1. NAME OF PROPERTY

Historic Name: **MOUNT RAINIER NATIONAL PARK**

Other Name/Site Number:

2. LOCATION

Street & Number: Tahoma Woods-Star Route Not for publication: ___

City/Town: Ashford Vicinity: X

State: WA County: Pierce/Lewis Code: 053/041 Zip Code: 98304-9801

3. CLASSIFICATION

Ownership of Property		Category of Property	
Private:	___	Building(s):	___
Public-Local:	___	District:	X
Public-State:	___	Site:	___
Public-Federal:	X	Structure:	___
		Object:	___

Number of Resources within Property

Contributing	Non-contributing	
95	18	buildings
___	___	sites
60	12	structures
3	___	objects
158	30	Total

Number of Contributing Resources Previously Listed in the National Register: 119

Name of Related Multiple Property Listing:

Historic Resources of Mount Rainier National Park; Historic Park Landscapes in National and State Parks, 1995

4. STATE/FEDERAL AGENCY CERTIFICATION

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, 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 ____ meets ____ does not meet the National Register Criteria.

_____ _____
Signature of Certifying Official Date

_____
State or Federal Agency and Bureau

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

_____ _____
Signature of Commenting or Other Official Date

_____
State or Federal Agency and Bureau

5. 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 Keeper Date of Action

6. FUNCTION OR USE

Historic:	Landscape	Sub:	Park
	Recreation & Culture	Sub:	Outdoor Recreation
	Domestic	Sub:	Single Dwelling
	Domestic	Sub:	Multiple Dwelling
	Domestic	Sub:	Institutional Housing
	Domestic	Sub:	Hotel
	Transportation	Sub:	Road-related
Current:	Landscape	Sub:	Park
	Recreation & Culture	Sub	Outdoor Recreation
	Domestic	Sub:	Single Dwelling
	Domestic	Sub:	Multiple Dwelling
	Domestic	Sub:	Institutional Housing
	Domestic	Sub:	Hotel
	Transportation	Sub:	Road-related

7. DESCRIPTION

ARCHITECTURAL CLASSIFICATION: Bungalow/Craftsman
Other: NPS Rustic

MATERIALS:
Foundation: Stone/Concrete
Walls: Stone/Log/Shingle
Roof: Shingle
Other:
Site Furnishings: Stone/Wood/Metal/Concrete
Pavements and Curbs: Packed Earth/Gravel/Asphalt/Stone/Concrete
Retaining Walls and Other Landscape Structures: Concrete/Stone/Packed Earth

Describe Present and Historic Physical Appearance.

Summary
The setting of Mount Rainier, towering above the surrounding Cascade Ranges, is one of the most scenic and historically significant recreation areas in the West. At lower elevations the mountain is clothed in old growth forests of Douglas-fir and Western red cedar and hemlock. Extravagant wildflower displays fill the high meadows just above the treeline during the short summers. The system of glaciers that crown the mountain is the nation's largest outside Alaska, and the peak itself is the third highest in the continental United States. The park has historically drawn large numbers of visitors and continues to be a major attraction for scientists, climbers, hikers, and tourists.

The Mount Rainier National Historic Landmark (NHL) District encompasses almost all of the roads, historic developed areas, and historic backcountry structures of the park. The historic district is a discontiguous district with a contiguous core that follows the park road system as a corridor. This historic corridor connects and includes all the major developed areas of the park, and includes the Wonderland Trail (the 93-mile loop trail system around the mountain) and the two spur entrance roads in the northwestern corner of the park (see attached map). The discontiguous (backcountry) portions of the district are the 11 backcountry cabins and shelters, and the four fire lookouts that are not within the contiguous district as defined below.

All of these buildings and some of these structures were first listed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1991. Unlike the National Register multiple resource nomination, the NHL District is a single district with discontiguous portions. This is appropriate because the NHL nomination stresses the history of National Park Service master planning, an aspect of the larger practice of Park Service landscape architecture. Beginning in the late 1920s, the master plan for Mount Rainier was the first and the most complete national park master plan to be developed and implemented by the landscape division. The goal of all such plans was to locate, coordinate, and integrate all park systems and facilities in a unified, comprehensive plan. Most facilities were concentrated along the park road system in order to limit the impact of development to a narrow area. This fact makes it easy to define a single corridor district (following the park roads and the Wonderland Trail) that encompasses all the major developed areas of the park. Some facilities, however, were planned with the opposite intention; backcountry patrol cabins and fire lookouts, for example, were carefully scattered throughout the park in order to effectively serve park administration and fire control.

Since the significance of this NHL District depends on the history of park master planning--a discipline which treated the park as a synthetic whole, not as a group of fragmented resources--all the facilities and systems that represent the historic master planning process should be included in a single district. Therefore the use of a discontiguous NHL District is desirable and justified in this case.

Thomas Vint and his landscape division compiled master plans for almost every national park and monument in the late 1920s and early 1930s, but few plans were as significant or as complete as the plans for Mount Rainier. The physical integrity of the developed areas and facilities of Mount Rainier also set it apart. As a whole, no other collection of park roads, bridges, major and minor developed areas, trails, etc., are more completely preserved as an intact example of park planning of the period. Very few postwar construction projects have had a large impact on the designed landscapes built during the period of significance. No other park in the national park system is better preserved, as whole, as a complete illustration of park planning and development of the period.

Five of the buildings within the NHL District described here have already been designated as NHLs for their architectural significance. For more detailed information on all the buildings in this historic district, please consult the 1991 National Register nomination for Mount Rainier National Park and the 1986 NHL Theme Study of National Park Architecture. This NHL nomination is submitted in the

theme of landscape architecture, and primarily describes historic resources that relate to landscape architectural design and planning.

Description of Contributing Resources in the Historic District
The following description of contributing resources in the NHL District is divided into six categories:

Spatial Organization
Circulation
Topography
Vegetation
Structures
Buildings

Spatial organization refers to the composition and sequence of outdoor spaces within the district. Circulation refers to the means and patterns of movement through the district. Topography refers to the ways in which the landscape planning responds to the topographic features of the site, and also to modifications of that topography. Vegetation also refers both to the response to existing vegetation, and to the management of vegetation through pruning, removal, or addition of trees and shrubs. Structures include all the contributing structures in the district, including roads, trails, retaining walls, etc. Buildings are defined as structures intended to shelter a human activity. No archeological resources have been considered in this survey.

HISTORIC DISTRICT OVERALL
Spatial Organization
The spatial organization of the overall park plan, like that of most Park Service master plans of the period, is based on a corridor of major and minor developed areas interspersed along the main road system of the park. In the case of Mount Rainier, eight to ten existing and proposed developed areas appear on original master plans of the 1930s. Six were located along a roughly U-shaped corridor defined by the Nisqually Road, the proposed Stevens Canyon and East Side Highways, the Yakima Park Highway, and a section of the Mather Memorial Parkway. Two more developed areas were described for the western (Mowich Lake) entrance to the park, and on the southern shore of Mowich Lake.

The concentration of visitor activities along the road corridor (and their further concentration within specific areas along that corridor) is a primary characteristic of the spatial organization of the historic district overall. The high density of visitor services, accommodations, and administrative areas within discrete park villages and minor developed areas along the main roads allows the vast majority of the park to remain free from the encroachment of such facilities.

Another major aspect of the spatial organization of the overall district is the zoning of appropriate levels of use of the park. Park Service master plans originally specified several zoning categories: "research areas," which prohibited all public access; "sacred areas," or small districts immediately around major attractions in which no development was allowed; "wilderness areas," the largest area of a park, accessible only by foot and bridle trails; and "developed areas," the major traffic corridor of automotive roads, overlooks, villages. Although the specific boundaries of different zones have changed over time in most parks (as have the names used to describe different levels of use) this basic zoning framework has continued to determine appropriate levels of use for different areas. At Mount Rainier, for example, automotive traffic continues to be restricted within essentially the same corridors that park planners envisioned in the late 1920s; the vast majority of the park remains open to the public, but closed to automobiles. Only those who hike or ride on trails have access to the backcountry. And certain areas may continue to be completely closed (sporadically) for scientific reasons, at the discretion of natural resource managers concerned for wildlife and other resources.

Circulation

The main automotive roads in the park are the Nisqually Road, the West Side Road, the Stevens Canyon Highway, The East Side Highway (Route 123), the Mather Memorial Parkway, the Yakima Park Highway, the Mowich Lake Entrance Road, and the Carbon River Entrance Road. The last two roads are spur roads that constitute discontiguous portions of the NHL District.

Taken together, these roads suggest a modification of a typical park loop-drive system. Army engineer Hiram M. Chittenden favored a "round-the-mountain" loop road as a basis for the overall development plan of the park, and subsequent park development proposals were intended to achieve this ultimate plan incrementally. As at Yellowstone, such a road system would have maximized access to the lower elevations of the park and provided the greatest possible variety of views from main park roads. The Nisqually Road (or Government Road) was originally built between 1904 and 1915. Further portions of the intended loop system were completed in the 1920s.

This essentially 19th-century approach to national park development never fully materialized at Mount Rainier. By the late 1920s, Park Service master planning policies and procedures were being codified and new paradigms for park development were adopted. In the early 1930s, Horace Albright and Thomas Vint officially instituted master planning procedures; from that point on, the Park Service favored plans that met minimum requirements for roads rather than plans that maximized a park's potential for the development of scenic drives. In practice, this usually amounted to the construction of one main route through a park that connected developed areas in a corridor, rather than a system of drives forming a grand loop through the entire park.

At Mount Rainier, the road system represents a hybrid: an abbreviated grand loop road that never winds its way around the mountain, but which does provide significant access to three sides of it. Left incomplete, in a sense, the automotive road system of the park testifies to a progressive sense of what limitations were desirable for national park development. At Mount Rainier, in particular, Park Service officials established important precedents for limiting the total amount of highway construction deemed appropriate for national parks.

Another key feature of circulation design evident in the Mount Rainier historic district overall is the sophisticated hierarchy of road and trail types. Trails, fire roads, and main roads were each conceived as independent systems, and each type has its own cross section, geometric specifications, maximum allowable grades, and typical construction details. Each circulation system has its own sheet in the master plan (at the same scale of the overall development plan) showing the extent of planned road, fire road, or trail development throughout the park. In practice, these three independent circulation systems are effectively laid one over the other in the park, creating a complex and efficient total system of circulation that assures that each set of circulation needs are met in a carefully coordinated way.

The most significant group of trails in the park are known collectively as the Wonderland Trail, which traces much of the early proposed route for the "round-the-mountain" road. The Wonderland Trail is the core of the park's trail system, providing access, via spur trails, to almost all the backcountry patrol cabins, firetowers, and other structures. The trail was originally located in 1915 by an outing of The Mountaineers (a Seattle mountaineering club), and Park Service landscape architects subsequently incorporated the trail into the master plan for the park in the 1920s. Although it has of course been relocated in places and maintained and rebuilt when required, the trail as a whole has extensive integrity and is one of the most significant and historic trails in the national park system. The Wonderland Trail is identified here as all portions of the park's trail system currently designated as the Wonderland Trail, and includes the Northern Loop Trail (a historic routing of the Wonderland Trail) as well. The Wonderland Trail corridor, with its associated historic elements, is counted as one structure. The boundaries of the NHL District follow the Wonderland Trail five feet from its centerline on either side.

The Nisqually Road, the West Side Road, the Stevens Canyon Highway, The East Side Highway (Route 123), the Mather Memorial Parkway, the Yakima Park Highway, the Mowich Lake Entrance Road, and the Carbon River Entrance Road are each counted as one contributing structure. The NHL District follows a corridor 30 feet from the centerlines of the roads on either side, and includes ditches, swales, and all other historic structures associated with road construction. Bridges along the roads are counted as additional individual structures.

Today all of these roads (except the West Side and Carbon River roads which are closed due to flood damage) continue to define the automotive circulation of the park. That circulation pattern, approved by Horace Albright in 1929, describes a great loop from the Seattle/Tacoma area, via the Mountain Highway to Ashford, entering the park at Ashford, proceeding from Paradise via the Stevens Canyon Highway to the southeast corner of the park, and exiting the park to the north via the Mather Memorial Parkway, returning to the Puget Sound communities via Route 410. Only the southern and eastern sides of the mountain, therefore, are traversed by this primary corridor; all other roads, including the West Side Road and the Yakima Park Highway, are cul-de-sacs and therefore side trips. Of these, the Yakima Park Highway was the most important, drawing visitors on that side of the park to a developed area that, it was hoped, would rival Paradise.

Overall, the historic circulation system of the park, including the Wonderland Trail, is remarkably intact. Its relationship to the surrounding state highways that approach the park also remain the same. In most instances, postwar construction has had very limited impacts on the park's historic circulation system. The most important impact on the historic integrity of the circulation system overall was the construction of a new approach to Paradise from above Narada Falls in the late 1950s. This approach extended the Nisqually Road up to what had been the back of the Paradise area, and made what had been the 1920s approach to Paradise into a one-way loop returning back down to the Narada Falls area. This reconfiguration has also had an impact on the complex intersections above Narada Falls. In general, the intersections of the park road system have good integrity to the period of significance; the new turnoff to Paradise, as well as the nearby intersection between the returning (one-way) traffic from Paradise and the Stevens Canyon Highway, however are not historic. No part of the new approach road to Paradise is within the NHL District, however.

Topography

Rising over 8,000 feet over the highest points of the surrounding terrain, obviously the mountain itself was the reason for the creation of the park and the reference point for all subsequent park development. Views of the mountain influenced the location and character of virtually every road and developed area. Broad plateaus at high elevations, called "parks," have always been primary attractions because of subalpine flora and spectacular views above the treeline. Paradise Park in particular, has been a center of visitor activity since the late 19th century.

The extensive glaciation of Mount Rainier also determined the interest in certain areas in the park and so influenced historic park plans. The Nisqually Glacier, for example, was one of the more accessible (lower) glaciers on the mountain's southern side, and became the first glacier in the United States to be accessible by road when the Nisqually Road reached it in 1908. Views and access to the Nisqually Glacier were a major aspect of the popularity of Paradise Valley. Later, a similar relationship was developed between the proposed development of Yakima Park and the more massive glaciers on the mountain's northern sides. Views of Emmons Glacier, the largest glacier in the contiguous United States, in particular, were an important reason for the selecting Yakima Park as a new developed area.

Rivers issuing from the glaciers, and the river valleys that form beneath them, have had a particularly important effect on the overall plan of the park. As a matter both of necessity and policy, the manipulation of topography for the construction of roads was kept to a minimum. River valleys offered the easiest, and therefore the least intrusive, routes for trails and roads. The Nisqually River, Paradise River, Stevens Creek, Ohanapecosh River, Chinook Creek, and White River valleys all helped

determine the overall pattern of development in the park, since the main park roads and trails follow portions of these river valleys.

Vegetation

Lower elevations of Mount Rainier are characterized by thick stands of massive Douglas-firs, Western red cedars, and Western hemlocks. The most significant aspect of the planned management of vegetation in the historic district overall has been to prohibit logging and grazing, activities which have had, historically, minimal or no impact on the park landscape as a result. Much of the forests in the lower elevations of the park are old growth, and have been protected specifically by the national park legislation of 1899, as well as the by the official management policies of the Park Service since (at least) the 1918 statement of Policy was promulgated by Secretary Lane.

The understory vegetation at lower elevations is characterized by lush growth of various ferns, salal, and other plants that thrive in moist forest soils. These understory plants, along with cedars, mountain sumac, firs, and other trees became important elements of the plant palettes employed by landscape architects and CCC crews engaged in "landscape naturalization" in the 1930s.

The second most significant aspect of vegetation management in the historic district overall has been to keep certain views open. This has required cutting or otherwise removing limited areas of trees and shrubs alongside roads and overlooks and in developed areas. Certain roadside overlooks and other minor developed areas were sited specifically to exploit important views; the management of vegetation in these areas logically was consistent with the goal of providing convenient locations from which to appreciate scenery.

Just above the timberline, Mount Rainier's subalpine parks have always been famous for seasonal displays of wildflowers and other subalpine flora. In 1901, John Muir described "a zone of the loveliest flowers, fifty miles in circuit and nearly two miles wide, so closely planted and luxuriant that it seems as if Nature . . . [were] trying to see how many of her darlings she can get together in one mountain wreath." Some of these meadows have become more wooded since the historic period, while others have not. Such change probably reflects long-term climatic trends.

Structures and Objects

The following structures, park roads in particular, are not part of specific developed areas, and so are described here as part of the historic district overall.

NOTE: Descriptions of bridges are condensed from Richard H. Quin, "Mount Rainier National Park Roads and Bridges, HAER No. WA-35," an unpublished report of the Historic American Engineering Record. HAER reports are available through the Library of Congress, Washington, DC. "NR#" refers to the listing of buildings and structures in the 1991 National Register Multiple Resource Nomination for Mount Rainier National Park. Where no NR number is listed, the structure was not previously listed on the National Register.

The park roads of Mount Rainier, like roads in other national parks, have always been calculated to minimize the visual impact of construction. This has led historically to a special concern for the preservation of roadside vegetation and the minimal disturbance of the road corridor during excavation and grading operations. Old-growth trees, especially at lower elevations, are often preserved right up to the paved surface of the roadway. The choice of "rustic" construction details, crafted of local stone, also has been a general characteristic of park road construction from the earliest days. Army Corps engineers, Bureau of Public Roads engineers, and Park Service landscape architects all implemented these general design guidelines throughout the historic period. While "rustic" inspiration has always been considered appropriate for national parks, the highest engineering and construction standards have

also been employed. Beneath the stone veneers of BPR and Park Service designed bridges of the 1920s and 1930s, for example, are reinforced concrete arches of sophisticated design.

In general, park road construction was designed to "harmonize" with park scenery. Location surveys laid out routes that followed parallel to contour lines as much as possible, and that avoided massive cuts or excessively steep roadside slopes. "Rustic" style construction was characterized by hand laid masonry guardwalls, crenelated along the tops, typically built from locally quarried granite. Concrete bridges typically were veneered in masonry calculated to match the masonry guardwalls and retaining walls. Tunnel portals, as well, were covered in masonry, except where rock was stable enough to allow the bare rock to be left exposed. Where simple culverts could be used to handle drainage (rather than the larger and more elaborate structures described individually below), the same native granite was used to build masonry headwalls concealing the outfalls of steel culvert pipes.

Scenic pull offs, or overlooks, are especially significant aspects of the park road system overall, and are included within the corridor of the NHL District. These areas serve as parking areas, viewing terraces, and sometimes trailheads. They often include guardwalls and other typical roadside structures, but are usually otherwise undeveloped. They were located either to maximize the ability to appreciate particular views, or to provide a convenient parking area for a trailhead. They sometimes are defined by a continuation of the road guardwall, and in other cases are no more than widened areas of the road. More elaborately developed roadside areas, such as those at Christine Falls and Narada Falls, are described individually below.

The road system of Mount Rainier is also notable for a unique set of entrance arches. Entrance arches were a particular concern of Stephen Mather very early during his directorship, and he encouraged their construction. Other famous examples of park entryways, for example the Gardiner entry arch at Yellowstone (1903), predate the Park Service. At Mount Rainier, the massive log entryway at the Nisqually Entrance was first erected in 1911 and became a characteristic visual image for the park. Although reconstructed twice, the Nisqually Entrance arch is a contributing structure in the NHL District. A similar arch once stood at the Carbon River entrance but was later removed. Similar arches were built for the East Side Highway (Ohanapecosh) and the White River (northeastern) entrances in the 1970s, but these arches are not considered contributing structures because there are no historical precedents for the structures at these sites. The Chinook Pass Entrance to the park has a unique park entrance arch, a log and stone structure built by the CCC which serves as a pedestrian overpass as well as an entry arch.

Contributing Resources:

CS1. Structure: Nisqually Road NR#:
HAER#:WA-119

Location: Between Main (SW) Park Entrance and Paradise Date:1904-15

Architect/Builder: US Army Corps/DOI

The 18.4-mile Nisqually (Government) Road was the first road built in the park and remains the park's busiest road. The Nisqually Road is characterized by crenelated guardwalls of native stone; masonry veneered concrete bridges; and frequent scenic overlooks that provide views of the mountain and of the surrounding landscape of waterfalls, rivers, and forests. The road rises on a gentle grade from the park's main entrance at Ashford, through the old growth forests typical of lower elevations in the area, to the developed area of Longmire (2,757'). The road then climbs across the southern slopes of the mountain, passing by and over numerous waterfalls and streams, and regularly providing scenic mountain vistas. The road reaches what was the historic location of the snout of the Nisqually Glacier (near the present-day Nisqually Glacier Bridge), but the glacier has receded from this point since the beginning of the century. From there the road proceeds up to the historic developed area of Paradise (5,557'), without ever exceeding a four percent gradient.

The road was reconstructed beginning in 1918 and was further reconstructed in the 1920s and early 1930s when many of its most notable features were built. The road today basically adheres to the original alignment of the road completed in 1915, as amended in the 1920s and 1930s. Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

The Sunshine Point Campground and the Cougar Rock Campground, both accessed by the road, do not date to the historic period and are not within the NHL District. The West Side Road intersection is one mile from the park entrance, and has good integrity. Scenic overlooks along the road are located at Kautz Creek, near Longmire, at Christine and Narada falls, at Oh My Point and Canyon Rim, along Ricksecker Point, and on the old approach to the Paradise Inn (now the one-way loop) in Paradise Valley.

CS2. Structure: Christine Falls Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-48
Location: on Nisqually Road Date:1927-28
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Christine Falls Bridge is a reinforced concrete, three-centered arch structure veneered in native granite. It is 56' feet long and 30' feet wide and spans Van Trump Creek. The span is curved, and brings motorists within a few feet of the cascade of Christine Falls. (The developed area contiguous with the bridge is described below.)

CS3. Structure: Ricksecker Overlook NR#:
Location: on Nisqually Road Date:1904-15/36
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/DOI
The Ricksecker Overlook is an older section of the Nisqually Road that was bypassed in the 1920s. The road was maintained as a scenic detour, or extended overlook, that rejoins the main road after about one-third of a mile.

CS4. Structure: Narada Cut-Off Bridge (Paradise River Third Crossing Bridge) NR#:
HAER#:WA-62
Location: on Nisqually Road Date:1925/63
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Narada Cutoff section of the Nisqually Road was built in 1921-26 to create a better route to Paradise from Narada Falls. The old road crossed the Paradise River on the "first crossing" bridge and moved up on a series of tight switchbacks that only allowed one-way traffic. Travel to and from Paradise was therefore restricted according to a daily schedule that first allowed traffic to go up and then allowed it back down. The "third crossing" bridge today is 34' long and 25' wide. It is the only historic bridge in the park that is of plain reinforced concrete girder construction, devoid of masonry veneer or other decorative details. The bridge was widened in the early 1960s, but retains its basic appearance and function. The adjacent developed area (Narada Falls) is described below.

CS5. Structure: Paradise River Fourth Crossing Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-45
Location: on original route of Nisqually Road, now a 1-way scenic route on Nisqually Road Date:1925-26
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The "fourth crossing" of the Paradise River occurs on what was the original approach to the Paradise Inn in Paradise Valley. This section of the Nisqually Road now carries one-way traffic away from Paradise, back toward the Narada Falls intersection.

CS6. Structure: Edith Creek Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-46
Location: on original route of Date:1925-26
Nisqually Road, now a 1-way scenic route
(1/3 mi. NE of Paradise Inn)
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The Edith Creek Bridge is a masonry veneered concrete filled spandrel bridge at the base of Edith Creek Falls in Paradise Valley. It is 39' long and 25' wide, and has masonry guardwalls. The bridge is about one quarter mile west of the Paradise River Fourth Crossing Bridge.

CS7. Structure: West Side Road NR#:
HAER#:WA-122
Location: Date:1926-34
Architect/Builder:Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The 13-mile West Side Road begins at an intersection with the Nisqually Road one mile from the Nisqually Entrance. The road was originally intended to connect all the way to the northwestern park entrances, but was abandoned in the mid-1930s and left as a long spur road. The road is open to traffic for the first three miles as it rises alongside the Tahoma Creek, but from that point it is closed to cars because of flood damage. The road then climbs up Emerald Ridge via a series of switchbacks, one of which, Tahoma Vista, was made a minor developed area. The road continues to Klapatche Point (4,120'), another scenic overlook. The road originally extended to the North Puyallup River, where the remains of a bridge are still located. This last section of the road was abandoned by the 1970s, however, and the North Puyallup Bridge was dynamited. The West Side Road is included in the historic district up to Klapatche Point, where there is a third scenic overlook, and the road has excellent integrity up to that point. The West Side Road also gives an idea of what the park roads were like before they were paved. Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

CS8. Structure: South Puyallup River Bridge NR#: HAER#:WA-52
Location: on West Side Road crossing the Puyallup river Date:1930-31
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The South Puyallup River Bridge is a reinforced concrete filled spandrel arch veneered in native granite. The bridge is 90' long and 34' wide, and follows a curved, superelevated alignment.

CS9. Structure: St. Andrews Creek Bridge & Stone Stairs NR#: HAER#:WA-51
Location: on West Side Road Date:1930-31
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The St. Andrews Creek Bridge is a reinforced concrete filled spandrel arch veneered in native granite masonry. It is 115' long and 34' wide, and follows a curved, superelevated alignment. Sets of stairs descend from the northeast and southwest corners of the bridge.

CO1. Object: Marine Memorial NR#: HAER#:
Location: West Side Road Date:ca.1947
Architect/Builder: NPS
The Marine Memorial is a bronze plaque set in a large boulder dedicated to the marines that died in the crash of a troop transport plane into South Tahoma Glacier near the end of World War II. A set of stairs and a retaining wall create a roadside viewing platform from which the glacier is visible.

CS10. Structure: Stevens Canyon Highway NR#: HAER#:WA-123
Location: Between Paradise and The East Side Highway Date:1931-57
Architect/Builder:Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Stevens Canyon Highway is a special case. Although the road was planned, designed, and partially constructed during the historic period, construction was interrupted by World War II. When the project was resumed, it was completed according to the original plans. The workmanship, materials, and feeling of these portions of the road are consistent with the rest of the park's road system. These later portions of the road (between Stevens Creek and the Cowlitz Divide) are an integral part of the NHL District. Therefore the two bridges (Nickel Creek and Muddy Fork Cowlitz) and one tunnel (Box Canyon) completed in the early 1950s, as well as the sections of roadway on which grading was completed at that time, are included here as contributing resources in the NHL District.

The construction of these later portions of road (masonry veneered, reinforced concrete arches, for example) is completely consistent with the design and construction completed in the 1920s and 1930s. Certain postwar portions of the later roadway (along Stevens Ridge and Backbone Ridge) employed sections of concrete viaducts to minimize excavation and scarring while traversing very steep hillsides. Although this construction is not typical of prewar park road design, even these sections are included in the NHL District because they are integral to the overall character of the road corridor, and are a logical extension of the principles of Park Service road construction.

The 21.2-mile Stevens Canyon Highway begins at the intersection with the Nisqually Road wye above Narada Falls (4,880'). After ascending to Reflection Lakes to the east, the road drops into Stevens Canyon and proceeds east along the canyon, following a fairly level "low-line" alignment. After crossing the Muddy Fork of the Cowlitz River at Box Canyon, the highway

proceeds southeast, around backbone ridge, to the intersection with the East Side Highway (Route 123). Scenic overlooks along the route are located at Reflection Lakes and Louise Lake. Four more are sited along the Stevens Canyon portion of the route, and one is near the highpoint of Backbone Ridge, and one is near the Stevens Canyon Entrance at the Grove of the Patriarchs. The Box Canyon developed area includes two overlook areas. Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

CS11. Structure: Sunbeam Creek Culvert NR#:
HAER#:WA-76
Location: on Stevens Canyon Highway Date:1935
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Sunbeam Creek Culvert is a reinforced concrete box culvert.

CS12. Structure: Stevens Creek Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-58
Location: on Stevens Canyon Highway Date:1940-41
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Stevens Creek Bridge is a masonry veneered, reinforced concrete rigid frame bridge with five arched girders. The bridge represents the transition in park bridges from reinforced concrete arches to arched girder designs. It was designed to give the appearance of a regular masonry veneered concrete arch.

CS13. Structure: Stevens Canyon Tunnel NR#:
HAER#:WA-74
Location: on Stevens Canyon Highway Date:1937
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Stevens Canyon Tunnel, completed in 1937, was bored through 210' of solid rock.

CS14. Structure: Muddy Fork Cowlitz River Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-60
Location: at Box Canyon Date:1950-52
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Muddy Fork Cowlitz River (Box Canyon) Bridge is a masonry veneered, reinforced concrete filled spandrel arch bridge 160' long and about 41' wide. The Historic American Engineering Record describes both this bridge and the Nickel Creek Bridge as "holdovers or survivors of the rustic style" of bridge construction in the park. Although built after World War II, they employ the same concrete construction, typical dimensions, and native granite veneer of the earlier bridges.

CS15. Structure: Nickel Creek Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-59
Location: on Stevens Canyon Road Date:1951-52
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Nickel Creek Bridge is a masonry veneered, reinforced concrete filled spandrel arch bridge, 150' long and about 34' wide. This was the last bridge of this style built in the park.

CS16. Structure: Box Canyon Tunnel NR#:
HAER#:WA-70
Location: on Stevens Canyon Road Date:1950-52
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Box Canyon Tunnel, 100 feet west of the Muddy Fork Cowlitz River Bridge, was bored 160' through solid rock. The portals were not covered with masonry, and are, like the tunnel walls, bare rock. With the two postwar bridges and the postwar portions of roadway between Stevens Creek and the Cowlitz Divide, the tunnel is considered consistent with the earlier park road structures in the NHL District.

CS17. Structure: The East Side Highway (Route 123) NR#:
HAER#:WA-124
Location: Between SE Park Entrance and Cayuse Pass Date:1931-40
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The 13.8-mile East Side Highway (Route 123) connects the park's southeastern entrance near Ohanapecosh (1,928') to the Mather Memorial Parkway at Cayuse Pass (4,694'). Completed in 1940, the East Side Highway completed the first north-south connection through the park. The road climbs steadily up the Ohanapecosh River and Chinook Creek valleys. Scenic overlooks are located at the Shriner Peak trailhead and at Deer Creek. At Cedar Flats (2,208') there is a T intersection with the Stevens Canyon Road. Towards the higher elevations approaching Cayuse Pass, some retaining walls are 25' high, among the highest in the park.

A log portal was added to the park entrance in 1976, but is a non-contributing structure. The Ohanapecosh Visitor Center area and campground about a mile from the park entrance do not have integrity to the period of significance and is not included in the NHL District. Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

CS18. Structure: Deer Creek Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-57
Location: on East Side Highway Date:1938-39
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Deer Creek Bridge is a reinforced concrete arch structure with a masonry veneer. It is about 268' long and 39' wide. The stepped, concrete abutments are veneered in masonry and rest on solid stone foundations. These stepped pylons project beyond the "face line" of the structure, giving a particular character to the bridge, which is one of the largest in the park.

CS19. Structure: East Side Highway Tunnel NR#:
HAER#:WA-75
Location: on East Side Highway Date:1939
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
This tunnel is 507' long, and is the only tunnel on this road. Its portals are clad in masonry.

CS20. Structure: Mather Memorial Parkway NR#:

(Route 410) HAER#:WA-125
Location: Portion Within Park, from Chinook Pass to NW Park Entrance Date:1916-32
Architect/Builder: Washington State Dept. of Highways

The 60-mile Mather Memorial Parkway (Route 410) continues into the adjacent national forests past park boundaries and is the principal approach to the park from the north and east. The portion within park boundaries (and within the NHL District) is the 11.6-mile segment between Chinook Pass and the northeastern park boundary. It was dedicated to Stephen T. Mather in 1932.

Beginning at the northeastern park entrance (2,749'), the road ascends the White River valley. Five miles from the entrance, the Yakima Park Highway meets the road, in what is a modification of the original wye intersection. The road continues to climb steadily to Cayuse Pass (4,694'). From the wye intersection with the East Side Highway, the road continues up a set of long switchbacks to the Tipsoo Lakes and the park boundary at Chinook Pass (5,432'). A scenic overlook is located near the Yakima Park turnoff (Mather Overlook), and two are sited at the Tipsoo Lakes area. Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

CO2. Object: Stone Marker at Yakima Highway Intersection NR#: HAER#:WA-56
Location: on Mather Memorial Parkway Date:1940
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The original stone marker has been resigned, but retains integrity.

CS21. Structure: Chinook Pass Entrance NR#: HAER#: WA-43
Location: on Mather Memorial Parkway at park entrance Date:1936
Architect/Builder: NPS

The Chinook Pass Entrance serves as an entrance arch, and also a pedestrian overpass, carrying the Pacific Crest Trail over the Mather Memorial Parkway. The unique structure was built with CCC labor from local stone and peeled logs. It is 90' long and the deck of the "bridge" rests on two cedar logs, 36" in diameter. Two more logs, 30" in diameter, serve as guardwalls. The stone abutments are masonry, consisting of irregular, mostly five-sided stones gathered from the roadsides. The abutments have a 1:12 batter and the stones decrease in size towards the top. The overpass is about 14' over the roadway.

The overpass was originally intended as the centerpiece of a large developed area proposed by Superintendent Owen Tomlinson in the early 1930s. That developed area was never developed to the degree he envisioned, and several facilities (including two out of three comfort stations) have been removed since. The Tipsoo Lakes developed area now consists basically of a scenic overlook and a small roadside picnic area, which are included within the road corridor.

CS22. Structure: Yakima Park Highway NR#:
HAER#:WA-126
Location: From Wye on Mather Mem. Parkway to Yakima Park Date:1927-31
Architect/Builder:Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The 15.5-mile Yakima Park Highway leaves the Mather Memorial Parkway five miles from the northeastern park boundary. One side of the original wye intersection has been abandoned. The White River Entrance developed area (described below), which is about a mile from the intersection, marks the approximate boundary of the park before it was extended east in 1931. Four miles from entrance station (just after the White River crossing) a spur road leads to the White River Campground, which does not date to the historic period and is not included in the NHL District. From this point (3,940'), the road begins to climb steeply over Burroughs Mountain. The road then climbs Sunrise Ridge in long switchbacks.

The second hairpin turn, near Sunrise Lake, is developed as an extensive parking area and scenic overlook. The guardwalls and overlook areas are included in the road corridor. Two other scenic overlooks are provided along the road at lower elevations. Yakima Park (6,400') is reached as the road levels and straightens out, proceeding almost due west. This is the highest point of the park road system, and features unparalleled views of the massive glaciers on the mountain's north side. (The Yakima Park developed area is described below.) Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

CS23. Structure: Dry Creek Bridge (Deadwood Creek Bridge) NR#:
HAER#:WA-49
Location: on Yakima Park Highway Date:1929
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The Drycreek Bridge is less than a mile from the wye intersection with the Mather Memorial Parkway. It is a reinforced concrete slab bridge on masonry abutments. The simple bridge is 24' long.

CS24. Structure: Klickitat Creek Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-50
Location: on Yakima Park Highway Date:1931
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The Klickitat Bridge is an 80-foot, masonry veneered, reinforced concrete bridge, one-half mile from the Dry Creek Bridge.

CS25. Structure: Fryingpan Creek Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-54
Location: on Yakima Park Highway Date:1931
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The Fryingpan Creek Bridge is an unusual, three-hinged arch bridge with solid web arch girders. The abutments and spandrel walls are veneered in masonry. The arch spans over 127', and the roadway is 28' wide.

CS26. Structure: White River Bridge NR#:
HAER#:WA-53
Location: on Yakima Park Highway crossing White River Date:1929
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The White River Bridge is a reinforced concrete filled spandrel arch girder bridge, veneered in granite masonry. Of the many bridges in the park of this type, this is the longest at 180' long. The bridge is 35' wide, and has a clear span of 90'.

CS27. Structure: Mowich Lake Entrance Road NR#: HAER#:WA-121
Location: From Park Boundary to Mowich Lake Date:1929-34
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS

The six-mile Mowich Lake Entrance Road is an unpaved spur road in the northwestern corner of the park. The road corridor is a discontiguous portion of the NHL District. The road remains a cul-de-sac because of the decision not to complete the West Side Road all the way across the west side of the park. Mowich Lake is the largest lake in the park, and an important destination and trailhead. Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

CS28. Structure: Carbon River Entrance Road NR#: HAER#:WA-120
Location: From Park Boundary to Ipsut Cr. Campground Date:1921
Architect/Builder: NPS

The six-mile Carbon River Entrance Road is an unpaved spur road in the northwestern corner of the park. The road corridor is a discontiguous portion of the NHL District. The road remains a cul-de-sac in part because of the decision not to complete the West Side Road all the way across the west side of the park. This road is the only road in the park built entirely by the Park Service. Since the centerline of the road follows (mostly) the alignment of the road during the period of significance, and since almost all of the major structures associated with the road are original, the road can be said to have excellent integrity overall to the period of significance.

CS29. Structure: Wonderland Trail NR#:
Location: Around the Mountain Date: ca. 1916
Architect/Builder: The Mountaineers/DOI/NPS

The 93-mile Wonderland Trail is one of the most famous and historic trails in any national park. Winding its way around the mountain, the trail follows much of the proposed route of the "round-the-mountain" road. First blazed during a series of outings sponsored by The Mountaineers, the trail was established by 1915, when a large outing followed the entire route around the mountain, just below the glacier line. The trail was later incorporated into the Park Service master plans. Most trails in the park sooner or later intersect or hook up with the Wonderland Trail, and most backcountry structures are accessible in part along its route.

The Wonderland Trail is of course many trails. It is identified here as a corridor, five feet from the centerline of the trail in either direction, that follows the trails currently designated as the Wonderland Trail. The Northern Loop Trail, a historic routing of the trail, is included as well. Of course not all of this route follows exactly the route of the historic trail; maintenance and other concerns regularly call for minor rerouting and reconstruction in places. The overall experience of the trail, however, retains most of its character; and most of the trail retains the basic locations that still bring it to a large number of glacier snouts, flower fields, scenic parks, waterfalls, canyons, and other scenic attractions of the park.

Non-contributing Structures:

The following structures are within the NHL District boundaries but are non-contributing. Since they are not within one of the developed areas discussed in more detail below, are listed here.

NCS1. Structure: Nisqually Glacier Bridge NR#: N-001
Location: on Nisqually Road HAER#:WA-61
Architect/Builder: Date:1961

This modern steel and concrete box girder bridge is located 600' downstream from the location of the (washed out) 1936 bridge. A large, high-level bridge, it is the most expensive river crossing in the park, and is of a markedly different scale and character from the bridges dating to the historic period.

NCS2. Structure: Tahoma Creek Bridge NR#:
Location: on Nisqually Road HAER#:WA-61
Architect/Builder: Date:1968

A modern reinforced concrete and steel girder bridge.

NCS3. Structure: Kautz Creek Bridge NR#:
Location: on Nisqually Road HAER#:WA-61
Architect/Builder: Date:1968

A modern reinforced concrete and steel girder bridge.

NCS4. Structure: Falls Creek Bridge NR#:
Location: Stevens Canyon Road HAER#:
Architect/Builder: Date:ca.1960

A modern reinforced concrete and steel girder bridge.

NCS5. Structure: Ohanapecosh River Bridge NR#:
Location: Stevens Canyon Road HAER#:
Architect/Builder: Date: ca.1960

A modern reinforced concrete and steel girder bridge.

NCS6. Structure: East Side Highway Entrance Arch NR#:
Location: Park Entrance HAER#:
Architect/Builder: Date: 1976

A peeled cedar log portal, similar to the Nisqually Entrance arch. This arch, however, does not have the historical precedents that the Nisqually arch has.

NCS7.	Structure:	Laughingwater Creek Bridge	NR#: HAER#:WA-55
	Location:	on East Side Highway	Date:1995
	Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS		

A recent replacement of the original bridge.

NCS8.	Structure:	Panther Creek Bridge	NR#: HAER#:
	Location:	East Side Highway	Date: 1957
	Architect/Builder:		

This reinforced concrete and steel girder bridge differs significantly from the earlier masonry veneered bridges (including those completed in the early 1950s) in the park.

NCS9.	Structure:	Northeast Entrance Arch	NR#: HAER#:
	Location:	Mather Mem. P'way	Date: 1977
	Architect/Builder:		

A peeled cedar log portal, similar to the Nisqually Entrance arch. This arch, however, does not have the historical precedents that the Nisqually arch has.

NCS10.	Structure:	Deadwood Creek Bridge	NR#: HAER#:WA-56
	Location:	on Mather Memorial Parkway	Date:1995
	Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS		

A recent replacement of the original bridge.

NCS11.	Structure:	Shaw Creek Bridge	NR#: HAER#:
	Location:	on Yakima Park Highway	Date:1957
	Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS		

This reinforced concrete and steel girder bridge differs significantly from the earlier masonry veneered bridges (including those completed in the early 1950s) in the park.

NISQUALLY ENTRANCE DEVELOPED AREA

The boundaries of this historic developed area within the larger NHL District are the same as those of the pre-existing National Register historic district: an 800-foot square, one side of which is on the park boundary, centered on the entrance arch.

Spatial Organization

The arrangement of buildings in the Nisqually Entrance area is simple and functional. It is as much the result of the early federal management of Mount Rainier as it is of Park Service planning. The placement of the entrance kiosk adjacent to the road allows the building to function as an office as well as a checkpoint.

The area is bisected by the Nisqually Road, running east-west. The north side of the site is bounded by a steep slope, and the Superintendent's Residence is sited part way up this slope. On the other side of the road, a utility area is screened by vegetation, an effect heightened by a slight downward slope. Farther down the slope is a wetland and the banks of the Nisqually River about one quarter of a mile away. The Nisqually Arch creates a strong boundary demarcation on the west side of the developed area. There are no significant views in the area, its character being largely defined by the sense of enclosure of the surrounding forest.

Circulation
The Nisqually Entrance has been the main entrance to the park at least since the Nisqually Road was first surveyed. Significant site development took place during the initial period of federal management of the park, before the organization of the Park Service.

Circulation in this developed area has always been characterized by its function as the main entrance and checkpoint for visitors coming into the park. Visitors pass through the symbolic portal of the Nisqually Arch into a shaded area of thick woods, which serves as the forecourt to the remarkable drive up the Nisqually Road, through a forest of old growth Western red cedar and Douglas-fir.

The comfort station road is counted as a contributing structure.

Topography
The placement of the Superintendent's Residence above the entrance is the most significant response to topography in the area. This allowed the superintendent to view the entrance, and also made the residence itself an important statement of the civic administration of the park. The elevation of the site is about 2,000 feet.

Vegetation
The greatest change in vegetation since the historic period is simply the maturing of trees and understory. The Superintendent's Residence is probably now more secluded than it was originally, since the sight of the residence above the entrance probably was intended to greet visitors and allow the superintendent a clear view of the entrance. Otherwise the patterns of vegetation are essentially the same as they were during the historic period.

Structures
The Nisqually Entrance Arch, a 1973 reconstruction of a 1930s reconstruction of the original 1911 arch at the same location, is a contributing structure. The workmanship, materials, and feeling of the reconstruction are completely consistent with the original arch located at the site.

Contributing Structures:

CS30.	Structure:	Comfort Station Cul-de-sac road	NR#:
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date:1915-1930s
	Architect/Builder: BPR/NPS		
CS31.	Structure:	Entrance Arch	NR#: N-001
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1973
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

Non-contributing Structures:

NCS12.	Structure:	Kiosk Bypass Road	NR#: HAER#:
	Location:		Date:ca.1960
	Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS		

The Kiosk bypass was added, with the additional kiosk structures, in the 1960s or later.

Buildings
Three of the buildings in the developed area predate the Park Service; four were added by Park Service planners. The shed north of the Superintendent's Residence is non-contributing.

The early administration of the park is well represented in this area by the Oscar Brown Cabin (1908), the Ranger's Residence (1915), and the Superintendent's Residence (1915). The Oscar Brown Cabin, the oldest government structure in the park, was originally a ranger residence and check-in station. It played a symbolic role similar to that of the later Superintendent's Residence, representing the civic administration of the park to arriving visitors.

From the earliest days of the park's administration, "rustic" styles of architecture have been considered appropriate. The Oscar Brown Cabin is a particularly significant early example, with ornamental wood tracery on its front elevation firmly placing it in the tradition of "rustic" resort architecture. The other two residences on the other side of Nisqually Road, like the Oscar Brown Cabin, are log, wood frame constructions, which like most buildings in the park have a dark brown color scheme, stone veneered foundations, and either wood shakes or brown shingles on roofs. Unpretentious and low in profile, then and now this type of architecture has been considered to "harmonize" with the surrounding landscape.

Contributing Buildings:

CB1.	Building:	Oscar Brown Cabin	NR#: N-103
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1908
	Architect/Builder: DOI		
CB2.	Building:	Ranger's Residence	NR#: N-102
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1915
	Architect/Builder: DOI		
CB3.	Building:	Superintendent's Residence	NR#: N-101
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1915
	Architect/Builder: DOI		
CB4.	Building:	Ranger Checking Station & Residence	NR#: N-001
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB5.	Building:	Equipment Building	NR#: N-201
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1934
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB6.	Building:	Men's Comfort Station/ Storage	NR#: N-301
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB7.	Building:	Women's Comfort Station/ Storage	NR#: N-302
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date: 1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

Non-contributing Buildings:

NCB1.	Structure:	Shed near Super. Res.	NR#:
	Location:	Nisqually Entrance	Date:ca.1965
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

LONGMIRE VILLAGE DEVELOPED AREA

This historic developed area of the NHL District is defined by an expansion of the existing historic district to include the historic campground associated with the village. From the southern approach to Longmire Village on the Nisqually Road, the boundary line follows the south side of the road (30 feet from the centerline), then turns to follow the centerline of the parking lot behind the National Park Inn, then turns to meet the utility road (cul-de-sac), which it follows to the Nisqually River Suspension Bridge. The line goes over the bridge on its southern edge, and follows the campground road (30 feet from the centerline), and encompasses the outer campground loop and the Community Building (60 feet from the centerline and from the building), returning to the bridge and crossing it on its northern edge. The line then follows the outer edge of the residential area, 30 feet from the backs of lots L-120 to L-132, meeting the Nisqually Road, again 30 feet from the centerline. The northwestern boundary of the developed area follows the line on the other side of the Nisqually Road, leaving it at the intersection of the road and a trail up to The Ramparts, then in a southwest direction along the base of The Ramparts so as to include the Longmire Meadow, then returning to the road south of the meadow. (See accompanying plans for boundaries of individual developed areas within the NHL District, and for the NHL District overall.)

Spatial Organization

The same design principles that guided the overall park planning process are also evident at a different scale in the design of individual developed areas in the park. Zoning of different uses, for example, helps organize the Longmire Village plan. The residential area is clearly separated from the utility area on the opposite side of the central village road. Both areas are well separated from the main public areas of the village, and the village campground is on the other side of the Nisqually River. And all of this development is kept well away from the Longmire Springs themselves, which on the other side of the Nisqually Road, remain relatively undisturbed.

Park visitors arrive at a large plaza defined by the most important public buildings in the village: the Administration Building (1928) and the National Park Inn (1917 relocated 1920). The Service Station (1929) and Visitors Center (1916 relocated 1929) further reinforce the definition of this central public space of the village. The Longmire Plaza creates a strong impression of community pride and civic order. The Nisqually Road passes along one edge of the space, and as it curves through, the road offers views of Eagle Peak to the northeast, along the longitudinal axis of the plaza, with the facade of the Administration Building looming significantly in the foreground. Even visitors who do not stop at Longmire, therefore, experience the strong sense of both open hospitality and civic authority that imbue this central space of the village. The Longmire Plaza is the civic heart of the park: it is an active, social, and public place where visitors may congregate, vehicles pass through, and the front doors of the park's most important public buildings are in plain view.

Each area of Longmire Village has distinctive spatial characteristics that are consistent with intended uses. The utility area, in complete contrast to the village plaza, is walled off from direct view, like a service court in a private estate design. The rectilinear arrangement of buildings creates wide, straight spaces that are practical and expressive of the business side of daily park activities. This arrangement also effectively segregates the utility areas from other parts of the village. Opposite the utility area on the other side of the central street of the village, the spaces of the residential area of the village again contrast markedly. Here narrow, curved streets and building setback lines create intimate, private spaces, with more limited views. And again, the residential area is convincingly separated from both the utility area and the more public spaces of the village.

On the other side of the Nisqually Road, the springs themselves are left relatively undisturbed by this arrangement. Accessible only by foot, the beaver pond and meadows around the springs seem remarkably unaffected, considering the history of development nearby. The Longmire campground, accessible only by a small bridge over the Nisqually River, similarly retains a remarkable sense of quiet isolation, considering its immediate proximity to Mount Rainier's largest developed area.

A recent rehabilitation of the village landscape and of the National Park Inn resulted in a significant alteration in both the spatial organization and the circulation pattern of the historic town plan. All parking for the village was relocated from the village plaza to an expanded parking lot on the other side of the National Park Inn; the back of the hotel therefore became its front entrance. The major public space of the village has therefore been relocated from what was the central village plaza to the service side of the inn, which is where automobiles now arrive. This new arrival point lacks the dramatic views of Eagle Mountain and Mount Rainier that originally gave the plaza its powerful and unique character. Designed as a parking lot not a civic plaza, the space faces the backs of the buildings, the fronts of which line the old plaza. The facade of the administration building, which imbued the plaza with a strong civic presence, does not have a similar relationship to the new parking area, which is an unimposing space at best. The plaza, although it remains a strong space, has been denied the role it once had as a central arrival and gathering place of the park. Now emptied of cars, the plaza is being "revegetated" with native plants, which when mature may further undermine the definition of this once highly symbolic space.

Circulation

The circulation plan of Longmire Village again shares basic planning premises with the overall circulation plan of the park. A hierarchy of different types of circulation features, for example, characterizes the village design. The Nisqually Road, the utility yards, the main street through the village, the streets of the residential area, the campground loops, and the pedestrian paths each have a characteristic cross section and geometry. Different types of traffic are accommodated, from through traffic, to park trucks, to private vehicles, to pedestrians. This hierarchy in the sectional design of circulation features reinforces, again, the intended spatial composition of the village as well as the zoning of intended uses.

Each of these types of street section is represented in the NHL District as a contributing structure that exemplifies one level in the hierarchy. The village's main street (between the village entrance and the Nisqually River suspension bridge) is counted as one structure. The streets of the utility yard, taken together, also constitute a contributing structure, and have a distinctive section that continues from facade to facade without curbs or sidewalks. The streets of the residential area also counted together as one structure. Their narrower section and winding alignment contrast purposefully with the roads intended for public and utility traffic. The campground loops and the Trail of the Shadows each are contributing structures as well, and each represent a specific type of circulation in the historic village area.

Topography

Early resort development around the springs at Longmire, and the subsequent construction of the Nisqually Road, determined that the Longmire area would become the park's main administrative headquarters. Park Service landscape architects were not able to select the site, therefore, according to its topographic suitability, but were required to make the most of the site in any case.

Sandwiched between the hot springs and the Nisqually River, Longmire offered a limited area of relatively flat land to develop. The most level ground, near the river, was devoted to the utility area. Raised further from the floodplain, the residential area also exploited the sloping, higher ground of that area to provide more interest, privacy, and variety for housing sites. The average elevation at Longmire is 2,700 feet.

Vegetation

Transplanted native plants were used with great care during the period of significance at Longmire Village to reinforce the general goals of spatial composition. In the plaza area, for example, foundation plantings helped anchor buildings in their sites and evoked the materials, textures, and colors of the surrounding woods, meadows, and riverbanks. Foundation plantings were not intended to obscure important buildings; they were part of the architectural elevation, and therefore reinforced the building's presence as well as its ability to define space. It is worth noting that the plaza area was kept open, with the facades of public buildings unobscured. These effects enhanced the civic spirit of the space.

In the utility area, on the other hand, plants were intended (during the period of significance) to screen utility buildings. This intention again reinforced the general goals of spatial composition in the village. Plans show that the area between the visitor center and the utility area, for example, and the area along the main village street where it passes the utility area, were intended to be heavily planted with shrub borders of native species, an effect which reinforced the visual isolation of the utility yards. In the residential area, generous setbacks and fully separated houses left room for shrubs and understory trees set in lawn areas as specimens. Foundation plantings were employed as well.

Throughout the planted areas in the village, both deciduous and evergreen native species of trees and shrubs were transplanted to enhance and create landscape effects during the period of significance. Species were favored for formal and ornamental characteristics, as well as for the relative ease with which a given species could be successfully transplanted. Whereas native plant communities certainly inspired the plant palette and compositions, planting plans were not intended to be random arrangements. Plants were used in arrangements that considered the formal qualities of plant compositions, and which reinforced the goals of spatial composition in the overall village plan.

Structures

The Nisqually Suspension Bridge, an early 1950s reconstruction of the 1920s structure, is a contributing structure. Its workmanship and materials are substantially consistent with the earlier suspension bridge.

Contributing Structures:

CS32.	Structure:	Main Road (to Nisqually Suspension Bridge)		NR#:
	Location:	Longmire Village		Date: 1920s
	Architect/Builder: NPS			
CS33.	Structure:	Utility Area Roads		NR#:
	Location:	Longmire Village		Date: 1920s-30s
	Architect/Builder: NPS			
CS34.	Structure:	Residential Area Roads	NR#:	
	Location:	Longmire Village		Date: 1920s-30s
	Architect/Builder: NPS			
CS35.	Structure:	Campground Loop Roads		NR#:
	Location:	Longmire Village		Date: 1920s-30s
	Architect/Builder: NPS			
CS36.	Structure:	Trail of the Shadows		NR#:
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1920s-30s
	Architect/Builder: NPS			
CS37.	Structure:	Soda Springs		NR#: CS-1
	Location:	Longmire Village		Date:ca.1920
	Architect/Builder: NPS			

CS38.	Structure:	Iron Mike Springs	NR#: CS-2
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:ca.1920
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS39.	Structure:	Nisqually River Suspension Bridge	NR#: HAER#:WA-44
	Location:	Longmire	Date:1924/52
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

Buildings

After his 1883 discovery of thermal springs on the southern slope of the Mount Rainier, James Longmire located a 20-acre claim on the area. After the creation of the park, resort development nearby was financed by concessioners on leased land. Only the Elcaine Longmire Cabin (and the mineral spring enclosures) remain from the original resort development in Longmire Meadow.

The Longmire Library (1910) and Dormitory (1913) remain as examples of early (pre-Park Service) government buildings in this developed area.

There are 58 contributing buildings and 16 non-contributing buildings in the Longmire Village developed area. The buildings that are non-contributing either do not date to the period of significance or have been significantly altered in a way that has profoundly changed their physical appearance and character. (See 1991 National Register Multiple Property Nomination for more detailed information on these alterations.) Three buildings in this developed area are already designated National Historic Landmarks for their architectural significance: the Longmire Administration Building, the Service Station, and the Community Building.

Together, the buildings of Longmire Village are one of the most extensive collections of the Park Service Rustic architectural style that exists. Many of the buildings are also of unusual distinction in design. Besides the outstanding examples, such as the Administration Building, there is a full complement of residential bungalows and other more modest buildings that are excellent examples of Park Service architecture of the period. In addition, the village has excellent integrity; almost 75% of the buildings are contributing.

The preservation of the site plan in a relatively intact condition enhances the architectural integrity of the individual buildings. Within the Longmire area distinct zones of use and activity were designated, as was typical for Park Service town plans. Certain architectural distinctions were made in different areas, as well. In the civic zone, around the main plaza, the Administration Building and the Service Station are outstanding examples of classic Park Service Rustic architecture. Horace Albright remarked on the former, shortly after its completion in 1929, as the finest building the Park Service had built so far. The lower story in stone veneer, with an upper story in dark log siding continued the pattern for administration buildings started at Yosemite; the scale of the logs, and the round river boulders of the masonry, however, gave the building a subtle but unmistakable regional character within the standardized idiom.

In the utility area, dark brown stain and unpretentious wood frame construction again typified Park Service architecture for such structures at this time. The Longmire utility area is a particularly well planned and well preserved example. The residential subdivision, filled with Arts and Crafts influenced bungalows and duplex residences, also epitomized the goals for development within national parks. Dark wood siding, wood shingles, and exposed timbers characterized the buildings.

Contributing Buildings:

CB8.	Building:	Longmire Cabin	NR#: L-004
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1888
	Architect/Builder: Elcaine Longmire		

CB9.	Building:	Longmire Library		NR#: L-005
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1910
	Architect/Builder: DOI			
CB10.	Building:	Dormitory		NR#: L-101
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1913
	Architect/Builder: DOI			
CB11.	Building:	Administration Bldg.		NR#:L-001
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1928
	Architect/Builder: Vint-Davidson/NPS			**NHL**
CB12.	Building:	Museum and Visitor Center		NR#: L-002
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1916
	Architect/Builder: DOI			
CB13.	Building:	Comfort Station		NR#: L-003
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1926
	Architect/Builder: NPS			
CB14.	Building:	Community Bldg.		NR#: L-006
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		**NHL**	
CB15.	Building:	Employee Garage		NR#: L-107
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS			
CB16.	Building:	Residence		NR#: L-108
	Location:	Longmire Village Area		Date: 1923
	Architect/Builder: NPS			

CB17.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-109
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1932
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB18.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-110
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1923
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB19.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-111
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1932
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB20.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-112
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1923
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB21.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-113
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB22.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-114
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1926
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB23.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-115
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB24.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-116
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB25.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-117
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1929
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB26.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-118
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB27.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-119
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB28.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-120
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1937
	Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC		
CB29.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-121
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1937
	Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC		
CB30.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-122

Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1937
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB31. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-123
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1936
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB32. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-124
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1937
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB33. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-125
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1937
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB34. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-126
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1938
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB35. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-127
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1938
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB36. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-128
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1938
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB37. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-129
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1939
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB38. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-130
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1941
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB39. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-131
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1941
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB40. Building: Employee Residence NR#: L-132
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1941
Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC

CB41. Building: Apartment Building NR#:L-135 (A-B-C)
Location: Longmire Village Area Date: 1928
Architect/Builder: T.C. Vint/NPS

CB42.	Building:	Employee Garage	NR#: L-137
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB43.	Building:	Woodshed-Garage	NR#: L-150
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB44.	Building:	Garage	NR#: L-151
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB45.	Building:	Garage	NR#: L-152
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB46.	Building:	Garage	NR#: L-153
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1929
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB47.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#: L-154
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB48.	Building:	Garage	NR#: L-155
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB49.	Building:	Woodshed	NR#: L-157
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB50.	Building:	Garage	NR#: L-158
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1926
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB51.	Building:	Community Bldg. Garage	NR#: L-160
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB52.	Building:	Tool Shed	NR#: L-165
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB53.	Building:	Tool Shed	NR#: L-166
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: c1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB54.	Building:	Warehouse Bldg.	NR#: L-201
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1929
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB55.	Building:	Oil House	NR#: L-202

	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1942
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB56.	Building:	Equipment Building	NR#: L-208
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1929
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB57.	Building:	Repair Shop	NR#: L-209
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB58.	Building:	Mess Hall	NR#: L-212
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1933/47
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB59.	Building:	Carpentry & Repair Shop	NR#: L-214
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1933
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB60.	Building:	Campground Comfort Station	NR#: L-302
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB61.	Building:	Campground Comfort Station	NR#: L-303
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1934
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB62.	Building:	Campground Comfort Station	NR#: L-305
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1935
	Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC		
CB63.	Building:	Hiker's Center/ Gift Shop	NR#: L-501
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1911
	Architect/Builder: DOI		
CB64.	Building:	National Park Inn	NR#: L-600
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1917
	Architect/Builder:		
CB65.	Building:	Service Station	NR#:L-620
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date: 1929
	Architect/Builder: NPS		**NHL**

Non-contributing Buildings:

NCB2.	Building:	Wash House/ Comfort Station	NR#:L-103
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:c1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB3.	Building:	Residence	NR#:L-104
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1942
	Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC		
NCB4.	Building:	Wash House/ Comfort Station	NR#:L-105
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1942
	Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC		
NCB5.	Building:	Employee Residence	NR#:L-134
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB6.	Building:	Longmire Fire Equipment Shed	NR#:L-203
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB7.	Building:	Longmire Equipment Building	NR#:L-205
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB8.	Building:	Longmire Equipment Building	NR#:L-206
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB9.	Building:	Longmire Equipment Building	NR#:L-207
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB10.	Building:	Longmire Equipment Building	NR#:L-210
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1936
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB11.	Building:	Longmire Equipment Building	NR#:L-211
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1935
	Architect/Builder: CCC		

NCB12.	Building:	Longmire Paint Shop	NR#:L-213
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:c1932
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB13.	Building:	Longmire Equipment Building	NR#:L-215
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB14.	Building:	Longmire Sawdust Incinerator	NR#:L-216
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:1933
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB15.	Building:	Longmire Grease Storage Shed	NR#:L-220
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:c1927
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NCB16.	Building:	Longmire Tool House	NR#:L-234
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:c1940
	Architect/Builder:		
NCB17.	Building:	Longmire Feed House	NR#:L-235
	Location:	Longmire Village Area	Date:c1942
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

PARADISE DEVELOPED AREA

This historic developed area within the NHL District is defined by an expansion of the pre-existing historic district to include the Paradise parking lot area and the portions of Paradise Park and Paradise Valley circumscribed by the Skyline Trail, the Nisqually Road, and the Lakes Trail as shown on the accompanying maps. The NHL District boundary line follows the eastern side of the Stevens Canyon Highway (30 feet from the centerline) at Inspiration Point, and continues up the Nisqually Road (the wrong way up the one-way loop). At the 4th Crossing Trail, the line turns up to meet the Skyline Trail, which it follows (five feet from the centerline) counterclockwise to the Glacier Vista Trail, which it follows (five feet from the centerline), returning to the Skyline Trail and back down to the Paradise parking lot. The boundary line crosses the parking lot at its entrance, and proceeds down the Lakes Trail (five feet from the centerline), rejoining the Nisqually Road (30 feet from the centerline).

Spatial Organization

The Paradise Inn originally terminated the Nisqually Road near the point that is now the hotel parking lot. The termination of the road was extended to the nearby Paradise Lodge and cabins, to the southwest, in 1931. At that time, the lodge and its cabins occupied roughly the site of the present Scoop Jackson Visitor Center (1967) and its parking lots. The public campgrounds extended over the knoll that is now a picnic area. The removal of the lodge, cabins, and other office and utility buildings was accompanied by the expansion of the Paradise parking area and the conversion of the campground into a day use area. The new visitor center and its parking lots reconfigured the basic spatial definitions and sequences of the western portion of the developed area, and therefore the NHL District does not include the new visitor center, the old campground area (picnic area), or the portion of the Paradise loop road that goes up to Paradise from the Nisqually Road. This new (1960s) section of one-way road is the only piece of the park's road system that is not included within the NHL District boundaries.

The open, subalpine meadows above and below the site of the Paradise Inn have been closely associated with the recreational uses and development of the area since the late 19th century. The open meadows allow spectacular views of the mountain and its glaciers, and in summer they feature famous wildflower displays. The meadows have historically drawn park visitors who took advantage of the relatively flat, open areas for camping and hiking, especially after the completion of the Nisqually Road made the area accessible to automobiles in 1915. From that point on, the meadows of Paradise became a primary destination for the majority of visitors to the park.

The meadows themselves are included within the NHL District because they have been an inextricable part of the patterns of human activity in the area over the last 100 years. The meadows have been used for a wide variety of recreational uses since the late 19th century: tent camps, ski slopes, stables, campgrounds, and even a golf course have been located within the Paradise historic developed area described here. This history of recreational use has had at least a limited impact on the physical appearance of the meadows. In addition, the trails through the meadows (many of which are paved in asphalt) remain the most heavily used in the park.

The meadows of Paradise, as well as the trails, roads, and accommodations built during the historic period, together comprise this historic developed area. The boundary of the Paradise developed area follows much of the route of the proposed Paradise automotive loop road. This route, which is today the route of much of the Skyline Trail, makes an accurate boundary to describe the portion of Paradise that historically has been the most heavily used and developed. Extensions of the Nisqually Road to Alta Vista and Panorama Point along a portion of this same route had been proposed since 1904. The loop road, however, like the "round-the-mountain" road was never built because of the opposition to overdevelopment that it inspired in the late 1920s. The very fact that the Skyline Trail is a trail and not a road is a physical reminder of the important decisions that were made at Mount Rainier in the late 1920s regarding desirable limits on development in national parks.

The history of recreational uses and development in the Paradise meadows and the historic significance of their visual appearance warrant their inclusion within the NHL District boundaries. The open meadows in this area, with their wildflowers and mountain views, have acquired special significance and historical association through their intensive use over the last century.

Circulation

The Paradise area was traditionally the point at which wheeled traffic gave way to foot traffic headed for the meadows of Paradise or the journey to the mountain's summit. The transition from automobile to foot traffic still characterizes the area, creating the need for many parking spaces. The trails of the Paradise developed area are the most heavily traveled at Mount Rainier, and most summit climbs begin at these trailheads as well.

The new visitor center altered circulation around Paradise in several ways. The old Paradise Lodge (1931) at the same site had continued to act as the terminus of the Nisqually Road, with a turnaround area and parking lot directly in front of it. Public vehicular traffic ended there. The new visitor center on the site, however, has a large parking lot behind it (the former cabin area of the lodge). More importantly, a new section of road was built to bring traffic up a cut-off route from a point on the Nisqually Road (about a mile to the south at that point) where it crosses the Nisqually River. The new cut off brought arriving traffic through what was the old campground (now the picnic area), arriving at the Paradise parking lots from the reverse direction. The new route then sent traffic back down to the Paradise River via the original approach to Paradise, up Paradise Valley. The addition of the new road created a near complete loop beginning and ending near the Paradise River Bridge (first crossing). Since then, traffic to the Paradise developed area has been one-way (clockwise), with the arrival to Paradise therefore occurring in reverse, at what had been the campground at the back of the developed area.

This one-way pattern allowed more traffic to reach Paradise, but it also undermined the sense of arrival. Paradise is no longer a destination at the end of the Nisqually Road, but merely an event along a loop drive. The entrance to the area now occurs from the rear, and the approach to the Paradise Inn, via the old campground, the new visitor center, and the enlarged parking lots, is disorienting. The carefully considered sequence of views that made the original approach to the Paradise Inn so remarkable are now lost on visitors as they leave the area going the opposite direction.

The parking lots at Paradise are counted as a contributing structure. The trail network of the Skyline Trail (including the Golden Gate, Alta Vista, and Glacier Vista trails) is counted as one contributing structure.

The Scoop Jackson Visitor Center, its parking lots, the picnic area, and the new road between the Paradise Bridge and the visitor center are not within the boundaries of the NHL District. These areas have been heavily affected by the reorientation of arriving traffic and the construction of the visitor center and new approach road. Although a picnic area now occupies an old automotive campground, the picnic facilities do not date to the period of significance and do not reflect the spatial organization of the site during the period of significance.

Topography

The area known as Paradise is described more precisely by the USGS as Paradise Park, the high plateau where the Paradise Inn is sited, and Paradise Valley, the river valley directly adjacent to the east. The NHL District described here encompasses the central portion of both topographic features, which together traditionally have been called simply Paradise.

The Paradise Inn occupies the site of a former tent camp in a corner of Paradise Park. The site is on a ridge that falls off steeply immediately to the southeast, and so the area was noted for scenic views of Paradise Valley below as well as the mountain above, to the north. Paradise also was accessible from Longmire, and so was a natural staging area for expeditions to the summit from the south, along the Gibraltar route. The high elevation (about 5,400 feet) leaves heavy snow at Paradise well into July.

Vegetation

The seasonal floral displays of the Paradise meadows have been a main attraction for people coming to Paradise since the Longmires first named the valley and guided visitors to it in the 1880s and 1890s. In Our National Parks (1901), John Muir describes the wildflowers of Mount Rainier as "the richest subalpine garden I have ever found, a perfect floral elysium." C. Frank Brockman reminds us that in 1895, "Paradise Valley," in particular, " . . . was already attracting attention because of the beauty of its wild flower fields" (Brockman, The Story of Mount Rainier, 28). Floral displays, perhaps even as much as the glaciers and mountain views, have been a primary attraction for visitors to Paradise for over 100 years.

The historical recreational use of the meadows may have had an impact on their appearance and vegetation, and public use today may continue to impact the vegetation of the meadows in ways that are not yet appreciated. But at this point the historic appearance of open wildflower meadows generally has been maintained.

Native shrubs and trees were transplanted around buildings in ornamental compositions. At the Paradise Inn, the planted island in front of the inn is one example. The shrub borders around the comfort station and ranger station are well preserved as well.

Structures and Objects

Contributing Resources:

CS40.	Structure:	Parking Lots	NR#:
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: 1916-67
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

CS41.	Structure:	Skyline Trail	NR#:
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: ca.1915
	Architect/Builder: DOI/RNPC		
CO3.	Object:	Stevens-Van Trump Historical Monument	NR#:
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: 1921
	Architect/Builder:		
CS42.	Structure:	Edith Creek Dam	NR#:
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: ca.1930s
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS43.	Structure:	Ski-Tow Power House	NR#: P-514
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: 1937
	Architect/Builder: Rainier National Park Company		
CS44.	Structure:	Chlorination House	NR#:P-205
	Location:	Edith Creek	Date:1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

Buildings

Although the history of the area as a resort goes back to the 19th century, all the buildings in the Paradise developed area date to after 1916, when the Rainier National Park Company, the concession company formed at the instigation of Stephen Mather, became instrumental to the subsequent history of development in the area. The first and the most important project undertaken by the new concessioner was the Paradise Inn (1917). The Paradise Inn has already been recognized as a National Historic Landmark for its architectural significance. All the buildings in the developed area are contributing. The nearby Ski Dorm, which lacks integrity because of extensive remodeling, is not within the historic district.

Many of the buildings at Paradise, notably the Paradise Inn and the Guide Hut, are typical of the resort architecture favored by the Rainier National Park Company. This concession architecture favored more impressive, sometimes whimsical architectural expressions in contrast to the more consistent Park Service Rustic that characterizes, for example, Longmire Village. But while Longmire was the administrative heart of the park, Paradise was the primary destination for tourists and the most desirable location for concessioner facilities. And while the concessioner wished to evoke luxury, romance, and fun, the Park Service perhaps wanted to reinforce its growing reputation for consistency and appropriate sensibility. As a result, the buildings of Paradise had a higher profile (literally and figuratively), evoking Alpine and other European resort architecture. The concessioner buildings of Paradise are each more one of a kind, and present a bit of the architectural "jumble" that landscape architect Charles Punchard already warned against at Grand Canyon in 1919. The planning of the Paradise area is also somewhat less organized, driven as it was by concessioner proposals implemented on a relatively ad hoc basis. The lessons learned at Paradise would shape the design collaboration at Yakima Park in the late 1920s.

Contributing Buildings:

CB66.	Building:	Ranger Station	NR#: P-001
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: 1921
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB67.	Building:	Comfort Station	NR#: P-304
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date:1928-29
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

CB68.	Building:	Paradise Inn	NR#: P-600
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: 1917
	Architect/Builder: Heath, Grove & Bell/Rainier National Park Company		**NHL**
CB69.	Building:	Annex to Paradise Inn	NR#: P-601
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: 1920
	Architect/Builder:Harlan Thomas/Rainier NPC		
CB70.	Building:	Paradise Guide House	NR#: P-602
	Location:	Paradise Area	Date: 1920
	Architect/Builder: Rainier NPC		

YAKIMA PARK (SUNRISE) DEVELOPED AREA

This historic developed area is defined by the expansion of the pre-existing historic district to include the plaza (parking lot), the picnic area associated with the village, the spur road to the powerhouse (and the powerhouse itself), and the overlook structure south of the parking lot. The Shadow Lake campground area has been extensively altered and demolished, and therefore is not part of the NHL District. The spatial organization of this area, because of extensive demolition and revegetation, does not reflect the spatial organization during the period of significance. The boundary of the Yakima Park portion of the NHL District follows the Yakima Park Highway (30 feet from the centerline) widening to encompass the Service Station and the picnic area (30 feet from the building and from the centerline of the picnic area loop road), following the picnic area road, encompassing the Stockade Group (30 feet from all resources associated with that group), extends up the spur road to the powerhouse and around the powerhouse (30 feet from the centerline and 30 feet from the building), then follows the trail to the overlook structure south of the plaza (five feet from the centerline), goes around the overlook structure (10 feet from all associated resources), returns to the plaza along the trail back to the plaza (five feet from the centerline), and follows the plaza (30 feet from the curb), from there returning to the road (30 feet from the centerline).

Spatial Organization

Yakima Park (now called Sunrise) was developed to exploit a situation on the eastern slope of the mountain not unlike that of Paradise Park on the southern slope. The new park village needed to accommodate the concessioner's plans for a new lodge and cabin complex similar to the Paradise Lodge that was being planned at the same time. The plans for Yakima Park were finalized in 1929, and became part of the master plan for the park. Yakima Park opened as planned in 1931. The completion of the state highway over Chinook Pass the next year opened Mount Rainier to visitors from Yakima, Spokane, and Eastern Washington, and the number of visitors to Yakima Park grew proportionally.

At Yakima, as at Paradise originally, a long mountain road is terminated by a parking lot and turnaround at the center of a park village. And as at Longmire Village, Park Service administration buildings and a concessioner's lodge defined the edges of the new village plaza. Only one wing of the proposed Sunrise Lodge, however, was ever built. This building served as a cafeteria serving a large complement of housekeeping cabins that formed a dense grid behind the lodge. Today the cabin area remains a scarred but blank expanse behind the building, since the cabins were all removed during World War II. What is left of the original lodge complex, the lone wing of the Sunrise Lodge, now serves as a cafeteria and gift shop for day-trippers.

The village was sited at the edge of the "park proper," as the planners referred to it, above the Inter Fork River valley. The new lodge complex was carefully sited on the north side of the park, so it would not interfere with the views of the mountain from the park proper. The Park Service utility yards at Yakima Park again are hidden, this time by an innovative arrangement of "blockhouses" and palisade fence,

inspired by early territorial outposts of the Pacific Northwest. Other utility needs, such as the generator building, are located well away from the main village plaza. The village campgrounds were also well separated from the main spaces and traffic of the village. One campground (now a picnic area) was sited on a small, wooded knoll in the park, and the other was isolated by being almost a mile further into Yakima Park, at the base of Burroughs Mountain.

The decentralized pattern of the Yakima Park development helped minimize the impact of the village on the "park proper." The needed powerhouse (still in use) was sited on a spur road, well away from the central plaza. An overlook structure, accessible only by trail, was sited in the beautiful but delicate area south of the plaza, where pedestrians could enjoy spectacular views away from the busier area above. The decentralized plan makes Yakima Park less legible as a park village than other (earlier) park villages of the 1920s; the very fragile, high altitude setting, however, demanded this thoughtful and precise spatial organization.

Circulation
Vehicular circulation terminates at Yakima Park making it, like Paradise, a major trailhead in this case for trails on the eastern and northern slopes of the mountain. The original traffic pattern allowed vehicles to continue through the park to the Shadow Lake area, taking some of the pressure off Yakima Park itself. Pedestrian and hikers were limited to a system of trails, since the fragility of the volcanic soil was already a concern. The concentration of services on the plaza itself also minimized the impact of foot and vehicle traffic elsewhere in the area. The central plaza (parking lot) is counted as a contributing structure.

Topography
As at Paradise, the high meadow of Yakima Park offered beautiful views of the mountain and a relatively level, open area to develop a park village. And as at Paradise, the central plaza of the Yakima Park village is located on the edge of a park meadow, on the verge of a steep slope. In this case, the slope falls away in the direction of the mountain, which rises 8,000 feet from the elevation of Yakima Park (6,400 feet). Seeing the mountain from the Yakima Park plaza across the interposed valley of the Inter Fork River greatly amplifies the drama of the view. As an example of careful siting and response to topography, Yakima Park is unparalleled in national park village design.

Since the park proper is the only extensive level area nearby, the concessioner insisted that the new lodge would have to be sited in the park. Vint and Davidson made sure, however, that the lodge would be on the north side, where it would not directly interfere with the views of the mountain and its glaciers.

Vegetation
The preservation of vegetation and soils in the fragile subalpine environment has been a concern from the earliest planning stages for the development of Yakima Park.

Significant planting of native species was done around the Stockade Group. The native shrub compositions around the comfort station are some of the best preserved in the park.

Structures
The palisade fence (or stockade) at the back of the Stockade Group is a contributing structure.

Contributing Structures:

CS45.	Structure:	Parking Lot	NR#:
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date: 1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS46.	Structure:	Stockade	NR#:
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date:1930s
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

CS47.	Structure:	Overlook Structure	NR#:
	Location:	South of Plaza	Date:1930s
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS48.	Structure:	Power House	NR#:S-201
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date:1932
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
	Architect/Builder: Vint/NPS		

Buildings

In the design of the Yakima administration building, Ernest Davidson departed from the precedents of the Yosemite and Longmire administration buildings. The landscape architect sketched an administration building based on his research of log blockhouses of the type erected by early pioneers in the Pacific Northwest. A log stockade around the back of the group screened the Park Service utility area from view. The Yakima Stockade Group has already been designated as a National Historic Landmark for its architectural significance.

Only one wing of the proposed concessioner's lodge for Yakima Park, the Sunrise Lodge, was completed. It served as a cafeteria and support building for over 200 tourist cabins marshaled in straight rows on a flat area immediately behind it. The cabins were removed during World War II. Just east of the lodge, Davidson designed a service station (along the lines of the Longmire service station), which also was completed in 1931. All the buildings in this historic developed area of the NHL District are contributing.

Contributing Buildings:

CB71.	Building:	South Blockhouse	NR#: S-001
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date: 1930
	Architect/Builder: Vint/Davidson/NPS		**NHL**
CB72.	Building:	North Blockhouse	NR#: S-002
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date: 1944
	Architect/Builder: Vint/Davidson/NPS (Part of the NHL)		
CB73.	Building:	Visitors Center	NR#: S-003
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date: 1943
	Architect/Builder: Vint/Davidson/NPS (Part of the NHL)		
CB74.	Building:	Comfort Station	NR#: S-310
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date: 1930
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB75.	Building:	Service Station	NR#: S-602
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date: 1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB76.	Building:	Sunrise Lodge	NR#: S-601
	Location:	Yakima Park Area	Date: 1931
	Architect/Builder: RNPC		

CAMP MUIR DEVELOPED AREA

This small developed area is a discontiguous portion of the NHL District. The area has the same boundaries as the existing National Register historic district at the site. On the north, the area boundary is

the Cowlitz Cleaver; on the south, the edge of the Muir Snowfield; on the east, a north-south line 100 feet east of the public shelter; on the west, a north-south line 100 feet west of the Guide Shelter.

Spatial Organization
Camp Muir was located by hiker and climbers who recognized it as a good camp site for expeditions bound for the summit via the Gibraltar route. After the death of Edgar McClure in 1897 (the first recorded climbing fatality), it was suggested that an overnight shelter at the site now known as Camp Muir might have prevented the tragedy. In 1916, The Mountaineers arranged to have the first shelter at Camp Muir erected, honoring the founder of the Sierra Club who had died two years earlier.

Topography
Camp Muir is located just below the Cowlitz Cleaver at 10,188 feet. The relatively level, rocky outcrop provides one of the last convenient campsites (that is not permanently snowbound) along the most traveled route to the summit.

Buildings
The simple stone hut at Camp Muir was designed by a member of The Mountaineers, Carl F. Gould. The Park Service added a second shelter at the site, designed by Superintendent Peters, in 1921. The randomly coursed masonry of stone harvested from nearby slopes created an almost camouflage effect. The flat roofs kept the building profiles low, and projecting beams evoke a pseudo-ethnographic architectural image.

Contributing Buildings:

CB77.	Building:	Public Shelter	NR#: P-051
	Location:	Camp Muir	Date: 1921
	Architect/Builder: Peterson/NPS		
CB78.	Building:	Guide Shelter	NR#: P-053
	Location:	Camp Muir	Date: 1916
	Architect/Builder: C.F. Gould/NPS		
CB79.	Building:	Outhouse/Storage Shed	NR#: PX-302 (P-052)
	Location:	Camp Muir	Date: 1936
	Architect/Builder: NPS/CCC		

WHITE RIVER ENTRANCE DEVELOPED AREA
The boundary line of the NHL District at this historic developed area follows the Yakima Highway (30 feet from the centerline in either direction), and widens twice to incorporate four historic buildings. At the Mess Hall and Dormitory (CB83), the district is defined by a line drawn parallel to the NE side of the building, 30 from the foundation, extending SE back to the park road. A line parallel to the NW side of the building, also 30 feet from the foundation, also extends back (SW) to the park road. At the Ranger Station, the district expands from the park road, 30 feet from the foundation of the Ranger Station, and proceeds SW along a line parallel to the NW side of the building, 30 feet from the foundation. At a point 30 feet from the NW corner of the Women's Comfort Station (CB82), the boundary turns back 90 degrees, and rejoins the continuous district along the park road.

Spatial Organization
For a period of time after the new Yakima Highway opened in 1930, the northern entrance to Mount Rainier proved more popular than the Nisqually Entrance. The White River Entrance area, modeled in part on the Nisqually area, was developed in anticipation of this considerable traffic destined for the new

facilities at Yakima Park. The entrance building and kiosk, adjacent to the road as at Nisqually, allow for the combined functions of office and checking station.

Although the adjacent utility area is also of the historic period, the mainly utilitarian buildings have been altered over the years. As a group, they have lost a great deal of their integrity, and the NHL District therefore does not include the utility area.

Topography
Located on a flat site (elevation 3,500 feet) next to a straight section of road, topography plays a small role in the area.

Structures
Contributing Structures:

CS49.	Structure:	Comfort Station Parking Lot and Paths	NR#:
	Location:	White River Entrance	Date: c.1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

Buildings
A large number of the buildings and larger structures in the White River area, unpretentious and utilitarian to begin with, have been altered over the years and lost a significant amount of their original character. (See 1991 National Register Multiple Property Nomination for more detailed information on these alterations.) The buildings that are contributing, however, are excellent examples of Park Service Rustic style, as applied in a entrance station. Their similarity to contemporary buildings at Nisqually and Longmire reinforce the consistent architectural image presented by the Park Service in official building in public areas. Entrance stations, although smaller areas, were particularly significant in impact.

The Mess Hall and Dormitory is a Civilian Conservation Corps building, and is believed to be the only such remnant of a CCC camp in the park.

Contributing Buildings:

CB80.	Building:	Ranger Station	NR#: W-001
	Location:	White River Area	Date:1929-31
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB81.	Building:	Men's Comfort Station	NR#: W-002
	Location:	White River Area	Date:1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB82.	Building:	Women's Comfort Station	NR#: W-003
	Location:	White River Area	Date:1931
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB83.	Building:	Mess Hall & Dormitory	NR#: W-207
	Location:	White River Area	Date: 1933
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

CHRISTINE FALLS DEVELOPED AREA
The Christine Falls developed area includes two parking areas on the side of the road, a paved trail, and an overlook that are associated with the Christine Falls Bridge on the Nisqually Road. The boundaries of the NHL District widen to include the parking areas, 10 feet from all pavement and masonry construction.

The boundary follows the path to the scenic overlook (five feet from the centerline and includes the overlook area (10 feet from all associated construction).

Spatial Organization
The views of the Christine Falls of Van Trump Creek determined the spatial relationships in this area. The falls are at a point where the creek flows through a narrow canyon. The narrow span and solid rock of the canyon offered an excellent point to bridge the creek, and the waterfall also was an attraction for locating the Nisqually Road near this point. In 1907 a wooden bridge was built over the creek farther down from the falls; it was replaced in 1915 by a bridge in the present location, which required a relocation of part of the road. In 1928 the present reinforced concrete span was completed and faced with native stone masonry. In the 1930s, CCC crews worked on the area, "naturalizing" the landscape and probably defining the trail down to the overlook.

The site is enclosed and defined by the steep topography of the canyon. There is an obvious vertical division in the area: the parking areas, sidewalk, and roadway above, and the trail and overlook below. The creek runs through the area roughly north-south, and the road traverses it east-west. Overall the area has excellent integrity to the period of significance.

Circulation
Circulation is largely vertical in the area: down from the road to the falls and back again. The road sweeps through the area with very little room to spare for pedestrians.

The two parking areas and retaining walls are each counted as one contributing structure, and the trail and overlook are also counted as a contributing structure.

Topography
The response to topography is evident in the location of the parking areas as well as the siting of the overlook. The large retaining walls supporting the parking areas are contributing structures. The elevation of the developed area is about 3,600 feet.

Vegetation
No historic plantings have yet been identified, but it is likely that the CCC was active here.

Structures
Contributing Structures:

CS51.	Structure:	Parking Area and wall	NR#:
	Location:	Christine Falls	Date: c.1928
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS52.	Structure:	Parking Area and wall	NR#:
	Location:	Christine Falls	Date: c.1941
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS53.	Structure:	Trail and overlook	NR#:
	Location:	Christine Falls	Date: 1930s
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

NARADA FALLS DEVELOPED AREA
The Narada Falls developed area includes the roadside overlook and retaining wall, the trail to the comfort station, the bridge over the Nisqually River (closed to automobile traffic) the comfort station, and the paved trail and overlook below. The boundaries of the NHL District widen to include the parking area, 10 feet from all pavement and masonry construction. The boundary follows the path to the scenic

overlook (five feet from the centerline and includes the overlook area (10 feet from all associated construction). The boundaries of the NHL District also follow the old road, 30 feet from the centerline in either direction, to the end its paved portion at the (non-contributing) storage building. At the comfort station, the boundary defined by lines parallel to back and side building foundations, 30 feet away.

Spatial Organization
As at Christine Falls, Narada Falls offered a scenic and convenient river crossing, in this case of the Paradise River. A bridge built in 1908 at the site was replaced by the present bridge in 1928. Again the Bureau of Public Roads and the Park Service produced an advanced, single-span concrete arch, carefully faced in native stone masonry.

The views of Narada Falls guided the sequence of spaces created by the old road, the new road, and the scenic overlooks.
The bridge can also be seen from Inspiration Point, on the Stevens Canyon Highway

Circulation
Circulation is again defined by the automobile traffic above, and the pedestrian path down to an overlook below. The roadside overlook, the trail to the comfort station, and the lower trail and overlook are all contributing resources in this minor developed area.

Topography
The response to topography is evident in the location of the parking area as well as the siting of the overlooks. The large retaining wall supporting the parking area is a contributing structure. The elevation of the developed area is about 4,500 feet.

Vegetation
The developed area was replanted by the CCC after the parking lot was expanded and the retaining wall built. Historic plantings have been identified at each end of the bridge and along the trail to the upper overlook.

Structures
Contributing Structures:

CS54. Structure: Narada Falls Bridge (Paradise River First Crossing Bridge) NR#: HAER#:WA-47
Location: on Utility Road crossing Paradise River Date: 1928
Architect/Builder: Bureau of Public Roads/NPS
The Narada Falls Bridge is a reinforced concrete barrel arch bridge, veneered in granite masonry. The bridge is 63' long and 31' wide, and spans the Paradise River in a 36' span immediately in front of and above Narada Falls.

CS55. Structure: Roadside Overlook and Retaining Wall NR#:
Location: Narada Falls Date: c.1933
Architect/Builder: BPR/NPS

CS56. Structure: Paved Trail and Lower Overlook NR#:
Location: Narada Falls Date:1920s-30s
Architect/Builder:

Buildings

Contributing Buildings:

CB84.	Building:	Comfort Station	NR#: P-010
	Location:	Narada Falls Area	Date:ca.1930s
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

Non-contributing Buildings:

NCB18.	Building:	Narada Falls Equipment Building	NR#:P-013
	Location:	Narada Falls	Date:1939
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

The equipment building at Narada Falls has had major exterior alterations. (See 1991 National Register Multiple Resource Nomination.)

BACKCOUNTRY (DISCONTIGUOUS) CONTRIBUTING RESOURCES

A number of contributing resources in the park are not within any of the developed areas described above. As such, they are contributing resources within discontiguous portions of the NHL District. Eleven patrol cabins and trail shelters, and four fire lookouts are included here because they represent the portions of the park's master plan that determined fire control and backcountry trail systems.

The discontiguous portions of the NHL District described here are justified because the national historical significance of the district is in the theme of landscape architecture, specifically Park Service master planning. Park Service master plans of this period concentrated most development within a corridor of developed areas, making a contiguous district easily defined. Portions of the master plan, however (specifically those dealing with the fire control and backcountry patrol systems for the park) had the opposite intention. These facilities were necessarily spread evenly throughout the park in order to be effective. For the NHL District to properly represent the historic master plan, these discontiguous portions must be included as part of district.

Architecturally the backcountry structures of Mount Rainier represent a full complement of such park facilities. Patrol cabins, usually small log cabins with pitched roofs and sleeping lofts, were located both in remote areas, for example near park boundaries, and in more frequently visited backcountry areas, such as Indian Henry's Hunting Grounds. The enclosed fire towers were of course sited on peaks that offered good views of surrounding forests. The type of firetower represented at Mount Rainier became typical for such structures throughout the 1930s. Trail shelters came in several varieties, but most were stone variations on an Adirondack-type shelter.

In all cases, the NHL District boundaries are defined by lines parallel to the foundations of the resources, 30 feet away from them in each direction.

Contributing Resources:

CB85.	Building:	White River Patrol Cabin	NR#:W-051
	Location:	White River Area	Date:1927/49
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB86.	Building:	Indian Henry's Patrol Cabin	NR#:N-106
	Location:	Edge of subalpine meadow	Date:1915-16
	Architect/Builder:		
CB87.	Building:	Huckleberry Creek	NR#: S-050

		Patrol Cabin	
	Location:	North of Sunrise	Date:1934
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB88.	Building:	Indian Bar Trail Shelter	NR#:O-054
	Location:	on Wonderland Trail	Date:1940
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB89.	Building:	Summerland Trail Shelter	NR#:W-057
	Location:	on Wonderland Trail	Date:1934
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB90.	Building:	Ipsut Creek Ranger Cabin	NR#:C-250
	Location:	Ipsut Creek, fivr miles from Carbon River Entrance	Date:1933
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB91.	Building:	Mowich Lake Patrol Cabin	NR#:C-252
	Location:	Mowich Lake	Date:1922
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NO CB 92			
CB93.	Building:	Sunset Park Patrol Cabin	NR#:N-105
	Location:	Sunset Park	Date:1922
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
NO CB 94			
CB95.	Building:	St. Andrews Patrol Cabin	NR#:N-104
	Location:	Near West Side Road, 11 miles From Nisqually Entrance	Date:1922
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB96.	Building:	Three Lakes Patrol Cabin	NR#:O-053
	Location:	near Ohanapecosh	Date:1934
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CB97.	Building:	Lake George Patrol Cabin	NR#:N-107
	Location:	Lake George	Date:1921/34
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS57.	Structure:	Gobbler's Knob Fire Lookout	NR#: N-111
	Location:	Near Lake George	Date: 1933
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

CS58.	Structure:	Mt. Fremont Fire Lookout	NR#: S-053
	Location:	near Sunrise	Date: 1934
	Architect/Builder: NPS		
CS59.	Structure:	Shriner Peak Fire Lookout	NR#: O-052
	Location:	near Ohanapecosh	Date: 1932
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

CS60.	Structure:	Tolmie Peak Fire Lookout	NR#: C-251
	Location:	near Mowich	Date: 1932
	Architect/Builder: NPS		

8. STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

Certifying official has considered the significance of this property in relation to other properties:
Nationally: X Statewide:___ Locally:___

Applicable National
Register Criteria: A X B_ C X D_

Criteria Considerations
(Exceptions): A___ B___ C___ D___ E___ F___ G___

NHL Criteria: 1, 4

NHL Theme(s): III. Expressing Cultural Values
5. Architecture, Landscape Architecture, and Urban Design

VII. Transforming the Environment
3. Protecting/Preserving the Environment

Areas of Significance: Landscape Architecture
Architecture
Politics/Government
Community Planning and Development Transportation

Period(s) of Significance: 1904-1957

Significant Dates: 1904, 1911, 1912, 1915, 1917, 1921, 1924, 1925, 1929, 1933, 1942, 1957

Significant Person(s): N/A

Cultural Affiliation: N/A

Architect/Builder: Vint, Thomas; Davidson, Ernest; Hull, Daniel; Tomlinson, Owen; National Park Service; Bureau of Public Roads

NHL Comparative Categories: XVII. Landscape Architecture
XXXII. Conservation of Natural Resources
C. The Conservation Movement Matures, 1908-1941
6. Origin and Development of the National Park Service
XXXIV. Recreation

State Significance of Property, and Justify Criteria, Criteria Considerations, and Areas and Periods of Significance Noted Above.

Summary

The Mount Rainier NHL District meets National Historic Landmark Criterion 1 for its association with the American park movement. The initiation of the National Park Service master planning process at Mount Rainier in the late 1920s was a major step in the design and management of scenic reservations in the 20th century. The NHL District also meets National Historic Landmark Criterion 4 as an exceptionally valuable example of American landscape architecture, specifically as the most significant example of national park master planning. The NHL District is also nationally significant in the history of technology (transportation) and regional and urban planning because of the park roads and park villages which were designed as parts of the overall master plan.

It was at Mount Rainier National Park that landscape architect Thomas Vint, working with his assistant Ernest Davidson and park superintendent Owen Tomlinson, developed the first comprehensive plan of the type that by 1931 was called a "master plan." Besides being the first fully developed example of National Park Service master planning, Mount Rainier also remains the most complete example of the results of such planning. Other national parks were also extensively developed in the 1920s and 1930s, but Mount Rainier had relatively little earlier development and the park has retained most of the facilities built during the historic period. As a result, more than any other national park, Mount Rainier represents the ideal of a full complement of park development of this period, as represented through the master plans drawn up during the 1930s.

By the mid-1920s, many controversies had arisen among different groups of park users, park concessioners, and park managers. The master plan, which was analogous (as Thomas Vint said) to the city plan, created a standard process for sorting out conflicting visions for the future development and management of parks. The master plan attempted to determine the character and location of all development in a given park. Made up of a series of maps and plans, as well as construction schedules and budgets, the master plan described and prioritized the desired construction for a given park or monument. The validation of this planning process was an essential step in limiting the total amount of development deemed necessary or desirable in national parks.

Because of the unique situation of national parks, Park Service master plans also became idealized models of contemporary city and regional planning principles. Because of federal ownership in parks, regional land use activity could be completely zoned, for example, and individual towns (park developed areas) could be carefully designed according to exacting architectural standards. The national park master plan for Mount Rainier, like other great landscape park designs in American history, embodied ideals of how planning and development could proceed outside of parks as well as within them.

Thomas Vint and his landscape division compiled master plans for almost every national park and monument in the late 1920s and early 1930s. The master plan for Mount Rainier was the first to be fully completed and became a prototype, by 1931, for the general planning process. The physical integrity of the developed areas and facilities of Mount Rainier also make those areas unique records of the results of master planning. As a whole, no other collection of park roads, bridges, major and minor developed areas, trails, etc., are more completely preserved as a total and intact complement of Park Service planning and design. Very few postwar construction projects have had a large impact on the designed landscapes built during the period of significance. No other park in the national park system is better preserved, as whole, as a complete illustration of park planning and development of the period.

Park planning today proceeds along essentially the same (although more elaborate) conceptual framework originally established at Mount Rainier in the late 1920s. The NHL District, which encompasses all the developed areas of Mount Rainier National Park, represents the results of the nationally significant planning and design done through the process initiated with the park's master plan.

The Mount Rainier NHL District is significant under National Register Criterion A for its association with the American park movement. The district is also significant under National Register Criterion C as an example of American landscape architecture, specifically as a unique and outstanding example of park master planning. The district is also significant under Criterion C as an example of transportation engineering and community planning and development, because of the park roads and park villages which were designed as parts of the overall master plan.

The period of significance extends from the beginning of federally sponsored construction on the Nisqually Road in 1904, to the delayed completion of the Stevens Canyon Highway (the last portion of the park road system) in 1957. Other significant dates include: 1911, the year the Nisqually Road opened to motorists and President Taft visited the park; 1912, the date the Seattle-Tacoma Rainier National Park Advisory Board was formed; 1915, when an outing of The Mountaineers located the route of the Wonderland Trail; 1917, the date the Paradise Inn opened and the Park Service began its operations; 1921, when Park Service road construction (including work on the Carbon River Entrance Road) began; 1924, when Mather and Albright secured significant appropriations for road construction; 1925, when the Bureau of Public Roads assumed control of park road projects; 1929, when the complete master plan for Mount Rainier became the Park Service model for planning procedures and the plans for Yakima Park were completed; 1933, when New Deal programs began pouring resources into the park; and 1942, when the CCC was discontinued.

Historic Context

Mount Rainier was the fifth national park when it was created in 1899. Visible from the inland Columbia Basin as well as Puget Sound, the volcanic peak had awed Native American and European explorer alike. As American settlers arrived in numbers in the 1850s, the mountain assumed great significance for them as well. The difficult crossing of the Cascade Range was first made by the emigrants at Naches Pass, a route that brought them within close proximity of Mount Rainier. Once established in the Washington Territory, the new residents continued to be fascinated by the mountain, which remained a dramatic backdrop for the communities they established. With the arrival of the Northern Pacific Railroad in the 1870s and 1880s, Tacoma and Seattle rapidly grew into major cities. At the same time, logging and mining activities opened easier access to the forests and mountains of the interior. At 14,410 feet, Mount Rainier towered over the surrounding Cascade Range and soon proved an irresistible lure for mountaineers, tourists, and resort entrepreneurs. Drawn by the awesome scenery and beautiful subalpine "parks" to be found on its slopes, the people of Washington soon made Mount Rainier the regional cynosure of outdoor recreation and scenic preservation.[1]

The Carbon River region and Spray Park on the mountain's northwestern slopes drew the first tourists. This rugged region also attracted the attention of Northern Pacific executives, who were always on the lookout for resort destinations along their lines. In the 1870s, a spur line had been built from Tacoma to the lucrative coal deposits northwest of Mount Rainier; by the 1880s tourists were being guided from the railhead at Wilkeson into the spectacular wilderness of the Carbon River drainage. It was soon apparent, however, that the center of Mount Rainier tourism would gravitate to the mountain's southern slope, in part because of an easier ascent to the summit from the south. Mount Rainier fascinated and enticed early mountaineers as no other summit in the Northwest. Unsuccessful attempts to make the arduous climb had already been made in the 1850s, and in 1870 two groups of climbers reached the summit by variations of the Gibraltar route on the mountain's southern side.[2] In 1883, this route was traced again by a group that

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[1]C. Frank Brockman, The Story of Mount Rainier National Park [1940] Second Revision (Longmire, Washington: Mount Rainier National Park Natural History Association, 1952), 22-26.

[2]Aubrey L. Haines, Mountain Fever: Historic Conquests of Rainier (Portland: Oregon Historical Society, 1962), 29-57, 207. Haines suggests that one of three expeditions in the 1850s reached the summit; but the 1870 expeditions seem to have been the first to make verifiable ascents.

included James Longmire, a local homesteader and mountain guide, who also had led the two 1870 expeditions as far as the base of the mountain. Returning from the group's successful ascent of the mountain in 1883, Longmire happened upon the mineral springs on the banks of the Nisqually that today bear his name.

Longmire knew that the attractions of the mountain would only increase with time, and he hoped that the mineral springs could become the center of a future resort. In 1884 Longmire built the first permanent buildings in what would become the Longmire Village area of Mount Rainier National Park. By the next year he was guiding tourists to his springs and boarding them in a rudimentary hotel. Longmire located a mineral claim on the site of the springs, and with the help of his sons he expanded his operation over the next decade. He had cleared a crude wagon road from Ashford to his hotel, and his sons also extended a pack trail up to a scenic subalpine park they called Paradise. This high plateau featured spectacular views and wildflower displays, and it served as a logical camp for mountaineers bound for the summit. By the time James Longmire died in 1897, the family establishment included a two-story hotel as well as numerous cabins and outbuildings on 20 acres of private land around the mineral springs. The small resorts of Longmire Springs and Paradise had become the centers of early tourism to the region.[3]

By this time, Mount Rainier also concerned scenic preservationists who were anxious to prevent grazing and logging in the high valleys and on the forested slopes of the mountain. Visitors to the southern side of the mountain increased in number, and the wagon road from Tacoma to Ashford began seeing considerable tourist traffic. As the region became more accessible to tourists, advocates for the preservation of the mountain grew in number. But the area was becoming more accessible to miners and loggers as well, and other forms of potential economic development competed with the relatively benign exploitation of tourism. The threat of impending logging activity that would destroy the forests on the slopes of the mountain caused particular concern. John Muir climbed the mountain in 1888 and the famous naturalist, joined by local park advocates from Tacoma and Seattle, soon clamored for some kind of protection for Mount Rainier. After the passage of the Forest Reserve Act in 1891, the Department of the Interior responded by sending an inspector, Cyrus A. Mosier, to investigate the desirability of establishing a forest reserve around the mountain. Mosier made an impassioned and apparently effective plea to create a forest reserve around Mount Rainier in order to preempt logging in the vicinity, which he felt threatened to "tear the frame from this grand painting against the sky."[4] Benjamin Harrison subsequently declared the Pacific Forest Reserve, which encompassed Mount Rainier, in 1893, the same year he declared the Cascade and Sierra forest reserves.

The creation of vast forest reserves may have seemed at first to answer the call for scenic preservation. The grand scenery of Mount Rainier had clearly influenced the decision to create the Pacific Forest Reserve, and the reserve was to remain, like the national parks, under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Interior. But this success in 1893 only encouraged national park advocates to achieve more comprehensive protection for Mount Rainier through national park legislation. The park movement was led, as usual, by politicians, civic boosters, and scenic preservationists who recognized the economic potential (as well as other reasons) for preserving spectacular scenery. In 1893, the Seattle Chamber of Commerce and Senator Watson C. Squire petitioned Congress to establish a national park around the mountain (out of the forest reserve territory) and other groups soon pressed for preservation as well. The Geological Society of America, the Sierra Club, the National Geographic Society, the Appalachian Mountain Club, and the American Association for the Advancement of Science jointly memorialized

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[3]Erwin N. Thompson, Mount Rainier National Park Historic Resource Study (Denver: Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1981), 60-61, 77-78; Martinson, "Mountain in the Sky," 28-31.

[4]Quoted in Martinson, "Mountain in the Sky," 46.

Congress in 1894 in favor of a national park.[5] Park legislation proved difficult to pass, however, and when it finally succeeded in 1899 the park boundaries had been reduced in order to exclude valuable timber lands. The park act also did not preclude further mining claims, and the Northern Pacific had been bought off through a provision that allowed the railroad to swap less accessible land within the park for far more valuable forested tracts elsewhere. Neither had Congress made a commitment to fund the new park; on the contrary, the Washington delegation had to promise Speaker of the House Joseph Cannon that they would never seek appropriations for the park as long as he remained in Congress.[6]

Progress in developing the park was correspondingly slow. No park administration at all existed until 1902, when Secretary Hitchcock directed the forest supervisor for the State of Washington, Grenville F. Allen, to assume responsibility for the management of the national park. Since Allen would have been in charge of the area if it had remained a forest reserve, this was hardly a step forward. Beginning in 1903, a few rangers were available to patrol particular areas of the park, but they had little hope of consistently enforcing regulations that Allen promulgated that year regarding hunting, fishing, grazing, vandalism, and the operation of businesses within park boundaries. Allen reported about 300 visitors in 1903, most of whom boarded at the hotel in Longmire Springs and also at an establishment of eight tent cabins in Paradise Park run by another operator through a lease arrangement. A number of mineral claims continued to be entered, although most were not developed through legitimate mining operations. Allen still lacked an adequate survey of park boundaries and an adequate ranger force to enforce regulations.[7]

Interest in the mountain and its surrounding wilderness continued to grow. Congress finally had made an appropriation for the construction of a park road, and a survey for the route had begun in 1903 under the direction of the Army Corps of Engineers. After considering other routes into the park, the engineers decided the new road should follow the wagon road and trail that the Longmires had established between Ashford (just outside the park boundary) up the Nisqually River to Longmire Springs and Paradise Valley. The decision permanently reinforced these sites as the primary destinations for most tourists visiting the mountain. The assistant engineer in charge, Eugene V. Ricksecker, started the survey working up from Longmire, since the existing six-mile wagon road from the park boundary to Longmire was considered at least serviceable. From Longmire the survey followed the established trail up to the snout of the Nisqually Glacier, past Narada Falls, to the Paradise tent hotel. Clearing and grading for the new "Government Road" began in 1904; but work soon encountered the difficulties presented by short seasons, rough terrain, and scarce labor.[8] The same summer, the Tacoma and Eastern Railroad opened between Tacoma and Ashford, and the spur line brought over 500 tourists to Mount Rainier before the end of the season. In addition to the hotels at Longmire and Paradise, seasonal tourist establishments began to appear at the park's southern boundary near Ashford. By the next year, the number of visitors to the park approached 1,000, and the Tacoma and Eastern Railroad began construction of its own hotel at

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[5]The memorialization is reprinted in: Caroline Leona Tolbert, History of Mount Rainier National Park (Seattle: Lowman & Hanford Co., 1933), 11-16.

[6]Ise, Our National Park Policy, 112-123; Martinson, "Mountain in the Sky," 49-54.

[7]Department of the Interior, Reports of the Secretary of the Interior, 1903 (Washington, DC: Department of the Interior, 1903), 162-163.

[8]Richard H. Quin, "Nisqually Road (Government Road), Mount Rainier National Park" (Historic American Engineering Record No. WA-119, 1992), 2-9. The Historic American Engineering Record performed extensive documentation and research on the roads and bridges of Mount Rainier National Park in 1992. These records are available through the Library of Congress.

Longmire through a lease arrangement with the Department of the Interior. The hotel, later known as the National Park Inn, opened in 1906.[9]

The same year, Allen advised that "upon completion of the Government road it is probable that there will be a desire to take automobiles into the park." Mount Rainier was destined to become a popular destination for the machines, although at this point Allen felt the conveyances represented "a great annoyance" and even "some danger."[10] In the meantime, the construction of the Government Road continued, although with considerable difficulties. The first contractor defaulted in 1906, and construction continued through direct supervision of hired labor. At this time, Hiram Chittenden, the engineer of the Yellowstone road system, was nominally the senior officer in charge of Mount Rainier road construction as well. He visited the park that year and described the existing wagon road between Ashford and Longmire as the worst he had ever traveled over. Ricksecker subsequently adjusted priorities and improvements were begun on this lower portion of the road. By 1908, construction of the Government Road had reached Nisqually Glacier, making it the first American road to reach a glacier. Over 2,600 people entered the park that year, and 117 permits were issued for automobiles, which were subject to the usual long list of regulations restricting hours of operation and speeds.[11] By 1910, the road was complete as far as Paradise Valley, although it had not opened to the public that far. Acting superintendent Allen praised Ricksecker's work locating the route and supervising construction. The engineer had been "particular to see that the road passed all points of interests," while maintaining a four percent maximum grade throughout the 25 miles from the park boundary to Paradise Valley. Allen felt that "a very creditable piece of engineering" had resulted in "one of the finest scenic roads in America."[12]

Nevertheless, the road apparently remained rough and poorly drained in places. In 1911, William Howard Taft visited the park and the presidential party was invited to become the first to make the trip all the way to Paradise Valley by motor vehicle. The President's touring car became hopelessly bogged down between Nisqually and Paradise, although it did complete the trip with the help of a mule team. The same year, an entrance arch built of "heavy cedar logs" was constructed at the beginning of the Government Road at the park's boundary. Measuring 22 feet wide and 24 feet high, the massive post and beam span bore the name of the park cut and burned into a three-foot diameter log hung from the top beam by chains. The massive entrance arch symbolized a turning point in the administration of the park that had occurred by 1911. That year a permanent superintendent, Edward S. Hall, was finally appointed for Mount Rainier; during the next few years budgets increased significantly. Over 10,000 visitors arrived at the park in 1911, and over half of them were in automobiles that took advantage of the new Government Road. Responding to the influx, Superintendent Hall outlined an extensive list of requirements for improved park administration, stressing the need for more trail construction, and the necessity of sanitary improvements at Longmire, where the two hotels disposed of sewage and refuse

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[9]Department of the Interior, 1904 Report of the Acting Superintendent of the Mount Rainier National Park to the Secretary of the Interior (Washington, DC: Department of the Interior, 1904), 7; Department of the Interior, 1906 Report of the Acting Superintendent of Mount Rainier, 5; Shankland, Steve Mather, 9.

[10]Department of the Interior, 1906 Report of the Acting Superintendent of Mount Rainier, 7.

[11]Department of the Interior, 1908 Report of the Acting Superintendent of Mount Rainier, 8-12, 15-16; Quin, "Nisqually Road," 9-11.

[12]Department of the Interior, 1910 Report of the Acting Superintendent of Mount Rainier, 7.

directly into the Nisqually River. A new set of preservation concerns were becoming evident as Mount Rainier became, with Yellowstone and Yosemite, one of the nation's most popular national parks.[13]

As visitation soared, the park's constituency grew stronger. In 1912 a number of civic groups, including commercial clubs and chambers of commerce from both Seattle and Tacoma, jointly formed the Seattle-Tacoma Rainier National Park Advisory Board. The committee represented the continued interest of local boosters and businessmen in plans for Mount Rainier, and especially in the planned development of motor roads both to the park and in the park itself. The group chose the photographer and conservationist Asahel Curtis as its chairman. Seattle resident and former secretary of the interior Richard Ballinger also was a member of the board; the group subsequently took up the campaign (which Ballinger had begun the year before) to create a national park bureau within the Department of the Interior. The Rainier National Park Advisory Board also was the group that sent Samuel Lancaster to Washington, DC, in 1912, where the road engineer fruitlessly lobbied for a $100,000 appropriation for the development of roads at Mount Rainier. The board also pressed the Forest Service to improve the three miles of road directly outside the national park that ran through the adjacent national forest. The execrable condition of this short approach road, however, continued to frustrate the park advocates for years.[14]

Approach roads to Mount Rainier concerned a number of good roads groups at this time. The improvement of the entire Mountain Highway, as the route between Tacoma and Ashford became known, had first been urged by James Longmire, who had originally blazed the trail from his homestead on the Yelm Prairie to Mount Rainier. Longmire could not interest Pierce County in the project, however, and in the 1890s he improved portions of the route at his own expense. Due to the efforts of the Washington State Good Roads Association, bicycle enthusiasts, and other groups, the pressure to improve the Mountain Highway soon increased. By 1909, the State of Washington had taken an active interest in improving roads by assuming maintenance responsibilities from the counties. Three years later portions of the Mountain Highway were being relocated and regraded; in 1913 the route was listed as a "primary state highway," called National Park Highway. By 1917, portions of the route were being paved, and the highway was functioning as a major automotive approach route to Mount Rainier from Puget Sound. That year, Mount Rainier recorded as many visitors as Yosemite and Yellowstone, although the park, at 324 square miles, was a fraction of the size of those older parks.[15]

Plans for a more extensive road system within the park itself had also been proposed in various forms for a number of years. The first topographic map of the park was compiled by assistant engineer Ricksecker and published in Grenville Allen's 1904 annual report. The map, with 500-foot contour lines, showed the Government Road (then under construction) extending past Paradise to Alta Vista, and from there all the way to the summit roughly along the Gibraltar route. Also shown was an extensive "proposed graded trail" encircling Mount Rainier, which was connected to park entrances at the four corners of the park by spur roads. Hiram Chittenden is credited as the first to suggest this "round-the-mountain" road.[16] Like the Grand Loop that Chittenden had recently completed at Yellowstone, the proposed circuit drive for

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[13]Department of the Interior, Report of the Superintendent of Mount Rainier National Park, 6-10, 12; Quin, "Nisqually Road," 13-14.

[14]Martinson, "Mount Rainier National Park: First Years," 29-32.

[15]Nadeau, Highway to Paradise, 63, 93; Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1917 Annual Report, 100.

[16]Department of the Interior, 1904 Report of the Acting Superintendent of Mount Rainier, 9; Richard H. Quin, "Mount Rainier National Park Roads and Bridges" (Historic American Engineering Record No. WA-35, 1992), 16; Thompson, Mount Rainier, 202. Although the road to the summit is occasionally mentioned in later years, the superintendent's annual report for 1907 shows the Government Road extending only as far as Panorama Point.

Mount Rainier would have maximized the potential for driving (whether in carriages or in early motor vehicles) and seeing as much of the park as possible from a well-graded road. Eugene Ricksecker apparently was enthusiastic about the plan for a road around the mountain as well, as were many of the members of the Rainier National Advisory Board. In 1911, an illustrated tourist guide to Mount Rainier was published, one of the finest guides yet to appear for any national park. The author, John H. Williams, suggested that since the Government Road had been completed to Paradise Valley the year before, the next step "in opening the National Park to public use should be the carrying out of Mr. Ricksecker's fine plan for a road around the Mountain." Williams published Ricksecker's revised map of the park, which showed the assistant engineer's proposed road as a dashed line. The route connected with the Government Road at Christine Falls and worked its way around to access as many of the "great parks" on the mountain's slopes as possible. The route also reached the "snout of each glacier . . . in turn" before returning to the existing road near Mazama Ridge. In 1913, preliminary surveys were made for a complete circuit, which was to circumscribe the mountain in an 80 to 100-mile irregular loop just below the glacier line.[17]

Although the "round-the-mountain" road would never be built as such, trail construction did intensify during these years, in part due to the surveying and planning of a more elaborate park road system. Local mountaineering groups, especially The Mountaineers (first organized in 1906) also pressed for a comprehensive system of trails connecting the still remote corners of the park. Between 1911 and 1913, members of The Mountaineers hiked around the mountain investigating routes and establishing a series of back country camps. Under Superintendent Hall and his successor Ethan Allen, budgets increased from $3,000 in 1911 to an average of almost $15,000 annually for 1913 through 1915. Much of these funds were spent improving and enlarging the trail system, and in 1915 the park's new superintendent, DeWitt L. Reaburn, was able to report that 150 miles of park trails completely encircled the mountain. That summer, The Mountaineers organized an outing in which 100 of their members made the trip around the mountain in 22 days. In 1916, just before the Park Service began operations, Reaburn reported that 200 miles of trails had been completed, including the 93-mile Wonderland Trail, which roughly followed the route around the mountain that had been proposed 10 years earlier as a road, and which The Mountaineers had blazed as a trail.[18] Proposals and surveys for automotive routes around the mountain, however, were not forgotten, and would continue to be put forward over the next decade.

The period just before the establishment of the Park Service was a busy one for Mount Rainier, in part because Stephen Mather had arrived at the Department of the Interior. In 1905, Stephen Mather, then still a Chicago businessman, successfully climbed Mount Rainier with a Sierra Club expedition; his experience resulted in his lifelong passion for mountaineering and contributed to his growing concern for the fate of the national parks. Mather became close friends with Asahel Curtis, who also was on the 1905 Sierra Club climb. In 1915, Mather and the Rainier National Advisory Board had many similar views about the direction park management should take at Mount Rainier. Dissatisfaction with the park's concessioners, for example, was widespread; although the park was beginning to enjoy a constituency as great as any national park, Mount Rainier still had limited overnight accommodations and no outstanding first-class lodge. The situation among the many park concessioners at Mount Rainier had also grown quite hectic by that time. Superintendent Reaburn issued 42 special-use permits that year, mostly to individual operators seeking to open small businesses catering to tourists. The same year, the Longmire

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[17]John H. Williams, The Mountain That Was "God" (Tacoma: John H. Williams, 1911), 63; Quin, "Mount Rainier Roads and Bridges," 18.

[18]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1917 Annual Report, 214; Tolbert, History of Mount Rainier, 45-47. A first-hand account of the 1915 outing is reprinted in Dee Molenaar, The Challenge of Rainier [1971] (Seattle: The Mountaineers, 1987), 197-223.

family sold its tourist establishment to the Longmire Springs Hotel Company, a new group that then began construction of another hotel at Longmire Springs.

After his arrival at the Department of the Interior, Mather acted quickly in the case of Mount Rainier. Taking advantage of his connections in Tacoma and Seattle, he encouraged local park advocates and businessmen to form a publicly held corporation that could become the unified concessioner for the park. Mather also removed restrictions on automobiles, opening the Government Road to automobile traffic all the way to Paradise Valley, greatly increasing the potential for hotel development in that scenic, subalpine park. In 1916, the Rainier National Park Company (a separate organization from the Rainier National Park Advisory Board) was capitalized by the sale of $200,000 of stock to park supporters and other investors. The Department of the Interior arranged to grant the new company an exclusive park concession with the understanding that it would immediately start construction on a large hotel in Paradise Park. In 1917, the Paradise Inn was completed according to plans provided by the Tacoma architects, Heath, Grove and Bell. The two-and-a-half-story lodge featured huge, steeply pitched shingled roofs with a series of intersecting gables. The log frame construction employed Alaskan cedar from a nearby area in the park called the "silver forest," which had been burnt over in the 1880s leaving standing dead trees to weather to a silver gray. The stone for the foundation was quarried locally as well. Furnished with handcrafted wooden furniture and wrought-iron details, the luxurious inn was everything that Mather and the Rainier National Park Advisory Board could have wished.[19] Over the next few years, the Rainier National Park Company took over the hotels at Longmire Springs and other businesses to become the park's sole concessioner.

By 1917, the struggle to create the park, strengthen its legislation, and unify and improve its management had been largely successful. By 1908, for example, the park's legislation had been altered to prevent further mining claims from being located.[20] The Government Road had been completed in 1910, and by 1915 it was open to cars from the park boundary all the way to Paradise. Soon state highway approaches (and the troublesome national forest road outside the park entrance) had been improved as well. The reorganization of park concessions had resulted in better control over private enterprise in the park. And the Park Service had been established the same year the Paradise Inn opened, a bureaucratic success which promised to bring increased professionalism and more generous budgets to patrol the park, maintain trails, and plan further improvements. By 1918, the Government Road (by now called the Nisqually Road) had already undergone its first reconstruction, including the addition of "very attractive rustic bridges" over Kautz and Tahoma creeks. Over 6,000 automobiles entered the park on the Nisqually Road that year, and Albright felt that "there was every reason to expect automobile traffic will continue to increase by leaps and bounds." Mather felt the "future was bright" for Mount Rainier, where events so far had been "an object lesson that should guide the improvement of many other parks." Indeed, the park's budget was more than doubled in 1918 (to $75,000), a tangible indication of political as well as popular success.[21]

During his brief tenure with the Park Service, the landscape architect Charles Punchard visited Mount Rainier several times. Although Punchard was able to make only limited observations and recommendations, this was a busy time for the development of both Paradise and Longmire Springs. Punchard felt the acquisition of the Longmire facilities by the Rainier National Park Company "cleared up

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[19]Martinson, "Mountain in the Sky," 83, 91-94; Harrison, Architecture in the Parks, 185-198. The Paradise Inn was made a National Historic Landmark for its architectural significance in 1987.

[20]Tolson, Laws, 107-108.

[21]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1917 Annual Report, 52, 214; idem, 1918 Annual Report, 58, 60.

one of the most unsatisfactory conditions in the park." The landscape architect was especially concerned with the wet meadow around which several mineral springs bubbled, and he hoped that the meadow would now be "improved in such a manner that the village of Longmire Springs will be an attractive one." The next year, the new superintendent, Roger W. Toll, dismantled and burned the "unsightly and utterly useless" Longmire Hotel that had been built in the 1880s. The new hotel, begun in 1915, (called the National Park Inn Annex) was moved across the road, away from the mineral springs and the older National Park Inn (1906).[22] Punchard also recommended that the mineral springs be "walled up or confined in a neat, orderly way, and made more inviting." By 1920, the stone work enclosing the soda and iron springs had been completed by the Rainier National Park Company, presumably according to plans approved by Punchard; these enclosures remain today. That year he also laid out an "industrial group," or utility area, for the village at Longmire, and felt that "further concern" regarding the impact of tourism on the wet meadow and its surrounding mineral springs "had been removed."

More construction was underway in Paradise as well in 1920. A large annex was added to the Paradise Inn, and a power plant for the hotel, a guide house, and an administration building were built nearby. The combined cost of this construction at Paradise totaled twice that of the original hotel. Campgrounds had also been established near the Nisqually Entrance (one mile from the park gate), at Longmire Springs, and at Paradise. Punchard had overseen the installation of rudimentary water and sewer systems at the new campgrounds that served growing numbers of campers who arrived in cars.[23]

In 1921, the first Park Service road construction projects got underway under the guidance of engineer George Goodwin and landscape architect Daniel Hull. Besides Going-to-the-Sun Road, two other projects were begun that year: the Generals Highway in Sequoia National Park and the Carbon River Road at Mount Rainier. The interest in potential tourism to the Carbon River region of Mount Rainier had been rekindled by the completion of a rail spur from Enumclaw to Fairfax, just outside the northwest corner of the park. By 1917, a reconnaissance survey and plans were prepared for the construction of a road from the Fairfax railhead up the Carbon River to the snout of the Carbon Glacier. Because of the rail connection (and a new state highway that was planned to parallel the tracks and extend to the park entrance) the Carbon River Road had the potential of opening another side of Mount Rainier to large numbers of tourists. A hotel was planned for the end of the road that would create a center for tourism near Carbon Glacier comparable to Paradise Valley; the proposed hotel on the mountain's northwestern slopes, however, would be 20-40 miles closer to the sites along Puget Sound.[24] Across the park, another state highway project was about to open up the northeastern slopes of the mountain to tourism as well. In 1916, Washington State approved funding to extend the McClellan Pass Highway (which would eventually cross the crest of the Cascades at the Cayuse and Chinook passes) as far as the White River entrance of the national park. Two years earlier a mining company had completed a wagon road that extended up the White River 10 miles to the scenic Glacier Basin, at the foot of the massive Emmons Glacier. Once the state highway had progressed far enough, tourists with automobiles were expected to demand permission to use the mining road to reach the Glacier Basin area. In the meantime, more

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[22]After the National Park Inn burned in 1926, the Annex, which today is the only hotel remaining at Longmire, took the name of the National Park Inn.

[23]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1919 Annual Report, 265; idem, 1920 Annual Report, 130, 336; Thompson, Mount Rainier, 69-70.

[24]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1917 Annual Report, 50-51; idem, 1919 Annual Report, 80-81

mineral springs had been discovered in the Ohanapecosh region, near the southeast corner of the park, and the Forest Service had already begun to allow concession development there.[25]

By 1919, all four corners of the roughly square national park had demonstrated considerable potential for tourist development. At that time, Mather, George Goodwin and Superintendent Toll revived plans for a motor road that would encircle the mountain and connect all these points of interest in a single park road system. Goodwin pointed out to Toll that only 20 miles of road across the rugged north side of the mountain would be required to connect the proposed hotel site at Carbon Glacier with Glacier Basin. From the proposed state highway location over Cayuse Pass, less than 30 miles of new road would connect Glacier Basin to the Ohanapecosh region in the southeastern corner, and from there could extend all the way back to the Nisqually Road near Narada Falls by following Stevens Canton across the mountain's southern slopes. That left only a connection across the west side of the mountain to complete the "round-the-mountain" road Chittenden and Ricksecker had first described. The Carbon River Road could be thought of as the first portion of that west side road, and Goodwin proposed eventually extending it to Mowich Lake and from there south, all the way back to the Nisqually Road near the park entrance at Ashford. Mather and Albright officially described the entire scheme in 1919 as "an ideal road system of the future."[26] By 1921, the new superintendent, William H. Peters, an engineer by training, had caught the enthusiasm and argued forcefully for the construction of an extensive "highway encircling the Mountain." Sensing it would be "one of the world's most spectacular scenic highways," Peters even drew up a $1,200,000 budget for his plan of "necessary ultimate road development" in the park.[27]

In 1921, Goodwin oversaw the start of work on the Carbon River Road, a modest beginning compared to the big plans and reconnaissance surveys that had been underway. But if national park road construction presented difficulties in general during these early years, the Carbon River Road project soon degenerated into a fiasco. In 1921, contractors graded six miles of the road as far as Ipsut Creek; the next year the project met with delays. By 1923 Goodwin was afraid the contractor would default, although by the next year two more miles had been graded, extending the road up to Cataract Creek near the snout of Carbon Glacier. That February, however, flooding damaged the new road extensively. Goodwin was required to build expensive and unattractive revetments along a road that had apparently not been well located in the first place. The connecting county road to Fairfax was completed in 1925, and a campground was opened for motorists at Ipsut Creek that summer. But that was as far as the Carbon River Road project would ever progress. To this day the road terminates at a campground at Ipsut Creek, about six miles from the park entrance.[28]

Thomas Vint later claimed that at the Carbon River "we were building an impossible thing," and that Goodwin's refusal to acknowledge that fact in 1924 had been the final disagreement that caused Mather to dismiss him.[29] In any case, the experience with the Carbon River Road clearly helped Mather and Albright decide to enlist the assistance of the Bureau of Public Roads. Once the interbureau agreement was in place in 1925, the situation began to improve at Mount Rainier, as it did at Glacier National Park. But there were other forces at work at this time that spurred a broad reconsideration of elaborate road

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[25]Quin, "Roads and Bridges of Mount Rainier," 18-20; Thompson, "Mount Rainier," 204-211.

[26]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1919 Annual Report, 81-82; Thompson, Mount Rainier, 202-204.

[27]Quoted in Quin, "Mount Rainier Roads and Bridges," 22-24.

[28]Richard H. Quin, "Carbon River Road" (Historic American Building Survey Record No. WA-120, 1992), 2-5.

[29]Herbert Evison, Interview with Thomas Vint, 1960, p. 14.

development plans like those Mather and Albright described in 1919. By 1920, a public debate had been initiated at Mount Rainier regarding the appropriate extent to which the park should be developed. This debate, which intensified in the course of the 1920s, would help transform Park Service procedures for devising general development plans that would limit the overall extent of road construction in national parks.

Up to this point, Mather, Albright, Goodwin, and superintendents like William Peters had based their assumptions regarding the desirable limits of park development on what was essentially a 19th-century model of landscape park development. The quintessential feature of this model was the carriage drive, which wound around the park in a great loop reaching as many points of interest within the park as possible. Chittenden's Yellowstone road system (although completed in the early 20th century) was the most fully elaborated example of this type among national scenic reservations. The Yellowstone Grand Loop brought tourists to the most famous geothermal and scenic attractions in the park, and connected to multiple park entrances all around its circuit by way of spur roads. But the desirability of such a complete road system was predicated on conditions of a bygone era. For Chittenden, the primary means of appreciating park scenery was assumed to be from a horse-drawn vehicle; hiking long distances and mountaineering were for the adventurous few. Extensive roads were built, but as wagon roads they were engineered to less demanding specifications and made less physical impact than motor roads. Early federal scenic reservations, like Yellowstone and Yosemite, also tended to be much larger than those set aside later. After the Forest Reserve Act of 1891, extensive national forests were declared that encompassed entire watersheds and mountain ranges. National parks could no longer effectively claim to be instruments of natural resource "conservation." The Forest Service could argue (with power, logging, and grazing interests) that park designation should be limited to scenic geographic features themselves; there was no reason to give park status to surrounding forests and watersheds, since those areas were often already being "conserved" as national forests. Progressive-era parks like Mount Rainier or Rocky Mountain tended to be smaller as a result. And as smaller parks they would be more adversely affected by a "complete" motor road system that left a relatively limited area free from the influence of such development.

Mount Rainier's proximity to urban populations also was bound to make the park a "weekend resort . . . [with] a traffic problem which we do not find in parks more remote from large centers of population," as Daniel Hull observed in 1920.[30] By that time, 1,000 cars a day were winding up the Nisqually Road to Paradise Valley on summer weekends, grinding the crushed stone surface of the road into a fine powder that coated everything within 200 feet of either side of the road. This volume of traffic was another indication of the changing dynamic behind the creation of parks in the early 20th century. Yellowstone and Glacier owed their existence to their location along transcontinental rail lines; Mount Rainier and Rocky Mountain, however, were created largely because they were within day-tripping distance for automotive tourists from Seattle, Tacoma, and Denver. Chittenden had suggested his "round-the-mountain" road for Mount Rainier with railroads, livery concessioners, and relatively small numbers of vacationers in mind. The reality would be thousands of private automobiles arriving every weekend, swamping narrow roads that had been designed for slower, lighter traffic. Motor vehicles would require more heavily engineered roads; but if a complete loop system of motor roads were built, such a network would have had a far greater impact on the park than a comparable system of carriage drives.

Auto enthusiasts, chamber of commerce boosters, and the new Park Service officials, however, were not the only groups concerned with the future development of Mount Rainier. From the beginning of its history as a national park, organized climbing clubs had also influenced events there. The expanding

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[30]Daniel Hull to Stephen Mather, Memorandum, October 29, 1920, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Files, Entry 6, National Archives, Washington, DC.

interest in outdoor recreation--another hallmark of the early 20th century--powerfully affected the perception of how much and what kind of development would be appropriate for the park. The first notable mountaineering club in the Northwest was the Mazamas, a group that organized in 1894 in Portland. A permanent climbing club was established in Washington in 1906, when The Mountaineers organized in Seattle. Mount Rainier, of course, drew the members of The Mountaineers, and the management of the park was a subject of great concern to them. Like the Rainier National Park Advisory Board, The Mountaineers became an important voice representing an organized segment of the park's constituency. In 1916, The Mountaineers arranged to have the first shelter at Camp Muir erected, honoring the founder of the Sierra Club who had died two years earlier.[31] Other clubs, especially the Mazamas and the Sierra Club, also held "outings" to Mount Rainier, climbed to the summit, and lobbied to improve its funding and management. In 1919, Mather (a lifetime member of the Sierra Club) recognized the "help of the mountaineering clubs," which had "effectively aided in the advancement of the national parks ever since the establishment of this bureau." Mather included a directory of the mountaineering clubs, which he seemed to see as his civilian auxiliary, in the appendix of his annual report.[32]

But soon different groups (and different individuals within some of the same groups) began to make it clear that there were conflicting visions of what constituted appropriate development in national parks. In particular, hikers, mountaineers, and the various outdoor organizations they formed soon called into question what Mather and Albright had seen as "progress" at Mount Rainier. These outdoor enthusiasts may have arrived in parks by car, but they wanted to limit the use of automobiles once within park boundaries. After considerable debate and voicing of concerns, in 1922 The Mountaineers printed a broadside, "The Administration of National Parks," which accused the Park Service of managing Mount Rainier primarily for the benefit of the Rainier National Park Company and its paying customers, therefore betraying its obligation to serve the general public. In a rebuttal, the concessioner accused The Mountaineers of blindly opposing any form of development in the park, whether it was of public benefit or not. As the controversy escalated, it soon was revealed that The Mountaineers themselves were hardly of a single mind on the issues raised. The matter was of no small concern to Mather, however, who dreaded internecine strife among his still-fragile park coalition. He ordered Roger Toll, who had moved on to become superintendent at Rocky Mountain National Park, to meet with the outdoor club early in 1923.[33] Toll took the opportunity to defend the monopoly granted to the Rainier National Park Company, despite what he admitted were shortcomings in the arrangement. Since 1917, the publicly owned concessioner had invested more money in the park than the federal government had since 1899. So far, he argued, the improvements brought about by the concessioner had justified the monopolistic

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[31]The simple stone hut was designed by a member of the club, Carl F. Gould. The Park Service added a second shelter at the site, designed by Superintendent Peters, in 1921. Copies of Peters's drawings for the previously unattributed 1921 hut are in the National Archives. William Peters to Daniel Hull, May 14, 1921, Mount Rainier, Central Files, Entry 6, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[32]Besides the clubs mentioned, Mather recognized the Appalachian Mountain Club, the Colorado Mountain Club, the Prairie Club, and the Associated Mountaineering Clubs of North America. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1919 Annual Report, 33-34.

[33]Superintendent Peters had left the Park Service in 1923 leaving only an acting superintendent at Mount Rainier at this point. There were other reasons to ask Toll to come back to Mount Rainier to intercede. A Denver native and an ardent mountaineer himself, Toll had published a guide to mountaineering in Rocky Mountain National Park in 1919, and he had strong relationships with the Northwest mountaineering groups.

arrangement. Toll asked the outdoor club to stop indulging in diatribes and produce specific proposals for improving management.[34]

Peace was restored; but The Mountaineers, the Rainier National Park Company, and the Rainier National Park Advisory Board (which usually represented the concessioner's interests) were on a collision course. The Park Service was taking up position squarely in the middle. The controversies becoming apparent at Mount Rainier, however, were hardly limited to a single park by the mid-1920s. At Yosemite, in particular, which was now the most visited park in the system, automotive tourists were flooding in, prompting critics from the Sierra Club and elsewhere to claim that the famous valley had been "spoiled" by crowds, roads, cars, and overnight accommodations. For many long-time national park advocates, the overwhelming popularity of national parks among automotive tourists demanded a fundamental reconsideration of the values and policies that were guiding the management of the parks. Mather's expert manipulation of concessioners had resulted in great improvements in park visitor services. The federal government, on its own, never would have assumed the costs of comparable facilities at this time. But these concessioners now needed to make profits and pay dividends to stockholders; the Park Service therefore was at least partially committed to accommodating their need to expand, attract customers, and promote diverse recreational uses that would encourage longer hotel stays. By mid-decade, the Park Service had won the major battles with power and logging interests; but the task of balancing the financial needs of its concessioners with the preservation of park landscape features and natural systems was just beginning.

These concerns led to the formation of the Yosemite National Park Board of Expert Advisors in 1928. That group, which included Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., offered critical advice regarding proposed concession expansions, the modernization of the Tioga Road, and other developments that affected the already overcrowded valley.[35] Well established concessioners, however, and the demands of the ever-growing crowds of visitors in the valley, made it difficult to deny park businesses permission to expand. At Mount Rainier, as well, the Rainier National Park Company continued to make proposals to expand and diversify its operations. The concessioner also encouraged the Park Service to make planning decisions that would bring more visitors into the park. A bewildering array of new activities were promoted by the concessioner and approved by the new park superintendent, Owen A. Tomlinson. In 1925, the Rainier National Park Company hired a group of Yakima Indians to camp near the Paradise Inn and entertain tourists. In 1928, the company operated a summer camp for boys, featuring swimming and boating on Reflection Lakes. In 1931, they received permission to build and operate a nine-hole golf course in Paradise Valley, despite the ludicrously short playing season. Golfers played down hill from the Paradise Inn and returned to their starting point by bus.[36] Although all of these experiments were short lived, winter sports were also encouraged (as they were at Yosemite) and had significant success at Paradise in the 1920s and 1930s. Since 1912, The Mountaineers had led "winter outings" to Longmire and Paradise. Mather felt that "as a winter resort" Mount Rainier had potential that "would make it famous" for snow sports, and in fact already in 1920 the Northwest Ski Club held a tournament at Paradise that drew 1,000 spectators. In 1923, a world record ski jump was made off of Alta Vista; by 1924, the road to Longmire was being kept plowed all winter, and a 1000-foot toboggan run near the village was strung with electric lights. Skiers regularly hiked from Longmire to Paradise, and later

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[34]Martinson, "Mountain in the Sky," 95-96; Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1922 Annual Report, 55.

[35]Runte, Yosemite, 158-159.

[36]This was the first golf course in a national park, since the Wawona golf course was not made part of Yosemite National Park until 1932. Albright drew the line at mini-golf, however, denying the concessioner permission for a "Tom Thumb Golf Course." Horace Albright, "Memorandum to Messrs. Cammerer and Demaray," July 24, 1930, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

plowing was extended to Nisqually Glacier to shorten the walk. By the early 1930s regular downhill races and "winter carnivals" were held on the slopes of Paradise Park, and in 1934, the Olympic skiing trials were held there, although a motorized ski tow (from behind the guide house to the top of Alta Vista) was only built in 1937.[37]

At Paradise, as at Yosemite Valley, Park Service officials needed to allow concession operators to expand and diversify their operations in order to keep the companies, which were providing needed visitor services, financially viable. But this balancing act became increasingly difficult for Park Service officials to negotiate. By 1928, construction had begun on a second lodge and housekeeping cabin complex at Paradise, the Paradise Lodge, about 500 feet southwest of the Paradise Inn. Connected by a short spur road to the Paradise parking area, the new lodge opened in 1931.[38] In 1927, the Rainier National Park Company had also started to push hard for the construction of a "scenic loop" motor road around Paradise. The proposed road would have extended from the Paradise Inn to Alta Vista and Panorama Point and then back via Sluiskin Falls and the Mazama Ridge, making a circuit of the entire valley. The road project eventually received the backing of Tomlinson, Albright, and the Rainier National Park Advisory Board. Others were outraged, however, and claimed that Paradise Valley was in the process of being ruined, as they felt Yosemite Valley already had been.

The controversy regarding the Paradise scenic loop road continued for years and began to call into question basic assumptions regarding the development of national parks. The debate was affected by the park road construction and planning already taking place at Mount Rainier. In 1924, when Albright secured funds for the first program of park road construction, the park still had very few roads compared to other parks with similar numbers of visitors. Since the Carbon River Road had not turned out to be much of an attraction, the 25-mile Nisqually Road served virtually all the vehicles that poured out of Tacoma and Seattle on summer weekends. Albright's 1924 road program made the reconstruction of Nisqually Road, which had been pulverized by the heavy traffic, a first priority. It also included funds for a survey of a 40-mile West Side Road across the western slopes of the mountain, connecting the Carbon River country to the Nisqually Road near the park's main entrance at Ashford. But the Rainier National Park Advisory Board felt betrayed; they issued their own broadside in 1925 criticizing Congress for not funding a more extensive road program for the park. The State and surrounding counties had spent some $7,500,000 on approach roads to four park entrances at the four corners of the park; Congress had so far appropriated about $280,000 for roads within the park. The committee wanted larger appropriations so that the "system of roads" at Mount Rainier could be "completed" along the lines of the proposed route around the mountain that the Park Service had repeatedly endorsed.[39]

Once the Bureau of Public Roads assumed control of park road projects in 1925, the pace and efficiency of construction improved. The reconstruction of the Nisqually Road remained a priority, and the location survey for the West Side Road continued and construction began on its southern end. But the Nisqually Road still terminated at Paradise, and since many of their customers arrived in private cars, the Rainier

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[37]Interest in skiing in the valley soon ended, however, when larger and more accessible skiing resorts opened elsewhere after World War II. Winter resort activities had never resulted in significant profits for the park concessioner in any case. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1922 Annual Report, 26-27; idem, 1924 Annual Report, 45-46; Thompson, Mount Rainier, 84-85; Martinson, "Mountain in the Sky," 105-108; Tolbert, History of Mount Rainier, 50.

[38]Thompson, Mount Rainier, 83, 91. The development of the Paradise Lodge, which primarily provided food and other services for associated housekeeping cabins around it, was hampered by the Depression. The lodge was destroyed in 1965 and replaced by a new visitor center and parking lot on the same site.

[39]Rainier National Park Advisory Board, "A Message to Congress," June, 1925, Papers of Horace M. Albright, Entry 17, National Archives, Washington, DC.

National Park Company logically felt that a scenic drive around the scenic area would be a strong attraction. H.A. Rhodes, president of the concession company, estimated that the road would be worth $50,000 annually in increased business at Paradise.[40] In the spring of 1927, Asahel Curtis and the Rainier National Park Advisory Board strongly supported the plan for a loop drive at Paradise, stating that his committee was "deeply interested in . . . the financial success" of the concessioner, who was counted on to provide needed hotel accommodations in the park. Curtis kept plans for a "complete" road system for the park alive as well. That year at the Seattle Chamber of Commerce, he described a $5,000,000 program of road construction at Mount Rainier. Together with commercial clubs from the Puget Sound region, he continued to call for a road system that would encircle the mountain.[41]

By 1926, however, Park Service officials had begun to back away from such extensive road plans. Owen A. Tomlinson, who became superintendent at Mount Rainier in 1923 and remained for the next 18 years, had begun drafting an "Outline for Park Development" (as requested by Albright in 1925) and submitted it to Mather in 1926. The following summer, Tomlinson sent the development outline to Thomas Vint at the new landscape division office in San Francisco. Vint and Tomlinson concurred that a road across the rugged north side of the mountain was unnecessary and unwise. In so doing, they effectively set aside the northern slopes of the mountain as a "wilderness area" within the park, and finally began to amend the "round-the-mountain" model that had been guiding plans for the future development of Mount Rainier since 1904. The 1926 development outline briefly described a six-year program of prioritized construction projects for the park. First, the superintendent called for the complete reconstruction of the Nisqually Road. Next, he asked for the completion of the 40-mile West Side Road, which would connect the Nisqually Road to the new northwestern entrance of the park (the Carbon River Road was to remain an unconnected spur). In the northeastern corner of the park, a 14-mile road was proposed to connect the McClellan Pass Highway (which had reached the park boundary in 1923 and was now known as the Naches Pass Highway) to a subalpine park near Glacier Basin called Yakima Park. The Yakima Park Highway involved the reconstruction of portions of the existing White River mining road. Tomlinson's plan also called for a road through the Stevens Canyon, which would eventually cross the southern slopes of the mountain to connect Paradise and Longmire to the Ohanapecosh region.

The road construction outlined by Tomlinson constituted the most ambitious development program planned for any national park at this time. The development outline, however, treated road construction as only one aspect of the ultimate plan. Improvements to the extensive trail system in the park were carefully described. New buildings were listed and prioritized for the Longmire and Paradise developed areas. Four new developed areas were suggested: Spray Park and Sunset Park (to be reached via the proposed West Side Road), Yakima Park, and the Ohanapecosh Hot Springs area. Utility, sanitation, and fire protection were all addressed, as well, in this preliminary plan for future park needs.[42]

Nowhere in the general plan was there any mention of a scenic drive around Paradise Park. Thomas Vint, in particular, had objected to the proposal, and other Park Service officials seemed to be at least ambivalent about the idea. Albright, responding to the concessioner's request to proceed with plans for its

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[40]H.A. Rhodes to Stephen Mather, May 18, 1927, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[41]Curtis added that "the majority of members" of the Rainier National Park Advisory Board were not stockholders in the Rainier National Park Company, although apparently a strong minority were. Asahel Curtis to Stephen Mather, May 17, 1927, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[42]"1926 Outline of Park Development" sent by Owen Tomlinson to Thomas Vint, August 19, 1927, Mount Rainier National Park, Classified Files, Entry 29, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC. For an extended description of Tomlinson's 1926 development outline, see McClelland, Presenting Nature, 174-177.

construction, delayed any immediate decision in 1927, stating that the landscape division "was not sure the road ought to be built" and that money for such a road had not been budgeted in any case.[43] But considerable pressure in favor of the road was applied, and with Superintendent Tomlinson's blessing, the Bureau of Public Roads made a preliminary survey for the scenic loop that fall. At that point, a member of The Mountaineers, George Vanderbilt Caesar, published an article in The Saturday Evening Post, accusing the Park Service of "excessive road building programs in our national parks." Although he did not mention Mount Rainier by name, he clearly had it in mind: "Why . . . should the government incur enormous expense," he asked, "to encircle the wilderness with roads?" Noting that "at least one national park in the West [Yosemite] is already spoiled to anyone with taste or appreciation," he feared the same thing seemed "bound to be repeated elsewhere." Mountaineering groups and other outdoor organizations, he continued, were ready to help counter the influence of those who regarded the parks only as "magnets to draw in the maximum tourist trade."[44]

The short article struck a nerve at the Park Service. George Horace Lorimer's magazine had always been one of the bureau's most important supporters, and the apparent shift in editorial orientation was not dismissed lightly. Albright sent the article to the San Francisco field headquarters, and included a letter that Caesar had subsequently sent to Lorimer in which the author (obviously pleased with the effect his article was having) specifically denounced the road plans for Mount Rainier as the most deplorable example of national park overdevelopment. Thomas Vint seemed to enjoy reading the letter, and wrote in the margin that he wanted copies made for the entire San Francisco office. He also asked that Albright elicit Caesar's comments specifically on the scenic loop road at Paradise. "Ask him to see Mr. Rhodes," Vint suggested (referring to the president of the Rainier National Park Company) and then ask him for "a little of the help he mentions" in opposing the Paradise road. "As to circling the mountain," the landscape architect continued, "the north slope is programmed by Tomlinson and myself as a wilderness area already."[45]

If Vint felt vindicated, Superintendent Tomlinson and Frank Kittredge were much more on the defensive. They began drafting suggested responses defending their position and defending "park development" in general. They asked that either Albright or Asahel Curtis submit an article to The Saturday Evening Post in response to the criticism. Albright did finally draft a response in which he drew on some of the suggested points made by Tomlinson and Kittredge regarding the limited impact of the roads proposed for Mount Rainier.[46] But in his rebuttal to the criticism he had received (now from a number of sources) Albright chose to reaffirm and restate the primary and essential mandate of the Park Service: the preservation of "wilderness." In the title of his article, "The Everlasting Wilderness," he made it clear that his defense of the "second program" of park road construction underway in 1928 would not emphasize any aspect of the engineering of the roads themselves as much as it would emphasize the planning process that assured that roads did not end up where they should not be. "The present road-building program includes only a few miles of new road in many of the national parks," he clarified, since at Yellowstone and Yosemite, for example, construction concentrated on modernizing older, existing roads for

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[43]Horace Albright to H.A. Rhodes, July 31, 1927, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[44]George Vanderbilt Caesar, "National or City Parks?" The Saturday Evening Post (October 22, 1927.)

[45]Horace Albright to Frank Kittredge, December 15, 1927, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Files, Entry 29, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC. Vint's comments to Albright were handwritten in the margins of the returned letter.

[46]Albright's files include rough drafts of responses sent to him by Tomlinson. Frank Kittredge to Owen Tomlinson, December 20, 1927; Owen Tomlinson to Horace Albright, January 3, 1928, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 29, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

automobile use. Albright saw two groups trying to affect park planning: "Those who want no roads into the parks, and who would keep them unbroken wildernesses reached only by trails . . . and those who are spokesmen for automobile clubs, chambers of commerce and other development organizations, whose appetites for road building are never appeased." The Park Service, Albright assured the magazine's readers, had "attempted to steer a course between these two extremes," making significant scenic features of a given park accessible to motorists, but keeping the vast majority of the park's total area accessible only by trail. And in all cases, "the landscape engineer is the final authority," even if "his recommendations involve long and painstaking planning and more than ordinary construction costs."[47]

This reassuring scenario, however, was being disproved by events at Mount Rainier taking place at the very time Albright's article was being published. The Rainier National Park Company, in its 1928 report, continued to insist that "the completion of a Mountain-encircling road" was only a matter of time and funding. According to the concessioner, any financial problems the company was having were due to "the Government's failure to open up the entire area of the park by the construction of adequate roads."[48] Superintendent Tomlinson, therefore, had to struggle even to retain the limited wilderness designation he and Vint had unofficially made for the north slopes of the mountain. That summer he asked Mather to request that Secretary of the Interior Hubert Work make "a formal declaration . . . designating the areas referred to as permanent `Wilderness Areas.'" He backed up his request with formal resolutions made by The Mountaineers asking that certain sections of the park be declared wilderness areas and that the anticipated road construction program be curtailed.[49] Despite Vint's repeated condemnations, the Paradise scenic loop seemed to be moving ahead as well. In 1928, the Bureau of Public Roads completed a location survey for the motor road, including alternative routes and two new parking lots at scenic points along the circuit. Superintendent Tomlinson endorsed the project that summer, now using the rationalization that it would allow the elderly and handicapped to see the whole valley.[50] Plans, surveys, and alternate surveys for the road continued until 1931, by which time Albright had succeeded in stalling the project to death. With the new Paradise Lodge opening that year (and business withering as the Depression deepened) the Rainier National Park Company apparently relented and the road was never built. The Skyline Trail today follows much of the proposed route.[51]

In 1928, however, the situation at the Park Service had begun to change rapidly. After Mather was stricken that fall, Albright moved to Washington to assume the directorship. Albright's tenure was characterized by expansion and reorganization, and one of his particular interests was the "comprehensive" park planning process, which clearly had not yet been fulfilled as a powerful tool for planning (and limiting) park development. By February, Albright had drafted and distributed a memorandum on "General Planning," which he asked Cammerer, Vint, and Kittredge to review. In it,

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[47]Horace M. Albright, "The Everlasting Wilderness," The Saturday Evening Post (September 29, 1928).

[48]"Rainier National Park Company, President's Report, 1928," Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 29, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[49]Tomlinson was not in sympathy with all the mountaineering club's resolutions, however, since he felt that the park's rugged topography and dense forests made proposed roads less of an impact on surrounding regions than The Mountaineers anticipated. Owen Tomlinson to Stephen Mather, June 11, 1928, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[50]Owen Tomlinson to Stephen Mather, July 20, 1928, Papers of Horace M. Albright, Entry 17, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC; R.N. Kellogg, "Report of the Reconnaissance and Location Surveys, Paradise Scenic Route," 1928, Contracts, Proposals, and Specifications, Entry 26, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[51]Quin, "Nisqually Road," 24-26.

Albright proposed that "park development plans," like the one Tomlinson had drawn up for Mount Rainier, now be required for all parks. But in addition to the "general picture" regarding circulation, utility, and communication systems, the new director also asked that "more detailed plans of developed areas" be drawn up and included with the general plan. In addition, Albright wanted to see regional land-use zones defined that would make it clear which areas of the park were to be "developed" and which were to remain "wilderness areas." The success of the process, he noted, depended on "the proper collaboration of study and effect on the part of the Park Superintendent, the Landscape Architect, the Chief Engineer, and the Sanitary Engineer." And since "Park Development is primarily a Landscape development, these plans will be coordinated by the Landscape Division."[52]

If Albright saw Vint "coordinating" the general planning process, however, he still wanted Frank Kittredge to remain "chief engineer," responsible for the overall activities of design and construction. And although he expected "the fullest cooperation and coordination of the various divisions" of the office, his tone suggested that he had not been receiving it. In another draft memorandum also distributed for review at this time, Albright attempted to clarify the organizational chart of the San Francisco field headquarters. To clarify the respective roles of the civil engineering, landscape architecture, sanitary engineering, and forestry divisions, he described the responsibilities of each. The chief engineer, Frank Kittredge, was in charge of all aspects of road and trail design and construction; the chief engineer also oversaw "clerical personnel and office administration." Vint, as chief of the "landscape division," had a much more diverse set of responsibilities. He was charged with preparing "landscape lay-outs for all development areas, architectural sketches and working plans for buildings, bridges and other structures . . . [and] inspecting construction . . . from the landscape architectural viewpoint." Vint also was to continue to inspect and investigate all road projects. The landscape architect, in fact, was asked to "pass upon and recommend approval" for virtually all work done in any park or monument of the national park system--always, of course, with the "landscape viewpoint" in mind.[53]

Despite what might have seemed an affirmation of the broadest possible planning and review powers, the memorandum provoked a long and thoughtful response from Vint in which he somewhat philosophically questioned Albright's understanding of the role of landscape architecture in the development of national parks. Vint, who never enjoyed writing and was often chided for his failure to keep up with paperwork, drafted an uncharacteristically long and personal statement regarding landscape architecture, national parks, and the need for comprehensive planning. Vint doubted that national park construction work could ever be neatly divided into categories for determining whether individual projects should be handled by the engineering or landscape divisions. "Above a few distinctive characteristics," he pointed out, "many problems can easily be claimed by both." A possible solution, he risked suggesting, was to "definitely classify it all as either Engineering or Landscape and make a single division." The consolidated office might be headed either by him or by Frank Kittredge; but Vint made it clear that this choice was not a "question of personalities." The decision depended on whether Albright wanted to plan park development "on a Landscape or an Engineering basis." There was no doubt how Vint felt the question should be answered, but he buttressed his opinion with a brief exegesis on the profession of landscape architecture as it related to national parks. Landscape architecture was still a new profession, he observed, one which attempted to offer "a practical solution to the problem at hand" but also considered "the element of beauty." And the element of beauty could only be attained in park development, Vint asserted, when the "congruity of parts gives harmonious form to the whole." National park plans would not be aesthetically

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[52]Horace Albright, "General Planning," draft memorandum, February, 1929, Papers of Horace M. Albright, Entry 17, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[53]Horace Albright, "Office Order, Re: Field Headquarters, National Park Service," n.d. [before May, 1929], Papers of Horace M. Albright, Entry 17, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

or otherwise successful if the landscape architect did no more than "embellish the work of another," specifically the civil engineer. If the landscape division continued to merely advise on the location surveys and contract specifications that the engineering division and the Bureau of Public Roads already had in hand, the landscape architects "could be little more than a nuisance."[54]

In his analysis of the role of landscape architecture in national parks, Vint was paraphrasing the elder Olmsted's justification of the landscape park as a work of fine art. His opinions perhaps had been shaped by his close contacts with Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr. By this time, the two landscape architects had worked together closely to resolve a number of contentious issues, especially at Yosemite Valley.[55] Vint also was no doubt also aided by the publication in 1928 of the first significant volume of the elder Olmsted's writings, edited by F.L. Olmsted, Jr., and Theodora Kimball.[56] But Vint also understood the potential application of Olmstedian theory and practice to the future management of federal scenic reservations: "The first work of the National Park Service is the protection and preservation of these landscapes [national parks]. Its second work is to make these areas accessible to the people that they might be used and enjoyed. What is the work of the Park Service but landscape work? What organization was ever given a nobler landscape problem?" The very essence of the Park Service's mandate from its inception, according to Vint, was essentially a landscape architectural project, typically referred to as "park development." Albright could put the engineers in charge of the project if he saw fit, but that would not alter the essential nature of the task that lay before the Park Service. In any case, Vint indicated that he had been patient over the last two years, and he wanted Albright to take decisive action soon. Vint advised that the engineering and landscape divisions be combined, and he did not hesitate to add that "if this is done, the Landscape should be dominant."[57] With his office now organized and with a new director in Washington, Thomas Vint asked for no less than a reorganization of design, planning, and construction supervision at the Park Service.

Frank Kittredge, confident in his close relationship with Albright, seemed genuinely mystified by Vint's sudden vehemence. Kittredge, in fact, had probably precipitated the entire sequence of events by asking Albright to draft a memorandum that would strengthen the position of the chief engineer. Now Kittredge just hoped that Albright would "permit the Field Headquarters organization to remain as it [was then] organized." In another letter to Arthur Demaray, Kittredge betrayed some anxiety over Vint's sudden "attack" and attempted to delay any further action, asking "if it would not be a good plan to let this entire matter of Field Headquarters Memorandum rest until next fall." Kittredge explained to Albright, rather disingenuously, that he was "surprised at the feelings expressed" in Vint's letter. He had felt "that all of us had been cooperating in fine shape and on a `give and take' basis." Kittredge assured the new director that he had "supported and assisted [Vint] in all his landscape architecture." All his engineers, he

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[54]The draft of Vint's letter to Albright, written in longhand, was 13 pages long. A copy is in the Thomas C. Vint Collection, Papers of Charles E. Peterson. Albright received a virtually unchanged typed version when he arrived in San Francisco that spring. Thomas Vint to Horace Albright, May 22, 1929, Papers of Horace M. Albright, Entry 17, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[55]A proposal for a scenic tramway to Glacier Point at Yosemite inspired a particularly long and thoughtful response from Vint in 1930. In his recommendation against the cablecar, he closely followed some of the arguments presented by Olmsted on the same subject. Similar issues arose in reference to proposals for ski lifts and cablecars at Paradise. Thomas Vint to Horace Albright, November 21, 1930, Thomas C. Vint Collection, Papers of Charles E. Peterson. See: Runte, Yosemite, 157.

[56]Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., and Theodora Kimball, Forty Years of Landscape Architecture: Central Park [1928] (Cambridge, MIT Press, 1973).

[57]Thomas Vint to Horace Albright, May 22, 1929, Papers of Horace M. Albright, Entry 17, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

continued in the same patronizing tone, were instructed that "landscaping . . . [was] vital to the parks." Nothing the engineer said, however, indicated any understanding of the points Vint was making about the larger issues of how planning should proceed in national parks.[58]

Although Albright does not appear to have taken any immediate or dramatic administrative steps, events at Mount Rainier and elsewhere soon indicated a shift in policy that effectively assured that park development would indeed be planned in the future "on a landscape basis." Events at Mount Rainier were critical at this time, in part simply because of the amount of construction undertaken in the park during the mid-1920s. In 1928, as the Paradise scenic loop controversy continued to build, four other road projects were either being surveyed or were under construction: the West Side Road, connecting the Nisqually Entrance to the Carbon River country; the Mowich Lake Road, a spur road leading to Mowich Lake in the northwest corner of the park; the Stevens Canyon Highway, which traversed the southern side of the mountain; and the Yakima Park Highway, the spur road on the east side of the mountain from the new state highway up to Yakima Park. As this ambitious development program proceeded, more controversies emerged. Vint and Ernest Davidson, who was assigned to Mount Rainier, had indeed been making "nuisances" of themselves. For the West Side Road project, for example, Vint had inspected the Bureau of Public Roads location survey in 1925. Accompanied by Asahel Curtis and the locating engineer, C.R. Short, he traveled the route by horseback to assess the impact of the proposed construction. In his report to Superintendent Tomlinson, Vint approved of the southern end of the proposed road but objected forcefully to the location of the northern section of the route. Short had recommended the road pass through the scenic Ipsut Pass, a difficult engineering feat that Vint felt would result in catastrophic (and unnecessary) damage to the area. The road location, he claimed, would destroy "one of the landscape views the Park Service was bringing people into the park to see," replacing it with "an extremely visible example of extravagant road construction."[59] Construction on the south end of the road soon began but funds for the disputed north end were diverted. That portion of the project, which would have connected the Nisqually and northwest entrances to the park, was delayed indefinitely, in part because of Vint's objections.

Forced into this type of antagonistic role, Vint and Davidson next became embroiled over the proposed Stevens Canyon route. Davidson and Short made the initial reconnaissance survey in 1926, and several more surveys of alternate routes followed over the next two years. By the fall of 1929, Superintendent Tomlinson, the Bureau of Public Roads, Davidson, and Vint had all agreed on a location for the road that carried it on a "low line" through Stevens Canyon. That October, Frank Kittredge arrived in the park and subsequently demanded a relocation that would put the road on a "high line" along Stevens Ridge, rather than in the canyon itself. The ridge route was longer and considerably more expensive than the canyon route. But Kittredge, and soon Tomlinson and others, anticipated it would be "a more spectacular scenic route" that would "offer more educational value" since it would bring motorists closer to the glaciers and other geologic features. It was just as clear, however, that "damage caused by construction would be much more noticeable," and that the higher road would be plagued by rock and snow slides when completed.[60] Ernest Davidson, who had become a strong advocate of landscape preservation in the park, reacted angrily to Kittredge's interference in 1929. The landscape architect held out against the superintendent and the chief engineer and demanded that the "low line" remain the approved location.

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[58]Frank Kittredge to Horace Albright, May 23, 1929; Frank Kittredge to Arthur Demaray, May 23, 1929; Frank Kittredge to Horace Albright, May 25, 1929, Papers of Horace M. Albright, Entry 17, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[59]Quoted in Richard H. Quin, "West Side Road" (Historic American Engineering Record No. WA-122, 1992), 4.

[60]Owen Tomlinson to Horace Albright, November 2, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

Vint backed his assistant and wrote to Albright and Arthur Demaray in Washington. Although he did not presume to be a judge of the purported "educational value" of the ridge route, he did feel that "spectacular" engineering that devastated the surrounding landscape would require further justification than Kittredge had provided. He also felt the scenic value of the canyon route had been greatly underestimated, and provided Albright with photographic studies (with the alignments inked in) to prove his point. His main objection, however, addressed his concern for the park resources themselves: "Every time a highway is moved uphill," he conjectured, "the effective and usable size of the park is decreased." Hikers and others would not make use of an area below a highway on a steep slope, "and that area" of the park, therefore, was "just lost."[61]

The matter was not completely resolved until 1931, when Albright traveled the canyon on horseback and personally inspected the options for the road's location. Afterwards the director unequivocally backed his landscape architects.[62] By that time, however, Vint had already succeeded in making his larger points about landscape planning to the Washington office. Reacting to Kittredge's interference at Mount Rainier in 1929, Arthur Demaray (who had advanced to "Senior Assistant Director") observed that Kittredge was "apparently determined to have a hand in these questions," an unfortunate circumstance since "Vint [had] a hard enough problem to get the Bureau [of Public Roads] engineers to accept the landscape viewpoint without having opposition on his hands from within our own organization." Demaray noted that Kittredge had engaged in similar interference at Crater Lake and asked that Albright "take some action defining the authority of the landscape and engineering divisions."[63] Other complaints had come in from the field at this time. J. Ross Eakin, then superintendent at Grand Canyon, wrote a personal letter to Albright complaining that "Mr. Kittredge assumes his ideas of landscape are better than those of Mr. Vint's." Summing up the situation, he continued, "I am keen for Kittredge as Chief Engineer and keen for Vint as Chief Landscape Architect. But I am not keen for Kittredge as Chief Landscape Architect, if you get what I mean."[64]

Events soon indicated that Albright did understand the situation. The organizational chart of the San Francisco field headquarters remained essentially unchanged in 1929, but Vint's authority in the planning process was reinforced as "general planning" became the required prerequisite and context for all park construction projects. As the authority of "park development plans" was enhanced, decisions and controversies were addressed at that level and therefore came under Vint's supervision; Kittredge increasingly was left to implement and supervise road and trail construction according to decisions that had been made through the planning process. Soon national parks became paradigms of regional planning technique during a time when circumstances often frustrated the success of regional planning elsewhere in the United States.

In the late 1920s the general plan for Mount Rainier, specifically, became the first and the most completely developed example of what soon became known as the Park Service "master planning" process. There were a number of reasons why the plan for this park assumed particular significance. The "development outline" for Mount Rainier was the most ambitious being planned for a national park at the

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[61]Thomas Vint to Horace Albright, December 21, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[62]Richard H. Quin, "Stevens Canyon Highway" (Historic American Engineering Record No. WA-123, 1992), 3-5.

[63]Arthur Demaray to Horace Albright, memorandum, November 5, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[64]J. Ross Eakin to Horace Albright, November 12, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

time. During the mid-1920s, Mount Rainier was just entering the most intense period of its development; many other national parks already had major lodges and other facilities planned or built by that time. At Mount Rainier, dedicated and diverse groups of local park advocates (from The Mountaineers to the Rainier National Park Advisory Board) had assured that every decision and policy was examined and debated. The controversies surrounding the Paradise scenic loop and the Stevens Canyon Highway, in particular, had forced Albright to reconsider Park Service planning policies and procedures. Similar controversies of course had erupted in other parks, but at Mount Rainier the debate revolved around the conception of park plan as a whole. The "round-the-mountain" route represented a compelling, but anachronistic, model for that plan. Its eventual rejection required not only the revision of a specific road or other project, but a broad reassessment of the goals of a national park master plan. If similar controversies regarding preservation versus use arose elsewhere in the park system at this time, at Mount Rainier the debate assumed a diagrammatic clarity that lent itself to the production of a model master plan.

Mount Rainier also benefited from a dedicated and capable superintendent, O.A. Tomlinson, who remained at the park throughout this period, turning down promotions in order to do so. And Vint's first and perhaps most trusted assistant, Ernest Davidson, also remained assigned to Mount Rainier throughout this time. In general, Mount Rainier was fortunate to have a dedicated and talented staff, a fact that Albright repeatedly mentioned in his park inspection reports. Ernest Davidson's influence was a particularly important factor in determining the general planning principals that emerged at the park. In 1940, Vint recognized that Davidson "was most sensitive to natural values" among the Park Service landscape architects, and was "our best man for the type of work that involves large natural areas."[65] When Davidson died unexpectedly in 1944, Vint eulogized him as "my oldest associate in landscape architectural work," one who possessed a "unique sense of the fitness of things man-made, and the necessity of sublimating them to the end of preserving great scenic areas in their natural state."[66]

It was Davidson's contribution to the master planning process at Mount Rainier, above all, that had earned Vint's approbation. But this contribution consisted of far more than Davidson's inspection of road locations and construction. The two landscape architects also worked together on a host of more detailed site development plans and on the design of many individual buildings and structures. All of the "developed areas" of Mount Rainier, in fact, were either designed or redesigned to become part of the master plan package that took shape in the late 1920s. At Longmire Springs, which became known as Longmire Village, Vint's and Davidson's plans called for new development to be moved away from the fragile meadow where the mineral springs themselves were located. After the National Park Inn burned in 1926, the stone enclosures around the springs and the old Elcaine Longmire cabin (1888) were all that remained of the original resort at the site. A nature trail called the "Trail of the Shadows" interpreted the area, stressing its natural beauty as well as its history as a resort.

Longmire Village itself was taking shape on the other side of the Nisqually Road, where the 1928 administration building served as the anchor for a new administrative area. The old administration building (1916) was moved to its present location in 1929 and remodeled as the park museum. The National Park Inn Annex, now called the National Park Inn, had been moved to its location in 1920. A simple comfort station was built in 1926, and a new service station was built in 1929. Together the buildings helped define the central plaza of the village, which like other park village plazas, provided a well defined arrival and gathering point. The principal public buildings at Longmire Village, with their

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[65]Thomas Vint to Newton Drury, July 6, 1940, Thomas C. Vint Collection, Papers of Charles E. Peterson.

[66]Thomas Vint to Harlean James, August 28, 1944, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

front doors opening onto the plaza, projected a strong civic presence on the space. But even the less imposing buildings, especially the service station, were remarkable for the quality of the design and attention to detail and siting.[67] Like other park village plazas, the plaza at Longmire eventually became a parking lot as well, since arriving motor vehicles inevitably assembled there. In this case, however, the park road did not terminate at the plaza, but actually moved through it in a wide curve. As they passed through on the Nisqually Road, motorists continuing past Longmire on to Paradise experienced a sweeping view of the Longmire plaza and the facade of the administration building with Eagle Peak (part of the Tatoosh Range) as a backdrop. Even for those who did not stop at Longmire, the plaza impressed a strong sense of arrival and civic responsibility.

Longmire Village, like other park villages, also was carefully zoned into civic, utility, and residential areas. The village plaza defined the center of the civic zone of the village. A utility area was designated nearby, and by 1927 functional sheds and garages began to be built in a simple, rectilinear arrangement that segregated daily maintenance and other activities from the more public areas of the village. The rectangular utility buildings were separated by wide, straight streets with no sidewalks or curbs. Sited along the banks of Nisqually River, the threat of flooding disqualified the relatively flat utility zone for other uses, and the area was physically and visually separated from other areas of the village by vegetation and by the utility buildings themselves. The area nevertheless retained direct access to the Nisqually Road and to the nearby administration building. The utility area also was convenient to the residential area, which was developed on rising ground to the north. The narrower, winding streets of the residential zone were laid out beginning in 1923, when the first wood frame bungalows were built. Daniel Hull provided the first typical bungalow designs, as well as plans for "duplex" residences of two units, both of which typically featured shingle siding and foundations of local stone. Access to the houses in the residential area generally was from the front (street) side, and no elaborate pedestrian system was proposed for this relatively small subdivision. More residences as well as separate garages were constructed through the 1920s and 1930s.

The residential area was separated from the utility area by the central street of the village, which led from the plaza to a "public auto-camp" on the other side of the Nisqually River. In 1924, a small suspension bridge was built to reach the campground site, which retained a relatively quiet and isolated atmosphere away from the rest of the village. In 1927, a community building was built at the campground to be a center for various meetings and entertainments for both visitors and employees. Designed by Vint and the landscape division, the log post-and-beam, two-story building featured slab siding and a massive, steeply pitched shake roof. The interior space was open, with log posts, beams, and trusses left exposed. Although many community buildings were built for campgrounds and park villages in the 1920s, the Longmire community building is perhaps the finest surviving example of the type.[68] Comfort stations, fireplaces, and the campground loop roads were added to the Longmire campground in the 1930s with the help of CCC labor.

Longmire Village typified Park Service village planning of the 1920s in other ways. The hierarchy of street sections, for example, included at least six distinct types: pedestrian paths; campground loops; narrow streets in the residential area; the wider, rectilinear streets of the utility area; the wide main street bisecting the village and leading to the campground; and Nisqually Road itself, which swept along the edge of the village, separating the mineral springs and wet meadow from the rest of the developed area.

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[67]The Longmire service station was made a National Historic Landmark for its architectural significance in 1987. Harrison, Architecture in the Parks, 269-283.

[68]The Longmire community building, with the administration building and the service station at Longmire, was made a National Historic Landmark for its architectural significance in 1987. Harrison, Architecture in the Parks, 269-283.

As in other park villages, planting and "landscape naturalization," much of it done by CCC labor in the 1930s, stressed native species transplanted from nearby locations and grouped by ecological associations in naturalized masses. And again, planting was used to reinforce the spatial organization of the site plan, never to obscure the definition of spaces or the facades of public buildings. The Park Service Rustic facade of the administration building, for example, was left mostly clear to project its strong presence on both pedestrians and motorists passing through the plaza. Site construction details and site furniture in the village, like the architecture of the administration building, responded to the regional context in the choice of materials. Round river boulders set as curbs along walkways and around planted areas, in particular, created a characteristic image. And like other park village plans, the plan for Longmire responded to the topography, views, and vegetation of the site, and preserved and exploited these characteristics to the greatest degree possible. As Hull had done for Grand Canyon, at Longmire Village Vint and Davidson were able to consolidate and expand an existing resort site by providing a town plan that embodied the highest professional standards.

Longmire Village, like other developed areas in the park, has retained remarkable integrity. Of 74 buildings in the village, only 16 have been significantly altered.[69] A recent rehabilitation of the village landscape and of the National Park Inn, however, resulted in a significant alteration of the historic plan. All parking for the village was relocated from the village plaza to an expanded parking lot on the other side of the National Park Inn, and the back of the hotel therefore became its front entrance. The plaza itself (now emptied of cars) was "pedestrianized" and heavily planted in a strategy of "revegetation," as at Yosemite Village. The major public space of the village has therefore been relocated from what was the central village plaza to the service side of the inn, which is where automobiles now arrive. This new arrival point lacks the dramatic views of Eagle Mountain and Mount Rainier that originally gave the plaza its powerful and unique character. Designed as a parking lot not a civic plaza, the space faces the backs of the buildings, the fronts of which line the old plaza. The facade of the administration building, which imbued the plaza with a strong civic presence, does not have a similar relationship to the new parking area, which is an unimposing space at best. Although Longmire Village retains its physical integrity, this alteration to its site plan compromises the original experience of the place. The plaza, although it remains a strong space, has been denied the role it once had as a central arrival and gathering place.

Although Longmire was the largest developed area in the park, perhaps the most significant park village at Mount Rainier was being planned for the opposite side of the park. Since 1923, when progress on the Naches Pass State Highway had reached the park's northeastern corner, Superintendent Tomlinson had advocated the construction of a 16-mile spur road (in part a reconstruction of the White River mining road) to enable motorists to reach a particularly scenic subalpine plateau on the rugged northeastern slopes of the mountain. Called Yakima Park, the plateau was a relatively large, flat area at an elevation of 6,400 feet. With stunning views of the massive glaciers on Mount Rainier's northern side, Tomlinson and others felt Yakima Park was one of the most scenic areas of Mount Rainier. The existing mining road, combined with the access of the new state highway, also made the Yakima Park region more accessible than similar areas in the park. With the completion of a new spur road, Tomlinson hoped that the new facilities at Yakima Park would become as great an attraction as those at Paradise Valley, and so ease the overcrowding there and at Longmire. The Bureau of Public Roads surveyed the new Yakima Park Highway in 1926 and construction began the next year. By 1928, Vint, Davidson, and Merel Sager were all working to assure that road construction did as little damage as possible to its immediate surroundings. That summer, Stephen Mather visited Yakima Park during his last tour of the national parks. Accompanied by H.A. Rhodes (of the Rainier National Park Company), Superintendent Tomlinson, and

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[69]Stephanie Toothman, National Register of Historic Places Nomination for Mount Rainier National Park, typed manuscript (1987). National Register nominations are available at the National Register of Historic Places, National Park Service, 800 North Capitol Street, Washington, DC.

Thomas Vint, Mather inspected what they all hoped would be an ideal new park village planned completely by the Park Service at a location that had no previous history of resort development.[70]

After visiting Mount Rainier early in the summer of 1929 (his first visit as director), Horace Albright was enthusiastic about the prospects for the development of Yakima Park. "I regard Yakima Park as a sensation," he wrote to Tomlinson, adding that he now favored pushing ahead the construction of the Stevens Canyon Highway (that would connect the Nisqually Road to the eastern regions of the park) over getting started on the disputed northern portion of the West Side Road. His reasons for this shift had to do, again, with an evolving diagram for the overall development of the park. The new director had formed "definite, but not yet conclusive ideas" of how the new village at Yakima Park would contribute to a revised plan for the park as a whole. Albright envisioned a loop tour that would begin from Seattle or Tacoma and arrive at Paradise Valley via the old Mountain Highway and the Nisqually Road. From there the loop would continue to Yakima Park along the proposed Stevens Canyon Highway and the Yakima Park Highway. After coming back down from Yakima Park, tourists could then exit the park at the northeastern corner and return to Puget Sound on the Naches Pass State Highway, which would take them back on a northern route through Enumclaw.

This new circulation diagram for the park made the completion of the West Side Road unnecessary and perhaps (like the proposed road across the north side of the park before it) undesirable; the new scenic loop described a much larger circle that passed through the park only on the southern and eastern slopes of the mountain. This new model for more limited automotive access within the park made the construction of the Stevens Canyon Highway a much higher priority than the completion of the West Side Road. It also implied that two of the proposed four new developed areas in the park, Spray Park and Sunset Park, would never be built, since they would have been made accessible only by the completion of the West Side Road. "I could not get enthusiastic about the plans for Spray Park," the director confessed, although he was now "quite enthusiastic about building a connection between Paradise Valley and Yakima Park."[71] With the completion of the West Side Road no longer a priority and the future of two new developed areas in question, Albright had further modified the "round-the-mountain" model, and he had again curtailed the total amount of development considered appropriate for the park. The revised scenic loop he described (the loop many park visitors travel today) suggested that the west side of the mountain, like the north side, would remain "wilderness."[72]

By 1929, Superintendent Tomlinson emphasized the urgency of completing visitor services, trails, and other facilities for Yakima Park before the fragile area was opened to the motoring public. The unprecedented opportunity to plan every aspect of a new park village stimulated park managers and planners; but the potential damage to an extraordinary scenic area was all the more apparent since Yakima Park at that point remained relatively undisturbed. The landscape architects and the park superintendent all knew that fragile volcanic soils and subalpine vegetation would quickly be destroyed unless human and automobile traffic were carefully controlled. In 1929, following a directive from Albright to complete plans for Yakima Park that year, Davidson labored intensively over the design for the park

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[70]Richard H. Quin, "Yakima Park Highway (White River Road)" (Historic American Engineering Record No. WA-126, 1992), 4-6. The history of the development of Yakima Park is presented as a case study in McClelland, Presenting Nature, 185-192.

[71]Horace Albright to Owen Tomlinson, July 18, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[72]By 1935, Ernest Davidson had convinced Vint and the new superintendent, Preston Macy, that the West Side Road should never be completed. Although the road had been considered somewhat superfluous since 1929, the official decision to abandon the project altogether indicated a turning point in attitudes towards park development. Quin, "West Side Road," 8-9.

village.[73] The landscape architect eventually produced at least six alternative plans for review by Vint, Tomlinson, and H.A. Rhodes. Vint later acknowledged that Davidson spent "a great deal of energy learning the ground" and gave "a great deal of study to the problems involved" in what was the first chance the landscape division had been given to design every aspect of a major developed area.[74]

The new park village needed to accommodate the concessioner's plans for a new lodge and cabin complex similar to the Paradise Lodge that also was being planned at this time. An extensive auto campground, trails, parking, and an administration building would all be required. Sewers, water, and electricity needed to be provided for the large crowds anticipated once the Yakima Park Highway was completed. Sites for the future construction of a hotel also were considered, although once the Depression struck, the concessioner would not be in a position to finance such a project. Thomas Vint had hoped to keep both auto camping and the concessioner's lodge and cabin complex discreetly sited at either end of the plateau, leaving the "park proper" (the large, central meadow) free of construction. It was soon clear, however, that Rhodes wanted room for an eventual complement of 600 tourist cabins, which would have to be grouped around the central lodge in order to be convenient to dining and other facilities. Only the "park proper" offered a site for such an extensive and consolidated grouping. The concessioner was willing, however, to site the complex on the northern side of the park, away from the edge of the plateau overlooking the White River Valley, an arrangement that would leave the views from the park towards the mountain (to the southwest) unimpaired. Davidson also argued that Shadow Lake, just west of the park itself, be designated a "sacred area," precluding any kind of development for that small and fragile feature of the subalpine landscape.[75] A second lake, Frozen Lake, was tapped as the water source for the village. During one of their site inspections, Tomlinson and Davidson sited the main automobile campground on high ground to the west of the lodge and cabin complex. At Albright's insistence, they had searched for a campground that would have views at least as dramatic as those enjoyed by visitors staying in the concessioner's cabins. The location they chose was more sheltered than the plateau below it, and had originally been considered as a future hotel location because of the views it offered. It also was close enough to the lodge complex to make use of the centralized services there.[76]

Planning continued through the summer and fall of 1929, as Vint, Tomlinson, and Rhodes reviewed and discussed Davidson's sketches of alternative plans. In addition, sanitary engineer Harry B. Hommon, from the Public Health Service, Paul H. Sceva, the assistant manager of the Rainier National Park Company, and many others also made site visits with Davidson to discuss the implications of various plan options.[77] By the fall, Albright instructed Vint to draw up "a complete set of development plans for Yakima Park" for his approval. The plans were to show all aspects of the proposed work, whether that work was to be carried out by the Park Service or the concessioner. The plans were also to include "all types of necessary development," including utilities. Tomlinson was instructed to prepare a supplementary budget estimate for completing the necessary work to have the area open for the 1931

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[73]Owen Tomlinson, "Matters Decided by Director Albright During his Inspection," memorandum, July 18, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[74]Thomas Vint to Owen Tomlinson, October 22, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[75]Ernest Davidson to Thomas Vint, July 16, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[76]Owen Tomlinson to Horace Albright, August 1, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[77]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1929 Annual Report, 1.

season.[78] Davidson drew up a site plan at one inch to 200 feet, with 25-foot contour intervals. (Topographic information was supplied by the Park Service engineering division.) The plan showed the Yakima Park Highway terminated by a large plaza, which inevitably became a parking lot, with the concessioner's lodge and Park Service administration building again facing directly onto this central arrival point. The buildings were located on the west and north sides of the central plaza, where they would not block the views. Vint noted that up to 3,000 cars were expected to arrive at Yakima on peak weekends, and that spur roads would be developed to take some of the traffic west of the "park proper." A short road therefore led to a second campground and picnic area above Shadow Lake, relieving the pressure on the Yakima plaza. Another spur road led to a powerhouse and concessioner utility area, also well out of the "park proper" to the west. A site above the concessioner's utility area was reserved for a potential hotel development.[79]

In the design of the Yakima administration building, Davidson departed from the precedents of the Yosemite and Longmire administration buildings. Davidson combed through 19th-century photographs at the Tacoma Historical Museum searching for an example of a "log blockhouse" of the type erected by "pioneers . . . of the locality." The landscape architect sketched an administration building based on his research, and A. Paul Brown drafted the final plans that winter in San Francisco. The result was the Yakima stockade group, a complex of three buildings and a small utility area built between 1930 and 1943. The group consisted of two "blockhouses," which housed rangers and offices, and a separate park museum building between them. The log post and beam structures were all two stories high, with the second story projecting slightly. The walls were of chinked white pine logs laid horizontally with saddle notches at the corners. A log stockade around the back of the group screened the Park Service utility area from view. With low, hipped roofs and modest stone foundations, the effect created by the group of three buildings differed substantially from earlier Park Service Rustic structures at Mount Rainier and elsewhere. Davidson's effort to create "local or historical interest" that would make the building "suited to its landscape environment," however, recalled the kind of design research that the Nussbaums put into the Pueblo architecture of the Mesa Verde administrative buildings.[80]

One wing of the concessioner's lodge for Yakima Park, Sunrise Lodge, was completed in 1931. It served as a cafeteria and support building for over 200 tourist cabins marshaled in straight rows on a flat area immediately behind it. Since the cabins were removed during World War II, Sunrise Lodge has served only day-tripping motorists; but the Rainier National Park Company was never again in a position to finish the lodge, which has remained a fragment of the original plan for tourist accommodations at the site. Just east of the lodge, Davidson designed a service station (along the lines of the Longmire service station), which also was completed in 1931.[81]

The plans for Yakima Park were quickly finalized in 1929, and soon became part of the overall, master plan for the park. Several conditions that had previously irritated park planners were noticeably absent

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[78]Horace Albright, "Mount Rainier National Park Matters," memorandum, October 1, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[79]Drawing number NP-R3019-D, Mount Rainier National Park, Cartographic Division, National Archives, Washington, DC; Thomas Vint to Owen Tomlinson, October 22, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[80]Quoted in Harrison, Architecture in the Parks, 335. Many of Davidson's observations on the development of Yakima Park were summarized in a 1933 report to Thomas Vint, which is excerpted in McClelland, Presenting Nature, 185-192. The Yakima Park stockade group was made a National Historic Landmark for its architectural significance in 1987.

[81]Thompson, Mount Rainier, 94-99.

from this process. Working directly with the superintendent, the concessioner, and the engineering division, Vint and Davidson presented plans, made revisions, and in general controlled the entire procedure (although the final decisions of course were not theirs). Vint and Davidson expressed strong reservations about the village plan as it was delineated early in 1930, but they had received cooperation from everyone involved and felt they reached successful compromise arrangements. Perhaps for the first time, the landscape division had managed to address the conflicting concerns and interests of all parties, and produce a plan, which if it completely satisfied none, avoided the piecemeal developments and resulting controversies that had plagued Paradise Valley and other favorite destinations in the national park system. As Davidson put it, "purely from a landscape viewpoint, the whole development might be classed as a failure since the area is far less attractive than it was before." But in the end, "the plan was adopted, followed, and to date [1933] has proven satisfactorily workable with a smaller amount of landscape damage to natural conditions than such development usually involves."[82] Thomas Vint was disappointed because he had not been able to keep the central area of the plateau free from development. The size of the Sunrise Lodge complex was "of such large scale" that it could not "be submerged sufficiently to preserve the original beauty of the park." Nevertheless, the chief landscape architect felt the plan "more nearly [fit] the requirements of all better than any plan yet proposed," and that was "all that [could] be expected of any plan."[83] If their concern for the delicate soils and fragile vegetation still haunted the planners, they appeared comforted by the fact that a sound precedent for landscape planning had been set.

Yakima Park opened as planned in 1931. The completion of the state highway over Chinook Pass the next year opened Mount Rainier to visitors from Yakima, Spokane, and Eastern Washington, and the number of visitors to Yakima Park grew proportionally. The park's boundaries were also extended east in 1931 (to the crest of the Cascades) adding 34,000 acres to the park and making Chinook Pass the new park entrance from the east. The portion of the Naches Pass State Highway running through the national park and adjacent national forests was rededicated as the Mather Memorial Parkway in a ceremony at Tipsoo Lake in 1932. Elsewhere in the park, Vint and Davidson were busy laying out and designing new entrance stations, the new Paradise Lodge, and various other small developed areas at scenic points all along the park road system. All of this activity was being drawn together, however, in a manner that indicated Vint's desire to see every aspect of a park's development "give harmonious form to the whole." Already by 1930, the "general development plans" being drawn up for parks consisted of two complementary parts, drawn at design and planning scales respectively. The first part included a series of design development "studies" for every developed area in a given park, drawn at scales from one inch to 20 feet to one inch to 200 feet. The second part consisted mainly of a topographic map of the entire park (supplied by the U.S. Geographical Survey) showing how the developed areas were linked by existing and proposed roads.[84]

During the years of Horace Albright's directorship between 1929 and 1933, the landscape division continued to grow in number and the general planning process continued to gain stature. By 1931, the San Francisco office had grown to fourteen landscape architects, and four more now worked in an Eastern field office under landscape architect Charles Peterson. About half of the staff spent the construction

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[82]Quoted in Harrison, Architecture in the Parks, 336, and McClelland, Presenting Nature, 189.

[83]Thomas Vint to Owen Tomlinson, October 22, 1929, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[84]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1931 Annual Report, 66; idem, 1932 Annual Report, 54.

season assigned to a specific park or parks.[85] That summer, Albright met with Thomas Vint and Frank Kittredge at the San Francisco field headquarters; there the director permanently settled the question of whether planning would proceed on "a landscape or an engineering basis." Since then, Albright insisted, there had been "the most perfect harmony in the San Francisco Office."[86] By the end of the year, the landscape division "embarked upon the largest scale of future planning yet undertaken." In 1932, Albright reported that Vint and his landscape architects had made "important progress . . . in the preparation of a master plan for each national park . . . [to] assure each park of a well worked out and properly coordinated plan of development." Albright noted that the engineering division had supplied "basic data" for the plans, but that the landscape division "exercised an increasing influence" on the location and design of roads, and on the design and review of all proposed park development.[87]

The term "master plan," and the policy that required its implementation, were officially promulgated at the superintendents' conference held in the spring of 1932 at Hot Springs, Arkansas. The Hot Springs conference was the first national conference held in almost three years and the first since Mather's death. At the conference, Albright described the history so far of the "comprehensive planning program" that he had initiated in 1925 at the Mesa Verde conference. Although the plans he had received since then were "worthwhile," he felt the planning they represented had not been "comprehensive." The situation in 1932 demanded a revitalized planning initiative. A year earlier, Congress had passed the Employment Stabilization Act in response to the worsening Depression. The act required all government bureaus to prepare six-year plans for needed construction work, so that the information would be available in the event that a public works spending program were enacted. More important even than this legal mandate, for Albright, was the Park Service's "own need for planning our activities." And planning, the director made clear to the officials gathered at Hot Springs, was a "function of architecture and landscape architecture primarily," although "engineering must be relied on for technical information." Therefore "the plans in the National Park Service should be coordinated with the Landscape Department; the origination of the plans for the national parks . . . should be its primary function."[88]

Albright had instructed Vint to bring along the Mount Rainier master plan (and other park master plans) as an example of exactly what he meant. Vint felt the Mount Rainier plan, at that time, was "practically in a form that we can call it a complete plan," making it the first complete master plan for a national park. For the purposes of the conference, Vint had taken Tomlinson's 1931 "park development outline" and bound it together with plans and maps drawn up by his division. The development outline was the superintendent's prioritized list of what work remained to be carried out in the park. It took the form of an inventory of "existing facilities" and "proposed facilities" for each developed area in the park, and included observations on policies and goals for the development of the park as a whole.[89] From that point

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[85]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1930 Annual Report, 186; idem, 1931 Annual Report, 129.

[86]"Minutes of the Twelfth Conference of National Park Executives held at Hot Springs National Park, April 3-8, 1932." Typed Manuscript, p. 93. National Park Service History Collection, Harpers Ferry Center, Harpers Ferry, West Virginia.

[87]Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1932 Annual Report, 27.

[88]"Minutes of the Twelfth Conference of National Park Executives," 92-93.

[89]The text was printed on long narrow sheets (eight and a half by 24 inches) that could be easily bound with the drawing sheets (typically 24 by 36 inches). "Minutes of the Twelfth Conference of National Park Executives," 96; "Mount Rainier National Park Development Outline, and Six-Year Advance Program," Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

on, the superintendents' "development outlines" and Vint's planning and design "studies" were combined to create what Albright officially designated at Hot Springs as "master plans" for every national park.[90]

By this time, Vint had considerably elaborated his planning procedure in other ways. The Mount Rainier plan he presented at Hot Springs (dated 1931) included a number of prints made from a photostat enlargement of a tracing of the U.S. Geological Survey map of the park. On each print of the map, one aspect of the park's complete development was delineated. One map showed the park's road system, another showed the trail system, and another showed the "fire control system" (basically a system of fire roads). Each was delineated as an independent circulation network; together they described an integrated system that met the total circulation needs of the park. This planning method was as old as the landscape park itself; Olmsted and Vaux had designed independent, overlaid systems of carriage, bridle, and pedestrian trails at Central Park. Another map in Vint's master plan showed the locations and relationship of all the "developed areas" at Mount Rainier, each of which received its own "design study" at a more detailed scale. "The sheets form a volume," Vint explained, "that will give an outline for the whole park development." Six copies of the "volume" were produced to be distributed to Washington, the park, and the San Francisco field headquarters; the copies sent out were rendered with pastels and colored pencils.[91]

Other maps in Vint's 1931 master plan "volumes" reflected more recent influences in landscape architecture and planning. If successful regional planning continued to be the exception rather than the rule for American metropolitan areas, it nevertheless attained ideal expressions through the planned development of national parks. Since Vint's master plans encompassed entire parks, they represented regional plans that incorporated a number of individual municipal plans (developed areas) together with plans for regional transportation, utilities, sewage, and other systems. Regional land-use zones also could be enforced as part of the park master plan. As part of Vint's 1931 master plan for Mount Rainier, the entire park was zoned into "wilderness," "research," "sacred," and "developed" areas. This typology of land-use zones had been elaborated through a heated debate over the implications of declaring a wilderness area in what was already a national park. Since 1926, Vint and Tomlinson had attempted to designate certain portions of Mount Rainier as wilderness to justify the curtailment of planned road development. The master plan strengthened this tactic; with a regional zoning plan in place that designated wilderness as a land use, road construction or other uses that constituted essentially a zoning variance could be rejected on that basis.

The meaning of the word "wilderness" in the context of Park Service master planning, however, was itself in flux. When Vint and Tomlinson used the term in 1926, they indicated that the region would remain roadless. The Forest Service had recently begun to designate wilderness areas with essentially the same definition. When other groups used the term, however, they often hoped for a total elimination of any sign of human presence, including the construction of trails, fire roads, or back-country ranger cabins. The minimum size and necessary extent of wilderness areas also was debated. In 1935 groups such as the Sierra Club and The Mountaineers were joined by the Wilderness Society, led by Robert Marshall, which pressed for the adoption of strict regulations for areas within national forests and parks to be designated as

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[90]Conrad Wirth, who joined the Park Service as a landscape architect in 1931 and went on to become director in 1951, recalled that "the master plan had its origin at Mount Rainier in the late 1920s." Retelling events as described to him by Superintendent Tomlinson, Wirth writes in his memoirs that Horace Albright asked Vint to draw up "master plans" for all the parks based on the plans that drawn up for Mount Rainier at that time. "The master plan concept," Wirth observes, "was one of Tom Vint's finest contributions to the National Park System." Conrad L. Wirth, Parks, Politics, and the People (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1980), 59-60, 62.

[91]"Minutes of the Twelfth Conference of National Park Executives," 96. The National Archives Cartographic Division in Washington, DC, conserves master plans dating between 1931 and 1941 for over 100 national parks, monuments, battlefields and historic sites.

wilderness. In 1930, Marshall had observed that opening the country's few remaining wilderness areas to automobiles in order to allow more people to enjoy them was "as irrational as contending that because more people enjoy bathing than art exhibits . . . we should change our picture galleries into swimming pools."[92] Within the Park Service as well, scientists and educators argued that certain portions of every park should remain absolutely undisturbed--even by back country hikers--to retain an area where scientists could find "things in a normal, natural condition for study." At the 1932 Hot Springs conference, Harold C. Bryant, the assistant director for research and education, felt that "most of us subscribe to the idea of setting aside a few specially fine biological units just to save for the future." But this definition of wilderness would mean that only certain limited areas of a park could be so designated; obviously existing trail systems already precluded most of Mount Rainier, for example, from being eligible. Horace Albright, who often repeated that over 90 percent of every national park would remain "everlasting wilderness," could not abide a definition of the word that completely excluded human beings. Therefore another land-use category was advanced, the "research area," which implied a complete restriction of all human activities and access. Still another land-use category was needed, however, for smaller areas that often were accessible by car, but nevertheless needed total protection from any form of development. "Sacred areas" were defined as usually limited zones around major attractions (such as Old Faithful) that precluded any construction or even access. "Wilderness," therefore, as defined by Albright and Vint, was simply "the rest of the park": all areas that were not accessible by car but that did allow trails, fire roads, and back country use.[93]

If all three designations suggested types of wilderness, the "research areas" suggested, as Bryant put it, "sanctuaries within sanctuaries."[94] This idea would remain controversial throughout the 1930s. The 1931 Mount Rainier master plan designated the rugged north slopes of the mountain as a "research area," and other master plans similarly indicated that their most remote and rugged regions had been reserved for scientific purposes. There is little indication of how much practical effect this had on everyday park management, but superintendents, including Tomlinson, were soon on record resisting "research" designations that limited their ability to fight fires or extend trail systems in large areas of their parks. In 1936, for example, Tomlinson objected to the research area designation for the northern slopes of Mount Rainier on the basis that it implied that the rest of the park was "open to unlimited development." This was untrue and the superintendent knew it; the assertion indicated, however, that by that time the research area designation had lost much of its official backing.[95]

In 1938, Vint attempted to clarify his use of wilderness land-use zoning in park master plans. The landscape architect (now "chief planner" of the Park Service) noted that some definitions of wilderness permitted no use, or even access, by human beings. If parks were merely wilderness, by this definition, Vint observed that his job would be considerably simplified: "The development plan could be limited to the construction of an effective barrier around the boundary. The administration would not need to go

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[92]Robert Marshall's 1930 article "The Problem of Wilderness" was published in Scientific Monthly 30 (1930); it is excerpted in Roderick Nash, ed., The American Environment: Readings in the History of Conservation (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1968), 121-126. Robert Marshall was a natural scientist, former Forest Service employee, and private wilderness advocate. Robert B. Marshall was the great geographer who served as "general superintendent" of national parks in 1915-16.

[93]"Minutes of the Twelfth Conference of National Park Executives," 97-99. All three designations had been used and defined in various ways over the previous three years. At Hot Springs, Vint settled on the definitions described here.

[94]"Minutes of the Twelfth Conference of National Park Executives," 98.

[95]Lowell Sumner to Victor Cahalane, December 1, 1936, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

beyond an adequate control to prevent trespass." Although he felt that "the growth of a protective attitude toward wilderness values" had resulted in tremendous support for national parks (particularly since 1929), his mandate "included the words `for the benefit and enjoyment of the people.'" The definition of "wilderness" had been debated since the Hot Springs conference, he continued, but he felt the issue needed a new approach. "Rather than approach the problem from the angle of setting aside wilderness areas within the national parks," he suggested, "we must approach it from the other direction--that is we must restrict the limits of developed areas and apply the protection that would be given to the wilderness area to all the area within the boundaries of the park that is not a developed area."[96] Whether this is seen as the triumph or the defeat of wilderness designation within national parks, it essentially describes how the word has been used in the context of park planning since that point.

As a planning document, the master plan was not the direct basis for any construction activity. Even the more detailed (one inch to 20 feet) plan drawings for developed areas, such as Longmire or Paradise, only served as the guidelines for the production of detailed construction documents after projects had been funded. The design and planning process Vint described at Hot Springs in 1932, however, became the basis for the design and planning activities of the Park Service for decades to come. To some degree, it remains the basis of landscape architectural planning for national parks to this day.

The Mount Rainier master plan, for many reasons, was the prototype that guided the plans drawn up for other parks in the 1930s. Throughout this period, in fact, the Mount Rainier Plan remained the most fully developed example of the master planning process.[97] This resulted from a unique set of circumstances at the park. The extensive program of development for the park in the mid-1920s, the dedication of a talented staff, and the controversies of preservation versus use that emerged at Mount Rainier all contributed to successful innovations in the master planning process. Mount Rainier became the showcase of how the landscape division could produce master plans that would better preserve parks while addressing the needs of all the park's users and constituencies.

Today the road system, trail system, and developed areas of Mount Rainier all retain extraordinary integrity to the period during which the master plan for the park was initiated and developed. Through the largesse of the New Deal programs, much of the ambitious program of park development at Mount Rainier was completed in the 1930s. CCC labor again was employed in "landscape naturalization" and "roadside improvement" in developed areas all over the park. Up to six CCC camps were active in the park, and two resident landscape architects assisted Ernest Davidson in planning and directing the recruits' work.[98] Trailside structures, park entrances, and new utility lines were built by the CCC. Campgrounds were expanded and new minor developed areas were developed. The stockade group at Yakima Park, the utility, residential, and camping areas at Longmire, and many other park facilities were

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[96]Thomas C. Vint, "Wilderness Areas: Development of National Parks for Conservation," American Planning and Civic Annual, Harlean James, ed. (Washington, DC: American Planning and Civic Association, 1938), 69-71.

[97]When Professor Norman Newton of the Harvard Graduate School of Design requested a Park Service master plan for the Department of Landscape Architecture's records in 1940, he was sent a plan for Mount Rainier, which Herbert Evison described as "more inclusive" than other plans. Newton replied that the plan indeed covered "the possibilities of progressive indication...as thoroughly as any Master Plan I can recall." Herbert Evison to Norman Newton, December 12, 1940; Norman Newton to Herbert Evison, December 17, 1940, Mount Rainier National Park, Central Classified Files, Entry 7, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC.

[98]Beginning in 1934, Davidson was assisted by landscape architects Russel L. McCown and Halsey A. Davidson. With engineers C.E. Drysdale, R.D. Waterhouse, and Henry J. Cremer, these professionals were "detached technicians," directly supervised by Superintendent Tomlinson. Together they oversaw all CCC activities in the park. "Final Reports, ECW Activities," Mount Rainier National Park, Narrative Reports Concerning ECW (CCC) Projects in National Park Service Areas, Entry 42, RG 79, National Archives, Washington, DC. See also: McClelland, Presenting Nature, 206-210.

all completed through New Deal programs. The park road system--now abbreviated from the original "round-the-mountain" model--was almost completely finished, although portions of the Stevens Canyon Highway would only be completed after World War II. The final decision not to pursue the completion of the West Side Road in 1935 left that long spur road as a permanent monument to the evolving sense of how much development was appropriate for a 20th-century landscape park.

As a whole, the developed areas, road system, and historic trails of Mount Rainier constitute a more complete and uncompromised picture of Park Service master planning of the 1920s and 1930s than is available (as a complete collection) in any other national park. In addition, Mount Rainier is where that historic park planning process was first fully elaborated. The integrity of the park's developed areas, combined with the historic significance of the planning process they represent, has led to the delineation of a comprehensive NHL District that effectively includes all the historic developed areas in the park. The portion of Paradise (the site of the 1930s Paradise Lodge) that was redeveloped as the Scoop Jackson visitor center in the 1960s is not part of the historic district. Overall, however, out of 113 buildings in the NHL District, 95 retain historic integrity, and out of 72 other structures and objects described in the district, 60 retain integrity. The period of significance of the district extends from the beginning of federally sponsored construction on the Nisqually Road in 1904, to the delayed completion of the Stevens Canyon Highway (the last portion of the park road system) in 1957.

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Previous documentation on file (NPS):
___ Preliminary Determination of Individual Listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested.
_X_ Previously Listed in the National Register.
___ Previously Determined Eligible by the National Register.
___ Designated a National Historic Landmark.
___ Recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey: #_____
_X_ Recorded by Historic American Engineering Record: #_WA-35_

Primary Location of Additional Data:
___ State Historic Preservation Office
___ Other State Agency
_X_ Federal Agency
___ Local Government
___ University
___ Other (Specify Repository)

10. GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

Acreage of Property: 1362 acres approximately

UTM References:	Zone	Easting Northing		Zone	Easting Northing
A	10	582600 5766720	**B**	10	584080 5176920
C	10	587400 5176280	**D**	10	589280 5175680
E	10	590440 5177760	**F**	10	590880 5178320
G	10	592400 5179720	**H**	10	593080 5180600
I	10	592600 5180880	**J**	10	593240 5181320
K	10	594640 5181320	**L**	10	594000 5180200
M	10	595720 5180720	**N**	10	596320 5181160
O	10	596040 5180040	**P**	10	599680 5179480
Q	10	599200 5180880	**R**	10	604240 5179800
S	10	605960 5179800	**T**	10	607280 5173520
U	10	609040 5177840	**V**	10	609640 5178600
W	10	610080 5179320	**X**	10	610280 5178720
Y	10	609440 5176240	**Z**	10	608800 5174680
AA	10	610520 5181880	**BB**	10	610200 5185200
CC	10	613000 5187240	**DD**	10	613360 5189840
EE	10	611280 5191240	**FF**	10	612680 5191000
GG	10	611600 5191400	**HH**	10	613200 5191800
II	10	611400 5192600	**JJ**	10	611560 5196800
KK	10	611960 5200800	**LL**	10	611400 5203600
MM	10	610160 5195080	**NN**	10	605960 5193440
OO	10	605280 5194600	**PP**	10	606960 5195040
QQ	10	607880 5195920	**RR**	10	609000 5197080
SS	10	605240 5196080	**TT**	10	607600 5196800
UU	10	605240 5196560	**VV**	NONE	
WW	10	604000 5196280	**XX**	10	582280 5204960
YY	10	587760 5204680	**ZZ**	10	588880 5203120
AAA	10	582480 5197400	**BBB**	10	584320 5198960
CCC	10	585920 5199800	**DDD**	10	585320 5198600
EEE	NONE		**FFF**	10	602240 5190880
GGG	10	603280 5189920	**HHH**	10	603840 5186520
III	10	605880 5184080	**JJJ**	10	606520 5181080
KKK	10	604240 5179760	**LLL**	10	601200 5179760
MMM	10	597560 5180240	**NNN**	10	592520 5180000
OOO	10	591000 5179480	**PPP**	10	590640 5181680
QQQ	10	588480 5182880	**RRR**	10	588600 5185760
SSS	10	586680 5187000	**TTT**	NONE	
UUU	10	586520 5198160	**VVV**	10	590040 5196880
WWW	10	594780 5195960	**XXX**	10	600200 5196440
YYY	10	601640 5196880	**ZZZ**	10	602880 5195440
A1	10	591200 5177680	**A2**	10	590620 5176860
A3	10	590620 5177420	**A4**	10	590840 5177600
A5	10	590420 5177680	**A6**	10	590620 5178260
B1	10	597480 5184240	**B2**	10	598220 5182680
B3	10	596680 5180840	**B4**	10	596080 5180840

B5	10	596660 5181400	**B6**	10	596420 5181420
B7	10	596060 5182020			
C1	10	603240 5196480	**C2**	10	604000 5196240
C3	10	603460 5196040	**C4**	10	602600 5196480
D1	10	596640 5187420	**E1**	10	605040 5205280
F1	10	600840 5198440	**G1**	10	602220 5190840
H1	10	603820 5186460	**I1**	10	612200 5185280
J1	10	616640 5179800	**K1**	10	588600 5182660
L1	10	583800 5182460	**M1**	10	582860 5182620
N1	10	583620 5187240	**O1**	10	583880 5192460
P1	10	584240 5196040	**Q1**	10	586640 5198180
R1	10	588840 5203060	**S1**	10	585080 5200820
T1	10	603280 5195040			

Verbal Boundary Description:

The Mount Rainier NHL District is a discontiguous district with a contiguous core that follows the park road system (including the Mowich Lake and Carbon River Roads), creating a corridor 60 feet wide (30 feet from the centerline of the roads in either direction) and incorporating all the historic structures associated with road construction, including ditches, swales, culverts, and retaining walls. Where masonry guardwalls, pavement, or other road construction extends beyond the 60-foot corridor, the district expands in such a way that the boundaries are 10 feet beyond any such construction. The boundaries of the contiguous district are continued along the Wonderland Trail along a 10-foot wide corridor (measured five feet from the centerline in either direction). The boundaries of the district widen at historic developed areas as follows.

At the Nisqually Entrance, the district is delineated by an 800-foot square, one side of which is on the park boundary, centered on the entrance arch.

From the southern approach to Longmire Village on the Nisqually Road, the boundary line follows the south side of the road (30 feet from the centerline), then turns to follow the centerline of the parking lot behind the National Park Inn, then turns to meet the utility road (cul-de-sac), which it follows to the Nisqually River Suspension Bridge. The line goes over the bridge on its southern edge, and follows the campground road (30 feet from the centerline), and encompasses the outer campground loop and the Community Building (60 feet from the centerline and from the building), returning to the bridge and crossing it on its northern edge. The line then follows the outer edge of the residential area, 30 feet from the backs of lots L-120 to L-132, meeting the Nisqually Road, again 30 feet from the centerline. The northwestern boundary of the developed area follows the line on the other side of the Nisqually Road, leaving it at the intersection of the road and a trail up to The Ramparts, then in a southwest direction along the base of The Ramparts so as to include the Longmire Meadow, then returning to the road south of the meadow. (See accompanying plans for boundaries of individual developed areas within the NHL District, and for the NHL District overall.)

At Paradise, the NHL District boundary line follows the eastern side of the Stevens Canyon Highway (30 feet from the centerline) at Inspiration Point, and continues up the Nisqually Road (the wrong way up the one-way loop). At the 4th Crossing Trail, the line turns up to meet the Skyline Trail, which it follows (five feet from the centerline) counterclockwise to the Glacier Vista Trail, which it follows (five feet from the centerline), returning to the Skyline Trail and back down to the Paradise parking lot. The boundary line crosses the parking lot at its entrance, and proceeds down the Lakes Trail (five feet from the centerline), rejoining the Nisqually Road (30 feet from the centerline).

The boundary of the Yakima Park portion of the NHL District follows the Yakima Park Highway (30 feet from the centerline) widening to encompass the Service Station and the picnic area (30 feet from the

building and from the centerline of the picnic area loop road), following the picnic area road, encompassing the Stockade Group (30 feet from all resources associated with that group), extends up the spur road to the powerhouse and around the powerhouse (30 feet from the centerline and 30 feet from the building), then follows the trail to the overlook structure south of the plaza (five feet from the centerline), goes around the overlook structure (10 feet from all associated resources), returns to the plaza along the trail back to the plaza (five feet from the centerline), and follows the plaza (30 feet from the curb), from there returning to the road (30 feet from the centerline).

At the White River entrance, the boundary line of the NHL District follows the Yakima Highway (30 feet from the centerline in either direction), and widens twice to incorporate four historic buildings. At the Mess Hall and Dormitory (CB83), the district is defined by a line drawn parallel to the NE side of the building, 30 from the foundation, extending SE back to the park road. A line parallel to the NW side of the building, also 30 feet from the foundation, also extends back (SW) to the park road. At the Ranger Station, the district expands from the park road, 30 feet from the foundation of the Ranger Station, and proceeds SW along a line parallel to the NW side of the building, 30 feet from the foundation. At a point 30 feet from the NW corner of the Women's Comfort Station (CB82), the boundary turns back 90 degrees, and rejoins the continuous district along the park road.

The Christine Falls developed area includes two parking areas on the side of the road, a paved trail, and an overlook that are associated with the Christine Falls Bridge on the Nisqually Road. The boundaries of the NHL District widen to include the parking areas, 10 feet from all pavement and masonry construction. The boundary follows the path to the scenic overlook (five feet from the centerline and includes the overlook area (10 feet from all associated construction).

The Narada Falls developed area includes the roadside overlook and retaining wall, the trail to the comfort station, the bridge over the Nisqually River (closed to automobile traffic) the comfort station, and the paved trail and overlook below. The boundaries of the NHL District widen to include the parking area, 10 feet from all pavement and masonry construction. The boundary follows the path to the scenic overlook (five feet from the centerline and includes the overlook area (10 feet from all associated construction). The boundaries of the NHL District also follow the old road, 30 feet from the centerline in either direction, to the end its paved portion at the (non-contributing) storage building. At the comfort station, the boundary defined by lines parallel to back and side building foundations, 30 feet away.

The discontiguous portions of the NHL District are: Camp Muir, 11 backcountry patrol cabins and trail shelters, and four fire lookouts. At Camp Muir, on the north the area boundary is the Cowlitz Cleaver; on the south, the edge of the Muir Snowfield; on the east, a north-south line 100 feet east of the public shelter; on the west, a north-south line 100 feet west of the Guide Shelter. At other backcountry structures, the NHL District boundaries are defined by lines parallel to the foundations of buildings and structures, 30 feet away from them in each direction.

Boundary Justification:

The 1991 National Register multiple resource nomination described separate districts and individual buildings. The NHL District, however, includes all the historic development in the park that retains historic integrity. The justifications for all boundaries are the master plan drawings produced throughout the 1930s by the landscape architectural divisions of the Park Service. These plans were based on a planning process that treated the entire park as a unified whole, not fragments of development. Since the significance of this NHL District depends on the history of Park Service master planning represented by the developed areas of Mount Rainier, the use of a discontiguous NHL District is justified and necessary.

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