
National Park Service
Cultural Landscapes Inventory

2025



Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi)
Prince William Forest Park

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Introduction

The Cultural Landscape Inventory (CLI)

The Cultural Landscape Inventory (CLI) is a comprehensive inventory of all cultural landscapes in the National Park System. Landscapes that are listed, or eligible for listing, on the National Register of Historic Places, or are otherwise managed as cultural resources and in which the National Park Service has, or plans to acquire, legal interest are included in the inventory. The CLI identifies and documents each landscape's location, size, physical development, landscape characteristics, character-defining features, and condition. Cultural landscapes have approved CLIs when concurrence with the findings is obtained from the park superintendent and all required data fields are entered into the Cultural Resources Information System (CRIS-CL) database. In addition, for landscapes not currently listed on the National Register and/or without adequate documentation, concurrence is required from the State Historic Preservation Officer, Tribal Historic Preservation Officer, or the Keeper of the National Register.

Scope of the CLI

The information contained within the CLI is compiled from primary and secondary sources and through on-site surveys of the landscape. The level of investigation is dependent upon scoping the need for information. The baseline information collected provides a comprehensive look at the historical development and significance of the landscape. Documentation and analysis of the existing landscape identifies character-defining characteristics and features and allows for an evaluation of the landscape's integrity and an assessment of the landscape's condition. The CLI also includes historic maps, drawings, and images; photographs of existing conditions; and a site plan that indicates major features. The CLI documents the existing condition of park landscape resources and identifies impacts, threats, and measures to stabilize condition. This information can be used to develop strategies for improved stewardship. Unlike a Cultural Landscape Report (CLR), the CLI does not provide management recommendations or treatment guidelines for the cultural landscape, but it may identify stabilization measures.

The Cultural Resources Information System (CRIS)

CRIS is the National Park Service's database of cultural resources on its lands, consisting of archeological sites, historic structures, ethnographic resources, and cultural landscapes. Cultural Resources Inventory System (CRIS) replaces three legacy inventory systems: ASMIS (archeology), CLI (cultural landscapes), and LCS (historic structures); and it reinstates the former ERI (ethnographic resources). This Cultural Landscape Inventory document reflects the information in a corresponding CRIS Cultural Landscape record.

Statutory and Regulatory Foundation

The legislative, regulatory, and policy directives for conducting and maintaining the CLI within CRIS are:

- National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 (16 USC 470h-2(a)(1)) Sec. 110
- Executive Order 13287: Preserve America, 2003. Sec. 3 (a and c)
- Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Federal Agency Historic Preservation Programs
- Pursuant to the National Historic Preservation Act, 1998. Std. 2
- Cultural Resource Management Guideline, 1997, Release No. 5, page 22; issued pursuant to Director's Order #28 (DO-28)

The NHPA requires the identification, evaluation, and nomination of historic properties to the National Register of Historic Places and the maintenance and expansion of an inventory of cultural resources. DO-28 requires a cyclic assessment of the current condition of cultural landscapes based on an assessment interval, with a default of six years.

Use

Beyond fulfilling legal and policy requirements, park staff can use the Cultural Landscape Inventory in the following ways:

- To learn about park cultural landscapes (all staff)
- To inform management decisions (park managers)
- To inform project planning and development (park managers, facility managers, project managers, compliance specialists)
- To monitor the condition of the cultural landscape and take measures to protect its significance and integrity (cultural resource managers, facility managers)
- To recognize the stabilization and treatment needs of landscape features and plan work within cultural landscapes to address the needs (facility managers, cultural resource managers)
- To understand the cultural value of natural systems in a cultural landscape (natural resource managers)
- To create programming and educational materials based on site history (interpretation and education specialists)
- To recognize impacts within cultural landscapes and enforce protection measures (visitor and resources protection staff)

General Information

Property Level and CLI Numbers

Inventory Unit Name:	Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi)
Resource Classification:	Component Landscape
CLI Identification Number:	600021
Parent Landscape:	600006
Inventory Status:	Complete

Park Information

Park Name:	Prince William Forest Park
Alpha Code:	PRWI
Park Organization Code:	3700
Park District:	PRWI
Region:	National Capital
Restricted:	Yes

Landscape Description:

The content of the PRWI Cabin Camp 2 CLI is adapted from the Prince William Forest Park Cabin Camps 1-5 Cultural Landscape Report (CLR) that was prepared by the University of Pennsylvania's PennPraxis Urban Heritage Project (UPenn) in 2023. This report also draws on information compiled by the Historic Preservation Department at the University of Mary Washington in Fredericksburg, Virginia in a draft CLI for the property in 2021.

Cabin Camp 2, also known as Camp Mawavi, consists of approximately 48.39 acres located in the southwestern portion of Prince William Forest Park (PRWI), a National Park Service unit, in Prince William County, Virginia. The park is located 35 miles south of Washington, DC along Virginia's fall line, an area which straddles the Piedmont and Coastal Plain regions of Virginia. Quantico Creek is a prominent water feature in the area and is a tributary to the Potomac River, which is located four miles from the eastern boundary of the park. The southern and western boundaries of the park are defined by Joplin Road (rt. 619), MCB-1, Breckenridge Reservoir Access Road, and Breckenridge Road. The northern boundary of the park is defined by Dumfries Road (rt. 234). Interstate 95 borders the park to the east.

The geographic location along the fall line is responsible for the rolling topography of the region which is at times punctuated by deep ravines. Such topography historically provided natural property boundaries in the metes and bounds system used by Virginia. The majority of the landscape is blanketed by dense deciduous forests consisting primarily of white oak (*Quercus alba*), red oak (*Quercus rubra*), red maple (*Acer rubrum*), and beech trees (*Fagus grandifolia*). Some conifers can also be found, primarily Virginia pine (*Pinus virginiana*) and eastern red cedars (*Juniperus virginiana*). Understory trees such as dogwood (*Cornus florida*) are also present at the edge of clearings.

Significance Summary

This Cultural Landscape Inventory identifies a period of significance of 1935-1959 for the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape. It also argues for a national level of significance for the cabin camp, recognizing its role in federal programs with a nationwide impact. This period of significance recognizes the significance of Cabin Camp 2 in the decades after its initial construction, continuing uninterrupted through several successive (and at times overlapping) events, including:

The land acquisition, development, and construction of the camp as a model Recreational Demonstration Area (RDA) facility between 1935 and 1942, designed by the National Park Service and constructed by the Civilian Conservation Corps.

The camp's recurring use as seasonal facilities for children, including use as racially segregated recreational landscapes operated by partner organizations.

The adaptation of the camp for military and Office of Strategic Services (OSS) use during and immediately after World War II.

The alteration of the camp as part of the National Park Service's Mission 66 program.

The period of significance ends in 1959, when the last major changes to the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape concluded as part of the extended legacy of Mission 66. This period, and its associated events, is significant based on multiple National Register criteria and areas of significance, including: Criterion A (in the areas of Politics/Government; Entertainment/ Recreation; Social History; Military) and Criterion C (Architecture; Landscape Architecture).

Analysis and Evaluation Summary and Condition

Multiple landscape characteristics help to convey the historic character of the site, including natural systems and features, land use, topography, spatial organization, cluster arrangement, circulation, views and vistas, vegetation, buildings and structures, constructed water features, small-scale features, and archeological sites. Overall, the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape retains integrity in location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. Although the landscape has undergone some minor changes since its historic period, the landscape retains most of the characteristics, physical and process driven features, and associations present during its period of significance from 1935 to 1959 and remains in fair condition.

Landscape Hierarchy Description:

Cabin Camp 2 is a component cultural landscape of the Prince William Forest Park (PRWI) parent cultural landscape.

Landscape Type:

Historic Designed Landscape

Historic Vernacular Landscape

Other Names:

Other Name:	Chopawamsic RDA	Other Name Type:	Historic
Other Name:	Area A-2	Other Name Type:	Historic
Other Name:	Camp Mawavi	Other Name Type:	Both Current And Historic
Other Name:	Cabin Camp 2	Other Name Type:	Current

Site Plan

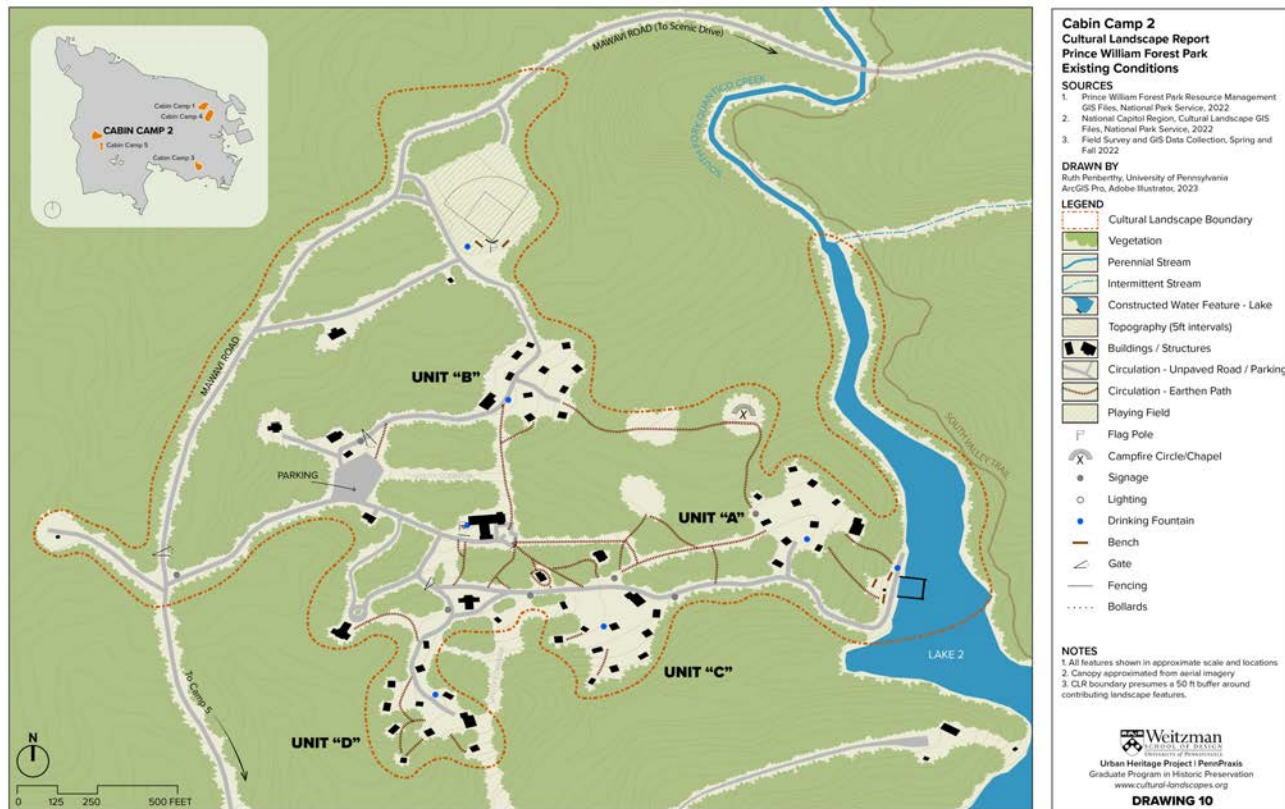


Figure 1. Existing conditions site plan showing the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape boundary and its associated features (UPenn, 2023) - (Full size graphics have been uploaded into the database and placed at the end of this report).

Current cultural landscapes inventory mapping and spatial data can be accessed through the PRWI AGOL Park Viewer (<https://experience.arcgis.com/experience/c986ce296d354284af53cce02550e118>).

Concurrence Information

Concurrence Status:

Park Superintendent Concurrence:	Yes
Park Superintendent Date of Concurrence:	06/26/2025

Completion Status Explanatory Narrative:

This CLI was adapted from the Prince William Forest Park Cabin Camps 1-5 Cultural Landscape Report (2023) by Angelina Ribeiro Jones, NCR CLI Coordinator and Thomas Goodwin, CLI intern. Park staff reviewed and provided comment on the CLI prior to submittal to the Virginia Historic Preservation Officer at the Virginia Department of Historic Resources (VDHR) for concurrence.

For additional information associated with the development of the CLR by the University of Pennsylvania’s PennPraxis Urban Heritage Project (UPenn), please see details below.

The UPenn team consisted of Randall Mason, Principal Investigator; Jacob Torkelson, Senior Research Associate; Molly Lester, Associate Director - Urban Heritage Project; Blake Troxel, Consulting Forest Ecologist; Ruth Penberthy, Research Assistant; Scott Shinton, Research Assistant; and Zhijie Wang, Research Assistant.

Using primary and secondary sources, the UPenn team conducted research to understand the physical history of Prince William Forest Park’s cabin camps as cultural landscapes, including Cabin Camp 2. Their research relied on past documentation efforts for the camps, including the CLI for Cabin Camp 1 (updated in 2017), and the four incomplete CLIs for Camps 2-5, drafted in 2021 by a team from the University of Mary Washington. The research process for the UPenn CLR also included new archival research. Key repositories and archives included: the Prince William Forest Park archives; the NPS Electronic Technical Information Center (ETIC); existing documentation (including National Register of Historic Places nominations and cultural landscape inventories); several National Park Service reports; and the National Archives and Records Administration in Philadelphia.

Concurrence Graphic Information:

Attachment File Path

Statement of Concurrence

Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) Cultural Landscapes Inventory

The preparation of this Cultural Landscapes Inventory for Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) is part of the National Park Service's efforts to update cultural resource inventories, as required by Section 110 (a) (1) of the National Historic Preservation Act.

- The VA State Historic Preservation Office (VA SHPO) concurs with the findings of the Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) Cultural Landscapes Inventory. The VA SHPO further concurs that the cultural landscape resources of Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi), as enumerated, retain integrity to the site's period of significance (1935-1959 CE) and contribute to its historic character.



Julie Langan
Virginia State Historic Preservation Officer

Date

3/11/2025

Please email signed PDF copy to Angelina Ribeiro Jones, National Capital Region Cultural Landscapes Inventory Coordinator at angelina_jones@nps.gov.

The Virginia Historic Preservation Officer concurred with the findings of the Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) CLI on March 11, 2025.



United States Department of the Interior

NATIONAL PARK SERVICE
National Capital Region
1100 Ohio Drive, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20242

IN REPLY REFER TO:

I.B. (NCR-RESS)

June 26, 2025

Memorandum:

To: Cultural Landscapes Inventory Coordinator, National Capital Region
From: Superintendent, Prince William Forest Park (PRWI)
Subject: Statement of Concurrence, Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi)

I, George Liffert, Superintendent of Prince William Forest Park, concur with the findings of the Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) Cultural Landscapes Inventory, including the following specific components:

PERIOD OF SIGNIFICANCE: The Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) cultural landscape retains integrity to the following period of significance: 1935-1959
INTEGRITY: The landscape displays all seven aspects of integrity (location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association) as defined by the National Register of Historic Places
MANAGEMENT CATEGORY: Must be Preserved and Maintained
CONDITION ASSESSMENT: Fair

The Cultural Landscapes Inventory for Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) is hereby approved and accepted.

GEORGE LIFFERT Digitally signed by GEORGE LIFFERT
Date: 2025.06.26 09:06:03 -04'00' 26 June 2025

Superintendent, Prince William Forest Park Date

INTERIOR REGION 1 • NORTH ATLANTIC-APPALACHIAN
CONNECTICUT, DELAWARE, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, KENTUCKY, MAINE, MARYLAND, MASSACHUSETTS,
NEW HAMPSHIRE, NEW JERSEY, NEW YORK, PENNSYLVANIA, RHODE ISLAND, VERMONT,
VIRGINIA, WEST VIRGINIA

The superintendent of Prince William Forest Park concurred with the findings of the Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi) CLI on June 26, 2025.

Geographic Information

State and County:

State

Virginia

County

Prince William County

Size (Acres): 48.39

Land Tract Number(s)

01-001

Boundary Description:

Cabin Camp 2 is located in the southern half of Prince William Forest Park, in close proximity to Joplin Road (Route 619). The southern boundary of the cabin camp runs in close proximity to Units D and C, and is defined by a steep ravine. Lake 2, created by the damming of the South Fork of Quantico Creek, defines the eastern boundary of the cultural landscape and runs in a north-south direction. The boundary line was drawn to incorporate a portion of the lake in recognition of the importance of recreational activities such as swimming and associated structures like the dock to the significance of this cultural landscape. Both the northern and western boundaries loosely follow Mawavi Road, which runs along a ridge oriented from the southwest to the northeast. However, at times this boundary extends a few hundred yards to the north and west of the roadway in order to incorporate features dating to the 1935-1942 period of significance, including two cemeteries located on the northern edge of the boundary line.

Boundary Coordinates

Source	Type of Point	Latitude	Longitude	Narrative
GIS	Point	38.58156134	-77.41687276	
GIS	Point	38.58029997	-77.41271202	
GIS	Point	38.58063042	-77.41375781	
GIS	Point	38.57983797	-77.41504125	
GIS	Point	38.58038793	-77.41570097	
GIS	Point	38.57924537	-77.41576658	
GIS	Point	38.57913788	-77.41655622	
GIS	Point	38.58032811	-77.41663657	
GIS	Point	38.58037744	-77.41732778	
GIS	Point	38.5813428	-77.41704854	
GIS	Point	38.5806385	-77.41876603	
GIS	Point	38.58132101	-77.41964821	
GIS	Point	38.58114841	-77.41873032	
GIS	Point	38.58371164	-77.41751758	
GIS	Point	38.58496643	-77.41668797	
GIS	Point	38.58516108	-77.4151375	
GIS	Point	38.58398902	-77.41520718	
GIS	Point	38.58342028	-77.41556948	
GIS	Point	38.58287822	-77.4149159	
GIS	Point	38.58238071	-77.4149129	
GIS	Point	38.5824827	-77.41345191	
GIS	Point	38.58177261	-77.413463	
GIS	Point	38.58189388	-77.41314019	
GIS	Point	38.58135812	-77.41241185	
GIS	Point	38.58236563	-77.41298886	
GIS	Point	38.58377784	-77.41300728	
GIS	Point	38.58225196	-77.41235241	
GIS	Point	38.58133371	-77.4115583	
GIS	Point	38.58059845	-77.41156393	

Location Map:

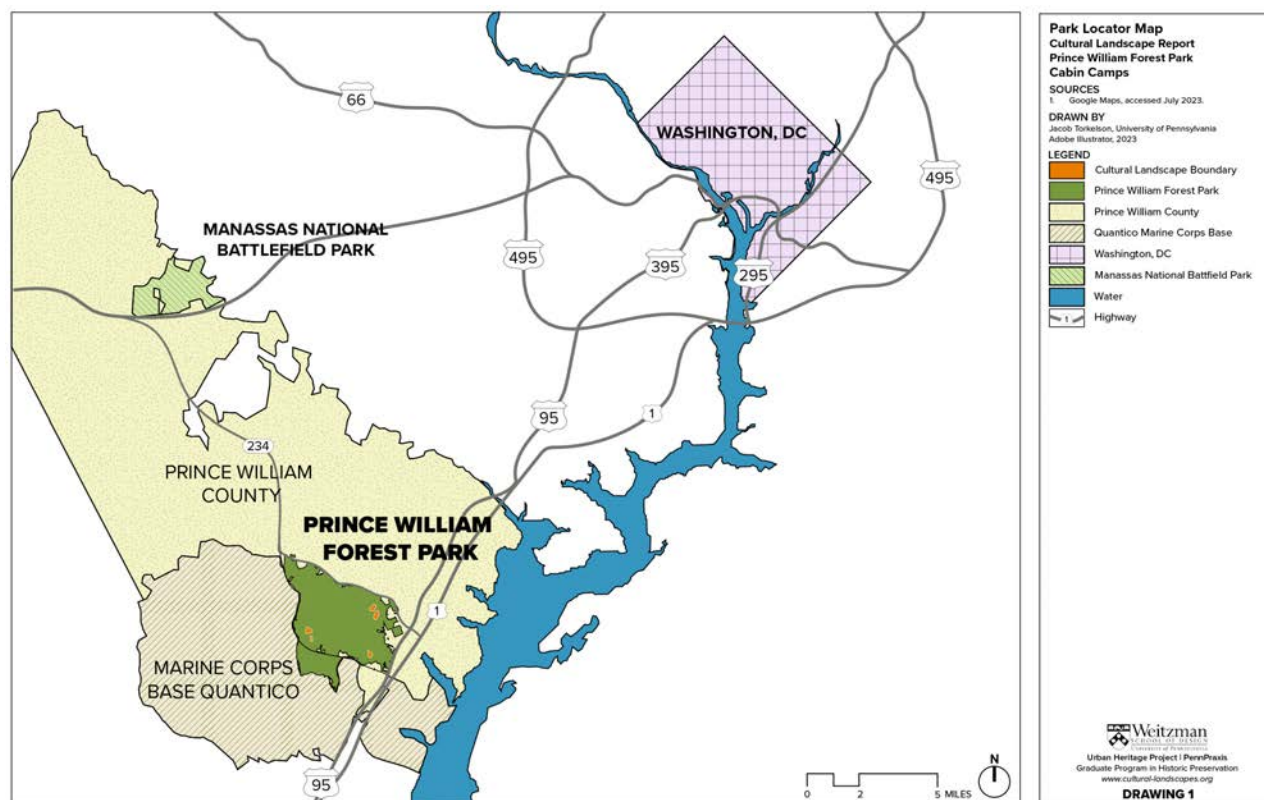


Figure 2: Location map showing PRWI within Prince William County, Virginia and its proximity to Washington, DC (UPenn, 2023).

Regional Landscape Contexts:

Type of Context: Physiographic

Description:

The following information in the Physiographic and Cultural narratives is adapted from the Prince William Forest Park Cabin Camps 1-5 Cultural Landscape Report (CLR) that was prepared by the University of Pennsylvania's PennPraxis Urban Heritage Project (UPenn) in 2023. The description of Prince William County, Virginia in the Political narrative is adapted from the Portici: Cultural Landscape Inventory prepared by Angelina Ribeiro Jones and completed in 2022.

Physiographic

Prince William Forest Park is part of two physiographic provinces that are bisected by the Fall Line: the Piedmont, and the Eastern Coastal Plain. The western two-thirds of the park are in the Piedmont, while the eastern third is in the Coastal Plain. The Piedmont began forming between 470 million and 270 million years ago when two landmasses started converging. Around 270 million years ago, the two land masses fully collided, uplifting and folding rock into the mountain range we know today as the Blue Ridge Mountains. This physiographic province extends from south-central Pennsylvania southward to northern Georgia. Over millions of years, the Blue Ridge province has been subject to significant erosion and uplifting that, in turn, created the Piedmont. Eroded materials from the Blue Ridge and Piedmont subsequently travelled east and were deposited along the much younger Coastal Plain, forming the rich soils that now compose and support the ecosystems of the eastern third of Prince William Forest Park (Thornberry-Ehrlich 2009: 23-35).

Melting ice sheets to the far west of the park produced changes in climate. Although Eastern Virginia was never glaciated, water and sediment from higher elevations in the Blue Ridge resulted in significant downcutting along ancient rivers. This process formed many of the steep valleys, plateaus, river gorges throughout the park, including along Quantico Creek. Throughout such events, the landscape would have consisted of more open conifer forests of pine and spruce, as well as large grasslands. Around 10,000 years ago, the changing climate shifted the dominant forest species from spruce and fir to oak. Warmer centuries also brought the addition of southern pines and hickories, while cooler centuries saw the proliferation of birches and alders. Water-dependent species, including red maples and sweetgum, thrived in wet eras. When water was absent, fire frequently spread throughout the ancient landscape, creating low grass and shrub lands (Bedell 2004: 6-7; Thornberry-Ehrlich 2009: 25).

Type of Context: Cultural

Description:

Cultural

Excerpted from the Physical History narrative below:

PRWI was first conceived of as an RDA as part of a program initiated by the United States government in the wake of the Great Depression aimed at relocating farmers to areas more suitable for agriculture than the lands that the program would "reclaim" for recreational use. Shortly after President Franklin D. Roosevelt took office in March 1933, his administration launched the "New Deal," a series of sweeping changes implemented in his first 100 days as president to address the devastating consequences of the Great Depression. Through relief, reform, and recovery efforts, the New Deal sought to create jobs, offer aid, and stabilize the economy and the nation's agriculture systems. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was one of the first programs to be implemented, providing thousands of unemployed young men with jobs related to the conservation of the natural environment and historic sites. The Roosevelt Administration subsequently created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) to help states

and municipalities synchronize their efforts, including direct relief funds and programs to support specific populations (Bedell 2004: 96-97; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11).

The National Park Service coordination team at FERA identified a site in Joplin, Virginia, as a pilot site for the program. The area was relevant to two of three FERA targets, as it was a rural area and was also considered “economically obsolete” based on the loss of mining and other shuttered industries. “Economically obsolete” was a formal governmental classification, based on a determination that the land in question was unlikely to return to agricultural or industrial prosperity. Agricultural economists proposed removing such farmland from agricultural use and, under the auspices of the New Deal, creating some new land use instead—such as recreation (Bedell 2004: 96-97; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11).

The Joplin site was not only “economically obsolete,” it was also “submarginal”—the most inferior category on FERA’s spectrum, below “good,” “poor,” and “marginal.” Submarginal land was agriculturally unproductive and/or unsuitable; in the case of the Joplin site, this was due to decades of exhaustive agriculture (largely wheat farming), erosion, and depletion of the soil (Bedell 2004: 96-97; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11).

For land that it deemed submarginal, the federal government incorporated the area into its Land Program, which relocated farmers, paid them for their land, and took ownership of the land for public use. Once it acquired the land, the federal government put the territory under the jurisdiction of the FERA’s Division of Rural Rehabilitation and Stranded Populations (Wehrle 2000: 155). A new program, centered on “Recreation Demonstration Areas” (RDAs), took FERA-acquired land and converted it to recreational use. RDAs thus existed at the intersection of several overlapping objectives, including: economic relief for farm families; recapture and rehabilitation of unproductive agriculture land; conservation of natural lands; and the creation of public health and recreation opportunities (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 55).

Early studies of the RDA program stressed the importance of creating camp facilities near urban areas where social agencies, such as Associated Charities in DC, were already at work. Many social agencies (including Camps Goodwill and Pleasant in DC) had the financial and operational capacity to run and maintain group camps, but most did not have the capacity to purchase their own lands (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-10).

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

The Joplin site, located a mere 35 miles from the nation’s capital, was seen as a suitable demonstration site for FERA’s social, economic, and environmental improvements (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11). Its proximity to DC fulfilled the program’s objective to help low-income families find recreational opportunities outside the unhealthful conditions of city life. Chopawamsic’s many streams and creeks afforded an easy water source for swimming and hygiene, while the land offered readily available building materials for the construction of group recreational facilities. Thus, in 1935, the National Park Service included the Joplin site in its new RDA program, naming it Chopawamsic Recreational Demonstration Area (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 54-55).

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

Beginning early in the planning process, RDA administrators proposed the construction of organized group camps at Chopawamsic. Modeled after similar private camps operated by social agencies, youth groups, and religious organizations, these group camps would be a defining feature of the Chopawamsic RDA, offering a rustic residential experience in a woodland context. Typically, organized group camps

were designed according to a hub-and-spokes plan, with a central administrative and operational core of buildings, surrounded by cabin units that radiated out from the core (Earley and Stafford 2002: 56-57).

At the Chopawamsic RDA, topographic conditions, including the proximity to water sources, played a significant role in determining the location of the cabin camps. Camp 1 was sited in the northeastern corner of the park along a series of plateaus overlooking the Quantico Creek. The plateaus of Camp 1 allowed for secluded camp units and an uphill camp core with easy access to water. Camps 2 and 3 took similar advantage of their distinct topographies, which were notably flatter than Camp 1, to create a more circular, centralized layout. Both camps were within easy walking distance of the South Fork of the Quantico Creek, facilitating lake access. All three camps were constructed or under construction for the first season in 1936 (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 13-14). Camps 4 and 5 were completed in time for their first seasons in 1938 and 1939, respectively. Construction on both camps continued after their opening, until the closure of the Civilian Conservation Corps' camps in 1942. In 1948, many Recreational Demonstration Areas were handed back to state governments, while others remained the property of the NPS. Chopawamsic RDA remained with the NPS and was renamed Prince William Forest Park in 1948.

Type of Context: Political

Description:

Political

Prince William County covers a land area of approximately 336 square miles. As of 2022, the County's estimated total population equaled 487,012, which amounts to an increase of more than 85,000 since 2010 (US Census Bureau 2022). The majority of the county's residents reported as White alone (not Hispanic or Latino) during the 2020 census with a total of 41.5%, followed by 24.5% who identified as Hispanic or Latino, 22.2% who reported as Black or African American alone, and 9.4% who reported as Asian alone. A total of 4.7% of respondents identified as two or more races. The most recent US Census Bureau estimate of the county's foreign-born population equals 25.8% and dates to 2022. Prince William County's median household income in 2022 dollars equals \$123,193 and 6.9% of the county's population are living in poverty as of 2022 (US Census Bureau 2022).

Management Information

General Management Information

Management Category: Must be Preserved and Maintained

Management Category Date: 06/26/2025

Management Category Explanatory Narrative:

The Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape meets the criteria for Management Category A – Must be Preserved and Maintained as it is related to the park's legislated significance. The development of this Cabin Camp is directly related to the establishment of the Chopawamsic Recreational Demonstration Area in 1936 (H. R. 11991) for recreational use. Furthermore, Cabin Camp 2 contributes to the Prince William Forest Park Historic District, which is listed in the National Register of Historic Places as nationally significant.

The Management Category Date is the date this CLI was first approved by the park superintendent.

Management Agreements:

Type of Agreement: Other

Management Agreement Expiration Date:

Management Agreement Explanatory Narrative:

An internal park permit is used to allow for group camping activities within the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape.

Legal Interests:

Type of Interest: Fee Simple

Narrative: Cabin Camp 2 is held in fee by the National Park Service.

Located in managed wilderness?: No

Adjacent Lands Information

Do Adjacent Lands Contribute? Yes

Adjacent Lands Narrative:

Adjacent lands are lands located outside of the boundaries of the cultural landscape and can be located within or outside the park boundary. The forested lands of Prince William Forest Park (PRWI) contribute to the historic character of the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape by buffering the site from encroaching development. PRWI also contributes to the setting, feeling, and association of the cabin camp by maintaining the forested context of the site and providing a rural retreat for rustic camping that dates to the camp's period of significance. Additionally, the South Fork Quantico Creek, which flows through the cultural landscape contributes to the site as a natural system and feature that feeds the constructed lake within Cabin Camp 2 (Lake 2).

National Register Information

National Register of Historic Places

Documentation Status: Entered Inadequately Documented

Documentation Narrative Description:

The cabin camps have been documented several times at the federal level, both as individual camp landscapes and as part of the broader park. In 1989, four of the five camps—all except Cabin Camp 5 (Happyland)—were listed in the National Register of Historic Places as historic districts. The associated areas and period of significance for Cabin Camp 2 for that designation were as follows:

Camp (2) Mawavi/Chopawamsic RDA

Historic District (NR# 89000457)

State and Local significance

Criterion A (Entertainment/Recreation; Conservation) and Criterion C (Architecture)

Period of significance: 1933-42

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

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

Criterion A: Ethnic Heritage, Industry, Social History, Entertainment/Recreation, and Military History

Criterion C: Architecture

Criterion D: Archeology

Eligibility: Eligible -- SHPO Consensus Determination

Concurrence Eligibility Date: 03/11/2025

Concurrence Narrative:

The Virginia Historic Preservation Officer concurred with the findings of the Cabin Camp 2 CLI on March 11, 2025.

Significance Level: National

Contributing: Individual

Classification: District

Statement of Significance for National Register of Historic Places:

This Cultural Landscape Inventory argues for a period of significance of 1935-1959 for Cabin Camp 2 at Prince William Forest Park; it also elevates the camp's significance to the national level, recognizing its role in federal programs with nationwide impact. This period recognizes the significance of the cabin camp in the decades after its initial construction, continuing uninterrupted through several successive (and at times overlapping) events, including:

- the development of the camp as a model RDA facility between 1935 and 1942, designed by the National Park Service and constructed by the Civilian Conservation Corps;
- the camp's recurring use as a seasonal facility for children, including use as a racially segregated recreational landscape operated by partner organizations;
- the adaptation of the camp for military and Office of Strategic Services (OSS) use during and immediately after World War II; and
- the alteration of the camp as part of the National Park Service's Mission 66 program.

The period of significance ends in 1959, when the last major changes associated with Mission 66 within the boundary of the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape concluded. This period, and its associated events, is significant based on multiple National Register criteria and areas of significance, including: Criterion A (in the areas of Politics/Government; Entertainment/ Recreation; Social History; Military) and Criterion C (Architecture; Landscape Architecture).

PATTERNS IN HISTORY (CRITERION A)

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

Cabin Camp 2 is nationally significant under Criterion A in the area of Politics/Government as part of the development a group of cabin camps that served as a model recreational landscape by the Recreation Demonstration Area (RDA) program, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and the National Park Service (NPS). This cabin camp is nationally significant in the areas of Politics/Government and Entertainment/Recreation as a prototype of several successive federal programs centered on public land management. Beginning with the 1935 land acquisition and development of the camp as part of the Chopawamsic RDA) and continuing through the camp's association with the CCC, and the National Park Service's Mission 66 program, Cabin Camp 2 was shaped by some of the most significant federal programs that transformed public parkland in the 20th century.

As the effects of the Great Depression swept the country between 1929 and 1933, politicians looked to the creation of recreational landscapes as a way to improve underutilized rural agricultural and industrial lands. Their primary objective was to provide lower-income, generally urban groups with access to outdoor recreation; to achieve this end, successful RDAs were to be located within a day's drive of major metropolitan areas, such as Washington, DC (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-10). Efforts to purchase and improve so-called submarginal lands began in 1934, as part of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal program.

Established in 1935 and completed by 1942, the Chopawamsic RDA easily met the program's criteria and served as a model for other RDA projects nationwide. The RDA provided funding for land acquisition, while the CCC furnished the labor to construct the camp designs produced by the NPS (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 14-15). As the RDA program evolved, the NPS looked to the success of the Chopawamsic RDA to encourage other states and localities to participate in the RDA program.

The CCC was a New Deal-era public works program that employed young men from around the country to construct and improve public lands, such as national parks. Workers would participate in park construction or conservation projects in return for education, room and board, and wages to send home to their families. The CCC played a significant role in the development of the Chopawamsic RDA and its associated cabin camps including Cabin Camp 2, constructing the camp landscapes between 1936 and 1941. This project included building the system of roads and pathways, clearing and grading camp units, erecting buildings and structures, installing the water systems, constructing dams and swimming areas, and planting

vegetation. CCC laborers had a fundamental impact on the history of the cultural landscape of Chopawamsic, and its ongoing use as a public recreation space.

As part of the RDA program, Chopawamsic was an exemplar of federal investment in distressed rural communities, transforming the post-industrial area into a recreational opportunity for underserved urban youth. The significance of this pattern of federal stewardship in service of public parkland continued through the 1950s and 1960s with the Mission 66 program. At Prince William Forest Park (the name that replaced Chopawamsic RDA in 1948), Mission 66 planners looked to modernize and expand the recreational opportunities at the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, amid increased postwar demand. This program was spearheaded by the National Park Service, and resulted in physical changes to the landscape characteristics of Cabin Camp 2. Improvements under the program included the replacement of aging infrastructure and enhancements of the sanitary conditions with the addition of new water supply pipes and pump house at Cabin Camp 2. During this period, the park also added a new, economized cabin type to each unit in Camp 2. Type E cabins were side-gable, single bay wood-frame structures set on poured concrete foundations. The extant cultural landscape at this camp results from, and represents the significance of, these federal investments in public recreation.

PATTERNS IN HISTORY (CRITERION A)

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

Cabin Camp 2 is also nationally significant under Criterion A in the areas of Politics/Government, Social History, and Entertainment/ Recreation, for role as part of a segregated recreational landscape developed by the National Park Service for white and Black campers under the auspices of New Deal and in the shadow of Jim Crow. Chopawamsic RDA served as a model for other RDA projects throughout the United States, including its design and implementation as a segregated landscape.

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

Although more than half of the cabin camps barred Black campers, Chopawamsic RDA also represented the first RDA, and indeed, the first NPS unit in the South, to provide Black campers with overnight lodging facilities. It was also the first RDA in a Southern state to feature organized group camps for Black youth. Despite the institutionalized barriers to desegregation, the organized group camps at Chopawamsic were among the first desegregated camp landscapes in the country, as integration efforts began in 1954 following the Supreme Court’s ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*. The cabin camps were also among the few national destinations on public lands that afforded Black campers’ direct access to the outdoors on a large Scale (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 15-17).

The success of Chopawamsic led to the creation of other facilities for Black campers at RDAs in southern states, all of which were segregated along similar lines. However, park planners’ efforts to expand the program were met with racism, discrimination, and segregationist sentiments, and as a result, they curtailed their investment in camps for Black visitors. By 1941, only nine of the 31 RDAs with organized group camps included accommodations for Black campers. At Chopawamsic, only two of the five camps offered accommodations for Black campers (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 15; O’Brien 2016: 15-17, 44-45).

Within this context of segregation in the RDA program, Chopawamsic gained significance once again in 1940, when the National Park Service chose to retain stewardship of the RDA as a federal park, rather than transfer it back to state ownership (as it was doing for most other RDAs), since the Commonwealth of

Virginia might choose to eliminate the Black camp facilities in the park. This marked Chopawamsic as a model among NPS' holdings, representative of the agency's efforts to maintain sufficient—notably segregated—facilities for Black campers in the South in the Jim Crow era (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 16). Other than the Chopawamsic RDA and Catoctin RDA in Maryland, both of which remained under federal control, most other RDAs in southern states remained segregated until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 25).

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

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

PATTERNS IN HISTORY (CRITERION A)

Areas of Significance: Military
Level of Significance: National

Cabin Camp 2 also derives national significance based on its role during World War II as a camp and training facility for the Office of Strategic Services (OSS). Beginning in 1942, the OSS used much of Chopawamsic for training agents in the arts of spy craft and intelligence. Capitalizing on Chopawamsic's location near Washington, DC and its remote landscape, the OSS used the site for drilling and training exercises.

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

The OSS made lasting alterations at Camp 2 and the other surrounding camps' physical features, many of which remain in place today. These include the winterization of cabins, the installation of improved utility lines, new latrine facilities, and the construction of additional classroom and auditorium buildings. Other alterations to the cultural landscape that are mostly no longer extant included the construction of shooting ranges, the explosion and demolition of pre-park buildings, and the clearance of forested areas for military exercises. Such changes to the cultural landscapes reflected the increased role intelligence agencies would play in national defense; Chopawamsic RDA was a critical site for the development and training of such methods.

DISTINCTIVE DESIGN (CRITERION C)

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

Level of Significance: National

Cabin Camp 2 is also nationally significant under Criterion C in the areas of Architecture, Landscape Architecture, and Community Development and Planning for its association with early RDA master planning, design, and construction activities initiated by the National Park Service, the Resettlement Administration (RA), and the Civilian Conservation Corps in the early 20th century.

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

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

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

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

The recreational landscape for overnight group camping retains integrity with respect to the period of significance. The cabin camp remains recognizable as a rustic recreational landscape designed for overnight group camping.

National Register Significance Criteria:

Significance Criteria A - Associated with events significant to broad patterns of our history

Significance Criteria C - Embodies distinctive construction, work of master, or high artistic values

National Register Criteria Consideration:

National Register Periods of Significance (with Historic Context Themes):

Time Period: CE 1935 - CE 1942

Historic Context Theme	Subtheme	Facet	Other Facet
Expressing Cultural Values	Architecture	Rustic Architecture	
Expressing Cultural Values	Landscape Architecture	NPS Mission 66-- Landscape Architecture	

Time Period: CE 1942 - CE 1945

Historic Context Theme	Subtheme	Facet	Other Facet
Shaping the Political Landscape	World War II	The Home Front	

Time Period: CE 1954 - CE 1959

Historic Context Theme	Subtheme	Facet	Other Facet
Expressing Cultural Values	Landscape Architecture	NPS Mission 66-- Landscape Architecture	

Time Period: CE 1936 - CE 1959

Historic Context Theme	Subtheme	Facet	Other Facet
Creating Social Institutions and Movements	Recreation	General Recreation	

Area of Significance:

Area of Significance Category: Architecture

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

Area of Significance Category: Community Planning and Development

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

Area of Significance Category: Conservation

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

Area of Significance Category: Entertainment - Recreation

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

Area of Significance Category: Landscape Architecture

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

Area of Significance Category: Military

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

Area of Significance Category: Politics/Government

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

Area of Significance Category: Social History

Area of Significance Subcategory:

Explanatory Narrative:

NRIS Information:

NRIS Name: Chopawamsic RDA – Camp (2) Mawavi Historic District
NRIS ID: 89000457
Other Name: Prince William Forest Park
Primary Certification Date: 06/12/1989

State Register Documentation:

Identification Number: Virginia Landmark Register (VLR) 076-0135
Name: Mawavi Historic District, Chopawamsic RDA
Camp 2
Listed Date: 09/20/1988

Narrative: There is a slight discrepancy in the initiation of development on this site between the VLR historical narrative and other documentation on the site. VLR documentation places the beginning of the development in mid-1934, while later documentation has land acquisition and development beginning in 1935 and construction starting in 1936. This CLI has determined that more recent documentation has the appropriate development and construction initiation dates.

National Historic Landmarks:

Statement of Significance for National Historic Landmark:

World Heritage Site:

Is Resource within a designated National Natural Landscape: No

Chronology and Physical History

Chronology:

Year	Event	Major Event Narrative
BCE 11000 - 9600	Inhabited	Archeological evidence of early Indigenous occupation in Virginia dates to between 11,000 and 9500 BCE. These people, referred to as the Paleoindians by archeologists, and as ancestors by many Indigenous groups, were largely nomadic hunters and gatherers.
BCE 6000 - 2500	Inhabited	By the Middle Archaic period (6000 BCE to 2500 BCE), the climate and landscape would have been similar to the Eastern woodlands of today. Early peoples adapted the landscape of oak forests, clearing large areas for both foraging and the hunting of game.
CE 900 - 1646	Settled	During the Late Woodland Period (circa 900-1600 CE), the ancestors of the Doeg and Manahoac inhabited and stewarded the land prior to European contact.
BCE 1200 - 900	Settled	The Early and Middle Woodland periods (1200 BCE to 900 CE) saw the further coalescing of early Indigenous people into villages and hamlets along riverways, where resources were most abundant.
CE 1600 - 1646	Colonized	The Doeg and Manahoac are displaced by white European colonizers who took their lands by force, disease, or by initiating wars between other tribes. Nonetheless, some Doeg and Manahoac People remained within the area or were assimilated into other indigenous groups.
CE 1650 - 1659	Platted	The first land patents within the boundaries of the future Prince William Forest Park were recorded at some point during the 1650s, under colony governor Samuel Matthews.
CE 1700 - 1779	Planned	After 1700, larger plantations were subdivided into smaller farms, as agriculture shifted away from the long fallow method.
CE 1704	Colonized	Abraham Farrow became the first person within the area of the future cabin camps to occupy the land he patented. He established a plantation using enslaved labor. Others soon followed.
CE 1807	Established	The free Black community of Batestown was founded along the Cabin Branch, within the future park.
CE 1860 - 1864	Military Operation	Union and Confederate troops passed through the Prince William Forest Park area, shortly before and during the Civil War.
CE 1870	Established	Zeal Williams and his family founded the predominantly Black community of Hickory Ridge, within future park.
CE 1889	Mined	The Cabin Branch Pyrite Mine opened on Quantico Creek, east of the town of Hickory Ridge.
CE 1904	Established	Around 1904, Joplin, Virginia is officially founded and named by William Crow after Joplin, Missouri.
CE 1917	Military Operation	Quantico Marine Corps Base opened, south of the future park.
CE 1920	Abandoned	The Cabin Branch Pyrite Mine closed.

Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi)
Prince William Forest Park

Year	Event	Major Event Narrative
CE 1934	Established	President Roosevelt created the Land Planning Committee to study recreational needs. The Committee identified an urgent need for natural areas near urban centers.
CE 1935	Established	The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) established three camps at Chopawamsic. They were located: on the present-day ballfield shared by Cabin Camps 1 and 4 (SP-22), on the ballfield of Camp 2 (SP-25), and in the lower maintenance area adjacent to Camp 3 (SP-26). Workers at these camps would build Camps 1-3.
CE 1935	Planned	The Submarginal Land Division of the National Park Service filed a report on "Chopawamsic," recommending the purchase of over 12,000 acres. Residents of Joplin, Hickory Ridge, and Batestown were displaced and relocated to create the RDA.
CE 1935	Planned	Land acquisition, planning, and design began for Cabin Camp 2.
CE 1936	Built	Construction on Camp 2 began in April. Camp 2 was the second camp to be constructed as a camp for white girls.
CE 1936	Established	In July Camp 2 hosted its first group from the Jewish Community Center (JCC) of Washington, DC Although the camp was initially conceived as a "Girl's Camp," it hosted boys and girls from the outset.
CE 1937	Established	NPS staff established a policy of racial segregation. Camps 1 and 4 in the northwest portion of the park were reserved for Black campers, and Camps 2, 3, and 5 were set aside for white campers.
CE 1937	Built	The Camp 2 dam was constructed along the South Fork Quantico Creek.
CE 1940	Built	As of 1940, the development of the Chopawamsic RDA was generally complete. It was the fourth largest RDA in the country (out of 46).
CE 1940	Land Transfer	On August 14, the National Capital Region of the National Park Service assumed jurisdiction for the Chopawamsic RDA.
CE 1940	Land Transfer	The Arlington Girl Scouts assumed the lease on Camp 2, following financial troubles by the JCC. The group changed the name of Center Camp to Camp Mawavi.
CE 1942	Inhabited	Due to World War II, the Office of Strategic Services occupied Chopawamsic RDA for its covert operative training, referring to it as "Area A" and "Area C." The War Department was granted a special use permit that allowed it exclusive use of all five camps. All existing cabin camp users (e.g. Camp Lichtman, at Camp 1) were forced to relocate elsewhere.
CE 1942 - 1945	Military Operation	The OSS used Cabin Camp 2, referring to it as Area A-2. The agency winterized all of the camp's cabins for its use year-round. It also constructed indoor training facilities (including the "house of horrors"), outdoor shooting ranges, an obstacle course on the camp's ballfield, and munitions dumps.

Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi)
Prince William Forest Park

Year	Event	Major Event Narrative
CE 1945	Established	The National Park Service mandated the desegregation of all of its parklands, but implementation lagged for several more years.
CE 1945	Military Operation	The OSS left PRWI in October, ceasing all activities at the cabin camps, removing most of its wartime improvements.
CE 1946	Inhabited	The National Park Service resumed management of Chopawamsic RDA, and camper use returned.
CE 1946	Land Transfer	The Arlington Girl Scouts did not return to Chopawamsic. The Camp Fire Girls assumed operations at Camp 2 and retained the name Camp Mawavi.
CE 1948	Altered	A new law was passed that authorized a name change from "Chopawamsic" to "Prince William Forest Park".
CE 1948	Purchased/Sold	The same legislation that changed the name of the park authorized acquisition of "additional lands needed to round out the boundaries of this park" (62 Stat 571 Public Law 736).
CE 1952	Altered	Park staff replaced the campfire circle seating with wooden planks and concrete blocks.
CE 1954	Planned	Mission 66 planning at Prince William Forest Park began. NPS staff prepared an ambitious plan focused on increasing day use facilities and accommodations for individual campers, in addition to the existing facilities for group camps.
CE 1954	Established	Following Brown v. Board of Education, camp agencies gradually desegregated Prince William Forest Park. Public facing NPS facilities were legally desegregated by this time; however, camp groups had full discretion over who attended their camps, and many continued to operate along racial lines until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.
CE 1957	Planned	Around 1957, additional ten-bunk cabins and a swimming pool were planned for Camp 2 as part of Mission 66, but never built.
CE 1958 - 1959	Built	The water system at Cabin Camp 2 was upgraded as part of Mission 66 development at the park, which included the installation of new water supply pipes.
CE 1990	Planned	Park staff began drafting a General Management Plan. A significant part of the plan focused on preserving the cabin camps.
CE 1999	Rehabilitated	Preservation and rehabilitation treatments were undertaken by the Historic Preservation Training Center at Cabin Camp 2.
CE 2004 - 2005	Built	Municipal drinking water was installed throughout the entire park in 2004/2005.
CE 2012	Altered	Beginning in 2012, the park started to replace roof shingles with a synthetic substitute material on buildings in all five cabin camps.

Physical History:

The following section is adapted from the Prince William Forest Park Cabin Camps 1-5 Cultural Landscape Report (CLR) that was prepared by the University of Pennsylvania's PennPraxis Urban Heritage Project (UPenn) in 2023.

PRECONTACT AND EARLY COLONIAL HISTORY (11,000 BCE-1861 CE)

PRE-CONTACT PEOPLES AND THE LANDSCAPE

The Potomac Watershed has served as an important geographic landmark to Indigenous peoples for thousands of years. Archeological evidence of Indigenous occupation in Virginia dates to between 11,000 and 9500 BCE (Egloff and Woodward 1992: 9). These people, referred to as the Paleoindians by archeologists, and simply as ancestors by many Indigenous groups, were largely nomadic hunters and gatherers.

By the Middle Archaic period (6000 BCE to 2500 BCE), the climate and landscape would have been similar to the Eastern woodlands of today. Early peoples adapted the landscape of oak forests, clearing large areas for both foraging and the hunting of game. By the Late Archaic period, archeological evidence suggests that Indigenous groups had begun to coalesce into small units, living seasonally along riversides and ranging widely for resources. Heavily wooded areas, such as those in present-day Prince William Forest Park, were traversed by groups seeking raw materials, game, and seasonal plants. Many level sites along streams and creeks in the future park served as encampments for these early peoples (Egloff and Woodward 1992: 22, Bedell 2004: 6-16).

The Early and Middle Woodland periods (1200 BCE to 900 CE) saw the further coalescing of early Indigenous people into villages and hamlets along riverways, where resources were most abundant. Evidence of new technologies, such as pottery and the bow and arrow, suggest that Woodland-era peoples were part of a vast network of trade routes that exchanged materials and ideas. By the Late Woodland Period (900 CE to c. 1600 CE), Indigenous peoples in the Piedmont and Eastern Coastal Plain were farming corn and squash, relying less on nomadic means of resource gathering. Villages along the Eastern Coastal Plain were often fortified by palisade walls and located along major riverways, such as the Potomac River and its tributaries. While these groups relied increasingly on farming, they maintained their use of the larger landscape—including the cultural landscapes that host the cabin camps today—for seasonal hunting and gathering. These groups were the direct ancestors of the Doegs and the Manahoac's first encountered by colonizer John Smith in 1608 (Egloff and Woodward 1992: 20-35).

THE CONTACT PERIOD

Several native groups inhabited the area that makes up present day Prince William County at the period of colonial European arrival. The primary group within the park boundary were the Doegs, while Manahoac and other Siouan speaking people occupied the county further west. The Doeg people lived in a more sedentary village while the Manahoac people maintained a nomadic lifestyle and likely journeyed into or near the park boundaries (Betti 2023: 23). White colonizers displaced these peoples as they colonized the area, taking these areas by force through violent actions.

The Doegs are among the Algonquian-speaking tribes native to present day northern Virginia, in addition to the Powhatan Confederacy. Although the Doegs were often allied with the Powhatans, they were not a part of the Confederacy and maintained their own governance. According to early English colonizers, the traditional lands inhabited by the Doegs were located between the Fall Line and Potomac River, approximately between Alexandria and Aquia Creek, Virginia. Their 17th-century political and cultural center was located along the north shore of the Occoquan River, just north of the present-day park boundary. The Doegs traded widely with other groups and some scholars believe their lands may even have stretched westward to the Blue Ridge Mountains, overlapping with other tribes, including the Manahoac (Egloff and Woodward 1992: 22-35, Bedell 2004: 23-24).

The Manahoac are among the Siouan-speaking tribes that also include the Monacan, Saponi, and Totero. As recorded by John Smith and his Powhatan guides in the 1607/1608 map of Virginia (later published in 1612), the Manahoac controlled much of the Piedmont region between the Fall Line and the Blue Ridge Mountains. This is supported by later scholarship which places Manahoac lands centered along the upper Rappahannock River (Johnson, Michael 1994: 42-44, 62). There were poor relations between the Siouan-speaking Manahoac and the Algonquian-speaking Powhatans, who occupied the majority of the coastal plain to the east. These groups lived largely in independent villages, while also trading, intermarrying, and gathering for foraging and hunting excursions. The

westernmost portions of the future Prince William Forest Park may have been the land of the Manahoac, given that the Fall Line passes through the park. The divide between Doeg and Manahoac lands is believed to be near the Fall Line, indicating that both tribes likely had a presence in the future park (Egloff and Woodward 1992: 22, Bedell 2004: 17-18).

John Smith documented the Potomac watershed, including the Quantico and Chopawamsic Creeks, in 1608. While sailing up the Potomac River Smith encountered the main Doeg village (which he referred to as “Tauxenent”) located on the Occoquan River, north of the future park. Smith was given a reception by the village, which he estimated to contain 135 to 170 people, before traveling further north to Great Falls (National Park Service A Closer Look).

In a second voyage, John Smith documented the Rappahannock watershed in 1608, seeking out the lands of the Manahoac. Upon sailing up the river, Smith encountered 100 fisherman who fired upon his boat near present-day Fredericksburg, Virginia. In the ensuing skirmish, Smith and his guides shot and captured a Manahoac man named Amoroleck. During his interrogations of Amoroleck, Smith, who did not travel further beyond the Fall Line into Manahoac lands, gleaned only minimal information of the area’s inhabitants. Amoroleck is also quoted as saying that his people fired upon Smith because they had “heard that you were a people from under the world, to take our world from us.” (Smith, John 1907).

Beyond Smith’s brief encounter in 1608 at the edge of the Piedmont, early written records of Native Americans living beyond the Fall Line or outside of the Powhatan Confederacy are sparse. Some scholars attribute this lack of written colonizer records to the Virginians’ closeness to the Powhatan Confederacy (and presumably the Doegs). As an enemy of the Manahoacs, the Powhatans steered colonizers away from these areas, resulting in few expeditions that documented cultures and landscapes west of the Fall Line. In effect, the close (and fraught) relationship between Powhatan and the Virginia colonists skewed the written record away from the tribes of the Piedmont and toward those of the coastal areas (Egloff and Woodward 1992: 57, Nash 2009: 391).

Alarmed by rapid colonization and the loss of land and resources, the Powhatan Confederacy along with its allies, including the Doegs, declared war on the Virginians in the mid-1640s. After the 1646 English victory in the Third Anglo Powhatan War, colonization spread rapidly up the Potomac River Valley, despite the existing claims by the Doegs. By 1670, wealthy European land speculators had claimed all land on both sides of the Potomac River and its tributaries—including the main Doeg village of Tauxenent. Faced with this rapid incursion of white colonizers, many Doegs sought refuge with other tribes in Maryland, including the Piscataway, or with the Susquehannocks to the northwest (Bedell 2004: 17-18).

Tensions between the Doegs, their Susquehannock allies, and colonizers heightened in 1675, amid a series of conflicts that contributed to Bacon’s Rebellion. After a 1675 dispute over pigs between several Doegs and a colonist, Virginia militia members murdered several Susquehannocks who were not involved in the incident. During a purported peace council on the matter with the Virginia and Maryland militias, the Susquehannock representatives were assassinated by the white militias. In retribution, the Susquehannocks and Doegs declared war on the colonists, attacking and killing 36 colonists living along the Virginia frontier. The English and their Haudenosaunee (or Iroquois) allies eventually won the conflict, and by the late 17th century, most (albeit not all) surviving Doegs and Susquehannocks had fled their ancestral homes to other parts of the continent, including many that joined the Haudenosaunee Confederacy (Bedell 2004: 17-18, Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 3).

COLONIZATION, ENSLAVEMENT, AND CULTIVATION OF THE FRONTIER

The first land patents within the boundaries of the future Prince William Forest Park were recorded in the 1650s, under colony governor Samuel Matthews. In 1652, Matthews claimed 5,211 acres along the north Chopawamsic Creek watershed. Other early patents focused on the tidal portions of Chopawamsic and “Quanticutt” (later, Quantico) Creek, likely because of their access to navigable waterways. Within the areas of the future cabin camps, the earliest patent was taken out by Beck and Hatoft in 1666. This patent contained lands within northwest of the future park boundary. Archeologist John Bedell notes that during this initial period of colonization, most land speculators did not live on the lands to which they laid claim. Instead, most speculators established large plantations along the

Potomac River, with some smaller plantations along the mouths of navigable creeks. However, at least a few individuals did live in, or tend land in, more remote areas along the frontier (Bedell 2004: 19-20).

In 1704, Abraham Farrow became the first person within the area of the future cabin camps to occupy the land he patented. Abraham Farrow was an English millwright who profited from his marriage to Margaret Mason, a member of the family of the prominent colonist George Mason. Together the couple purchased lands along Quantico Creek and established a large tobacco plantation containing much of the southeastern area of the park (Bedell 2004: 23-27). Their main plantation, however, was located closer to Dumfries, outside the future park boundaries. The Farrow family profited greatly from the trade in tobacco and built a large house likely near the intersection of the present-day I-95 and the Quantico Creek—considered at the time to be the frontier of the Virginia colony (Bedell 2004: 25-26).

Tobacco plantations like the Farrows relied on an agricultural process called the “long fallow” system. Under this practice, only about 10 percent of a large plantation’s land was farmed each year. Remaining lands were left to fallow, and the soils would regenerate the nutrients lost to tobacco production.

The Farrows’ rapid commercial success and cultivation of the landscape was possible because of slavery. The plantation system of productively linked lands relied on indentured servants or enslaved laborers for cultivation. Prior to 1660, laborers were typically indentured servants from Scotland, Ireland, and England. Although indentured servitude continued into the 18th century, by the late 1700s, most of the plantations in Virginia were cultivated by enslaved laborers (Ribeiro Jones 2022: 76-77).

Abraham Farrow died in 1731, leaving his property—which legally included 10 enslaved individuals—to his six children: John, William, Abraham, Mary, Lydia, and Rose. Each of Abraham’s children continued to profit from enslavement and expanded the practice throughout the cultural landscape and other family lands. The practice of chattel enslavement, first introduced in the cultural landscape by the Farrows, greatly expanded in the mid-to-late 18th century. While not all their names are known, some of the individual names of those enslaved by the Farrows survived in deed books: Bess, Bosen, Sarah, Tom, Anthony or Antony, Capt [sic], Ester, Frank, Jeffrey, Joan, Lydda, Maria, Peggy, Sam, Suck, Thomas, Charles, Chatham, Frank, and Lucy (Mason 2014). Refer to the supplemental information section of this CLI for additional information.

Steady colonial settlement in the future park remained slow until the 1720s, when the Treaty of Albany and subsequent treaties were signed with the Iroquois and their allies. These pacts opened the frontier to colonial settlement, following the easing of tensions between the two groups. In the ensuing decades, Prince William County was organized in 1731, and its associated Dettingen Episcopal Parish formed in 1744. The establishment of a formal government and parish saw the growth of the county from 2,780 people in 1745, to 5,880 people in 1785. Most of the colonists lived in the town of Dumfries (established in 1749), east of the present-day park. As the population grew, these wealthy landowners continued to patent lands to the west, including within the future park. There, they established tobacco plantations that continued to rely on both tenant farmers and enslaved labor (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 3-4).

Mid-18th century population growth within Prince William County coincided with the patenting of the remaining lands that would compose the future cabin camps. William Bennett patented lands containing the future Camps 2 and 5 in 1731 and 1741, respectively. These were expansions of his adjacent 400 acres, established in 1708 along the South Fork of the Quantico Creek (Bedell 2004: 18-20). Bennett and his wife Margaret moved to the area of the cultural landscape around or before 1731, establishing a plantation. They had their land cleared and oversaw the construction of a post-in-hole frame house southwest of Camps 2 and 5, near Route 619. Archeological investigations by the Louis Berger Group in 2009 confirmed the location of the original house and its replacements (Bedell 2004: 27-29). Like the Farrow family, Bennett grew tobacco using the long fallow system and sustained his plantation based on enslaved labor. Known individuals enslaved by William Bennett (likely within the bounds of Camps 2 and 5) included Lett, London, and Sarah (Deed Book 1765 TL:

No. 633, 630, 632). The Bennett plantation would likely have resembled other contemporary plantations, including a central plantation house, outbuildings, and enslaved living quarters. The landscape would have consisted of a patchwork of cultivated fields and fallow lands, including some forested areas. The remaining lands of the future Camp 2 were patented by Bertrand Ewell in 1743. It is not known if Ewell or his descendants were enslavers, and little is known about how he used the land.

In the 1740s or 1750s, John Tayloe II purchased 2,146 acres of land, including much of the 1666 Beck and Hatoft Tract containing the future Camps 1 and 4. Tayloe was a member of one the richest families in the colony who made their fortune from both the iron industry and large plantations that relied on hundreds of enslaved laborers. Although archeologist John Bedell has suggested that the tract within the future park was purchased for its timber (as part of the charcoaling enterprise associated with Tayloe's ironworks), more recent evidence indicates that it was not used for this purpose. Instead, Tayloe leased much of the property to tenant farmers, parceling the larger acreage into 200-to-300-acre properties (Bedell 2004: 88).

As an example, one tenant farmer, George Calvert, was already living on the tract when he obtained the lease. Calvert's land was largely outside of the park but may have contained portions of the cabin camps. Like the larger plantation owners and many other tenant farmers, Calvert also relied on enslaved labor. The names of some of those Calvert enslaved were Cate, Dinah, Duke, Jean, Lucy, Moll, Tom, Will, and Winney (Mason 2014). Refer to the supplemental information section of this CLI for additional information.

While not all tenants relied on enslaved labor, it is important to note the persistence of the practice throughout the Antebellum coastal area across all scales of agriculture, as it would have affected nearly all characteristics of the cultural landscape during this period (e.g. land uses, associated buildings and structures, etc.).

THE SHIFTING NATURE OF AGRICULTURE AND GROWTH OF INDUSTRY

As the population of Virginia increased and land productivity declined at the end of the 18th century, farmers abandoned the long fallow method. The plantation model employed by Farrow and Bennett grew less profitable by the 1770s, largely due to the rapid depletion of nutrients in the soil by the tobacco plant. From the late 18th century on, larger land grants were parceled out and sold as owner-occupied farms. At the advent of the 19th century, only approximately 20 families lived in the future park. Many of these were likely tenant farmers, maintaining crops for absentee landowners. While the nature of farming shifted away from large scale plantations, the reliance of farmers of all scales on enslaved labor would continue until after the Civil War (Bedell 2004: 49-53).

These smaller tracts, comprising between 100 and 400 acres, focused on a more diverse set of crops, including wheat, flax, indigo, and cotton. Such farms were likely located within the same area later occupied by the cabin camps, and would have featured houses, barns, outbuildings, roads, and other landscape features. The smaller-scale agriculture relied less on enslaved labor; however, some tracts continued the practice and would have featured living quarters for enslaved people (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 3-4).

By the early 19th century, the primary crop cultivated within the cultural landscape was wheat. New resident farmers constructed simple frame dwellings, established orchards, and cultivated fields. Unlike tobacco, wheat production required the removal of vast swathes of forests, stumps, and the plantings of regular rows of crops. This adversely impacted the landscape, resulting in rapid deforestation, erosion, and sedimentation. By 1830, approximately 40 percent of the future park would have been farmed, up from an estimated 10 percent in the tobacco heyday of the 18th century. The growing population thinned remaining forest lands of mature trees, using the timber for building and fence construction, and made use of the cleared land for other agricultural pursuits (Bedell 2004: 39-49).

Other industries emerged during this shift in agriculture, including mills along the Quantico Creek. According to archeologists from the Louis Berger Group, the mill was associated with the growing wheat industry (Bedell 2004: 55-56).

EARLY FREEDPERSONS' SETTLEMENTS IN PRINCE WILLIAM COUNTY

The shift to smaller owner-occupied farming coincided with the establishment of the freedpersons' settlement of Batestown. Scholarship by Arvilla Payne-Jackson and Sue Ann Taylor on the African American experience at Prince William Forest Park note that most Black residents of Batestown were formerly enslaved individuals (emancipated by deed or will) or a descendant of a freedperson (Jackson and Taylor 2000: 36-40). This community of free Black farmers was located along Batestown (formerly Mine Road), north of the future Camp 3 and east of Camps 1 and 4. Batestown was formed circa 1807, when a wealthy white merchant named John Gibson gifted both land and money to the seven children of a Black woman named Nancy Mackie. Two of her children, Sally Bates and Thomas Mackie (or McKee), founded the community of Batestown. The initial 114 acres was located along the Cabin Branch. Through marriage with other free Black families, including the Coles and Kindles (or Kendalls), the Mackies expanded Batestown into the largest (by area) Antebellum free Black community in Prince William County (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 4, Bedell 2004: 57-59).

Traces of the Batestown community are located throughout Camps 1 and 4. However, they are most evident near the softball field of Camp 1, where mature cedar trees likely mark the edges of a former Batestown homestead. As family members passed away, larger parcels were increasingly divided among the descendants of the Batestown owners. As archeologist John Bedell notes, unlike white owners who often sold or rearranged smaller land parcels, Black landowners seldom sold or gave up their claims to land. In this way, communities like Batestown grew as more families occupied subdivided lands, concentrating the population in increasingly dense settlements (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 4, Bedell 2004: 57-59).

It was amid this early 20th century boom that Joplin, Virginia was founded. It is unknown when the town was first settled; prior to its incorporation as Joplin, the area was known as Forest Hill (Conversation with Hilda W. Howard 2023). The town was given its name by its first postmaster, William Crow, who was born near Joplin, Missouri. Circa 1904, Crow settled in the area of the future town. He rented a storefront and established a general store. When he learned that the nearest post office was three and half miles away, Crow established a post office in his general store and earned the privilege of naming the town (Kimbel 1936: 1, 4). At its peak, Joplin claimed more than 100 residents. It featured Mt. Zion Church, the Crow General Store, Otto Liming's Blacksmith Shop, the Forest Hill Methodist Church, and the Joplin/Forest Hill School. Known individuals living in the area included the Limings, Millers, Timmons, Taylors, Jones, Florence, Keys, Davis, Watson, Tolson, and Carney families (Conversation with Hilda W. Howard 2023).

THE CIVIL WAR, INDUSTRIALIZATION, AND THE DECLINE OF AGRICULTURE IN PRINCE WILLIAM COUNTY (1861–1928 CE)

THE CIVIL WAR IN PRINCE WILLIAM COUNTY

At the advent of the Civil War, Prince William County, including the cultural landscape, was predominately characterized by small farms, including those populated by tenant farmers, enslaved laborers, and free Black settlements. Given its proximity to major Confederate cities, including Richmond and Fredericksburg, as well as its proximity to the United States' capital of Washington, DC, the area around Dumfries and Independent Hill saw the frequent movement of both troops and supplies during the Civil War. (To date, extensive archeological investigations of the park have not found any evidence of direct military encampment or engagement within its borders.) Most Civil War-related events occurred in Dumfries or in areas beyond the park. However, pre-existing roads crisscrossed the future park during this period, linking Independent Hill and Dumfries with the larger cities and epicenters of the war (Bedell 2004: 80-81).

The Civil War nevertheless resulted in indirect impacts on the cultural landscape. Local farmers were drafted into military service, depleting the landscape of people to maintain it. Farmers' crops, supplies, and land were commandeered for war efforts. Perhaps most notably, the landscape was greatly denuded of trees during the war, as troops clearcut trees to increase sightlines between military installments and along the supply routes crisscrossing the cultural landscape (Bedell 2004: 80-81).

ZEAL WILLIAMS AND THE CREATION OF HICKORY RIDGE

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

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

INDUSTRIALIZATION AND THE CABIN BRANCH PYRITE MINE

In the decades after the Civil War, the area around the future cabin camps also saw a shift in agriculture, altering the economy in Prince William County and the greater Tidewater area. The Industrial Revolution brought with it new machinery such as the McCormick reaper, which made efficient large-scale agriculture possible and rendered small-scale wheat farming in the Tidewater region unprofitable. At the same time, many farm soils were depleted of key nutrients due to more than a century of poor agricultural practices (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 4-6).

These changes marked a significant economic downturn within the cultural landscape (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 4-6). Farming and orchards, however, remained the principal economic engine of the area for much of the 19th century. Farmers replaced wheat with corn and oats, two key ingredients in animal feed, and many turned to dairy farming (Bedell 2004: 5-6).

When not working in the fields, farmers looked to industry and extraction to supplement their income. By the late 19th century, logging and mining were the principal industries within the future park. In

1871, the United States Corps of Engineers reported that over 1,000 cords of wood were harvested within Chopawamsic Creek area.

Gold and pyrite mining also took place in the future park, bringing with it an influx of new residents. In 1889, John Detrick of Baltimore discovered a large deposit of iron pyrite within the future park and established the Cabin Branch Pyrite Mine. Detrick and others set up the center of their operations along the Quantico Creek, near where it meets the South Fork—just north and south of the future Camps 3 and 4, respectively. At the end of the 19th century, iron pyrite was emerging as a valuable ingredient for the production of sulfuric acid, a compound used by the growing chemical and electrical industries of the Industrial Revolution. Anticipating heavy profits, Detrick constructed a spur railroad that connected his enterprise with the Washington and Potomac Railroad to the east, near Dumfries (Bedell 2004: 88; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 5-6). In 1907, Detrick and the other owners incorporated the venture as the Cabin Branch Mining Company, speeding up their extractive enterprise.

Between 1901 and 1926, the number of houses within the future park nearly doubled, from 26 to more than 50. Many of these new buildings and structures housed mine workers originally from elsewhere, including local towns and states as far away as West Virginia. Most houses were vernacular in nature, consisting of one-story wood-frame structures with stone or concrete foundations (Bedell 2004: 87-88, 94; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 5-6).

With the onset of World War I, American companies rapidly expanded production, necessitating further raw materials; the heightened demand drove the price of iron pyrite to more than three times its prewar value. In 1916, the American Agricultural Chemical Company, one of the largest manufacturers of fertilizer in the country, purchased the Cabin Branch Mine amid increased demand for their products. By this time, the mine employed over 300 people, including both white and Black workers (many of the latter lived in the Batestown and Hickory Ridge communities nearby). Further research would be required to determine the extent of how conditions varied between white and Black workers (Bedell 2004: 88; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 5-6).

Following World War I, the demand and price for iron pyrite collapsed, precipitating the closure of the Cabin Branch Mine. Labor disputes at the mine, as well as the general trend towards sourcing cheaper materials abroad, led to its closure in 1920. The abandoned mine left a devastating environmental impact on the cultural landscape and its watersheds. Open tailings piles, waste rock, and large pits characterized this area. The acidic run-off from the mine poisoned the Quantico Creek. The mine would not be remediated until 1995 (Bedell 2004: 88).

THE GROWTH OF RECREATION IN THE JIM CROW ERA

At the end of the 19th century, the Black communities of Hickory Ridge and Batestown continued to expand despite increased legislation and litigation that restricted Black civil rights. In 1896, the Supreme Court's infamous decision *Plessy v. Ferguson* ruled that segregation was constitutional if facilities were "separate but equal." In the years leading up to the case and in the years after, Southern states passed laws that restricted the free recreation of Black Americans and prevented their access to public amenities. Virginia, for example, codified racial segregation in its Constitution of 1902.

Historian William O'Brien points out that the emergence of Jim Crow laws coincided with the late 19th century's establishment of many state and national parks and the growing recreation movement—including summer camps. By this time, white conservationists such as Madison Grant and Theodore Roosevelt were pushing to conserve natural wonders such as the Redwoods, Sequoias, and the Yosemite Valley, equating the loss of these places with a loss of white identity (O'Brien, William E. 2016: 32-33).

The late 19th and early 20th century growth of the national park system in the American West, corresponded with the proliferation of summer camps and urban recreational reform in the eastern United States. Reformers and conservation advocates equated the loss of pristine wilderness with the growth of urban ills such as poverty, disease, and overcrowding. To counteract these societal harms, wealthy and middle-class Americans established summer camps to provide their youth with relief through an imagined wilderness experience; the human-made landscapes for these camps relied on

a rejection of industrialization and even agriculture (which was itself a manipulation of the landscape for human use). As architectural historian Abigail Van Slyck notes, In manufacturing a new type of wilderness out of what—in many cases—had been a farmland, summer camps seemed to turn back the clock, reversing the westward motion of the advancing frontier and (particularly at eastern camps) returning the landscape to something that evoked its pristine imagined form (Van Slyck 2006: 3-6).

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

Camping also afforded the middle-class ways in which they could paternalistically impart their values to those in lower economic classes. As camping facilities sprung up outside cities, urban social service agencies—including orphanages, settlement houses, welfare groups, and religious organizations—organized subsidized or complimentary camping trips, often for those who relied on their social services (Van Slyck, Abigail A. 2006: xxviii-xxix). Several of the groups that would later take up residence at Chopawamsic started as summer camps at nearby federal lands, including Camp Goodwill and Camp Pleasant.

In Washington, DC, a group called Associated Charities sponsored the first Camp Good Will (later referred to as Goodwill) in 1904 for poor white campers. The first season took place on former farmland in Rock Creek Park (which would later be managed by the National Park Service); the land was leased to the group by the federal government. This first-of-its-kind fresh air camp in DC would, in the words of Associated Charities General Secretary Charles F. Weller, “save the lives of many sickly children and bring inspiration both to neglected little ones and their over-burdened mothers” (Washington Times 1904A: 24) The weeklong excursion offered poor white children and their mothers safe, vigorous opportunities for play, while also providing instruction in health and nutrition. The classist and segregated efforts of these social workers would later serve as the backdrop to the creation of organized group camps at Prince William Forest Park and within the larger RDA program (Washington Times 1904B: 9).

In 1907, Associated Charities expanded its efforts to include poor Black campers with the founding of Camp Pleasant. The “Colored Auxiliary” branch of the group, led by a Miss I. I. Russell, procured funding from charitable organizations that largely helped Black youth east of the Anacostia River (Evening Star 1907: 14). The camp featured the same programming as its whites-only counterpart Camp Goodwill. However, unlike at Camp Goodwill, the federal government did not make public land available to Camp Pleasant to lease or use. Instead, the group moved around the east side of the district, leasing private or semi-public lands from sympathetic parties. Between 1907 and 1920, Camp Pleasant moved at least four times, including locations in Kenilworth/ Tuxedo, Oxon Hill, Deanwood Heights, and Blue Plains. Meanwhile, during the same period, Camp Goodwill remained at its permanent facilities in Rock Creek Park, separated from its Black counterpart by the District’s core and the Anacostia River (Evening Star 1909: 2; Evening Star 1912: 4; Evening Star 1915: 22; Evening Star 1920: 4).

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

GREAT DEPRESSION, NEW DEAL, AND RECREATION DEMONSTRATION AREAS (1929-1935 CE)

With the stock market crash in 1929 and the onset of the Great Depression, economic conditions in Prince William County declined. Mining and other industries within the future park ceased operations. Government agents observed that the area's increasingly unproductive lands, impaired by erosion and deforestation, returned lower yields and profits for farmers. Paired with the loss of industry, unemployment in the area around what would become the park—and indeed, in the nation as a whole—was at a record high. (In recent decades, historians have demonstrated that these observations were somewhat exaggerated, at the expense of the existing landowners and tenants who occupied the study areas) (Bedell 2004: 96-97). The situation called for more dramatic intervention, and in the presidential election of 1932, most voters from the area cast their ballots for Franklin D. Roosevelt and his promised “new deal for the American people.” (Alexander et al 2018: 48).

NEW DEAL

President Franklin D. Roosevelt took office in March 1933. Shortly after, his administration launched the “New Deal,” a series of sweeping changes implemented in his first 100 days as president to address the devastating consequences of the Great Depression. Through relief, reform, and recovery efforts, the New Deal sought to create jobs, offer aid, and stabilize the economy and the nation's agriculture systems. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was one of the first programs to be implemented, providing thousands of unemployed young men with jobs related to the conservation of the natural environment and historic sites. The Roosevelt Administration subsequently created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) to help states and municipalities synchronize their efforts, including direct relief funds and programs to support specific populations (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11, Bedell 2004: 96-97).

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

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

The National Park Service coordination team at FERA identified a site in Joplin, Virginia, as a pilot site for the program. The area was relevant to two of three FERA targets, as it was a rural area and was also considered “economically obsolete” based on the loss of mining and other shuttered industries. “Economically obsolete” was a formal governmental classification, based on a determination that the land in question was unlikely to return to agricultural or industrial prosperity. Agricultural economists proposed removing such farmland from agricultural use and, under the auspices of the New Deal, creating some new land use instead—such as recreation (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11, Bedell 2004: 96-97).

The Joplin site was not only “economically obsolete,” it was also “submarginal”—the most inferior category on FERA's spectrum, below “good,” “poor,” and “marginal.” Submarginal land was agriculturally unproductive and/or unsuitable; in the case of the Joplin site, this was due to decades of exhaustive agriculture (largely wheat farming), erosion, and depletion of the soil (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11, Bedell 2004: 96-97).

RECREATIONAL DEMONSTRATION AREAS

For land that it deemed submarginal, the federal government incorporated the area into its Land Program, which relocated farmers, paid them for their land, and took ownership of the land for public use. Once it acquired the land, the federal government put the territory under the jurisdiction of the FERA's Division of Rural Rehabilitation and Stranded Populations (Wehrle 2000: 155). A new program, centered on “Recreation Demonstration Areas” (RDAs), took FERA-acquired land and converted it to recreational use. RDAs thus existed at the intersection of several overlapping objectives, including: economic relief for farm families; recapture and rehabilitation of unproductive agriculture land; conservation of natural lands; and the creation of public health and recreation

opportunities (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 55).

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

- Size (2,000 – 10,000 acres);
- Proximity to a large city (within one hour's drive);
- A ready supply of local building materials;
- Opportunities for water recreation (based on existing water bodies or topography suitable for flooding to construct water features);
- Reasonable prices (at an average of \$5 per acre); and
- A formal classification as a submarginal land (Earley and Weldon 2018: 55).

Early studies of the RDA program stressed the importance of creating camp facilities near urban areas where social agencies, such as Associated Charities in DC, were already at work. Many social agencies (including Camps Goodwill and Pleasant in DC) had the financial and operational capacity to run and maintain group camps, but most did not have the capacity to purchase their own lands (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-10).

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

The Joplin site, located a mere 35 miles from the nation's capital, was seen as a suitable demonstration site for FERA's social, economic, and environmental improvements (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-11). Its proximity to DC fulfilled the program's objective to help low-income families find recreational opportunities outside the unhealthy conditions of city life. Chopawamsic's many streams and creeks afforded an easy water source for swimming and hygiene, while the land offered readily available building materials for the construction of group recreational facilities. Thus, in 1935, the National Park Service included the Joplin site in its new RDA program, naming it Chopawamsic Recreational Demonstration Area (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 54-55).

The National Park Service saw Chopawamsic as a model for all RDAs in the program. Indeed, Director Conrad Wirth believed that "the success or failure of [the Chopawamsic] project [would] affect all Lands Program projects." Writing of the site, officials further noted that the Chopawamsic area was "one of the nation's unique historical spots, and...a good example of what the program [was] trying to accomplish both socially and economically" (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 9-15).

LAND ACQUISITION AND PLANNING FOR CHOPAWAMSIK RECREATION DEMONSTRATION AREA

Director Wirth authorized Chopawamsic RDA on February 19, 1935, and land acquisition began immediately. The months that followed included expansive mapping of proposed RDA borders, surveying of existing land tracts, and purchasing or condemning parcels for the purposes of acquisition. This resulted in the removal and resettlement of people who had been living on the land previously. RDA planning targeted poor, rural communities perceived of by the Roosevelt administration as, "backward and unproductive" (Bedell 2004: 96). About one-third of the people displaced during the establishment of the Chopawamsic RDA were African American and those displaced included residents of both Batestown and Hickory Ridge discussed in previous sections of this report (Devlin 2022: 261). For additional information on this topic please see: "Few Know that Such a Place Exists": Land and People in the Prince William Forest Park by John Bedell (2004), The African American Experience at Prince William Forest Park by Arvilla Payne-Jackson and Sue Ann Taylor (2000), and Segregation in Virginia's National Parks, 1916-1965: A Historic Resource Study by Erin Krutko Devlin (2022).

Beginning early in the planning process, RDA administrators proposed the construction of organized group camps at Chopawamsic. Modeled after similar private camps operated by social agencies,

youth groups, and religious organizations, these group camps would be a defining feature of the Chopawamsic RDA, offering a rustic residential experience in a woodland context. Typically, organized group camps were designed according to a hub-and-spokes plan, with a central administrative and operational core of buildings, surrounded by cabin units that radiated out from the core. For at least one of Chopawamsic's camps, such a layout would be difficult considering the terrain, and would require modification of the hub-and-spokes plan to suit the topography (Earley and Stafford 2002: 56-57).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL PARK SERVICE RUSTIC STYLE

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

While Good is widely credited with initiating the so-called Rustic Style, his book drew on the writings and projects of several other architects and landscape architects already in the employ of federal agencies around the country. Among those to whom Good was indebted were NPS architects Herbert Maier and Julian Solomon, landscape gardener/horticulturalist Frank Waugh, illustrator Dorothy Waugh, and campground designer E. P. Meinecke (McClelland 1993: 160-166, 234-247, 253-268). In the introduction to his 1935 book *Park Structures and Facilities*, Good summarizes the Rustic approach. The Rustic Style, he wrote,

...is a style which, through the use of native materials in proper scale, and through the avoidance of rigid, straight lines, and over-sophistication, gives the feeling of having been executed by the pioneer craftsman with limited hand tools. It thus achieves sympathy with natural surroundings and with the past (Good 1938: 3-4).

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

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

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

Generally, the breaking up of an area into sites will leave some unused or unusable spots, open spaces covered with a tangle of vegetation, small patches and groups of reproduction, or picturesque outcrops of rock with some green. They are the "pictures on the wall," the decorative element that tends to break the monotony and adds to the feeling of living in the woods, away from the restrictions of civilization (Meinecke 1934: 20).

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

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

The scenery can also be made additionally attractive if it is presented by themes or motives arranged in 'paragraphs.'...View after view, picture after picture, will be shown at the most effective points. It is desirable that these views should present considerable diversity....If good recognizable motives, as explained above, can be developed, paragraph by paragraph, the total effect is likely to be enhanced (Waugh 1937: 8-13).

Waugh went even further to advocate for the identification and management of specific vegetation zones, which modern landscape architects might refer to as character areas. In addition to recommending management zones, Waugh also advocated for a careful feathering of the canopy, mid-story, and ground cover between developed areas and the surrounding forest. Along major circulation routes, Waugh noted that careful planting of ornamental native species could enhance the naturalistic design of any camp (Waugh 1937: 29-37).

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

There is no purpose to an actual roadway to any of the other camp buildings. Should there be an occasional need to reach other buildings to collect rubbish, for instance, or to distribute any heavy equipment at the opening or closing of camp, a cleared truck or wagon trail, treated merely as a widened foot path, under all but the most unusual conditions, will suffice (Good 1938B: 112-113).

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

When Albert Good published *Park and Recreation Structures* in 1938, he would include seven Chopawamsic buildings as excellent examples of the Rustic Style. Three of those buildings are found in Cabin Camp 2, including the infirmary which is exclusive to Cabin Camp 2. The other two are the Administration Building, and Camper Cabin which sleeps four campers (Good Vol. III 1938: 126-127, 130-131, 180-181).

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

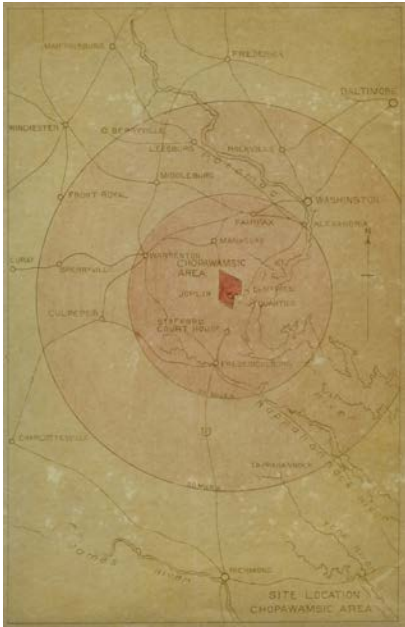


Figure 7: The area that would become Chopawamsic RDA was selected for its close proximity to several large urban areas, as well as outlying rural communities. (PRWI Collections 2228)

CREATION OF THE CHOPAWAMSI RDA CABIN CAMPS (1936-1941 CE)

DESIGN OF THE CHOPAWAMSI RDA AND THE CABIN CAMPS

Topographic conditions, including the proximity to water sources, played a significant role in determining the location of the cabin camps. Camp 1 was sited in the northeastern corner of the park along a series of plateaus overlooking the Quantico Creek. The plateaus of Camp 1 allowed for secluded camp units and an uphill camp core with easy access to water. Camps 2 and 3 took similar advantage of their distinct topographies, which were notably flatter than Camp 1, to create a more circular, centralized layout. Both camps were within easy walking distance of the South Fork of the Quantico Creek, facilitating lake access. All three camps were constructed or under construction for the first season in 1936 (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 13-14). Camps 4 and 5 were completed in time for their first seasons in 1938 and 1939, respectively. Construction on both camps continued after their opening, until the closure of the Civilian Conservation Corps' camps in 1942.

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

Cabin Camp 2 is briefly discussed below with reference to its initial construction and the major groups that occupied it during the period of significance. As the camp took on long-term occupants, its name changed from the numeric identifier to Camp Mawavi.

CAMP 2 (CENTER CAMP, CAMP MAWAVI)

Construction on Camp 2, the purpose-built girls' camp, was roughly concurrent with construction on Camp 1. Although it was not yet complete, the camp opened for the 1936 season. The design for

Camp 2 closely followed Camp 1 in both plan and materiality. At Camp 2, however, CCC workers began to standardize their plans and materials. Milled lumber and siding reduced the need for skilled laborers to cut and place logs. Similarly, the significant reduction in stone masonry, and the gradual replacement of stone with bricks, further reduced the need for specialized masons and quarrying.

Between 1936 and 1940, the Jewish Community Center (JCC) of Washington, DC used Camp 2. The group referred to Camp 2 as "Center Camp." In keeping with the RDA's mission to serve underprivileged urban youth, the JCC worked with Jewish social agencies to select candidates. These included the Jewish Social Service Agency, the Juanita Nye Council House, the Public Relief Division, and the Jewish Foster Home (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 63-64).

Despite the RDA planners' intention for the camp to be used as a girls' camp, Center Camp initially operated as a youth camp for both boys and girls, ages 6 to 14. Campers were divided by gender within camp units but used the central camp buildings and structures collectively. The JCC ceased operations at the camp in 1940, following the threat of funding cuts (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 63-64). Sometime after 1940, the road to Camp 2 and 5 was changed to Mawavi Road, in keeping with the change in camp name.

In 1940, the Arlington Girl Scouts changed the name of Center Camp to Camp Mawavi. As the new lessee, the Arlington Girl Scouts wanted the camp's name to reflect their campers. The name "Mawavi" borrowed from the three states that made up camp attendance: Maryland, Washington, and Virginia. The tenure of the Arlington Girl Scouts was short-lived; the Office of Strategic Services took over the RDA in 1942, and the group did not return after the war (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 65). After 1942, the Potomac Area Camp Fire Girls took over camp operations. They chose to maintain the name Camp Mawavi and operated the camp until the 1990s (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 65). The group became co-ed in 1975. The group's policy regarding race and integration is not known.

CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS AT CHOPAWAMSIK

Between 1935 and 1941, laborers assigned to three Civilian Conservation Corps companies were responsible for all original buildings, structures, and landscape improvements at Chopawamsic. Each company comprised between 100 and 120 men who were assigned a geographic unit of the park. This unskilled labor force was supplemented with a small number of Locally Employed Workers (LEMs), who were hired with WPA funds and understood local building methods, materials, and the landscape (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 12).

Each CCC company (composed of white, male laborers) was located near the cabin camps it would go on to construct. CCC Company No. 2349 began operations on July 29, 1935, establishing camp SP-25-VA between what would become Camps 2 and 5. (Camp SP-25-VA was converted on October 1, 1939, to Camp NP-16-VA) (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 12). Company No. 2349 constructed those cabin camps before disbanding in March 1938. Most buildings and structures within the CCC camp were demolished and the area was converted into a playing field to service Camp 2. Some buildings, including a garage, were moved to SP-26, located near Camp 3. The NPS allowed the CCC to leave a tack house, storage house, and wash rack. The remainder of the area was cleared of trees, including an apple tree that may have indicated the area was a former homestead. The NPS' plans for the new playing field included a softball field, basketball court, handball court, volleyball court, benches, a water fountain, and a latrine. It is unknown how much of this plan was realized.

Laborers used local materials, in keeping with the Rustic Style promoted by National Park Service designers. Using portable sawmills, workers milled local timber and produced waney board siding, as well as structural supports and flooring. They also gathered and quarried native stones for chimneys, walls, and building foundations. Once erected, workers roofed buildings with hand-split wooden shakes. Within the landscape, workers used stone-crusher equipment to surface entrance roads and parking lots with native gravel, while other trails were left as bare earth (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 12). Successful examples of Chopawamsic architecture were even featured in Albert Good's republished and expanded three-volume Park and Recreation Structures.

Within the landscape, the Civilian Conservation Corps also built the constructed water features

essential to organized group camping. Such water features—which were often shared between multiple cabin camps—promoted among campers good hygiene; offered recreational opportunities such as swimming, boating, and fishing; and taught water safety. In 1936, Company No. 1373 constructed a dam along the Quantico Creek, near Camp 1. It was originally made with engineered rock and earth and was later replaced with concrete. Companies 2383 and 2349 built similar, less substantial dams between Camps 3 and 4, respectively. The last dam to be built between Camps 2 and 5 was much more substantial and was built using reinforced concrete (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 13-14).

Even as the camps were still being planned by the NPS and built by the CCC, social agencies in the DC area were preparing for the first summer of camping. Camps 1, 2, and 3 opened on June 5, 1936 (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 13-14).

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

SEGREGATION IN CHOPAWAMSIK AND OTHER RDAs

When the National Park Service began planning Chopawamsic, it chose to accommodate and enforce segregationist legislation already codified in the Commonwealth of Virginia. Despite the park's Federal status, the National Park Service depended on the Commonwealth of Virginia for political support and, in some cases, funding to acquire parklands. Accordingly, state, and local politicians shaped park policies, including those regarding racial segregation in public spaces; this meant that Virginia's national parks and recreation areas were legally and socially segregated during the Jim Crow Era (O'Brien 2016: 15-17, 44-45). In parallel, the groups that planned to use park's facilities also had their own segregationist policies that they enforced in their operations (and the park deferred to their practices).

However, initial park planning documents and promotional materials omitted the fact that the park operated on a segregated basis. Between 1935 and 1937, research suggests that the National Park Service was undecided if the Chopawamsic facility would serve Black campers in addition to white campers. In 1936, the National Park Service circulated a promotional brochure pointing to the project as a nation-wide model. Entitled *Recreational Demonstration Projects as Illustrated by Chopawamsic*, the brochure mentioned only that the planned RDA would feature a boys' camp, girls' camp, and family camp (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 14-16). It made no reference to race. Indeed, even as the National Park Service worked to develop a consistent Rustic Style for its physical accommodations, its deference to state policies resulted in a case-by-case approach to legal accommodation and inclusion within America's growing park system.

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

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

The Boys Club from Washington was an already established charity with its own facility, Camp Reeder, along the Wicomico River in Maryland. The group left this facility in 1936 to test out facilities at Chopawamsic. However, after its first season there, the group returned to its old site, leaving Camp 1 open for other groups (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 62).

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

model, other RDAs would also afford Black youth the opportunity to attend camp—especially in the American South (O'Brien 2016: 73-84).

As the cabin camps were designed to be segregated landscapes in the late 1930s, watersheds served as a dividing feature within the park. A 1937 NPS policy designated the northern fork of the Quantico Creek watershed for Black campers, while the South Fork watershed would serve white campers. In a letter formalizing the policy of racial segregation based on watersheds, NPS Regional Director Herbert Evison emphasized that the "section of the watershed of the North Branch of Quantico Creek from the road leading north from Joplin and downstream to Ridge Road" would serve as the "Negro Area" (Quoted in Devlin 2022: 78, 261-262). Such geographic separation, as delineated by the NPS Regional Office, would ensure that the new white camps on the South Fork Quantico Creek would "be isolated from the above-mentioned Negro section," ensuring that waterways—and their respective users—did not mix (Devlin 2022: 261-262). This geographic delineation was based on racist stereotypes regarding cleanliness and health at swimming areas and water sources; this racial separation also reinforced the National Park Service's official deference to the Jim Crow policies of state governments (O'Brien 2016: 73-84).

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

If we are to be realistic in our approach to recreation planning in southern states, we must recognize and observe the long-standing attitudes and customs of the people, which require, as a fundamental, that recreational areas and facilities for the two races be kept entirely separated. Such a policy should not be considered discriminatory, since it represents the general desire of both races (Quoted in Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 14).

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

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

Both regional and national offices acknowledged that whatever decision was made would become precedent nationwide. In 1939, the groups reached an agreement, and—despite Wirth's objections—plans for the separate entrances were formalized (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 14). In adopting these plans, the National Park Service deferred to the segregationist policies of the Commonwealth of Virginia, subverting its own nationwide policy of desegregation.

As expected, other RDAs followed the Chopawamsic model, offering segregated facilities to white and Black campers. There were no integrated RDAs. By 1941, the NPS had established 9 RDAs with accommodations for Black campers (including some that were planned specifically for a segregated Black audience), but many more (22 in all) offered no such facilities for Black visitors. Critics of the RDA program lobbied for a legal requirement that all states provide and maintain facilities for Black campers before assuming ownership of any RDAs. Internal NPS memos opposed this idea, noting that such a rider would result in too many RDAs remaining under federal ownership (where the state was unlikely to comply with such inclusive policies), resulting in considerable costs and maintenance requirements (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 14-16).

Chopawamsic RDA likely remained under federal ownership precisely for this reason—in order to maintain the facilities for both Black and white campers (rather than turning the park over to Virginia, only to have the Commonwealth reclassify all five camps as whites-only). On August 2, 1939, the Washington Post noted that a bill passed by the United States Senate authorized Chopawamsic as a unit of the National Capital Parks owing to its "value to Washington social agencies." Chopawamsic RDA was transferred to the National Capital Parks on August 14, 1940 (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 14).

-16).



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

WORLD WAR II AND THE OSS AT THE CABIN CAMPS (1942 – 1945)

In early 1942, the War Department requested use of several national parks and Recreation Demonstration Areas around the country for defense purposes, including strategic planning, training, rest camps, and more; this included Cabin Camps 1-5 at Chopawamsic RDA and two camps at Catoctin RDA in Thurmont, MD. Both RDAs were used by the new Office of Strategic Services (OSS) for top-secret intelligence training. Many of the same advantages that underpinned the creation of these RDAs also appealed to the military: their proximity to DC; the isolated and wooded terrain; and the abundance of water features for training exercises. The presence of the existing cabin camps and infrastructure also helped to expedite the establishment of the OSS training facilities (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 16-17; Chambers 2008: 52, 85, 90-92).

Secretary of the Interior Harold Ickes authorized the War Department's use of Chopawamsic RDA in the spring of 1942. His authorization, however, was not without objection. Ickes and NPS Director Newton B. Drury preferred that the camps remain in recreational use during the war, continuing their successful partnerships with social agencies in the District of Columbia. Hoping to make their stance clear, Ickes issued a temporary two-month permit. Once established at the camps, the OSS managed to secure an indefinite permit for the duration of the war. During the OSS's tenure, the park and camps were closed to the public—including all charitable and social organizations and their summer camps (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 16-17; Chambers 2008: 101-102).

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

Precaution shall be taken to preserve and protect all objects of a geological and historical nature...that wherever possible, structures, roads, as well as trees, shrubs, and other natural terrain features, shall remain unmolested...[and] that every precaution shall be taken to protect the Area from fire and vandalism... (Quoted in Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 17).

NPS Director Drury also directed the War Department to consult with the agency before constructing any new buildings, and mandated that all sites be restored to their prewar condition when the OSS eventually left (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 16-17; Chambers 2008: 101-102). The only prewar NPS staff who remained involved at the site during the war were Park Manager Ira Lykes and Thelma Williams, who managed day-to-day administration. Lykes, who was technically employed at nearby MCB Quantico as a forester, spent his weekends overseeing Chopawamsic and ensuring OSS compliance with its lease agreement (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 16-17, 21; Chambers 2008: 101-102).

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

During World War II, OSS trainees and officers lived in the cabin camps and used the existing core buildings and structures as common areas for dining, recreation, and education. Despite clear guidance not to do so, the OSS made alterations to the existing buildings, including converting several of the four-cot cabins into two-cot cabins (for use by officers) and installing indoor toilets (chemical or flush) in the officers' cabins. It also winterized the cabin camps for year-round use, adding insulation and woodburning stoves, painting the buildings, laying new roofing tarpaper, installing new board drop ceilings, and extending electricity to all buildings (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 16-17, 21; Chambers 2008: 101-102).

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

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

The lake in Area A-5 (Cabin Camp 5) served briefly as the base for OSS waterborne operations, where trainees conducted "clandestine seaborne landings, river crossings, or [abandonment of] a sinking ship" (Chambers 2008: 115; Strickland 1986: 27). Within a few months, waterborne operations were moved to Area D on the Potomac River, and Area A-5 became an overflow area for unassigned OSS personnel.

Area A-3 (Cabin Camp 3) hosted the OSS Parachute School, where trainees would jump from airplanes and "parachute into clearings [in Chopawamsic], simulating the manner in which agents and equipment would be dropped behind enemy lines" (Chambers 2008: 145-146; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 17). Area A-3 also featured adjacent firing ranges and explosives areas, outside of the cabin camp boundaries. In 1943, the Parachute School moved to Fort Benning, Georgia, and Area A-3 transitioned to use by the Special Operations and Morale Operation branches. These groups used Area A-3 as living quarters, classrooms, and code-breaking rooms (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 17-19; Chambers 2008: 145-149; Strickland 1986: 27).

DEPARTURE OF THE OSS

Elsewhere in the park, outside the boundaries of the study area, the OSS also constructed storage facilities for explosives, demolition training areas, and other paramilitary training facilities. Military staff—despite clear instruction not to modify the park landscape without NPS consent—constructed and modified roads and trails, blew up farmhouses and other pre-park buildings and structures during explosives training, and installed and extended utility lines (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 17-19; Chambers 2008: 141).

Military priorities began shifting to the Pacific Theater in late 1944 and early 1945, during which time the OSS shifted its operations to the West Coast of the United States. In November 1944, the OSS

ended operations in Area A (Camps 2, 3, 5), permanently closing the area in July 1945. On September 20, 1945, President Harry S Truman issued an executive order dissolving the OSS. One month later, Area C was closed, and the OSS presence in Chopawamsic RDA officially ended (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 17-19; Chambers 2008: 159, 506).

POSTWAR IMPROVEMENTS AND DESEGREGATION (1946-1956)

CABIN CAMP REHABILITATION AND REOPENING

After the departure of the OSS in the fall of 1945, park staff returned to a much-altered Chopawamsic RDA. Eager to reopen the camps for the summer season in 1946, the immediate postwar period was a time of intensive repair, removal, and recovery across the RDA. During this period, military and NPS staff completed several rehabilitation projects, including staining building exteriors; replacing plumbing; repairing doors and windows; installing new power lines; clearing downed timber; and filling and re-grading the target pits and demolition areas (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 20-23).

According to its agreement with the Secretary of the Interior, the OSS was to return the camps to their prewar condition by removing any temporary facilities and those used specifically for military purposes (e.g. firing ranges, magazines, etc.). Any permanent improvements, or improvements deemed “acceptable” by park staff, would be transferred to the RDA. Ira B. Lykes, who resumed his prewar position as the park’s full-time manager, ensured that the War Department complied with all aspects of its lease. During his postwar inventory of the camps, Lykes identified several new buildings and structures. In Area A, Lykes noted four new 25-man latrines, a demolition zone in Area A-2 (Cabin Camp 2), and a boat house in Area A-5 (Cabin Camp 5). All buildings, military structures, and training areas within Camps 2, 3, and 5 of Area A were removed by the summer of 1946 (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 20-23; Chambers 2008: 509-513).

Despite the military’s efforts to winterize and improve most buildings, most facilities at the park had received little maintenance or rehabilitation since they were initially constructed in the 1930s. This, compounded with a level of year-round use during the war period that exceeded the original intention of the camps, resulted in much-needed maintenance by the end of the OSS’ tenure. Needed repairs almost certainly included the restoration of cabin camps, updates to the water and electrical systems, and the removal of additional temporary or unsuitable OSS buildings and structures (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 20-23; Chambers 2008: 509-513). However, the RDA lacked sufficient funds to supply adequate maintenance and labor.

THE ARMY ENGINEER TRAINING FORCES AND POSTWAR PARK IMPROVEMENTS

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

Agreeing to the deal, the Army constructed several vital roads connecting the cabin camps. The NPS provided all raw materials and costs, while the Army provided labor and training. Beyond Lykes’ initial road project, trainees quarried and mined stone, demolished unnecessary buildings and structures, built, and restored dams, moved and re-erected buildings, constructed bridges and culverts, improved utility lines, and undertook sawmill and timbering operations for cabin repairs. Notable changes to the cabin camps under this program included the demolition of all remaining temporary buildings in Camp 4, and the improvement of over 46 miles of camp and park roads—almost certainly including those within the cabin camps. Without this partnership, Lykes estimated that post-OSS repairs and improvements would have cost over \$1 million (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 22-25).

RENAMING CHOPAWAMSIK AND THE THREAT OF THE KOREAN WAR

Concurrent with camp improvements, Chopawamsic RDA’s name changed. Local, regional, and national staff sought the name change to separate the RDA’s public image from its years of exclusive use by the military. The renaming efforts also noted the status of the RDA as federal land, which would not be returned to the state as most other RDAs were. Park Manager Lykes preferred to simply change “RDA” to “park” (as in, Chopawamsic Park), while the Superintendent of the National Capital Parks favored “Old Dominion Park.” In 1948, Associate Director of the National Park Service Arthur Demaray and his assistant Conrad Wirth settled the issue, approving the name “Prince William Forest Park” (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 22-25).

The newly renamed park generally operated as it had before World War II. In 1951, the United States entered the Korean War. Upon entering the conflict, the newly formed Central Intelligence Agency (CIA)—a successor to the OSS—declared its intention to use the cabin camps once again. Park staff notified camp user groups that military use would likely result in the cancellation of the 1951 summer camp season (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 22-25).

In DC, several social agencies mounted a public relations effort to prevent the agency's claim on the camps. Faced with public pressure, including opposition from Washington Star editor Benjamin M. McKelway and other columnists, the CIA withdrew its request. The camps remained in use for public recreation (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 22-25).

MISSION 66 DEVELOPMENTS AT THE CAMPS (1956-1967)

In the postwar decades, the condition of America's national parks grew dire, even as visitation increased. Reduced Congressional appropriations, limited permanent and seasonal staffing, and the elimination of New Deal-era funding and work programs crippled the service's ability to maintain or improve its facilities. Visitors consistently faced long lines and traffic jams, inadequate or poorly maintained bathrooms, and an insufficient number of lodging and camping facilities (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 26). NPS Director Conrad Wirth noted that America's national parks were being "loved to death," and without Congressional intervention, the situation was "seemingly hopeless" (Carr 2007: 43-57).

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

The scale and success of Mission 66 relied on the experience of NPS staff and designers who had, 30 years earlier, implemented the sweeping New Deal-era improvements and development of park master plans. However, unlike the New Deal, Mission 66 did not bring with it guaranteed Congressional funding, nor did it carry the full weight of all federal agencies or an emergency civilian workforce (as was true during the Great Depression and the New Deal). Instead, the National Park Service's Mission 66 program relied on its own staff and the support of the public to accomplish its goals and push for Congressional funding (Carr 2007: 64-66).

Mission 66 brought a new style to the parks, breaking with the traditional Rustic Style in favor of the International Style and Modernism. The new style aimed to bring modern standards of comfort and efficiency to the National Park Service. NPS Director Conrad Wirth encouraged staffers to "disregard precedents [and] be imaginative," announcing that "the lid [was] off." As Wirth saw it, such innovative solutions were the only way to meet the modern problems of visitation and overuse (Carr 2007: 3-4). Practically, the Modern Style also allowed the NPS to use cost-effective standard materials, plans, and construction methods developed in the postwar building boom. While these new materials were distinct from their Rustic Style counterparts, the overall building and landscape design of Mission 66 was complementary and referential to earlier periods of park development (Carr 2007: 91).

Prince William Forest Park and its cabin camps planned for extensive improvements using Mission 66 funding. The National Capital Parks developed a Mission 66 prospectus in 1955-56, with principles and priorities for Prince William Forest Park and other regional parks. National Capital Parks allotted \$70 million for improvement projects across its parks, including \$1,256,100 for Prince William Forest Park (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 26). Within that sum:

- \$260,000 would support roads and trails projects;
- \$220,000 would be for utilities improvements;
- \$746,100 would fund building construction and rehabilitation, and
- \$30,000 was for miscellaneous undertakings (NARA 1956: 55-56).

Park staff refined the Mission 66 scope in their 1959 Master Plan. Planned changes to the cabin camps included the proposed addition of swimming pools; water and sewer system improvements; repairs to camp lakes, dams, and spillways; and the construction of new comfort stations, recreation shelters, and cabins/dormitories. Mission 66 planners also called for funding to double the capacity of Cabin Camp 5 and construct a new four-unit cabin camp (within the Chopawamsic area, but the precise location is unknown) (NARA 1956: 55-56). However, the scope of improvements within the cabin camps was ultimately reduced in favor of day-use and public-facing facilities elsewhere in the park (NARA 1959).

Instead, limited cabin camp improvements under Mission 66 focused on the construction of additional buildings and structures, including facilities that had been planned as part of the original camp layouts but never built and facilities that were advocated for by camp user groups. In Cabin Camp 2, this work began with replacing the log seating in the campfire circle with planks supported by concrete blocks in 1952 (NARA 1962). Over the next few years, the water systems at the camp were updated, including replacement of the water supply pipes between 1958 and 1959. A swimming pool and additional ten-bunk cabins for each camp unit were planned, however these plans were never completed leaving these buildings and structures unbuilt.

MISSION 66 IMPROVEMENTS ELSEWHERE IN THE PARK

Within the larger park, proposed changes focused on increasing the park's visibility by providing public programming and facilities beyond organized group camping. This meant the construction or improvement of day use areas such as Pine Grove and the unrealized Forest Knoll, creation of a visitor center, establishment of a tent and trailer campground, and the construction of a central scenic drive. In their administrative history of the park, historians Patti Kuhn and Sarah Grosbeck note that the "goals and projects implemented by Mission 66 remain evident in PRWI today, and the manner in which visitors experience the park is in part a result of this ambitious program." (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 26).

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

DESEGREGATION

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

Desegregation efforts within the National Park Service began nationally in the 1940s. In 1942, Secretary Harold Ickes and NPS Director Newton B. Drury issued a policy stating that all facilities owned and administered by the National Park Service were to be operated without consideration of race. However, this was only a partial solution, as user groups who rented federal facilities could continue to discriminate based on organizational policies and preferences. Ickes pushed through a policy of full desegregation before resigning from President Harry S. Truman's administration; the new policy took effect in December 1945, and banned any discrimination in furnishing public accommodations based on race, creed, color, or national origin. In theory, this meant that all publicly owned and privately operated facilities within the National Park Service system were now desegregated. However, in practice, the policy did not result in the immediate integration of facilities or user groups (Delvin 2010: 161).

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

many of these former RDAs would remain segregated until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

When Black campers returned to a reopened Chopawamsic RDA in 1946, little would have changed for them. While public facilities run by the National Park Service were legally desegregated by this time, private organizations were allowed to run the camps at Chopawamsic on a segregated basis, maintaining the status quo of “separate but equal” facilities. Indeed, it was not until 1954 that any group challenged the historic racial designation of each camp. Such challenges were the result of the Supreme Court’s rulings in *Brown v. Board of Education* and *Bolling v. Sharpe*, stating that “separate educational institutions are inherently unequal” (Quoted in O’Brien 2016: 15). The legal logic used in these cases was subsequently applied by courts to public parks across the South. However, the state government of Virginia actively sought out and implemented ways to prevent the desegregation of public facilities. State, county, and local parks in Virginia would not be desegregated until the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which ostensibly ended the legal mechanisms of Jim Crow and mandated desegregation of public spaces (O’Brien 2016: 15; Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 25-26).

Against this legal backdrop, Family Services of Washington began in 1954 to interchange which race was permitted to use each camp, stopping short of integration among its campers. In the organization’s view, their efforts would “erase the racial tags” attached to the camps and eventually lead to integration. However, Family Services reasoned that full integration of its facilities would result in some campers not attending—particularly those from Maryland and Virginia, where public schools generally remained segregated. Family Services did not integrate its use of Camps 1 and 4 until 1956. Other groups, including Camp Lichtman at Camp 1, continued to operate their camps on a segregated basis until the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 25-26).

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

CABIN CAMP DECLINE AND REHABILITATION

Despite its ambitious start in the mid-1950s, many planned Mission 66 improvements to the cabin camps were either never realized or delayed for several decades, long after the formal end of Mission 66 in 1966. Mission 66 priorities included the planned addition of shelters/recreation buildings at all cabin camps (not realized), and the replacement of all water tanks and water towers in each camp.

Funding for these scuttled projects may have been diverted to a more pressing issue: erosion. In a 1969 memorandum to the regional director, Superintendent Albert A. Hawkins noted his staff’s inability to address the challenge of erosion in the camps, noting that a “tremendous project” was required to solve the crisis. Hawkins secured regional funding for erosion treatment, which was carried out during the winter months when campers were not using the camps (NARA 1968; NARA 1969). While acknowledging the issue of erosion, Hawkins did not specify how or where staff were addressing the issue.

LATE 20TH CENTURY IMPROVEMENTS AND RECENT CAMP HISTORY (1970-PRESENT)

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

Meanwhile, the winterization of Cabin Camp 5's buildings proved so successful that it spurred park staff to recommend further replacement of Rustic Style accommodations with modern, winterized facilities. Project development schedules over the next several years regularly requested funding to replace aging buildings and structures and erect modern ones that met the changing needs of camp user groups. This included the addition of outdoor shelter/recreation buildings at each camp for large gatherings, when inclement weather prevented the use of campfire circles. At Camp 4, the proposed shelter would replace the OSS-era recreation/ theater building, which had greatly deteriorated by this time. Shelters at Camps 1-4 were not realized; in 1958, the NPS constructed a shelter at Camp 5. Other improvements included the rehabilitation of all dining halls and the construction of equipment storage buildings at each camp (not realized). Many individual improvements focused on Cabin Camp 3, including the addition of a staff quarters/host house (1972), and the addition of a modern central shower house (not realized) (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 29-32).

The condition of the constructed lakes and swimming areas was also apparently declining by 1969. In a letter to Superintendent L.T. Davenport, the director of Camp Lichtman noted that "because of silting of [Lake 1] and the lack of the lake being more than two or three feet deep in any given area, there were no fish in the lake" (Quoted in Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 29-32). He went on to note that there wasn't any plant or animal life at all, making both swimming and fishing unlikely in the future.

Cabin Camp 4 already featured a modern swimming pool; apparently, the popularity of this feature spurred other park user groups to request the construction of additional pools at each camp. However, park staff continued to prioritize the repair of dams and swimming areas at the lakes, rather than the construction of additional pools; the pool at Cabin Camp 4 remained the only pool at any of the five cabin camps. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, park staff requested funding to extend the dam walls at the Camp 1 lake; add a retaining wall to the Camp 2 lake; and repair the dam at the Camp 4 lake (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 29-32). Such piecemeal fixes to the lakes and their swimming areas did little to assuage the safety and use concerns of camp user groups.

DOCUMENTATION OF THE CAMP CABINS

Various NPS proposals envisioned conflicting futures for the cabin camps. One proposal called for the retention of one cabin camp as historic, while allowing for modernization and demolition at the four others. However, beginning in the 1980s, regional and park staff oversaw efforts to nominate Cabin Camps 1, 2, 3, and 4 as historic districts on the National Register of Historic Places. (Staff opted not to nominate Cabin Camp 5, concerned about the implications of the alterations made in the 1950s and 1960s) (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 32-33). In 1988, park and regional staff completed a Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) for Emergency Conservation Work at Prince William Forest Park, resulting in the 1989 listing of the four camps in the National Register of Historic Places and the completion of associated design and maintenance guidelines. (The whole park, except for the Chopawamsic backcountry area, was subsequently listed as a historic district in 2012) (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 79-84).

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

Park.

Preservation efforts were further codified between 1990 and 1999, during the drafting of the park's General Management Plan (GMP). A GMP provides for the long-term preservation of a park's significant resources for the next 10-15 years; the Prince William Forest Park GMP called for the preservation of all remaining CCC-era buildings and structures in the cabin camps. Provisions in the GMP also resulted in the shift of Cabin Camp 3 to short-term individual rentals (a departure from its historic use as a group camp) (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 79-84).

RECENT REHABILITATION CAMPAIGNS

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

Around 2012, park staff began using a new roofing material for all five cabin camps. In recent years, the synthetic material has been installed on numerous buildings and structures across the camps. The Virginia State Historic Preservation Office determined the change in roofing material on CCC-era buildings to be an adverse effect and worked with the NPS to mitigate the effects of the project (NPS PEPC 40128). These efforts are interpreted on historic waysides throughout the camps (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 84-85).

Uses

Functions and Uses:

Major Category	Category	Use/Function	Historic	Current	Primary
Recreation/Culture	Outdoor Recreation	Campground/Picnic Area	Yes	Yes	Yes
Recreation/Culture	Outdoor Recreation	Sports/Athletic Field	Yes	Yes	No
Recreation/Culture	Sports Facility	Public Beach (Swimming Area)	Yes	No	No
Agriculture/Subsistence	Farm (Plantation)		Yes	No	No
Industrial/Processing/Extraction	Industrial/Processing/Extraction-Other		Yes	No	No
Defense	Military Facility (Post)		Yes	No	No
Funerary	Grave/Burial		Yes	No	No

Public Access:

Public Access: With Permission

Public Access Narrative:

Visitors are required to book use of Cabin Camp 2 in advance through the submission of a Cabin Camp Application.

Associated Ethnographic Group

Ethnographic Study Status: No Survey Conducted

Ethnographic Narrative:

Analysis & Evaluation of Integrity

Analysis and Evaluation of Integrity Narrative Summary:

Analysis and Evaluation Summary

The following section is adapted from the Prince William Forest Park Cabin Camps 1-5 Cultural Landscape Report (CLR) that was prepared by the University of Pennsylvania's PennPraxis Urban Heritage Project (UPenn) in 2023.

This section provides a summary and analysis of typical existing landscape conditions at Cabin Camp 2, organized according to landscape characteristics. Landscape characteristics are the tangible and intangible aspects of a landscape that allow visitors to understand its values and significance. Each landscape characteristic section contains a narrative description of extant features and evaluation of their historic and existing conditions, as well as representative photographs and diagrams that analyze their significance and integrity within the cabin camp. This assessment analyzes the historic character, landscape features, and landscape qualities that contribute the period of significance from 1935 to 1959. Fieldwork for this assessment was conducted in March, May, and November 2022.

Cabin Camp 2 is documented and evaluated according to the landscape characteristics natural systems and features, topography, spatial organization, land use, vegetation, circulation, buildings and structures, cluster arrangement, views and vistas, constructed water features, small-scale features, and archeological sites.

NATURAL SYSTEMS AND FEATURES

Natural systems and features refer to the natural aspects that have influenced the development and physical form of a landscape. The rugged natural features of the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, contribute to the character the cultural landscape. RDA designers carefully sited each camp to take advantage of natural features, such as Quantico Creek. They also carefully integrated mature vegetation, boulders, and other natural features within the camps, taking care not to damage such features during construction. The existing conditions at all camps reflect this historic reverence for natural systems and features. As a result, Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to this landscape characteristic.

TOPOGRAPHY

Topography refers to the three-dimensional configuration of the landscape surface, characterized by features such as slope, articulation, orientation, and elevation. The topography of each cabin camp, including Cabin Camp 2, has not changed significantly since the camps' original construction. Each camp continues to rely on the naturalistic topographic qualities of the landscape to create a rustic camp atmosphere. The extant conditions are generally consistent with the historic topographical conditions of Cabin Camp 2 at the end of the period of significance. Cabin Camp 2 therefore retains integrity with respect to topography.

SPATIAL ORGANIZATION

A cultural landscape's spatial organization refers to the three-dimensional organization of physical forms and visual associations in the landscape, including articulation of ground, vertical, and overhead planes that define and create spaces. Each camp, including Cabin Camp 2, remains organized as a series of units linked to a shared camp core, consistent with its historic design. Cabin Camp 2 therefore retain integrity of spatial organization.

LAND USE

Land use refers to the principal activities conducted upon the landscape and how these uses organized, shaped, and formed the land. The recreational use of the camps, including Cabin Camp 2, has not changed significantly since the period of significance. (The military land use of the camps started and ended during the period of significance, and does not exist today). Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity of association and feeling, as it remains organized as a seasonal cabin camp. As a result, Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity of land use.

VEGETATION

Vegetation features are characterized by trees, shrubs, vines, ground covers, and herbaceous plants that are commonly associated with eastern deciduous forests and oak-tulip forest communities. At the camps, including Cabin Camp 2, native species dominate the canopy and understory. The primary threats to ecosystem health

are invasive plants, the long-term effects of deer browse, and limited advance regeneration of native tree species. Despite these impacts, Cabin Camp 2 retains the general design intent and integrity of its vegetation.

CIRCULATION

Circulation is defined by the spaces, features, and applied material finishes that constitute systems of movement in a landscape. The cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, retain nearly all of the historic circulation features within their bounds. The circulation systems in the camp remain clear and legible, including delineation into an entrance road and parking lot, central truck trail and spurs, and informal paths within camp units and outlying areas. Additional circulation features (e.g. footpaths) postdate the period of significance but do not detract from the integrity of the landscapes' circulation, as they maintain the general naturalistic character intended by RDA designers. As a result, Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to circulation.

BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES

Building features refer to the elements primarily built for sheltering any form of human activities; structures refer to the functional elements constructed for other purposes than sheltering human activity. Cabin Camp 2 retains buildings and structures dating to its initial construction under the CCC, buildings and structures modified during World War II, and the Type E cabins added during Mission 66. Most buildings and structures at the camp have undergone rehabilitation since the 1990s, largely restoring their historic conditions. As a result, Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to buildings and structures.

CLUSTER ARRANGEMENT

Cluster arrangement is the location and patterns of buildings, structures, and associated spaces in the landscape. The existing cluster arrangement of Cabin Camp 2 is nearly identical to the camp's arrangement by the end of the period of significance. This reflects the addition and removal of buildings and structures during World War II, as well as subsequent minor additions, or the relocation of buildings and structures within the camp during the later decades of the period of significance. The cabin camp retains integrity with respect to its cluster arrangement.

VIEWS AND VISTAS

A view is the expansive and/or panoramic prospect of a broad range of vision that may be naturally occurring or deliberately contrived; a vista is a controlled aspect of a discrete, linear range of vision, which is deliberately contrived. The design and management of the camps, including Cabin Camp 2, continue to take advantage of views to and from natural and cultural features within the landscape, as created by RDA designers. This includes carefully framed views along camp circulation features, as well as screened views into and out of each camp. Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity of views and vistas.

CONSTRUCTED WATER FEATURES

Constructed water features are the built features and elements that utilize water for aesthetic or utilitarian functions in the landscape. Each camp was organized along the Quantico Creek, where the CCC constructed dams and artificial lakes to create swimming areas. All of these lakes and dams remain extant, including those associated with Cabin Camp 2. However, significant silting and the growth of aquatic plants have made most of the swimming areas unusable. Despite these impacts, Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity of constructed water features.

SMALL-SCALE FEATURES

Small-scale features are the elements that provide detail and diversity, combined with function and aesthetics, to a landscape. Small-scale features have been replaced as needed in Cabin Camp 2 during the decades since the period of significance. In most cases, historic small-scale features have been replaced in-kind and/or in the same locations as their predecessors. Overall, the extant small-scale features (including in-kind replacements) convey the design intent with respect to this landscape characteristic. As a result, the Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to small-scale features.

ARCHEOLOGICAL SITES

Archeological sites are defined as the location of ruins, traces, or deposited artifacts in the landscape, and are evidenced by the presence of either surface or subsurface features. All previously identified archeological sites within the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape, including cemeteries, pre-date the camp's period of significance and are noncontributing features to the cabin camps. They are managed as cultural resources by the park.

INTEGRITY

This landscape analysis also includes an assessment of the integrity of the cabin camps, in accordance with the National Register criteria. Historic integrity, as defined by the National Register, is the authenticity of a property's identity, evidenced by the survival of physical and intangible landscape characteristics that existed during the period of significance. The National Register recognizes seven aspects of integrity: location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and association. Several or all of these aspects must be present for a site to retain historic integrity. To be listed in the National Register, a property not only must be shown to have significance under one or more criteria but must also retain integrity to its period or periods of significance.

LOCATION

The location aspect of integrity involves the place where the landscape was constructed. Camp 2 remains in its historic location, and within the camp all features retain their historic locations. The camp retains a high degree of integrity with respect to location.

DESIGN

Design is the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a cultural landscape or historic property. The camp remains intact as excellent and readily identifiable examples of organized group camps constructed in an RDA in the 1930s. It exemplifies the principles of Rustic design, which were developed during the construction of the camp and surrounding group camps. In fact, the design of several buildings was used in Albert Good's Park and Recreation Structures to exemplify the Rustic Style of design. Among other features, the cabin camp retains designed views and vistas, ornamental camp plantings adjacent to buildings, and rustic log and board buildings and structures. The design intent of the camps, expressed via their layout as organized group camps (including spatial organization and cluster arrangement), remains clear in the camp. The camp retains a high degree of integrity with respect to their historic designs, particularly related to their Rustic era of construction.

SETTING

Setting is the physical environment of a cultural landscape or historic property. The setting of the cabin camp has evolved over their nearly 100-year tenure at Prince William Forest Park. When Chopawamsic RDA was established, the forest was regenerating after substantial thinning of forest due to industrial or agricultural activities such as logging or homesteading. In the ensuing decades, the forest at Prince William has matured and created an ideal camp setting, in keeping with the long-term planning principles promoted by Waugh, Meinecke, and Good. The camp retains its forested context. Cabin Camp 2 remains secluded within that forest setting, with the units ensconced under the tree canopy. The camp retains its overall integrity of setting.

MATERIALS

Materials are the physical elements of a particular period, including construction materials, paving, plants, and other landscape features. The camp retains characteristic Rustic materials such as waney board siding, wood-frame windows, stone paving, and mature tree species. Buildings and structures at later developed camps within PRWI reflect the shift in materials from the bespoke materials used during construction at Camp 2. Thus, the extant camp materials demonstrate the chronology of construction: earlier camps, such as Camp 2, retain their characteristic Rustic Style materials (e.g. stones and logs). Non-contributing landscape features postdate the period of significance, but closely adhere to the historic material and planting palettes. These additions do not detract from the camp's integrity of materials, resulting in a high degree of integrity of materials within the cabin camp.

WORKMANSHIP

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

FEELING

Feeling is a property's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period. Visitors to the camps experience their rustic camp qualities. They remain rural retreats in a remote wooded setting, with few landscape features that speak to modernity. This feeling was described and modeled by RDA designers and remains extant in the cabin camps today. Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity of feeling.

ASSOCIATION

Association is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property. Camp 2 remains clearly linked to the historic development of the Chopawamsic RDA as a part of a series of organized group camps. The camp also conveys the continuous link of landscape changes to their physical fabric, including the 1930s New Deal programs, the OSS, and Mission 66 initiatives. While the camp does not retain an association to historic user groups dating to the period of significance, the camp remains in continual use as a rental facility. The camp continues to foster associations with user groups (rather than individuals). Based on its continued association with recreational land use and camp visitors, the camp retains a high degree of integrity with respect to association.

Landscape Characteristics and Features

This section presents an analysis of landscape characteristics and their associated features and corresponding Cultural Resources Inventory System Historic Structures (CRIS-HS) names and numbers, if applicable. It also includes an evaluation of whether the feature contributes to the property's National Register eligibility for the historic period (1935-1959), contributes to the property's historic character, or if it is noncontributing, undetermined, or managed as a cultural resource. If a feature is non-contributing, it is evaluated as "compatible" (visually congruent with the historic character of the landscape) or "incompatible" (visually incongruent with the historic character of the landscape).

Landscape Characteristic: Natural Systems and Features

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

Historic and Existing Conditions:

Geomorphology and Geology

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

The Piedmont was formed through a range of geologic processes, including folding, faulting, uplift, and erosion. It is characterized by gently rolling hills over metamorphic bedrock, with few surface deposits (Thornberry-Ehrlich 2009: 3). In contrast, the Atlantic Coastal Plain was formed by sediments that were eroded from higher elevations to the west. These sediments were shaped by fluctuating sea levels and erosion when ancient oceans covered the landscape. As a result, areas within the Coastal Plain feature a more diverse range of surface deposits and bedrock than those found in the Piedmont (Thornberry-Ehrlich 2009: 2-3).

Landforms in the Piedmont areas of the park, including Camp 2, are characterized by ridgetop plateaus. These plateaus are capped by erosion-resistant rocks and separated by steep-sided valleys and ravines formed through the erosion of less-resistant rocks along waterways. Over thousands of years, intense erosion throughout the Piedmont areas of the park exposed the underlying bedrock, forming ravines ranging in elevation from 10 feet to 400 feet above sea level. These ravines delineated where camp planners could place cabin units; as a result, they surround Camp 2 and define the edges of the camp's cultural landscapes.

Camps 2 and 5 are underlain by the Lunga Reservoir Formation, an Ordovician bedrock containing metamorphic rocks and minerals such as gneiss, mica schist, feldspar, quartz, and calc-silicate. Camps 2 and 5 contain few surface deposits, with the exception of alluvium, an unconsolidated mud, clay, and gravel found along the South Fork of the Chopawamsic Creek. As a result, the landforms within these two cabin camps are generally more consistent in character than their Coastal Plain counterparts, whose character varies more widely (Thornberry-Ehrlich 2009: 2-3, 14-15).

Watersheds

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

Both the North and South Forks of the Quantico Creek were essential landscape features considered by the park's landscape designers when situating each cabin camp. Access to water provided health, recreational, and scenic benefits to campers. At Chopawamsic, RDA landscape architects capitalized on the natural hydrology of the landscape and dammed both forks of the Quantico Creek to form artificial lakes for swimming (Good 1938C: 118; McClelland 1998: 416). For more on these constructed water features, see the corresponding section.

Watersheds also served as a dividing feature within the park when racialized boundaries were established in the 1930s. A 1937 NPS policy designated the North Quantico Creek watershed for Black campers, while the South Fork Quantico Creek watershed would serve white campers. (Prior

to 1937, all areas of the park were used exclusively by white campers.) In a letter formalizing the policy of racial segregation based on watersheds, NPS Regional Director Herbert Evison emphasized that the “section of the watershed of the North Branch of Quantico Creek from the road leading north from Joplin and downstream to Ridge Road” would serve as the “Negro Area.” (Quoted in Devlin 2022: 261-262). Such geographic separation, as delineated by the NPS Regional Office, would ensure that the new white camps on the South Fork Quantico Creek would “be isolated from the above-mentioned Negro section,” ensuring that waterways—and their respective users—did not mix (Devlin 2022: 261-262). This geographic delineation was based on racist stereotypes regarding cleanliness and health at swimming areas and water sources; this racial separation also reinforced the National Park Service’s official deference to the Jim Crow policies of state governments—in this case, the Commonwealth of Virginia (O’Brien 2016: 73-84).

Ecology and Soils

In addition to serving as a delineator of landforms and geology, the Fall Line also served as a marker of different soil types and the vegetation communities they accommodated. Relative to some of the other camps, Camp 2 features a much simpler series of soil types, in keeping with its location within the Piedmont. Dominant soils included Buckhall Loam, Occoquan Sandy Loam, and Meadowville Loam. All of these soils were dry, acidic, and well-drained.

The generally consistent loamy quality of the soils underlying the PRWI supports a mesic mixed-hardwood forest (the dominant forest type is shown in green on the map below in figure 18). Typical tree species include American beech (*Fagus grandiflora*), white oak (*Quercus alba*), northern red oak (*Quercus rubra*), tulip tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), American holly (*Ilex opaca*). Departures from this dominant forest type are the result of different soil types, their acidity, and their drainage. Soils in Camps 2 are drier and more acidic. As a result, this camp is one of two camps (the other being Camp 5) that feature large areas of successional Virginia pine forests; Virginia pines (*Pinus virginiana*) thrive in these environments, shown in blue (PRWI Collections 2008).

In Camp 2, NPS and CCC workers capitalized on the natural features within the camp to develop rustic camp scenery. Designers noted rock outcroppings and other unique landforms on their blueprints. Buildings and structures, such as campfire circles or cabin porches, were oriented to take advantage of views of these natural features. Buildings also took advantage of prevailing winds, access to sunlight, and other climatic conditions to maximize camp comfort and health. CCC workers likely also moved large boulders and ornamental plantings to create scenic or naturalistic qualities. Such moves would be in keeping with the principles of rustic landscape design—notably, those delineated by E.P. Meinecke, Frank Waugh, and Albert Good (Meinecke 1934: 20; Good 1938C: 109-121).

Analysis:

The underlying geology, dominant soils, and vegetative communities of Cabin Camp 2 have not changed since the period of significance. The camp remains situated along the South Fork of Quantico Creek and continues to incorporate the natural systems and features within its bounds.

The rugged natural systems and features of Cabin Camp 2 contribute to the character of the cultural landscape. Soils, landforms, waterways, and forest types actively shaped the development of the cabin camp landscape during the period of significance. The conditions of Cabin Camp 2 reflect this reverence for natural systems and features. As a result, the cabin camp retains integrity with respect to this landscape characteristic.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Quantico Creek (North Fork)	206782	Contributing					No
Quantico Creek (South Fork)	206783	Contributing					No
Boulders and rock outcroppings	206784	Contributing					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:

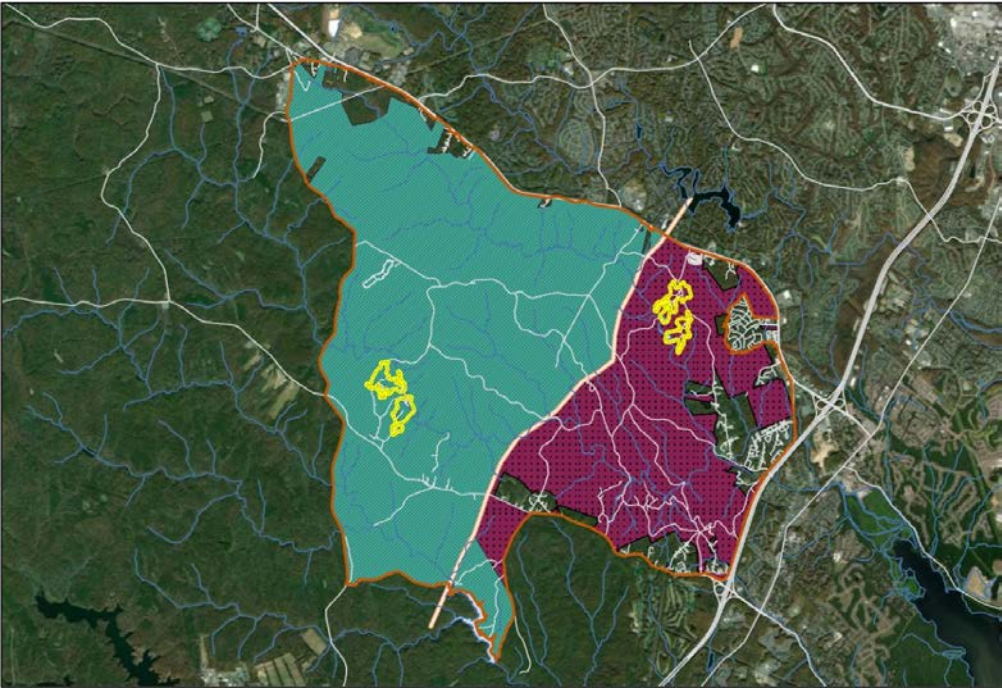


Figure 16: This diagram shows the physiographic separation of the five cabin camps (outlined in yellow with dashed line) by the Fall Line (denoted by a solid white line running north-south at the center of the map). Camps 2 and 5 are in the Piedmont (dashed green overlay), while Camps 1, 3, and 4 are in the Coastal Plain (dotted purple overlay). The park boundary is outlined in a solid orange line. (UPenn 2023)

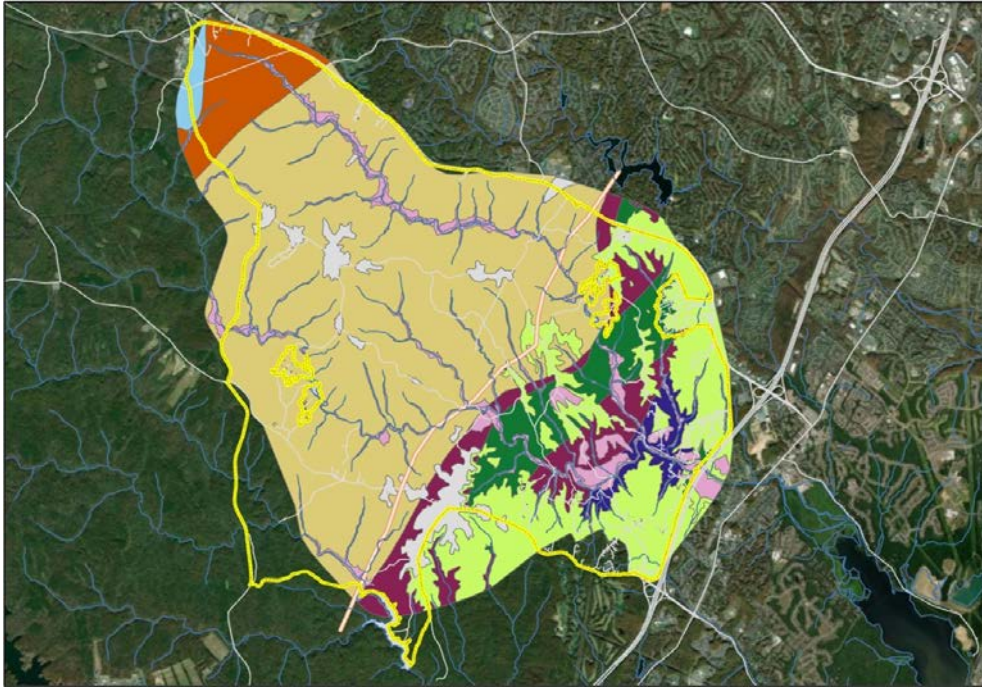


Figure 17: This diagram shows the bedrock and surface deposits at each of the five cabin camps. Camps 2 and 5, located in the Piedmont, feature minimal surface deposits and are underlain by the Lunga Reservoir Formation (gold overlay). (UPenn 2023)

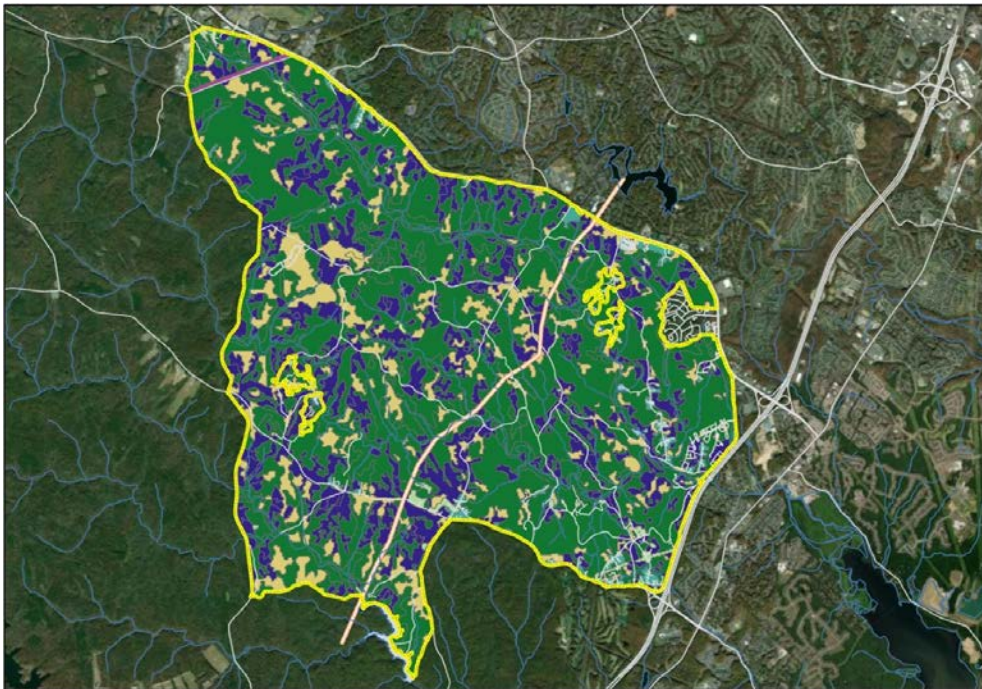


Figure 18: Mesic mixed hardwood forests (dark-green overlay) dominate the vegetation communities within the cabin camps. In Camps 2 and 5, where soils are more acidic and drier, successional Virginia Pine forests (blue-purple overlay) thrive. Smaller areas of Dry-Mesic Acidic Oak-Hickory forests (tan overlay) grow in camps 1, 3, and 4 on ridgetop plateaus where soils are somewhat drier and more acidic (UPenn 2023).

Landscape Characteristic: Topography

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

Historic Condition:

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

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

Another set of conditions which has all-important bearing on the camp plan includes site factors such as topography, natural features, and climate. A rugged topography may force a sprawling layout [sic] or a very concentrated one, both of which are non-typical and short of ideal. Sparseness of cover will suggest a wide separation of units....A steep lakeshore or riverbank may make it necessary to string out the camp in plan that departs from the typical. If the site is a small peninsula, the site will recognize the peculiar advantages this offers (Good 1938C: 110-111).

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

Existing Conditions:

The topography of the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, remains largely unchanged from the period of significance. Minor to moderate erosion has resulted in some shifting of the landscape surface; however, park staff have plans to implement corrective action to redress these conditions.

Analysis:

The topography of Cabin Camp 2 retains all seven aspects of integrity and conveys the significance of this feature.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Ridgetop plateaus	206785	Contributing					No
Camp slopes toward creek	206786	Contributing					No
Flat and low-lying areas associated with swimming and playing field	206787	Contributing					No
Terrain used to seclude campfire circle	206788	Contributing					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:



Figure 19: When constructing building and structures, the CCC seldom manipulated the natural topography; rather, buildings and structures were placed on footings that allowed them to respond to the topography. (UPenn 2023)

Landscape Characteristic: Spatial Organization

Spatial organization is the three-dimensional organization of physical forms and visual associations in a landscape, including the articulation of ground, vertical, and overhead planes that define and create spaces.

Historic Condition:

Camp 2 was formally organized and constructed as a cabin camp between 1935 and 1936. Prior to this time, the landscape was organized as a series of farm fields, clearings, and former logging lands, crisscrossed by rustic roads that separated the future camp landscapes.

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

A central area provides facilities for general administration; dining; medical examination, care, and isolation; and for the mass recreational and cultural activities of all campers in the area. Outlying a short walking distance from this central area are the units, each of which is a colony of sleeping cabins or tents for campers and their leaders, centering around a unit lodge which is the recreational and social rallying point of the group. A unit washhouse and latrine complete the unit lay-out [sic] (Good 1938C: 109-110).

Put differently, the camp was organized as a series of satellite units and an administrative core. Each of the cabin units was in turn organized into its own radial pattern around the unit lodge and latrine. The radial pattern of each cabin unit varied according to the topography and prevailing winds of its locale (Good 1938C: 109-110).

Good referred to this spatial organization as a hub-and-spokes plan. The “hub” was analogous to a village, featuring facilities of “mutual interests,” including “orderly government, food supply, medical care, and recreational and cultural pursuits.” In Good’s metaphor, the outlying “spokes” were equivalent to “hamlets” that depended on a “hub,” or central administrative core (Good 1938C: 109-110). Each unit, or “spoke,” surrounded the camp core and was arranged in a radial pattern, typically located at a fixed distance from the dining hall—generally held to be the most important building within the camp. In the camp, the buildings of the central core included: the dining hall and kitchen; the infirmary; the craft lodge; the help quarters; the central washhouse; the administration building; storage building(s); and, in some cases, the camp nursery. This organization placed the dining hall at the visual and geographic center of the camp. The camp’s units were then tied together with a truck trail, or service path (Good 1938C: 109-113).

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

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

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

In the later decades of the period of significance, changes to the camp’s spatial organization were limited. Buildings and structures added by the OSS did modify the spatial organization of the camp, but nearly all of them were removed after the war, restoring the original spatial organization of the camp. Exceptions included new classroom spaces within camp units. Other Mission 66-era changes included the addition of new cabins to each unit at Camp 2; these cabins maintained the historic spatial organization of each unit. Changes made as part of the Mission 66 program did not affect the integrity with respect to spatial organization. Additional cabins added as part of the Mission 66 program preserved the unit plans at all affected camps but modified the cluster arrangement of individual units. (For more on these alterations, refer to the cluster arrangement section.)

Existing Conditions:

The spatial organization of Cabin Camp 2 is consistent with the conditions in place at the end of the period of significance. The camp retains its delineation into units and a camp core, as articulated and bounded by a central camp truck trail. Each of the units retains its groupings of cabins, lodge, and latrine. The camp also retains the central administrative core, including the dining hall, infirmary, help quarters, staff quarters, shower house, and craft lodge, as well as other buildings and structures.

Analysis:

The spatial organization of Cabin Camp 2 is consistent with its composition during the period of significance. Therefore, the camp retains integrity of spatial organization.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Hub-and-spoke organization around camp core	206789	Contributing					No
Cabin units organized around central core of administrative buildings (dining hall, staff cabin, infirmary, etc.)	206790	Contributing					No
Outlying clearings, including playing field, swimming area, and campfire circle	206791	Contributing					No
Separation of spaces and use (vehicular versus pedestrian)	206792	Contributing					No

Landscape Characteristic: Land Use

Land uses are the principal activities in a landscape that form, shape, and organize the landscape as a result of human interaction.

Historic Condition:

The cultural landscape was used and inhabited by Indigenous peoples for thousands of years before colonizers arrived. Archeological evidence places the earliest ancestors of the Doegs and Manahoacs in the Piedmont and Atlantic Coastal Plain between 11,000 and 9500 BCE. European colonization and settlement began in the late 17th century, forcibly displacing these peoples and dispossessing them of their ancestral lands. European colonizers developed homesteads and used the land for farming, hunting, fishing, grazing, and timbering. In the mid-to-late 19th century, extractive industries such as timbering and mining expanded into the Quantico and Chopawamsic Creek watersheds. Paired with small-scale agriculture, these land uses dramatically changed the character of the cultural landscapes, prior to the period of significance (Elgoff and Woodward 1992: 20-24; Bedell 2004: 6-16).

These privately-owned properties were surveyed, acquired, or condemned in the mid-1930s to create the Chopawamsic RDA. Families were relocated (both voluntarily and forcibly) to make way for the new RDA. By the time the National Park Service acquired the land for the cabin camps in the 1930s, industrial and agricultural uses had declined, and much of the landscape was in a state of regeneration (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 45-47).

Between 1935 and 1942, NPS designers and CCC workers built the five camps, introducing the primary land use (recreation) to the study area. As designed, each "group camp" was meant to be used seasonally (in the summer months) by large groups that would rent the entire facility for youth camps. In doing so, most of these groups provided underprivileged urban youth with educational, recreational, and healthful opportunities. During the period of significance, such groups included: the Boys Club of Washington; 12th Street YMCA; Salvation Army; Family Services of Washington, DC; Arlington Girl Scouts; Potomac Area Camp Fire Girls; and Jewish Community Center, among others (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 13-15).

In 1937, the National Park Service codified a policy of racially segregated use among the camps. Camps 1 and 4 were reserved for Black campers, while Camps 2, 3, and 5 would serve white campers. (Until 1937, Chopawamsic offered no facilities to Black campers. Indeed, no facilities in the park were purpose-built for Black campers; rather, this land use was added later, when previously white-only facilities were given over to their use.) Segregated camp use would persist in some form—by policy and by practice—into the 1960s (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 13-15). Camps generally were also divided along gender lines. In some instances, where camps were used by both genders, individual camp units were separated by gender—as well as race. (Devlin 2022: 260-265).

As designed and constructed, each cabin camp had specific buildings and structures to accommodate functions essential to group camping. The dining hall provided meals, the infirmary tended to the sick, the camp offices served an administrative purpose and as a canteen, and the cabins housed campers and their leaders overnight. Active recreation was also an essential part of camp life. Each camp featured a playing field and swimming area.

To construct the new facilities, the NPS relied on the Civilian Conservation Corps, which established several camps throughout the RDA. Many of the CCC camps were located immediately adjacent to the future cabin camps, often within what would become the camp's playing fields. The CCC's use of the camps ended circa 1942, with the disbanding of the CCC for the war effort (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 12-13).

With the arrival of World War II, all camps closed to the public and were given over to new military uses. During this time, the camps were used by the OSS and military groups for housing, training, and administrative purposes. The camps retained some recreational uses via existing playing fields and swimming areas, but these uses were reserved for the OSS and its affiliates.

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

Changes to land use after the period of significance were limited. Most historic user groups stopped renting the cabin camps; however, other regular user groups took their place, sustaining the recreational use of the camps.

Existing Conditions:

Cabin Camp 2 remains in use as a recreational cabin camp, supported by its sleeping cabins and other buildings and structures, as well as its playing field and swimming area. Camp 2 does not retain its historic use as a military installation or as a CCC camp; these uses started and ended during the period of significance.

Analysis:

The recreational use of Cabin Camp 2 has not changed significantly since the period of significance. The camp retains the aspects of integrity (including design, feeling, association, etc.) of its historic land use as an organized seasonal cabin camp. Minor changes do not detract from the overall legibility of the historic land use within the cultural landscape. As a result, the camp retains integrity of land use.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Recreational use as organized group camp	206793	Contributing					No
Recreational use as a rented group camp	206794	Contributing					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:



Figure 20: The cabin camps were operated on a segregated basis. Black campers at Camp 4, shown here, practice archery in the playing field on August 25, 1950. (PRWI Collections 2391)



Figure 21: Each cabin camp is typically organized by land use and arranged in a hub-and-spokes plan (UPenn 2023).

Landscape Characteristic: Vegetation

Vegetation includes deciduous and evergreen trees, shrubs, vines, groundcovers, and herbaceous plants and plant communities, whether indigenous or introduced in the landscape.

Historic Condition:

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

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

Reforestation and the Forest Margin

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

CCC workers engaged in reforestation were guided by a bulletin written by preeminent landscape gardener Frank Waugh. His bulletin was adopted in 1935 as a standard part of the educational curriculum for all CCC workers. Within cabin camps, such as the ones at Chopawamsic, Waugh argued for a zonal approach to vegetation planning. Prior to his work, this practice was largely unheard of within silvicultural circles, having been historically limited to the field of landscape gardening and the teachings of Andrew Jackson Downing, Calvert Vaux, Frederick Law Olmsted, and their students (Waugh 1937: 28). Waugh's background as a horticulturalist and Forest Service consultant united the aesthetic considerations of landscape gardening with the practical concerns of on-the-ground conservation work.

Within such cabin camps, Waugh argued that in order to create the most naturalistic landscape, RDA designers should carefully undertake restorative plantings to soften the transition between developed areas or clearings and the untouched forest beyond. This feathered approach employed naturalistically arranged mass plantings of native shrubs and plants such as mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*), flowering dogwood (*Cornus florida*), and viburnums (*Viburnum* sp.), among other site-specific plantings such as oak, maple, or pine (Waugh 1937: 27-38). Remarking on the importance of the forest margin, Waugh credited a successful zonal restoration as creating "the very spice and seasoning of the whole landscape" (Waugh 1937: 33).

Waugh's zonal approach was further clarified in a series of illustrations in *Landscape Conservation*. Zone A consisted of the natural forest, containing taller trees, and varied vegetative strata below. Zone B transitioned to a canopy and understory of smaller trees and large shrubs. Zones C and D transitioned from small shrubs to low ground covers, herbs, and vines that opened onto turf or developed areas (Waugh 1937: 27-30).

Plantings Within Camp Units and the Camp Core

While no site-specific historical planting guidance for Chopawamsic was located for this CLI, contemporary documents such as E.P. Meinecke's *Camp Planning and Construction* or Waugh's *Landscape Conservation* offer a look at how the NPS and the USFS treated camp plantings and the

camp scene around this time. Natural settings, including the cabin camps at Prince William Forest Park, were actively designed, and managed during their initial development. Meinecke referred to the careful management of plantings in any natural setting as “the pictures on the wall,” noting that the creation of a pleasant camp environment did not happen without intention or design (Meinecke 1934: 26). “Intelligent planting, therefore,” he noted, “makes high demands on the imagination. The landscape gardener must visualize the ultimate effect of his planting as it will appear in the future.” The larger design of the camp landscape would not be seen for decades after the initial planting efforts, once vegetation matured. The careful culling of large trees, pruning of existing ones, and planting of new ones would have all been carefully considered and undertaken by RDA staff to achieve the desired effect (Meinecke 1934: 21).

Vegetation was a critical part of camp design and construction, and it contributed significantly to the rustic character of each landscape and its design. Chief among the principles of the Rustic Style was the impulse to highlight native vegetation and existing features within the landscape. National Park Service landscape architects and the Civilian Conservation Corps strategically used vegetation to create a naturalistic experience that prioritized scenic value over built improvements. Campground planners, such as Meinecke, Waugh, and Good, advocated for the strategic planting of native trees to both highlight a site’s natural beauty and create screening and privacy where there is need (Meinecke 1934: 21).

Remarking on vegetation management at camp sites, Meinecke wrote:

The only changes [to the landscape] that can be made immediately are negative, that is, they consist in the removal of trees, shrubs or large rocks to make room for essential camp features....Planting is expensive, and its effects do not become visible for years. The greatest care must, therefore, be exercised in the choice of trees or shrubs to be removed. An error in judgement cannot easily be rectified. This kind of work, which requires careful weighing and a good deal of creative imagination, should under no circumstances be left to untrained men. Each tree or shrub to be cut should be designated, and cutting should be strictly confined to these plants. No greater mistake can be made than to cut out all lower growth indiscriminately. A screen of shrubs or young reproduction between camps is a valuable asset, and its preservation must be made an integral part of any subdivision plan (Meinecke 1934: 10).

Waugh’s bulletin offered further, refined guidance to designers and workers establishing campgrounds. He conceded the need for greater, judicious clearance of vegetation to make campgrounds both pleasant and useful. “For looks,” Waugh wrote, “the marginal dress of shrubs and herbs should be maintained; but for the need of light and air in camp, considerable clearing up is required.” Such clearances for recreational uses, done correctly, could offer beautiful contrasts between sunny glades and the surrounding forest (Waugh 1937: 33-34).

Albert Good, apparently further codifying Waugh’s guidance, noted that to achieve such an effect, workers should remove large trees that prevented “sunlight from reaching each building for at least two hours a day.” (Good 1938C: 110). Smaller trees throughout camp units and the camp core were left to develop into a mature canopy. Many of these trees flanked roadways or abutted buildings and structures.

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

Ornamental Plantings

Ornamental plantings are defined in this CLI as intentionally planted, placed, or cultivated specimens that are set apart from the surrounding forest environment. Such plantings have been a part of the camp’s design since their initial design and construction by the CCC and NPS. According to historic photos and fieldwork, the most common location of these plantings was around buildings and structures. However, few archival records were located that indicate which species may have

been planted ornamentally and in what locations. During fieldwork in 2023, observed ornamental species included flowering dogwood (*Cornus florida*), mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*), Eastern red cedar (*Juniperus virginiana*), Eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*), and Virginia pine (*Pinus virginiana*).

Formal, geometric new plantings in rehabilitated landscapes—such as the cabin camp—were both cost-prohibitive and at odds with the naturalistic impulses of Rustic Style landscape design. Limited formal plantings followed a similar planting palette found in Waugh's zonal approach. Ornamental plantings along roads or along the sides of buildings softened their edges and helped these artificial features to blend with the natural setting (Waugh 1937: 35-36). Photographs taken during the period of significance often highlighted these naturalistic clusters.

Despite the Rustic Style's aversion to rigid geometries, linear plantings of ornamental shrubs were added to several camps during the period of significance according to guidance from Waugh. Seemingly contradictory in character, the limited use of geometric plantings in a natural setting could catch the eye of the camp user and highlight important landscape features. As Waugh noted: Good native trees may indeed occasionally be planted in rows on park lands, but only to a limited extent and in quite special surroundings, as for example, upon a short and somewhat formal entrance approach to an administration building or architectural group, or as a marginal frame to a well-developed play area or about a cleared parking ground (Waugh 1937: 38).

Such plantings were used in very limited instances across the cabin camps to highlight important paths. In two instances, CCC workers planted Eastern red cedars (*Juniperus virginiana*) along the path at the administration building in Cabin Camp 2. Similar linear plantings of Eastern red cedars (*Juniperus virginiana*) were observed during 2023 fieldwork at several of the camp playing fields. These may have offered shade to those on the field or served as a windbreak, since they are located along each side of the backstops.

Post-CCC Vegetation

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

Existing Conditions:

The forest context for the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, is primarily composed of the Oak-Hickory group, with a minor component of Pine scattered throughout the larger park boundaries. Typical over-story species composition contains mixtures of American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*), oaks (*Quercus* spp., varying by region), tulip tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), and hickories (*Carya* spp.), but a wide variety of hardwood associates also occur within this forest type.

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

- Overstory
 - Black oak (*Quercus velutina*)
 - Red oak (*Quercus rubra*)
 - Sweet gum (*Nyssa sylvatica*)
 - Tulip tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*)
 - Virginia pine (*Pinus virginiana*)
 - White oak (*Quercus alba*)
- Overstory / Mid-story
 - American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*) (also extant as understory)
 - Black gum (*Nyssa sylvatica*)
 - Red maple (*Acer rubrum*)
 - Hickory (*Carya* sp.)

- Understory
 - American holly (*Ilex opaca*)
 - American hornbeam (*Barpinus caroliniana*)
 - Sassafras (*Sassafras albidum*)
 - Dogwood (*Cornus florida*)
- Ground-story
 - Mountain laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*)
 - Low bush blueberry (*Vaccinium angustifolium*)
- Non-native
 - Stiltgrass (*Microstegium vimineum*)
 - Japanese honeysuckle (*Lonicera japonica*)

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

In specific locations around the cabin camps, there appears to be a good amount of advanced regeneration consisting of oak, pine, and hickory; however, in areas where heavy deer browse and fire suppression is prominent, the majority of the natural regeneration is composed of beech seedlings. As stated in the Trends in Woody Forest Vegetation in Prince William Forest Park report, "This loss of forest regeneration can have profound impacts on the composition of forest communities in the future and can reduce the resilience of the park to respond to stressors such as invasive species, tree pests and diseases, and climate change" (Schmit et al 2023).

While the existence of several non-native, invasive species were reported by park staff throughout the property, stiltgrass was primarily observed along the roadways within the park and along the edges of the cabin camps.

Within the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, much of the historic vegetative design intent remains legible. Many plantings added during the period of significance, or replaced in-kind after it, are extant.

However, there have been significant alterations and losses that continue to impact the landscape's integrity. Regular utility clearance continues to result in disruptive scars between the camp environment and the surrounding forest. Similarly, the hazard tree program and an aggressive mowing regime have resulted in clearance without replacement of character-defining trees and shrubs. This has eroded the woodland character of the cabin camp.

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

Nonetheless, the cabin camp features numerous plantings that illustrate the landscape design intent, established during the period of significance. These include flowering dogwoods (*Cornus florida*) and mountain laurels (*Kalmia latifolia*) adjacent to buildings and structures; planted Eastern red cedars (*Juniperus virginiana*) along the edges of paths, buildings, and playing fields; and mature oaks (*Quercus* sp.), pines (*Pinus virginiana*), tulip trees (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), and Eastern hemlocks (*Tsuga canadensis*) that frame views along circulation features and create mature canopies within camp. Within Cabin Camp 2, mature hemlocks are clustered primarily in the B Unit.

Analysis:

Vegetative integrity at the cabin camp has declined since the end of the period of significance. Ornamental plantings adjacent to camp buildings and structures have died and not been replaced. Similarly, few young trees have been cultivated to replace mature canopy trees that have been lost to age, severe weather, or disease. The loss of character-defining vegetation has resulted in a significantly modified landscape in the camp, only some of which can be attributed to change over time of natural systems and features at the site.

The design intent of the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, as forested environments remains legible, but in some areas the vegetative transitions between built features and the forest setting have been altered from their historic designs. This has resulted in some camp units that feel set apart from their forest setting, rather than integrated with it. Moreover, camp units and camp core areas are significantly more open and dominated by turf than they would have been during the period of significance. Despite these changes, the cabin camp's vegetation retains integrity.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Mature hardwood forest with feathered forest margin	206795	Contributing					No
High canopy within camp units	206796	Contributing					No
Ornamental plantings along buildings and structures, including mature oaks, tulip trees, dogwoods, and mountain laurel	206797	Contributing					No
Mature trees framing circulation features, including oaks, tulip trees, and pines	206798	Contributing					No
Linear plantings of trees and shrubs along the entrances to important buildings and along the edges of the playing field	206799	Contributing					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:



Figure 22 and Figure 23: Pre-OSS-era plantings outside of the Camp 2 administration building. Ornamental plantings such as the azaleas, mountain laurels, dogwoods, and cedars shown in this 1940s film, were added by the CCC or camper's groups to beautify the camp environs. All plantings were native species meant to enhance the natural camp scene. (Ford, et al OSS Basic Military Training)

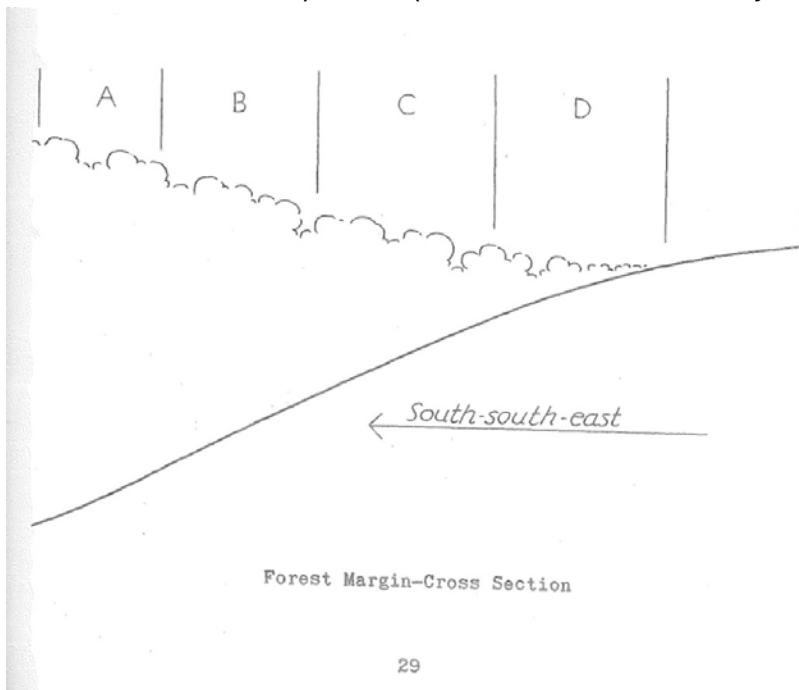


Figure 24: In his bulletin *Landscape Conservation*, Frank Waugh advocated for a zonal approach to restorative plantings between developed areas or clearings (right of D) and fully forested or natural zones (left, A). His manual was standard issue to all CCC companies employed on National Park Service lands. (Waugh 1937: 29)



Figure 25: Ornamental cedars planted along the entrance path to the Camp 2 administration building. These cedars were a geometric counterpoint to the naturalistic landscape and articulated the entrance to the administration building. The effect these mature trees have on the building is quite different than during the period of significance, which would have appeared much smaller and hedge-like (UPenn 2023).

Landscape Characteristic: Circulation

Circulation

Circulation refers to the spaces, features, and applied material finishes that constitute systems of movement in a landscape.

Historic Condition:

The earliest circulation features within the cabin camps likely predate their construction. Many of the trails and roads in the camps originated as logging roads or homestead roads, prior to camp construction. Several CCC plans from the mid-to-late 1930s appear to corroborate this assertion. A 1938 layout plan for Cabin Camp 2 denotes that some segments of the entrance road, now Mawavi Road, were adapted from an “old logging road.”

The reuse of existing roads was practical and demonstrated respect of the natural landscape. Frank Waugh and others advocated for such methods to be incorporated into the CCC’s standard practice. Waugh noted that road development in parks and wild areas tended to be overdone. He urged planners to design a careful—and minimalist—circulation network before any other landscape feature. Reflecting on this topic, Waugh wrote, “it is probably better to begin the development of any area with very meager roads and trails, enlarging old roads as may be required, improving construction and extending fresh trails in new areas when positively demanded by use” (Waugh 1937: 6-7). In concert with the principles of other park landscape architects, Waugh’s guidance became actionable design policy for cabin camps such as Chopawamsic. Such policies were promoted widely by Albert Good in his books.

Albert Good (like Waugh and Meinecke, mentioned elsewhere) was adamant that vehicle use should only penetrate a minimum distance into the camp. Good’s principles closely followed

Waugh's and held that the main automobile route into camps should terminate in three places: first, at an overflow parking lot; second, at an administration building in another, smaller parking lot; and finally, at the kitchen service courtyard. Appropriate spur roads led only to the garage, storage areas, or infirmary. As Good noted:

There is no purpose to an actual roadway to any of the other camp buildings. Should there be an occasional need to reach other buildings to collect rubbish, for instance, or to distribute any heavy equipment at the opening or closing of camp, a cleared truck or wagon trail, treated merely as a widened footpath, under all but the most unusual conditions, will suffice (Good 1938C: 111-113).

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

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

Segregated Circulation Systems

Despite its location outside of the CLR boundaries, the overall circulation system established for Chopawamsic RDA deserves some discussion within this section, with respect to the connections between the overall circulation features and the cabin camp's internal circulation systems. Original RDA plans, developed when the RDA served only white campers prior to 1937, called for a single park entrance and central drive that would connect all group camps within the RDA. After the NPS adopted a policy of racial segregation at the camps, the agency debated the use of related entrance roads by Black and white campers: should all campers use the same entrance, or should they be directed to separate entrances according to race? Regional NPS staff held that a single entrance road was the best policy, as it did not require large entrance signs that called attention to the segregated experience of the park. Due in part to a lack of funding, park staff did not construct a single entrance; rather, they built and maintained separate, segregated entrances during the period of significance. As Erin Krutko Devlin notes in her study of the subject, "park officials sought to maximize racial separation and prevent interracial mixing within the park by siting facilities for [white] and Black campers at a distance from one another on separate watersheds and providing separate points of entry" (Devlin 2022: 261). Already geographically separated, the camp's circulation features reinforced their segregation: no public roads connected them to the planned central scenic drive or to one another. Even after the park was desegregated in the 1960s, the circulation features retained this historic configuration.

Later Changes to the Circulation Features

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

Existing Conditions:

Cabin Camp 2 retains its historic circulation systems. The camp features a gravel central truck trail, spur trails, and unpaved internal pedestrian pathways. Paths within camp units remain informal and unpaved, providing access to areas such as the lake, campfire circle, and playing field.

Erosion of camp circulation features continues to be a challenge across the camp, due in part to the

removal of leaf litter from units, as well as overuse of the camps. Erosion will continue to be a challenge due to extreme weather events made worse by climate change.

Analysis:

The circulation systems at the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, remain a clear and cohesive system of roads, served by two separate entrance roads (so designed based on historic, segregationist policies). The camp's circulation systems retain most of their significant features. Any minor changes do not detract from the legibility or design intent of the camp's overall cultural landscape. Changes in path and road surfacing throughout the park, while non-historic, are in keeping with improvements to the camp for continued use and improved access. Despite these impacts, the camp clearly conveys the historic intent of its circulatory systems and retains integrity with respect to this landscape characteristic.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Camp entrance roads, parking lots, and spurs (paved with gravel)	206800	Contributing					No
Internal camp truck trails (earthen or paved with gravel)	206801	Contributing					No
Internal unit paths and spurs (unpaved)	206802	Contributing					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:



Figure 26: This highly trafficked camp entrance road typifies the historic character of camp roads. Such roads allow vehicles into the camps only as far as the parking lot, dining hall, and camp service buildings in the central core (UPenn 2023).



Figure 27: This pedestrian path in Camp 2 features a naturalistic design and enhances the woodland character of the camp. While the edge condition and application of gravel to muddy portions of this trail is non-historic, the treatment does not affect the intent of the circulation feature (UPenn 2023).

Landscape Characteristic: Buildings and Structures

Buildings and Structures

Buildings are elements constructed primarily for sheltering any form of human activity in a landscape, while structures are elements constructed for functional purposes other than sheltering human activity.

Historic Condition:

Dining Hall

Dining halls served as the historical center of each cabin camp. Albert Good noted the importance of these facilities when he wrote, “exactly three times a day [facilities] for cooking and serving meals become the most important structures in every camp.” He went on to use them as a driving force in the camp planning process: “wherefore too much care in planning them is hardly possible” (Good 1938C: 161). The complexity and large scale of dining halls required a degree of standardization by the CCC. Camps 1, 2, 3, and 4 featured the same basic dining hall plan, adapted to the number of camp users and site conditions via different footings, porch arrangements, entrances, extensions, and materiality.

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

The exterior of the building was sided with vertical and horizontal waney boards and featured a large exterior brick chimney on one end of the dining room. Previously constructed Camp 1 featured a fieldstone chimney, though brick was used for all subsequent camps likely as a means of saving time and cost (Moss 2011: 48-49). Generally, the dining hall sections of the building were lined with wood, with double/single-hung windows in a six-over-six configurations grouped by structural bays. In most cases, the sashes of dining room windows were designed to “drop” into the walls to maximize ventilation. The service wing of the building featured higher, clerestory-type windows, several doors, and a loading dock.

Administration Building

Administration buildings, also referred to as camp offices, served as the first point of contact for arriving campers. The buildings contained the camp director's office, a desk area for a clerk, and a canteen for campers to buy supplies. Administration buildings for Camps 1-3 used the same plan, developed first at Camp 1 and later published in Good's Park and Recreation Structures. These buildings were one-story, wood-frame, cross-gable edifices set on piers. The entrance to each building was in a recessed entry porch. At Camp 1, workers constructed the porch floor and stairs of the administration building using stone and log supports. Standardized designs for Camp 2 and 3 eliminated the stone in favor of wooden decking and stairs and eliminated the logs in favor of timbers. Despite these efficiencies that distinguish the administration buildings for Camps 1-3, the buildings were clad with similar vertical and horizontal waney board siding and featured six-over-six windows (Moss 2011: 48).

Garage

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

Storage Buildings

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

The storage buildings constructed by the CCC were consistent in design. These are one-story, three-bay, side-gable, wood-frame buildings set on piers and accessed via wooden ramps. They feature central double doors flanked by six-light, single-sash, wooden windows. The building is clad with vertical, board-and-batten, waney-edge board except for horizontal waney-edge louvered vents in the gable ends. Storage buildings of this design were constructed at Cabin Camp 2, as well as Camps 1, 3, and 4.

Water Tower

Water towers were an essential part of the water system at the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, providing drinking water to each camp unit and potable water to other buildings such as the washhouses, dining halls, and infirmaries. Water towers were constructed initially at Camp 2 and Camps 1, 3, and 5, however the original plans omitted one at Camp 4. This standard design featured a 40'-high wood-stave, 5,000-gallon water tank set atop a wooden platform with railings, supported by a four-legged iron tower set into concrete footings.

Playing Field

Playing fields were essential elements to the camp environment, including at Cabin Camp 2, serving as gathering points for large groups of campers and affording space for recreational activities that could not be facilitated in forested environments. Prior to the opening of the camps, most playing fields were already established clearings, with several serving as the locations of CCC camps or former homesteads. Most playing fields required further leveling by the CCC. Several were planted with dense groupings of vegetation along the edges to prevent balls from penetrating deep into the forest. During the period of significance, most playing fields were outfitted with wooden and chain-link backstops for ballgames. Other improvements included the addition of plank and masonry seating and pipe exercise equipment.

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

Infirmary

Infirmaries, together with dining halls, were among the most essential buildings to camp life, including at Cabin Camp 2. Within these facilities, camp medical staff tended to sick campers, isolated contagious ones, and lived. Many of the camp infirmaries were likely designed in partnership with the groups that used them; these frequently included social agencies that focused on youth health and wellness. Paid and volunteer staff offered medical services to campers and their families, offering healthcare that may not have been accessible closer to home for campers.

Camp planning manuals, including those by Good, Waugh, and Meinecke, did not codify any formal guidance with respect to the design of infirmaries. However, when comparing building plans, most infirmaries appear to have been located at the periphery of camp cores, near the dining hall. By locating the infirmaries on the periphery of the camp core, planners almost certainly sought to afford a quiet setting for campers to convalesce, while also ensuring that the infirmary remained visible and accessible within the camp core. Proximity to the dining hall allowed for easy access to meals without forcing sick campers to travel very far.

The infirmary at Camp 2 (whose design was later repeated and modified at Camps 4 and 5) took the programs of the Camp 1 infirmary and arranged them into a cruciform plan. Like its predecessor at Camp 1, the Camp 2 building featured a one-story, wood-frame structure and was set upon masonry piers. However, it departed from the Camp 1 plan by employing hipped and gable wood-shake roofs, and it used dimensional lumber in lieu of rustic logs. The exterior of the building was clad in horizontal waney board siding. As built, the Camp 2 infirmary (and later, the infirmaries at Camps 4 and 5) featured bi-lateral symmetry. The central entry was recessed under a frame porch

that was flanked by two six-over-six double- and single-hung wooden windows. Secondary entrances, likely added so that sick campers did not mix, were located to each side of the main entrance. Adjacent to these secondary entrances were six-over-six double/single-hung wooden windows. The building also featured a central interior brick chimney that vented the utility room.

“Help” Quarters, Cook Quarters, and “Help” Bathhouses

“Help” quarters historically housed Black camp employees, including kitchen workers, custodians, and other individuals that were not otherwise classified as “staff” in the Jim Crow South. Official camp “staff,” who were historically white workers, were housed in separate staff quarters according to policies of racial segregation during this period. As historian Erin Devlin points out in her historic resource study, in historically white camps such as Camps 2 and 3, help quarters were located far from the central camp core and camp units. In historically Black camps, such as Camps 1 and 4, help quarters were located adjacent to the places of work, such as the dining halls or infirmaries. In white camps, such as Camp 3, the help quarters building was paired with a corresponding bathhouse or provided their own bathroom facilities according to racial segregation. Conversely, in Camps 1 and 4, which historically served Black campers, residents of the help quarters did not have their own facilities; instead, they would share the camp’s facilities (Devlin 2022: 276-281).

According to these policies of segregation, the help quarters and associated bathhouses/latrines varied widely according to each camp’s racial designation. The most standard design was first built at Cabin Camp 2 and replicated at Camps 3 and 4. This design consisted of a one-story, three-bay, cross-gable, cross-plan, wood-frame building set upon masonry or concrete piers. In plan, this model featured three bedrooms arranged around a central entrance and recessed porch flanked by two windows. This plan could accommodate six workers. The wings to the side of the entrance massing each featured three windows, while the rear of the building featured one to two windows, depending on if there was a bathroom facility, such as the one in Camp 2. All quarters were clad with waney board wooden siding and wooden shakes (Devlin 2022: 276-281).

Staff Quarters and Host House

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

The first staff quarters were constructed at Camps 1 and 2 in time for the 1937 camping season. The designs of the staff quarters were so successful that they were used in an early draft of Albert Good’s book, *A Portfolio of Buildings for Organized Camps*, issued to the National Park Service in 1937. Good featured the Camp 2 staff quarters as a model building to be emulated at other RDA projects. The design for staff quarters at Camp 2 was again featured in Good’s *Park and Recreation Structures*, Volume III (1938) as a particularly successful example. Later staff quarters added to the camp in 1938 also followed this design.

Campfire Circle

The campfire circle was an essential element of the organized group camp plan. Historically known as the “council ring,” the campfire circle referenced the purportedly Indigenous gathering traditions popularized by Ernest Thompson Seton, wilderness writer and founder of an early Scouting group called the Woodcraft Indians. Seton’s “council ring” design included a “chief’s seat” and concentric log seating surrounding a central campfire. According to Seton and other camp designers of the 1920s and early 1930s, the campfire circle served a ceremonial purpose in camp life, with the council circles placed in the camp’s outlying natural or wilderness areas. Camp staff would use the site for programming, including contemplative moments that conveyed the value of the natural landscape to youth. To do so, staff often performed ceremonies that abstracted imagined elements of Indigenous cultures (Van Slyck 2006: 203-213).

The association of campfire circles with Indigenous cultures declined in the postwar period; however, the campfire circle itself remained an important part of camp life. Camp planning publications by other social agencies, including the YMCA, called campfire circles “an attractive setting for special ceremonial programs at camp.” In his 1938 book, Albert Good deemphasized any associations to Indigenous groups and encouraged his designers to select “surroundings that suggest...the glories of Nature unmodified” (Quoted in Van Slyck 2006: 208). Good noted the

natural aspect of a campfire circle design, stating that it should be located with a distant view as a backdrop. Rock outcroppings or other natural elements, such as a topographic bowl, could serve as a backdrop when such a view was impossible. The whole setting should be surrounded by trees to create a sense of seclusion and to prevent any acoustic interference from the camp landscape beyond (Good 1938C 171-172).

At Camp 2, designers sited the campfire circle in a particularly attractive glade that featured a natural bowl topography and a small stream. Throughout Chopawamsic, RDA designers chose half-rounded log seating and arranged it in three concentric rings around a central campfire and chief seat. The assembly was tiered, with the last row placed highest on the hillside, similar to an amphitheater. Each log was set on a log support secured with a metal bar. Camper seats consisted of 12" logs, counselor seats 18", and the chief's seat 24".

Within each campfire circle, RDA designers carefully sited the "chief's seat" in relation to landscape features. This included carefully preserving mature trees and shrubs as a backdrop for the activities within the campfire circle. At Camp 2, the backdrop also included topographical and natural features.

In 1952, park staff replaced the rotting wooden seating with dimensional planks and concrete posts. According to the National Register nomination for the park, these planks and some footings were replaced again in the 1990s (Khun and Bedell 2011: 7-18).

Central Bathhouse (Washhouse) (Building IDs: X-95)

Camp 2 was the first to feature a central washhouse, constructed in 1936 (Leach 1989: 7-11). Unlike the other camp buildings, the bathhouses and latrines were built over solid concrete foundations, due to the large amount of water used in the building.

Unit Lodges

According to Albert Good, the unit lodge served as "the rallying point of a camp unit," reasoning that it held a "recreational, social, educational, and cultural purpose." Unit lodges were the "common living room or clubroom" for the campers of each unit (Good 1938C: 143).

Typically, lodges within the Chopawamsic cabin camps employed two similar designs constructed by the CCC in the late 1930s. Both designs consisted of a one-story rectangular wood-frame structure, sided with vertical or horizontal waney boards. Each lodge rested on fieldstone foundations or piers. Generally, each lodge featured massive exterior gable-end stone or brick chimneys and numerous casement windows. The buildings were typically colored with creosote or a similar dark stain and roofed with wooden shakes (Moss 2011: 47).

The Type A lodge plan, used at Cabin Camp 2, featured attached outdoor kitchen pavilions and full front or side porches where campers could enjoy the outdoors even in rainy conditions. However, lodges constructed in the later years of the CCC's involvement tended to be much simpler in construction, seldom featuring porches or outdoor kitchens.

Most unit lodges were altered by the OSS between 1942 and 1943. This included the winterization of lodges, with the addition of wood stoves and drop ceilings, and/or the enclosure of foundations with insulation and boards. The OSS also repurposed many of the lodges into classrooms during its tenure at the camps. (These changes were subsequently reversed after the OSS' departure).

Unit Latrines

Unit latrines were another important feature of each unit within the organized group camp; they were also the buildings most likely to change, due to evolving hygiene standards and modernization.

The most common unit latrine plan (Type A, historically referred to as the "single latrine") was constructed by the CCC in nearly all the cabin camps. Type A latrines consisted of a single-story, four-bay wood-frame structure set atop a poured concrete slab. Entrances to the latrine varied based on topography, but were generally placed off-center, giving the building an asymmetrical appearance and maximizing interior floor space. Privacy was achieved using a band of louvered

clerestory windows on all sides. The interior of the buildings featured several toilets and sinks served by a central utility space. (Laundry and showers were housed in the camp core in the central shower building.) A smaller version of the Type A latrine was installed at the Cabin Camp 2 ballfield, after the CCC camp left. During the OSS and later periods, many of the sink areas, originally open-air, were infilled with rough sawn wooden siding, contrasting with the original waney siding.

Cabins

Camper cabins were originally designed with three variants (Types A, B, and C), all of which housed four campers each. RDA designers based cabin designs at all camps on these variants, but modified their roof lines, porches, and other features based on the buildings' site conditions. In the earlier camps, the array of cabin types provided variety and interest to camp units; different cabin types also worked better according to certain camp conditions. However, over time, the CCC streamlined and expedited its efforts, resulting in standardized cabin designs, or cabins with little to no Rustic-style architectural ornament.

SIDE-GABLE CABIN (TYPE A)

Type A cabins were one-story, side-gable wood-frame buildings set on pier foundations. The roofs consisted of single or dual pitches, and covered both the cabin and a full-length porch. The front facades were generally symmetrical, featuring a central entrance flanked by windows. Rear and side facades featured three to five windows. Window openings were covered with top-hinged wooden shutters. Type A cabins were clad in horizontal "waney" board siding that was punctuated with vertical boards along cabin edges. All wood was treated with creosote. Roofing originally consisted of wooden shakes and was replaced with asphalt shingles and then with synthetic alternatives beginning in 2012. Generally, these cabins slept 4 campers or 2 counselors. This cabin type was built in all units at Cabin Camp 2.

END-GABLE OR HIPPED-ROOF CABIN (TYPE B)

Type B cabins were one-story, hipped-roof or end-gable wood-frame buildings set on pier foundations. The roofs extended beyond the cabins and covered the porches. The narrow facades were symmetrical, featuring a central entrance flanked by small windows. Each long side featured three or four windows operated by top-hinged shutters. Type B cabins were clad in horizontal "waney" board siding that was punctuated with vertical boards along cabin edges. All wood was treated with creosote. These cabins could accommodate 4 campers.

The CCC built Type B cabins in Camp 2 Units C and D. In Camp 2, these cabins featured a hipped roof. In later versions of cabin type B, the hipped roof was exchanged for an end-gable, a decision made likely to simplify construction. Both variations of type B are present in Cabin Camp 2.

SIDE-GABLE CABIN, ATTACHED PORCH OR NO PORCH (TYPE C)

Type C cabins were one-story, side-gable, wood-frame buildings set on piers. They featured side-gable roofs, like Type A cabins; however, unlike their counterparts, these cabins featured only small, uncovered attached porches, or in most cases, no porches at all. The front facades were generally symmetrical, featuring a central entrance flanked by small windows. The rear and side facades featured three to five windows. Window openings were covered with top-hinged wooden shutters.

Type C cabins were clad in horizontal "waney" board siding that was punctuated with vertical boards along cabin edges. All wood was treated with creosote. Roofing originally consisted of wooden shakes, which were replaced in later decades with asphalt or other materials. Generally, these cabins slept 4 campers. This cabin type was built in Cabin Camp 2 Unit A.

MISSION 66 SIDE-GABLE CABINS (TYPE E)

Mission 66 added a new, economized cabin type to each unit in Cabin Camp 2. Type E cabins were side-gable, single bay wood-frame structures set on poured concrete foundations. The primary facade featured a central door, but, most notably, only featured two small clerestory windows flanking it. The shorter sides also only featured one small clerestory window. Each was clad with horizontal dimensional siding and asphalt shingles. Type E cabins did not feature porches. Type E cabins are a contributing cabin type.

Note: There are no type D, F, or G cabins at Cabin Camp 2

Existing Conditions:

Dining Hall

Cabin Camp 2 retains its dining hall, an essential and central part of camp life. The dining hall at Cabin Camp 2 remains little changed from the CCC-era of construction. Considering the wider lens of all cabin camps, the dining halls convey the varied periods of development across the camps. The Cabin Camp 2 dining hall is a contributing feature of the cultural landscape.

Administration Building

Cabin Camp 2 retains its CCC-era administration building, which remains largely unchanged from the period of significance and retains its CCC design. Limited changes are largely due to deterioration, and the administration building retains integrity and is a contributing feature of the camp landscape.

Garage

At an unknown date, the exterior siding on the garage's main volume was replaced with vertical board-and-batten siding, and the three bays were enclosed with a central barn door. The park also constructed a shed addition on the side opposite the CCC-era tool shed; this addition features vertical waney siding and a door. Such reversible changes do not detract from the integrity of this feature. The Cabin Camp 2 garage contributes to the character of the landscape.

Storage Buildings

Cabin Camp 2 retains its CCC-era storage building. Entrance ramps and stairs to this building have changed over time, but the building itself remains little altered from the period of significance. The Cabin Camp 2 storage building contributes to the camp's cultural landscape.

Water Tower

Cabin Camp 2 retains its historic water tower. The Cabin Camp 2 water tower, along the those at Camps 1 and 5, were restored in 2006 by the Historic Preservation Training Center (HPTC). The Cabin Camp 2 water tower is a contributing feature of the cultural landscape.

Playing Field

Cabin Camp 2 retains its playing field, which has remained clearly legible as such. The playing field is a contributing feature of the cultural landscape.

Infirmery

Cabin Camp 2 retains its historic infirmery, which was an important building for all camps. The NPS made careful preservation efforts after the period of significance that do not detract from the building's integrity. The infirmery is a contributing feature of the cultural landscape.

"Help" Quarters, Cook Quarters, and "Help" Bathhouse

The Cabin Camp 2 purpose-built help quarters and help latrines remain extant and contribute to its cultural landscape. After the period of significance, many of these quarters were converted to additional staff quarters.

Staff Quarters and Host House

Cabin Camp 2 retains its original staff quarters, and they are contributing features.

Campfire Circle

Cabin Camp 2 retains its historic campfire circle as well as the historic setting as a backdrop, including topographic features and mature trees. There are no historic log benches in the campfire circle; all within the park feature the plank seating and masonry supports first introduced in the 1950s. The campfire circle is considered a contributing element of the cultural landscape.

Central Bathhouse (Washhouse)

Cabin Camp 2 retains its original central bathhouse, and it is a contributing feature.

Unit Lodges

Cabin Camp 2 retains the original unit lodges, and all have been restored to their condition prior to OSS-era alterations. The unit lodges are considered contributing features.

Unit Latrines

Cabin Camp 2 retains all of its historic latrines, and the latrines remain unchanged from the period of significance. Though some of the latrines in the park are altered, this does not apply to Cabin Camp 2. All latrines in Cabin Camp 2 are contributing features.

Cabins

All cabins in Cabin Camp 2 remain little changed from the period of significance. No significant alterations were made, and all cabins remain in their historic setting. All are considered contributing features to the Cabin Camp 2 cultural landscape.

Analysis:

Cabin Camp 2 retains nearly all buildings and structures dating to the period of significance. The camp retains buildings and structures dating to its initial construction under the CCC, buildings and structures modified during World War II, and those built as part of the Mission 66. Most buildings and structures at the camp have undergone rehabilitation since the 1990s, largely maintaining their historic conditions. Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to buildings and structures.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Unit-A Lodge Bldg A12	206803	Contributing	005254		Location	15732	Yes
Unit-B Lodge Bldg B12	206804	Contributing	005265		Location	15743	Yes
Unit-C Lodge Bldg C12	206805	Contributing	005276		Location	15756	Yes
Unit-D Lodge Bldg D12	206806	Contributing	005287		Location	15803	Yes
Unit-A Latrine Bldg A10	206807	Contributing	005252		Location	15730	Yes
Unit-B Comfort Station Bldg B10	206808	Contributing	005264		Location	15742	Yes
Unit-C Comfort Station Bldg C10	206809	Contributing	005274		Location	15754	Yes
Unit-D Comfort Station Bldg D10	206810	Contributing	005285		Location	15801	Yes
Ballfield Latrine Bldg 75	206811	Contributing	005295		Location	111582	Yes
Cabins (All Cabins included: 36 Total)	206812	Contributing					No
Dining Hall and Kitchen Bldg 60	206813	Contributing	005291		Location	15695	Yes
Administration Building Bldg 50	206814	Contributing	005288		Location	15712	Yes
Infirmary Bldg 70	206815	Contributing	005294		Location	15711	Yes
Staff Quarters Bldg 65	206816	Contributing	005292		Location	32043	Yes
Staff Quarters Bldg 65-A	206817	Contributing			Location	32049	Yes
Staff Quarters (Camp Host) Bldg 85	206818	Contributing	005297		Location	32047	Yes
Central Craft Lodge Bldg 55	206819	Contributing	005290		Location	15694	Yes
Campfire Circle	206820	Contributing			Asset	1183647	No
Garage/Storage Bldg 90	206821	Contributing	005298		Location	32038	Yes
Storage Bldg 90A	206822	Contributing	005299		Location	32040	Yes
Central Bathhouse Bldg 95	206823	Contributing	005300		Location	15693	Yes
Water Tower	206824	Contributing			Asset	485599	Yes
Playing Field	206825	Contributing			Location	15692	Yes
Tack House Bldg 81	206826	Contributing	005296		Location	15696	Yes

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:

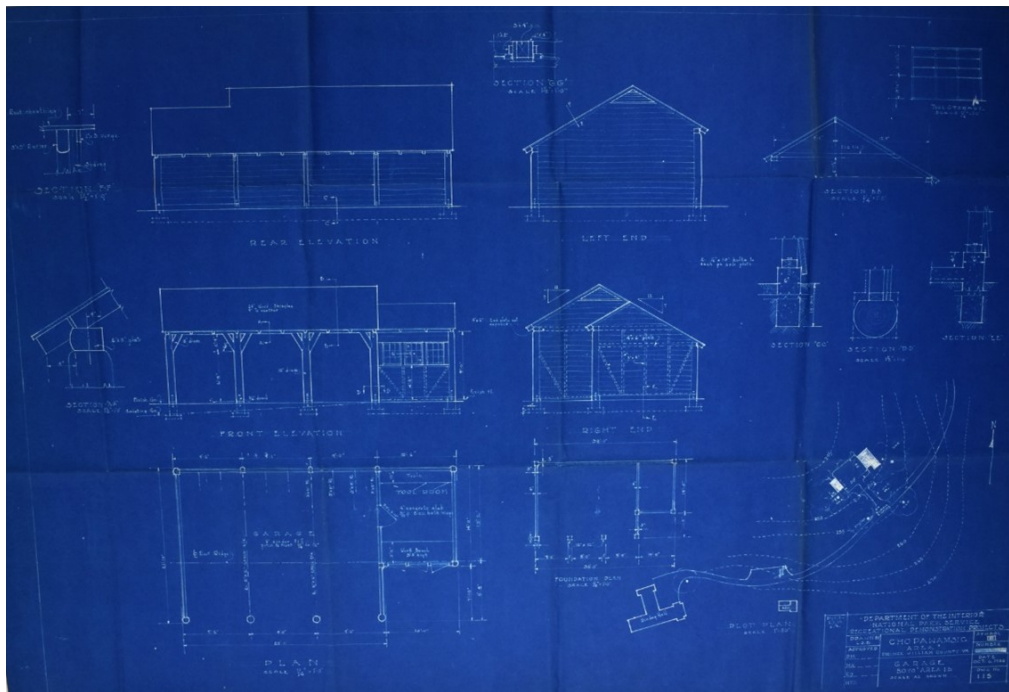


Figure 28: Plan for the garage building constructed at Cabin Camp 2. (PRWI Collections 3422)



Figure 29: This blueprint was for the typical help quarters which were built at Camp 2, 3, and 4. At Camp 2, this plan was modified to include a bathroom for Black workers as no facilities were available to them at the white camp (PRWI Collections 2717).

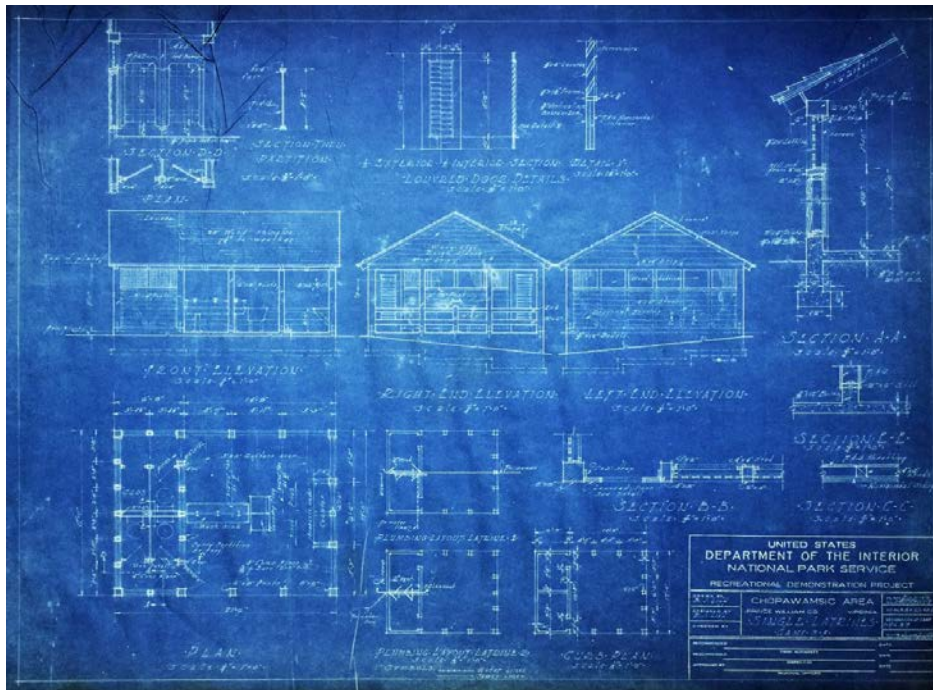


Figure 30: The most common type of unit latrines at the camp was the single latrine, referred to as the Type A latrine in this CLI. (PRWI Collections 5427)

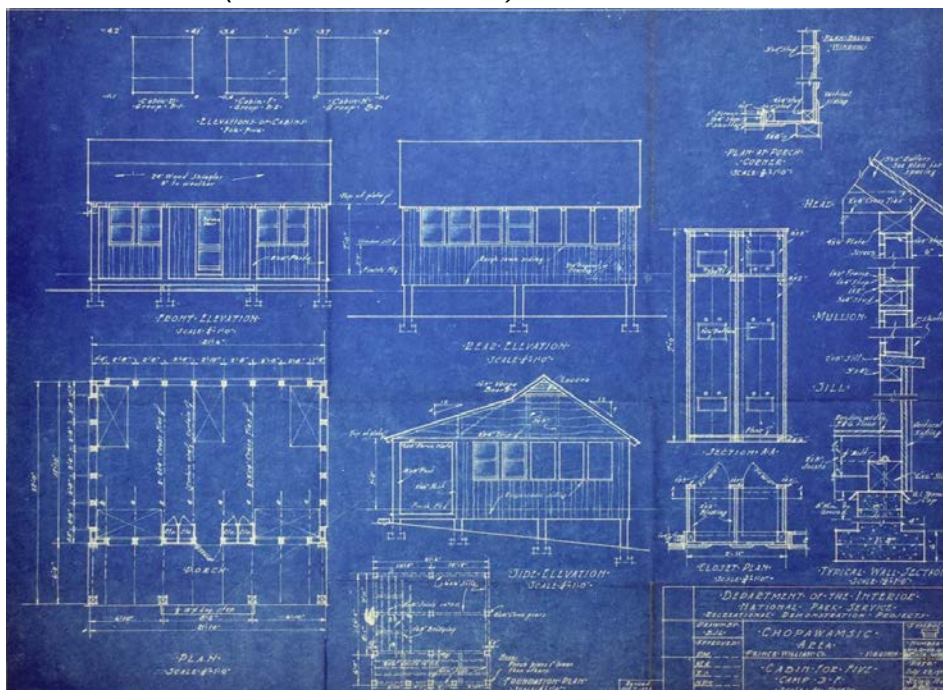


Figure 31: Type A cabins, historically referred to as "Cabins for 5," are the most common cabin type at the cabin camps. (PRWI 3402)

Cabin Camp 2 (Mawavi)
Prince William Forest Park



Figure 32: Type B cabins, such as these in Camp 2, are elongated in plan, featuring end-gables or hipped roofs (UPenn 2023).

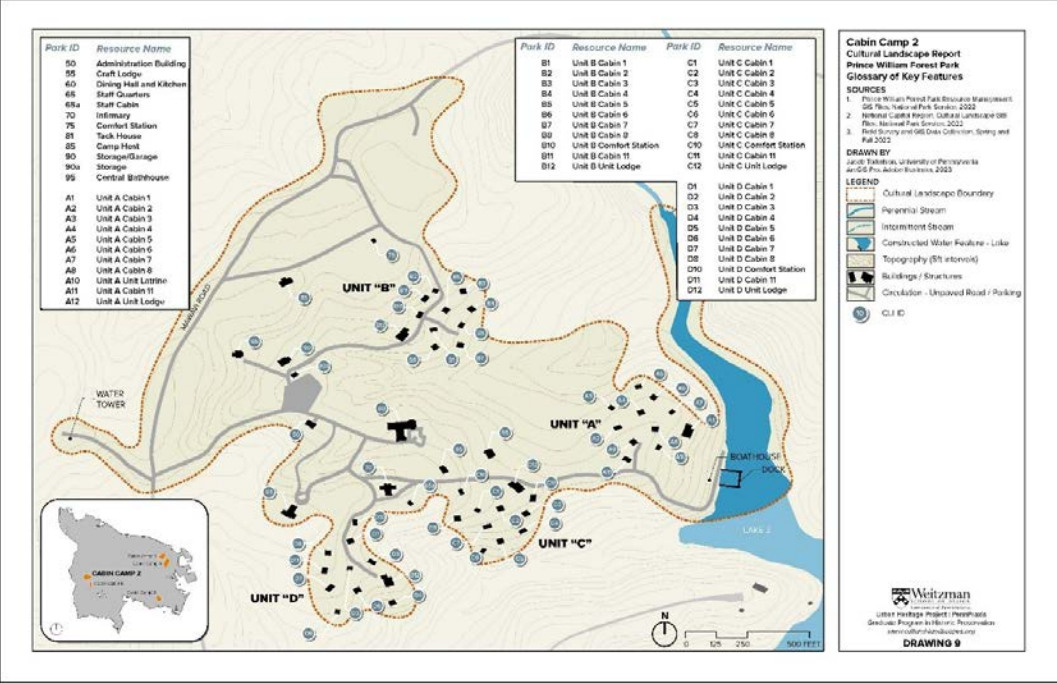


Figure 33. Existing conditions site plan showing the buildings and structures associated with Cabin Camp 2 (UPenn, 2023)

Landscape Characteristic: Cluster Arrangement

Cluster Arrangement

Cluster arrangement is the locations and patterns of buildings, structures, and associated features in the landscape.

Historic Condition:

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

Cluster arrangements at the five camps varied historically, but always consisted of the same component features. Each camp was organized into clusters, with two to six clusters per camp. For example, Cabin Camp 2 features Units A, B, C, and D and the central core—five clusters in total. Each cluster was dependent on the topography, which in turn determined how the buildings and structures were oriented and how far apart they were from one another.

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

In the central core at Cabin Camp 2, the cluster includes the camp office, dining hall, a central bathhouse, infirmary, staff quarters, craft lodge, and storage buildings. Other typical buildings and structures include water towers, nurseries, and “help” quarters. These facilities were organized around the dining hall/kitchen, with the other buildings divided into smaller clusters. Often, staff and help quarters were placed near the dining hall and administration building for ease of access. However, they were typically placed at a slight remove from the other buildings in their cluster, in order to preserve campers’ privacy when they visited those buildings. Recent research by Devlin hypothesizes that the location of camp help quarters away from campers was a direct consequence of segregated park planning efforts.

The administration building and infirmary were frequently located near the parking lot to facilitate their respective functions and access near the camp entrance. In the case of Cabin Camp 2, the administration building is located adjacent to the parking lot and the infirmary is slightly removed. Similarly, storage buildings, garages, and utilities (such as water towers) were located away from campers in service clusters, directly off the main camp entrance roads or spurs. Craft lodges were located between camp units, where they would be easily accessible to campers.

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

The OSS made limited changes to the cluster arrangement within the camps; most alterations made during this era were subsequently removed during the period of significance. Most changes to camp cluster arrangements in the later years of the period of significance were minor. Such changes occurred under Mission 66 and its related campaigns. The addition of camper cabins at each unit in Cabin Camp 2 is one such change.

Existing Conditions:

The existing cluster arrangement of Cabin Camp 2 is nearly identical to the camp’s arrangement by the end of the period of significance. This reflects the addition and removal of buildings and structures during World War II, as well subsequent minor additions, or the relocation of buildings

and structures within the camp during the later decades of the period of significance. Some other Chopawamsic camps have had more significant alterations to the cluster arrangement, however Cabin Camp 2 remains in its historic configuration.

Analysis:

Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to its cluster arrangement. No changes made to the cluster arrangement detract from the camp's historic integrity.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Primary arrangement of the cabin camp in units, centered around a core of shared camp buildings	206827	Contributing					No
Core cluster organized around the dining hall/kitchen	206828	Contributing					No
Secondary arrangement of unit clusters, centered around the unit lodge and latrines/washhouses	206829	Contributing					No
Outlying arrangement of playing field and swimming area	206830	Contributing					No

Landscape Characteristic: Views and Vistas

Views and Vistas

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

Historic Condition:

The views and vistas of Cabin Camp 2 are largely dependent on the conditions of existing natural features like the topography, and surrounding vegetation, as well as the built features. During periods of timbering and agriculture in the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries, the cabin camp was likely less forested and may have featured views across the landscape in numerous directions. As the landscape regenerated from industrial thinning and agricultural clearing in the 20th century, the recovering vegetation altered and limited these views.

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

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

The scenery can also be made additionally attractive if it is presented by themes or motives arranged in ‘paragraphs.’...View after view, picture after picture, will be shown at the most effective points. It is desirable that these views should present considerable diversity....If good recognizable motives, as explained above, can be developed, paragraph by paragraph, the total effect is likely to be enhanced (Waugh 1937: 8-13).

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

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

The preservation of natural features such as boulders, trees, or logs created landscape rooms that fashioned a varied experience throughout the camp. This design logic held that new features, such as buildings or roads, should be sited with these natural features in mind and indeed, should contribute to and not detract from existing landscape rooms. Early master plans for Cabin Camps 1-5 note the specific location of existing trees and rocks, indicating that park planners were conscious of creating views and vistas while placing new built features (Waugh 1937: 8-13; Meinecke 1934: 20).

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

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

At the cabin camps, this may have included partial views of both forks of Quantico Creek, as well as the lakes. However, Good discouraged cultivated vistas of swimming areas for safety reasons, arguing that such vistas might encourage campers to wander off to the water’s edge, unsupervised (Good 1938C: 112-113). Similarly, the entrance sequence vistas along each camp road were framed initially by maturing trees flanking the circulation features. In keeping with the principles of landscape gardening, the addition of intentional gentle curves in the road served to reveal vistas of buildings and structures such as the administration buildings or dining halls. The central camp roads jogged around existing trees and directed views between units and the camp core. Similarly, vegetation on the edges of the units was likely actively feathered into a gradient, creating a backdrop for each unit, and integrating the camps into the surrounding forest environment. Camp circulation sequences thus featured carefully choreographed views and vistas.

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

Existing Conditions:

Cabin Camp 2 was designed with views and vistas in mind; it was carefully sited to take advantage of natural, cultivated, and constructed features within the landscape. This includes carefully framed views along camp circulation features, as well as screened views into and out of the camp. Trees along roads and paths frame views to other features, which serve as focal points and destinations. The strategic retention of vegetation was also a designed element of Cabin Camp 2 that allows for views to and from various buildings and structures in the camp. Landscape features such as mature trees, rock outcroppings, or topographic features continue to be the subject of internal views. Open spaces, such as grassy areas outside the dining hall or swimming area, afford sweeping views of other camp features.

Cabin Camp 2 features utility corridors that introduce views along linear routes extending outside of the camp. These views and vistas, while added by the OSS during the period of significance, distract from the naturalistic design intent of the cabin camp. Utility corridors should not be considered contributing features of the camp landscape.

Analysis:

Cabin Camp 2 continues to take advantage of views to and from features within the landscape, as created by RDA designers. As vegetation grows or is lost, the designed views of the camp continue to evolve. Careful vegetation management will preserve the cabin camp's significant historic views and vistas. Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to this landscape feature.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Clear sightlines between buildings and structures in individual units	206831	Contributing					No
Views along circulation features framed by character-defining vegetation	206832	Contributing					No
Reciprocal views between all buildings and structures within camp units and within the camp core	206833	Contributing					No
Screened views at the edges of each camp, limiting views into and out of each camp	206834	Contributing					No
Views along utility corridors	206835	Noncontributing					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:



Figure 34: RDA designers screened views to and from water features to preserve internal views of camp units and discourage campers from swimming unsupervised. View of Lake 2 at Cabin Camp 2 (UPenn 2023).

Landscape Characteristic: Constructed Water Features

Constructed Water Features

Constructed water features are built features and elements that utilize water for aesthetic or utilitarian functions in the landscape.

Historic Condition:

There were no constructed water features in the cabin camps prior to the period of significance. Rather, the NPS designed and the CCC and Army Corps of Engineers built artificial swimming lakes at each cabin camp along the Quantico Creek. Such features were an essential part of the camp experience. In the summer months, when heat was high, camp water features provided safe and supervised places for youth to learn to swim, cool off, and play with other campers (Good 1937C: 112-113, 118).

Such an opportunity was less available to most campers from urban areas, where community pools and beaches were limited in number. The construction of artificial lakes at the Chopawamsic cabin camps afforded Black youth the opportunity to swim, albeit within a segregated landscape (much like many of the pools in the cities where they lived). Refer to the discussion on natural systems and features for more on the separation of swimming areas and watersheds by race (Devlin 2022: 261-262).

The development of RDA swimming areas generally occurred under two building campaigns. There are discrepancies from previous research as to the exact date dam construction began within the surrounding landscapes. The first campaign, led by the CCC, began in 1935, and concluded in the early 1940s, with the gradual phasing out of camping uses in favor of the war effort. The second

building campaign happened from 1945 to 1949, under the supervision of the Army Corps of Engineers (Moss 2011: 65-66).

Between 1935 and 1938, the CCC constructed artificial lakes for Camps 1, 2, 3, and 5. In 1936, the CCC constructed an engineered concrete dam that served Cabin Camp 2. Unlike the earthen dams at other camps, this dam created a much larger, northward-flowing lake that would later be shared by Camps 2 and 5 when the latter camp was completed. The resultant Lake 2/Lake 5 opened in 1937 and served white campers, following the NPS policy shift that designated Camps 1 and 4 as segregated areas for Black campers (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 13-15; Kuhn and Bedell 2011: 7-17).

All lakes were closed to the public and organized groups during the tenure of the OSS at the camps. Around 1942, Lake 2/5 was temporarily used for simulated aquatic invasions, a practice that was discontinued in the later years of the agency's use of the camps (Kuhn and Grosbeck 2014: 18).

Mission 66 saw the repair of several dams across the park. Lake conditions were apparently declining in the mid-to-late 1950s, as most returning camp user groups lobbied the NPS to construct permanent pool facilities to improve swimming conditions. The NPS incorporated such plans for all camps into its Mission 66 prospectus for the National Capital Area, but only one swimming pool was ever built— at Camp 4—due to a lack of funding.

Throughout the period of significance, all lakes also featured wooden L-shaped or H-shaped docks, in addition to any dams. Such dock designs created separate areas for swimmers of different skills, and sheltered swimmers from boaters who were using the outlying areas of the lakes. These docks were replaced with floating metal docks, first in the 1980s and later in the mid-to-late 2000s.

Existing Conditions:

Cabin Camp 2 shares a lake with Camp 5, and the dam that created this lake is retained but was constructed adjacent to Camp 5. Lake 2/5 was created during the period of significance and has been retained. However, silting and vegetation have rendered several of the lakes unusable for swimming and boating. Lakes 2/5 retain their concrete bottom wading and swimming areas. The non-historic floating metal docks, first added in the 1980s and later replaced in the mid-to-late 2000s, remain in place.

Analysis:

The design of the lakes and dams, including their materiality and shape, remains consistent with the period of significance. The dams have been repaired over time and are maintained as historic resources. Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity of its constructed water features.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Lake 2/5 (Portion within the CLI boundary)	206836	Contributing					No
Dock	206837	Noncontributing – Compatible					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:



Figure 35: Circa 1936, this photo shows two CCC workers posing with the concrete dam that established Lake 2/5 (PRWI Collections 12257).



Figure 36: This historic concrete dam (CRIS-HS# 997876), built by the CCC, services the lake for Cabin Camp 2 (it is sited outside the Cabin Camp 2 CLI boundary adjacent to Cabin Camp 5) (UPenn 2023).

Landscape Characteristic: Small Scale Features

Small-Scale Features

Small-scale features are elements that provide detail and diversity for both functional needs and aesthetic concerns in the landscape.

Historic Condition:

Drinking Fountains

Drinking fountains have been an essential element of camp design since the RDA's construction. Once the CCC established a clean, efficient water system, including water towers and utility lines, workers built drinking fountains. These were located within each unit and the camp core, often near the dining hall. The original drinking fountains installed within the camps consisted of hollowed-out, peeled logs decorated with wrought-iron strapping. These were set into concrete footings and surrounded by a raised masonry base. Each log was plumbed with a stainless-steel basin and bubbler at the top and featured a spigot on the side sited over a French drain.

The first recorded drinking fountain replacements occurred concurrent with the Army Corps of Engineers and Mission 66 improvements to the camps in the late 1940s and early 1950s. Over time, as original and replacement drinking fountains ceased to work, new models—typically with accessible designs and made of steel or aggregate concrete—have been installed. Many of the new model installations occurred around 2005, when the park switched to the Prince William County municipal water supply.

Flagpoles

Flagpoles are an important part of camp life, serving a largely ceremonial purpose. Flag-raising ceremonies mark the start and end of each day while the camps are in use, and the flagpoles mark the gathering place for campers to congregate before meals in the dining hall.

The original flagpoles used at the cabin camps were simply log poles equipped with a halyard that was used to raise the flag. They were placed primarily at dining halls and administration buildings within the cabin camps, but were also located at some camp units, swimming area beaches, and playing fields. Flagpoles in camp units allowed campers to display unit flags, while flagpoles at beaches and playing fields frequently signaled to campers if that facility was open. Over time, the wooden flagpoles have been replaced with metal alternatives that departed from the rustic wooden design. This change was necessary as a result of deterioration to the wooden flagpoles, though they remain in their original location (Kuhn and Bedell 2011: 7-18).

Furniture

Designs for camp furniture comprised 30 pages of Albert Good's foundational publication, *Buildings and Structures*, indicating its integral role in camp design and life. At Chopawamsic RDA, the CCC constructed the benches and tables at all camps. Although no plans were located to indicate the exact design of these features, historic photos indicate that they resembled the extant wooden furniture inside and outside of camp buildings. Typical benches consisted of a low plank seat that was supported by two vertical ends and horizontal bracing. Typical tables featured a square tabletop and X-shaped bracing connected with mortise-and-tenon joinery.

Historic photographs from the 1930s and 1940s do not show picnic tables within camps; rather, interior and porch furnishings, such as tables and benches, were brought out onto lawns within camp units or outside of other buildings. Evidence from Camp 3 shows campers brought dining hall benches outside for a weekly chapel service (PRWI Collections Various). Note that Cabin Camp 3 was the only cabin camp to feature individual firepits originally; the other four camps, including Cabin Camp 2, only featured firepits at the campfire circles.

Signage

Albert Good and Frank Waugh dedicated considerable space in their publications to the subject of

signage within rustic cabin camp landscapes (Waugh 1934: 48-49; Good 1938A: 3956). Taken in sum, their guidance recommended good landscape design over signage; a well-designed landscape would provide the necessary guidance without the need for a sign. Instead, the landscape's views and vistas, close cluster arrangements, and intelligently designed roads could obviate the need for signs. However, both men conceded the need for limited directional, regulatory, and interpretive signage. Such signs should be simple in construction, employing native materials.

Few photos exist to indicate the design of signs at the cabin camps during the period of significance, with the exception of the main sign for the Chopawamsic RDA entrance. One photo, featured in a 1952 brochure published by the Family and Child Services of Washington, offers some insight into the Rustic-style design of early camp signs. This sign featured routed white letters and arrows and was mounted on a wooden post with its bark removed. Such a design followed the guidance issued by Good and Waugh. It is likely that individual camp user groups also constructed or designed their own signage, but documentation of this is limited.

A standardized sign program was implemented circa 1959, as part of the Mission 66 program. Blueprints from this era feature similarly rustic signs, but with modern, standardized reinterpretations. These signs generally use dimensional lumber instead of logs, and are consistent in sizing, lettering, and construction. Camp entrance signs featured L-shaped supports and hanging directional panels. Within camp units, signs featured trapezoidal planks or slabs with routed letters. The angled edges offered a period-appropriate Modernist take on the Rustic Style of the 1930s and 1940s (PRWI 1959).

Gates, Fencing, Bollards, and other Barriers

Obstacles and barriers have historically served an important role within camps, serving to divide vehicular spaces from pedestrian ones. Design guidance for these features was first codified by Meinecke, who recommended using obstacles sparingly. He emphasized that all obstacles should be made of native materials and should be placed naturalistically (never in linear arrangements). Meinecke's guidance was codified by the US Forest Service (USFS) in 1935, in the publication *Public Camp Manual*. This manual served as a source for Albert Good and the National Park Service's own "Barriers, Walls, and Fences," section of *Park Structures and Park Facilities* (1935) and *Park and Recreation Structures* (1938). The USFS included several illustrations of proper barrier uses. Describing a policy on barriers, the USFS wrote:

Rocks, logs, ditches, or other more artificial barriers may be employed, but all of them detract to a certain extent from the appearance of the camp. Promiscuous use of rocks in some camps is especially reprehensible. Obstacles should never be used except where they are absolutely necessary to confine the automobile to the roads or spurs [emphasis in original]. Even then, their use should be kept to an absolute minimum. The man "on the job" must exercise judgment in determining the amount and type of obstacle material to use. Native local materials should be used whenever possible. Rocks are entirely out of place in some camps, especially on a dense timbered flat where obstacles (if any) should be preferably of logs, with only an occasional rock. In other words, the camp planner should regard obstacles as detrimental, and avoid them whenever possible. As a general rule, we should regard rock obstacles in any quantity as the least desirable type and use them only where other types are not available or even less suitable. In many cases it will be highly desirable to resort to the planting of trees and shrubs where they may serve as obstacle material later on (USFS 1935: 4-5, 13-15).

Such complex guidance, however, was not easily applied by laypersons, and it was not codified in CCC training manuals. At Chopawamsic, CCC workers followed RDA guidance and installed gates at camp entrances and at the start of the truck trails, near dining halls and other road spurs. Such barriers prevented vehicle access to the pedestrian-oriented camp areas. Gates consisted of wooden timbers and featured both single-swing and double-swing arms. This construction was visible in the backgrounds of the OSS' propaganda films, produced during World War II (PRWI 1959).

Some evidence of other rustic barriers can be seen in camp photographs. These include intentionally placed boulders, log posts, and horizontal log barriers. In most cases, as wooden

elements rotted away, they were replaced with more durable alternatives, including concrete bollards that remain in place today.

Existing Conditions:

Drinking Fountains

Cabin Camp 2 features recent models of drinking fountains (typically with accessible designs) made of steel or aggregate concrete. These non-historic models have been placed in similar locations as the historic models, such as within camp units, or adjacent to the dining hall or swimming areas. Drinking fountains contribute to the camp setting, but the non-historic alternatives detract from the rustic camp setting.

Flagpoles

Extant flagpoles are located at the Cabin Camp 2 hall and playing field. The flagpoles have been replaced with metal versions, but retain their historic locations. Despite the changes in material, these flagpoles contribute to the rustic character of the cabin camp.

Furniture

Many examples of historic furnishings remain in camp buildings and structures. These include the benches with plank seats, vertical ends, and horizontal bracing, and the tables with a square tabletop and X-shaped bracing. Some extant benches and tables may date to the period of significance, while others were likely in-kind replacements. These are contributing features to the historic character of the camp landscape.

Other permanent benches are located adjacent to swimming areas and playing fields. Originally, such benches would have been similar to campfire circle seating and consisted of logs or logs with plank seating. However, these extant benches feature plank seating mounted on concrete or masonry piers. The materiality of these piers is consistent with similar piers used underneath buildings and structures installed by the OSS and Mission 66 workers. Such features may be considered contributing, if confirmed by further research. However, the planks of these benches were almost certainly replaced over time. Moreover, the concrete character of the piers is not in keeping with the original rustic design intent of the camps, although it is consistent with the changing design principles associated with Mission 66.

All other furnishings were added after the period of significance. Picnic tables have been added over time to several camps. Most tables are metal or plastic and are not compatible with the rustic aesthetic. However, there are some wooden picnic tables that, while not present during the period of significance, are consistent with the historic Rustic-style character of the cabin camp landscapes. All fire pits and grills at Cabin Camp 2 are non-contributing features.

Signage

In the decades after the period of significance, camp managers continued to add and replace signs. These included the addition of non-historic metal traffic signs and interpretive waysides.

Today, the cabin camps, including Cabin Camp 2, feature a variety of both Rustic-style and non-rustic signs. Most signs consist of brown painted or stained wood with routed white lettering. The lettering on Rustic-style signs utilizes a font style called "Bryce Canyon" (see Figure 41). However, the current collection of signs is not cohesive, and features many different styles, manners of construction, and fonts. Signage features that are not historic but nevertheless adhere to the camp rustic historic character can be considered non-contributing but compatible elements. Unsympathetic regulatory metal signage and poorly located interpretive waysides detract from the rustic camp scene and are non-contributing and incompatible.

Gates, Fencing, Bollards, and other Barriers

There is no cohesive strategy of barriers within Cabin Camp 2 today. Contributing barriers are limited to the rustic camp gates, which have been continually replaced in-kind since the period of significance. Other barriers appear to have been installed on an as-needed basis in the decades after the period of significance. These non-contributing barriers do not adhere to the historic design

guidance issued by Meinecke and others. Non-contributing barriers include concrete bollards, dimensional lumber bollards, post-and-chain gates, boulders that are not sympathetically placed within the landscapes, and metal pipes or poles.

Analysis:

Small-scale features have been replaced as needed in Cabin Camp 2 during the decades since the period of significance. In most cases, historic small-scale features have been replaced in-kind and/or in the same locations as their predecessors. These contributing and non-contributing (but compatible) features include signage, gates, drinking fountains, furniture, and flagpoles.

Other small-scale features, such as fire hydrants, modern bollards, utilities, interpretive waysides, and firepits/grills, are generally necessary to camp operations, yet their contemporary designs and/or locations are non-contributing and incompatible. Across the camps, these features detract from the collective integrity of feeling and setting conveyed by the majority of the other landscape characteristics. However, these non-contributing features do not dominate the landscape, or detract from the overall integrity of small-scale features at Cabin Camp 2.

Overall, the extant small-scale features (including in-kind replacements) convey the design intent with respect to this landscape characteristic. As a result, Cabin Camp 2 retains integrity with respect to small-scale features.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Flagpoles (including locations) (count 2)	206838	Contributing					No
CCC/WPA-era wooden furniture inside and outside cabins (e.g. tables and benches)	206839	Contributing					No
Rustic wooden signage (including replacements in-kind)	206840	Contributing					No
Gates (including replacements in-kind)	206841	Noncontributing – Compatible					No
Drinking Fountains	206842	Noncontributing					No
Metal or plastic picnic tables	206843	Noncontributing					No
Metal chairs and tables inside and outside cabins	206844	Noncontributing					No
Firepits/Grills	206845	Noncontributing					No
Fences	206846	Noncontributing					No
Bollards and other modern barriers	206847	Noncontributing – Incompatible					No
Metal and plastic signage	206848	Noncontributing – Incompatible					No

Landscape Characteristic Graphics:



Figure 37: The original camp flagpoles were log poles equipped with halyards. Pictured is the flagpole at Camp 3 (PRWI Collections 1078).



Figure 38: Flagpole near the playing field (Mary Washington 2018).

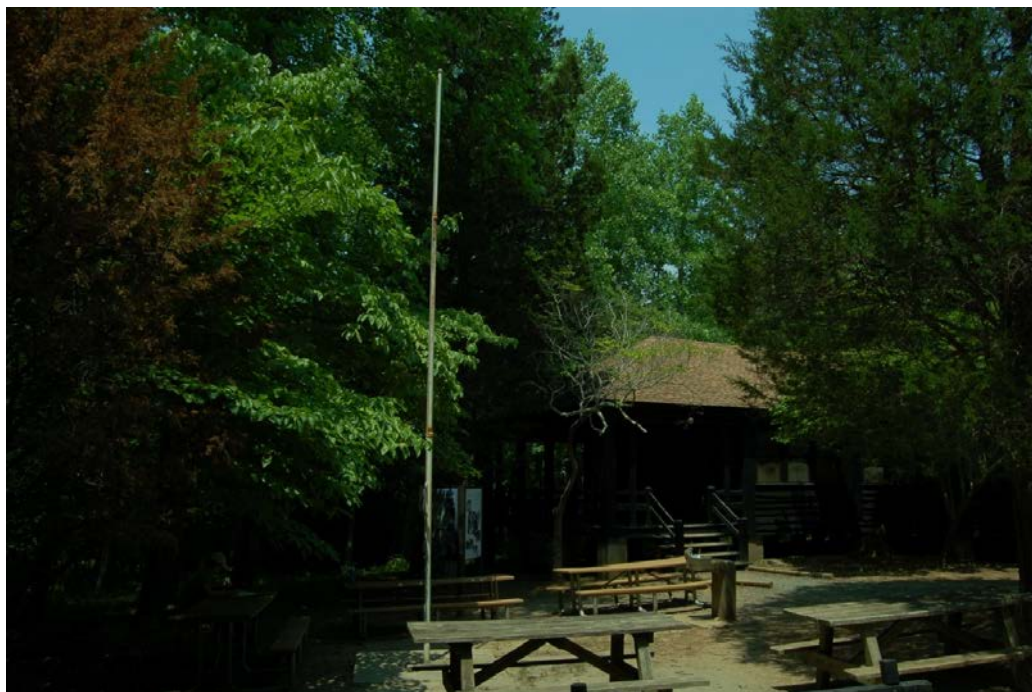


Figure 39: Flagpole near the Dining Hall and Kitchen (Mary Washington 2018).



Figure 40: This Mission 66-era sign at an unknown camp employed the historic aesthetics of Rustic-style design, but featured angled edges and was constructed using dimensional lumber (PRWI Collections 2226).



Figure 41: Rustic-style camp sign (typ.) (Mary Washington 2018).



Figure 42: Typical cabin furniture. Tables and benches of similar style have been used within the camps since they opened to the public. They are contributing features to the camp scene. (UPenn 2023).

Landscape Characteristic: Archeological Sites

Archeological Sites

Archeological sites are the locations of ruins, traces, or deposited artifacts in the landscape and are evidenced by the presence of either surface or subsurface features.

Historic Condition:

The Louis Berger Group, Inc. conducted archeological investigations of Prince William Forest Park between 1999 and 2004. Their two-volume report identifies dozens of archeological sites throughout the park, including many adjacent to the cabin camps. These sites generally relate to prehistoric occupation by Indigenous peoples; 18th to 20th century agriculture and homesteading; and 19th and 20th century extractive industries. For more on the history of archeological sites within the study area, refer to that two-volume report (Bedell 2004A; Bedell 2004B).

Remnants of two cemeteries associated with pre-park sites are located in the vicinity of Cabin Camp 2. Both cemeteries were associated with pre-park families whose homesteads were located within the future park boundaries; the cemeteries are the only extant features associated with those homesteads (Bedell 2004B: 107, 126). These cemeteries date to the mid-19th century; they are referred to as the Carney Family Cemetery and the “ballfield cemetery.” The Carney Family were the landowners; however, those buried there were likely tenant farmers. The so-called “ballfield cemetery” is named based on its proximity to the Cabin Camp 2 playing field.

Existing Conditions:

The cemeteries are obscured by successional vegetation, fallen trees, and leaf detritus. These sites are largely indiscernible to the public and were not inventoried during fieldwork for the CLR that informed this CLI. To date, the park has not undertaken any archaeological investigations of the CCC camp areas. Future documentation should consider these sites for inclusion as contributing archaeological resources.

Analysis:

Identified archeological sites—related to the study area’s history of pre-park settlement—have likely remained relatively undisturbed since the creation of the cabin camps in the 1930s. As a result, these archeological sites likely retain integrity to their respective eras, prior to the construction of the organized group camps, though no investigations were done as part of this report. However, identified archeological sites pre-date the period of significance for Cabin Camp 2 and are therefore non-contributing features as they are outside the cultural landscape’s period of significance. The cemetery sites are individually managed as cultural resources by the park.

Landscape Features:

Feature Name	CLI Feature ID	Feature Contribution	CRIS-HS Resource ID	Associated CRIS-AR ID	FMSS Record Type	FMSS Record Number	FMSS Exact Match
Cemeteries	206849	Noncontributing - Managed as a Cultural Resource	005348				No

Condition

Assessment Interval (Years): 6
Next Assessment Due Date: 06/26/2031

Condition Assessment and Impacts

Condition Assessment: Fair
Assessment Date: 06/26/2025

Condition Assessment Explanatory Narrative:

The overall condition of Cabin Camp 2 has been determined to be fair. This condition determination was made because, while much of the overall historic features remain and convey integrity, there is clear evidence of minor disturbances and deterioration by natural and human forces. Corrective action is needed throughout Cabin Camp 2 to prevent further deterioration and degradation of the cultural landscape's features.

The primary area of concern for the overall condition of Cabin Camp 2 is related to the continued erosion around the foundations of camp buildings, and the loss or degradation of planned vegetation altering the camp's intended setting. Though major structural issues have not been identified, the impact of erosion could lead to damage to or loss of integral historic features in the future. Additionally, the forested setting of Cabin Camp 2 is an important feature of this cultural landscape, which has over time been altered due to successional growth and neglect of vegetation features. Corrective action could be taken to mitigate the loss of this setting and restore the ecosystem to approximate its historic condition more closely.

Impacts

Type of Impact: Deferred Maintenance

Other Impact:

External or Internal: None

Impact Narrative: Typical weathering of building features (such as building siding) persists and has not been replaced or repaired as needed.

Date Identified: 01/01/2023

Type of Impact: Erosion

Other Impact:

External or Internal: External

Impact Narrative: Erosion around the cabins has resulted in increased exposure of the foundation piers and has damaged the footpaths that are used to navigate the Cabin Camp. Erosion has also caused siltation up against building foundations, leading to accelerated decay of sill beams and the bottom strips of siding.

Date Identified: 01/01/2023

Type of Impact: Erosion

Other Impact:

External or Internal: External

Impact Narrative: Erosion over time has caused siltation to build up within the lake. This has resulted in shallowing and altering the lake shores, leaving the lake unusable in its intended way.

Date Identified: 01/01/2023

Type of Impact: Pests/Diseases

Other Impact:

External or Internal: External

Impact Narrative: White-tailed deer are present within the cultural landscape and deer browsing is noted to slow or prevent forest regeneration. This has been identified as a condition issue within the Cabin Camp 2 landscape, where a forest setting is integral to the historic design.

Date Identified: 01/01/2023

Type of Impact: Vegetation/Invasive Plants

Other Impact:

External or Internal: None

Impact Narrative: Some of the CCC planted ornamental trees and general landscape have declined in health and need rehabilitation.

Date Identified: 01/01/2023

Type of Impact: Vegetation/Invasive Plants

Other Impact:

External or Internal: External

Impact Narrative: Non-native invasive vegetation has encroached on the Cabin Camp 2 landscape and detracts from the landscape's ability to convey historic intent.

Date Identified: 01/01/2023

Type of Impact: Visitation

Other Impact:

External or Internal: External

Impact Narrative: High traffic around the Cabin Camp has resulted in an unintentional widening of the road. This is happening through the unintentional spread of gravel off the road and into natural areas.

Date Identified: 01/01/2023

Treatment

Stabilization Measures

Treatment Documents

Treatment Type:	Rehabilitation
Treatment Completed:	No
Document Type:	Cultural Landscape Report Parts 1 and 2
Document Date:	2023-12-01
Title:	Cabin Camps 1 - 5 Prince William Forest Park Cultural Landscape Report
IRMA Link:	https://irma.nps.gov/DataStore/Reference/Profile/2302459

Narrative:

A Cultural Landscape Report (CLR) was completed for all Cabin Camps in the Prince William Forest Park boundary by the University of Pennsylvania’s PennPraxis Urban Heritage Project (UPenn) in 2023. This report contains comprehensive treatment recommendations that seek to restore and enhance the natural setting around the cabin camp, as well as install preventative measures to prevent building deterioration.

Approved Treatment Costs

Cost Narrative:

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Evening Star	City's Fresh-Air Camps Will Be Open Jul 1	1912	Washington DC: Evening Star	Newspaper	6/13/1912 12:00:00 AM	
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Prince William Forest Park Collections (PRWI Collections)	PRWI 12257		Triangle, VA: Prince William Forest Park	Database or File		
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Supplemental Information:

Supplemental Information Title: PRWI Cabin Camp 2 CLI Park Report, 2025

Supplemental Information Narrative:

<https://irma.nps.gov/DataStore/Reference/Profile/2315816>

Supplemental Information:

Supplemental Information Title: PRWI AGOL Park CRIS Viewer

Supplemental Information Narrative:

<https://experience.arcgis.com/experience/c986ce296d354284af53cce02550e118>

Supplemental Information:

Supplemental Information Title: Enslaved Persons Index from the Farrow Family Farms

Supplemental Information Narrative:

Supplemental Information File:

Farrow Family Enslaved Persons Index

Enslaved Person	Deed Book	Record Number	Enslaver
Bess	TT 1724 10	3285	Abraham Farrow
Bosen	TT 1724 10	3285	Abraham Farrow
Sarah	TT 1767 1-9	17647	Abraham Farrow
Tom	TT 1724 10	3289	Abraham Farrow
Anthony or Antony	PP 1782 H6	11858	William Farrow
Capt [sic]	TT 1724 10	3304	William Farrow
Ester	PP 1782 H6	11859	William Farrow
Frank	TT 1724 10	3305	William Farrow
Jeffery	PP 1782 H6	11861	William Farrow
Joan	PP 1782 H6	11860	William Farrow
Lydda	PP 1782 H6	11854	William Farrow
Maria	PP 1782 H6	11857	William Farrow
Peggy	PP 1782 H6	11856	William Farrow
Sam	PP 1782 H6	11853	William Farrow
Suck	PP 1782 H6	11855	William Farrow
Thomas	PP 1782 H6	11852	William Farrow
Charles	PP 1782 E1	10595	John Farrow
Chatham	PP 1782 E1	10595	John Farrow
Frank	PP 1782 H1	11368	John Farrow
Lucy	PP 1782 H1	11367	John Farrow

An index of enslaved people from Prince William County compiled by Greg Mason for the Bull Run Regional Library in 2014.

Supplemental Information:

Supplemental Information Title: Enslaved Persons Index from the Calvert Family Farm

Supplemental Information Narrative:

Supplemental Information File:

Calvert Family Enslaved Persons Index

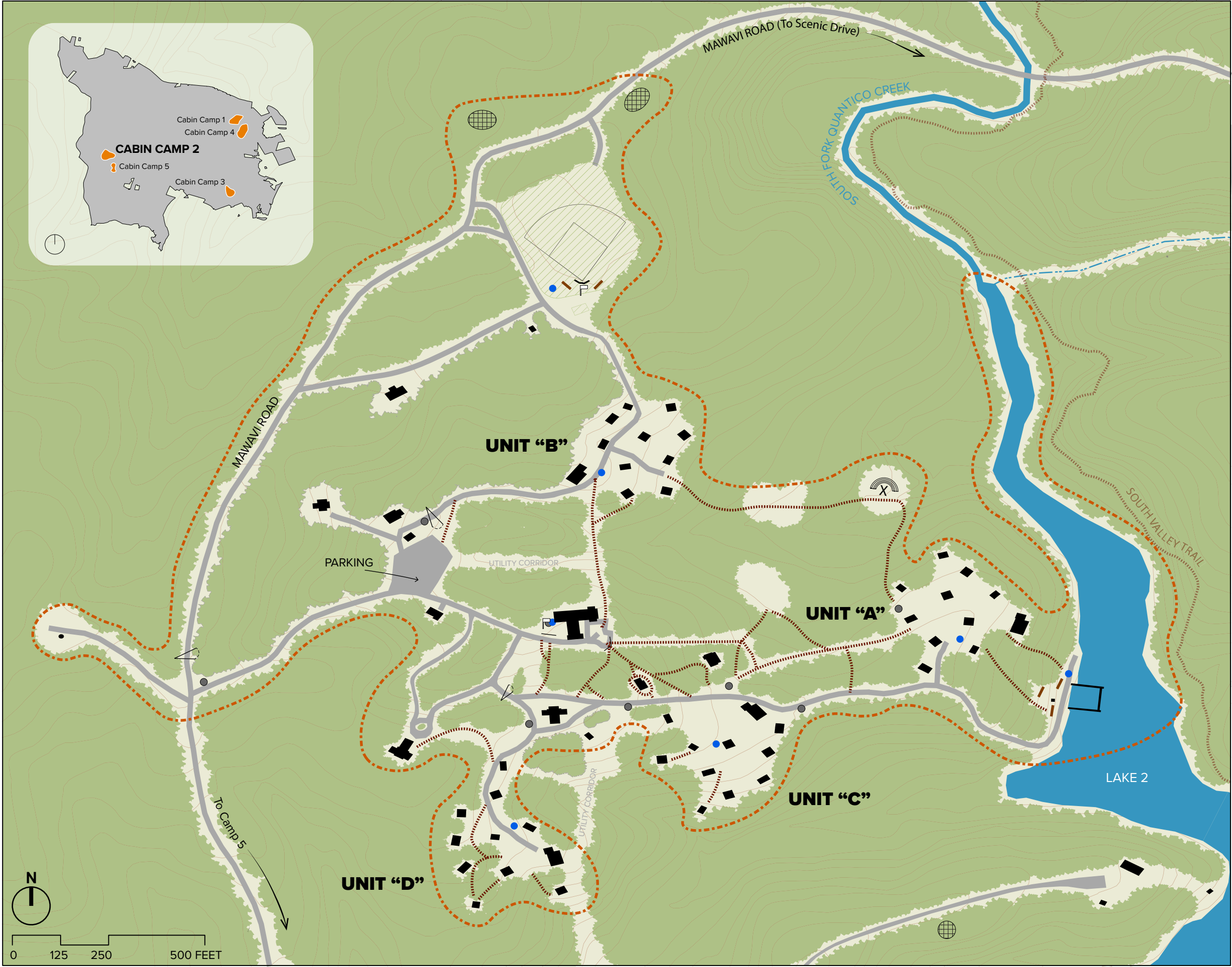
Enslaved Person's Name	Deed Book	Record Number	Enslaver
Cate	TL 1765 T6	1601	George Calvert
Dinah	TL 1765 T6	1602	George Calvert
Duke	TL 1765 T6	1603	George Calvert
Jean	TL 1765 T6	1591	George Calvert
Lucy	TL 1765 T6	1592	George Calvert
Moll	TL 1765 T6	1693	George Calvert
Tom	TL 1765 T6	1604	George Calvert
Will	CR 1761 1-7	17603	George Calvert
Winney	TL 1765 T6	1605	George Calvert

An index of enslaved people from Prince William County compiled by Greg Mason for the Bull Run Regional Library in 2014.

Landscape Documents:

File Name	Date	Attachment Type
PRWI_CabinCamp2_ExistingConditions_2023_12_22.pdf	12/22/2023	Map

Source



Cabin Camp 2
Cultural Landscape Report
Prince William Forest Park
Existing Conditions

SOURCES

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

DRAWN BY

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

LEGEND

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

NOTES

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

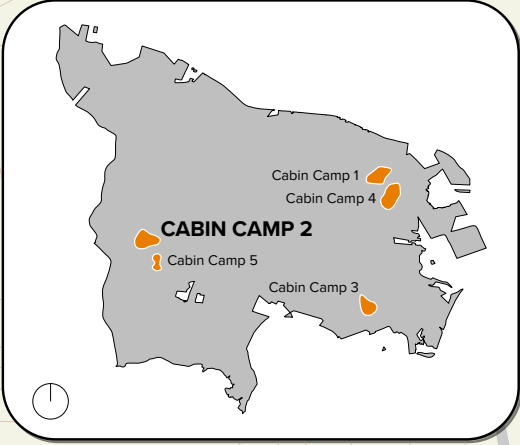
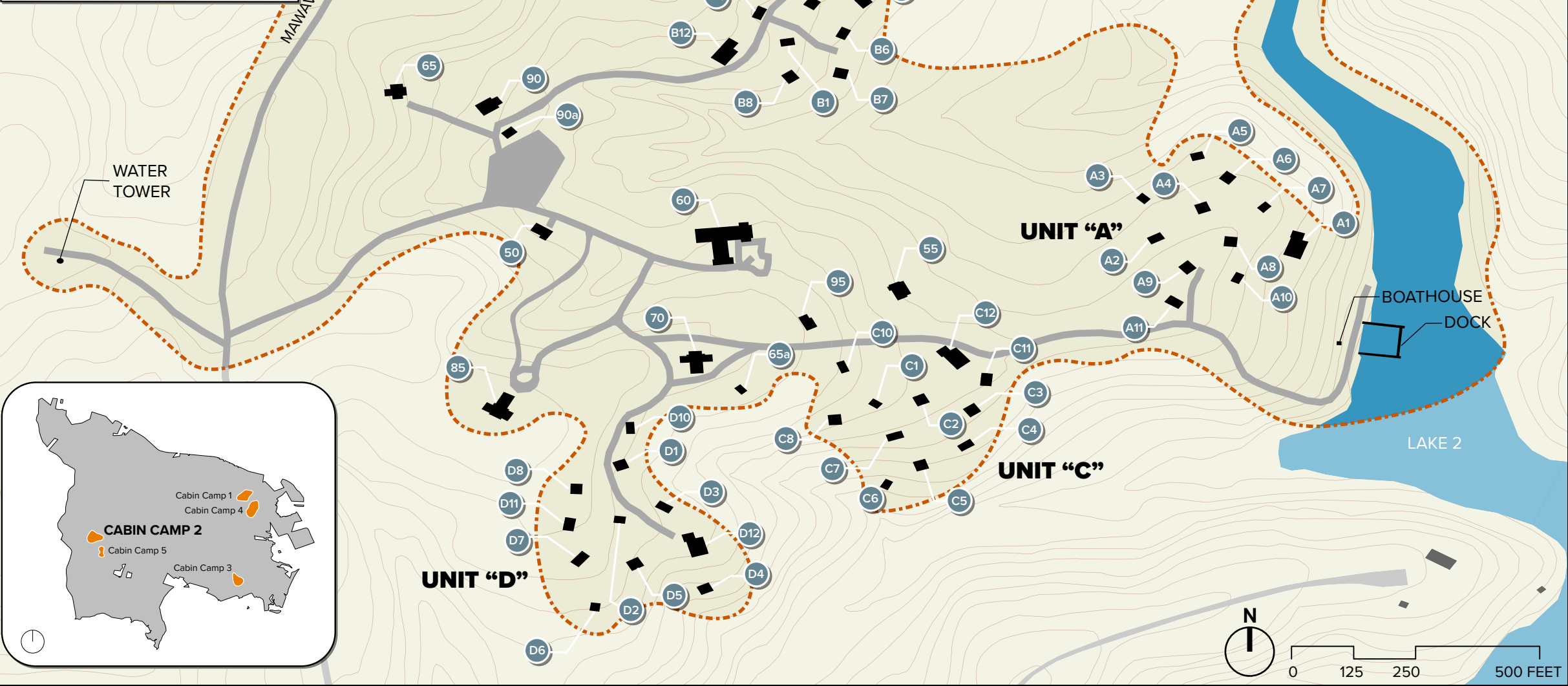


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DRAWING 10

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

Park ID	Resource Name	Park ID	Resource Name
B1	Unit B Cabin 1	C1	Unit C Cabin 1
B2	Unit B Cabin 2	C2	Unit C Cabin 2
B3	Unit B Cabin 3	C3	Unit C Cabin 3
B4	Unit B Cabin 4	C4	Unit C Cabin 4
B5	Unit B Cabin 5	C5	Unit C Cabin 5
B6	Unit B Cabin 6	C6	Unit C Cabin 6
B7	Unit B Cabin 7	C7	Unit C Cabin 7
B8	Unit B Cabin 8	C8	Unit C Cabin 8
B10	Unit B Comfort Station	C10	Unit C Comfort Station
B11	Unit B Cabin 11	C11	Unit C Cabin 11
B12	Unit B Unit Lodge	C12	Unit C Unit Lodge
		D1	Unit D Cabin 1
		D2	Unit D Cabin 2
		D3	Unit D Cabin 3
		D4	Unit D Cabin 4
		D5	Unit D Cabin 5
		D6	Unit D Cabin 6
		D7	Unit D Cabin 7
		D8	Unit D Cabin 8
		D10	Unit D Comfort Station
		D11	Unit D Cabin 11
		D12	Unit D Unit Lodge



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

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

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

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

