construction of phone lines during the initial period of infrastructure development. The agency first attempted to install telephone communications using a fine, insulated wire that hung from tree limbs. It was prone to breakage from falling trees or branches or from deer and elk that snagged their antlers on it. The first dependable communication came with the advent of standard Forest Service, single-wire tree line, which used No. 9 galvanized wire; the earth served to complete the circuit. The line was attached to ceramic insulators that were in turn attached to trees; the insulators would break free when a tree fell across the line. By the end of the second decade of the 1900s, an extensive system of single wire phone lines connected most of the region's backcountry facilities with their respective supervisors' offices.

In order to enhance its ability to find and extinguish wild fires, Region began to experiment with the construction of fire lookouts as early as 1915. Two of the earliest lookouts were built according to the standard "District Six" design—a 12 ft. by 12 ft. frame building with an observation cupola in the center of the gable roof. By the 1920s, the lookout construction received high priority in terms of funding. Between 1921 and 1925, forests in Region One built 61 lookouts. By the end of the decade, the total number of manned lookouts in Region One reached around 800, most connected by phone lines to ranger district headquarters.³²

Also in the 1920s, the Forest Service experimented with the use of aircraft for various phases of forest protection. As early as 1918, then Chief Forester, Henry S. Graves, suggested that the Forest Service and the Army Air Corps cooperate to conduct fire patrols. However, it was not until 1925 that Regional Fire Chief, Howard Flint, organized the first Region One air patrol in Spokane, Washington. Flint also experimented with aerial photography that year, and in 1930 the first cargo drops (without parachutes) were successfully employed to assist firefighting efforts on the St. Joe and Nez Perce National Forests.³³ By the end of the 1920s, the future of the airplane in forest protection was assured. New departmental regulations adopted in 1929 included a provision for the issuance of permits for public landing fields on national forests.³⁴ The following year construction commenced on seven backcountry landing fields in Montana and northern Idaho. The first of these airstrips, at Moose Creek on the Selway National Forest and at Big Prairie on the Flathead National Forest, were completed prior to the 1931 fire season. At the end of the year, over 300 passengers and sixty-five tons of freight had been hauled by air.³⁵

²⁹ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Forester for 1917* by Henry S. Graves (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1917).

³⁰ Dana, *Forest and Range Policy: Its Development in the United States*.

³¹ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Forester for 1924* by William B. Greeley (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1924).

³² Ralph Hand, Memorandum "History of Region 1 Lookout System," August 23 1954. USDA Forest Service Region 1 Archives, Missoula, Montana.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ *American Forests and Forest Life*, 1929.

³⁵ Ralph Hand, Memorandum "History of Region 1 Lookout System," August 23, 1954. Region 1 Archives, Missoula, Montana.

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By the late 1920s and early 1930s, Region One also began the process of enhancing its communications systems by experimenting with various types of radio transmissions, including using radios in conjunction with its fire air patrol. "Radios had several advantages for the Forest Service over phones, including lack of reliance on fixed lines, relatively private conversations, and the elimination of delays caused by a backlog of calls at the local switchboard."³⁶ The system adopted by Region One, was a point-to-point contact system through an inter-forest network, emphasizing high power, fixed-base stations and semi-portable radios. Radio transmissions typically covered between 50 and 100 miles.

In 1929, Clarence Westcott served as part of a crew that installed the "first radio network on lookouts in Region One, in connection with air detection and [fire] suppression."³⁷ During a month-long trip between June 19 and July 17 Westcott, along with two packers, a photographer, and the head of communications in the region, installed radios at Fall Point Lookout, Sentinel Lookout, Mud Lake Lookout, Bungalow Lookout, Red Plume, Mt. Wright, and Prairie Reef. Later in July, Westcott returned to the Lincoln Ranger District on the Helena National forest to install the last radio in the Stonewall Lookout, which completed the network. Covering parts of the Flathead, Lewis and Clark, Helena, and Lolo forests, this network became known as the Continental Area or Continental Unit.³⁸

Changing Forest Use: Recreation in the National Forests

The Forest Service modified its management plans in the 1920s to accommodate a burgeoning number of auto tourists, picnickers, and campers. In one tourist season nearly seven million people visited the national forests. The agency began to weigh aesthetic forest values against the dollar figures attached to timber sales, mineral leases, and grazing permits. Such a reorientation, Chief Forester William B. Greeley explained in 1924, was consistent with the Forest Service's dictum of managing the forests for "the greatest good of the greatest number in the long run." The chief forester emphasized that the Forest Service was responding to popular demand. "The American people," he wrote, "have taken possession of the National Forests as one of their great playgrounds."³⁹

The Forest Service had good reasons for welcoming recreational use of the forests. One was to obtain broad-based political support for the development of the forests. Public demand for access to the forests translated into federal dollars for road construction, which in turn increased the value of all other natural resources with which the forest were endowed. Another reason was the establishment of the National Park Service in 1916, which gave a considerable boost to the national park movement. Since most national parks were created from lands in the national forest system, the Forest Service found itself in an inter-agency struggle over land. The Forest Service promoted recreational use of the national forests partly to squelch the argument that the Park Service was uniquely fitted for managing lands for public recreation. Indeed, National Park Service Director, Stephen T. Mather, lobbied Congress to only allocate recreation funds to national parks.⁴⁰

Americans were visiting the national forests in increasing numbers mainly because automobiles gave them unprecedented ease of access. But the values that drew them to the forests ran deep. To the dismay of many, the United States was becoming an urban nation; the 1920 census revealed that for the first time a majority of its citizens lived in communities of greater than 2,500 people. Americans were adjusting rather nervously to a faster pace of life. American society's unease found expression in part in a return to the cult of nature, an awakening to the historical and spiritual importance of wilderness in American life. As Greeley pointed out, America's forested heritage was an important part of the national character; it had given "bodily vigor, self-taught resourcefulness, and moral stamina to every generation of Americans."⁴¹ Forty years ahead of the Wilderness Act of 1964, Greeley suggested that the agency's management planning could even

³⁶ Katherine L. McKay, *Trails to the Past: Historical Overview of the Flathead National Forest 1800-1960*. Report prepared for the Flathead National Forest 1994, p. 126.

³⁷ Clarence Westcott (Division of Engineering), untitled story in *Early Days in the Forest Service*, Vol. 3, 1962, pp 279-281.

³⁸ *Ibid.*

³⁹ William B. Greeley, "Recreation in the National Forests," *American Monthly Review of Reviews*, July, 1924.

⁴⁰ David Gerard, "The Origins of the Federal Wilderness System," in Terry L. Anderson (ed), *Political Environmentalism: Going Behind the Green Curtain*, Stanford, California, Hoover Institution Press, 2000. pp 211-238.

⁴¹ William B. Greeley, "Recreation in the National Forests," *American Monthly Review of Reviews*, July, 1924.

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accommodate “a few great stretches of untrammled wilderness set aside for their wild life and for the more hardy and zealous among the seekers of the out-of-doors.” The chief forester expressly stated the public’s desire for wilderness areas in his annual report for 1926.⁴²

Also in 1926, Greely requested that forests inventory their roadless areas—an effort that resulted in the identification of seventy-four tracts larger than 230,000 acres. In 1929, the agency developed its first wilderness policy, the L-20 regulations. By 1933, sixty-three areas, containing 8.4 million acres, were classified as “primitive areas.” However, rather than complete preservation of primitive area resources, the L-20 regulations allowed some extractive and/or consumptive resource utilization: “It is not proposed unduly to curtail timber cutting, grazing, water development, mining, or other forms of economic utilization within such areas, but rather to guard against their unnecessary invasion by roads, resorts, summer-home communities, or other forms of use incompatible with the public enjoyment of their major values.”⁴³

Besides preserving key portions of the forest for their aesthetic value, the Forest Service set aside a certain portion of permanent improvement funds for recreational development. In the 1920s these funds were supplemented, often surpassed, by contributions from local communities and organizations, but they represented a beginning to recreation funding. In laying aside funds for recreational development, the Forest Service gave roads and trails first priority, followed by signboards and maps for guiding the forest visitor around the national forest. In addition to campgrounds, the Forest Service began planning organization campgrounds for the use of community, church, and youth groups such as the Boy Scouts, and permitted developers to build resorts and other tourist accommodations on the national forests. Not only did these facilities provide services to the public, but they also assisted the Forest Service’s task of supplying its field officers.⁴⁴

As public use of the national forests increased in the 1920s, the Forest Service sought to make its officers and administrative buildings more visible in the public’s eye. Herbert Smith (1920), assistant forester in charge of public relations, wrote:

Fifteen years ago almost all the Forest headquarters were in little settlements or out-of-the-way towns close to the Forests themselves. But for the better service of the public it has been necessary to move them, where possible, to more accessible points. For the forest supervisor is first and foremost a business man, the local manager of an important enterprise — the handling of some million acres of land permanently devoted to the advancement of the general welfare.⁴⁵

Ranger stations, as well as supervisors’ offices, were now designed to serve a larger public. More attention was given to architectural appearance and good grounds keeping.

Changes in Administration

The most visible change in national forest administration in the 1920s was the steady enlargement of ranger district boundaries. Rangers covered wider and wider areas as the Forest Service benefitted from improved transportation and communications. More and more rangers were able to supplement or replace their saddle horse with a motorized vehicle. The expanding network of roads, trails, and telephone lines also increased the efficiency of national forest administration. More personnel could be concentrated at a single headquarters, where their functions were increasingly specialized. With fewer ranger districts, the forest supervisor was able to keep in closer contact with permanent improvement projects as well as other phases of the district ranger’s work. Generally the consolidation of rangers’ headquarters did not mean the

⁴² Harold K. Steen, *The U.S. Forest Service: A History*.

⁴³ Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Report to the Chief Forester, 1928, 38-39, quoted in Gerard, “The Origins of the Federal Wilderness System,” p. 223.

⁴⁴ William B. Greeley, “Recreation in the National Forests,” *American Monthly Review of Reviews*, July, 1924.

⁴⁵ Herbert Smith, “How the Public Forests are Handled,” *United States Department of Agriculture Yearbook* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1920).

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abandonment of buildings; instead, the existing facilities were downgraded to seasonal guard stations, while improvement funds were invested in more substantial buildings for ranger district headquarters.

The single most important cause of the consolidation of ranger districts was the automobile. The Forest Service was slow in converting from saddle horse to automobile. At the beginning of the 1920s, Region One administrators were more interested in acquiring pack horses and mules; they still regarded a ranger's means of transportation as his own responsibility, and the agency's regulations offered little incentive to the ranger to buy an automobile. In the 1920s, the Forest Service compensated an official five cents per mile for the use of his private vehicle in the line of duty. But it required the official to submit written justification of the cost savings of an automobile over a horse.⁴⁶

The Forest Service was circumspect about providing housing and garage facilities for its personnel. For living quarters, regulations stipulated that "Only where there is an undeniable need for them and when it is impracticable for the officer to rent his own living quarters will houses be constructed at Government expense on either Government or leased land." The regulations continued:

Where the use of horses or a car is regarded by the superior officer is essential to the work to be done, barns or garages may be provided at Government expense. In no cases will garages for privately owned automobiles be provided unless it is clearly established that the machine is necessary for and will be used largely on official work.⁴⁷

One reason for the Forest Service's fiscal conservatism in the 1920s was the continuing restrictions placed upon its permanent improvement program by Congress. The Forest Service was constrained by the 1906 law from spending more than \$600 per structure. Although the amount was raised in the 1920s to allow for inflation, first to \$1,000, and later to \$1,500, it remained restrictive. One method of circumventing the cost limitation when a project encountered cost overruns was to complete construction of the building in the next fiscal year, using either maintenance or contingency funds.

The prevalent method of the Forest Service for constructing buildings within the cost limitation was to use contributed time. The idea behind contributed time was that Forest Service employees would work on building construction at the end of the day, after their official duties were completed. Later, the term was broadened to include slack time during the winter months. Using this volunteer labor the Forest Service eked out its improvement funds and put all of the total allowable costs for a given project into materials. Contributed time was a kind of institution within the Forest Service, exemplifying the high morale of the agency personnel. So important was the use of contributed time, that the Forest Service undertook training projects to educate the men in the art of log construction. These training projects were informal but served to expose a lot of personnel to the craft.

During the 1920s, the Forest Service sought to increase efficiency by separating office and living quarters in the field. The consolidation of ranger districts facilitated this process, as new and larger headquarters complexes were required for a larger concentration of staff. Regulations called for a separation of office and living space whenever practicable, but for reasons of economy many new structures combined the two anyway. Moreover, regulations allowed a ranger to use part of his own home for office space and receive compensation from the government.⁴⁸

While the regulations promulgated at the national level were still fairly loose, the regional office in Missoula implemented somewhat more detailed standards. In January 1917, for example, the office circulated a "0" Improvement letter which set forth uniform standards for all maintenance work. The office promoted standard plans for ranger dwellings, shelter cabins, barns, garages — even outhouses. Often, these met with resistance from the men in the field.

As permanent improvement projects proliferated in the early 1920s, forest supervisors and administrators in the Regional Office in Missoula shared a sense that not all work was being accomplished "up to standard." Regional Forester Fred

⁴⁶ Ralph Space, personal interview conducted with Janene Caywood, 1989.

⁴⁷ United States Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, *The National Forest Manual Regulations and Instructions* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1928).

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*

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Morrell proposed guidelines for ensuring adequate supervision of each forest's permanent improvement projects. He recommended a graduated system of supervision for the three administrative levels represented by the ranger district, the forest supervisor's office, and the regional office. For example, for new construction, the ranger should check the work of any crew of two or more men at least every two weeks. In addition, Morrell proposed that a topographic survey and development plan be made for each proposed ranger station, to assist the district office in designing or approving building plans. The supervision by the regional office would be undertaken by "improvement men, Chief of Operation, District (Regional) Engineer, District (Regional) Forester, and other men in the district (regional) office designated by the District (Regional) Forester."⁴⁹

Morrell's scheme highlighted the growing importance of functional specialists in the regional office. In addition to professional foresters, the regional office obtained men trained in civil and mechanical engineering. All road construction projects were supervised by men in the regional office's engineering division. Supervision of buildings and other improvement work besides road construction was generally assigned to the branch of operations under an assistant regional forester.⁵⁰

In 1928, Clyde Fickes was asked to join the branch of operations in the regional office in Missoula. His first assignment was to perfect his earlier design for a standard lookout house that he developed earlier, but his superiors soon decided to place him in charge of all improvement work handled by the branch of operations. Fickes had a practical knowledge of carpentry and log building. The son of a carpenter, he had virtually grown up "among carpenter shop shavings and small building construction." He furthered his knowledge and experience in twenty years with the Forest Service. Fickes soon decided that the rangers in the field could benefit greatly from a manual or handbook on all kinds of construction and maintenance work, from building with logs to mixing concrete to installing telephone lines. He began compiling illustrations and instructions on an array of projects. By 1935, the region published a handbook entitled *Region One Handbook Construction and Maintenance of Forest Improvements*. The book was supplied to every ranger in Region One, and was copied and reprinted by several other regions and the Washington, D.C. office.⁵¹

The decade of the 1920s was a time of transition in the Forest Service improvement program. Funding greatly expanded, but most of the money was devoted to road and trail construction with relatively little left over for buildings. There was a movement at all bureaucratic levels of national forest administration toward standardization of building plans, yet much was still left to improvisation. Much of the administrative reorganization of the 1920s—the redrawing of ranger district boundaries, the proliferation of function specialists on each forest, and the appointment at the regional office of engineers and then Clyde Fickes, was important preparation for the decisive period in the Forest Service's improvement program, which began in 1933 with the formation of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

The Northern Region in the CCC Era

To most foresters, the New Deal of President Franklin D. Roosevelt is nearly synonymous with the Civilian Conservation Corps, or CCC. It was a time when the cause of conservation once again enjoyed the national limelight, when the man in the White House lent prestige to the federal government's role as steward of the land. The Forest Service in fact benefitted from a battery of New Deal programs in the 1930s, all aimed at "pump-priming" the economy. Other funds available to the Forest Service were provided by the Emergency Relief Act, the Emergency Highways Act, the Work Projects Act, the National Industrial Recovery Act, and numerous other sources. The theory was that the government, by means of deficit spending on unemployment relief programs, could increase the money supply and stimulate consumer demand, and thereby refuel the economy. It was understandable that the Forest Service came to regard the CCC as the embodiment of the New Deal, for the CCC focused public attention on the agency while receiving the widest public approval of any of the President's relief measures in the 1930s. Lasting from 1933 to 1942, it also bracketed the New Deal era for the Forest Service.

⁴⁹ Fred Morrell, letter to Forest Supervisors, January 25, 1921, USDA Forest Service, Northern Region Archives, Missoula, Montana.

⁵⁰ Fickes, *Recollections*.

⁵¹ Clyde P. Fickes, *Region One Handbook Construction and Maintenance of Forest Improvements* (Missoula: USDA Forest Service Region One, 1935).

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During the turbulent political campaign of 1932, presidential candidate Roosevelt offered one of the few specifics of his promised “New Deal” for the American people — a Civilian Conservation Corps comprising hundreds of thousands of the ailing nation’s unemployed young men. Roosevelt envisioned a program that would simultaneously bring unemployment relief and accomplish much needed conservation work. He stated that 250,000 men could be organized in camps by the beginning of the summer. In order to allay fears that such a program could compete with free labor and drive down wages, Roosevelt promised that the work of the CCC would be confined to areas of low economic activity — principally forest and soil conservation work. Within days of his inauguration in March 1933, President Roosevelt steered his first New Deal program through Congress. It became the most popular and remembered emergency relief program of the era.⁵²

The Forest Service assumed an important role in implementing the CCC program. Even before passage of the bill, Chief Forester Robert Y. Stuart drafted an executive order offering his version of the relationship between the CCC and other federal agencies. Stuart’s plan was for the Forest Service to operate the camps along the same lines as subsistence camps which it was already operating in cooperation with state and county officials in California and Washington. Stuart advocated incorporating eastern state and private forests into the program, so as not to cause a mass movement of unemployed youth to the western states. Stuart’s plan was accepted, but it soon became apparent that the Forest Service did not have sufficient manpower to organize and run the camps. Instead, the army built and operated the camps, while the Forest Service, Park Service, and other federal agencies directed the projects. The Forest Service handled the lion’s share of CCC projects, employing more than 50 percent of all enrollees. CCC enrollment peaked in September 1935 at 500,000. In that summer there were 82 camps in Idaho and 32 in Montana.⁵³

The foremen put in charge of building construction were usually local craftsmen who were under-employed or out of work. True to the era’s penchant for acronyms, they were called L.E.M.s — local experienced men.⁵⁴ Many of the enrollees in the Region One camps came from large cities outside of Montana, Idaho, and South Dakota—most of those who wound up in the Bitterroot’s CCC camps hailed from New York State. These boys were mostly inexperienced in the woods; their efficiency depended greatly on the training and supervision that they received from Forest Service personnel and their crew foremen.

The regional office undertook a myriad of projects with the CCC Road and trail construction received first priority. The primary objective was to open more country to truck transport and thereby improve the agency’s ability to fight forest fires. Within two years the CCC constructed 1,850 miles of forest roads, 320 miles of trails, and 350 bridges on the national forests. In contrast to the road-building of the 1920s, all but 100 miles of this new road construction was classified as truck trails: one-lane, low-standard routes primarily designed for protection and administration purposes.⁵⁵ Eventually, the CCC completed 3,476 miles of truck trails, or secondary roads, on the national forests in the Northern Region.⁵⁶ The CCC made important contributions to administration and development of the national forests as well. CCC crews in Region One built numerous administrative buildings and structures, developed dozens of new campgrounds and other recreational facilities, stocked streams and lakes with fish, planted cut-over lands with seedlings, and improved forest stands by tree thinning.⁵⁷

The CCC’s influence extended beyond the physical legacy of its innumerable permanent improvement projects. The creation of such a large manpower reserve of unskilled labor created a need for hundreds more supervisory personnel than the Forest Service could put into the field. As a result, the agency received authorization under the Emergency Relief Act to recruit unemployed or underemployed men whose salaries could not exceed ten percent of the existing

⁵² John A. Salmond, *The Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942: A New Deal Case Study* (Durham: Duke University Press, 1967).

⁵³ *Ibid.*

⁵⁴ William Fox, personal interview with Donna Hartmans, September 1, 1989.

⁵⁵ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Forester for 1936* by F. A. Silcox (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1936).

⁵⁶ USDA Forest Service, Press Release 904 “Work Done by CCC Boys Reported.” USDA Forest Service, Northern Region Archives, Missoula, Montana.

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*

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payroll. Hundreds of new graduates from schools of forestry found employment with the Forest Service who otherwise would have been forced to drift into other occupations. These young men — or “ten percenters” as they were sometimes called — were quickly thrust into supervisory roles with the CCC. Thus, the CCC contributed immeasurably to professionalizing the Forest Service.⁵⁸

In the regional office, a share of these ten percent funds were allotted to the division of engineering, and Clyde Fickes was placed in charge of recruiting a staff of architects, landscape architects, and mechanical draftsmen to supervise the Forest Service’s improvement program. William Fox, a Butte native and recent graduate of the University of Washington’s School of Architecture, remembers traveling to Missoula in 1933 to interview for a position as the region’s first architect. Fickes told Fox his ideas — he wanted an architectural staff to design ranger stations, dwellings, lookouts, and all other buildings required by the Forest Service. Fox was skeptical, thinking that the job would entail more structural engineering than architecture. But the country was in the Great Depression and jobs were scarce; Fox was then working with other college graduates on a garbage truck crew in Seattle. He took the job. In the ensuing years, Fickes brought a number of other young architects into the regional office.⁵⁹ Fox eventually headed a staff of six or seven architectural draftsmen under Fickes’ general supervision.⁶⁰

Over the next eight years, the architects in the division of engineering turned out a steady stream of plans, supervised construction and maintenance projects, and reported any irregularities to Fickes. Typically a ranger or forest supervisor selected a plan from the Region One Improvement Handbook, and the architectural staff made adjustments to the plan to accommodate special requirements of the facility and to fit the topography and surroundings of the site.⁶¹ Fickes had something to say about virtually every project. No detail was too small to escape his notice. He prescribed specifications from cabinet designs to lighting fixtures, interior wall varnishes, heating elements, fireplace designs, flooring materials, chinking materials, and interior color schemes.⁶²

Fickes and his staff could design somewhat more elaborate buildings than those of the 1920s, because considerably more money was available. The Forest Service received larger appropriations for building construction, and the cost ceiling per building was raised from \$1,500 to \$2,500. These dollars went further as costs for building materials dropped after the Crash of 1929 and remained low during the 1930s. More significantly, however, the Forest Service was able to employ funds from a number of federal relief programs. The most important source of funding was the Emergency Conservation Work Act, which created the CCC. Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) funds were used to augment permanent improvement funds when a project reached the cost limit. At first there was no ceiling placed on the amount of ECW funds that could be expended on a single structure; by 1939, the CCC imposed a limit of \$5,000, raising the total allowable cost of a building to \$7,500.⁶³ Other valuable sources of funds were the Emergency Relief Act (ERA) and the Work Projects Act (WPA). Funding certain projects from a combination of federal programs sometimes became a complicated juggling act, as each program carried different stipulations.

The Forest Service was able to employ more skilled labor during the CCC era as well. Construction in the private sector was so depressed in the 1930s that many carpenters, stone masons, cabinet makers, and other craftsmen could only find work with the government’s relief programs. These men, the so-called L.E.M.s became the foremen on CCC, ERA, and WPA crews. For building projects, the L.E.M.s were more highly valued than the crews, and there was a tendency among project supervisors to concentrate the L.E.M.s efforts on the skilled work while diverting the crew labor elsewhere. As a result, many Forest Service structures built during the CCC era display some kind of decorative detail work or stone masonry not possible in the years before or since.

⁵⁸ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Forester for 1936*; Steen, *The U.S. Forest Service: A History*.

⁵⁹ Fox, 1989.

⁶⁰ Fickes, *Recollections*.

⁶¹ Fox, 1989.

⁶² Fickes, *Region One Handbook Construction and Maintenance of Forest Improvements*.

⁶³ Cort Sims, *Ranger Stations on the Idaho Panhandle National Forests* (Coeur d’Alene: USDA, Forest Service Supervisors Office, 1986).

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As the regional office gained experience with the CCC crews, it developed increasingly sophisticated training programs. The regional office established training programs at its shops in Missoula, Spokane and Sandpoint, where selected CCC enrollees rotated through for two weeks of instruction in shop mechanics. Later, the regional office instituted a "Standard Specifications Training Program" aimed at providing more intensive training on the job and improving the quality of construction work.⁶⁴

In developing these training programs, the Forest Service worked closely with the army. The original agreement between the secretaries of war and agriculture contemplated a neat separation of responsibility between the CCC enrollees' working hours and non-working hours. While the Forest Service supervised CCC crews on work projects, the army was responsible for maintaining order, discipline, and morale in the CCC camps. But the separation of responsibilities began to blur; an early emphasis on night classes and academic training in the camps was gradually abandoned in favor of vocational training on the job. As Army Reserve officers and Forest Service personnel worked together to improve the CCC organization, there was a trend toward workshops and other training exercises that further integrated the CCC boys into the Forest Service organization. The large CCC camps with bunkhouses and cookhouses prevalent in the mid-1930s increasingly gave way to "spike camps" of 25-odd enrollees living in tents. Army officials, CCC administrators, and Forest Service officials worked together in deciding where the camps could be most advantageously located.⁶⁵ Regional Forester Evan W. Kelley lauded the CCC program in 1942 for the valuable experience in large group organization that it provided both to his agency and the army.

The Forest Service increasingly sought uniformity in its buildings. There was a kind of military efficiency in the development of standard plans for everything from ranger dwellings to tack sheds. After a while, a ranger could recognize a Plan 1 dwelling or a Plan 2 dwelling. When he was transferred from one ranger station to another, he could move into a nearly identical home. His furniture would fit the rooms; his housewares would fit the standard color scheme.⁶⁶

By the mid-1930s, Fickes and his staff of architects in the regional office were providing detailed plans for virtually every building project in Region One. With the exception of remote lookouts, most significant building projects in this period received at least one field inspection by Fickes or by one of his staff. Standardization of design was perhaps the most visible legacy of building construction in the CCC era.

Although the trend was already evident in the 1920s, it was during the CCC era that each region in the national forest system developed a distinctive architectural style. This was mainly a function of the standardization of plans by each regional office. From a supervisory standpoint, the regional office was the obvious administrative level in the national forest system in which to concentrate a staff of architects, draftsmen, and engineers. The Forest Service's engineering division in Washington, D.C. was too far removed to be able to exercise any meaningful supervision, and simply offered technical advice when it was solicited by the regional offices.

Some effort was made to standardize architectural design on a nationwide scale (the Washington D.C. office published the Improvement Handbook in 1937) but such attempts generally failed. The main reason was that each regional office's engineering division was intent on protecting its prerogatives. When an official tried to introduce a building plan from another region, it was apt to be modified out of existence by the engineering division. Former Assistant Regional Forester E. G. Heilman referred to this as the NIH syndrome, not invented here.⁶⁷

Forest Service architects sought to harmonize buildings as much as possible with their surroundings. This too contributed to an emergent architectural style in each region, as natural settings and native building materials differed widely from forest to forest. Native materials were also used for reasons of economy. Building designers were mindful

⁶⁴ Evan W. Kelley to Regional Forester, June 10, 1941, Folder 14, Box 3, RG 95 Records of the Forest Service, 1870-2008, National Archives and Records Administration- Seattle, Washington, NARA Seattle (Hereinafter, RG95, NARA Seattle).

⁶⁵ Clarence C. Strong, Memorandum May 2, 1939. Folder 6, Box 40, RG95, NARA Seattle.

⁶⁶ William Worf, personal interview with Theodore Catton, March 24, 1989.

⁶⁷ E. G. Heilman, personal interview with Theodore Catton, March 15, 1989.

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of the fact that ECW and ERA funds were intended mainly for wages, and relatively little could be spent for building materials. Hence log construction was favored over frame designs (especially in backcountry areas), wood shingles and shakes were preferable to asphalt shingles, and native stone was used more commonly than imported stone.

The Effects of World War II on the Forest Service Improvement Programs

A month after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and the U.S. declaration of war against Japan and Germany, Regional Forester, Evan Kelley sent a circular to all forest supervisors, division chiefs, and the experiment station. "These are days of anticipations, doubts, questions, contemplations," he began. "What is going to be the impact of national defense activities upon the Forest Service? Upon the respective regions? Upon the respective forests?" Kelley was looking at departmental estimates for the coming fiscal year. The Bureau of the Budget classified all Forest Service activities according to their contribution to national defense. "Nonessential" projects included such items as wildlife management, recreational use, and construction of improvements. Kelley commented on each item, differing with the Budget Bureau on some items, accepting others. Construction of improvements, Kelley wrote, could be "automatically cast out, since it is quite apparent that there will be no money available for construction." The proposed budget for fire control, on the other hand, was actually increased to counteract the perceived threat of sabotage. The War Department contemplated the use of certain Region One lookouts by the army for its enemy aircraft warning system.⁶⁸

In the following months, the Forest Service's role in the national defense took clearer shape. In fact, the army never manned any lookouts in Region One, although it did take a number of lookouts over on the forests in Washington, Oregon, and California. Nor did Region One experience any acts of sabotage. As anticipated by Kelley, the Forest Service's basic contribution to the war effort was to accept extremely austere budgets. The total budget for the agency was cut nearly in half in 1943-44. Moreover, in 1943, the Forest Service pumped nearly a third of its total fiscal resources into rubber tree plantations in California in an attempt to replace the supply of Southeast Asia rubber cut off by the Japanese. This emergency rubber project was abandoned the next year as synthetics were developed.⁶⁹

The Forest Service soon faced a manpower shortage as well as a constricted budget. Not only were the CCC camps phased out during 1942, but the Forest Service faced considerable attrition from its ranks into the armed services. Nationwide, 2,000 Forest Service men joined the military.⁷⁰ All road and trail development stopped in Region One — except in selected areas where the government wanted access to strategic metals such as chrome and tungsten.⁷¹

Postwar Adjustments

Millions of returning servicemen were intent on marriage, children, and home ownership at the end of World War II. Millions of women, too, yearned for domestic tranquility after years of financial insecurity and sacrifice. The home construction industry boomed after the war, and lumbering manufacturers could not keep up with the demand for wood products. National forests, particularly in the Pacific Northwest where lumber industries increasingly concentrated their activity, could not keep up with the demand for timber sales. The Forest Service responded to the shortage by giving access road construction highest priority. It allocated \$7,000,000 for new access roads from its regular appropriation in 1946, and this money was supplemented by funds from the National Housing Agency (USDA 1946). Later, the Forest Service encouraged logging companies to construct access roads in return for discounts on the price of timber sales.

The greatly increased logging activity on Region One forests created an administrative problem. Timber sales significantly enlarged the workload for the Forest Service, and the work force had to be correspondingly expanded. But there was an acute shortage of housing for the new personnel. Many foresters had to be housed in converted office buildings, old school houses, former CCC or army barracks, even campgrounds until new accommodations could be built.

⁶⁸ Evan W. Kelley, Letter to Forest Supervisors, Division Chiefs, and Experiment Station, January 19, 1942. .” USDA Forest Service, Northern Region Archives, Missoula, Montana. .

⁶⁹ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1943* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943); USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1944* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944).

⁷⁰ Harold K. Steen, *The U.S. Forest Service: A History*.

⁷¹ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1942* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942).

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Moreover, the changing nature of the workload, from forest protection to intensive silviculture and timber sale management, required concentrations of personnel in different areas of the forests than had been the case in the 1920s and 1930s.

There was a need for new housing and work facilities in areas closed to road construction projects and timber sales; otherwise a great deal of time was lost in transporting Forest Service personnel to their work places. Still another problem was to provide appropriate housing for the growing number of Forest Service employees—many of them veterans of World War II with wives and children. Most ranger dwellings of the CCC era were designed for single or married men without children.⁷²

The housing shortage was exacerbated by the fact that the Forest Service faced a backlog of maintenance and replacement work that accumulated during the war. New building construction received low priority, given the need for access roads first, and maintenance or rehabilitation of existing buildings second.⁷³ The Forest Service's answer was to acquire inexpensive prefab structures and portable units that could be disassembled or moved as the locus of timber sales changed. Some army surplus and former CCC buildings were obtained for almost nothing. Thus a hodgepodge of buildings, old and new, permanent and portable, developed in areas of concentrated Forest Service field activity.

The Forest Service called these sites "work centers," a functional substitute for the rather old-fashioned and misleading term "guard station," which acquired the wrong connotations in the context of World War II and the Cold War. The development of the Roundtop Work Center on the St. Joe National Forest was characteristic of the new approach to building construction. The site had been a ranger district headquarters from 1908 until the mid-1930s, when the headquarters moved to the Avery Ranger Station and a CCC camp established at the site. In 1956, as a number of timber sales were planned in the area, it was reoccupied as a work center. Forest Supervisor George H. Duvendack informed the regional office:

There will be a tremendous amount of slash and brush disposal work out of this work center during the next ten years at least. Therefore, it is necessary to provide accommodations for the employees to be stationed there, which will approximate 50 men.

Duvendack then described a conglomeration of existing and proposed structures, including the original log ranger station, an old CCC barracks, an army surplus bunkhouse, a trailer, a log cookhouse, four portable barracks, and various utility units.⁷⁴

In the late 1950s, Congress finally acted to arrest the gradual deterioration of government property on the national forests. "Operation Outdoors" gave the Forest Service a badly needed infusion of federal funds with which to construct buildings and improve campgrounds. Many campgrounds received virtually no maintenance since the CCC era. In 1959, the Forest Service completed some 233 new housing units; in 1960, it built 86 dwellings and 44 barracks, as well as other buildings.⁷⁵ While these numbers were small compared to the building construction that occurred during the CCC era, Operation Outdoors represented the first significant advance in Forest Service building construction since the beginning of World War II.

Following Operation Outdoors, the Forest Service received a second boost from another federal program, the Accelerated Public Works (APW) program. Like the much larger CCC, WPA, and ERA of the New Deal, the APW aimed primarily at putting people to work. Unlike the CCC, the APW did not have a mandate for conservation, but it did target rural, economically depressed counties which were often characterized by poor agricultural soils and cutover forest lands. These areas were in great need of soil conservation and reforestation work. The Forest Service's proven record with the

⁷² USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1952* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1952).

⁷³ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1947* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947).

⁷⁴ George H. Duvendack to the Regional Forester, April 17, 1956. On file at Idaho Panhandle National Forests Supervisor's Office, Coeur d'Alene, Idaho.

⁷⁵ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1959* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1959); USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1960* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1960).

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CCC recommended the agency for managing a large share of APW projects. As a result, the Forest Service was the first federal agency to get APW projects underway, and ultimately managed more than sixty percent of all APW projects.⁷⁶

Most APW projects on the national forests employed from 10 to 100 men; a few projects had as many as 600 men. The Forest Service accomplished a lot of building maintenance and construction under the APW program. APW crews repaired and renovated and built additions to hundreds of old CCC buildings. Numerous new ranger stations were constructed in public view of highways to replace CCC-built offices that had been inconveniently located for forest visitors.⁷⁷ The Forest Service received a total of \$60 million from the APW in 1962-64, for which the national forests gained nearly 7,000 new campsite and picnic units and 918 new buildings, in addition to valuable conservation work accomplished in erosion control, tree plantings, and timber stand improvement.⁷⁸

In the post-World War II era national forests confronted a burgeoning demand for timber: receipts for timber sales on national forests mushroomed from \$2-4 million before the war to \$148 million in 1960. The mining and petroleum industries also demanded greater access to national forest lands. In the 1960s and 1970s, the use of the national forests for outdoor recreation grew enormously. More recently, the environmental movement has persuaded Congress to pass numerous environmental laws affecting national forests and Forest Service policy. The Forest Service's fundamental goal to manage the forests for "the greatest good of the greatest number for the long run" has become increasingly difficult to fulfill as competition between forest users grows more and more hard-edged. In recent times, Pinchot's utilitarian dictum for the Forest Service has been re coined in the phrase "multiple use management." Forest Service policy today must somehow weigh present and future needs, aesthetic and economic values, and local and national interests.

Architectural Trends in Region One

The character of US Forest Service improvements reflects agency-specific traditions as well as general trends in architectural style. The majority of the agency's earliest improvements, those built during the 20-year period between the establishment of the first western forest reserves in 1897 and the entry of the United States into World War I are generally simple vernacular buildings made with rustic materials such as log and stone. Construction ceased during the war years. However, by the time construction resumed after the war the agency adopted new policies and procedures which influenced the character of building construction as well as site planning.

Between 1897 and 1918, the construction of permanent Forest Service improvements was mostly the responsibility of forest rangers—those men whose primary responsibility was forest protection. These early buildings fit the definition of 'vernacular' as defined by James Deetz as "... folk building, done without benefit of formal plans."⁷⁹ The 1906 edition of the Forest Service Use Book stated:

Eventually all Rangers who serve year round will be furnished with headquarters cabins on the Reserves. It is the intention of the Forest Service to build these as rapidly as funds will permit. Whenever possible cabins should be built of logs, with shingle or shake roofs.

Hardware, glass and door and window frames may be purchased on authorization from the Forester. Cabins should be of sufficient size to afford comfortable living accommodations to the family of the Ranger stationed in them and this Ranger will be held responsible for the proper care of the cabin ...⁸⁰

Because of the need to house both administrative and domestic uses within the same building, the earliest improvements were utilitarian in character. The variation in workmanship, materials, and design exhibited among these early buildings reflects the skills of the individual builder, as executed within the very general Forest Service policy. Rangers typically built their home offices with log walls, stone foundations and wood shingle roofs. Design elements such as the number

⁷⁶ Edward P. Cliff, "A. P. W.: A Profit Formula," *American Forests* 69:28-30, 1963

⁷⁷ Worf, 1989.

⁷⁸ USDA Forest Service, *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1964* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1964).

⁷⁹ James Deets, *In Small Things Forgotten: The Archaeology of Early American Life*, 1977, Doubleday, New York, p. 93.

⁸⁰ USDA Forest Service Use Book, 1906, p. 108.

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of stories, the floor plan and the roof style was left to the rangers, although environmental characteristics, such as snow load must have influenced the character of some aspects of early Forest Service buildings. Since rangers were unofficially expected to build improvements during their off-duty hours (with donated time) the quality of the construction of the earliest buildings varied. Apparently, rangers had an unrestricted role in deciding the layout of early stations, many of which appear similar to homestead improvements.

After the end of World War I, the Forest Service resumed the task of building its administrative infrastructure. Still handicapped with a shortage of construction funds, the region accomplished a great deal during the postwar period. Although employees continued the agency tradition of building improvements with contributed time, the choice of building design and placement was reviewed at a higher level, usually by the Forest Supervisor. A wider variety of building materials were accepted, but architectural styles still reflected local and sometimes regional trends. In this sense the Forest Service simply continued with the same principle that had guided its earliest construction, that is, it is best to blend with the local culture.

During the 1920s, building materials and styles selected appear to have depended upon the location of the property and availability of material. Administrative properties located in areas accessible to supply points, were built of milled lumber rather than logs and are similar in most respects to private homes found in nearby towns. The most common style of frame building from the 1920s and into the 1930s was the bungalow, with craftsman detailing. They tend to have a simple rectangular plan, with front roofs and exposed rafter ends, roof braces or brackets, and drop lap or shingle exterior siding. It is possible that the Forest Service designed these buildings specifically for particular sites, although no architectural plans or drawings have been located. Alternatively, the service may have used pattern book plans which were common during the 1920s. In either case, the finished product was similar to private sector buildings found in small communities throughout the west.

In contrast to government buildings found in towns, in remote areas, the construction material of choice remained whole logs, although the method of corner joinery varied greatly. Like their frame counterparts, the log buildings sometimes possess craftsman detailing such as exposed rafter ends and roof braces, brackets and dormers. Most log buildings constructed during the 1920s have rectangular plans with gable roofs and either an open shed roof porch along its long axis or a continuous gable roof porch.

One distinctive building style that appeared in Region One during the 1920s is a small one-room 'cabin' with an open porch formed by extending the gable end past the front wall of the building. Within the context of Forest Service improvements, this building style is found Region-wide and appears to have been formalized into a standard building plan as early as 1928. The earliest reference to a standard plan for this building style comes from a 1930 FS Administrative Site Report, in which Forest Supervisor F. T. Carroll states that the cabin built at the West Fork Administrative site on the Beaverhead National Forest in 1928 was built in accordance with "Plan C-1." Variable construction elements include the manner in which the gable ends are formed (some are framed while others are formed with logs), the style of corner notches, log end finishes, the type of bracing in the porch gable end, the roof pitch, and the placement of doors and windows. Also, in a few buildings, the extended roof porch is enclosed to form additional interior space. Region-wide, the majority of these cabins date to between 1928 and 1934, although earlier and later examples do occur.

A significant development that took place in the late 1920s was the region office's adoption of the technique of log "scribing" to produce tight-fitting ventral saddle notches. Most log buildings constructed prior to the late 1920s have either square notches, V notches, double saddle notches or variations of the dovetail notch. However beginning in the 1930s, virtually all log building construction initiated by the Forest Service incorporated the use of ventral saddle notching and coping along the length of the log. These techniques were recommended in the first improvement handbooks compiled by Clyde Fickes for the Region 1 Engineering Division. Both techniques require the use of a scribe, an instrument, which, when drawn along the interface of two logs, marks the area to be cut for the notch or the coping groove. The result is a very tight fitting notch that requires little chinking or daubing.

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Another advantage of the scribe method is that it required only minimal skills with an axe to produce a high-quality log building. Documentation from some forests in Region 1 indicate that by the late 1920s it was difficult to find Forest Service employees who possessed the skills required to produce buildings to Forest Service standards. Unless a forest happened to employ a competent log builder, they could have trouble completing their improvements. In some instances, forests hired skilled log carpenters to train its rangers in appropriate building methods.

In 1928, the regional office took steps towards standardizing its building design and construction by moving Clyde Fickes to its Branch of Operations in Missoula. Fickes began to compile a manual that would provide instruction for building all Forest Service improvements, everything from buildings, to trails, to signage. By the early 1930s, he had collected information on building methods and materials, and had compiled a manual complete with illustrations, including plans and elevations for buildings that had worked well in the field—from the standpoint of design as well as economics. The result was the “Improvement Handbook.” Revised and reissued in 1935 under the name of “Region One handbook, Construction and Maintenance of Forest Improvements.”⁸¹

Fickes also emphasized the need to have specific plans for individual buildings. He advocated for the region to hire a trained architect, someone who understood the details of design and construction. Consequently, in 1933, William J. Fox, newly graduated from the University of Washington, became the first trained architect employed in the region’s Branch of Operations. Working together, Fickes and Fox standardized the building designs which previously had been used informally. The 1935 edition of the handbook featured many plans and elevations drawn by Fox, which were included as “suggestions to help field men prepare their recommendations as to the type of structure desired at any particular site.”⁸²

It will be the general practice to prepare a special design and plan for each of the major buildings at each site. These plans will be prepared by the architects working in the Regional Office. The use of standard plans will be confined to such structures as barns and garages at headquarters and to structures at temporary field stations.

The construction of any building at any location will not be attempted until after the location and building plans have been approved by the Regional Forester.⁸³

Another important section of the handbook addressed the problem of selecting and developing a building site:

The selection of the building site is perhaps just as important as the erection of the building according to sound construction standards. Whether the building is one of group at ranger headquarters or stands alone at the intersection of two trails in the back country, its location must be chosen with care and considerable forethought. Sunlight, drainage, background, fuel, pasture, and water supply must be considered in their proper relationship to one another... Just remember that a building once up is finally located for at least 25 years and that it must be lived with all that time no matter how unhandily (sic) it may be located. For these reasons it is necessary that all ranger station improvement plans be approved by the Regional Forester and that changes in the plan shall not be made except with his approval.⁸⁴

Beginning with the 1935 edition of the handbook, all of the suggested plans for log buildings featured elements of a consciously rustic architectural style, namely, the use of “chopper-cut” ends on wall logs and on pole purlin and rafter ends. Meant to mimic pioneer construction methods, where builders felled trees with axes, this construction detail had unintended consequences with regard to long-term maintenance, especially in instances where the log ends extended beyond the drip edge of buildings. They collected water, which in turn caused them to rot.⁸⁵

The Forest Service is not the only federal agency that integrated these design elements into the plans for its buildings. At roughly the same time, between the mid 1920s and the early 1930s, the National Park Service developed its own brand of

⁸¹ Clyde P. Fickes, *Region One Handbook, Construction and Maintenance of Forest Improvements*, 1935.

⁸² *Ibid*, p. BP-1

⁸³ *Ibid*, p. R-1.

⁸⁴ *Ibid*, p. R-1

⁸⁵ In some instances, field personnel used a practical solution; they simply removed the portion of the log that extended beyond the drip edge leaving a flush cut.

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what is now referred to as “rustic” architecture. In reference to the elaborate log buildings erected by the National Park Service concessioners during the first decades of the 1900s, Merrill Ann Wilson noted that “rustic” was a function of its times:

This little noticed movement in American architecture was a natural outgrowth of a new romanticism about nature, about our country’s western frontiers.... The conservation ethic slowly took hold in this atmosphere of romanticism. Part of this ethic fostered the development of a unique architectural style. Perhaps for the first time in the history of American architecture, a building became an accessory to nature... Early pioneer and regional building techniques were revived because it was thought that a structure employing native materials blended best with the environment.⁸⁶

The utilitarian character of Forest Service buildings most often precluded the construction of high style rustic buildings, such as those referred to by Wilson. However, with specific reference to construction materials, “rustic” appropriately describes many of the Forest Service building plans produced by the architects working from the regional office during the 1930s and 1940s. The forests in Region One continued to use the improvement handbooks from the 1930s and 1940s well into the 1960s.

Establishment of the Flathead National Forest and Development of its Administrative Infrastructure.

In 1897, President Grover Cleveland created the Flathead and Lewis and Clark forest reserves. The former straddled the Continental Divide, encompassing most of the south and middle forks of the Flathead River and the Swan River drainage on the west side of the divide. The latter incorporated the North Fork of the Flathead River and its major tributaries. In 1903, the two reserves consolidated as the Lewis & Clark Forest Reserve with a North and South “division.” The division boundaries corresponded generally to the boundaries of the two original reserves.

In 1906, Elers Koch completed an inspection of the Lewis & Clark reserve. For the Southern Division, he reported progress on the major trails through the area, including the South Fork Trail, which would form the main north to south trail through the reserve. Koch noted that the forest made good progress on building a few good-quality serviceable cabins but that more were needed. Similarly, few phone lines had been established: “An extensive system of telephone lines on this reserve would be of the greatest value in fire protection on account of the remoteness from civilization of much of the reserve. A line up the Swan River, and another up the South Fork of the Flathead is particularly needed.”⁸⁷

Koch’s major concern was the size of the Southern Division:

The Southern Division of the Lewis and Clark is too large a unit for one supervisor to handle, about 3,250,000 acres, and should be divided into three reserves. To look after the work on the more distant portions of the reserve requires the absence of the Supervisor from the office for too long a period. ... Supervisor Bunker left Kalispell September 25 with a saddle horse, went through by way of the South Fork of the Flathead to the south end of the reserve, and back along the east side. He did not get back until the 3rd of November.⁸⁸

Koch’s recommendations for the three reserves included the following: one to include the Swan River and Flathead drainages, with headquarters in Kalispell; one to include the entire east slope of the mountains to be called the Sun River Reserve with headquarters at Choteau; and the third to include the Big Blackfoot and Clearwater drainages, with the possible inclusion of the Missoula Reserve to be headquartered in Missoula. Following (in part) Koch’s advice, in 1908, the Lewis & Clark National Forest was divided. Two new administrative entities were created—the Blackfoot National Forest, including most of the land in the former Northern Division, and the Flathead National Forest including the lands in the Southern Division that lay west of the Continental Divide. Lands in the Sun River country east of the divide remained part of the Lewis and Clark National Forest.

Although the forest boundaries changed in 1908, for many years the Lewis and Clark forest continued to manage Flathead forest lands west of the Continental Divide, including the Spotted Bear and White river areas. After a 30-day

⁸⁶ Wilson, 1976. p. 4-5.

⁸⁷ Elers Koch, Forest Inspector “Report on Lewis and Clark South, Montana.” November 1906. Folder; Flathead 1906-1905[313], Box 7 Flathead-Helena, Insp. Reports 1906-1044, RG 95 NARA Seattle). None of the cabins built prior to Koch’s 1906 inspection survive.

⁸⁸ Ibid.

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review of the Flathead forest in 1923, District Forest Inspector, Howard Flint, recommended the following regarding organization of the forest's districts:

There is general agreement that the Spotted Bear and White River area for several years administered by the Lewis & Clark should be turned back to the Flathead next year. Trails and telephone line recently completed or far advanced in construction make such a course entirely practicable and logical. The desirability of returning the Big River area in the near future is less clearly established but is worthy of the most careful consideration on the part of the district Office and both Supervisors concerned.⁸⁹

With regard to the Big River area, he felt that an appropriate headquarters location remained open for debate:

With the completion of the Belton-Summit highway my inclination would be to throw Spruce Creek, Vinegar Creek and Charlie Creek and the country below them into the Essex District, return the Upper Big River area to the Flathead administration and locate the headquarters for the Big River District at Schafer Meadows, where it will be fairly central to the district and where it is possible to develop pasture and hay land. Supervisor Hornby is not entirely in accord with the plan of locating headquarters at Schafer Meadows because it puts the District headquarters so far back from the railroad. He suggests as an alternative, the development of a headquarters near Spruce Park, where it would also be possible to develop some pasture land.

Three Forks, the present headquarters is unsatisfactory because it affords an almost hopeless pasture chance and is neither a one-day or a two-day pack trip from the railroad at Java, from which point all supplies are packed in. There is little to abandon at Three Forks in the shape of improvements and the place would still be useful as a fireman's camp.⁹⁰

Flint also stated that the administrative complex at Big Prairie, which had been managed by the Lewis and Clark forest, should continue as the headquarters for the Flathead forest's Upper South Fork District, and that "A new headquarters should be planned and developed at Black Bear to handle part of the present Upper South Fork and Spotted Bear Districts after the readjustment of (district) boundaries."⁹¹ The exact date at which Big Prairie was once again brought under Flathead administration is unknown. However, by 1926 the original Upper South Fork District was eliminated and replaced by "Spotted Bear District."⁹²

Most of the administrative infrastructure for the Flathead National Forest, including administrative withdrawals and initial improvements, were established in the first decade of the twentieth century, by either the Lewis and Clark or Flathead forests. As the forest responded to new technologies in the late 1920s and early 1930s, some adjustments were made in the locations of administrative sites, mostly to accommodate airstrips. Further development in the Flathead backcountry was influenced by the application of administrative rules regarding "primitive" areas, and then the more restrictive policy regarding "wilderness" areas.

The Establishment of Primitive and Wilderness Areas within the Flathead National Forest

The concept of "wilderness" in the national forest system began in 1921, with the efforts of Aldo Leopold. Leopold had worked for the Forest Service since 1909 and in 1921 was stationed on the Datil National Forest in New Mexico. Largely because of Leopold's influence, in 1924 the Regional Forester for New Mexico and Arizona approved the management of the newly designated 700,000-acre Gila Wilderness Area within the Datil National Forest, as part of the forest's recreation plan. This mostly roadless area fit Leopold's concept of "wilderness" which he defined as a "continuous stretch of country preserved in its natural state, open to lawful hunting and fishing, big enough to absorb a two weeks

⁸⁹ Howard R. Flint, District Forest Inspector, "Memorandum," December 15, 1923 p. 3. Folder: Flathead 1923-1920 [213], Box 6 Deerlodge – Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle. This comprehensive memo covers a 30-day inspection trip undertaken by Flint in July and August of 1923. Topics included rearranging district boundaries, trails, fire lookouts, log building construction, and the development of a horse pack system.

⁹⁰ Ibid, p. 4.

⁹¹ Ibid, p. 3.

⁹² Hand-drawn notations regarding ranger district boundaries as of 1927 drawn on 1918 Flathead Forest Map; File: Flathead 192901924 [1/3], Box 6; Regional Office, Missoula; National Forest Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

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pack trip, and kept devoid of roads, artificial trails, cottages or the works of man.”⁹³ By 1925, regional foresters had established five other wilderness areas as components of forest recreation plans, even though this aspect of recreation planning had not been addressed by the Washington Office. In 1926, Forest Service Chief, William Greeley, initiated the process of establishing a formal agency policy towards wilderness. He outlined the situation as follows:

In wilderness areas recreation will be recognized as a highly important, if not dominant, use; and the usual protection will be afforded camp grounds, forage required for saddle and pack stock, spots of special beauty, and the like. Subject to such restrictions, the use of timber, forage and water should ordinarily take its normal course.

The utilization of economic resources may in time require the construction of transportation facilities as a necessary incident. That feature of a particular situation can only be dealt with at the time, with the Service keeping its hand free to deal with it in the most common sense way, while maintaining its recreation policy in so far as essential needs in the use of economic resources will permit.

The policy boils down to outlining areas where the Service will build no roads and issue no recreation permits.⁹⁴

After securing the approval of the Secretary of Agriculture to include wilderness areas as a component of Forest Service recreation policy, Greeley contacted the regional foresters in the Western states and asked them to do two things: 1) to review their forests' road development plans to make sure that they did not include the construction of roads in potential wilderness areas other than those required for forest protection; and 2) to review their special use plans and policies to “safeguard areas adapted to wilderness use against forms of special use inconsistent with the wilderness values, and specifically against permits for summer homes, hotels and other structure.” Further, he stated that he did not feel that the size of an area should be considered in establishing wilderness reservations, and that “It is not my thought that we should at this time attempt to forecast the social and economic trends which ultimately will determine whether a given area should be maintained as a wilderness; or to what degree its material resources should be utilized.” Greeley felt that grazing was not inconsistent with his concept of wilderness, but that demands for the economic use of timber and water would have to be “dealt with at the time in accordance with our best judgment of the highest use or best means of correlating different used of the land.” Unlike Leopold, who felt that large numbers of people destroyed the feeling of wilderness, Greeley stated that “The only justification for maintaining wilderness areas in the National Forests is for public use and enjoyment. The only limitation should be the natural one set up by the modes of travel possible. It is my idea that having kept out the roads and the buildings, we should encourage public use of wilderness areas just a freely as in many other portion of the national Forests; and should impose only such restrictions as may be necessary for the protection of the National Forests.”⁹⁵

Clearly, Greeley's policy left the regional foresters in the West with a great deal of flexibility. Although five regional foresters moved ahead with establishing wilderness reservations according to their own understanding of the general principals, the regional forester in Montana, Fred Morrell, balked at the new policy. Morrell felt that it subverted the greatest good for the greatest number to the greatest good for a few, and advocated that the Forest Service not advertise the policy so that it would be “free to make changes whenever necessary.”⁹⁶

Between 1926 and 1928, the Forest Service operated under Greeley's general principals on wilderness. However, in 1928, L. F. Kneipp, head of national forest recreation planning, prepared draft regulations that would attempt to assert stronger controls over wilderness reservations. The authority to establish this new regulation came from the Act of June 4, 1897, authorizing the Secretary of Agriculture to make rules and regulations to regulate and preserve the forest reservations from destruction. After review by the regional foresters, the so-called L-20 regulations took effect in July of 1929. The regulations included a major change in terminology, in that the previous “wilderness reservations,” were thereafter to be referred to a “primitive areas,” to be used for public education, inspiration, and recreation purposes. The

⁹³ Aldo Leopold, “The Wilderness and Its Place in Forest Recreation Policy,” *Journal of Forestry*, XXIX, 1921, p. 718-721.

⁹⁴ Greeley quoted in Gilligan, *The Development of Policy and Administration of Forest Service Primitive and Wilderness Areas in the Western United States*, 1953. Volume 1, p. 101-102.

⁹⁵ *Ibid*, p. 104.

⁹⁶ *Ibid*, p. 105.

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new regulations also identified “research reserves,” areas to be used for science, research, and education. Although the L-20 regulations provided a mechanism for establishing primitive areas, they did not identify any size requirements, or provide hard and fast restrictions on the type of economic activity that could occur within their boundaries.⁹⁷

On the Flathead National Forest, the first primitive area formally established under the L-20 regulations was the South Fork Primitive Area, in 1931. This area consisted of about 584,000 acres of land in the South Fork, Spotted Bear and White River drainages. At the time of its establishment, this primitive area incorporated the Spotted Bear, Big Prairie, and Black Bear ranger districts. Two years later, the regional office established the Pentagon Primitive Area, containing 95,000-acres of land in the headwaters of the Middle Fork drainage. This area included a portion of the Big River Ranger District, headquartered at Schafer Meadows. Notably, the majority of the Spotted Bear River drainage was eliminated from both the South Fork and Pentagon primitive areas. The reason for excluding it from primitive classification was because forest service personnel felt that there was the possibility of constructing water power projects in the drainage or for building a road from Spotted Bear across the Continental Divide to Bench Mark station on the adjacent Lewis and Clark National Forest (Figure 21).⁹⁸

Between 1929 and 1939, discussions continued regarding the pros and cons of the Forest Service’s primitive area policy. Some groups that supported the concept were frustrated by the fact that the designation could be changed easily, and that there were no hard and fast rules about the types of extractive activities that could or could not occur in designated primitive areas. Others continued to voice opposition to primitive areas because they benefitted only a few. During this period Robert Marshall had taken up the mantle of wilderness advocacy left by Aldo Leopold’s resignation from the Forest Service. Marshall had begun work in Region One in 1925, where he was assigned to the Northern Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station. During his short time in Montana, Marshall traversed much of the undeveloped lands in the region’s forests, including the Flathead National Forest’s backcountry. In 1928, he left the service to pursue an advanced degree, but ultimately returned to the Washington Office in 1937 to head the Recreation and Lands Division. In that position, he actively campaigned for the preservation of large tracts of undeveloped area in the Western national forests.

Largely because of the efforts of Marshall and like-minded proponents, in 1939 the Secretary of Agriculture rescinded Regulation L-20 as it applied to primitive areas, and approved new Regulation U-1. Under Regulation U-1, “national forest lands in single tracts of 100,000 acres may be designated by the Secretary as ‘wilderness areas’” Wilderness areas could not contain roads or” other provision for motorized transportation, no commercial timber cutting, and no occupancy under special use permit for hotels, stores, resorts, summer homes, organization camps, hunting and fishing lodges, or similar uses”⁹⁹ The regulations did, however, allow most of the activities required by forest service personnel in the discharge of their administrative and fire protection duties. Accordingly, livestock grazing, the development of water storage projects that did not require road construction, and the addition of improvements for fire protection were permitted “subject to such restrictions as the Chief deems desirable.” In addition, although Regulation U-1 specifically prohibited the landing of airplanes on national forest land or water, an exception was made “where such use has already become well established or for administrative needs and emergencies.”¹⁰⁰

⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ Kathryn McKay, *Trails of the Past: Historical Overview of the Flathead National Forest, Montana 1800-1960*. p. 280.

⁹⁹ Gilligan, *The Development of Policy and Administration of Forest Service Primitive and Wilderness Areas in the Western United States*, 1953. Volume 2, p. 6.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid.

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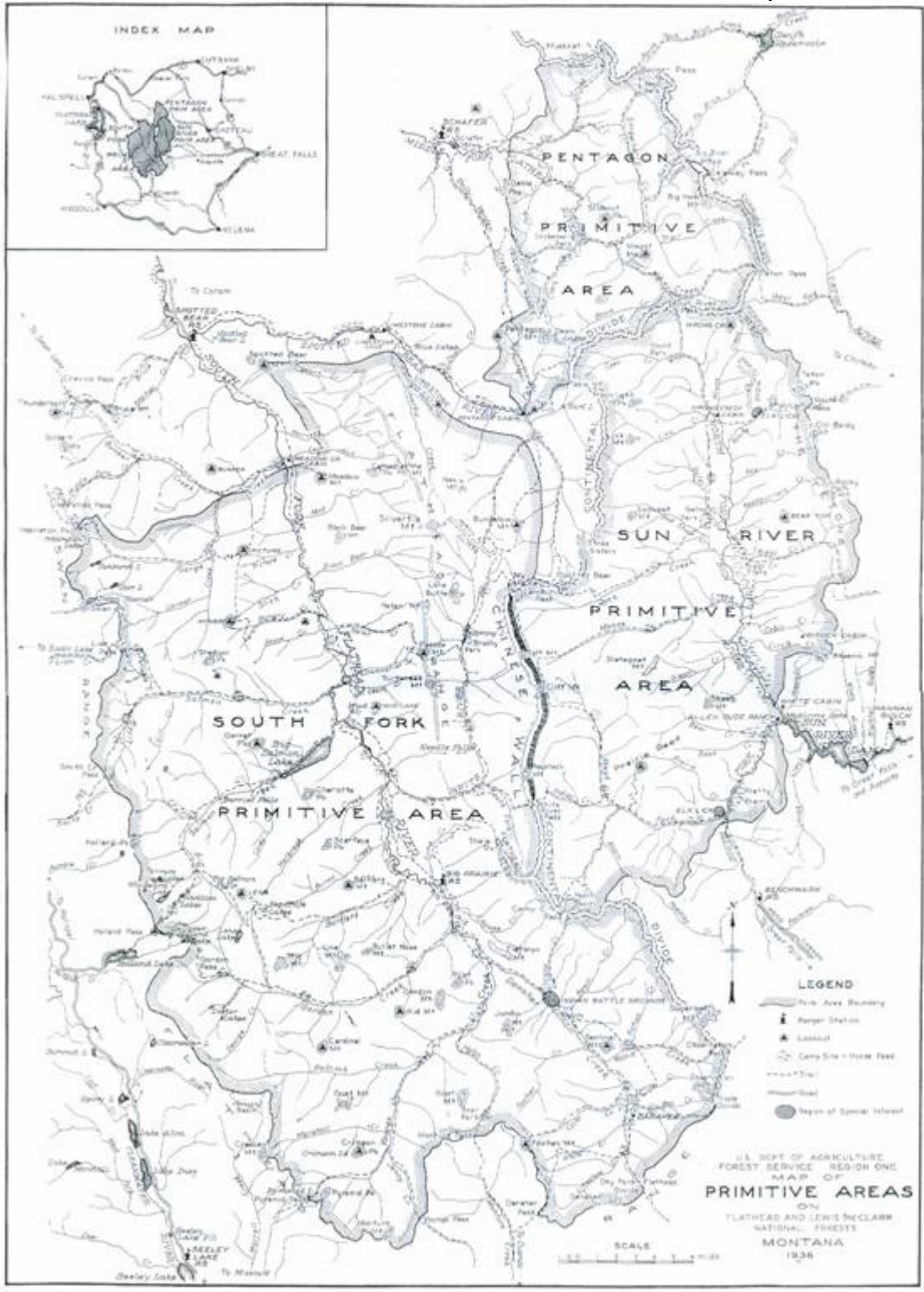


Figure 21. Map of the Primitive Areas on the Flathead and Lewis and Clark National Forests (1936). Folder: Flathead NF Historical Files [1 of 3], Box 70, Historical Collection 1905-1990; RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

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Acting under the guidelines in Regulation U-1, in August of 1940, the Secretary of Agriculture approved the creation of the Bob Marshall Wilderness, so named to honor wilderness advocate, Robert Marshall, who had died the previous year: This new Forest Service wilderness area incorporated all of the lands in the former South Fork and Pentagon primitive areas, as well as 240,000 acres included in the Sun River Primitive Area (established in 1934), located east of the Continental Divide on the Lewis and Clark National Forest. At nearly a million acres, the Bob Marshall was the first wilderness area created in Region One.¹⁰¹ The forest continued to use its airstrips at Black Bear and Big Prairie, which had been in use for resupply since the 1930s.

Between the mid 1940s and the end of the 1950s, visitation to the Bob Marshall Wilderness increased from roughly 500 to 5,000 visitors—most of whom accessed the area on horseback. Still, forest service management of the South Fork backcountry remained relatively unchanged. Its' two district headquarters complexes (Spotted Bear and Big Prairie) continued to be manned on a seasonal basis, and the guard stations supplied shelter for government packers, trail crews, and others working on research and administrative tasks. Likewise, the Middle Fork administrative sites, including the district headquarters at Schafer Meadows and guard stations, continued to be used during the summer season. In both the South and Middle forks of the Flathead River drainages, administrative sites relied on pack trains as well as airstrips for resupply.

The passage of the federal Wilderness Act in 1964 dramatically altered some aspects of the Flathead National Forest's management of the backcountry system in the Bob Marshall Wilderness. The Bob Marshall was incorporated into the system of congressionally designated wilderness areas: Because the federal act required the closure of all airstrips in wilderness, Big Prairie and Black Bear airfields, which had been used for Forest Service administrative purposes since the 1930s, were closed. Thereafter, all of the administrative sites in the Bob Marshall Wilderness would be resupplied by pack train. In 1978, when the Middle Fork area was included in the Great Bear Wilderness, the airstrip at Schafer Ranger Station was specifically exempted from the rules prohibiting airstrips in wilderness.

Development of the Flathead Forest's Trails Program and its Telephone Communications System.

As was typical of the forests throughout the region, trail construction occupied much of the forest rangers' time on the Flathead National Forest. Initially, the first priority of the new agency was forest protection, and trails and phone lines were needed to access the backcountry. Elers Koch devoted considerable discussion about trails in his 1906 report on the South unit of the Lewis and Clark National Forest, which would become, in 1908, the Flathead National Forest.

The two most important pieces of trail work undertaken this year were the South Fork Trail, and the Middle Fork Trails, following the line of the Great Northern Railroad.

The South Fork trail, which will form the main route through the reserve from north to south, still lacks about 15 miles of completion. Work was pushed from both the upper and lower ends this summer, and about 12 ½ miles completed at a cost in labor of \$26 per mile, which is very good, considering the character of the country. The trail built on this river in 1905, under supervisor Bliss, cost about \$70 per mile. It was cut out ten feet wide, while this years trail is cut about seven feet. This trial should by all means be completed next year.

The Middle Fork Trail is completed except for three miles of not particularly difficult country just below Java. ... Fifteen miles of this trail were built for about \$26 per mile.¹⁰²

Koch found the standard of trails built in 1906 to be "very high," and stated that it would be "poor economy" to invest more time in them when there were many hundreds of miles of trails remaining to be built.

There are still immense areas on the reserve which have no trails into them. Even with the South Fork Trail completed there are many large tributaries which are almost inaccessible. Until this year there never had been a ranger on the head of the Spotted Bear or the White River, and there are no trails up these large streams.¹⁰³

¹⁰¹ Kathryn McKay, *Trails of the Past: Historical Overview of the Flathead National Forest, Montana 1800-1960*, p. 281.

¹⁰² Elers Koch, "Report on Lewis and Clark South Montana," November, 1906. Folder: Flathead 1906-1905 [313], Box 7 Flathead – Helena, Insp. Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

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In his report, Koch prioritized the trails work: Completion of the Middle Fork Trail to Java was the highest priority, followed by completion of the South Fork Trail. Third in order of precedence was a trail up White River across the Continental Divide to the South Fork of the North Fork of the Sun River, while a trail leading south from Java up the Middle Fork Flathead River ranked fourth. Koch stated that the “short season for which the temporary force was employed ... interfered greatly with the plans for trail work, as the men had to be put on fire patrol during all the danger season.” Koch recommended that the forest guards be employed for five or six months a year to make more headway in trails construction.¹⁰⁴

Besides the need for trails, Koch also stressed the importance of building an “extensive system of telephone lines” to be used in fire protection.¹⁰⁵ Initially, it appears that the region had no comprehensive policy for building telephone systems beyond recommendations for completing the lines. For example, although funds had been allotted for a phone line up the Swan River drainage, the project had been abandoned because rangers could not be spared from their routine duties to do the work.¹⁰⁶ The first phone line on the Flathead National Forest was not built until 1908, when the supervisor’s office in Kalispell was connected with Coram. However, the catastrophic wildfires of 1910 appear to have pushed the region towards developing a formal communications policy. During a 1910 meeting of the Region One forest supervisors all agreed that the first priority should be the construction of main trunk lines, i.e., lines connecting forest supervisors’ offices with permanent ranger stations. After that, spur lines to back-country areas (lookouts and guard stations) would be included in the communications network. Both the trunk and spur lines would serve general administrative functions and also figure prominently in protection activities.¹⁰⁷ On the Flathead National Forest, the phone line between Coram and Spotted Bear Ranger Station was completed by 1910. Two years later, the line extended to Big Prairie. A phone line up the Middle Fork Flathead River followed in 1913 and 1914.¹⁰⁸

By 1915, the region had a dedicated telephone engineer (R. B. Adams) as well as a handbook from the Washington Office that explained how to construct a single wire, grounded circuit line:

Single wire telephone lines used by the Service were ideal for back-country use. Every electrical circuit required two conductors—one for the current to flow out on and one for its return. The single wire telephone line used the earth for one conductor, hence the name “ground-return” line, which was usually shortened to “grounded” line.¹⁰⁹

For initial telephone line construction and for maintenance, the Forest Service mostly used three-person crews—sometimes supplemented by a packer, whose job was to haul equipment and cook. One person was responsible for locating the line, keeping it in sight of the adjacent trail and staying in the timber where there were suitable “hang trees.” Another man selected and blazed the hang trees, if possible placing them between 120 and 140 feet apart. When the second man was two or three ‘hangs’ ahead, a third person would sight along the line of hang trees to determine which side of the tree the line should be attached to in order for it to pull away from the tree if one or more should fall. In order to avoid creating large piles of slash that would hinder raising the No. 9 galvanized wire, the crew cleared just enough brush to allow the line to be raised.¹¹⁰ The wire came in 80 lb rolls, which were usually mounted on homemade reels. Two men pulled the line out from the reel while a third “tended the reel to keep the wire from tangling and to stop the pullers when the wire was all out. He then spliced the end to the wire of the previous roll and carried the reel to the next station.” The next was fastening the line to the tree:

¹⁰³ Ibid, p. 14.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid. p. 10 and 14.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid, p. 16.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ J. H. Bud Coats, *Communications in the National Forests of the Northern Region: A History of Telephone and Radio*. US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Northern Region, Missoula, p. 2.

¹⁰⁸ Kathryn McKay, *Trails of the Past: Historical Overview of the Flathead National Forest, Montana 1800-1960*, p. 123.

¹⁰⁹ J. H. Bud Coats, *Communications in the National Forests of the Northern Region: A History of Telephone and Radio*. p. 3.

¹¹⁰ Ibid, p. 3-4.

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Usually two men did the climbing and trimmed branches off the hanging trees up to 20 feet. The ground man put on the split tree insulators. There were made of porcelain, similar to half a doughnut, and two of them were secured around the #9 wire. There were hooked to a light rope hanging from the climber's belt. At about 26 feet the climber drove in a staple about three-quarters of its length and put one tie wire in from each side. The tie wire was a piece of #12 iron wire about 22 inches long, wrapped twice around the pair of split tree insulators, twisted to keep the two halves together. Then each end was hooked through the staple from opposite directions. The tie wire end was about an inch long and bent down about 45 degrees. A 300-pound pull would straighten these out and pull down the insulator rather than break the line. Trees could fall across the line every 4 or 5 spans and just take up the slack. Additional windfalls would just pull the insulator down.¹¹¹

The final step in telephone line construction was to adjust the slack in the line and cut trees and branches that might interfere with the wire.



Figure 22. Flathead telephone crew
installing line, circa 1925.
(Photo No. 0394 HF FNF).

¹¹¹ Bert Morris quoted in J. H. Bud Coats, *Communications in the National Forests of the Northern Region: A History of Telephone and Radio*. p. 4-5.

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By 1918, the Flathead National Forest had completed all of the trails recommended by Koch as well as many others along the major tributary streams in both the South Fork and Middle Fork drainage basins. In the South Fork, the main through trail extended from Spotted Bear south to Ovando by way of Danaher station and over the divide into the Dry Fork of the Blackfoot River. Trails also extended up the major tributaries of the South Fork, including: Big Salmon Creek and along the west side of Big Salmon Lake; Gordon Creek, and Youngs Creek and its three tributaries, Babcock Creek, Jenny Creek, and Hahn Creek. The Youngs Creek, Jenny Creek, and Hahn Creek trails led southward across the crest of the Swan Range and into the adjacent Missoula National Forest (later part of the Lolo National Forest). In addition, a trail extended along the north bank of Spotted Bear River, to the base of Pyramid Peak.¹¹²

In the Middle Fork Flathead proper, the trail to Java had been completed, as well as the trail south from that point along the Middle Fork to Schafer Meadows and beyond to its headwaters at the confluence of Clack, Bowl and Strawberry creeks. Trails leading north up Strawberry Creek traversed the top of the Lewis and Clark Range at Badger Pass, while another branch headed up Bowl Creek to Sun River Pass. Yet another trail branched from the Strawberry Creek Trail up Gateway Creek to cross into the Lewis and Clark National Forest at Gateway Pass.¹¹³

The report of an inspection of the Flathead National Forest conducted in July and August of 1923 contained an in-depth discussion of the forest's trails program. Keeping in mind that forest "protection" was the major goal of Forest Service employees in the 1920s, the forest supervisor developed a trails plan that focused on keeping "existing trails in passable condition even through new construction had to be suspended" The maintenance of secondary or lateral trails was placed on a three or four year rotation basis.¹¹⁴ Although the regional inspector approved of the supervisor's approach, he also found problems in trail construction. Of general concern was the need for drainage structures. Referencing instructions in the new "Trail Manual," District Forest Inspector Howard Flint advised:

The need for more water bars ... on all grades was emphasized by the past season with its exceptional summer rains. Heavy erosion was noted on the grades of many trails. Unless protective measures are taken the result will probably be eventual abandonment of these stretches and the construction a new tread beside the old. None of the foremen encountered on this or any other Forest were putting in any water bars or making any adequate provision for surface drainage on grades.¹¹⁵

Flint also felt that the Flathead should consider carefully the question of slash disposal. He noted that slash (vegetation removed during trail construction), had simply been piled in windrows adjacent to the trail on all of the new construction projects that he inspected. This stood in "striking" contrast to the trails on the adjacent Lewis and Clark National Forest, which disposed of slash along all of its trails. Because the new trail construction was occurring in areas little-used by the public, Flint questioned whether the cost of slash disposal was really warranted.

Another more general concern specific to the Flathead was the future cost of clearing backcountry trails threatened by fire-killed timber from the 1910 burn or from insect attacks. Trails in this category included: portions of the Big River (Middle Fork Flathead), Gordon Creek, and White River trails. He expanded on the problems with the White River trail, which he found "in bad shape," in August of 1923:

Either of two courses seems logical: reconstruct virtually the entire trail in the near future, or merely cut out windfalls each year and recognize it as a bad and little-used trail. After careful consideration I lean toward the latter course for the next few years at least. Resources in this drainage since the 1910 and 1919 fires are very low, trail construction would be costly, and virtually the only excuse for entering this drainage is fire protection. It might be

¹¹² Flathead National Forest Map, 1918 edition. Folder: Flathead 1929-1924 [1/3]; Box 6; Regional Office, Missoula, National Forest Inspection Reports, 1906-1944; RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ Howard R. Flint, District Forest Inspector, "Memorandum," December 15, 1923 p. 3. Folder: Flathead 1923-1920 [213], Box 6 Deerlodge - Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

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good policy to make a relocation survey of some of the worst stretches of this trail, mark the survey well and hold the job in readiness for the incidental work of an emergency crew in a bad fire season.¹¹⁶

Although Flint felt that reconstruction of a little-used trail as “incidental” work acceptable, he felt that other projects needed specific funding. In discussing the need to reconstruct the trail from Holland Lake over the Swan Range into the South Fork, he stated that the ranger had set up the project as a “contributed time job,” but that it was “pretty heavy to expect to accomplish in that way.”¹¹⁷ In spite of all of the issues detailed in his report, Flint concluded that the Flathead’s trails compared favorably to other forests in the Northern Region.

Flint also touched briefly on the status of the Flathead’s system of telephone lines, noting that the work completed in previous years deviated too far from Forest Service specifications: “Ties are not standard and wire is strung too low and too tight. I believe that Supervisor’s office does not sanction this kind of work, and some recent work seen in other places was very good. The field still needs considerable education in telephone line construction.”¹¹⁸

Throughout the 1920s the forest continued to chip away at trail building following instructions in the agency’s trail manuals produced by the Washington office. The handbook provided a complete guide to trails work, including a classification of trail types based upon intended use, recommendations for the size and composition of trail crew construction camps and the outfitting of same, directions for laying out trails, and the construction of appurtenant structures, among them corduroy, stone retaining walls, pack bridges, and water bars (Figures 23 and 24).

The trails classification scheme identified three types of trails. The most basic and least expensive to build were “way trails,” defined as plainly marked routes built primarily for foot travel, but constructed to specifications permitting the safe travel by heavily loaded pack animals. These trails required little work on the tread, because it was intended that pack animals would establish it through use. Way trails could have a grade of up to 15 percent, but up to as much as 40 percent for distances of 100 yards or less. They had to be clearly marked so that fire fighters could find their way in the dark. Primary trails were defined as those over which an average of more than one saddle or pack animal pass each day during the field season, while secondary trails were those that received less use than specified for primary trails, but built primarily for horse travel. Primary and secondary trails had to be cut out so that a loaded pack stock could clear the trail even when the adjacent vegetation was weighed down by snow.¹¹⁹ The desired width of primary and secondary trails was between 24 and 30 inches, depending upon the steepness of the grade (Figure 25). Obviously, way trails were the least expensive to build: in 1928, the forest built 10 miles of primary trails for \$522, 81 miles of secondary trails for \$178, and 312 miles of way trails for \$113.¹²⁰

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

¹¹⁷ Ibid.

¹¹⁸ Ibid, p. 20-21.

¹¹⁹ USDA Forest Service “Forest Trail Handbook,” 1935. US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC. FNF HF.

¹²⁰ McKay, *Trails of the Past: Historical Overview of the Flathead National Forest, Montana 1800-1960*, p. 108.

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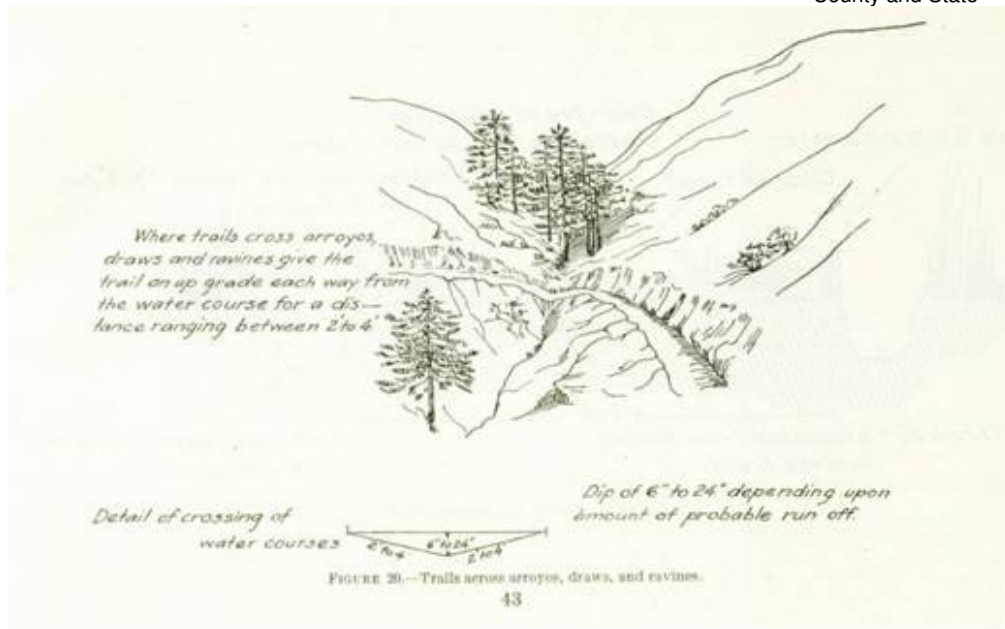


Figure 23. Specifications for locating a trail through a ravine. Forest Trail Handbook, Revised July 1935.

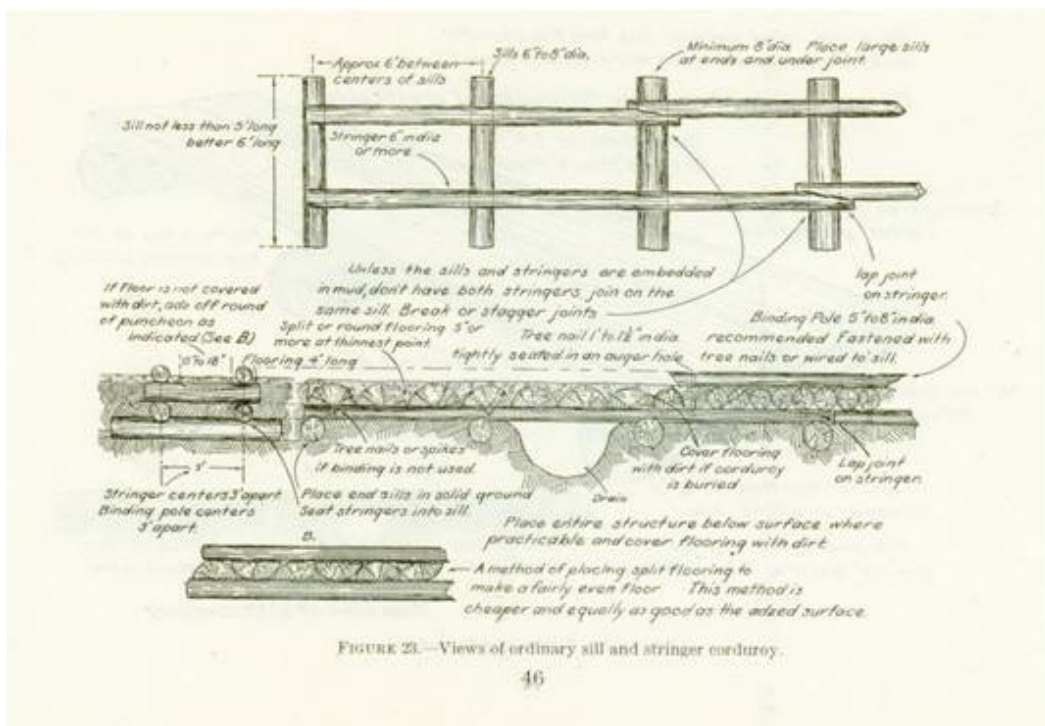


Figure 24. Directions for constructing corduroy through boggy areas along trails. Forest Trail Handbook, Revised July 1935.

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Figure 25. Trail crew working on the South Fork Trail, 1923 (Photo No. 0468, HF FNF).

Much of trail construction was done by hand or with horse-drawn equipment. For the heavy construction required for primary and secondary trails, the ideal size of a crew numbered 10-12 men, supported by a cook and directed by a foreman. Ideally, the location for a trail grade would be scouted and staked well ahead of time. Working along a marked route, “swampers” cleared brush from the trail. Horse-drawn graders spaced between 25 and 100 feet apart, worked behind the swampers. Rock men and powder men (blasters) followed the graders, removing difficult obstacles from the trail tread. Hand graders followed the blasters to smooth the tread, install water breaks, decrease the angle of back slopes where necessary, and cut away any interfering brush left by the swampers. In contrast, for way trails, forest service guidelines recommended the use of two- to three-man crews.¹²¹

Sometimes, instruction in the proper use of equipment was necessary to avoid a bad job and wasted effort, as indicated by a 1926 description of an inspection of the Half Way Trail construction job on the Flathead forest: “We found the grader work had been given little supervision ... and while the foreman was using the horse outfit energetically he was not getting the best results, due to the methods he had adopted. No one had been on the job to show him how to use the equipment.”¹²² Mechanized equipment available to Forest Service trail crews included air compressors to power the drills used in blasting. Personnel from the regional office also conducted early field tests of the prototype of modern chainsaws—the Wolf power saw on the Flathead and Blackfoot forests in 1932. Regional Forest Inspector, Frank Jefferson, concluded that “the saw has very real possibilities for use in areas where heavy sawing jobs exist,” but that its use in light clearing would not be justified.¹²³

¹²¹ USDA Forest Service “Forest Trail Handbook,” 1935, p. 14-15. US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC. FNF HF.

¹²² D. L. Beatty, District Forest Inspector, “Memorandum,” November 26, 1926. Folder: Flathead 1929-1924 [1/3], Box 6; Regional Office, Missoula; National Forest Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹²³ Frank J. Jefferson, Regional Forest Inspector, “Memorandum for Regional Forester,” August 13, 1932. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 6 Deerlodge-Flathead; Inspection Reports 1906-1944; RG 95; NARA Seattle.

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Forest Service policy also made it clear that the trail crew members were expected to act as fire fighters, whenever necessary. The 1935 edition of the Forest Trail Handbook stated: "Employ only men who are capable of doing fire-control work and with the definite and unmistakable understanding that they will become a part of the fire-control organization, ready and willing to go and fight fires either day or night. Train them as fire control units."¹²⁴ In bad fire years, any given forest's trails program could be adversely affected by sending crew members to fight fire.

By 1930, the Flathead made some significant additions to its trails system. Notable among these was a second trail paralleling the South Fork Flathead River, this one on the river's west bank, from Bruce Meadows, just west of Spotted Bear Ranger Station, southward to the mouth of Gordon Creek, a couple of miles south of Big Prairie. Many other trails connected the major east-flowing tributaries to the South Fork Flathead River, including a southward extension of the Big Salmon trail from its headwaters and over the divide into Gordon Creek.¹²⁵

In August of 1932, an inspector from the regional office in Missoula, once again conducted a review of the Flathead forest including its trails program and the state of its telephone lines. In his follow-up report, Frank J. Jefferson stated that he found that trails maintenance on the forest was uniformly well done. However, with regard to new trail construction, he expressed frustration with the practice of doing too much work on "way" trails—those designed to provide access for fire control. When the forest supervisor advised that way trails were the only class of trails remaining to be built on the forest, Jefferson recommended that the "trail program on the Flathead is in need of revamping with a setup of entirely new objectives. Henceforth, it is believed that the Flathead program should be restricted entirely to trails which (1) fire control plan development indicates to be absolutely necessary for the meeting of hour control standards, and (2) opening up of inaccessible areas, if any such remain, in which the present trail system is not sufficient to meet the requirements of present fire control standards." In furthering his point, Jefferson suggested that the term "way trail" be replaced with "fire trail," which would "make it plain" to trail foremen that the "objective in construction of such a trail is to produce a route over which stock and supplies can be taken to a fire."¹²⁶

With regard to the forest's telephone lines, Jefferson found most to be in good repair. The exception was a line along Schaeffer (sic) Creek, built three years earlier. Because of a shortage of insulators at the time of construction, the line had been completed with insulated wire for ties. Jefferson complained that "... the line is still in this condition. The ranger apparently has never found time to complete the job to satisfactory standards."¹²⁷

The importance of the forest's trails system and its nascent airfield program to its fire control efforts is reflected in the statement of J. C. Urquhart, in a 1932 memo regarding an inspection of Flathead forest trails:

On account of the protection problem peculiar to much of this Forest, probably more annual maintenance of way trails is justified than is usually the case. On much of the Forest by far the heaviest forest cover and the greatest hazard exists in the lower two-thirds of the drainages, the upper one-third generally being covered with rock and a relatively thin cover of lodgepole and subalpine species. A large amount of patrol is necessarily done by the thinly spread guard force. Many of the guards occupy high points in the lowest hazard areas at considerable distance from areas of heaviest cover on account of detection requirements. In order to handle concentration of lightning fires, especially following completion of the trail system and the resultant reduction of local forces, dependence will, in many cases be placed largely on men brought in by plane. To make such men most effective, drainage bottom trails

¹²⁴ USDA Forest Service "Forest Trail Handbook," 1935, p. 7. US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC. FNF HF.

¹²⁵ 1927 edition of the Flathead National Forest map, with hand-drawn lines showing the locations of new and rerouted trails, prepared for the region's publications department. Folder: Flathead 1929-1924 [1/3], Box 6; Regional Office, Missoula; National Forest Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹²⁶ Frank J. Jefferson, Regional Forest Inspector, "Memorandum for Regional Forester," August 13, 1932. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 6 Deerlodge-Flathead; Inspection Reports 1906-1944; RG 95; NARA Seattle.

¹²⁷ Ibid, p. 5.

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open for horse travel and available saddle stock seems essential. It is recommended that pack mules and other stock ... be concentrated on the districts where landing fields will be in use.¹²⁸

Although the Flathead's trails and phone lines had been found to be in good condition in the early 1930s, by the middle of the decade the forest had accumulated a backlog of trail and telephone line maintenance issues. During a 12-day trip through the Flathead backcountry in 1935, regional Improvements Inspector, Clyde Fickes, noted a universal lack of maintenance in all the telephone lines that he examined:

Telephone maintenance, like trail maintenance, has been more or less a hand-to-mouth proposition. Lines have just been hung up and while they work fairly good during the dry part of the season, as soon as a little moisture collects they become almost untalkable (sic) due to the myriads of small line losses through contacts. Lines which originally were well constructed with spans properly equalized, have now deteriorated until there is hardly a standard span to be found on some lines, and extra insulators have been hung into the line so that in many places nearly all of the slack has been taken up. I think that this is due to the fact that protection men have been sent out alone from their stations to make repairs after storms and have done the best they could to get the line up temporarily.¹²⁹

Fickes stated that many of the Flathead's phone lines were located in previously burned areas, where it was difficult to find standing dead trees on which to affix the lines. In areas where the new growth was not large enough to support the line, crews had to set poles, but these were mostly untreated and deteriorated in as little as four or five years. In the Basin Creek drainages, where new growth had not reached sufficient height to support a phone line, forest personnel decided to use "substantial" tripods, which Fickes felt would be more effective than hanging line on small trees: Small trees swayed in the wind causing "undue wear of the line through the insulator." Fickes believed that the current state of affairs resulted from rangers not having sufficient time to instruct their temporary field personnel in the mechanics of proper phone line construction and maintenance. He acknowledged that funding for telephone line maintenance had not been adequate during the past three years and suggested that proposed construction projects be dropped until the existing lines were properly maintained. "The lines are in such a shape that the work can only be satisfactorily accomplished by well-organized crews, under the leadership of trained and competent foremen. Brushing out, equalizing spans, replacing broken insulators and hanging up, out of the way of game and other animals, is necessary."¹³⁰ The brushing out scheme recommended by Fickes was initiated the following year, and would take several years to complete.¹³¹

In 1936, Fickes conducted another field survey of the Flathead National Forest, this one in the Middle Fork, riding horseback along the Big River trail from Java to Schafer Ranger Station then on to Gooseberry Park, up Clack Creek and down to Pentagon Cabin, and out to Spotted Bear Ranger Station. He found the trail between Java and Schafer had "drifted down the slope and hung in festoons and garlands on the hillside." Plowing and grading returned the trail to first class shape although the trail section above Schafer needed similar maintenance. Fickes concluded that "... a trail as heavily used as this trail is needs to have the grader taken over it every year if the tread is to be maintained in the original grade line."¹³² The district ranger figured that he could clear all of the district's trails before the onset of fire season and complete the maintenance work on the portion of the Big River Trail above Schafer, as long as his "trail allotment" for 1937 remained unchanged.¹³³

Regarding telephone lines, Fickes commented on the condition of a five-mile section of telephone line through the Middle Fork canyon where snow slides made maintenance a "very heavy job and a difficult problem." Earlier in the year,

¹²⁸ J. C. Urquhart, Jr. Regional Forest Inspector, "Memorandum," September 30, 1932. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 6 Deerlodge-Flathead; Inspection Reports 1906-1944; RG 95; NARA Seattle.

¹²⁹ C. P. Fickes, Improvement Inspector, "Memorandum for the Regional Forester," August 24, 1935. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 6 Deerlodge-Flathead; Inspection Reports 1906-1944; RG 95; NARA Seattle.

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ Wilfred W. White, Inspector "Memorandum for Regional Forester," December 27, 1937. Folder: Flathead 1937 [2/3], Box 6 Deerlodge / Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹³² C. P. Fickes, Improvement Engineer, "Memorandum," November 3, 1936. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 5 Deerlodge-Flathead; Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹³³ Ibid.

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the district had tried to resolve the maintenance issue by reconstructing a section of the line by setting poles in locations where there was little chance of them being destroyed by avalanches, which resulted in a section of line with extremely long spans. Although Fickes approved this approach, he found fault with other aspects of the reconstructed section. He stated that the wire was stretched too tight (“as tight as a fiddle string”), and that it was “dead ended” into the poles or standing live trees. “On this type of construction necessary slack is imperative and I believe some of the line will be lost when very cold weather sets in This is particularly true in one or two instances where the line is dead ended into a live fir tree which will sway in the wind.”¹³⁴

In 1937, the region’s Communications Engineer, W. B. Apgar, conducted a review of the Spotted Bear and Schafer district telephone lines. In the Spotted Bear district, the line along Spotted Bear River was “badly in need of maintenance.” Branches touched the line, and the tree had grown over the staple so that “the purpose of the Region One tie is forestalled.” Apgar recommended replacing the ties and staples and increasing the slack in the line. He found only a few problems with the lines on the Schafer District, and remarked that “it was a distinct pleasure to inspect the lines of this district as they are far better maintained than the average telephone lines throughout the Region.”¹³⁵

Correspondence between forest and regional office personnel points to frustration on a variety of levels, much of it having to do with disagreements about trail standards. One case in point is a memo resulting from a trails inspection completed by Assistant Regional Forester, F. E. Thieme: Between August 11 and 20, 1938, Thieme inspected sixteen different trails on the Flathead National Forest—nine in the South Fork backcountry. In his follow up memo, he stated that the standard of the trails on the Flathead was “much above” that of other western forests, and implied that too much work was being done. He described the Big Prairie – Danaher and Big Prairie - Hahn Creek trails to be in “boulevard condition.” In particular, he felt that plowing and grading with horses was too expensive and that hand grading might be more economical. His most severe criticism was saved for a new trail construction project to connect Upper Holland Lake, on the west slope of the Swan Range with the headwaters of Pendant Creek on the east slope of the mountains. In particular, he found its location to be “amateurish,” resulting in too much rock work and steep grades. He estimated that it would cost \$3,000 per mile to complete. Thieme also recommended constructing a new trail from a low saddle north of Lena Lake, eastward along the west side of Holbrook Creek to connect with an existing segment of trail along Holbrook Creek. This new through route would tie in with the trail between Upper Holland Lake and Pendant Creek, and create a new, shorter route for hunters accessing the White River country. He also stated that “If the present trail location along Holland Creek is indicative of what might be expected of the Flathead in future work, I advise the withholding of any trail construction allotments until such time as the Flathead is able to redeem its responsibility.”¹³⁶

Forest Supervisor, J. C. Urquhart, responded to Thieme’s memo in a letter to the Regional Forester, pointing out that the original 1919 trail location work for the Holland Creek Trail had been abandoned because the drainage was so “tough and precipitous.” For the 1937-1938 work, two people spent seven days marking a preliminary route, and others made several attempts to improve the route ahead of the construction crews. Progress on the trail construction had been further confounded by the fact that a compressor promised by regional engineering had been delivered a month late. Urquhart also defended the use of graders to recondition the Big Prairie-Danaher and Hahn Creek trails, stating that it was undoubtedly the cheapest way to remove the loose rock on the trail that resulted from elk grazing in the area. Urquhart finished by saying: “I believe that the maintenance of 4400 miles of trail (and bridges) on the Flathead in a manner which would make it possible to pack standard fire loads over them with reasonable speed should be given first

¹³⁴ Ibid, p. 1.

¹³⁵ W. B. Apgar, Communication Engineer “Memorandum,” September 9, 1937. . Folder: Flathead 1937 [2/3], Box 6 Deerlodge / Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹³⁶ F. E. Thieme, Assistant Regional Forester, Memorandum. August 23, 1938. Folder: Flathead 1940-1938 [1/3]; Box 6 Deerlodge – Flathead; Inspection Reports 1938-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

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consideration in the expenditure of trail funds. This would require considerable money. After this is financed, construction of the projects referred to [by Thieme] should be considered.”¹³⁷

Despite such disagreements, by 1941, the system of backcountry trails on the Flathead National Forest was fairly complete, as illustrated by a map produced to accompany a guide to travelers in the newly created Bob Marshall Wilderness.¹³⁸ The main South Fork and Middle Fork trails accessed these major drainages. In addition, trails paralleled the major tributary streams and provided many connections to adjacent Lewis and Clark and Lolo National Forests. The publication of a trails guide illustrates the importance of the Forest Service trails program to both forest protection and recreation programs.

The impact to the trails and communications programs that resulted from the United State’s entry into World War II was much the same as on other Forest Service programs. Although the forest made an attempt to maintain its existing infrastructure, little if any new construction occurred. After the war, maintenance was, once again, a high priority. A 1956 general inspection of the Big Prairie District revealed that the trails were well-maintained except for drainage, which was a chronic problem on all of the forests in Region One. Poor drainage resulted in the cushion being washed from the tread, resulting in “rock pavement.” The practice of using two-man crews to conduct the maintenance contributed to the problem, as they could not carry sufficient tools to accomplish a complete maintenance job. However, using three-man crews, or using pack stock to carry additional equipment would increase the cost of trails maintenance. Besides the drainage issues, the inspector found that many of the corduroys installed in the 1930s were deteriorating and needed to be replaced. Other issues included a projected increase in maintenance costs that would result from the need to cut away beetle-killed spruce and Douglas fir.¹³⁹ Although a 1958 inspection of the Big Prairie District found the 22 miles of trails inspected in fair to excellent shape, the lack of adequate drainage structures appears to have been an ongoing problem.¹⁴⁰ With regard to the telephone lines, the system was working well although a general need for greater clearance was noted. The district was using smoke jumpers to rebuild a section of line down river from Basin Creek GS, where they were setting new poles where needed. The ranger also planned to use the jumpers to relocate the line up Gordon Creek to ‘get it out of the trail.’¹⁴¹

In the early 1960s, the Big Prairie Ranger District received an increase in its trails appropriation under the “new intensive management program,” from an average of about \$7,000 the preceding years to \$19,300 for fiscal year 1961. The bulk of the appropriation had been earmarked for the “restoration” of the Pendant Creek Trail. By October 10, one mile at the head of the trail had been relocated: “A very thorough job is being done – rock blasted, excellent tread prepared and bogs eliminated by permanent water bars and culvert stream crossing. The completed job presents a startling contrast to the present trail.” The work on this one mile of trail, however, used about \$7,500 of the \$10,000 allocated to the job, and the inspector figured that much more money would be required to complete the job to the standard of work completed to date. Other accomplishments in the district included the repair and/or relocation of the worst sections of the Gordon Creek and Young’s Creek trails, including the placement of over 50 metal culverts, more than previously located on the entire district. Inspector, Robert Morgan summed up the district’s trails program as follows:

Most impressive feature of the trail program is the thoroughness of completed work. It is necessarily slow and expensive, involving drilling, blasting, wheelborrowing (sic) of solid fill material, etc., but the result is permanent. This pattern of restoration work begun by Ranger Owen should be continued. In the long run, quality work will pay off. Sacrifice, if necessary, should be in miles – not work quality.¹⁴²

¹³⁷ J. C. Urquhart to Regional Forester, November 17, 1938. Folder: Flathead 1940-1938 [1/3]; Box 6 Deerlodge – Flathead; Inspection Reports 1938-1944; RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹³⁸ USDA Forest Service *Trail Riders Guide to the Bob Marshall Wilderness*, 1941. Folder: Flathead NF Historical Files 1 of 3, Box 70 1905-1990, Historical Collection, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹³⁹ George F. Weyermann, Assistant Forest Supervisor, to Forest Supervisor, August 29, 1956. FNF HF.

¹⁴⁰ Robert S. Morgan, Forester, to Forest Supervisor, July 22, 1958. FNF HF.

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

¹⁴² Robert S. Morgan, Forester, to Forest Supervisor, November 2, 1960, FNF HF.

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Morgan also praised the ‘restoration’ of the Big Prairie District’s telephone lines. He noted that most of the line between Shaw and Pendent had been relocated “with standard height hangs, cleared right-of-way, and the line no longer dangles back and forth down the length of the Gordon Creek trail.” Other accomplishments included the renovation of six miles of the Hahn Cabin line, which had been “pulled out of the Young’s Cr. Swamps and rehung on well set, treated poles below the trail.” The main South Fork line also reflected “businesslike maintenance.” Former brush hangs and rotting tripods (presumably those installed in the mid 1930s) had been replaced with poles. All of these improvements, Morgan attributed to an increase in funding and “good use of jumper labor.”¹⁴³

Between 1960 and 1964, the Flathead National Forest continued to improve its South and Middle fork trails system which had been in place since the early 1940s. Passage of the Wilderness Act in 1964 had little effect on the trails program other than to prohibit the construction of new trails in areas where they did not exist prior to passage of the act. Some tools, such as chainsaws, could no longer be used in designated wilderness areas, but in the remote backcountry, trails maintenance mostly depended upon the use of hand tools and “primitive” construction methods—a practice that continues today.

Although trails continued to be of major importance to the agency’s management of its backcountry areas, after World War II, the Forest Service gradually abandoned its ground-return telephone line in favor of radio communications. Several things contributed to this decline in use. Commercial telephone companies were expanding and converting to dial systems, which the original ground-return lines could not accommodate. Although commercial companies did not meet all the needs of the Forest Service, the onus for repairing the lines fell with the company not with Forest Service personnel. In addition, the advent of frequency modulation in radio technology greatly increased the reliability of that system. The continued use of the ground-return phone line in the South Fork between Black Bear and Danaher guard stations is due in large part to unreliable radio communications in this remote area.

Flathead National Forest Architectural Trends and Significance

For the most part, the buildings located at the backcountry ranger and guard stations of the Flathead National Forest are typical of those found in similar locations on other national forests in Region One. Most are simple vernacular forms with rectangular plans and front-gable roofs, and made with whole logs harvested on site. Great variation is found in the corner joinery and in chinking and daubing, which, as stated previously, is attributable to the skills of the individual builders.

While many of the Flathead’s buildings appear to have been designed and executed by the builder, the backcountry does contain a number of standard plan buildings. Included among these are six “C-1” style cabins located at guard stations in both the south and middle fork drainages. All of the Flathead’s C-1 cabins were built in the 1920s or early 1930s. And, all are built of logs, although differences occur in notching style as well as daubing and chinking materials, window and door placement (Figure 26).

¹⁴³ Ibid.

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Figure 26. Undated photograph of Hahn Cabin, a “C-1” style building executed in logs
(Photo No. 2756 FNF HF).

Other standard plan buildings include the ranger residences at Big Prairie and Schafer ranger stations. Both buildings were built in about 1933, and are similar to “Ranger Residence Plan R-15” included in the 1935 edition of the Region One improvements handbook (Figure 27). Both buildings approximate the size specified in the handbook, although neither features the side porch or the chopper-cut ends. In addition to these residences, the cabins at Salmon Forks and Silvertip guard stations conform in general to the “C-4” style cabins (Figure 27). Both of these buildings date to the 1960s and have chopper-cut end finishes. Like the R-15 style residence, the C-4 Cabin plan was published in the 1935 “revised” edition of the region’s improvements manual.¹⁴⁴



Figure 27. Illustration of Ranger’s Dwelling R-15.
Drawn by W. J. Fox and W. D. McDaniel.¹⁴⁵

¹⁴⁴ C. P. Fickes, *Region One Handbook: Construction and Maintenance of Forest Improvements*, 1935. USDA Forest Service, Region One.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

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Figure 28. Illustration of Cabin C-4. Drawn by W. J. Fox and W. D. McDaniel.¹⁴⁶

In addition to examples of standard plan buildings, the Flathead backcountry has one building that is known to have been designed specifically for its site. It is the bunkhouse built in 1938 at Big Prairie Ranger Station. Designed by William Fox, this building features chopper cut end finishes on the wall logs, purlin and rafter ends—consciously rustic features that characterized architect-designed log building plans produced by the regional office from the 1930s through the early 1940s. At the time that it was built, it would have been the only log building at this site with this architectural detail.

Three of the sites in the Flathead backcountry have improvements that represent a design unique to the forest. All are log bearing buildings in which the walls of the half story extend about five feet beyond the edge of the ground floor at the front and rear of the building (Figure 29). Besides creating additional interior space, the overhanging portion of the building effectively shelters the front and rear entrances. The earliest buildings at Spotted Bear Ranger Station, Schafer Ranger Station, and Black Bear Guard Station all share this design. All were constructed in the early to mid 1920s, before the standardization of building plans begun by the regional office in the late 1920s. The origin of this building style has not been established; it is not included in the earliest improvement handbooks produced by the regional engineering office nor have architectural drawings been found. The fact that there are five similar buildings located at three different administrative sites indicates that in the absence of formal architectural drawings, there must at least have been a mental template. Besides their unique design, these buildings exhibit a high level of skill in the execution of their full dovetail notching. All of the Flathead's dovetail-notched buildings are attributed to one or two employees who worked for the forest in the 1920s and 1930s, before the regional office expressed a preference for the use of a scribe to produce tightly sealed buildings.

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

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Figure 29. Black Bear station, November 15, 1927 (Photo no 0352 FNF HF).
Black Bear Cabin is one of five similar buildings with a design unique to the Flathead National Forest.

Development History of the South Fork Administrative Sites

The South Fork administrative sites include two ranger district headquarters complexes (Spotted Bear and Big Prairie), and seven intermittent “guard” stations designed to accommodate small groups of people for a short period of time (Black Bear, Salmon Forks, Basin Creek, Danaher, Shaw, Pendant and Hahn Creek guard stations).

Spotted Bear Ranger Station (established at current site in 1921): The Flathead National Forest withdrew the 75 acres that contain the existing Spotted Bear Ranger Station in 1921.¹⁴⁷ This site replaced the original headquarters complex adjacent to Spotted Bear Lake, established in 1908 as an administrative site for the Lewis & Clark Forest Reserve. The forest selected the new site because it was at the projected terminus of a new wagon road, then under construction, which would connect the community of Corum, a stop on the Great Northern Railroad, with timber reserves in the South Fork drainage basin. According to the administrative withdrawal report:

This tract will be used as administrative headquarters of the Spotted Bear Ranger District and it is intended to have the building site located adjoining the wagon road on the level land in the western extremity of this area. Upon the completion of the wagon road, all supplies for use in the administration and protection of over 685,000 acres will be trucked to this area and then distributed by pack train. Pending the completion of the wagon road, all the supplies used in this large area will be brought in by pack train and distributed from this point. Hay will be raised on the Bruce Meadows, 2 miles distant for use of the pack trains and this area will be used only for holding horses necessary for immediate use in connection with the fire prevention and suppression work.

The report went on to state that the new station lay at the junction of the main South Fork pack trail with the Spotted Bear to Big River trail and with another trail connecting Spotted Bear with the Swan Lake Ranger Station—the latter located on the west side of the Swan Range. Telephone lines paralleled all three trails and Spotted Bear Ranger Station already

¹⁴⁷ D. F. McGowan, Assistant District Forester, to Supervisor, Flathead National Forest, May 23, 1921. Heritage Files, Flathead National Forest Supervisors Office, Kalispell, Montana, (Hereinafter HF FNHF). Spotted Bear Lake is located about a mile and a quarter east of the Spotted Bear-South Fork confluence. The headquarters adjacent to Spotted Bear Lake contained a two-story log house, a root cellar, and a log bunkhouse within a 220-acre fenced area that could support 10 head of horses during the summer season. After the district headquarters moved to its new location in 1921, district personnel continued to pasture horses within the old administrative site adjacent to Spotted Bear Lake.

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functioned as the field headquarters for “supervising and keeping in touch with the fire activities during the summer for the Spotted Bear, Big River, Essex, and South Fork ranger districts.”¹⁴⁸

The first improvement completed at the new Spotted Bear District headquarters was the office, the construction of which was scheduled to begin in September of 1923 (Figure 30).¹⁴⁹ A warehouse (Figure 31) and a ranger’s dwelling followed in 1926 and 1927 respectively. As originally constructed, all three buildings were of a similar design, made of logs with skillfully executed, full (compound) dovetail notches. The construction of all three of these buildings and of other similar buildings located on the Flathead National Forest has been attributed to one of two men capable of this high level of craftsmanship—Everett M. Hart or Victor Holmlund.

Everett Hart worked for the Forest Service from 1913 to 1926.¹⁵⁰ He is listed in the 1920 US Federal census as a resident of Jocko Township, in the Bigfork voting precinct of Flathead County. At that time, the 38-year-old Hart was a roomer in another man’s house and listed his occupation as “laborer.” By 1930, Hart owned his own home in Jocko Township, had married, and listed his occupation as ‘carpenter.’¹⁵¹ In a 1990 interview, former Forest Service employee, Art Whitney, indicated that Hart had shown him how to make full dovetail notches.¹⁵²

Victor Holmlund, known as “Big Vic,” because he stood over six feet tall, worked seasonally for the forest between 1924 and 1927 and again between 1929 and 1934. Information derived from the 1930 US census indicates that Holmlund, a native of Sweden, immigrated to the United States in 1891 at the age of about 22. Forest Service personnel records show that, other than his initial employment as a forest guard, most often he worked as a carpenter, occasionally as a simple laborer, and in 1933, as a foreman for a CCC crew. Although he received good ratings for most of his work, a notation for the six-month employment period in 1933 indicated that he was “slow to read blueprints,” and that he did not work well as a foreman. Even given these shortcomings, the forest hired him again in 1934 as a log and tower carpenter—probably building lookouts.¹⁵³ Art Whitney remembered that Hart and Holmlund often worked together, so it is possible that either or both of these men are responsible for the construction of the office and the warehouse at Spotted Bear.

¹⁴⁸ J. D. Warner, Forest Supervisor “Report on Administrative Site,” March 28, 1921, HF FNF.

¹⁴⁹ Howard R. Flint (District Forest Inspector), “Memorandum,” December 15, 1923, p.3. Folder: Flathead 1923-1920 [213], Box 6 Deerlodge – Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁵⁰ Kathryn L. McKay, *Trails of the Past: Historical Overview of the Flathead National Forest, Montana 1800-1960*. Report prepared for the Flathead National Forest, 1994.

¹⁵¹ 1920 US Federal Census: Jocko, Flathead, Montana; Roll: T625_971; Page 8B, Enumeration District 40, Image 139; 1930 US Federal Census: Jocko, Flathead, Montana, Roll: 1256; Page 2A, Enumeration District 0011, Image 111.0, accessed via Ancestry.com.

¹⁵² Janene Caywood conducted a telephone interview with Art Whitney on August 14, 1990 as part of a project to inventory and evaluate administrative sites in Region One of the US Forest Service for their eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Whitney worked at a variety of the Flathead’s backcountry stations during his career and was personally acquainted with both Hart and Holmlund. Janene Caywood, Theodore Catton and James McDonald. *Evaluation of Region 1 Forest Service-Owned Buildings for Eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places*, Report prepared by Historical Research Associates for USDA Forest Service, 1991.

¹⁵³ The 1930 US Federal Census indicates that Holmlund boarded with Forest Ranger Fred Neitzling and his wife Lillian in the community of Belton. Neitzling appears to have supervised Holmlund in 1931, when the latter was employed by the forest as a “log carpenter.” Neitzling would go on to serve as the forest’s supervisor between 1945 and 1962.

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Figure 30. Spotted Bear Ranger Station office under construction, 1923 or 1924 (Photo No. 0482, HF FNF).



Figure 31. Warehouse under construction with the completed office building behind (HF FNF).

Other than a 1932 addition to the Spotted Bear office building, between 1927 and the mid 1950s, the Spotted Bear District Headquarters underwent few changes. During the summer months, the district continued to coordinate fire dispatch for the all of the forest's backcountry administrative sites. However, the South Fork timber sales anticipated in the first decade of the 1900s did not materialize. Without winter timber sale work, this remote district never developed to a year-round facility. The early designation of much of the South and Middle fork lands as primitive areas, in 1931,

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ensured that the work of this district headquarters and of others in the backcountry would focus on protection of forest resources and, to a certain extent, recreation.

The growing importance of recreation in the remote sections of the backcountry is indicated by the 1926 Special Use permit issued for a dude ranch operation. The South Fork was also very popular for elk hunting, so popular that in 1938 the forest constructed the Spotted Bear Horse Camp—a staging and camping area for outfitters heading into the backcountry. In a letter to the regional forester, Flathead Forest Supervisor, J. C. Urquhart, stressed the fact that he needed the new facility completed in time to receive the “commercial packers and other outfits” who would begin arriving at Spotted Bear by September 10, to be ready for the September 15 opening of big game season in the South Fork. Personnel from the regional office in Missoula completed the layout of the horse camp and CCC enrollees from the Bridgehead CCC camp near Hungry Horse built the infrastructure (mostly roads) in the new facility.¹⁵⁴

In the early 1940s, the region and the forest initiated a new round of planning for Spotted Bear Ranger Station. It got as far as staking the location of a new office building in September of 1941.¹⁵⁵ However, the United States’ entry into World War II in December of that year put an end to improvements in the district—at least until after the war. Besides the three original log buildings built in the 1920s, other improvements at Spotted Bear in 1941 included: a five-stall car shed, a blacksmith shop, a feed barn, an oil house, a pole woodshed, a screen meat house on skids, an old kitchen, two vertical pole toilets, and a frame toilet.¹⁵⁶

The first post-war improvements to affect Spotted Bear district occurred in 1952, when a new road was built into the station from the vicinity of Hungry Horse. The new road replaced the one completed in 1925, which would be inundated after the completion of Hungry Horse Dam in 1953. The completion of the dam and the subsequent filling of the reservoir created new recreation responsibilities for the forest, which undertook a major planning effort to build campgrounds adjacent to the reservoir. By the end of the decade an old CCC building had been moved into Spotted Bear Ranger Station. It was placed northwest of the warehouse, refurbished and used as a bunkhouse.

In the early 1970s, the region planned to expand the development at Spotted Bear. A Site Development Plan prepared in May of 1972, proposed a large residential area with as many as nine new houses and a play area (presumably for full-time employees) as well as an area for seasonal employees that included two new bunkhouses and a large cookhouse. Also included in the plan under the heading “possible admin development,” was a large office, two small garages, a large warehouse and a gas house. The “admin development” was proposed for the area south of the 1920s building cluster, with the seasonal housing area separating it from the new residential area at the south end of the planning area. A new bridge over Spotted Bear River would lead to a relocated internal road system providing access to the new residential and administration areas and to a parking area for a public day use area adjacent to the river.¹⁵⁷

Today, the Spotted Bear Ranger Station is much as it was envisioned in the 1972 development plan. A new office building / visitor center is located south of the remaining historical buildings. Facilities for temporary employees are located south of the new office, separating it from a residential area at the south end of the developed core. A corral for the district’s livestock is located at the southern end of the administrative area.

Big Prairie Ranger Station (use initiated in 1904; administrative withdrawal filed in 1908)

In January of 1908 the Lewis and Clark National Forest submitted a recommendation to “withdraw from appropriation and use of all kinds under the public land laws,” roughly 200 acres adjacent to the South Fork in the area known as Big Prairie to serve as the headquarters for the administration of the Upper South Fork Ranger District.¹⁵⁸ Big Prairie

¹⁵⁴ J. C. Urquhart, Flathead Forest Supervisor to Regional Forester, August 19, 1938; Gurley to Flathead Forest Supervisor, radiogram dated August 24, 1938, HF FNF.

¹⁵⁵ J. R. Peterson, Associate Landscape Architect. Memorandum of Visit, September 3, 1941. HF FNF.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid.

¹⁵⁷ “Spotted Bear Ranger Station Site Development Plan,” May 1972. HF FNF.

¹⁵⁸ D. C. Harrison, Topographer, surveyed the withdrawal area in 1907, at which time the only improvement noted was a ‘ranger cabin’ adjacent to the north bank of the South Fork of the Flathead River.

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straddled the main South Fork trail, and was adjacent to the telephone line that connected with the forest supervisor's office in Kalispell, 120 miles north of the station. The area had been used informally as a summer headquarters since at least 1904, when a forest employee built a 12 ft. by 14 ft. one-room log cabin adjacent to the north bank of the river.

By 1908, forest service administrators were concerned that the area would be claimed by private interests under the Forest Homestead Act of 1906 or for grazing purposes:

Many tracts of land in the vicinity of this station have been applied for under the Act of June 11, 1906, and within a short time a very considerable community will be established there, and these (sic) is also near this station large areas of grazing land that will be pastured under permit in the near future. Where the settlers come in and the grazing business develops, this station will have to be maintained and occupied the year round.¹⁵⁹

Besides the one-room cabin built in 1904, improvements within the 1908 Big Prairie administrative withdrawal included a 'leaning pole fence' that enclosed about 110 acres of open grass land to "furnish pasture for the ranger's horses and for the government pack train that passed through the area." In 1909, a 20 ft. by 30 ft. barn was added to the site, just north of the original ranger cabin. In 1916, employees began working on a new log office/residence northeast of the original cabin and barn, near the north boundary of the administrative withdrawal (Figure 32).¹⁶⁰



Figure 32. New ranger's office/residence built in 1916 at Big Prairie Ranger Station. After construction of yet another ranger dwelling in the early 1930s, this building was used for a time as a bunkhouse. It is currently referred to as the "Packer's dwelling" (Photo No. 1066 HF FNF).

For the first few years, the station served as the winter pasture for the district's stock. However it proved difficult to get the stock out in the spring. Furthermore, there was no timber sale work to justify keeping a ranger stationed there during the winter months, nor did the anticipated 'community' of settlers ever materialize. Because of this, the decision was made to operate the headquarters complex "only during the summer months."¹⁶¹ The forest reversed this decision for at least a few years in the early 1920s. During the winter of 1923/1924, Clayton Roush, his wife and two-year-old daughter

¹⁵⁹ "Flathead - Stations; Big Prairie Ranger Station," circa 1910 report, HF FNF.

¹⁶⁰ Map Sheet for Upper South Fork District Ranger Station, dated January 28, 1917. HF FNF.

¹⁶¹ Ibid.

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lived at Big Prairie, while he looked after the forest's livestock. In January his daughter became very ill, and Roush traveled the 100 miles to Missoula on snow shoes to seek medical advice. Upon his return, he found that his daughter had died a few days after his departure. Roush and his wife buried her on a small knoll adjacent to the west bank of the South Fork Flathead River, overlooking the ranger station building complex.¹⁶²

Although the forest did not continue to use Big Prairie for winter pasture, the station's strategic location near the junction of trails leading to three large drainage basins (Danaher, Young, and Gordon creeks) and its position adjacent to the main South Fork Trail connecting Coram with Ovando ensured the usefulness of the station in the forest's fire protection organization. In 1922, Forest Service employees added a log shop to the Big Prairie grounds, just west of the house.

By the late 1920s, when the regional office began experimenting with air patrols to locate forest fires, Big Prairie was selected for the construction of a backcountry landing field. The first rudimentary airstrip was located about two miles north of the station buildings on the west side of the river. Known as Bartlett Field, because of its location adjacent to Bartlett Creek, this 240 ft. by 1400 ft. field was built by the end of June, 1928.¹⁶³ A note on the plat of the landing field instructed pilots to "observe flags set in tree tops," because the changeable winds blew down river with the field direction until noon, but then blew up river during the warm part of the day. Bob Johnson, of Johnson Flying Service in Missoula, is reported to have been the first to land at the Bartlett Field—delivering supplies to the district headquarters.

The Forest Service did not use the Bartlett Creek airfield for very long. One problem was that supplies flown in and offloaded there had to be repacked on mules and transported across the river to be stored at the district headquarters. The regional office considered several options to resolve this problem, as outlined in a report prepared by Regional Forest Inspector, Frank Jefferson:

As the matter stands now, there are three possibilities: One, the moving of ranger headquarters to Bartlett landing field; second, leaving the headquarters at the present site and developing a landing field at that point; and, third, development of a completely new landing field and ranger headquarters at Cayuse Flats.¹⁶⁴

Jefferson directed Forest Supervisor, Kenneth Wolfe, to complete an analysis of the costs associated with each alternative, to be completed by the fall of 1932. In addition, Jefferson consulted with Bob Johnson, of Johnson Flying Service, the pilot responsible for delivering supplies to the district. Johnson was to "keep a record of conditions over each of the three fields on each trip."¹⁶⁵ Ultimately, the solution was to build a new airstrip in the open hay meadow adjacent to the existing ranger station buildings.

In 1933, Forest Supervisor, Wolf completed a questionnaire about the facility to submit to the Aeronautics Branch of the Department of Commerce in Washington D. C. Wolf described the airfield as 400 ft. by 2200 ft. with a level sod surface; the single 100 ft. by 2200 ft. landing strip (Figure 33). The strip lacked the standard "100-foot white circle" in the center of the field, and the name of the field was not visible from the air, however, it did have wind socks at both ends. At that time, communications consisted of a telephone only, indicating that Big Prairie Ranger Station had not been integrated into the short-wave radio network installed in the backcountry lookouts in 1929. Wolf described the intended use of the airstrip as follows: "This is an emergency field constructed by and for the use of the United States Forest Service. Since

¹⁶² Charlie Shaw, *The Flathead Story*. Kalispell: Flathead National Forest Supervisor's Office, 1967, p. 62.

¹⁶³ Plan of "Big Prairie Landing Field," drawn March 30, 1928. The 1928 map is one of two accompanying an "Information of Aircraft Landing Facility" form completed in 1933. Folder: E-Improvements Big Prairie Field, Flathead; Box 2: Records of the US Forest Service, Region 1, Missoula MT. E-Improvements / Cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁶⁴ Frank J. Jefferson, Regional Forest Inspector, "Memorandum for Regional Forester," August 3, 1932. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 6; Deerlodge – Flathead; Regional Office, Missoula, National Forest Inspection Reports 1906-1944; RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁶⁵ Ibid.

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it is located within the South Fork Primitive Area its use by planes other than those working for the Forest Service is prohibited except in emergencies.”¹⁶⁶

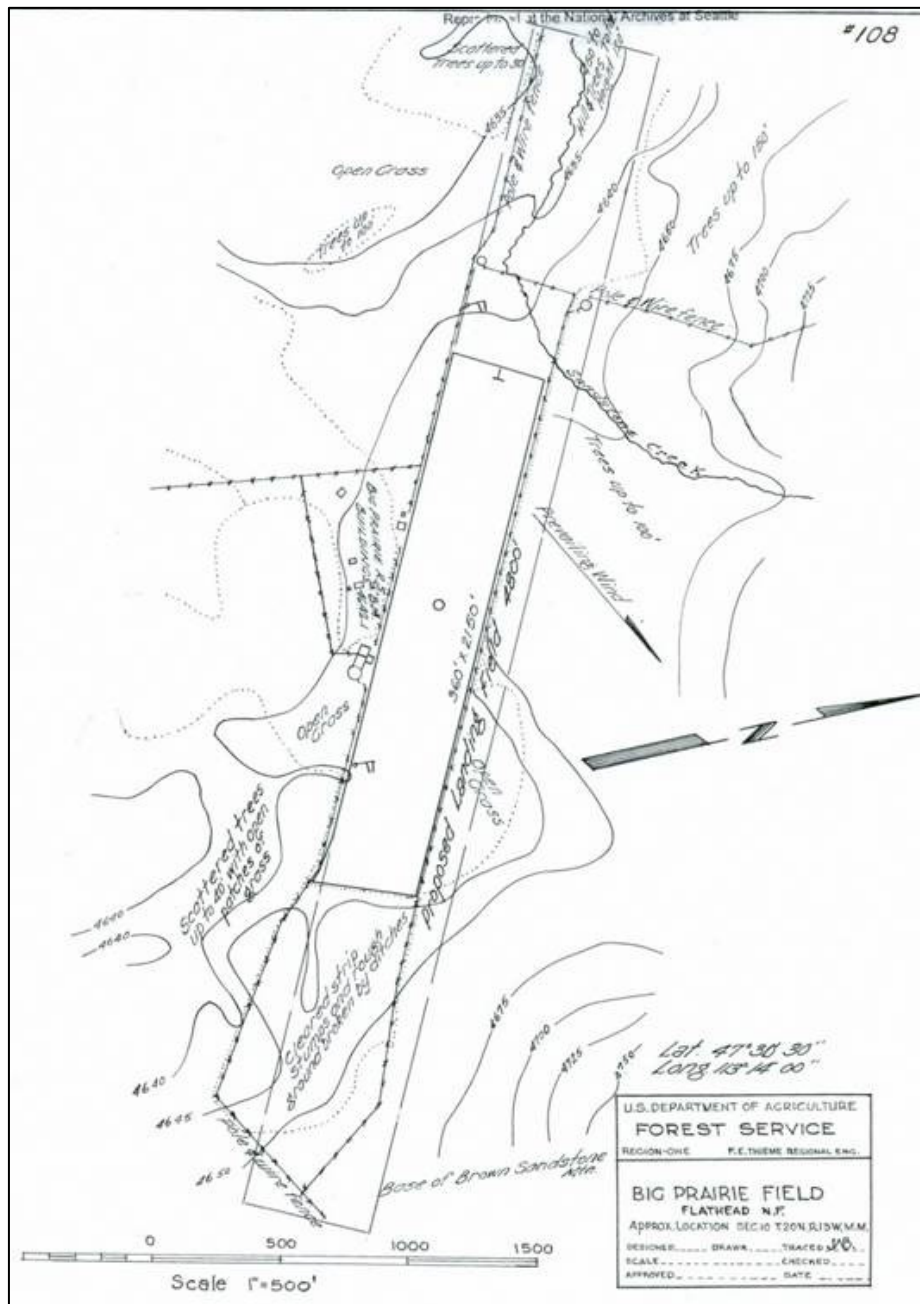


Figure 33. Map of Big Prairie Field (no date), showing proposed expansion of the airstrip (Folder: E-Improvements Big Prairie Field, Flathead; Box 2: Records of the US Forest Service, Region 1, Missoula MT. E-Improvements / Cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95NARA Seattle.)

¹⁶⁶ K. Wolf (Flathead Forest Supervisor) “Information of Aircraft Landing Facility” (Form AB-4), November 6, 1933. Folder: E-Improvements Big Prairie Field, Flathead; Box 2: Records of the US Forest Service, Region 1, Missoula MT. E-Improvements / Cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

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Besides the airstrip, several other improvements were added to Big Prairie in the early 1930s. In 1932 or 1933, forest employee Ralph Whitney, built a "combination building" at the site.¹⁶⁷ This log building contained a warehouse, a small office for the ranger, and a kitchen/mess hall (Figure 34). A new house for the ranger was added about the same time, possibly by the same builder.



Figure 34. 1930s view of the combination building at Big Prairie with a plane parked adjacent. Note that "BIG PRAIRIE RS" has been stenciled on the roof for the benefit of pilots landing on the adjacent airstrip (Region One Archives).

In 1936, Flathead Forest Supervisor, J. C. Urquhart, corresponded with regional office personnel regarding various improvements that he wanted to include in the general building plan for the Big Prairie station. Noting that "funds for erection of these buildings may not be forthcoming in the near future," nevertheless Urquhart wanted three new buildings, a blacksmith shop and shoeing shed, a bunkhouse, and a storehouse added to the building plan. He also proposed a maximum of three "Special Use" warehouses.¹⁶⁸ The idea for the special use warehouses arose from his conversations with dude ranchers and guides from the Swan Valley about why the South Fork was not more heavily used by hunters. Urquhart concluded that the "outstanding reason for a limited use is the large number of pack animals required to handle a party of average size."¹⁶⁹ Urquhart wrote to the Regional Forester:

As a means of reducing the amount of packstock (sic) needed, they have expressed a desire to construct a log warehouse near enough to the Big Prairie Ranger Station to afford protection from vandals, and install lockers for the various parties who contribute to its construction. They would plan to leave certain items of camp equipment during the year and would stock their lockers with groceries and other necessary supplies by special trips in advance of the tourist and hunting season. The presence of a stocked supply base would reduce the amount of stock required to handle the parties currently and grazing use accordingly.

I am not entirely sold on the idea of a building for this purpose in the Primitive Area, and realize that such use might be regarded as contrary to the policy which has been decided upon. However, it is imperative that the elk kill in the South Fork be increased.¹⁷⁰

¹⁶⁷ Interview with Art Whitney, 1990.

¹⁶⁸ J. C. Urquhart, Flathead Forest Supervisor to Regional Forester, August 13, 1936. Folder: L-Uses General 1914 to __, Flathead [2-3], Box 6/40, Division of Recreation and Land Uses Subject Files, 1906-1973, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁶⁹ J. C. Urquhart, Flathead Forest Supervisor to Regional Forester, June 16, 1936. Folder: L-Uses General 1914 to __, Flathead [2-3], Box 6/40, Division of Recreation and Land Uses Subject Files, 1906-1973, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁷⁰ Ibid.

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The suggestion to build special use warehouses in a primitive area is a reflection of the dire state of the backcountry winter range. In a 1936 memorandum, Assistant Regional Forester, Glen Smith, reported on its condition as follows: "From Spotted Bear to Basin Creek, and all the tributaries on the east side of the river, and all areas so situated as to get the benefit of the sun and wind making them available to elk, are in a deplorable condition; and all other edible species, even lodgepole, spruce, fir and yellow pine had been browsed severely and many individual plants actually killed and quantities of them badly injured. Browse species over the entire drainage have suffered a loss of 50%, and up to 75%; grass has all but disappeared; and most slopes show evidence of soil movement ..."¹⁷¹ Smith hoped that 1000 animals could be harvested during that fall's hunting season. However he estimated that, killing 1000 elk would require that 1200 hunters access the area; with each hunter requiring one or two horses or mules to access the South Fork, the adverse impacts to the range would be significant.

After some further communication with the regional office, in late August of 1936 Urquhart received the go-ahead to integrate the construction of a "Special Use" warehouse at Big Prairie into the building plan for the station.¹⁷² Assistant Regional Forester, M. H. Wolff indicated that the region preferred to have only one large warehouse rather than the three smaller buildings suggested by Urquhart, and that the use of the building be open to all. "Unless this is provided for we may anticipate in the future pressure from many sides for additional warehouses here, there, and everywhere. This is apt materially to depreciate the primitive atmosphere that we are trying to preserve."¹⁷³ The day after Wolff's letter, regional Improvement Inspector, Clyde Fickes, wrote a memorandum opposing the construction of a special use warehouse. Citing personal experience, he felt that the "station would be overcrowded ... with undesirable guests." He also wondered if the regional architects would be allowed to approve the design of the warehouse, or if the builders were to "do their own designing?"¹⁷⁴

In July of 1937, Inspector Wilfred W. White, conducted a field review of the improvements within the Big Prairie Ranger District, including those located at the district headquarters. In his follow-up memo, White described the station, with its open stands of timber and absence of brush and downed trees as "... delightful – so delightful that it cannot be forgotten." He further described the four buildings then located at the station, including: a Ranger dwelling "a nice log cabin, well located and well maintained," which provided a "satisfactory home for the ranger and his family at Big Prairie." The combination building, which incorporated an office, kitchen, dining room, and warehouse, he described as "A nice new building, well constructed," and conveniently located adjacent to the landing field, so airplanes could taxi close to the porch of the storehouse. He noted that the bunkhouse and the work shop were both old and needed to be replaced.¹⁷⁵ With regard to the bunkhouse, White went on to state that the forest already had plans in the works for the construction of a new bunkhouse to be designed by William Fox, an architect working from the regional engineering shop. White also speculated on the most appropriate location for a new storehouse, stating that, absent the availability of trucks to transport supplies, he felt it should be built near the edge of the landing field.

Between 1938 and 1942, two of the buildings on Supervisor Urquhart's improvements list were added to the Big Prairie headquarters complex. In 1938, forest employees, Art Whitney and Rudy Kaser, constructed the log bunkhouse designed by William Fox. Given the timing, it is possible that New Deal program funding was used to facilitate the construction of this building. Four years later, a warehouse was added to the site, adjacent to the airfield as suggested by Wilfred White.

¹⁷¹ Glen A. Smith, Assistant Regional Forester, "Memorandum for Major Kelley," July 21, 1936. Folder: L-Uses General 1914 to ___, Flathead [2-3], Box 6 of 40, Division of Recreation and Land Uses Subject Files, 1906 -1973, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁷² M. H. Wolff, Assistant Regional Forester to Forest Supervisor Urquhart, August 27, 1936. Folder L – Uses General 1914 to ___, Box 6 of 40, Division of Recreation and Land Uses Subject Files, 1906 -1973, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁷³ Ibid.

¹⁷⁴ C. P. Fickes, Improvement Inspector "Memorandum" August 28, 1936. Folder L – Uses General 1914 to ___, Box 6 of 40, Division of Recreation and Land Uses Subject Files, 1906 -1973, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁷⁵ Wilfred W. White, Inspector "Memorandum for Regional Forester," December 27, 1937. Folder: Flathead 1937 [2/3], Box 6 Deerlodge / Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle. The building that White described as the bunkhouse is probably the "house" built prior to 1917. After the completion of the new ranger's dwelling in the early 1930s it would have been available for use as a bunkhouse. This building (No 1063) still exists and is currently referred to as the Packer's Dwelling.

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Interestingly, this warehouse (which remains on site) is of wood frame construction—not the rustic log design that characterized the other buildings at Big Prairie (Figure 35). It is possible that this building was constructed by private interests to be used as a ‘Special Use’ warehouse. Alternatively, it may have been built specifically for use by a regional smoke jumping crew, which began to work out of Big Prairie in 1939. Known as the “chute shed,” at one time this building had a partial second story, reportedly used for hanging parachutes before packing. In either case, by 1942, the forest had lost many men to the war effort, and it is possible that the frame building was built out of simple necessity and without much oversight from the regional office.

During the war years, Big Prairie’s buildings saw limited use, and by the mid 1950s, some were in need of maintenance and repair. A 1955 inspection of the headquarters complex revealed that the combination building (containing a warehouse, a kitchen/mess hall, and the ranger’s office) was in poor condition: “The foundation is weak and the floors have sagged. Doors are sprung out of line and the sill on the interior wall has settled until water drains from the porch into the main building.” Closer examination revealed that the building’s interior partitions rested directly on the floor joists with no foundation support, resulting in the noticeable sag in the building. A maintenance crew excavated the area beneath the building and added additional support (wood resting on concrete blocks) beneath the interior partitions.¹⁷⁶ Although the proposal suggested replacing the original board porch floor with a concrete pad, this was not done. A few years later, the damaged porch floor was replaced with lumber salvaged from a condemned lookout.



Figure 35. Overview of the Big Prairie Ranger District headquarters complex looking northwest, taken from the middle of the landing strip, sometime in the early 1960s. The warehouse (also known as the chute shed) is at the left edge of the photo. Also visible: the building known currently as the “packer’s dwelling” and the 1938 bunkhouse; the combination building and flagpole are near the right edge of the photo (Photo No. 2202 HF FNF).

A 1956 inspection of the Big Prairie district indicated that most of the buildings in the headquarters complex were “adequate to meet the administrative needs,” noting that the repairs had been completed on the combination building. The porch on the Ranger’s dwelling (not in use in 1956) needed repair, and the inspector recommended that the second floor approach to the packer’s cabin (the original rangers house built prior to 1917 and used for a time as a bunkhouse) needed a safety railing. All of the buildings showed signs of excessive weathering and needed to be oiled.¹⁷⁷

By 1958, inspectors found two major problems in the improvements at the Big Prairie station. Noting that the principal work of this “wilderness district” depended upon the use of horses and mules for transportation, Administrative Officer

¹⁷⁶ R. F. Thanum to Regional Forester, January 13, 1955. FNF HF.

¹⁷⁷ Geo. F. Weyermann (Assistant Forest Supervisor) to Forest Supervisor, August 29, 1956. FNF HF.

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N. H. Larsen, stated that the condition of the existing barn was very poor, “to the point that it no longer serves its purpose.”¹⁷⁸ In a separate report, Forester Robert Morgan, noted also that the Big Prairie air strip needed grading. Humps in the runway caused concern for pilots, and Morgan suggested that the work be done with contributed fire control labor or smokejumpers.¹⁷⁹ Other minor maintenance items included the replacement of the sill log in the porch on the Ranger’s dwelling, oiling the exterior of the chute building, and the replacement of some broken glass in the shop’s windows. For the sill log replacement, Morgan suggested that the ranger seek the help of log-building experts, Art Whitney or John Pike.¹⁸⁰

In October of 1960, Morgan once again noted the need for a new barn, stating in his recommendations that the ranger work with the regional office on an acceptable design for the new building.¹⁸¹ Ultimately, the Big Prairie barn was not replaced until 1964—the same year as the passage of the Wilderness Act. Some forest employees believe that the timing of the barn construction was a direct effort to get the job done before the implementation of restrictions on the use of power tools that accompanied of the Wilderness Act. The barn’s design, which originated from the regional office, contained elements of the consciously rustic style favored during the New Deal-era, with the building envelope created by whole logs with chopper-cut log ends.

The construction of the new barn at Big Prairie marked the last major construction during the period of significance. Since that time, most of the modifications made to the building have consisted of routine maintenance. Since being determined eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places in 1991, all maintenance has been conducted according to the Secretary of the Interior’s Standards for Preservation.

Black Bear Guard Station (established mid 1920s)

The facility currently known as Black Bear Guard Station was likely developed in the 1920s, when the Flathead National Forest was undergoing reorganization. Elements of the reorganization effort included the redrawing of district boundaries and reclaiming administrative responsibility for some parts of the forest previously managed by the Lewis and Clark National Forest. In 1923, District Forest Inspector, Howard Flint, recommended that a “new headquarters should be planned and developed at Black Bear to handle part of the present Upper South Fork and Spotted Bear districts after the readjustment of (district) boundaries.”¹⁸² This “new” Black Bear facility, located on the west bank of the South Fork Flathead River just north of its confluence with Hungry Creek, would replace the original Black Bear district headquarters located about two miles farther north, on the east side of the river, between Black Bear and Hodaq creeks. A 1919 edition of the Flathead National Forest map, with hand-drawn district boundaries as they existed in 1926, shows an administrative site symbol in the location of the current Black Bear station, indicating that sometime between 1923 and 1926 the forest had made improvements at the new location.

The character of the principal building at this site, referred to in Forest Service engineering records as Black Bear Cabin, is virtually identical to the warehouse and the office at Spotted Bear, and to the “combination building” at Shafer Ranger Station—all built during the 1920s by forest employees skilled in log carpentry. All of these buildings are of the same design, with front and back recessed porches, and are made of logs, coped on the bottom side and connected with full dovetail notches. Because of these similarities, it is reasonable to assume that Black Bear Cabin also dates to the 1920s.

Although the new Black Bear station appears to have been intended to serve as a district headquarters, it never developed much beyond a guard station—a place for crews to work from while building and or repairing trails, or by government packers traveling through the forest. Located on the main South Fork Trail, early on it was equipped with a telephone that could be accessed both from inside and outside the building.

¹⁷⁸ N. H. Larsen to Forest Supervisor, September 4, 1958. FNF HF.

¹⁷⁹ Robert S. Morgan, Forester, to forest Supervisor, July 22, 1958, p. 3. FNF HF.

¹⁸⁰ Ibid.

¹⁸¹ Robert S. Morgan, Forester to Forest Supervisor, November 2, 1960, p. 3 FNF HF

¹⁸² Howard R. Flint (District Forest Inspector), “Memorandum,” December 15 1923. p.3. Folder: Flathead 1923-1920 [213], Box 6 Deerlogge – Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

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A major expansion of the station's infrastructure began in 1937, when forest employee, J. F. Shields, surveyed the site of Black Bear Landing Field, on a level bench just north of the station building. The resulting survey plat shows that the forest anticipated building a runway 2,300 ft. long by 100 ft. wide, with a center circle and wind socks at either end.¹⁸³ The survey was approved in 1938, and the field was complete by July, 1941 when Regional Forester, Evan Kelley, Regional Engineer, F. E. Thieme, and Improvements Inspector, Clyde Fickes, conducted an inspection. In a follow-up memo, Thieme noted that the builders had done a good job of dragging and rolling the field surface, which was in "excellent landing condition." He stated that wind socks had been installed at either end of the strip, but that one would be sufficient if it were located better—halfway down the field. He also stated that the loose-rock field markers should be made of concrete and that some snags at the north end of the field needed to be cut down. Finally, he recommended extending the field another 800 feet on its north end "when money becomes available."¹⁸⁴

Apparently, money for extending the runway was not immediately forthcoming: In 1947, Civil Engineer, S. K. Skoblin, prepared a memorandum regarding the existing Blackbear (sic) Landing field. He stated that it was 2,200 feet long and that there was room on the bench to create a "Class 3" landing field 4,800 ft. long by 300 ft. wide. Skoblin stated that the "negative feature" of the Black Bear airstrip was that the runway was oriented at right angles to the prevailing winds. He estimated that it would cost \$25,000 to extend the runway.¹⁸⁵ Perhaps because of the cost and the negative aspects of the field's location, the Black Bear airstrip was never expanded.

Black Bear station continues to be used as an important temporary work center for crews working in the vicinity, or by the government packers as they carry equipment and supplies to the backcountry administrative sites. Although Black Bear Cabin and an associated barn and hay shed remain in active use, the airstrip was abandoned after the passage of the Wilderness Act in 1964.

Salmon Forks Guard Station (established between 1936 and 1941; current Salmon Forks Cabin built 1963)

Salmon Forks Guard Station is located adjacent to the west bank of the South Fork Flathead River, slightly south of its confluence with Big Salmon Creek. Compared with most of the other backcountry administrative sites, Salmon Forks is a relatively late addition to the backcountry facilities. Established sometime between 1936 and 1941, the Salmon Forks site replaced the earlier White River Ranger Station, which was located roughly four miles farther south on the east bank of the river, north of its confluence with the White River.¹⁸⁶ A 1941 map of the Bob Marshall Wilderness shows Salmon Forks as a "guard station or administrative site."¹⁸⁷

The character of the earliest improvements located at Salmon Forks is poorly documented. It is believed that the building that currently functions as a hay barn likely represents the first ranger cabin built at the site. It is a frame building, similar in design to the frame cabins at Pendant, Holbrook, and Danaher guard stations. By 1960, the forest had begun planning to build something new. In November of 1960, Forester, Robert S. Morgan, prepared a memorandum for the Forest Supervisor, in which he recommended that the Big Prairie District Ranger obtain approval from the regional office

¹⁸³ J. F. Shields, Plat of Black Bear Landing Field, surveyed 6/21/1937. Folder: E-Improvements Flathead Black Bear Landing Field, Box 2, E-Improvements/Cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹⁸⁴ F. E. Thieme, Regional Engineer, "Memorandum of Inspection," July 14, 1941. Folder: E-Improvements Flathead Black Bear Landing Field, Box 2, E-Improvements/Cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹⁸⁵ S. K. Skoblin, Civil Engineer, Office Memorandum, April 2, 1947. Folder: E-Improvements Flathead Black Bear Landing Field, Box 2, E-Improvements/Cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹⁸⁶ White River Administrative Site/Ranger Station shows on 1918 and 1927 editions of the Flathead National Forest Maps. A 1938 map of the Flathead NF Primitive Areas, The 1941 edition of the Bob Marshall Wilderness Area shows no improvements at White River, but the Salmon Forks station is shown in its current location. Flathead National Forest Map 1918, Flathead National Forest Map 1927, File: Flathead 192901924 [1 of 3], Box 6, Regional Office, Missoula, National Forest Inspection Reports 1906-1944; RG 95, NARA, Seattle; Map of the Bob Marshall Wilderness Area, Flathead National Forest Map 1954 edition, File: Flathead Nat. Forest Map Folder, completed March 1954 [1/2], Box 10; Region 1, Missoula, MT, Alpha & Numeric subject Files, 1921-1974, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

¹⁸⁷ Northern Region, USDA Forest Service, Bob Marshall Wilderness map in *Trail Riders Guide to the Bob Marshall Wilderness*. Folder: Flathead NF Historical Files 1 of 3, Box 70, Historical Collection 1905-1990, RG 95, NARA, Seattle.

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for the design of a new building at Salmon Forks.¹⁸⁸ Morgan also noted that the Salmon Forks area had been “cleaned up,” including disposing of some old fencing and the construction of “1.5 miles of new jackleg fence,” that enclosed 25 acres for the pasturing of government stock.¹⁸⁹ Like most proposals for permanent improvements, it took a while to get the new building constructed. It was finally built in 1963. Like the barn at Big Prairie Ranger Station, the design for the Salmon Forks Cabin came from the regional engineering division. It is made of whole logs with chopper-cut log ends—the consciously rustic design first favored in the 1930s.

Basin Guard Station (established in 1908; Basin Cabin built mid-1920s)

In 1908 the Lewis and Clark National Forest withdrew 166 acres of pasture land adjacent to Basin Creek for use as a summer patrol station, in an effort to reserve the use of pasture for government stock. As noted above, Forest Service administrators anticipated a mini land rush for homesteads and grazing leases, as was occurring in the adjacent Swan River and Blackfoot drainages. The Basin Creek withdrawal was surveyed in 1907, and formally filed with and approved by the General Land Office in April of 1908. The metes and bounds survey enclosed an irregular area straddling Basin Creek along the main trail between Big Prairie and the community of Ovando, the latter being the closest supply point and post office, some 40 miles distant. An undated report written after the withdrawal stated:

This tract is open grassy land, and furnishes sufficient pasture for present needs. There are no improvements on this station. Basin creek passes through the center of this tract and furnishes water for domestic use and for stock. Irrigation is possible but is not necessary.¹⁹⁰

Early on the forest intended to build a two-room cabin and fence the entire area.¹⁹¹ The exact date of construction of the current Basin Guard Station is unknown: Forest Service engineering records indicate that it was built in 1925, however, the 1927 edition of the forest map shows Basin as an administrative site only, rather than a ranger station with improvements. The style of the guard cabin at Basin (a log “C-1” style building), is typical of Forest Service improvements built during the initial construction period, so a mid 1920s date is probably accurate.

Besides the cabin, an airstrip is also located at Basin. Although it was likely built much earlier, the earliest documented existence of the airstrip comes from the 1954 edition of the Flathead National Forest map.¹⁹²

Danaher Guard Station (established in 1908, first improvements built in 1909; current Danaher Cabin constructed in 1930s)

Like the Basin Creek administrative site, Danaher station was established in 1908. The supervisor of the Lewis & Clark National Forest, Page S. Bunker, completed the report for the proposed administrative site himself, noting that the site was the only tract in the vicinity suitable for a ranger station.¹⁹³ The 260 acres in the withdrawal area included 40 acres of timber, 100 acres of agricultural land, and 120 acres of pasture. The tract also included about 90 rods of “abandoned” fence, in poor condition and worth only \$25.00. Its location on the main South Fork trail, 10 miles south of Big Prairie, made it a good place for a stopover cabin.

The Danaher administrative site lay about a mile north of Thomas Danaher’s patented homestead claim. Danaher had been in the area since at least 1903, the year that a contract surveyor for the GLO encountered his house in Section 8. He received a patent to his homestead in 1907, the year before the Forest Service withdrew the ranger station site from public entry. In addition to the agricultural tasks associated with his homestead, Danaher is reported to have worked for the forest and to have built the first improvements at the ranger station in the summer of 1909. The four-room log house that Danaher built was destroyed by fire sometime later, and replaced with the existing frame building in the 1930s.

¹⁸⁸ Robert S. Morgan, Forester, to Forest Supervisor, November 2, 1960, p. 3. FNF HF.

¹⁸⁹ Ibid.

¹⁹⁰ “Basin Creek Ranger Station,” no date. FNF HF.

¹⁹¹ Ibid.

¹⁹² Map of the Flathead National Forest, 1954 edition. Folder: Flathead Nat. Forest Map Folder, completed March 1954 [1/2]; Box 10; Region ; Missoula, MT; Alpha & Numeric Subject Files, 1921-1974.

¹⁹³ Page. S. Bunker, Report on Administrative Site,” February 24, 1908.

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In 1935, the regional office initiated plans for the construction of an airstrip within the Danaher administrative site. Located west of the cabin, the strip was to be 2,500 ft. long by 400 ft. wide.¹⁹⁴ Five years later, the regional office prepared a final map of the proposed field and a short report that included estimates of the cost of its construction. The latter included clearing and stumping six and a half acres of land, moving 1,200 cubic yards of fill, plowing, leveling, and constructing drainage features, for a total cost of \$2,585, which would come from regular Forest Service funding. Regional Forester, Evan Kelley, wanted to be able to use manual labor supplied by “stand-by fire crews” who might be working from Danaher Cabin.¹⁹⁵

In January of 1940 Regional Forester, Evan Kelley, forwarded the application to build the airstrip to the Civil Aeronautics Authority in Seattle Washington. He stated that the field “ties in with our general plan for fire control transportation in Region One of the Forest Service. It will be appreciated if you will recommend this field for construction so that we can use any labor to work on it which might be available from time to time.”¹⁹⁶ The Washington office of the Civil Aeronautics Authority issued a “Certificate of Air Navigation Facility Necessity” in February, and Kelley received official notification of the approval in early March.¹⁹⁷ However, there is no indication that the Danaher airstrip was ever constructed—possibly because the area was converted to wilderness status just five months after the Civil Aeronautics Authority issued its approval to build the strip.

Shaw Guard Station (established in 1908, first permanent improvements added in mid 1920s)

Shaw Guard Station is another early administrative site, withdrawn in 1908. The 54-acre site is located on the east slope of the Swan Range, near confluence of Shaw and Gordon creeks. Initially, the station was used simply as a “camp ground” for government employees and stock working in the area. Its location in the Gordon Creek drainage and proximity to the major trail leading to Big Prairie made it an important point for fire detection and control. The closest administrative sites in the backcountry were Big Prairie Ranger Station, 15 miles east via the Gordon Creek Trail, and Tango Guard Station, 15 miles north.

The first permanent improvements at Shaw were built in the mid 1920s. Shaw cabin is a C-1 type cabin (one room with an open, continuous-roof porch) built with full logs. This style of building is consistent with the guard cabins built by forest employees in the 1920s.

¹⁹⁴ L. E. Eddy “Danaher Landing Field” survey plat, August 8, 1935; Ray Ferguson, Acting Forest Supervisor “E Improvement-Flathead Landing Fields, Danaher.” October 31, 1936. Folder: E Improvements Danaher Field, Flathead; Box 3 E-Improvements/cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95 NARA, Seattle.

¹⁹⁵ Evan W. Kelley, Regional Forester, “Estimate – Proposed Construction,” Danaher field. January 23, 1940. Folder: E Improvements Danaher Field, Flathead; Box 3 E-Improvements/cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95 NARA, Seattle.

¹⁹⁶ Evan W. Kelley (Regional Forester) to Paul Morris, Regional Airport Engineer, January 23, 1940. Folder: E Improvements Danaher Field, Flathead; Box 3 E-Improvements/cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95 NARA, Seattle.

¹⁹⁷ Civil Aeronautics Authority, Washington, “Certificate of Air Navigation Facility Necessity, No. 298.” February 20, 1940; Paul Morris, Regional Airport Engineer, to Evan W. Kelley, Regional Forester, March 6, 1940. Folder: E Improvements Danaher Field, Flathead; Box 3 E-Improvements/cooperation 1935-1958, RG 95 NARA, Seattle.

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Hahn Guard Station (established about 1925)

The first improvements located in the vicinity of the Hahn Guard Station were associated with the Special Use Permit of Ruby Kirchbalm. For about five years, between 1919 and 1925, Kirchbalm ran a horse packing business from her Hahn Creek permit. She hired a local packer, Smokey Denow, who taught her the art of packing and together, they hauled freight throughout the South Fork backcountry—including packing for the Flathead National Forest. Kirchbalm built a small house within the area of her Special Use Permit. In about 1935, Kirchbalm returned to the east.

After Kirchbalm gave up her permit, the forest built a small, C-1 style building in the same area as her cabin. Although forest engineering records indicate that Hahn Cabin was built in 1940, it is almost certainly older. The 1927 edition of the Flathead National Forest map shows that a cabin had been built by that time. In addition, in 1937, Forest Inspector, Wilfred White, described Hahn cabin as follows: “Clean and neat. It is a small, log cabin and rather old. It is satisfactory as a stopover cabin for two men for a short time. This cabin is on the main line of tourist travel into the South Fork country.”¹⁹⁸

In 1937, White also described a partially completed landing field at Hahn station. He stated that 250 yards at the upper end of the field did not look good for three reasons; one was that picking rock from the field would be a big job, another was that it was likely that a side creek would overflow and “gully the field and deposit boulders and gravel.” Possibly for these reason, the Hahn airstrip never received much use.¹⁹⁹

In 1960, forest employees refinished Hahn Cabin with logwood oil. They also built a new hitch rack and dismantled, piled, and burned an old dilapidated fence. At the same time, they burned Kirchbalm’s abandoned cabin adjacent to the administrative building and cleaned up the site “completely.”²⁰⁰

Pendant Guard Station (established in 1953 to replace Tango Guard Station)

Located on the east slope of the Swan Range, just a few miles inside the wilderness boundary, the Pendant guard station replaced the Tango station that burned in 1953.²⁰¹ Art Whitney, who was then serving as an ‘alternate ranger’ for the Swan Lake district, built the current Pendant Guard cabin in the summer of 1953. He cut the pieces for the building in the district shop then packed them into the site from the Holland Lake trailhead on the west side of the range. Missoula-based smoke jumper, Conrad Ore, helped Whitney assemble the building at the new guard station.²⁰²

Developmental History of the Middle Fork Administrative Sites

The Middle Fork administrative sites include one ranger district headquarters complex (Shafer Ranger Station), and six intermittent guard stations (Silvertip, Pentagon, Gooseberry, Granite, Spruce, and Challenge stations). Most of these facilities are located north and east of Spotted Bear Ranger Station within the drainage basin of the Middle Fork of the Flathead River and its major tributaries. Pentagon and Gooseberry guard stations lie within the Bob Marshall Wilderness, while Granite and Spruce stations are located in the Great Bear Wilderness. Silvertip and Challenge are located on forest land outside the wilderness boundaries. It is notable that in comparison to the guard stations in the South Fork backcountry, the stations in the Middle Fork do not have associated administrative withdrawals. This may be due to the character of the drainage basin which consists principally of narrow canyons surrounded by steep, heavily timbered hill slopes. The open valley bottoms that characterize the South Fork drainage, and that made it attractive to private claims under the homestead legislation are largely absent in the Middle Fork. The exception is Schafer Meadows, where the forest established the district headquarters for its Big River district.

¹⁹⁸ Wilfred W. White, Inspector, “Memorandum for Regional Forester,” December 27, 1937, p. 7. Folder: Flathead 1937 [2/3], Box 6 Deerlodge / Flathead, Inspection Reports 1906-1944, RG 95, NARA Seattle.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid. p. 6.

²⁰⁰ Robert S. Morgan, Forester to Forest Supervisor, November 2, 1960, p. 5. FNF HF.

²⁰¹ The Tango station was located near the mouth of Tango Creek and the Salmon River, about four miles north of the Pendant site.

²⁰² Telephone interview with Art Whitney, 1990.

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Schafer Ranger Station (established in 1925 to replace the original district headquarters at Three Forks)

As stated above, Schafer Ranger Station was established in the mid 1920s, as an alternative to the original Big River District headquarters at Three Forks. The Schafer site was selected because of its central location relative to the district: "It is as near the center of the district as possible to locate and (to) find water, building material, and pasture." In October of 1924, forest employees completed a field survey of the 426 acres to be included in the new administrative withdrawal. They estimated that 50 acres were suitable for growing hay and 301 acres (part of which was timbered) were suitable only for grazing. The remaining 75 acres were covered with water and swampy land due to beaver dams. The forest contemplated draining all the dams to make additional pasture and hay fields.²⁰³ Water for domestic use would be supplied from a small stream in the east part of the tract—carried in a ditch to the building site. Building logs could be supplied by the thinning required to increase the pasture.

In a cover letter attached to a report on the new station, Flathead Forest Supervisor, L. G. Hornby, stated:

The withdrawal of this area is according to previous plans of this Forest and recommendations by Mr. H. R. Flint of your office. It conforms to the plan of returning the head of Big River to the administration of the Flathead Forest. It is the only piece of ground suited to the needs of the headquarters station in the whole length of Big River up to this point.²⁰⁴

Initially, all supplies for the new station would be packed along an existing trail 28 miles from the nearest railroad shipping point at Java. Plans called for a new trail and telephone line up Schafer Creek that would connect the Big River District with the South Fork. It was anticipated that Schafer would be connected by telephone to all the stations on the Flathead and Lewis and Clark forests.²⁰⁵

In 1932, Flathead Forest Supervisor, Kenneth Wolfe, received the go-ahead to proceed with the construction of an airstrip at Schafer (Figure 36). This new strip would be built instead of completing the one begun at Three Forks. According to Regional Forest Inspector, Frank Jefferson, the Schafer site was a better choice because it was located at a district headquarters, and it "offered better landing opportunities than the site at Three Forks, this on account of the fact that the canyon is much wider and the side walls not so steep."²⁰⁶

Besides the airfield, by 1935, the Schafer complex consisted of at least four buildings, the ranger dwelling, the combination building, a barn, and a shop.²⁰⁷ Forest engineering records indicate that the oldest building on site is the combination building (office/mess hall) and lists its date of construction as 1928. It is virtually identical to the first two log buildings erected at Spotted Bear Ranger Station. The full dovetail notching in the combination building, a bunkhouse, and the shop, suggests that they were constructed by Evert Hart or possibly by Hart and Victor Holmlund, the men believed to have built the Spotted Bear warehouse and office in the early 1920s. The ranger dwelling, built in 1933, is characteristic of the standard plans produced by the regional office from the late 1920s through the 1940s, and is similar in overall design to the ranger's dwelling at Big Prairie.

²⁰³ L. G. Hornby, Forest Supervisor "Report on Schafer Ranger Station," March, 1925. FNF HF.

²⁰⁴ L. G. Hornby, Forest Supervisor, to District Forester, March 28, 1925. FNF HF.

²⁰⁵ Ibid.

²⁰⁶ Frank J. Jefferson, Regional Forest Inspector, "Memorandum for Regional Forester," August 3, 1932. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 6; Deerlodge – Flathead; Regional Office, Missoula, National Forest Inspection Reports 1906-1944; RG 95, NARA Seattle.

²⁰⁷ Interview with Art Whitney, former Flathead forest employee, 1990.

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Figure 36. Aerial view of Schafer Ranger Station airstrip and building cluster, circa 1940 (Photo No. 1087 HF FNF).

Silvertip Guard Station (established in 1964)

Silvertip Guard Station is a relatively recent site, developed after the flood of 1964 destroyed the improvements at Limestone Guard Station, which had been in existence since at least 1936.²⁰⁸ Silvertip station is located in the same vicinity as the earlier station, on the north bank of the Spotted Bear River, and consists of a log cabin built in 1964, and a barn and outhouse built in 1965. The log cabin is almost identical to the cabin at Salmon Forks, which was built one year earlier in 1963. Both buildings are constructed in a consciously rustic style with chopper-cut log ends.

Pentagon Guard Station (established late 1920s or early 1930s)

Pentagon station was established sometime in the late 1920s or early 1930s. The station does not appear on the 1918 or 1927 editions of the forest map, but is shown on a 1936 map of the Flathead primitive areas.²⁰⁹ Located near the headwaters of the Spotted Bear River on the west slope of the Continental Divide, Pentagon Cabin is a C-1-style building, rendered in logs with compound dovetail notching. Forest Service engineering records indicate that it was built in 1931. Evert Hart or Victor Holmlund may have built Pentagon cabin.

Gooseberry Guard Station (established late 1920s or early 1930s)

Also known as Gooseberry Park Guard Station, the cabin at this site is similar to the Pentagon Cabin, with expertly executed compound dovetail notching. The degree of similarity between the two buildings suggests construction by the

²⁰⁸ "Map of Primitive Areas on Flathead and Lewis and Clark National Forests," 1936. Folder: Flathead NF Historical Files 1 of 3, Box 70, Records of the Forest Service Region 1, Missoula, Montana, 1905-1990, RG 95, NARA Seattle. Limestone Cabin is shown on this map, on the north bank of Spotted Bear River, between the river's edge and a trail leading along the river and on to the Continental Divide.

²⁰⁹ Ibid.

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same person. Forest engineering records indicate that the cabin was built in 1935. Like Pentagon, the Gooseberry station does not appear on the 1918 or 1927 editions of the forest map, but is shown on the 1936 edition.

Granite and Spruce Park Guard Stations (station established late 1920s)

Both Granite and Spruce Park cabins are referenced in a 1932 memorandum as being built “three or four years ago,” making their date of construction between 1928 and 1929.²¹⁰ Both stations appear on a 1941 map of the Bob Marshall Wilderness. Both cabins are believed to have been wood frame buildings.

In 1964, a massive spring flood through the Middle Fork canyon impacted both stations. The flood destroyed the improvements at Spruce Park. At Granite station, the existing building was pushed off its foundation, but was salvaged and reset on a new foundation. In 1965, the forest built a new frame cabin and hay barn at Spruce Park.

Challenge Guard Station (established mid 1920s)

According to Art Whitney, who was stationed at Schafer Ranger Station in the mid 1930s, he first saw Challenge Cabin in 1935 and estimated that it was about ten years old at that time. Whitney felt that the level of craftsmanship displayed in the full dovetail notching was equal to that of Evert Hart.²¹¹ The earliest that Challenge Cabin appears on maps of the Flathead National Forest is 1941. This building is identical to Gooseberry Park cabin.

Although originally accessed only by trail, in the 1980s, vehicular roads were extended to the station to access timber sales in the vicinity. Because of the easy accessibility, the cabin is used as an information station during the winter months for recreationists accessing the area to ski or snowshoe.

²¹⁰ J. C. Urquhart, Jr. Regional Forest Inspector “Memorandum,” September 30, 1932. Folder: Flathead 1936-1930; Box 6: Deerlodge-Flathead; Inspection Reports 1905-1944; RG 95, NARA Seattle.

²¹¹ Telephone Interview with Art Whitney, 1990.

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1928 *The National Forest Manual Regulations and Instructions*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1936 *Report of the Forester for 1936* by F. A. Silcox. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1942 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1942*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1943 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1943*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1944 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1944*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1947 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1947*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1952 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1952*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1959 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1959*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1960 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1960*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

1964 *Report of the Chief of the Forest Service, 1964*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

United States Department of Agriculture, Northern Region

1944 *Early Days in the Forest Service, Volume 1*. Missoula, Region 1 USDA Forest Service.

1955 *Early Days in the Forest Service, Volume 2*. Missoula, Region 1 USDA Forest Service.

1962 *Early Days in the Forest Service, Volume 3*. Missoula, Region 1 USDA Forest Service.

Westcott, Clarence

1962 In *Early Days in the Forest Service, Volume 3*. Missoula, Region 1 USDA Forest Service.

Wilson, Merrill Ann

1976 "Rustic Architecture: The National Park Style," in *Trends*, July-September, 1976.

Worf, William

1989 Personal interview with Theodore Catton, March 24.

Archival Collections

Flathead National Forest, Heritage Files, Supervisors Office, Kalispell, Montana.

USDA Forest Service, Region One Archives, Missoula, Montana.

Records of the Forest Service (Record Group 95), National Archives and Records Administration, Seattle, Washington.

Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative
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Previous documentation on file (NPS):

- preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67 has been requested)
- previously listed in the National Register
- previously determined eligible by the National Register
- designated a National Historic Landmark
- recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey # _____
- recorded by Historic American Engineering Record # _____
- recorded by Historic American Landscape Survey # _____

Primary location of additional data:

- State Historic Preservation Office
 - Other State agency
 - Federal agency
 - Local government
 - University
 - Other
- Name of repository: National Archives and Records Administration
Seattle

Historic Resources Survey Number (if assigned): N/A

10. Geographical Data

Acreage of Property 8734.25 (see table below)

(Do not include previously listed resource acreage.)

Resource	Acres
Spotted Bear Ranger Station	3.6
Big Prairie Ranger Station	40
Black Bear Guard Station	30
Salmon Forks Guard Station	8
Basin Guard Station	3
Danaher Guard Station	1
Hahn Guard Station	1
Shaw Guard Station	2.15
Pendant Guard Station	1.5
Schafer Ranger Station	61
Silvertip Guard Station	1
Pentagon Guard Station	1
Gooseberry Guard Station	1
Granite Guard Station	2
Spruce Park Guard Station	1
Challenge Guard Station	1
Trails system (355 miles of trail)*	8576

* The ground return telephone line lies within the 200-ft. wide trails corridor. Therefore there is no additional acreage for this resource

Use either the UTM system or latitude/longitude coordinates

UTM References

Datum (indicated on USGS map):

NAD 1927 or NAD 1983

The resources included in the Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities historic district occur within a six-sided polygon defined by the following UTM points presented on "Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities Historic District" map below. All UTM's are in Zone 12. NOTE: this large area, roughly 60 miles long by 25 miles wide, incorporates considerable adjacent land that is not included in the historic district.

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UTM Point 1 NW corner (at Bear Creek TH): 0321663 m E; 5287982 m N

UTM Point 2 NE corner (northeast of Challenge GS): 0332543 m E; 5344988 m N

UTM Point 3 East of Gooseberry Park: 0347707 m E; 5319079 m N

UTM Point 4 SE corner (Dry Fork Flathead divide): 0321895m E; 5287456 m N

UTM Point 5 (Hahn Creek Pass) 0333936 m E; 5242285 m N

UTM Point 6 SW corner (S of Gordon Pass): 0309883 m E; 5255207 m N

Within the polygon described above, the locations of the 16 administrative sites are defined by the following UTM points (all Zone 12) and correspond to the maps in Section 7.

Resource	Point	Easting (m)	Northing (m)
Spotted Bear RS	1	0311235	5311043
	2	0311414	5311184
	3	0311501	5311108
	4	0311321	5310967
Big Prairie RS	1	0331313	5264256
	2	0332052	5263940
	3	0332039	5263839
	4	0331781	5263918
	5	0331744	5263878
	6	0331643	5263925
	7	0331533	5263919
	8	0331310	5263756
	9	0331030	5263877
Black Bear GS	1	0321576	5288169
	2	0321755	5288199
	3	0322111	5287420
	4	0321917	5287437
Salmon Forks GS	1	0323168	5277637
	2	0323344	5277428
	3	0323288	5277382
	4	0323124	5277577
Basin GS	1	0341638	5252936
	2	0341677	5252909
	3	0341546	5252743
	4	0341507	5252771
Danaher GS	1	0347937	5245846
	2	0347965	5245846
	3	0347980	5245762
	4	0347934	5245762
Shaw GS	1	0316680	5255457
	2	0316776	5255462
	3	0316784	5255307
	4	0316690	5255301
Hahn GS	1	0332580	5250697
	2	0332612	5250683
	3	0332575	5250597

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	4	0332531	5250605
Pendant GS	1	0311928	5264368
	2	0311982	5264342
	3	0311976	5264274
	4	0311918	5264281
Schafer RS	1	0332211	5327668
	2	0333463	5327676
	3	0333550	5327531
	4	0333245	5327474
	5	0332979	5327358
	6	0332712	5327507
	7	0332201	5327553
Silvertip GS	1	0329177	5310585
	2	0329261	5310576
	3	0329261	5310507
	4	0329174	5210506
Pentagon GS	1	0338910	5303834
	2	0338996	5303832
	3	0338996	5303762
	4	0338910	5303762
Gooseberry GS	1	0345170	5318627
	2	0345277	5318568
	3	0345257	5318527
	4	0345146	5318587
Granite GS	1	0322020	5335185
	2	0322125	5335181
	3	0322122	5335114
	4	0322015	5335117
Spruce Park GS	1	0310952	5338359
	2	0311001	5338337
	3	0310970	5338267
	4	0310919	5338291
Challenge GS	1	0326794	5344617
	2	0326877	5344622
	3	0326881	5344556
	4	0326799	5344550

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Within the polygon described above, the locations of the trails that contribute to the circulation within the historic district are defined by the following UTM points (all Zone 12)

Trail No.	UTM Point	Point location	Easting (m)	Northing (m)
SOUTH FORK TRAILS				
Trail 80 / 126 [Main through trail on the east side of the South Fk. Flathead River)	1	Beginning at Spotted Bear RS	0311580	5310908
	2	Entering Big Prairie RS	0331248	5264182
	3	Exiting Big Prairie RS	0331762	5263893
	4	Confluence of Young and Danaher Creeks	0335752	5257094
	5	Basin Cr. GS	0341614	5252875
	6	Danaher GS	0347923	5245774
	7	Dry Fork Divide	0348043	5237553
Trail No. 263 [Black Bear GS to Big Prairie RS along west side of South Fork River]	1	Beginning at Black Bear GS	0321873	5287473
	2	Salmon Forks GS	0322756	5277569
	3	Pack bridge west of Big Prairie	0331054	5263838
Trail Nos. 110/212/35 [connect Pendant and Shaw stations with the stations on the South Fork (Salmon Forks and Big Prairie)]	1	Junction with Trail No. 263 below Big Salmon Lake	0322748	5277373
	2	Head of Big Salmon Lake	0317813	5273252
	3	Junction w/ Trail 212	0310611	5265162
	4	Pendant GS	0311934	5264312
	5	Big Salmon Cr. / Hahn Cr. Divide	0314722	5261512
	6	Junction w/ Trail 35 at Hahn Cr. / Gordon Cr. Confluence	0332247	5260781
	7	Junction w/ Trail 263 (west side S. Fk. Flathead River)	0330882	5263775
Trail 125 [connects Big Prairie with Hahn GS and south to Hahn Cr. Pass	1	Beginning on east bank of S. Fk. Flathead R.	0333499	5260126
	2	Spur trail to Hahn GS	0332379	5251374
	3	Hahn Cr. Pass	0333936	5242285
Trail No. 83 [Main Spotted Bear River trail connecting Spotted Bear Ranger Station with Silvertip and Pentagon guard stations	1	Beginning of Trail at Spotted Bear Ranger Station	0311559	5310914
	2	Spotted Bear River Ford	0322990	5310417
	3	Silvertip GS vicinity	0329175	5310525
	4	Pentagon GS	033928	5303873
	5	Junction w/ Trail 90	0340105	5302145

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Trail Nos. 90 / 112 [Connect the Middle Fork and South Fork drainage basins]	1	North end of Trail 90 at its junction with Trail No. 83	0340105	5302145
	2	Divide between Wall Cr. and Juliet Creek	0337442	5292307
	3	Junction with Trail 212	0336077	5290210
	4	Mouth of S. Fk. White River	0334729	5272356
	5	Junction with main South Fork Trail (No. 80)	0327878	5272552
Trail 100 ["Helen Creek Trail" links Black Bear GS with the White River Trail and access to the Spotted Bear drainage]	1	West end of trail at junction w/ Trail 80	0322971	5286482
	2	Crossing of Helen Cr. headwaters	0329849	5285215
	3	East end / junction with White River Trail (No. 112)	0333657	5284275
MIDDLE FORK TRAILS				
Trail No. 155 "Big River Trail" [Principal access into the Middle Fork drainage]	1	West end (beginning) at Bear Creek Trailhead	0309563	5345344
	2	Silvertip GS vicinity	0310979	5338368
	3	Granite GS vicinity	0322114	5335187
	4	Schafer RS vicinity	0332870	5327514
	5	Gooseberry GS	0345188	5318634
Trail No. 156 [Connects Schafer RS with Challenge GS]	1	South end at junction with Big River Trail (No. 155)	0322612	5335302
	2	Intersection with Skyland Road	0326982	5343425
Trail No. 154 [Connects Granite GS with Challenge GS]	1	South end at junction with Big River Trail (No. 155)	0328116	5331514
	2	Intersection w/ Skyland Road	0329109	5341755
Trail No. 327 [Spotted Bear – Schafer Trail, links the Spotted Bear and Middle Fork drainages]	1	Intersection with FS Road 564	0320490	5311302
	2	Flathead Range crest	0323768	5317202
	3	Junction with Big River Trail (No. 1550)	0333604	5327193
Trail No. 173 [Connects Schafer RS in the Middle Fork with Pentagon GS in the South Fork drainage]	1	Junction with Trail No. 327 south of Schafer RS	033360	5326099
	2	Crossing from Dolly Varden Cr. drainage to Pentagon Cr. drainage	0339190	5312186
	3	Junction with Trail No. 83 that parallels the Spotted Bear River	0339023	5303883

Trail Nos. 241 / 177 Connects	1	N. end of Trail No. 241 at	0333360	5326134
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Middle Fork and Spotted Bear River drainage basins.		junction with Trail No. 173.		
	2	Crossing to east side of Trilobite Range	0338604	5319158
	3	Switchback Pass	0343079	5308555
	4	East Fork Pentagon Cr.	0340418	5307795
	5	S. end of Trail No. 177 at junction with Trail No. 173	0340077	5306457

Verbal Boundary Description (Describe the boundaries of the property.)

The boundary for the historic district includes the area within a 200-ft wide strip centered over 355 miles of the contributing trail system and expands at the various administrative sites to incorporate the area improved for use as either ranger district headquarters or guard stations. The acreage associated with the individual administrative sites varies depending upon the range of uses at the sites. Sites with airstrips are the largest, while the improvements associated with some guard stations occupy about an acre. Refer to the historic district map included in Additional Documentation, to see the locations of the trails and administrative sites included in the historic district.

Boundary Justification (Explain why the boundaries were selected.)

The district boundary encompasses the historic resources associated with the Flathead National Forest’s administration of its backcountry areas. The district boundary reflects the corridors associated with the historic transportation and communication networks, specifically the trails and the system of telephone lines, linking the individual facilities. The boundary reflects the extremely rugged terrain which largely dictated the placement of the trails, telephone lines, as well as the ranger and guard stations. The remote character of the region couples with difficult mountainous terrain largely resulted in the use of pack animals and air transportation to access the guard and ranger stations. Telephone lines were constructed adjacent to the trails as the established routes afforded easy access for repair and maintenance. The district boundary includes those portions of the landscape associated with the meandering trails and the property surrounding the guard and ranger stations.

11. Form Prepared By

name/title Janene Caywood

organization CRCS

date September, 2014

street & number 1002 South 6th St. West

telephone 406 728-9190

city or town Missoula

state MT

zip code 59801

e-mail crs@montana.com

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Additional Documentation

Submit the following items with the completed form:

- **Maps:** A USGS map (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.
- **Continuation Sheets**
- **Additional items:** (Check with the SHPO or FPO for any additional items.)

Paperwork Reduction Act Statement: This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C.460 et seq.).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18 hours per response including time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Office of Planning and Performance Management, U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1849 C. Street, NW, Washington, DC.

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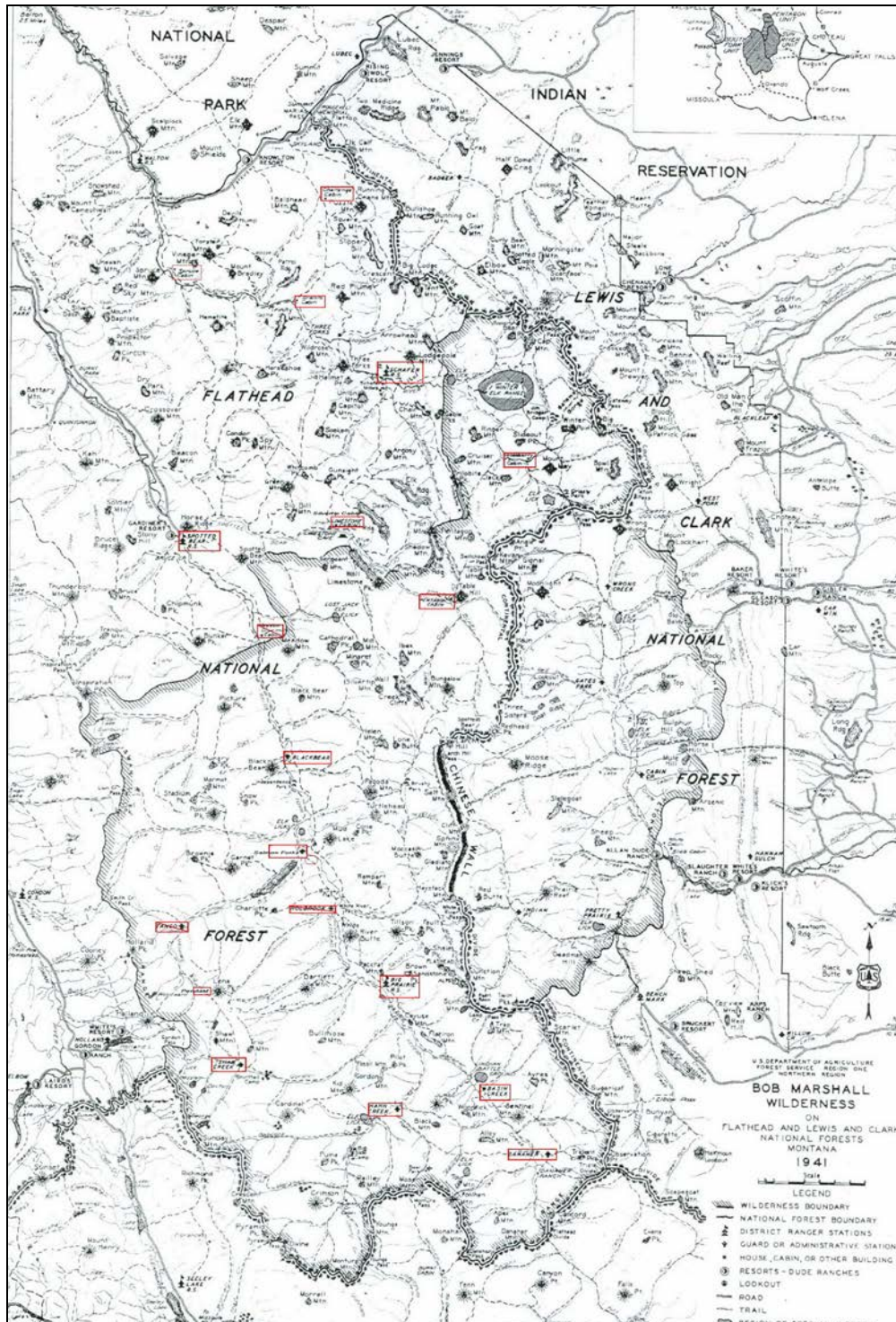
Name of Property

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Map showing locations of the South and Middle Fork administrative sites and trails, 1941. Boxes with slash marks indicate guard stations no longer present. Note that Silvertip GS occupies the same location as the original Limestone GS.

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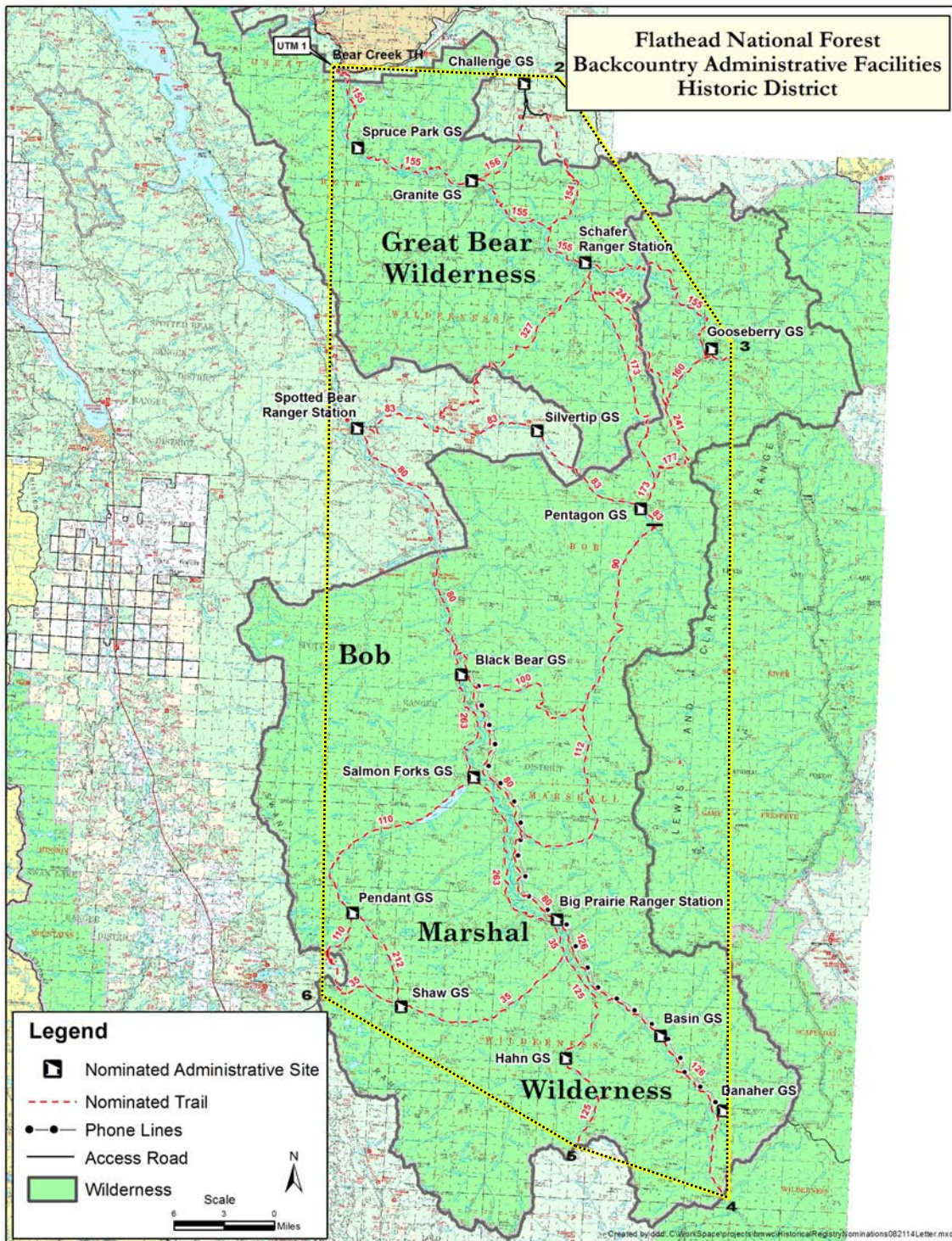
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Historic district map showing the locations of contributing administrative sites and trails. Number call-outs correspond to UTM's listed on page 104.

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Photographs:

Submit clear and descriptive photographs. The size of each image must be 1600x1200 pixels (minimum), 3000x2000 preferred, at 300 ppi (pixels per inch) or larger. Each photograph must be numbered and that number must correspond to the photograph number on the photo log. For simplicity, the name of the photographer, photo date, etc. may be listed once on the photograph log and doesn't need to be labeled on every photograph.

All Photos:

Name of Property: Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities

City or Vicinity: Vicinity of Hungry Horse, Montana

County: Flathead, Lewis & Clark, Missoula and Powell Counties State: Montana

Photographer: Janene Caywood, Keegan Kinney

Date Photographed: Caywood, September 2008; Kinney-July - August 2008

Description of Photograph(s) and number:

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0001
Spotted Bear RS: Looking southwest along the road in front of the original Spotted Bear buildings.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0002
Spotted Bear RS: Looking north at the front and west sides of the office building.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0003
Spotted Bear RS: Looking east to the front (southeast) and northwest side of the warehouse, currently used as the fire cache.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0004
Spotted Bear RS: Looking northwest to the front (southeast) wall of the ranger's dwelling.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0005
Spotted Bear RS: Looking southeast to the north side and front walls of the bunkhouse. A CCC building moved to the site in the mid 1950s

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0006
Big Prairie RS: Looking northeast along the row of buildings at the edge of the terrace.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0007
Big Prairie RS: Looking southwest at the east and north (front) walls of the packer's dwelling.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0008
Big Prairie RS: Looking southeast at the front (north) and west sides of the shop.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0009
Big Prairie RS: Looking southeast to the front (north) and west side of the bunk house, designed for the site by William Fox in 1936.

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Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0010
Big Prairie RS: Looking northwest at the south side and front (east) wall of the combination building.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0011
Big Prairie RS: Looking southwest at the front (east) and north walls of the meat house.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0012
Big Prairie RS: Looking west at the front (northeast) and southwest walls of the ranger’s dwelling.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0013
Big Prairie RS: Looking southwest at the east and north walls of the barn.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0014
Big Prairie RS: Looking southeast at the north and west walls of the large warehouse, aka the chute shed.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0015
Big Prairie RS: Looking north-northwest to the Roush grave.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0016
Black Bear GS: Looking southeast to the front (northwest) wall of Black Bear Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0017
Black Bear GS: Detail of the phone box in Black Bear Cabin that can be accessed from inside and outside the building.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0018
Black Bear GS: Looking southwest to the northeast wall of Black Bear Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0019
Black Bear GS: Overview looking southeast to the corral complex (with the tack shed and the hay barn), from behind the cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0020
Salmon Forks GS: Looking southeast to the front (north) and west side of Salmon Forks Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0021
Salmon Forks GS: Looking northeast at the tack barn.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0022
Basin Creek GS: Looking southwest to the front (east) and south sides of Basin Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0023
Danaher GS: Looking east to front (southwest) and northwest sides of Danaher Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0024
Shaw GS: Looking northwest to the front (east) and south sides of Shaw Cabin.

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Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0025
 Shaw GS: Looking east to the rear (west) side of Shaw Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0026
 Shaw GS: Looking northeast to the front (southwest) wall of the hay barn.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0027
 Hahn GS: Looking southeast to the front (west) and north side of Hahn Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0028
 Hahn GS: Looking northeast at the front (west) and south sides of the hay barn/pit toilet.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0029
 Pendant GS: Looking north to the front (south) wall of Pendant Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0030
 Pendant GS: Looking east to the west side of Pendent Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0031
 Schafer RS: Looking southwest to the front (north) and west sides of the office.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0032
 Schafer RS: Looking northeast to the west side and rear (south) walls of the office

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0033
 Schafer RS: Looking southeast to the front (north) and west side of the bunkhouse.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0034
 Schafer RS: Looking southwest to the front (east) and north sides of the shop.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0035
 Schafer RS: Looking west and the front (northeast) and southeast sides of the ranger's dwelling.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0036
 Schafer RS: Looking east at the northwest side and rear (southwest) walls of the ranger's dwelling.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0037
 Schafer RS: Looking northwest at the front of the fuel storage building.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0038
 Schafer RS: Looking west at the front of the outhouse.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0039
 Schafer RS: Overview of the corral area looking northeast.

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Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0040
Schafer RS: Looking southwest at the front (east) and west side of the barn.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0041
Schafer RS: Looking south at the north wall of the hay shed.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0042
Schafer RS: Looking southeast at the front (north) and west walls of the tack shed.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0043
Silvertip GS: Looking northeast to the front (southwest) wall of Silvertip Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0044
Silvertip GS: Looking north to the front and southeast side of Silvertip Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0045
Silvertip GS: Looking northeast to the front (southwest) wall of the hay barn.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0046
Pentagon GS: Looking west at the front (northeast) and southeast side of Pentagon Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0047
Pentagon GS: Looking east at the northwest side and rear (southwest) walls of Pentagon Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0048
Pentagon GS: Looking southeast to the front (northwest) wall of the barn.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0049
Gooseberry GS: Looking northeast at the front (south) and west side of Gooseberry Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0050
Granite GS: Looking northwest to the front (east) and south side of Granite Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0051
Granite GS: Looking northeast to the west side and front (south) walls of the hay barn.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0052
Spruce Park GS: Looking south to the front (north) wall of Spruce Park Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0053
Spruce Park GS: Looking northeast to the west side and rear (south) walls of Spruce Park Cabin.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0054
Challenge GS: Looking north to the front (south) wall of Challenge Cabin.

**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places
Continuation Sheet**

Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities
Name of Property
Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, and Missoula counties, Montana
County and State
Name of multiple listing (if applicable)

Section number Additional Documentation—National Register Photographs Page 115

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0055
Mid-slope trail section: main South Fork Trail (No. 80).

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0056
Typical trail tread across level upland bench.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0057
Typical corduroy use to bridge saturated ground.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0058
Typical braided tread in open level benches.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0059
Tree-mounted phone box near Salmon Forks Guard Station.

Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0060
Tree-mounted phone box near Danaher Guard Station

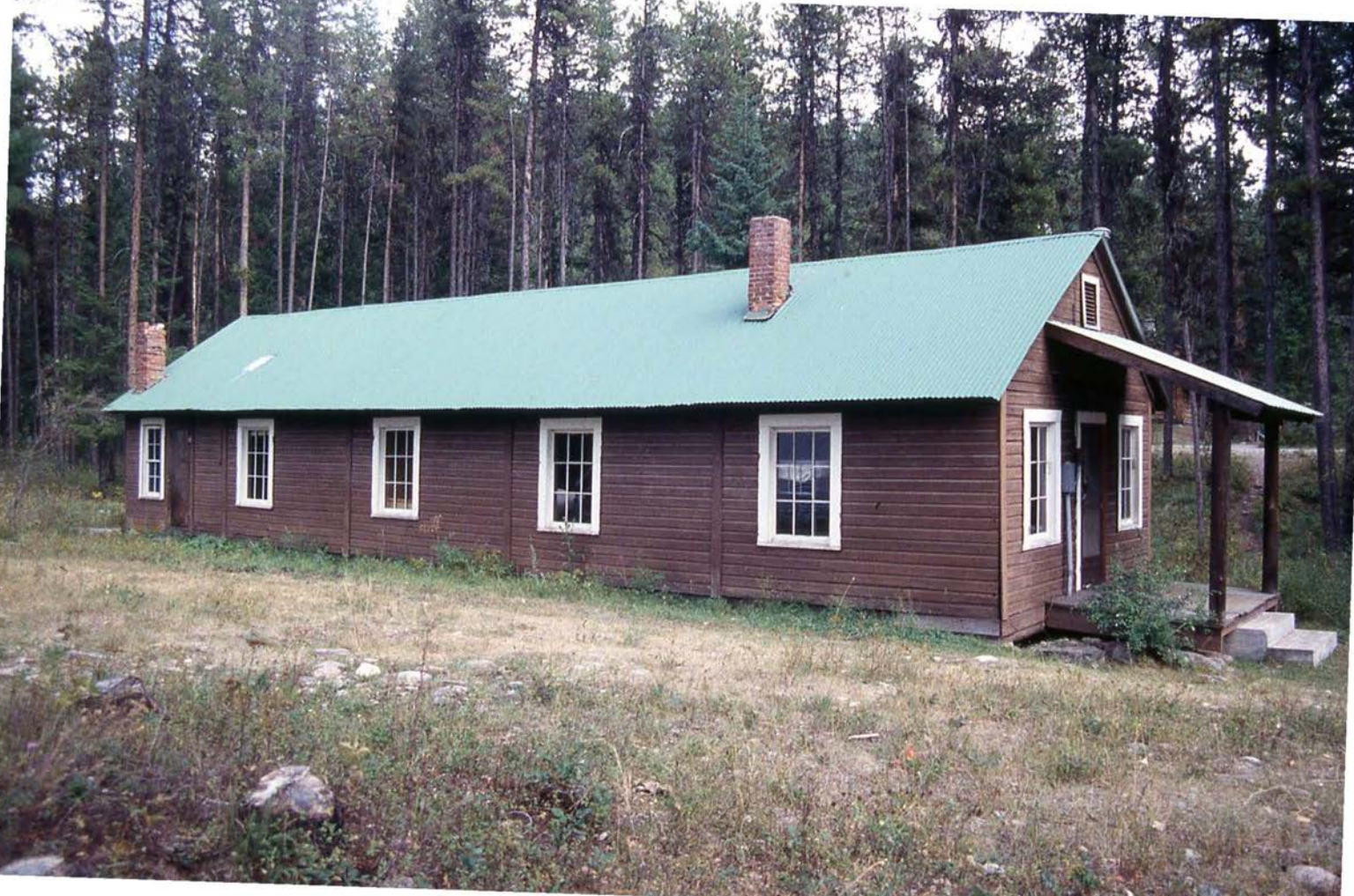
Photo MT_Flathead, Powell, Lewis & Clark, Missoula COs_Flathead NF Backcountry Administrative Facilities_0061
Looking northeast: overview of phone line attached to poles in the vicinity of Danaher Guard Station.

































BEAR'S DEN
HAROLD STRATTON





Plp. for the... On the...

DUTY OF TELEPHONE CALLS
DISTRICT ANGERS

The... of...

HELP PREVENT FOREST FIRES
REMEMBER THESE ALIEN

1. **Smoking:**
When you are smoking, be sure you are in a safe place. Do not smoke in a building or in a place where there are people. Do not smoke in a place where there are people. Do not smoke in a place where there are people.
2. **Smoking:**
When you are smoking, be sure you are in a safe place. Do not smoke in a building or in a place where there are people. Do not smoke in a place where there are people. Do not smoke in a place where there are people.



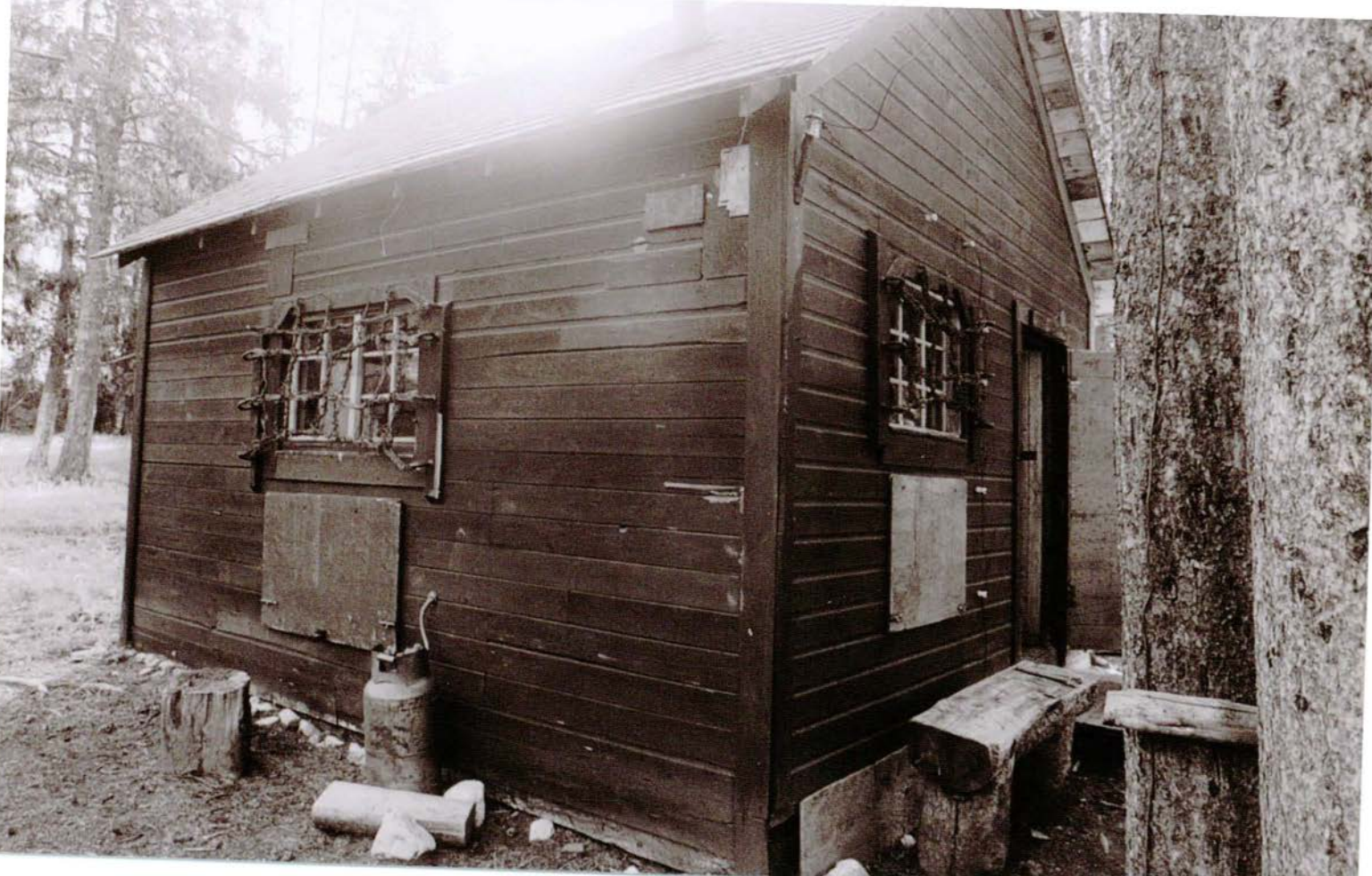




SAND





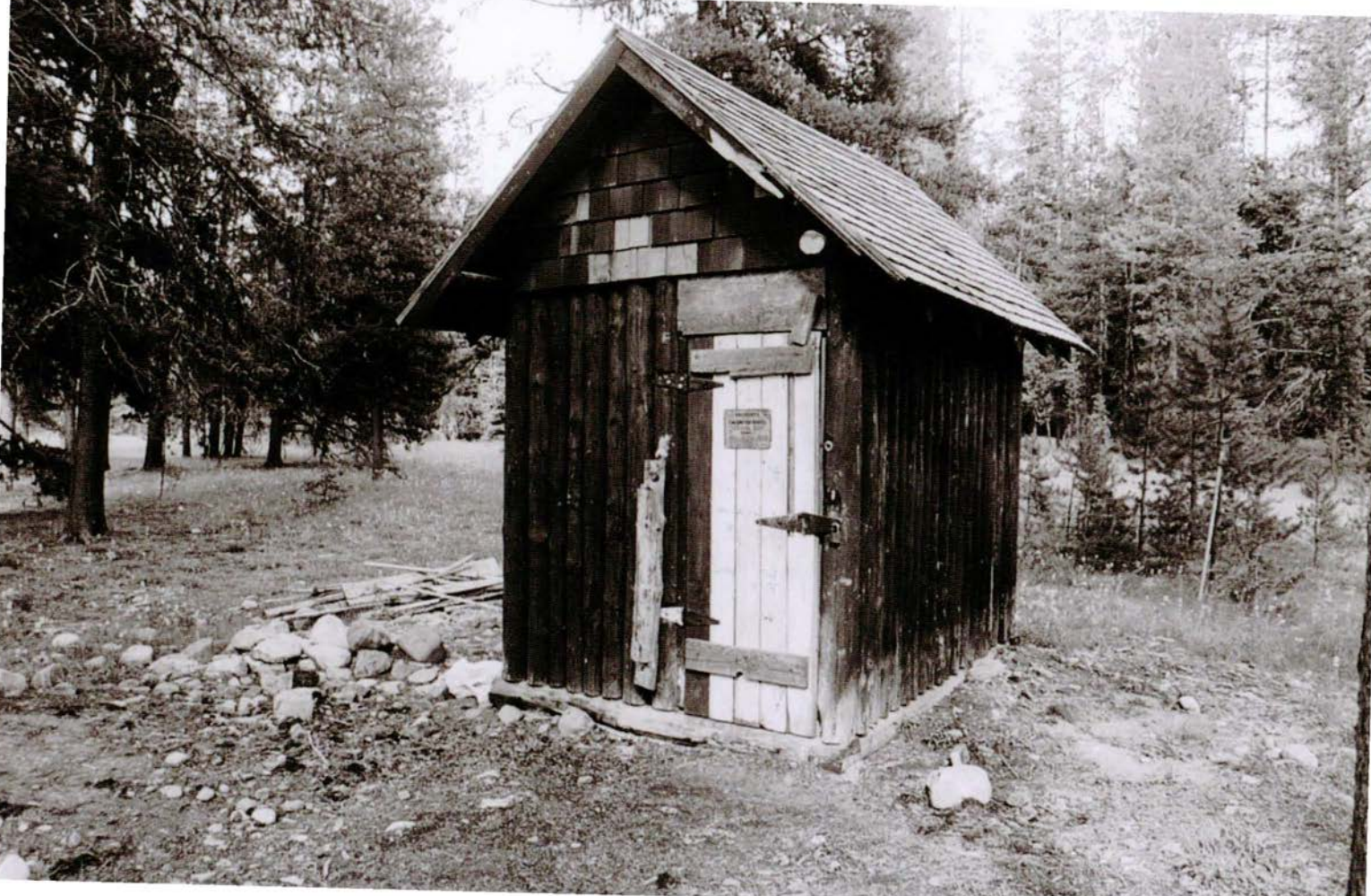






































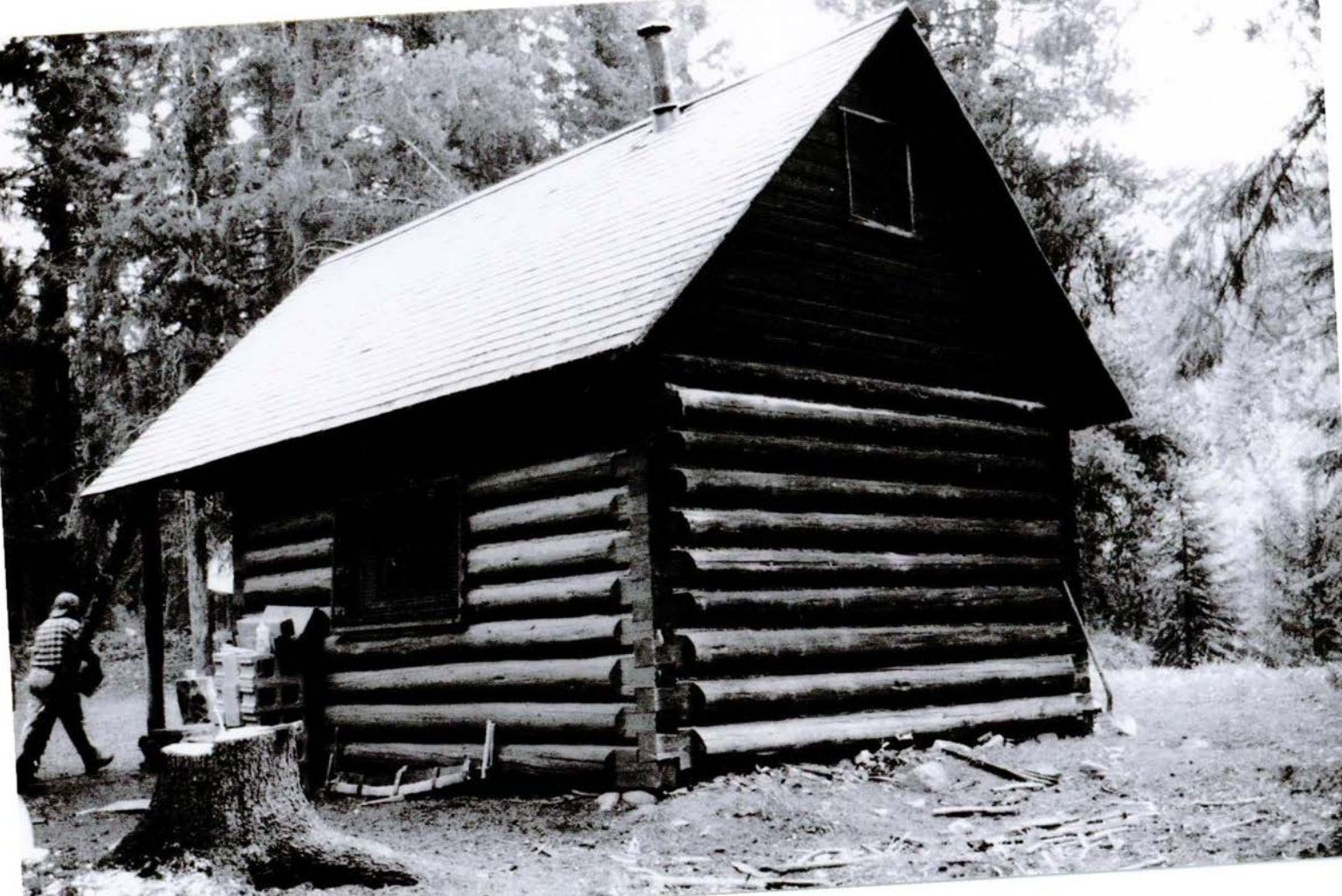














Chouseberry Cabin # 1025

























CAMPION ST-5
BIG FOOT
SWAN LAKE LES



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
NATIONAL PARK SERVICE

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
EVALUATION/RETURN SHEET

REQUESTED ACTION: NOMINATION

PROPERTY NAME: Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities

MULTIPLE NAME:

STATE & COUNTY: MONTANA, Flathead

DATE RECEIVED: 10/31/14 DATE OF PENDING LIST: 11/25/14
DATE OF 16TH DAY: 12/10/14 DATE OF 45TH DAY: 12/17/14
DATE OF WEEKLY LIST:

REFERENCE NUMBER: 14001047

REASONS FOR REVIEW:

APPEAL: N DATA PROBLEM: N LANDSCAPE: N LESS THAN 50 YEARS: N
OTHER: N PDIL: N PERIOD: N PROGRAM UNAPPROVED: N
REQUEST: Y SAMPLE: N SLR DRAFT: N NATIONAL: N

COMMENT WAIVER: N

___ ACCEPT ___ RETURN ___ REJECT _____ DATE

ABSTRACT/SUMMARY COMMENTS:

The Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities are of statewide significance under National Register Criteria A and C in the areas of Architecture, Conservation, and Politics/Government. Constructed of locally harvested timber, the log and frame resources are excellent examples of the vernacular building forms designed and built by the Forest Service for its backcountry administrative facilities during the period circa 1920 to 1965. The integrated network of ranger stations, guard stations and linking trails reflects the Forest Service's historic management policies associated with the limited development in the agency's primitive (wilderness) areas during the early twentieth century.

RECOM./CRITERIA Accept Criteria A+C

REVIEWER PAUL R. LUSIGUAN DISCIPLINE HISTORIAN

TELEPHONE _____ DATE 12/17/2014

DOCUMENTATION see attached comments Y/N see attached SLR Y/N

If a nomination is returned to the nominating authority, the nomination is no longer under consideration by the NPS.

October 28, 2014

Carl Davis
Regional Archaeologist/Delegated Federal Preservation Officer
Federal Building
200 East Broadway
P.O. Box 7669
Missoula, Montana
59807-7669

RE: Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities National Register
Nomination

Dear Carl,

For your consideration, please find enclosed the final nomination for the **Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities** for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The nomination includes facilities in Flathead, Powell, Lewis and Clark, and Missoula Counties.

The nomination was presented to the State Historic Preservation Review Board at their May, 2014 meeting in Seeley Lake. The board unanimously recommended it for listing in the National Register. Tim Light of the Flathead National Forest supported the proposed listing by funding the nomination.

The nomination is being forwarded and submitted in an electronic format. We ask that you review and sign the first page (signature page) under "Signature of certifying official/Title" (the only part of the nomination submitted in hardcopy form), then forward the signature page, along

with the three enclosed Archival Gold CDs (one containing a PDF and Word file of the nomination, and the second and third containing the digital photographs). I have also enclosed a fourth (non-Archival Gold) CD containing a transmittal letter for you to print and sign on your letter head informing the Keeper the nomination is submitted in a digital format. Please send the nomination to Washington via Federal Express, as the US Postal Service irradiates mail sent to government offices, often ruining the contents, especially photographs.

We have included a hard copy for your records. If you would like a digital file of the nomination, please let us know. Thank you for the Forest Service's support of nominations to the National Register of Historic Places. If you have any questions regarding this submission, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,



John Boughton
National Register Coordinator
Montana State Historic Preservation Office
Montana Historical Society
1410 8th Avenue
Helena, MT 59620

October 29, 2014

Carol Shull, Keeper
National Register of Historic Places
National Park Service
1201 Eye St. NW
8th Floor (MS 2280)
Washington, D.C. 20005

Dear Ms. Shull,

Enclosed please find the following nomination for your consideration for listing in the National Register of Historic Places:

Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities, in Flathead, Powell, Lewis and Clark, and Missoula Counties, Montana

The enclosed disks contain the true and correct copy of the National Register nomination for the Flathead National Forest Backcountry Administrative Facilities for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

Please be advised that owners and public officials were notified in excess of 45 days prior to the Preservation Review Board meeting. The Review Board unanimously recommended that this property be nominated and I concur with its recommendation.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Carl Davis
Regional Archaeologist/Delegated Federal Preservation Officer
Federal Building
200 East Broadway
P.O. Box 7669
Missoula, Montana
5807-7669
(406) 329-3654

Enclosure