

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

# National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

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

## 1. Name of Property

historic name Maxville

other names/site number N/A

Name of Multiple Property Listing N/A

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

## 2. Location

street & number [REDACTED]  not for publication

city or town [REDACTED]  vicinity

state Oregon code OR county Wallowa code \_\_\_\_\_ zip code [REDACTED]

## 3. State/Federal Agency Certification

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

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

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

Applicable National Register Criteria: X A \_\_\_ B \_\_\_ C X D

Signature of certifying official/Title: Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer Date \_\_\_\_\_

Oregon State Historic Preservation Office  
State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

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

Signature of commenting official Date \_\_\_\_\_

Title \_\_\_\_\_ State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

## 4. National Park Service Certification

I hereby certify that this property is:

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

Signature of the Keeper Date of Action \_\_\_\_\_

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**5. Classification**

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

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

**Category of Property**  
 (Check only **one** box.)

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

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

Contributing	Noncontributing	
	1	buildings
5		site
7		structure
		object
12	1	<b>Total</b>

**Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register**

N/A

**6. Function or Use**

**Historic Functions**  
 (Enter categories from instructions.)

INDUSTRY/PROCESSING/EXTRACTION:

manufacturing facility

RECREATION AND CULTURE: outdoor

recreation, campground

AGRICULTURAL/SUBSISTENCE: agricultural

field, pasture

**Current Functions**  
 (Enter categories from instructions.)

LANDSCAPE: forest

RECREATION AND CULTURE

**7. Description**

**Architectural Classification**  
 (Enter categories from instructions.)

N/A

**Materials**  
 (Enter categories from instructions.)

foundation: \_\_\_\_\_

walls: \_\_\_\_\_

roof: \_\_\_\_\_

other: \_\_\_\_\_

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### Narrative Description

(Describe the historic and current physical appearance and condition of the property. Describe contributing and noncontributing resources if applicable. Begin with a **summary paragraph** that briefly describes the general characteristics of the property, such as its location, type, style, method of construction, setting, size, and significant features. Indicate whether the property has historic integrity).

#### Summary Paragraph

Maxville is located in the Blue Mountains in Wallowa County in northeast Oregon. The district includes the archaeological remains of a logging town built by the Bowman-Hicks Lumber company in 1922 (Highberger 2010:141). The district includes sites, features, and artifacts associated with the company's industrial logging operation and railroad as well as the remains of the associated town for the company's employees. Thousands of industrial and domestic artifacts dating to the period of significance are scattered across the 107-acre district, and within this are the footprints of at least three industrial buildings, two railroad grades, a dam and log holding pond, a remnant railroad water tank, natural springs with associated iron pipes, the remains of an oxen-pulled snow plow, a two-track road system, remnant facilities of the town's water system, the town's baseball diamond, at least two dense artifact scatters likely associated with homes and businesses of Maxville's residents, and the town's Superintendent's Lodge, which is currently being rebuilt and restored. All of these, with the exception of the Superintendent's Lodge, are contributing resources to the Maxville District. Although second growth forest has encroached upon some of the site, an open meadow remains and the site retains the rural character it had when it was in use between 1922 and the mid-1940s. The most historically significant aspect of the Maxville district is that among some 400 residents were both white and African-American families, a rarity in the Pacific Northwest and a kind of story heretofore seldom told or commemorated. In 2022, the property was acquired by the Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center of Joseph, Oregon, who plan to manage and interpret the site for the public, emphasizing the history of the timber industry and the experiences of Black loggers in the Pacific Northwest.

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### Narrative Description

#### *Setting*

The Maxville district is located in Wallowa County approximately 30 miles northwest of the town of Enterprise, Oregon in Sections 15 and 16 of Township 3 North and Range 42 East on the USGS 7.5' Akers Butte 7.5' (1982) quadrangle (Figure 1 and Figure 2). The property includes a section of Bishop Creek, a tributary of Wallupa Creek that joins the Grand Ronde River some 20 kilometers to the north. The Grand Ronde River in turn flows north to eventually confluence with the Snake River on the Washington-Idaho State border. Maxville lies in the Blue Mountains physiographic province of northeastern Oregon at an elevation of between 1219 meters (4,000 feet) and 1320 meters (4330 feet) above sea level (Orr et al. 1992). The Blue Mountains, generally speaking, are bordered by the Snake River canyon to the east, the Great Basin to the south, the Columbia River gorge to the north, and the High (i.e. Eastern) Cascades to the west (Orr et al. 1992). A number of individual ranges separated by faulted valleys and synclinal basins define this region (Franklin and Dyrness 1988). Beginning with the low hills of the Ochoco Mountains and rising to glaciated summits in the Wallowa Mountains, the region is characterized by a wide uplifted plateau to the west and sculpted mountain peaks, deep canyons, and broad valleys to the east. This province can be geologically divided into several terranes—i.e. rock transported over millions of years tectonically separated by later faulting. The Maxville district lies on the Wallowa Terrane which is itself a sheared, deformed, and overturned portion of ancient earth crust of Permian, Triassic, and Jurassic age. The region became glaciated during the Pleistocene Epoch after two million years ago, and while never completely covered in ice, valleys now containing streams contained glaciers. Valley floors are filled with gravel, sand, and silt runoff, and nearby volcanic activity has deposited ash and pumice into the region's sediments (Franklin and Dyrness 1988:28). Sediments in higher elevation areas of the Blue Mountains tend towards regosols (dark brown loamy soil derived from the indigenous underlying terrane) or argixerolls (dark brown prairie soils derived from igneous materials).

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The Maxville district lies in the *Abies Lasiocarpa* vegetation zone as defined by Franklin and Dyrness (1988:204-206), a subalpine zone comprised primarily of Alpine fir (*Abies Lasiocarpa*), spruce (*Picea* spp.), and lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta*). The fauna in this region are relatively diverse and consist of a variety of mammals, birds, and fish, including deer (*Odocoileus* spp.), elk (*Cervus canadensis*), golden eagle (*Aquila chrysaetos*), bald eagle (*Haliaeetus leucocephalus*), prairie falcon (*Falco mexicanus*), woodpecker (*Dryocopus* spp.), rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*), and brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) (Minor et al. 1987). Mule deer (*Odocoileus hemionus*) is the most abundant large game animal. Although now rare in Oregon, moose (*Alces alces*), bison (*Bison bison*) and mountain sheep (*Ovis canadensis*) were also once abundant, and while it is not clear if it was their natural habitat the mountain goat (*Oreamnos americanus*) has been introduced in the Wallowa and Cascade mountains (Minor et al. 1987:18). In addition to the large game present in the region, carnivores such as coyote (*Canis latrans*), raccoon (*Procyon lotor*), badger (*Taxidea taxus*), mountain lion (*Felis concolor*), bobcat (*Lynx rufus*), and black bear (*Ursus americanus*) are also present. Although hunted out by 1931, Idaho grizzlies (*Ursus arctos*) along with the gray wolf (*Canis lupus*) used to populate the area, although wolves have recently made a comeback (Minor et al. 1987:19). Rabbits and numerous rodents also inhabit the region along with various snakes and amphibians, while the major rivers and their tributaries are host to native fish including rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*), Dolly Varden trout (*Salvelinus malma*), mountain whitefish (*Prosopium williamsoni*), minnows (*Cyprinidae* spp.), suckers (*Catostomidae* spp.), and sculpin (*Cottidae* spp.).

The southern third of the Maxville district includes the northern portion of a forested plateau that rises sharply over 300 feet above the surrounding terrain, and the north slope of this plateau includes several springs that were employed and improved as sources of water for the Maxville community during the period of significance (Photo 1). Below and to the north of this plateau, bordered on the east by Promise Road, is a relatively flat terrace that overlooks a lower, seasonally wet meadow to the west, and this terrace, as described below, is generally where much of the residential and industrial portions of Maxville were located (Photo 2). This terrace borders and overlooks the flood plain of the west-to-east running Bishop Creek. The landscape slopes upward rapidly north of Bishop Creek away from the district.

According to the Natural Resources Conservation Services website<sup>1</sup>, the Maxville district includes several different soil types. The plateau and hill slope on the south are comprised of 329 Tolo Getaway Complex soils, a well-drained silt/clay/loam colluvium found on hill slopes comprised of up to 59 inches of loess and cobbles over igneous bedrock. Soils in the seasonally wet meadow are 354 Wilkins Silt Loam, a poorly drained silt/loam found in mountain valleys comprised of 15-30 inches of alluvium loess and volcanic ash over igneous bedrock. Soil on the terrace containing the Maxville townsite include 59 Cowley-Howmeadows-Sherod complex, a moderately well drained silt/loam comprised of up to 60 inches of loess and bedrock residuum. Finally, soil in the Bishop Creek floodplain include 224 Olot-Anatone Complex, a well-drained silt-loam comprised of up to 47 inches of loess, cobbles, clay, and igneous residuum over bedrock.

Since being abandoned in the mid-1940s, the Maxville district has been used for livestock grazing, recreational camping, and small-scale timber cutting. Although there are a few more second growth coniferous trees than evident in the contemporary photographs of Maxville, it has retained its basic historic character of a gently forested terrace overlooking an open wetland meadow along Bishop's Creek.

<sup>1</sup> <https://websoilsurvey.sc.egov.usda.gov/App/WebSoilSurvey.aspx>, accessed 9 June 2022.

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### *Archaeological Investigations*

Archaeological work at the Maxville district has included reviewing the Oregon State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) archaeological inventory and other research material relevant to the site area, identifying oral histories, primary documents, and other information relevant to the spatial layout of the Maxville townsite, conducting an ongoing pedestrian survey of the property using students from Eastern Oregon University and Southern Oregon University, and conducting geophysical survey of the reinstallation of a restored structure—the Maxville Superintendent’s Lodge—onto its original footprint (Tveskov and Becker 2022).

No previous archaeological research had been conducted within or in the vicinity of Maxville. Promise Road, the road that accesses the site from the Wallowa River valley to the south, followed the route of an existing unimproved trail, and while there is documentary evidence of a homestead somewhere in the vicinity, settler use began in earnest in 1922 when the Bowman-Hicks company established Maxville (see below). Archaeological research was guided by a memory map drafted and compiled by Irene Barklow and Eugene Hayes that is based on local oral history and historic photographs assembled by the Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center, and this map contains a wealth of spatial information about the original layout of Maxville (Figure 3). Although not geographically accurate, the memory map provides a schematic that shows the layout of the community and how it could be considered in terms of three general areas; along the central and western area of the district is the industrial/administrative center that is adjacent to the main rail line that contained (according to the memory map) the railroad roundhouse, the Superintendent’s Lodge, the company store, the post office, and other facilities. The town’s hotel and sheriff’s office were found along the southern edge of this area along the still-existing east-west road that connects the Lodge to Promise Road. To the east and south of the industrial/administrative area was one of the residential zones for Maxville, comprised of at least 48 individual residences, each, apparently, with its own privy. This area also included a school house, and, to the west adjacent to the meadow, a teacher’s home and a horse barn. A baseball field and a swimming hole were located in the meadow to the west. At least until the town was officially decommissioned in 1933 by Bowman-Hicks, the southern area of the district appears to have been inhabited by Maxville’s white residents: the memory map shows the “Black Log Cutter’s Housing” area instead on the northeastern corner of the district between the railroad tracks and Bishop Creek. This area is comprised of 12 houses in two rows, each again with its own privy, and in the southeast corner adjacent to Promise Road, a “Black Kid’s schoolhouse.” The town was finally abandoned after a major snow storm in the mid-1940s destroyed many of the remaining structures (e.g. Marsh 2014-508).

The archaeological survey was also guided by historic aerial photography. No contemporary map or plat of Maxville has yet been identified, but the Aerial Photography Collection of the Map Library at the University of Oregon does contain a time series of aerial photographs that show some of the district before all of its buildings had been removed or fully dilapidated. The earliest of these dates to 1946, a time when Maxville had been officially abandoned by Bowman-Hicks since 1933 (Figure 4). By then many buildings had been removed, but oral histories suggest that some Black residents were still living there (e.g. Marsh 2014:507-508). The 1946 photo shows the two roads that still exist today running east-west through the property and that abut Promise Road on the east, and it also shows the western most north-south road still extant. Also visible on this photo are the still standing Superintendent’s Lodge, at least one industrial building in the meadow near Bishop Creek, the dam across Bishop’s Creek, the pond behind the dam, and a building that was possibly originally the Maxville hotel. This dam and pond still exist today, and were presumably for use by Bowman Hicks as a logging pond (i.e. a storage area to keep cut logs wet) and for other water needs. The aerial photo also clearly shows, in the meadow, the baseball diamond. About a dozen other buildings were still standing at this time, and most of these appear to be in the area identified as originally for the white people’s residences along the western north-south running road. It is possible however, that these buildings were repurposed by the families—

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whether Black or white—remaining at Maxville through the mid-1940s. Most other buildings appear to be gone by this time.

Aerial photographs from 1947 and 1958 are of poorer quality or do not show much change to Maxville, but by 1964, the majority of the remaining buildings save for the Superintendent's Lodge and one structure in the residential area have been removed. The dam and pond are still evident (as they are to this day), but the baseball diamond is now obscured in the meadow vegetation. These configurations do not change in 1966 and 1971 aerial photographs.

Pedestrian archaeological survey of the 107-acre Maxville district began in 2021 using volunteers as well as students from Eastern Oregon University and Southern Oregon University, and is ongoing (Figure 5). This survey has occurred in two modes: Eastern Oregon University students under the direction of Rory Becker, PhD have surveyed seven individual 20 m x 20 m blocks randomly placed in the most artifact-rich areas of the portions of Maxville inferred to represent heart of the residential or business areas. Southern Oregon University students under the direction of Mark Axel Tveskov, PhD conducted pedestrian survey outside of the densest areas of surface artifacts, mostly along the southern half of the townsite. This survey proceeded in five meter parallel transects, and artifacts, discrete artifact concentrations, and features were recorded. Ground visibility across the property was sometimes poor due to pine needles, grass, and other ground cover, but overall was good to excellent, and cultural features and thousands twentieth century artifacts—many identifiable to the period of significance—are readily visible across the Maxville district.

#### *Contributing and Non-Contributing Resources*

Five contributing archaeological sites – i.e. “the location of a significant event, ... occupation, or activity, or a building or structure” (Little 2000:44) and seven contributing structures, i.e. “functional constructions made usually for purposes other than creating human structure” (Little 2000:44) were inventoried. Additionally, one non-contributing building—the currently-being-restored-Superintendent's Lodge—was inventoried.

#### *Artifacts:*

Although not tabulated towards the resource count, the thousands of artifacts identified during archaeological surveys of Maxville are integral to establishing the boundaries and spatial layout of the town and to defining its character and significance: i.e. the archaeological remains of a logging town dating to the first half of the twentieth century. Artifacts relating to the period of significance are found more or less continuously across the entire district, with the highest densities in the Bishop Creek floodplain and on the terrace to the south for up to about 100 meters south of the east-west running two track road that appears to conform to the main east-west road through Maxville on the memory map. Beyond that to the south the artifact densities become sparser, although there are concentrations of artifacts in places. Identification of the artifacts and the field survey remain ongoing, but the majority are ceramic, glass, or metal items associated with mid- to early 20<sup>th</sup> century domestic life and with industrial logging and railroading, i.e. to the period of significance.

Ceramic artifacts included ceramic prosser buttons and porcelain or refined earthenware plain or transfer printed dish, cup, bowl, and other tableware fragments (Figure 6). More institutional-style green banded white refined earthenware fragments—i.e. “hotel ware” were commonly found along both Bishop Creek and on the terrace area to the south. Glass artifacts included numerous domestic items such as fragments of clear or aqua colored glass condiment and medicinal vessels as well as milk glass “cold cream” or other similar cosmetic vessels (Figure 7). Fragments of pressed-glass bowls or compotes were identified, as were large amounts of blue glass milk-of-magnesia style bottles and bottle fragments. Some of the clear glass bottles had Owens maker's marks that placed them in the period of significance, and virtually all the bottles had threaded openings and mold seams indicating 20<sup>th</sup> century manufacture.

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There was a relative absence of alcohol bottles; the period of significance overlaps with Prohibition, but the dearth of such artifacts is still notable. Metal artifacts were ubiquitous across the district, and these include construction debris such as wire nails and threaded bolts and nuts, copper telegraph wire and ceramic insulators (Figure 8), domestic debris such as tableware and enamel ware dishes and pots, shoe leather, mason-type zinc jar lids with glass liners, dozens of crushed aluminum, galvanized steel, or ferrous metal water and kerosene buckets (Figure 9 and Figure 10), tools and tool fragments were observed, and these included files, a saw blade, and a double headed axe.

The remains of a wooden snow plow originally pulled by oxen is located on the eastern edge of the Maxville district along Promise Road (Photo 3). This artifact covers an area two meters by two meters and is a collection of square milled timber beams that have been rivetted together with large threaded and non-threaded iron bolts to form an angle. The artifact is in poor repair, having fallen over onto its side and partially collapsed. This item was identified by the late Eugene Hayes who remembered the plow in operation (Figure 11).

Two artifacts of Indigenous manufacture were identified. One was a four-centimeter-long two-centimeter-wide piece of obsidian that was found near Building 2 on the south side of Bishop Creek. This artifact is an early stage reduction flake that has been expediently modified to form a cutting tool. A projectile point manufactured from white chert was also identified, and this artifact's tip is broken off and it is a corner-notched form with a wide neck and a convex base. The point is 3.3 cm long (along a broken dimension), 1.5 cm wide, and .6 cm thick. Neither of the Indigenous artifacts were collected, and no other Indigenous-manufactured artifacts were seen to indicate the presence of a significant pre-settler archaeological site. Although not likely dating to the period of significance, these artifacts do provide additional context and information about the locale and its history, as they speak to some degree of Indigenous use of the Bishop Creek area.

*Contributing Sites:*

*Contributing Site, Building 1:* Building 1 is an archaeological feature visible on the ground surface in the [redacted] of Bishop Creek. It is located at [redacted] (Photo 4). The feature is a vaguely oval area of graded earth approximately 18 meters in diameter that is [redacted]. The area is heavily vegetated with tall grass and ground visibility within the feature is poor, [redacted]. This feature is near [redacted] portion of Maxville.

The function of Building 1 is unclear. It appears to be the remains of the footprint of one of the industrial buildings, and is hypothesized by many visitors to possibly be the remains of the railroad turntable or roundhouse, which is circumstantially plausible. Dense ground cover prevents a more detailed assessment of this feature from the surface, but as an archaeological site it appears to retain its archaeological integrity and research potential. Building 1 is an apparently intact archaeological feature that could potentially yield significant information about the industrial use of Maxville.

*Contributing Site, Building 2:* Building 2 is an archaeological feature visible on the ground surface in the [redacted] (Photo 5). The feature is a rectangular graded surface [redacted]. The feature is littered with hundreds of artifacts consistent with the period of significance, and these include [redacted]. Some of the bricks bear makers marks,

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including those used by the Washington Brick and Lime Company between 1921 and 1957 (Figure 12).<sup>2</sup>

[REDACTED]

The exact function of Building 2 is unknown, [REDACTED] indicate this building was central to Maxville's industrial activities as a hub for railroad logging. As an archaeological site, the feature is rich in artifacts and retains a high degree of archaeological integrity and [REDACTED]. Building 2 is a rich archaeological deposit with excellent integrity and could potentially yield significant information about the industrial use of Maxville.

*Contributing Site, Building 3:* Building 3 is an archaeological feature visible on the ground surface in the

[REDACTED] (Photo 6). The feature is a rectangular graded surface [REDACTED]. The feature is littered with hundreds of artifacts consistent with the period of significance, and these include [REDACTED].

A notable feature of this structure is a series [REDACTED]

The exact function of Building 3 is unknown, but its association with [REDACTED] Maxville's industrial activities. The [REDACTED] As an archaeological site, the feature is rich in artifacts and retains a high degree of archaeological integrity, and the outline of the building can be discerned on the surface. Building 3 is a rich archaeological deposit with excellent integrity and could potentially yield significant information about the industrial use of Maxville.

*Contributing Site, Building 4:* Building 4 is an archaeological feature [REDACTED]

[REDACTED] (Photo 7). The feature is a 10-meter diameter roughly circular [REDACTED] and hundreds of artifacts consistent with the period of significance are present. These artifacts include domestic items such as amethyst, brown, cobalt blue, and clear bottle glass fragments, toy ceramic and metal spoon fragments, refined earthenware dish and cup fragments as well as structural remains such as wire nails, bricks, and gravel.

Building 4 corresponds spatially to [REDACTED] and it is possible that this feature represents the remains of this building. [REDACTED] i.e. residential or commercial use of that building. This feature appears to retain its archaeological integrity, and could potentially yield

<sup>2</sup> "Washington Bricks" by Dan Mosier, <https://www.washingtonbricks.com/brick.wacobm.html> Accessed April 15, 2023.



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additional information about the social and residential use of Maxville, including how the district was used after being decommissioned by Bowman Hicks in 1933.

*Contributing Site, Building 5:* Building 5 is a complex of archaeological debris [redacted] Maxville. Building 5 is a spread of archaeological material generally oval in shape that covers a 3,000 m<sup>2</sup> area and [redacted]. Dozens of artifacts consistent with the period of significance were observed in this area, and these included banded refined earthenware tableware fragments, hand painted ceramic fragments, Japanese ceramics, aqua glass fragments, a key and side strip of a sanitary can that is possibly from a coffee can, fragments of sheet metal, a ferrous metal shovel head, ceramic doll parts, and a copper alloy harmonica part with fragments of the original copper alloy reeds (Figure 12, Figure 13, Figure 14, Figure 15, and Figure 16). [redacted] Photo 8).

Building 5 corresponds spatially to [redacted] and some of these were still standing in 1946. This area corresponds to where white employees lived between 1922 and 1933, and was still in use by Black residents for another decade after Bowman-Hicks abandoned and dismantled most of the town. The artifacts [redacted] consistent with domestic use of the area, and appear to retain excellent archaeological integrity and potential for future research into the social history of Maxville between 1922 and 1946.

*Contributing Structures:*

*Contributing Structure, Structure 1:* Structure 1 is found in the northwestern section of Maxville near Building 1, Building 2, and Building 3, and appears to represent the foundation of a cast iron and riveted water tank or cistern (Photo 9 and Photo 10). The superstructure of the tank appears to have been cut off several inches from the ground surface (perhaps in an attempt to salvage the metal), leaving a large circular platform of riveted iron that is 4.5 meters in diameter, the equivalent of a 15-foot diameter tank. Much of this platform—that originally formed the internal floor of the tank—is covered with bitumen or some similar black sticky petroleum substance that was possibly originally meant as a sealant for waterproofing. Some of this bitumen has flowed beyond and out of the feature downslope to the north.

Structure 1 is located amid the area containing rail road grades [redacted] and is likely a water storage tank associated with the industrial and railroading activities of Maxville. Structure 1 appears to retain good archaeological integrity and contributes to and understanding of the layout of industrial activities within the district.

*Contributing Structure, Structure 2:* Structure 2 is a linear earthen ramp or grade that runs east-west from the top of the terrace down into the floodplain of Bishop Creek in the northern portion of the site (Photo 11). This ramp is up to three meters wide and 150 meters long and provides access from the terrace down eastward to the Bishop Creek floodplain, and possibly represents a spur railroad grade that ran off the main east-west rail line along the edge of the terrace that has since been destroyed by the construction of the modern east-west logging road.

As an archaeological feature, Structure 2 retains integrity and contributes to an understanding of the layout of the industrial features within the district. Following a pre-war trend in portable and pre-fabricated houses for use in logging camps, the memory map and the oral histories of the site indicate that between 1922 and 1933, Maxville's Black residents lived in portable houses mounted on railcars or skids on the Bishop Creek floodplain, and this ramp is possibly the access point for these rail cars.

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*Contributing Structure, Structure 3:* Structure 3 is a linear feature of mounded and graded earth that extends [REDACTED] that represents a rail road grade that was constructed to hold one of Maxville's rail lines (Photo 12). The grade is up to 1.5-meter-wide and runs at least 130 meters eastward. The grade contains parallel corrugations where railroad ties have been removed. This rail line passes between Structure 6 the water tank to the south and Building 3 the possible industrial building to the north.

Structure 3 retains excellent archaeological integrity and contributes to an understanding of the layout and circulation of industrial activities within the district.

*Contributing Structure, Structure 4:* Structure 4 is the system of two track dirt roads—each up to three meters in width—that cross the Maxville district (Photo 13). This structure has two components: the east-west road that runs from Promise Road to just south of the Superintendents Lodge, and a north-south road that runs from the Superintendents Lodge to the south. Both roads have continued to be in use for recreational purposes until recently, and appear to represent the remnants of portions of Maxville's original road grid. The east-west road runs for some 350 meters and the north-south road runs for some 400 meters. Based on the historical series of aerial photographs, the east-west road could represent one of the central roads of Maxville that ran from Promise Road west past the hotel and the post office and terminated just south of the Superintendent's Lodge. The north-south road likely represents the western most of the two north-south arteries of Maxville, and this road remained in use even after the logging operations ceased in the 1933 but before Maxville had been entirely abandoned by its inhabitants. On the memory map, the original roads are described as "two mud ruts," suggesting that they were not significantly improved during the period of significance, and so they remain today, although some gravel has been added to the east-west road at some point in the later 20<sup>th</sup> century.

Structure 4 retains good archaeological integrity and contributes to an understanding of the layout of industrial and residential activities at the site. The roads have already helped provide a baseline to compare the memory map and historic aerial photographs that have allowed an understanding of the physical layout of the Maxville district to develop.

*Contributing Structure, Structure 5:* Structure 5 is a system of natural springs and waterworks of cast iron pipes and ditches that are evident across the surface of the district. Eight natural springs of clear cold water have been positively identified and mapped at the site so far, all on the south end of the terrace at the base of the slope below the rising landform to the south. In at least three locations, segments of ½-inch, 1-inch, and 2-inch diameter cast iron pipe of various lengths have been identified, and two of these are directly associated with extant springs. In one area near the meadow, metal pipe runs northwest from a spring, and at one point the pipe is visible horizontally for ~25 meters in a ditch reinforced by large lengths of milled timber that serve to keep the trench walls from collapsing (Photo 14). On the memory map, "water mains" are indicated as following both of Maxville's north-south running roads.

Structure 5 is an extensive system of pipes, springs, and trenches that have not yet been fully mapped. However, the portions that have been documented speak to a complex system developed at Maxville to move clean water downhill from natural springs to the residential and industrial areas of the site. Given the lack of disturbance to the Maxville site since its abandonment in the 1940s, this structure could potentially document an important aspect of the technology of the Maxville logging town and of logging towns of this era generally.

*Contributing Structure 6:* Structure 6 is an earthen dam that crosses Bishop Creek from north to south in the northeast corner of the Maxville townsite (Photo 15 and Photo 16). The dam is up to two meters high and two meters wide, and is 45 meters long from north-to-south. The still extant pool behind the dam to the west is 250 meters long and covers 14,000 square meters. The dam and pool are part of the railroad

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and industrial complex of Maxville and possibly served as a logging pond, i.e. as a storage pond to keep cut logs from drying out. [REDACTED].

Structure 6 has been eroded but still retains its basic configuration and archaeological integrity, and contributes to our understanding of industrial activity and its physical layout at the Maxville Townsite.

*Contributing Structure 7:* Structure 7 is a diamond-shaped area covering 50 m by 50 m visible in the 1946 aerial photo located within the meadow of Bishops Creek to the west of Maxville's residential area (Photo 17). Among the most evocative oral traditions of Maxville are the games played on the town's baseball field, either between the racially segregated teams from Maxville itself or between Maxville and teams from other communities. Today, there is no visible trace of the baseball diamond, but the spot remains an open, level, and grassy meadow and thus retains much of the location, setting, and feel of the original playing field.

Structure 7 has no visible surface manifestation today, but the locale—a level, open grassy meadow located just west of the residential area of the site—retains the basic characteristics that likely fostered the residents of Maxville to gather together and watch and play baseball in this spot. One could play baseball at or near this spot today, if the grass was mowed.

*Non-Contributing Building 1, The Superintendent's Lodge:* The Superintendent's Lodge—a large, non-prefabricated log cabin—was the center of the business activities at the Bowman-Hicks operation at Maxville and the building was the sole remaining relatively intact structure from the period of significance that has survived to the present day (Figure 17 and Photo 18; Carter 2015). The lodge is a large log building (measuring 32' by 57') with wood-sash windows, a wrap-around porch, and a large, stone, end-wall fireplace on its eastern wall. During the Bowman-Hicks years, the lodge served as the "centerpiece" of Maxville and the Bowman-Hicks superintendent would host visitors in the building (Carter 2015). Some 60 years following the abandonment of Maxville, children and grandchildren of the original logging families began researching the history of the town and uncovering the stories of their ancestors, which led to the founding of the Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center, a nonprofit organization dedicated to preserving, interpreting and disseminating the history of Maxville (Trice 2012). In 2015, in grave disrepair, the Lodge was dismantled and moved to nearby Enterprise, Oregon for restoration. The work of recordation was designed to follow the NPS Heritage Documentation Standards-HABS Guide to Field Documentation, Level I. This recordation was prepared in-part, with funds provided by the Oregon State Parks and the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO), and a report on the historic significance of the lodge itself was prepared by Liz Carter (2015). BLH Custom (Log) Construction dismantled the Lodge on Memorial Day weekend, 2015 with a combination of hand labor and a front loader with fork lifts. The logs were loaded on a flatbed truck and hauled to the BLH operation yard in Enterprise for protected storage. The original foundation of the lodge was constructed with a log post and beam system. Following its removal, the Lodge site was capped with crushed rock. The restored lodge is, as of spring 2023, being reinstalled in the Maxville district within its original footprint.

Currently, the majority of the superstructure of the Superintendent's Lodge has been restored in Enterprise and await installation upon a newly laid concrete foundation on the original site within the district. Given the significant modifications to the Superintendent's Lodge following its dilapidation and subsequent piece-by-piece removal, restoration, and re-installation, the building itself is possibly not eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. However, the Maxville Heritage and Interpretive Center is restoring the building in the spirit of its original historic character and it will be used as the center for efforts to commemorate and interpret the Maxville district. In this role, it replicates its original form and function as the administrative and social center of Maxville and it thus constitutes an essential non-contributing resource to the district.

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*District Integrity*

The archaeological survey and local oral history indicate that following the final abandonment of Maxville in the mid-1940s, the property was used for livestock grazing, hunting, occasional small-scale logging, and recreational camping. The impacts of these activities are found across the district in the form of late 20<sup>th</sup> century artifacts, shell casings, expedient fire rings, abandoned cars and car parts, and trash dumps. One significant impact to the site is the grading and installation of a dirt logging road running east-west on the edge of the terrace overlooking the Bishop Creek floodplain to the north. This construction happened sometime in the 1970s or 1980s, and it appears that it was placed on top of an east-west running railroad grade that originally provided access to Maxville from Promise Road. Likewise, the Superintendent's Lodge long remained a focus of recreational camping and gathering, and the lodge has since been dismantled removed, and is in the process of being reinstalled within its original footprint (Tveskov and Becker 2022). These activities have likely impacted the archaeological record in and around the Lodge area and along the southern dirt two track road.

On the larger scale however, despite these impacts, the majority of the district remains relatively undisturbed since the 1940s, and the Superintendent's Lodge is in the process of continuing its role as the centerpiece of Maxville. The Maxville district retains the look and feel of the environment and the setting within which the logging town of Maxville was constructed as evidenced by historic photographs and oral histories of the site. The town's buildings were built among the trees to the south and east of Bishop Creek, and the scenic open meadow to the west appears much as it did when the town's residents played baseball there. Even with the light, non-invasive archaeological survey techniques used to date, the district demonstrably contains a relatively intact and robust archaeological record that is the remnants of Maxville's industrial, civic, and residential history and culture. The archaeological potential of the Maxville district is augmented by the wealth of oral history, written and photographic documentary evidence, and curated material culture housed at the Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center in nearby Joseph, Oregon.

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**8. Statement of Significance**

**Applicable National Register Criteria**

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

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

**Criteria Considerations**

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

Property is:

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

**Areas of Significance**

(Enter categories from instructions.)

INDUSTRY

ARCHEOLOGY: HISTORIC NON-

ABORIGINAL

ETHNIC HERITAGE: BLACK

**Period of Significance**

1922-1947

**Significant Dates**

1922 Maxville established

1933 Bowman-Hicks Company leaves

Maxville

1947 final abandonment of Maxville

**Significant Person**

(Complete only if Criterion B is marked above.)

N/A

**Cultural Affiliation** (if applicable)

BLACK

EUROPEAN

**Architect/Builder**

N/A

**Period of Significance (justification)**

The period of significance of the Maxville district begins in 1922, when the property was obtained by the Bowman-Hicks company of Missouri and began to build the logging town of Maxville that would become home to over 400 people—many of them immigrants from the American South, including a significant number of Black families. Although the company officially abandoned the town in 1933, many families remained living there until 1947 when a heavy snow storm destroyed most of the remaining buildings. This marks the end of the period of significance.

**Criteria Considerations (explanation, if necessary) N/A**

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**Statement of Significance Summary Paragraph** (Provide a summary paragraph that includes level of significance, applicable criteria, justification for the period of significance, and any applicable criteria considerations).

The Maxville district is significant under both Criterion A and Criterion D for its association with the expansion and contraction of industrial logging into northeastern Oregon during the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and for its association with the lives of Black families who came to Oregon from the south to work in the timber industry. The district consists of 107-acres of forest land and meadow that retains the setting, look, and feel of the place when used for logging operations and as a segregated worker's town. Maxville included a railroad facility, a log holding pond, segregated residential housing, a company headquarters, a store, a hotel, a sheriff's office, a post office, at least two schools (one for white children and one for Black children), and a horse barn. The remains of many of these buildings and facilities are evident in the rich and relatively intact archaeological record identified across the district, and these remains includes thousands of industrial and domestic artifacts dating to the period of significance, the footprints of at least three industrial buildings, two railroad grades, the town's two-track roads, a dam and log holding pond, a remnant railroad water tank, natural springs with associated iron pipes and other remnant facilities of the town's water system, the town's baseball diamond, the town's oxen-pulled snow plow, and at least two dense artifact scatters likely associated with homes and businesses of Maxville's residents, including the town's hotel.

**Narrative Statement of Significance** (Provide at least **one** paragraph for each area of significance.)

### *Logging in the Pacific Northwest*

Blessed with immense stands of cedar, Douglas fir, ponderosa pine, spruce, and other coniferous species, the Pacific Northwest is a core area for industrial logging in the United States (Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020:15; Bass 2017; Williams 2013; Mercier 2001; Robbins 1997:209). In the early days of the settlement of Oregon, timber cutting and milling was largely a local and small-scale affair where trees were cut and moved using human and animal power and the logs were milled in small facilities that were sometimes water powered. After the Civil War, an intersection of factors led to the intensification and growth the industry across the region, the nation, and internationally (Robbins 1997; Franzen 2020). Rapid settler population growth and a concomitant boom in residential construction across the United States led to increased demand for wood products, and the over-harvest and depletion of white pine and other species in the Great Lakes, the Southeast, and the Northeast sent laborers, business operators, and investors further west. Simultaneously, technological innovations opened stands of trees in previously less accessible areas and increased the speed of the harvest and its transportation: the final decades of the 19<sup>th</sup> century saw the invention and widespread adoption of the steam donkey (i.e., a steam powered winch to move and yard logs) and the use of relatively portable narrow-gauge railroad lines to access stands of trees deep in forests and mountainous, high-relief landscapes distant from transportation hubs. These factors and other technological innovations contributed to a larger, industrial scale ability to access, cut down, transport, process, and market trees (Tveskov 2023:15; Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020:21; Robbins 1997:213; Williams 1989). By the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and peaking in the 1920s, the timber industry dominated affairs the Pacific Northwest.

The byproducts of this harvest were shipped to markets through a burgeoning network of regional and national rail road lines that linked the relatively remote Pacific Northwest to what Robbins (1997:213) called the "distant industrialized world"—population centers in California and midwestern and eastern states, and overseas. The transcontinental railroad and rail linkages to California were completed in the 1880s, and the Great Northern Railroad was completed in 1893, increasing the efficiency and decreasing the cost of moving goods in and out of the region. Demand for timber was further affected by World War I and the economic boom of the 1920s. To meet the demand for war production, in many areas of the Northwest, the U.S. Government supervised the construction of additional rail infrastructure and staffed logging operations with soldiers, which further encouraged the development of the social, physical, and financial infrastructure of industrial logging (Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020:37; Tonsfeldt 2013; Williams 2013).

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The timber industry of the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries was characterized by a mode of production embedded within ever enlarging global capitalism. Although smaller local timber concerns remained in operation, larger timber companies often fueled by capital from outside the region came to dominate the Pacific Northwest. These included the Long-Bell, Menasha, Brooks-Scanlon, and Shevlin-Hixon companies that moved west from operations in the southeast or Great Lakes regions, as well as the massive C.A. Smith and Powers logging operations in southern Oregon and the Weyerhaeuser company of Minnesota that were established by settlers who moved to the region with logging experience and capital (Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020:34; McLary 2014; Robbins 1997: 233; Robbins 1988:17, 46). Heavily capitalized investors, through loopholes, “[f]raud, deception, and cajolery” (Robbins 1988:27) acquired millions of acres of public lands across the Northwest in a process that was originally designed to take land acquired by the federal government from Indigenous people and disburse it to American settlers.

By the time Maxville was established in 1922 by the Bowman-Hicks Lumber Company of Missouri, the timber industry in the Pacific Northwest was capitalized, expanded, and highly industrialized, and was proceeding with the “greatest harvest of timber the world has ever known” (Adams 1961:16, quoted in Franzen 2020:35). Large scale logging operations were, despite their often-rural setting, heavily industrialized, and transformed landscapes on a grand scale (Robbins 1997, 1988; Hughes 1989). This industrialization was manifest on the landscape on local, regional, and national scales through webs of interconnected railroad mainlines and more ephemeral and ever-changing narrow-gauge lines as well as large- and small-scale mills where logs were yarded, measured, milled, and processed before being shipped by rail or river. The physical infrastructure of these activities included company offices in larger towns and cities, splash dams and pilings installed along rivers and estuaries to transport logs, and of course logging operations in the forests that ranged from work camps of smaller size and durations to larger and more permanent company towns, often self-sustained communities that housed entire families of men, women, and children and that sometimes included company stores, company currency, schools, health care and recreational facilities, post offices, and other physical and social infrastructure (Figure 21; see also Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020; Tonsfeldt 2013; Williams 2013; Robbins 1988).

At the beginning of the *chaîne opératoire*, of course, were the forests themselves, long managed by Indigenous people, and now subjected to several generations of ongoing commodified extraction. Pacific Northwest forest land was constructed in the settler mind largely as an untouched wilderness and a place of opportunity and potential profit, that was, in the end, conceptualized by many to be inexhaustible (e.g. Miniketti 2020; Mercier 2001; Lewis 1993; Robbins 1988:226-227)<sup>3</sup>. Despite the experience of professional lumbermen in the woods further east that saw the overharvest and depletion of the same resource (Robbins 1997:2011-2013), logging proceeded in the Northwest at breakneck speed through the years prior to World War II, abating only when the largest and most profitable ancient trees in a given region were exhausted or else during periodic economic downturns such as during the 1870s and 1930s. Even then, the industry continued to innovate. During the Great Depression the waning availability of large trees and was mitigated by the development of waterproof adhesives, large scale lathes, and the emergence of practical internal combustion engines to power trucks and machinery that provided a new product: plywood (Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020; Tonsfeldt 2013; Williams 2013; Robbins 1988). This innovation, coupled with the demand of wood during World War II, allowed mill operators to increase timber production and processing to a large scale one last time—focused now on smaller diameter logs—an era that persisted into the 1980s. Although the conservation and policy efforts of the 1990s and the export overseas of much of the Northwest’s milling capacity drew down the scale of the timber industry after that, the majority of the forests of the Pacific Northwest have remained transformed into timber plantations, whether in federal or private ownership.

The development of extractive industries is imbedded in global social, environmental, and economic forces, and the experience of those inhabiting this industrial landscape was conditioned by a social hierarchy

<sup>3</sup> But not by all. Robbins(1997:210-211)reports that concerns about the sustainability of timber harvesting in the Pacific Northwest were voiced by many from within and without the industry as early as the last decades of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

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that alienated workers from owners and concentrated wealth in the hands of the latter (Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020:188; Mercier 2001; Walker 2001; Robbins 1988). Miniketti (2020:8) points out that, unlike, the experience of a miner, “individual timberman did not exist in a viable commercial sense” and across the Gilded Age, the intensified scale of resource capitalism required an ever-larger labor force that was kept structurally subordinate and ideologically dehumanized (Franzen 2020:141; Hughes 1989). This intensification had ramifications in terms of race, class, and gender; throughout the late 19<sup>th</sup> and into the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the demands of an ever-intensified industry brought more and more laborers—and often their families—into the Pacific Northwest, and these laborers and their families were diverse. In waves of different scales and at different times, Chinese, Greek, Latino, Scandinavian, German, Irish, Italian, and immigrants of other nationalities and ethnicities came to the Pacific Northwest to work in the forest (Chung 2015; see also Franzen 2020:141; Chung 2015). Within this process, in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, many companies that moved west were from the American south, and they brought experienced African-Americans timberman and their families, many of these the children and grandchildren of those freed from slavery after the Civil War (Figure 22; see also Franzen 2020:151; Marsh 2014).

Timber workers of any background often became dissatisfied with the inherent contradictions of their labor conditions and compensation, and logging in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century saw the proliferation of trade associations and unions and accompanying direct actions and strikes (Drake 2022; Wurst 2022; Miniketti 2020; Franzen 2020:126; Lewis 1993; Robbins 1988; see also below). Organizations such as the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) pressed for safer working conditions in what was and is one of the most dangerous professions in the modern world (Robbins 1988:141). Through local advocates, the IWW threatened strikes, and industry leaders mobilized against them, often forcing labor leaders out of town under threats of violence. In one instance in Coos County, Oregon, local mill owners, newspaper men, and other civic leaders cooperated to denounce the threat of a strike in 1915, declaring in one newspaper headline that they needed to “master the situation promptly” (Robbins 1988:141). Dr. Bailey Kay Leach, a local chiropractor, was “pressed out of Bandon” by local citizens objecting to his “socialist” leanings<sup>4</sup> (Robbins 1988:142). In July 1913, Leach was confronted by a “gathering of nearly 200 of the leading business men” of Bandon and “ordered to leave.”<sup>5</sup> The incident caused business in Bandon to come to a halt for the day, and the *Daily Journal* ominously reported that if Leach remained in town, “the citizens will march to his residence.”<sup>6</sup> *The World*, (the Coos Bay newspaper), also reported on Leach’s “deportation,” proclaiming in a front-page story that “in no nook or corner of Coos County is there rest or refuge for anachronistic agitators or disciples of discontent, devilry and dynamite.”<sup>7</sup> Some citizens objected to Leach’s treatment, but the Attorney General under Oregon Governor Oswald West concluded that no laws had been broken (Robbins 1988:142).

Incidents such as this illustrate the larger process where industrial capitalism, by necessity, will systematically “create, sustain, and exploit” divisions within a society, and race is and was a potent avenue to perpetuate and leverage such divisions (Mercier 2001:62). In this, large companies found common ground with labor unions, who often viewed newer immigrant and Black workers as rivals rather than allies (Marsh 2014:502; Mercier 2001:62, 65; Menniketti 2020:5). The alienation of Black laborers proceeded through complex processes; southern companies, for example, relegated their Black laborers to lower pay, more dangerous working conditions, and less ideal living situations than their white counterparts (Menniketti 2020; Marsh 2014:502; Weyeneth 2005; Mercier 2001:62; Whelan and Pearson 1999). Social space in industrial towns—logging as well as mining, agriculture, and fishing—was itself often leveraged to structure division and hierarchy (Whelan and Pearson 1999; Hughes 1989). According to Bandon and Davidson (2005; Davidson 2013; see also Whelan and Pearson 1999) one logging community was modeled spatially after a southern plantation.

<sup>4</sup> *Oregon Daily Journal*, 25 April 1915, page 7.

<sup>5</sup> *The Oregon Daily Journal* 11 July 1913 page 1.

<sup>6</sup> *The Oregon Daily Journal* 11 July 1913 page 1.

<sup>7</sup> *The World* 12 July 1913, page 1.



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The logging industry in the Northwest, from inception through the present day, has a complex and nuanced history; logging concerns ranged from small wildcat or “gyppo” operations to large cooperate enterprises and these operated variously on public or private lands and on regions that were variably accessible to main rail lines, rivers, or roads. A commonality, however, is that race and social class were recursively structured to intersect and disadvantage some people over others, and over time came to erase entire identities in our collective recollection of the Pacific Northwest timber industry. In the post-World War II era, logging came to be conceptualized in settler historical memory and identity as a space of white men operating and succeeding through bootstrap rugged individualism—a trope that originated in the woods of the Great Lakes region and was transferred further west (Rademacher and Kelly 2019:26027). While many settlers passed through the logging industry on their way to other experiences, this trope denies the experiences of many within a regime of dehumanized industrial labor imbedded in communities artificially and hierarchically structured by class, race, and gender but nonetheless populated by diverse people (Chung 2015; Marsh 2014; Mercier 2001). When remembered at all, Blacks and other non-white laborers in the forests of the Pacific Northwest were often stereotyped as cheap, mass labor, a reductive trope that only served as a foil to bolster the problematic narrative of a triumphant manifest destiny of white, male entrepreneurial capitalists. The stereotype of faceless and nameless Chinese, Black, Latino, or other non-white laborers belied their complex history as skilled workers with generations of experience in the timber industry, and the very American social and cultural experience of moving west (or in this case, northwest) with their families.

#### *Maxville and the Timber Industry in Northeast Oregon*

The Maxville district lies within lands used by the Nez Perce, Umatilla, Cayuse, and other Indigenous people of the Columbia River region, and prior to the era of settler colonialism, the Nez Perce maintained communities along the Grand Ronde River to the north and east of what would become the town of Maxville (Ray 1938; Chalfant and Ray 1974; Schwede 1966). The Nez Perce and Cayuse lived in communities of extended families that maintained webs of reciprocal social, political, spiritual, cultural, and economic arrangements with other communities through marriage, travel, feasting, and seasonal hunting and gathering activities. Communities were led by individuals who obtained their position through inheritance, wealth, charitability, and wisdom. In early spring, the Nez Perce and Cayuse would travel to settlements along the Columbia River for salmon fishing, a cultural practice essential to their culture. By late spring, communities would disperse and move upland to gather roots and berries and hunt game. By fall, after the final salmon run of the year and the last of the berries and roots had been collected, the summer communities would be dismantled and the winter villages would be reestablished and locally available resources would be gathered such as trout, suckers, whitefish, chub, and lamprey, and local birds and mammals would be hunted or trapped (Connolly et al 1993:16). Throughout these seasons of harvest, important social and political ceremonies and gatherings would also take place, providing a venue for the reaffirmation of leadership and kinship ties, the distribution of resources, and the establishment of new relations through marriage and trade.

Although European and American colonizers did not ascend the many tributaries of the Columbia and Snake Rivers until the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, the influences of the fur trade began at least as early as the mid-1700s and likely had a profound effect on Indigenous culture through the introduction of firearms, wool and cotton clothing, metal tools, glass beads, and disease (Minor et al. 1987). Peter Skene Ogden was the first recorded settler to explore beyond the Columbia River on an expedition for the Hudson’s Bay Company in January of 1826 (Tveskov 1995:4; Hudson et al. 1978:37). Ogden was in search of territory to hunt beaver, and found them in abundance, but such expeditions into the region remained relatively rare. Until the 1860s, the center of gravity of settler immigration in the Oregon remained the Willamette Valley, southern Oregon, and the Columbia River corridor. Gold was discovered in what would become nearby Grant County during an 1859 army expedition and prospectors flooded the John Day River valley (Tveskov 1995). Tent cities popped up in what would become the towns of Canyon City, Independence, Marysville, Susanville, and Dixie. The mountainous areas of northeastern Oregon were subsequently explored and prospected for gold, and small mining towns were established in remote areas, including in what is now Wallowa County (Coffman 1987; Anonymous 1902). The broad grasslands surrounding the Wallowa and other rivers of the region were

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appealing to settler ranchers, and by the 1870s and 1880s, the first sizable settler communities were established. The post office was founded in the city of Wallowa in 1873 and the community of Joseph was founded in 1879.<sup>8</sup> Through conflict, war, and negotiated treaties, the Nez Perce and other Indigenous people had mostly been removed to reservations (Coffman 1987; Anonymous 1902).

It is within this era that the first General Land Office (GLO) surveys took place in the region, and what was to become the Maxville district was mapped for the first time. The area was surveyed by Frank W. Campbell—under contract with the GLO—in June of 1884 (Figure 18). This survey showed no settler development in the area, although what was to become the still-existing Promise Road was shown clearly on Campbell's map as an unimproved trail. The future Maxville townsite is shown on this map as vegetated, although the meadow to the west on Bishop Creek is shown as a clearing, as it remains to this day. In 1891, two homesteaders reportedly moved into the area, establishing the community of Promise about eight miles due north from the future Maxville (Highberger n.d.; 2010). According to McArthur and McArthur (2003:786) "John C. Phillips and W. Mann settled near the present site of Promise about 1891 and took homesteads. Mann called the place Promise Land and land of Promise. The post office was established 22 December 1896 and was called Promise on that account." A few miles southwest of Promise, the community of Grossman, so named for a pioneer trapper and nearby Grossman Creek, was also established (McArthur and McArthur 2003:431). A settler named Clara White appears to have been the homestead claim holder of the land upon which Bowman-Hicks would later build Maxville, having received deed to the land in 1908.<sup>9</sup> It is not known whether she resided on the claim but one source suggests that a cabin remained standing at the time Maxville was being constructed, and the Maxville doctor's office and pharmacy was built from this structure (Highberger n.d.:16).

The earliest mills in Union and Wallowa Counties were established very soon after homesteaders began arriving in the 1860s and early 1870s, and most initially were not large commercial concerns, but served the needs of local communities.

Among the first mills to be built in Union County was the one built by Stephen Coffin at Oro Dell a mile west of the present site of La Grande in 1862. [...] In 1863 or 1864 a small mill was established on Catherine Creek six miles above Union in Union County and by 1868 three mills were reported in this territory. In the northern part of Union County the center of the lumber industry was the town of Elgin. In this section Wesley Oliver operated a mill in the early 1870's [sic] and Cecil Galloway operated one of the first steam mills in 1879. [...] In Wallowa County T. Raup appears to have built the first water power mill on Prairie Creek in 1874 (Kramer 1938:139, 148-150).

In spite of the vast swaths of pine and fir in the region, the timber industry in northeastern Oregon was slow to progress, primarily due to a lack of a reliable transportation infrastructure in comparison to, say, the Puget Sound or lower Columbia River regions. "When this need [for transportation] was fulfilled the region progressed rapidly in the exploitation of its natural resources especially in the lumber industry where the evolution of milling techniques to large production standards had already taken place" (Kramer 1938:11-12). Railroad expansion and innovation—both in mainlines and in narrow gauge—opened previously inaccessible areas to timber harvest and provided more efficient transportation of timber products to wider-ranging markets. "The coming of the train . . . marked the beginning of [Wallowa] county's large sawmills, which now saw a way to get their lumber to market. But until rails connected the valley's mills to the north's timber, most of the big operators continued to work out of La Grande" (Highberger n.d.:14; 2010). As the railroad made progress into Wallowa County in the early 1890s, some mills expanded to the detriment of others, and by the turn of the twentieth century timber harvesting overtook cattle ranching as the Wallowa County's major industry. The arrival of rail lines in the late 1890s and early 1900s was therefore a significant factor in Wallowa County's

<sup>8</sup> Oregon Secretary of State, "Wallowa County," in *Oregon Blue Book* online.

<sup>9</sup> U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management, "General Land Office Records." (<http://www.glorerecords.blm.gov/default.aspx>)

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industrial and economic growth. By 1913, the Bureau of Labor and Statistics noted that there were "...18 sawmills, three saw and planing mills, six planing mills, one planing mill and box factory, and one saw and lath mill..." in Wallowa County (Hoff 1913:181). Despite often low-wages, enthusiasm about the lumber business was considerable, and communities "...offered free sites and in many cases cash subsidies [to sawmill companies] and became active bidders for business" (Kramer 1938:16). Construction of rail spurs into untapped timber gave timber companies access to vast stands of trees that were cut and transported to established mills in Minam, Enterprise, and Wallowa in the 1920s (Stokeld 2015: no page).

One of those companies from back east that saw profit in northeastern Oregon was the George Palmer Lumber Company, incorporated in 1904 in La Grande, Union County (Robertson 1995:61; Highberger 2010:140). Palmer was an Iowa lumberman looking for opportunities to enter the Oregon market. On hearing that he had purchased land and was seeking a location for his mill, "...a real contest began between Elgin and La Grande with La Grande chosen for the site and the mill began operations in October, 1907..." (Kramer 1938:16). Around 1910, Palmer Lumber expanded their operations and began purchasing homesteads that included timberland in the Promise—Grossman area (north of the future Maxville), "...buying up 160-acre homesteads at a flat price of \$1600 for both land and timber" (Highberger n.d.:14; 2010:140). Homesteaders having poor luck with dry land farming seemed willing, even eager to sell, and Palmer Lumber soon had tens of thousands of acres in its ownership, most in Wallowa County, and some in Union. Much of their timber land—about 42,000 acres—was purchased from the Crossett Lumber Company, who had invested in timber land on speculation without ever entering into lumber production (Kramer 1938:16, 45).

In 1910, Palmer Lumber built a railroad line from Vincent to a site known as logging Camp 5, a temporary camp about five miles up Howard Creek from its confluence with the Wallowa River. "[T]his place was named for Vincent Palmer of the Palmer Lumber Company. Vincent station on the Union Pacific line was at the mouth of Howard Creek; Vincent post office was several miles up the creek, probably at the location of Camp 5..." (McArthur and McArthur 2003:94). The camp had "...a round house, sawmill, repair shops, horse barns..." as well as housing for resident timber workers (Highberger n.d.:15). From there, additional rail spurs extended out to various holdings, and logs harvested from the hills were loaded onto train cars and shipped to the mills in the Wallowa Valley (Stokeld 2015: no page). The company was active for eighteen years, from its inception in 1904 until it was purchased by the Bowman—Hicks Lumber Company in 1922.

While Palmer Lumber harvested timber from nearby areas in Union and Wallowa Counties, its mill was located in La Grande (Union County). There were a number of smaller mills operating in Wallowa County proper at the turn of the century, but the first large mill to be built in Wallowa County was the Nibley—Mimnaugh Lumber Company organized at the town of Wallowa in 1907 or 1908" (Kramer 1938:17; Gaston 1912:211).<sup>10</sup> The company had begun to purchase timber lands in 1901, and it was anticipated that the mill would ultimately have a production capacity of around 50,000 to 60,000 board feet per day. It continued to operate until August of 1923 when Bowman-Hicks arranged to also purchase its plant and holdings, which included "... 22,290 acres of land and deeds to timber only on 4,840 acres together with the railroad and mill property. The transaction amounted to nearly \$1,000,000.00. This deal left the Bowman-Hicks Lumber Company the only major mill in Wallowa County with holdings of around 140,000 acres" (Kramer 1938:17-18, 22).<sup>11</sup>

#### *Criterion A: The Town of Maxville and the Timber Industry of Oregon and the Pacific Northwest*

The development and experiences of Maxville and its residents embody many of these themes that characterize the history of Industrial Logging in Oregon and the Pacific Northwest generally. Bowman Hicks was a

<sup>10</sup> Charles Mimnaugh was born and raised in Wisconsin and moved to Oregon with his family in 1890. After sixteen years living in Perry (Union County) where his father was involved in the Grand Ronde Lumber Company, Mimnaugh moved to Wallowa where he "...was one of the organizers of the Nibley—Mimnaugh Lumber Company, the other partners being James Mimnaugh, C.W. Nibley and George Stoddard. C.H. Mimnaugh was made manager of the business at the time of its inception and he has since served in that capacity."

<sup>11</sup> The sale was arranged in 1923, and completed in 1924. *Helvering vs. Nibley—Mimnaugh Lumber Company*, Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, 70 F.2d 843 (D.C. Cir. 1934). <<https://casetext.com/case/helvering-v--nibley--mimnaugh--lumber--co>>

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Kansas City, Missouri-based operation with mills in Missouri, Louisiana, and other southern locales.<sup>12</sup> In October of 1922, the *Portland Morning Oregonian* reported that,

The George Palmer Lumber company of La Grande has been sold to the Bowman--Hicks company of Kansas City, which took possession this week. The properties include the manufacturing plant in La Grande and timber holdings covering 100,000 acres...

H.N. Ashby, the new manager, states: 'Our coming west is but a move which all lumber manufacturers are making, for the west offers the timber supply which will be utilized in the future.'

With the selling of their physical assets the George Palmer Lumber company will liquidate and go out of business.<sup>13</sup>

Lumber-industry publication announcements further noted that:

The Bowman Hicks company has been manufacturing lumber on an extensive scale in the south for the past twenty years, and at present is operating at Oakdale, Louisiana. [...] The new manager plans to increase the cut of the mill from thirty million feet per year to between thirty and sixty million. The old George Palmer mill is one of the best in that territory. It is a double band, cutting pine, red fir and larch, with a full complement of dry kilns, with box factory and planing equipment sufficient to handle the two--shift operation of the sawmill."<sup>14</sup>

The planned increase in mill output would require a larger work force, both at the mill and in the woods. Recognizing the need for a more substantial and permanent living situation for their timber workers than that provided at the temporary setup at Camp 5, in 1923 the company sent Joner Trump of West Grossman, John Carper of Promise and Don Riggle of Smith Mountain to find a site for a new logging town (Highberger n.d.:15). The location needed to have adequate access to water, suitable terrain for construction of rail lines, and the potential to accommodate a population of up to five hundred workers and their families. They chose a locale known as Bishop Meadows, "... the site of an old homestead and cow camp . . . ." (Highberger n.d.:15). Bishop Meadows was named for Oliver Bishop, who was born in Linn County, but settled in what is now Wallowa County in the mid-1880s.<sup>15</sup> It is not currently clear whether Bishop ever owned the land, but "[H]e wintered stock on the meadows, as there was a good crop of wild hay there" (McArthur and McArthur (2003:85).

Once the town's site was selected, work began on the first building--the Superintendent's Lodge--which sources indicate was constructed by Chester Gorbett.<sup>16</sup> The *Wallowa Sun* reported in July of 1923 that "[a]n office building has already been constructed of peeled logs, and presents an excellent appearance. This structure is about thirty by forty feet in size, and is the business center of the company's logging operations."<sup>17</sup> Don Riggles, a timber man who was called on to help site the town, recalled the building and its builder:

The trees used, which were not callipered for size, were marked by Joner Trump. Mr. Trump was one of the early homesteaders in the Grossman country. He was a true woodsman so was chosen for this work because, since this was a job to be done by hand, it was necessary to have

<sup>12</sup> "Doubled Output," *Four L Lumber News Bulletin*, Vol. 4 (December 1922), p. 16.

<sup>13</sup> 1922 Oct 28 *Portland Morning Oregonian*, p. 5. H.N. Ashby had been an assistant manager at the Long--Bell Lumber Company, also based in Kansas City, Missouri. Long--Bell later had a mill in Weed, California.

<sup>14</sup> "Doubled Output," *Four L Lumber News Bulletin*, Vol. 4 (December 1922), p. 16.

<sup>15</sup> Carole A. Lange [Bishop], "Bishop Genealogy," Wallowa County American History and Genealogy Project Website, <[http://www.usgennet.org/usa/or/county/wallowa/genealogies\\_bishop.htm](http://www.usgennet.org/usa/or/county/wallowa/genealogies_bishop.htm)>

<sup>16</sup> Ray Linker, "Maxville: Wallowa County's Lost Timber Town," *La Grande Observer* (no date); No author, "Maxville," interviews, (no date); Hafer, *The North Woods...*, (2015), pp. 24, 277 and 280. All of these sources clearly state that the Superintendent's Office was constructed by or under the foremanship of Chester Gorbett, though none provide source citations. Gorbett is listed in the 1920 and 1930 census as a farmer in nearby Promise, Wallowa County, but was also involved in the construction of railroad trestles, and clearly had an ongoing involvement in the timber industry.

<sup>17</sup> "Bishop Meadows Scene of Much Activity," *Wallowa Sun* (July 27, 1923), quoted in Orvalla Carper Hafer, *The North Woods of Wallowa County Vol. 1* (Othello, Washington: Orvalla Carper Hafer, 2015), p. 31.

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logs nearly of a size [*sic*], straight grained and slow taper. He, and many others in that day, could tell at a glance if a tree would make rails, shakes or posts. [ . . . ] As we know log cabins today, it would be considered very plain (Hafer 2015:328).

Planning and construction of the rest of the town proceeded during the summer months, and was reportedly carried out by “workers from the south, both black and white, many from Arkansas” (Highberger 2010:141). A 1923 report on the town’s progress stated that Bowman-Hicks was “installing a new camp at Bishop Meadows, about 16 miles north of Wallowa. The grade for the logging railroad has been completed. The company plans a cut of 40MM this season.”<sup>18</sup> As a company town, Maxville was built with cost efficiency in mind and construction apparently followed a plan prepared by C.B. Miller of La Grande.<sup>19</sup> “The plans of the town were completed last week by C.B. Miller of La Grande, and will consist of a company store, warehouse, a hotel, and amusement hall, and over a hundred well built houses. [ . . . ] The oblong square that forms the center of the town will be seeded to form a recreational ground” (Figure 19; see also Hafer 2015:15).

In September of 1923, the post office at Vincent/Camp 5 was moved to Maxville with Lymon B. Kennon as the first postmaster (McArthur 1926:335). For a time it seems the company town was to be named Bishop: “[w]ork is progressing on the new town of Bishop, between Promise and Wallowa, being built by the company. The first locomotive arrived at Bishop, October 19, 1923 over the new track recently extended from Camp 5, at Vincent”<sup>20</sup> The name that stuck, however, was Maxville, initially called Mac’s Village after the company’s then-superintendent J.D. McMillan, and later renamed Maxville.<sup>21</sup> By the end of the year, Maxville had a bunkhouse and a mess hall that could accommodate the single workers that had been brought from southern states to fell timber for the company and finish building the town; housing was then completed for the married men and their families (Stokheld 2015: no page). Maxville eventually had a sixty-to-eighty room hotel with a barber shop and an eighty-seat dining room, an amusement hall, a doctor’s office, schools, a commissary, a pharmacy, a railroad roundhouse and blacksmith shop, and recreational facilities including a baseball field and a swimming hole (Figure 20, Figure 21, Figure 22, Figure 23, Figure 24, Figure 25, Figure 26, Figure 27, and Figure 28; see also Stokeld 2015:n.d.; Highberger n.d.:16; Hafer 2015:25). By November of 1923, the newspaper announced the opening of the new town:

Last Friday a dance in the new community club house marked the opening of the town that has been built during the past summer and fall sixteen miles north of here [Wallowa]. Neat rows of cottages, stores, a club house, offices, storage sheds, a water system, and electric lights now grace what was last year Bishop meadows. About 400 people are said to constitute the population of the permanent logging camp for the Bowman Hicks Lumber Co., and more are expected later.<sup>22</sup>

It was “evidently the early practice of large sawmills moving into a new area to bring their labor supply with them, giving the employers an opportunity of worker selection that was not possible in other regions” (Kramer 1938:53). The Bowman-Hicks Company imported employees to Maxville, both white and black, recruiting men from its other saw mill operations in the South to build the company town, as well as to work in the woods and on the railroad.<sup>23</sup> The workforce was not comprised exclusively of out-of-state employees, however (Figure 29 and Figure 30). Occasional advertisements appeared in regional newspapers soliciting applications for “skilled laborers” such as engineers to lay our railroads, timber cruisers, car loaders, teamsters,

<sup>18</sup> “Bowman–Hicks Lumber Company Eastern Oregon Operations Company Data,” poster, T/7/23. Unknown author, publisher, and date. The information on this poster appears to be derived from specific sources, but no citations are provided.

<sup>19</sup> “Bowman–Hicks Co. Makes Plans for Logging Town 16 Miles North of Here,” *Wallowa Sun* (June 23, 1923) quoted in Hafer, *The North Woods...* (2015), p. 25.

<sup>20</sup> “Bowman–Hicks...,” poster, unknown publisher, unknown date

<sup>21</sup> Joyce Osterloh, “The African-American Loggers of Maxville” *La Grand Observer* (August 13 2007), see also McArthur 1926.335).

<sup>22</sup> *Wallowa Sun* (November 23, 1923), quoted in Hafer 2015:109).

<sup>23</sup> Anecdotal and/or non–attributed sources suggest that the crew was brought in by rail and included thirty–seven African American men. The demographic makeup and size of the initial crew in total is not currently known (Stokeld 2015: no page).

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as well as seeking contract workers.<sup>24</sup>

The arrival of a mixed-race workforce was unusual for Oregon, which, until 1926, had an exclusion clause written into its constitution. This clause was repealed and removed from the books after having been rendered moot by the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment to the U.S. Constitution sixty years prior. Up to that time, the law stated that “No free negro or mulatto not residing in this state at the time of the adoption of this constitution [1857], shall come, reside, or be within this state or hold any real estate, or make any contracts, or maintain any suit therein . . . .” (Figure 30).<sup>25</sup> Despite their clear minority status and the persistent discrimination, African Americans moved into and resided in Oregon—some owning property— since the early settlement period.

While the percentage of blacks as a part of Oregon’s population was consistently small— less than one percent until as late as 1960—in absolute numbers, there were scores of blacks in Oregon during the trail period, hundreds during the post Civil War era, and thousands during the twentieth century. In the early years, blacks settled wherever whites did in Oregon, experiencing both harsh failures and impressive successes. [...]

Wherever a demand for specialized labor materialized, black workers might be recruited elsewhere, imported to Oregon, and then often deported, by formal or informal means, after the need for their labor was exhausted. [...] In northeastern Oregon, in the 1920s and 1930s, black loggers worked the forest around Maxville until the yields were no longer profitable (Millner 2015).

Although the African Americans working for Bowman-Hicks and living at Maxville prior to 1926 were technically in the state illegally, the exclusion law, which had been in force in some form or another since 1843, was rarely (or selectively) enforced. Segregation, though, was common practice. In a 1906 court case the Oregon Supreme Court “. . . sanctioned the practice of racial segregation in public places and services . . . .” and certainly this was reflective of a larger attitude regarding Oregon’s non-white population (Milner 2015). For Maxville’s residents, many of whom had come from southern states, segregation was a fact of life; workers were divided by ethnicity, marital status, class, and position within the company. Opal Lively Pruitt noted in her autobiography that “. . . there had been no Negroes in that part of the country until Bowman-Hicks moved them in to work in the woods, and of course were very segregated” (Hafer 2015:157).

As was customary in many company towns, single men lived in bunkhouses separate from married men and families. Residential areas for families included modest single-family dwellings, with white and African American families located in separate parts of town, the areas divided by the train tracks (Stokeld 2015:no page). Further distinction was made between the dwellings provided for the white and black workers. White families occupied two-bedroom lumber houses equipped with a kitchen, living room, indoor running water and individual outhouses, but no electricity (Figure 31); see also Stokeld 2015:no page). Black families lived in houses built onto a railroad flat car with outdoor running water, communal outhouses and no electricity (Figure 33; see also Stokeld 2015:no page). These railroad houses were prefabricated w “. . .built to fit onto the flat car of a train so they could be hauled to the camp in one piece. [They] ...were long (about 51 feet), narrow (about 13 feet), and drafty...” (Highberger n.d.:16). “The old Vincent school was transported to Maxville by train, and eventually separate schools were built for African American and white children (Highberger n.d.:15-16).<sup>26</sup> “At the time, these were the only segregated schools in Oregon” (Stokeld 2015: no page).<sup>27</sup>

<sup>24</sup> “Help Wanted...Bowman-Hicks Lumber Company,” Idaho *Statesman* (September 16, 1923), p. 26; “Wanted...,” Portland *Sunday Oregonian* (February 20, 1927), p. 34.

<sup>25</sup> The Constitution of the State of Oregon, Article I, Section 35 (1857). Quoted in Nokes 2013:142).

<sup>26</sup> At Maxville, before the separate school buildings were constructed, “[t]he black children were not allowed to go to school during the daytime, but were taught instead by a black woman in her home (McLagan 1980:141).

<sup>27</sup> This statement may be true, but is anecdotal. No definitive data on segregated schools in Oregon during the 1920s was sought or has been found as part of this study. There was at least one segregated school in Oregon as early as the 1860s. Salem’s “Little Central,” also known as the “Colored School,” opened in 1868 adjacent to the larger Central School where white students attended.

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Color and class lines also existed in the workplace. Although black and white employees worked side-by-side in the woods, there was a clear hierarchy and racial segregation in other facets of company organization. Initially, African Americans "...were not allowed to work in the [Bowman--Hicks] mill, and work crews were largely formed along racial lines" (Stokeld 2015: no page). The Ku Klux Klan was active in Oregon in the 1920s, and although many of their actions at that time were directed at people of Catholic and Jewish faith, the group made an appearance at Maxville in 1925, and was turned promptly turned away by the resident superintendent (Highberger n.d.:16). According to most accounts, however, "[a]part from living under segregation, by most accounts race relations within Maxville were favorable" (Stokeld 2015: no page).

Living conditions were apparently another story altogether. According to former residents, living in Maxville was not easy or particularly pleasant. Mattie Wilfong described it as "rugged" and "...in fact about the worst place I ever lived in." Alvie Marsh worked in the woods, and described Maxville as "...nice for work...but it wasn't no place for pleasure," explaining that workers were "...always in a dangerous situation every day you go there [to the woods]." Madeline Riggles' husband was a crew boss. "I don't know how we lived, I really don't." she stated. "Those were hard times, I tell you."<sup>28</sup> The houses were small and drafty, most residents had to haul wood, some hauled water, and winters could be brutal. The weather in January 1925 was worthy of note in the *Portland Oregonian*, which reported that 3½ feet of snow had fallen near Maxville over a two--week period.<sup>29</sup> Although Maxville residents had shelter, the thin, un-insulated walls and wood heat provided minimal comfort.

Although conditions were challenging, Bowman-Hicks apparently had relatively little trouble finding or keeping employees. In the northeastern Oregon timber industry, the impact of labor turmoil seems to have been comparatively minor. The combination of relative geographic isolation and the fact that lumbering and agriculture were the two major industrial pursuits in the region meant that the opportunity for labor was limited and there was little incentive for most workers to move or leave their positions (Kramer 1938:53). "During the war years the I.W.W. [Industrial Workers of the World] made its appearance but it was not until 1923 that any serious trouble threatened in the logging camps due to their activities and then it was not of such volume to stop operations" (Kramer 1938:70; see also above). According to H.N. Ashby, General Western Manager for Bowman--Hicks, the company had shipped in:

...several Negroes from their southern saw mills...not to work in the mill, but to work...laying track and [for] heavier classes of work. They were shipped in to replace foreigners who had been doing this class of work and went on strike. Most of them left the camp in May 1923 --- the famous May day strike of the 'Wobblies.' Some of these Negroes were scared out of the country by the strikers and some left on account of the cold weather and deep snow (Hafer 2015:289).

Part of the I.W.W. platform was promotion of an eight--hour work day with the same pay as the then--customary ten- or eleven-hour days. The demand for shorter days and/or more pay clearly bit into company profits, and for the western timber industry this was seen as difficult, if not impossible, from the perspective of business and profits, since the competing southern states were using significantly cheaper "negro labor" working long days. Many of the arguments being made against the eight--hour work day made mention of this disparity between the West Coast workforce and that in the Southern States. "Oregon lumbermen are not hostile to an eight--hour day...but it would be practically an economic impossibility to establish and eight--hour day when our competitors in the south continue to operate on a 10 and 11--hour day basis, where they have

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Susan Bell, "Salem's Colored School and Little Central." It is also not clear when or if the Maxville schools were incorporated into the county school system. <[http://www.oregonencyclopedia.org/articles/salem\\_s\\_colored\\_school\\_and\\_little\\_central/#.Vc6S2EsnE--c](http://www.oregonencyclopedia.org/articles/salem_s_colored_school_and_little_central/#.Vc6S2EsnE--c)>

<sup>28</sup> All quotes from Oregon Public Broadcasting, "The Logger's Daughter," documentary aired on *Oregon Experience* (Portland: Oregon Public Broadcasting, 2009).

<sup>29</sup>"Heavy Snow Reported," *Portland Sunday Oregonian* (January 18, 1925), p. 21.

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the advantage of cheaper negro labor.”<sup>30</sup> “The fir lumber men contend that they will support the principle if it is nation-wide in the lumber industry, but cannot compete with southern lumber centers employing negro help at low rates...”<sup>31</sup> In spite of the claims of unfair advantage, it did not appear that African American workers were moving to Oregon specifically for work, and there were assurances that the Pacific Northwest would not be changing its labor practices to level the playing field. In 1918, the Oregon State Labor Commissioner suggested that “...the South need feel no fear that the Pacific Northwest will draw heavily on the negro labor market of that district... [and] ...there is no distinction drawn in the different industries of this section of the country as between white and colored labor...” In response to the suggestion that “...negro labor is being attracted to the North and West by high wages, better conditions and the necessity growing out of industrial strife,” the Labor Commissioner further pointed out that “...there is no industrial strife of any magnitude in the Northwest and [there is] no good reason for the threatened importation of labor from the South or elsewhere to fill places for striking workmen.”<sup>32</sup>

In spite of these proclamations, there were active rumors of southern companies bringing labor crews from the south—including African Americans—to work in mills they were setting up in the Pacific Northwest. The Long Bell Company, also from Kansas City, Missouri, had purchased properties in Kelso, Washington and “[r]umor had it that it was the intention of the operators to bring negro labor from the south and this caused a great deal of caustic comment.”<sup>33</sup> While it is not currently known whether the Kelso rumor came to be, Long-Bell also had a mill in Weed, California to which the company did “import” both white and black labor from the southern States in the 1920s.<sup>34</sup>

What ultimately did affect labor was fluctuation in the market. “Wages were...cut when the lumber trade was hard hit by the depression of 1920 with most of the mills not operating for a period of some six to nine months but increases began to appear by 1923...” (Kramer 1938:57)<sup>35</sup> Nonetheless, the Bowman Hicks company saw continuing success and Maxville prospered through the early and mid-1920s. With the late 1923 or early 1924 purchase of the Nibley-Mimnaugh mill in Wallowa, Bowman-Hicks “...controlled most of the lumber-related jobs in both the lower valley and the north country, from feller to sawyer” (Highberger n.d.:16). The company had extended its rail line to the newly-acquired mill and was hauling logs from the Maxville area to Wallowa, creating the opportunity for greater production and a need for more labor (Stokeld 2015:no page). As a result, more workers moved into Maxville, and by the mid-1920s the population had reportedly grown to 400.

Bowman-Hicks took the “cut out and get out” approach to logging, in which cut-over land was not reforested for future harvest, but was sold for other uses, often as grazing land (Kramer 1938:46).<sup>36</sup> The company advertised the availability of its logged-off land for sale or lease, often to local sheep ranchers. Whether anticipating a slow-down or simply maximizing their return on investment, by 1928 newspapers regularly advertised or announced the availability of Bowman-Hicks land for grazing. One news brief stated that “...the logged off land of the Bowman--Hicks Lumber company in this county is being taken over rapidly by local stockmen, during the past few weeks 50,000 acres has been disposed of, much of it in the Maxville

<sup>30</sup> “Coast Rejects 8--Hour Plan,” *Idaho Statesman* (August 17, 1917), p. 5.

<sup>31</sup> “Sawmills Reject Eight--Hour Day Plan,” *Salem Daily Capital Journal* (December 29, 1917), p. 3.

<sup>32</sup> “Negro Labor Unlikely,” *Portland Sunday Oregonian* (March 3, 1918).

<sup>33</sup> “Long-Bell Mills...,” *Portland Morning Oregonian* (July 17, 1922).

<sup>34</sup> James Langford, “African Americans in the Shadow of Mt. Shasta: The Black Community of Weed, California.” BlackPast.org (no date). <<http://www.blackpast.org/perspectives/african-americans-shadow-mt-shasta-black-community-weed-california>>

<sup>35</sup> According to Kramer, Oregon production (measured in thousand board feet of Western Yellow pine) in 1919 was 480,512. In 1920 it had increased to 630,327, but one year later had dropped to less than half that at 310,235. By 1923 production had increased dramatically to 775,941.

<sup>36</sup> Kramer indicates in an endnote that “This attitude was that of the Bowman--Hicks Lumber Company given by the manager, H.N. Ashby in an interview, August 6, 1936.” (Endnote 89) He went on to state that “Before the depression the Bowman--Hicks Lumber Company did sell tentatively 140,000 acres to sheep men at \$2.50 per acres [sic] but the deal was not completed.” (Endnote 90)



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section.”<sup>37</sup>

By the time the stock market crash of 1929 hit, the lumber market had already seen declines that had started in the late 1920s. Mills had been operating more and more sporadically, and workers began migrating to find more, and steadier, work. In early July of 1925, the *Oregonian* reported that “many of the west coast pine and fir mills plan to cease operations for several days,” though Bowman-Hicks was only to close for the Fourth of July holiday weekend.<sup>38</sup> Sixteen months later, in November of 1926, the company was laying off contractors and curtailing cutting operations; several days later it was reported that for “...the first time in the history of the company’s operations here...it has been necessary to run only one shift. A general depression in the lumber markets is given as the reason for the slack up. It is estimated that around 150 men will go on the idle roll...”<sup>39</sup> It is not clear if these layoffs affected Black employees differently than white employees. The poor market conditions apparently caused a complete shutdown from October 1927 to May 1928: “The Bowman--Hicks Lumber company will resume operations in the sawmill here and in the logging camps in Wallowa county... The company has been inactive since last October. About 215 men will be employed here and 200 in the woods.”<sup>40</sup> Business evidently held steady, as the 1930 census (enumerated in late April) listed 203 people still living and working in the Maxville precinct.

Around 1930, Bowman-Hicks began making a shift from rail to truck transport, and the company started replacing railroad tracks with roads and trains with trucks (Highberger n.d.:17). Although the mill in Wallowa continued to operate, soon after the 1929 crash (and perhaps before) the town of Maxville was in significant decline. In 1931 in a brief article on small timber communities in Union and Wallowa Counties, the *Oregonian* provided a short history of the place:

Five years ago, after it was established by the Bowman-Hicks Lumber company, it boasted a population of some 300 persons, had a modern school with three teachers, a fully equipped hospital and resident physician, a 100 bed-hotel usually full and seven locomotives were busy getting out timber to supply mills at Wallowa and La Grande. When school closed a few days ago the next to the last family moved from Maxville to a farm near Promise, and the town—with logging operations there at an end—is fading away. Only one man is now employed at Maxville, W.F. Matthes, postmaster and company storekeeper.<sup>41</sup>

Timber concerns were often the first to feel the effects of economic swings, and families in the vicinity who had lost employment due to the Depression began leaving their homesteads in the early 1930s, and many moved into the vacated Maxville houses, which they were able to rent in exchange for labor (Highberger n.d.:17). Maxville was officially dissolved in 1933, and “[s]ome of the houses were moved to Wallowa, where some were used as housing for the remaining mill workers, and others for the black families who had moved to the outskirts of town” (Highberger n.d.:17-18). Some families stayed on at Maxville through the middle of the 1940s, long after Bowman-Hicks’ departure, but were forced out after a severe snowstorm caused the roofs of many of the buildings to collapse. Bowman-Hicks sold all their interests except the land to the J. Herbert Bate Company in Wallowa in 1944 or 1945 (Highberger n.d.:17; Hafer 2015:289).

#### *Criterion D*

The Maxville District is significant under Criterion D in that it has yielded information and can potentially yield additional information about a company logging town that was the home of both white and African American loggers between 1922 and 1947. The history and ownership of the property is well documented in this nomination, as are the extant contributing oral and written histories, artifacts, sites, and structures.

<sup>37</sup> “Logged Off Land Sold,” *Portland Morning Oregonian* (May 15, 1928), p. 12.

<sup>38</sup> “Two Mills to Stay Open,” *Portland Morning Oregonian* (July 3, 1925), p. 3.

<sup>39</sup> “Bowman--Hicks Mill to Resume,” *Portland Morning Oregonian* (April 28, 1928), p. 5.

<sup>40</sup> “Logging Operations Curtailed,” *Portland Morning Oregonian* (November 22, 1926), p. 22; “Lumber Mill Cuts Crew,” *Portland Morning Oregonian* (November 29, 1926), p. 2.

<sup>41</sup> “Sawmilling Operations Building and Erase Towns,” *Portland Morning Oregonian* (May 25, 1931), p. 7

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Archaeological survey has described thousands of artifacts relating to the period of significance across the district. Maxville has the advantage of having been abandoned in the mid-1940s and left largely intact, and there is a high probability and potential that intact below ground archaeological resources are present throughout the district and associated with the inventoried buildings and structures.

Over 200 archaeological sites are currently listed on the National Register of Historic Places in the state of Oregon, but less than 100 date to the settler period, and there are few sites associated with the logging industry among the 47 properties listed within the state under Criteria D in the Oregon SHPO's historic sites database. Most of the Oregon properties on the National Register that are associated with the logging industry are individual structures listed under Criteria C such as the Thomas McAnn house in the city of Bend in Deschutes County, the home of an industry manager, or the classic box-style Gardiner Mill Company House in Gardiner in Douglas County, which, like the Thomas McAnn house, were placed on the National Register as parts of a larger historic district. The Ralph Hall Lumber Company Mill Complex in the city of Monroe in Benton County is a complex of structures that includes a sawmill, log pond, boiler and fuel storage house, a planer building, a company office and depot, a truck maintenance garage, and railroad spurs and was nominated under Criterion C and Criterion A as representative of lumber manufacturing equipment and methods characteristic of steam power that were part of the early 20<sup>th</sup> century economy of Benton County. Maxville in contrast, provides an opportunity to acknowledge and learn about the timber industry and the lives and social history of laborers of various backgrounds through the archaeology of both their domestic and professional lives, and represents a logging community in a hinterland location where logs were collected and transported to mills via railroad.

Holbrook (2016:170 cited in Franzen 2020:87) described logging facilities such as Maxville as a "gigantic factory without a roof." As such, as archaeological sites they are repositories of information about industrial technology, the dynamics of that technology, and the changes to that technology (Franzen 2020:71). The first half of the twentieth century saw the transition from steam to electricity, from railroad to internal combustion engine truck, and eventually the adoption of the chainsaw. Each of these developments and others could be examined through archaeological study within the Maxville district. A factory—with or without a roof—is a large facility that has an internal spatial structure that reflects technological as well as social requirements (Franzen 2020:88). These topics were considered by, for example, Hills et al (1996), who examined historical documents and conducted archaeological survey of the Weyerhaeuser Camp 2 in Klamath County, Oregon, and found that even a large company like Weyerhaeuser would not abandon older steam powered equipment even what gas-powered yarders were available, and that the camp had been structured carefully to define both functional and social space: administrative areas, living quarters, dining areas, and equipment storage. Archaeological work at the nearby Hub Camp on today's Winema National Forest delineated different social spaces such as communal barracks and dining facilities for unmarried workers and more private portable structures for families (Clark 2002). Further afield, an archaeological study of a large mill towns in northern Michigan suggest that segregated spatial organization in logging communities increases with the degree of both industrialization and social hierarchy (Anderton et al. 1996; Riordan and Barton 1982).

#### *Potential Research Questions, Industry: Logging in Northeastern Oregon 1922-1947*

The Maxville district contains the relatively intact archaeological remains of a logging facility of the Bowman-Hicks company dating to 1922 to 1933, in other words, the Maxville district contains, with good archaeological integrity, a portion of the "roofless factory" of the timber industry in northeast Oregon in that period. Future archaeological research could continue to build our understanding of the function and physical layout of Maxville, and how this factory functioned. Test excavations at the identified buildings could provide assemblages of artifacts that can identify the specific functions of the buildings.

**Is Building 1 the railroad round house?** Remote sensing using ground penetrating radar (GPR) and other kinds of techniques as well as test excavations at this building could reveal railroad grades and tools related to maintenance and repair of locomotives.

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**What are the functions of Building 2 and Building 3?** Remote sensing using ground penetrating radar (GPR) and other kinds of techniques as well as test excavations could uncover artifacts related to log milling and sawing, or else administrative functions.

Maxville functioned as a logging “factory without a roof” at a period of time when steam technology was being replaced with internal combustion engines. **Was this transition happening at Maxville?** If so did it happen all at once, or was their mix of technologies used, such as at the Weyerhaeuser Camp 2 site in Klamath County. The presence of gas cans, vehicle parts, or chain saw parts are examples of artifacts that might help answer this question.

**How did the water system operate in Maxville?** A company town like Maxville was essentially a planned community, and public works are part of such a community. The inventory and survey work described above has just started to document the extent of cast iron pipe, ditches, and natural springs at the Maxville district. Given the degree of archaeological integrity of this system, continued survey and mapping using GPS and GIS technology will outline this system and its intricacies over the entire landscape.

*Potential Research Questions: Social History: African American Loggers and their Families in Rural Oregon 1922-1946*

Miniketti (2020:18) suggests that the “study of the timber industry would be exasperatingly boring if we cling solely to descriptions of donkey engines and applications of steam for powering saws” suggesting, as many recent scholars do, that the greater potential of historical archaeology of logging camps or company towns is the potential to consider social history and issues of labor, class, and diaspora in resource capitalism (Drake 2022; Wurt 2022; Franzen 2020; Miniketti 2020; Bass 2017; Holbrook 2016). Life in a logging camp or company town conditioned particular material realities, and both Franzen (2020:113-139) and Bass (2017) catalog categories of zooarchaeological remains and the artifactual remains of intoxicants, medicines, leisure activities and vices might vary according to company policy, the isolation of a given locale, relevant laws about alcohol, or cultural traditions. Horn (1987) described how a bath house in an eastern Washington logging camp was constructed using Chinese techniques, and Franzen (2020:152) identified of savusaunas—a Finnish style sauna to document the presence of Finns in logging camps in northern Michigan. Finally, Rajala (1989, 1993, 1999) and Holbrook (2016:170) used archaeology to consider that each step of the logging industry from water power to steam to the internal combustion engine reduced the *per capita* level of skill required per laborer, reducing the leverage and power of labors as the factory regime came to the forefront.

Race and immigration intersect with social class, and Franzen (2020:141) offers archaeology as a means to highlight diversity and inequality in the history of logging industry. Miniketti’s (2020) work in the Santa Cruz mountains of northern California and Mercier’s (2001) research into logging in the greater Pacific Northwest describes how the logging industry mirrors problematic social relations in contemporary society: in this case the intersection of immigration, race, labor, and inequality through the lens of a single logging mill (in Menniketti’s case) or the entire Pacific Northwest (in Mercier’s case). Both of these authors indicate a need to allow erased narratives of people of color to be told through the study of the logging industry (see also Chung 2015). Several recent studies have used archaeology to describe the experience of African Americans in the logging industry. Several studies describe how the physical layout of camps or company towns and resources made available to African Americans were part of the maintenance of structural inequality; for example, Whelan and Pearson (1999) analyzed a 1903-1916 logging camp of the Good Land Cypress Company in Louisiana, and found that Black laborers were segregated in a physically distant part of the camp, and their food remains indicated a less nutritious diet and Davidson (2013) found that a late 19<sup>h</sup> century Black logging community in Arkansas was spatially modeled after a southern plantation, despite the (white) owner who had the town built being from New York.

Archaeological studies specifically of Black logging communities remain rare, but they also point to how life in such places, despite the violence of structural inequality, provided avenues of resistance and communal

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strength. Archaeological work at the Dibert, Start, and Brown Cypress company mill town of Donner found similarities in the material culture and food remains of both Cajun and African America, and that both had a shared experience based on social class where access to abundant and nutritious food was limited, local hunting and fishing to was required to supplement their diet (Hahn and Schwab 1989). At a camp called Nalaka in Florida an African American camp of logging and turpentine workers dating to 1910 to 1920 was excavated, and a surface concentration of bottle glass, a jewelry bead, buttons, tobacco tins, and a harmonica reed suggested the possible location of a dancing and socializing establishment (Ziel 2013). Finally, at the 1926-1930 Elmwood site in the western Upper Peninsula of Michigan, archaeologists uncovered the remains of an African American logging camp, a private enterprise where a group hoped cut and sell enough wood to buy land. The camp was eventually broken up, and the entrepreneurs were arrested for moonshining, but the archaeological remains and oral histories relating the site point to more positive, if staid, existence for those who lived at site that contrasts with the shrill and racist rhetoric of contemporary newspaper accounts (Bastien 1999; Bastian and Rutter 1987). Although illicit alcohol was being produced at the camp, zooarchaeological remains showed diverse and healthy diet that included chickens raised in camp, dairy products from a cow on site, and well as local fish and hunted rabbit and deer. Two elders who lived at the site described more serene life in a liminal and, for a short while, safe locale that again was at odds for the portrayal of the camp in the local media at the time.

The inventory and non-invasive archaeological survey to date have determined that the Maxville district preserves a rich and diverse archaeological record of domestic life at Maxville. Additional remote sensing survey and excavation could potentially identify middens, privies, foundations, and artifact concentrations that, when contextualized with Maxville's oral histories and documentary record, would yield information about the daily lives of those who lived there, and augment our understanding of the significance of the property.

How does the material culture assemblage of Maxville's domestic areas compare to assemblages found elsewhere in the Pacific Northwest or across North America? For example, logging sites have been excavated in Klamath County, western Washington and elsewhere. These studies have outlined the lives of logging workers, and how they might differ between, for example, married men with families against single men. **What access did the residents of Maxville have in terms of luxury items reflected in relative value of food items, ceramic wares, or other daily items? How might these items be differentially distributed between different neighborhoods or areas of the district?**

The racial segregation of Maxville was part of a larger "racing" of space that operated through social, political, cultural, and legal dimensions to serve the racist agenda of the Jim Crow era. Weyeneth (2005) considered the way that segregation acted as spatial system as expressed through architecture; i.e. through segregated waiting rooms at hospitals, railway stations or the like. This approach—focused as it is on spatial context and the built environment—offers a pathway for considering the archaeological of Maxville or similar spaces. Weyeneth (2005:13) points out the practical aim of segregation was to minimize "racial contact," and this could be achieved spatially through the construction of spaces that created physical exclusion, often to the point of—inefficiently—duplicating aspects of the built environment, such as the racially separate schools at Maxville. **How can the archaeological, primary documents, and oral histories of Maxville yield additional information and insight into this dynamic? How were these rules of segregation-as-laid-down adapted and innovated by the both the Black and White residents of Maxville through the time the community was in use?**

At the most fundamental, a remaining task is to identify archaeologically the Black logger's residential area used between 1922 and 1923 (Figure 32). Oral histories suggest that these homes, located 'across the tracks' on the edge of Bishop Creek, were railroad cars that were removed with Bowman-Hicks abandoned Maxville in 1933. Consequently, unlike the areas on the southern edge of the district where the white residents were known to have lived during the Bowman-Hicks period, structural remains have yet to be identified. However, the area along the Bishop Creek floodplain is rich in artifacts, and more systematic surface survey at smaller transect intervals as well as remote sensing survey could identify particular surface or subsurface concentrations of artifacts or features indicative of the location of these homes.

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**Does the archaeological record of Maxville reflect either a “southern” identity in general, or even within that can the culture of the towns Black or White residents be identified?** Excavations can provide assemblages of artifacts that can be compared with others excavated in the Pacific Northwest and in other areas of North America to compare consumer and stylistic choices.

Finally, **how did use of Maxville change after 1933?** Oral history and documentary sources indicate that even after the town was abandoned by Bowman-Hicks in 1933, many residents, including Black families, remained living on site until the mid-1940s. The 1946 aerial photograph shows buildings along the easternmost north-south road, including the Superintendent’s Lodge and Building 4, as relatively intact and possibly occupied. A hypothesis is that some of the Black residents of Maxville moved into some of the remaining buildings after most residents left in 1933 and their railroad car homes were taken away. Building 4 retains considerable archaeological integrity, and a program of remote sensing and test excavations could be used to determine if stratified deposits are present that could reveal differences in the areas use in terms of access to commercial or higher status goods and food or in stylistic choices. Archaeological research could shed light on the economic activities of those who continued to live at Maxville.

In conclusion, The Maxville District retains a high degree of integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association, and has, and will continue to provide opportunities for new research into local and state historical events and themes related to the logging industry in northeastern Oregon and in the Pacific Northwest in general, and into the social experiences of loggers and their families. In particular, the history of Black loggers and their families remains has been inadequately told in northeastern Oregon, in Oregon and the Pacific Northwest generally, and in the United States overall. This nomination is part of efforts by Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center to tell and commemorate this story through the collection of primary documents, artifacts, and oral histories of Maxville, and to present, interpret, and make accessible these for the public. The artifacts, building, and structures of the Maxville District are likely to yield important information about the logging industry in Oregon and the social experience of African American loggers between 1922 and 1946 and are thus eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion D.

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**Previous documentation on file (NPS):**

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

**Primary location of additional data:**

- State Historic Preservation Office
  - Other State agency
  - Federal agency
  - Local government
  - University
  - Other
- Name of repository: Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center, Joseph, OR

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

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**10. Geographical Data**

**Acreage of Property** 107

(Do not include previously listed resource acreage; enter "Less than one" if the acreage is .99 or less)

**Latitude/Longitude Coordinates**

Datum if other than WGS84 \_\_\_\_\_  
(enter coordinates to 6 decimal places)

1	<u>45.748534°</u> Latitude	<u>-117.564623°</u> Longitude	3	<u>45.742214°</u> Latitude	<u>-117.563701°</u> Longitude
2	<u>45.747875°</u> Latitude	<u>-117.556126°</u> Longitude	4	<u>45.742244°</u> Latitude	<u>-117.556705°</u> Longitude

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

The Maxville district encompasses 107 acres. The boundary was defined by the presence of surface artifacts and features (identified either through archaeological survey or through aerial photography) associated with the period of significance, i.e. between 1922 and 1947. While generally rectangular overall, the site boundary is not of uniform shape. The boundary follows the west side of Promise road, commencing where Promise Road crosses Bishop Creek thence southwest along Promise road for 250 feet to the intersection of Promise Road and an improved, east-west running logging road that runs west from Promise Road, thence 426 feet south-southwest along Promise Road to the intersection of an East-West Running two track dirt road that runs west from Promise Road, thence south-southeast along Promise Road for 1,161 feet. The boundary then leaves Promise Road, running 1,400 feet west-southwest up a gentle forested slope to a point amongst a series of natural springs, thence northwest for 877 feet across and down the gentle slope until the boundary enters Bishop's Meadow, thence 1,958 feet northwest to meet Bishop Creek upstream from the pool behind the Maxville dam. From here, the boundary runs 320 feet northeast across Bishop Creek to meet the base of the slope on the north side of the Bishop Creek riparian zone and thence 2,037 feet east along the base of the slope to meet Promise Road to the point of beginning.

**Boundary Justification** (Explain why the boundaries were selected.)

The area nominated for the district corresponds with the archaeological site boundary, and was determined by the distribution of artifact and features based on pedestrian archaeological survey within the property owned by the Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center and a review of historic aerial photographs.

**11. Form Prepared By**

name/title Mark Axel Tveskov, Liz Carter, and Rory Becker date 4/30/2023  
organization Black Dog Archaeology, LLC telephone 541-941-7466  
street & number 945 Park Avenue email mark.tveskov@gmail.com  
city or town Medford state OR zip code 97501

**Additional Documentation**

Submit the following items with the completed form:

- **Regional Location Map**
- **Local Location Map**
- **Floor Plans (As Applicable)**
- **Photo Location Map** (Include for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources. Key all photographs to this map and insert immediately after the photo log and before the list of figures).
- **Tax Lot Map**
- **Site Plan**

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**Photographs:**

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

**Photo Log**


**Name of Property:** Maxville  
**City or Vicinity:** Wallowa  
**County:** Wallowa **State:** Oregon  
**Photographer:** Mark Axel Tveskov, Allison Krantz-Gromes, Liz Carter  
**Date Photographed:** Various dates in 2021 and 2022. See description for photo date.

Description of Photograph(s) and number, include description of view indicating direction of camera:

- Photo 1 of 18.** View south across the southern terrace of the site from the east-west two track road, November 2021.
- Photo 2 of 18.** Bishops Meadow, view east from near the location of the Superintendent's Lodge, May 2022.
- Photo 3 of 18.** The remains of an oxen-pulled snow plow used at Maxville, September 2022. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.
- Photo 4 of 18.** Photo 3 of 18. Contributing Site, Building 1, view west, September 2022. This archaeological feature is a graded and generally round area approximately 18 meters in diameter, that could be the remains of Maxville's railroad roundhouse or turntable.
- Photo 5 of 18.** Contributing Site, Building 2, view southwest, September 2022. This feature is a rectangular graded area filled with industrial and construction debris located [REDACTED].
- Photo 6 of 18.** Contributing Site, Building 3, view northeast, September 2022. Building 3 is a rectangular graded area filled with industrial and construction debris adjacent to [REDACTED].
- Photo 7 of 18.** Contributing Site, Building 4, view north, September 2021. The feature is a graded area of domestic artifacts and construction debris that [REDACTED] could correspond to the Maxville hotel.
- Photo 8 of 18.** Contributing Site Building 5, view north-northeast, May 2022. This feature is a surface scatter of domestic artifacts and construction debris that corresponds to residential buildings [REDACTED].
- Photo 9 of 18.** Contributing Structure, Structure 1, view east, September 2022. Structure 6 is the base of a cast iron and rivetted water tank located in the industrial area of the Maxville District.
- Photo 10 of 18.** Detail of the rivets and bitumen lining of the Structure 1 water tank, September 2022.
- Photo 11 of 18.** Railroad grade to Bishop Creek, view west from the base of the grade in the Bishop Creek floodplain. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

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- Photo 12 of 18.** Contributing Structure, Structure 3, view west, November 2021. Structure 3 is a well-preserved railroad grade that runs at least 130 meters east-west across the Maxville 
- Photo 13 of 18.** Contributing Structure 4, a portion of the two track road from Maxville. View west from just west of the Promise Road.
- Photo 14 of 18.** A portion of Contributing Structure, Structure 5, view south-southeast, May 2022. This is a portion of Maxville's water system, showing an excavated trench reinforced by large pieces of milled lumber and containing a cast iron ferrous metal pipe.
- Photo 15 of 18.** Contributing Structure 6, view south, June 2022. Structure 11 is an earthen dam on Bishop Creek that creates a log holding pond used during the Maxville operations.
- Photo 16 of 18.** Contributing Structure 6, view north, June 2022. View across the earthen dam on Bishop Creek.
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- Photo 18 of 18.** Non-contributing Building, Building 1. The Maxville Superintendent's Lodge prior to being dismantled for restoration, view northeast, May 2015.

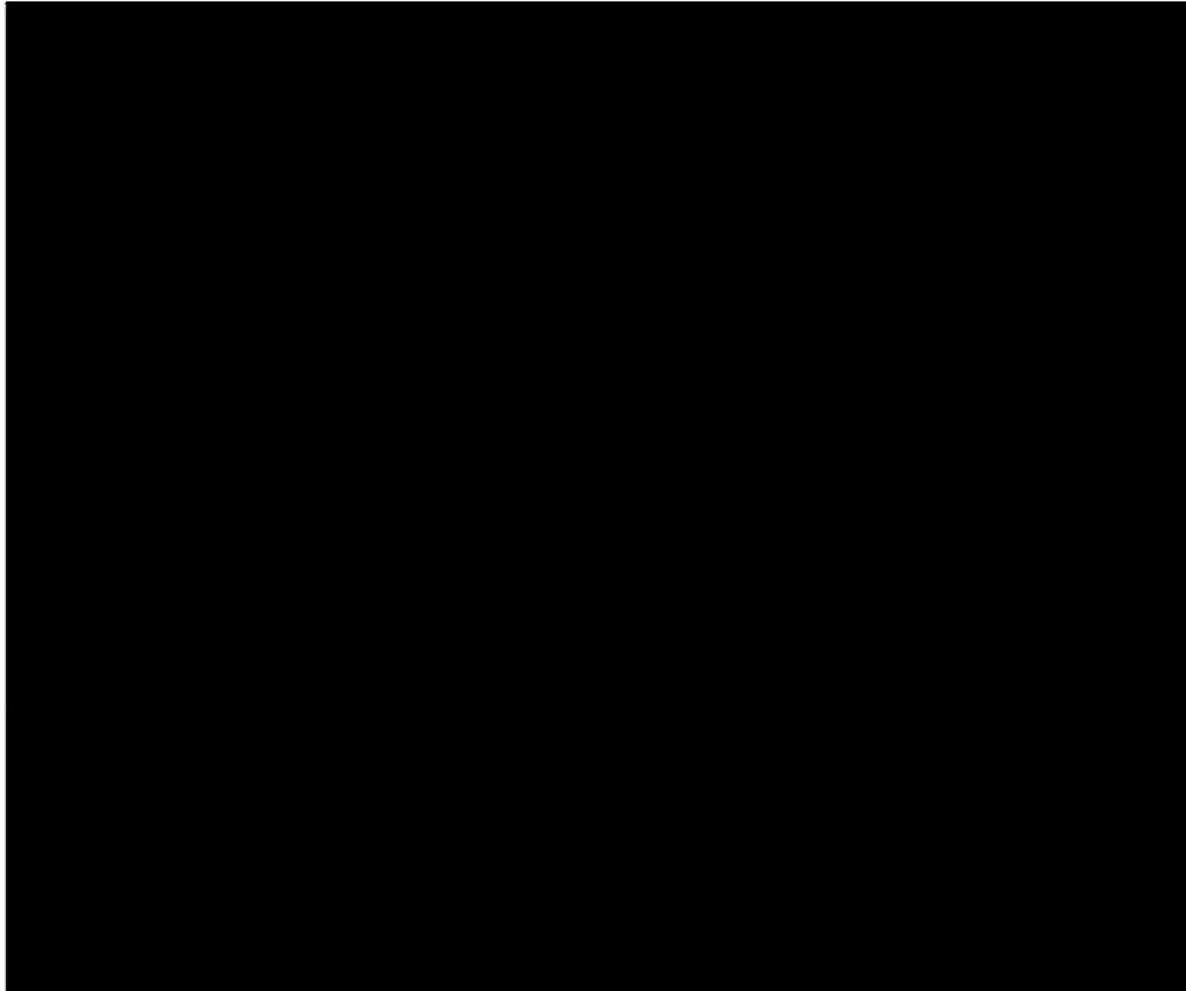
**Paperwork Reduction Act Statement:** This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to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

**Estimated Burden Statement:** Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 100 hours per response including time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Office of Planning and Performance Management, U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1849 C. Street, NW, Washington, DC.

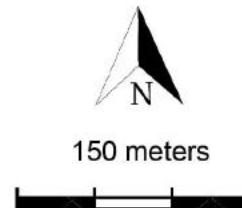
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**Photo Location Map**



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**Figure 2 of 33.** Local location map: Maxville District.

**Figure 3 of 33.** Memory Map of Maxville, drafted and illustrated by Irene Barklow and Eugene Hayes, Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

**Figure 4 of 33.** A 1946 Aerial photograph of the Maxville District, showing the extant buildings at the time the community was finally abandoned. Aerial Photography Collection of the Map Library, University of Oregon.

**Figure 5 of 33.** Site Plan: Contributing and non-contributing sites and features of the Maxville district.

**Figure 6 of 33.** A sample of ceramic artifacts identified within the Maxville district during the pedestrian archaeological survey. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

**Figure 7 of 33.** Milk glass cosmetic vessel (left) and clear glass medicinal bottle with a cork closure, both identified during the pedestrian archaeological survey. The makers marks on the bottle indicate an age of manufacture dating to the 1920s or 1930s. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

**Figure 8 of 33.** Copper telegraph wire insulator identified during the pedestrian archaeological survey. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

**Figure 9 of 33.** "Nickle Silver" spoon identified during the pedestrian archaeological survey. Nickel silver was an alloy used to make mass produced flatware that rarely had any actual silver. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

**Figure 10 of 33.** Metal buckets and kerosene containers, often crushed are ubiquitous across the district. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

**Figure 11 of 33.** Sketch of the oxen-pulled snow plow used at Maxville by Eugene Hayes, drawn from memory by Eugene Hayes, Maxville Heritage and Interpretive Center.

**Figure 12 of 33.** Brick associated with Contributing Site, Building 2. The maker's mark is from the Washington Brick and Lime Company of Spokane Washington, and this style of mark was used between 1821 and 1957.

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**Figure 18 of 33.** General Land Office map of Township 3 North, Range 42 East as surveyed in 1884. What is today Promise Road is marked as a trail running north-south through the middle of the map. USDA Bureau of Land Management.

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**Figure 20 of 33.** "Bowman Hicks Lumber Co. commissary tickets," 1920s. Regional Historical Collection, Eastern Oregon University.

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**Figure 22 of 33.** Hosea Lowery and Lucy Tate Lowrey, ca. 1926-1938.

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**Figure 25 of 33.** "Maxville School," no date.

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**Figure 27 of 33.** "Maxville group photo," no date. Note the gentleman with the catcher's mask on the right.

**Figure 28 of 33:** "Airing the blankets," Maxville, no date. Regional Historical Collection, Eastern Oregon University.

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**Figure 31 of 33.** "Outdoor Privy, Maxville," no date.

**Figure 33 of 33.** "Maxville Black logger housing," 1930s.



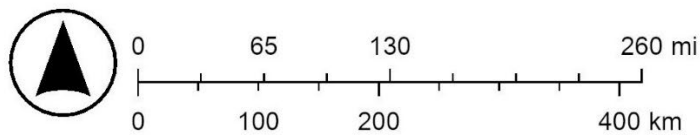
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Figure 1. Regional Location Map: Maxville District.



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Figure 2. Local location map: Maxville District. (latitude and Longitude coordinates for the boundary corners, starting with the northwest corner and then going clockwise: 45.748534°, -117.564623°; 45.742214°, -117.563701°; 45.7477875°, -117.556126°; 45.742244°, -117.556705°).



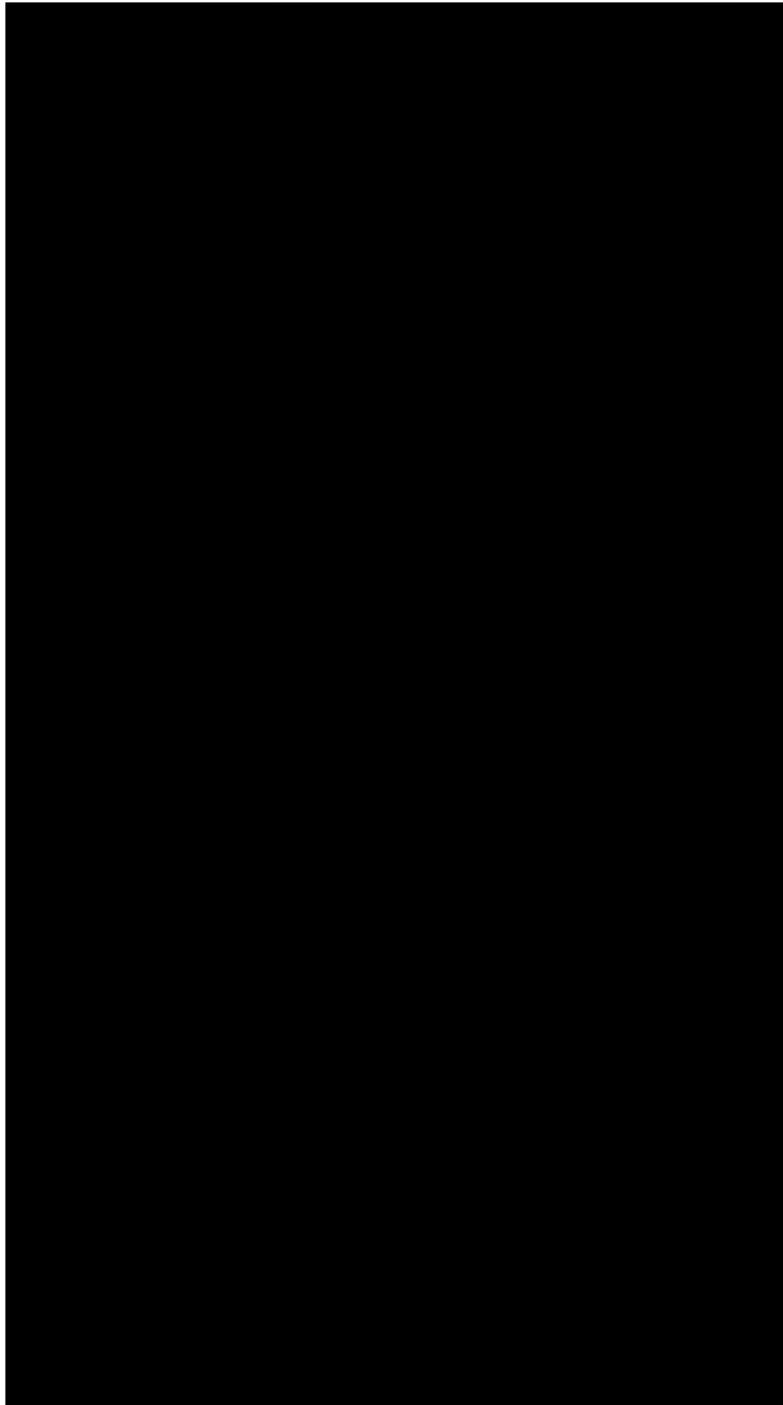
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Figure 3. Memory Map of Maxville, drafted and illustrated by Irene Barklow and Eugene Hayes, Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



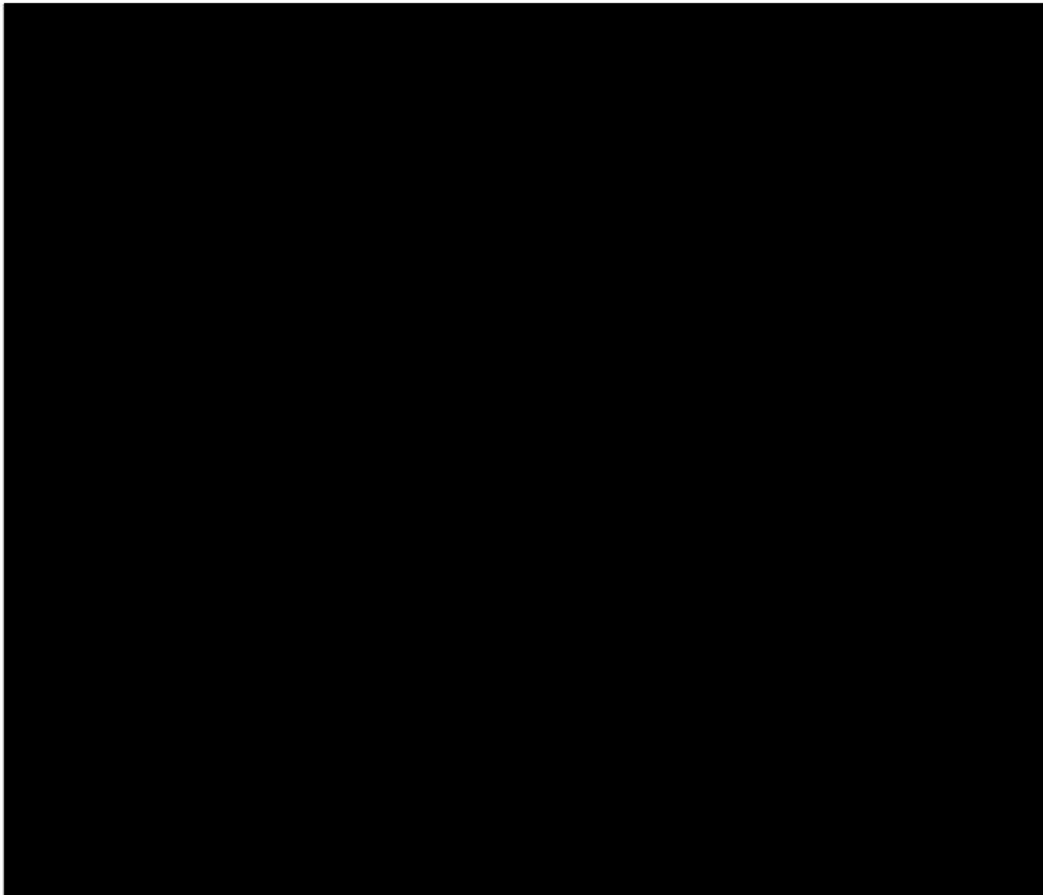
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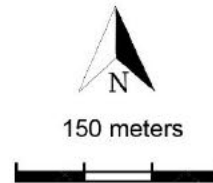
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Figure 4. A 1946 Aerial photograph of the Maxville District, showing the extant buildings at the time the community was finally abandoned. Aerial Photography Collection of the Map Library, University of Oregon.



Maxville  
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1946 Aerial Photo



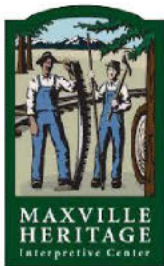
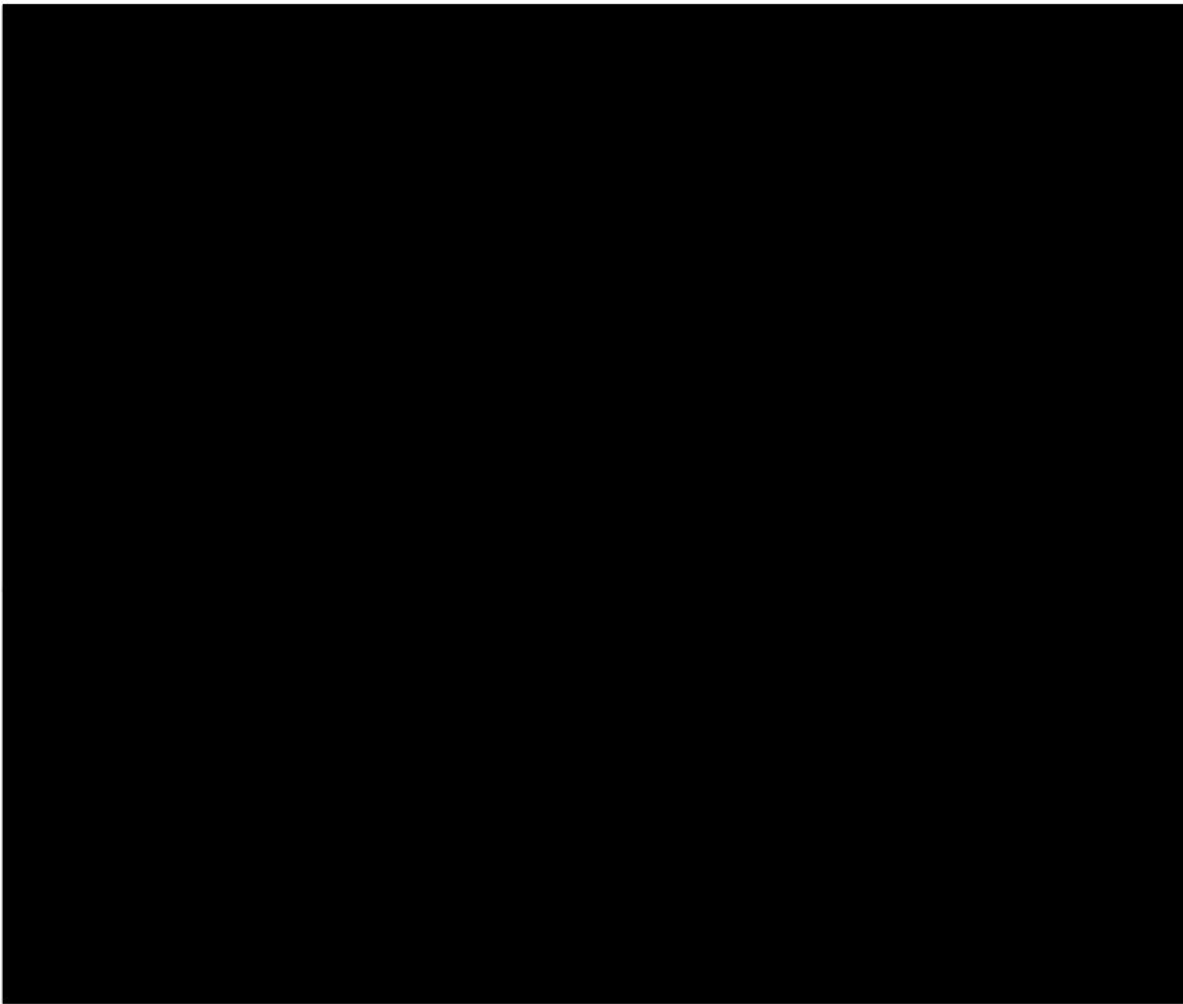
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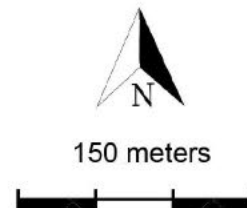
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Figure 5. Site Plan: Contributing and non-contributing sites and features of the Maxville district.



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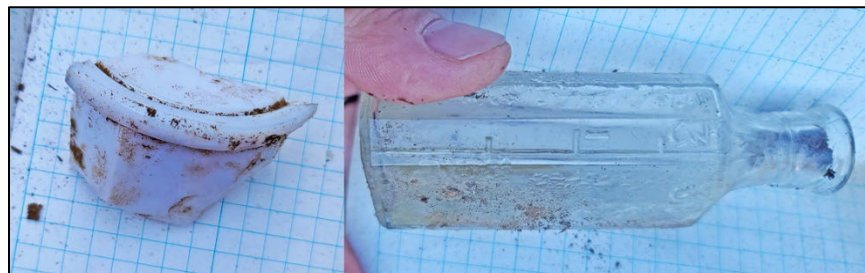
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Figure 6. A sample of ceramic artifacts identified within the Maxville district during the pedestrian archaeological survey. Upper row and bottom left are transfer print white improved earthenware, bottom right is banded white improved earthenware "hotel ware." Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Figure 7. Milk glass cosmetic vessel (left) and clear glass medicinal bottle with a cork closure, both identified during the pedestrian archaeological survey. The makers marks on the bottle indicate an age of manufacture dating to the 1920s or 1930s. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



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Figure 8. Copper telegraph wire insulator identified during the pedestrian archaeological survey. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Figure 9. "Nickle Silver" spoon identified during the pedestrian archaeological survey. Nickel silver was an alloy used to make mass produced flatware that rarely had any actual silver. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Figure 10. Metal buckets and kerosene containers, often crushed are ubiquitous across the district. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



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Figure 11. Sketch of the oxen-pulled snow plow used at Maxville by Eugene Hayes, drawn from memory by Eugene Hayes, Maxville Heritage and Interpretive Center.



Figure 12. Brick associated with Contributing Site, Building 2. The maker's mark is from the Washington Brick and Lime Company of Spokane Washington, and this style of mark was used between 1821 and 1957. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.





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Figure 13. Hand painted, Japanese, and banded ceramics from Building 5. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



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Figure 14. Ceramic doll arm from Building 5. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Figure 15. Pressed glass fragments from Building 5. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



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Figure 16. Harmonica reed from Building 5. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Figure 17. The Maxville Superintendent's Lodge, 1923. View west-northwest. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



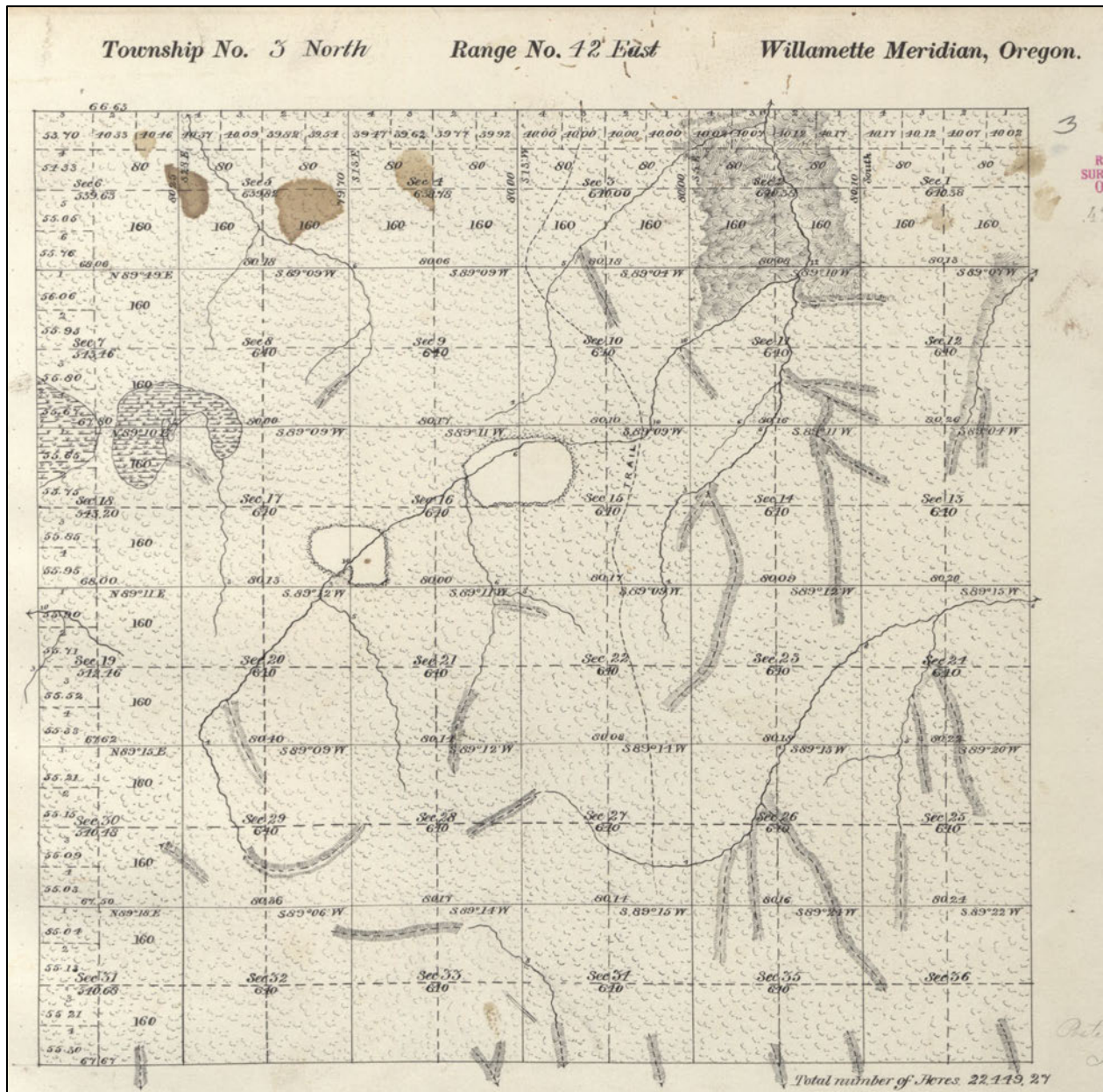
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Figure 18. General Land Office map of Township 3 North, Range 42 East as surveyed in 1884. What is today Promise Road is marked as a trail running north-south through the middle of the map. USDA Bureau of Land Management.



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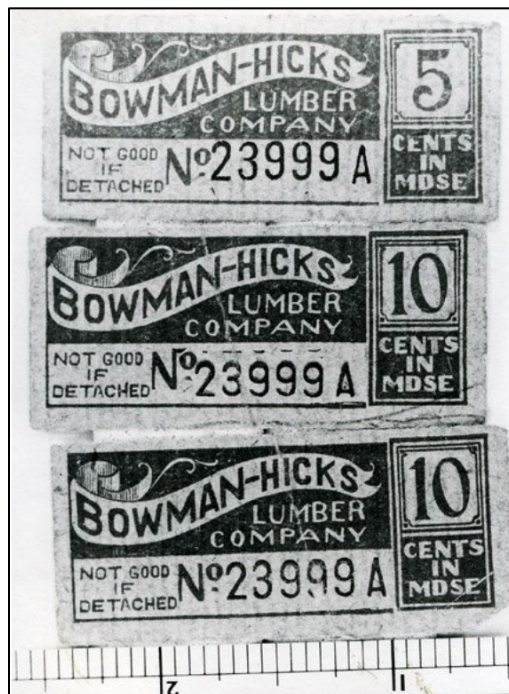
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Figure 19. Bowman Hicks locomotive, ca. 1926 near Maxville.



Figure 20. "Bowman Hicks Lumber Co. commissary tickets," 1920s. Regional Historical Collection, Eastern Oregon University.



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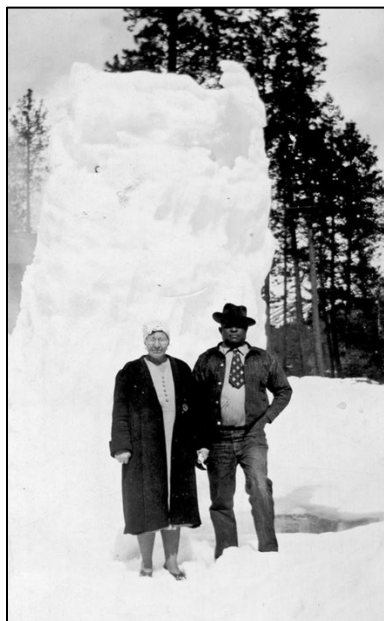
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Figure 21. Logging crew at Maxville, no date. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Figure 22. Hosea Lowery and Lucy Tate Lowery, ca. 1926-1938.



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Figure 23. "Maxville School Teacher" ca. 1930s.



Figure 24. "Moving a logging camp," ca. 1930s, near Maxville.



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Figure 25. "Maxville School," no date.



Figure 26. Baseball at Maxville, no date. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.





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Figure 27. "Maxville group photo," no date. Note the gentleman with the catcher's mask on the right.



Figure 28: "Airing the blankets," Maxville, no date. Regional Historical Collection, Eastern Oregon University.



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Figure 29. "Black Logger of Maxville," no date.



Figure 30. Maxville residents, no date. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



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Figure 31 "Outdoor Privy, Maxville," no date. Wallow History Center.



Figure 32. "Maxville Black logger housing," 1930s.



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Photo 1 of 18. View south across the southern terrace of the site from the east-west two track road, November 2021. The district ends within the trees in the rising slope in the background. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Photo 2 of 18. Bishops Meadow, view east from near the location of the Superintendent's Lodge, May 2022. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

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Photo 3 of 18. The remains of an oxen-pulled snow plow used at Maxville, September 2022. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

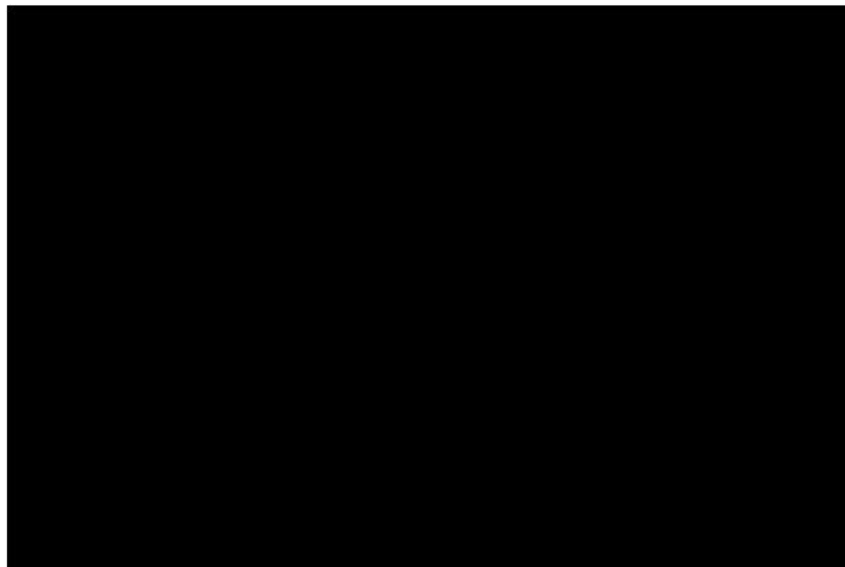


Photo 4 of 18. Contributing Site, Building 1, view west, September 2022. This archaeological feature is a graded and generally round area approximately 18 meters in diameter, that could be the remains of Maxville's railroad roundhouse or turntable. Archaeologist Rory Becker is standing on the eastern side of the feature where [REDACTED]



Photo 5 of 18. Contributing Site, Building 2, view southwest, September 2022. This feature is a rectangular graded area filled with industrial and construction debris located



Photo 6 of 18. Contributing Site, Building 3, view northeast, September 2022. Building 3 is a rectangular graded area filled with industrial and construction debris adjacent

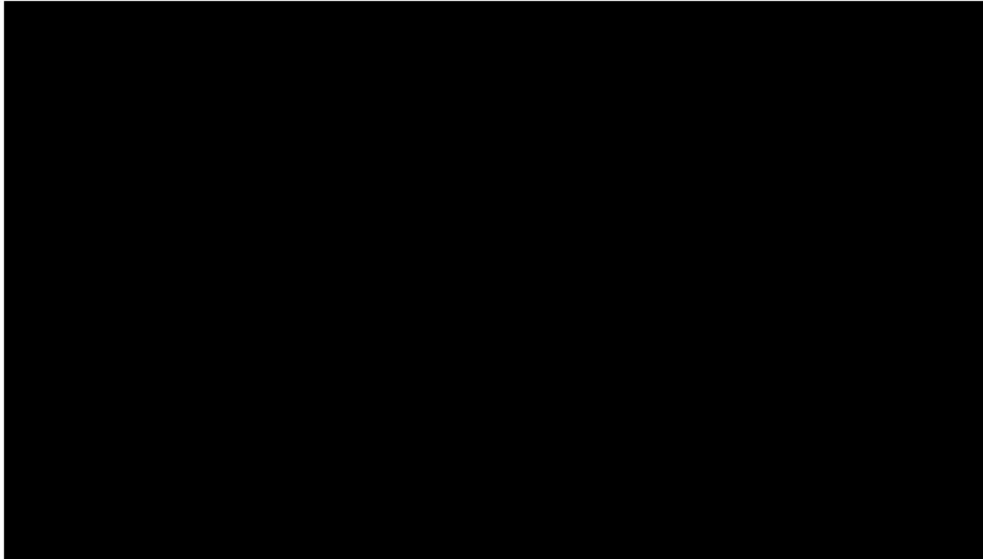


Photo 7 of 18. Contributing Site, Building 4, view north, September 2021. The feature is a graded area of domestic artifacts and construction debris [REDACTED]

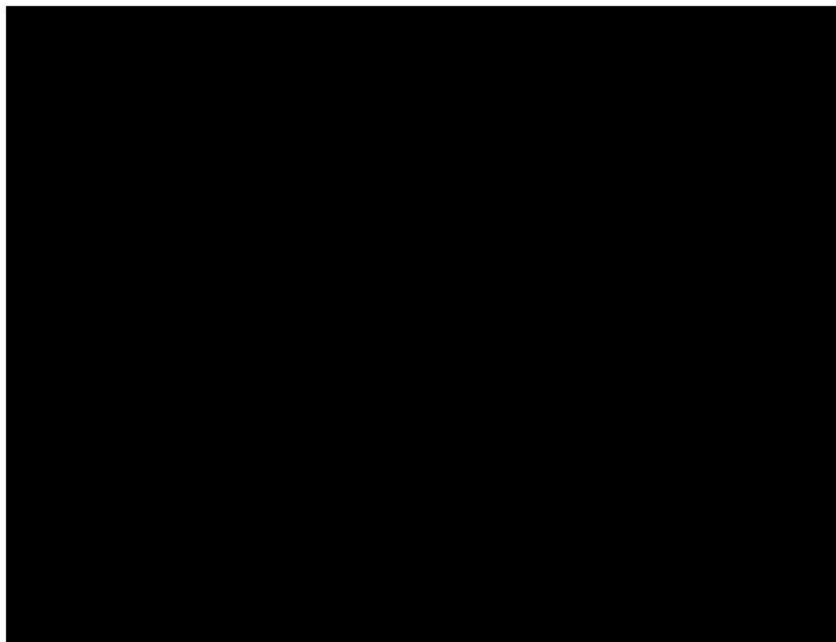


Photo 8 of 18. Contributing Site Building 5, view north-northeast, May 2022. This feature is a surface scatter of domestic artifacts and construction debris that corresponds to residential buildings [REDACTED]

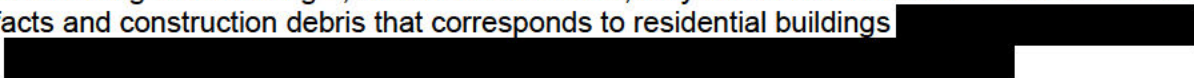




Photo 9 of 18. Contributing Structure, Structure 1, view east, September 2022. Structure 6 is the base of a cast iron and rivetted water tank located in the industrial area of the Maxville District. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Photo 10 of 18. Detail of the rivets and bitumen lining of the Structure 1 water tank, September 2022. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



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Photo 11 of 18: Railroad grade Structure 2 to Bishop Creek, view west from the base of the grade in the Bishop Creek floodplain. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Photo 12 of 17. Contributing Structure, Structure 3, view west, November 2021. Structure 3 is a well-preserved railroad grade that runs at least 130 meters east-west across the Maxville district, terminating at Building 2, the remains of the rectangular industrial building, visible on the right side of the photograph. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

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Photo 13 of 18. Contributing Structure 4, a portion of the two track road from Maxville. View west from just west of the Promise Road.



Photo 14 of 18. A portion of Contributing Structure, Structure 5 ,view south-southeast, May 2022. This is a portion of Maxville's water system, showing an excavated trench reinforced by large pieces of milled lumber and containing a cast iron ferrous metal pipe. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.

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Photo 15 of 17. Contributing Structure 6, view south, June 2022. Structure 11 is an earthen dam on Bishop Creek that creates a log holding pond used during the Maxville operations.



Photo 16 of 18. Contributing Structure 6, north, June, 2022. View across the earthen dam on Bishop Creek.

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Photo 17 of 18. Contributing Structure, Structure 7. Maxville's baseball diamond was located in the middle background of this picture. The axis from home plate to the pitcher's mound was about 20° east of north, and the lone tree in the middle right lies approximately on second base. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.



Photo 18 of 18. Non-contributing Building, Building 1. The Maxville Superintendent's Lodge, in process of being restored in Enterprise Oregon, May 2022. Maxville Heritage Interpretive Center.