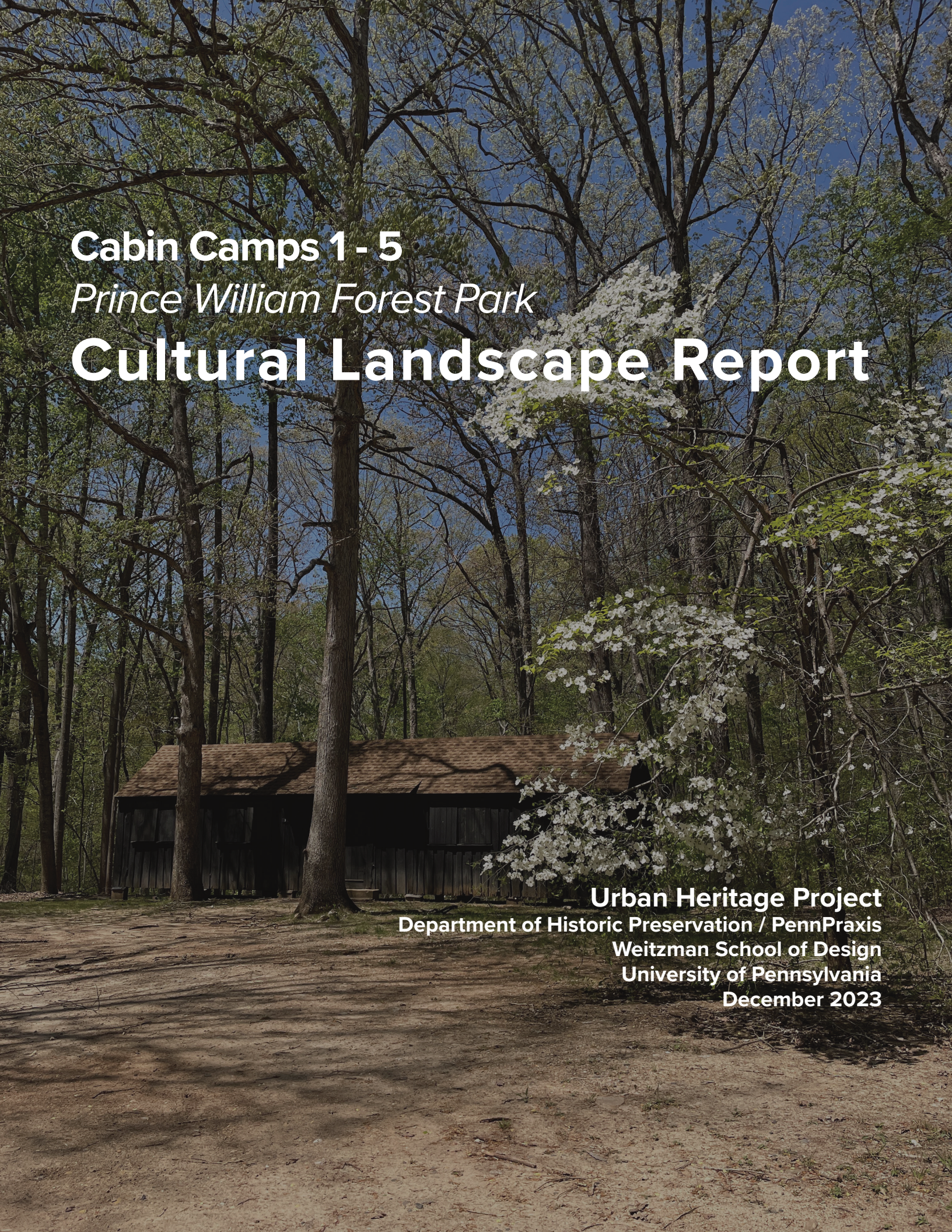

Cabin Camps 1 - 5

Prince William Forest Park

Cultural Landscape Report

Urban Heritage Project
Department of Historic Preservation / PennPraxis
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Figure 1: Cabin Camp 4 campfire circle, April 2022 (Shinton 2022)

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Foreword

We are pleased to make available this Cultural Landscape Report for the five cabin camps in Prince William Forest Park. This is a document that contributes to ongoing efforts to provide comprehensive documentation and guidance for the treatment of historic resources at Prince William Forest Park. It builds upon previous historical studies, including but not limited to the 2012 National Register Nomination update, Administrative History, and cabin camp Cultural Landscape Inventory.

A number of individuals contributed to the successful completion of this work, but I would particularly like to thank the team from the University of Pennsylvania, who were thorough in their historical research, conscientious in including a wide range of stakeholder voices, methodical in their examinations of existing conditions, and clear in the presentation of their report. I would also like to thank Julie McGilvray, Program Manager of Preservation Services and Regional Historical Landscape Architect, and Angelina Ribeiro Jones, Cultural Landscape Architect, National Capital Region, who provided overall coordination and direction of the project, and the Prince William Forest Park staff that assisted UPenn with priorities, research, and review. The final product benefited greatly from input from several of our stakeholders, including Family and Child Services alumni and NatureBridge, who took the time to provide thoughtful feedback.

We hope that this report will prove valuable to the staff of Prince William Forest Park, other users and stakeholders, and members of the public to guide our continuous effort to manage, treat, understand, and interpret these unique and significant cultural landscapes.

George Liffert

Superintendent

Prince William Forest Park

National Park Service

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Cabin Camps 1-5 are located within Prince William Forest Park in Prince William County, Virginia. The five cabin camps within this CLR's study area are component landscapes of the larger park. The cabin camps have been documented several times at the federal and state levels as individual camp landscapes and as part of the broader park. Camps 1, 2, 3, and 4 are listed in the Virginia Historic Register and the National Register of Historic Places; Cabin Camp 5 is not individually listed. All five camps are the subject of ongoing Cultural Landscape Inventories (CLIs).

This Cultural Landscape Report recommends a period of significance of 1935-1969 for all five cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park. The period of significance begins with the groundbreaking for Camps 1 and 2 in 1935, and ends in 1969, when the last major changes to Camp 5 concluded. This period recognizes the significance of the cabin camps in the decades after their initial construction, continuing uninterrupted through several successive (and sometimes overlapping) events. This period of significance recognizes modern changes under Mission 66 and later campaigns as essential to preserving the camps' original mission and ensuring their continued use over time.

The cabin camps were constructed as part of Chopawamsic Recreation Demonstration Area (RDA), a model for other New Deal-era RDA projects throughout the United States based on its design and implementation as a segregated landscape. When creating Chopawamsic, the Department of the Interior and the National Park Service (NPS) agreed to perpetuate segregationist policies according to state and local laws. This segregationist approach was inscribed in the landscape when the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) constructed separate entrances and access roads for white and Black campers. NPS planners also arranged the camps so that they would be divided by race according to different watersheds.

Although more than half of the cabin camps at Chopawamsic barred Black campers, the RDA was also the first RDA—and indeed, the first NPS unit in the South—to provide Black campers with overnight lodging facilities. The cabin camps were among the few national destinations on large-scale public lands that afforded Black campers direct access to the outdoors.

The camps also served as a Rustic Style prototype for group camping under several successive federal programs centered on recreational development. In first implementing the Rustic Style at the cabin camps in the 1930s, the CCC focused on a reverence for existing landscape features and a preference for construction that blended well with the natural environment, avoided straight lines, and enhanced natural scenery. These design strategies were further developed during the National Park Service's Mission 66 and Parkscape USA programs, which followed the tenets of the Rustic Style while adapting limited facilities for modern conveniences and needs. As such, the camps were shaped by some of the most significant federal programs that have transformed public parkland in the 20th century.

The cabin camps also derive significance from their role during World War II as camps and training facilities for the Office of Strategic Services (OSS). Beginning in 1942, the OSS used much of Chopawamsic for training agents in the arts of spy craft and intelligence.

The cultural landscape exhibits 11 of the 13 landscape characteristics defined by the National Park Service, including:

- Natural Systems and Features
- Land Use
- Topography
- Spatial Organization
- Views and Vistas
- Cultural Traditions
- Buildings and Structures
- Circulation
- Constructed Water Features
- Vegetation
- Small-Scale Features

All five cabin camps retain their overall integrity with respect to the period of significance, including Camp 5; this CLR disagrees with previous documentation efforts in which that camp was considered lacking in integrity. Cabin Camp 5 was modified during the Mission 66 period, most notably with respect to cluster arrangement. However, changes to that camp's design were in keeping with trends in camp management that accommodated modern needs, shifting away from group use and towards day use and year-round rentals. The alterations helped sustain the continued recreational use of the park's cabin camps.

Across the landscape characteristics, the camps' vegetation and cluster arrangement exhibit the most significant impacts to integrity. All five camps feature diminished vegetation integrity due to aggressive maintenance practices and a lack of successional plantings. This has changed the historic character of the landscape, making the camps increasingly more open, dominated by lawns, and lacking in ornamental plantings. These effects (of lost ornamental plantings, canopy loss, and lack of transitional vegetation) can be reversed. Therefore, pending corrective action, the cabin camps will maintain their significance and integrity.

The treatment recommendations of this CLR are not exhaustive; they are organized in five parts: a statement of desired landscape character; schematic diagrams of desired landscape character; overarching treatment goals; physical treatment recommendations according to each of the extant landscape characteristics; and guidance with respect to policies and planning for the cabin camps' future.

This CLR recommends rehabilitation as the overall treatment approach. Rehabilitation is the recommended primary treatment for the cabin camp cultural landscapes. This approach allows for the necessary flexibility to preserve the resources and enhance the historic character of the camps, while accommodating current site conditions and meeting the objectives outlined in the treatment philosophy.

The treatment goals outlined in the report should serve as the overarching objectives of any future treatment at the cabin camps. The overall treatment goals are:

1. **Preserve and enhance the historic rustic character of the cabin camps.**
2. **Re-establish vegetative design intent, establish a successional canopy, and preserve native and planted flora.**
3. **Mitigate and prevent erosion and runoff.**
4. **Limit staff and construction vehicles within camp settings.**
5. **Rehabilitate historic buildings and structures, allowing for limited modern amenities on the interior while preserving the historic exteriors.**
6. **Increase and improve accessibility.**
7. **Re-establish viable use of the lakes.**

The treatment section includes treatment tasks organized by landscape characteristics, offering preliminary guidance on achieving the treatment goals. Finally, this section is followed with recommendations for further research, policy changes, and other management changes for the cabin camps.

INTRODUCTION

Cabin Camps 1 – 5 are located within Prince William Forest Park (PRWI), a unit of the National Park Service (NPS). The goal of the Prince William Forest Park Cabin Camps Cultural Landscape Report (CLR) is to help the NPS develop an informed and consistent approach to managing change within the study area. This project builds on previous documentation and preservation efforts and offers holistic, coordinated management strategies, in order to ensure the long-term preservation of the cabin camps as significant landscapes. The project began with a planning meeting in March 2022, and this final report was presented in 2023.

The five cabin camps are component landscapes of Prince William Forest Park, which is located in Prince William County, Virginia. The camps are distributed throughout the park: Camps 1 and 4 are located in the northeast corner of the park, accessible via Pleasant Road; Camp 3 is located in the southeast section of the park, accessible via Scenic Drive; and Camps 2 and 5 are located in the southwest area of the park, accessible via Mawavi Road. All five camps are managed by the National Park Service. The study boundaries for this project were discontiguous, encompassing each of the five camps (including all camp entrances, but not their access roads) and portions of their associated lakes/beaches, where appropriate. Refer to the map on page 18 for the study area boundaries.

Prince William Forest Park was initially established in the 1930s as the Chopawamsic Recreation Demonstration Area (RDA), as part of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal programs. Because of its proximity to the nation's capital, Chopawamsic became a model for other RDAs to follow, using the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) work force to build five rustic group cabin camps between 1935 and 1939. (The camps are known as Cabin Camps 1-5 today.) Laborers used local materials to construct camp buildings and structures, a network of roads and trails, and constructed lakes to encourage recreational use.

Segregationist policies penetrated nearly all aspects of the camps' design, construction, and use: planners sited the camps according to different watersheds, to avoid Black and white campers using the same water sources; architects designed and arranged the camp buildings based on segregationist principles; and the camps' use (until the 1950s) was segregated by race.[1] Throughout its tenure as an RDA, and in the early years as a park within the National Park Service system, Prince William Forest Park and its cabin camps were significant for their role in modeling the racial segregation of federal recreational landscapes.

From 1942 to 1945, the camps transitioned to military use during World War II, as the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) established training facilities at Chopawamsic. The camps were closed to the public during that period, as the OSS made use of the existing camps and added its own facilities (most of which were torn down after the war) for its own operations. By the summer of 1946, the military had ceded the camps, and recreational use resumed. The RDA was renamed Prince William Forest Park in 1948. Significant events in subsequent decades include the alterations made as part of the Mission 66 and Parkscape USA programs.

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THIS CULTURAL LANDSCAPE REPORT

National Park Service CLRs are the primary tool to inform long-term management decisions regarding cultural landscapes. The CLR documents the history and existing conditions of the cultural landscape, evaluates its significance according to National Register of Historic Places program standards, and provides design and management recommendations for the property. The CLR is part of the park's planning process and is a fundamental tool for integrating information and determining relationships between the cultural landscape and other resource types, in addition to historic district objectives.

The CLR's primary goal is to preserve, restore, or rehabilitate the historic character of the cultural landscape, while providing for opportunities to enhance facilities maintenance, resource management, and interpretive opportunities within the landscape. The CLR is the primary planning document for the treatment of a cultural landscape and provides site managers with a comprehensive understanding of the physical evolution of the cultural landscape, its current condition, and guidance for the future landscape management.

The CLR scope includes identifying cultural landscape significance and current condition, and developing treatment strategies to preserve, restore, and rehabilitate resources within the cultural landscape.

This CLR addresses the five cabin camps as a whole, rather than as individual landscapes. Thus, the evaluation of significance, physical history, analysis and evaluation of significant features, and treatment recommendations are all synthesized across the five camps.

REPORT METHODOLOGY

A thorough investigation and evaluation of the camps has been conducted using the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties, with Guidelines for the Treatment of Cultural Landscapes* and the *NPS Guide to Cultural Landscape Reports: Contents, Process, and Techniques*. Documentation of the landscapes' historic significance and integrity serves as a framework upon which treatment recommendations are developed.

The history focuses on the changes to the cultural landscapes over time, with consideration for the previously established National Register-eligible significance. These contexts and period of significance were re-examined to provide the full context needed to establish the character-defining features of the cultural landscape. Period plans were prepared to understand the change over time.

The historical documentation was utilized to compare existing site conditions to historic conditions. Through this analysis, contributing and non-contributing features and characteristics of the cultural landscape were identified. This information was then used as the basis for the treatment recommendations, with the goal of preserving character-defining features and characteristics, restoring character-defining features when important to conveying the historical significance of the cultural landscape, and rehabilitating features to preserve their character-defining qualities to allow for current and future uses within the cultural landscape.

In keeping with the National Park Service's best practices and issued guidance for cultural landscape reports, this project was designed according to several different (at times, overlapping) tasks:

RESEARCH

Using primary and secondary sources, the team conducted research to understand the physical history of Prince William Forest Park's cabin camps as cultural landscapes. This research relied on past documentation efforts for the camps, including the cultural landscape inventory for Camp 1 (updated in 2017), and the four cultural landscape inventories for Camps 2-5, drafted in 2021 by a team from the University of Mary Washington. Those CLIs will be updated and finalized by National Park Service NCRO staff based on the research and findings of this cultural landscape report.

The research process for this CLR also included new archival research. Key repositories and archives included: the Prince William Forest Park archives; the NPS Electronic Technical Information Center (ETIC); existing documentation (including National Register of Historic Places nominations and cultural landscape inventories); several National Park Service reports; and the National Archives and Records Administration in Philadelphia.

Based on the research, the team prepared a chronology and physical history to document the evolution of the camps.

DETERMINATION OF PERIODS OF SIGNIFICANCE

Using the physical history and prior documentation as a guide, the period of significance was determined as 1935 through 1969 (refer to the

1. Erin Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's Parks, 1916-1965* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, July 2022), 393-94.

Statement of Significance, beginning on page 22 of the CLR, for an explanation of the period).

FIELDWORK AND DATA COLLECTION

The team conducted fieldwork and site visits during the project. An initial site visit with park and regional staff took place in March 2022. Fieldwork to document existing conditions and geolocate extant features took place in March and April 2022, with additional site visits in November 2022, and May and July 2023. During this time, researchers collected and recorded GIS data using Eos Arrow equipment.

The team identified, photographed, and recorded characteristic landscape features that date to, or postdate, the period of significance at the historic site.

MAPPING

Maps for this CLR were produced following National Capital Regional Office's (NCRO) contemporary GIS standards. The team collected and corroborated data in the field, including small-scale features, circulation features, structures, and vegetation. This data was then edited in ArcPro and exported to Adobe Illustrator for graphics and final production.

ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

Based on an understanding of the cultural landscape, compiled through research, fieldwork, and mapping, our team evaluated the current conditions and integrity of these features. This assessment, contextualized within a larger study of each applicable landscape characteristic, comprises the Analysis & Evaluation section of the CLR.

The narrative discussions of each landscape characteristic are not exhaustive, deferring to the concurrent cultural landscape inventories (drafted in 2021 by researchers from the University of Mary Washington; finalized versions forthcoming) for those feature-by-feature discussions. Rather, the analysis and evaluation for each landscape characteristic synthesize the historic development and existing conditions (as of Spring 2022 - Summer 2023) across all five cabin camps, focusing on typical patterns—and departures from those patterns—within the camps. In doing so, this CLR analyzes the design intent and landscape logic of the cabin camps as a whole.

STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT AND TREATMENT WORKSHOP

The team consulted with National Park Service staff throughout the project, including members of the National Capital Regional Office and Prince William Forest Park. Additionally, the team held stakeholder engagement meetings with representatives from past and present camp user groups.

An in-person treatment workshop was convened in the park on September 18, 2023, to present our findings and preliminary treatment priorities to representatives from the National Park Service.

TREATMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the feedback received at the treatment workshop, and all other phases of work, the team prepared treatment recommendations for the cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park. The treatment recommendations speak to all five cabin camps; they are not organized on a camp-by-camp basis These recommendations establish a statement of desired landscape character for all five camps, and offer treatment goals, physical treatment recommendations, and policy recommendations to achieve that landscape character.

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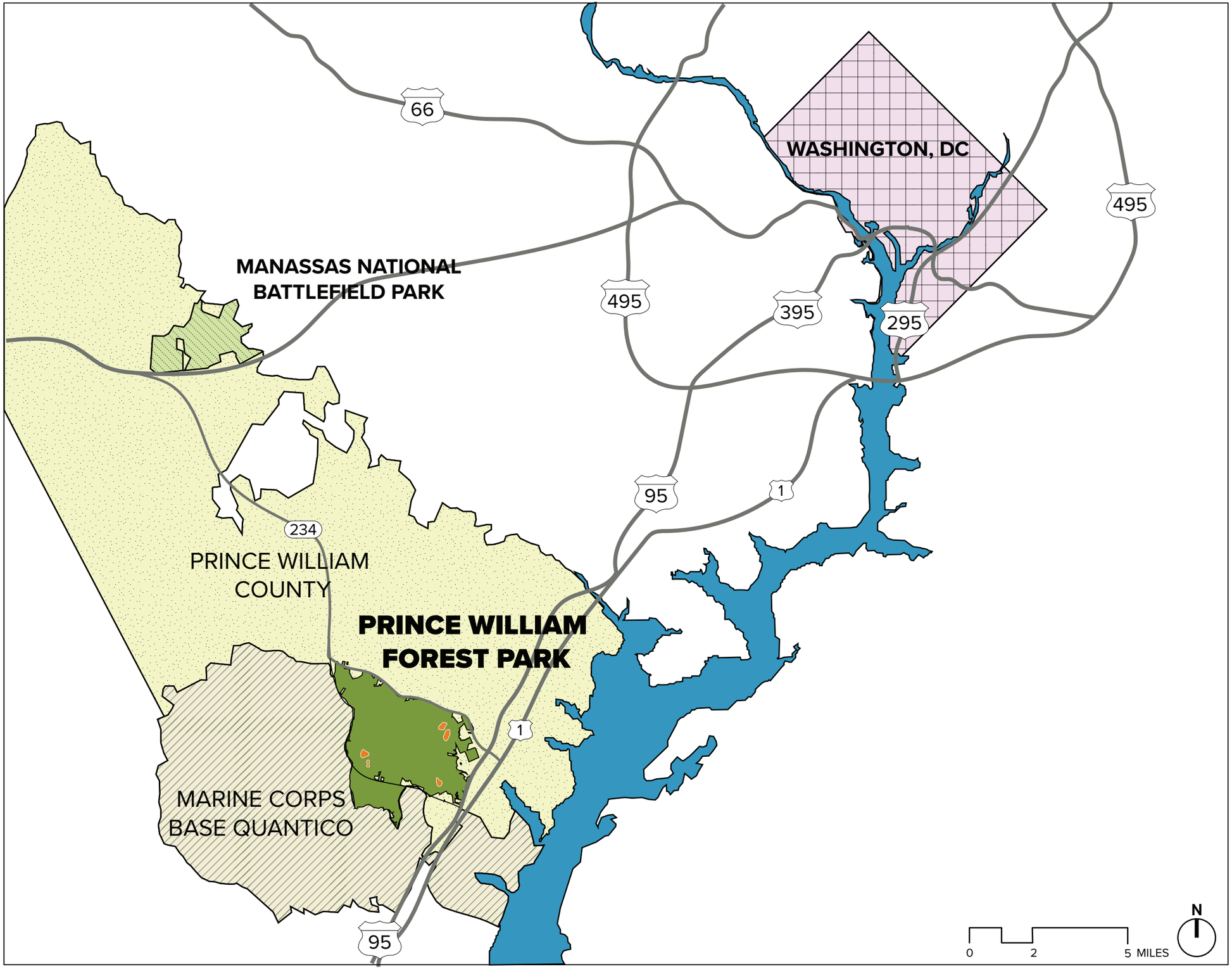

Park Locator Map

Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Cabin Camps

SOURCES

1. Google Maps, accessed July 2023.

DRAWN BY

Jacob Torkelson, University of Pennsylvania
Adobe Illustrator, 2023

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Prince William Forest Park
- Prince William County
- Quantico Marine Corps Base
- Washington, DC
- Manassas National Battfield Park
- Water
- Highway

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DRAWING 1

PART 1: HISTORY + EVALUATION

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Statement of Significance

National Register Criteria: A and C

Period of Significance: 1935-1969

The cabin camps have been documented several times at the federal and state levels, both as individual camp landscapes and as part of the broader park.

In 1989, four of the five camps—all except Cabin Camp 5 (Happyland)—were listed on the National Register of Historic Places as historic districts. (Camp 5 had perceived issues with integrity at the time, and was not nominated alongside the other camps.) The associated areas and periods of significance for those designated districts were as follows:

- Cabin Camp 1 (Goodwill)/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (NR# 89000456)
  - State and Local significance
  - Criterion A (Entertainment/Recreation; Conservation) and Criterion C (Architecture)
  - Period of significance: 1933-42
- Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi)/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (NR# 89000457)
  - State and Local significance
  - Criterion A (Entertainment/Recreation; Conservation) and Criterion C (Architecture)
  - Period of significance: 1933-42
- Cabin Camp 3 (Orenda)/SP-26/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (NR# 89000458)
  - State and Local significance
  - Criterion A (Entertainment/Recreation; Conservation) and Criterion C (Architecture)
  - Period of significance: 1933-42
- Cabin Camp 4 (Pleasant)/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (NR# 89000459)
  - State and Local significance
  - Criterion A (Entertainment/Recreation; Conservation) and Criterion C (Architecture)
  - Period of significance: 1933-42

Concurrent with the preparation of those nominations, all five of the camps were also addressed in depth in the Multiple Property Documentation Form entitled "ECW [Emergency Conservation Work] Architecture at Prince William Forest Park, 1933-42," which was approved in 1989.

In 2012, most of Prince William Forest Park was listed on the National Register of Historic Places as a historic district (NR# 12000179). (The area south of Joplin Road was excluded from the district.) The inventory of contributing resources included features from all five camps. The period of significance for the nomination was c. 3800 BCE-1945 CE, and the parkwide historic district was designated under the following criteria and areas of significance:

- Criterion A: Ethnic Heritage, Industry, Social History, Entertainment/Recreation, and Military History
- Criterion C: Architecture
- Criterion D: Archeology

In addition to these designations in the National Register, the Virginia Landmarks Register (VLR) recognizes the following districts:

- Camp 1 (Goodwill)/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (listed on the VLR in 1988)
- Camp 2 (Mawavi)/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (listed on the VLR in 1988)
- Camp 3 (Orenda)/SP-26/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (listed on the VLR in 1988)
- Camp 4 (Pleasant)/Chopawamsic RDA Historic District (listed on the VLR in 1988)
- Prince William Forest Park Historic District, including all five camps (listed on the VLR in 2010)

Finally, the five cabin camps have also been documented in several Cultural Landscape Inventories (CLI):

- Cabin Camp 1 (Goodwill): CLI completed 2011; updated 2017
- Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi): draft CLI completed July 2021; final CLI pending
- Cabin Camp 3 (Orenda): draft CLI completed July 2021; final CLI pending
- Cabin Camp 4 (Pleasant): draft CLI completed July 2021; final CLI pending
- Cabin Camp 5 (Happyland): draft CLI completed August 2021; final CLI pending

This Cultural Landscape Report recommends a **period of significance of 1935-1969** for all five cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park; it also **elevates their significance to the national level**, recognizing their role in federal programs with nationwide impact. This expanded period recognizes the significance of the cabin camps in the decades after their initial construction, continuing uninterrupted through several successive (and at times overlapping) events, including:

- the construction of the camps as model RDA facilities between 1935 and 1942, designed by the National Park Service and constructed by the Civilian Conservation Corps;
- the camps' recurring use as seasonal facilities for children, including use as racially segregated recreational landscapes operated by partner organizations;
- the adaptation of the camps for military and Office of Strategic Services (OSS) use during and immediately after World War II;
- the alteration of the camps as part of the National Park Service's Mission 66 program; and
- the camp improvements made as part of the Parkscape USA program that were in keeping with the program's goals and design principles.

The period of significance ends in 1969, when the last major changes to the camp landscapes as part of the extended legacy of Mission 66 concluded.

This period, and its associated events, is significant based on multiple National Register criteria and areas of significance, including: Criterion A (in the areas of Politics/Government; Entertainment/Recreation; Social History; Military) and Criterion C (Architecture; Landscape Architecture).

CRITERION A

Areas of Significance: Politics/Government, Social History, Entertainment/Recreation, Conservation

Level of Significance: National

As a grouping, the cabin camps are nationally significant under Criterion A in the area of Politics/Government for their development as a model recreational landscape by the Recreation Demonstration Area (RDA) program, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and the National Park Service (NPS). The cabin camps are nationally significant in the areas of Politics/Government and Entertainment/Recreation as a prototype of several successive federal programs centered on public land management. Beginning with the 1935 construction of the camp as part of the Chopawomsic Recreational Demonstration Area (RDA) and continuing through the camps' association with the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and the National Park Service's Mission 66 program, the cabin camps were shaped by some of the most significant federal programs that have transformed public parkland in the 20th century.

As the effects of the Great Depression swept the country between 1929 and 1933, politicians looked to the creation of recreational landscapes as a way to improve underutilized rural agricultural and industrial lands. Their primary objective was to provide lower-income, generally urban groups with access to outdoor recreation; to achieve this end, successful RDAs were to be located within a day's drive of major metropolitan areas, such as Washington, D.C.[1] Efforts to purchase and improve so-called submarginal lands began in 1934, as part of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal program.

Established in 1935 and completed by 1942, the Chopawamsic RDA easily met the program's criteria and served as a model for other RDA projects nationwide. The RDA provided funding for land acquisition, while the CCC furnished the labor to construct the camp designs produced by the NPS.[2] As the RDA program evolved, the National Park Service looked to the success of the Chopawamsic RDA to encourage other states and localities to participate in the RDA program.

The CCC was a New Deal-era public works program that employed young men from around the country to construct and improve public lands, such as national parks. Workers would participate in park construction or conservation projects in return for education, room and board, and wages to send home to their families. The CCC played a significant role in the development of Chopawamsic RDA and its associated cabin camps, constructing the camp landscapes between 1935 and 1941. This project included building the system of roads and pathways, clearing and grading camp units, erecting buildings and structures, installing the water systems, constructing dams and swimming areas, and planting vegetation. CCC laborers had a fundamental impact on the history of the cultural landscape of Chopawamsic, and its ongoing use as a public recreation space.

As part of the Recreation Demonstration Area program, Chopawamsic was an exemplar of federal investment in distressed rural communities, transforming the post-industrial area into a recreational opportunity for underserved urban youth. The significance of this pattern of federal stewardship in service of public parkland continued through the 1950s and 1960s with the Mission 66 program. At Prince William Forest Park (the name that replaced Chopawamsic RDA in 1948), Mission 66 planners looked to modernize and expand the recreational opportunities at the cabin camps amid increased postwar demand. Improvements under the program (and its legacy initiatives) included: the replacement of aging infrastructure; enhancements of the sanitary conditions with new comfort stations and washhouses; and new dormitories (the latter was specifically in Camp 5). This program was spearheaded by the National Park Service, and resulted in physical changes to the landscape characteristics of each cabin camp. The extant cultural landscape at all camps results from, and represents the significance of, these federal investments in public recreation.

CRITERION A

Areas of Significance: Politics/Government, Social History, Entertainment/Recreation

Level of Significance: National

The cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park are also nationally significant under Criterion A in the areas of Politics/Government, Social History, and Entertainment/ Recreation, for their role as segregated recreational landscapes developed by the National Park Service for white and Black campers under the auspices of New Deal and in the shadow of Jim Crow. Chopawamsic RDA served as a model for other RDA projects throughout the United States, including its design and implementation as a segregated landscape.

Southern political support for the design and construction of state RDAs was contingent on the extension of segregation to any new facilities. Eager to see Chopawamsic RDA succeed and to provide camping facilities to Black visitors (rather than exclude them altogether), high-ranking white officials in the Department of the Interior and the National Park Service agreed to perpetuate segregationist policies according to state and local laws.[3] NPS Director Conrad Wirth believed that "the success or failure of [the Chopawamsic] project [would] affect all Lands Program projects" in the future. Accordingly, after excluding Black campers from the park's facilities for two years, NPS officials in 1937 subdivided the RDA into two areas according to race: the northern half of Chopawamsic (Camps 1 and 4) was reserved for Black campers, and the southern half (Camps, 2, 3, 5) was set aside for white campers. This segregationist approach was further inscribed in the landscape when the CCC constructed separate entrances and access roads for white and Black campers, according to plans created by NPS officials.

Although more than half of the cabin camps barred Black campers, Chopawamsic RDA also represented the first RDA, and indeed, the first NPS unit in the South, to provide Black campers with overnight lodging facilities. It was also the first RDA in a Southern state to feature organized group camps for Black youth. Despite the institutionalized barriers to desegregation, the organized group camps at Chopawamsic were among the first desegregated camp landscapes in the country, as integration efforts began in 1954 following the Supreme Court's ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*. The cabin camps were also among the few national destinations on public lands that afforded Black campers direct access to the outdoors on a large scale.[4]

The success of Chopawamsic led to the creation of other facilities for Black campers at RDAs in southern states, all of which were segregated along similar lines. However, park planners' efforts to expand the program were met with racism, discrimination, and segregationist sentiments, and as a result, they curtailed their investment in camps for Black visitors. By 1941, only nine of the 31 RDAs with organized group camps included accommodations for Black campers. At Chopawamsic, only two of the five camps offered accommodations for Black campers.[5]

Within this context of segregation in the RDA program, Chopawamsic gained significance once again in 1940, when the National Park Service chose to retain stewardship of the RDA as a federal park, rather than transfer it back to state ownership (as it was doing for most other RDAs), since the Commonwealth of Virginia might choose to eliminate the Black camp facilities in the park. This marked Chopawamsic as a model among NPS' holdings, representative of the agency's efforts to maintain sufficient—notably segregated—facilities for Black campers in the South in the Jim Crow era.[6] Other than the Chopawamsic RDA and Catoctin RDA in Maryland, both of which remained under federal control, most other RDAs in southern states remained segregated until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.[7]

By the time Chopawamsic reopened after its closure during WWII, National Park Service officials had nominally ended *de jure* segregation at all park facilities nationwide. However, this policy was not actively enforced; the National Park Service did not encourage or even advertise the integrated nature of its many parks, including at Chopawamsic/Prince William Forest Park (as it was renamed in 1948). Instead, historically Black camps, including Camps 1 and 4, increasingly permitted white campers into landscapes that had previously afforded Black campers safe, dedicated recreational space, without in turn admitting Black campers to the facilities reserved for white visitors. Park facilities that had been set aside for whites only often upheld *de facto* segregation at the urging of white visitors, who defended their informally segregated spaces based on established patterns of use. In this way, the purported desegregation of Chopawamsic RDA all but eliminated Black space in the park, and

1. Patti Kuhn and Sarah Groesbeck, *Prince William Forest Park Administrative History* (Washington, DC: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 2014), 9-10.
2. Kuhn and Groesbeck, *Administrative History*, 14-15.
3. Virginia's Constitution of 1902 codified racial segregation.
4. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 15-17.
5. Kuhn and Groesbeck, *Administrative History*, 15; William E. O'Brien, Landscapes of Exclusion: State Parks and Jim Crow in the American South (Amherst, MA: Library of American Landscape History, 2015), 15-17, 44-45; Erin Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's Parks, 1916-1965* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, July 2022).
6. Kuhn and Groesbeck, *Administrative History*, 16.
7. Kuhn and Groesbeck, *Administrative History*, 25.

initially did not achieve integration as NPS officials had hoped.

Throughout the period of significance, the cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park hosted Black organizations from all over the country, including (but not limited to) regional cities such as Washington, D.C. and Baltimore. This segregated landscape was pivotal in making outdoor recreation more accessible for Black people, especially the youth of large East Coast cities. Despite these impacts, the camps' national significance as a model site for various federal programs cannot be divorced from their role as standard-bearers for deferentially segregationist policies implemented by the same agencies, during the same period. The cabins camps remain tangible examples of the legacy of segregationist policies and their social and recreational effects, both during and after the Jim Crow Era.[8]

CRITERION A

Areas of Significance: Military

Level of Significance: National

The cabin camps also derive national significance based on their role during World War II as camps and training facilities for the Office of Strategic Services (OSS). Beginning in 1942, the OSS used much of Chopawamsic for training agents in the arts of spy craft and intelligence. Capitalizing on Chopawamsic's location near Washington, DC and its remote landscape, the OSS used the site for drilling and training exercises.

The Office of Strategic Services made extensive use of the Chopawamsic RDA facilities throughout the war. The new agency arrived in April 1942, converting the tranquil recreational area into an intensive base for paramilitary training and covert operations. The OSS divided Chopawamsic into Area A and C, occupied by the OSS Branches of Special Operations and Communications, respectively. Area A contained much of the southern portion of the RDA, including Camps 2, 3, and 5. Area C occupied a smaller, northern portion of the RDA that included Camps 1 and 4. The OSS remained at Chopawamsic until 1945. The policy of using remote landscapes for intelligence training would later be adopted and incorporated in the new Central Intelligence Agency, founded in 1947.

The OSS made lasting alterations to the camp's physical features, many of which remain in place today. These include the winterization of cabins, the installation of improved utility lines, new latrine facilities, and the construction of additional classroom and auditorium buildings. Other alterations to the cultural landscape that are no longer extant included the construction of shooting ranges, the explosion and demolition of pre-park buildings, and the clearance of forested areas for military exercises. Such changes to the cultural landscapes reflected the increased role intelligence agencies would play in national defense; Chopawamsic RDA was a critical site for the development and training of such methods.

CRITERION C

Areas of Significance: Architecture; Landscape Architecture; Community Development and Planning

Level of Significance: National

The cabin camps are also nationally significant under Criterion C in the areas of Architecture, Landscape Architecture, and Community Development and Planning for their association with early RDA master planning, design, and construction activities initiated by the National Park Service, the Resettlement Administration (RA), and the Civilian Conservation Corps in the early 20th century.

The camps are nationally significant in the areas of Architecture and Landscape Architecture based on their Rustic Style design. This style was developed in the late 19th and early 20th centuries and adopted by the National Park Service in the 1930s, becoming fundamental to the NPS identity in the first half of the 20th century. With guidance from NPS consultant Albert Good and others, it drew on regional vernacular techniques of design and construction and prioritized a site's natural environmental features. Rustic buildings typically demonstrated a sensitivity to the surrounding environment using native materials and vernacular design and construction methods. The Rustic Style features at each cabin camp are characteristic of this period of National Park Service development.

In implementing the Rustic Style at the cabin camps, the CCC focused on a reverence for existing landscape features and a preference for construction that blended well with the natural environment, avoided straight lines, and enhanced natural scenery. Rustic landscape design included: the careful preservation of maturing vegetation; the creation of specific, framed views and vistas; the use of local, natural materials such as boulders and logs; and the incorporation of native plantings like hemlock, mountain laurel, oak, and dogwood. These plantings were grouped around cabins and roadways to highlight the natural environment and create a pleasing visitor experience.

Today, each cabin camp continues to embody the Rustic Style, despite later changes that were also implemented during the period of significance. Each camp retains its overall site plan, designed in response to the rugged terrain. The cabin camp clusters also continue to embody the Rustic Style principles that excluded vehicles, prioritized the natural experience, and emphasized the forested character of the cultural landscape.

Mission 66 and Parkscape USA building campaigns at each cabin camp adapted the Rustic Style to suit a Modernist palette. New buildings, including central washhouses, cabins, and recreation buildings, maintained a similar material palette in buildings and landscapes, but opted for more rigid straight lines and more practical (rather than naturalistic) placement in the landscape. Mission 66 materials were also increasingly more manufactured or prefabricated, contrasting with the original site-built Rustic Style elements of the cabin camps. Alterations under Mission 66 and Parkscape USA nevertheless maintained the historic continuity of camp use/programming and design, including the use of rustic materials such as wood, even as it deployed them in a distinctly modern way. In Camp 5, the larger scale of the dormitories and bathhouses impacted the cluster arrangement of the camps, while preserving land use and spatial organization.

Mission 66 and later improvements do not detract from the legibility of the recreational landscapes for overnight group camping. They retain their integrity with respect to the period of significance. Despite mid-century changes to specific buildings and structures, the cabin camps remain recognizable as rustic recreational landscapes designed for overnight group camping. They retain their integrity with respect to the period of significance.

8. For more on desegregation's effects on historically Black park spaces, see: Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's Parks, 1916-1965*, 2022.

Chronology

YEAR	PRE-CAMP LANDSCAPE EVENTS
Pre-1608	During the Late Woodland Period, the ancestors of the Doeg and Manahoac inhabited and stewarded the land prior to European contact.
1600s - 1646	The Doeg and Manahoac are displaced by white colonizers who took their lands by force, disease, or by initiating wars between other tribes. Nonetheless, some Doeg and Manahoac People remained within the area or assimilated into other Indigenous groups.
1650s	The first land patents within the boundaries of the future Prince William Forest Park were recorded in the 1650s, under colony governor Samuel Matthews.
1704	Abraham Farrow became the first person within the area of the future cabin camps to occupy the land he patented. He established a plantation using enslaved labor. Others soon followed.
1770s	Larger plantations were subdivided into smaller farms, as agriculture shifted away from the long fallow method.
1807	The free Black community of Batestown was founded along the Cabin Branch, within the future park.
1860-1864	Union and Confederate troops passed through the Prince William Forest Park area, shortly before and during the Civil War.
1870	Zeal Williams and his family founded the predominately Black community of Hickory Ridge, within the future park.
1889	The Cabin Branch Pyrite Mine opened on Quantico Creek, east of the town of Hickory Ridge.
c. 1904	Circa 1904, Joplin, VA is officially founded and named by William Crow after his native Joplin, Missouri
1917	Quantico Marine Corps Base opened, south of the future park.
1920	The Cabin Branch Pyrite Mine closed.
1933	Franklin D. Roosevelt became President of the United States, launching the New Deal soon after his inauguration.
1934	President Roosevelt created the Land Planning Committee to study recreational needs. The Committee identified an urgent need for natural areas near urban centers.
1935	The Submarginal Land Division of the National Park Service filed a report on “Chopawamsic,” recommending the purchase of over 12,000 acres. Residents of Joplin, Hickory Ridge, and Batestown were displaced and relocated to create the RDA.

Boldface denotes initial construction events for each camp.

Boldface italics denote the first events associated with camp use.

YEAR	PARK CONTEXT	CAMP 1 (CAMP GOODWILL)	CAMP 2 (CAMP MAWAVI)		CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)	CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)	CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)
1935	(Spring) The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) established three camps at Chopawamsic. They were located: on the present-day ballfield shared by Cabin Camps 1 and 4 (SP-22), on the ballfield of Camp 2 (SP-25), and in the lower maintenance area adjacent to Camp 3 (SP-26). Workers at these camps would build Camps 1-3.	(Summer) Planning and design began for Cabin Camp 1.	(Summer) Planning and design began for Cabin Camp 2.				(July) The road to the Cabin Camp 5 dam site was constructed in conjunction with site preparation for Cabin Camp 2.
1936	***(July) The first campers arrived at Chopawamsic RDA, using Cabin Camps 1-3 even before construction was completed. Prior to 1937, all camps were open only to white campers.***	**(April) Construction on Camp 1 began. Camp 1 was the first camp to be constructed as a camp for white boys.** ***(July) Camp 1 hosted its first group from the Boys Club of Washington, DC. The group does not return after their first summer at camp.***	**(April) Construction on Camp 2 began. Camp 2 was the second camp to be constructed as a camp for white girls.** ***(July) Camp 2 hosted its first group from the Jewish Community Center (JCC) of Washington, D.C. Although the camp was initially conceived as a "Girl's Camp," it hosted boys and girls from the outset.***		**(Spring) Planning began for Cabin Camp 3, which was intended to be a "mothers and tots" camp for white campers. Initial site preparation began in early 1936.** ***(July) Camp 3, still under construction, hosted its first group of campers from the Salvation Army. Campers were generally families. The group did not immediately return to Camp 3.***		
1937	(April) NPS staff established a policy of racial segregation. Camps 1 and 4 in the northwest portion of the park were reserved for Black campers, and Camps 2, 3, and 5 were set aside for white campers.	(June) The Family Service Association (FSA) of Washington relocated Camp Pleasant, its camp for Black campers, from Blue Plains in Southeast Washington, D.C. to Camp 1. Campers included Black under-privileged mothers and children.	(Spring) The Camp 2 dam was constructed along the South Fork Quantico Creek.		Construction continued at Camp 3, including the construction of camper cabins. (June) The Family Service Association (FSA) of Washington relocated Camp Goodwill, its camp for white campers, from Rock Creek Park in Washington, D.C. to Camp 1. Campers included white under-privileged mothers and children.	(Fall) Planning and design began for Cabin Camp 4.	The dam serving Camps 2 and 5 was completed near the future Camp 5 along the South Fork Quantico Creek.

YEAR	PARK CONTEXT	CAMP 1 (CAMP GOODWILL)	CAMP 2 (CAMP MAWAVI)	CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)	CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)	CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)
1938			(June) Camp Lichtman relocated from George Washington National Forest (in Millboro, Virginia) to Cabin Camp 1. The camp was associated with the 12th Street YMCA in Washington, D.C. (the country's first Black YMCA).	(August) Construction was substantially complete at Camp 3.	**(January) CCC workers started construction on the Camp 4 buildings.** ***(June) With construction substantially complete, the camp received its first campers. The Family Service Association (FSA) of Washington relocated Camp Pleasant, its camp for Black campers, from Camp 1 to Camp 4.***	(Spring) Planning and design began for Cabin Camp 5. **(December) CCC laborers from SP-26 broke ground on the camp.**
1939	After the completion of Camps 1 and 4, the CCC Camp (SP-22) closed. The area was turned into a playing field.					(Spring) The much smaller scale of Camp 5, resulted in the camp being substantially complete by the summer season. ***(July) Camp 5 hosted its first group from the Salvation Army. The group named it Camp Happyland.***
1940	As of 1940, the development of the Chopawamsic RDA was generally complete. It was the fourth largest RDA in the country (out of 46). On August 14, the National Capital Region of the National Park Service assumed jurisdiction for the Chopawamsic RDA.		The Arlington Girl Scouts assumed the lease on Camp 2, following financial troubles by the JCC. The group changed the name of Center Camp to Camp Mawavi.	(June) A new well was drilled to address water issues in the camp. Two outdoor fireplaces were constructed for outdoor cooking.		(May) Additional improvements were undertaken by the CCC at Camp 5 prior to the summer season.
1941				(August) NPS staff undertook a rehabilitation of the sand beach at Camp 3.		

YEAR	PARK CONTEXT	CAMP 1 (CAMP GOODWILL)	CAMP 2 (CAMP MAWAVI)	CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)	CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)	CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)
1942	During World War II, the Office of Strategic Services used Chopawamsic RDA for its covert operative training, referring to it as “Area A” and “Area C.” The War Department was granted a special use permit that allowed it exclusive use of all five camps. All existing cabin camp users (e.g. Camp Lichtman, at Camp 1) were forced to relocate elsewhere.	The OSS started using Cabin Camp 1 (known as Area C-1) as the headquarters for Training Area C, the OSS radio operator’s school.	The OSS used Cabin Camp 2, referring to it as Area A-2. The agency winterized all of the camp’s cabins for its use year-round. It also constructed indoor training facilities (including the ”house of horrors”), outdoor shooting ranges, an obstacle course on the camp’s ballfield, and munitions dumps.	The OSS started using Cabin Camp 3 (known as Area A-3). It winterized the cabin camp’s buildings. New construction at Camp 3 was limited to a temporary 25-man latrine and washroom. Existing buildings were repurposed: the lodges became classrooms, the help’s quarters became a code room, and the nursery was a recreation hall.	The OSS took up residence in Cabin Camp 4, which it called Area C-4. The agency winterized the cabins and undertook “much more extensive” new construction than at the other cabin camps. New buildings/structures included a new recreation hall/theater, a bachelor officers quarters, a 100-man latrine, three portable plywood buildings, an addition to the dining hall, a guard house, and a Quonset hut. A large tent camp was also erected on what is now the volleyball court.	The first OSS recruits arrived at Cabin Camp 5, referring to it as Area A-5. Unlike other camps at Chopawamsic, the OSS did not construct many new buildings at Camp 5/Area A-5.
1945	The National Park Service mandated the desegregation of all of its parklands, but implementation lagged for several more years. (October) The OSS left PRWI, ceasing all activities at the cabin camps, removing most of its wartime improvements.				The Army Corps of Engineers, in partnership with the National Park Service, began to construct an earthen dam along the Quantico Creek. The dam resulted in Lake Pleasant (Lake 4). They also worked with NPS staff to remove OSS buildings and structures that did not fit with the camp scenes.	
1946	The National Park Service resumed management of Chopawamsic RDA, and camper use returned.	Camp Lichtman, operated by the 12th Street YMCA, resumed operations at Camp 1.	The Arlington Girl Scouts did not return to Chopawamsic. The Campfire Girls assumed operations at Camp 2 and retained the name Camp Mawavi.	Camp Goodwill, operated by the FSA, resumed operations at Camp 3.	Camp Pleasant, operated by the FSA, resumed operations at Camp 4.	Camp Happyland, operated by the Salvation Army, resumed operations at Camp 5.
1948	The new law that authorized the name change also allowed for the acquisition of "additional lands needed to round out the boundaries of this park" (62 Stat 571 Public Law 736),			(Summer) The Army Corps of Engineers constructed a new lake, known as “Lake Tomahawk,” by damming the Quantico Creek. The lake represented an improvement to the earlier swimming hole that had been located on the north side of the camp.	New drinking fountains were installed.	
1952		Park staff replaced the campfire circle seating with wooden planks and concrete blocks.	Park staff replaced the campfire circle seating with wooden planks and concrete blocks.	Park staff replaced the campfire circle seating with wooden planks and concrete blocks.	Park staff replaced the campfire circle seating with wooden planks and concrete blocks.	Park staff replaced the campfire circle seating with wooden planks and concrete blocks.

YEAR	PARK CONTEXT	CAMP 1 (CAMP GOODWILL)	CAMP 2 (CAMP MAWAVI)	CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)	CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)	CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)
1954	Mission 66 planning at Prince William Forest Park began. NPS staff prepared an ambitious plan focused on increasing day use facilities and accommodations for individual campers, in addition to the existing facilities for group camps. Following Brown v. Board of Education, camp agencies gradually desegregated Prince William Forest Park. Public-facing NPS facilities were legally desegregated by this time; however, camp groups had full discretion over who attended their camps, and many continued to operate along racial lines until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.					
1956					Camp 4 received a new swimming pool, built with private funds. A similar pool was called for at all camps under Mission 66, but was not realized with public funds.	As part of the Mission 66 initiative, NPS officials built two new 10-camper cabins in each of Units A and B (for a total of four cabins). Additional plans were submitted in 1956 and 1957 for a new cook's quarters, recreation building, and dining hall addition. Construction on these buildings did not proceed until the 1960s.
1957		Circa 1957, a semi-circular chapel area was constructed.	Circa 1957, additional ten-bunk cabins were added to Camp 2.		Circa 1957, additional ten-bunk cabins were added to Camp 4.	The beach at Camp 5 was enclosed with a concrete wading pool, using Mission 66 funding. Staff also added a semi-circular chapel nearby. The Camp 5 administration building was enlarged using Mission 66 funding.
1958				A new storage building in Unit A was constructed as part of the Mission 66 initiative.	A new warehouse (Storage Building 40) was constructed as part of the Mission 66 initiative.	The pavilion building or shelter was constructed at Camp 5, using Mission 66 funding.
1960						A cook's quarters was added to Camp 5, using Mission 66 funding.

YEAR	PARK CONTEXT	CAMP 1 (CAMP GOODWILL)	CAMP 2 (CAMP MAWAVI)	CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)	CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)	CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)
1962						The Camp 5 dining hall was expanded using Mission 66 funding.
1964		After passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, Camp Lichtman left Prince William. The FSA moved Camp Goodwill from Camp 3 to Camp 1 to be closer to its other facility at Camp 4.		The YMCA started using the camp, following Camp Goodwill's move to Camp 1. The YMCA referred to it as Camp Orenda.		
1967						The Salvation Army stopped using the camp, and St. Elizabeth's Hospital started renting it.
1968	Beginning in 1968 and continuing until 1972, the National Park Service constructed a scenic road that intersected with the Park Entrance Road and Telegraph Road, where it crossed the South Fork of Quantico Creek.					Planning for modernization and winterization of Camp 5 facilities began.
1969				Two modern latrines were constructed in Units B and C.		The four dormitories and two central bathhouses at Cabin Camp 5 were constructed in keeping with the aesthetics of Mission 66. To accommodate these new dorms, many cabins were moved, and three buildings were demolished.
1972				A modern host house/staff quarters was constructed at Camp 3.		
1977		In 1977, NPS staff proposed a six-phase replacement project for the aging cabins at Camp 1.				
1980		A 16-building rehabilitation project added ramps, rail gutters, and posts to many buildings in the camp. The bathhouse in Unit A was upgraded.				

YEAR	PARK CONTEXT	CAMP 1 (CAMP GOODWILL)	CAMP 2 (CAMP MAWAVI)	CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)	CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)	CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)
1983		Several cabins in Camp 1 were demolished and replaced with one-story wood-frame buildings. Prior to demolition, the cabins were offered up for public sale; however, only one was sold and removed from the park. It was later demolished. Asphalt paths were constructed within Unit D, and to connect Unit D with the dining hall. In Units B, C, and D, new bathhouses were constructed.				
1984		The final phase of Camp 1's modernization was completed. In total, the project replaced and constructed 34 new cabins, three new unit comfort stations, and one central pump house.				
1989	A Multiple Property Documentation Form was prepared for the National Register of Historic Places, addressing the "ECW [Emergency Conservation Work] Architecture at Prince William Forest Park, 1933-42."	Camp 1 was listed in the National Register of Historic Places as a historic district. The designated name was "Chopawamsic RDA – Camp (1) Goodwill Historic District."	Camp 2 was listed in the National Register of Historic Places as a historic district. The designated name was "Camp Mawavi Historic District."	Camp 3 was listed in the National Register of Historic Places as a historic district. The designated name was "Chopawamsic RDA – Camp (3) Orenda/SP-26 Historic District."	Camp 4 was listed in the National Register of Historic Places as a historic district. The designated name was "Chopawamsic RDA – Camp (4) Pleasant Historic District."	Although the other four camps were listed on the National Register of Historic Places, Camp 5 was not nominated as a historic district due to perceived issues of integrity.
1990	Park staff began drafting a General Management Plan. A significant part of the plan focused on preserving the cabin camps.	The FSA ceased operations and disbanded Camp Goodwill in the 1990s.			The FSA ceased operations and disbanded Camp Pleasant in the 1990s.	
1999		Preservation and rehabilitation treatments were undertaken by the Historic Preservation Training Center.	Preservation and rehabilitation treatments were undertaken by the Historic Preservation Training Center.	Circa 1999, Camp 3 shifted from a group camp to a combination of individual and group cabin rentals.		
2002					The swimming pool was removed.	
2003				Between 2003-2004, park staff rehabilitated several structures in Camp 3.		

YEAR	PARK CONTEXT	CAMP 1 (CAMP GOODWILL)	CAMP 2 (CAMP MAWAVI)	CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)	CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)	CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)
2005	Municipal drinking water was installed throughout the entire park in 2004/2005. Camps 1 and 4 were attached to municipal sewer, while the remaining camps continued to use septic systems.	Camps 1 and 4 were attached to municipal sewer, while the remaining camps continued to use septic systems.				
2007		The water tower was stabilized.	The Camp 2/5 water tower was stabilized.			The Camp 2/5 water tower was stabilized.
2008		The water tower and pump house was repaired and repainted.			A new T-shaped dock was constructed, replacing the older H-shaped dock.	
2011		HABS began documenting the Camp 1 buildings and structures. NPS staff prepared a CLI.				
2012	Prince William Forest Park was added to the National Register of Historic Places as a historic district, encompassing five existing historic districts within the park as well as Camp 5/ Happyland. Beginning in 2012, park staff worked with the Virginia State Historic Preservation Office (VA SHPO) to standardize a historically-appropriate and sustainable roofing material for all five cabin camps. In recent years, the approved synthetic material has been added to many buildings and structures.	NatureBridge assumed use of Camp 1.				
2017		The Camp 1 CLI was updated.				
2021			The draft Camp 2 CLI was completed.	The draft Camp 3 CLI was completed.	The draft Camp 4 CLI was completed.	The draft Camp 5 CLI was completed.

Physical History

Pre-Contact Habitation and Early Colonial History (Pre-1608 – 1861 CE)

GEOLOGICAL FORMATION

Prince William Forest Park is part of two physiographic provinces that are bisected by the Fall Line: the Piedmont, and the Eastern Coastal Plain. The western two-thirds of the park are in the Piedmont, while the eastern third is in the Coastal Plain. The Piedmont began forming between 470 million and 270 million years ago when two landmasses started converging. Around 270 million years ago, the two land masses fully collided, uplifting and folding rock into the mountain range we know today as the Blue Ridge Mountains. This physiographic province extends from south-central Pennsylvania southward to northern Georgia. Over millions of years, the Blue Ridge province has been subject to significant erosion and uplifting that, in turn, created the Piedmont. Eroded materials from the Blue Ridge and Piedmont subsequently travelled east and were deposited along the much younger Coastal Plain, forming the rich soils that now compose and support the ecosystems of the eastern third of Prince William Forest Park.[1]

Melting ice sheets to the far west of the park produced changes in climate. Although Eastern Virginia was never glaciated, water and sediment from higher elevations in the Blue Ridge resulted in significant downcutting along ancient rivers. This process formed many of the steep valleys, plateaus, river gorges throughout the park, including along Quantico Creek. Throughout such events, the landscape would have consisted of more open conifer forests of pine and spruce, as well as large grasslands. Around 10,000 years ago, the changing climate shifted the dominant forest species from spruce and fir to oak. Warmer centuries also brought the addition of southern pines and hickories, while cooler centuries saw the proliferation of birches and alders. Water-dependent species, including red maples and sweetgum, thrived in wet eras. When water was absent, fire frequently spread throughout the ancient landscape, creating low grass and shrub lands.[2]

PRE-CONTACT PEOPLES AND THE LANDSCAPE

The Potomac Watershed has served as an important geographic landmark to Indigenous peoples for thousands of years. Archeological evidence of Indigenous occupation in Virginia dates to between 11,000 and 9500 BCE.[3] These people, referred to as the Paleoindians by archeologists, and simply as ancestors by many Indigenous groups, were largely nomadic hunters and gatherers.

By the Middle Archaic period (6000 BCE to 2500 BCE), the climate and landscape would have been similar to the Eastern woodlands of today. Early peoples adapted the landscape of oak forests, clearing large areas for both foraging and the hunting of game. By the Late Archaic period, archeological evidence suggests that Indigenous groups had begun to coalesce into small units, living seasonally along riversides and ranging widely for resources. Heavily wooded areas, such

1. Trista L. Thornberry-Ehrlich, *Prince William Forest Park Geologic Resources Inventory Report* (Denver, CO: National Park Service, 2009), 23-35.

2. John Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists': Land and People in the Prince William Forest Park* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 2004): 6-7; Thornberry-Ehrlich, 25.
3. Keith Egloff and Deborah B. Woodward, *First People: The Early Indians of Virginia* (Charlottesville, VA: University of Virginia Press, 1992), 9.

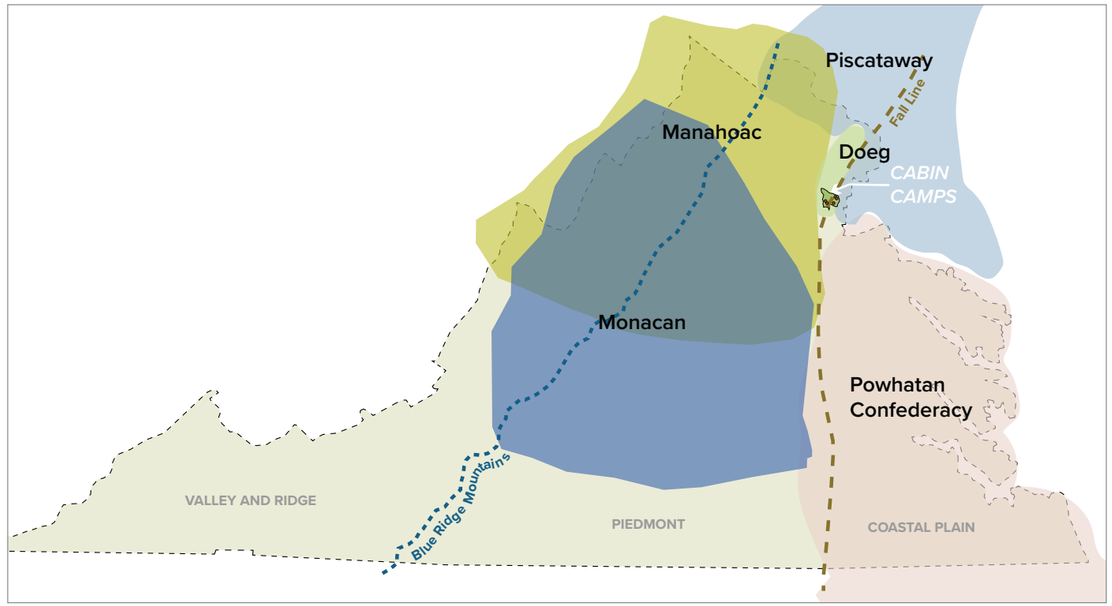


Figure 2: This map shows the geographic relationship between the future Prince William Forest Park and cabin camps (center, green with red dots) and the surrounding Indigenous peoples. The Park was built on unceeded Deog and Manahoac land. (Torkelson 2023, data taken from Native Land Digital, accessed 2023)

as those in present-day Prince William Forest Park, were traversed by groups seeking raw materials, game, and seasonal plants. Many level sites along streams and creeks in the future park served as encampments for these early peoples.[4]

The Early and Middle Woodland periods (1200 BCE to 900 CE) saw the further coalescing of early Indigenous people into villages and hamlets along riverways, where resources were most abundant. Evidence of new technologies, such as pottery and the bow and arrow, suggest that Woodland-era peoples were part of a vast network of trade routes that exchanged materials and ideas. By the Late Woodland Period (900 CE to c. 1600 CE), Indigenous peoples in the Piedmont and Eastern Coastal Plain were farming corn and squash, relying less on nomadic means of resource gathering. Villages along the Eastern Coastal Plain were often fortified by palisade walls and located along major riverways, such as the Potomac River and its tributaries. While these groups relied increasingly on farming, they maintained their use of the larger landscape—including the cultural landscapes that host the cabin camps today—for seasonal hunting and gathering. These groups were the direct ancestors of the Doegs[5] and the Manahoacs first encountered by colonizer John Smith in 1608.[6]

4. Egloff and Woodward, First People, 22; Bedell, 'Few People Know Such a Place Exists', 6-16.

THE DOEGS AND THE MANAHOAC

Doeg and Manahoac people historically inhabited the land that would become Prince William Forest Park; this land remains unceded.[7] White colonizers displaced these peoples as they pushed westward, taking these areas by force, through the spread of disease, or by initiating wars between other tribes.

The Doegs are among the Algonquian-speaking tribes that also included the Powhatan Confederacy. Although the Doegs were allied with the Powhatans, they were not a part of the Confederacy and had their own rulers. According to early English colonizers, the traditional lands inhabited by the Doegs were located between the Fall Line and Potomac River, approximately between Alexandria and Aquia Creek, Virginia. Their 17th-century political and cultural center was located along the north shore of the Occoquan River, just north of the present-day park. The Doegs traded widely with other groups and some scholars believe their lands may even have stretched westward to the Blue Ridge Mountains, overlapping with other tribes, including the Manahoac.[8]

The Manahoac are among the Siouan-speaking tribes that also include the Monacan, Saponi, and Totero. As recorded by John Smith and his Powhatan guides in the 1607/1608 map of Virginia (later published in 1612), the Manahoac controlled much of the Piedmont region between the Fall Line and the Blue Ridge Mountains. Manahoac lands historically centered on the Rappahannock River.[9] This group was a sworn enemy of the Algonquian-speaking Powhatans, who occupied the majority of the coastal plain to the east. (The nature of their relationship with the Doegs is not known.)[10] These groups lived largely in independent villages, while also trading, intermarrying, and gathering for foraging and hunting excursions. The westernmost portions of the future Prince William Forest Park may have been the land of the Manahoac, given that the Fall Line passes through the park. The precise boundary between Doeg and Manahoac lands is not known, but is believed to be near the Fall Line, indicating that both tribes likely had a presence in the future park.[11]

John Smith documented the Potomac watershed, including the Quantico and Chopawamsic Creeks, in 1608. Upon sailing up the Potomac River, Smith encountered the main Doeg village (which he referred to as "Tauxenent"), located on the Occoquan River, north of the future park. Smith was given a reception by the village, which he estimated to contain 135 to 170 people, before traveling further north to Great Falls.[12]

In a second voyage, John Smith documented the Rappahannock watershed in 1608, seeking out the lands of the Manahoac. Upon sailing up the river, Smith encountered 100 fisherman who fired upon his boat near present-day Fredericksburg, Virginia. In the ensuing skirmish, Smith and his guides shot and captured a Manahoac man named Amoroleck. During his interrogations of Amoroleck, Smith, who did not travel further beyond the Fall Line into Manahoac lands, gleaned only minimal information of the area's inhabitants. Amoroleck is also quoted as saying that his people fired upon Smith because they had "heard that you were a people from under the world, to take our world from us."[13]

5. This CLR uses the spelling "Doeg" in keeping with common scholarship. Other spellings include Tauxenent, Dogue, and Taux.
6. Egloff and Woodward, *First People*, 20-35.
7. Native Land Digital, https://native-land.ca/, accessed November 13, 2022.
8. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 23-24; Egloff and Woodward, First People, 22-35.
9. Michael Johnson, *The Native Tribes of North America* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1994), 42-44, 62.
10. "The Manahoacin Virginia," Virginia Places, http://www.virginiaplaces.org/nativeamerican/manahoac.html, accessed September 26, 2022.
11. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 17-18; Egloff and Woodward, *First People*, 22.
12. National Park Service, "A Closer Look: John Smith's Chesapeake Voyages," Captain John Smith Chesapeake National Historic Trail, National Park Service, Washington, D.C., accessed November 13, 2022, https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/john-smith-voyages.htm/.
13. See John Smith, *The generall historie of Virginia, New England & the Summer Isles : together with The true travels, adventures and observations, and A sea grammar* (New York: Macmillan, 1907).

Beyond Smith's brief encounter in 1608 at the edge of the Piedmont, early written records of Native Americans living beyond the Fall Line or outside of the Powhatan Confederacy are sparse. Some scholars attribute this lack of written colonizer records to the Virginians' closeness to the Powhatan Confederacy (and presumably the Doegs). As an enemy of the Manahoacs, the Powhatans steered colonizers away from these areas, resulting in few expeditions that documented cultures and landscapes west of the Fall Line. In effect, the close (and fraught) relationship between Powhatan and the Virginia colonists skewed the written record away from the tribes of the Piedmont and toward those of the coastal areas.[14]

Alarmed by rapid colonization and the loss of land and resources, Powhatan and his Confederacy as well as his allies, including the Doegs, declared war on the Virginians in the mid-1640s. After the 1646 English victory in the Second Powhatan War, colonization spread rapidly up the Potomac River Valley, despite the existing claims by the Doegs. By 1670, wealthy European land speculators had claimed all land on both sides of the Potomac River and its tributaries—including the main Doeg village of Tauxenent. Faced with this rapid incursion of white colonizers, many Doegs sought refuge with other tribes in Maryland, including the Piscataway, or with the Susquehannocks to the northwest.[15]

Tensions between the Doegs, their Susquehannock allies, and colonizers heightened in 1675, amid a series of conflicts that contributed to Bacon's Rebellion. After a 1675 dispute over pigs between several Deogs and a colonist, Virginia militia members murdered several Susquehannocks who were not involved in the incident. During a purported peace council on the matter with the Virginia and Maryland militias, the Susquehannock representatives were assassinated by the white militias. In retribution, the Susquehannocks and Doegs declared war on the colonists, attacking and killing 36 colonists living along the Virginia frontier. The English and their Haudenosaunee (or Iroquois) allies eventually won the conflict, and by the late 17th century, most (albeit not all) surviving Doegs and Susquehannocks had fled their ancestral homes to other parts of the continent, including many that joined the Haudenosaunee Confederacy.[16]

14. Egloff and Woodward, *First People*, 57; Carole Nash, *Modeling Uplands: Landscape and Prehistoric Native American Settlement Archaeology in the Virginia Blue Ridge Foothills* (PhD diss., Catholic University of America,2009): 391.
15. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 17-18.

COLONIZATION, ENSLAVEMENT, AND CULTIVATION OF THE FRONTIER

The first land patents within the boundaries of the future Prince William Forest Park were recorded in the 1650s, under colony governor Samuel Matthews. In 1652, Matthews claimed 5,211 acres along the north Chopawamsic Creek watershed. Other early patents focused on the tidal portions of Chopawamsic and "Quanticutt" (later, Quantico) Creek, likely because of their access to navigable waterways. Within the areas of the future cabin camps, the earliest patent was taken out by Beck and Hatoft in 1666. This patent contained the future Camps 1 & 4, as well as much of the northeastern portion of the park. Archeologist John Bedell notes that during this initial period of colonization, most land speculators did not live on the lands to which they laid claim. Instead, most speculators established large plantations along the Potomac River, with some smaller plantations along the mouths of navigable creeks. However, at least a few individuals did live in, or tend land in, more remote areas along the frontier.[17]

In 1704, Abraham Farrow became the first person within the area of the future cabin camps to occupy the land he patented. Abraham Farrow was an English millwright who profited from his marriage to Margaret Mason, a member of the family of the prominent colonist George Mason. Together the couple purchased lands along Quantico Creek and established a large tobacco plantation containing much of the southeastern area of the park, including the present-day visitor center and Cabin Camp 3.[18] Their main plantation, however, was located closer to Dumfries, outside the future park boundaries. The Farrow family profited greatly from the trade in tobacco and built a large house likely near the intersection of the present-day I-95 and the Quantico Creek—then considered the frontier of the Virginia colony.[19]

16. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 17-18; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 3.
17. Bedell, '*Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 19-20.
18. Bedell, '*Few People Know Such a Place Exists*', 23-27.

Tobacco plantations like the Farrows relied on an agricultural process called the "long fallow" system. Under this practice, only about 10 percent of a large plantation's land was farmed each year. Remaining lands were left to fallow, and the soils would regenerate the nutrients lost to tobacco production. The future cabin camps were almost certainly carved up into a patchwork of cultivated and regenerating tobacco lands.

The Farrows' rapid commercial success and cultivation of the landscape was possible because of slavery. The plantation system of linked lands aways relied on indentured servants or enslaved laborers for cultivation. Prior to 1660, laborers were typically indentured servants from Scotland, Ireland, and England. Although indentured servitude continued into the 18th century, by the late 1700s, most of the plantations in Virginia were cultivated by enslaved laborers.[20]

Abraham Farrow died in 1731, leaving his property—which legally included 10 enslaved individuals—to his six children: John, William, Abraham, Mary, Lydia, and Rose. Each of Abraham's children continued to profit from enslavement and expanded the practice throughout the cultural landscape and other family lands. While not all their names are known, some of the individual names of those enslaved by the Farrows (many within the cultural landscape of Cabin Camp 3) are listed below:

- Bess[21]
- Bosen[22]
- Sarah[23]
- Tom[24]
- [Anthony or Antony][25]
- Capt [*sic*][26]
- Ester [*sic*][27]
- Frank[28]
- Jeffrey[29]
- Joan[30]
- Lydda[31]
- Maria[32]

19. Bedell, '*Few People Know Such a Place Exists*', 25-26.
20. Angelina Jones, *Manassas Portici Cultural Landscape Inventory* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 2022), 76-77.
21. Deed Book TT 1724 10 Record No. 3285, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by Abraham Farrow.
22. Deed Book TT 1724 10 Record No. 3285, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by Abraham Farrow.
23. Deed Book CR 1767 1-9 Record No. 17647, in *Prince William County Slave Index,* Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by Abraham Farrow.
24. Deed Book TT 1724 10 Record 3289, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by Abraham Farrow.
25. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11858, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
26. Deed Book TT 1724 10 Record No. 3304, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
27. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11859, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
28. Deed Book TT 1724 10 Record No. 3305, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
29. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11861, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
30. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11860, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
31. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11854, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
32. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11857, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.

- Peggy[33]
- Sam[34]
- Suck[35]
- Thomas[36]
- Charles[37]
- Chatham[38]
- Frank[39]
- Lucy[40]

The practice of chattel enslavement, first introduced in the cultural landscape by the Farrows, greatly expanded in the mid-to-late 18th century.

Steady colonial settlement in the future park remained slow until the 1720s, when the Treaty of Albany and subsequent treaties were signed with the Iroquois and their allies. These pacts opened the frontier to colonial settlement, following the easing of tensions between the two groups. In the ensuing decades, Prince William County was organized in 1731, and its associated Dettingen Episcopal Parish formed in 1744. The establishment of a formal government and parish saw the growth of the county from 2,780 people in 1745, to 5,880 people in 1785. Most of the colonists lived in the town of Dumfries (established in 1749), east of the present-day park. As the population grew, these wealthy landowners continued to patent lands to the west, including within the future park. There, they established tobacco plantations that continued to rely on both tenant farmers and enslaved labor.[41]

Mid-18th century population growth within Prince William County coincided with the patenting of the remaining lands that would compose the future cabin camps. William Bennett patented lands containing the future Camps 2 and 5 in 1731 and 1741, respectively. These were expansions of his adjacent 400 acres, established in 1708 along the South Fork of the Quantico Creek.[42] Bennett and his wife Margaret moved to the area of the cultural landscape around or before 1731, establishing a plantation. They had their land cleared and oversaw the construction of a post-in-hole frame house southwest of Camps 2 and 5, near Route 619. Archeological investigations by the Louis Berger Group in 2009 confirmed the location of the original house and its replacements.[43] Like the Farrow family, Bennett grew tobacco using the long fallow system and sustained his plantation based on enslaved labor. Known individuals enslaved by William Bennett (likely within the bounds of Camps 2 and 5) included Lett[44], London[45], and Sarah.[46] The Bennett plantation would likely have resembled other contemporary plantations, including a central plantation house, outbuildings, and enslaved living quarters. The landscape would have consisted of a patchwork of cultivated fields and fallow lands, including some forested areas.

The remaining lands of the future Camp 2 were patented by Bertrand Ewell in 1743. it is not known if Ewell or his descendants were enslavers, and little is known about how he used the land.

In the 1740s or 1750s, John Tayloe II purchased 2,146 acres of land, including much of the 1666 Beck and Hatoft Tract containing the future Camps 1 and 4. Tayloe was a member of one the richest families in the colony who made their fortune from both the iron industry and large plantations that relied on hundreds of enslaved laborers. Although archeologist John Bedell has suggested that the tract within the future park was purchased for its timber (as part of the charcoaling enterprise associated with Tayloe's ironworks), more recent evidence indicates that it was not used for this purpose. Instead, Tayloe leased much of the property to tenant farmers, parceling the larger acreage into 200-to-300-acre properties.[47]

As an example, one tenant farmer, George Calvert, was already living on the tract when he obtained the lease. Calvert's land was largely outside of the park, but may have contained portions of the cabin camps. Like the larger plantation owners and many other tenant farmers, Calvert also relied on enslaved labor. According to the Prince William County Slave Index, Calvert enslaved:

- Cate[48]
- Dinah[49]
- Duke[50]
- Jean[51]
- Lucy[52]
- Moll[53]
- Tom[54]
- Will[55]

Figure 3: This circa 1935 photo shows a typical pre-park farm that featured a central farm house, outbuildings, and an orchard. Note the stacks of wheat, which was the dominant crop within the future park in the 19th century. (Farm of H. Miller at Joplin Road and Quantico Creek, RA Tract 155, PRWI 2228)

33. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11856, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
34. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11853, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
35. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11855, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
36. Deed Book PP 1782 H6 Record No. 11852, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by William Farrow.
37. Deed Book PP 1782 E1 Record No. 10595, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by John Farrow.
38. Deed Book PP 1782 E1 Record No. 10595, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by John Farrow.
39. Deed Book PP 1782 H1 Record No. 11368, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by John Farrow.
40. Deed Book PP 1782 H1 Record No. 11367, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.; enslaved by John Farrow.
41. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Prince William Forest Park Administrative History*, 3-4.
42. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 18-20.
43. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 27-29.
44. Deed Book TL 1765 T8 Record No. 633, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
45. Deed Book TL 1765 T8 Record No. 630, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
46. Deed Book TL 1765 T8 Record No. 632, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
47. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 88.
48. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1601, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
49. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1602, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
50. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1603, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
51. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1591, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
52. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1592, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
53. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1693, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
54. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1604, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
55. Deed Book CR 1761 1-7 17603, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.

- Winney[56]

While not all tenants relied on enslaved labor, it is important to note the persistence of the practice throughout the Antebellum coastal area across all scales of agriculture, as it would have affected nearly all characteristics of the cultural landscape during this period (e.g. land uses, associated buildings and structures, etc.). For more information on the history of land patents and ownership, see the respective Cultural Landscape Inventories for each camp.

THE SHIFTING NATURE OF AGRICULTURE AND THE GROWTH OF INDUSTRY

As the population of Virginia increased and land productivity declined at the end of the 18th century, farmers abandoned the long fallow method. The plantation model employed by Farrow and Bennett grew less profitable by the 1770s, largely due to the rapid depletion of nutrients in the soil by the tobacco plant. From the late 18th century on, larger land grants were parceled out and sold as owner-occupied farms. At the advent of the 19th century, only approximately 20 families lived in the future park. Many of these were likely tenant farmers, maintaining crops for absentee landowners. While the nature of farming shifted away from large scale plantations, the reliance of farmers of all scales on enslaved labor would continue until after the Civil War.[57]

These smaller tracts, comprising between 100 and 400 acres, focused on a more diverse set of crops, including wheat, flax, indigo, and cotton. Such farms were likely located within the same area later occupied by the cabin camps, and would have featured houses, barns, outbuildings, roads, and other landscape features. The smaller-scale agriculture relied less on enslaved labor; however, some tracts continued the practice and would have featured living quarters for enslaved people.[58]

By the early 19th century, the primary crop within and around the cultural landscape was wheat. New resident farmers constructed simple frame dwellings, established orchards, and cultivated fields. Unlike tobacco, wheat production required the removal of vast swathes of forests, stumps, and the plantings of regular rows of crops. This had an adverse impact on the landscape, resulting in rapid deforestation, erosion, and sedimentation. By 1830, approximately 40 percent of the future park would have been farmed, up from an estimated 10 percent in the tobacco heyday of the 18th century. The growing population thinned remaining forest lands of mature trees, using the timber for building and fence construction, and made use of the cleared land for other agricultural pursuits.[59]

Other industries emerged during this shift in agriculture, including mills along the Quantico Creek. One site, the Clifton Mill, was located along the Quantico Creek just below Cabin Camp 4. According to archeologists from the Louis Berger Group, the mill was associated with the growing wheat industry. Its plantation and outbuildings may have been in Camp 4 near the theater building and graveyard, or in Unit E.[60]

EARLY FREEDPERSONS' SETTLEMENTS IN PRINCE WILLIAM COUNTY

The shift to smaller owner-occupied farming coincided with the establishment of the freedpersons' settlement of Batestown. Scholarship by Arvilla Payne-Jackson and Sue Ann Taylor on the African American experience at Prince William Forest Park note that most Black residents of Batestown were formerly enslaved individuals (emancipated by deed or will) or a descendant of a freedperson.[61] This community of free Black farmers was located along Batestown (formerly Mine Road), north of the future Camp 3 and east of Camps 1 and 4. Batestown was formed circa 1807, when a wealthy white merchant named John Gibson gifted both land and money to the seven children of a Black woman named Nancy Mackie. Two of her children, Sally Bates and Thomas Mackie (or McKee), founded the community of Batestown. The initial 114 acres was located along the Cabin Branch. Through marriage with other free Black families, including the Coles and Kindles (or Kendalls), the Mackies expanded Batestown into the largest (by area) Antebellum free Black community in Prince William County.[62]

Traces of the Batestown community are located throughout Camps 1 and 4. However, they are most evident near the softball field of Camp 1, where mature cedar trees likely mark the edges of a former Batestown homestead. As family members passed away, larger parcels were increasingly divided among the descendants of the Batestown owners. As archeologist John Bedell notes, unlike white owners who often sold or rearranged smaller land parcels, Black landowners seldom sold or gave up their claims to land. In this way, communities like Batestown grew as more families occupied subdivided lands, concentrating the population in increasingly dense settlements.[63]

It was amid this early 20th century boom that Joplin, Virginia was founded. It is unknown when the town was first settled; prior to its incorporation as Joplin, the area was known as Forest Hill.[64] The town was given its name by its first postmaster, William Crow, who was born near Joplin, Missouri. Circa 1904, Crow settled in the area of the future town. He rented a storefront and established a general store. When he learned that the nearest post office was three and half miles away, Crow established a post office in his general store and earned the privilege of naming the town.[65] At its peak, Joplin claimed more than 100 residents. It featured Mt. Zion Church, the Crow General Store, Otto Liming's Blacksmith Shop, the Forest Hill Methodist Church, and the Joplin/Forest Hill School. Known individuals living in the area included the Limings, Millers, Timmons, Taylors, Jones, Florence, Keys, Davis, Watson, Tolson, and Carney families.[66]

Civil War, Industrialization, and the Decline of Agriculture in Prince William County (1861 – 1928)

THE CIVIL WAR IN PRINCE WILLIAM COUNTY

At the advent of the Civil War, Prince William County, including the cultural landscape, was predominately characterized by small farms, including those populated by tenant farmers, enslaved laborers, and free Black settlements. Given its proximity to major Confederate cities, including Richmond and Fredericksburg, as well as its proximity to the United States' capital of Washington, D.C., the area around Dumfries and Independent Hill saw the frequent movement of both troops and supplies during the Civil War. (To date, extensive archeological investigations of the park have not found any evidence of direct military encampment or engagement within its borders.) Most Civil War-related events occurred in Dumfries or in areas beyond the park. However, pre-existing roads crisscrossed the future park during this period, linking Independent Hill and Dumfries with the larger cities and epicenters of the war.[67]

The Civil War nevertheless resulted in indirect impacts on the cultural landscape. Local farmers were drafted into military service, depleting the landscape of people to maintain it. Farmers' crops, supplies, and land were commandeered for war efforts. Perhaps most notably, the landscape was greatly denuded of trees during the war, as troops clearcut trees to increase sightlines between military installments and along the supply routes crisscrossing the cultural landscape.[68]

56. Deed Book TL 1765 T6 1605, in *Prince William County Slave Index*, Prince William County, VA, s.d.
57. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 49-53.
58. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 3-4.
59. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 39-49.
60. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 55-56.
61. Arvilla Payne Jackson and Sue Ann Taylor, *The African American Experience at Prince William Forest Park* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 2000), 36-40.
62. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 4; Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 57-59.
63. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 4; Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 57-59.
64. Hilda Williams Howard (Joplin resident) in coversation with Devon L Lewars (African American History Intern), conveyed by email to authors July 24, 2023.
65. Ken Kimbel, "Meet Joplin's Namesakes—One a Village in Virginia The Other in Montana," *The Liberty County Times* (Chester, Montana), February 20, 1936: 1, 4.
66. Hilda Williams Howard (Joplin resident) in coversation with Devon L Lewars (African American History Intern), conveyed by email to authors July 24, 2023; [Joplin History Presentation], PRWI Interpretation Files, PRWI internal park records, 2008.
67. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 80-81.
68. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists',* 80-81.

Figure 4: When the NPS was planning the Chopawamsic RDA in 1935, the agency photographed and surveyed the abandoned pyrite mine, noting the severe scars it left on the landscape. (PRWI 2228)

ZEAL WILLIAMS AND THE CREATION OF HICKORY RIDGE

The Reconstruction era ushered in by the Union victory in the Civil War brought with it a brief period of new freedoms and opportunities for newly emancipated Blacks. Between 1865 and 1870, Congress passed the 13th, 14th, and 15th amendments and the states ratified them, abolishing slavery, guaranteeing Black citizenship, and affirming the right to vote for Black men. In the ensuing years, Black men were elected to office, ensuring the expansion of educational access, land ownership, and political participation. Reconstruction's civil rights efforts culminated in the passage of the 1875 Civil Rights Act, which prohibited racial discrimination in public accommodations, including parks, schools, and theaters.

It was amid this brief period of expanding Black rights that Zeal Williams, a Black man, and his descendants purchased land within the future park, establishing the Hickory Ridge community. Zeal Williams and his son George purchased their initial acreage circa 1870, later expanding their holdings to include much of the area at the intersection of Pyrite Mine Road and Scenic Drive, near the present-day visitor's center and Cabin Camp 3. Like the historically Black community of Batestown to the north, the predominately Black community of Hickory Ridge has its origins in a handful of Black families that purchased land and bequeathed it to their descendants. (From its inception, Hickory Ridge also included several white families.) This land was further subdivided, but seldom sold, resulting in a densely populated Black community.

INDUSTRIALIZATION AND THE CABIN BRANCH PYRITE MINE

In the decades after the Civil War, the area around the future cabin camps also saw a shift in agriculture, altering the economy in Prince William County and the greater Tidewater area. The Industrial Revolution brought with it new machinery such as the McCormick reaper, which made efficient large-scale agriculture possible and rendered small-scale wheat farming in the Tidewater region unprofitable. At the same time, many farm soils were depleted of key nutrients due to more than a century of poor agricultural practices.[69]

69. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 4-6.

These changes marked a significant economic downturn within the cultural landscape.[70] Farming and orchards, however, remained the principal economic engine of the area for much of the 19th century. Farmers replaced wheat with corn and oats, two key ingredients in animal feed, and many turned to dairy farming.[71]

When not working in the fields, farmers looked to industry and extraction to supplement their income. By the late 19th century, logging and mining were the principal industries within the future park. In 1871, the United States Corps of Engineers reported that over 1,000 cords of wood were harvested within Chopawamsic Creek area.

Gold and pyrite mining also took place in the future park, bringing with it an influx of new residents. In 1889, John Detrick of Baltimore discovered a large deposit of iron pyrite within the future park and established the Cabin Branch Pyrite Mine. Detrick and others set up the center of their operations along the Quantico Creek, near where it meets the South Fork—just north and south of the future Camps 3 and 4, respectively. At the end of the 19th century, iron pyrite was emerging as a valuable ingredient for the production of sulfuric acid, a compound used by the growing chemical and electrical industries of the Industrial Revolution. Anticipating heavy profits, Detrick constructed a spur railroad that connected his enterprise with the Washington and Potomac Railroad to the east, near Dumfries.[72] In 1907, Detrick and the other owners incorporated the venture as the Cabin Branch Mining Company, speeding up their extractive enterprise.

Between 1901 and 1926, the number of houses within the future park nearly doubled, from 26 to more than 50. Many of these new buildings and structures housed mine workers originally from elsewhere, including local towns and states as far away as West Virginia. Most houses were vernacular in nature, consisting of one-story wood frame structures with stone or concrete foundations.[73]

With the onset of World War I, American companies rapidly expanded production, necessitating further raw materials; the heightened demand drove the price of iron pyrite to more than three times its prewar value. In 1916, the American Agricultural Chemical Company, one of the largest manufacturers of fertilizer in the country, purchased the Cabin Branch Mine amid increased demand for their products. By this time, the mine employed over 300 people, including both white and Black workers (many of the latter lived in the Batestown and Hickory Ridge communities nearby).[74]

Following World War I, the demand and price for iron pyrite collapsed, precipitating the closure of the Cabin Branch Mine. Labor disputes at the mine, as well as the general trend towards sourcing cheaper materials abroad, led to its closure in 1920. The abandoned mine left a devastating environmental impact on the cultural landscape and its watersheds. Open tailings piles, waste rock, and large pits characterized this area. The acidic run-off from the mine poisoned the Quantico Creek. The mine would not be remediated until 1995.[75]

THE GROWTH OF RECREATION IN THE JIM CROW ERA

At the end of the 19th century, the Black communities of Hickory Ridge and Batestown continued to expand despite increased legislation and litigation that restricted Black civil rights. In 1896, the Supreme Court's infamous decision Plessy v. Ferguson ruled that segregation was constitutional if facilities were "separate but equal." In the years leading up to the case and in the years after, Southern states passed laws that restricted the free recreation of Black Americans and prevented their access to public amenities.

70. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 4-6.
71. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 82-84; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 4-6.
72. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 88; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 5-6.
73. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 87-88, 94; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 5-6.
74. Further research is needed to determine how conditions for white and Black workers varied, and to what extent the facility was consistent with or different than others during the Jim Crow era. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 88; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 5-6.
75. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 88.

Virginia, for example, codified racial segregation in its Constitution of 1902.

Historian William O'Brien points out that the emergence of Jim Crow laws coincided with the late 19th century's establishment of many state and national parks and the growing recreation movement—including summer camps. By this time, white conservationists such as Madison Grant and Theodore Roosevelt were pushing to conserve natural wonders such as the Redwoods, Sequoias, and the Yosemite Valley, equating the loss of these places with a loss of white identity.[76]

The late 19th and early 20th century growth of the national park system in the American West, corresponded with the proliferation of summer camps and urban recreational reform in the eastern United States. Reformers and conservation advocates equated the loss of pristine wilderness with the growth of urban ills such as poverty, disease, and overcrowding. To counteract these societal harms, wealthy and middle-class Americans established summer camps to provide their youth with relief through an imagined wilderness experience; the human-made landscapes for these camps relied on a rejection of industrialization and even agriculture (which was itself a manipulation of the landscape for human use). As architectural historian Abigail Van Slyck notes,

> In manufacturing a new type of wilderness out of what—in many cases—had been a farmland, summer camps seemed to turn back the clock, reversing the westward motion of the advancing frontier and (particularly at eastern camps) returning the landscape to something that evoked its pristine imagined form.[77]

These values would later be adopted by the Recreational Demonstration Area program and the National Park Service as they cleared land for the future Prince William Forest Park. In doing so, they intended to erase any trace of human activity and restore the landscape to an imagined wilderness state, though these erasures were seldom complete.

Camping also afforded the middle class ways in which they could paternalistically impart their values to those in lower economic classes. As camping facilities sprung up outside cities, urban social service agencies—including orphanages, settlement houses, welfare groups, and religious organizations—organized subsidized or complimentary camping trips, often for those who relied on their social services.[78] Several of the groups that would later take up residence at Chopawamsic started as summer camps at nearby federal lands, including Camp Goodwill and Camp Pleasant.

In Washington, D.C., a group called Associated Charities sponsored the first Camp Good Will (later referred to as Goodwill) in 1904 for poor white campers. The first season took place on former farmland in Rock Creek Park (which would later be managed by the National Park Service); the land was leased to the group by the federal government. This first-of-its-kind fresh air camp in D.C. would, in the words of Associated Charities General Secretary Charles F. Weller, "save the lives of many sickly children and bring inspiration both to neglected little ones and their over-burdened mothers."[79] The weeklong excursion offered poor white children and their mothers safe, vigorous opportunities for play, while also providing instruction in health and nutrition. The classist and segregated efforts of these social workers would later serve as the backdrop to the creation of organized group camps at Prince William Forest Park and within the larger RDA program.[80]

In 1907, Associated Charities expanded its efforts to include poor Black campers with the founding of Camp Pleasant. The "Colored Auxiliary" branch of the group, led by a Miss I. I. Russell, procured funding from charitable organizations that largely helped Black youth east of the Anacostia River.[81] The camp featured the same programming as its whites-only counterpart Camp Goodwill. However, unlike at Camp Goodwill, the federal government did not make public land available to Camp Pleasant to lease or use. Instead, the group moved around the east side of the district, leasing private or semi-public lands from sympathetic parties. Between 1907 and 1920, Camp Pleasant moved at least four times, including locations in Kenilworth/Tuxedo, Oxon Hill, Deanwood Heights, and Blue Plains. Meanwhile, during the same period, Camp Goodwill remained at its permanent facilities in Rock Creek Park, separated from its Black counterpart by the District's core and the Anacostia River.[82]

Camp Pleasant's struggle to find a permanent home mirrors the experience of many Black Americans in the American South who had little to no access to recreational spaces on public lands. Throughout the early 20th century, segregationist laws (such as Virginia's Massenburg Law) and societal practices restricted Black people from the use of these facilities. These policies and customs made it illegal, uncomfortable, or unsafe for Black people to travel in certain areas and use certain facilities, creating a scarcity of adequate recreational opportunities for Black people across the country. Public parks in Virginia and D.C. offered inferior, segregated facilities—if they offered them at all—to would-be Black patrons. Public golf courses, beaches, swimming pools, restrooms, and campgrounds operated separate facilities for Black and white visitors, in much the same way that Camps Pleasant and Goodwill operated independently of one another. The National Park Service would later build segregated facilities at Chopawamsic RDA; however, like the founding of Camp Pleasant and Camp Goodwill, the agency did not offer parkland to Camp Pleasant until 1937—two years after the park opened.

Great Depression, New Deal, and Recreation Demonstration Areas (1929 – 1935)

With the stock market crash in 1929 and the onset of the Great Depression, economic conditions in Prince William County declined. Mining and other industries within the future park ceased operations. Government agents observed that the area's increasingly unproductive lands, impaired by erosion and deforestation, returned lower yields and profits for farmers. Paired with the loss of industry, unemployment in the area around what would become the park—and indeed, in the nation as a whole—was at a record high. (In recent decades, historians have demonstrated that these observations were somewhat exaggerated, at the expense of the existing landowners and tenants who occupied the study areas.)[83] The situation called for more dramatic intervention, and in the presidential election of 1932, most voters from the area cast their ballots for Franklin D. Roosevelt and his promised "new deal for the American people."[84]

NEW DEAL

President Franklin D. Roosevelt took office in March 1933. Shortly after, his administration launched the "New Deal," a series of sweeping changes implemented in his first 100 days as president to address the devastating consequences of the Great Depression. Through relief, reform, and recovery efforts, the New Deal sought to create jobs, offer aid, and stabilize the economy and the nation's agriculture systems. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was one of the first programs to be implemented, providing thousands of unemployed young men with jobs related to the conservation of the natural environment and historic sites. The Roosevelt Administration subsequently created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) to help states and municipalities synchronize their

76. William E. O'Brien, *Landscapes of Exclusion: State Parks and Jim Crow in the American South* (Amherst, MA: University of Massachusetts Press, in association with Library of American Landscape History, 2016), 32-33.
77. Abigail A. Van Slyck, *A Manufactured Wilderness: Summer Camps and the Shaping of American Youth, 1890-1960* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 2006), 3-6.
78. Van Slyck, *A Manufactured Wilderness*, xxviii-xxix.
79. "Caring for Poor Children," *The Washington Times*, June 5, 1904, 24.
80. "First Contingent Goes to Camp Good Will," *The Washington Times*, July 1, 1904, 9.
81. "Summer Outings: Committee of Associated Charities Holds Special Meeting," *Evening Star*, November 20, 1907, 14.
82. "Haven for Colored Youth," *Evening Star*, August 8, 1909, 2; "Go to Camp Pleasant," *Evening Star*, August 11, 1920, 4; "City's Fresh-Air Camps Will Be Opened Jul 1," *Evening Star*, June 13, 1912, 4; "Outing Camps Close," *Evening Star*, August 29, 1915, 22; "Camp at Notley Hall," *Evening Star*, June 10, 20.
83. Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 96-97.
84. Ruth Alexander, Ariel Schnee, Timothy Johansen, "The African American Visitor Experience at Shenandoah National Park," Public Lands History Center, Colorado State University, 2018, 148.

Figure 5: The area that would become Chopawamsic RDA was selected for its close proximity to several large urban areas, as well as outlying rural communities. (PRWI 2228, c. 1935)

efforts, including direct relief funds and programs to support specific populations.[85]

As cash flowed into the agency and FERA tried to meet the staggering need, the agency outlined three types of communities that it would target with its programs:

- Distressed families in rural areas;
- Post-industrial communities that were considered "stranded" based on a shuttered industry; and
- Unemployed residents in large cities.

The National Park Service coordination team at FERA identified a site in Joplin, Virginia, as a pilot site for the program. The area was relevant to two of three FERA targets, as it was a rural area and was also considered "economically obsolete" based on the loss of mining and other shuttered industries. "Economically obsolete" was a formal governmental classification, based on a determination that the land in question was unlikely to return to agricultural or industrial prosperity. Agricultural economists proposed removing such farmland from agricultural use and, under the auspices of the New Deal, creating some new land use instead—such as recreation.[86]

The Joplin site was not only "economically obsolete," it was also "submarginal"—the most inferior category on FERA's spectrum, below "good," "poor," and "marginal." Submarginal land was agriculturally unproductive and/or unsuitable; in the case of the Joplin site, this was due to decades of exhaustive agriculture (largely wheat farming), erosion, and depletion of the soil.[87]

RECREATION DEMONSTRATION AREAS (RDAS)

For land that it deemed submarginal, the federal government incorporated the area into its Land Program, which relocated farmers, paid them for their land, and took ownership of the land for

85. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 9-11; Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 96-97.
86. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 9-11; Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 96-97.
87. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 9-11; Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 96-97.

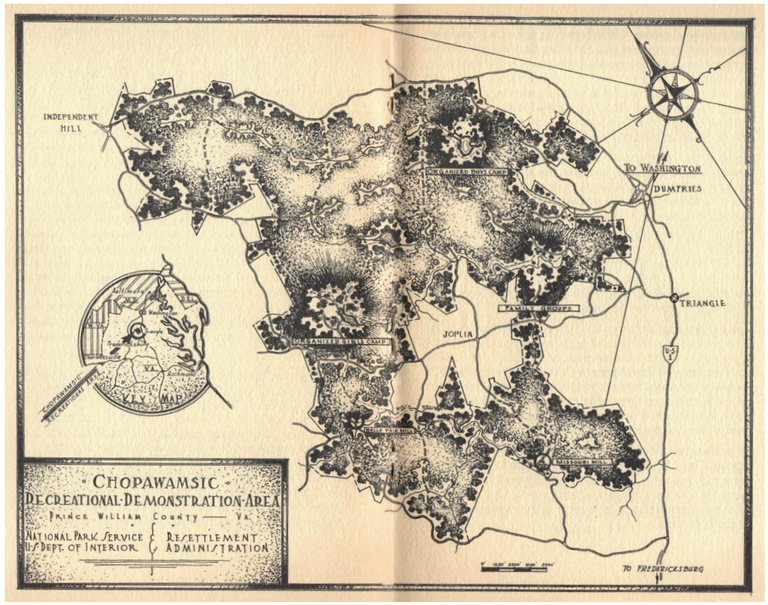


Figure 6: (left) This 1936 map was printed in a brochure that promoted Chopawamsic RDA. The original plan for the RDA featured only three camps: one for white boys, one for white girls, and one for white families. It did not feature facilities for Black campers until 1937, when the NPS developed separate camps for their use. (Recreational Demonstration Projects, s.n.)

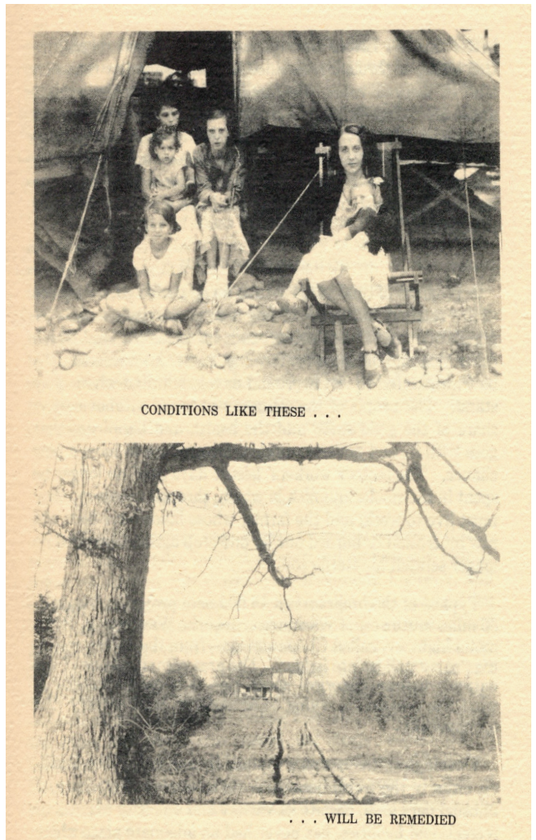
Figure 7: (below) Land acquisition efforts for the Chopawamsic RDA relied on stereotype-based images like these taken c. 1936 to promote the project, often at the expense of existing occupants. (Recreational Demonstration Projects, s.n.)

public use. Once it acquired the land, the federal government put the territory under the jurisdiction of the FERA's Division of Rural Rehabilitation and Stranded Populations.[88] A new program, centered on "Recreation Demonstration Areas" (RDAs), took FERA-acquired land and converted it to recreational use. RDAs thus existed at the intersection of several overlapping objectives, including: economic relief for farm families; recapture and rehabilitation of unproductive agriculture land; conservation of natural lands; and the creation of public health and recreation opportunities.[89]

FERA established several criteria for the RDA program, and invited states to submit proposals for lands within their boundaries that achieved the criteria. RDA eligibility was based on:

- Size (2,000 – 10,000 acres);
- Proximity to a large city (within one hour's drive);
- A ready supply of local building materials;
- Opportunities for water recreation (based on existing water bodies or topography suitable for

88. Edmund F. Wehrle, *Catoctin Mountain Park: An Historic Resource Study* (New London, CT: U.S. Coast Guard Academy, 2000), 155.
89. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 55.



flooding to construct water features);

- Reasonable prices (at an average of $5 per acre); and
- A formal classification as submarginal land.[90]

Early studies of the RDA program stressed the importance of creating camp facilities near urban areas where social agencies, such as Associated Charities in D.C., were already at work. Many social agencies (including Camps Goodwill and Pleasant in D.C.) had the financial and operational capacity to run and maintain group camps, but most did not have the capacity to purchase their own lands.[91]

The program was overseen by a Land Planning Committee that included Secretary of the Interior Harold Ickes, FERA chief Harry Hopkins, and Conrad Wirth of the National Park Service. The National Park Service (newly expanded in 1934) administered the improvement of RDAs, with the goal of expanding the park system's holdings and offering new recreational opportunities for would-be park goers from urban areas.

The Joplin site, located a mere 35 miles from the nation's capital, was seen as a suitable demonstration site for FERA's social, economic, and environmental improvements.[92] Its proximity to D.C. fulfilled the program's objective to help low-income families find recreational opportunities outside the unhealthful conditions of city life. Chopawamsic's many streams and creeks afforded an easy water source for swimming and hygiene, while the land offered readily available building materials for the construction of group recreational facilities. Thus, in 1935, the National Park Service included the Joplin site in its new RDA program, naming it Chopawamsic Recreational Demonstration Area.[93]

The National Park Service saw Chopawamsic as a model for all RDAs in the program. Indeed, Director Conrad Wirth believed that "the success or failure of [the Chopawamsic] project [would] affect all Lands Program projects." Writing of the site, officials further noted that the Chopawamsic area was "one of the nation's unique historical spots, and...a good example of what the program [was] trying to accomplish both socially and economically."[94]

LAND ACQUISITION AND PLANNING FOR CHOPAWAMSIC RECREATION DEMONSTRATION AREA

Director Wirth authorized Chopawamsic RDA on February 19, 1935, and land acquisition began immediately. The months that followed included expansive mapping of proposed RDA borders, surveying of existing land tracts, and purchasing or condemning parcels for the purposes of acquisition. This resulted in the removal and resettlement of people who had been living on the land previously.

Beginning early in the planning process, RDA administrators proposed the construction of organized group camps at Chopawamsic. Modeled after similar private camps operated by social agencies, youth groups, and religious organizations, these group camps would be a defining feature of the Chopawamsic RDA, offering a rustic residential experience in a woodland context. Typically, organized group camps were designed according to a hub-and-spokes plan, with a central administrative and operational core of buildings, surrounded by cabin units that radiated out from the core. For at least one of Chopawamsic's camps, such a layout would be difficult considering the terrain, and would require modification of the hub-and-spokes plan to suit the topography.[95]

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL PARK SERVICE RUSTIC STYLE

With its roster of facilities rapidly expanding, the National Park Service looked to architect Albert Good to offer guidance on the overall design of NPS architecture and landscapes, which had to this point been designed on an ad hoc basis. His initial 1935 publication, *Park Structures and Facilities*, was a key resource in the design of this project and other contemporary NPS facilities around the country.[96]

While Good is widely credited with initiating the so-called Rustic Style, his book drew on the writings and projects of several other architects and landscape architects already in the employ of federal agencies around the country. Among those to whom Good was indebted were NPS architects Herbert Maier and Julian Solomon, landscape gardener/horticulturalist Frank Waugh, illustrator Dorothy Waugh, and campground designer E. P Meinecke.[97] In the introduction to his 1935 book *Park Structures and Facilities*, Good summarizes the Rustic approach. The Rustic Style, he wrote,

> is a style which, through the use of native materials in proper scale, and through the avoidance of rigid, straight lines, and over-sophistication, gives the feeling of having been executed by the pioneer craftsman with limited hand tools. It thus achieves sympathy with natural surroundings and with the past.[98]

Publications by these individuals stressed the importance of using native building materials that blended buildings and structures into the landscape. At many RDAs, this meant using vernacular building techniques, such as hewn log construction, or recycling building materials from extant structures that had been removed for the creation of the park. Within the landscape, this meant using native plant species, including transplanting specimens from the surrounding forest into the camps and abiding by existing topography.

Landscape gardener and horticulturalist Frank Waugh advocated for this so-called natural style in park landscape design. Such a style was sympathetic to its context and used native plantings to blend with the existing environment. Waugh's writings built on the works of Andrew Jackson Downing (Waugh revised and republished an edition of Downing's book *Landscape Gardening* in 1917). A few years later, the principal pathologist of the U.S. Forest Service, E. P. Meinecke, wrote an essential text, titled *Camp Planning and Camp Construction*, that also contributed to the service-wide rustic campground design. Waugh and Meinecke were key voices in the conversation that guided the designs of various state and federal Rustic Style landscapes during this period, including the cabin camps at Chopawamsic RDA. Among their design principles were considerations for the preservation of the forested setting and natural experience, and the near-total exclusion of vehicles within the camps.

The landscape scene—an early term for the cultural landscape and its associated characteristics—was primary to the designers' vision for agencywide cabin camps. With published guidance from Good, Waugh, Meinecke, and others, RDA planners surveyed the park landscapes of the future camps and planned their features to take advantage of their natural settings. They sought to preserve and enhance natural features wherever possible, while also arranging vegetation, boulders, and other natural features to achieve both privacy and designed views. Writing of such planning in a chapter titled "Beauty in the Camp," Meinecke noted:

> Generally, the breaking up of an area into sites will leave some unused or unusable spots, open spaces covered with a tangle of vegetation, small patches and groups of reproduction, or picturesque outcrops of rock with some green. They are the "pictures on the wall," the decorative element that tends to break the monotony and adds to the feeling of living in the

90. Judith Earley and Daniel Weldon, *Camp Misty Mount: Cultural Landscape Inventory, Catoctin Mountain Park, National Park Service* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 2018), 55.
91. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 9-10.
92. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 9-11.
93. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 54-55.
94. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 9-15.
95. Judith Earley, *Catoctin Mountain Park: Cultural Landscape Inventory, National Park Service* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 2002), 56-57.
96. The National Park Service subsequently republished Good's book in 1938 as a three-volume work entitled *Park and Recreation Structures*; See also: E.P. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Construction* (California Region, U.S. Forest Service, 1934); Frank Waugh, *Landscape Conservation* (Washington, D.C: Civilian Conservation Corps, National Park Service, 1937); and Andrew Jackson Downing, *A Treatise On The Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening*, 1860 (C.M. Saxton, H.H. Bancroft & Co., New York and San Francisco, 1860).
97. Linda Flint McClleland, *Presenting Nature: The Historical Landscape Design of the National Park Service, 1916-1942* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, 1993): 160-166, 234-247, 253-268; Terrence Young, *Heading Out: A History of American Camping* (Ithaca and Lonon: Cornell University Press, 2017): 134-139, 153-172.
98. Albert Good, *Park Structures and Facilities* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 1935), 3-4.

> woods, away from the restrictions of civilization.[99]

Waugh and Meinecke (whose advice was later codified by Good) thus argued for the creation of specific views within the camp environments, including: clear sightlines between individual buildings and structures within the camp units; the framing of views along roads and paths based on the careful preservation of existing vegetation and scenery; reciprocal views between buildings in each cabin cluster; views to and from the camp core along axial roads and paths within the camp; and screening effects at the edges of the camps, limiting views into and out of the camps.

Frank Waugh, whose research predates Meinecke's, called such landscape moments "paragraphs," referring to a form of landscape arrangement and design that made for a cohesive camp experience. Waugh notes that the landscape or camp scene should be considered as a whole:

> The scenery can also be made additionally attractive if it is presented by themes or motives arranged in 'paragraphs.'...View after view, picture after picture, will be shown at the most effective points. It is desirable that these views should present considerable diversity....If good recognizable motives, as explained above, can be developed, paragraph by paragraph, the total effect is likely to be enhanced.[100]

Waugh went even further to advocate for the identification and management of specific vegetation zones, which modern landscape architects might refer to as character areas. In addition to recommending management zones, Waugh also advocated for a careful feathering of the canopy, mid-story, and ground cover between developed areas and the surrounding forest. Along major circulation routes, Waugh noted that careful planting of ornamental native species could enhance the naturalistic design of any camp.[101]

However, when it came to vehicle access and circulation throughout the camps, Good expanded on Waugh's principles; he was adamant that the camps should be primarily pedestrian:

> There is no purpose to an actual roadway to any of the other camp buildings. Should there be an occasional need to reach other buildings to collect rubbish, for instance, or to distribute any heavy equipment at the opening or closing of camp, a cleared truck or wagon trail, treated merely as a widened foot path, under all but the most unusual conditions, will suffice.[102]

Thus, most of the circulation features across the camps were planned as pedestrian walks. Vehicle access was limited to the camps' entrance roads, terminating at the main camp office or administration buildings. After this point, gates prevented vehicles from entering the camp core along the main truck trails or service roads in most scenarios.

When Albert Good published *Park and Recreation Structures* in 1938, he would include seven Chopawamsic buildings as excellent examples of the Rustic Style. This included the following plans:

- Administration Building (Camps 1, 2, and 3)[103]
- Infirmary (Camp 2)[104]
- Unit Lodge (All camps)[105]
- Dining Hall (Camp 1)[106]
- Camper Cabin, sleeps 4 (Camps 1, 2, 3, 5)[107]
- Ten bunk camper cabin (Camps 3, 4)[108]
- Staff Quarters (Camp 1)[109]

These plans are discussed in greater detail in the "Buildings and Structures" section of this report's Analysis and Evaluation chapter.

99. E.P. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Construction* ([California Region]: U.S. Forest Service, 1935), 20.
100. Frank Waugh, *Landscape Conservation* (Washington, D.C: Civilian Conservation Corps, National Park Service, 1937), 8-13.
101. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation*, 29-37.
102. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures: Volume II* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1938), 112-13.
103. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 126-127.
104. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 130-131.
105. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 152-153.
106. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 164-165.
107. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 180-181.
108. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 184-185.
109. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 188-189.

Creation of the Chopawamsic RDA Cabin Camps (1936 – 1941)

DESIGN OF CHOPAWAMSIC RDA AND THE CABIN CAMPS

Topographic conditions, including the proximity to water sources, played a significant role in determining the location of the cabin camps. Camp 1 was sited in the northeastern corner of the park along a series of plateaus overlooking the Quantico Creek. The plateaus of Camp 1 allowed for secluded camp units and an uphill camp core with easy access to water. Camps 2 and 3 took similar advantage of their distinct topographies, which were notably flatter than Camp 1, to create a more circular, centralized layout. Both camps were within easy walking distance of the South Fork of the Quantico Creek, facilitating lake access. All three camps were constructed or under construction for the first season in 1936.[110] Camps 4 and 5 were completed in time for their first seasons in 1938 and 1939, respectively. Construction on both camps continued after their opening, until the closure of the Civilian Conservation Corps' camps in 1942.

As construction proceeded on the cabin camps, RDA designers evolved their standardized plans for camp buildings and structures. Changing designs were the result of both expediency and a need for standardization. Camp 1, the first camp to be built in the RDA, featured many more site-specific details such as hewn-log posts, fieldstone steps and paving, and rustic porches. By the time Camps 4 and 5 were constructed, all buildings and structures featured sawn lumber (which generally replaced rustic logs or timbers), and few buildings and structures featured porches, except for those whose programs demanded it (i.e. unit lodges, dining halls, etc.); these later camps were, therefore, less faithful expressions of Rustic Style design.

Each camp is briefly discussed below with reference to its initial construction and the major groups that occupied it during the period of significance. As each camp took on long-term occupants, its name often changed from the numeric identifier to something more specific to a group. This includes Camp Pleasant, Camp Lichtman, Camp Mawavi, and others.

CAMP 1 (CAMP PLEASANT, CAMP LICHTMAN, CAMP GOODWILL)

As the first group camp built in the new RDA, Camp 1 served as the model for the other camps to follow. Camp structures established a Rustic Style material palette. To do so, the CCC established a portable saw mill for wooden elements and a blacksmith shop for metal and decorative ones. Workers quarried local stone from the abandoned Pyrite mine southeast of the camp. Generally, buildings featured random-width waney board siding over the wood frame structure. All wood was stained a dark color with creosote, a chemical preservative. CCC workers also hand-split cedar shakes for roofing.[111]

Construction of Camp 1 began in 1936, with the intention of using it as a boys' camp. The first structure built was a water tower. The following year, in 1937, the CCC constructed the bulk of the camp buildings, including those within camp units and the camp core. When the camp opened for its first season in 1936, many of the camp's structures remained incomplete. Several camp core buildings were completed during the 1936 camp season, while others, such as additional cabin and craft lodges, were not completed until 1938 and 1939.[112]

The first campers arrived at Camp 1 in July of 1936. The Boys Club of Washington used the camp that summer, but returned the following year to its previous location at Camp Reeder in Maryland. In 1937, the Family Service Association (FSA) of Washington relocated Camp Pleasant, its camp for Black campers, from Blue Plains in Southeast Washington, D.C. to Camp 1. The following summer, in 1938, the FSA moved Camp Pleasant to the newly-completed Camp 4.[113]

With the departure of the FSA from Camp 1, the NPS leased the facility to the Twelfth Street YMCA

110. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 13-14.
111. Saylor Moss and Daniel Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [2017 Update] (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 2017), 30.
112. Moss and Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 CLI* [2017 Update], 46-47.
113. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 63-64.

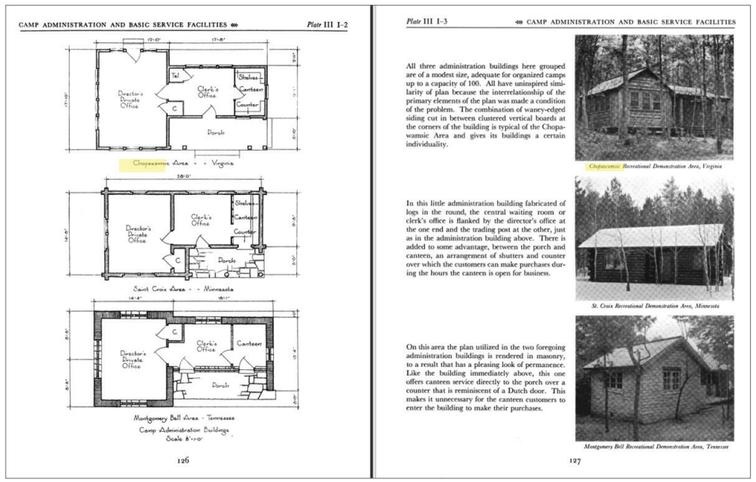


Figure 19: The Camp 2 administration building plan and photo were included in Albert Good's 1938 book as a model. (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part III, 126-27)

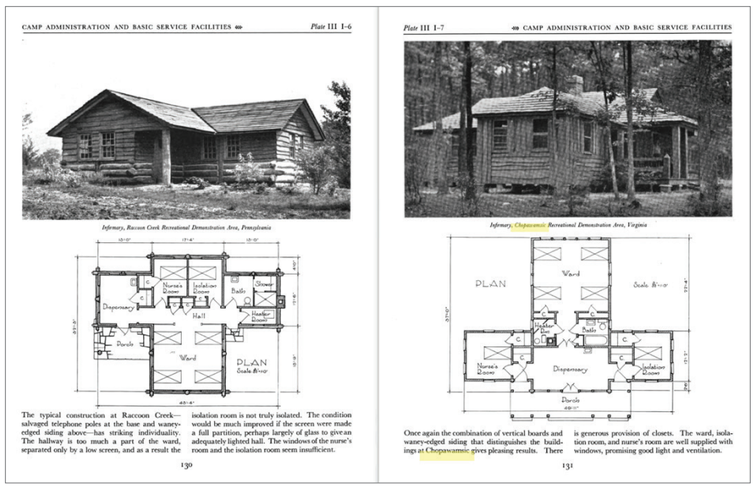


Figure 20: The Camp 2 infirmary building plan and photo were included in Albert Good's 1938 book as a model. (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part III, 130-31)

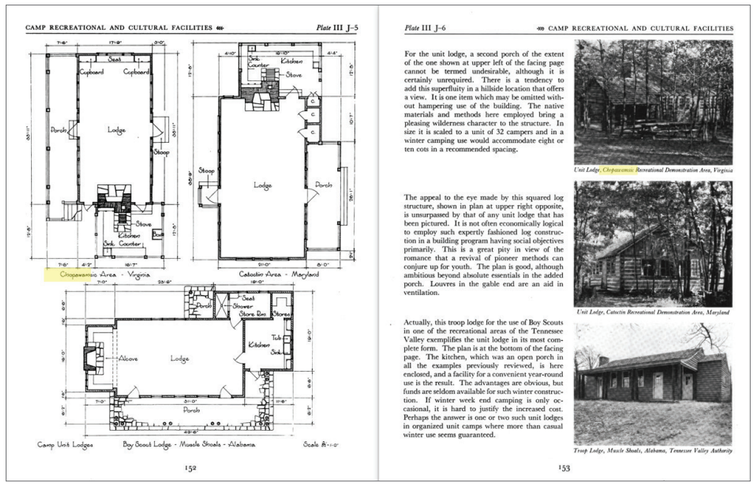


Figure 21: A lodge plan and photo, likely of Camp 1, were included in Albert Good's 1938 book as a model. (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part III, 152-53)

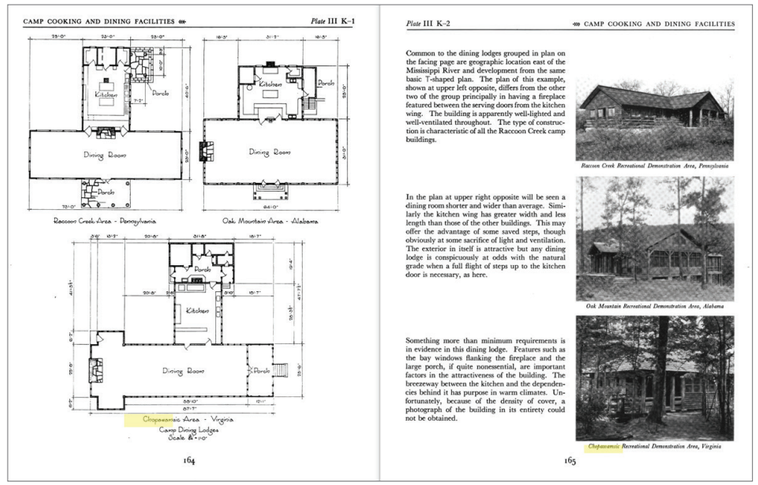


Figure 22: The Camp 1 dining hall plan and photo were included in Albert Good's 1938 book as a model. (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part III, 108)

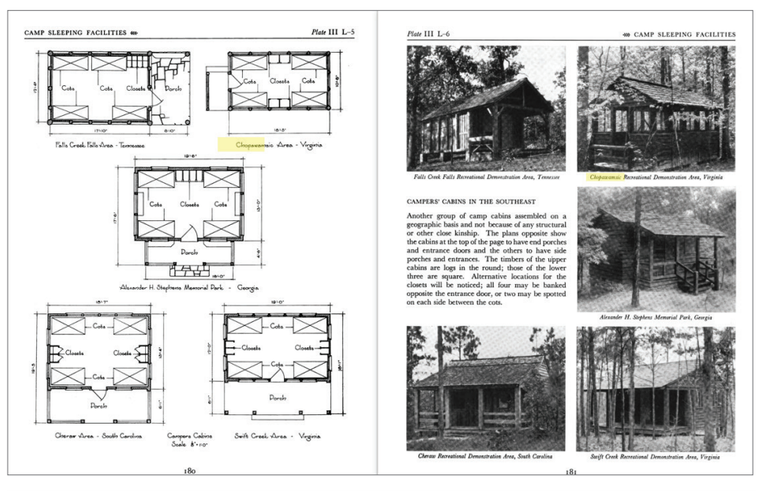


Figure 23: A cabin plan and photo from Chopawamsic were included in Albert Good's 1938 book as a model; these cabins were used in Camps 1, 2, 3, and 5. (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part III, 126-27)

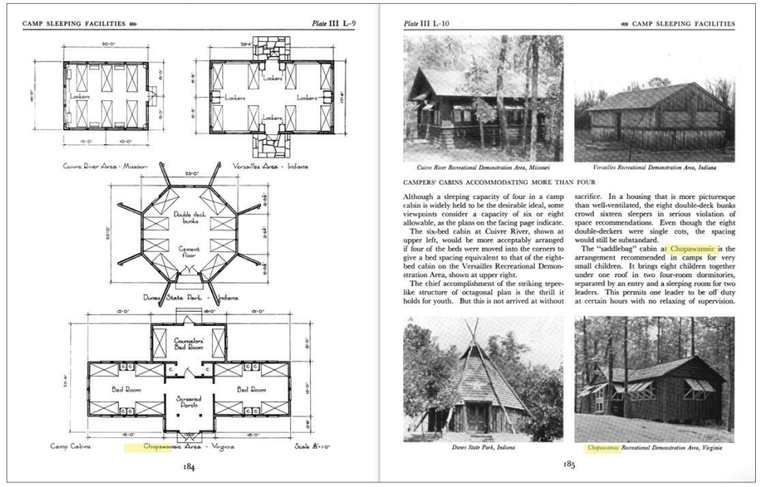


Figure 24: A plan and photo for the ten-bunk cabin plan, referred to as a "saddlebag cabin," were included in Albert Good's 1938 book as an innovative cabin model. It was first developed in Camp 3 and later used in Camps 4 and 5. (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part III, 184-85)

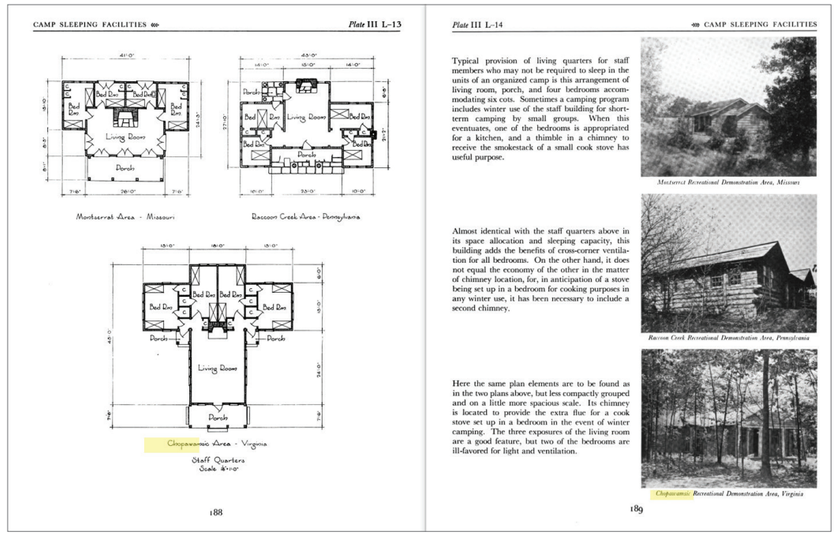


Figure 8: The Camp 1 staff quarters plan and photo were included in Albert Good's book as a model. This plan was not reused at other camps. (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part III, 188-189)

Figure 9: White campers at Camp Goodwill, then spelled "Good Will," pose in 1952 in front of an unnamed building. (NARA Philadelphia RG79 Box 10)

of Washington, D.C., the first Black YMCA in the country. In the summer of 1938, the group moved its Camp Lichtman (established in 1932, and well known by the late 1930s) from the George Washington National Forest near Luray, Virginia, to the Chopawamsic RDA. Abe E. Lichtman, the sponsor of the camp that bore his name, was the president of a theater company whose employees were mostly Black. Lichtman advocated for civil rights and strove to provide opportunities for his employees and their families. Camp Lichtman became known as one of the best Black youth camps of its time; in 1949, the *Afro American* [Baltimore] referred to the camp as "the finest camp in the nation for colored youngsters."[114] Camp Lichtman operated at Chopawamsic until circa 1964, when the Civil Rights Act forced integration, and the YMCA abandoned the camp in favor of an integrated facility, Camp Letts, in Edgewater, Maryland.[115]

With the departure of Camp Lichtman and the phasing out of the practice of assigning camps according to race, the FSA began using Camp 1. The move was motivated in part by logistics, as it limited the necessary busing between camps and helped camp staff share resources.

The organization had been using Camp 3 for its white campers, but relocated its "Camp Goodwill" to Camp 1. This practice began circa 1954, when the FSA would occupy the camp when Camp Lichtman was not using it. The change in group was made permanent in 1964, and the camp was formally renamed from Camp Lichtman to Camp Goodwill. During this time, the FSA alternated which race used its two camps, as a means of gradually integrating their attendance. The FSA continued to use Camp 1, aka Camp Goodwill, into the 1990s.[116]

CAMP 2 (CENTER CAMP, CAMP MAWAVI)

Construction on Camp 2, the purpose-built girls' camp, was roughly concurrent with construction on Camp 1. Although it was not yet complete, the camp opened for the 1936 season. The design for Camp 2 closely followed Camp 1 in both plan and materiality. At Camp 2, however, CCC workers began to standardize their plans and materials. Milled lumber and siding reduced the need for skilled laborers to cut and place logs. Similarly, the significant reduction in stone masonry, and the gradual replacement of stone with bricks, further reduced the need for specialized masons and quarrying.

114. Quoted in Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 63-64.
115. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 63-64.
116. Ibid.

Between 1936 and 1940, the Jewish Community Center (JCC) of Washington, D.C. used Camp 2. The group referred to Camp 2 as "Center Camp." In keeping with the RDA's mission to serve underprivileged urban youth, the JCC worked with Jewish social agencies to select candidates. These included the Jewish Social Service Agency, the Juanita Nye Council House, the Public Relief Division, and the Jewish Foster Home.[117]

However, despite the RDA planners' intention for the camp to be used as a girls' camp, Center Camp initially operated as a youth camp for both boys and girls, ages 6 to 14. Campers were divided by gender within camp units, but used the central camp structures collectively. The JCC ceased operations at the camp in 1940, following the threat of funding cuts.[118] Sometime after 1940, the road to Camp 2 and 5 was changed to Mawavi Road, in keeping with the change in camp name.

In 1940, the Arlington Girl Scouts changed the name of Center Camp to Camp Mawavi. As the new lessee, the Arlington Girl Scouts wanted the camp's name to reflect their campers. The name "Mawavi" borrowed from the three states that made up camp attendance: Maryland, Washington, and Virginia. The tenure of the Arlington Girl Scouts was short-

Figure 10: Camp 2 was used by the Potomac Area Camp Fire Girls for over 40 years. This 1952 brochure highlights some of their programming and amenities. (NARA Philadelphia RG 75 Folder, 150-05)

117. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 63-64.
118. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 63-64.

lived; the Office of Strategic Services took over the RDA in 1942, and the group did not return after the war.[119]

After 1942, the Potomac Area Camp Fire Girls took over camp operations. They chose to maintain the name Camp Mawavi and operated the camp until the 1990s.[120] The group became co-ed in 1975. The group's policy regarding race and integration is not known.

CAMP 3 (CAMP ORENDA)

Camp 3 opened to campers in 1936, despite being substantially incomplete. In its first season of operation, the Salvation Army operated the camp. The group did not return the following year. In 1937, the second camping season, the Family Service Association of Washington, D.C. moved Camp Goodwill, its camp for white children, from Rock Creek Park (Washington, D.C.) to Chopawamsic RDA. The CCC completed all remaining facilities in time for the 1938 camp season.[121]

Like Camp Pleasant, Camp Goodwill did not charge its campers. Most of the funding was covered by donations, solicited via a newspaper writing campaign in *The Washington Star*, with the remainder assumed by FSA.

Camp Goodwill was originally built as a summer camp for white youth and their mothers. However, during the design and planning process for Camp 3, the FSA asked the NPS to include a new model of cabin units that would also allow for fathers to be present. No other Washington area camp allowed for families to camp together. The new "experiment" at Chopawamsic would feature a hybrid design at Camp 3, containing traditional camp units and others for families. This meant that Camp 3 featured units with small four-camper cabins—similar to those in Camps 1 and 2—together with a new ten-person model that accommodated campers, their parents, and staff. Since Camp 3 was designed for younger children, it also featured a much shallower wading beach and a nursery building.[122] The FSA began to integrate its camps gradually starting in 1954. To facilitate such efforts, Camp Goodwill moved from Camp 3 to Camp 1 circa 1956. (This move was also practical; co-locating the two camps reduced busing costs, increased communications between FSA staff, and allowed for the sharing of camp resources.)[123]

The proximity of the white Camp Goodwill (now at Camp 1) to the Black Camp Pleasant (at Camp 4) allowed for a mixing of campers and staff. Initial integration efforts included alternating which race used each camp each summer, until racial labels were largely erased from the two camps. After the FSA's departure from Camp 3, various groups used the facility. In 1964, following integration and the dissolution of Camp Lichtman at Camp 1, the YMCA began operating a girls camp at Camp 3. It renamed the facility "Camp Orenda."[124]

According to *Encyclopedia Britannica*, "Orenda" is a Haudenosaunee term similar to mana, or a belief that all things animate and inanimate in the landscape contain spiritual energy.[125] Such a name would have been in keeping with the summer camp appropriative tradition of "Playing Indian" referred to in other sections of this CLR.

CAMP 4 (CAMP PLEASANT)

With the completion of Camp 4 in 1938, the FSA moved Camp Pleasant from Camp 1, where it was temporarily housed. Camp Pleasant served underprivileged Black youth and their mothers. Like the facilities at Camp 3, Camp 4 featured a nursery. However, unlike Camp 3, Camp 4 only featured the new ten-bunk cabin model, likely indicating the FSA preference for a family-oriented cabin following its implementation the previous summer at Camp 3.[126] Camp Pleasant remained a Black-only camp until circa 1956, when the FSA moved Camp Goodwill nearby and began integrating its camps. The FSA operated Camp Pleasant through the 1990s.[127]

119. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 65.
120. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 65.
121. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 65.
122. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 65.
123. FSA Camp Alumni interview and emails with CLR authors, August 2023.
124. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 65; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 71.
125. "Orenda," in Encyclopedia Brittanica, accessed September 7, 2023, https://www.britannica.com/topic/orenda.
126. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 66-67.
127. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 66-67.
128. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 67-68.

Figure 25: Workers at Camp SP-25 lined up for this photo in the 1930s in front of their dormitories. The company later demolished or relocated the CCC camp structures, converted the area to a playing field, and disbanded. (PRWI 14466)

CAMP 5 (CAMP HAPPYLAND)

Camp Happyland, operated by the Salvation Army, moved to Chopawamsic in 1939 after the completion of Camp 5. Established in the 1920s in Anne Arundel County, Maryland, Camp Happyland served underprivileged mothers and children from Washington, D.C. When the group moved to Chopawamsic, its old facility was given over for use by Black campers, while the new facility at Chopawamsic would serve only white campers. The Salvation Army would continue the exclusion of Black campers at Chopawamsic until the 1950s.[128]

Unlike the other camps, Camp Happyland operated on both residential (long-term) and day-use (short-term) models. The Salvation Army referred to these efforts as "Program Camps" and "Fresh Air Camps," respectively. This hybrid model likely reflected the camp's much smaller plan, consisting of only two units, closely clustered around the dining hall and a camp shelter.

Figure 26: James Retche, a CCC worker in SP-25, poses in the 1930s in front of camp buildings that would later be demolished to form the Cabin Camp 2 playing field. (PRWI 14507)

Figure 11: A CCC worker identified as "McMreey" poses in the 1930s with a pile of woodchips, which were used in the camp to treat muddy conditions. (PRWI 14549).

The Salvation Army occupied the camp until 1968, when it left Chopawamsic.[129]

CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS AT CHOPAWAMSIC

Between 1935 and 1941, laborers assigned to three Civilian Conservation Corps companies were responsible for all original buildings, structures, and landscape improvements at Chopawamsic. Each company comprised between 100 and 120 men who were assigned a geographic unit of the park. This unskilled labor force was supplemented with a small number of Locally Employed Workers (LEMs), who were hired with WPA funds and had an understanding of local building methods, materials, and the landscape.[130]

Each CCC company (composed of white, male laborers) was located near the cabin camps it would go on to construct. The first CCC crew in Chopawamsic, Company No. 1374, began operations on May 13, 1935, establishing camp SP-22-VA. This camp was located between the

129. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 67-68.
130. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 12.

Figure 27: The Camp 2 administration building was used as a model both at other cabin camps and in Albert Good's 1938 book. (PRWI 1082)

future Camps 1 and 4, and Company No. 1373 was responsible for building those facilities. However, SP-22 also undertook the initial construction work at Cabin Camp 3; construction work on Camp 3 was assumed by SP-26 in 1937. Company No. 1373 operated until April 24, 1939, at which point it was disbanded and Camp SP-22-VA was converted to a ballfield for Camps 1 and 4.[131]

CCC Company No. 2349 began operations on July 29, 1935, establishing camp SP-25-VA between what would become Camps 2 and 5. (Camp SP-25-VA was converted on October 1, 1939 to Camp NP-16-VA.)[132] Company No. 2349 constructed those cabin camps before disbanding in March 1938. Most buildings and structures within the CCC camp were demolished and the area was converted into a playing field to service Camp 2. Some buildings, including a garage, were moved to SP-26, located near Camp 3. The NPS allowed the CCC to leave a tack house, storage house, and wash rack. The remainder of the area was cleared of trees, including an apple tree that may have indicated the area was a former homestead. The NPS' plans for the new playing field included a softball field, basketball court, handball court, volleyball court, benches, a water fountain, and a latrine. It is unknown how much of this plan was realized.[133]

The third CCC group was Company No. 2383, which established camp SP-26-VA on October 29, 1935, near the site of Cabin Camp 3 in the RDA's lower maintenance area. SP-26 drilled an initial well at Camp 3 in 1936, but its laborers were diverted to the nearby Quantico Marine Base. In their absence, SP-22 and SP-25 constructed some of Camp 3's initial buildings and structures. The majority of the work at Camp 3, however, was undertaken by SP-26 This camp operated until April 25, 1942, when it was disbanded in anticipation of the disbanding of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Some traces of the camp remain; however, they are located outside of the boundaries of the cultural landscape.[134]

131. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 12.
132. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 12.
133. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 54.
134. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 12; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 59-60.

CCC Company No. 1373 began construction on the first building in Chopawamsic, located in Cabin Camp 1, in April of 1936. Laborers used local materials, in keeping with the Rustic Style promoted by National Park Service designers. Using portable sawmills, workers milled local timber and produced waney board siding, as well as structural supports and flooring. They also gathered and quarried native stones for chimneys, walls, and building foundations. Once erected, workers roofed buildings with hand-split wooden shakes. Within the landscape, workers used stone-crusher equipment to surface entrance roads and parking lots with native gravel, while other trails were left as bare earth.[135]

In the ensuing months and years, Camp 1 served as a model for the four other camps at Chopawamsic, demonstrating the use of local materials and the Rustic Style. Successful examples of Chopawamsic architecture were even featured in Albert Good's republished and expanded three-volume *Park and Recreation Structures*.

Within the landscape, the Civilian Conservation Corps also built the constructed water features essential to organized group camping. Such water features—which were often shared between multiple cabin camps—promoted among campers' good hygiene; offered recreational opportunities such as swimming, boating, and fishing; and taught water safety. In 1936, Company No. 1373 constructed a dam along the Quantico Creek, near Camp 1. It was originally made with engineered rock and earth, and was later replaced with concrete. Companies 2383 and 2349 built similar, less substantial dams between Camps 3 and 4, respectively. The last dam to be built between Camps 2 and 5 was much more substantial and was built using reinforced concrete.[136]

Even as the camps were still being planned by the NPS and built by the CCC, social agencies in the D.C. area were preparing for the first summer of camping. Camps 1, 2, and 3 opened on June 5, 1936.[137]

To date, no archeological investigations have been conducted at the locations of the former CCC camps within the park.

135. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 12.

136. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 13-14.
137. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 13-14.

Figure 12: (left) Camp Lichtman, operated by the Twelfth Street YMCA of Washington, DC, operated a summer camp for Black youth in Camp 1 from 1938 to 1964. In this 1956 photo, two boys pose with a turtle during nature programming. (PRWI 4411)

Figure 13: The 1937 master plan for Chopawamsic RDA called for three separate areas. The northern area was designated for Black campers, the middle portion for white campers, and the southern portion was set aside as a wildlife reserve. Campers accessed the white and Black sections of the park via separate entrances. (RG79, 4-7.1. GENERAL CORRESPONDENCE, 1947-1969, National Archives at Philadelphia)

CHOPAWAMSIC AS A MODEL OF SEGREGATED RECREATION

When the National Park Service began planning Chopawamsic, it chose to accommodate and enforce segregationist legislation already codified in the Commonwealth of Virginia. Despite the park's Federal status, the National Park Service depended on the Commonwealth of Virginia for political support and, in some cases, funding to acquire parklands. Accordingly, state, and local politicians shaped park policies, including those regarding racial segregation in public spaces; this meant that Virginia's national parks and recreation areas were legally and socially segregated during the Jim Crow Era.[138] In parallel, the groups that planned to use park's facilities also had their own segregationist policies that they enforced in their operations (and the park deferred to their practices).

However, initial park planning documents and promotional materials omitted the fact that the park operated on a segregated basis. Between 1935 and 1937, research suggests that the National Park Service was undecided if the Chopawamsic facility would serve Black campers, in addition to white campers. In 1936, the National Park Service circulated a promotional brochure pointing to the project as a nation-wide model. Entitled *Recreational Demonstration Projects as Illustrated by Chopawamsic*, the brochure mentioned only that the planned RDA would feature a boys' camp, girls' camp, and family camp.[139] It made no reference to race. Indeed, even as the National Park Service worked to develop a consistent Rustic Style for its physical accommodations, its deference to state policies resulted in a case-by-case approach to legal accommodation and inclusion within America's growing park system.

Initially, RDA planners intended to construct only three different organized group camps within the RDA boundaries: Camp 1 would host white boys; Camp 2 would host white girls; and Camp 3 would host white families. The first season at Chopawamsic hosted 212 white campers across the three camps. More research is needed to determine how the RDA planners identified these first three groups to use the new group camps. The first season, summer 1936, accommodated the following groups:

- Camp 1: Boys Club of Washington, 68 campers
- Camp 2: Jewish Community Center, 74 campers
- Camp 3: Salvation Army (unknown number of campers)

The Boys Club from Washington was an already established charity with its own facility, Camp Reeder, along the Wicomico River in Maryland. The group left this facility in 1936 to test out facilities at Chopawamsic. However, after its first season there, the group returned to its old site, leaving Camp 1 open for other groups.[140]

There was no consideration given to potential Black campers until the second year of the RDA's operation. In April of 1937, park staff decided to reserve Camps 1 and 4 in the northwest portion of the park for Black campers and Camps 2, 3, and 5 for white campers. With this plan, Chopawamsic RDA became the first of its kind in the country to offer organized group accommodations—albeit, on a segregated basis—to Black campers on public lands. The NPS hoped that by offering a segregated model, other RDAs would also afford Black youth the opportunity to attend camp—especially in the American South.[141]

As the cabin camps were designed to be segregated landscapes in the late 1930s, watersheds served as a dividing feature within the park. A 1937 NPS policy designated the northern fork of the Quantico Creek watershed for Black campers, while the South Fork watershed would serve white campers. In a letter formalizing the policy of racial segregation based on watersheds, NPS Regional Director Herbert Evison emphasized that the "section of the watershed of the North Branch of Quantico Creek from the road leading north from Joplin and downstream to Ridge Road" would serve as the "Negro Area."[142] Such geographic separation, as delineated by the NPS Regional Office, would ensure that the new white camps on the South Fork Quantico Creek would "be isolated from the above mentioned Negro section," ensuring that waterways—and their respective users—did not mix.[143] This geographic delineation was based on racist stereotypes regarding cleanliness and health at swimming areas and water sources; this racial separation also reinforced the National Park Service's official deference to the Jim Crow policies of state governments.[144]

Camp Pleasant, which had previously convened in D.C., rented Camp 1 in the summer of 1937. The Family Services Association (a combined effort with Associated Charities) operated the camp. The first season was so successful that other non-profits sought out the Chopawamsic camps in order to offer programs for Black campers. The following summer, the 12th Street YMCA of Washington, D.C. relocated its summer camp for Black youth from the George Washington National Forest in Luray, Virginia to Chopawamsic. Camp Lichtman, as the YMCA program was called, operated in Camp 1 from 1938 to 1964.[145]

In the midst of other road planning efforts for the overall RDA, NPS regional and national staff debated the access points for these two distinct sections of the park, which had not originally been designed to be segregated. The NPS' Head of Region 1, Miner R. Tillotson, adopted the region's stance that both areas should have separate entrances (one for white campers, and one for Black campers) with no overlap or connections:

> If we are to be realistic in our approach to recreation planning in southern states, we must recognize and observe the long-standing attitudes and customs of the people, which require, as a fundamental, that recreational areas and facilities for the two races be kept entirely separated. Such a policy should not be considered discriminatory, since it represents the general desire of both races.[146]

The regional office further noted that a single entrance would require Black campers to pass by the proposed whites-only day use area, leading to potential conflicts.

Under NPS director Conrad Wirth, the national office, meanwhile, held that only one entrance was necessary. Wirth noted the added cost of creating two entrances, and argued that two entrances would require segregated signage that would draw attention to the agency's policies on race.

Both regional and national offices acknowledged that whatever decision was made would become precedent nationwide. In 1939, the groups reached an agreement, and—despite Wirth's objections—plans for the separate entrances were formalized.[147] In adopting these plans, the National Park Service deferred to the segregationist policies of the Commonwealth of Virginia, subverting its own nationwide policy of desegregation.

As expected, other RDAs followed the Chopawamsic model, offering segregated facilities to white and Black campers. There were no integrated RDAs. By 1941, the NPS had established 9 RDAs with accommodations for Black campers (including some that were planned specifically for a segregated Black audience), but many more (22 in all) offered no such facilities for Black visitors. Critics of the RDA program lobbied for a legal requirement that all states provide and maintain facilities for Black campers before assuming ownership of any RDAs. Internal NPS memos opposed this idea, noting that such a rider would result in too many RDAs remaining under federal ownership (where the state was unlikely to comply with such inclusive policies), resulting in considerable costs and maintenance requirements.[148]

Chopawamsic RDA likely remained under federal ownership precisely for this reason—in order to maintain the facilities for both Black and white campers (rather than turning the park over to

138. William E. O'Brien, *Landscapes of Exclusion: State Parks and Jim Crow in the American South* (Amherst, MA: Library of American Landscape History, 2015), 15-17, 44-45.
139. *Recreational Demonstration Projects as Illustrated by Chopawamsic, Virginia, being developed by the United States Department of the Interior* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1936), s.n.; Kuhn and Grosbeck 14-16.
140. "Three Chest Camps to Open This Week," *Evening Star*, July 5, 1938, 6; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 62.
141. O'Brien, *Landscapes of Exclusion,* 73-84.
142. Quoted in Erin Krutko Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks, 1916-1965: A Historic Resource Study* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, July 2022), 78, 261-62.
143. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 261-62.
144. O'Brien, *Landscapes of Exclusion*, 73-84.
145. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 14.
146. Quoted in Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History,* 14.
147. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 14.
148. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 14-16.

Virginia, only to have the Commonwealth reclassify all five camps as whites-only). On August 2, 1939, the *Washington Post* noted that a bill passed by the United States Senate authorized Chopawamsic as a unit of the National Capital Parks owing to its "value to Washington social agencies." Chopawamsic RDA was transferred to the National Capital Parks on August 14, 1940.[149]

World War II and the OSS at the Cabin Camps (1942 – 1945)

In early 1942, the War Department requested use of several national parks and Recreation Demonstration Areas around the country for defense purposes, including strategic planning, training, rest camps, and more; this included Cabin Camps 1-5 at Chopawamsic RDA and two camps at Catoctin RDA in Thurmont, MD. Both RDAs were used by the new Office of Strategic Services (OSS) for top-secret intelligence training. Many of the same advantages that underpinned the creation of these RDAs also appealed to the military: their proximity to D.C.; the isolated and wooded terrain; and the abundance of water features for training exercises. The presence of the existing cabin camps and infrastructure also helped to expedite the establishment of the OSS training facilities.[150]

Secretary of the Interior Harold Ickes authorized the War Department's use of Chopawamsic RDA in the spring of 1942. His authorization, however, was not without objection. Ickes and NPS Director Newton B. Drury preferred that the camps remain in recreational use during the war, continuing their successful partnerships with social agencies in the District of Columbia. Hoping to make their stance clear, Ickes issued a temporary two-month permit. Once established at the camps, the OSS managed to secure an indefinite permit for the duration of the war. During the OSS's tenure, the park and camps were closed to the public—including all charitable and social organizations and their summer camps.[151]

In its agreement, the National Park Service authorized the War Department's use of its lands, but stipulated that,

> Precaution [should] be taken to preserve and protect all objects of a geological and historical nature...that wherever possible, structures, roads, as well as trees, shrubs and other natural terrain features, shall remain unmolested...[and] that every precaution shall be taken to protect the Area from fire and vandalism.

NPS Director Drury also directed the War Department to consult with the agency before constructing any new buildings, and mandated that all sites be restored to their prewar condition when the OSS eventually left.[152] The only prewar NPS staff who remained involved at the site during the war were Park Manager Ira Lykes and Thelma Williams, who managed day-to-day administration. Lykes, who was technically employed at nearby MCB Quantico as a forester, spent his weekends overseeing Chopawamsic and ensuring OSS compliance with its lease agreement.[153]

The OSS made extensive use of the Chopawamsic RDA facilities throughout the war. The new agency arrived in April 1942, converting the tranquil recreational area into an intensive base for paramilitary training and covert operations. The OSS divided Chopawamsic into Area A and Area C, occupied by the OSS Branches of Special Operations and Communications, respectively. Area A contained much of the southern portion of the RDA, including Camps 2, 3, and 5. Headquarters for Area A operations were in the CCC camp SP-26-VA, near Camp 3. Area C occupied a smaller, northern portion of the RDA that included Camps 1 and 4.

During World War II, OSS trainees and officers lived in the cabin camps and used the existing core structures as common areas for dining, recreation,

149. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 14-16; 54 Stat 785 Public Law 763.
150. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 16-17; John Whiteclay Chambers II, *OSS Training in the National Parks and Service Abroad* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 2008), 52, 85, 90-92.
151. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 16-17; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 100-103.
152. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 16-17; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 100-103.
153. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 16-17, 21; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 100-103.

Figure 14: Members of the OSS practice at a temporary pistol range somewhere in Chopwamsic RDA in the early to mid-1940s. (National Archives RG226, Entry 85, Box 27, F: 445)

Figure 15: Members of the OSS recreating next to a temporary wartime building at Camp 4 in the 1940s. The theater building is shown in the background. (NARA RG 226 [6])

and education. Despite clear guidance not to do so, the OSS made alterations to the existing buildings, including converting several of the four-cot cabins into two-cot cabins (for use by officers) and installing indoor toilets (chemical or flush) in the officers' cabins. It also winterized the cabin camps for year-round use, adding insulation and woodburning stoves, painting the buildings, laying new roofing tarpaper, installing new board drop ceilings, and extending electricity to all buildings.[154]

OSS AREA A (CABIN CAMPS 2, 3, AND 5)

The first class of trainees for Advanced Special Operations arrived in May 1942, and were housed in Area A. This area accommodated up to 900 personnel, including 600 trainees and 300 officers and enlisted men. Area A-2 (Cabin Camp 2) hosted a variety of programming, including both basic training and advanced training for the "Operations Group," and it served as a holding area for OSS personnel.

The lake in Area A-5 (Cabin Camp 5) served briefly as the base for OSS waterborne operations, where trainees conducted "clandestine seaborne landings, river crossings, or [abandonment of] a sinking ship."[155] Within a few months, waterborne operations were moved to Area D on the Potomac River, and Area A-5 became an overflow area for unassigned OSS personnel.

Area A-3 (Cabin Camp 3) hosted the OSS Parachute School, where trainees would jump from airplanes and "parachute into clearings [in Chopawamsic], simulating the manner in which agents and equipment would be dropped behind enemy lines."[156] Area A-3 also featured adjacent firing ranges and explosives areas, outside of the cabin camp boundaries. In 1943, the Parachute School moved to Fort Benning, Georgia, and Area A-3 transitioned to use by the Special Operations and Morale Operation branches. These groups used Area A-3 as living quarters, classrooms, and code-breaking rooms.[157]

OSS AREA C (CABIN CAMPS 1 AND 4)

Operations at Area C were underway by the winter of 1942. The Communications Branch of the OSS used Area C to teach clandestine radio operations and equipment usage. Area C was headquartered at Area C-1 (Cabin Camp 1), which also served as a surplus training area. Here, OSS personnel winterized buildings and structures and constructed a temporary radio repair shop, radio transmitter building, and two guard houses (locations unknown).

The Communications Branch used Area C-2 (Cabin Camp 4) as its main training center. At Area C-2, trainees "spent two to three months learning to be clandestine radio operators behind enemy lines or more often operators and other technical personnel at OSS regional base stations in war zones and theater headquarters around the world."[158] Such operations demanded the most extensive changes to any of the cabin camps during the war. OSS staff renovated and expanded a recreation building at Camp 4 constructed in late 1938 by the Army Technical Services Branch. The OSS significantly expanded the east elevation of the structure in 1943 to accommodate two service wings. (These additions were later removed circa 1946, after the OSS left Camp 4.)[159]

DEPARTURE OF THE OSS

Elsewhere in the park, outside the boundaries of the study area, the OSS also constructed storage facilities for explosives, demolition training areas, and other paramilitary training facilities. Military staff—despite clear instruction not to modify the park landscape without NPS consent—constructed and modified roads and trails, blew up farmhouses and other pre-park structures during explosives training, and installed and extended utility lines.[160]

Military priorities began shifting to the Pacific Theater in late 1944 and early 1945, during which time the OSS shifted its operations to the West Coast of the United States. In November 1944, the OSS ended operations in Area A (Camps 2, 3, 5), permanently closing the area in July 1945. On September 20, 1945, President Harry S Truman issued an executive order dissolving the OSS. One month later, Area C was closed, and the OSS presence in Chopawamsic RDA officially ended.[161]

Postwar Improvements and Desegregation (1946 – 1956)

CABIN CAMP REHABILITATION AND REOPENING

After the departure of the OSS in the fall of 1945, park staff returned to a much-altered Chopawamsic RDA. Eager to reopen the camps for the summer season in 1946, the immediate postwar period was a time of intensive repair, removal, and recovery across the RDA. During this period, military and NPS staff completed several rehabilitation projects, including: staining building exteriors; replacing plumbing; repairing doors and windows; installing new power lines; clearing downed timber; and filling and re-grading the target pits and demolition areas.[162]

According to its agreement with the Secretary of the Interior, the OSS was to return the camps to their prewar condition by removing any temporary facilities and those used specifically for military purposes (e.g. firing ranges, magazines, etc.). Any permanent improvements, or improvements deemed "acceptable" by park staff, would be transferred to the RDA. Ira B. Lykes, who resumed his prewar position as the park's full-time manager, ensured that the War Department complied with all aspects of its lease. During his postwar inventory of the camps, Lykes identified several new buildings and structures. In Area A, Lykes noted four new 25-man latrines, a demolition zone in Area A-2 (Cabin Camp 2), and a boat house in Area A-5 (Cabin Camp 5). All buildings, military structures, and training areas within Camps 2, 3, and 5 of Area A were removed by the summer of 1946.[163]

Lykes had fewer objections to the wartime structures in Area C, leaving many for use by summer camp groups. During his inventory, Lykes noted the addition in Area C-1 (Cabin Camp 1) of a motor repair shop, guard building, a small plywood building (of unknown use), and an additional latrine. Area C-2 (Cabin Camp 4) had perhaps the most extensive series of improvements. Within the camp core, Lykes inventoried a new classroom building, a theater/recreation building, a Quonset hut, officer's quarters, and a new dining hall wing. On the present-day playing field north of Unit D, Lykes found a "tent city" with the remnants of 25 tents, a latrine, and a small-storage building. On the west side of the camp, near the lake and creek, was a substantial shooting complex that included a pistol range, rifle range, and utility range. With so many buildings and structures left in Camp 4, Lykes' removal orders focused on those that were safety hazards or those that impeded camp functions. These included all shooting ranges and the tent city. Many buildings, including the theater and Quonset hut (located southwest of the theater, near the infirmary), remained. (The Quonset hut was removed in 1947.)[164]

Despite the military's efforts to winterize and improve most buildings, most facilities at the park had received little maintenance or rehabilitation since they were initially constructed in the 1930s. This, compounded with a level of year-round use during the war period that exceeded the

154. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 16-17, 21; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 100-103.
155. Chambers, *OSS Training*, 115; Susan Cary Strickland, *Prince William Forest Park: An Administrative History* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 1986): 27.
156. Chambers, *OSS Training*, 145-146; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 17.
157. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 17-19; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 145-149; Strickland, *Prince William Forest Park: An Administrative History*, 27.
158. Chambers, *OSS Training*, 145-149.
159. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 17-19; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 151, 164-170; MTFA Architecture et al., *Prince William Forest Park Camp 4 Recreation/Theater Building Historic Structure Report* (Washingon, DC: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 2022), 46-49.
160. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 17-19; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 141.
161. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 17-19; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 159; 506.
162. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 20-23.
163. Elsewhere in the park, but outside the study area, Lykes inventoried nearly a dozen new buildings and several military training structures that required immediate removal; these included a "House of Horrors" and three "Problem Houses" that were used to simulate covert operations behind enemy lines. See: Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 20-23; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 509-513.
164. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 20-23; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 509-513.

original intention of the camps, resulted in much-needed maintenance by the end of the OSS' tenure. Needed repairs almost certainly included the restoration of cabin camps, updates to the water and electrical systems, and the removal of additional temporary or unsuitable OSS buildings and structures.[165] However, the RDA lacked sufficient funds to supply adequate maintenance and labor.

In the summer of 1946, organized group camping resumed at all five cabin camps. When it returned to Cabin Camp 4 that summer, Family Services noted in a memo to park staff that many changes had been made to the camp over the war years, including the winterization of the camp and the addition of many buildings that should be removed. Like Lykes, Family Services completed its own inventory and noted the presence of an enlarged theater/recreation building, guest house, 100-man latrine, a Quonset hut, and an additional wing to the dining hall. Not all features were unsuitable to Family Services, who enjoyed the use of the guest house, dining hall addition, and theater.[166]

THE ARMY ENGINEER TRAINING FORCES AND POSTWAR PARK IMPROVEMENTS

Groups such as Family Services continued to work with Lykes to improve the postwar condition of the camps. By the summer of 1947, park staff had removed the Quonset hut and latrine in Camp 4. Despite minimal postwar funding, Lykes ensured that groups saw the necessary repairs to operate their camps, including repairs to roofs, floors, drain boards, screens, windows, doors, porches, electrical wiring, and power lines.[167]

Frustrated by the lack of funds and labor to improve park facilities, Lykes turned to his military connections at the nearby Fort Belvoir. Home of the Army Engineers School, Fort Belvoir prepared trainees by having them build new roads and bridges, then subsequently demolish them, and start again. Lykes considered such efforts wasteful and invited the group to improve and construct a series of permanent roads within the park. Lykes' top priority was to connect Camps 1 and 4 with Camps 2 and 5 via an internal road network.

Agreeing to the deal, the Army constructed several vital roads connecting the cabin camps. The NPS provided all raw materials and costs, while the Army provided labor and training. Beyond Lykes' initial road project, trainees quarried and mined stone, demolished unnecessary structures, built, and restored dams, moved and re-erected buildings, constructed bridges and culverts, improved utility lines, and undertook sawmill and timbering operations for cabin repairs. Notable changes to the cabin camps under this program included the demolition of all remaining temporary buildings in Camp 4, and the improvement of over 46 miles of camp and park roads—almost certainly including those within the cabin camps. Without this partnership, Lykes estimated that post-OSS repairs and improvements would have cost over $1 million.[168]

The Army also constructed a new lake in Camp 3 in 1948. The newly constructed lake at Camp 3 was named "Lake Tomahawk" by camp user groups. The name was derived from the implicit and insidious associations of summer camps with "Playing Indian," as scholar Philip Deloria has noted in his eponymous book. A name such as "Lake Tomahawk" inspired imagined and perceived ideas of wildness and natural values that had nothing to do with the reality of Indigenous cultures or values.[169] The original wading beach and swimming area in Camp 3 was abandoned.

RENAMING CHOPAWAMSIC AND THE THREAT OF KOREAN WAR

Concurrent with camp improvements, Chopawamsic RDA's name changed. Local, regional, and national staff sought the name change to separate the RDA's public image from its years of exclusive use by the military. The renaming efforts also noted the status of the RDA as federal land, which would not be returned to the state as most other RDAs were. Park Manager Lykes preferred to simply change "RDA" to "park" (as in, Chopawamsic Park), while the Superintendent of the National Capital Parks favored "Old Dominion Park." In 1948, Associate Director of the National Park Service Arthur Demaray and his assistant Conrad Wirth settled the issue, approving the name "Prince William Forest Park."[170]

The newly renamed park generally operated as it had before World War II. In 1951, the United States entered the Korean War. Upon entering the conflict, the newly formed Central Intelligence Agency (CIA)—a successor to the OSS—declared its intention to use the cabin camps once again. Park staff notified camp user groups that military use would likely result in the cancellation of the 1951 summer camp season.[171]

In D.C., several social agencies mounted a public relations effort to prevent the agency's claim on the camps. Faced with public pressure, including opposition from *Washington Star* editor Benjamin M. McKelway and other columnists, the CIA withdrew its request. The camps remained in use for public recreation.[172]

Mission 66 Developments at the Cabin Camps (1956 – 1967)

In the postwar decades, the condition of America's national parks grew dire, even as visitation increased. Reduced Congressional appropriations, limited permanent and seasonal staffing, and the elimination of New Deal-era funding and work programs crippled the service's ability to maintain or improve its facilities. Visitors consistently faced long lines and traffic jams, inadequate or poorly-maintained bathrooms, and an insufficient number of lodging and camping facilities.[173] NPS Director Conrad Wirth noted that America's national parks were being "loved to death," and without Congressional intervention, the situation was "seemingly hopeless."[174]

In response to these stressors, a conservation movement grew in popularity, lobbying for limits to public park access and curbs on further development within public lands. To address the crisis, NPS Director Conrad L. Wirth proposed a 10-year service-wide construction program, with funding that would begin immediately in 1956, and continue over the next decade. Known as "Mission 66," the program was "intended to modernize, enlarge, and even reinvent the park system by 1966, the fiftieth anniversary of the National Park Service."

The scale and success of Mission 66 relied on the experience of NPS staff and designers who had, 30 years earlier, implemented the sweeping New Deal-era improvements and development of park master plans. However, unlike the New Deal, Mission 66 did not bring with it guaranteed Congressional funding, nor did it carry the full weight of all federal agencies or an emergency civilian workforce (as was true during the Great Depression and the New Deal). Instead, the National Park Service's Mission 66 program relied on its own staff and the support of the public to accomplish its goals and push for Congressional funding.[175]

Mission 66 brought a new style to the parks, breaking with the traditional Rustic Style in favor of the International Style and Modernism. The new style aimed to bring modern standards of comfort and efficiency to the National Park Service. NPS Director Conrad Wirth encouraged staffers to "disregard precedents [and] be imaginative," announcing that "the lid [was] off." As Wirth saw it, such innovative solutions were the only way to meet the modern problems of visitation and overuse.[176] Practically, the Modern Style also allowed the NPS to use cost-effective standard materials, plans, and construction methods developed in the postwar building boom. While these new materials were distinct

165. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 20-23; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 509-513.
166. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 20-23; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 509-513.
167. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 20-23; Chambers, *OSS Training*, 509-513.
168. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 22-25.
169. See Philip Deloria, *Playing Indian* (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 1998); and Abigail Van Syck, A *Manufactured Wilderness*, 177-189.
170. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 22-25.
171. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 22-25
172. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 22-25.
173. Kuhn and Grosbeck *Administrative History*, 26.
174. Quoted in Ethan Carr, *Mission 66: Modernism and the National Park Dilemma* (Amherst, MA: Library of American Landscape History, 2022), 43-56, 56-57.
175. Carr, *Mission 66*, 64-66.
176. Carr, *Mission 66*, 3-4.

from their Rustic Style counterparts, the overall building and landscape design of Mission 66 was complementary and referential to earlier periods of park development.[177]

Prince William Forest Park and its cabin camps planned for extensive improvements using Mission 66 funding.[178] The National Capital Parks developed a Mission 66 prospectus in 1955-56, with principles and priorities for Prince William Forest Park and other regional parks. National Capital Parks allotted $70 million for improvement projects across its parks, including $1,256,100 for Prince William Forest Park.[179] Within that sum:

- $260,000 would support roads and trails projects;
- $220,000 would be for utilities improvements;
- $746,100 would fund building construction and rehabilitation, and
- $30,000 was for miscellaneous undertakings.[180]

Park staff refined the Mission 66 scope in their 1959 Master Plan. Planned changes to the cabin camps included the proposed addition of swimming pools; water and sewer system improvements; repairs to camp lakes, dams, and spillways; and the construction of new comfort stations, recreation shelters, and cabins/dormitories. Mission 66 planners also called for funding to double the capacity of Cabin Camp 5 and construct a new four-unit cabin camp (within the Chopawamsic area, but the precise location is unknown).[181] However, the scope of improvements within the cabin camps was ultimately reduced in favor of day-use and public-facing facilities elsewhere in the park.[182]

Instead, limited cabin camp improvements under Mission 66 focused on the construction of additional buildings and structures, including facilities that had been planned as part of the original camp layouts but never built, as well as facilities advocated for by camp user groups.

For brevity, Mission 66 improvements (both planned and realized) are listed below.

MISSION 66 IMPROVEMENTS, CABIN CAMP 1

- Completed Improvements[183]
  - Replacement of log seating in campfire circle with planks and concrete block supports (1952)[184]
  - Enlargement of parking area (1957)
- Planned, but unbuilt
  - Swimming Pool

MISSION 66 IMPROVEMENTS, CABIN CAMP 2

- Completed Improvements
  - Replacement of log seating in campfire circle with planks and concrete block supports (1952)[185]
  - Replacement of water supply pipes (1958-1959) and a new pump house (1960)
- Planned, but unbuilt
  - Swimming Pool
  - Additional ten-bunk cabins in each unit

MISSION 66 IMPROVEMENTS, CABIN CAMP 3

- Completed Improvements
  - Replacement of log seating in campfire circle with planks and concrete block supports (1952)[186]
  - New pumphouse and reservoir (1957) [outside cultural landscape boundaries]
  - Storage building, Unit A (c. 1958)
- Planned, but unbuilt
  - Swimming pool
  - Recreation building/shelter
  - Additional camper cabins
  - Two new latrines
  - Toilet/Laundry building, Unit C

MISSION 66 IMPROVEMENTS, CABIN CAMP 4

- Completed Improvements
  - Replacement of log seating in campfire circle with planks and concrete block supports (1952)[187]
  - Water and fire system upgrades (1954; 1958-1959)
  - Swimming pool (1956)[188]
  - Storage Building (1958-1959)
- Planned, but unbuilt
  - Cook's quarters
  - Additional camper cabins
  - Water tower

MISSION 66 IMPROVEMENTS, CABIN CAMP 5

- Completed Improvements
  - Replacement of log seating in campfire circle with planks and concrete block supports (1952)[189]
  - Addition of four 10-bunk camper cabins, two in each of Unit A and B (four total) (1956)[190]
  - Expansion of administration building (1956-1957)[191]
  - Addition of concrete floor to craft lodge (1957)[192]
  - Addition of concrete bottom to Camp 5 wading pool in lake (1957)
  - Pavilion building (1957-58)[193]
  - New central washhouses, one in each of Unit A and B (two total) (1957-1958)
  - Cook's quarters (c. 1960)[194]
  - Expansion of dining hall (1962)[195]
  - Addition to the dining hall (1956-1962)[196]
  - Host house (date unknown)

MISSION 66 IMPROVEMENTS ELSEWHERE IN THE PARK

Within the larger park, proposed changes focused on increasing the park's visibility by providing public programming and facilities beyond organized group camping. This meant the construction or improvement of day use areas such as Pine Grove

177. Carr, *Mission 66*, 91.
178. The park received funds for Fiscal Year 1956 at the end of summer 1955. See Kirkconnell et al., *Catoctin Mountain Park: An Administrative History*, 108; Earley, *Camp Misty Mount, Cultural Landscape Report* [DRAFT], 130-1; Elder, *Catoctin Mountain Park* [DRAFT], 39.
179. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 26.
180. "National Capital Park Preliminary Prospectus [MISSION 66]," 1956, in Record Group 79, Box 14, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park Maryland. 55-56.
181. "National Capital Park Preliminary Prospectus [MISSION 66]," 1956, in Record Group 79, Box 14, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park Maryland. Pages 55-56.
182. "Master Plan for the Preservation and Use of Prince William Forest Park, Chapter I," December 1959, in Record Group 79, Box 14, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park Maryland.
183. "A Report of the Recreation and Maintenance Activities of Prince William Forest Park for the Year 1957," in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
184. "Monthly Narrative Report, August 2, 1962," in RG 79, Box 3, Folder A2827, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
185. "Monthly Narrative Report, August 2, 1962," in RG 79, Box 3, Folder A2827, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
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189. "Monthly Narrative Report, August 2, 1962," in RG 79, Box 3, Folder A2827, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
190. "A Report of the Recreation and Maintenance Activities of Prince William Forest Park for the Year 1956," in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
191. "A Report of the Recreation and Maintenance Activities of Prince William Forest Park for the Year 1957," in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
192. Craft lodge may refer to the currently enclosed storage building. Such structures, similar to the one in Camp 3, were constructed without walls and featured post in ground timber structures.
193. "Annual Reports 1956-1965," in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
194. "Annual Reports 1956-1965," in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
195. "Superintendent's Monthly Narrative Report, 1962" in RG 79, Box 2, Folder A2823, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
196. Additions to the dining hall were undertaken in later decades by user groups.

Figure 16: (left) Family Services began integrating their campers as early as 1954. This undated photo from after 1954 shows Black and white campers at Camp 3 attending a naturalist program. (PRWI 1496)

Figure 17: (below) This circa 1966 photo shows campers enjoying the Mission 66-era pool at Camp 4. (Abbie Rowe, NPS, PRWI 2386)

and the unrealized Forest Knoll, creation of a visitor center, establishment of a tent and trailer campground, and the construction of a central scenic drive. In their administrative history of the park, historians Patti Kuhn and Sarah Grosbeck note that the "goals and projects implemented by Mission 66 remain evident in PRWI today, and the manner in which visitors experience the park is in part a result of this ambitious program."[197]

At the end of the Mission 66 Program in 1964, the Regional Director of the National Capitol Region, T. Sutton Jett, recommended the discontinuation of plans to expand or build new any additional cabin camp units at Prince William Forest Park. Jett reasoned that because the Washington metropolitan area was expanding so quickly, such units should be built in more rural areas beyond Prince William Forest Park. Instead, he maintained that existing camps should continue their operations, and that any future changes to the organization of the camps would be reviewed on a case-by-case basis.[198]

DESEGREGATION

Civil rights advocates had been challenging the segregationist policies of the National Park Service since at least the 1930s. Because Chopawamsic RDA was closed to the public during World War II, its segregated prewar status was not as visible as was true in other national parks, such as Shenandoah National Park.

Desegregation efforts within the National Park Service began nationally in the 1940s. In 1942, Secretary Harold Ickes and NPS Director Newton B. Drury issued a policy stating that all facilities owned and administered by the National Park Service were to be operated without consideration of race. However, this was only a partial solution, as user groups who rented federal facilities could continue to discriminate based on organizational policies and preferences. Ickes pushed through a policy of full desegregation before resigning from President Harry S Truman's administration; the new policy took effect in December 1945, and banned any discrimination in furnishing public accommodations based on race, creed, color, or national origin. In theory, this meant that all publicly owned and privately operated facilities within the National Park Service system were now desegregated. However, in practice, the policy did not result in the immediate integration of facilities or user groups.[199]

While Ickes and his advisors were pushing for desegregation on public lands, federal law also mandated the conveyance of all RDAs to the states after 1942. This meant that RDAs that had been established as federal entities would now revert to their respective states (functioning as state parks); in the case of RDAs in the American South, the parks would be subject to Jim Crow laws. Thus, many of these former RDAs would remain segregated until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

When Black campers returned to a reopened Chopawamsic RDA in 1946, little would have changed for them. While public facilities run by the National Park Service were legally desegregated by this time, private organizations were allowed to run the camps at Chopawamsic on a segregated basis, maintaining the status quo of "separate but equal" facilities. Indeed, it wasn't until 1954 that any group challenged the historic racial designation of each camp. Such challenges were the result of the Supreme Court's rulings in *Brown v. Board of Education* and *Bolling v. Sharpe*, stating that "separate educational institutions are inherently unequal."[200] The legal logic used in these cases was subsequently applied by courts to public parks across the South. However, the state government of Virginia actively sought out and implemented ways to prevent the desegregation of public facilities. State, county, and local parks in Virginia would not be desegregated until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which ostensibly ended

197. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 26.
198. "Review of Packaged Master Plan for Prince William Forest Park," Group 79, Box 14, Folder "D18 Planing Program," in in Record Group 79, Box 6, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
199. Erin Krutko Devlin, *Under the Sky All of Us Free: African American Travel, Visitation, and Segregation in Shenandoah National Park* (Fredericksburg, VA: University of Mary Washington, 2010): 161.
200. Quoted in O'Brien, *Landscapes of Exclusion*, 15.

the legal mechanisms of Jim Crow and mandated desegregation of public spaces.[201]

Against this legal backdrop, Family Services of Washington began in 1954 to interchange which race was permitted to use each camp, stopping short of integration among its campers. In the organization's view, their efforts would “erase the racial tags” attached to the camps and eventually lead to integration. However, Family Services reasoned that full integration of its facilities would result in some campers not attending—particularly those from Maryland and Virginia, where public schools generally remained segregated. Family Services did not integrate its use of Camps 1 and 4 until 1956. Other groups, including Camp Lichtman at Camp 1, continued to operate their camps on a segregated basis until the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.[202]

The belated, piecemeal efforts to integrate Prince William Forest Park merely removed any mention of segregation in the park landscape; they did not actually encourage Black visitorship or reverse the decades-old patterns of segregated use. In this way, the purpose-built segregated landscape of Prince William Forest Park remained relatively unchanged until the mid-1960s, continuing to reinforce socially established patterns of park-wide discrimination and use.

CABIN CAMP DECLINE AND REHABILITATION

Despite its ambitious start in the mid-1950s, many planned Mission 66 improvements to the cabin camps were either never realized or delayed for several decades, long after the formal end of Mission 66 in 1966. In 1968, park staff proposed adding year-round facilities to Cabin Camp 5, in keeping with the Mission 66-era requests of several user groups.

In 1968, planning for the winterization and construction of the new facilities began with the construction of two 3,250 sq ft dormitories in Cabin Camp 5.[203] Two new dormitories were added to each camp unit, totaling four dormitories. Although the new dormitories introduced a new scale of building and a reinterpretation of Camp 5's CCC-era cluster arrangement, the alterations helped to sustain the ongoing use of the camps as they aged. The overall spatial organization of the camp—that is, camp units organized around a camp core—remained unchanged.

The same construction campaign also winterized the dining hall at Cabin Camp 5.[204]

Other post-Mission 66 priorities included the planned addition of shelters/recreation buildings at all cabin camps (not realized), and the replacement of all water tanks and water towers in each camp.

Funding for these scuttled projects may have been diverted to a more pressing issue: erosion. In a 1969 memorandum to the regional director, Superintendent Albert A. Hawkins noted his staff’s inability to address the challenge of erosion in the camps, noting that a “tremendous project” was required to solve the crisis. Hawkins secured regional funding for erosion treatment, which was carried out during the winter months, when campers were not using the camps.[205] While acknowledging the issue of erosion, Hawkins did not specify how or where staff were addressing the issue.

PARKSCAPE USA AND SUMMER IN THE PARKS

For those improvements that were realized in the late 1960s, many of them were likely funded under NPS Director George B. Hertzog's Parkscape USA initiative. As the successor program to Mission 66, Parkscape USA (1967-1973) sought to continue the momentum established by Mission 66 in order to complete planned projects and to expand the park system for the end of the 20th century.[206] However, unlike Mission 66, which focused on facility improvements, Parkscape USA sought a large-scale enlargement of the national park system. The program had five major goals:

- “completing” the park system by 1972;
- developing “cooperative programs with other agencies";
- “utilizing the national park concept” to improve life in American cities;
- “communicating the values of park conservation"; and
- developing an international assistance program for national parks in other countries.[207]

Improvements at Prince William Forest Park’s cabin camps fell neatly under Hertzog’s third goal of improving life in urban areas. The cabin camps were a part of the National Capital Parks, Washington D.C.’s urban park system that included Rock Creek Park, Anacostia Park, Catoctin Mountain Park, and many small public parks across the District.

Beginning in 1966, the National Park Service began busing children from Washington, D.C., to Prince William Forest Park for day trips to summer camp. This program was codified under the Summer in the Parks initiative, begun in 1968. The program hoped to catalyze park planning in four key areas:

1. Programs for small downtown parks
2. Activities in community parks
3. Trips for children to different parks
4. A community-centric park along the Anacostia River.[208]

The busing program was formalized in 1968, with new Congressional funding. Under this program, urban youth were bused to the same park for a week to attend summer camp. Most programs at outlying parks were run by cooperating agencies, such as the YMCA, social agencies in Washington, or scouting programs.[209] At Prince William, youth attended a rustic “pioneer camp,” the specifics of which are not known. The Summer in the Park program continued until the 1976 Bicentennial; many of the program's activities likely took place in facilities improved under Parkscape USA.[210]

Late 20th Century Improvements and Recent Camp History (1970 – Present)

As the 20th century progressed, suburban development and sprawl crept closer to Prince William Forest Park, altering the relationship between the park and what had been a relatively rural setting. The population shifts made the recreational landscape more accessible for many people (based on proximity), but it has also presented challenges as park officials strive to maintain the rustic feeling of the camps and their broader park context.

Meanwhile, the winterization of Cabin Camp 5’s buildings proved so successful that it spurred park staff to recommend further replacement of Rustic Style accommodations with modern, winterized facilities. Project development schedules over the next several years regularly requested funding to replace aging buildings and structures and erect modern ones that met the changing needs of camp

201. O’Brien, *Landscapes of Exclusion*, 15; Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 25-26.
202. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 25-26.
203. “Park Development Schedule, December 5, 1968,” in RG 79. Box 6, Folder “D18 Planning Program,” National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
204. “Park Development Schedule, December 5, 1968,” in RG 79. Box 6, Folder “D18 Planning Program,” National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA; “Memorandum to Regional Director, Priority of Work Projects for the Remainder if 1969,” in RG 79. Box 6, Folder “D18 Planning Program,” National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
205. “Park Development Schedule, December 5, 1968,” in RG 79. Box 6, Folder “D18 Planning Program,” National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA; “Memorandum to Regional Director, Priority of Work Projects for the Remainder if 1969,” in RG 79. Box 6, Folder “D18 Planning Program,” National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
206. Richard West Sellers, *Preserving Nature in the National Parks: A History* (New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1997: 205-214.
207. Ethan Carr, Elaine Jackson-Retondo, Len Warner, and others. *National Park Service’s Mission 66 Era Resources*, National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form, National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 2015.
208. Jacob Torkelson and Molly Lester, *Anacostia Park Cultural Landscape Inventory* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior. 2020), 190-93.
209. Vicki J Glenn, “A Capital Idea for Summer Fun,” in *Trends* 15, no. 3 (Summer 1978): 8-9; “Summer in the Parks,” National Park Service, accessed September 11, 2023, https://www.nps.gov/articles/summer-in-the-parks-1968-1976.htm.
210. Glenn, “A Capital Idea for Summer Fun,” 8-9; “Summer in the Parks,” National Park Service, accessed September 11, 2023, https://www.nps.gov/articles/summer-in-the-parks-1968-1976.htm.

user groups. This included the addition of outdoor shelter/recreation buildings at each camp for large gatherings, when inclement weather prevented the use of campfire circles. At Camp 4, the proposed shelter would replace the OSS-era recreation/theater building, which had greatly deteriorated by this time. Shelters at Camps 1-4 were not realized; in 1958, the NPS constructed a shelter at Camp 5. Other improvements included the rehabilitation of all dining halls and the construction of equipment storage buildings at each camp (not realized). Many individual improvements focused on Cabin Camp 3, including the addition of a staff quarters/host house (1972), and the addition of a modern central shower house (not realized).[211]

The condition of the constructed lakes and swimming areas was also apparently declining by 1969. In a letter to Superintendent L.T. Davenport, the director of Camp Lichtman noted that "because of silting of [Lake 1] and the lack of the lake being more than two or three feet deep in any given area, there were no fish in the lake."[212] He went on to note that there wasn't any plant or animal life at all, making both swimming and fishing unlikely in the future.

Cabin Camp 4 already featured a modern swimming pool; apparently, the popularity of this feature spurred other park user groups to request the construction of additional pools at each camp. However, park staff continued to prioritize the repair of dams and swimming areas at the lakes, rather the construction of additional pools; the pool at Cabin Camp 4 remained the only pool at any of the five cabin camps. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, park staff requested funding to extend the dam walls at the Camp 1 lake; add a retaining wall to the Camp 2 lake; and repair the dam at the Camp 4 lake.[213] Such piecemeal fixes to the lakes and their swimming areas did little to assuage the safety and use concerns of camp user groups.

211. "Development Schedules [1969-1972]," in RG 79. Box 6, Folder "D18 Planning Program," National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
212. "Permits, YMCA of Washington," RG 79, Box 10, Folder L3035, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
213. "Permits, YMCA of Washington," RG 79, Box 10, Folder L3035, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.

DEMOLITION AND REPLACEMENT AT CABIN CAMP 1

Funding for the cabin camps' maintenance and upkeep lagged in the last few decades of the 20th century, resulting in a steep decline in building condition. Meanwhile, park staffing was greatly reduced, limiting the number of repairs that could be completed annually. At the same time, the demand for group camping facilities was at an all-time high. Park staff could not keep up with the improvements demanded by seasonal groups, and the situation called for drastic action.[214]

Assessing the situation, park staff opted to begin a campaign of building replacement across all camps, using Cabin Camp 1 as a pilot program. In 1977, NPS staff proposed a six-phase replacement project. In the 1977 proposal, staff noted that:

> Without these rehabilitation and construction actions these camps would continue to deteriorate and require disproportionately high number of maintenance hours and dollars spent on utility repairs, impairing the visitor's camping experience, prodding the inflation of camp rental rates, sustaining OSHA [Occupational Safety and Health Administration] deficiencies, and ultimately, forcing camp closures.[215]

As part of this series of projects, all utility lines would be upgraded or replaced. Deficient buildings and structures other than cabins would be rehabilitated, while all camper cabins would be replaced with new, modern versions.[216]

A four-phase pilot project at Cabin Camp 1 began in 1977, and was completed in 1984. The total cost of the project was $1.4 million. Phase 1 consisted of replacing water infrastructure. Phase 2 repaired and rehabilitated existing buildings and structures; staff targeted critical repairs such as roofing, erosion and foundation issues, and fenestration. These two phases were completed in 1980. Phase 3, completed by 1983, buried all new electrical lines and replaced existing gas lines.[217]

Phase 4, the most controversial phase, began in 1984, and consisted of the complete replacement of unit cabins and latrines. In total, the project replaced and constructed 34 new cabins, three new unit comfort stations, and one central pump house. Staff used a standardized cabin plan with a somewhat larger footprint than its predecessors. Despite the replacement of these cabins, staff retained the spatial organization and cluster arrangement of each unit; cabins were generally oriented and located in the same places as their predecessors, to preserve the clustered experience of the cabin units. The new comfort stations, which were much larger than their predecessors, were also placed in similar locations as the former latrines. Contractors also constructed accessible paths between cabins, comfort stations, and the camp core. All other CCC-era buildings, including unit lodges and central core buildings, were retained and rehabilitated.[218]

Changes to Cabin Camp 1 did not proceed without criticism. A 1984 condition assessment of Cabin Camp 1, conducted internally prior to demolition, noted that while the exteriors of building showed signs of deterioration, most structural systems remained sound. Sidestepping that encouraging assessment, park staff noted the declining numbers of established groups using the camps. (Recent decades saw the departure of multiple consistent tenants, including the 12th Street YMCA, Salvation Army, and Family Services.) Fewer returning groups meant less annual revenue, a theme that was economically at odds with the high cost of upkeep. Using this reasoning, park staff justified the demolition of CCC-era structures, which had not yet reached the 50-year threshold to be considered for the National Register of Historic Places.[219]

DOCUMENTATION OF THE CABIN CAMPS

Various NPS proposals envisioned conflicting futures for the cabin camps. One proposal called for the retention of one cabin camp as historic, while allowing for modernization and demolition at the four others. However, beginning in the 1980s, regional and park staff oversaw efforts to nominate Cabin Camps 1, 2, 3, and 4 as historic districts on the National Register of Historic Places. (Staff opted not to nominate Cabin Camp 5, concerned about the implications of the alterations made in the 1950s and 1960s.)[220] In 1988, park and regional staff completed a Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) for *Emergency Conservation Work at Prince William Forest Park*, resulting in the 1989 listing of the four camps in the National Register of Historic Places and the completion of associated design and maintenance guidelines. (The whole park was subsequently listed as a historic district in 2012.)[221]

Meanwhile, the demolition of much of Cabin Camp 1 spurred further preservation efforts at the other four camps. Park staff authored Resource Management Plans in 1981 and 1995, which identified park cultural resources and called for future cultural resource studies and preservation plans. The 1981 plan also resulted in the listing of 51 historic buildings and structures at Cabin Camp 2 in the List of Classified Structures (LCS), an inventory of all historically significant NPS resources. (All buildings in the cabin camps have since been entered into the LCS and its successor, CRIS-HS.) Further studies included a 1986 archeological overview, titled *The Hinterland*, and a study conducted in 2003, titled *Few Know that Such a Place Exists: Land and People within Prince William Forest Park*.

Preservation efforts were further codified between 1990 and 1999, during the drafting of the park's General Management Plan (GMP). A GMP provides for the long-term preservation of a park's significant resources for the next 10-15 years; the Prince William Forest Park GMP called for the preservation of all remaining CCC-era buildings and structures in the cabin camps. Provisions in the GMP also resulted in the shift of Cabin Camp 3 to short-term individual rentals (a departure from its historic use as a group camp).[222]

214. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 29-32.
215. Quoted in Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 29-32.
216. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 29-32.
217. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 29-32.
218. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 29-32.
219. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 29-32.
220. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 32-33.
221. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 79-84.
222. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 79-84.

RECENT REHABILITATION CAMPAIGNS

In the decades after the completion of the GMP, park staff undertook and commissioned rehabilitation projects for most historic buildings and structures in the cabin camps. In 1999, NPS staff at the Historic Preservation Training Center (HPTC) stabilized stone and masonry chimneys at Camps 1 and 2. Between 2003 and 2004, PRWI maintenance staff rehabilitated all buildings and structures in Unit B of Cabin Camp 2. (Prior to their intervention, this area was closed for 10 years due to its significant disrepair.) At Camp 4, park staff rehabilitated and made accessible the theater building between 2002 and 2006. Similar efforts at Camp 4 were completed between 2009 and 2011 using funding from the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA). The expansive scope of this work included the rehabilitation of 14 buildings and structures.

Circa 2012, park staff worked with the Virginia State Historic Preservation Office (VA SHPO) to standardize a historically-appropriate and sustainable roofing material for all five cabin camps. In recent years, the approved synthetic material has been installed on numerous buildings and structures across the camps. These efforts are interpreted on historic waysides throughout the camps.[223]

NATUREBRIDGE AND CABIN CAMP 1

In 2012, park staff partnered with NatureBridge, a nonprofit focused on providing youth outdoor environmental experiences. Prince William Forest Park was the first East Coast partner for the group, based out of California. During its 2012 pilot program, NatureBridge and the Prince William County Schools brought students and teachers to Cabin Camp 1. The success of the program led to a joint 2013 visit by then-Secretary of the Interior Sally Jewell and NPS Director Jonathan Jarvis. The program then expanded and partnered with the District of Columbia Public Schools. As the park's administrative history notes, NatureBridge "brought PRWI full-circle, as this new program mirrors the original mission of the park and the RDA program to help underprivileged children." As of 2023, this program continues to provide opportunities for the region's schoolchildren at Prince William Forest Park.[224]

In preparation for the program, park cultural resources staff undertook a series of documentation efforts at Camp 1. NPS staff completed measured drawings, photos, and associated materials, which were prepared for the Historic American Building Survey (HABS) between 2011 and 2012. Concurrent with the HABS effort, NPS regional staff authored a Cultural Landscape Inventory (CLI) of Cabin Camp 1. These two documents serve as a baseline for management of the camp's historic resources. The Camp 1 CLI was updated in 2017. Draft CLIs for Camps 2-5 were prepared by the University of Mary Washington; NPS regional staff will prepare final versions of these documents based on the research and findings of this CLR.[225]

Figure 18: During his tenure as director of the National Park Service, Jon Jarvis (in hat) was instrumental in bringing the NatureBridge program to Prince William Forest Park (NatureBridge, https://naturebridge.org/blog/2021-05-04-prince-william-forest-park-spotlight-jon-and-destry-jarvis).

223. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 84-85.

224. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 37-38.

225. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 83-84.

Period Plans

Cabin Camps 1 & 4
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
1938 Period Plan

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022
4. 1937 Aerial Imagery, Prince William Forest County Mapper
5. John Saxon, Camp 4-F, 1937, PRWI 2049
6. L.S.B., Layout Plan 1-B, 1936, PRWI 15765

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle
- Drinking Fountain
- Water/Sewer Line (Below Ground)
- Power Line (Above Ground)
- Telephone Line (Above Ground)
- Disposal Field
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

DRAWING 2

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft bffer around contributing landscape features
4. Location of SP-25 buildings, structures, and circulation is based on 1937 aerial imagery

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Cabin Camps 1 & 4
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
1945 Period Plan

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022
4. "Copy of Drawing Prepared By Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Revised by U.S. Engineers Office, Washington, DC," RG79 NARA, December 5, 1945.

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle
- Drinking Fountain
- Water/Sewer Line (Below Ground)
- Telephone Line (Above Ground)
- Disposal Field
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features
4. Location of SP-25 buildings, structures, and circulation is based on 1937 aerial imagery
5. Location of OSS features is based on a 1945 plan drawn by the NPS; it did not show power lines, despite their recent construction by the OSS

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DRAWING 3

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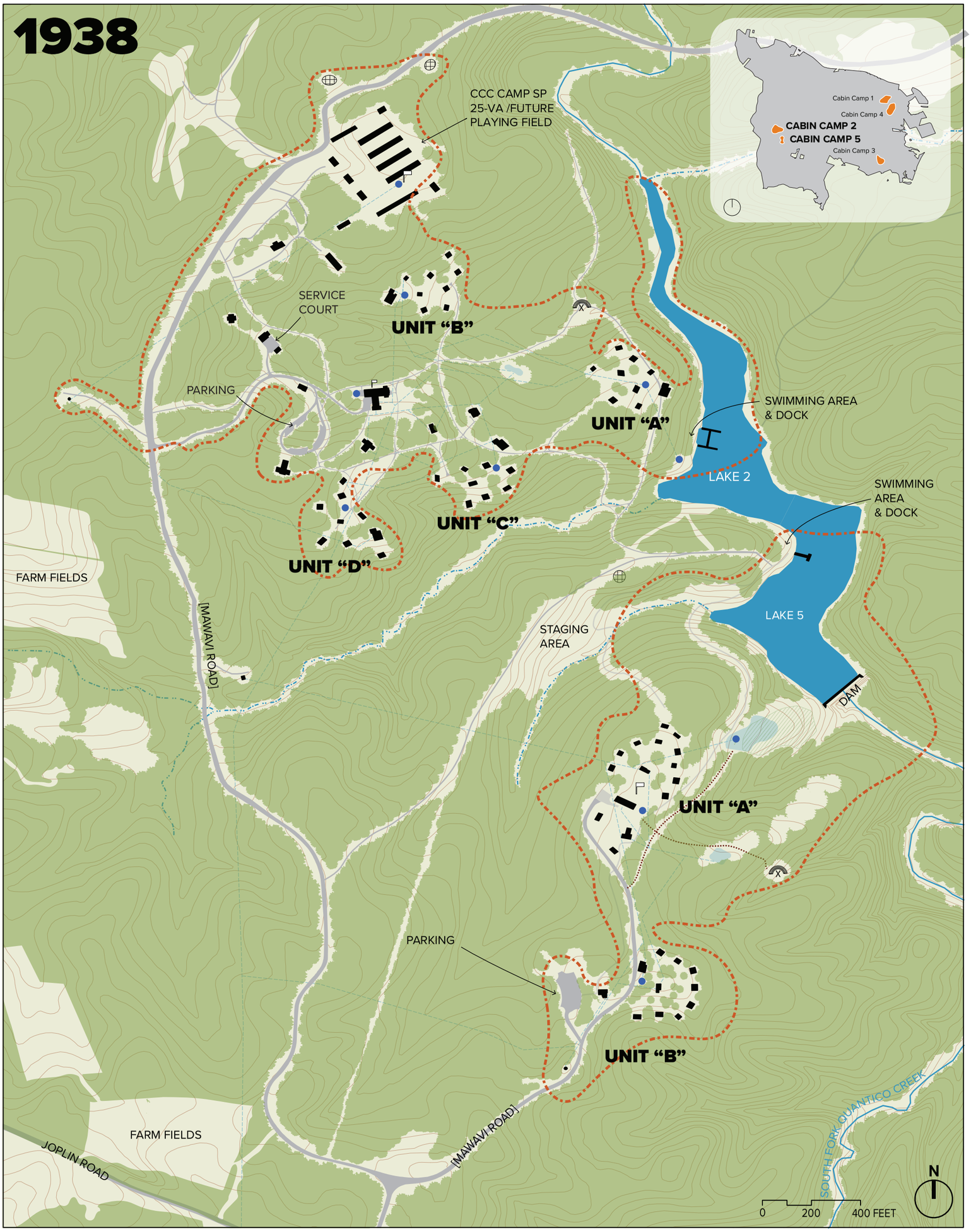

Cabin Camps 2 & 5
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
1938 Period Plan

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022
4. 1937 Aerial Imagery, Prince William Forest County Mapper
5. B. J. Liff, Layout Plan Camp 2-G, 1937, PRWI 5504
6. W.A.J, Small Organized Camp No. 5, 1938, PRWI 15762

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle
- Drinking Fountain
- Water/Sewer Line (Below Ground)
- Disposal Field
- Telephone (Above Ground)
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

DRAWING 4

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features
4. Location of SP-25 buildings, structures, and circulation is based on 1937 aerial imagery

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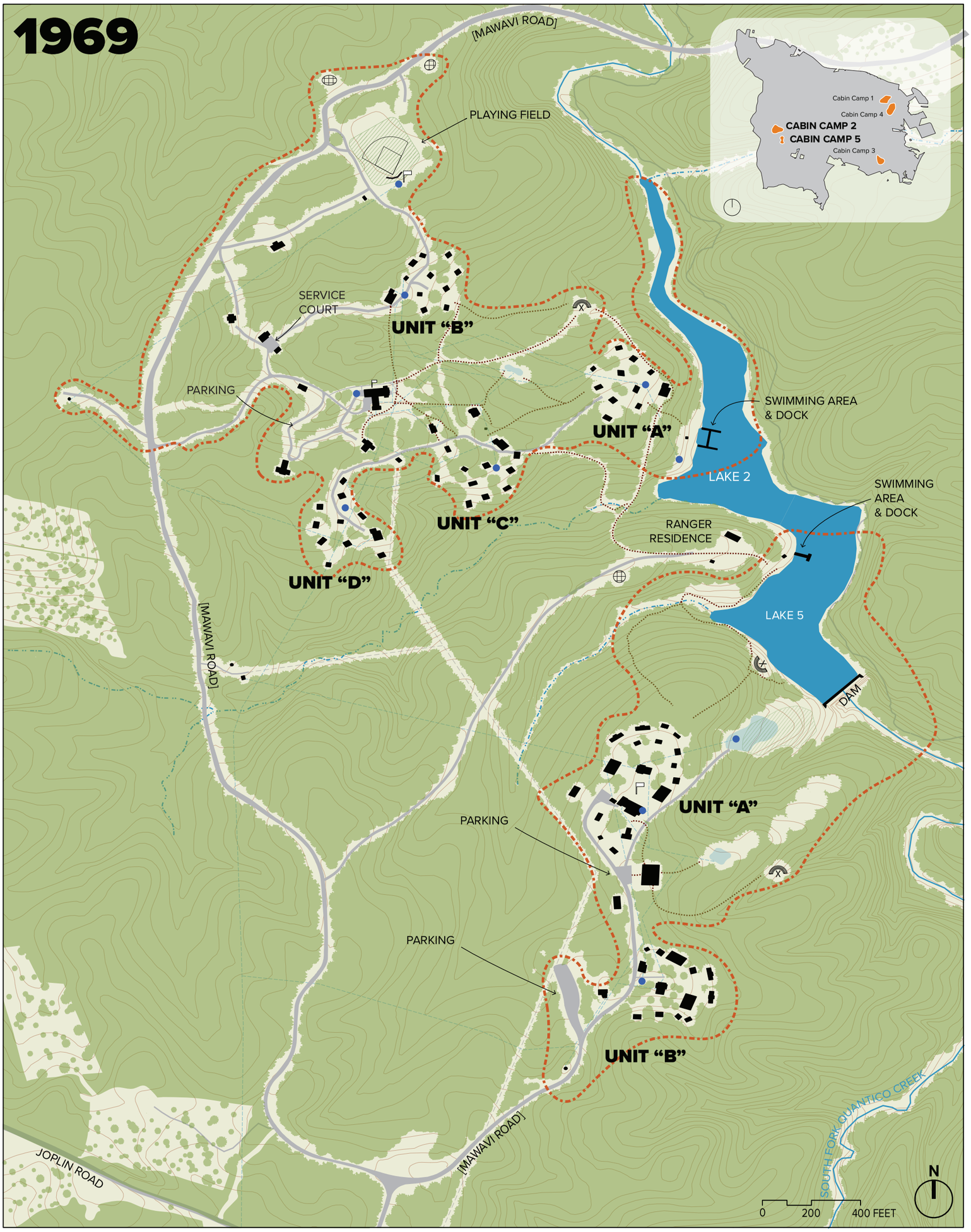

Cabin Camps 2 & 5
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
1969 Period Plan

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022
4. 1954 Aerial Imagery, Prince William Forest County Mapper
5. RG79, Box 6, Folder "Mission 66," National Archives at Philadelphia

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle/ Chapel
- Drinking Fountain
- Water/Sewer Line (Below Ground)
- Disposal Field
- Power Line (Above Ground)
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from 1954 aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features

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DRAWING 5

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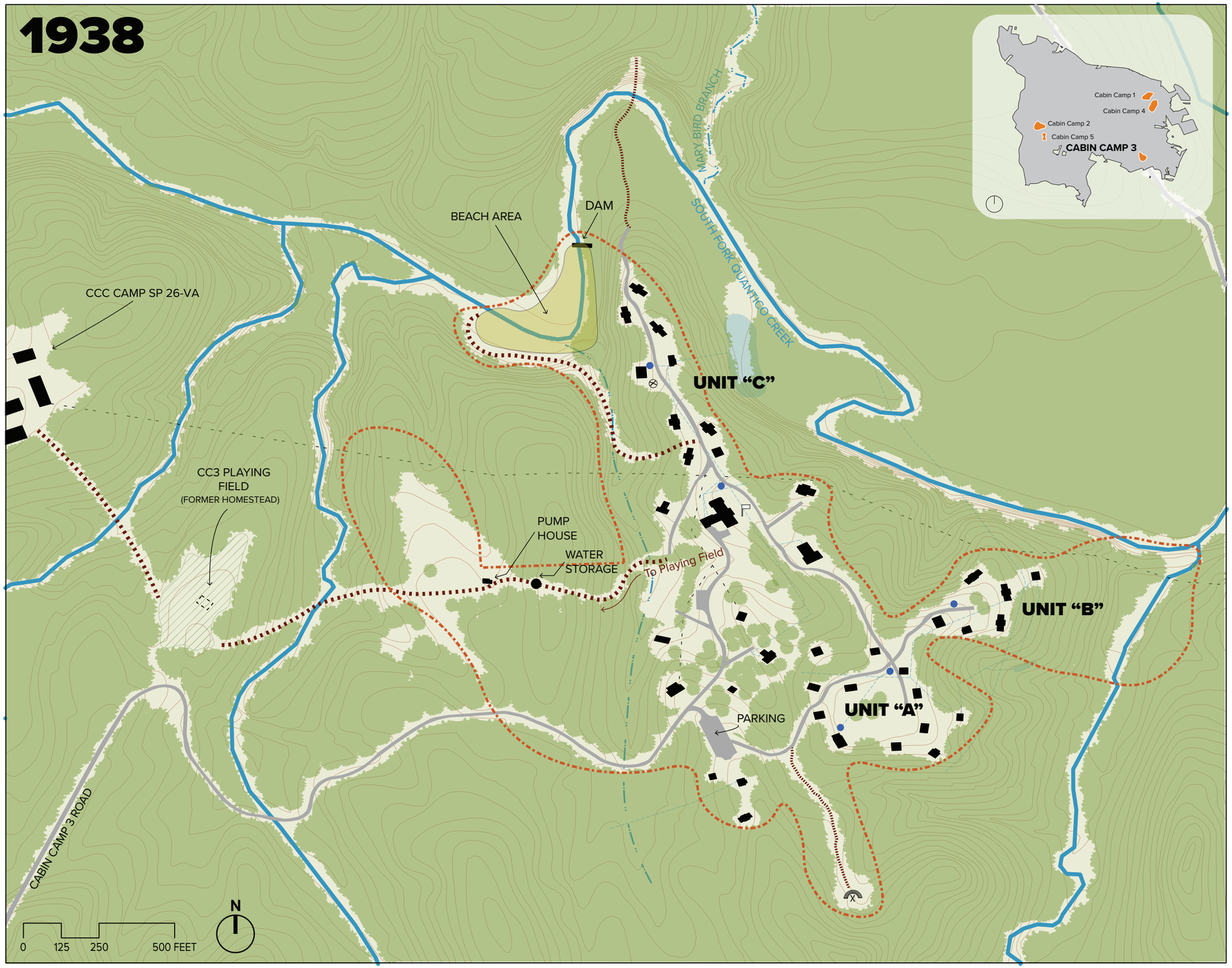

Cabin Camp 3
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
1938 Period Plan

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022
4. "A Playfield for Camp 3-F," 1938, PRWI 3345, Prince William Forest Park Archives
5. "Layout, Organized Group Camp 3-F," 1938, PRWI 5422, Prince William Forest Park Archives
6. Aerial Photo May 23, 1937, Prince William County, accessed March 30, 2023.

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LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Beach
- Firepit
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle
- Drinking Fountain
- Water/Sewer Line (Below Ground)
- Telephone (Above Ground)

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features.

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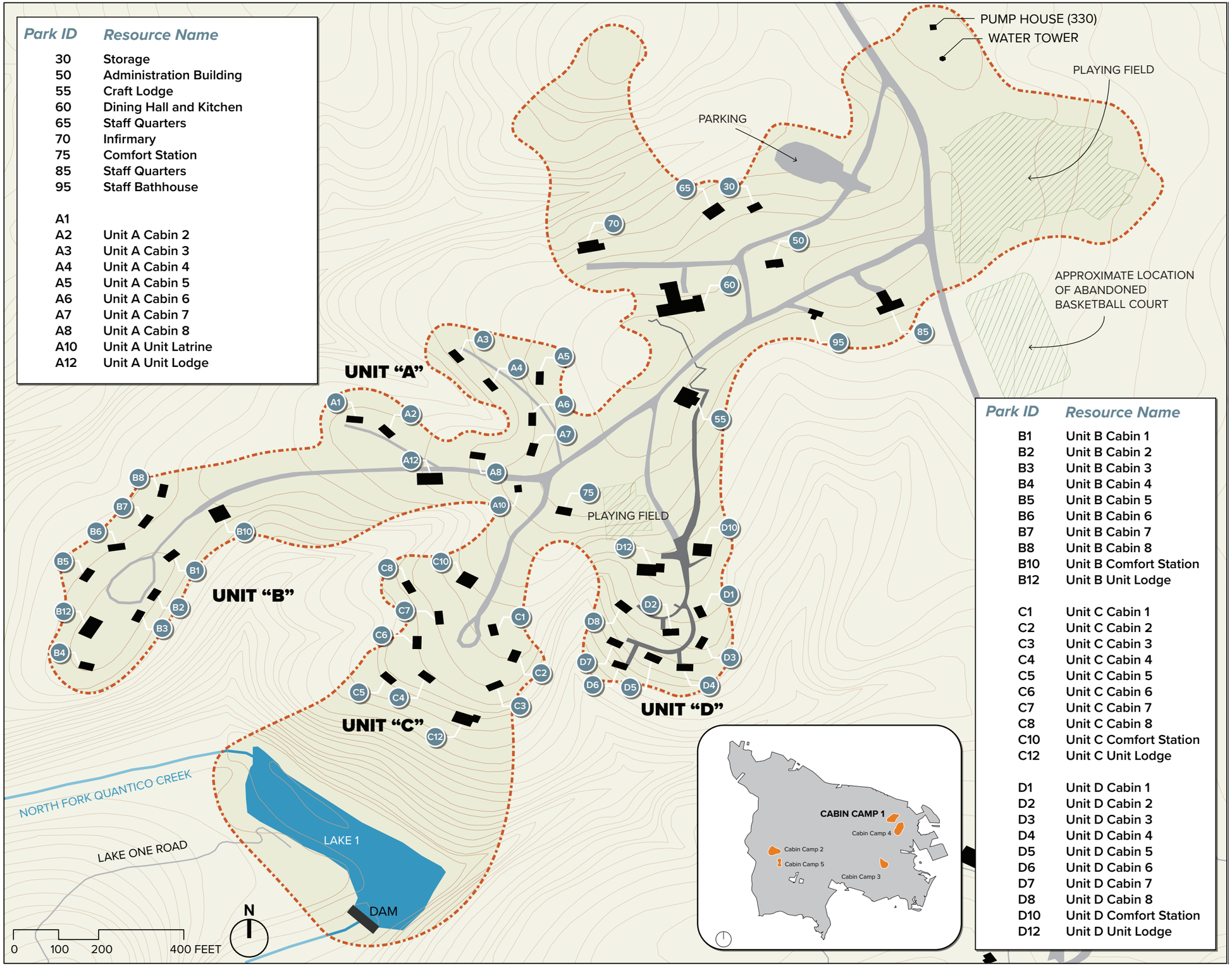
DRAWING 6

Existing Conditions Mapping



Park ID	Resource Name
30	Storage
50	Administration Building
55	Craft Lodge
60	Dining Hall and Kitchen
65	Staff Quarters
70	Infirmary
75	Comfort Station
85	Staff Quarters
95	Staff Bathhouse
A1	
A2	Unit A Cabin 2
A3	Unit A Cabin 3
A4	Unit A Cabin 4
A5	Unit A Cabin 5
A6	Unit A Cabin 6
A7	Unit A Cabin 7
A8	Unit A Cabin 8
A10	Unit A Unit Latrine
A12	Unit A Unit Lodge

Park ID	Resource Name
B1	Unit B Cabin 1
B2	Unit B Cabin 2
B3	Unit B Cabin 3
B4	Unit B Cabin 4
B5	Unit B Cabin 5
B6	Unit B Cabin 6
B7	Unit B Cabin 7
B8	Unit B Cabin 8
B10	Unit B Comfort Station
B12	Unit B Unit Lodge
C1	Unit C Cabin 1
C2	Unit C Cabin 2
C3	Unit C Cabin 3
C4	Unit C Cabin 4
C5	Unit C Cabin 5
C6	Unit C Cabin 6
C7	Unit C Cabin 7
C8	Unit C Cabin 8
C10	Unit C Comfort Station
C12	Unit C Unit Lodge
D1	Unit D Cabin 1
D2	Unit D Cabin 2
D3	Unit D Cabin 3
D4	Unit D Cabin 4
D5	Unit D Cabin 5
D6	Unit D Cabin 6
D7	Unit D Cabin 7
D8	Unit D Cabin 8
D10	Unit D Comfort Station
D12	Unit D Unit Lodge

Cabin Camp 1
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Glossary of Key Features

SOURCES
1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

DRAWN BY
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ArcGIS Pro, Adobe Illustrator, 2023

LEGEND
- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Paved Path
- 10 CLR ID

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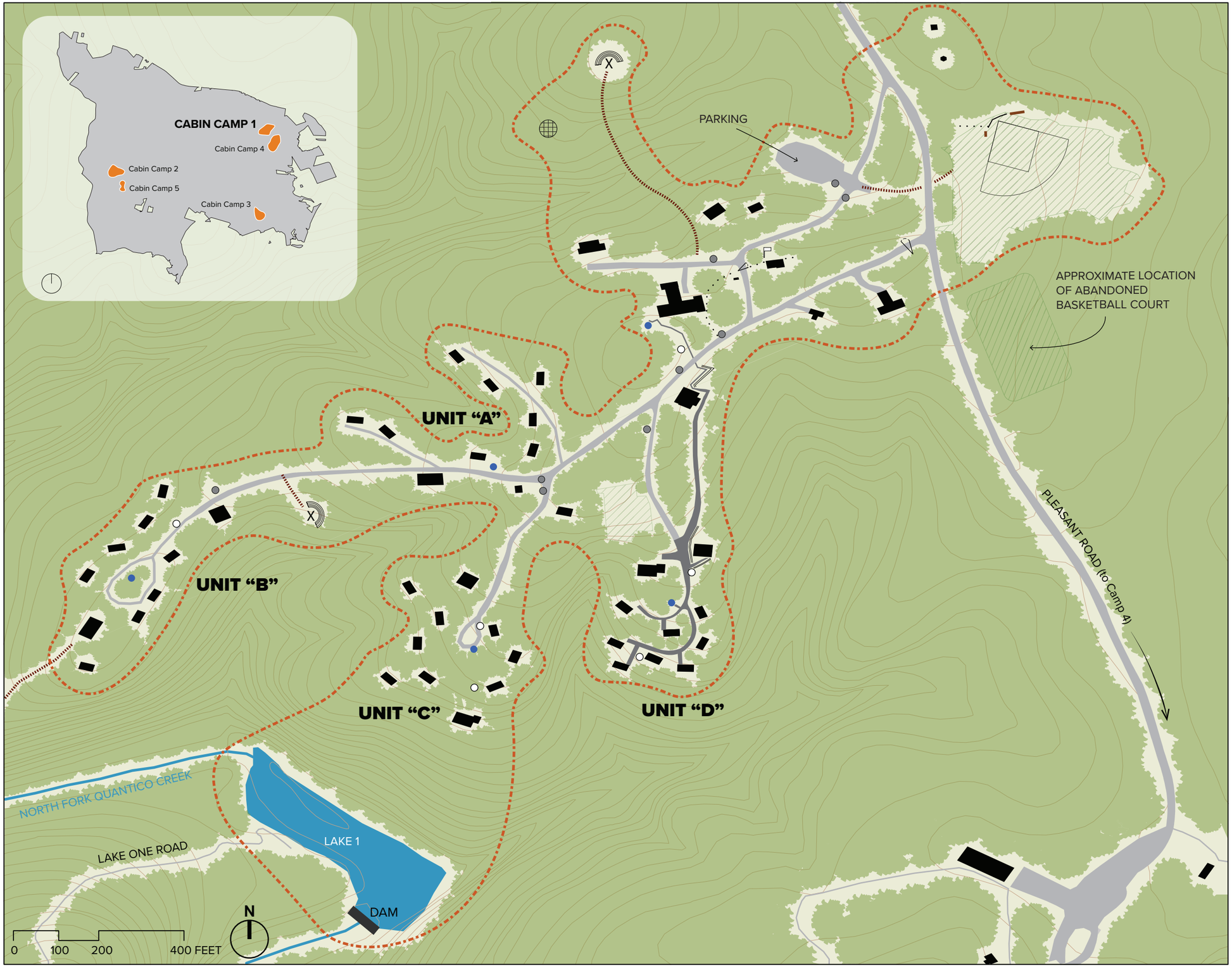
DRAWING 7



Cabin Camp 1

Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Existing Conditions

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

DRAWN BY

Ruth Penberthy, University of Pennsylvania
ArcGIS Pro, Adobe Illustrator, 2023

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Paved Path
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle/Chapel
- Signage
- Lighting
- Drinking Fountain
- Bench
- Gate
- Fencing
- Bollards
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features.

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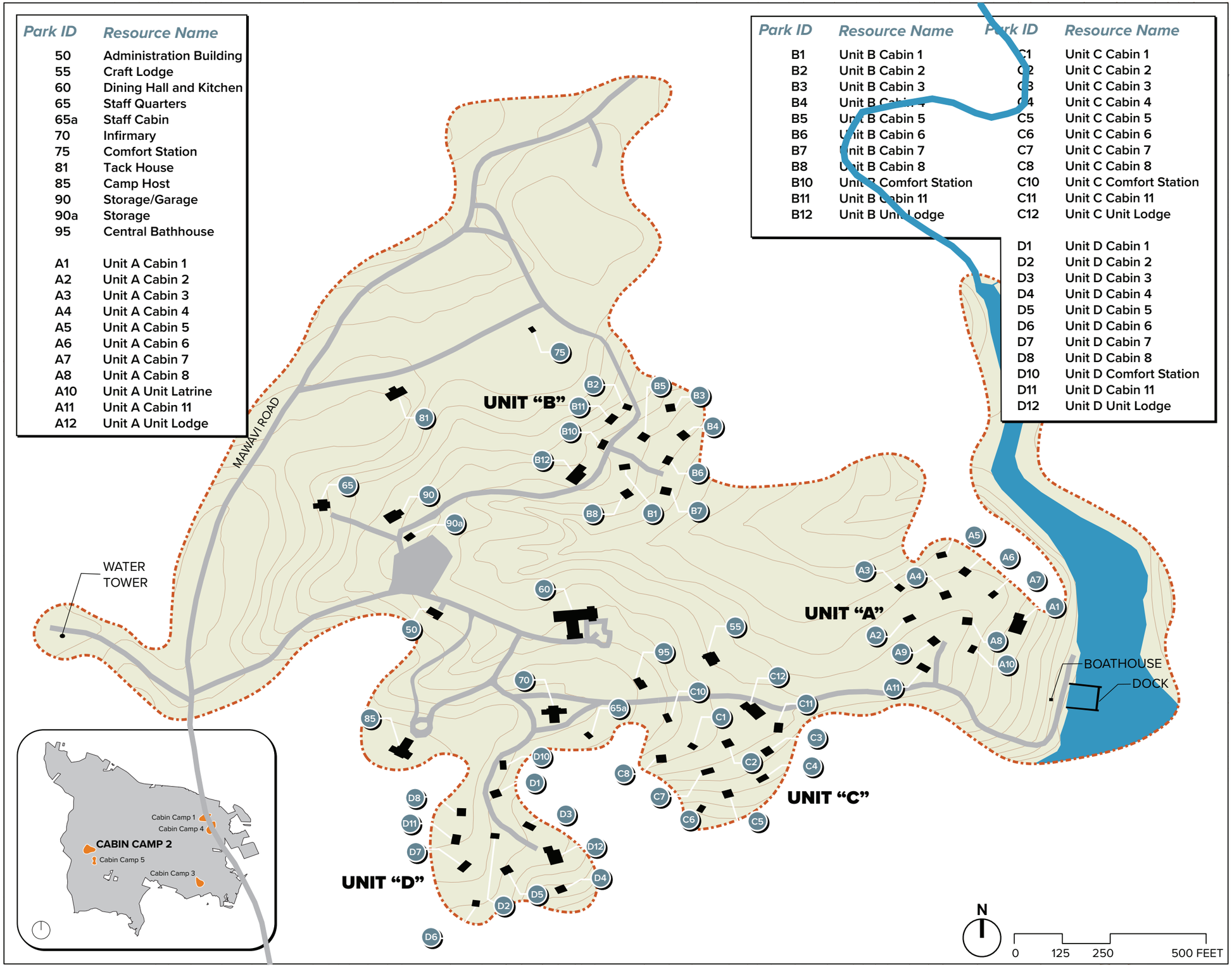
DRAWING 8

Park ID	Resource Name
50	Administration Building
55	Craft Lodge
60	Dining Hall and Kitchen
65	Staff Quarters
65a	Staff Cabin
70	Infirmary
75	Comfort Station
81	Tack House
85	Camp Host
90	Storage/Garage
90a	Storage
95	Central Bathhouse
A1	Unit A Cabin 1
A2	Unit A Cabin 2
A3	Unit A Cabin 3
A4	Unit A Cabin 4
A5	Unit A Cabin 5
A6	Unit A Cabin 6
A7	Unit A Cabin 7
A8	Unit A Cabin 8
A10	Unit A Unit Latrine
A11	Unit A Cabin 11
A12	Unit A Unit Lodge

Park ID	Resource Name
B1	Unit B Cabin 1
B2	Unit B Cabin 2
B3	Unit B Cabin 3
B4	Unit B Cabin 4
B5	Unit B Cabin 5
B6	Unit B Cabin 6
B7	Unit B Cabin 7
B8	Unit B Cabin 8
B10	Unit B Comfort Station
B11	Unit B Cabin 11
B12	Unit B Unit Lodge

Park ID	Resource Name
C1	Unit C Cabin 1
C2	Unit C Cabin 2
C3	Unit C Cabin 3
C4	Unit C Cabin 4
C5	Unit C Cabin 5
C6	Unit C Cabin 6
C7	Unit C Cabin 7
C8	Unit C Cabin 8
C10	Unit C Comfort Station
C11	Unit C Cabin 11
C12	Unit C Unit Lodge
D1	Unit D Cabin 1
D2	Unit D Cabin 2
D3	Unit D Cabin 3
D4	Unit D Cabin 4
D5	Unit D Cabin 5
D6	Unit D Cabin 6
D7	Unit D Cabin 7
D8	Unit D Cabin 8
D10	Unit D Comfort Station
D11	Unit D Cabin 11
D12	Unit D Unit Lodge



Cabin Camp 2
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Glossary of Key Features

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

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LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- 10 CLR ID

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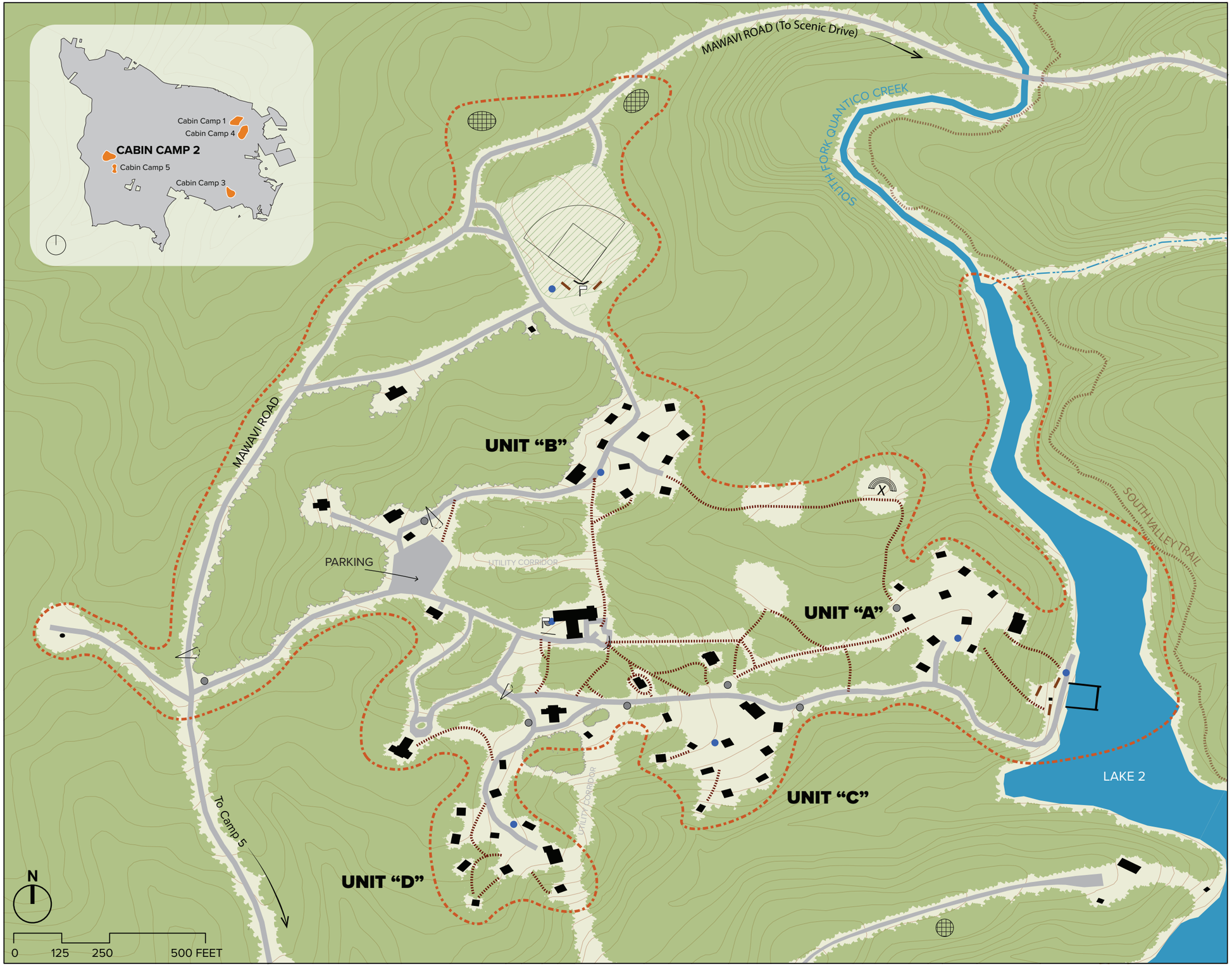
DRAWING 9



Cabin Camp 2

Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Existing Conditions

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

DRAWN BY

Ruth Penberthy, University of Pennsylvania
ArcGIS Pro, Adobe Illustrator, 2023

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle/Chapel
- Signage
- Lighting
- Drinking Fountain
- Bench
- Gate
- Fencing
- Bollards
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features.

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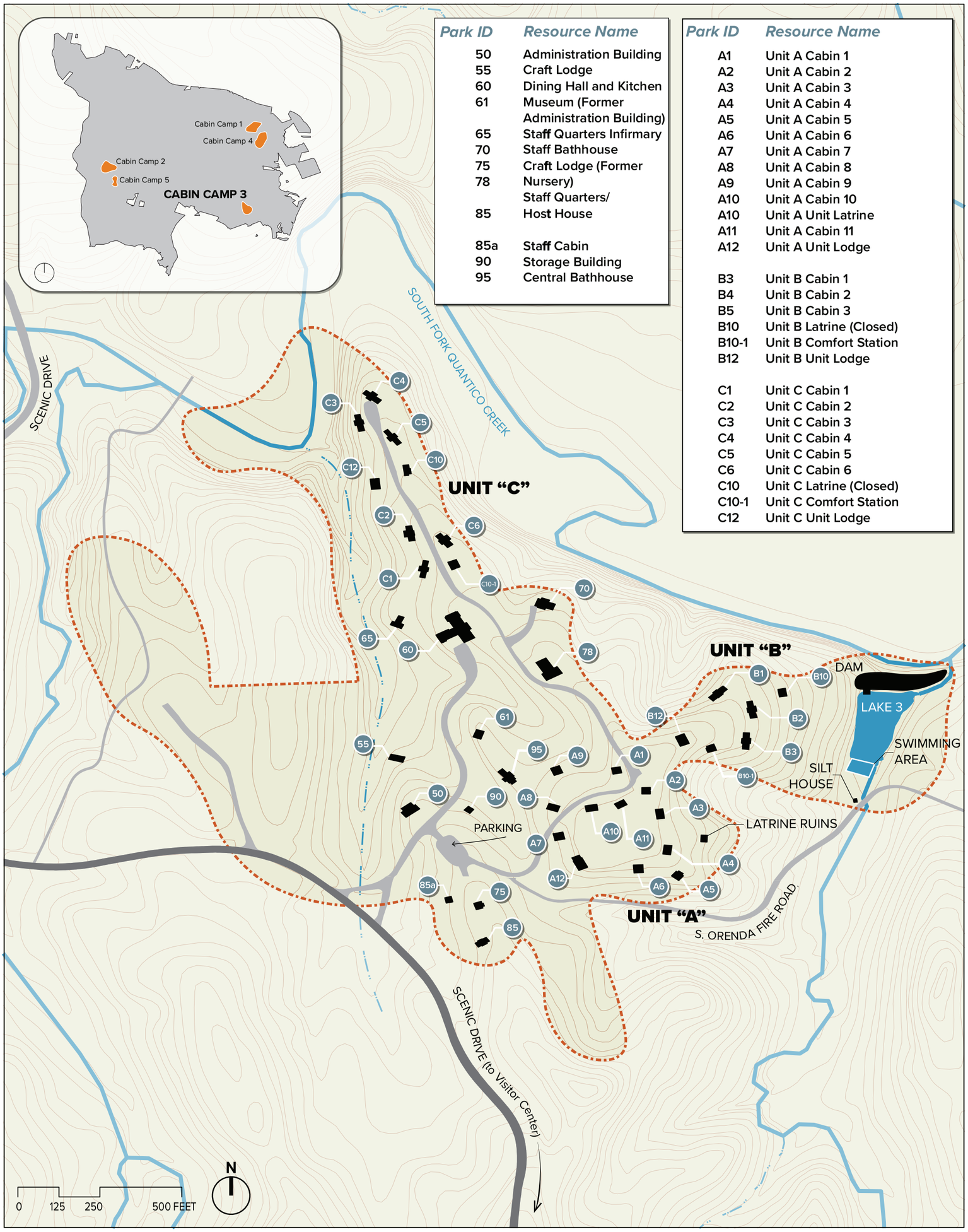
DRAWING 10



Park ID	Resource Name
50	Administration Building
55	Craft Lodge
60	Dining Hall and Kitchen
61	Museum (Former Administration Building)
65	Staff Quarters Infirmary
70	Staff Bathhouse
75	Craft Lodge (Former Nursery)
78	Staff Quarters/ Host House
85	
85a	Staff Cabin
90	Storage Building
95	Central Bathhouse

Park ID	Resource Name
A1	Unit A Cabin 1
A2	Unit A Cabin 2
A3	Unit A Cabin 3
A4	Unit A Cabin 4
A5	Unit A Cabin 5
A6	Unit A Cabin 6
A7	Unit A Cabin 7
A8	Unit A Cabin 8
A9	Unit A Cabin 9
A10	Unit A Cabin 10
A10	Unit A Unit Latrine
A11	Unit A Cabin 11
A12	Unit A Unit Lodge
B3	Unit B Cabin 1
B4	Unit B Cabin 2
B5	Unit B Cabin 3
B10	Unit B Latrine (Closed)
B10-1	Unit B Comfort Station
B12	Unit B Unit Lodge
C1	Unit C Cabin 1
C2	Unit C Cabin 2
C3	Unit C Cabin 3
C4	Unit C Cabin 4
C5	Unit C Cabin 5
C6	Unit C Cabin 6
C10	Unit C Latrine (Closed)
C10-1	Unit C Comfort Station
C12	Unit C Unit Lodge

Cabin Camp 3
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Glossary of Key Features

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

DRAWN BY

Jacob Torkelson, University of Pennsylvania
ArcGIS Pro, Adobe Illustrator, 2023

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Paved Path
- 10 CLR ID

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features.

DRAWING 11

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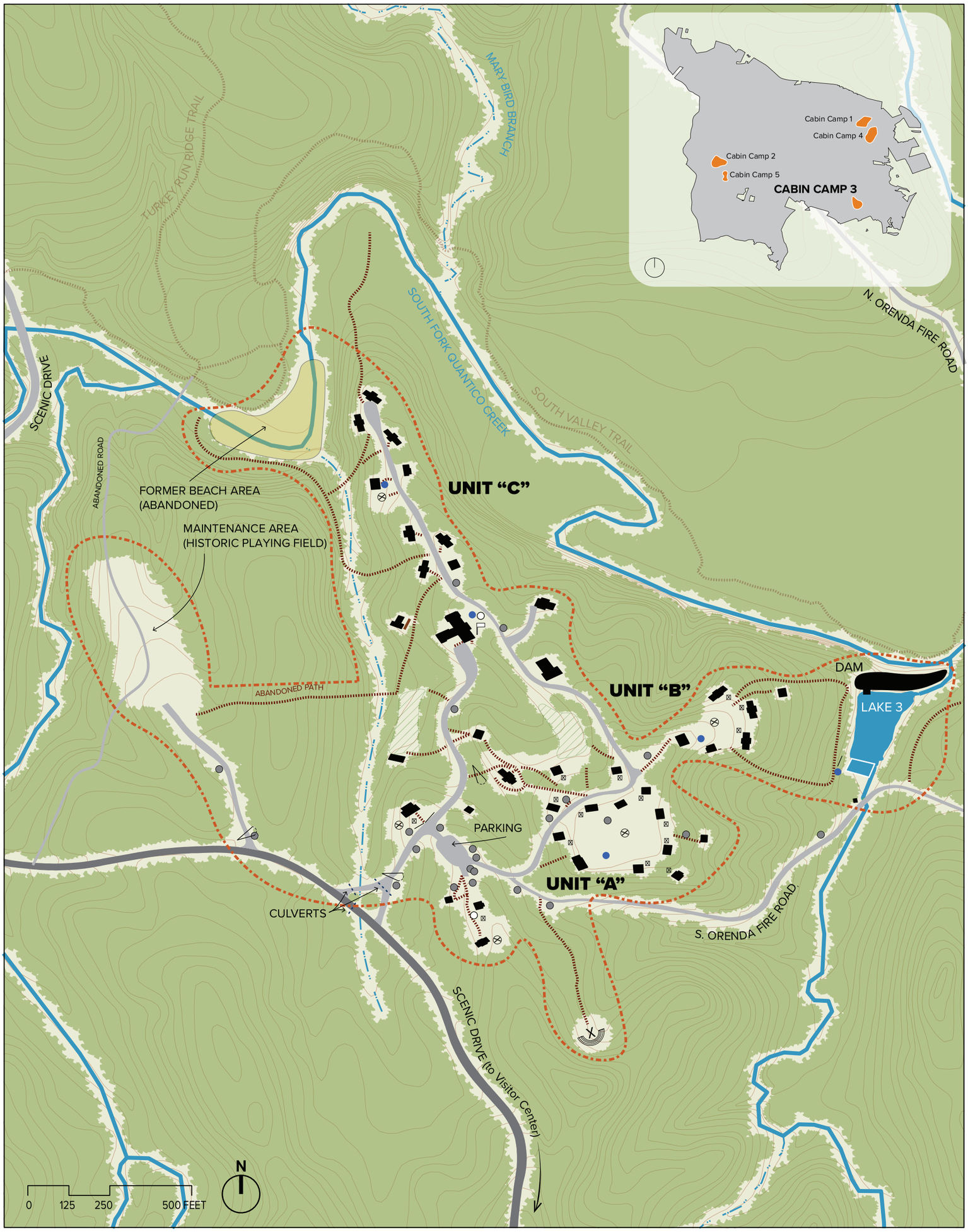

Cabin Camp 3
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Existing Conditions

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

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LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Paved Path
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Playing Field
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle/Chapel
- Signage
- Lighting
- Drinking Fountain
- Bench
- Gate
- Fencing
- Bollards
- Firepit
- Grill

DRAWING 12

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft bffer around contributing landscape features

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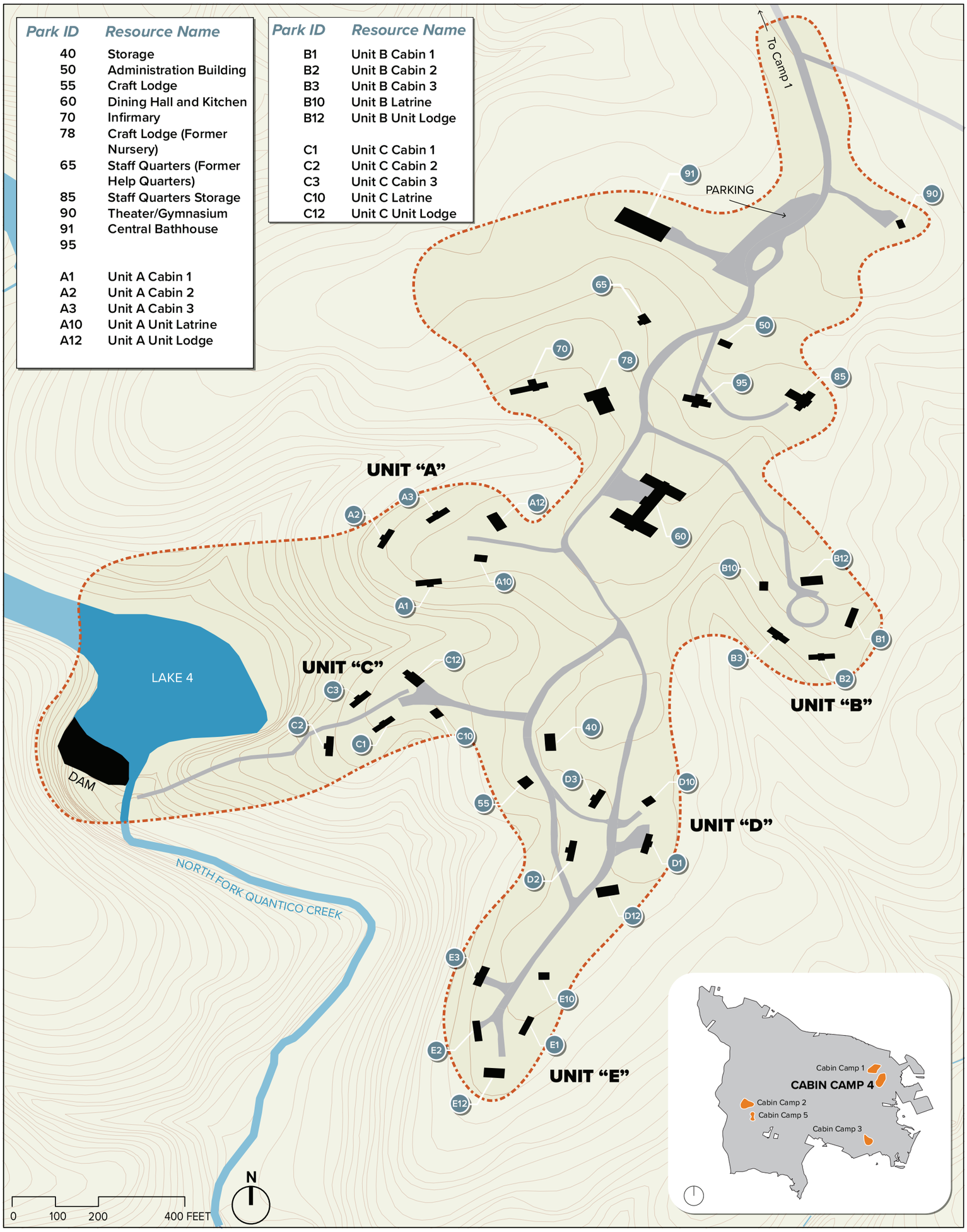

Cabin Camp 4
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Glossary of Key Features

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

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LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- 10 CLR ID

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations

DRAWING 13

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Cabin Camp 4
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Existing Conditions

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

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ArcGIS Pro, Adobe Illustrator, 2023

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Playing Field
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle/Chapel
- Signage
- Lighting
- Drinking Fountain
- Bench
- Gate
- Fencing
- Bollards
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features.

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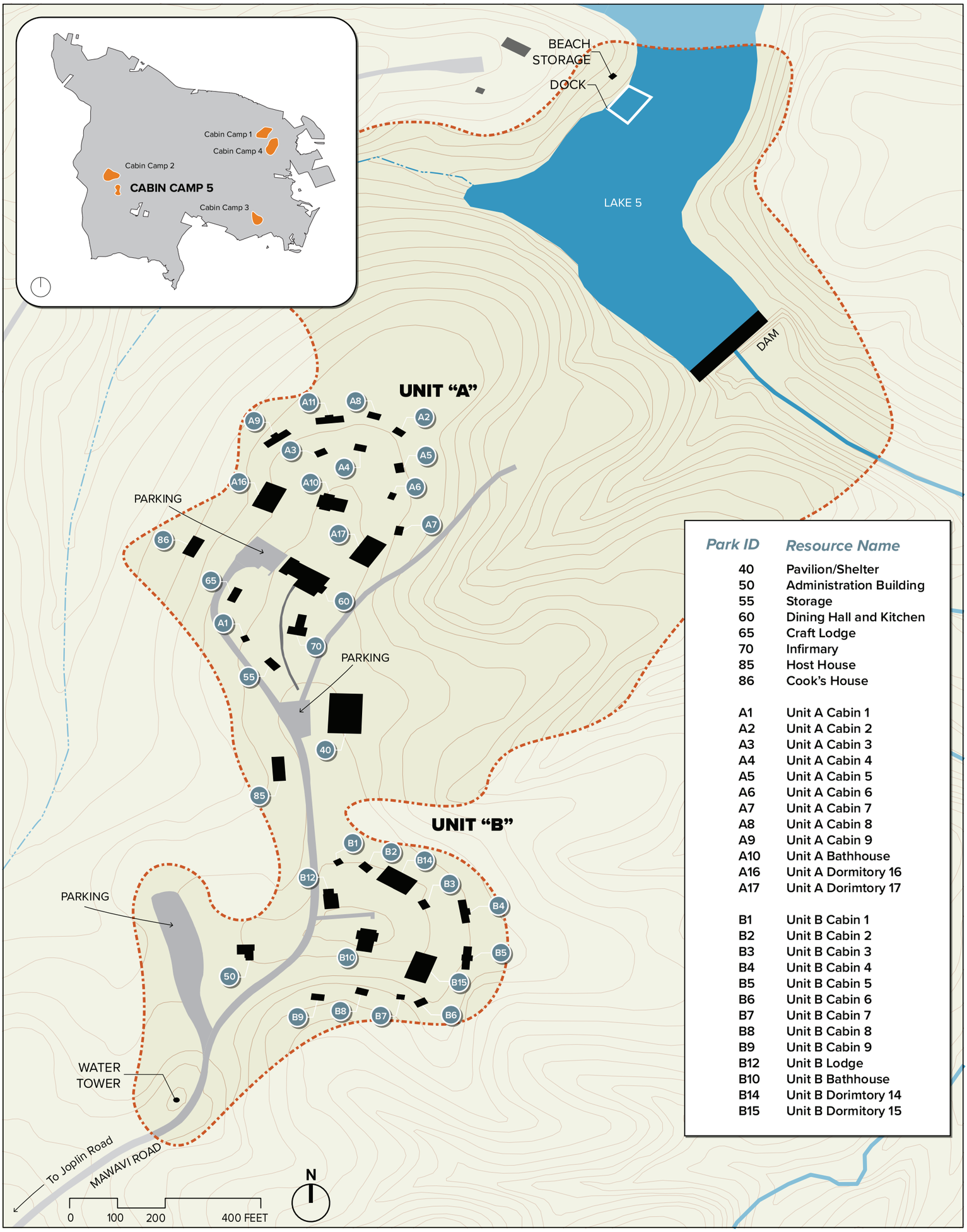
DRAWING 14



Park ID	Resource Name
40	Pavilion/Shelter
50	Administration Building
55	Storage
60	Dining Hall and Kitchen
65	Craft Lodge
70	Infirmary
85	Host House
86	Cook's House
A1	Unit A Cabin 1
A2	Unit A Cabin 2
A3	Unit A Cabin 3
A4	Unit A Cabin 4
A5	Unit A Cabin 5
A6	Unit A Cabin 6
A7	Unit A Cabin 7
A8	Unit A Cabin 8
A9	Unit A Cabin 9
A10	Unit A Bathhouse
A16	Unit A Dormitory 16
A17	Unit A Dorimtory 17
B1	Unit B Cabin 1
B2	Unit B Cabin 2
B3	Unit B Cabin 3
B4	Unit B Cabin 4
B5	Unit B Cabin 5
B6	Unit B Cabin 6
B7	Unit B Cabin 7
B8	Unit B Cabin 8
B9	Unit B Cabin 9
B12	Unit B Lodge
B10	Unit B Bathhouse
B14	Unit B Dorimtory 14
B15	Unit B Dormitory 15

Cabin Camp 5
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Glossary of Key Features

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

DRAWN BY

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LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Paved Path
- 10 CLR ID

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations

DRAWING 15

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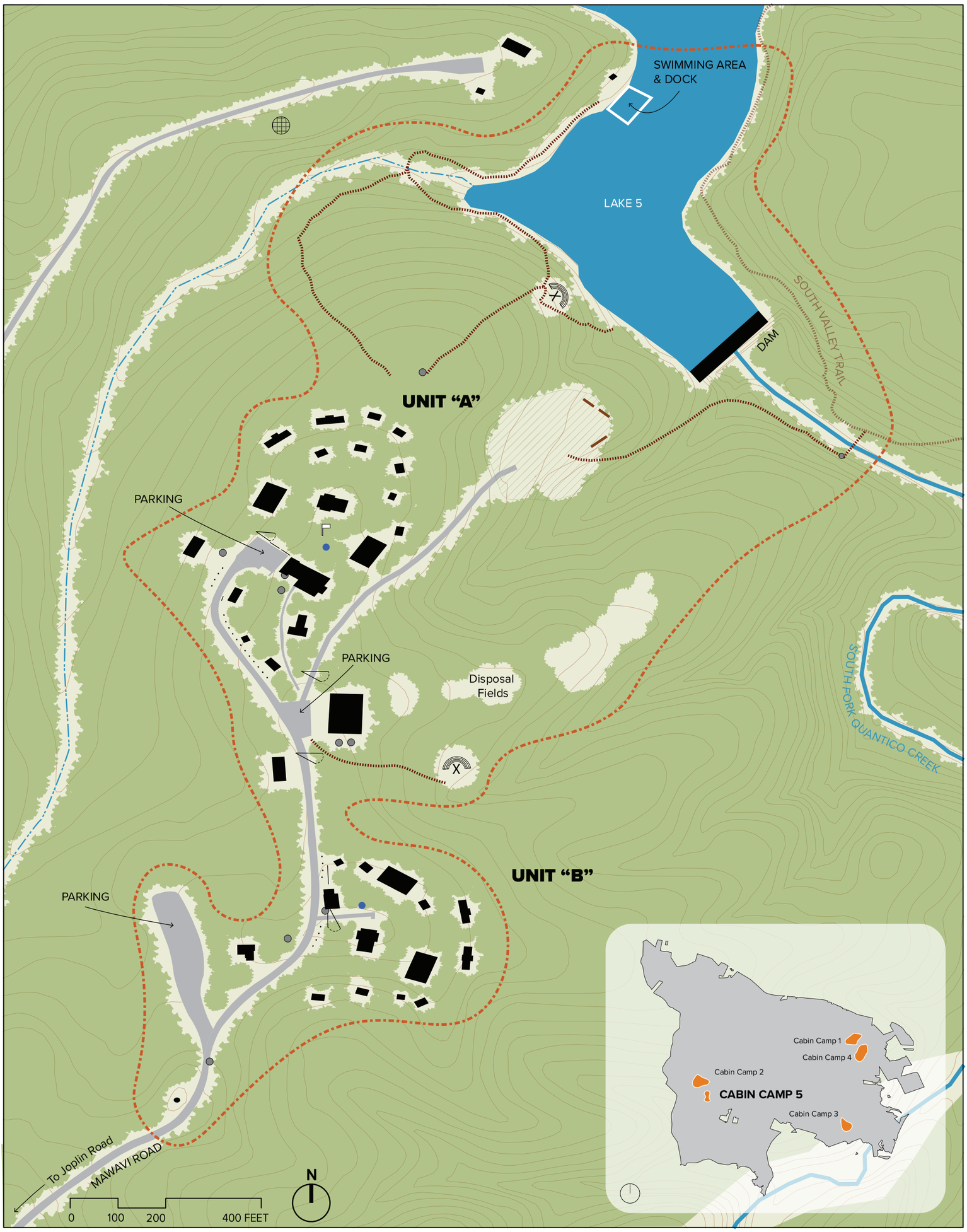

Cabin Camp 5
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Existing Conditions

SOURCES

1. Prince William Forest Park Resource Management GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
2. National Capitol Region, Cultural Landscape GIS Files, National Park Service, 2022
3. Field Survey and GIS Data Collection, Spring and Fall 2022

DRAWN BY

Ruth Penberthy, University of Pennsylvania
ArcGIS Pro, Adobe Illustrator, 2023

LEGEND

- Cultural Landscape Boundary
- Vegetation
- Perennial Stream
- Intermittent Stream
- Constructed Water Feature - Lake
- Topography (5ft intervals)
- Buildings / Structures
- Circulation - Unpaved Road / Parking
- Circulation - Paved Path
- Playing Field
- Circulation - Earthen Path
- Flag Pole
- Campfire Circle/Chapel
- Signage
- Lighting
- Drinking Fountain
- Bench
- Gate
- Fencing
- Bollards
- Cemetery (Approximate extents)

NOTES

1. All features shown in approximate scale and locations
2. Canopy approximated from aerial imagery
3. CLR boundary presumes a 50 ft buffer around contributing landscape features.

DRAWING 16

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Analysis + Evaluation

This section provides a summary and analysis of typical existing landscape conditions at Cabin Camps 1-5, organized according to landscape characteristics. Landscape characteristics are the tangible and intangible aspects of a landscape that allow visitors to understand its values and significance. Each landscape characteristic section contains a narrative description of extant features and evaluation of their historic and existing conditions, as well as representative photographs and diagrams that analyze their significance and integrity within the cabin camps. This assessment provides a holistic understanding of the five cabin camps as a collection, and it analyzes the historic character, landscape features, and landscape qualities that contribute the period of significance from 1935 to 1969. Fieldwork for this assessment was conducted in March, May, and November 2022.

Cabin Camps 1-5 are documented and evaluated according to these landscape characteristics:

- Natural systems and features
- Land use
- Topography
- Spatial organization
- Cluster arrangement
- Circulation
- Views and vistas
- Vegetation
- Buildings and structures
- Constructed Water Features
- Small-scale features
- Archeological Sites

INTEGRITY

This landscape analysis also includes an assessment of the integrity of the cabin camps, in accordance with the National Register criteria. Historic integrity, as defined by the National Register, is the authenticity of a property's identity, evidenced by the survival of physical and intangible landscape characteristics that existed during the period of significance. The National Register recognizes seven aspects of integrity: location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and

AUTHORS' NOTE

The narrative discussions of each landscape characteristic are not exhaustive, deferring to the concurrent Cultural Landscape Inventories (drafted in 2021 by researchers from the University of Mary Washington; finalized versions forthcoming) for those feature-by-feature discussions. Rather, the analysis and evaluation for each landscape characteristic synthesize the historic development and existing conditions (as of Spring 2022 - Summer 2023) across all five cabin camps, focusing on typical patterns—and departures from those patterns—within the camps. In doing so, this CLR analyzes the design intent and landscape logic of the five cabin camps as a whole. For detailed inventories of each camp, see their corresponding Cultural Landscape Inventories.

association. Several or all of these aspects must be present for a site to retain historic integrity. To be listed in the National Register, a property not only must be shown to have significance under one or more criteria, but must also retain integrity to its period or periods of significance.

LOCATION

The location aspect of integrity involves the place where the landscape was constructed. All camps remain in their historic locations. Within the camps, most features retain their historic locations, with the exception of some buildings in Camp 5. In the later years of the period of significance, NPS planners designed and constructed new dormitories and bathhouses in Units A and B of Camp 5. To accommodate these new buildings, workers moved five buildings and structures within the camp. Four of the cabins were moved within their respective camp units, with minimal impacts to the spatial organization; however, one cabin was moved from a camp unit to the camp core. Combined with the additional structures, the internal cluster arrangement of the camp units was altered, impacting its integrity. All other camps retain a high degree of integrity with respect to location.

DESIGN

Design is the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a cultural landscape or historic property. As a collection, the camps remain intact as excellent and readily identifiable examples of organized group camps constructed in an RDA in the 1930s. They exemplify the principles of Rustic design, which were developed during the construction of the camps. In fact, the design of several buildings was used in Albert Good's *Park and Recreation Structures* to exemplify the Rustic Style of design. Among other features, the cabin camps retain designed views and vistas, ornamental camp plantings adjacent to buildings, and rustic log and board buildings and structures. The design intent of the camps, expressed via their layout as organized group camps (including spatial organization and cluster arrangement), remains clear in most camps. The Mission 66 program introduced new design principles to Camp 5 during the period of significance; some of these alterations disrupted the Rustic Style design of earlier eras. Camp 1 saw some alterations to its design after the period of significance. Nevertheless, as a collection, the camps retain a high degree of integrity with respect to their historic designs, particularly related to their Rustic era of construction.

SETTING

Setting is the physical environment of a cultural landscape or historic property. The setting of the cabin camps has evolved over their nearly 100-year tenure at Prince William Forest Park. When Chopawamsic RDA was established, the forest was regenerating after substantial thinning of forest due to industrial or agricultural activities such as logging or homesteading. In the ensuing decades, the forest at Prince William has matured and created an ideal camp setting, in keeping with the long-term planning principles promoted by Waugh, Meinecke, and Good. All five camps retain their forested context. Several of the camps remain secluded within that forest setting, with the units ensconced under the tree canopy. At other camps, however, the canopy cover within the units has been lost, somewhat impacting their integrity of setting; Camp 5 is one example of these conditions. This compromised integrity is reversible; as such, the camps retain their overall integrity of setting.

MATERIALS

Materials are the physical elements of a particular period, including construction materials, paving, plants, and other landscape features. All camps retain characteristic Rustic materials such as waney board siding, wood-frame windows, stone paving, and mature tree species. Buildings and structures at Camps 3, 4, and 5 reflect the shift in materials from the bespoke materials used during construction at Camps 1 and 2; in lieu of those materials, the later camps feature brickwork and milled wooden elements. Thus, the extant camp materials demonstrate the chronology of construction: earlier camps retain their characteristic Rustic Style materials (e.g. stones and logs), and camps constructed later retain their simpler, standardized materials (e.g. bricks and milled lumber and bricks). Non-contributing landscape features postdate the period of significance, but closely adhere to the historic material and planting palettes. These additions do not detract from the camps' integrity of materials, resulting in a high degree of integrity of materials across the five cabin camps.

WORKMANSHIP

Workmanship includes the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular period. As a collection, the cabin camps remain an excellent example of group camps constructed according to the Rustic design principles for which the National Park Service advocated in the 1930s. Examples of craftsmanship at the camps were featured in Albert Good's three-volume series on park architecture, which pointed to the high quality of Chopawamsic's facilities. In later decades of the period of significance, improvements under Mission 66 introduced a new style to the camps that exemplified the workmanship of the Modernist era. Today, the collection of camps retains landscape features and buildings and structures that exemplify both the Rustic principles of landscape design and their extension into the modern era. Collectively, these landscape characteristics demonstrate a high degree of integrity of workmanship in each cabin camp.

FEELING

Feeling is a property's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period. Visitors to the camps experience their rustic camp qualities. They remain rural retreats in a remote wooded setting, with few landscape features that speak to modernity. This feeling was described and modeled by RDA designers, and remains extant in the cabin camps today. However, ongoing modernization efforts such as paving and utility work have damaged the integrity of feeling in some portions of the camps. Careful consideration should be given to the recommendations outlined in the treatment recommendations of this report to preserve the camps' overall sense of feeling.

ASSOCIATION

Association is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property. All camps remain clearly linked to the historic development of the Chopawamsic RDA as a series of organized group camps. The camps also convey the continuous link of landscape changes to their physical fabric, including the 1930s New Deal programs, the OSS, and Mission 66 initiatives. While none of the camps retains an association to historic user groups dating to the period of significance, all five camps remain in continual use as rental facilities. Camp 3 is rented on an individual and group basis; the remaining four camps continue to foster associations with user groups (rather than individuals). Based on their continued association with recreational land use and camp visitors, all five camps retain a high degree of integrity with respect to association.

LANDSCAPE CHARACTERISTICS

Summaries of landscape characteristics identified for the cabin camps overall are listed below.

NATURAL SYSTEMS AND FEATURES

Natural systems and features refer to the natural aspects that have influenced the development and physical form of a landscape. The rugged natural features of the cabin camps contribute to the character of each cultural landscape. RDA designers carefully sited each camp to take advantage of natural features, such as Quantico Creek. They also carefully integrated mature vegetation, boulders, and other natural features within the camps, taking care not to damage such features during construction. The existing conditions at all camps reflect this historic reverence for natural systems and features. As a result, all camps retain integrity with respect to this landscape characteristic.

LAND USE

Land use refers to the principal activities conducted upon the landscape and how these uses organized, shaped, and formed the land. The recreational use of the camps has not changed significantly since the period of significance. (The military land use of the camps started and ended during the period of significance, and does not exist today.) Each camp

retains integrity of association and feeling, as they remain organized as seasonal cabin camps. Minor changes, such as the winterization of parts of Cabin Camp 5 or individual rentals at Cabin Camp 3, do not detract from the overall legibility of this land use within the cabin camps. As a result, all camps retain integrity of land use.

TOPOGRAPHY

Topography refers to the three-dimensional configuration of the landscape surface, characterized by features such as slope, articulation, orientation, and elevation. The topography of each cabin camp has not changed significantly since the camps' original construction. Each camp continues to rely on the naturalistic topographic qualities of the landscape to create a rustic camp atmosphere. In recent decades, the steep topography of several camps has resulted in moderate runoff and water damage along circulation features and within camp units. This is in large part due to improper maintenance of the camp's historic roads and the loss of understory vegetation and leaf litter within camp units. These impacts have not resulted in significant changes to the larger topography of camp landscapes. The extant conditions are generally consistent with the historic topographical conditions of each camp at the end of the period of significance. The camps therefore retain integrity with respect to topography.

SPATIAL ORGANIZATION

A cultural landscape's spatial organization refers to the three-dimensional organization of physical forms and visual associations in the landscape, including articulation of ground, vertical, and overhead planes that define and create spaces. Each camp remains organized as a series of units linked to a shared camp core, consistent with its historic design. The addition or replacement of buildings and structures after the period of significance does not detract from the significance of the camps' spatial organization (as those changes are addressed as features of the camps' cluster arrangements). The camps therefore retain integrity of spatial organization.

CLUSTER ARRANGEMENT

There have been significant changes to the cluster arrangement in specific camps, with respect to the demolition, addition of new buildings, and the relocation of other buildings within Camps 1 and 5. Alterations at Camp 1 do not detract from the overall legibility of the historic cluster arrangement of that camp, since the cabins were replaced with cabins of similar scale and location.

The cluster arrangement of Camp 5 changed significantly in the later years of the period of significance, as part of the Mission 66 and Parkscape USA programs. In a shift away from the CCC-era lodges, the National Park Service constructed new, larger facilities (including dormitories and bathhouses), in order to offer camp operations year-round. Such a shift was in keeping with the transition of Camp 5 from long-term seasonal rentals to increasing day use at the end of the period of significance. Although the scale and placement of the new buildings altered the legibility of the CCC-era cluster arrangement, these alterations ultimately represented a reinterpretation of (rather than a departure from) the historic design intent, use, and association of the camps. As such, the camps retain their overall integrity of cluster arrangement.

CIRCULATION

Circulation is defined by the spaces, features, and applied material finishes that constitute systems of movement in a landscape. The five camps retain nearly all of the historic circulation features within their bounds. The circulation systems in each camp remain clear and legible, including delineation into an entrance road and parking lot, central truck trail and spurs, and informal paths within camp units and outlying areas. Additional circulation features (e.g. footpaths) postdate the period of significance but do not detract from the integrity of the landscapes' circulation, as they maintain the general naturalistic character intended by RDA designers. Other changes made after the period of significance include the paving of some paths within Cabin Camp 5 and Cabin Camp 1 to improve accessibility; such paving, while non-historic, remains limited within the camp scenes and serves to invite more users into the camps, preserving their feeling and association. As a result, the cabin camps retain integrity with respect to circulation; attention should be paid to preserving the unpaved rustic character of remaining circulation features.

VIEWS AND VISTAS

A view is the expansive and/or panoramic prospect of a broad range of vision that may be naturally occurring or deliberately contrived; a vista is a controlled aspect of a discrete, linear range of vision, which is deliberately contrived. The design and management of the camps continue to take advantage of views to and from natural and cultural features within the landscape, as created by RDA designers. This includes carefully framed views along camp circulation features, as well as screened views into and out of each camp. The cabin camps' cultural landscapes retain integrity of views and vistas.

VEGETATION

Vegetation features are characterized by trees, shrubs, vines, ground covers, and herbaceous plants that are commonly associated with eastern deciduous forests and oak-tulip forest communities. The forest health at the camps is fair to good. Native species dominate the canopy and understory. The primary threats to ecosystem health are invasive plants, the long-term effects of deer browse, and limited advance regeneration of native tree species. Invasive plants are present and abundant in areas where human disturbance is greatest, notably at Camp 3. Most camps retain designed and naturalized plantings, including flowering shrubs and trees adjacent to buildings and structures, mature trees along camp roads and within units, and feathered forest margins that screen camp edges. These features are threatened by hazard tree programs, over-mowing, ongoing construction, natural die-off, and climate change. The units in Camp 5 retain few canopy trees due to an overabundance of turf and associated mowing practices. Despite these impacts, each camp retains the general design intent and integrity of its vegetation; with careful management, the detrimental impacts to the integrity of vegetation can be reversed.

BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES

Building features refer to the elements primarily built for sheltering any form of human activities; structures refer to the functional elements constructed for other purposes than sheltering human activity. As a collection, the camps retain nearly all historic buildings and structures dating to the period of significance, including those erected during initial camp construction, several added by the OSS during World War II, and those built as part of Mission 66 and its legacy programs. A limited number of historic buildings and structures have been repurposed or added since the camps' period of significance; in most cases, these non-historic buildings and structures were erected in similar locations and/or with similar programs to their predecessors. As a result, the camps retain integrity with respect to buildings and structures.

CONSTRUCTED WATER FEATURES

Constructed water features are the built features and elements that utilize water for aesthetic or utilitarian functions in the landscape. Each camp was organized along the Quantico Creek, where the CCC constructed dams and artificial lakes to create swimming areas. All of these lakes and dams remain extant. However, significant silting and the growth of aquatic plants have made most of these swimming areas unusable. Their design and legibility as landscape features remain extant, but their conditions are fair to poor. Careful management of these features, including possibly dredging or clearing swimming areas, can reverse the loss of integrity. As of 2023, the camps retain integrity of constructed water features, but they should continue to be monitored carefully.

SMALL-SCALE FEATURES

Small-scale features are the elements that provide detail and diversity, combined with function and aesthetics, to a landscape. The camps retain features dating to the period of significance, including some signage, drinking fountains, and flagpoles. Many of these small-scale features have been regularly replaced throughout the cabin camps' histories, largely in-kind or in the same locations. Additional small-scale features are

non-contributing but are in keeping with the rustic atmosphere of the cabin camps. As a result, the collection of camps retain integrity with respect to small-scale features.

ARCHEOLOGICAL SITES

Archeological sites are defined as the location of ruins, traces, or deposited artifacts in the landscape, and are evidenced by the presence of either surface or subsurface features. No archeological investigations were conducted as part of this cultural landscape report. All previously identified archeological sites, including cemeteries, pre-date the camp's period of significance and are non-contributing features to the cabin camps. They are managed as cultural resources by the park.

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Natural Systems and Features

Natural systems and features are the natural aspects that have influenced the development and physical form of the landscape, and can include geology, geomorphology, hydrology, ecology, climate, and native vegetation.

HISTORIC AND EXISTING

GEOMORPHOLOGY AND GEOLOGY

Prince William Forest Park is transected by the Fall Line, dividing it into the two physiographic provinces of the Piedmont and the Atlantic Coastal Plain. Cabin Camps 2 and 5 are in the Piedmont, while Camps 1, 3, and 4 are in the Coastal Plain. This physiographic separation would later result in distinctly different Rustic-style cabin camp landscapes whose designs responded directly to their natural settings.

The Piedmont was formed through a range of geologic processes, including folding, faulting, uplift, and erosion. It is characterized by gently rolling hills over metamorphic bedrock, with few surface deposits.[1] In contrast, the Atlantic Coastal Plain was formed by sediments that were eroded from higher elevations to the west. These sediments were shaped by fluctuating sea levels and erosion when ancient oceans covered the landscape. As a result, areas within the Coastal Plain feature a more diverse range of surface deposits and bedrock than those found in the Piedmont.[2]

Landforms in the Piedmont areas of the park, including Camps 2 and 5, are characterized by ridgetop plateaus. These plateaus are capped by erosion-resistant rocks and separated by steep-sided valleys and ravines formed through the erosion of less-resistant rocks along waterways. Over thousands of years, intense erosion throughout the Piedmont areas of the park exposed the underlying bedrock, forming ravines ranging in elevation from 10 feet to 400 feet above sea level. These ravines delineated where camp planners could place cabin units; as a result, they surround Camps 2 and 5 and define the edges of the camps' cultural landscapes. Camps 2 and 5 are underlain by the Lunga Resevoir Formation, an Ordovician bedrock containing metamorphic rocks and minerals such as gneiss, mica shist, feldspar, quartz, and calc-silicate. Camps 2 and 5 contain few surface deposits, with the exception of alluvium, an unconsolidated mud, clay, and gravel found along the South Fork of the Chopawamsic Creek. As a result, the landforms within these two cabin camps are generally more consistent in character than their Coastal Plain counterparts, whose character varies more widely.[3]

Landforms under the camps within the Atlantic Coastal Plain (Camps 1, 3, and 4) are composed of mostly unconsolidated sediments eroded from the Piedmont and Blue Ridge Mountains and deposited in thick sedimentary layers. These layers include sand, silt, and clay, as well as gravel. Because the underlying geology of these camps is much softer and prone to erosion than those in the Piedmont, the landforms within the camps tend to be steeper, narrower, and more varied. Cabin camp designers responded to these eroded landforms by adapting their designs into more linear layouts. (Refer to the Spatial Organization section for more details.) All camps are underlain by multiple bedrocks, in keeping with the varied geologic character of the Coastal Plain. Camps 1 and 4 feature rocks from the previously-mentioned Lunga Reservoir Formation, as well as those from the Chopawamsic Formation (Upper Ordivician), a metamorphic rock largely made of breccia and greenstone. Surface deposits at these three camps are more substantial and include alluvium along waterways, as well as rocks from the Potomac Formation (Lower/Upper Cretaceous) at Camp 3. The Potomac Formation contains quartz and feldspar found in sand, silt, and clay deposited through ancient floodplains.[4]

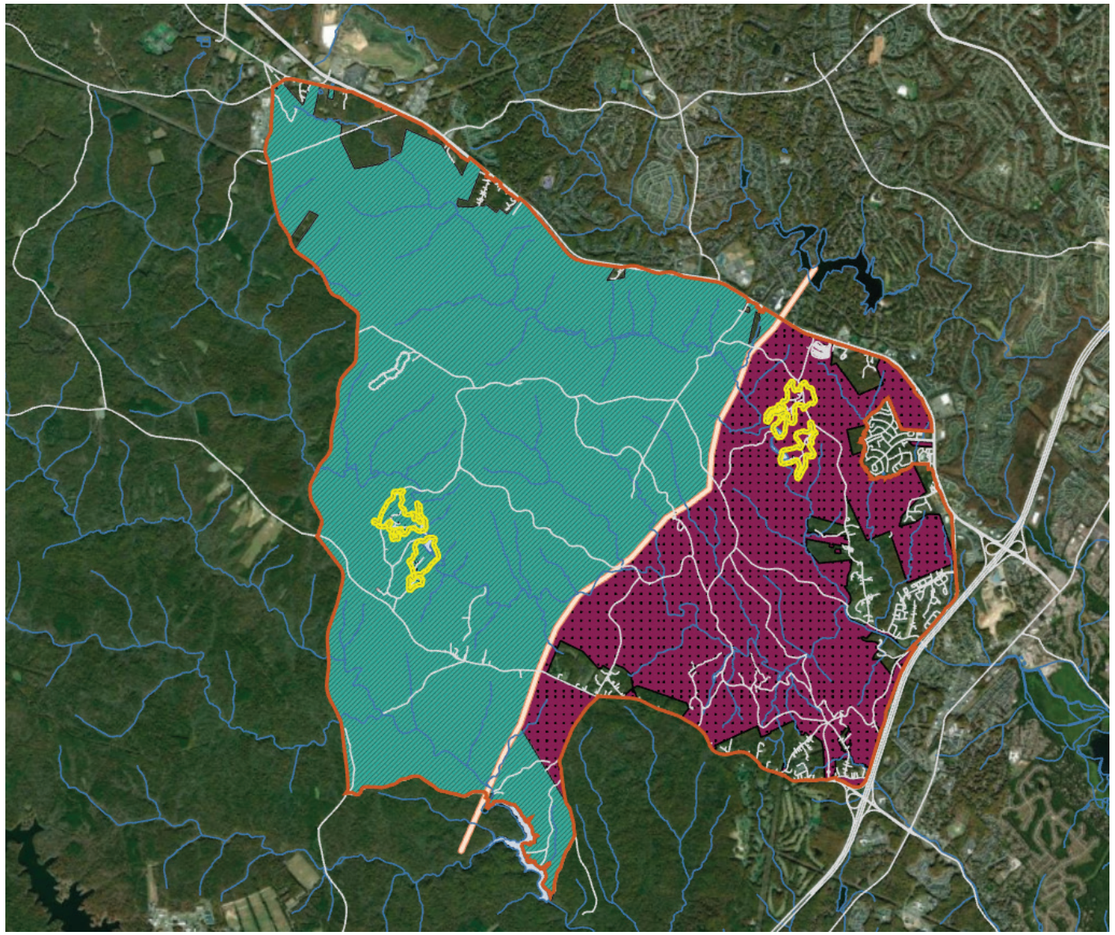

Figure 28: This diagram shows the physiographic separation of the five cabin camps (outlined in yellow with dashed line) by the Fall Line (denoted by a solid white line running north-south at the center of the map). Camps 2 and 5 are in the Piedmont (dashed green overlay), while Camps 1, 3, and 4 are in the Coastal Plain (dotted purple overlay). The park boundary is outlined in a solid orange line. (Torkelson 2023; PRWI GIS Files; Map made using NCR/NPS Universal Design Colorblindness Standards)

1. Trista Thornberry-Ehrlich, *Prince William Forest Park Geologic Resources Inventory Report* (Denver, CO: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 2009), 3.
2. Thornberry-Ehrlich, *Prince William Forest Park Geologic Resources Inventory Report*, 2-3.
3. Thornberry-Ehrlich, *Prince William Forest Park Geologic Resources Inventory Report*, 2-3, 14-15; PRWI GIS SOIL DATA.
4. PRWI GIS SOIL DATA.

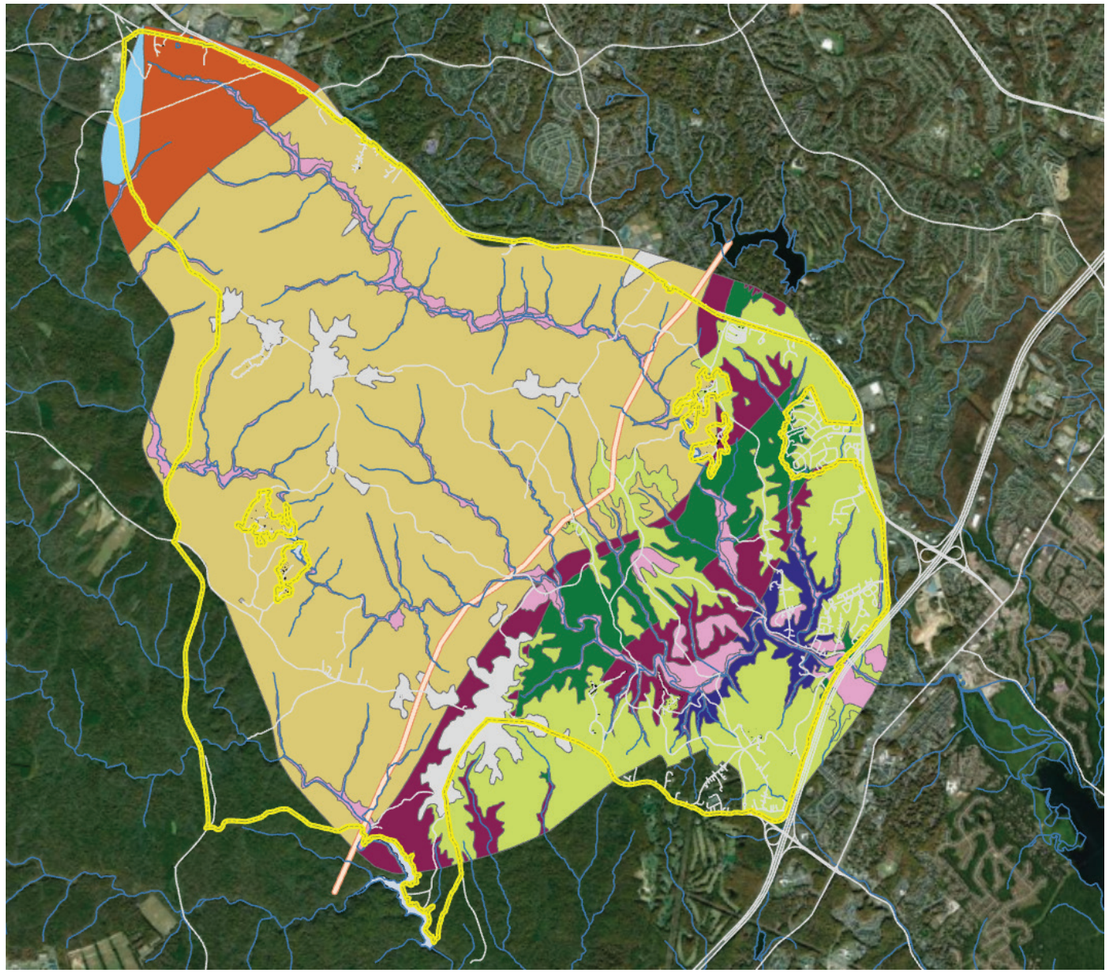

Figure 97: This diagram shows the bedrock and surface deposits at each of the five cabin camps. Camps 2 and 5, located in the Piedmont, feature minimal surface deposits and are underlain by the Lunga Reservoir Formation (gold overlay). Camps 1, 3, and 4 are underlain by the Lunga Reservoir Formation (gold overlay) and the Harpers Formation (maroon overlay). Camps 1, 3, and 4 are also characterized by frequent surface deposits of alluvium or the Potomac Formation (pink and bright green overlays), evidence of an ancient floodplain that once covered these areas. (Torkelson 2023; PRWI GIS Files; Map made using NCR/NPS Universal Design Colorblindness Standards)

WATERSHEDS

The cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park are located on along branches of the Quantico Creek oriented northwest-southeast. The source of the Quantico Creek is at Independent Hill, immediately northwest of the park. Camps 1 and 4 are located along the Quantico Creek. Camps 2, 3, and 5 are located along the South Fork Quantico Creek. The North and South Forks combine to form the Quantico Creek, which flows into the Potomac River at Possum Point, southeast of the park, and ultimately empties into the Chesapeake Bay.

Both the North and South Forks of the Quantico Creek were essential landscape features considered by the park's landscape designers when situating each cabin camp. Access to water provided health, recreational, and scenic benefits to campers. At Chopawamsic, RDA landscape architects capitalized on the natural hydrology of the landscape and dammed both forks of the Quantico Creek to form artificial lakes for swimming.[5] For more on these constructed water features, see the corresponding section.

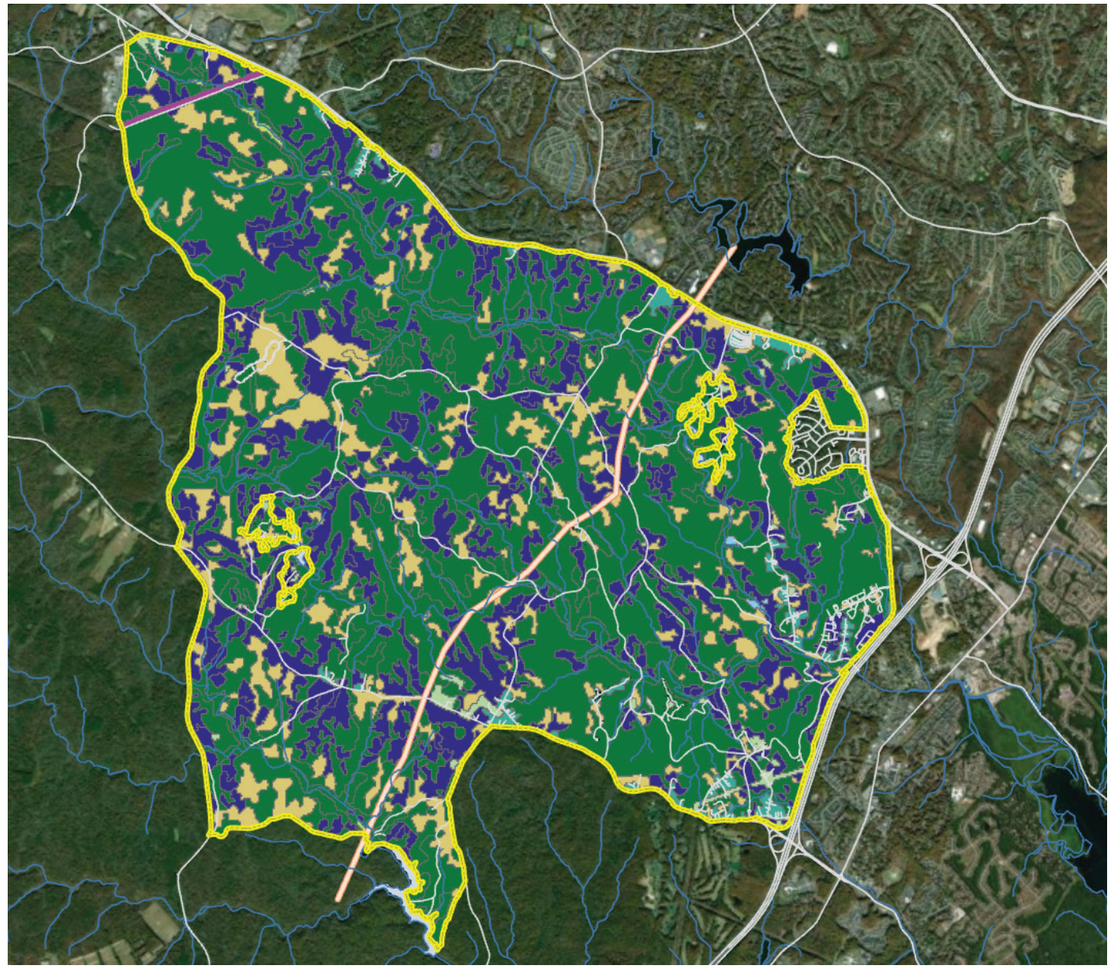

Figure 98: Mesic mixed hardwood forests (dark-green overlay) dominate the vegetation communities within the cabin camps. In Camps 2 and 5, where soils are more acidic and drier, successional Virginia Pine forests (blue-purple overlay) thrive. Smaller areas of Dry-Mesic Acidic Oak-Hickory forests (tan overlay) grow in camps 1, 3, and 4 on ridgetop plateaus where soils are somewhat drier and more acidic. (Torkelson 2023; PRWIGIS files; Map made using NCR/NPS Universal Design Colorblindness Standards)

5. *Recreational Demonstration Projects as Illustrated by Chopawamsic, Virginia* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 1936), 7-8, 13, 18; Albert Good et al., *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III: Overnight and Organized Camp Facilities* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 1938), 118; Linda Flint McClelland, *Building the National Parks* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998), 416.

Watersheds also served as a dividing feature within the park when racialized boundaries were established in the 1930s. A 1937 NPS policy designated the North Quantico Creek watershed for Black campers, while the South Fork Quantico Creek watershed would serve white campers. (Prior to 1937, all areas of the park were used exclusively by white campers.) In a letter formalizing the policy of racial segregation based on watersheds, NPS Regional Director Herbert Evison emphasized that the "section of the water-shed of the North Branch of Quantico Creek from the road leading north from Joplin and downstream to Ridge Road" would serve as the "Negro Area."[6] Such geographic separation, as delineated by the NPS Regional Office, would ensure that the new white camps on the South Fork Quantico Creek would "be isolated from the above mentioned Negro section," ensuring that waterways—and their respective users—did not mix.[7] This geographic delineation was based on racist stereotypes regarding cleanliness and health at swimming areas and water sources; this racial separation also reinforced the National Park Service's official deference to the Jim Crow policies of state governments—in this case, the Commonwealth of Virginia.[8]

ECOLOGY AND SOILS

In addition to serving as a delineator of landforms and geology, the Fall Line also served as a marker of different soil types and the vegetation communities they accommodated. Within Camps 1, 3, and 4, soil types were significantly more varied owing to the fluvial character of the Coastal Plain. Flatter areas, such as those underlying camp units and the camp cores, typically featured well-drained loamy soils, while steeper slopes and eroded areas, such as those slopes surrounding camp units, trended toward easily-eroded silty soils. Within these three camps, the most common soil types included Orenda Loam, Quantico Sandy Loam, Spriggs Silt, Dumfries Sandy Loam, Fairfax Loam, Meadowville Loam, and Hatboro-Codorus Complex. Camps 2 and 5 featured a much simpler series of soil types, in keeping with their location within the Piedmont. Dominant soils included Buckhall Loam, Occoquan Sandy Loam, and Meadowville Loam. All of these soils were dry, acidic, and well-drained.

The consistently loamy quality of the soils underlying the cabin camps supports a mesic mixed-hardwood forest. This dominant forest type is shown in green on the map. Typical tree species include American beech (*Fagus grandiflora*), white oak (*Quercus alba*), northern red oak (*Quercus rubra*), tulip tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), American holly (*Ilex opaca*).

Departures from this dominant forest type are the result of different soil types, their acidity, and their drainage. Soils in Camps 2 and 5 are drier and more acidic. As a result, these two camps are the only camps that feature large areas of successional Virginia pine forests; Virginia pines (*Pinus virginiana*) thrive in these environments, shown in blue. Noted departures in the Coastal Plain camps (1, 3, 4) are limited to ridgetop plateaus where soils are somewhat drier and more acidic. Here, Dry-Mesic Acidic Oak-Hickory forests grow. These forests are shown in light green on the map. In addition to traditional mesic tree species, these forests also accommodate mockernut hickory (*Carya alba*) and flowering dogwoods (*Cornus florida*).[9]

NATURAL FEATURES IN THE CAMP SCENE

In all five camps, NPS and CCC workers capitalized on the natural features within each of the camps to develop rustic camp scenery. Designers noted rock outcroppings and other unique landforms on their blueprints. Buildings and structures, such as campfire circles or cabin porches, were oriented to take advantage of views of these natural features. Buildings also took advantage of prevailing winds, access to sunlight, and other climatic conditions to maximize camp comfort and health. CCC workers likely also moved large boulders and ornamental plantings to create scenic or naturalistic qualities. Such moves would be in keeping with the principles of rustic landscape design—notably, those delineated by E.P. Meinecke, Frank Waugh, and Albert Good.[10]

EVALUATION

The underlying geology, dominant soils, and vegetative communities of the cabin camps have not changed since their period of significance. All five camps remain situated along their respective forks of Quantico Creek and continue to capitalize on the natural systems and features within their bounds.

The rugged natural systems and features of the cabin camps contribute to the character of each cultural landscape. Soils, landforms, waterways, and forest types actively shaped the development of the cabin camp landscapes during the period of significance. The conditions of the cabin camps reflect this reverence for natural systems and features. As a result, the cabin camps retain integrity with respect to this landscape characteristic.

6. Quoted in Erin Krutko Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks, 1916-1965: A Historic Resource Study* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Department of the Interior, July 2022), 261-62.
7. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 261-62.
8. O'Brien, *Landscapes of Exclusion: State Parks and Jim Crow in the American South,* 73-84.
9. Vegetation Survey [GIS Files], Prince William Forest Park, National Park Service, 2008.
10. E. P. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Construction* (California Region, U.S. Forest Service, 1934): 20; Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III*, 109-21.

NATURAL SYSTEMS + FEATURES - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Quantico Creek (North Fork)	Contributing
South Fork Quantico Creek	Contributing
Boulders and rock outcroppings	Contributing

Land Use

Land use refers to the principal activities conducted upon the landscape and how these uses organized, shaped, and formed the land.

HISTORIC

The cultural landscape was used and inhabited by Indigenous peoples for thousands of years before colonizers arrived. Archeological evidence places the earliest ancestors of the Doegs and Manahoacs in the Piedmont and Atlantic Coastal Plain between 11,000 and 9500 BCE. European colonization and settlement began in the late 17th century, forcibly displacing these peoples and dispossessing them of their ancestral lands. European colonizers developed homesteads and used the land for farming, hunting, fishing, grazing, and timbering. In the mid-to-late 19th century, extractive industries such as timbering and mining expanded into the Quantico and Chopawamsic Creek watersheds. Paired with small-scale agriculture, these land uses dramatically changed the character of the cultural landscapes, prior to the period of significance.[11]

These privately-owned properties were surveyed, acquired, or condemned in the mid-1930s to create the Chopawamsic RDA. Families were relocated (both voluntarily and forcibly) to make way for the new RDA. By the time the National Park Service acquired the land for the cabin camps in the 1930s, industrial and agricultural uses had declined, and much of the landscape was in a state of regeneration.[12]

Between 1935 and 1942, NPS designers and CCC workers built the five camps, introducing the primary land use (recreation) to the study area. As designed, each "group camp" was meant to be used seasonally (in the summer months) by large groups that would rent the entire facility for youth camps. In doing so, most of these groups provided underprivileged urban youth with educational, recreational, and healthful opportunities. During the period of significance, such groups included: the Boys Club of Washington; 12th Street YMCA; Salvation Army; Family Services of Washington, D.C.; Arlington Girl Scouts; Potomac Area Camp Fire Girls; and Jewish Community Center, among others.[13]

In 1937, the National Park Service codified a policy of racially segregated use among the camps. Camps 1 and 4 were reserved for Black campers, while Camps 2, 3, and 5 would serve white campers. (Until 1937, Chopawamsic offered no facilities to Black campers. Indeed, no facilities in the park were purpose-built for Black campers; rather, this land use was added later, when previously white-only facilities were given over to their use.) Segregated camp use would persist in some form—by policy and by practice—into the 1960s.[14]

Camps generally were also divided along gender lines. In some instances, where camps were used by both genders, individual camp units were separated by gender—as well as race. Camps 3 and 4, historically used by families, featured nursery buildings, in addition to other traditional camp uses.[15]

As designed and constructed, each cabin camp had specific buildings and structures to accommodate functions essential to group camping. The dining hall provided meals, the infirmary tended to the sick, the camp offices served an administrative purpose and as a canteen, and the cabins housed campers and their leaders overnight. Active

11. Egloff and Woodward, *First People,* 20-25; Bedell, *'Few People Know Such a Place Exists'*, 6-16.
12. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History,* 45-47.
13. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History,* 13-15.
14. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 260-65.
15. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 278-80; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021] (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 2021): 54-55; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021] (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 2021): 110.

Figure 29: The cabin camps were operated on a segregated basis. Black campers at Camp 4, shown here, practice archery in the playing field on August 25, 1950. (Abbie Rowe, NPS, PRWI 2391)

recreation was also an essential part of camp life. Each camp featured a playing field and swimming area.

To construct the new facilities, the NPS relied on the Civilian Conservation Corps, which established several camps throughout the RDA. Many of the CCC camps were located immediately adjacent to the future cabin camps, often within what would become the camps' playing fields. The CCC's use of the camps ended circa 1942, with the disbanding of the CCC for the war effort.[16]

With the arrival of World War II, all camps closed to the public and were given over to new military uses. During this time, the camps were used by the OSS and military groups for housing, training, and administrative purposes. The camps retained some recreational uses via existing playing fields and swimming areas, but these uses were reserved for the OSS and its affiliates. In some instances, recreational uses within the camps were expanded. The OSS constructed an auditorium building at Camp 4 and converted nurseries at Camp 3 for a similar purpose. OSS agents used the auditorium and the converted facilities for leisure activities, including plays, dinners, and gatherings.[17]

To accommodate these new wartime uses and extend them year-round (in contrast with the camps' original seasonal use), the OSS winterized most of the existing facilities at the camp. With the conclusion of the war, the camps returned to primary use as recreational landscapes, offering organized group camps for youth and families.

During the Mission 66 period, minor alterations to the camps' land use included the addition of a chapel area (similar to campfire circles) at Camps 1 and 5, circa 1957.[18] Prior to the construction of these chapels, the camps had hosted occasional religious activities, but this land use had not been formalized into the built environment.

Most notably, the camps' recreational swimming use was increasingly characterized by swimming pools, rather than lakes. Camp 4 received a new swimming pool in 1956. (The pool was later removed.) No other pools were built, despite NPS plans to do so at all camps.[19] With the construction of winterized dormitories at Cabin Camp 5 in 1968 and 1969, that camp was extended to year-round recreational use. This alteration marked the last change to the land use of the camps during the period of significance.

Changes to land use after the period of significance were limited. Most historic user groups stopped

16. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History,* 12-13.
17. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 66.
18. "A Report of the Recreation and Maintenance Activities of Prince William Forest Park for the Year 1957," in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
19. *A Report of the Recreation and Maintenance Activities of Prince William Forest Park for the Year 1956*, in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.

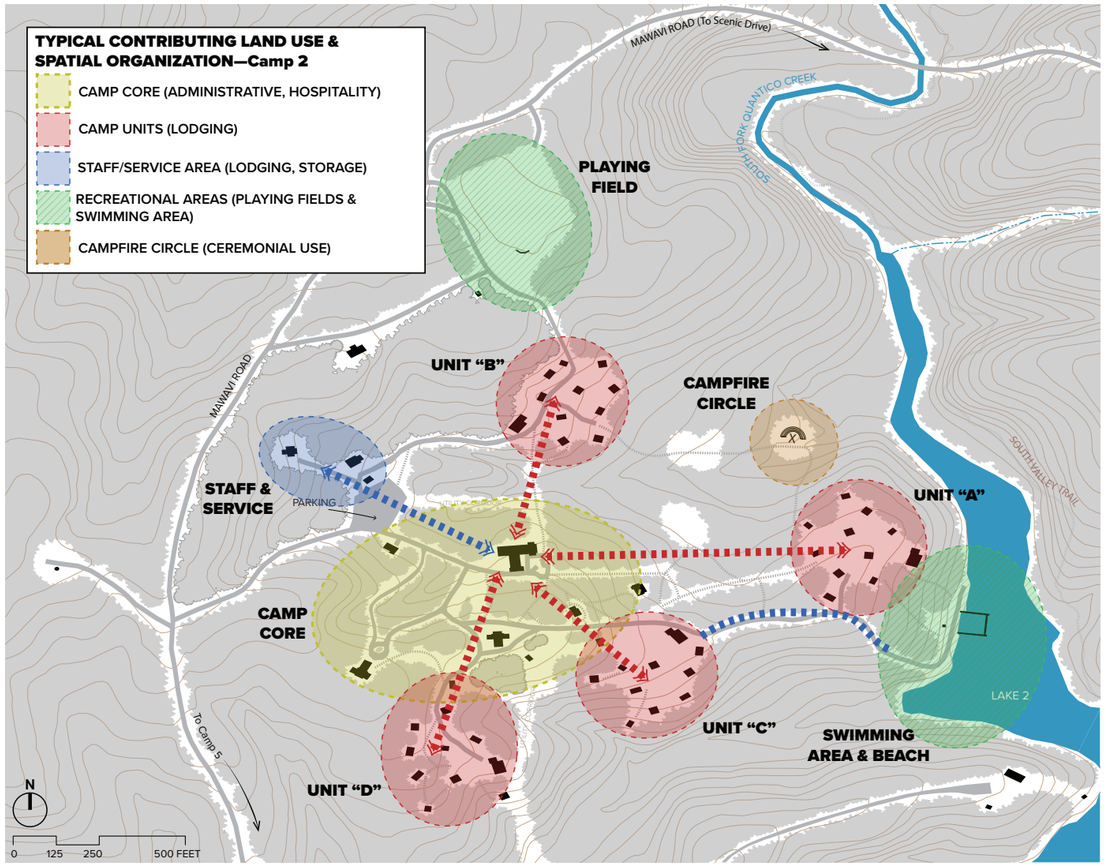

Figure 30: Each cabin camp is typically organized by land use and arranged in a hub-and-spokes plan. (Torkelson 2023)

renting the cabin camps; however, other regular user groups took their place, sustaining the recreational use of the camps. Circa 1999, Units A and B in Cabin Camp 3 shifted to individual cabin rentals, to afford individuals and families the opportunity to stay in the camps. (Unit C continued to be rented to groups.)

EXISTING

All camps remain in use as recreational cabin camps, supported by the camps' sleeping cabins and other structures, as well as their playing fields and swimming areas. No camp retains its historic use as a military installation or as a CCC camp; these uses started and ended during the period of significance. Minor changes to land use include the shift to individual cabin rentals at Cabin Camp 3.

Figure 31: "NatureBridge students from Rippon Middle School decided to recreate a 1938 photograph hanging in the Camp 1 dining hall of what used to be the Chopawamsic RDA. Together with Jon Jarvis, the Director of the National Park Service, the students took the same photo but this time, integrated." (Photo courtesy of NatureBridge)

EVALUATION

The cabin camps' recreational use has not changed significantly since the period of significance. Each camp retains the aspects of integrity (including design, feeling, association, etc.) of its historic land use as an organized seasonal cabin camp. Minor changes, such as the conversion to individual rentals at Cabin Camp 3, do not detract from the overall legibility of the historic land use within the cultural landscapes. As a result, all camps retains integrity of land use.

Figure 32: The cabin camps, including campers at Cabin Camp 1, shown here, continue to be used recreationally. (Photo Courtesy of NatureBridge)

LAND USE - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Recreational use as organized group camps	Contributing
Recreational use as a camp rented by individuals (in lieu of the historic group use)	Non-contributing - Compatible

Topography

Topography refers to the three-dimensional configuration of the landscape surface, characterized by features such as slope, articulation, orientation, and elevation.

HISTORIC

Topography was among the primary features that determined the locations and layouts of the cabin camps. RDA designers and CCC workers seldom altered the natural topography, doing so only when necessary to accommodate roads or playing fields. (For more on how the pre-existing topographic conditions influenced design, see the discussions regarding natural systems and features, spatial organization, and cluster arrangement.)

In instances where CCC workers did modify the topography, the manipulated topography was made to look as natural as possible. Manipulations of topography were generally made according to CCC and NPS guidance, including that of Waugh and Good. Remarking on the role of topography in influencing camp layout, Albert Good said:

> Another set of conditions which has all-important bearing on the camp plan includes site factors such as topography, natural features, and climate. A rugged topography may force a sprawling lay-out [sic] or a very concentrated one, both of which are non-typical and short of ideal. Sparseness of cover will suggest a wide separation of units....A steep lakeshore or riverbank may make it necessary to string out the camp in plan that departs from the typical. If the site is a small peninsula, the site will recognize the peculiar advantages this offers.[20]

The topographic conditions across the cabin camps varied widely. Broadly, topography sloped down in all directions from camp units, which were frequently arranged on flat, ridgetop plateaus. Generally, swimming areas and lakes were located at the lowest elevations within the camps. The highest elevations were reserved for campfire circles, or in some cases, the camp core. In most instances, buildings and structures were placed on footings that were arranged along contour lines. Such topography helped individual camp units to feel cohesive and isolated from other areas within the camps.

EXISTING

The topography of the cabin camps remains largely unchanged from the period of significance. Minor to moderate erosion has resulted in some shifting of the landscape surface; however, park staff have undertaken corrective action to redress these conditions.

EVALUATION

The camps' respective topographies retain all seven aspects of integrity and easily convey the significance of this feature.

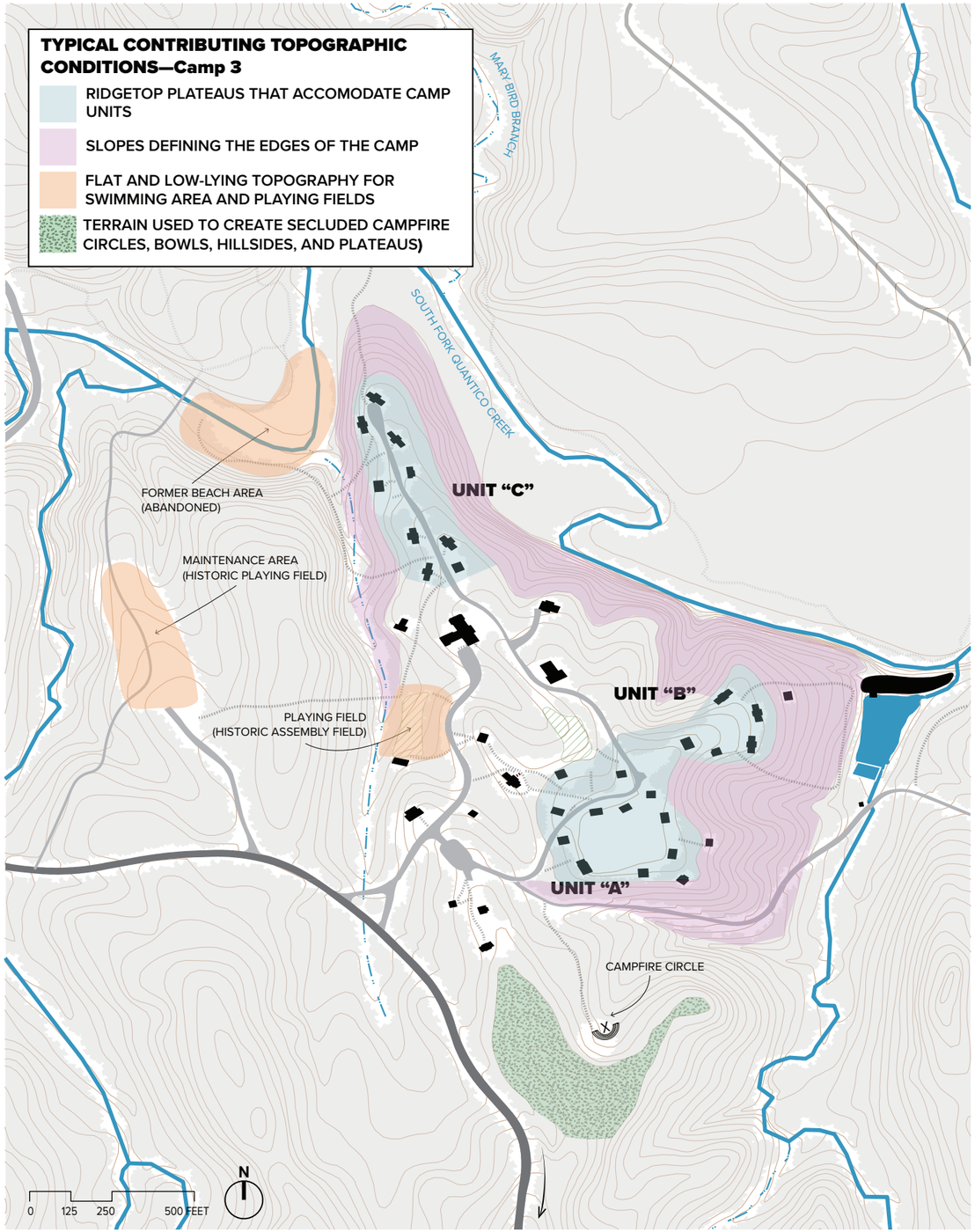

Figure 33: (opposite) This diagram shows typical contributing topographic conditions at Camp 3. These include steep hillsides that define the edges of the camp, flat areas for recreation, bowl-shaped landforms for the campfire circle, and flat areas that accomodate camp units. (Torkelson 2023)

20. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 110-11.

Figure 99: When constructing building and structures, the CCC seldom manipulated the natural topography; rather, buildings and structures were placed on footings that allowed them to respond to the topography. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 100: Typically, cabins within camp units were arranged along topographic lines. In this example at Camp 4, cabins were arranged according to the natural ridgetop plateau. All three cabins face one another and are placed along the edges of the ridgetop plateau. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 101: Campfire circles, such as this one at Camp 3, typically relied on topography to create an isolated, contemplative experience. Here at Camp 3, the campfire circle is located within a small, secluded bowl. The surrounding ridgelines serve as backdrops to the metaphorical stage. (Torkelson 2022)

TOPOGRAPHY - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Ridgetop plateaus that accommodate and isolate camp units from one another	Contributing
Moderate to steep slopes surrounding each camp that slope down to creeks below	Contributing
Flat and low-lying topography adapted by the CCC to accommodate swimming and to create playing fields	Contributing
Naturalistically adapted terrain that was used to create secluded campfire circles, including bowls, hillsides, and plateaus	Contributing

Spatial Organization

A site's spatial organization refers to the three-dimensional organization of physical forms and visual associations in the landscape, including articulation of ground, vertical, and overhead planes that define and create spaces.

HISTORIC

Camps 1-5 were formally organized and constructed as cabin camps between 1935 and 1942. Prior to this time, these landscapes were organized as a series of farm fields, clearings, and former logging lands, crisscrossed by rustic roads that separated the future camp landscapes.

The spatial organization of the camps was established in keeping with the National Park Service's guidance for organized group camp design. These principles were still under development at the time of Chopawamsic RDA's construction; Chopawamsic's cabin camps were key landscapes in which to test these design principles. Each camp's cultural landscape was organized into a series of cabin units and a camp core, united by a central road as the connective link. Albert Good later referred to this strategy as the "unit plan":

> A central area provides facilities for general administration; dining; medical examination, care, and isolation; and for the mass recreational and cultural activities of all campers in the area. Outlying a short walking distance from this central area are the units, each of which is a colony of sleeping cabins or tents for campers and their leaders, centering around a unit lodge which is the recreational and social rallying point of the group. A unit washhouse and latrine completes the unit lay-out [*sic*].[21]

Put differently, each camp was organized as a series of satellite units and an administrative core. Each of the cabin units was in turn organized into its own radial pattern around the unit lodge and latrine. The radial pattern of each cabin unit varied according to the topography and prevailing winds of its locale.[22]

Good referred to this spatial organization as a hub-and-spokes plan. The "hub" was analogous to a village, featuring facilities of "mutual interests," including "orderly government, food supply, medical care, and recreational and cultural pursuits." In Good's metaphor, the outlying "spokes" were equivalent to "hamlets" that depended on a "hub," or central administrative core.[23] Each unit, or "spoke," surrounded the camp core and was arranged in a radial pattern, typically located at a fixed distance from the dining hall—generally held to be the most important structure within the camp. At all five camps, the buildings of the central core included: the dining hall and kitchen; the infirmary; the craft lodge; the help quarters; the central washhouse; the administration building; storage building(s); and, in some cases, the camp nursery. This organization placed the dining hall at the visual and geographic center of the camp. The camps' units were then tied together with a truck trail, or service path.[24]

Areas often outside of the camp core or camp units included playing fields, swimming areas, and campfire circles. These features were generally located several hundred feet from each camp and connected via footpaths. Their distance from the camps served to discourage campers from attending these areas unsupervised, both for their safety, in the case of swimming areas, and to preserve their sanctity for camp traditions, in the case of campfire circles.

21. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 109-10.
22. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 109-10.
23. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 109-10.
24. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 109-13.

Figure 34: As an early model of organized group camping, Chopawamsic RDA was among the first group camps to test the hub-and-spokes layout of radial spatial organization. This undated study for "an organized camp," created early in the RDA's design and construction, featured a camp core located near the entrance road and camp units branching off to the southeast. This spatial organization strategy was later employed at Camps 1 and 4. (PRWI 5511)

Each camp employed this general organizing logic, but adapted this guidance to the unique topographic conditions of each cultural landscape. For example, Camps 2 and 5, located in the flatter Piedmont portion of the park, were built with a more traditional central camp core and radial units. Camp 2 featured four units centrally arranged around the camp core, while Camp 5 featured only two similarly-arranged units.

In contrast, Camps 1, 3, and 4, located in the topographically more varied Coastal Plain, featured more linear spatial organizations that were constrained by steep hillsides and ravines along the creeks. Camps 1 and 4 featured an administrative core adjacent to the camp entrance road, with four and six units, respectively, branching out from the camp core to the southwest. Camp 3 represented a hybrid approach, with a central camp core and three units organized according to the topography: two units were radially arranged, while the third unit was more linear.

Camp planners such as Albert Good argued for the separation of spaces into vehicular, public-oriented spaces and pedestrian-oriented camper areas. Each camp generally included the public-facing and vehicle-oriented spaces (such as parking lots and spur roads) adjacent to the administration buildings, storage areas, or dining hall. Gates would then separate these spaces from most of the areas used by campers.

In the later decades of the period of significance, changes to the camp's spatial organization were limited. Buildings and structures added by the OSS did modify the spatial organization of the camps, but nearly all of them were removed after the war, restoring the original spatial organization of the camps. Exceptions included new classroom spaces within camp units and the addition of a theater building at Cabin Camp 4. Additional cabins added as part of the Mission 66 and Parkscape USA programs preserved the unit plans at all affected camps, but modified the cluster arrangement of individual units. (For more on these alterations, refer to the cluster arrangement section.) This was the case for the central bathhouses and dormitories at Camp 5, which were added in the last years of the period of significance. Other Mission 66-era changes included the addition of new cabins to each unit at Camp 2 and Camp 5; these cabins maintained the historic spatial organization of each unit. Changes made as part of the Mission 66

Figure 35: The spatial organization of Cabin Camp 3 features a hybrid approach to the traditional hub-and-spokes plan. Units A and B (at the top of the 1938 photo) surround the camp core radially. Meanwhile, Unit C (bottom center of photo) is organized in a linear fashion, corresponding to the topography. (PRWI 698)

program did not affect the integrity with respect to spatial organization.[25]

EXISTING

The spatial organization of each cabin camp is consistent with the conditions in place at the end of the period of significance. Each camp retains its delineation into units (between two and five per camp) and a camp core, as articulated and bounded by a central camp truck trail. Each of the units retains its groupings of cabins, lodge, and latrine. Each camp also retains the central administrative core, including the dining hall, infirmary, help quarters, staff quarters, shower house, and craft lodge, as well as other structures. Replacement cabins and latrines added at Camp 1 after the period of significance, in the 1980s, nevertheless maintained that camp's historic spatial organization.

EVALUATION

The spatial organization of each cabin camp is consistent with its composition during the period of significance. The addition or replacement of buildings and structures within certain camps after the period of significance does not detract from the significance of the camps' overall spatial organization. Therefore, the camps collectively retain integrity of spatial organization.

25. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 80-81; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 96-97; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021],94-95.

SPATIAL ORGANIZATION - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Radial or linear hub-and-spokes organization of satellite units around a camp core	Contributing
Cabin units organized around a central unit lodge and latrine/ shower house/comfort station	Contributing
Outlying clearings, including playing fields, swimming areas, and campfire circles	Contributing
Separation of spaces and use, with vehicle-oriented spaces and use in central core and pedestrian-oriented spaces and use in cabin units	Contributing

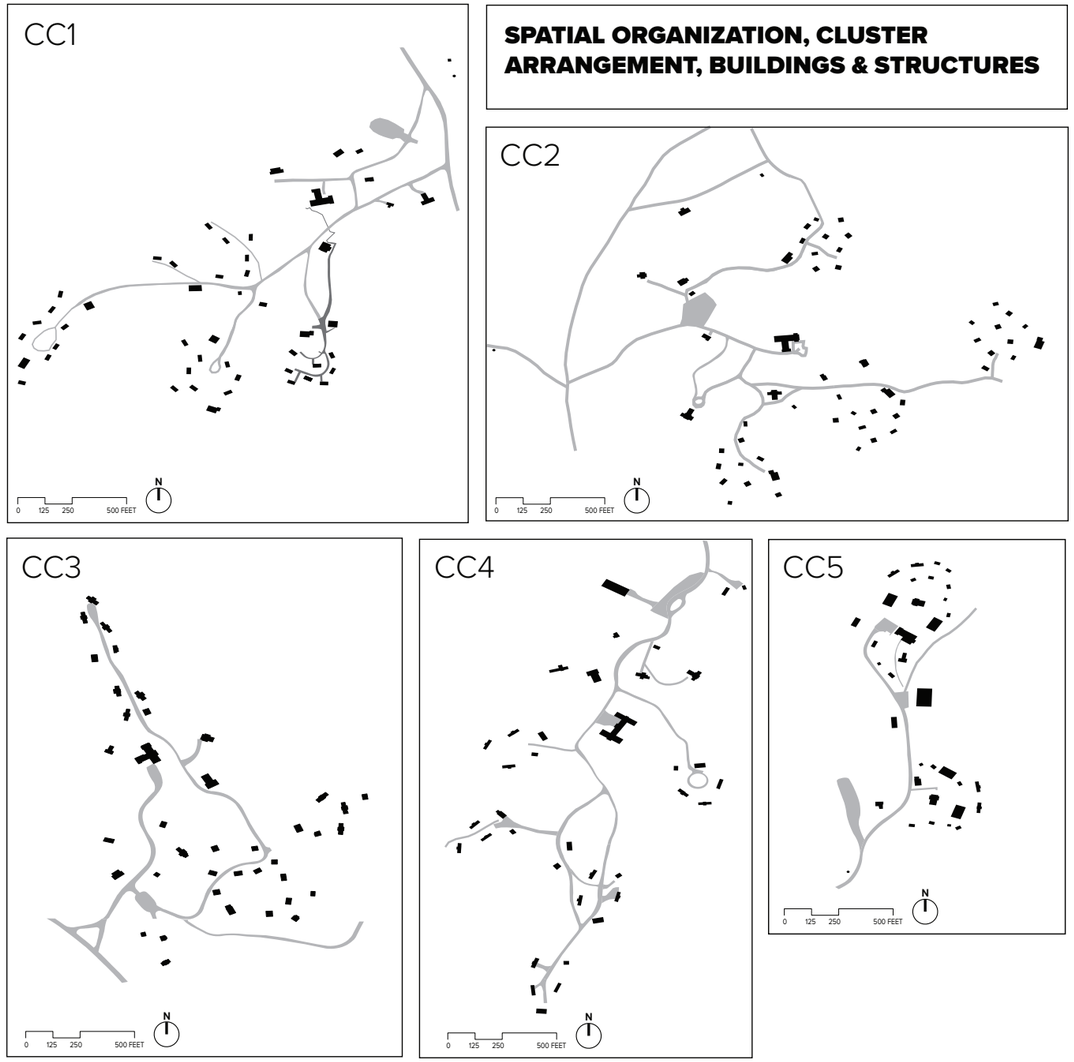

Figure 36: This figure ground drawing of all five camps shows the different approaches to spatial organization at the five camps. All camps are drawn at the same scale. (Torkelson 2023)

Cluster Arrangement

Cluster arrangement is the location and patterns of buildings, structures, and associated spaces in the landscape.

HISTORIC

The cluster arrangement of the Chopawamsic cabin camps was established in the mid-to-late 1930s, in the early years of the period of significance (1935-1969). As noted in the spatial organization section, the design was based on the principles of the "modern unit plan" for organized group camps, which was premised on specific internal cluster arrangements (and spatial organization). These principles called for the designer to take advantage of natural landscape features, including topography and views and vistas, in arranging features into clusters.

Cluster arrangements at the five camps varied historically, but always consisted of the same component features. Each camp was organized into clusters, with two to six clusters per camp. For example, Camp 4 featured Units A, B, C, D, and E, and the central core—six clusters in total. The smallest scale, Camp 5, featured only three clusters—Unit A, Unit B, and the camp core. Each cluster was dependent on the topography, which in turn determined how the structures were oriented and how far apart they were from one another.

Broadly, all camp unit clusters were arranged around the camp core, establishing the primary cluster arrangement for each camp. Within the central core and each unit cluster, the buildings were arranged into secondary clusters of buildings and structures (and other associated features).

In the central core, the cluster typically included the camp office/dining hall, shower house, infirmary, staff quarters, help quarters, craft lodge, nursery, storage, garages, and water towers. These facilities were organized around the dining hall/kitchen, with the other buildings divided into smaller clusters. Often, staff and help quarters were placed near the dining hall and administration building for ease of access. However, they were typically placed at a slight remove from the other buildings in their cluster, in order to preserve campers' privacy when they visited those buildings. Recent research by Devlin hypothesizes that the location of camp help quarters away from campers was a direct consequence of segregated park planning efforts. In the case of Camp 3, most service staff were Black.

The administration building and infirmary were frequently located near the parking lot to facilitate their respective functions and access near the camp entrance. Similarly, storage buildings, garages, and utilities (such as water towers) were located away from campers in service clusters, directly off the main camp entrance roads or spurs. Craft lodges or nurseries were often located between camp units, where they would be easily accessible to campers.

Within each cabin unit, secondary clusters were arrayed around the unit lodge, latrine, and central drinking fountain. These clusters ranged in shape from circular to linear arrangements, based on the topography that constrained the clusters' footprints. In most cases, building porches were designed to face the center of each secondary cluster, so that the porches enjoyed views of the other cabins within the cluster. Camp organizers believed this arrangement would facilitate a congenial camper experience and enable supervision by the leaders from their cabins. In some instances, camp porches faced outward from the camp units, looking onto scenic areas below such as the Quantico Creek or steep ravines. For example, the CCC constructed cabins in Unit A of Camp 2 that faced the lake.

The OSS made limited changes to the cluster arrangement within the camps; most alterations made during this era were subsequently removed during the period of significance. This frequently included the construction of 25-man latrines and washhouses, centrally located in each central camp cluster. However, large-scale changes to cluster arrangement from the OSS era were undertaken at Camp 4. Here, the Army Technical Services Branch expanded the existing recreation hall/theater building, Quonset hut, classroom, and officers' quarters, expanding the arrangement of the central administrative cluster to the northwest and northeast. Meanwhile, OSS staff constructed a 100-man latrine and tent city in the playing field between Units D and E. With the exception of the theater, which remained in place, this new cluster and the expansions to the core cluster were removed after the OSS left in 1942, restoring the historic configuration of the camp. The OSS did not move or demolish any of the cabin camp structures

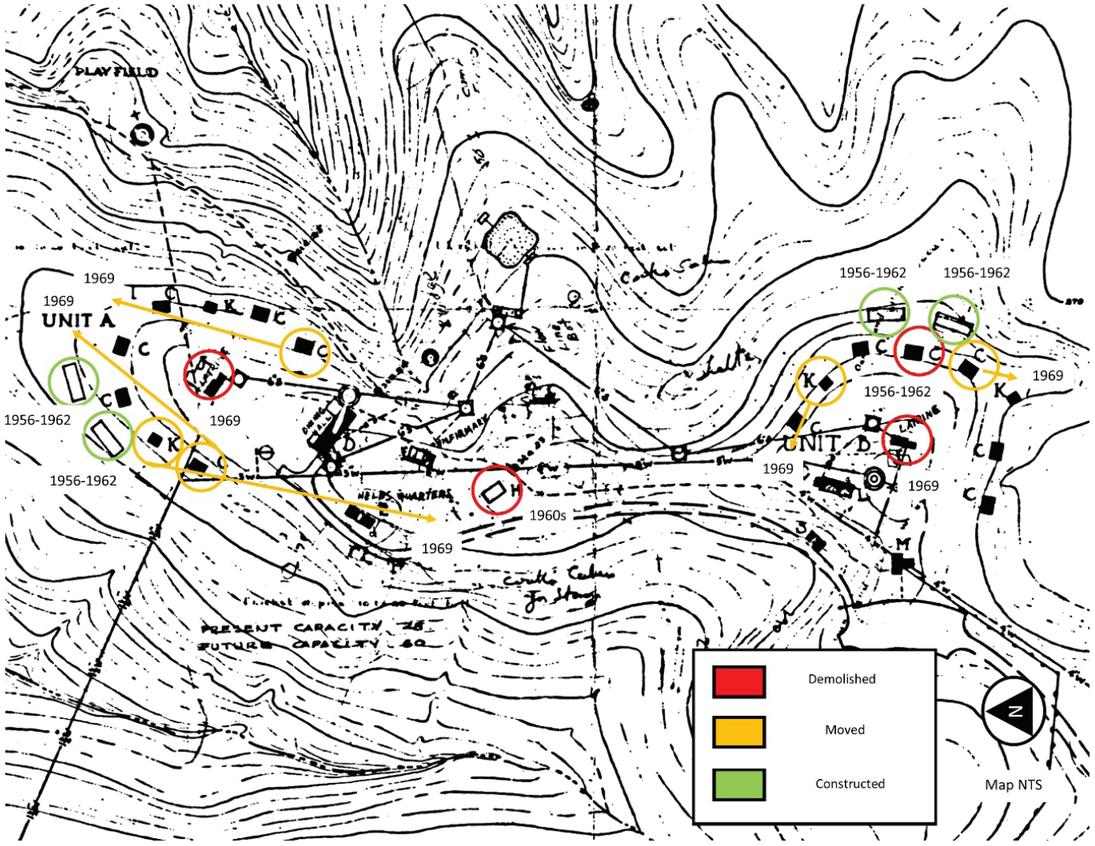

Figure 37: Annotations applied to the November 1939 plan revisions for Cabin Camp 5, showing how various buildings were moved or demolished due to the Mission 66/ Parkscape USA construction of the two new bathhouses and four new dormitories. Such changes preserved the general spatial organization of the camp, but drastically altered its cluster arrangement. NOTE: The image's annotations for the central washhouse are incorrect; the building was constructed in 1957-1958. Additional changes or moves may have taken place that are not captured here in this image produced by the University of Mary Washington. (Spencer et al., Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory [Draft, 2021], from 1939 plan in the PRWI Archives)

Figure 38: The cluster arrangement in Cabin Camp 5 was altered in the later years of the period of significance as part of Mission 66 and later programs; the reconfigured arrangement accommodated new and enlarged dormitories (left) and washhouses (center). These new dorms and bathouses shifted the central organizing views to and from buildings within camp units—views that were established during the CCC era and dependent on the cluster arrangement. The Mission 66-era cluster arrangement reorganized the units around the year-round facilities. (Shinton 2022)

in other camps, preserving their original cluster arrangements.[26]

Most changes to camp cluster arrangements in the later years of the period of significance were minor. Such changes occurred under Mission 66 and its related campaigns. These included: the addition of camper cabins at each unit in Camp 2; new chapels at Camps 1 and 5; the addition of storage buildings between unit clusters in Camps 3 and 4; a central washhouse in Camp 5; and the addition of a swimming pool at Camp 4 in 1956. This pool—which was later removed in 2004—was located in an area of the camp that was already a clearing, exerting minimal impact on the camp's historic cluster arrangement.

The cluster arrangement of Camp 5 was significantly changed by the end of the period of significance. As part of the 1968-1969 construction program—a legacy of Mission 66 planning—NPS added two dormitories to each camp unit. To accommodate these new buildings, park staff relocated several cabins and demolished existing unit latrines and help quarters for that particular camp, as it transitioned from traditional seasonal rentals to year-round recreational use.

The new buildings, which were significantly larger than their predecessors, blocked views within the units and isolated existing buildings to the periphery of the unit clusters. The new washhouses were in the same places as their predecessors, but the dormitories displaced several cabins in each location. This campaign resulted in a largely new

26. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 64-67.

Figure 39: A typical cluster arrangement at Cabin Camp 4. The topography of this unit constrained the cabins into a linear cluster along the central path. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 40: A typical cluster arrangement within a cabin unit of Camp 1. (Shinton 2022)

cluster arrangement for Cabin Camp 5, occurring at the end of the period of significance.[27]

EXISTING

With the exception of Camp 5, the existing cluster arrangement of the cabin camps is nearly identical to the camps' arrangement by the end of the period of significance. This reflects the addition and removal of buildings and structures during World War II, as well subsequent minor additions, or the relocation of structures within the camps during the later decades of the period of significance.

The Mission 66 initiative (and later changes) altered the internal cluster arrangement of the camp units in Camp 5, weighting them away from traditional lodges and towards year-round facilities. The new central focus on the dormitories and bathhouses (which were significantly larger than their CCC predecessors), as well as the displacement of earlier cabins for their construction, altered the cluster arrangement of Camp 5. The new design for camp units reflected the changing patterns of use for that particular camp, as it transitioned from traditional seasonal rentals to year-round recreational use.

Changes to the cabin camps' cluster arrangement that postdate the period of significance are limited to Cabin Camp 1. There, circa 1983, all unit cabins and latrines (except in Unit A) were replaced in the same or similar locations. Thus, even though these buildings were replaced, the cluster arrangement was generally preserved.

EVALUATION

All five cabin camps retain integrity with respect to their cluster arrangement. Changes made under Mission 66 and Parkscape USA at Camp 5 reflect changing attitudes towards recreational uses of the camp, including the trend towards day-use and year-round rentals. These changes (within Unit 1 of Camp 5) represent a reinterpretation of the camp's cluster arrangement during the period of significance. Overall, the camps' retain their integrity for this landscape characteristic. Changes to the cabins within Unit 1 do not detract from the historic cluster arrangement.

27. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 61-64.

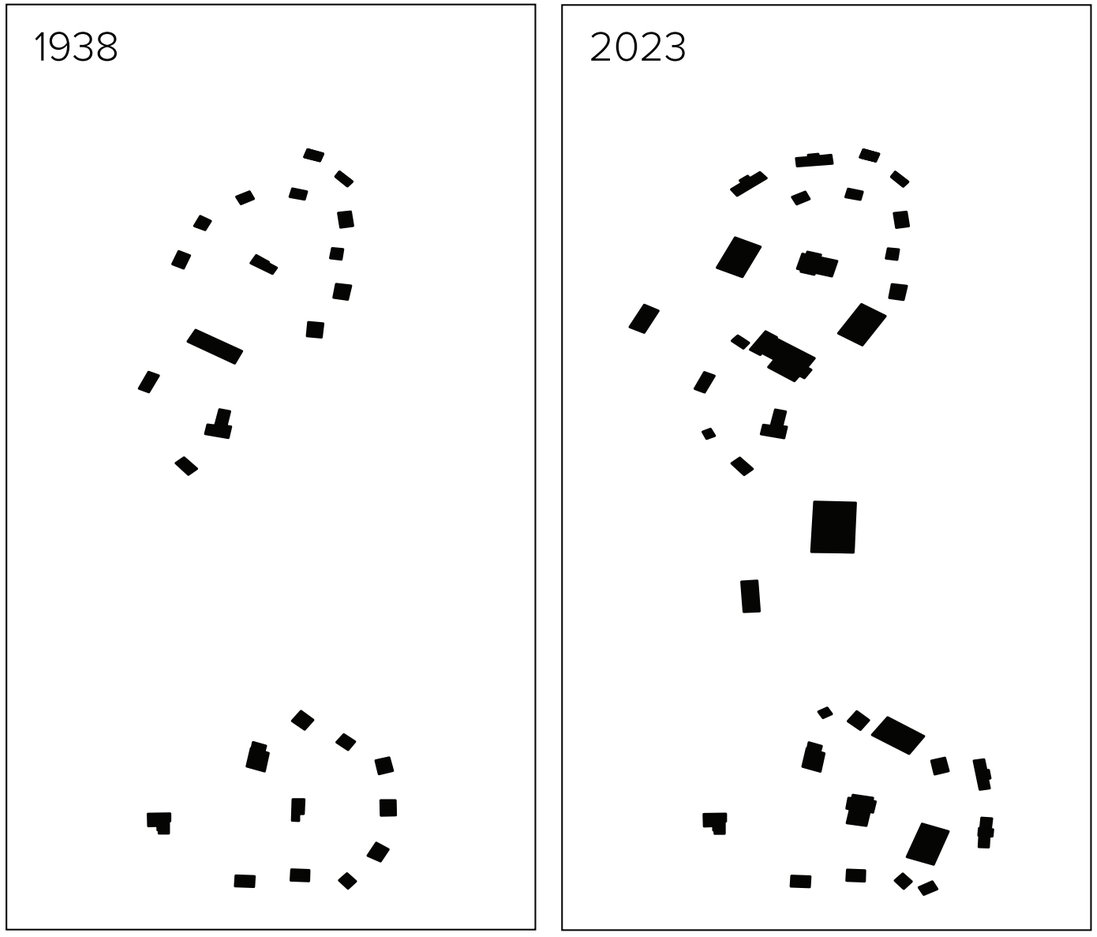

Figure 102: The changes in Camp 5's cluster arrangement between its original construction in 1938 (left) and its existing conditions (right) are primarily attributable to the Mission 66 and Parkscape USA programs, which altered the camp's cluster arrangement in the later years of the period of significance. (Torkelson 2023)

CLUSTER ARRANGEMENT - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Primary arrangement of each cabin camp in units, centered around a core of shared camp buildings	Contributing
Core cluster organized around the dining hall/kitchen	Contributing
Secondary arrangement of unit clusters, centered around the unit lodge and latrines/washhouses	Contributing
Outlying arrangement of playing fields and swimming areas	Contributing

Circulation

Circulation is defined by the spaces, features, and applied material finishes that constitute systems of movement in a landscape.

HISTORIC

The earliest circulation features within the cabin camps likely predate their construction. In the draft CLIs for Camps 2-5 (prepared in 2021), Spencer et al. suggest that many of the trails and roads in the camps originated as logging roads or homestead roads, prior to camp construction. Several CCC plans from the mid-to-late 1930s appear to corroborate this assertion. A 1938 layout plan for Cabin Camp 2 denotes that portions of the entrance road, now known as Mawavi Road, consisted of an "old logging road."[28]

The reuse of existing roads was practical, and demonstrated respect of the natural landscape. Frank Waugh and others advocated for such methods to be incorporated into the CCC's standard practice. Waugh noted that road development in parks and wild areas tended to be overdone. He urged planners to design a careful—and minimalist—circulation network before any other landscape feature. Reflecting on this topic, Waugh wrote, "it is probably better to begin the development of any area with very meager roads and trails, enlarging old roads as may be required, improving construction and extending fresh trails in new areas when positively demanded by use."[29] In concert with the principles of other park landscape architects, Waugh's guidance became actionable design policy for cabin camps such as Chopawamsic. Such policies were promoted widely by Albert Good in his books.

In a lengthy paragraph on roads in organized camps, Albert Good (like Waugh and Meinecke, mentioned elsewhere) was adamant that vehicle use should only penetrate a minimum distance into the camp. Good's principles closely followed Waugh's and held that the main automobile route into camps should terminate in three places: first, at an overflow parking lot; second, at an administration building in another, smaller parking lot; and finally, at the kitchen service courtyard. Appropriate spur roads led only to the garage, storage areas, or infirmary. As Good noted:

> There is no purpose to an actual roadway to any of the other camp buildings. Should there be an occasional need to reach other buildings to collect rubbish, for instance, or to distribute any heavy equipment at the opening or closing of camp, a cleared truck or wagon trail, treated merely as a widened footpath, under all but the most unusual conditions, will suffice.[30]

General RDA guidance adopted Good's recommendations and held that vehicles should extend into the camps no further than the main camp office or administrative building. After this point, rustic wooden gates prevented vehicles without permission from entering the camp core along the main truck trails or service roads.

In keeping with Good's designs, each cabin camp featured two primary circulation systems: pedestrian and vehicular. Most of the circulation features in the camp were planned as pedestrian paths, left as earth and leaf detritus. Camp entrance roads and truck trails were surfaced with gravel. CCC records noted that camp roads were given a base course of 1" to 3" of gravel "placed 6 inches deep upon the subgrade." After successful installation and grading of the road base, the CCC applied a 1½" finish course of stone chips and dust that served to bind the road together and create a more stable surface. All paving was locally procured from a quarry within the RDA; the precise location is not known.[31] This meant that the gravel likely consisted of greenstone, mixed with other naturally occurring rocks and minerals such as gneiss, mica shist, feldspar, quartz, and calc-silicate.[32]

28. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 77-78.
29. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation*, 6-7.
30. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 111-13.
31. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 91-92.

Figure 41: Typical truck trail conditions between camp units at Camp 3 featuring narrow paving and naturalistic appearance. Note the evidence of inappropriate vehicle use in the left of the photo that has resulted in erosion and a widened truck trail. (Torkelson 2022)

SEGREGATED CIRCULATION SYSTEMS

Despite its location outside of the CLR boundaries, the overall circulation system established for Chopawamsic RDA deserves some discussion within this section, with respect to the connections between the overall circulation features and the cabin camps' internal circulation systems. Original RDA plans, developed when the RDA served only white campers prior to 1937, called for a single park entrance and central drive that would connect all group camps within the RDA. After the NPS adopted a policy of racial segregation at the camps, the agency debated the use of related entrance roads by Black and white campers: should all campers use the same entrance, or should they be directed to separate entrances according to race? Regional NPS staff held that a single entrance road was the best policy, as it did not require large entrance signs that called attention to the segregated experience of the park. Due in part to a lack of funding, park staff did not construct a single entrance; rather, they built and maintained separate, segregated entrances during the period of significance. As Erin Krutko Devlin notes in her study of the subject, "park officials sought to maximize racial separation and prevent interracial mixing within the park by siting facilities for [white] and Black campers at a distance from one another on separate watersheds and providing separate points of entry."[33] Already geographically separated, the camps' circulation features reinforced their segregation: no public roads connected them to the planned central scenic drive or to one another. Even after the park was desegregated in the 1960s, the circulation features retained this historic configuration.

LATER CHANGES TO CIRCULATION FEATURES

Concurrent with the 1983 construction campaign at Camp 1, NPS staff installed an accessible asphalt pathway between the camp core and Unit D. This series of asphalt paths connected each cabin with the unit craft lodge, unit-latrine, camp-wide craft lodge, and dining hall. The camp's other paths, including within the units and the camp core, were not paved.

32. For more on the geology of the cabin camps and Prince William Forest Park, see the "Natural Systems and Features" section of this report.
33. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 261.

Figure 42: This highly-trafficked camp entrance road at Camp 2 typifies the historic character of camp roads. Such roads allow vehicles into the camps only as far as the parking lot, dining hall, and camp service buildings in the central core. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 43: This pedestrian path in Camp 2 features a naturalistic design and enhances the woodland character of the camp. While the edge condition and application of gravel to muddy portions of this trail is non-historic, the treatment does not affect the intent of the circulation feature. (Shinton 2022)

The Youth Conservation Corps made similar accessible improvements to Cabin Camp 5 first in 1995, and again in the 2010s.[34] The scope of this project was limited to a single path and series of ramps that connected the parking lot with the dining hall and infirmary. The path consisted of recycled plastic boards and edging. As of the writing of this CLR in 2023, Cabin Camp 5 will soon receive significant changes to its circulation system to increase camp accessibility. This will likely include paved paths that connect the unit comfort stations and dormitories with the camp core. (The authors of this CLR advised on context-appropriate paving materials and designs early in the planning process for this report; see Appendix C for that memo.)

EXISTING

All five camps retain their historic circulation systems. Each camp features a gravel central truck trail, spur trails, and unpaved internal pedestrian pathways. In limited instances, park staff or user groups have installed non-historic path edging, erosion barriers, or paving materials along circulation features to address muddy conditions and erosion. Such efforts have largely been on an ad hoc basis and are not widespread. With the exception of accessibility improvements in Camps 1 and 5, camp paths within camp units remain informal and unpaved, providing access to areas such as beaches, campfire circles, and playing fields.

In limited instances, some historic paths and roads have been damaged by additional vehicular use. This includes the widening of roads by maintenance vehicles and by construction vehicles backing-up or turning around in areas not historically intended for this use. Observed instances include narrow units in Camps 1 and 4, where it is difficult for service vehicles to turn around. In other instances, maintenance vehicles servicing individual cabin rentals and latrines at Camp 3 have left a large impact on the landscape, adding new paths where none were before. Similarly, construction activities in Camp 3 as of 2023 have resulted in off-road driving and parking by construction equipment.

Erosion of camp circulation features continues to be a challenge across all camps, due in part to the removal of leaf litter from units, as well as overuse of the camps. Erosion will continue to be a challenge due to extreme weather events made worse by climate change.

EVALUATION

The circulation systems at the cabin camps remain a clear and cohesive system of roads, served by two separate entrance roads (so designed based on historic, segregationist policies). The camps' circulation systems retain most of their significant features, with limited exceptions in Camps 1 and 5. However, these changes do not detract from the legibility or design intent of the camps' overall cultural landscapes. Changes in path and road surfacing, while non-historic, are in keeping with improvements to the camp for continued use and improved access. Despite these impacts, all camps clearly convey the historic intent of their circulatory systems and retain integrity with respect to this landscape characteristic.

As of 2023, accessibility improvements are underway in Camp 5, establishing accessible paved paths where none previously existed. The authors of this CLR prepared a memo advising on this process (refer to the appendices); the integrity of Cabin Camp 5's circulation should be reevaluated after that project is completed.

CIRCULATION - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Camp entrance roads, parking lots, and spurs (paved with gravel)	Contributing
Internal camp truck trails (earthen or paved with gravel)	Contributing
Internal unit paths and spurs (unpaved)	Contributing
Accessibility improvements to Camps 1 and 5	Non-contributing

34. Gregg Kneipp (Resources Manager, PRWI) in conversation with the author, by email July 14, 2023.

Views and Vistas

A view is the expansive and/or panoramic prospect of a broad range of vision that may be naturally occurring or deliberately contrived; a vista is a controlled aspect of a discrete, linear range of vision, which is deliberately contrived.

HISTORIC

The views and vistas of Cabin Camps 1-5 are subject to the conditions of their topography, surrounding vegetation, and built features. During periods of timbering and agriculture in the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries, the cabin camps likely were less forested and may have featured views across the landscape in numerous directions. As the landscape regenerated from industrial thinning and agricultural clearing in the 20th century, the recovering vegetation altered and limited these views.

When the cabin camps were established in the mid-to-late 1930s, park planners carefully considered the creation of the "natural scenes"—taking advantage of the recovering vegetation in order to establish rustic views and vistas throughout each camp. As has been discussed in other sections of this report, the landscape scene—an early term for the cultural landscape and its associated characteristics—was primary to NPS designers' vision for cabin camps. With published guidance from Good, Waugh, Meinecke, and others, RDA planners surveyed the park landscapes of the future camps at Chopawamsic and planned their features to take advantage of their natural settings. They sought to preserve, enhance, and manipulate natural features wherever possible, arranging circulation, vegetation, boulders, and other features to achieve both privacy and designed views.

Frank Waugh referred to these views and vistas as "paragraphs," denoting a form of landscape arrangement and design that made for a cohesive camp experience. Waugh noted that the landscape or camp scene should be considered as a whole:

> The scenery can also be made additionally attractive if it is presented by themes or motives arranged in 'paragraphs.'...View after view, picture after picture, will be shown at the most effective points. It is desirable that these views should present considerable diversity....If good recognizable motives, as explained above, can be developed, paragraph by paragraph, the total effect is likely to be enhanced.[35]

These texts shaped how the cabin camps were developed and guided the CCC workers in cultivating views and vistas.

Central to Meinecke and Waugh's development of the camp scene or its views was the careful management of vegetation. Both landscape designers noted the importance of maintaining a natural screen at camp edges and between individual units, while also selectively clearing understory vegetation within campsites. Above all, both men argued that all caution should be taken before any tree or natural feature was removed from a campsite.

The preservation of natural features such as boulders, trees, or logs created landscape rooms that fashioned a varied experience throughout the camp. This design logic held that new features, such as buildings or roads, should be sited with these natural features in mind and indeed, should contribute to and not detract from existing landscape rooms. Early master plans for Cabin Camps 1-5 note the specific location of existing trees and rocks, indicating that park planners were conscious of creating views and vistas while placing new built features.[36]

35. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 8-13.
36. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 8-13; Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction,* 20.

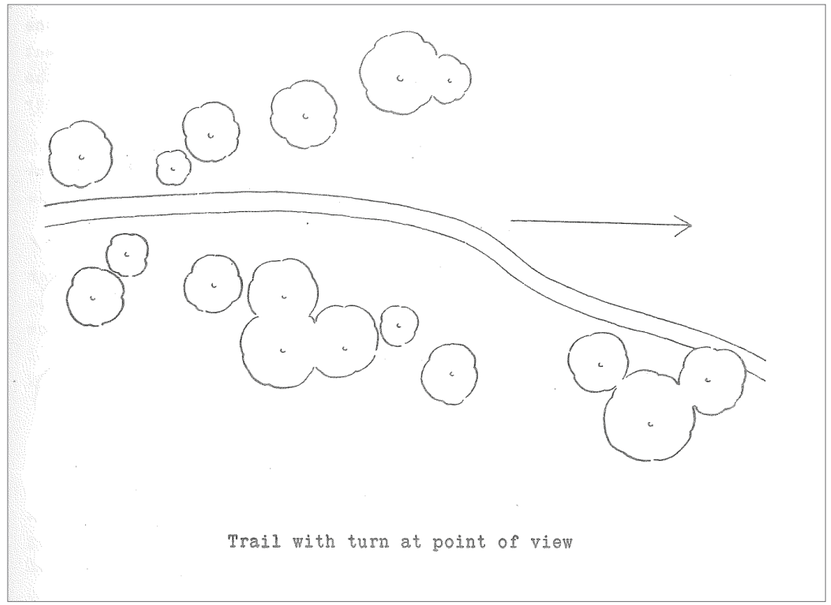

Figure 44: In his 1935 treatise, landscape gardener Frank Waugh recommended the careful placement of vegetation and gentle manipulation of circulation features to enhance views and vistas within the camp scene. (Waugh 9)

Designers such as Waugh, Meinecke, and Good thus argued for the creation of specific views within camp environments. These included:

- Clear sightlines between individual buildings and structures within the camp unit
- The framing of views along roads and paths by the careful preservation of existing vegetation and scenery
- Reciprocal views between buildings in each cabin cluster
- Views to and from the camp core along axial roads and paths within the camp
- Screened views at the edges of the camp, limiting views into and out of the camp

At Cabin Camps 1-5, this may have included partial views of both forks of Quantico Creek, as well as the lakes. (However, Good discouraged cultivated vistas of swimming areas for safety reasons, arguing that such vistas might encourage campers to wander off to the water's edge, unsupervised.)[37] Similarly, the entrance sequence vistas along each camp road were framed initially by maturing trees flanking the circulation features. In keeping with the principles of landscape gardening, the addition of intentional gentle curves in the road served to reveal vistas of buildings and structures such as the administration buildings or dining halls. The central camp roads jogged around existing trees and directed views between units and the camp core. Similarly, vegetation on the edges of the units was likely actively feathered into a gradient, creating a backdrop for each unit and integrating the camps into the surrounding forest environment. Camp circulation sequences thus featured carefully choreographed views and vistas.

After the initial construction of the cabin camps by the CCC, vegetation framing the views and vistas matured over time, reinforcing the design intent. When the OSS took over the camps in the 1940s, the agency electrified all camp buildings and structures. New power lines cut large swaths across camp landscapes, establishing unintended linear views and vistas along utility corridors that were not in keeping with the Rustic Style landscape design of each camp. Although the utility corridors were established during the period of significance (and subsequently maintained via routine clearing), these alterations marked the most significant disruptions

37. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 112-13.

to the historic views and vistas established by the camps' designers.

In the later decades of the period of significance, minor changes in the composition of unit cluster arrangements in Camps 1 and 5 would also have modified the internal views and vistas available within those units. However, the overall design intent of those camps—including the inward-looking views made possible by the historic cluster arrangement, which remained intact—preserved the most significant features of those camps' views and vistas.

EXISTING

Each cabin camp is designed with views and vistas in mind; it is carefully sited to take advantage of natural, cultivated, and constructed features within the landscape. This includes carefully framed views along camp circulation features, as well as screened views into and out of each camp. Trees along roads and paths frame views to other features, which serve as focal points and destinations. The strategic retention of vegetation is also a designed element of each camp that allows for views to and from various structures in each camp. Landscape features such as mature trees, rock outcroppings, or topographic features continue to be the subject of internal views. Open spaces, such as grassy areas outside dining halls or swimming areas, afford sweeping views of other camp features.

All five camps feature utility corridors that introduce views along linear routes extending outside of the camps. These views and vistas, while added by the OSS during the period of significance, distract from the naturalistic design intent of the cabin camps. Utility corridors should not be considered as contributing features to the camp landscape.

EVALUATION

The cabin camps continue to take advantage of views to and from features within the landscape, as created by RDA designers. As vegetation grows or is lost, the designed views of each camp continue to evolve. Careful vegetation management will preserve each cabin camp's significant historic views and vistas. The cabin camps retain integrity with respect to this landscape feature.

VIEWS + VISTAS - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Clear sightlines between buildings and structures in individual units	Contributing
Views along circulation features framed by character-defining vegetation	Contributing
Reciprocal views between all buildings and structures within camp units and within the camp core	Contributing
Screened views at the edges of each camp, limiting views into and out of each camp	Contributing
Views along utility corridors	Non-contributing

Figure 46: Mature trees flank circulation features throughout all camps, directing views to and from camp units and the camp core. This type of view can be found in Unit C of Cabin Camp 3 (above), looking northwest. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 47: RDA designers screened views to and from water features to preserve internal views of camp units and discourage campers from swimming unsupervised. View of Lake 2 at Cabin Camp 2. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 45: In keeping with the naturalistic guidance of Waugh, RDA designers gently curved park circulation features around both natural and cultural features to create interesting viewsheds within the cultural landscape. One example of this view can be found at the Unit C lodge in Cabin Camp 2 (left), looking northwest. (Torkelson 2022)

Vegetation

Vegetation features are characterized by the deciduous and evergreen trees, shrubs, vines, ground covers and herbaceous plants, and plant communities, whether indigenous or introduced in the landscape.

HISTORIC

Few photos exist to indicate what the historic conditions of vegetation might have been before the period of significance and the construction of the cabin camps. Those photos that do exist from the early years of the period of significance—which consist primarily of aerial photographs—show much younger, thinner trees that were regenerating from the historic extractive uses of the landscape. Each camp generally would have consisted of a patchwork of second growth Eastern deciduous forests, agricultural fields, and clearings (e.g., former fields or selectively timbered lands).

When the Chopawamsic camps were constructed in the mid-to-late 1930s, WPA workers harvested dead and downed trees for building materials. The use of locally sourced building materials helped the rectilinear buildings and structures to blend with the natural landscape. Careful plantings and attention to the transitional vegetation between buildings and landscape further enhanced the rustic aesthetics of the cabin camps.

REFORESTATION AND THE FOREST MARGIN

Reforestation of submarginal lands was a significant component of the RDA program nationwide. Within the cabin camps, this meant planting former farm fields, homesteads, and the entrances to logging roads with trees. At Chopawamsic beginning in 1935, the CCC would have undertaken this work initially, under the supervision of the NPS. To prepare the landscape for camp construction, workers cleared downed timber and other debris and selectively pruned or thinned existing trees within the future camp units and camp core.

CCC workers engaged in reforestation were guided by a bulletin written by preeminent landscape gardener Frank Waugh. His bulletin was adopted in 1935 as a standard part of the educational curriculum for all CCC workers. Within cabin camps, such as the ones at Chopawamsic, Waugh argued for a zonal approach to vegetation planning. Prior to his work, this practice was largely unheard of within silvicultural circles, having been historically limited to the field of landscape gardening and the teachings of Andrew Jackson Downing, Calvert Vaux, Frederick Law Olmsted, and their students.[38] Waugh's background as a horticulturalist and Forest Service consultant united the aesthetic considerations of landscape gardening with the practical concerns of on-the-ground conservation work.

Within such cabin camps, Waugh argued that in order to create the most naturalistic landscape, RDA designers should carefully undertake restorative plantings to soften the transition between developed areas or clearings and the untouched forest beyond. This feathered approach employed naturalistically-arranged mass plantings of native shrubs and plants such as mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*), flowering dogwood (*Cornus florida*), and viburnums (*Viburnum* sp.), among other site-specific plantings such as oak, maple, or pine.[39] Remarking on the importance of the forest margin, Waugh credited a successful zonal restoration as creating "the very spice and seasoning of the whole landscape."[40]

Waugh's zonal approach was further clarified in a series of illustrations in *Landscape Conservation*. Zone A consisted of the natural forest, containing taller trees, and varied vegetative strata below. Zone B transitioned to a canopy and understory of smaller trees and large shrubs. Zones C and D transitioned from small shrubs to low ground covers, herbs, and vines that opened onto turf or developed areas.[41]

The playing field at Cabin Camp 5 is a representative example of historical reforestation within a camp landscape at Chopawamsic. In this case, RDA designers transformed a clearing—almost certainly a former homestead or farm field—into a playing field for recreational activities. The zonal approach for this landscape followed Waugh's guidance for forest margin plantings. The playing field would consist of topsoil and grass seed, the edges of which would transition into the forest beyond.[42] CCC work-orders for the project illustrate the use of Waugh's principles:

38. Frank A. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation* (Washington, D.C.: Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Emergency Conservation Work, August 1935): 28.
39. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 27-38.
40. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 33.
41. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 27-30.
42. CCC Job No. 324, 1939, PRWI Archives, quoted in Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 55.

Figure 48: This 1938 photo of Cabin Camp 3 shows the complex vegetative conditions within the cultural landscape at the time of its construction. All five of the cabin camps benefitted from restorative plantings along roads and clearings (center), as well as ornamental plantings that enhance the landscape's character (left, adjacent to dining hall). (Excerpt from PRWI 698)

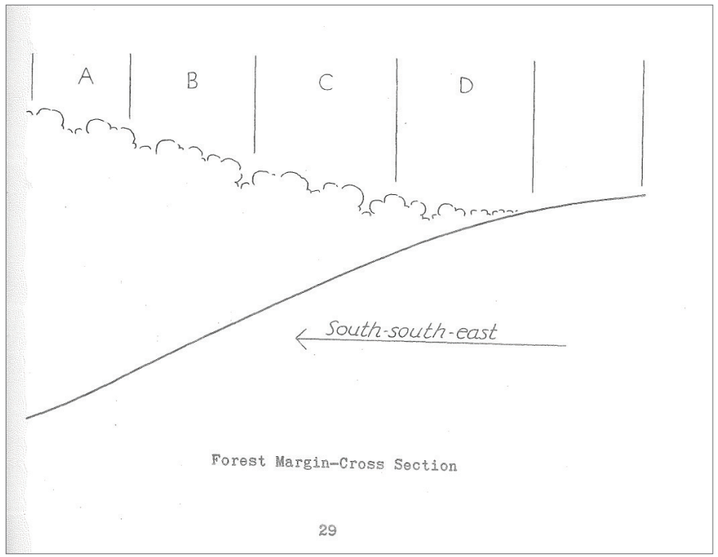

Figure 49: In his bulletin Landscape Conservation, Frank Waugh advocated for a zonal approach to restorative plantings between developed areas or clearings (right of D) and fully-forested or natural zones (left, A). His manual was standard issue to all CCC companies employed on National Park Service lands. (Waugh 29)

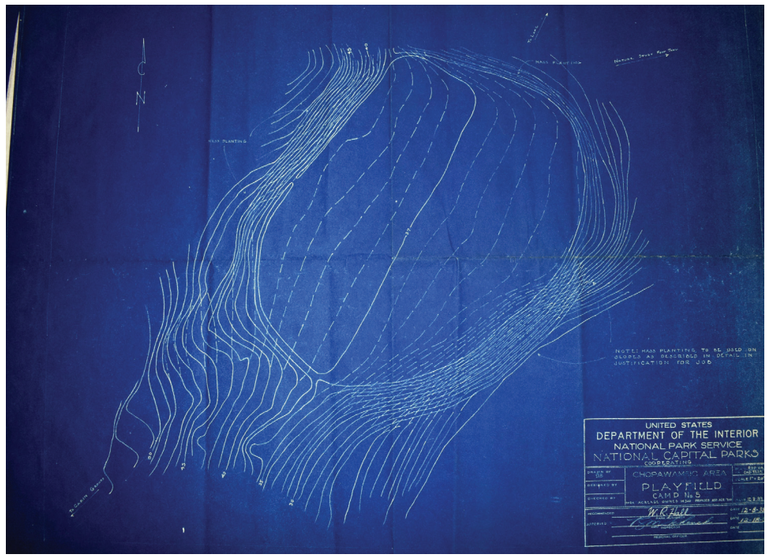

Figure 50: This CCC planting plan for the playing field at Cabin Camp 5 illustrated Frank Waugh's naturalistic and zonal approach to landscape restoration. Such an approach used native-mass plantings to create a feathered transition between the forest and developed areas, such as playing fields or camp units. (PRWI 3260)

> ...native material, such as red cedar (sparingly in groups), laural [sic], blueberry, dogwood, holly, red bud [sic], American euonymus, azalea, maple leaf viburnum, and a few trees such as black gum, red maple, white oak, hickory, tulip tree, etc. Plants of the above mentioned types will be grouped to give a mass effect. The mass planting will be arranged with special care on the slope toward the lake side of the playfield, in order to provide an impenetrable barrier which will prevent children as well as volley ball [sic], soft balls [sic], and other playing equipment from reaching the deep water at the dam.[43]

While this work order and associated blueprint are one of the few documented instances of a formal planting plan within the RDA, this approach was almost certainly applied across the five cabin camps on an informal, case-by-case basis.

PLANTINGS WITHIN CAMP UNITS AND THE CAMP CORE

While no site-specific historical planting guidance for Chopawamsic was located for this CLR, contemporary documents such as E.P. Meinecke's *Camp Planning and Construction* or Waugh's *Landscape Conservation* offer a look at how the NPS and the USFS treated camp plantings and the camp scene around this time. Natural settings, including the cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park, were actively designed, and managed during their initial development. Meinecke referred to the careful management of plantings in any natural setting as "the pictures on the wall," noting that the creation of a pleasant camp environment did not happen without intention or design.[44] "Intelligent planting, therefore," he noted, "makes high demands on the imagination. The landscape gardener must visualize the ultimate effect of his planting as it will appear in the future." The larger design of the camp landscape would not be seen for decades after the initial planting efforts, once vegetation matured. The careful culling of large trees, pruning of existing ones, and planting of new ones would have all been carefully considered and undertaken by RDA staff to achieve the desired effect.[45]

Vegetation was a critical part of camp design and construction, and it contributed significantly to the rustic character of each landscape and its design. Chief among the principles of the Rustic Style was the impulse to highlight native vegetation and existing features within the landscape. National Park Service landscape architects and the Civilian Conservation Corps strategically used vegetation to create a naturalistic experience that prioritized scenic value over built improvements. Campground planners, such as Meinecke, Waugh, and Good, advocated for the strategic planting of native trees to both highlight a site's natural beauty and create screening and privacy where there is need.[46]

Remarking on vegetation management at camp sites, Meinecke wrote:

> The only changes [to the landscape] that can be made immediately are negative, that is, they consist in the removal of trees, shrubs or large rocks to make room for essential camp features....Planting is expensive, and its effects do not become visible for years. The greatest care must, therefore, be exercised in the choice of trees or shrubs to be removed. An error in judgement cannot easily be rectified. This kind of work, which requires careful weighing and a good deal of creative imagination, should under no circumstances be left to untrained men. Each tree or shrub to be cut should be designated, and cutting should be strictly confined to these plants. No greater mistake can be made than to cut out all lower growth indiscriminately. A screen of shrubs or young reproduction between camps is a valuable asset, and its preservation must be made an integral part of any subdivision plan.[47]

Waugh's bulletin offered further, refined guidance to designers and workers establishing campgrounds. He conceded the need for greater, judicious clearance of vegetation to make campgrounds both pleasant and useful. "For looks," Waugh wrote, "the marginal dress of shrubs and herbs should be maintained; but for the need of light and air in camp, considerable clearing up is required." Such clearances for recreational uses, done correctly, could offer beautiful contrasts between sunny glades and the surrounding forest.[48]

Albert Good, apparently further codifying Waugh's guidance, noted that to achieve such an effect, workers should remove large trees that prevented "sunlight from reaching each building for at least two hours a day."[49] Smaller trees throughout camp units and the camp core were left to develop into

43. CCC Job No. 324, 1939, PRWI Archives, quoted in Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 55.
44. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction,* 26.
45. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction,* 21.
46. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction*, 21.
47. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction,* 10.
48. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 33-34.
49. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Volume III,* 110.

Figure 51: Ornamental plantings were added adjacent to buildings and structures to soften their edges and enhance the camp scene. Flowering and evergreen shrubs were paired with preserved mature or maturing trees to create a pleasant scene, such as the one shown here, circa 1938, at an unspecified dining hall. (PRWI 7234).

Figure 52: This photo (c. 1930s) of Unit C in Cabin Camp 3 illustrates Waugh and Good's approach to vegetation within camp units. Selective cutting of mature trees within camp units allowed more sunlight to reach camp buildings, and afforded clear sightlines. The siting of building and structures also carefully preserved mature and maturing trees as canopy replacement. (PRWI 1478)

a mature canopy. Many of these trees flanked roadways or abutted buildings and structures.

Meinecke and Waugh's hesitancy toward tree removal denotes a careful consideration of the entire camp scene and its successional future. They state the importance of not only an overstory, but also a well-developed and -managed understory to serve as a screen between camp units and the wider park. Such an understory also contained young trees that would eventually replace mature canopy trees as they aged or were removed.

ORNAMENTAL PLANTINGS

Ornamental plantings are defined in this CLR as intentionally planted, placed, or cultivated specimens that are set apart from the surrounding forest environment. Such plantings have been a part of the camps' design since their initial design and construction by the CCC and NPS. According to historic photos and fieldwork, the most common location of these plantings was around buildings and structures. However, few archival records were located that indicate which species may have been planted ornamentally and in what locations. During fieldwork in 2023, observed ornamental species included flowering dogwood (*Cornus florida*), mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*), Eastern red cedar (*Juniperus virginiana*), Eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*), and Virginia pine (*Pinus Virginiana*).

Formal, geometric new plantings in rehabilitated landscapes—such as the cabin camps—were both cost-prohibitive and at odds with the naturalistic impulses of Rustic Style landscape design. Limited formal plantings followed a similar planting palette found in Waugh's zonal approach. Ornamental plantings along roads or along the sides of buildings softened their edges and helped these artificial features to blend with the natural setting.[50] Photographs taken during the period of significance often highlighted these naturalistic clusters.

Despite the Rustic Style's aversion to rigid geometries, linear plantings of ornamental shrubs were added to several camps during the period of significance according to guidance from Waugh. Seemingly contradictory in character, the limited use of geometric plantings in a natural setting could catch the eye of the camp user and highlight important landscape features. As Waugh noted:

> Good native trees may indeed occasionally be planted in rows on park lands, but only to a limited extent and in quite special surroundings, as for example, upon a short and somewhat formal entrance approach to an administration building or architectural group, or as a marginal frame to a well-developed play area or about a cleared parking ground.[51]

Such plantings were used in very limited instances across the cabin camps to highlight important paths. In two instances, CCC workers planted Eastern red cedars (*Juniperus virginiana*) along the path to the infirmary in Cabin Camp 5 and at the administration building in Cabin Camp 2. These young, linear plantings are visible at the administration building of Cabin Camp 3, captured in an OSS-era film that depicted wartime activities within the RDA. Similar linear plantings of Eastern red cedars (*Juniperus virginiana*) were observed during 2023 fieldwork at several of the camp playing fields. These may have offered shade to those on the field or served as a windbreak, since they are located along each side of the backstops.

Figure 53: Pre-OSS-era plantings outside of the Camp 2 administration building. Ornamental plantings such as the azaleas, mountain laurels, dogwoods, and cedars shown in this 1940s film, were added by the CCC or campers groups to beautify the camp environs. All plantings were native species meant to enhance the natural camp scene. (Excerpts from OSS Film, National Archives)

50. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 35-36.
51. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 38.

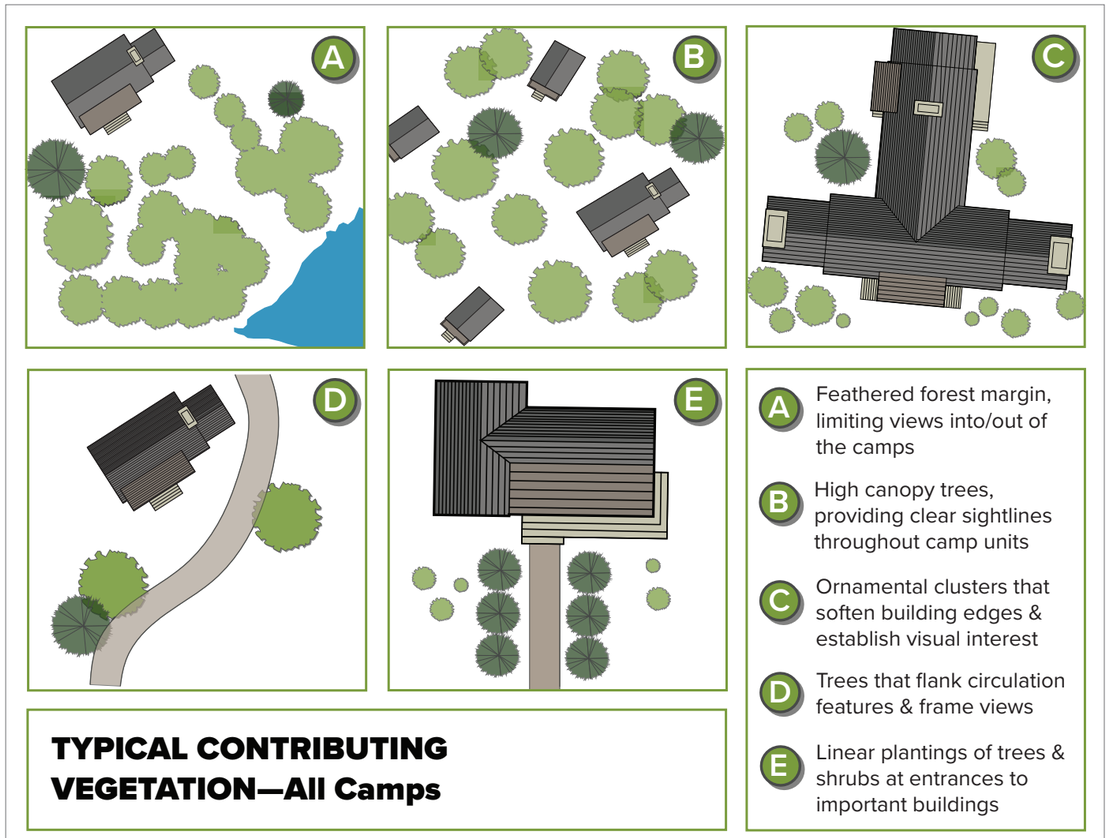

Figure 54: Diagram showing typical CCC-arranged vegetation features that contribute to the character of the cultural landscape. (Torkelson 2023)

POST-CCC VEGETATION

In the decades after the initial construction of the five cabin camps, the forest matured according to the careful design of camp planners. This meant that the small, young trees that characterized the landscape in the camps' early years grew larger, expanding the canopy and creating a shadier camp environment in the later years of the period of significance. Other than the routine clearing of downed or hazard trees, the landscape likely saw few active plantings or interventions during the World War II or Mission 66 eras.

EXISTING

The forest context for the cabin camps is primarily composed of the Oak-Hickory group, with a minor component of Pine scattered throughout the larger park boundaries. Typical over-story species composition contains mixtures of American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*), oaks (*Quercus* spp., varying by region), tulip tree (*LIriodendron tulipifera*), and hickories (*Carya* spp.), but a wide variety of hardwood associates also occur within this forest type.

Dominant species in and around the cabin camps include (but are not limited to):

- Over-story
  - Black oak (*Quercus velutina*)
  - Red oak (*Quercus rubra*)
  - Sweet gum (*Nyssa sylvatica*)
  - Tulip tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*)
  - Virginia pine (*Pinus virginiana*)
  - White oak (*Quercus alba*)
- Overstory / Mid-story
  - American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*) (also extant as understory)
  - Black gum (*Nyssa sylvatica*)
  - Red maple (*Acer rubrum*)
  - Hickory (*Carya* sp.)
- Understory
  - American holly (*Ilex opaca*)
  - American hornbeam (*Barpinus caroliniana*)
  - Sassafras (*Sassafras albidum*)
  - Dogwood (*Cornus florida*)
- Ground story
  - Mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*)
  - Low bush blueberry (*Vaccinium angustifolium*)
- Non-native
  - Stiltgrass (*Microstegium vimineum*)
  - Japanese honeysuckle (*Lonicera japonica*)

The overall condition in the general forested areas at the park is fair to good. In localized areas around the cabin camps, the canopy trees are mature and healthy, representing a good diversity of structure and species composition. However, in many areas, the understory appears to be over-represented by American beech, which will likely inhibit the succession of the existing canopy structure and composition as the existing canopy trees are replaced by a large component of beech. This is likely a result of years of heavy deer browse and years of fire suppression in those locations.

In specific locations around the cabin camps, there appears to be a good amount of advanced regeneration consisting of oak, pine, and hickory; however, in areas where heavy deer browse and fire suppression is prominent, the majority of the natural regeneration is composed of beech seedlings. As stated in the *Trends in Woody Forest Vegetation in Prince William Forest Park* report, "This loss of forest regeneration can have profound impacts on the composition of forest communities in the future and can reduce the resilience of the park to respond to stressors such as invasive species, tree pests and diseases, and climate change."[52]

While the existence of several non-native, invasive species were reported by park staff throughout the property, stiltgrass was primarily observed along the roadways within the park and along the edges of the cabin camps, and was especially abundant within the construction zone in Cabin Camp 3.[53]

Within the cabin camps, much of the historic vegetative design intent remains legible. Many plantings added during the period of significance, or replaced in-kind after it, are extant.

However, there have been significant alterations and losses that continue to impact the landscape's integrity. Regular utility clearance continues to result in disruptive scars between the camp environment and the surrounding forest. Similarly, the hazard tree program and an aggressive mowing regime have resulted in clearance without replacement of character-defining trees and shrubs. This has had an adverse affect on the woodland character of the cabin camps (see Appendix B for further detail), and

52. J.P. Schmit, E. Matthews, and A. Brolis, *Trends in Woody Forest Vegetation in Prince William Forest Park*, 2006-2017 (Fort Collins, CO: National Park Service, 2023), https://doi.org/10.36967/2296913.
53. For additional observations from fieldwork, refer to the memo in the appendices prepared by Blake Troxel, consulting forest ecologist.

Figure 55: Example of historic ornamental cedars planted along the entrance path to the Camp 2 administration building. These cedars were a geometric counterpoint to the naturalistic style of the landscape, and articulated the entrance to the administration building. These cedars were small bushes in the OSS film produced in the 1940s. Similar ornamental cedars are located along the edges of playing fields and outside camp core buildings, such as dining halls and infirmaries. The effect these mature trees have on the building is quite different than during the period of significance, which would have appeared much smaller and hedge-like. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 56: A typical historic ornamental dogwood planted adjacent to the dining hall in Camp 2. Such plantings are commonly found adjacent to buildings and structures throughout the cabin camps. They are contributing features. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 57: Typical flowering dogwoods at Camp 3. These were likely planted by the CCC and naturalized into the camp's environment over time. They contribute to the camp scene and provide for a varied visual experience within camp units. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 58: Typical clump of mountain laurel at Camp 3. These clumps are located behind a cabin on a hillside facing the lake. The CCC often added such plantings in cleared vistas, as they did not interfere with the designed viewshed. The vegetation's density also prevented campers from easily reaching the lake without supervision. (Torkelson 2022)

should be reversed through careful treatment (refer to the Part 2 for related recommendations).

Extreme weather events, including Hurricane Isabel in 2003, have further thinned the vegetation throughout the study area. Pests such as the fungus that causes oak wilt (*Ceratocystis fagacearum*), the hemlock wooly adelgid (*Adelges tsugae*), dogwood anthracnose (*Discula destructive*), and the spongy moth (*Lymantria dispar*) continue to impact mature, character-defining vegetation. As these species kill mature trees, those specimens are removed as part of the hazard tree program and have not been replaced. The proliferation of invasive species is becoming more common due to climate change and will continue to impact the integrity of the cabin camps.

Nonetheless, the cabin camps feature numerous plantings that illustrate the landscape design intent, established during the period of significance. These include flowering dogwoods (*Cornus florida*) and mountain laurels (*Kalmia latifolia*) adjacent to buildings and structures; planted Eastern red cedars (*Juniperus virginiana*) along the edges of paths, buildings, and playing fields; and mature oaks (*Quercus* sp.), pines (*Pinus virginiana*), poplars (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), and Eastern hemlocks (*Tsuga canadensis*) that frame views along circulation features and create mature canopies within camp units.

EVALUATION

Vegetative integrity at the cabin camps has declined since the end of the period of significance. Ornamental plantings adjacent to camp buildings and structures have died and not been replaced.

Similarly, few young trees have been cultivated to replace mature canopy trees that have been lost to age, severe weather, or disease. The loss of character-defining vegetation has resulted in significantly modified landscapes in several camps, only some of which can be attributed to change over time within natural landscapes.

The design intent of the cabin camps as forested environments remains legible, but in some camps (e.g. Camp 5), the vegetative transitions between built features and that forest setting have been altered from their historic designs. This has resulted in some camp units that feel set apart from their forest setting, rather than integrated with it. Moreover, camp units and camp core areas are significantly more open and dominated by turf than they would have been during the period of significance.

These effects (of lost ornamental plantings, canopy loss, and lack of transitional vegetation) can be reversed. Therefore, pending corrective action, the cabin camps' vegetation will maintain its significance and retain its integrity.

VEGETATION - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Mature hardwood forest with feathered forest margin	Contributing
High canopy within camp units	Contributing
Ornamental plantings along buildings, structures, including mature oaks (*Quercus* sp.) and poplars (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), flowering dogwoods (*Cornus florida*), and mountain laurels (*Kalmia latifolia*)	Contributing
Mature trees framing circulation features, including oaks (*Quercus* sp.), tulips (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), and pines (*Pinus virginiana*)	Contributing
Linear plantings of trees and shrubs (*Juniperus virginiana*) along the entrances to important buildings and along the edges of playing fields	Contributing

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Buildings and Structures

Building features refer to the elements built primarily for sheltering any form of human activities; structures refer to the functional elements constructed for other purposes than sheltering human activity.

For ease of information below: the camps are generally discussed in terms of their historic and existing conditions, and then each historic building and structure is discussed with its own "historic" and "existing" sections.

NOTE: The list of buildings and structures in this section is not exhaustive. Rather, this section focuses on giving an overview of contributing feature types that were found within the camp landscapes during the period of significance (with nomenclature based on research and fieldwork, not historical names). For a full enumeration of buildings and structures, see the corresponding CLI for each camp.

The architectural descriptions in this section borrow textually from the draft Cultural Landscape Inventories prepared by Spencer et al. in 2021. The corresponding pages are cited in the footnotes.

CAMP CORE

DINING HALLS

HISTORIC

Dining halls served as the historical center of each cabin camp. Albert Good noted the importance of these facilities when he wrote, "exactly three times a day [facilities] for cooking and serving meals become the most important structures in every camp." He went on to use them as a driving force in the camp planning process: "wherefore too much care in planning them is hardly possible."[54] The complexity and large scale of dining halls required a degree of standardization by the CCC. Camps 1, 2, 3, and 4 featured the same basic dining hall plan, adapted to the number of camp users and site conditions via different footings, porch arrangements, entrances, extensions, and materiality.

Camp dining halls were originally one-story, wood-frame buildings set on wood and fieldstone foundations. Each featured a hipped and cross-gable roof that was covered with wooden shakes. In plan, the dining halls were "T" shaped. One part of the "T" featured the dining hall, while the other consisted of the serving area, kitchen, and storage. Variations to this building plan included additional dining room bays, mirroring the building plan between camps, and varying the location of the dining hall entrance. Dining hall plans for Camps 2 and 3 were most similar, featuring a central entrance porch covered with a small shed roof. Camp 1 featured a deeply recessed, hipped-entry porch to one side of the dining hall wing.

The exterior of the building was sided with vertical and horizontal waney boards and featured a large exterior chimney on one end of the dining room. All dining hall plans constructed after Camp 1 switched from fieldstone chimneys to brick, likely as a cost-and time-saving measure.[55] Generally, the dining hall sections of the building were lined with wood, with double/single-hung windows in a six-over-six configurations grouped by structural bays. In most cases, the sashes of dining room windows were designed to "drop" into the walls to maximize ventilation. The service wing of the building featured higher, clerestory-type windows, several doors, and a loading dock.

At Camp 4, the OSS added a large addition to the dining hall during its tenure at the camp. This altered the dining hall, making it "H-shaped" in plan. This addition increased the dining capacity and blended with the existing hall. It differed only in that it used sawn horizontal lap siding. This addition was retained after the OSS left the camps.[56]

The Camp 5 dining hall appears to have been constructed according to a much smaller, less-complex design. This was almost certainly the result of the camp's limited capacity, as it only featured two units. This meant that instead of an "T-shaped" plan, the building featured a linear plan with only one wing that included a kitchen at one end and a dining hall at the other. It followed the same material palette of the other camps and doubled as a lodge for the Camp A unit, which did not have its own lodge building.[57]

Under Mission 66, the Camp 5 dining hall was expanded in three directions. The original linear plan was expanded between 1956 and 1962, adding north and south bump-outs, as well as a store room extension on the west elevation.[58]

EXISTING

All five camps retain their dining halls, an essential and central part of camp life. Dining halls at Camps 1, 2, and 3 remain little changed from the CCC-era of construction. Camp 4 retains its OSS addition, while Camp 5 retains its Mission 66-era additions. As a collection, the dining halls convey the varied periods of development across the camps.

They are contributing features to the cultural landscapes.

ADMINISTRATION BUILDINGS

HISTORIC

Administration buildings, also referred to as camp offices, served as the first point of contact for arriving campers. The buildings contained the camp director's office, a desk area for a clerk, and a canteen for campers to buy supplies. Administration buildings for Camps 1-3 used the same plan, developed first at Camp 1 and later published in Good's *Park and Recreation Structures*. These buildings were one-story, wood-frame, cross-gable structures set on piers. The entrance to each building was in a recessed entry porch. At Camp 1, workers constructed the porch floor and stairs of the administration building using stone and log supports. Standardized designs for Camp 2 and 3 eliminated the stone in favor of wood decking and stairs and eliminated the logs in favor of timbers. Despite these efficiencies that distinguish the administration buildings for Camps 1-3, the buildings were clad with similar vertical and horizontal waney board siding and featured six-over-six windows.[59]

For unknown reasons, the administration building for Camp 4 was not constructed according to the designs of its predecessors. The Camp 4 administration building followed the same program as its predecessors, including a main office space and adjacent canteen. This building consisted of a one-story, side-gable, three-bay, wood-framed structure set atop pier foundations. The larger massing, the camp office, had an off-center door and small window on its primary façade, with other windows and a rear entrance on the other facades. The smaller massing, the canteen, featured an exterior service window and two small clerestory

54. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 161.

55. Text adapted from Moss and Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 CLI* [2017 Update], 48-49; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 95; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021],114; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 107.

56. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 107.

57. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 102-103.

58. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 102-103.

59. Text adapted from Moss and Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 CLI* [2017 Update], 48.

windows on the side elevation. All standard windows were six-over-six, double-hung wood windows. Cladding consisted of wood board-and-batten siding with horizontal rough-sawn siding placed within the side-gables. The roof originally featured wooden shakes.[60]

In 1938, the administration building at Camp 3 was converted into a naturalist's cabin, and a purpose-built director's residence was immediately converted to the camp office. The director's residence, located opposite the parking lot, was much larger than the original administration building. It contained a large assembly room, two clerk offices, a storage room for supplies, and a director's office. It consisted of a one-story, four-bay, side-gable building set on piers. The central massing of the building contained two of the bays, a central interior brick chimney, an off-center entrance, and several windows. The central massing also featured a full-width front porch with shed roof at the rear (since removed). The rooflines of the smaller masses to each side stepped down from the central gable. The sides and rear of the building featured paired sets of six-over-six windows. Like other camp buildings, it was clad with vertical and horizontal waney board siding and a shake roof.[61]

The Cabin Camp 5 administration building was likely first constructed circa 1938 according to plans developed for Camp 4, although Mission 66 improvements later obscured this design. No original plans were located for the Camp 5 administration building. The existing building indicates that circa 1956-1962, a bathroom extension was added. At the end of this construction campaign, the building was a one-story, three-bay, cross-gable, wood-frame structure on piers. It has the same features as Camp 4's administration building, but features a cross-gable with a pair of six-light, wood windows.

EXISTING

All five camps retain their CCC-era administration buildings. These remain largely unchanged from period of significance and retain their CCC designs (Camps 1-5) and Mission 66 additions (Camp 5). Limited changes are largely due to deterioration; the Camp 3 administration building (formerly the director's quarters) is missing its rear porch. Beyond this loss, all administration buildings retain integrity to their original design and are contributing features of the camp landscape.

GARAGE (CABIN CAMP 2 ONLY)

HISTORIC

The only garage known to have been built outside of a CCC camp was located at Cabin Camp 2. As built, it consisted of a one-story, three-bay, end-gable, wood-frame building set upon concrete piers. The main massing of the building was divided into three timber-framed garage bays that were open to the outside. Attached to the main structure was a small, enclosed end-gable tool shed. The building was clad with horizontal waney board siding.[62]

EXISTING

At an unknown date, the exterior siding on the garage's main volume was replaced with vertical board-and-batten siding, and the three bays were enclosed with a central barn door. The park also constructed a shed addition on the side opposite the CCC-era tool shed; this addition features vertical waney siding and a door. Such reversable changes to not detract from the integrity of this feature.

The Camp 2 garage contributes to the character of the landscape.

60. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 105.
61. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 122.
62. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 101.

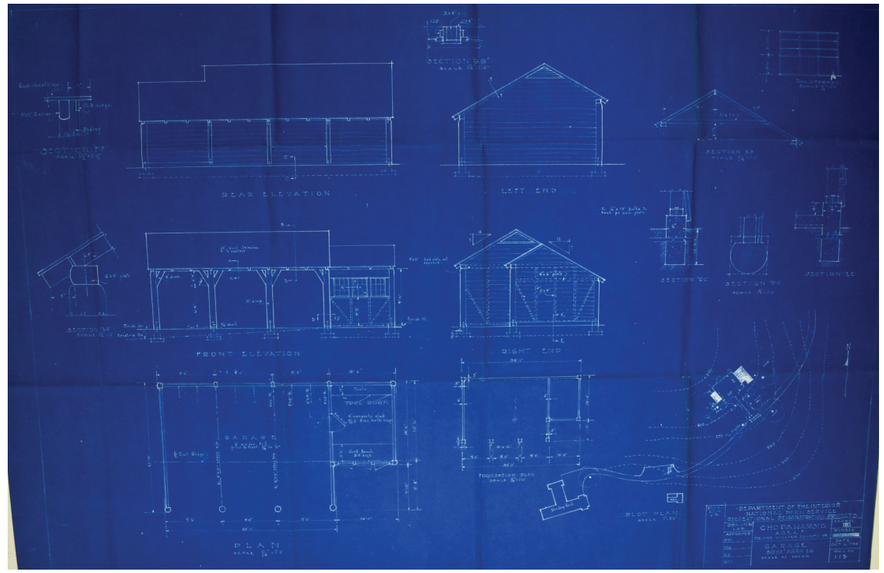


Figure 59: Plan for the garage building constructed at Cabin Camp 2. (PRWI 3422)

STORAGE BUILDINGS

HISTORIC

Storage buildings at the cabin camps were used as an essential public health tool. They featured central fumigation rooms, where camp mattresses and other soft goods were chemically treated each summer and stored within the building in the off-season.

The storage buildings constructed by the CCC were consistent in design. These were one-story, three-bay, side-gable, wood-frame structures set on piers and accessed via wooden ramps. They featured central double doors flanked by six-light, single-sash, wood windows. The structure was clad with vertical, board-and-batten, waney-edge board except for horizontal waney-edge louvered vents in the gable ends.[63]

Storage buildings of this design were constructed at Camps 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Mission 66 saw the addition of a second storage building to Cabin Camp 4 between 1958 and 1959. This building was constructed on the southern end of the camp and likely served as additional off-season mattress storage. This building consisted of a one-story, rectangular, four-bay, side-gable, wood-frame structure set on a concrete foundation. Its primary façade featured an oversized side-entry with double-doors and three single-sash, six-light, clerestory windows. In keeping with Mission 66 aesthetics, it was clad in siding of lapped horizontal boards and roofed with asphalt shingles.[64]

Other Mission 66-era changes saw the conversion of the original storage building in Cabin Camp 4 to a pool house. (This use was later rescinded when the pool was removed, and it returned to use as storage.)

No purpose-built storage building was ever constructed at Camp 5. Rather, once the NPS constructed a permanent shelter at the camp, the former craft shelter was likely enclosed and converted to a storage building.[65]

63. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 112.
64. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 104.
65. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 101.

EXISTING

Cabin Camps 1-4 retain their CCC-era storage buildings. Entrance ramps and stairs to these buildings have changed over time, but the buildings themselves remain little altered from the period of significance. Camp 4 also retains its Mission 66-era storage building, which retains design integrity to that era. Camp 5 retains the former craft lodge, converted to a storage building.

All of the storage buildings are contributing elements to the camp landscapes.

WATER TOWERS

HISTORIC

Water towers were an essential part of the water system at the cabin camps, providing drinking water to each camp unit and potable water to other buildings such as the washhouses, dining halls, and infirmaries. Water towers were constructed initially at Camps 1, 2, 3, and 5. This standard design featured a 40'-high wood-stave, 5,000-gallon water tank set atop a wooden platform with railings, supported by a four-legged iron tower set into concrete footings.

The water tower originally planned for Camp 4 was not constructed initially, but park officials renewed the calls for its construction during the Mission 66 period. It was never constructed, however. (Camp 4 does not have a water tower today. Camps 1 and 4 now rely on the Prince William County water system.)[66]

At an unknown date, the water tower at Camp 3 was demolished. Camp 3 was subsequently serviced by a pump house and well (located west of the camp) that also serviced the headquarters area.[67] Traces of the historic Camp 3 water tower remain on a hillside between the dining hall and maintenance area. For this CLR, these traces are classified as an archeological site; see the corresponding section for that discussion.

EXISTING

Camps 1, 2, and 5 retain their historic water towers. These three water towers were restored in 2006 by the Historic Preservation Training Center (HPTC). The three extant water towers are contributing elements to the camps' cultural landscapes.

PLAYING FIELDS AND BASKETBALL COURTS

HISTORIC

Playing fields were essential elements to the camp environment, serving as gathering points for large groups of campers and affording space for recreational activities that could not be facilitated in forested environments. Prior to the opening of the camps, most playing fields were already established clearings, with several serving as the locations of CCC camps or former homesteads. Most playing fields required further leveling by the CCC. Several were planted with dense groupings of vegetation along the edges to prevent balls from penetrating deep into the forest. During the period of significance, most playing fields were outfitted with wooden and chain-link backstops for ballgames. Other improvements included the addition of plank and masonry seating and pipe exercise equipment.

At an unknown date, some of the historic wooden and chain-link backstops were replaced. However, at least one camp retains a version of the original design. All backstops are considered contributing features, regardless of their design.

Park staff constructed a basketball court to the east of the playing field at Cabin Camp 1 in the 1990s. It consisted of two hoops flanking an compacted gravel court. In recent years it has fallen into disuse and is mostly abandoned.[68]

66. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 121-22; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 108.
67. Gregg Kneipp (Resources Manager) and Doug Davidson (MTCE Supervisor) in conversation by email, July 14, 2023.
68. Anne Marie McKinney (Cultural Resource Specialist) in conversation with Chuch Ayres and Gary Boone (Former PRWI Maintenance Staff), relayed to CLR authors by email June 5, 2023.

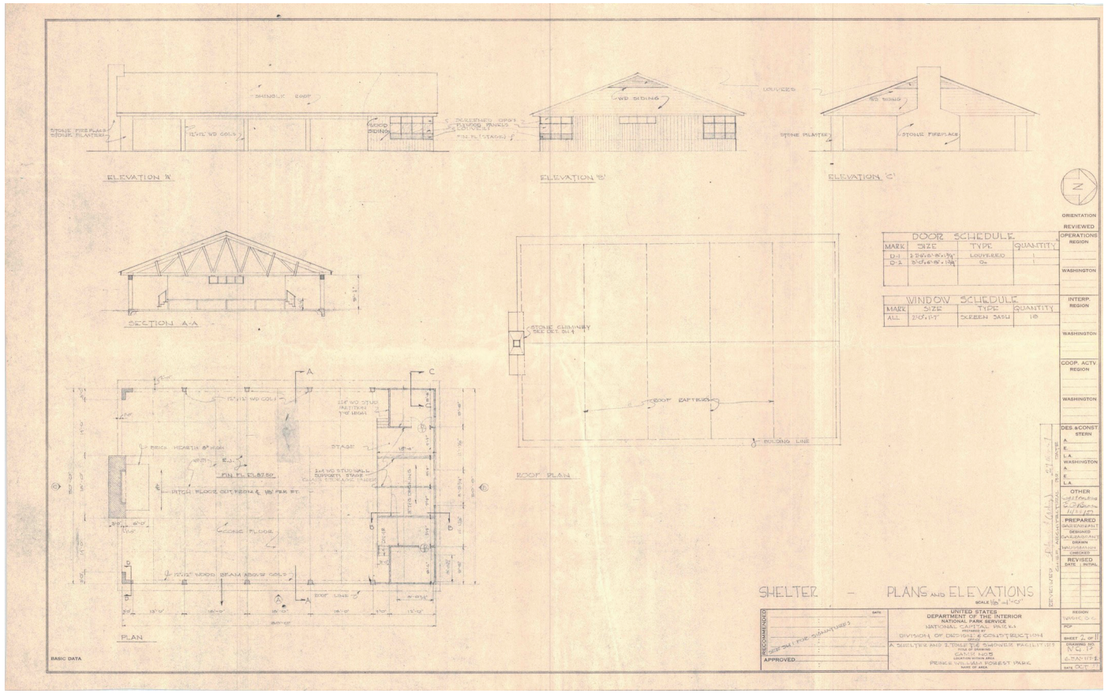


Figure 103: As part of the park's Mission 66 planning efforts, NPS architects designed and built an outdoor pavilion at Camp 5. Constructed circa 1957, this pavilion featured a large fireplace and a stage. (PRWI 15762H)

EXISTING

All five camps retain their playing fields, although vegetation and changing camp programming has changed the character of some of them. Playing fields at Camps 1 and 2 remain clearly legible as playing fields. The historic playing field in Camp 3 was converted into a maintenance yard, and a smaller playing field and playground in the center of the camp took its place; that playground was removed in 2023, during the preparation of this CLR. The playing fields at Camps 4 and 5 have morphed into openings in the forest canopy that do not indicate any direct recreational programming. The playing field at Camp 4 now features a volleyball court; it is not known when this was installed.

All playing fields are contributing features of the cultural landscape.

SHELTER / PAVILION (CAMP 5 ONLY)

HISTORIC

Camp 5 featured the only shelter ever built at the cabin camps; it was attributed to the Mission 66 campaign and its legacy. This structure was designed in 1957 and built in 1958. As built, the structure was one-story, divided into five bays, and capped with an end-gable roof composed of wooden trusses set onto a concrete slab and concrete piers. The north end of the open-air structure featured a raised stage; the south end contained a stone-veneer chimney. The corner posts of the shelter were also encased in stone-veneer. The opposite end of the shelter was enclosed by a series of louvered vents, inset panels, and vertical siding. Like other buildings in the camp, the wooden elements were colored with a black stain, and the roof was covered in asphalt shingles.[69]

EXISTING

This shelter remains extant and little changed. It is a contributing feature of the cultural landscape.

THEATER (CAMP 4 ONLY)

HISTORIC

In late 1938, the Army Technical Services Branch constructed the theater building in Camp 4; it was the only building of its kind in the cabin camps. The building was significantly added onto by the OSS in 1943.[70] The OSS additions were largely on the eastern facade and accommodated service uses. These wings were removed between 1946 and 1951.

As built, the theater consisted of a large end-gabled, one-and-a-half story, wood frame, rectilinear structure. It featured three bays set on brick piles. The primary façade featured a double door and a small awning with wooden steps and railings on either side. There were two more doors with awnings on one side of the building. This side also featured three paired six-over-six, wood-sash windows along with three single, six-over-six, wood-sash windows placed between the two side building entries. The opposite elevation featured similar fenestration, but did not contain doors. The structure was clad with dark horizontal shiplap siding and asphalt shingles.[71]

EXISTING

The theater building remains extant at Camp 4 and is little changed from the period of significance. It is one of the few remaining OSS-era buildings at any of the cabin camps.

It is a contributing feature to the cultural landscape.

INFIRMARIES

HISTORIC

Infirmaries, together with dining halls, were among the most essential structures to camp life. Within these facilities, camp medical staff tended to sick campers, isolated contagious ones, and lived. Many of the camp infirmaries were likely designed in partnership with the groups that used them; these frequently included social agencies that focused on youth health and wellness. Paid and volunteer staff offered medical services to campers and their families, offering healthcare that may not have been accessible closer to home for campers.

Camp planning manuals, including those by Good, Waugh, and Meinecke, did not codify any formal guidance with respect to the design of infirmaries. However, when comparing building plans, most infirmaries appear to have been located at the periphery of camp cores, near the dining hall. Slight exceptions to this rule appear in Camps 3 and 5, where the infirmary is much closer to the dining hall and other camp core buildings. By locating the infirmaries on the periphery of the camp core, planners almost certainly sought to afford a quiet setting for campers to convalesce, while also

69. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 107.
70. MTFA et al., *Prince William Forest Park Camp #4 Recreation/Theater Building Historic Structure Report*, 46-49.
71. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 113.

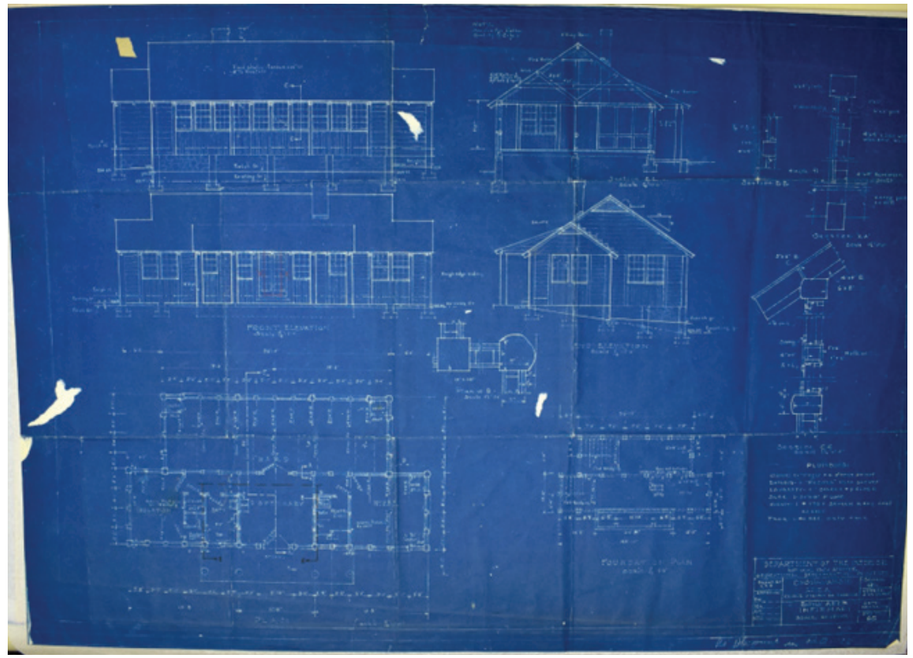


Figure 60: In plan, the Camp 1 infirmary was divided into a large sunlit ward, nurse's quarters, dispensary, bath, and isolation wing. The building also featured a small front porch. (PRWI 3421)

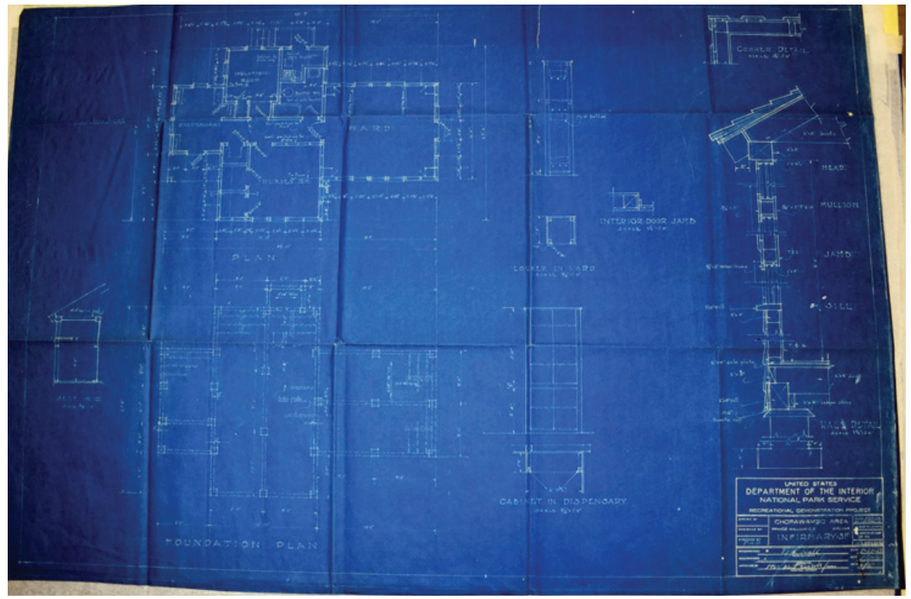


Figure 61: The Camp 3 infirmary departed in plan from its predecessors, offering additional points of entry to the building and arranging building programs in a cruciform plan. (PRWI 3294)

ensuring that the infirmary remained visible and accessible within the camp core. Proximity to the dining hall allowed for easy access to meals without forcing sick campers to travel very far.

These buildings were generally one-story, wood-frame, cross-gable structures set on concrete or masonry pier footings. The entrance to each building was in a recessed entry porch. In plan, infirmaries were linear, T-shaped, or cruciform. At Camp 1, workers constructed the porch floor and stairs using stone and log supports. Standardized designs for Camp 2 and 3 eliminated the stone in favor of wood decking and stairs and eliminated the logs in favor of timbers. Despite these efficiencies that distinguish the infirmaries for Camps 1, 2, and 3, the buildings were clad with similar vertical and horizontal waney board siding and featured six-over-six windows.

The Camp 1 infirmary was the first constructed and, for unknown reasons, its plan was not replicated at the other camps. As built, this building was a one-story, wood-frame, side-gable structure set on rounded log supports and enclosed with a masonry wall foundation. The entrance of the building was centrally located under an attached shed-roof entry porch set on flagstone paving. The two end bays of the building featured stepped gable roofs. In plan, the building featured a central dispensary, flanked by a nurse's quarters and a combination isolation ward and bath. The rear of the building featured a full-length ward that could accommodate four patients. The exterior of the building featured log structural elements infilled with vertical and horizontal waney board siding. The roof was clad with wood shakes. Most rooms featured louvered doors and several screened windows to provide ample ventilation and lighting.

The infirmary at Camp 2 (whose design was later repeated and modified at Camps 4 and 5) took the programs of the Camp 1 infirmary and arranged them into a cruciform plan. Like its predecessor at Camp 1, the Camp 2 building was a one-story, wood-frame structure and was set upon masonry piers. However, it departed from the Camp 1 plan by employing hipped and gable wood-shake roofs, and it used dimensional lumber in lieu of rustic logs. The exterior of the building was clad in horizontal waney board siding. As built, the Camp 2 infirmary (and later, the infirmaries at Camps 4 and 5) featured bi-lateral symmetry. The central entry was recessed under a frame porch that was flanked by two six-over-six double- and single-hung wood windows. Secondary entrances, likely added so that sick campers did not mix, were located to each side of the main entrance. Adjacent to these secondary entrances were six-over-six double/single-hung wood windows. The building also featured a central interior brick chimney that vented the utility room.

This plan used in Camp 2 was replicated at Camps 4 and 5; however, these designs were adapted. Compared with the Camp 2 infirmary, the buildings at Camps 4 and 5 feature larger and smaller wings, respectively, each with their own entrances. These entrances are located on different facades from the main infirmary entrance, unlike at Camp 2, where all entrances are on the same side. The infirmary at Camp 4 used a hipped roof (like Camp 2), while the infirmary at Camp 5 employed a cross-gable roof.

Likely owing to its status as a family camp, Camp 3's infirmary departed from its predecessors at Camps 1 and 2. NPS designers located the main entrance at a corner instead of in the center. They retained the same programming—nurse's quarters, ward, isolation, dispensary and bathroom—but arranged them into a cruciform plan. The main entrance opened to the dispensary at one end and connected to a long hallway that linked the entrance to all wings, terminating in the main sick ward and an auxiliary entrance. The infirmary at Camp 3 also had a third exterior entrance that opened to the utility room, where plumbing and the water heater were located.

The OSS made changes to some of the infirmaries. At Camp 4, the OSS added an additional wing, giving the building an asymmetrical appearance. The OSS used similar rustic materials for the addition, but employed dimensional siding instead of waney board siding, used asphalt shingles instead of wood shakes, and set the building on concrete piers instead of wooden ones. Unspecified changes were also made to the infirmary at Camp 1 under the OSS; in general, the OSS' winterization projects included adding stoves, partitions, insulation, storm windows, and drop ceilings.

EXISTING

Camps 1-5 retain their historic infirmaries, including an addition at Camp 4 constructed during the period of significance. The NPS carefully preserved or rehabilitated each structure after the period of significance. They are contributing features of the cabin camps.

HELP QUARTERS / COOK QUARTERS / HELP BATHHOUSES

HISTORIC

"Help" quarters historically housed camp employees, including kitchen workers, custodians, and other individuals that were not otherwise classified as "staff." Official camp "staff," who were historically white workers, were housed in separate staff quarters according to Jim Crow policies of racial segregation. As historian Erin Devlin points out in her historic resource study, in historically white camps such as Camps 2 and 3, help quarters were located far from the central camp core and camp units. In historically Black camps, such as Camps 1 and 4, help quarters were located adjacent to the places of work, such as the dining halls or infirmaries. In white camps, such as Camp 3, the help quarters building was paired with a corresponding bathhouse or provided their own bathroom facilities according to racial segregation. Conversely, in Camps 1 and 4, which historically served Black campers, residents of the help quarters did not have their own facilities; instead, they would share the camp's facilities.[72]

According to these policies of segregation, the help quarters and associated bathhouses/latrines varied widely according to each camp's racial designation. The most standard design was first built at Camp 2 and replicated at Camps 3 and 4. This design consisted of a one-story, three-bay, cross-gable, cross-plan, wood-frame building set upon masonry or concrete piers. In plan, this model featured three bedrooms arranged around a central entrance and recessed porch flanked by two windows. This plan could accommodate six workers. The wings to the side of the entrance massing each featured three windows, while the rear of the building featured one to two windows, depending on if there was a bathroom facility, such as the one in Camp 2. All quarters were clad with waney board wood siding and wooden shakes. Camps 3 and 4 varied the dimensions of the Camp 2 plan, but remained generally consistent with the design.[73]

In 1938, the NPS constructed additional help quarters at Camp 3 near the dining hall. NPS staff and the FSA determined that the help quarters and the dining hall were too far apart.[74]

The help quarters at Camp 1 consisted of a one-story wood frame structure set on pier footings. It featured a dual-pitch side-gable roof, full length front porch, and recessed entrance. In plan, it historically featured only two bedrooms, accommodating four workers. It was located near the entrance of the camp and adjacent to the dining hall. It featured a rear bathroom and central utility room with brick chimney. It was clad with vertical and horizontal waney board siding and roofed with wooden shakes.[75]

The help quarters at Camp 5 did not resemble any of its predecessors. As built, it was a one-story, three-bay, side-gable, wood-frame structure set atop piers. In plan, the building featured two bedrooms that flanked a central breezeway that contained the entrances to each room. The front, side, and rear elevations of each bedroom contained centrally placed paired windows. The exterior was clad with vertical and horizontal waney board siding. It did not feature bathroom facilities, which may indicate that occupants used restrooms in the adjacent dining hall.[76]

EXISTING

All purpose-built help quarters and help latrines remain extant. After the period of significance, many

72. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 276-81.

73. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 276-81.
74. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 276-81.
75. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 276-81.
76. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 276-81.

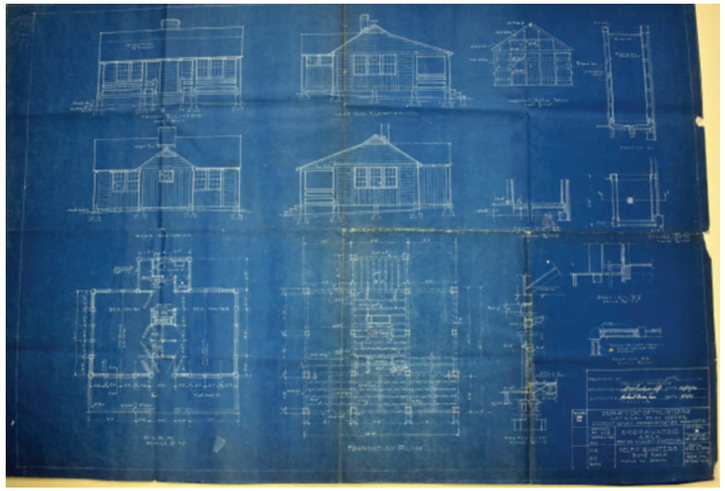


Figure 62: Typical help quarters for two, constructed at Cabin Camp 1. This building, originally constructed within a segregated white camp prior to 1937, would have later housed Black workers. (PRWI 2717)

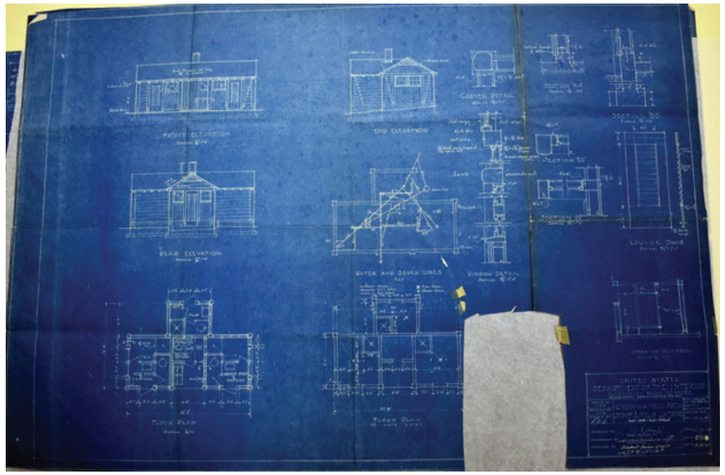


Figure 63: Typical help bathhouse constructed in Cabin Camp 3. Such bathhouses were constructed according to policies of racial segregation. The bathhouse at Camp 3 was located next to the original help quarters and would have served Black staffers in the white Camp 3. (PRWI 2695)

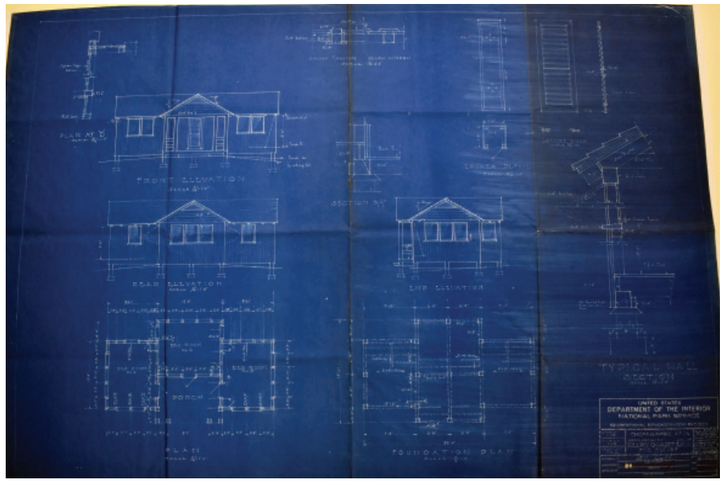


Figure 64: Typical help quarters for six. This plan was constructed at Camps 2, 3, and 4. At Camp 2, the plan was modified to include a bathroom for Black workers, since no facility was available to them in the white camp. This was not the case at Camps 1 and 4, which served Black campers. (PRWI 3301)

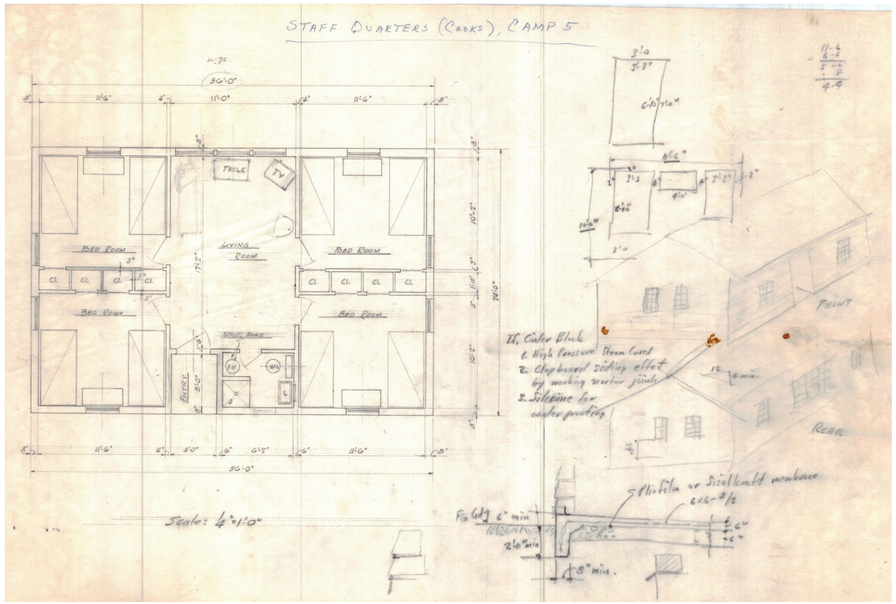


Figure 65: The help or cook's quarters for Camp 5 did not resemble any of its predecessors, as it featured a dog-trot plan that would later be enclosed as part of the Mission 66 improvements. (PRWI 15761A)

of these quarters were converted to addtional staff quarters.

STAFF QUARTERS AND HOST HOUSES

HISTORIC

Note: There is considerable overlap between the Staff Quarters (building IDs: X-85) and the previously discussed Help Quarters (Building IDs: X-65x). Considerations of these structures should take into account both typologies.

The first staff quarters were constructed at Camps 1 and 2 in time for the 1937 camping season. The designs of the staff quarters were so successful that they were used in an early draft of Albert Good's book, *A Portfolio of Buildings for Organized Camps*, issued to the National Park Service in 1937. Good featured the Camp 2 staff quarters as a model structure to be emulated at other RDA projects. The design for staff quarters at Camp 2 was again featured in Good's *Park and Recreation Structures, Volume III* (1938) as a particularly successful example. The staff quarters at Camps 1, 2, and 4 all replicated this style when they were constructed in 1938. The staff quarters in Camps 3 and 5 departed from this design.[77]

EXISTING

Purpose-built staff quarters generally are one-story, three-bay structures with a T-shaped plan. The three-pile wood-frame structures are placed atop a poured concrete pier foundation, with cross-gabled roofs. They are generally symmetrical in design, featuring a central recessed entry covered by a full-bay porch. The structure is clad in vertical board-and-batten and waney-edge siding, except for the gable ends, which employ horizontal siding. The structure features a central brick chimney. The roof is clad with asphalt shingles that historically would have been wood.[78]

Staff quarters are primarily grouped near the administration buildings in each cabin camp. Typically, the buildings have a T-shaped plan that

77. Sara Amy Leach, *Camp (2) – Mawavi Historic District, National Register of Historic Places Nomination*, 7-3, 7-11.
78. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 112.

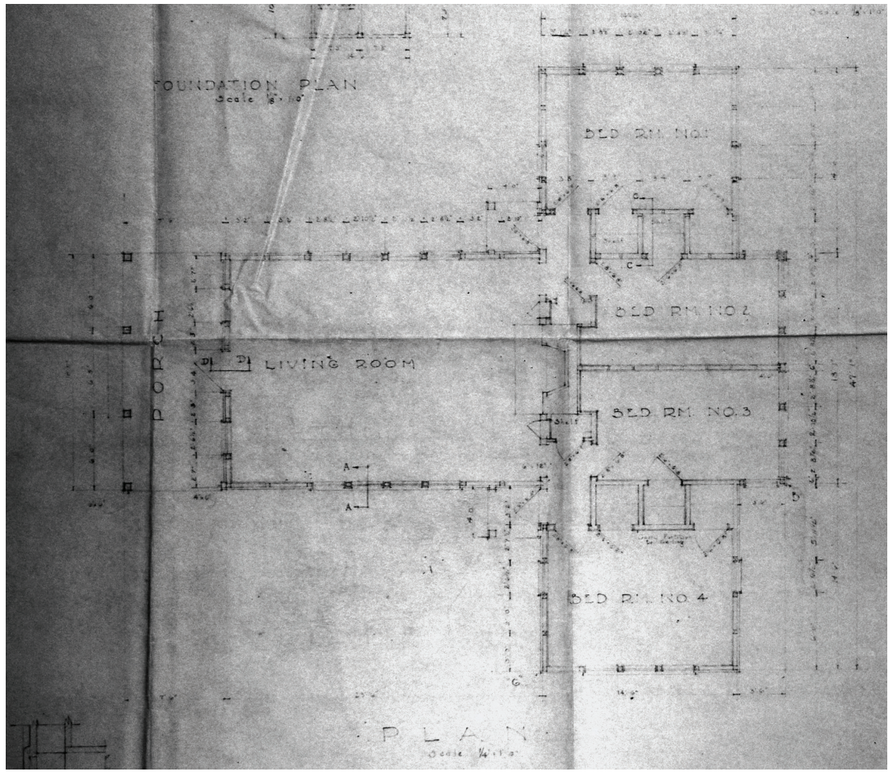


Figure 66: Typical staff quarters constructed at Camp 4. In plan, the building includes a shared living space with a fireplace and four bedrooms, each with a closet. (PRWI 2872)

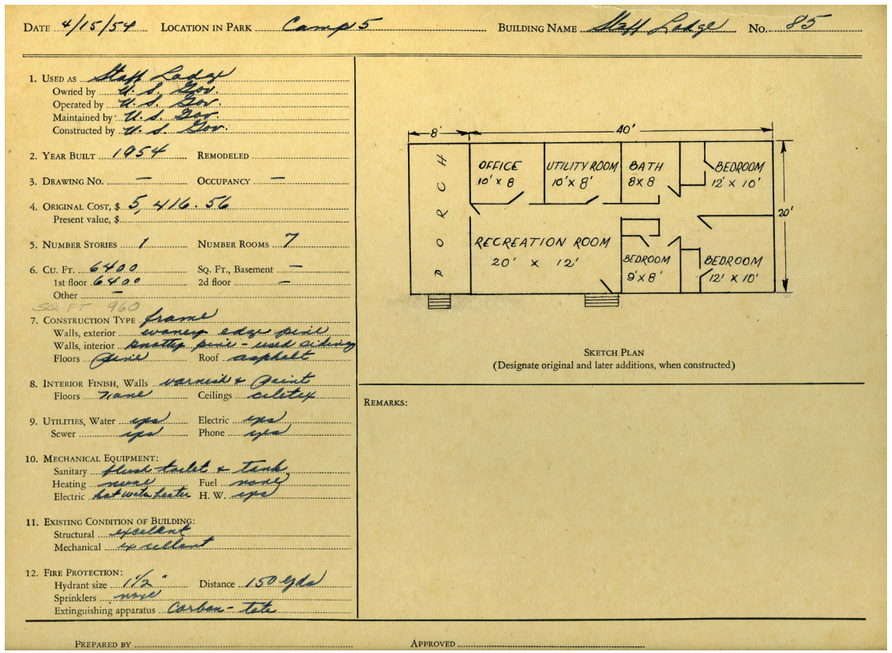


Figure 67: The staff quarters in Camp 5 was slightly different in plan from the typical staff quarters. (PRWI 2958)

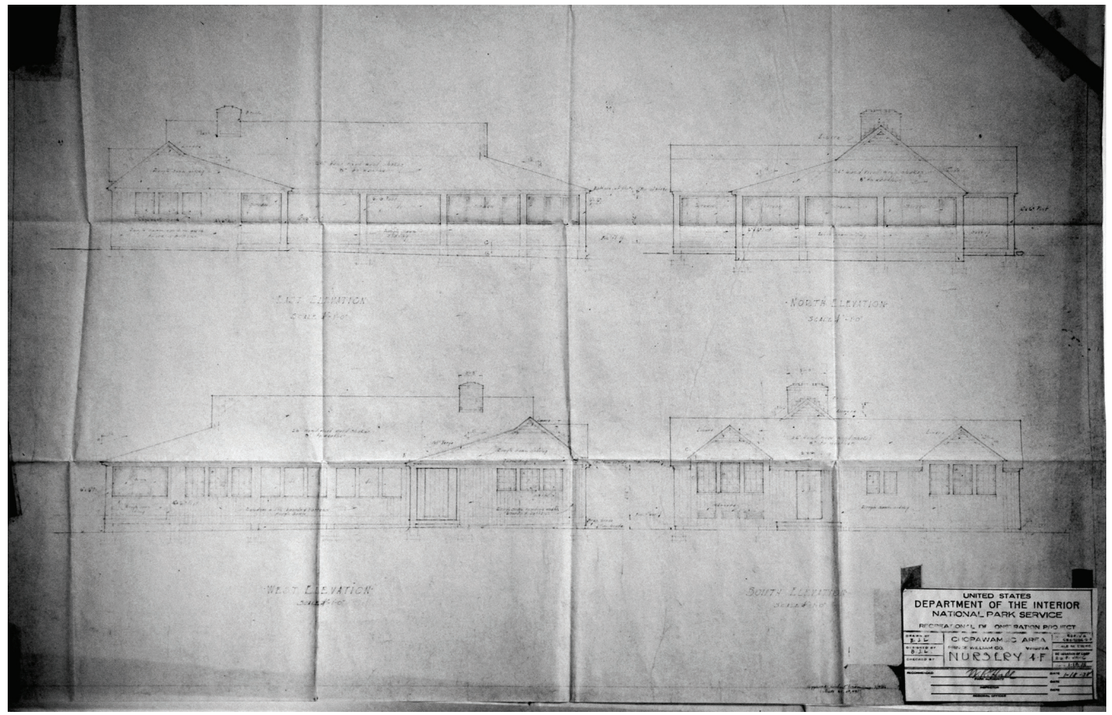


Figure 68: The nursery buildings at Camps 3 and 4 were likely designed in concert with the FSA as a continuation of that organization's original social mission on other NPS-owned parklands. These buildings are among the best extant examples of rustic architecture in the park. (PRWI 3333)

allows for two to four sleeping rooms and a central common area. The buildings vary in size by camp.[79]

Unlike the standard design for staff quarters, at Camp 3, NPS staff greatly simplified the plan. While still T-shaped, it did not feature a front porch, instead featuring a recessed central entrance enclosed within a screen porch. The plan was also scaled back and accommodated fewer staffers. At Camp 5, staff quarters were not formalized until 1954, under Mission 66.

All historic staff quarters are extant and considered contributing cultural landscape elements.

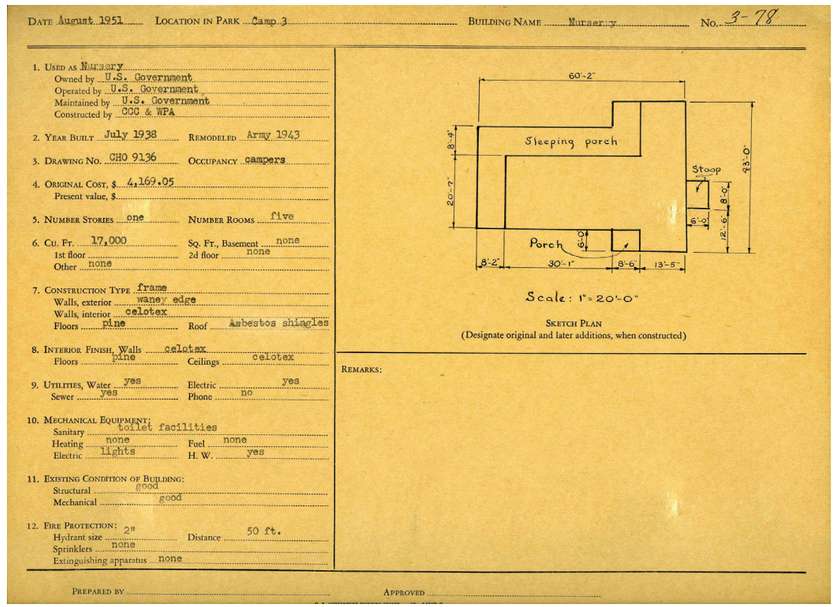
79. Kuhn and Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, 7-13.

NURSERIES

HISTORIC

According to official policy, all organized camps should be designed and constructed using standardized plans. However, in practice, many of the camps at Prince William were formulated in concert with sponsoring camp organizations. Camps 3 and 4 were organized with the FSA, specifically for families and mothers-and-tots. As a result, each of those two camps featured a nursery.[80] The construction of nurseries, likely at the request of the FSA, represented a continuation of the group's work with mothers and children in Rock Creek Park and Anacostia in Washington, D.C. Camps 1, 2, and 5 do not feature nurseries, as they were initially operated by other social organizations

80. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's Parks*, 266-68.



DATE August 1951 LOCATION IN PARK Camp 3 BUILDING NAME Nursery NO. 3-78

1. USED AS Nursery
Owned by U.S. Government
Operated by U.S. Government
Maintained by U.S. Government
Constructed by CCC & WPA

2. YEAR BUILT July 1938 REMODELED Army 1943

3. DRAWING NO. CHO 9136 OCCUPANCY campers

4. ORIGINAL COST, $ 4,169.05
Present value, $

5. NUMBER STORIES one NUMBER ROOMS five

6. CU. FT. 17,000 SQ. FT., BASEMENT none
1st floor 2d floor none
Other none

7. CONSTRUCTION TYPE frame
Walls, exterior wany edge
Walls, interior celotex
Floors pine Roof Asbestos shingles

8. INTERIOR FINISH, Walls celotex
Floors pine Ceilings celotex

9. UTILITIES, Water yes Electric yes
Sewer yes Phone no

10. MECHANICAL EQUIPMENT:
Sanitary toilet facilities
Heating none Fuel none
Electric lights H. W. yes

11. EXISTING CONDITION OF BUILDING:
Structural good
Mechanical good

12. FIRE PROTECTION:
Hydrant size 2" Distance 50 ft.
Sprinklers none
Extinguishing apparatus none

PREPARED BY APPROVED

SKETCH PLAN
(Designate original and later additions, when constructed)

REMARKS:

Figure 69: In plan, both nursery buildings historically featured an enclosed sleeping porch, as well as a large open room on the interior. This open room was later used by the OSS as a recreational hall. (PRWI 2832)

(such as the Boy Scouts or Campfire Girls) that served older youth and did not mandate nurseries.

In 1937, the CCC workers of SP-25 constructed the nursery building at Camp 3 as the first of its type to be built at Chopawamsic. According to the work order for the project, the nursery was to "accommodate 40 babies, with [a] modern kitchen, bath, sleeping porch and assembly room," for a total cost of $4,169.[81] The following year, the CCC constructed the nursery in Camp 4 using the same design.[82]

During the OSS occupation of the camps, the nursery buildings took on new uses. Once fully winterized, their large interiors became a recreation hall at Camp 3 and the main OSS code room at Camp 4.[83] When the camps returned to recreational use after the war, the nurseries reverted to their original function.

After the FSA moved from Camp 3 to Camp 1 in the 1950s, the nursery at Camp 3 was converted to a craft hall and gathering space. By the time the FSA departed the park in the 1990s, both nurseries had segued into use as craft and gathering spaces for their respective camps.

EXISTING

Both nursery buildings are extant. Each is one story and T-shaped in plan, with a wood-frame structure comprising five bays; the buildings are capped with cross-gabled and hip-on-gable roofs, and set on concrete pier foundations. The exterior of each building is clad in dark-stained vertical waney board siding, with horizontal waney boards used in the gables. Each nursery features a wraparound sleeping porch on three sides (which is no longer enclosed); the fourth elevation features a central brick chimney. A continuous band of double-hung sash windows punctuates all sides. On each building, the nursery's main entrance is under an attached shed roof on the screen porch. The original wooden shakes have been replaced

81. Sara Amy Leach, *Chopawamsic RDA - Camp (3) Orenda/ SP-26 Historic District*, National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form, 7-2 to 7-3; Sara Amy Leach, *Chopawamsic RDA - Camp (4) / Pleasant Historic District*, National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form, 7-8.
82. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 115; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 60.
83. Chambers, *OSS Training*, 66, 170-171.

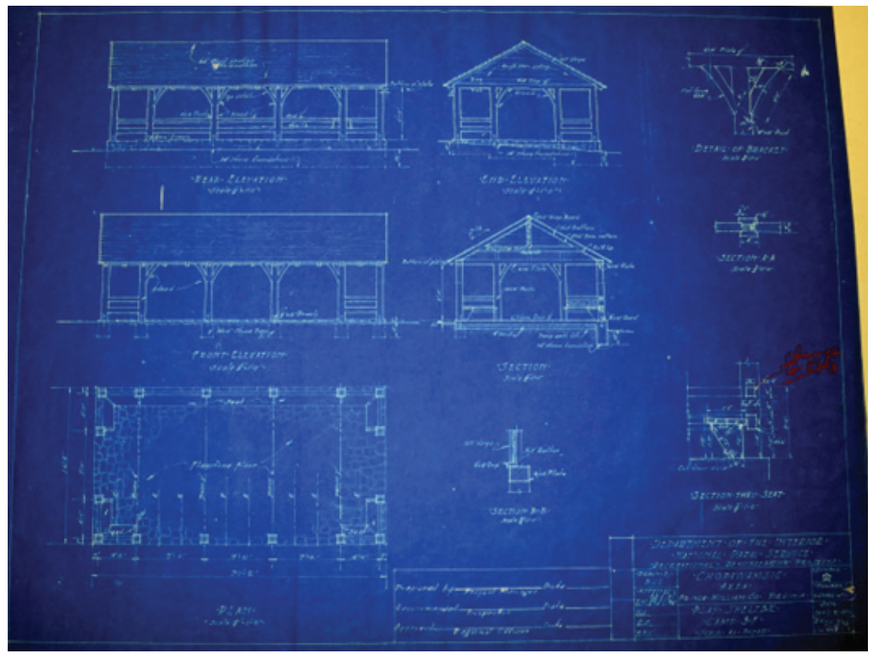


Figure 104: The original plan for a play shelter at Camp 3 was later altered to make it a craft shelter. This original design called for a series of benches around the edges of the shelter, a more complex and ornamental truss system, and a flagstone floor. (PRWI 5424)

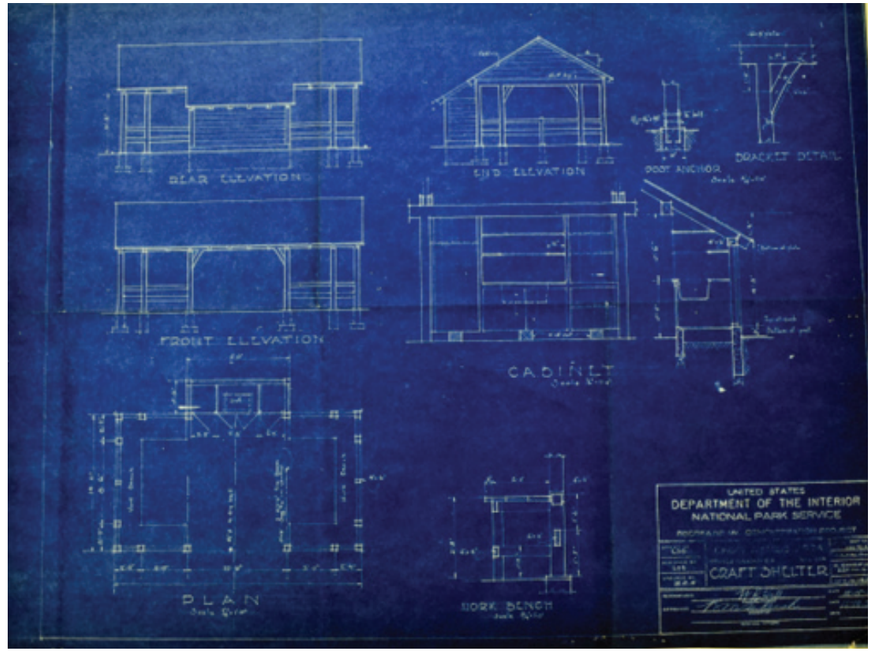


Figure 105: As built, the Camp 3 craft shelter was simpler in plan than originally designed. It featured an enclosed gable, simpler structural members, a sink and storage area, and an earth floor. (PRWI 3134)

with asphalt alternatives.[84] Both nurseries are contributing features.

CRAFT SHELTERS / PLAY SHELTER

HISTORIC

Designed in 1936, the craft shelter at Cabin Camp 3 underwent multiple design alterations before it was completed in 1938. (Its construction was likely delayed because it was considered a lower priority than other camp buildings for the opening season in 1937.) NPS changed the structure's design after the first summer of camp operation—likely based on feedback from the FSA. The building shifted from a play shelter to a craft shelter, featuring work benches on all sides, rather than seating. The revised plan also featured a rear storage room and sink to accommodate craft projects. Such changes would have been in keeping with the camp's younger demographic, and may indicate why Camp 3 is the only camp confirmed to have such a building. The building was added adjacent to an assembly field, which likely also doubled as a small playing field. The success of this design saw its repetition at other RDAs, including at Catoctin Mountain Park's Camp Greentop and Camp Misty Mount.[85]

The authors of the draft Cultural Landscape Inventory for Cabin Camp 5 hypothesized that the present-day storage building in that camp, constructed in 1940, may have been a craft shelter. The exterior of that storage building (which is now enclosed) features a similar frame structure as the craft building at Cabin Camp 3; where the Camp 3 shelter would have been open-air, the Camp 5 structure features enclosed bays. More research is needed to confirm this hypothesis, although it seems likely.[86]

EXISTING

The craft shelter in Camp 3 features a one-story, three-bay frame structure capped with a side-gable roof and set on post-in-ground concrete footings. The open-air building may have featured a concrete slab floor; however, present-day vegetation and dirt make this difficult to discern. The structure of the building is primarily composed of 6x6 timbers, with smaller horizontal members for railings and decorative corner supports. The interior features circumferential workbenches, a sink, and a storage room. The exterior is clad with limited horizontal waney board siding at the corners, in the gable ends, and enclosing the storage room at the rear. The building features asphalt shingles that would have historically consisted of asphalt shakes.[87] The Camp 3 craft shelter is extant and remains unchanged for the historic period.

The potential Camp 5 craft shelter is consistent with the structure described above, although it has since been enclosed (perhaps by the OSS or under later building campaigns). Any extant craft shelters contribute to the significance of the cultural landscape.

CAMPFIRE CIRCLES, CHAPELS, AND AMPHITHEATERS

HISTORIC

The campfire circle was an essential element of the organized group camp plan. Historically known as the "council ring," the campfire circle referenced the purportedly Indigenous gathering traditions popularized by Ernest Thompson Seton, wilderness writer and founder of an early Scouting group called the Woodcraft Indians. Seton's "council ring" design included a "chief's seat" and concentric log seating surrounding a central campfire. According to Seton and other camp designers of the 1920s and early 1930s, the campfire circle served a ceremonial purpose in camp life, with the council circles placed in the camp's outlying natural or wilderness areas. Camp staff would use the site for programming, including contemplative moments

84. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 115; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 110; Leach, *Chopawamsic RDA - Camp (3) Orenda/SP-26 Historic District*, 7-2.
85. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 58.
86. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 101.
87. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 121.

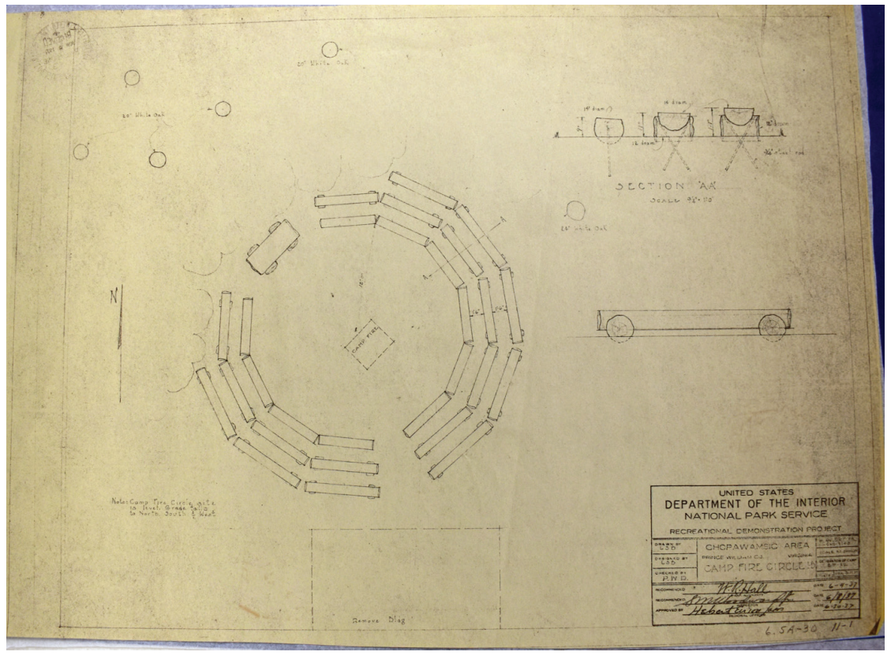


Figure 70: This 1937 plan for the campfire circle in Camp 1 indicates a careful consideration of the camp scene, as it placed the circle away from other buildings to maximize its isolation and preserved existing trees to emphasize the natural setting for campfire circle programming. (PRWI 5635)

Figure 71: Plans for the campfire circle in Camp 3 demonstrate how NPS designers incorporated the site's bowl-like topography to create a natural amphitheater setting. Designers also preserved trees and other features that would serve as a backdrop to the theater-like setting. (PRWI 3243)

Figure 72: In the campfire circle area at Camp 4, mature trees have been lost and not replaced, resulting in a significantly more open environment than was originally intended.

that conveyed the value of the natural landscape to youth. To do so, staff often performed ceremonies that abstracted imagined elements of Indigenous cultures.[88]

The association of campfire circles with Indigenous cultures declined in the postwar period; however, the campfire circle itself remained an important part of camp life. Camp planning publications by other social agencies, including the YMCA, called campfire circles "an attractive setting for special ceremonial programs at camp." In his 1938 book, Albert Good deemphasized any associations to Indigenous groups and encouraged his designers to select "surroundings that suggest…the glories of Nature unmodified."[89] Good noted the natural aspect of a campfire circle design, stating that it should be located with a distant view as a backdrop. Rock outcroppings or other natural elements, such as a topographic bowl, could serve as a backdrop when such a view was impossible. The whole setting should be surrounded by trees to create a sense of seclusion and to prevent any acoustic interference from the camp landscape beyond.[90]

It would appear that Chopawamsic RDA developers were aware of Good's advice and chose to locate the campfire circles in outlying areas in each camp. At Camps 1, 3, and 5, the campfire circle was sited on high ground overlooking each camp, but only a short walk from the camp core. In this case, climbing the slope inspired a sense of removal from the camp proper. At Camp 2, designers sited the campfire circle in a particularly attractive glade that featured a natural bowl topography and a small stream. Camp 4, perhaps the least successful in its design, featured a campfire circle northwest of the camp infirmary and parking lot.

At Chopawamsic, RDA designers chose half-rounded log seating and arranged it in three concentric rings around a central campfire and chief seat. The assembly was tiered, with the last row placed highest on the hillside, similar to an amphitheater. Each log was set on a log support secured with a metal bar. Camper seats consisted of 12" logs, counselor seats 18", and the chief's seat 24".[91]

Within each campfire circle, RDA designers carefully sited the "chief's seat" in relation to landscape features. This included carefully preserving mature trees and shrubs as a backdrop for the activities within the campfire circle. In several cases, such as at Camp 2, the backdrop also included topographical and natural features.

In 1952, park staff replaced the rotting wood seating with dimensional planks and concrete posts. According to the National Register nomination for the park, these planks and some footings were replaced again in the 1990s.[92]

88. Van Slyck, *Manufactured Wilderness*, 203-13; Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Vol. III,* 171-72.
89. Quoted in Van Slyck, *Manufactured Wilderness*, 208.
90. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Vol. III,* 171-72.
91. See PRWI 5632 and PRWI 3243.
92. Kuhn and Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, National Register of Historic Place Nomination, 7-18.

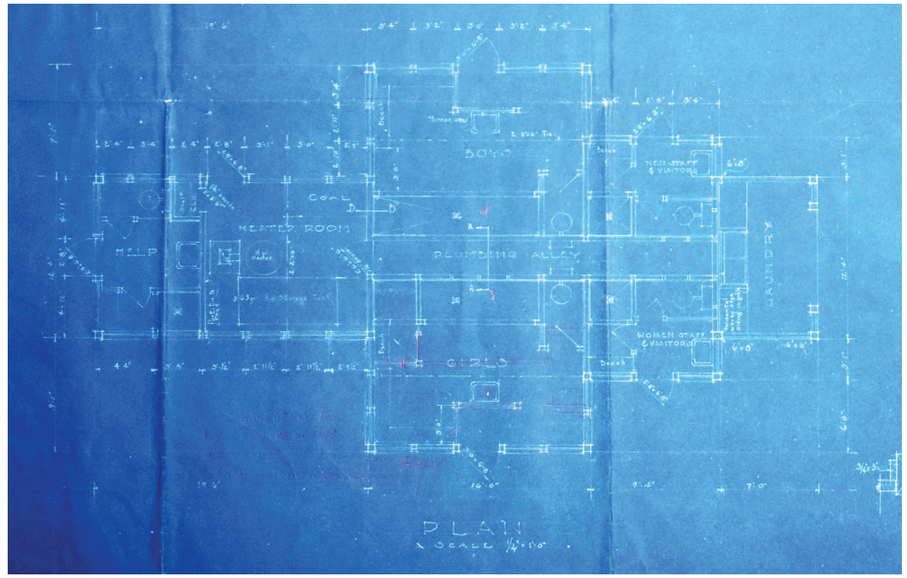


Figure 106: This central bathhouse in Camp 4 is typical of the cabin camps' wash facilities. Camps 2, 3, and 4 featured similar but slightly modified plans. In the plan, the building was divided by age (i.e., women staff v. girls), gender (girls v. boys), and race (staff v. "help"). (PRWI 3331)

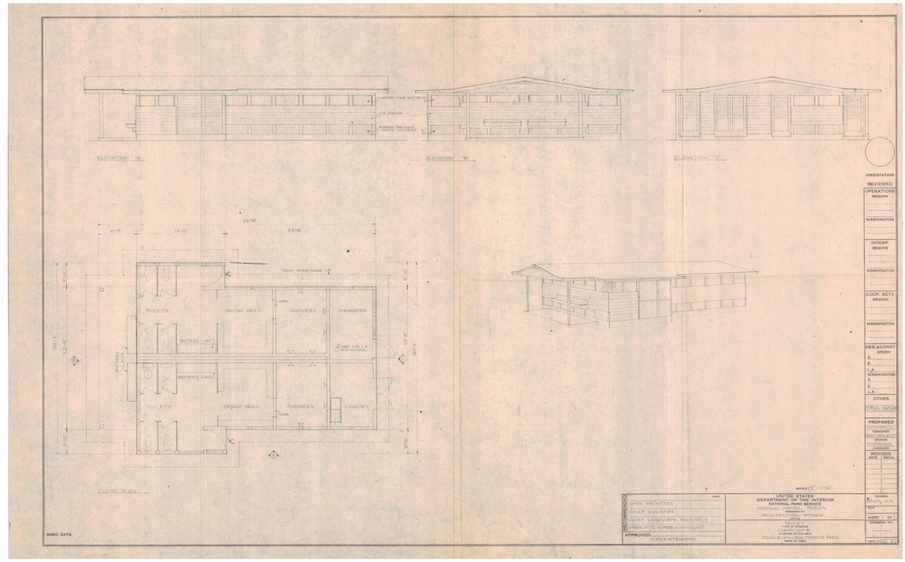


Figure 107: Camp 5 saw significant improvements under Misson 66, including two new central bathhouses in Units A and B at Camp 5. (PRWI 15762F)

Circa 1957, social agencies added semi-circular chapels or amphitheaters at Camps 1 and 5. Before these chapels were constructed, the camps hosted occasional religious activities, but this land use had yet to be formalized into the built environment. No blueprints were located for these features, but textual records indicate that they consisted of log planks on concrete post footings, consistent with their appearance today.[93]

EXISTING

All campfire circles and chapels remain extant today in their original locations. They retain their historic settings as backdrops, including topographic features and mature trees. However, in some cases (e.g. Camp 4), mature trees have been lost and not replaced, resulting in a significantly more open environment than was originally intended. There are no historic log benches in the campfire circles; all feature the plank seating and masonry supports first introduced in the 1950s. All of the campfire circles and chapels are considered contributing elements of the cultural landscape.

CENTRAL BATHHOUSES (WASHHOUSES) (BUILDING IDS: X-95)

HISTORIC

Camp 1 never featured a central bathhouse. Instead, each unit had a comfort station with toilets and showers. In 1983, all of these comfort stations, other than the one in Unit A, were replaced (Building ID: 1-75). The smaller washhouse near the dining hall and staff quarters was built as a staff/help washhouse and is discussed elsewhere in this CLR.[94]

Camp 2 was the first to feature a central washhouse, constructed in 1936.[95] Camp 3 followed later in 1936, and Camp 4 in 1939.[96] Unlike the other camp buildings, the bathhouses and latrines were built over solid concrete foundations, due to the large amount of water used in the building.

The central washhouses were divided in plan according to age, race, and gender. According to a recent study by Dr. Erin Devlin, the washhouses at Camps 3 and 4 serve as contrasting examples of FSA's influence on the use of race in the design of camp buildings. Plans for both camps initially called for a "help" section of the central shower houses, containing a sink, shower, and toilet. After the first summer in 1937, the FSA called for the construction of separate facilities for Black staffers at Camp 3, to be constructed closer to the dining hall. This decision implied that Black staffers, whose original quarters were some distance across the camp, were not welcome throughout the camp area, designed for white campers. As a counterpoint, Devlin points to Camp 4, where the central bathhouse contained all such facilities for staff, regardless of race—because most campers and staff in that camp were Black.[97]

EXISTING

Historically, Camp 5 did not feature a central bathhouse because the camp was relatively small. Instead, individual units featured smaller bathhouses with restrooms and showers. In 1957, these facilities were replaced in Units A and B with new, enlarged central washhouses, maintaining the historic locations. NPS regional staff designed the new facilities according to the aesthetics of Mission 66, employing squared timbers that projected beyond the wall plane and were secured with corner lap joints. Canted gables also lent a Modernist air to the buildings. A very similar aesthetic was applied to the dormitories constructed in each unit at that camp.[98]

93. *A Report of the Recreation and Maintenance Activities of Prince William Forest Park for the Year 1957*, in RG 79, Box 1, Folder A26, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, PA.
94. Kuhn and Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, 7-25.
95. Leach, *Camp (2) – Mawavi Historic District, National Register of Historic Places Nomination*, 7-11.
96. Kuhn and Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, 7-31, 7-26, 7-40.
97. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's Parks*, 276-78.
98. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 108. Research for this CLR did not locate any historic plans for this building type.

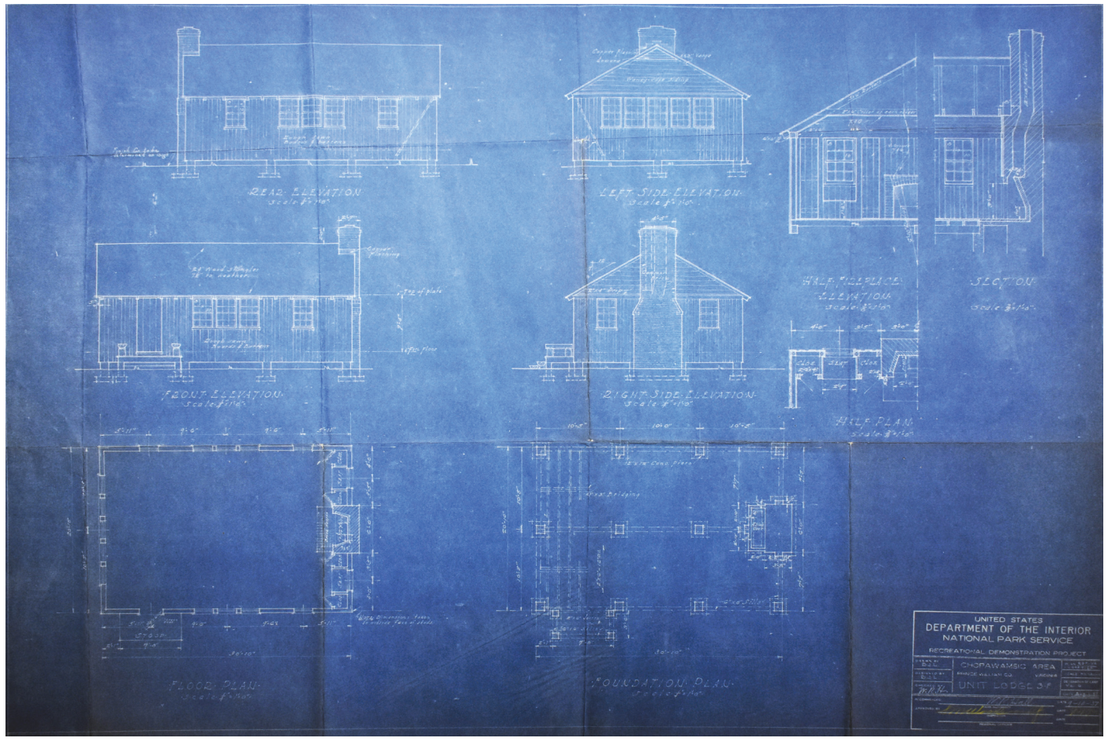


Figure 108: Typical unit lodge at Camp 3. The lodge served as the gathering place for each camp unit, especially during rainy days. (PRWI 3307)

CAMP UNITS

UNIT LODGES

HISTORIC

According to Albert Good, the unit lodge served as "the rallying point of a camp unit," reasoning that it held a "recreational, social, educational, and cultural purpose." Unit lodges were the "common living room or clubroom" for the campers of each unit.[99]

Typically, lodges within the Chopawamsic cabin camps employed two similar designs constructed by the CCC in the late 1930s. Both designs consisted of a one-story rectangular wood-frame structure, sided with vertical or horizontal waney boards. Each lodge rested on fieldstone foundations or piers. Generally, each lodge featured massive exterior gable-end stone or brick chimneys and numerous casement windows. The buildings were typically colored with creosote or a similar dark stain, and roofed with wooden shakes.[100]

The Type A lodge plan featured attached outdoor kitchen pavilions and full front or side porches where campers could enjoy the outdoors even in rainy conditions. However, lodges constructed in the later years of the CCC's involvement tended to be much simpler in construction, seldom featuring porches or outdoor kitchens. These included Camps 3, 4, and 5. Typically, this second lodge plan, Type B, did not feature the same level of craftsmanship as earlier lodges built in Camps 1 and 2. The later lodges of Camps 3, 4, and 5 featured less rustic detailing, including milled lumber porches instead of hewn logs and brick chimneys instead of fieldstone. Type B lodges do not feature the extended kick roofs found on Type A lodges.[101]

Most unit lodges were altered by the OSS between 1942 and 1943. This included the winterization of lodges, with the addition of wood stoves and drop ceilings, and/or the enclosure of foundations with insulation and boards. The OSS also repurposed many of the lodges into classrooms during its tenure at the camps. (These changes were subsequently reversed after the OSS' departure.)[102]

Generally, few changes were made to the lodges in the later decades of the period of significance. Between 1956 and 1962, the park enclosed the porch of a Camp 5 unit lodge and converted it into a unit craft lodge.[103]

EXISTING

All camps retain their original unit lodges. Most unit lodges have been rehabilitated or restored to their conditions during the period of significance. This includes the removal of OSS-era features such as enclosed foundations, storm windows, stoves, and drop ceilings. Unit lodges are contributing features.[104]

UNIT LATRINES

Unit latrines were another important feature of each unit within the organized group camp; they were also the buildings most likely to change, due to evolving hygiene standards and modernization. The camps featured several unit latrine plans during the period of significance.

The different latrine building types are described below. (The building "types" do not refer to historical terminology; they were identified for this CLR.)

HISTORIC

Type A Unit Latrine/Single Latrines

The most common unit latrine plan (Type A, historically referred to as the "single latrine") was constructed by the CCC in nearly all the cabin camps. (The exception was Camp 3, which included an additional Type B latrine.) Type A latrines consisted of a single-story, four-bay wood-frame structure set atop a poured concrete slab. Entrances to the latrine varied based on topography, but were generally placed off-center, giving the building an asymmetrical appearance and maximizing interior floor space. Privacy was achieved using a band of louvered clerestory windows on all sides. The interior of the buildings featured several toilets and sinks served by a central utility space. (Laundry and showers were housed in the camp core in the central shower building.) A smaller version of the Type A latrine was installed at the Camp 2 ballfield, after the CCC camp left. During the OSS and later periods, many of the sink areas, originally open-air, were infilled with rough sawn wood siding, contrasting with the original waney siding. These enclosures were built at all five camps. In Camps 1 and 5, the single-unit latrines were removed: at Camp 5, Type A latrines were demolished and replaced with Type C central

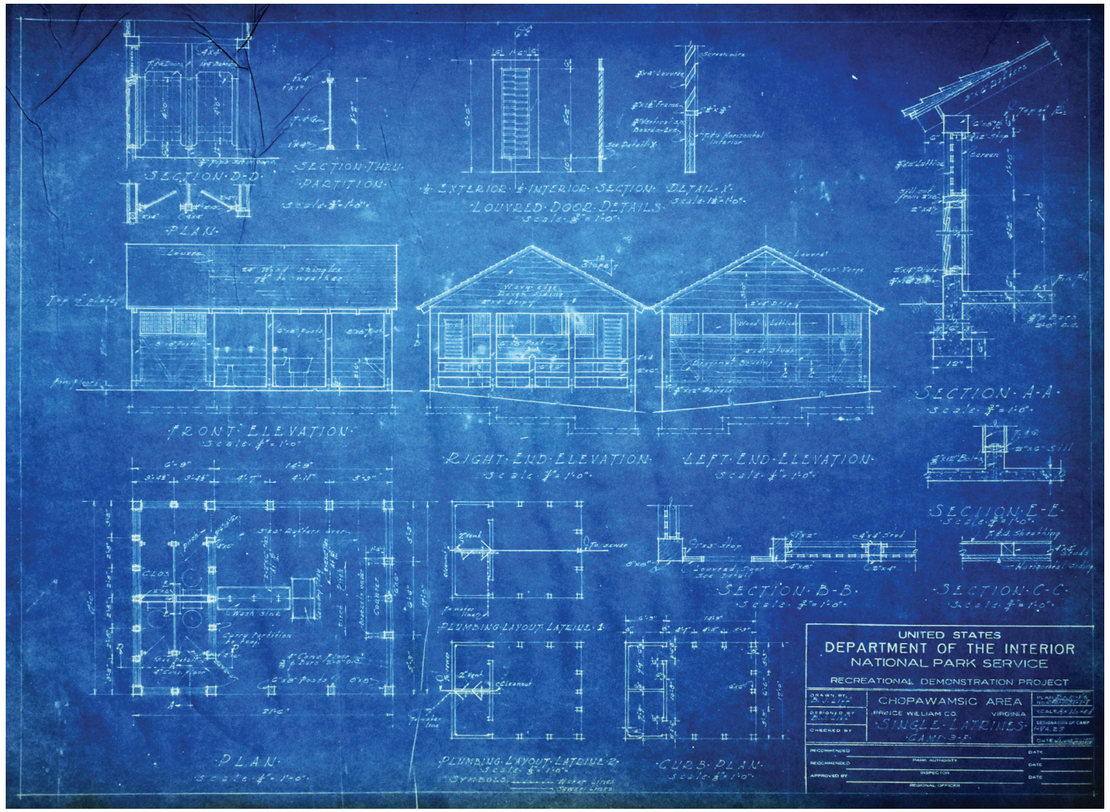


Figure 73: The most common type of unit latrines at each camp was the single latrine, referred to as the Type A latrine in this CLR. (PRWI 5427)

99. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III*, 143.
100. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 92.
101. Moss and Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 CLI* [2017 Update], 47; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 111; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 100.
102. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 103.
103. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 100.
104. Text adapted from Moss and Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 CLI [2017 Update]*, 47.

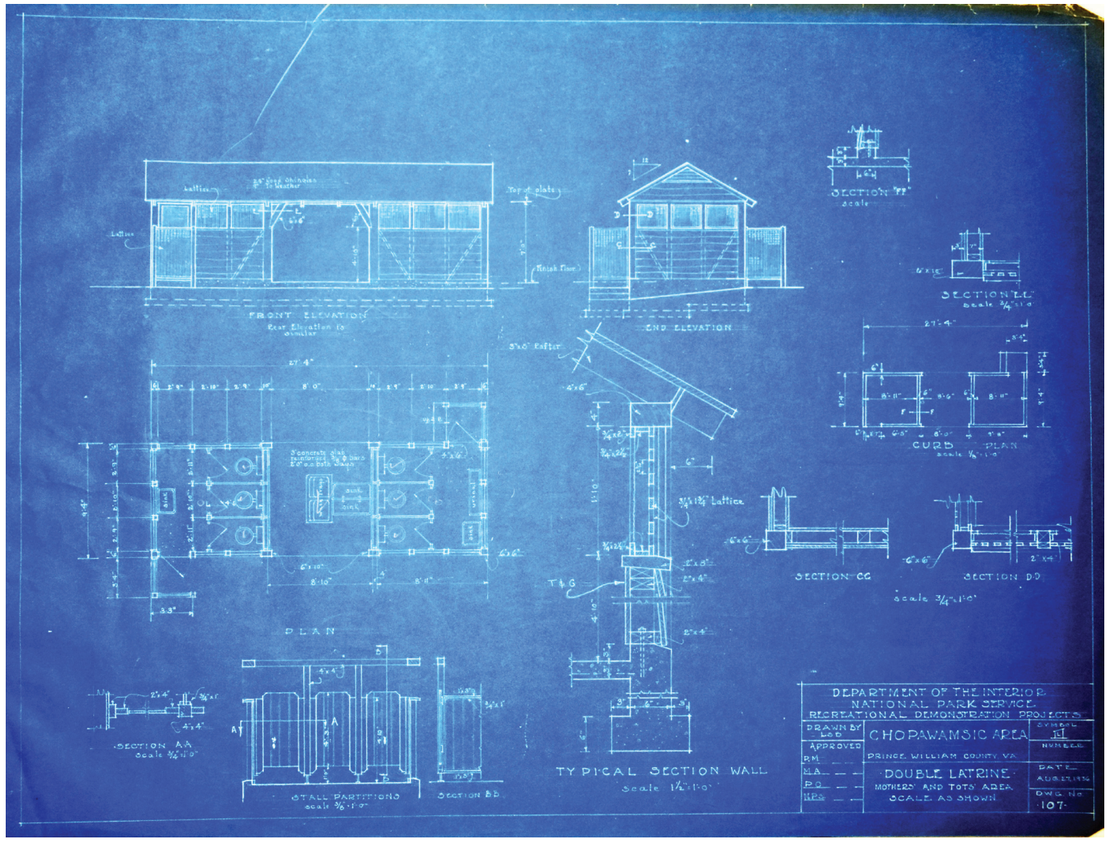


Figure 74: Type B latrines, historically called "double latrines" were constructed only at Camp 3. They featured a shared sink area flanked by toilets. (PRWI 3207)

comfort stations and shower houses (see below) in 1969, the last year of the period of significance. At Camp 1, the NPS removed all Type A latrines (except one in Unit A) in the 1980s, after the period of significance.[105] They replaced them with a smaller version of the Type C latrines (see below).

Type B Unit Latrines

Despite the confusion with their names, Type B latrines predated Type A latrines. Historically referred to as "double latrines," Type B latrines were an unsuccessful predecessor of Type A's "single latrines." According to Spencer et al., "the double latrine was unique to [Camp 3], as it was designed as a dogtrot cabin" that featured two "cribs" separated by a central open space. The cribs on each end contained the toilets, while the

105. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 98-99, 103, 107.

Figure 75: Type D unit latrines were added in the 1980s to each unit in Camp 1. (Shinton 2022)

center housed communal sinks. "The design, while aesthetically pleasing, failed to efficiently utilize plumbing. 'Single latrines' replaced the double latrine as a standard design since they used plumbing more efficiently, which was housed in a central stack and flanked by two sets of toilets."[106]

Type C Unit Latrines

Type C unit latrines, also referred to as comfort stations or bathhouses, were constructed in Camp 5 during the period of significance. In Camp 5, the two Type C comfort stations were constructed circa 1957, replacing the earlier single-unit Type A latrines. The new Modern aesthetic employed similar materials to its Rustic-style predecessors, but used squared timbers projected beyond the wall plane; these timbers were secured with corner lap joints. The Type C buildings also featured modern, angular eaves.[107]

106. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 98-99, 103, 107.
107. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 61, 62, 66.

EXISTING

Circa 1990, a miscommunication among park staff resulted in the demolition of the Unit A latrine (Type A) at Camp 3. Its ruins are managed as an archeological site by the park.[108]

With the exception of Camp 1 (see Type D below), unit latrines at all other camps remain unchanged from the historic era. Camps 2, 3, and 4 continue to feature Type A "single latrines" in each unit; Camp 3's Unit C also retains a Type B "double latrine." Type A, B, and C latrines are all contributing features to the cultural landscape. Type D latrines are non-contirbuting but compatible features.

Type D Unit Latrines[109]

Changes to unit latrines after the period of significance were limited to Cabin Camp 1. Concurrent with the 1980s modernization effort,

108. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 104, 190.
109. Research for this CLR did not locate any historic plans for this building type.

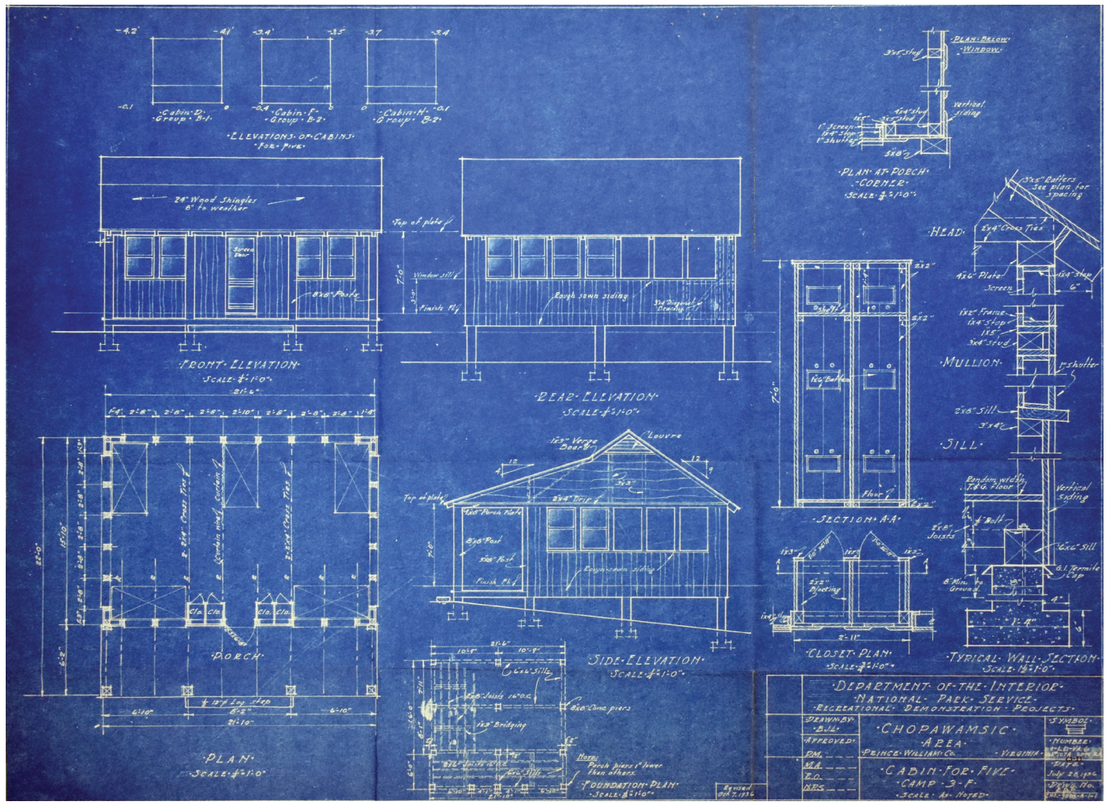


Figure 76: Type A cabins, historically referred to as "Cabins for 5," are the most common cabin type at the cabin camps. (PRWI 3402)

park staff replaced unit latrines in Camp 1's B, C, and D units with a smaller version of the Type C latrine/bathhouses installed at Camp 5. These new unit latrines, Type D, use a similar design language as those at Camp 5, including low gabeled roofs, squared timbers, and extruding log ends. Type D latrines are one-story, two-bay, side-gable, squared-lumber structures set atop poured concrete slab foundations. The interior plan is divided into two sides by gender, accessed by doors on the front and back of the building. These latrines also feature a row of clerestory windows on the elevations without doors.[110] Unlike the facilities at Camp 5, the Type D unit latrines in Camp 1 do not feature laundry or shower facilities.

Unit latrines in Camp 1 are compatible resources, as their design does not detract from the cultural landscape.

CABINS

HISTORIC

Note: No cabins at Camp 1 date to the period of significance. The chronology of cabin building types begins with the earliest extant examples at Camp 2; the original cabins within Camp 1 were not researched for this CLR.

Camper cabins were originally designed with three variants (Types A, B, and C), all of which housed four campers each. RDA designers based cabin designs at all camps on these variants, but modified their roof lines, porches, and other features based on the buildings' site conditions. In the earlier camps, the array of cabin types provided variety and interest to camp units; different cabin types also worked better according to certain camp conditions. However, over time, the CCC streamlined and expedited its efforts, resulting in standardized cabin designs, or cabins with little to no Rustic-style architectural ornament. Cabin types for Camps 1-5 are generalized below, but may vary based on site conditions.

Side-Gable Cabin (Type A)

Type A cabins were one-story, side-gable wood-frame buildings set on pier foundations. The roofs consisted of single or dual pitches, and covered both the cabin and a full-length porch. The front facades were generally symmetrical, featuring a central entrance flanked by windows. Rear and side facades featured three to five windows. Window openings were covered with top-hinged wood shutters. Type A cabins were clad in horizontal "waney" board siding that was punctuated with vertical boards along cabin edges. All wood was treated with creosote. Roofing originally consisted of wooden shakes, which were replaced beginning in 2012 with asphalt, and later with synthetic alternatives. Generally, these cabins slept 4 campers or 2 counselors.

This cabin type was built in Camp 2 (all units) and Camp 3 (Unit A only).[111]

Type A cabins are contributing features.

End-Gable or Hipped-Roof Cabin (Type B)[112]

Type B cabins were one-story, hipped-roof or end-gable wood-frame buildings set on pier foundations. The roofs extended beyond the cabins and covered the porches. The narrow facades were symmetrical, featuring a central entrance flanked by small windows. Each long side featured three or four windows operated by top-hinged shutters. Type B cabins were clad in horizontal "waney" board siding that was punctuated with vertical boards along cabin edges. All wood was treated with creosote. These cabins could accommodate 4 campers.

The CCC built Type B cabins in Camp 2 (Units C and D) and Camp 3 (Unit A). In Camp 2, these cabins featured a hipped roof. In Camp 3, the CCC simplified the design of these cabins, removing

110. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 127.

111. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 87; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 107-108.

112. Research for this CLR did not locate any historic plans for this building type.

Figure 77: Type B cabins, such as these in Camp 2, are elongated in plan, featuring end-gables or hipped roofs. (TORKELSON 2022)

Figure 109: Type C cabins at Camp 5 do not feature an attached porch and are generally simpler in design than Types A and B. (Lester 2023)

the hipped roof in favor of an end-gable design. This likely simplified the construction process for this cabin type, a trend observed in later cabin construction across the camps.[113]

The end-gable building type was later applied to cabins in Camp 5, but was greatly simplified. The simplified design was a one-story, three-bay (one structural bay), wood-frame building set on wooden piers. Camp 5's Type B cabins did not have porches. In plan, the buildings were squarer than their rectangular end-gable predecessors. The entrance facades were symmetrical, featuring a central entrance flanked by a set of windows. Each long elevation featured four windows, divided into two sets, all operated by top-hinged shutters. The cladding and materials were the same as other Type B cabins used in other camps. One

113. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 88; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 109.

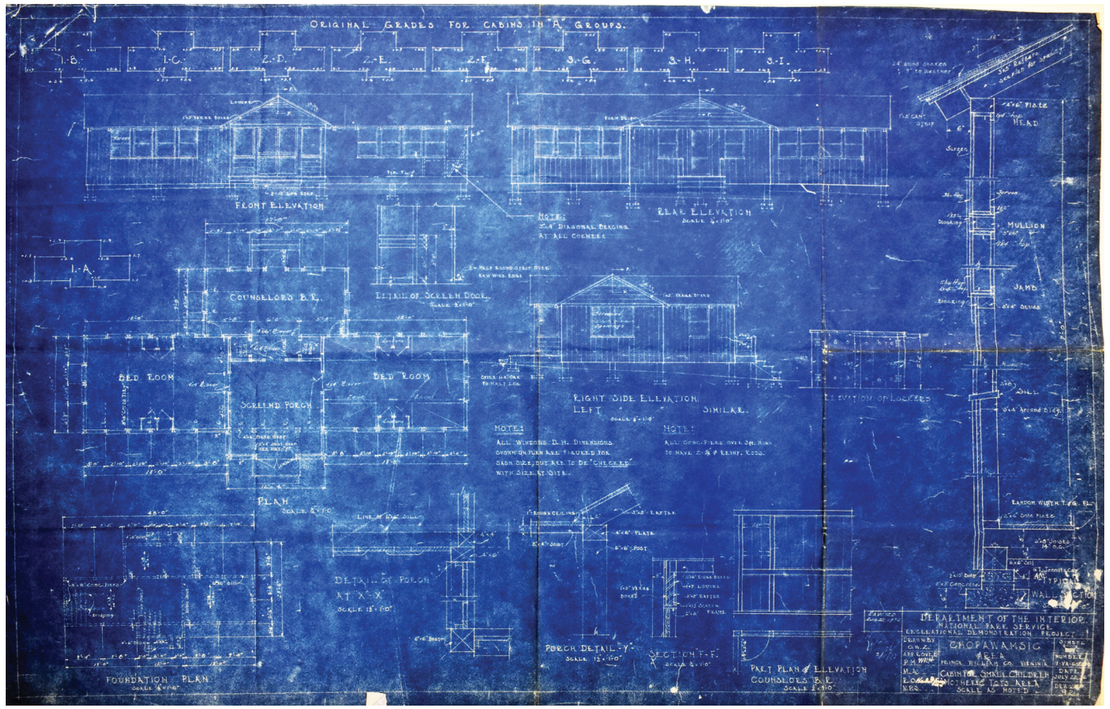


Figure 78: This cabin type (Type D), originally built as an experiment at Camp 3, would later serve as an example in Albert Good's book on park structures. It featured two bedroom wings, a central counselors room, and a screen porch (later enclosed.) (PRWI 3400)

Type B cabin in Camp 5 was demolished in 1969, concurrent with other improvements at that camp.

Type B cabins are contributing features.[114]

Side-Gable Cabin, Attached Porch or No Porch (Type C)[115]

Type C cabins were one-story, side-gable, wood-frame buildings set on piers. They featured side-gable roofs, like Type A cabins; however, unlike their counterparts, these cabins featured only small, uncovered attached porches, or in most cases, no porches at all. The front facades were generally symmetrical, featuring a central entrance flanked by small windows. The rear and side facades featured three to five windows. Window openings were covered with top-hinged wood shutters.

Type C cabins were clad in horizontal "waney" board siding that was punctuated with vertical boards along cabin edges. All wood was treated with creosote. Roofing originally consisted of wooden shakes, which were replaced in later decades with asphalt or other materials. Generally, these cabins slept 4 campers.

This cabin type was built at Camp 2 (Unit A) and in Camp 5 (Units A and B). Camp 5's Type C cabins did not have porches, while some Camp 2 cabins did.

Type C cabins are a contributing cabin type.[116]

Eight- and Ten-Bunk Cabins (Type D)

The success of this plan resulted in its publication in Albert Good's 1938 book *Park and Recreation Structures*. Good refers to the Type D cabin as a "saddlebag cabin."[117] In plan, Good noted that the Type D cabin was "...designed to give maximum light and air and to provide cot spacing recommended by the Public Health Authorities."[118] The central bay of the saddlebag plan was divided into a two-bunk counselors' room and a shared common area. The flanking bays accommodated four campers. The centralized plan allowed "control" of all eight or ten campers in the cabin from the central counselor's room.

Type D cabin are generally one-story, five-bay, end-gable, wood-frame structures set on piers. Each featured a central entry on the long side, flanked on either side by two sets of paired windows with top-hinged shutters. Type D cabins were clad in waney board siding; vertical siding was used in the two end bays, while horizontal siding was used in the central bay. Like other cabins, the siding was colored with a black creosote. A projection (measuring approximately 3 feet) of the central bay on the rear gave the cabin a T-plan.

Ultimately, two variations of the saddlebag cabin were designed and constructed at Camps 3, 4, and 5. The initial plan consisted of four grouped windows on each of the side bays, whereas the later design split the grouped windows into two sets of paired windows, providing a space where the interior closets could be placed.

Designs for cabins at Camp 3 evolved during construction, resulting from different programmatic requirements and a need for standardization and expediency. The special needs of "Mothers and Tots" required a larger cabin design that could accommodate a greater number of children. This design shifted the number of campers that could be accommodate in a cabin from four (in Camp 3's Units A and B) to eight or ten, with two additional bunks for counselors.

Cabins built in Camps 4 and 5, both by the CCC and under the Mission 66 initiative (Camp 5), resulted in slightly elongated plans that allowed for eight campers in each end, flanking two counselors.[119]

Type D cabins are a contributing cabin type.[120]

Mission 66 Side-Gable Cabins (Type E)[121]

Mission 66 added a new, economized cabin type to each unit in Camp 2. Type E cabins were side-gable, single bay wood-frame structures set on poured concrete foundations. The primary facade featured a central door, but, most notably, only featured two small clerestory windows flanking it. The shorter sides also only featured one small clerestory window. Each was clad with horizontal dimensional siding and asphalt shingles. Type E cabins did not feature porches.

Type E cabins are a contributing cabin type.[122]

Dormitories (Type F)

At the end of the period of significance, circa 1969, the NPS embarked on changes to the cabins at Cabin Camp 5. Here, they tested out a new year-round dormitory model. While not officially

114. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 94.
115. Research for this CLR did not locate any historic plans for this building type.
116. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 82; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 93.
117. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III*, 185.
118. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III*, 185.
119. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 56-57; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 101; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 95.
120. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 95.
121. Research for this CLR did not locate any historic plans for this building type.
122. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 83-84.

Figure 110: Type E cabins were added under Mission 66 to each unit in Camp 2. (Shinton 2022)

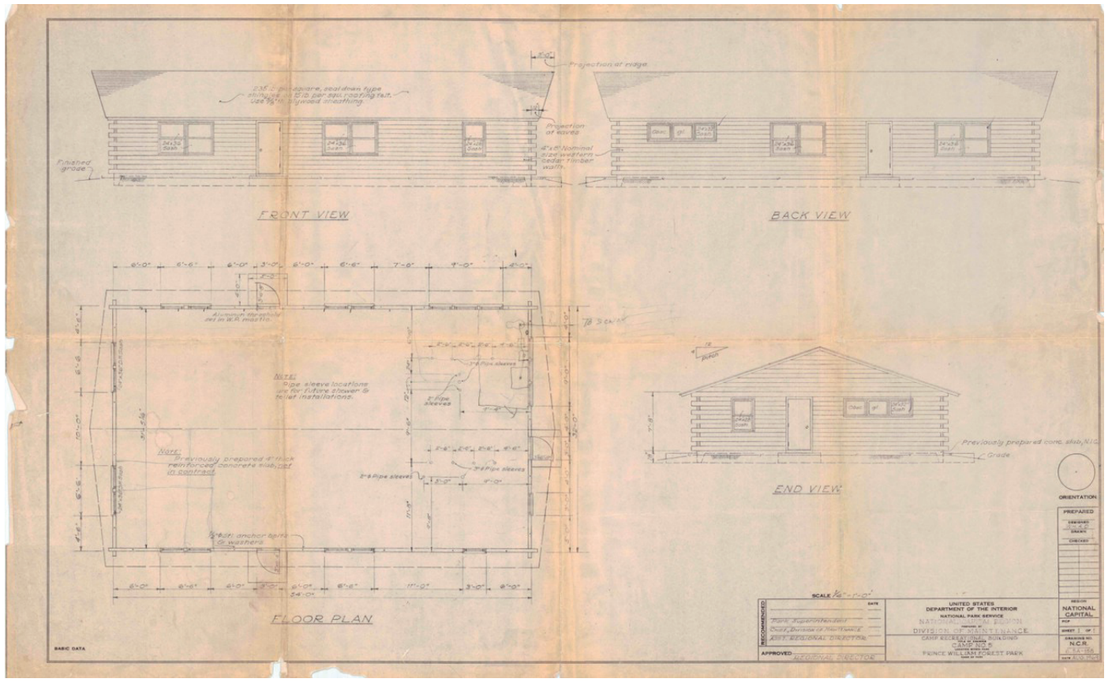


Figure 79: The 1969 dormitory-style cabins were constructed exclusively in Camp 5. (PRWI 3412)

Figure 111: Type G cabins replaced all camper cabins in Camp 1 circa 1983. (Shinton 2022)

implemented as part of the Mission 66 program, these new buildings were closely aligned with the aesthetic of the initiative. Rather than mirroring the rustic character of the CCC-era buildings, the new designs employed squared timbers that projected beyond the wall plane, and were secured with corner lap joints. Canted gables also lent an air of Modernism to the buildings. To accommodate this significantly larger cabin type, the NPS demolished a Type A camper cabin in Unit B of Camp 5.[123]

Type F dormitories are large one-story wood-frame buildings set on poured concrete slabs. The roof is a canted side-gable with deep projecting eaves. The primary façade is asymmetrical, containing a slightly off-center door flanked by two sets of one-over-one, paired windows, as well as three, grouped clerestory windows to one side. Other sides featured simple pairs of large windows in varying numbers. The building is clad in horizontal, dimensional timbers that served both as cladding and as structural members. The ends of these timbers project beyond the edges of the building. They are stained to match other CCC-era buildings in Camp 5. Type F dormitories are in keeping with the design legacy of Mission 66 (although they were likely implemented as part of the Parkscape USA program).

123. Text adapted from Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 61-62.

They are extant in Camp 5 as contributing elements to the camp landscape.

EXISTING

Recent Camper Cabins (Type G)[124]

Circa 1983, the NPS undertook a complete replacement campaign of all camper cabins in Camp 1. The new cabins (referred to here as Type G) were replaced with a Modern design that borrowed in aesthetics and design from the CCC-era Type B cabin. These new cabins were placed in the same or similar locations as their predecessors.[125] Type G cabins were all built according to the same plan. Each is a one-story, end-gable wood-frame building set on concrete footings. The roofs extend beyond the cabins and cover the porches. The entrance facade contains the door, but no windows. The short elevation opposite it contains one-over-one window. Both side elevations feature two sets of horizontal two-over-two rectangular windows. These can be opened to offer ventilation into the cabin. Each is clad in horizontal dimensional siding that is stained to match the CCC-era buildings. These cabins accommodate four campers.

While these cabins were added after the period of significance, they are considered compatible with the historic scene. They use similar materials and are in the same or similar locations as their predecessors.

All other cabins in Camps 2, 3, 4, and 5, remain little changed from the period of significance. These are contributing features to the cabin camp cultural landscapes.

EVALUATION

With the exception of the temporary World War II buildings, the camps retain nearly all buildings and structures dating to the period of significance. As a collection, the camps retain buildings and structures dating to their initial construction under the CCC, buildings and structures modified during World War II, and those built as part of the Mission 66 and its legacy programs, including Parkscape USA. Most buildings and structures at the camp have undergone rehabilitations since the 1990s, largely restoring their historic conditions.

In the 1990s, one historic latrine at Camp 3 was accidentally destroyed. More substantial impacts to the integrity of the camps' buildings and structures features are limited to Camps 1 and 5. All cabins at Camp 1 were replaced after the period of significance. However, the new cabins and most of the new latrines occupy the historic locations and employ a similar design and material palette as their Mission 66-era predecessors.

Three CCC-era buildings in Camp 5 were demolished at the end of the period of significance. Two of these buildings were latrines that were subsequently replaced with contemporary versions; one cabin was demolished and not replaced.

As a collection, the cabin camps feature over 230 buildings and structures, the vast majority of which date to the period of significance and retain their character-defining features. As a result, the camps retain integrity with respect to buildings and structures.

BUILDINGS + STRUCTURES - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Unit Lodges	Contributing
Unit Latrines (Types A, B, and C)	Contributing
Cabins (Types A-F)	Contributing
Dining Halls	Contributing
Administration Buildings	Contributing
Infirmaries	Contributing
Staff Quarters / Host Houses	Contributing
Help Quarters / Cook Quarters	Contributing
Nurseries	Contributing
Craft Lodges	Contributing
Campfire Circles	Contributing
Garages	Contributing
Storage	Contributing
Central Bathhouses	Contributing
Staff Bathhouses	Contributing
Water Towers	Contributing
Playing Fields	Contributing
Shelters	Contributing
Unit Latrines (Type D)	Non-contributing - Compatible
Cabins (Type G)	Non-contributing - Compatible

124. Research for this CLR did not locate any historic plans for this building type.
125. Moss and Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 CLI* [2017 Update], 40.

Constructed Water Features

Constructed water features are built features and elements that utilize water for aesthetic or utilitarian functions in the landscape, such as fountains, pools, ponds, cascades, canals, and reservoirs.

HISTORIC

There were no constructed water features in the cabin camps prior to the period of significance. Rather, the NPS designed and the CCC and Army Corps of Engineers built artificial swimming lakes at each cabin camp along the Quantico Creek. Such features were an essential part of the camp experience. In the summer months, when heat was high, camp water features provided safe and supervised places for youth to learn to swim, cool off, and play with other campers.[126]

Such an opportunity was less available to most campers from urban areas, where community pools and beaches were limited in number. The construction of artificial lakes at the Chopawamsic cabin camps afforded Black youth the opportunity to swim, albeit within a segregated landscape (much like many of the pools in the cities where they lived). Refer to the discussion on natural systems and features for more on the separation of swimming areas and watersheds by race.[127]

The development of RDA swimming areas generally occurred under two building campaigns.[128] The first campaign, led by the CCC, began in 1935, and concluded in the early 1940s, with the gradual phasing out of camping uses in favor of the war effort. The second building campaign happened from 1945 to 1949, under the supervision of the Army Corps of Engineers.[129]

Between 1935 and 1938, the CCC constructed artificial lakes for Camps 1, 2, 3, and 5. The first lake (and its associated dam) was constructed in 1936 for white campers at Camp 1, and was not completed by the time the camp opened for its first season. The 1936 dam at Camp 1, referred to as a "gully stopper," consisted of earth and rock that formed a dam, raising the lake level for swimming.[130] The earthen dam at Camp 1 was replaced with concrete circa 1937.[131]

Also in 1936, the CCC constructed an engineered concrete dam that served Camp 2. Unlike the earthen dams at other camps, this dam created a much larger, northward-flowing lake that would later be shared by Camps 2 and 5 when the latter camp was completed. The resultant Lake 2/Lake 5 opened in 1937 (around the same time that the Camp 1 dam was replaced with concrete), and served white campers, following the NPS policy shift that designated Camps 1 and 4 as segregated areas for Black campers.[132]

126. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 112-13, 118.
127. Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia's National Parks*, 261-62.
128. Dates for the construction of camp dams and lakes vary widely across historical reports. The 1989 National Register nominations make no mention of the Army Corps of Engineers' dam construction and do not note that the dam at Camp 1 is concrete. The parkwide National Register nomination lists all lakes and dams as having been completed in 1936. Neither appears to be true. The 2021 draft CLIs seem to have a more accurate accounting; these attribute the current dams at Camps 3 and 4 to the Army Corps of Engineers, and the other dams and lakes to the CCC. This CLR follows the lead of the CLI researchers and acknowledges the above discrepancies.
129. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 65-66; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 114; Moss and Weldon, *Cabin Camp 1 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [2017 Update], 65-66.
130. Sarah Amy Leach, *Chopawamsic RDA – Camp (1) Goodwill Historic District*, National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, 1989), 7-6.
131. Kuhn and Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, 7-51.
132. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History*, 13-15; Kuhn and Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, 7-17.

In the following years, the CCC constructed an earthen dam at Camp 3, similar to the "gully stopper" dam at Camp 1. The original CCC-era dam at Camp 3, constructed circa 1937-1938, was located northwest of Unit C, in a bend of Chopawamsic Creek. Here, mothers and their children could play in a significantly shallower, sandy swimming area that differed from the deeper and wider swimming areas elsewhere in the park. This dam and lake were phased out circa 1948, when the Army Corps of Engineers replaced them with a more substantial lake to the east of B unit. This new lake may have typified the shift in camp user groups away from mothers and young children and towards more traditional camp user groups. The original swimming area at Camp 3 was abandoned. Around the same time, the NPS installed a concrete-bottom wading pool at the new lake—the only one created within the cabin camps.[133]

The newly constructed lake at Camp 3 was named "Lake Tomahawk" by camp user groups. The name was derived from the implicit (and insidious) associations of summer camps with "Playing Indian," as scholar Philip Deloria has noted in his book of the same name. Names like "Lake Tomahawk" conjured imagined ideas of wildness and natural values that had nothing to do with the reality of Indigenous cultures or values.[134]

A dam specific to Camp 4 was not completed until 1949, when the Army Corps of Engineers constructed one. Presumably, prior to that date, Black campers at Camp 4 shared the Camp 1 lake during the initial years of camp management, prior to desegregation. More research is needed to determine this precise chronology. Between 1945 and 1949, the Army Corps of Engineers constructed a "gulley stopper"-style dam at Camp 4.[135]

Figure 80: This circa 1936 photo of the concrete dam shared by Camps 2 and 5 shows CCC workers standing on the central spillway. (PRWI 14457)

133. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 132-33; the precise date of construction for the Camp 3 wading pool was not confirmed during research for this CLR.
134. Philip Deloria, *Playing Indian* (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 1998); Abigail Van Syck, A *Manufactured Wilderness,* 177-189.
135. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 117-18.

Figure 112: The historic concrete dam at Lake 1 (1996 Examination Report PRWI archives in Moss and Weldon, Cabin Camp 1 Cultural Landscape Inventory [2017 Update], 67)

All lakes were closed to the public and organized groups during the tenure of the OSS at the camps. Around 1942, Lake 5 was temporarily used for simulated aquatic invasions, a practice that was discontinued in the later years of the agency's use of the camps.[136]

Mission 66 saw the repair of several dams across the park. Lake conditions were apparently declining in the mid-to-late 1950s, as most returning camp user groups lobbied the NPS to construct permanent pool facilities to improve swimming conditions. The NPS incorporated such plans into its Mission 66 prospectus for the National Capital Area, but only one swimming pool was ever built—at Camp 4—due to a lack of funding. The Camp 4 pool was constructed with private funding donated by Lilith J. Bowman of Washington D.C. The new swimming pool opened in 1956, east of the camp parking lot. It initially served only white campers, but in the late 1950s, an integration plan developed by Family Services, Inc. allowed for the pool's alternating use by white and Black campers from Camps 1 and 4. Full integration of Camps 1 and 4 happened sometime in the late 1950s. The NPS removed the pool in 2002, after Family Services

136. Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History,* 18.

Figure 113: Sedimentation and vegetation have rendered the Lake 3 swimming area unusable. The historic concrete wading area is filled with debris, and the concrete walls are covered in vegetation. The earthen dam remains intact, visible in the background of the photo. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 114: This historic concrete dam, built by the CCC, services the lake for Camps 2 and 5. (Spencer et al. 2021)

ceased operations at the camp and it fell into disrepair.[137]

Throughout the period of significance, all lakes also featured wood L-shaped or H-shaped docks, in addition to any dams. Such dock designs created separate areas for swimmers of different skills, and sheltered swimmers from boaters who were using the outlying areas of the lakes. These docks were replaced with floating metal docks, first in the 1980s and later in the mid-to-late 2000s.

EXISTING

All five cabin camps retain the dams and artificial lakes created during the period of significance. However, silting and vegetation have rendered several of the lakes unusable for swimming and boating.

Lakes 2/5 and 3 retain their concrete bottom wading and swimming areas.

At Lake 3, a small rock and concrete dam in the outflow channel was built at an unknown date. Historically, this small dam maintained a higher water level in Lake 3 higher than is present today. The Lake 3 swimming area appears to be silted; however, the water levels are much lower than they were historically, resulting in this appearance.

The non-historic docks, added in the 2000s, remain in place.

EVALUATION

The design of the lakes and dams, including their materiality and shape, remains consistent with the period of significance. The dams have been repaired over time and are maintained as historic resources. However, significant silting and vegetation growth hinder the historic use and legibility of the lakes. Sedimentation and vegetative growth do not constitute a loss of integrity, as these are easily reversible. Thus, careful treatments can reverse this sedimentation and restore the character of the camps' constructed water features.

CONSTRUCTED WATER FEATURES - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Dams (earthen and concrete)	Contributing
Artificial Lakes (used for recreation)	Contributing
Docks (modern plastic and metal replacements)	Non-contributing - Compatible

137. "National Capital Park Preliminary Prospectus [MISSION 66]," Pages 55-56, 1956, in Record Group 79, Box 14, Folder A9815, National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Devlin, *Segregation in Virginia*, 284-86. Historian Sarah Amy Leach lists 1958 as the pool completion date in her 1989 NR nomination for the camp. This date is incorrect; see Kuhn and Grosbeck, *Administrative History,* 66.

Small-Scale Features

Small-scale features are the elements that provide detail and diversity, combined with function and aesthetics, to a landscape.

Little is known about the small-scale features that may have existed in the cultural landscapes prior to the construction of the cabin camps. Such features almost certainly were related to settlement, farming, mining, and logging. With the creation of Chopawamsic RDA in the 1930s, NPS staff and CCC laborers designed and constructed the initial historic small-scale features for the cabin camps. Most small-scale features were periodically replaced over time, in keeping with the continued use of the camps during and after the period of significance. For ease of discussion, the history of each small-scale feature is discussed in its own category below.

Note: The list of small-scale features in this section is not exhaustive. Rather, this section focuses on giving an overview of contributing feature types that were found within the camp landscapes during the period of significance. For a full enumeration of small-scale features, see the corresponding CLI for each camp.

Drinking Fountains

HISTORIC

Drinking fountains have been an essential element of camp design since the RDA's construction. Once the CCC established a clean, efficient water system, including water towers and utility lines, workers built drinking fountains. These were located within each unit and the camp core, often near the dining hall. The original drinking fountains installed within the camps consisted of hollowed-out, peeled logs decorated with wrought-iron strapping. These were set into concrete footings and surrounded by a raised masonry base. Each log was plumbed with a stainless-steel basin and bubbler at the top, and featured a spigot on the side sited over a French drain.

As the logs rotted away, they were gradually replaced with newer, more durable models. These newer models tended to be less rustic in design and verged towards Modernist aesthetics.[138] The first recorded drinking fountain replacements occurred concurrent with Army Corps of Engineers and Mission 66 improvements to the camps in the late 1940s and early 1950s. Between 1949 and 1952, the park installed hexagonal drinking fountains at the lake in Camp 3, and at the swimming pool in Camp 4.[139] These deployed a standard design used by the National Capital Parks at most parks under their management. However, in a 1962 letter, Superintendent L.T. Davenport noted the hexagonal model was not satisfactory and

138. [WAJ], "Drinking Fountain Camp-3F," January 18, 1938, PRWI Folder "3345, 3309, 5422, 3336, 3243, 3259, 7518."
139. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 67, 161.

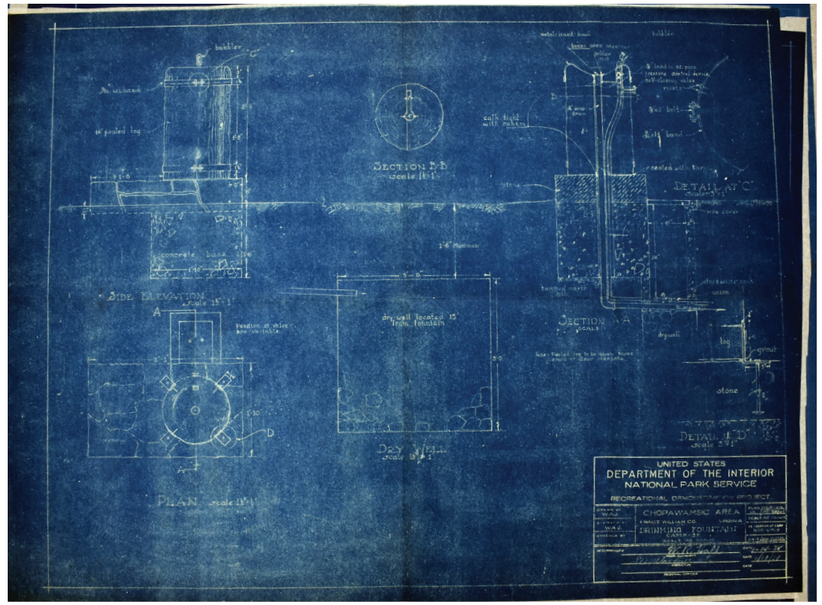


Figure 81: This blueprint of a drinking fountain for Camp 3 shows the typical log drinking fountains that the CCC constructed at all five cabin camps. These were later replaced. (PRWI 3336)

was prone to cracking "all the way around, about halfway up."[140]

In the same letter, Davenport praised a different concrete model developed by the park for use at the cabin camps. This model had apparently been in use for several years by this point, although the only known use of it at the cabin camps was in the units of Camp 4.[141] The success of this model prompted former Superintendent Ira B. Lykes (1939-1951) to submit the model to the Park Practice Program, a design and planning program that published construction drawings as exemplars for other parks. Lykes attributed the model to a Mercer Garrison and noted that no plans were drawn (prior to his submission to the program), and each model was constructed on site. By 1960, Lykes was serving

140. L.T. Davenport to Theodore T. Smith, "Drinking Fountain Plan," in RG 79, Box 7, Folder D46 "Other Structures, 11/58-2/64," National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
141. Ira Lykes to L.T. Davenport, June 13, 1960 in RG 79, Box 7, Folder D46 "Other Structures, 11/58-2/64," National Archives and Records Administration, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Patti Kuhn and John Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, National Register of Historic Places Nomination (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service), 2012): 7-17. This NR notes that the drinking fountain model in Camp 4 was installed "in the 1960s."

Figure 82: The caption of this photo (taken circa 1938) reads "water fountains in camps are sanitary and modern." (PRWI 7114)

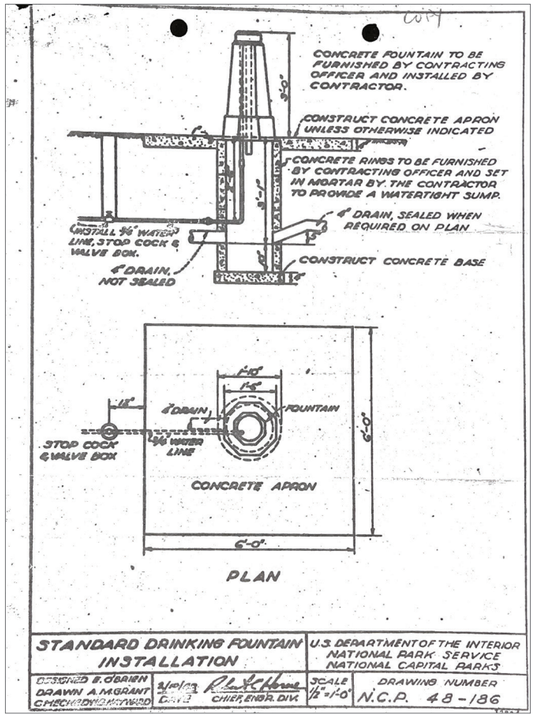


Figure 84: This standard drinking fountain model was used across units administered by the National Capital Parks, including at Prince William Forest Park. Staff installed these drinking fountains at the lake at Camp 3 and at the pool at Camp 4. (NARA Philadelphia RG 79, Box 7, Folder D46)

as chief of the Park Practice Program, meaning that the concrete model used in Camp 4 was likely first installed sometime between 1945 and 1951, after World War II and before he left the park.[142]

The draft CLI prepared by Spencer et al. in 2021 speculates that the concrete drinking fountains in Camp 4 were installed circa 1948-1949, corroborating this assertion.[143] This CLI described the model:

> The square base is two tiered with the smaller square base supporting a square shaft. The shaft in turn supports the water basin which extends beyond the shaft and is chamfered at the corners. Rising from the basin is the metal water supply pipe as well as on/off valve. Set within the bottom of the basin is the drain.[144]

Over time, most drinking fountains ceased to work, and many were replaced after the period of significance. Many of these improvements likely occurred circa 2005, when the park switched to the Prince William County municipal water supply.[145]

EXISTING

Nearly all drinking fountains within camp units have been replaced since the period of significance. Remnant historic fountains can be found in Camps 3 and 4. One non-functional hexagonal fountain is located at the beach in Camp 3. Seven pedestal-type concrete fountains are located throughout Camp 4.

All other camps feature newer models (typically with accessible designs) made of steel or aggregate concrete. These non-historic models have been placed in similar locations as the historic models, such as within camp units, or adjacent to the dining hall or swimming areas.

142. "Drinking Fountain," B-3352, National Capital Parks, National Park Service in Park Practice Program, December 1960, http://npshistory.com/newsletters/park_practice/design/basic_facilities/B-3352.pdf.
143. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 64.
144. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 132.
145. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 60.

Drinking fountains contribute to the camp scene, but the non-historic alternatives detract from the rustic camp setting.

Flagpoles

HISTORIC

Flagpoles are an important part of camp life, serving a largely ceremonial purpose. Flag-raising ceremonies mark the start and end of each day while the camps are in use, and the flagpoles mark the gathering place for campers to congregate before meals in the dining hall.

The original flagpoles used at the cabin camps were simply log poles equipped with a halyard that was used to raise the flag. They were placed primarily at dining halls and administration buildings within the cabin camps, but were also located at some camp units, swimming area beaches, and playing fields. Flagpoles in camp units allowed campers to display unit flags, while flagpoles at beaches and playing fields frequently signaled to campers if that facility was open.

Over time, many of the wooden flagpoles have been replaced with metal alternatives that departed from the rustic wooden originals. Bedell and Kuhn note in their 2011 National Register Nomination for the Prince William Forest Park Historic District that, "although the locations of the flagpoles have not changed since they were initially erected, the flagpoles themselves have been replaced over the years owing to deterioration."[146]

EXISTING

Extant flagpoles are located at all dining halls and at some playing fields. All of the flagpoles have been replaced with metal versions, but many retain their historic locations. Despite the changes in material, these flagpoles contribute to the rustic character of the cabin camps.

146. Kuhn and Bedell, *Prince William Forest Park Historic District*, 7-18.

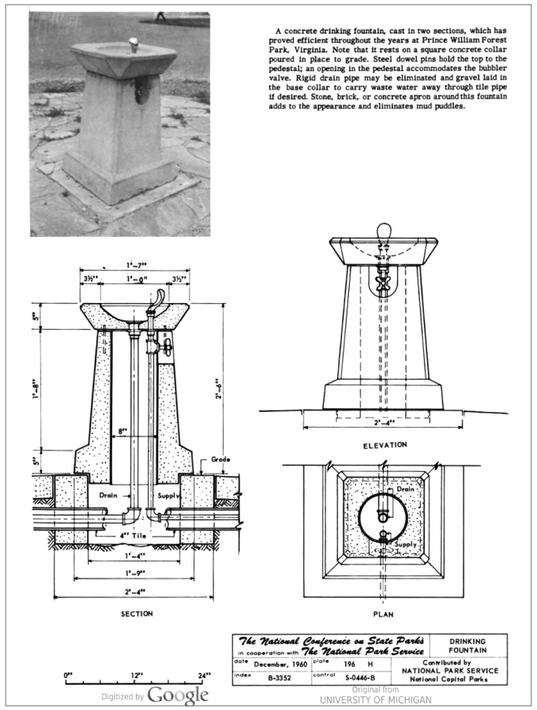


Figure 83: This concrete drinking fountain was developed by park staff for use in the cabin camps between 1945 and 1952. It was later published in the Park Practice Program as a model drinking fountain. (Park Practice Program, National Park Service, December 1960)

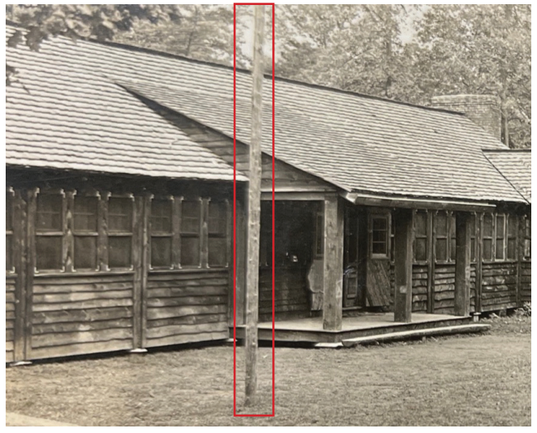


Figure 85: The original flagpoles (noted in red) used at the cabin camps were simply log poles equipped with a halyard. Pictured is the flagpole at Camp 3, date unknown. (PRWI 1078)

Furniture

HISTORIC

Designs for camp furniture comprised 30 pages of Albert Good's foundational publication, Buildings and Structures, indicating its integral role in camp design and life. At Chopawamsic RDA, the CCC constructed the benches and tables at all camps. Although no plans were located to indicate the exact design of these features, historic photos indicate that they resembled the extant wooden furniture inside and outside of camp buildings. Typical benches consisted of a low plank seat that was supported by two vertical ends and horizontal bracing. Typical tables featured a square tabletop and X-shaped bracing connected with mortise-and-tenon joinery.

Historic photographs from the 1930s and 1940s do not show picnic tables within camps; rather, interior and porch furnishings, such as tables and benches, were brought out onto lawns within camp units or outside of other buildings. In the case of Camp 3, campers brought dining hall benches outside for a weekly chapel service.[147]

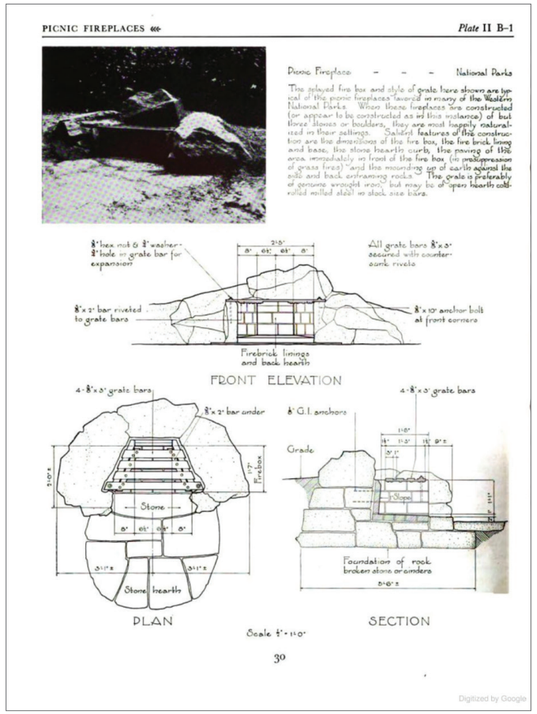


Figure 115: A similar picnic fireplace design was built at Cabin Camp 3 during initial camp construction (Good, Park and Recreation Structures, Part II, 30)

EXISTING

Many examples of historic furnishings remain in camp buildings and structures. These include the benches with plank seats, vertical ends, and horizontal bracing, and the tables with a square tabletop and X-shaped bracing. Some extant benches and tables may date to the period of significance, while others were likely in-kind replacements. These are contributing features to the historic character of the camp landscape.

Other permanent benches are located adjacent to swimming areas and playing fields. Originally, such benches would have been similar to campfire circle seating and consisted of logs or logs with plank seating. However, these extant benches feature plank seating mounted on concrete or masonry piers. The materiality of these piers is consistent with similar piers used underneath

147. PRWI 7112, Prince William Forest Park Collections, Triangle, Virginia.

Figure 86: Campers at Camp 3 construct an impromptu shelter for a theatrical performance in 1938. Other props include Rustic-style camp benches carried outside from nearby buildings. (PRWI 7126)

Figure 87: At many camps, staff hosted outdoor gatherings (such as this one in 1938) using benches from adjacent buildings. (PRWI 7112)

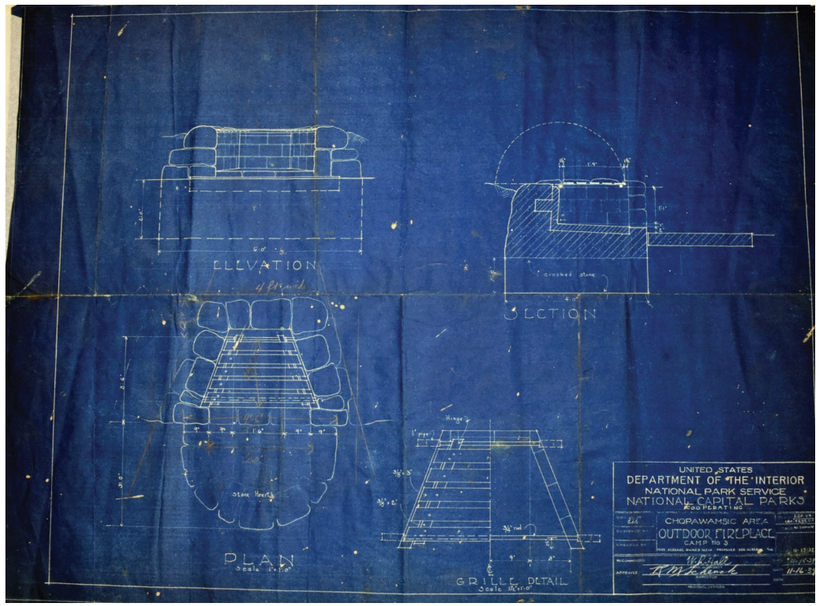


Figure 88: This outdoor fireplace, designed for Camp 3, was the only grill, firepit, or fireplace (other than the campfire circles) within the cabin camps. (PRWI 3259)

buildings and structures installed by the OSS and Mission 66 workers. Such features may be considered contributing, if confirmed by further research. However, the planks of these benches were almost certainly replaced over time. Moreover, the concrete character of the piers is not in keeping with the original rustic design intent of the camps, although it is consistent with the changing design principles associated with Mission 66.

All other furnishings were added after the period of significance. Picnic tables have been added over time to several camps, especially at Camp 3, where cabins are now rented individually. Most tables are metal or plastic and are not compatible with the rustic aesthetic. However, there are some wooden picnic tables that, while not present during the period of significance, are consistent with the historic Rustic-style character of the cabin camps' landscapes.

Firepits and Grills

HISTORIC

Cabin Camp 3 was the only cabin camp to feature individual firepits originally; the other four camps only featured firepits at the campfire circles. Because Camp 3 was purpose-built for mothers and families, it featured facilities for smaller groups to gather and picnic within camp units. One of the only remaining picnic firepits (referred to by Albert Good as picnic fireplaces) is located in Unit C of Cabin Camp 3. It was constructed between 1939 and 1940, based on a design featured in *Park and Recreation Structures*. It featured a splayed brick and stone firebox with a central steel grate, "typical of the picnic fireplaces favored in many of the Western National Parks.[148] The design, as adapted to Chopawamsic, included a firebox, oblong paving in front of the hearth, and the mounding of rocks or boulders over the firebox.[149]

148. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part II,* 30.
149. Leach, *Chopawamsic RDA - Camp 131 Orenda/SP-26 Historic District*, National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, United States Departent of the Interior, 1989), 7-8.

EXISTING

Unit C of Cabin Camp 3 features the only remnants of a historic stone fireplace constructed during the period of significance. However, the firebox and grate have been removed, and only the paving remains. Its design is consistent with the historic plan in Figure 105. In the decades following the period of significance, individual firepits, grills, or fire rings were added to many of the cabin camps. At Camps 1, 2, 4, and 5, such fire rings are limited to camp host houses and staff areas.[150] Circa 1999, Cabin Camp 3 shifted to individual cabin rentals, and individuals grills and campfire rings were added to each rental cabin. All fire pits and grills—other than the remnant in Camp 3—are non-contributing features.

Signage

HISTORIC

Albert Good and Frank Waugh dedicated considerable space in their publications to the subject of signage within rustic cabin camp landscapes.[151] Taken in sum, their guidance recommended good landscape design over signage; a well-designed landscape would provide the necessary guidance without the need for a sign. Instead, the landscape's views and vistas, close cluster arrangements, and intelligently designed roads could obviate the need for signs. However, both men conceded the need for limited directional, regulatory, and interpretive signage. Such signs should be simple in construction, employing native materials.

Few photos exist to indicate the design of signs at the cabin camps during the period of significance, with the exception of the main sign for the Chopawamsic RDA entrance. One photo, featured in a 1952 brochure published by the Family and Child Services of Washington, offers some insight into the Rustic-style design of early

150. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 3 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 183-86.
151. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation,* 48-49; Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part I,* 39-56; Good, *Park Structures and Park Facilities,* 23-30.

Figure 89: An example of an early camp sign near Camp 3; photograph taken in 1952. (Excerpt from brochure in NARA Philadelphia RG 79, Box 13, Folder "Camping Programs, 1952")

camp signs. This sign featured routed white letters and arrows and was mounted on a wooden post with its bark removed. Such a design followed the guidance issued by Good and Waugh. It is likely that individual camp user groups also constructed or designed their own signage, but documentation of this is limited.

A standardized sign program was implemented circa 1959, as part of the Mission 66 program. Blueprints from this era feature similarly rustic signs, but with modern, standardized reinterpretations. These signs generally use dimensional lumber instead of logs, and are consistent in sizing, lettering, and construction. Camp entrance signs featured L-shaped supports and hanging directional panels. Within camp units, signs featured trapezoidal planks or slabs with routed letters. The angled edges offered a period-appropriate Modernist take on the Rustic Style of the 1930s and 1940s.[152]

152. "Sign Planning Drawings," Blueprints and Sketches, 1959, PRWI 15791, Prince William Forest Park Archives, Triangle, Virginia; "Sign collection of black and white photos of Prince William Park Signs," Photographic album, [1960s], PRWI 2226, Prince William Forest Park Archives, Triangle, Virginia.

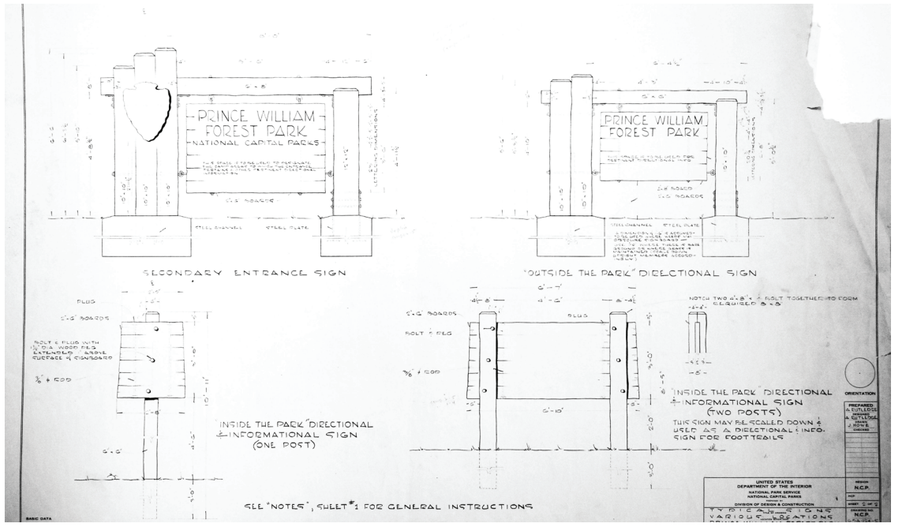


Figure 90: Mission 66 implemented a standardized visual language across the park circa 1959. Signs within camp units would have resembled the bottom two designs (PRWI 15791).

Figure 91: This Mission 66-era sign at an unknown camp employed the historic aesthetics of Rustic-style design, but featured angled edges and was constructed using dimensional lumber. (PRWI 2226)

EXISTING

In the decades after the period of significance, camp mangers continued to add and replace signs. These included the addition of non-historic metal traffic signs and interpretive waysides.

Today, the cabin camps feature a variety of both Rustic-style and non-rustic signs. Most signs consist of brown painted or stained wood with routed white lettering. However, the current collection of signs is not cohesive, and features many different styles, manners of construction, and fonts. Signage features that are not historic but nevertheless adhere to the camps' rustic historic character can be considered non-contributing but compatible elements.

Unsympathetic regulatory metal signage and poorly located interpretive waysides detract from the rustic camp scene and are non-contributing and incompatible. The State Historic Preservation Office required the installation of waysides that interpret the camps' historic construction methods, in order to mitigate the effect of installing synthetic shakes on the camp buildings. For more on waysides, see the Treatment section of this report.

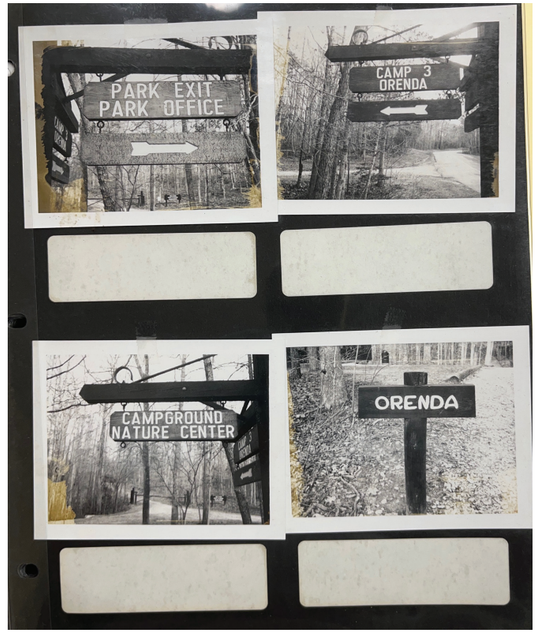


Figure 92: Mission 66-era signs at camp entrances featured ornamental wood and metal bracing, from which wooden panels hung. (PRWI 2226)

Gates, Fencing, Bollards, and other Barriers

HISTORIC

Obstacles and barriers have historically served an important role within camps, serving to divide vehicular spaces from pedestrian ones. Design guidance for these features was first codified by Meinecke, who recommended using obstacles sparingly. He emphasized that all obstacles should be made of native materials and should be placed naturalistically (never in linear arrangements). Meinecke's guidance was codified by the U.S. Forest Service (USFS) in 1935, in the publication *Public Camp Manual*. This manual served as a source for Albert Good and the National Park Service's own "Barriers, Walls, and Fences," section of *Park Structures and Park Facilities* (1935) and *Park and Recreation Structures* (1938). The USFS included several illustrations of proper barrier uses. Describing a policy on barriers, the USFS wrote:

> Rocks, logs, ditches, or other more artificial barriers may be employed, but all of them detract to a certain extent from the appearance of the camp. Promiscuous use of rocks in some camps is especially reprehensible. Obstacles should never be used except where they are *absolutely necessary to confine the automobile to the roads or spurs* [emphasis in original]. Even then, their use should be kept to an absolute minimum. The man "on the job" must exercise judgment in determining the amount and type of obstacle material to use. Native local materials should be used whenever possible. Rocks are entirely out of place in some camps, especially on a dense timbered flat where obstacles (if any) should be preferably of logs, with only an occasional rock. In other words, the camp planner should regard obstacles as detrimental, and avoid them whenever possible. As a general rule, we should regard rock obstacles in any quantity as the least desirable type and use them only where other types are not available or even less suitable. In many cases it will be highly desirable to resort to the planting of

Figure 93: By the time the OSS arrived at Camp 3, CCC workers had installed rustic wooden fences that served as barriers. Over time, these fences likely rotted away and were not replaced. (NARA Philadelphia RG 226, Entry 85, Box 27, F: 445)

Figure 94: Wooden bollards were used as vehicle barriers within the camps, including in Camp 2, shown here in 1952. (Excerpt from brochure in NARA Philadelphia RG 79, Box 13, Folder "Camping Programs, 1952")

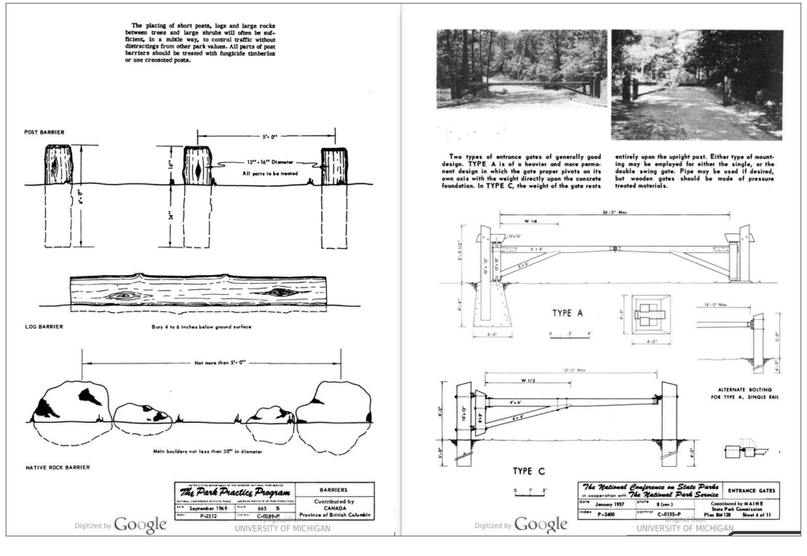


Figure 95: Promoted by E.P. Meinecke, the United States Forest Service, and the National Park Service, the informal practice of using rustic barriers was eventually formalized into the Park Practice Program in 1969, having been used in parks for over 30 years. (Parks Practice Program P-2312)

trees and shrubs where they may serve as obstacle material later on.[153]

Such complex guidance, however, was not easily applied by laypersons, and it was not codified in CCC training manuals. At Chopawamsic, CCC workers followed RDA guidance and installed gates at camp entrances and at the start of the truck trails, near dining halls and other road spurs. Such barriers prevented vehicle access to the pedestrian-oriented camp areas. Gates consisted of wooden timbers and featured both single-swing and double-swing arms. In at least one instance, at Camp 3, the CCC built rustic log fencing to separate the administration building from vehicle traffic going to the dining hall loading dock (***see Figure 112***). This construction was visible in the backgrounds of the OSS' propaganda films, produced during World War II.[154]

Some evidence of other rustic barriers can be seen in camp photographs. These include intentionally-placed boulders, log posts, and horizontal log barriers (***see Figures 113 and 114***). In most cases, as wooden elements rotted away, they were replaced with more durable alternatives, including concrete bollards that remain in place today.

EXISTING

There is no cohesive strategy of barriers within the camps today. Contributing barriers are limited to the rustic camp gates, which have been continually replaced in-kind since the period of significance. Other barriers appear to have been installed on an as-needed basis in the decades after the period of significance. These non-contributing barriers do not adhere to the historic design guidance issued by Meinecke and others. Non-contributing barriers include concrete bollards, dimensional lumber bollards, post-and-chain gates, boulders that are not sympathetically placed within the landscapes, and metal pipes or poles.

153. United State Forest Service, *Public Camp Manual California: Region Five* (United States Forest Service, United States Department of the Interior, 1935), 4-5, 13-15.
154. [OSS Basic Military Training], Film, National Archives RG226, Entry 85, Box 27, F: 445.

EVALUATION

Small-scale features have been continually replaced at the cabin camps in the decades since the period of significance. In most cases, historic small-scale features have been replaced in-kind and/or in the same locations as their predecessors. These contributing and non-contributing (but compatible) features include signage, gates, drinking fountains, furniture, and flagpoles.

Other small-scale features, such as fire hydrants, modern bollards, utilities, interpretive waysides, and firepits/grills, are generally necessary to camp operations, yet their contemporary designs and/or locations are non-contributing and incompatible. Across the camps, these features detract from the collective integrity of feeling and setting conveyed by the majority of the other landscape characteristics. However, these non-contributing features do not dominate the landscape, or detract from the overall integrity of the camps.

Overall, the extant small-scale features (including in-kind replacements) convey the design intent with respect to this landscape characteristic.

Figure 116: A typical contributing concrete drinking fountain located in Cabin Camp 4. These were added between 1945 and 1952. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 117: The flagpoles within the cabin camps are considered contributing landscape characteristics. They have been replaced since the period of significance, but remain in the same locations and are integral to camp life. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 118: Typical cabin furniture. Tables and benches of similar style have been used within the camps since they opened to the public. They are contributing features to the camp scene. (Torkelson 2022).

Figure 119: The masonry base shown here is the only remaining portion of a contributing fireplace used in Camp 3. The firebox and grate have been replaced with a non-historic cylindrical unit. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 120: A typical camp sign at Camp 3. These signs are regularly replaced and are non-contributing but compatible, based on their design that is in keeping with the Rustic-style principles of the historic camps. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 121: A typical entrance gate at Camp 3. These gates have been replaced in their historic locations and continue to limit vehicular traffic into the camps. They are considered contributing features to the character of the camp landscapes, despite being replaced in-kind over time. (Torkelson 2022)

SMALL-SCALE FEATURES - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Concrete drinking fountains (Camp 4) (Count: 4)	Contributing
Hexagonal drinking fountain (Camp 3) (Count: 1)	Contributing
Flagpoles (including locations) (Count: 6)	Contributing
CCC/WPA-era wooden furniture inside and outside cabins (e.g. tables and benches)	Contributing
Remnant Fireplace (Cabin Camp 3 only) (Count: 1)	Contributing
Rustic wooden signage (including replacements in-kind)	Contributing
Gates (including replacements in-kind)	Non-contributing - Compatible
Non-historic drinking fountains (all camps)	Non-contributing
Non-historic metal or plastic picnic tables	Non-contributing
Non-historic wooden or metal chairs and tables inside and outside cabins	Non-contributing
Firepits and Grills	Non-contributing
Fences	Non-contributing
Bollards and other modern barriers	Non-contributing
Metal and plastic sigange	Non-contributing

Archeological Sites

Archeological sites are defined as the location of ruins, traces, or deposited artifacts in the landscape, and are evidenced by the presence of either surface or subsurface features.

HISTORIC

No archeological investigations were conducted as part of this cultural landscape report. The Louis Berger Group, Inc. conducted archeological investigations of Prince William Forest Park between 1999 and 2004. Their two-volume report identifies dozens of archeological sites throughout the park, including many within or adjacent to the cabin camps (according to the project boundaries established for this CLR). These sites generally relate to: prehistoric occupation by Indigenous peoples; 18th to 20th century agriculture and homesteading; and 19th and 20th century extractive industries. For more on the history of archeological sites within the study area, refer to that two-volume report.[155]

Remnants of three cemeteries associated with pre-park sites are located in the vicinity of Cabin Camps 2 and 4. All three cemeteries were associated with pre-park families whose homesteads were located within the future park boundaries; the cemeteries are the only extant features associated with those homesteads.[156]

Cabin Camp 2 features two cemeteries dating to the mid-19th century; they are referred to as the Carney Family Cemetery and the "ballfield cemetery." The Carney Family were the land owners; however, those buried there were likely tenant farmers. The so-called "ballfield cemetery" is named based on its proximity to the Camp 2 playing field. It has no confirmed association with a specific family; however, the draft CLI for Camp 2 (completed in 2021) suggested that this cemetery may be associated with the Jacobs family.[157]

Circa 1990, a miscommunication among park staff resulted in the demolition of the Unit A latrine (Type A) at Camp 3. The park manages the latrine's ruins as an archeological site.

Cabin Camp 4 features one cemetery dating to the early 19th century, referred to as the Payne Family Cemetery. This cemetery likely contained the graves of over 20 individuals. Documentary evidence has cast doubt on whether the cemetery should be attributed to the Payne family (whose family members did not actually occupy the land they owned) or to tenant farmers who resided on the land.[158]

Prior documentation indicates that (at the time of those surveys) each site contained several headstones, footstones, unmarked graves, and funerary plantings (e.g. lily-of-the-valley, *Convallaria majalis*) that denoted cemetery and grave locations. In many instances, depressions in the ground also indicated burial sites. The Payne Family Cemetery at Camp 4 showed signs of significant disturbances, likely due to its proximity to camp buildings and structures.

EXISTING

All three cemeteries are obscured by successional vegetation, fallen trees, and leaf detritus. These sites are largely indiscernible to the public and were not inventoried during fieldwork for this CLR.

155. Bedell et al., "Few Know that Such a Place Exists," Parts I-II.
156. Bedell et al., *"Few Know that Such a Place Exists,"* Part II, 107, 126; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 154-155; Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 170-72.
157. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 154-55.
158. Spencer et al., *Cabin Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory* [DRAFT, 2021], 170-72.

Figure 96: (top) This historic image of Camp 3 shows the site of the historic water tower (annotated in red), between the dining hall and present-day maintenance yard. The traces of this structure are considered a contributing archaeological resource. (Excerpt from PRWI 698)

To date, the park has not undertaken any archaeological investigations of the CCC camp areas. Future documentation should consider these sites for inclusion as contributing archaeological resources.

Camp 3 contains several above ground traces of its former water tower. At an unknown date, this historic resource was demolished and replaced with a well and spring system outside the boundaries of the cultural landscape. The site is considered a contributing resource to the cultural landscape.[159]

EVALUATION

Identified archeological sites—related to the study area's history of pre-park settlement—have likely remained relatively undisturbed since the creation of the cabin camps in the 1930s. As a result, these archeological sites likely retain integrity to their respective eras, prior to the construction of the organized group camps. The Camp 3 water tower site remains in place adjacent to Camp 3 and is a contributing resource to the study area.

However, most other identified archeological sites pre-date the camps' period of significance and are non-contributing features for the purposes of this CLR's period of significance for the cabin camps. The three cemetery sites are individually managed as cultural resources by the park.

159. Gregg Kneipp (Resources manager) in conversation with Doug Davidson (MTCE Supervisor) by email, July 14th, 2023.

ARCHEOLOGICAL SITES - TYPICAL CHARACTER-DEFINING FEATURES	
FEATURE DESCRIPTION	***CONTRIBUTING STATUS***
Camp 3 water tower site	Contributing
Camp 3 Unit A latrine site	Contributing
Cemeteries	Managed as Cultural Resources

Figure 122: (above) View to the west of the Carney Family Cemetery in Cabin Camp 2, showing a stone grave marker. The overgrown vegetation within this cemetery is typical of the other cemeteries across the park and is indicative of conditions at the cemetery circa 2021. (Spencer et al., Camp 2 Cultural Landscape Inventory, 2021)

Figure 123: (left) This fallen headstone, found at the Payne Family Cemetery in Cabin Camp 4, is typical of the 2021 existing conditions within the camps' three extant cemeteries and archeological sites. (Spencer et al., Camp 4 Cultural Landscape Inventory, 2021)

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PART 2: TREATMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

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Introduction

According to National Park Service policy, a cultural landscape report (CLR) serves as the primary supporting document guiding the treatment of cultural landscapes and is required before significant interventions are undertaken. Treatment is the collective set of actions taken within a cultural landscape to protect and preserve the resources and characteristics that contribute to its historic character. Treatment guidance may range from broad guidelines, principles, and policies to site-specific tasks. The overall goal of treatment is to provide a basis for the sound stewardship of the cultural landscapes according to the *National Park Service Cultural Resource Management Guidelines* (1997) and the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties* (1996).

As defined by the National Park Service, the purpose of a cultural landscape treatment plan is to create guidelines for preserving and enhancing historic landscape characteristics and features within the context of contemporary uses. Part II of this CLR provides treatment guidelines for the collection of five cabin camps, based on the Part I findings with respect to their shared historic features and recurring landscape issues. The recommendations were developed through discussion and collaboration with park staff and resource specialists and were refined based on a treatment workshop convened at the park in September 2023.

The treatment recommendations are also informed by technical assistance from Blake Troxel, an independent research ecologist who consulted on this project. He conducted site visits to each of the camps, assessed dominant plant types, identified invasive species, and provided a summary assessment of forest health and canopy cover (included as an appendix to this report).

Treatment Framework

Enabling Legislation

Treatment for a cultural landscape is subject to park missions, policies, and enabling legislation. Prince William Forest Park has no single comprehensive piece of enabling legislation; instead, it was created from a series of legislative efforts and Executive Orders issued between 1932 and 1948. The first such order, the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932, authorized land acquisition by purchase, condemnation, or otherwise for emergency relief projects outside the District of Columbia. All ensuing efforts focused on emergency relief, land conservation, and resettlement, eventually resulting in the Chopawamsic Recreational Demonstration Area, which included all five cabin camps.

Public Law 2852, 56 Stat. 326, passed on June 6, 1942, requiring all RDA projects to be maintained for "public park, recreational and conservation purposes"; this legislation confirmed the camps' long-term recreational land uses. Most RDAs were transferred back to state ownership in the 1940s; however, President Harry S Truman issued an executive order declaring that Chopawamsic would remain federal property because of its outstanding value to recreational organizations in the nation's capital. For more on the park's enabling legislation and executive orders, see the December 2013 Foundation Document, Appendix A.

Definition of Policies, Guidelines, and Standards

The treatment and use of the cabin camp cultural landscapes must be considered within a framework of applicable laws, agreements, and policies. These mandates govern various management issues, including preserving, protecting, and interpreting cultural resources. Key laws, regulations, and functional requirements that apply to the recommended treatments include the following:

> Treatment for the cultural landscape is subject to the **National Park Service Organic Act (1916)**, which established the National Park Service and defined its purpose: "to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wildlife therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such a manner and by such a means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations."[1]
>
> Any landscape treatments at the cabin camps are also subject to the **National Historic Preservation Act of 1966**, as amended. This act protects buildings, sites, districts, structures, and objects with significant scientific, historical, or cultural value. Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act requires federal agencies to consider the effects of their undertakings on properties listed or potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. All actions affecting a park's cultural resources must comply with this law, implemented through 36 CFR 800.[2]
>
> **Director's Order #28, Cultural Resource Management (NPS-28)** guides resource management and landscape preservation, including biotic systems, defined as plant and animal communities associated with human settlement and use. NPS-28 directs the management of specimen vegetation—such as trees, shrubs, and orchards—to ensure health and vigor and, if appropriate, provide for propagation of the next generation, especially for rare plants or those unavailable in commerce. For natural systems, NPS-28 calls for managing landscape patterns to allow for natural dynamics. To avoid spreading and disrupting

1. 16 USC Sec. 1—4 (August 25, 1916) and Sec. 403 (May 22, 1926).
2. 16 USC Sec. 470 (October 15, 1966).

adjacent natural plant communities, exotic plant species in cultural landscapes should be monitored and controlled. In addition to biotic systems, NPS-28 states that historic circulation features are to be rehabilitated to accommodate health and safety codes in ways that minimize impacts on historic character. NPS-28 directs the NPS to comply with the substantive and procedural requirements described in the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation; the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties with Guidelines for Treatment of Cultural Landscapes; and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties with Guidelines for Preserving, Rehabilitating, Restoring, and Reconstructing Historic Buildings (NPS 1998b).

Executive Order 11593, Protection and Enhancement of the Cultural Environment (1971), mandates that "the Federal Government shall provide leadership in preserving, restoring, and maintaining the historic and cultural environment of the Nation."

The **National Park Service Management Policies (2006)** establishes policies that guide the management of the entire national park system. According to the document, these policies "set a firm foundation for stewardship that will continue to earn the trust and confidence of the American people."[3]

Park Planning

The National Park Service expresses its priorities and goals for managing its resources through its publicly reviewed planning documents, including General Management Plans, Master Plans, Development Plans, and Foundation Documents. These planning documents articulate the park's purpose and fundamental resources, establish long-term goals and strategies, and provide public input and review opportunities. This CLR's guidance is informed by the objectives outlined in those documents.

Prince William Forest Park drafted and approved a General Management Plan (GMP) in 1999. Among its objectives related to the cabin camps, the GMP noted that, as cultural resources, the cabin camps would "require substantive rehabilitation," setting the state for future preservation efforts. Successful rehabilitation treatments would "preserv[e] and interpre[t] features from [the RDA/CCC] historical era while reducing the operating and maintenance costs associated with the camp."[4] Among the many reasons for this strategy was a loss in revenue associated with longer-term user groups throughout the 1990s, as well as the high costs of maintenance. The GMP concurred with the findings of an earlier 1984 Visitor Use and Facilities Survey that presented six potential futures for the cabin camps. Like the GMP, the survey's preferred option was to preserve group rental use, limit individual and family rentals (to Camp 3), rehabilitate (not preserve) historic structures, and consider phasing out or removing non-historic camps (that is, Camp 5).[5] To facilitate these goals, historian Sara Amy Leach drafted "Maintenance and Design Guidelines for Prince William Forest Park" in 1988. Although some aspects of these guidelines are outdated today, their overall principles and goals continue to shape and inform park decisions.[6]

Recent preservation and rehabilitation efforts were codified in the 2012 park foundation document. A foundation document serves as the underlying guidance for all management and planning decisions in a national park system unit. It describes the core mission of the park unit by identifying the unit's purpose, significance, fundamental and important resources and values, interpretive themes, assessment of planning and data needs, special mandates and administrative commitments, and the unit's setting in the regional context. The 2012 PRWI Foundation Document identifies the park's purpose as follows:

> Prince William Forest Park offers recreational opportunities rooted in its legacy as the model for the New Deal-era recreational demonstration area program, and preserves, protects, and interprets a diverse array of natural and cultural resources.[7]

In that foundation document, each of the five cabin camps is defined as contributing to the park's fundamental resources and values. The foundation document calls for more research on cabin camp management and treatment; this cultural landscape report addresses that need from a landscape perspective to guide the camps' future management.

ONGOING AND FUTURE PLANNING EFFORTS

This cultural landscape report connects with ongoing preservation efforts outlined in an August 2019 *Resource Stewardship Strategy* (RSS). Erosion, deferred maintenance, and a lack of baseline documentation were among the principal issues, stressors, and threats identified in the report. As of 2023, ongoing park planning efforts will address erosion, maintenance, and planning needs for the cabin camp cultural landscapes in cooperation with regional staff.

As of Fall 2023, several projects are ongoing or planned at the cabin camps:

- All Cabin Camps
  - LiDAR scanning of all camp buildings (underway as of Fall 2023; other dates TBD)
  - Cabin Camp Preservation Maintenance Plan (PMP) (ongoing)
  - Bathymetric surveys and planning for future dredging efforts of lakes (ongoing)
  - Planning for dam repairs and stabilization (ongoing)
- Cabin Camp 1
  - Rehabilitate the interior and exterior of the dining hall (TBD)
- Cabin Camp 2
  - Rehabilitate the interior and exterior of the dining hall (FY25)
- Cabin Camp 3
  - Rehabilitate interior and exterior of dining hall
  - Historic Structure Report for dining hall (ongoing, to be completed by October 2024)
- Cabin Camp 5
  - Provide safe visitor access, reduce erosion, and install accessible pathways; currently in design (2023-2024)
  - Rehabilitate central bathhouses (2023-2024)
  - Rehabilitate the interior and exterior of the dining hall (TBD)
  - Rehabilitate 8 cabin foundations (FY24)

This CLR, paired with those concurrent and forthcoming projects, will ensure that all five cultural landscapes are preserved, and their condition is improved per the guidance of established treatment plans and guidelines.[8]

Summary of Stakeholder Feedback

In order to gain a range of perspectives to inform landscape treatments at the cabin camps, the CLR team interviewed current managers and current and historic park users. This engagement phase included interviews (conducted remotely) and a virtual survey of user groups (8 current; 1 historical); for a complete list of stakeholders, refer to Appendix A of this CLR. These stakeholder conversations informed the treatment recommendations.

3. *Management Policies 2006* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, 2006), 1.

4. *General Management Plan: Prince William Forest Park* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, 1999), iii.

5. *General Management Plan: Prince William Forest Park* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, 1999), 10; *Visitor Use and Facilities Survey for Cabin Camp 1-5* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1984), 27.

6. For more on preservation and rehabilitation efforts in the 1980s and 1990s, see Sara Amy Leach, *Maintenance and Design Guidelines for Prince William Forest Park* (Washington: DC, National Park Service, Department of the Interior, 1988).

7. *Foundation Document: Prince William Forest Park* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior, December 2013), 7.

8. *Prince William Forest Park Resource Stewardship Strategy Summary* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, Untied States Department of the Interior, August 2019) 11-12, 30-32.

Across the stakeholder interviews, several themes emerged:

- **The camps are valued for their historic integrity and original features.**
- **Some modernization of camp features is necessary to allow for continuity of use.**
- **Erosion and runoff are among the most pressing issues at the camps.**
- **Vegetation management, turf restoration, and loss of vegetative design intent are recurring concerns.**
- **Accessibility is a significant challenge in all camps.**
- **Lake conditions make recreation difficult.**

HISTORIC INTEGRITY + ORIGINAL FEATURES

All interviewees, including users and park staff, noted the significant value of the rustic camp amenities. Stakeholders frequently alluded to the feeling of being transported or removed from the outside world, including the encroaching suburban development around the park. The historic and natural features of each cabin camp convey this feeling. All stakeholders maintained that these qualities should be preserved and enhanced in the future.

MODERNIZATION + OTHER HEALTH/SAFETY NEEDS

Among the camp user groups interviewed for this CLR, nearly all noted the need for limited modernization of camp facilities. Such issues stemmed from contemporary expectations for life safety, privacy, and extreme heat, compared with expectations and experiences when the camps were built.

Suggestions for updated bathroom and shower facilities included installing individual stalls to offer privacy and meet modern youth protection standards. In the case of one facility in Camp 4, camp users also expressed support for adding hot water.

One user group expressed concerns about protecting campers on a day-to-day basis (e.g. preventing theft or trespass) and during more significant emergencies (e.g. a lockdown). They indicated that door locks and window shades would address these concerns.

Groups that have rented the camps in the summer noted that the historic use of screens and louvers in the cabins cannot meet the challenge of extreme heat induced by climate change. These groups noted the need for an air-conditioned space to cool campers in a health emergency.

In addition to modernizing shared facilities such as restrooms and showers, another group stressed the importance of creating informal gathering spaces for small groups. As articulated, this could be as simple as a circle of tree stumps or additional benches and picnic tables throughout the camp core and inside camp units.

EROSION + RUNOFF

All interviewees stressed the challenges of erosion and runoff at each camp. Park staff have varying opinions on how these conditions should be ameliorated: some advocate for additional turf restoration and the installation of water bars, while others encourage a more comprehensive look at vegetative change over time (including canopy, soil, and topsoil loss) as the primary culprit. Even as they diverged on the appropriate treatment for this issue, all interviewees stressed the need for further study and cooperation across departments. Erosion and runoff impact the camper experience, cause damage to historic structures, and affect the rustic landscape character.

VEGETATION MANAGEMENT + INTENT

Throughout the stakeholder interviews, discussions of vegetation management were often integrally connected with runoff and other cabin issues. Hazard[9] and mature trees have the potential to impact historic buildings and structures; as a result, trees within the camps have been removed but are seldom replaced. This has resulted in some of the camps feeling much more open and exposed (rather than part of a forest context), with minimal mature canopy trees, limited mid-story and understory plantings, and predominant turf. According to park staff, this shift in landscape character has been driven by a lack of resources, staffing, and the burdens of the compliance process. As with erosion, park staff recognize that vegetation management and rehabilitation of the historic landscape will require an interdisciplinary and systems approach.

ACCESSIBILITY

As camp users and staff often pointed out, accessibility at the cabin camps is a significant challenge. This is especially true of shared facilities within the camp core. Throughout the park, only one cabin unit in Camp 1 offers dedicated accessible facilities. Many user groups noted that they frequently carry campers in wheelchairs up stairs or over thresholds to enter buildings. Recently, park and regional staff undertook an accessibility study, which resulted in several short- and long-term solutions; park staff endorsed many of those proposals as treatment recommendations for this report.

LAKE CONDITIONS

In interviews, park staff often stressed frustration with the existing conditions of the lakes. Many noted that the park was established to provide recreational opportunities to campers and that lakes were a central organizing element of group camps. (In these conversations, “recreation” was understood to refer to boating and swimming.) Most lakes do not meet this need as they exist today. Limiting factors included muddy and weedy shorelines, shallow waterways, and a lack of easy trail access. Some user groups expressed similar frustrations; however, as swimming and boating have rarely been viable options during their tenures, most groups seemed more concerned with other issues, such as life safety and accessibility. In lieu of boating/swimming, one user group valued the alternative use of the lake(s) as an ecological classroom.

9. In defining a "hazard tree," the International Society of Arboriculture (ISA) requires that site managers assess a tree's level of risk by considering a) the tree's potential to fail and b) whether there is a target (people or property) that could be injured or damaged if the tree fails.

SWOT Analysis

A SWOT analysis is a strategic planning tool that helps identify current conditions (strengths/weaknesses) and future influences (opportunities/threats, both internal and external) for a specific park or system of parks in the present moment.

It allows NPS representatives and their partners to openly and creatively evaluate current and future contexts for park planning. This SWOT analysis reflects existing conditions and is shaped by both the Part I research and the stakeholder engagement interviews/surveys.

PRINCE WILLIAM FOREST PARK CABIN CAMPS	
STRENGTHS	**WEAKNESSES**
• Historic associations with various camp groups (e.g. FSA/FCS, OSS, CCC, etc.) and with the resonant historic themes of racial segregation • Overall integrity as rustic camp landscapes • Historic land use as group camps • Popularity with today's campers/camp user groups • Secluded, quiet character (no modern amenities; can unplug) • Affordable • Returning user groups year after year • Mature forest around the site and soft edges • Historic planted trees and shrubs adjacent to buildings • Variety of experiences offered across 5 camps (amenities, size, etc.) • Robust system of volunteer hosts and others who maintain and supervise daily operations at the camps • Extensive capacity, across 5 camps • Mix of individual cabin rentals and group camp rentals • Partnership with NatureBridge • Superintendent with deep knowledge of the park, extending back to years as park ranger • Proximity to D.C. and other population centers • Lakes as constructed water features • Commitment to in-house operations (as opposed to outsourcing too many functions to concessionaires) • Good forest health and limited invasive species within camp units	• Metropolitan region has transformed, growing to and around PRWI, changing the demands, uses, audiences, etc. • Limited resources and staffing (diminished in recent years) • Vast geography of the five camps • Lack of interpretation in the camps related to social history • Old utilities/original bathroom facilities (in some instances, no hot water) • Seasonal rentals (no year-round rentals, other than Camp 5), due to lack of winterized facilities • Canopy loss due to weather, disease, climate change, and over mowing • General lack of mid-story and ground covers; mostly turf in many areas • Loss of historic designed plantings/design intent • Erosion in camp units/camp core • Splashback on cabins, resulting in rot • Few accessible features • Safety concerns (no locks or other way to protect children in a lockdown, or deter public interlopers) • Inadequate access to trail system beyond camps / creek crossings • Some bus turn-arounds are not generally serviceable • Lack of shelters/welcome facilities at camp entrances • Condition of lakes (shallow, muddy, weedy) • Lack of turf in playing fields/open spaces due to erosion/overuse? • Inadequate lighting in some areas • Off-road trespass, especially by construction vehicles • Overreliance on camp hosts to manage camps • Excessive mowing practices • Multiple camp entrances, causing confusion • Lack of a forest management plan

PRINCE WILLIAM FOREST PARK CABIN CAMPS	
OPPORTUNITIES	**THREATS**
• Potential for additional/new user groups • Increased accessibility at each camp • More rustic, naturalistic landscape character, including native plantings • Restored historic vegetative intent • Enhanced visitor experience via existing and future ornamental plantings • Vegetation palette with more climate-resilient plantings • Historic rustic methods to address erosion and runoff, including plantings • Increased interpretation for growing audiences, including on-site waysides and digital methods • Opportunities for expansion, including additional buildings with modern amenities • Conversion of some spaces to interpretive space • Closure of the camps each winter provides an opportunity to improve existing conditions/execute resiliency interventions while the camps are closed to visitors • Enhancement of the camps' historic recreational use via dredged lakes • Modernization of select camp features • Better understanding and protection of cultural resources that predate the camps, including cemeteries • Enhanced camper experience via compatible small-scale features in units (e.g. fire circles, picnic tables, etc.) • Enhancement of camp seclusion and limited public access via modified signage	• Shifting management to a concessionaire and/or contractors • Lack of understanding of patterns/systems between all five camps • Tree loss and/or removal (hazard tree program; climate change; pests/disease) • Potential for limited invasives (e.g. Japanese stiltgrass to spread • Lack of canopy regeneration; particularly in mown turf areas • Removal of leaf litter seasonally/resulting in erosion and lack of regeneration • Construction activity (past and present) that has introduced invasives, and does not appropriately revegetate or preserve native grasses/soils • Deferred maintenance (resulting in buildings that are in fair/poor condition) • Lack of staffing to maintain facilities • Lack of active forest management • Emphasis on individual camps and/or units, without sufficient consideration for the whole system of camps (resulting in loss of overall design intent) • Off-road vehicle (ORV)/utility task vehicle (UTV) use and heavy equipment use • Vandalism in the cabins by participants • Staff turnover/loss of momentum • Changes to Camp 5 walkways • Excessive mowing • Upcoming changes to Camp 5 bathhouses and resulting construction activity

Treatment Principles + Assumptions

This CLR's treatment recommendations rest on the following principles and assumptions:

1. **The treatment recommendations should speak to all five cabin camps** as a collective landscape (rather than each camp individually), offering a holistic treatment strategy.
2. **The forest is an integral dimension of the historic landscape**; the treatment strategy should address the intersecting conditions of the built environment and the forest context.
3. The **segregated origins of the cabin camps (in design + use) should be acknowledged** in the contemporary treatment strategy for the landscape.
4. The cabin camps are significant for their **continuity of use**. To encourage ongoing use, the treatment recommendations must **balance the preservation of material integrity with ongoing adaptation for evolving camp needs**.
5. The **lakes are designed for recreational use**; the treatment recommendations should address the necessary conditions for that priority use. Secondarily, the lakes offer opportunities for environmental education; the treatment recommendations may also consider this use.
6. Any future treatment will occur in a warming climate and require a balance between **historic integrity and adaptation for climate resilience.**

Treatment Philosophy

For cultural landscapes, a treatment philosophy defines an overall goal of enhancing historic character and perpetuating those characteristics and features that convey historic significance based on the landscape's historic integrity, park policies and planning, natural resource protection, park operations, and other resource management issues. The treatment philosophy is drafted according to the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties*.

The Secretary of the Interior is responsible for establishing professional standards for the preservation of cultural resources listed in or eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The *Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties*, revised in 1992, were codified as 36 CFR Part 68 in the 12 July 1995 Federal Register (Vol. 60, No. 133). The standards identify four primary treatment approaches: **preservation, rehabilitation, restoration,** and **reconstruction**. Each treatment ranges by level of physical intervention and includes specific guidelines and standards as described below.

Preservation is the act or process of applying measures necessary to sustain a historic property's existing form, integrity, and materials. Work, including preliminary measures to protect and stabilize the property, generally focuses on the ongoing maintenance and repair of historic materials and features rather than extensive replacement and new construction. Preservation does not generally allow for new additions or new construction; however, the limited and sensitive upgrading of mechanical, electrical, and plumbing systems and other code-required work to make properties functional is appropriate within a preservation project.

Rehabilitation is the act or process of making possible a compatible use of a property through repair, alterations, and additions while preserving those portions or features that convey its historical, cultural, or architectural values.

Restoration is the act or process of accurately depicting the form, features, and character of a property as it appeared at a particular period by means of the removal of features from other historic periods in its history and reconstruction of missing features from the restoration period. The limited and sensitive upgrading of mechanical, electrical, and plumbing systems and other code-required work to make the property functional is appropriate for a restoration project.

Reconstruction is the act or process of depicting, by means of new construction, the form, features, and details of a non-surviving site, landscape, building, or objects for the purpose of replicating its appearance at a specific period in its historic location.

PRIMARY TREATMENT—REHABILITATION

Rehabilitation is the recommended primary treatment for the cabin camp cultural landscapes. This approach allows for the necessary flexibility to preserve the resources and enhance the historic character of the camp while accommodating current site conditions and meeting the objectives outlined in the treatment philosophy. Other feature-specific treatments are enumerated under individual treatment tasks and landscape categories.

According to the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties*, rehabilitation treatment actions must conform to the following standards:

- A property will be used as it was historically or be given a new use that requires minimal change to its distinctive materials, features, spaces, and spatial relationships.
- The historic character of a property will be retained and preserved. The removal of distinctive materials or alteration of features, spaces, and spatial relationships that characterize a property will be avoided.
- Each property will be recognized as a physical record of its time, place, and use. Changes that create a false sense of historical development, such as adding conjectural features or elements from other historic properties, will not be undertaken.
- Changes to a property that have acquired historic significance in their own right will be retained and preserved.
- Distinctive materials, features, finishes, and construction techniques or examples of craftsmanship that characterize a property will be preserved.
- Deteriorated historic features will be repaired rather than replaced. Where the severity of deterioration requires replacement of a distinctive feature, the new feature will match the old in design, color, texture, and, where possible, materials. Replacement of missing features will be supported by documentary and physical evidence.
- Chemical or physical treatments, if appropriate, will be undertaken using the gentlest means possible. Treatments that cause damage to historic materials will not be used.
- Archeological resources will be protected and preserved in place. If such resources must be disturbed, mitigation measures will be undertaken.
- New additions, exterior alterations, or related new construction will not destroy historic materials, features, and spatial relationships that characterize the property. The new work will be differentiated from the old and will be compatible with the historic materials, features, size, scale and proportion, and massing to protect the integrity of the property and its environment.
- New additions and adjacent or related new construction will be undertaken in such a manner that, if removed in the future, the essential form and integrity of the historic property and its environment would be unimpaired.

TREATMENT REFERENCE DATE

The treatment reference date corresponds to a time during the period of significance when the landscape reached the height of its development or when the property best illustrated its significance and interpretive themes. In rehabilitation, identifying a treatment reference date is not to replicate conditions present that year, but rather to avoid imposing anachronistic elements that never coexisted on the property. The treatment reference date for this CLR is 1969—the year the last Mission 66/Parkscape USA improvements were built at Camp 5, marking the last major changes to the cabin camps during the period of significance.

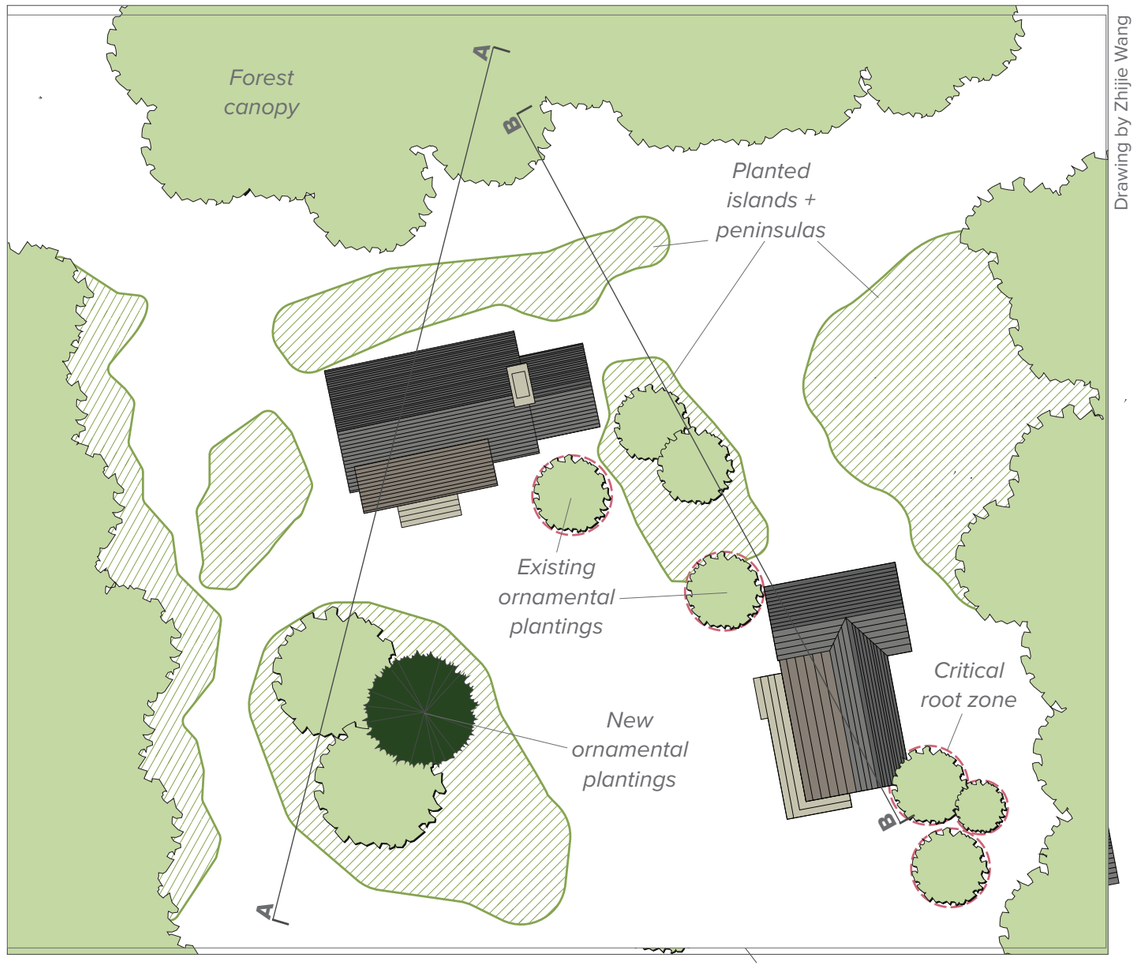
The treatment goals in the pages that follow should serve as the overarching objectives of any future treatment at the cabin camps. For further details on implementing these goals, refer to the next section of this CLR (Physical Treatment Recommendations, by Landscape Characteristic).

Treatment Recommendations

Statement of Desired Landscape Character

Visitors to the cabin camps should feel like they are a part of the forest. Naturalistic plantings, mature tree canopies, and softly planted, feathered edges should dominate the camps, establishing a rustic camp setting. **The screening effect created by the forest context should be paramount; open areas should be limited,** and those that exist should be maintained with a rustic character.

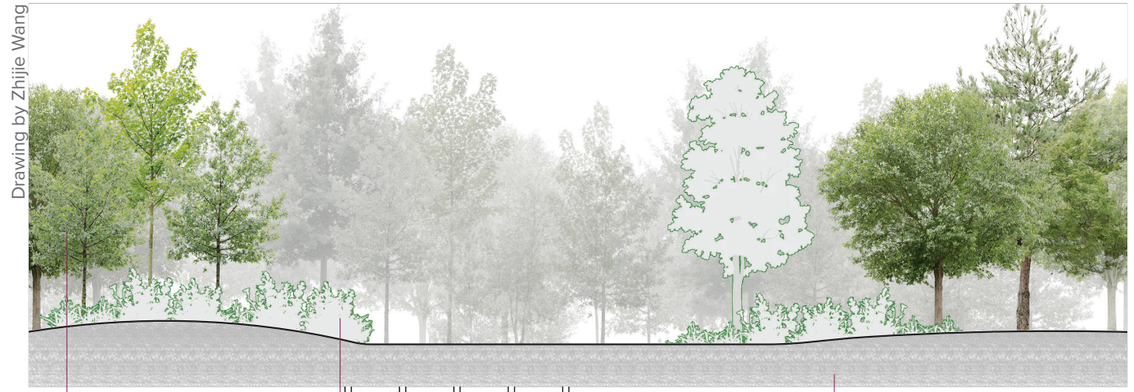
Buildings should emerge from the forest; they should not be set apart from it in lawns or clearings that create a campus rather than a camp unit. **Circulation features should defer to and gracefully curve around landscape features**, creating varied views of the forest, lakes, and cabins. **Any new interventions for accessibility (e.g. buildings, paths, etc.) should offer all visitors the same experience of a rustic forest camp.** Additional contemporary amenities should blend with the forested setting of the park, using native materials wherever possible to enhance campers' experiences. **All treatments and future interventions should defer to the historic design language and logic of the camp landscapes and support their continued use.**



Drawing by Zhijie Wang

This plan (above) and its associated section drawings (opposite) do not represent a specific existing camp at Prince William Forest Park; **they illustrate the desired landscape character for all five cabin camps**. These conditions embody the seven goals that guide this CLR's treatment recommendations (beginning on p. 268):

1. **Preserve and enhance the historic rustic character of the cabin camps.**
2. **Re-establish vegetative design intent, establish successional canopy, and preserve and enhance native and planted flora.**
3. **Mitigate and prevent erosion and runoff.**
4. **Limit staff and construction vehicles within camp settings.**
5. **Rehabilitate historic buildings and structures, allowing for limited modern amenities on the interior while preserving the historic exteriors.**
6. **Increase and improve accessibility.**
7. **Re-establish viable use of lakes.**



Drawing by Zhijie Wang

New trees at the edges of the camp help to cultivate a successional canopy within the forest setting

Planted islands and peninsulas help to feather the forest edge, reinforcing the rustic character and smoothing the visual transition from the forest setting to the cabin camp

Existing ornamental trees are bolstered by new ornamental plantings, to restore the historic design intent around cabin camp buildings and structures

Drawing by Zhijie Wang

Planted islands within the camp units blend ornamental trees with rustic understory plantings to reduce the amount of turf and frame views within the camp

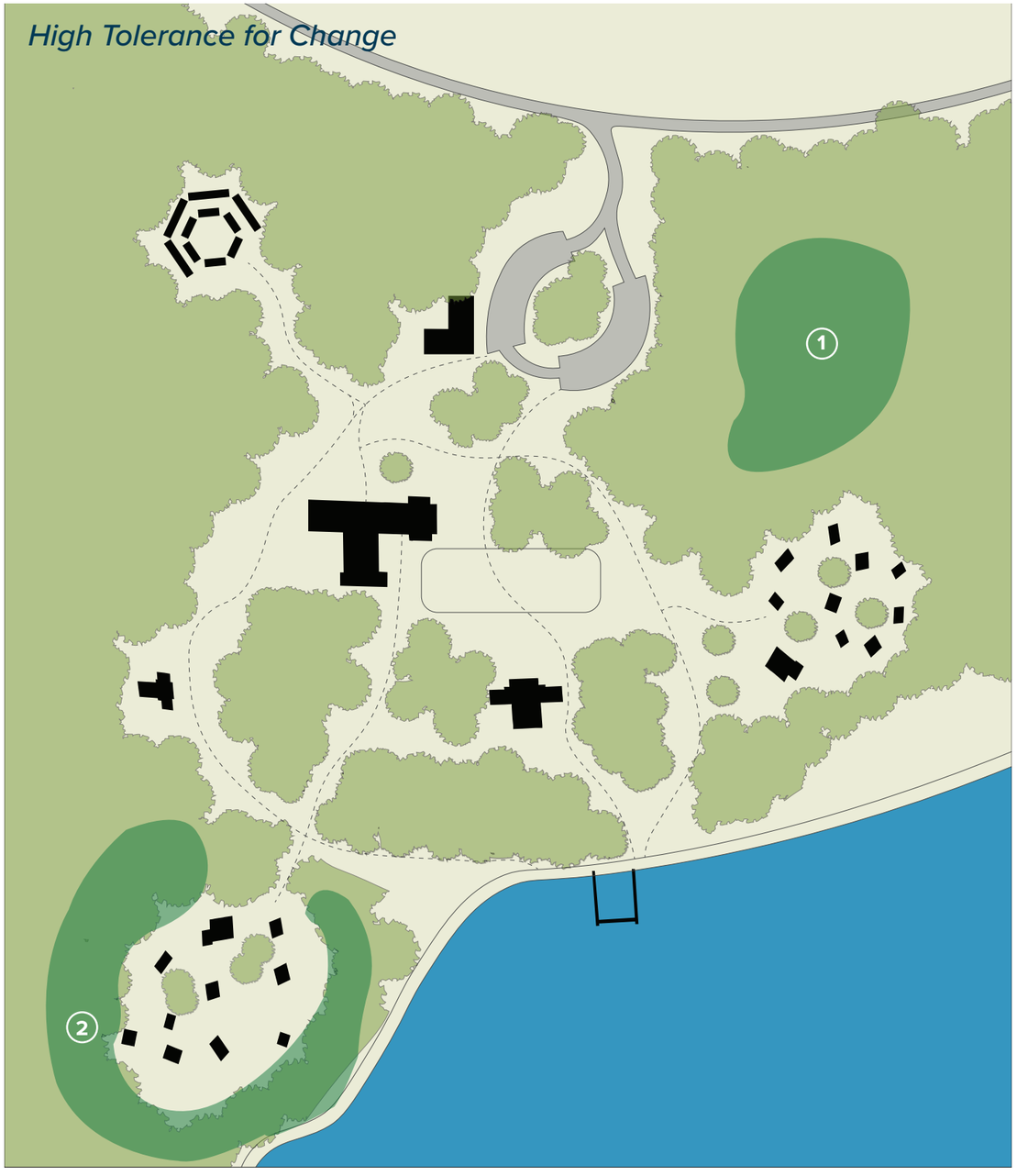
For trees that are not otherwise buffered by planted islands or peninsulas, the critical root zone is protected with leaf litter (preferred over mulch) placed around the trunk. The leaf litter (or mulch) should not touch the trunk/root flare.

Tolerances for Change

As PRWI officials plan for the future of the park's cabin camps, **it is important to consider the different tolerances for change within each camp**: areas with significant features that embody the historic design intent and use of the camp will likely have a low tolerance for change; areas that have been substantially altered since the camp's original construction, or are otherwise not associated with the camp's physical history and significance, will likely have a high tolerance for change; areas that fall somewhere in between those two poles will likely have a moderate tolerance for change.

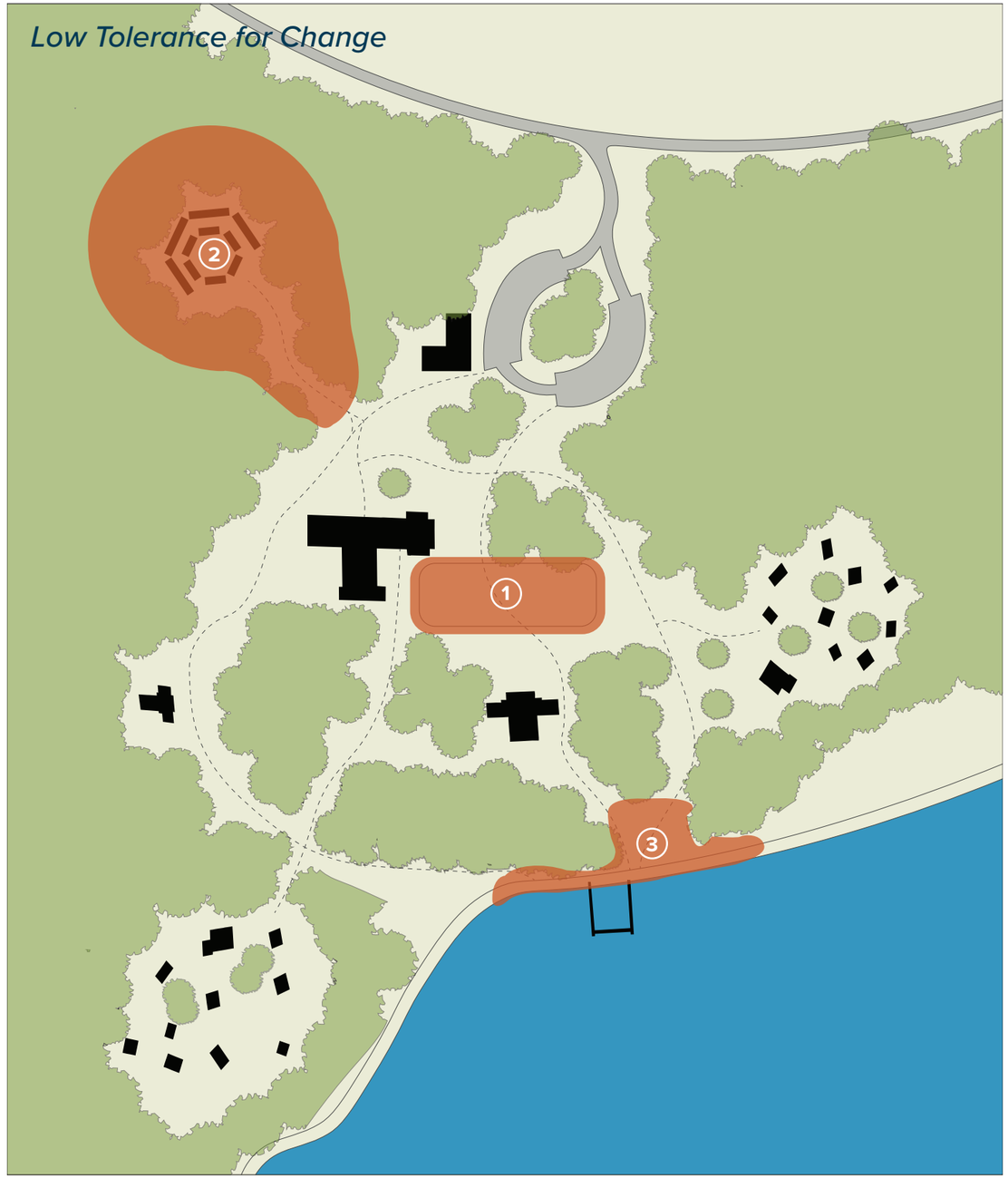
On the three pages that follow, **this CLR diagrams the areas of a typical cabin camp with high, moderate, and low tolerances for change.** The diagrams do not represent an actual camp at Prince William Forest Park; rather, they represent an abstracted version of all five camps. The highlighted areas are diagrammatic, not exact.

These varying tolerances should factor into any decisions about future construction (e.g. new cabins or other features) and other major alterations.

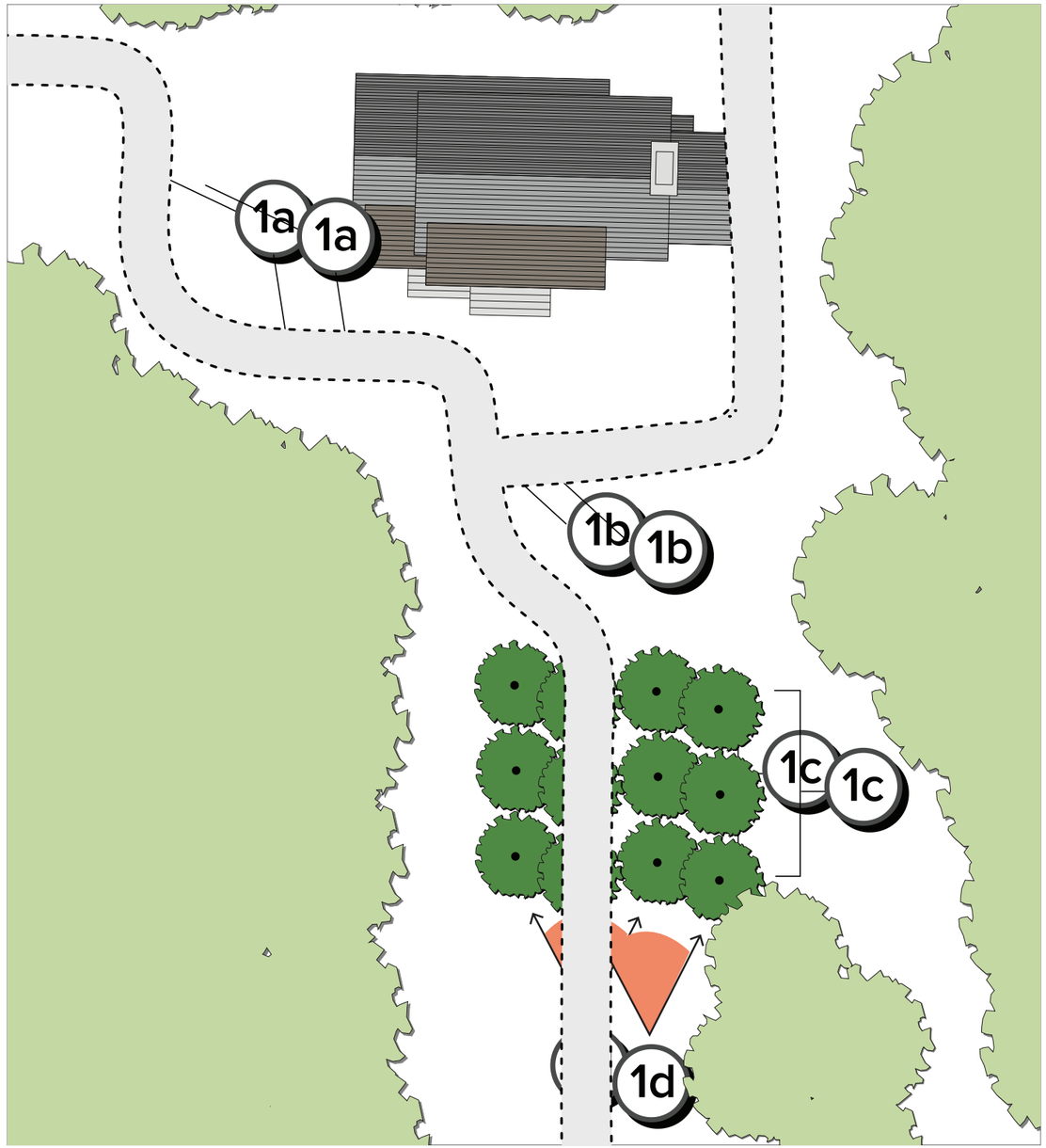


1. **Within the forest**: A new cabin unit or recreational feature (e.g. ropes course) could be constructed, provided the new construction is designed in keeping with the historic design intent and desired landscape character. For more on desired character of buildings and structures, see the corresponding treatment tasks and analysis and evaluation sections of this report.
2. **Around existing unit**: Additional cabins could be constructed around the perimeter, provided any new construction re-established the desired landscape character at the forest edge and between buildings.

1. **Camp core**: Limited interventions could be made, provided new construction does not infringe on key open space within the core (e.g. playing field) or impact significant ornamental views/vistas, ornamental plantings, or other features that characterize the core.
2. **Camp unit**: Additional features could be introduced, provided any interventions preserve the historic character and significant spatial relationships between existing and new features.



1. **Playing field**: New features within the field would likely be inappropriate, as they would disrupt a key space for camp life and recreation.
2. **Campfire circle**: New features would likely disrupt the significance and integrity of this key site.
3. **Beach area**: Alterations should be limited to smaller recreational structures only (e.g. boat racks).

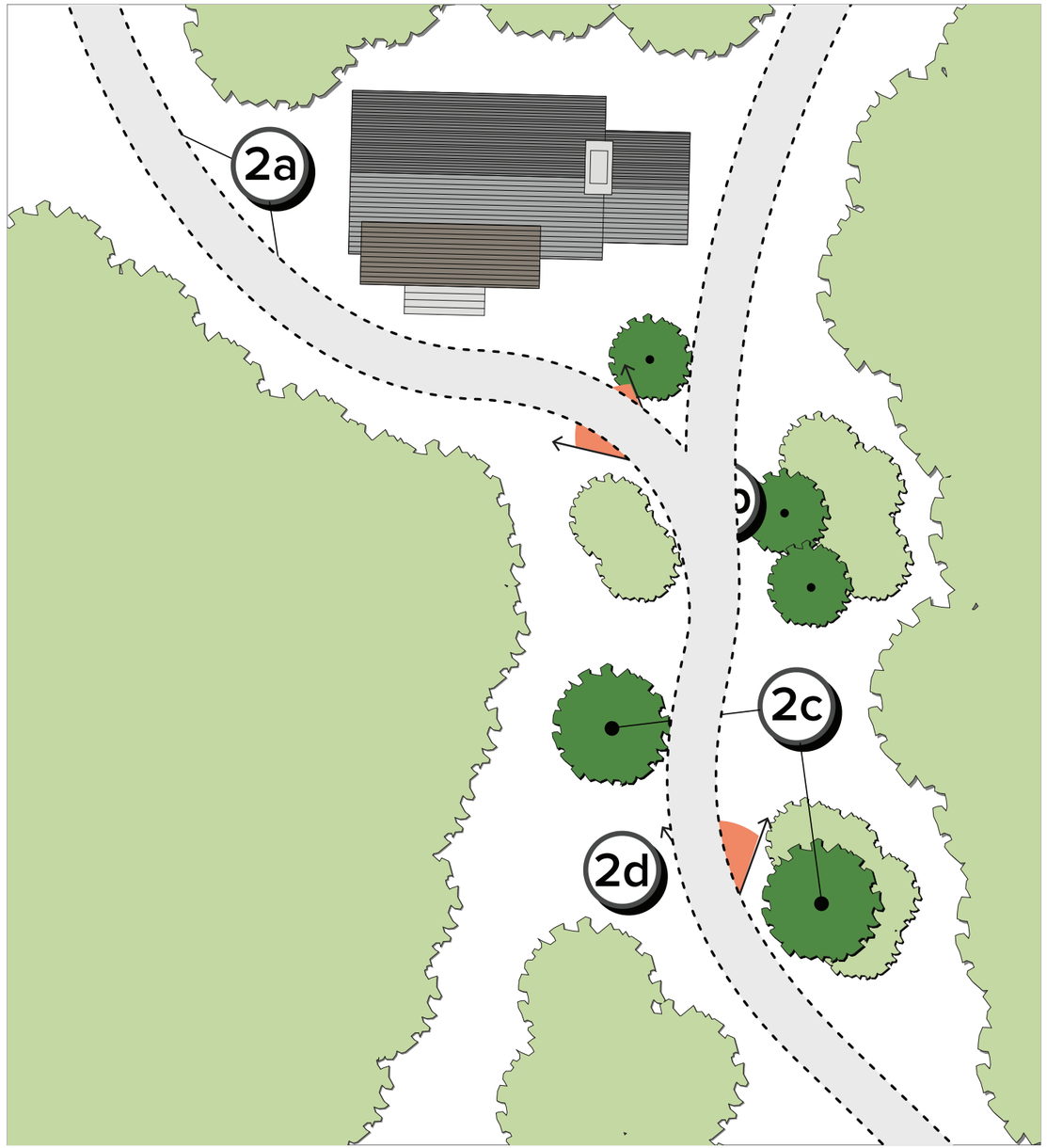


1a The road does not branch naturally; it features too many sharp turns.

1b The road intersection relies on strict geometry, rather than naturalistic turns.

1c Ornamental vegetation is planted formally in an allée layout, rather than naturalistically placed.

1d Views and vistas are too linear (and framed by the overly formal plantings).



2a Roads are arranged with gentle curves, without relying on extraneous curves.

2b Roads and trails branch naturalistically, rather than at right angles.

2c Ornamental vegetation is naturalistically placed at curves in the road, helping to guide the experience.

2d Views and vistas are gradually revealed as one moves through the landscape.

Treatment Goals

1. PRESERVE AND ENHANCE THE HISTORIC RUSTIC CHARACTER OF THE CABIN CAMPS.

- Rehabilitate or preserve all historic rustic landscape features to foster the feeling of being apart from urban life.
- Enhance the camp setting through careful restoration of vegetation, retention of rustic circulation features, and limits to modern intrusions into the camp scene.
- Continue to limit vehicle use within the camp proper, favoring pedestrians.

2. RE-ESTABLISH VEGETATIVE DESIGN INTENT, ESTABLISH SUCCESSIONAL CANOPY, AND PRESERVE AND ENHANCE NATIVE AND PLANTED FLORA.

- Re-establish naturalistic character within the cabin camps and enhance the feeling that the visitor is within a forest by avoiding clean lines and neatly mown turf in favor of a more rustic forested environment.
- Establish successional native plantings that provide for the long-term preservation of the camp's rustic character, including canopy, mid-story, and ground cover; consider pest/climate resilient alternatives.
- Enhance the naturalistic qualities of each camp, and limit further erosion by creating native planted islands/peninsulas between buildings and camp units.
- These planted islands/peninsulas should take precedence over mowed turf in the transitional space between the camp units/core and the forest context to create a feathered transition to the forest.
- In areas where turf is necessary, such as playing or assembly fields, avoid over-mowing and rigid edges; allow for a rougher, less formal appearance.
- Enhance historic ornamental plantings adjacent to buildings and structures, consistent with the vegetation palette established during the CCC era.
- Screen incompatible views along power line utility corridors, and/or consider burying utility lines.

3. MITIGATE AND PREVENT EROSION AND RUNOFF.

- Establish a soil management plan that addresses areas of significant erosion; coordinate mitigation measures with a vegetation management plan that enhances the historic camp scene through careful plantings.
- To treat erosion, first consider using water-tolerant plantings in specific areas to slow water runoff and splashback; where plantings are not practical, such as in high-traffic areas, use rustic retaining walls or water bars made from native materials such as local rocks or fallen logs instead of dimensional lumber.
- Retain leaf litter and topsoil within camp units and the camp core (e.g. on earth paths and in open space) to prevent further erosion. Meanwhile, leaf litter should be cleared from underneath buildings and structures on a cyclical basis to prevent the trapping of moisture or accrual of pests.
- Where muddy conditions persist, apply woodchips or appropriate gravel sparingly as a treatment; refer to Appendix C for a memo regarding appropriate paving materials. Woodchips/gravel should not be used widely as a paving material, as they detract from the naturalistic camp scene.

Figure 163: An example of severe erosion at the Camp 4 dining hall. Note the loss of the ground plane under the cabin and underneath the steps. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 124: Erosion and runoff at the Camp 4 dining hall is compounded by the lack of ground cover, understory plantings, and leaf litter that would normally capture runoff. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 125: At Camp 1, erosion issues are compounded by the lack of leaf litter and topsoil within the camp units and core. The root systems of these character-defining trees, like this beech adjacent to the lodge, should be protected using plantings and/or mulch. (Torkelson 2022)

4. LIMIT STAFF AND CONSTRUCTION VEHICLES WITHIN CAMP SETTINGS.

- Preserve rustic landscape features and enhance the camp setting by continuing to limit how and where vehicles can be used within the camps.
  - Continue to limit vehicular access within the camp units and camp core, where vehicles were historically prohibited, to protect historic and natural resources, enhance visitor safety, and prevent further erosion.
  - Mandate that camper, host, and NPS vehicles park and drive solely on paved roads and in parking lots; within the camp, carts and foot traffic should continue to be prioritized for camp maintenance activities.
  - Limit construction staging to the smallest area possible (preferably where vehicles are already in use); use protective matting and tree fences to protect mature canopy trees while construction is underway. (See ANSI A300 Part 5 [Management of Trees and Shrubs During Site Planning, Site Development, and Construction] standards.) Remove these protective barriers upon conclusion of the construction project.
  - Install additional rustic barriers to prevent vehicles from going off-road and causing erosion or damaging buildings or vegetation; establish design guidelines for such features based on rustic precedents for acceptable bollards and their placement.
- Educate volunteers and campers on their role in preserving the rustic setting, and encourage them to help maintain the historic camp character by limiting vehicle use.

Figure 126: Appropriate measures must be taken during construction activity to protect the few remaining canopy trees within camp units. Heavy machinery driving over the roots of these trees will almost certainly result in their expedited decline (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 127: Construction staging can cause immense damage to the cultural landscape. Large trucks like this one at Camp 3 compact the critical root zones of trees, expand circulation features beyond their intended footprint, and contribute to erosion. During construction, vehicles should be parked within designated parking lots when not in use. Likewise, they should be limited to existing circulation features and designated turnarounds. (Lester 2023)

Figure 128: Heavy machinery used for construction activity causes significant harm to the cultural landscapes. Although such machinery is necessary to modernize the camps in appropriate ways, project planning should address the post-construction restoration of circulation features (such as this one) to two-track truck trails. (Lester 2023)

5. REHABILITATE HISTORIC BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES, ALLOWING FOR LIMITED MODERN AMENITIES ON THE INTERIOR WHILE PRESERVING THE HISTORIC EXTERIORS.

- Update the plumbing features in comfort stations and central bathhouses.
  - Add hot water to latrines and showers that do not currently have it (e.g. Camp 4).
  - Modernize pipes and sewage systems to prevent further damage to historic structures.
  - In consultation with a historical architect, convert showers from group to individual shower stalls. (The historic exterior appearance of all bathhouses should be retained.)
- Enhance camp health and safety features to meet minimum standards, such as those set by the American Camp Association, including:
  - Add historically compatible locks and window shades to appropriate buildings and structures.
  - Add air conditioning in limited locations (e.g. the infirmary and/or dining hall) as cooling stations for health and safety. Such changes may resulted in limited changes to historic built fabric; all changes should be made in conjunction with a historical architect.
  - Maintain existing refrigerators at infirmaries and/or other staff areas to house camper medications that cannot tolerate heat (for health and safety).
  - Conduct a lighting study to evaluate additional lighting for safety purposes; new fixtures should be rustic in design and night-sky friendly, where possible.
  - Add staff-only WIFI at administration buildings and/or staff quarters for camp admin; do not add wireless to the rest of the camp environment
- In consultation with returning user groups, consider adding compatible features incentivizing long-term tenants or year-round rentals (e.g. rope course, additional restrooms, etc.). Any changes should be made in consultation with natural resources staff and a historical landscape architect.
- Bury utility lines to prevent future damage to historic buildings and structures and loss of power during storm events.

Figure 129: Unmitigated splashback at a structure in Camp 4. Gravel drip edges, plantings, and limited gutters could prevent further deterioration. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 130: The campfire circle at Camp 1 is missing several planks. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 131: Many buildings and structures are in poor condition, featuring signficant rot in wooden siding and structural elements. (Torkelson 2023)

6. INCREASE AND IMPROVE ACCESSIBILITY.

- Increase accessibility for shared facilities in the camp core, such as bathhouses, dining halls, lodges, etc.
- Establish accessible camper cabins at all camps.
  - Where feasible, rehabilitate select historic cabins within each camp unit.
  - As an alternative to making existing historic cabins accessible, compatible new buildings could be constructed within each camp unit to meet accessibility needs.
  - Any adaptation or new construction should be designed in consultation with a historical landscape architect and historical architect.
- Add limited accessible paving, without diminishing the overall integrity of the historic landscape.
  - Limit paving to the smallest area necessary.
  - Use sympathetic rustic paving materials (refer to the paving memo in this CLR's appendices).
  - Consult with a historical landscape architect.
- Expand accessibility to the park's overall trail network for camp users.
  - Add dedicated stream crossings or bridges where necessary to improve camper safety and allow for trail use in high-water or muddy conditions.
  - To prevent unwanted visitors from wandering into the camps from park trails, establish clear signage along the trails to indicate that the camps are off-limits to the public.
- In camps where buses find it difficult to turn around (e.g., Camp 1), establish new one-way loops for this function.
  - Route the loops through existing circulation features wherever possible (such as in the historic parking lot of Camp 4).
  - For any new bus loops, features should be consistent in design and appearance with historic road features.
  - Consult with a historical landscape architect.
- Add accessible drinking fountains throughout the camps (perhaps near restrooms and the lodge); these features should complement the rustic landscape and should not be visually obtrusive.

7. RE-ESTABLISH VIABLE USE OF LAKES.

- Dredge the lakes and restore sand beaches for ease of access for recreation (including boating and/or swimming), with the secondary goal of environmental education.
- Thin vegetation along lake edges, but maintain screen between camp units and the lakes; these areas should allow for limited views of the lakes without encouraging campers to visit unsupervised.

Figure 132: An example of an appropriate accessible ramp at Camp 1. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 133: The lakes should be dredged to restore recreational access and use. (Torkelson 2022)

Physical Treatment Recommendations, by Landscape Characteristic

This CLR does not provide exhaustive camp-by-camp treatment recommendations; rather, it offers overarching treatment recommendations for each cultural landscape characteristic. Each characteristic includes a description of the desired landscape character, treatment priorities, and treatment approach. This is carefully balanced against historical guidance, which is also included where applicable.

Figure 134: Felled trees left in the forest can become attractive features within the cultural landscape. This felled tree at Camp 2 is now a nurse log that is host to several plant species, mosses, and lichens. Meinecke called such elements the "pictures on the wall," referring to a metaphorical art gallery within the landscape. (Torkelson 2022)

Natural Systems and Features + Topography

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: The RDA designers were highly conscious of the natural features and topography of the park when establishing the cabin camps. They integrated the cabin camps within the forested setting, cultivated referential views to streams, lakes, and rock outcroppings, and retained existing vegetation where possible. The treatment priorities for this category focus on preserving existing conditions and limiting future disturbances.

Historical Guidance:

> "In any area in which the preservation of the beauty of Nature is a primary purpose, every proposed modification of the natural landscape, whether it be by construction of a road or erection of a shelter, deserves to be most thoughtfully considered. A basic objective of those who are entrusted with the development of such areas for human uses for which they are established is, it seems to me, to hold these modifications to a minimum and so to design them that, besides being attractive to look upon, they appear to belong to and be a part of their settings."[10]
>
> Arno B. Cammerer, Director NPS, 1938

Treatment Approach: Preservation

Level of Intervention: Minimal

- Limit alterations to site soils and topography, except where new construction is essential to meet other treatment goals.
- Where construction or alteration is necessary, follow protocols for the protective preservation of landscape features and the post-construction restoration of the landscape.
- Protect camps from further erosion by enhancing vegetative cover and maintaining topsoil and leaf litter. (See related recommendations in the Vegetation section.)
- Interpret the segregated nature of the watersheds within each camp. (See related recommendations in the Policies, Partnerships, and Planning section.)

10. This quote by NPS Director Arno Cammerer is excerpted from the forward to Albert Good's treatise on rustic park design. See Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part I, VII.*

Land Use

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: As a Recreational Demonstration Area, Chopawamsic was created expressly for group recreation. Later, the RDA was transferred to the national park system and maintained as a federal unit due to its outstanding recreational value to Washington, D.C.'s social agencies. Group camping should remain the primary purpose of the park. The cabin camps are not the appropriate place to expand the individual rental program; if there is a need for additional individual rental opportunities, new facilities should be established elsewhere in the park.

Historical Guidance:

> "If a projected camp is to be built on public lands as a public or semipublic undertaking, the sponsorship indicated for it is an important consideration in the planning. When it seems assured that a single organization can be relied on to assume continuous responsibility, there might be some minor warping of typical [conditions]."[11]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938

Treatment Approach: Preservation

Level of Intervention: None

- Prioritize the cabin camps' use as group rental spaces, in keeping with the original purpose of the RDA; limit the individual rental program to two camps at most, including the existing program at Camp 3.
- Where long-term tenants are in place, modify select features according to their needs, thus cultivating a good relationship with them and preserving their tenancy.

11. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Vol. III*, 111.

Figure 135: Without appropriate vegetation in the units at Camp 5, the camp's historic relationship with its forest context is adversely impacted; this detracts from the understanding of the camp's historic spatial organization and cluster arrangement. (Lester 2023)

Spatial Organization + Cluster Arrangement

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: The spatial organization and cluster arrangement of the cabin camps were shaped by the landscape's topography, land use, and natural systems and features. Preservation and rehabilitation are the appropriate treatment approaches for these landscape characteristics. This CLR calls for the construction of new buildings and structures, as well as the rehabilitation of vegetation—treatments that would affect the camps' spatial organization and cluster arrangement. In order to retain the integrity of those landscape characteristics, any new buildings should be intentionally placed, preserving the materials, scale, arrangement, and massing of each camp unit and the camp core. New interventions should be arranged within the camp landscape to appear as a part of it and not set apart from it, compatible with the historic organization and arrangement of the camp.

Historical Guidance:

> "In the most successful and admired campgrounds recently built. The buildings seem to have been plunked down by what has been described as "dice throw" planning. Actually the informal placing of buildings is by no means as casual as might be inferred from this phrase; rather it is a conscious effort to avoid geometric formality and take full advantage of favorable site factors."[12]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938
>
> "One figure of speech has the central area the 'hub' and the units the radiating 'spokes' of a wheel. Another has the units as outlying 'hamlets' suburban to a 'village' in which mutual interests of all units in orderly government, food supply, medical care, and recreational and cultural pursuits."[13]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938

Treatment Approach: Preservation / Rehabilitation

Level of Intervention: Minimal

- Maintain the existing arrangements of camp units and camp core buildings as much as possible.
- Where new interventions are necessary (e.g. compatible accessible cabins), consult with a historical landscape architect to cluster and arrange the new building(s) in keeping with the historic configurations.
  - New interventions should defer to, and avoid disturbing, existing conditions within the camp landscapes.
- Coordinate careful vegetation treatments to restore the relationship between the cabin buildings/ structures and their forest context; they should appear as if they are part of the forest, not set apart from it.

12. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Vol. III*, 4.
13. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Vol. III,* 109.

Constructed Water Features

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: The CCC created the lakes by damming the different branches of the Quantico Creek; these constructed water features were central to camp life, including both health and play. All constructed water features should be rehabilitated or restored to their conditions when they were in use as recreational swimming, boating, and fishing areas. While scientific and ecological values may be weighed against future dredging efforts, the lakes' original intent as camp recreational areas should prevail. If one lake is predominately used by one group, then consideration may be given to that group's preferred values; but the overall collection of lakes should prioritize recreational use.

Historical Guidance:

> "The appropriateness of an artificial lake depends entirely on whether the chief potential of an area is the preservation natural beauty, historical values, or scientific interest, or is the development [or retention] of recreational facilities."[14]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938

Treatment Approach: Rehabilitation / Restoration

Level of Intervention: High

- Dredge some or all of the lakes.
- As docks age, replace them with more rustic, wooden alternatives that are sympathetic to the period of significance.
- Clear vegetation and debris from concrete-lined and -edged swimming areas; repair concrete where necessary.
- Rehabilitate historic boat houses, boat racks, and metal towel bars at beaches.
- In consultation with cultural and natural resource specialists, consider adding sand to beach areas only; the addition of sand is consistent with the historic conditions of the property. Sand beaches are preferred for swimming and help to ameliorate muddy edge conditions.

14. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Vol. II*, 4.

Figure 136: The current condition of Lake 3 has rendered it unusable for recreation. Note the outline of the concrete swimming area and the wooden footings denoting where the dock once was. (Lester 2023)

Figure 137: The plastic and metal docks at Camp 1 are incompatible with the cultural landscape; as they age, they should be replaced with historically appropriate alternatives. Note also the muddy conditions for water access that can discourage swimming. (Lester 2023)

Buildings and Structures

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: Prince William Forest Park features one of the country's most extensive collections of rustic camp architecture. As a model for all subsequent RDAs, the camps' buildings and structures directly reflect evolving ideas of group camping and appropriate building types. Historically, they were also associated with the segregated design and use of the camps.

All buildings and structures should be preserved or rehabilitated. The treatment priority for this landscape characteristic is to maintain the rustic landscape while introducing limited modern conveniences that might incentivize long-term group rentals. New interventions must be reversible and should be compatible with existing features in design, scale, massing, and materiality.

Historical Guidance:

> "...Build only structures which are undeniably essential, and know [the National Park Service] is not equipped to embellish, but only to mar, Nature's better canvases."[15]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1935
>
> "Now and forever, the degree of [the National Park Service's] success in such areas will be measured by the yardstick of his self-restraint."[16]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1935
>
> "The romantic appeal, especially to young children, of camp buildings imaginatively designed is not as widely acknowledged as it might be. ... There is no possible reason, save the ineptitude and ignorance of camp planners, for the cheapest of camp structures being other than pleasing in proportion, appropriate as to materials, and painless to the eye."[17]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938

Treatment Approach: Preservation / Rehabilitation

Level of Intervention: High

- Preserve, stabilize, and maintain all historic buildings and structures according to the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation,* in consultation with a historical architect and/or cultural resources specialist with experience working on rustic facilities.
  - Repair and repoint historic stonework using methods consistent with historic conditions.
  - Maintain existing materials and design; replace wooden elements in-kind where missing or deteriorated.
  - Mitigate splash-back by clearing built-up soil away from building edges, establishing gravel drip edges, and/or planting ornamental shrubs to capture roof water.
  - Replace asphalt shingles on CCC-era structures with wooden shakes or a sympathetic material consistent with historic conditions.
  - Retain asphalt shingles on historic structures developed under Mission 66 and Parkscape USA; replace in-kind as necessary.
  - In conjunction with a soil study and erosion mitigation measures, consider raising cabins whose footings have become buried or partially buried over time.
  - Trim overhanging branches from camp buildings and structures, in consultation with a certified arborist.
- Rehabilitate existing cabins and core buildings to make them accessible, and/or construct new accessible buildings within each cabin camp. Any accessibility projects should be conducted under the guidance of a historical architect and historical landscape architect.
  - For existing buildings, new ramps should be appropriately rustic in character (e.g. similar to those added to the accessible lodge in Camp 1).
  - For new buildings, cabins should be carefully sited (see the Spatial Organization + Cluster Arrangement section above) and designs should blend with the rustic camp setting without creating a false historicism. They should use materials compatible with the material palette that was established in the camps during the period of significance. For further design guidance, refer to the Secretary of the Interior's *Standards for Rehabilitation*.
- Introduce new camp features as necessary to incentivize group rental. These may include:
  - A "welcome shelter" at the Camp 1 bus drop-off. Such a structure should feature an open-air gathering space for campers to drop their bags during rainy conditions, restrooms, and an office. Planning and design for this facility should be done in consultation with NatureBridge, the primary user of Camp 1. Such a facility could be located on the edge of the playing field, near where the buses currently drop off campers. The welcome shelter should be designed in conjunction with creating a formalized one-way bus loop; for more, see the Circulation section below.
  - A team building area or ropes course
  - New recreational equipment, including additional sports fields or facilities within or adjacent to the existing playing fields

Figure 138: Vegetation treatment must be carefully balanced against the potential for damage to historic buildings and structures. An adjacent tree fell on this cabin, damaging its roof. (Torkelson 2023)

15. Good, *Park Structures and Facilities*, 1.
16. Good, *Park Structures and Facilities*, 1.
17. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part III,* 4.

Figure 164: Historic masonry features, such as this staircase at the Camp 1 dining hall, should be repaired in-kind. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 165: Overhanging branches should be trimmed to protect buildings and structures; trimming should be limited in scope as much as possible, to retain the relationship between buildings/structures and associated plantings. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 166: Campers arriving at Camp 1 have nowhere to drop their bags. The nearest restroom facilities are far away and there is no shelter during inclement weather. Formalized bus turnarounds and welcome shelters should be constructed where existing bus turnarounds do not meet the needs of camp users. (Lester 2023)

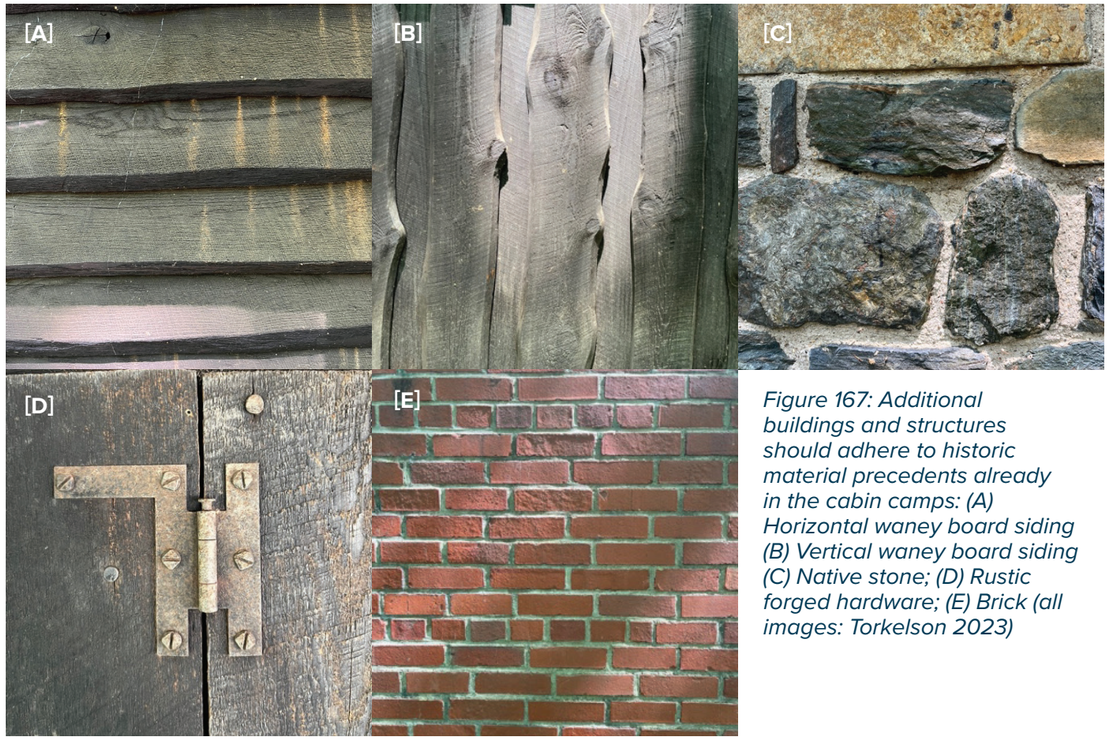


Figure 167: Additional buildings and structures should adhere to historic material precedents already in the cabin camps: (A) Horizontal waney board siding (B) Vertical waney board siding (C) Native stone; (D) Rustic forged hardware; (E) Brick (all images: Torkelson 2023)

Figure 168: An example of siding differences where an addition was made to the infirmary at Camp 1 during the OSS period. Compatible differences in materials help to denote different building campaigns. These should be retained. (Torkelson 2023)

Circulation

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: In order to preserve the natural forest experience of the camps, circulation features should be kept to a minimum. In keeping with the camps' design intent, vehicular circulation should only penetrate the camps the minimum distance necessary, beginning at the camp entrance and terminating at the administration buildings, dining hall loading docks, storage areas, and parking lots. Erosion, runoff, and vegetation loss are hastened by vehicles driving or parking in areas not designed for their use. Within the camp core and camp units, vehicles should continue to be prohibited. Truck trails in these areas should be only as wide as one car, often resembling a two-track lane. Circulation features should be flanked with mature canopy trees and be curvilinear in their design, often revealing views and vistas of other landscape features. Where erosion and runoff continue to damage historic circulation features, sympathetic drainage features could be added.

Historical Guidance:

> "There is no purpose to an actual roadway to any of the other camp buildings. Should there be an occasional need to reach other buildings to collect rubbish, for instance, or to distribute any heavy equipment at the opening or closing of camp, a cleared truck or wagon trail, treated merely as a widened foot path, under all but the most unusual conditions, will suffice."[18]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938
>
> "Frequently there will be natural obstructions, rocks, stumps of trees or large logs, scattered throughout the camp grounds, which serve to keep the car in its place. The entire scheme of protection should tie in closely with these."[19]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934
>
> "[Obstacles and barriers] should only be placed where they are absolutely needed. The use of too many obstacles gives an air of artificiality to the camp ground."[20]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934

Treatment Approach: Preservation / Rehabilitation

Level of Intervention: Moderate

- Maintain gravel and earth paving within camp units, in keeping with historic rustic landscape conditions.
- Where accessibility improvements are necessary:
  - Use a paving material sympathetic to the historic landscape; see Appendix C for appropriate paving materials.
  - New paths should be routed to avoid geometric or linear patterns, appear naturalistic in style, limit arbitrary curves or route changes, and be direct, while blending with the landscape
  - Accessibility improvements should strive to preserve existing landscape features such as trees, shrubs, boulder, etc., routing around them where possible
- Do not add vehicular circulation within camp units or the camp core.
- Establish one-way loops for bus turn-arounds where necessary; use existing roads/parking areas wherever possible.
  - One-way loops prevent damage to the cultural landscape caused by large vehicles blindly backing up.
- When construction activities disrupt historic circulation features, restore the camp truck trails and paths following project completion, reinstating their narrow two-track width.
- As part of erosion control, consult a hydrologist and historical landscape architect to address proper road crowning, drainage, and flow. Where necessary, add sympathetic drainage features such as culverts or French mattresses to mitigate high water flow.
  - Refer to Albert Good's chapter on culverts for design guidance.
- Use woodchips and appropriate gravel sparingly to treat muddy conditions; woodchips/gravel should not be used widely as a paving material, as they lend an air of artificiality to the camp setting. A large amount of woodchips or gravel is incompatible with the cultural landscape. For a list of appropriate paving materials and methods, see Appendix C.
- Add rustic barriers (e.g. boulders, logs, or vegetation) where necessary to discourage vehicles from going off-road or turning around in areas not designed for that function. (See also the Small-Scale Features section.)
  - Rustic barriers should not be placed in a line that appears rigid and artificial; instead, a combination of shrubs, logs, and rocks can accomplish the same task and appear to blend with the surrounding forest.
  - Preserve existing rustic wooden gates; repair and replace in-kind as necessary.
  - As non-rustic gates age, replace them with wooden versions.

Figure 139: Stone edging along circulation features should be naturalistic, not formal in appearance. This example is more formalistic than necessary, and its edging materials are more varied than was typical historically; however, it is a good example of the use of native rocks to deter campers from wandering off of the trail. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 140: This truck trail in Camp 2 is an excellent example of the desired character of circulation features within the camp units. Moss and vegetation grow right up to the road's edges, while mature canopy trees flank the edges and frame views to and from buildings and structures. (Torkelson 2022)

18. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part II,* 112-13.
19. Meinecke 1934, 16.
20. Meinecke 1934, 16.

Views and Vistas

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: Treatment priorities for this landscape characteristic overlap with those in circulation, cluster arrangement/spatial organization, circulation, and vegetation. RDA designers did not establish formal views and vistas; however, with their guidance, CCC workers cultivated clear viewsheds within camp units, to and from camp core buildings, along circulation features, and to the lakes and natural features beyond the camps. Future treatments should consider the overall design intent of any interventions from the perspective of a camper in the landscape. Landscape gardener Frank Waugh metaphorically referred to this careful design as writing or composing an essay. Each paragraph conveyed a different experience, and when added together, they create the whole experience of camp life.

Historical Guidance:

> "The scenery can also be made additionally attractive if it is presented by themes or motives arranged in 'paragraphs.'...View after view, picture after picture, will be shown at the most effective points. It is desirable that these views should present considerable diversity....If good recognizable motives, as explained above, can be developed, paragraph by paragraph, the total effect is likely to be enhanced."[21]
>
> –Frank Waugh, NPS landscape consultant, 1937

Treatment Approach: Preservation

Level of Intervention: Minimal

- Preserve framed views and vistas within camp units and to the camp core; such features serve to orient campers within the camp landscape.
- Preserve framed views and vistas along central camp roads to the camp core, including views along roads that are defined by mature trees, buildings and structures, and other landscape features.
  - When mature trees along roads are lost, replant in-kind to maintain the view frame; this is especially important at curves in circulation features, where the view might become too open if a lost tree is not replaced.
- Preserve open and screened views between buildings and structures within camp units. (Refer to the Vegetation section for more on cultivating canopy trees within camp units, thus prompting framed views.)
- Plant power-friendly trees and shrubs to block incompatible views adjacent to camp units and the camp core. (Refer to the Vegetation section for more information about recommended species.)

21. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation*, 10-11

Figure 141: Views down to each lake should be thinned to establish visual connections between these constructed water features and the camps, while maintaining a screening effect. A successful effect could resemble this photo. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 142: Use power-friendly plantings adjacent to camp buildings and structures to screen views along utility corridors and discourage the public from using these corridors as a path. (Torkelson 2022)

Vegetation

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: The legibility and integrity of the cabin camps' vegetative design intent has declined in recent decades. Treatment for this landscape characteristic focuses on rehabilitating each camp to feel as though it is once again part of the forest and not set apart from it. Treatment focuses on establishing successional canopy trees, rehabilitating CCC-planted ornamental trees, and re-establishing a feathered forest edge. This strategy is centered on rehabilitation and may require the removal of limited mature or character-defining trees and shrubs to achieve the end result. The priority here is to reduce the predominance of turf, reduce mowing costs, and use vegetation to address erosion issues. For a definition of character-defining vegetation, refer to the corresponding section in the Analysis and Evaluation chapter of this report, and the works of Albert Good, E.P. Meinecke, and Frank Waugh.

Historical Guidance:

> "Important and commendable as is a determination to limit modifications of the site and surroundings of the camp buildings to a minimum, it sometimes occurs that vegetation, particularly low growth, in the immediate vicinity of the buildings is retained to the detriment of other, not less important, considerations. Too dense cover up to the very walls of the buildings tends to produce damp and unhealthful conditions by obstructing sunlight and movements of air. To insure [sic] against such conditions, the less desirable cover near the buildings should be judiciously thinned out, but in such a manner that there is a smooth transition to the unmodified cover beyond."[22]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938
>
> "The best boundary [between campsite and forest] will be the natural one. Small groups of trees or tall shrubs, in fact, anything that sets of the camp from its surroundings, serve best."[23]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934
>
> "No living shrub or tree should be removed that is not plainly in the way, and all such vegetation, which acts as a screen from neighboring camps, must be strictly preserved."[24]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934
>
> "In general, the rule prevails that the best campsite is one which shows least interference with natural conditions. The mistake is often made of raking off all litter, leaves and needles from the ground. This cover of litter is essential or the maintenance of normal conditions in the soil, and, consequently for the healthy growth of trees. Its removal is not only prejudicial to the vegetation but exposes the raw soil and makes the camp dusty and dirty."[25]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934
>
> "[A] common mistake is that if removing all down trees and logs, and even rocks. There is no question that these should be taken out wherever they plainly interfere with camp life; a well-placed rock or log affords not only a convenient seat, but it may contribute materially to the natural aspect of the woods camp. An old log overgrown with green moss is an asset in the landscape, a thing of beauty, and therefore to be protected."[26]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934

22. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part II,*113.
23. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction*, 13.
24. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction*, 20.
25. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction*, 20.
26. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction*, 20.

> "Planting will undoubtedly often be necessary to help out the vegetation in these beauty spots as well as for filling gaps in screening from camp to camp and for raising barriers against the highway."[27]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934
>
> "As for their placing, the same rule should be followed that governs the distribution of obstacles. They should be planted only where needed."[28]
>
> –E.P. Meinecke, USFS Consultant, 1934

Treatment Approach: Rehabilitation

Level of Intervention: High

- Preserve existing mature canopy trees and historic ornamental plantings.
  - Provide protection for trees' critical root zone (CRZ): use plantings, woodchips, or other barriers around the base of all mature character-defining trees within the camps to prevent root compaction or damage to tree trunks during mowing, construction, or other activities. Mulch or other organic material applied to the root zone should be piled 2-4 inches (and no further), to prevent the suffocation of tree roots. Mulch should also not touch the trunks or the root flares of vegetation.
- Preserve existing mid-story and understory species where vegetative islands exists or where the forest

27. Meinecke 1934, 20.
28. Meinecke 1934, 21.

Figure 143: This character-defining dogwood at the Camp 2 dining hall is in poor condition, but conveys the design intent of plantings adjacent to building and structures. Such plantings softened the hard edges of buildings and enhanced camp beauty. (Torkelson 2023)

edge merges with the camps.

- Establish a vegetation management plan that prioritizes the restoration of native and ornamental plantings in keeping with historic design intent.
- Restore ornamental plantings and evergreens (where appropriate) throughout the camps.
  - Few of the original ornamental plantings remain across all five cabin camps. Many that remain appear to be in poor to fair health; most are nearing the end of their physiological lifespan.
  - Unhealthy specimens should be rehabilitated and, where necessary, replaced with appropriate native and/or naturalized species.
  - Appropriate species include:
    - Flowering dogwood (*Cornus florida*)
    - Eastern redbud (*Cercis canadensis*)
    - Mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*)
    - Eastern red cedar (*Juniperus virginiana*)
    - American holly (*Ilex opaca*)
    - Witch-hazel (*Hamamelidaceae virginia*)
- Promote the regeneration of vegetation within the camps to prevent further deterioration of camp units.
  - Appropriate canopy species could include:
    - Oaks (*Q. alba, Q. velutina, Q. rubra, Q. montana*)
    - Hickories (*C. ovata, C. cordiformis, C. tomentosa, C. glabra*)
    - Tulip poplar (*Liriodendron tulipifera*)
    - American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*)
    - Maple (*Acer rubrum*)
    - Sassafras (*Sassafras albidum*)
    - Black birch (*Betula lenta*)
    - Elm (*Ulmus* sp.)
    - Eastern redbud (*Cercis canadensis*)
    - Dogwood (*Cornus florida*)
    - Witch hazel (*Hamamelis virginiana*)
    - Hop hornbeam (*Ostrya virginiana*)
  - Appropriate understory species could include:
    - Pennsylvania sedge (*Carex pennsylvanica*)
    - White wood aster (*Eurybia divaricata*)
    - Zigzag goldenrod (*Solidago flexicaulis*)
    - Cut-leaved toothwort (*Cardamine concatenata*)
    - Wild geranium (*Geranium maculatum*)
    - Deertongue grass (*Dichanthelium clandestinum*)
    - Bottlebrush grass (*Elymus hystrix*)
    - Christmas fern (*Polystichum acrostichoides*)

Figure 146: CCC-plantings such as these cedars at the dining hall in Camp 2 should be replaced in-kind as they are lost to age or other causes. They should also be augmented with additional ornamental and native plantings to protect their critical root zones. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 144: An example of a cabin at Camp 2 that remains well integrated into the forested setting. Note the understory and mid-story vegetation, as well as maturing canopy trees. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 145: An example of the "planted island/ peninsula" strategy that could restore the canopy within camp units, create a more naturalistic appearance, and limit the necessary mowing. (Frisbie 2023)

  - Maidenhair fern (*Adiantum pedatum*)
  - Lady fern (*Athyrium filix-femina*)
  - Royal fern (*Osmunda regalis*)
  - New york fern (*Amauropelta noveboracensis*)
  - Bracken fern (*Pteridium* sp.)
  - Cinnamon fern (*Osmunda cinnamomea*)
  - Rattlesnake fern (*Botrychium virginianum*)
  - Sensitive fern (*Onoclea sensibilis*)
  - Lowbush blueberry (*Vaccinium pallidum*)
- Restrict mowing to key areas, including within camp units (where restoration efforts are not occurring), along circulation features, and on playfields.
  - Limit mowing elsewhere, including at the forest edge.
  - Discontinue or restrict the practice of string-trimming forest edges; this prevents a feathered forest edge and establishes an unnatural hard edge to the forest setting.
- Retain leaf litter within camp units; remove it only where necessary (e.g. underneath buildings and structures) for the preservation of built features, or for health/safety.
- Feather the edges of the camps by creating native-planted islands/peninsulas between buildings and between camp units.
  - Preserve existing planted islands/peninsulas, such as those in Camp 2.
  - Additional naturalistic cluster plantings should be introduced across all camps. They should be designed to soften the edges of the camps and help the built features blend into the forest setting.
  - For appropriate species, refer to the recommended understory species above.
- Create a protocol to replace trees that die off or are removed.
  - Several cabin camps exhibit the dramatic loss of canopy trees within the camp cores.
  - Replace trees in-kind as they die off or are removed due to age or hazard-tree status.
  - Cultivate a successional canopy by planting new trees where none currently exist, but where they would have historically.
  - Canopy tree planting may be conducted in conjunction with naturalistic planting efforts (see the recommendations above regarding islands/peninsulas) to protect critical root zones and feather the edges of the camps.
  - Wherever possible, downed trees should be preserved as snags for natural (i.e., habitat) and rustic (i.e., aesthetic) values.
- Create a protocol to replace shrubs (mid-story) that die off and cultivate understory species.
  - Replace shrubs in-kind as they die off or are removed due to age or hazard-tree status.
  - In conjunction with the creation or preservation of planted islands, cultivate mid-story and understory species that enhance the camp environment and reduce open turf areas.
- Plant trees or shrubs at the edges of camp units to screen incompatible views along power line utility corridors; plantings should be done in consultation with a natural resource specialist who has experience

Figure 149: Ornamental dogwoods like this would have been planted by the CCC throughout the camp units. Over time, they have become naturalized in the forest environments on the edges of camps. New, compatible ornamental plantings should be cultivated throughout the camp units to recreate this effect. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 147: A poor example at Camp 2, C unit, where young trees and shrubs were cut and replaced with turf. Their stumps are still visible, adjacent to mature canopy trees that could serve as the center piece to future planted islands or peninsulas. (Lester 2023)

Figure 148: An example of the desired landscape character between camp buildings and structures. (Lester 2023)

working along power corridors.

  - Appropriate species could include:
    - Eastern redbud (*Cercis canadensis*)
    - Dogwood (*Cornus florida*)
    - Witch hazel (*Hamamelis virginiana*)
    - Hop hornbeam (*Ostrya virginiana*)
- Thin vegetation along lake edges, but maintain overall screening effect.
- Create a protocol to protect existing canopy trees and character-defining vegetation during future construction projects (See ANSI A300 Part 5 [Management of Trees and Shrubs During Site Planning, Site Development, and Construction]):
  - Install boards around tree trunks to prevent damage by machinery.
  - Where possible, restrict construction vehicles from driving over the critical root zone; where this is not feasible, use protective matting and other preventative measures to protect mature trees.
  - Prevent damage to the critical root zone by prohibiting the sustained storage or staging of materials within the camps; restrict overnight construction vehicle parking and material storage to parking areas or designated staging areas away from significant over-story trees.
  - Require all projects to restore rustic vegetation and native turf after completion.

Figure 150: An example of a character-defining mature tree adjacent to a cabin; these over-story trees should be retained. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 151: String-trimming damages the base of trees. In lieu of string-trimming, a combination of plantings and mulch within the critical root zone can protect mature trees from damage caused by mowing equipment and foot traffic. (Torkelson 2023)

Small-Scale Features

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: Historically, the cabin camps featured few small-scale features. According to Good, those that existed were designed to be primitive or to resemble "pioneer craftsmanship." Small-scale features should not draw the user out of the rustic camp experience; as such, features appropriate in other urban parks or non-forested settings are inappropriate in the cabin camps. The treatment priority for this landscape characteristic focuses on replacing unsympathetic small-scale features with rustic alternatives. Existing features that are not in keeping with the historic material palette or setting should be retired and replaced with features in keeping with the historic design of small-scale features. Detailed guidance for small-scale features can be found in Albert Good's 1938 *Park and Recreation Structures*.

It is important to note that while the desired character of new small-scale features is that of the rustic period, a certain degree of modernization is expected to meet visitors' current needs. Likewise, non-historic construction materials, such as plastic, extend the longevity of small-scale features and minimize the demands on maintenance staff. Introducing any new small-scale features in the camp should balance these considerations. However, all new small-scale features must meet the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties*.

Historical Guidance:

> "If man could bring to his creations in natural parks the protective coloration that Nature bestows on wildlife, with how much more harmony he would endow his trespasses! ... [Small-scale features] are unavoidable necessities in parks, generally so extensively required that any treatment short of the most skillful is a source of quick contamination to natural beauty ..."[29]
>
> –Albert Good, NPS Architect, 1938

Treatment Approach: Preservation / Rehabilitation / Restoration

Level of Intervention: Moderate

- Restore all existing drinking fountains within the camps to working order.
  - Drinking fountains should not be eliminated from the unit plan altogether. Access to clean water was an essential part of early campground development.
  - Drinking fountain locations should be preserved, maintaining their proximity to camp units and core buildings. This reduces the need for additional circulation features that would connect drinking fountains to the larger camp circulating system.
  - Re-establish French drains and gravel around existing historic units to promote drainage and prevent muddy conditions. (Refer to historic blueprints in the corresponding Analysis and Evaluation section; for appropriate gravel sections, refer to Appendix C.)
  - Replace accessible drinking fountains in each camp; the designs should be compatible with the rustic character of the landscape.
  - Initially, the drinking fountains within the camps consisted of a standard stainless-steel pipe, bubbler, and basin encased in a log. Each drinking fountain was set in a flagstone plaza. These were located centrally in each unit, at some beaches, and at the dining hall. This is the most obvious model to replace the existing non-historic, non-functional fountains. The historic design, however, does not take into account issues of sustainability. A modified version could include an attached arm, much like a standard modern unit in a city park. Such a hybrid unit would likely have a shorter shelf-life than

29. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures, Part I,* 31.

Figure 153: Non-contributing drinking fountains, like this one in Camp 1, should be replaced with accessible rustic alternatives. (Contributing small-scale features should be maintained.) (Shinton 2022)

Figure 154: Examples of rustic drinking fountains with cantilevered drinking arms at other national parks. Similar cantilevered arms could be attached to a log fountain of rustic design to accommodate accessible campers. Neither model is completely accessible, but both blend with the historic environments, as opposed to modern metal units. A) Muir Woods National Monument (Jack Pritchard 2020); b) Prairie Creek Redwoods State Park, CA (Meghan McPherson)

Figure 152: The cabin camps should continue to use a unified style of rustic wooden signs. (Torkelson 2023)

a metal unit but would be more compatible with the historic character of the landscape, as it would minimize the intrusion of the modern amenity in the middle of each cabin unit.

  - Another option would be to cast a log in resin or a similar durable substance.
  - If contemporary drinking fountains or water bottle filling stations are introduced, they should have a brown finish.
- Re-establish historic rustic signage throughout the camps and at connection points with the park trail network, using historic fonts and designs.
  - Use rustic fonts identified by park staff, including “Bryce Canyon.”
  - Create larger camp entrance signs that include camp names and their numerals.
- Preserve or replace existing flagpoles within each camp.
  - Existing flagpoles should be preserved. This includes carefully removing rust and peeling paint on the pole with a wire brush or sandpaper and refinishing with weather-resistant paint. The halyard and pullies should also be repaired as necessary.
  - Flagpoles that have reached the end of their lifespan should be replaced. As initially built, flagpoles within each camp were trees with their bark removed, set in the ground, and equipped with a halyard. Such an option would be an appropriate replacement; later camp additions were almost certainly metal pipes, which would also be in keeping with continued camp use over time.
- Screen utility boxes within camp units with vegetation or other interventions.
  - All utility boxes should be painted brown to blend with the natural setting.
  - In areas where utility boxes are particularly visible or where they detract from the camp scene, managers should carefully plant native understory species to screen these features.
  - Appropriate screening species may include, but are not limited to:
    - Bush-honeysuckle (*Diervilla lonicera*)
    - Witch-hazel (*Hamamelis virginiana*)
    - Spicebush (*Lindera benzoin*)
    - Viburnums (*Viburnum acerfolium, V. dentatum, V. prunifolium. V. lantanoides*)
    - Serviceberry (*Amelanchier canadensis, A. laevis*)
    - Dogwood (*Cornus florida*)
    - Eastern redbud (*Cercis canadensis*)
    - Mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*)
    - Red elderberry (*Sambucus racemose*)
- In areas where a vegetation screen is not possible, consideration may be given to construction of a rustic wooden enclosure. This is not the preferred option and should be used as a last resort, as it can magnify the existing problem and make it more visible, when done poorly.
- Screen dumpsters at each camp dining hall.
  - They should be enclosed with a wood screen. Careful consideration should be given to using historic materials and construction methods. Such an enclosure should employ horizontal waney boards or vertical board-and-batten construction, in keeping with the design and materials of the dining hall. The screen should be stained or painted to match the dining hall.
- Replace non-rustic vehicle barriers with a combination of boulders, logs, and vegetation. (See the

Figure 155: Park staff have identified “Bryce Canyon” as one of the fonts used during the period of significance at PRWI. (NPS Harpers Ferry Center)

Figure 156: Mixed examples of screened utility boxes. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 157: Utility areas, such as this one in Camp 1, should be screened with vegetation to avoid detracting from the camp scene. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 158: Dumpsters should be screened with a rustic wooden fence. Without a screen, they visually detract from the camp landscape. (Torkelson 2023)

Circulation section for related treatment recommendations.)

  - In keeping with rustic landscape design principles, vehicle barriers (including boulders) should avoid linear arrangements and repetition, both of which detract from the naturalistic setting. Instead, the barrier features should be arranged so as to soften the edge of the circulation routes.
  - Boulders and logs should be set into the ground, not on top of the ground. This enhances the naturalistic effect and deters their displacement by campers.
- Replace existing lighting with LED and night-sky-friendly versions.
  - Replace in the same locations.
  - Conduct a lighting study to see if additional lights are needed to meet modern camp safety requirements, while maintaining night-sky-friendly standards.
- Relocate signage that conflicts with clear patterns of use.
- Add interpretive signage related to segregation. (Refer to the Policies, Partnerships, and Planning section below for more recommendations related to interpretation.)
- Preserve rustic wooden gates; replace non-rustic alternatives with wooden versions.
- Preserve and document existing camp furniture.
  - Preserve existing rustic wooden benches and tables.
  - As modern picnic tables age, replace them with rustic versions.
  - Conduct a furniture study to understand what types of benches and tables would have been within the cabins, and to inventory any original furniture that remains within the camps.
- As backstops age, consider replacing them with more rustic alternatives, consistent with the historic models that featured large timbers with attached chain-link.

Figure 159: The repetitive geometry and linear arrangement of these bollards detracts from the natural setting. Instead, naturalistic barriers such as plantings and logs should be used to limit vehicle traffic. (Shinton 2022)

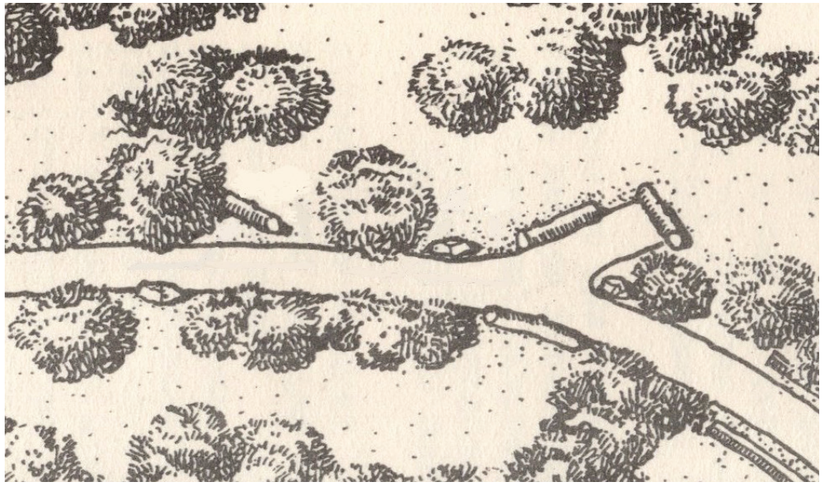


Figure 160: Bollards should be placed naturalistically, avoiding rigid linearity. This campground manual from 1935 illustrates how logs and boulders should be placed in strategic locations to deter off-road driving, but their arrangement should be varied to maintain a rustic scene. (NPS Campground Manual 1935; image has been retouched.)

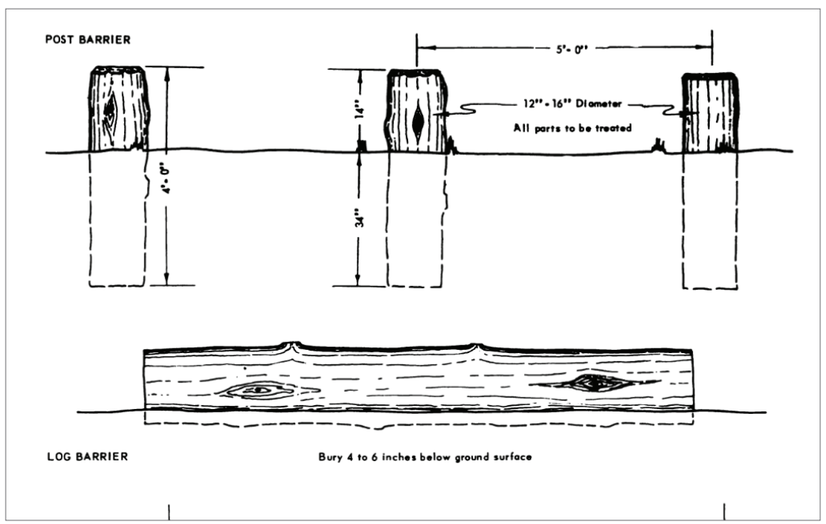


Figure 161: E.P. Meinecke demonstrated how vehicle barriers (including bollards and rustic logs) should be embedded in the ground, rather than rested on it, in order to maintain the naturalistic appearance. (Meinecke 1934)

Figure 169: As it ages, lighting fixtures (such as this lamppost in Camp 1) should be replaced with energy-efficient and night-sky-friendly alternatives. (Shinton 2022)

Figure 170: Existing interpretive signage that conflicts with circulation and use patterns should be relocated to appropriate locations. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 171: Rustic wooden gates should continue to be used; other gates, such as post-and-chain or pipe models, should be replaced with more rustic alternatives. This one is located at Camp 2. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 172: CCC-era tables, like this one in Camp 2, contribute to the cultural landscape and should be preserved. (Torkelson 2023)

Figure 173: Although they are durable, picnic tables such as this one in Camp 3 are not compatible with the rustic camp landscape. As they age, they should be replaced with rustic wooden alternatives. (Torkelson 2022)

Figure 174: Circa 1952, the backstop at Camp 2 consisted of wood and chain-link fence. This design is considered appropriate for the cultural landscape. (NARA Philly RG79 Box 1 "General Correspondence W3415," Folder L3415)

Figure 162: A similar low-profile wooden fence, such as this one at Mount Rainer National Park, could be employed to protect the cemetery at Camp 4. Like this example, the fence should be interpreted. (NPS)

Archeological Sites

Desired Character / Treatment Priorities: Archeological sites and future archeological sites should be preserved and protected. The cemetery site in Camp 4 should be fenced and interpreted to protect it from further damage by camp users.

Treatment Approach: Preservation

Level of Intervention: Minimal

- Preserve and protect all known or potential archeological sites within the camps.
- Demarcate and interpret cemetery sites within the camps with rustic fences.
- Consider future archeological investigations of CCC camp sites, especially those located at extant playing fields.

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Policies, Partnerships + Planning

NPS Policies

- Do not expand the individual cabin rental program; retain legislated intent as a series of organized group camps.
- Do not extend management to a concessionaire; maintain in-house operations for the maintenance and operation of the cabin camps.

Community Partnerships

- Record camp experiences and oral histories from current and past campers, and add recordings to park archives.
- Expanding existing ethnographic studies to include previously undocumented communities, per the park's foundation document. Such studies could examine the legacies of displacement and dispossession for the families who lived within the park before its creation.
- Foster healing and reconciliation related to the landscape's history of segregation by connecting with modern user groups who increase diversity and access to the outdoors.

Interpretation

- Establish a series of interpretive interventions that accomplish these goals:
  - Places the creation of the cabin camps within the larger context of RDA development and service-wide policies of segregation and desegregation; and
  - Offers glimpses into camp life past and present
- Other interpretive themes could include:
  - Land grants/deeds that preceded and established the park
  - Plantations and tenant farming that preceded the creation of the park
  - The CCC and its role in constructing the RDA
  - "Playing Indian" as a summer camp practice, and the related appropriation (or invention) of indigenous place names (i.e. Camp Orenda)
- Consider the following locations for some form of interpretation:
  - Dining halls (as hubs of historic camp landscapes)
  - Lakes (as constructed undertakings and segregated features)
  - Lodges (as hubs of camp units)
  - Help/staff quarters (as segregated housing)
  - Comfort stations/latrines/central bathhouses (as segregated facilities)

- Evaluate more dynamic forms of interpretation, including:
  - Digital versions, using QR codes or other online forms of interpretation for learning about the camps in the off-season or while they are otherwise not publicly accessible
  - Digital camp experiences (in the form of galleries, virtual walk-throughs, etc.) to increase access to these landscapes for those unable to visit in person, or for the public when the camps are in use

Further Study + Planning

- Organize additional ethnographic projects with descendants and historic camp users to learn more about how the cabin camps fit within the racial history of camping in America, and within the history of NPS/RDAs?
- Conduct further engagement with historical users, including the FSA/FCS alumni
- Create a forest management plan and a soil management plan
- Conduct a feasibility study to determine which cabins can be made accessible and the appropriate approach to do so
- Conduct a feasibility study of all camps to increase the number of cabins, where needed—especially with an eye toward accessibility

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APPENDICES

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Appendix A: Stakeholders Interviewed

Historical User Groups

- Family Services Association of Washington, D.C. (FSA) / Family & Child Services (FCS) Alumni (Camp Pleasant, Camp Goodwill, and Camp Moss Hollow)

Current User Groups

- Camp Nerdly
- Camp Under the Stars
- DC Square Dance Collective
- Fertile Ground Gathering
- Girl Scouts of Alexandria, Virginia
- Nightfalls
- St. Thomas More School

NPS Staff

- Doug Davidson, Maintenance Mechanic Supervisor, PRWI, NPS
- Lewis Harris, Chief of Maintenance, PRWI, NPS
- Angelina Ribeiro Jones, Cultural Landscape Architect, NCRO, NPS
- Gregg Kneipp, Resources Manager, PRWI, NPS
- George Liffert, Superintendent, PRWI, NPS
- Ralph Marrantino, Program Specialist, PRWI, NPS
- Julie McGilvray, Program Manager Preservation Services/Historical Landscape Architect, NCRO, NPS
- Anne Marie McKinney, Cultural Resources Specialist, PRWI, NPS
- Paul H Owens, Roads, Trails and Grounds Supervisor, PRWI, NPS
- Kristi Shelton, Biologist, PRWI, NPS
- Kerri Syrus, Interpretation/Park Volunteer Coordinator, PRWI, NPS

Treatment Workshop Attendees (in addition to NPS staff above)

- Scott Einberger, Acting Chief of Interpretation, PRWI, NPS
- Linda Hamilton, Administration and Business Manager, PRWI, NPS
- Melissa Weih, Interpretive Ranger, PRWI, NPS
- Brendan Bonner, Chief Ranger, Law Enforcement & Emergency Services, PRWI, NPS

Appendix B: Field Observations by Blake Troxel, Consulting Forest Ecologist

August 23, 2023

Weitzman School of Design
University of Pennsylvania
210 S 34th St
Philadelphia, PA 19104

Dr. Randal Mason:

Below are notes interpreting vegetation conditions, ecological dynamics, and landscape management issues & opportunities of the Prince William Forest (PWF) Park. The information may be used to assist in formulating treatment recommendations for the PWF cultural landscape report (CLR).

Field visits were conducted on the following dates:

- 18 May 2023: Cabin Camp 2, 5
- 22 July 2023: Cabin Camp 1, 3, 4

GENERAL FOREST CONDITION

Virginia represents a diversity of forest-type groups throughout the state. However, forest communities in which oaks predominate are the most common, with the oak-hickory (60.4 percent) and oak-pine (10.5 percent) comprising over 70 percent of Virginia's forests[1].

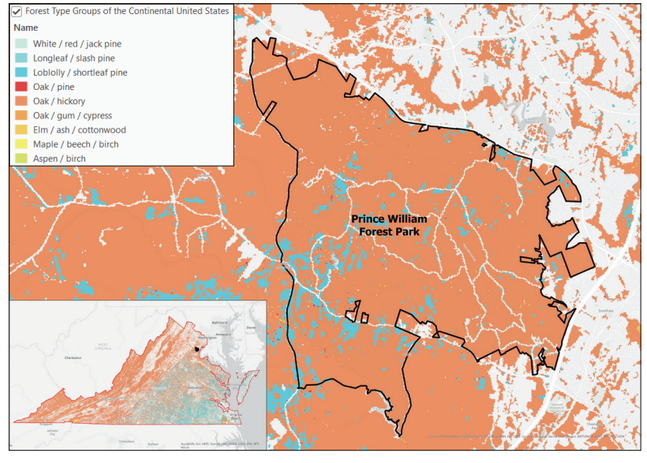


Figure 1: USFS Forest Type Groups map

[1] https://dof.virginia.gov/wp-content/uploads/USFS-SRS-223-VAs-Forests-2016_outpub.pdf

As depicted by the United States Forest Service (USFS) Forest Type Groups map in Figure 1, the PWF Park is primarily composed of the Oak-Hickory group with a minor component of Pine scattered throughout the park boundaries. According to the Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation, "these mixed hardwood forests are widespread in mesic habitats throughout the Coastal Plain and Piedmont regions (see Figure 2). Forests in this group occupy mesic uplands, ravines, lower slopes, and well-drained sites on deep, acidic, relatively nutrient-poor soils"[2]. Typical over-story species composition contains mixtures of American beech (Fagus grandifolia), oaks (Quercus spp., varying by region), tulip-tree (Liriodendron tulipifera), and hickories (Carya spp.), but a wide variety of hardwood associates also occur within this forest type.

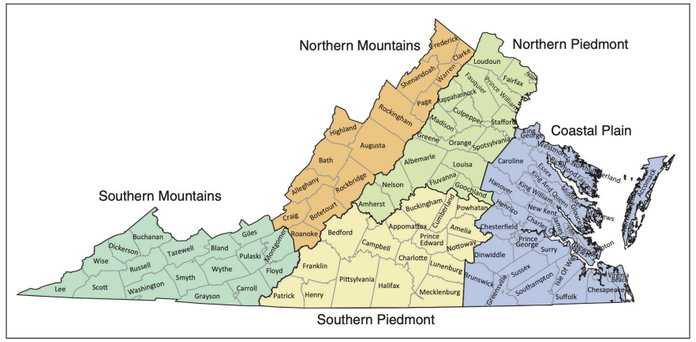


Figure 2: Virginia Department of Forestry (DOF) Survey Units

Dominant species identified through visual assessment during the field visits, and generally found in and around the PWF Cabin Camps are identified in the table below (this does not represent an exhaustive list of forest species existing within the PWF Park).

Common Name	Scientific Name	Plant Type
Blak oak	Quercus velutina	Over-story
Red oak	Quercus rubra	Over-story
Sweet gum	Nyssa sylvatica	Over-story
Tulip-tree	Liriodendron tulipifera	Over-story
Virginia pine	Pinus virginiana	Over-story
White oak	Quercus alba	Over-story
American Beech	Fagus grandifolia	Overstory / Mid-story / Under-story

[2] https://www.dcr.virginia.gov/natural-heritage/natural-communities/nctb4

Common Name	Scientific Name	Plant Type
Black gum	Nyssa sylvatica	Over-story / Mid-story
Red maple	Acer rubrum	Over-story / Mid-story
Hickory	Carya sp.	Over-story / Mid-story
American holly	Ilex opaca	Under-story
American hornbeam	Carpinus caroliniana	Under-story
Sassafras	Sassafras albidum	Under-story
Dogwood	Cornus florida	Under-story
Mountain Laurel	Kalmia latifolia	Ground-story
Low Bush Blueberry	Vaccinium angustifolium	Ground-story
Stiltgrass	Microstegium vimineum	Non-native
Japanese honeysuckle	Lonicera japonica	Non-native

The overall condition in the general forested areas at PWF Park is fair to good. In localized areas around the cabin camps, the canopy trees are mature and healthy, representing a good diversity of structure and species composition. However, in many areas, the understory appears to be over-represented by American beech, which will likely inhibit the succession of the existing canopy structure and composition as the existing canopy trees are replaced by a large component of beech. This is likely a result of years of heavy deer browse in those locations.

In specific locations around the cabin camps there appears to be a good amount of advanced regeneration consisting of oak, pine, and hickory; however, in areas where deer browse is prominent the majority of the natural regeneration is composed of beech seedlings. As stated in Trends in Woody Forest Vegetation in Prince William Forest Park[3] report, "This loss of forest regeneration can have profound impacts on the composition of forest communities in the future and can reduce the resilience of the park to respond to stressors such as invasive species, tree pests and diseases, and climate change".

While the existence of several non-native, invasive species were reported by park staff throughout the property, stiltgrass was primarily observed along the roadways within the park and along the edges of of the cabin camps and was especially abundant within the construction zone of Cabin Camp 3.

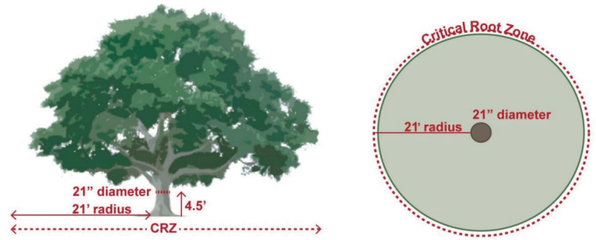
Most of these general forest conditions are documented in great detail in the Trends in Woody Forest Vegetation in Prince William Forest Park report, however, specific observations and CLR recommendations for each cabin camp are detailed in the sections below.

[3] Schmit, J. P., E. Matthews, and A. Brolis. 2023. Trends in woody forest vegetation in Prince William Forest Park, 2006-2017. Natural Resource Report NPS/NCRN/NRR—2023/2495. National Park Service, Fort Collins, Colorado. https://doi.org/10.36967/2296913

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Protect High Value Canopy Trees and Ornamental Trees

   - High value canopy trees and ornamental trees within the cabin camp core and long the camp margins should be protected to maintain the health and vigor of these valuable specimens.
   - Provide protection for Critical Root Zone
   - Each tree has a critical root zone (CRZ) that varies by species and site conditions. The International Society of Arboriculture defines CRZ as an area equal to a 1-foot radius from the base of the tree's trunk for each 1 inch of the tree's diameter at 4.5 feet above grade (referred to as diameter at breast height).
   - Adequate mulching is an effective method for protecting your tree's critical root zone or CRZ. This material could be produced on site from tree work performed within and around the park.
   - Naturalistic plantings may also be used to protect CRZ's from heavy foot traffic and traditional landscape management activities.



Example of mature and young canopy trees to be protected

Example of mature canopy tree CRZ's to be protected

2. Rehabilitate and/or Replace Ornamental Specimens

   - Defined as intentionally planted, placed, or cultivated specimens that are set apart from the surrounding forest environment.
   - It appears that few of the original ornamental plantings remain across all cabin camp sites. Many that remain appear to be in poor to fair health. Most are nearing the end of their physiological lifespan.
   - Unhealthy specimens should be rehabilitated and - were necessary - replaced with the appropriate pallet of native and/or naturalized species.

Example of ornamental specimen near building edge

Example of historic Dogwood specimen along forest

3. Restore and Establish Naturalistic Cluster Plantings

   - Plantings along roads or along the sides of buildings softened the edges and helped the built features blend into the natural setting.
   - A few examples of this type of natural cluster planting exist within the cabin camps. Effort should be made to protect, establish, and expand these features with the appropriate pallet of native and/or naturalized species.

Example of existing naturalistic cluster

4. Rehabilitate Forest Edge and Camp Margins

   - "Restorative plantings were used to soften the transition between developed areas or clearings and the untouched forest beyond. This feathered approach employed naturalistically-arranged mass plantings of native shrubs and plants."
   - Release historic "restorative plantings" along the forest margins. This may require the removal of larger, competing trees and vegetation to allow the historic plantings the available light resources to maintain and/or improve health and vigor.
   - Reduce the use of traditional landscape maintenance techniques along forest edge (i.e. "mow, blow, go") and increase the use of ecologically friendly maintenance techniques.

Example of need for forest edge rehabilitation

Existing naturalistic cluster along forest edge in Unit C

5. Rehabilitate Forest Canopy within Camps

   - The original camp features were managed to maintain canopy trees within the cabin camps themselves, and only recommended "selective cutting of mature canopy trees to allow sunlight to reach camp buildings and afford clear sight lines". The design importance of a camp over-story is well documented.
   - Current conditions in several cabin camps exhibit the dramatic loss of canopy trees within the cabin camp core.
   - Strategic planting and replacement of canopy tree species within the cabin camp core should be undertaken. Canopy tree planting may be performed in conjunction with naturalistic planting efforts to aid in the protection of the critical root zones.

Example of naturalistic plantings in/around mature canopy tree CRZ

Example of naturalistic clusters in/around young canopy CRZ

RECOMMENDATION MATRIX

Treatment	Protect High-value trees	Rehabilitate Ornamental Specimens	Establish Naturalistic Clusters	Rehabilitate Forest Edge	Rehabilitate Camp Canopy
Cabin Camp 1	✓	✓	✓		✓
Cabin Camp 2	✓	✓	✓		✓
Cabin Camp 3	✓	✓	✓		✓
Cabin Camp 4	✓	✓	✓		✓
Cabin Camp 5	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

CABIN CAMP 1

Cabin Camp 1: Unit A

Few ornamental plantings remain. Unit exhibits more of a closed canopy structure than other units. There are are some large, mature canopy trees of high value that should be protected. Red maple trees are a more visible component of this site and the surrounding forest. However, the primary component surrounding forest appears to be American beach. The forest edge around the camp appears to be in good condition and continue to create the feathered forest margin reminiscent of the desire historic aesthetic. This unit does not contain much of a core recreational center typical of some of the larger units.

Entrance to Cabin Camp I: Unit A

Large, valuable white oak canopy tree in Unit A

Closed canopy structure typical of Unit A

Unit A camp core

Cabin Camp 1: Unit B

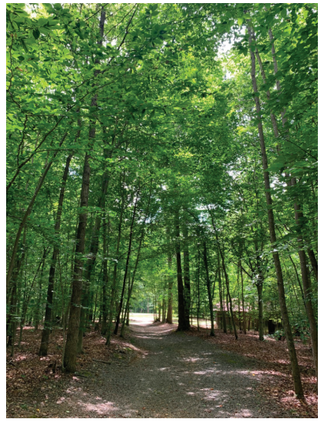
Some healthy high value canopy and shade trees exist on the site. Maintain and protect health and vigor. Few ornamental plantings remain. Unit could benefit from enrichment plantings of culturally appropriate native species.

Entrance to Unit B

Protect critical route, zones of large, healthy, mature, high-value, white oak trees, could also benefit from enrichment plantings around the base of the trees.

Cabin Camp 1: Unit C

Much more open in Center unit does not have large canopy trees writing shade camp goers there are some large canopy trees on the edge of the camp around the cabins themselves could potentially replant some canopy tree species on the interior very few existing historical and cultural, got a species such a Dogwood, witch hazel, and or Redbud



Entrance to Unit C

Unit C camp core

Encourage and protect native blueberries in and around camps

Thick understory of mountain laurel within the forest surrounding the site, may inhibit the natural regeneration of desirable over-story and canopy tree species

Cabin Camp 1: Unit D

Some healthy, large, mature specimen trees exist within Unit D. They provide shade to the center of the cabin camp. Evidence of removal of shade trees, recommend re-planting shade trees. There are a few examples of Dogwood species being planted around the cabins, recommend adding additional ornamental species around the cabins in within in naturalistic clusters.

Entrance to Unit D

High-value shade tree in Unit D

Example of removed canopy tree that should be replanted/replaced.

Cabin Camp 1 Recommendations

- Protect High Value Canopy Trees and Ornamental Trees
- Rehabilitate and Restore Ornamental Plantings
- Restore and Establish Naturalistic Cluster Plantings
- Rehabilitate Forest Canopy within Camp

Cabin Camp 2

Cabin Camp 2: Unit A

Unit A had somewhat of an open configuration in the center of the unit. There were few mature canopy trees remaining in the interior of the unit. However, there were several smaller naturalistic clusters providing some amount of structural diversity which should continue to encouraged. It would be beneficial to restore and replant canopy trees, as well as, ornamental plantings

Center of Unit A, showing open canopy

Example of naturalist clusters in Unit A

Unit A fire pit.

Cabin Camp 2: Unit B

Unit B has somewhat of a more closed canopy structure than Unit A. The surrounding forest edge provides a good example of the "feathered" design approach. Cabins are tucked into the forest and clusters of canopy trees and ornamental trees remains between the cabins providing a measure of screening and privacy.

Access road in Unit B with natural elements

Example of canopy and plantings between cabins

Cabin Camp 2: Unit C

The surrounding forest appears to be in good condition in Cabin Camp 3, and there re some good examples of the feathered forest edge design intent still intact. The center of the unit remains open with few mature canopy trees, and there appear to be few remaining ornamental plantings. Both canopy trees and ornamental plantings should be rehabilitated and restored. Unit 3 does provide a few examples of young canopy trees surrounded by cluster plantings at the base. These examples could be used to replicated across the other camps.

Small natural clusters in Unit C

Open center of Unit C

Forest edge condition in Unit C

Existing naturalistic cluster along forest edge in Unit C

Cabin Camp 2: Unit D

Unit D still maintains much of the feathered forest edge design intent. The cabins appear tucked into the woods providing a measure of screening and privacy. There is no large center green space, which lends to the feeling that the the camp is part of the surrounding forest, rather than apart from it. There is an abundance of canopy trees in good condition, and a few remaining ornamental plantings around the cabins and along the forest edge. There are some good examples of existing naturalistic clusters that could be used to help replicate throughout the other camps.

Interior of Unit D

Feathered forest edge in Unit D

Example of Canopy trees providing shat to cabins in Unit D

Mature ornamental planting alongside a cabin. Protect and maintain health and vigor.

Good example what a naturalistic cluster could look like and could be replicated in other camps.

Cabin Camp 2 Recommendations

- Protect High Value Canopy Trees and Ornamental Trees
- Rehabilitate and Restore Ornamental Plantings
- Restore and Establish Naturalistic Cluster Plantings
- Rehabilitate Forest Canopy within Camp

Cabin Camp 3

Cabin Camp 3: Unit A

In Unit A, the canopy trees are generally in fair condition. There are a few canopy trees in good condition. Most of the canopy trees in fair condition, and a few trees in poor condition may benefit from protection of the critical route zone. Use wood chips and naturalistic plantings around the base of the trees to prevent foot traffic, as well as, prevent mechanical damage from the landscaping ground crews.

Very few of the cultural landscape trees remain. These trees could benefit from some protection at the base, perhaps a planting of other culturally, appropriate landscape species to protect the critical root zones and prevent mechanical damage at the base of the tree

Entrance to Unit A

Center of Unit A

The forest around the camp exhibit a heavy component of beach understory, very little ground cover, or ground story.

Good candidate for root zone protection in Unit A

Cabin Camp 3: Unit B

Unit B is similar in condition to Unit A. Canopy trees with in unit B appear to be in fair condition. There are some good specimens, most are in fair condition. Some of the poor canopy trees (similar to Unit A) could benefit from protection of the critical route zone through the planting of historical and culturally

appropriate landscape shrubs and groundcover. This may help to protect the critical route zone from foot traffic of the campers, as well as mechanical damage from the grounds and maintenance crews. Very few cultural and historical plantings remain.

Entrance to Unit B

Center of Unit B

Typical of site condition in Unit B

Site contains a heavy component mature white oak in the canopy, recommend preserving and protecting, white oak trees to the fullest extent possible.

Because of the abundance of canopy trees in the unit, there is a potential to selectively thin some of the canopy trees, allowing the best, most vigorous white oak trees to remain. Remove the unhealthy trees and those poor in form and condition.

The forest around Unit B presents a heavy component of beach in the understory. There was some diversity with young hickory and some witch hazel, but the primary component was beech. There were very few examples of advanced regeneration in the understory, indicative of deer browse.

Cabin Camp 3: Unit C

Unit C is in similar condition to unit B, and canopy trees within Unit C are fair to general condition. There is a higher density of poor condition canopy trees which may be a result of the ongoing construction activities and are likely to deteriorate even further. Most of the trees are on the edge of the unit and there are very few on the interior of the Unit. Protection of the critical root zones of the more valuable white oaks is recommended. Few ornamental landscape plantings that remain around the cabins.

Entrance to Unit C

Recommend protection of critical root zone for mature canopy trees within the construction zone. Currently no protections are observable and compaction of the zone has already occurred.

Center of Unit C

Large beech component in the understory. If left unchecked will prevent other hardwoods from regenerating and cause the canopy of the forest surrounding Unit C to be altered from its historic state.

Example of stilgrass that will need to be managed within Unit C after the construction activities have ended.

Example of a stressed, mature, white oak. Reason for stress may be attributable to construction activities in the critical root zone.

Cabin Camp 3 Recommendations

- Protect High Value Canopy Trees and Ornamental Trees
- Rehabilitate and Restore Ornamental Plantings
- Restore and Establish Naturalistic Cluster Plantings
- Rehabilitate Camp Canopy

Cabin Camp 4

Cabin Camp 4: Core

Canopy trees are in poor health in the high traffic areas of the camp. Recommend protecting critical root zones with 6 inches of wood chips or mulch. Recommendation also to include interplanting of ground-cover, understory native plants, creating a native island of plants to prevent foot traffic. This may help to restore health and vigor of the existing mature trees. If no action is taken to protect trees, it may be necessary to remove them in the near future.

High traffic zone of Camp Core

High traffic zone of Camp Core

Cabin Camp 4: Unit A

Unit has many large trees on the interior of the site. Canopy appears to be in fair to good condition. Some historical ornamental specimens remain. Recommend protecting dogwoods and the base of the large high-value white oak trees.

Center of Unit A

Dogwood tree in poor condition,

Protect root zones of canopy and ornamental specimens

Cabin Camp 4: Unit B

The canopy within this unit is healthy. There are very few cultural landscape plantings that remain. Some evidence of erosion. Protect high-value tree root zones with mulch, or other similar material.

Healthy, mature, white oaks in the interior of the unit. Recommend protecting CRZ's of the most mature trees.

Young canopy tree to be protected.

Cabin Camp 4: Unit C

Much more open in the interior, large mature canopy trees on the border, providing some shade over the cabins as well as the essential area. Trees appear to be in fair to good health. However, there are few large canopy trees on the interior of the unit. Additionally, there are 1 to 34 visible historical Dogwood plantings to be protected.

Center of Unit C

Healthy mature dogwoods remaining from historical ornamental plantings

Protect CRZ of historic ornamental specimen

Cabin Camp 4: Unit D

Much more open canopy, structure trees around the edges of the camp, open canopy in the middle of the camp. There are a few prominent remaining cultural plantings of dogwoods. Some of the large, mature oak trees are showing signs of stress or and or age.

Center of Unit D

Protect the root zone of the historical Dogwood plantings on the interior of Unit D

Cabin Camp 4: Unit E

*c*abin camp for unit E more of a closed canopy structure however, there are some larger gaps. The canopy seems to be in fair condition of the larger oaks that are standing in the middle of the campsite. Some of the larger trees could be predict protected at the critical roots on showing signs of stress, recommend protecting the mature canopy trees within the campsite as much as possible

Unit E: Example of a location where ground cover and understory plantings mimicking the historic and cultural species palette could be used to Hantz the aesthetic of the campsite as well as protect the crew zone of high value trees

Unit E: Similar to other sites and understory of beach, American holly, evidence of deer browse very little advanced regeneration of the native species of the local forest, community types, oak, maple Hickory or tulip poplar

Center of Unit E

Recommend removing dead hazard trees on the edge of Unit E.

Cabin Camp 4 Recommendations

- Protect High Value Canopy Trees and Ornamental Trees
- Rehabilitate and Restore Ornamental Plantings
- Restore and Establish Naturalistic Cluster Plantings
- Rehabilitate Forest Canopy

Cabin Camp 5

Cabin Camp 5: Unit A

Cabin Camp 5 exhibits much more of an open configuration than the other cabin camps. Unit A has several large canopy trees within the interior of the unit, but the center of the unit is primarily open and maintained as turf grass between the cabins. This site would benefit from the protection of existing canopy species, as well as, the establishment of new ornamental species and naturalistic plantings. The forest surrounding Unit A appears to be in good condition with adequate species diversity and structural diversity in the over-story, understory, and ground story. This may be a result of less herbivory in and around the unit.

Center of Unit A. Mature and young trees to be protected

Blueberry bush in Unit A

Unit A example of natural regeneration

Unit A: diverse forest structure

Cabin Camp 5: Unit B

Unit B is the most open of all of the camp conditions. This area appears to be heavily maintained through the use of traditional landscape maintenance techniques. Most of the maintenance effort appears to be focused on the large area of turf grass int he center of the unit. Local maintenance staff expressed their desire to continue these maintenance practices as they tend to be much less time and resource intensive than more ecologically and restoration focused practices. While there are a few remaining ornamental specimens along the forest edge and around the camp cabins, there are little to no remaining canopy trees. It is recommended to restore the camp canopy with newly planted trees, and to maintain and rehabilitate the existing ornamental plantings.

Unit B is a good candidate to perform activities to help restore the feathered forest margins depicted in documents describing the original design intent. This would require both naturalistic planting as well as the strategies removal of existing canopy trees along the forest edge. These actions would help to soften the edge between the camp and the surrounding forest so that the camp experience does not exist separate from the surrounding forest.

Mature ornamental Planting near cabin in Unit B to be protect and restore

Example of Unit B: Forest Edge

Unit B: Candidate for Forest Edge rehabilitation

Example of invasive honeysuckle in Unit B

Cabin Camp 5 Recommendations

- Protect High Value Canopy Trees and Ornamental Trees
- Rehabilitate and Restore Ornamental Plantings
- Restore and Establish Naturalistic Cluster Plantings
- Rehabilitate Forest Edge
- Rehabilitate Camp Canopy

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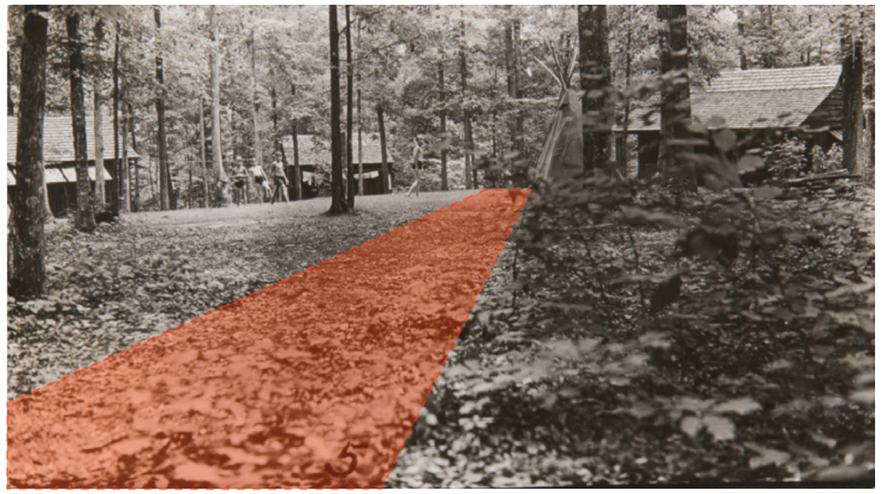
Appendix C: Paving Memo

Cabin Camp 5: Accessible Paving Considerations for the Cultural Landscape

Prince William Forest Park



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August 2022

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Cover: Children playing at a cabin camp, 1938. A handwritten annotation reads "5." Note the lack of paved trails in the unit and the natural character of the cultural landscape. (PRWI Collections, 7185)

Acknowledgments: The content of this memo was developed out of conversations with NCAO and PRWI staff, following a site visit to Cabin Camp 5 on August 10, 2022. This memo responds to a supplementary request within a task agreement between NCAO and UPenn to complete a Cultural Landscape Report for the PRWI Cabin Camps.

It was written by Jacob Torkelson and edited by Molly Lester and Randall Mason, University of Pennsylvania. Content assistance was provided by Angelina Ribeiro Jones, NCAO, in consultation with Julie McGilvray, NCAO, Tim Layton, NCAO, Gregg Kneipp, PRWI, and Anne Marie McKinney, PRWI.

Cabin Camp 5 Cultural Landscape Overview

Historical Summary

Construction on Cabin Camp 5 was initiated by the CCC in 1939. This new camp followed typical guidance for organized groups camps that was delineated by NPS landscape architects in the 1930s. As initially constructed, the camp featured two units centered around an administrative camp core. Mission 66 and subsequent building campaigns modified the internal organization of each unit, while retaining the overall spatial organization of the landscape—two units centered around a camp core. Both units of Cabin Camp 5 now feature central bathhouses, large bunkhouses, and other Modern structures. Despite alterations to several historic buildings and structures, other landscape characteristics retain integrity to the period of significance (according to the 2021 draft CLI for the camp). Thus, this memo considers the cultural landscape's overall integrity in making recommendations, so that the accessible paving project can do the same.

Background

Ongoing accessibility improvements at PRWI's Cabin Camp 5 have the potential to adversely impact the historic setting of the cultural landscape. After NCAO staff reviewed the construction drawings for the planned improvements, they asked UPenn to advise on some context-sensitive paving options, as well as possible route considerations for the new paths.

Goal

This memo presents several alternative paving materials/methods that are appropriate for the historic setting of the Cabin Camp 5 cultural landscape, taking into account historical guidance on how such paths would have been designed during the CCC-era of construction.

Paving materials/methods are listed below in order of preference (from most to least preferred):

- Option A: ¾" minus crushed stone w/ fines (aggregate installation)
- Option B: Crusher fines with stabilizer/binder
- Option C: Decomposed granite with stabilizer/binder
- Option D: Aggregate w/ stabilizer grid
- Option E: Permeable pavements

- Other Standard Options:
  - Exposed aggregate or integral color concrete
  - Chip and seal asphalt (Macadam)
  - Rainbow Turf

Each option is evaluated with pros and cons and includes brief information on installation, maintenance, and helpful resources for further study.

Existing Conditions Photos

Figure 1: View to the north of A Unit in Cabin Camp 5, showing existing conditions.(Shinton 2022)

Figure 2: View to the northwest of A Unit in Cabin Camp 5, showing existing conditions. (Lester 2022)

Site History

The CCC initiated construction on Cabin Camp 5 in 1939, according to plans developed by NPS architects and landscape architects who designed the camp in the rustic style. Such designs focused on a reverence for existing landscape features and a preference for new construction that blended well with the natural environment. This included the careful preservation of maturing vegetation, the creation of specifically framed views and vistas, and the use of local, natural materials during construction. General texts from this era, including those published by Albert Good, E.P. Meinecke, Frank Waugh, and Herbert Meir, would have been familiar reference points during the design and construction of the cabin camp.

The landscape architects of Cabin Camp 5 modified the typical plan for an organized group camp to create a smaller, more intimate camp setting. Unlike other camps in the park, Cabin Camp 5 featured only two camp units (as opposed to four or five in other camps). Each unit consisted of six camper cabins, a unit lodge, and a unit latrine. Both units were centered on an administrative core of buildings that included a central wash house, dining hall, help quarters, infirmary, craft shed, and storage building. This design was modified during the OSS occupation of the camp in WWII; however, all buildings and structures added during this era were subsequently removed.

Mission 66 created some of the greatest changes to the cultural landscape of Cabin Camp 5. Under this program, NPS staff built two new ten-camper cabins in both camp units, a cook's cabin in the camp core, and a central shelter and recreation building (replacing the old one). In keeping with the Modern style of Mission 66, the new structures used a simpler, streamlined series of materials that still evoked the natural setting of the cultural landscape.

The most destructive change to the camp landscape came circa 1969, when the park added two new central bathhouses and a recreation building to each unit. These buildings, while not a part of the Mission 66 initiative, were designed to be in-keeping with the Modern style of the era. The construction of these buildings resulted in the demolition and displacement of many of the CCC-era buildings in each unit.

Integrity

In the recent 2021 draft CLI for Cabin Camp #5, the authors deemed the cultural landscape as lacking integrity to the CCC and OSS eras, owing to modern intrusions that were built in the 1960s and are present today. Cabin Camp #5 remains unlisted on the National Register of Historic Places as a historic district. However, individual buildings dating to the CCC-era of construction are considered contributing elements to the larger PRWI Historic District, listed in 2012. Future research will evaluate the significance and integrity of the Mission 66 era of development and other later periods.

Historical Design Guidance

Historical drawings for Cabin Camp 5 do not include internal paths between structures in each camp unit. However, general recommendations from period resources can guide the design of paths to minimize their intrusion into the historical scene.

Existing Vegetation and Natural Features

- "No living shrub or tree should be removed that is not plainly in the way, and all such vegetation, which acts as a screen from neighboring camp [units], must be strictly preserved."[1]
- "In general, the rule prevails that the best campsite is one which shows least interference with natural conditions. The mistake is often made of raking off all litter, leaves and needles from the ground. This cover of litter is essential or the maintenance of normal conditions in the soil, and consequently for the healthy growth of trees. Its removal is not only prejudicial to the vegetation but exposes the raw soil and makes the camp dusty and dirty."[2]
- "[A] common mistake is that if removing all down trees and logs, and even rocks. There is no question that these should be taken out wherever they plainly interfere with camp life; a well-placed rock or log affords not only a convenient seat, but it may contribute materially to the natural aspect of the woods camp. An old log overgrown with green moss is an asset in the landscape, a thing of beauty, and therefore to be protected."[3]

Routing

- "Rigid straight lines should be avoided wherever possible."[4]
- "[Paths] should be in harmony with the natural surroundings and should be secondary to the landscape."[5]
- "It is desirable to avoid the use of straight lines and radial curves,—but awkward and unnatural or crooked lines must be equally avoided."[6]

Materials

- "Successfully handled, [the Rustic Style] is a style which, through the use of native materials in proper scale, and through the avoidance of severely straight lines and over-sophistication, gives the feeling of having been executed by pioneer craftsman with limited hand tools."[7]

[1] E.P. Meinecke, *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction* (California Region, US Forest Service, 1934), 20.
[2] *Ibid.*
[3] *Ibid.*
[4] E.A. Nickel, 1937, quoted in University of Mary Washington, "[DRAFT] Cultural Landscape Inventory Cabin Camp 5, Happyland," 2021: 46.
[5] *Ibid*
[6] Frank A. Waugh, *The Natural Style in Landscape Gardening* (Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1917), 90-91.
[7] Albert Good, *Park and Recreation Structures* (Washington, DC, National Park Service, 1938), Vol. 1, 5.

Planning Considerations

Routing Guidance
Taking the above historical guidance into consideration, these principles should inform the routing of any new and/or altered paths:

- Avoid geometric or linear patterns; the paths should appear naturalistic in style and should not distract from the camp scene; however, even as the paths avoid linearity, they should also:
- Avoid arbitrary curves or route changes; the route should be direct, while blending with the landscape and taking into consideration topography/hydrology
- Avoid extraneous routes; if it is not necessary to connect each building directly to the other, consider a circumferential route that links all the buildings together. (This will cause the user to walk further, so consideration should also be given to future social trails that may be created by such a route.)

Construction Preparation

- Mature trees and shrubs should be preserved at all costs. This includes:
  - Erecting fencing around the roots of trees and under the canopy of trees that could be affected by heavy machinery
  - In areas where fencing is impractical, heavy matting should be used to prevent root compaction
- Limit vehicles within the construction staging area to preserve landscape character
  - Only machinery necessary for trail construction should be allowed off the main camp roads. Personal vehicles or those not needed for construction should be left in the main parking lot
  - Where parking is needed in addition to established parking lots, designated areas can be created at the discretion of the park
- Preserve woodland character
  - Where trails transect the forest, such as between the two camp units, every caution should be taken to keep machinery within the path under construction and out of the surrounding forest
  - Areas outside of the path that are affected by construction must be replanted with native plants and shrubs, in consultation with park natural and cultural resource staff
- New features
  - Do not introduce new features to the cultural landscape such as rain gardens, metal bollards, or metal gates. Historically appropriate bollards and gates should be wooden, or consist of appropriately sized and placed boulders.

Consider Conducting a Test Plot
Testing the material, color, and composition of the selected pavement ahead of full installation can determine a given material's compatibility with the cultural landscape.

Option A: ¾" Minus Crushed Stone w/ Fines (Aggregate Installation) (*Preferred Option*)

This option employs the use of a local stone aggregate and fines to create a stable, accessible trail surface. The angular crushed stone enmeshes with the fines and holds the path in place. This option allows new accessible paths to blend well into the historic landscape. It is also a low-cost and easy maintenance option, as it does not require special training or proprietary materials for repairs. This option was identified as among the best, most accessible paving materials in the 2014 National Trail Surface Study written by the National Center on Accessibility.[8] A similar version, Trail Surface Aggregate, was developed by the Penn State University Center for gravel roads and is discussed below.

Installation

- This paving material is easily installed by any contractor.
- It requires a stable, machine-compacted base. The National Trail Surface Study recommends two 3" lifts and 50 percent dust/fines.
- For best results, installation will require edging of some kind. This should be as low profile as possible to blend with the historic setting. Under no circumstances should the edging be highly visible; synthetic edging materials should be avoided.

Maintenance Considerations

- This material is prone to wash outs during weather events but can be easily repaired with basic tools.
- It requires occasional reapplication of material, notably along edges where water infiltrates and removes material or where significant wear is caused by pedestrians.
- In areas of high erosion or use, such as vehicle crossovers, a more durable material can be paired with the aggregate, such as exposed-aggregate or integral color concrete.
- This material can be driven over by machines, such as mowing equipment or trucks. However, depending on the edging selected, specifically designated vehicular crossovers may be necessary to preserve the edging.

Trail Surface Aggregate (TSA)

The Center for Dirt and Gravel Roads at Penn State University developed a specific aggregate mixture for accessible gravel trails. It is a slightly modified version of the preferred option described above. It uses high densities of stone aggregate to withstand high pedestrian traffic, while providing a firm and accessible surface to visitors. However, it requires greater planning on routing and surface crowning, as it does not employ edging.[9]

[8] WeConservePA, *Trails for All People: Guidance for Accessibility and Inclusive Design*, accessed July 5, 2022, https://penntrails.com/project/universal-access-trails-manual/.
[9] For more on Trail Surface Aggregate, see: https://dirtandgravel.psu.edu/about-the-center/trails/.

Pros	Cons
• The use of local aggregate can blend the paths with the historic landscape • Aesthetically compatible with historic conditions • High load capacity for vehicles • Good option for steep slopes • Low cost • Easy to maintain	• Requires periodical regrading, compacting, and reapplication of material • Prone to water/erosion along its edging • Can present challenge for snow/ice removal in winter months

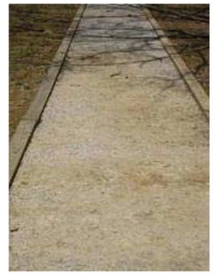

Photo 128 Three Quarter Inch Minus Limestone trail segment where water pooled after rain. March 13, 2008.

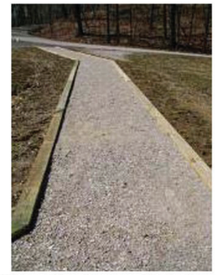

Photo 129 Three Quarter Inch Minus Limestone trail segment where water pooled after rain. March 13, 2008.

Photo 130 Three Quarter Inch Minus Limestone trail segment almost one year after installation. June 12, 2008.

Photo 131 Three Quarter Inch Minus Limestone trail segment remained firm under foot. March 17, 2009.

Figure 3: This excerpt from the National Trails Surface Study shows how ¾" minus limestone trails preformed after one year. (National Center on Accessibility)[10]

[10] National Center on Accessibility, "National Trails Surface Study," 2014, 71, https://www.americantrails.org/resources/national-trail-surfaces-study.

Option B: Crusher Fines with Stabilizer/Binder

Trails paved with crusher fines blend excellently with their natural settings and provide a durable, permeable, and natural trail surface. Crusher fines are the leftover debris from rock crushing operations. The range of sizes in crusher fines, as well as their rough edges, create an interlocked, stable trail surface. Paired with subgrade and proper drainage, these trails withstand most weather conditions and are accessible. However, improper site preparation, installation, or maintenance may present accessibility challenges.

Installation

- Trails paved with crusher fines should be given the same careful site preparation given to paved trails.
- Crusher fine trails work best with grades less than 5%; steeper slopes must employ other materials such as a stabilizer grid, concrete, or asphalt to meet accessibility requirements.
- Trail design should consider the installation of grade breaks and should focus on effective crowning.
- Crusher fines alone are not considered an accessible surface; to make the trail surface more durable, a stabilizer should be employed to bind the surface materials together.

Maintenance Considerations

- Drainage under and around the trails is the chief concern for crusher fines trails.
- Crusher fines should never be regularly saturated with water.
- Concentrated flows or run-off should not be able to pass over the trail surface.

Crusher Fines with Stabilizer	
Pros	**Cons**
• Accessible when combined with a stabilizer • Can blend well with the historic landscape using local materials • Permeable; reduces surface runoff • Low cost	• Prone to erosion when not properly graded or compacted • Can present accessibility challenges to some users when not well-compacted • Fines can spread well beyond the area installed, resulting in a widened trail • Requires periodical regrading, compacting, and reapplication of material • Suitable only to gentler slopes • Requires edging to keep the material in place • Stabilizers/binders are proprietary and may require specialized installation or training

Figure 4: This trail was installed at Wupatki National Monument, AZ using crushed fines and native stone edging.(American Trails)[11]

Figure 5: A crusher fines trail paired with a stabilizer is an accessible option for historic rural settings. (Lois Bachensky, USDA Forest Service via American Trails).

[11] Lois Bachensky, "What You Need to Know About Building Trails with Crusher Fines. Finely crushed compacted rock is a popular trail surface improvement throughout America." USDA Forest Service via https://www.americantrails.org/resources/building-crusher-fines-trails.

Option C: Decomposed Granite with Stabilizer/Binder

Decomposed granite is the natural byproduct of granite weathering. Decomposed granite pathways, like aggregate and crusher fines, employ small pieces of stone to create a stable trail surface. However, decomposed granite generally has rounded edges and is much finer than aggregate and crusher fines.

In areas prone to erosion, natural binders can be used to stabilize the surface. Binders also help the material to be more accessible. Decomposed granite is durable and can cost less than asphalt or concrete over its lifetime. It can also blend well in historic settings when the parent granite matches the geology of the landscape.[12]

Installation

The simple appearance of decomposed granite obscures the complexities of its installation process.[13] A good summary of considerations related to decomposed granite pathways in historic settings is located here: https://landscapearchitecturemagazine.org/2016/11/08/the-right-path/

Maintenance Considerations

Decomposed granite is a durable material that, when properly installed, should require little maintenance. Considerations should include:

- Scattering of surface materials
- Decomposed granite tends to spread beyond the area where it is initially installed, requiring reapplication semi-annually
- Winter conditions
- Decomposed granite cannot be plowed with a regular edge plow. Effective methods include adding a PVC pipe over the plow edge to keep gravel in place. However, this method can leave behind a thin layer of ice and snow.
- Sanding or salting the surface is inadvisable, as it is visually dissimilar. However, decomposed granite can be spread along the ice surface to create traction.

[12] Neil Budzinski and Matthew Girard, "The Right Path: A forensic approach found the best decomposed granite solution for Kenyon College," *Landscape Architecture Magazine*, November 8, 2016, https://landscapearchitecturemagazine.org/2016/11/08/the-right-path/.
[13] See also, Kafka Granite Company technical specifications: https://www.kafkagranite.com/pathway-materials/stabilized-pathway-mix.

Decomposed Granite with Stabilizer/Binder	
Pros • Visually compatible with historic settings • Very stable when well-compacted • Highly permeable; handles run-off well • Can be made accessible with the use of a binder	**Cons** • Tends to scatter around the site in which it is installed, and requires regular replenishment • Can stick to the shoes of visitors and be tracked indoors • Requires periodical regrading, compacting, and reapplication of material; high maintenance • Requires edging to keep the material in place • Not vehicle friendly • Stabilizers/binders are proprietary and may require specialized installation or training

Figure 6: Decomposed granite trail at Wupatki National Monument, Tucson, Arizona.[14]

[14] For more on accessible trails at Wupatki National Monument, see https://www.nps.gov/wupa/planyourvisit/accessibility.htm; Image source: https://acoupledaystravel.com/wupatki-national-monument/

Option D: Aggregate with Stabilizer Grid

This option is a modified version of Option A that employs a stabilizer grid in addition to the compacted aggregate with crusher fines. This option employs a local stone aggregate paired with a stabilizer grid in areas of high erosion or use. In areas where a stabilizer grid is employed, it is surfaced with aggregate to mask the grid. This option allows new accessible paths to blend well into the historic landscape while making gravel an accessible choice for paving. Aggregate with a stabilizer grid is a great option for steep slopes, where it would otherwise easily wash away. This option is only viable with regular maintenance and is not recommended by the NPS Park Cultural Landscape Program.[15]

Types of Stabilizer Grid

- GEOPAVE
- TrueGrid
- Gravel Pave II
- Safety Deck II

Installation

- Requires the same level of preparation for the site as does concrete or asphalt, including grading the site and preparing a compact base
- After preparation, due to the flexible nature of the grid, it can be installed quickly
- Can be cut and adapted to any shape, including curved trails
- Once the base and grid are installed, heavy equipment can be driven over the surface to spread the aggregate and crusher fines
- The stabilizer grid can be filled with any aggregate, including locally-sourced examples that could help paths blend with the historic landscape

Maintenance Considerations

- Snow and ice melt faster on a stabilizer grid than on concrete. They can also easily be snow-plowed. However, plowing can remove some aggregate that builds up in piles when the snow melts. Plowing can also expose the aggregate grid, damaging the historic setting unless it is recovered.
- This option will require regular reapplication of aggregate on the stabilizer grid surface to disguise the underlying grid structure
- Heavy use of gridded paths by pedestrians or vehicles will make the grid visible unless regular maintenance is conducted. Left exposed, the underlying plastic grid will detract from the historic setting of the cultural landscape.

[15] "Path & Trail Surface Alternatives for Cultural Landscape Applications." *Field* Notes, National Park Service, 22.

Compacted Aggregate w/ Crusher Fines and Stabilizer Grid	
Pros	**Cons**
• Reduces stormwater runoff in the landscape and allows water to penetrate directly into the ground • The use of local aggregate can blend the paths with the historic landscape • Aesthetically compatible with historic conditions (*when grid is disguised with aggregate*) • High load capacity for vehicles • Good option for steep slopes	• Requires periodical regrading, compacting, and reapplication of material (*especially to disguise grid*) • Prone to water/erosion along its edges of grid • Can present challenge for snow/ice removal in winter months • Stabilizer grids are proprietary and may require specialized installation or training • Difficult to remove once installed

Figure 7: When used on a natural trail, a stabilizer grid can provide an accessible, natural-looking alternative to gravel or asphalt. Among its downsides, however, is the visibility of the underlying grid where gravel has worn away. It should only be used in areas that need additional reinforcement but not in areas where aggregate can be used alone. (GEOPAVE)[16]

[16] https://www.prestogeo.com/gallery_presto/products/porous-pavements/geopave-aggregate-porous-pavement/

Option E: Permeable Pavements

Porous pavements are circulation treatments that allow stormwater to pass through surface pores before infiltrating a sub-surface reservoir or underdrain and proceeding into the ground. When properly maintained, they can reduce surface runoff, snow loads, and surface temperatures. They can be colored to match surrounding soils and blend into the historic environment. *Note: this is the option currently proposed for Cabin Camp 5.*

Types

- Porous Asphalt (e.g., Flexipave, Filterpave)
- Pervious Concrete

Installation

- Varies by type; see VA DEQ Stormwater Design Specification No. 7: Permeable Pavement, 21-24.

Maintenance Considerations

The maintenance regimes for porous pavements vary greatly by site and use. Some sites require minimal maintenance, while others require attention immediately after construction. Among the factors that influence this are available resources for maintenance, soil type, and weather conditions.[17]

Preventative maintenance tasks should include

- Regular use of regenerative air vacuum sweeping to clear the surface pores, adapted to the site based on the frequency of use. Vacuum sweeping should always be dry and should not include water spray, as this could cause further subsurface clogging.
- Keep adjacent soils from washing onto the pavement and clogging pores. This can be done with a gravel shoulder and drain adjacent to the paths or with edging that prevents flows onto the permeable surface.
- Annually remove debris from the surface, including leaves, weeds, soils, or other stains.
- Repair and replace in-kind broken joints or cracks; this cannot be done using traditional asphalt or concrete sealing methods.

Avoid

- Sanding
- Re-sealing
- Re-surfacing
- Power washing
- Storage of snow with sand or salt on the surface
- Storage of mulch or soil on the surface

[17] VA DEQ Stormwater Design Specification No. 7: Permeable Pavement, 9.2 Maintenance Tasks, pages 25-27, Accessed June 29, 2022, https://chesapeakestormwater.net/2012/03/design-specification-no-7-permeable-pavement/.

- Construction staging on or adjacent to the pavement without surface protection

Permeable Paving	
Pros	**Cons**
• Reduces stormwater runoff in the landscape and allows water to penetrate directly into the ground • Can be colored to match historic settings	• Requires a high level of maintenance • Performance degrades overtime as pores clog, even if maintained • Cannot be sanded or salted during winter conditions (pores will clog) • High-cost relative to other, traditional options

Figure 8: This permeable asphalt path (Flexipave) was installed at Yellowstone National Park. (TheCivilEngineer.org)[18]

[18] "Flexi-Pave: An asphalt replacement that can absorb 3,000 gallons of water per hour," TheCivilEngineer.org, accessed June 29, 2022, https://www.thecivilengineer.org/news-center/latest-news/item/1527-flexi-pave-an-asphalt-replacement-that-can-absorb-3-000-gallons-of-water-per-hour.

Other Standard Options (Briefly Noted):

The below options should not be used as the sole paving material in the cultural landscape. They may be considered in areas where the use of any of the previous materials is not possible. Such areas may include building skirting, steep grades, or road crossings.

Option F: Exposed Aggregate or Integral Color Concrete

Exposed aggregate concrete can use a local aggregate to blend well with the surrounding soils. Integral color concrete can be matched, formed, and stamped to appear as other materials such as stone, wood, or brick. It can be employed in historic settings to blend well with the landscape. Both exposed aggregate and integral color concrete have a high initial cost but frequently outlive most other paving materials.

When done incorrectly, however, concrete can add an air of artificiality or urbaneness to a historic setting. This can be due to improper coloring, artificial texturing and stamping, or the material's overuse in the landscape.

Concrete should not be used as a primary material but could be employed in areas of high traffic, such as where pedestrian paths cross roadways. Here, the concrete could be colored or should employ an aggregate that matches the surrounding soils to blend with the historic landscape.

Option G: Chip and Seal Asphalt (Macadam)

Chip and seal asphalt, or macadam, is one of the oldest hard-surfacing paving methods employed on trails. It consists of an asphalt base surfaced with aggregate stone. In limited cases, this surface stone can be local aggregate, and the paving can blend better with historic settings. This is a low-cost, accessible option; however, it does not often blend well with historic landscapes, owing to the dark color of the underlying asphalt.[19]

Option H: Rainbow Turf

Rainbow turf is a synthetic paving material made of recycled tires. It offers a low-impact, slip-resistant surface. It can be easily installed and last a long time. However, the product has a high initial cost and must be installed by a licensed installer. Without the use of proprietary synthetic binders, which require specialized training and maintenance, it is not an accessible paving material. [20]

[19] "Path & Trail Surface Alternatives for Cultural Landscape Applications." *Field* Notes, National Park Service, 23.
[20] *Ibid.*, 21.

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