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Prehistory and History of the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit: A Cultural Resources Overview.



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CULTURAL RESOURCES OVERVIEW
OF THE
JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING UNIT

Project Director
Julia A. Follansbee

1978

To *Jenny*, one of the last Rogue River Indians, who worked as a domestic servant during her last years in Jackson County. She made her burial robe, which weighed fifty pounds, many years before her death (cover photo).

To *Tabitha Brown*, a single woman, who at the age of 66 came west on the Applegate Trail in 1846. Later, she was one of the principal founders of Pacific University.

To *Ann Haseltine Hill Russell*, pioneer, sculptor, and marble quarry owner. She carved an 1853 Indian battle history on a seven-foot block of granite. It is in the Hill Cemetery near Ashland, marking the grave of Isham Keith.

To *Anna E. Dowell Bannon*, an attorney in Jacksonville and Portland in the late nineteenth century.

To *Regina Dorland Robinson*, talented Jacksonville painter, whose short career met a tragic end just as she began to receive national recognition.

To these and all other women--Black, Indian, Oriental, and white--whose history is unrecorded, this work is dedicated.

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Jeffrey LaLande

George Burrell

Cover photo courtesy of Southern Oregon Historical Society,
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1. Introduction to the Overview

PROJECT LOCATION

The Oregon area encompassed in this Overview is the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit of the Bureau of Land Management. This Unit includes all of Jackson County, part of western Klamath County, and very small portions of southern Douglas County and eastern Josephine County. A general township and range location of the Unit is Township 32 to 41 South, Range 5 West to 7 East. The Unit includes Bureau of Land Management, U.S. Forest Service, O&C lands, U.S. Public Domain land (administered by the Bureau of Land Management), and state, county, and private land. The cities of Medford and Ashland are within the Unit boundaries (Figure 1).

PURPOSE OF THE OVERVIEW

The purpose of this Overview and Data Compilation is to provide the Medford District Office of the Bureau of Land Management with a Class I Cultural Resources Inventory. The Bureau of Land Management is required by federal legislation (Executive Order 11593, the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969, the amended National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, and the Antiquities Act of 1906) to identify, evaluate, and protect prehistoric and historic cultural resources on land it administers. The Bureau must insure that actions it initiates or authorizes on federal and non-federal land do not harm these cultural resources, which are defined as those *fragile and non-renewable evidences of human activity, occupation, and endeavor as reflected in districts, sites, structures, artifacts, objects, ruins, works of art, architecture, and natural features that were of importance in human events.* This Overview and Compilation will provide the Bureau of Land Management with the *background data* it needs for Environmental Analysis Records, Environmental Impact Statements, Unit Resource Analysis, Management Framework Plans, and other projects within the Planning Unit. The Overview provides a review and synthesis of the existing cultural resource information, while the Existing Site Data Compilation is an identification of all known cultural resource sites in the Unit, compiled through a search of formal site records for the area. The Existing Site Data Compilation has been submitted in separate documents.

Methods

Three methods were used to collect the information required for this Overview and Compilation: 1) a search of the literature in the number of state and local libraries and institutions and an examination of the existing formal cultural resource site records; 2) interviews and correspondence with the Medford District Office of the Bureau of Land Management, the Rogue River National Forest, the State Historic Preservation Office, the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology, the Klamath County Museum, the Southern Oregon Historical Society (Jackson County Museum), the Oregon Historical Society in Portland, the Bandon Historical Society Museum, the Lowie Museum at Berkeley, California, the Field Museum in Chicago, Illinois, and a number of individuals knowledgeable about the area; and 3) field research in Klamath Falls, Medford, Ashland, Jacksonville, and Yreka, California, which included a visual reconnaissance of the Planning Unit from I-5, State Highways 62, 66, 227, 238, and 140, and Dead Indian Road and an examination of local library and museum archives and collections.

Notes from literature searches and interviews were taken with Norelco 0095 recorders and transcribed into five notebooks. There were over 240 hours of dictation and approximately 2,000 pages of notes. The research was extremely thorough, using mostly primary sources.

Problems

No major problems were encountered during the research, interviews, or report preparation for the Overview. Minor problems that occurred are discussed in the sections where they are relevant. There was an overwhelming amount of available historical literature, so that in the time framework specified, not everything could be examined. For example, there are so many personal diaries of early Jackson and Klamath County pioneers in the Oregon Historical Society Library in Portland that several weeks could be spent cataloging them. Because the scope of the Overview is general, these specific accounts are more relevant to detailed historical research, and they were used only in a few instances.

Personnel

The six people who worked on this project are Julia A. Follansbee, M.A., archaeologist, contract administrator and editor; Nancy L. Pollock, M.A., historian; Robert K. Sutton, M.A., historian; William Orr, Ph.D., geologist; Mary Duenwald, B.A. (journalism), secretary/editor; and Robin Casey, graphics. All were employed by the cultural resources consulting firm of Julia A. Follansbee, Eugene, Oregon.

Follansbee researched and wrote Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, and 11, and prepared the site maps and archaeology section of the Existing Site Data Compilation. She and Pollock both wrote Chapters 1, 15, and 16.

Pollock researched and wrote Chapters 9, 12, 13, and prepared the historical section and maps of the Existing Site Data Compilation and the historic chronology.

Sutton researched and wrote Chapters 7, 8, and 14, and Orr researched and wrote the environmental background in Chapter 1. Casey prepared the maps in the Overview text. Duenwald transcribed all the notes, typed the draft and final report, and edited the entire Overview.

The contract was awarded on September 16, 1977, and completed on June 16, 1978. The first five months were spent collecting data, and report preparation took the final four months. Two weeks were spent in the field, including trips to the Planning Unit for research and reconnaissance, and to Portland for library and collections research at Portland State University and at the Oregon Historical Society Museum and Library.

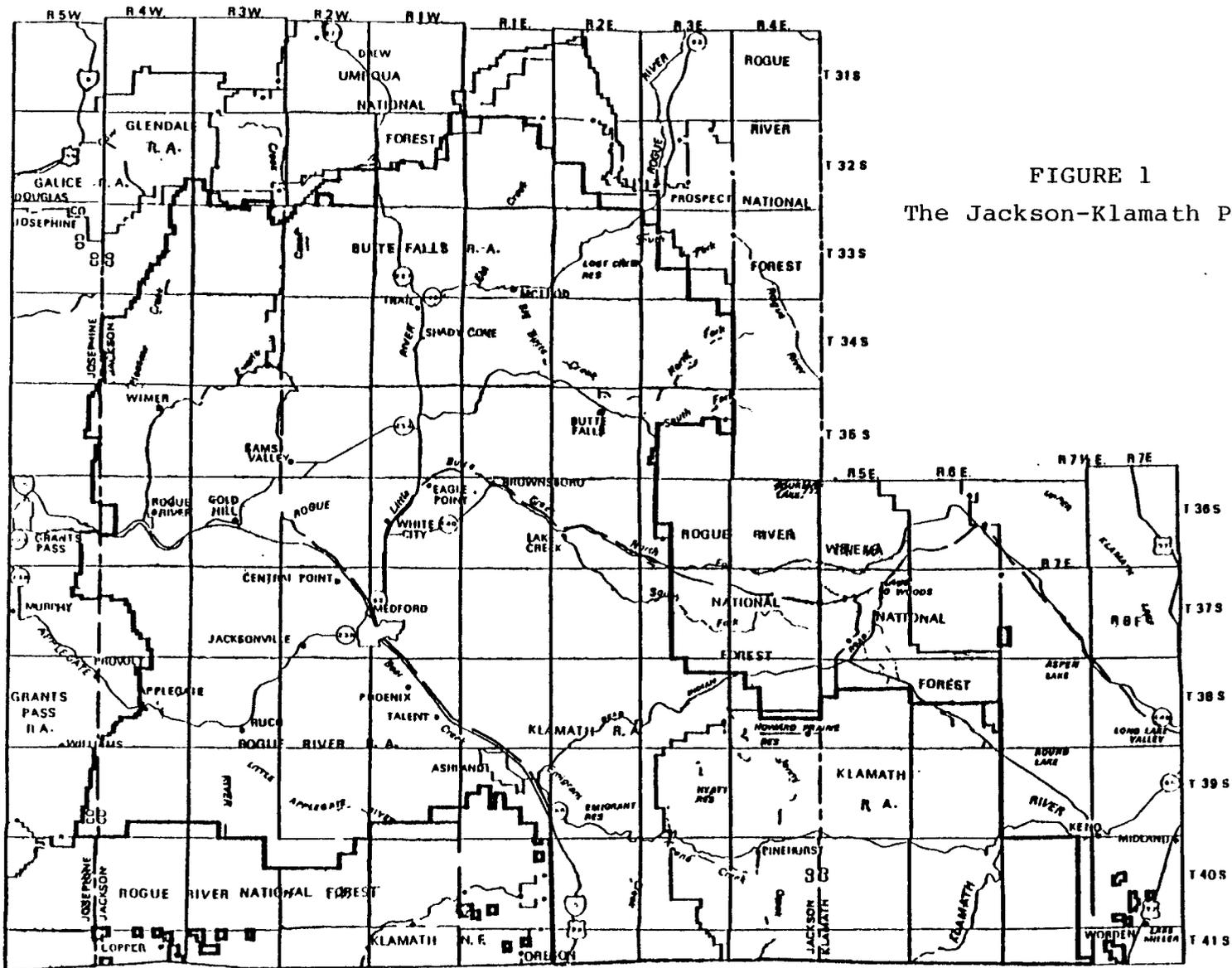
CULTURAL RESOURCE INVESTIGATION AND RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Archaeology: Summary of Past and Current Work and Problems

Archaeological investigations in the Planning Unit are comprehensively discussed in Chapter 6; the purpose of this section is to discuss the context in which that work has occurred. To date none of the investigations has resulted from any type of research design, where data is collected after some testable theories have been formulated. Instead, professional archaeological work in this area has been in response to salvage needs before alteration of the site locations took place. Most of the work was prior to construction of dams on watersheds within Jackson County, like the Lost Creek and Applegate Creek projects.

The reports from these salvage investigations have descriptions of site contents, simple comparisons of artifact types between sites, and attempts to develop a prehistoric chronology for the area. Reasons for changes in artifact types within or between sites have not been addressed, other than ascribing them to changes in style over time. The most difficult and challenging archaeological work which is most likely to reveal a great deal about prehistoric life in the Planning Unit lies ahead.

FIGURE 1
The Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit



JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA

1977

- | | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|---|--|
| ----- | County Boundary | □ | National Forest Service |
| - - - - - | National Forest Boundary | □ | National Resource Lands BLM |
| — · — · — | Master Unit Boundary | ▨ | O&C Lands Administered by Forest Service |
| ————— | Planning Area Boundary | | |

SCALE

MILES 10 5 0 10 20

Current archaeological work in the Unit is largely involved with contract archaeology, where sites are located, evaluated, and if necessary, excavated prior to alteration by a federally funded or federally authorized project. Usually only very small areas of the Unit are involved at any one time with this type of reconnaissance archaeology. Seldom, if ever, is there a specified research orientation in the preliminary stages of contract work, but sites discovered that are of National Register merit are usually assumed to contain data that can be used in research. The ongoing archaeological work in the Applegate Dam Reservoir and the analysis of the Salt Caves material will both provide information that may lead to the formulation of more sophisticated research in southwest Oregon. The Salt Caves analysis is the only dissertation that has been done within the Unit to date.

In the Appendix there is a brief summary of each project which has contributed to the knowledge about the archaeological resources of the area.

Most of the problems in working with archaeological resources in the Unit is that they are difficult to evaluate in terms of National Register criteria, because so little is known about the area despite the amount of work that has been done. This means that each site, regardless of its size or antiquity, is at this point capable of yielding information important to prehistory, which is the single criterion of nominating a site to the National Register (36 CFR 800.10 (4)). It cannot be assumed that even surface sites can be ignored: some in the Planning Unit are very large and can provide useful information on methods of tool manufacture, selection of lithic material for tools, activity areas, and possibly trade. Other sites may contain carbon samples for dating, which are badly needed because so little is known about the chronology of the area. The Gold Hill site has been used as a basis for a relative chronology, but it was excavated in the 1930's using methods that are no longer acceptable. Further, the temporal phases developed by Davis for the Lost and Elk Creek sites are based only on relative dating, and it is not known if these phases occur in other areas of the Planning Unit. There has been no in-depth work on ecological adaptations, cultural relationships, or culture change. It is not known when the area was first inhabited. Until this Overview, there was no synthesis to provide a data base for the area. Further, the sites, which are non-renewable resources, are rapidly being depleted by vandalism and current development of both federal and non-federal land. It is obvious that careful management of this resource will be necessary if the prehistory of this part of Oregon is ever to be understood.

History: Summary of Past and Current Work and Problems

From an examination of the past and present historical research and investigations outlined in the "Cultural Resource Research and Investigation Project Summaries" (Attachment 2, Appendix) it is clear that most of the field work that has been done in the area comprising the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit has been oriented towards quantifying cultural resources. Historic site inventories have been compiled by Alfred Segsworth for the WPA Historical Records Survey during the 1930's and more recently by Marion Ross for the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS); Stephen Dow Beckham for the Statewide Inventory of Historic Sites and Buildings; Lyman Deich for the BLM Historical Antiquities Site Inventory, and Jeffrey LaLande for the Forest Service Cultural Resources Inventory. Each of the inventories is an invaluable research tool, although none of them is a complete survey of the historic sites and buildings of the area. While Beckham's work is the most comprehensive inventory to date, the survey mainly covers the settled areas where large concentrations of known historic buildings are located. The HABS inventory is oriented towards architecturally significant sites, and is therefore not pertinent to the types of historic sites on BLM land. Historic sites on rural or public lands have not yet been sufficiently identified. The Cultural Resources Inventories begun by the BLM and Forest Service are a step in that direction.

Present Research Orientations and Problems

Very little historical investigation with a specific research orientation has been done in the field. Most of the work involved locating historical sites with little or no follow-up evaluation of historical significance or National Register potential. An exception to this is the work of Jeffrey LaLande for the Rogue River National Forest. LaLande has conducted a number of comprehensive investigations of historic mining sites in which he has surveyed and evaluated the sites based on specific criteria of eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places. In at least one case he has developed an historical interpretive program to enhance the cultural resource.

As opposed to prehistoric archaeology, historic archaeology in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit has the advantage of a large body of primary written source material which can be used to verify and/or complement investigation in the field. Orienting historical research towards a synthesis of field investigations and study of recorded primary source material has been lacking in most of the work done. Devere and Helen Helfrich, however, have successfully combined field investigation with research of historical literature in their lifelong work on the Applegate Trail.

Vast numbers of books and articles have been written on the history of southwestern Oregon. Much of the later written histories tend to be repetitive, based on the same few journals and 19th century histories. In many cases the secondary works are anecdotal, rather than based on a specific research design. In some cases, the same inaccurate information has been repeated without question. The literature search conducted by Pollock for this Overview revealed innumerable primary sources which are virtually untapped. The diaries, journals, and letters written by emigrants and early settlers in Jackson and Klamath Counties, now in collections at the Oregon Historical Society, the University of Oregon Library Manuscript Collection, and the Southern Oregon Historical Society at the Jackson County Museum are of particular interest. Using primary data, a few historians are beginning to challenge established assumptions about the motivations behind historical events and about the significance of women and ethnic minority groups to the cultural development of southwestern Oregon. Kay Atwood's *Minorities of Jackson County, Oregon*, written for the Jackson County Intermediate Education District, and Stephen Dow Beckham's two works, *Requiem for a People: The Rogue Indians and the Frontiersmen* and *The Indians of Western Oregon: This Land War Theirs*, are major contributions in this direction.

ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

Seven environmental factors that are important in understanding past and present human use of the Planning Unit are considered here. They are the physiography, geology, soil, climate, water supply, vegetation, and mineral and energy sources.

Unfortunately, no studies could be found dealing with climatic change in southwest Oregon--how much the area was influenced, if at all, by post-Ice Age climatic fluctuations is unknown. So little archaeology has been done in the area that inferences regarding human adaptation to environmental change are premature. However, there is one environmental factor that has been constantly important in the Planning Unit from prehistoric times to the present: water. Archaeological sites are almost always found near it, and it was certainly important historically as various ways to use it were developed. Of all the environmental factors, then, it has been the major determinant of locations of human settlement and use of other resources in the Unit.

Physiography and Geology

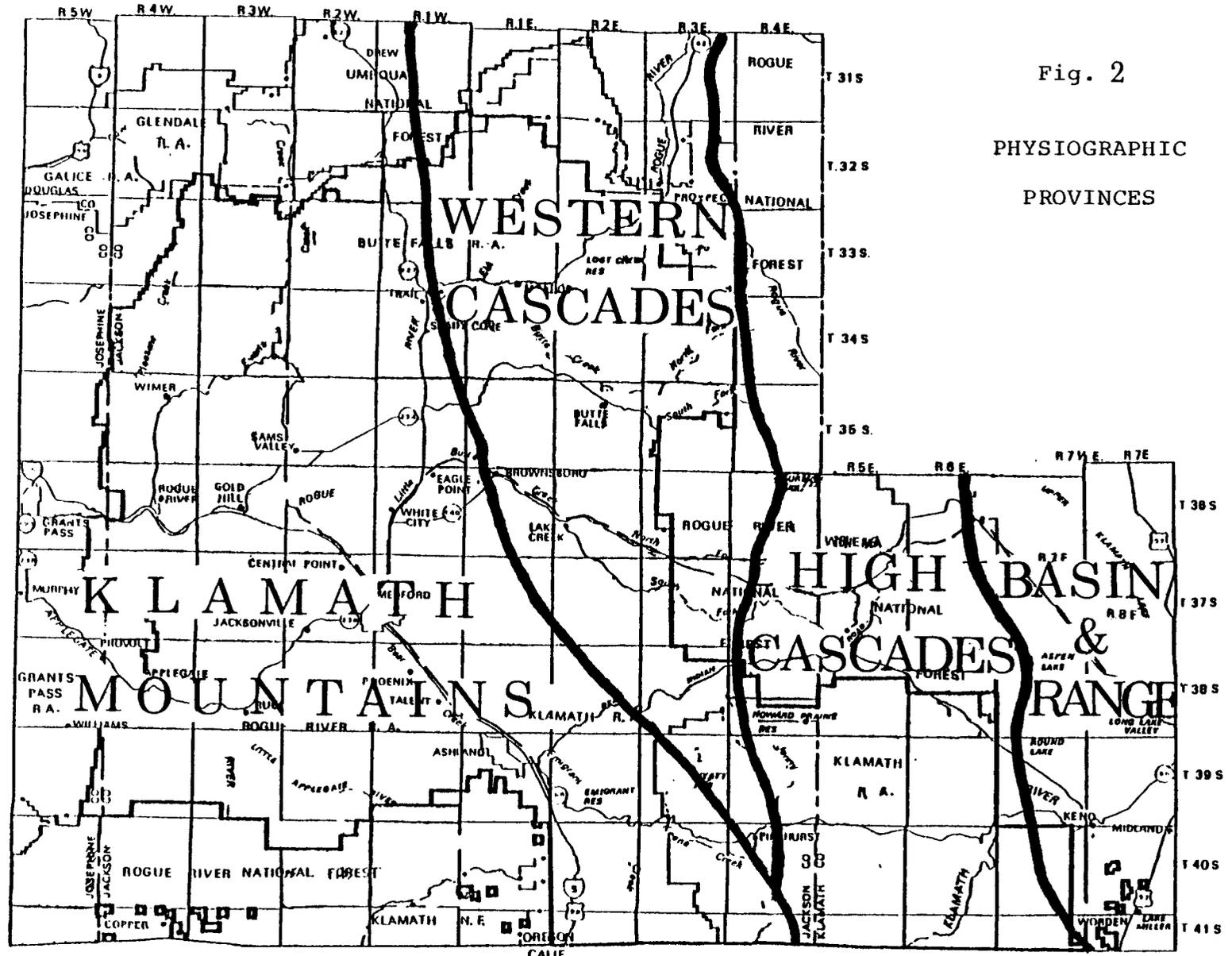
Four physiographic provinces divide the area from west to east: the Klamath Mountains, the Western Cascades, the High Cascades, and the Basin and Range (Figure 2). Much of the western and southwestern portion of the Planning Unit is in the Klamath Mountains. This rugged area of steep slopes and narrow gorges contains some of the oldest rocks in Oregon. The Klamath Mountains are severely faulted and deformed; their steep slopes contain scrub vegetation. They contain both volcanic and sedimentary rock, which has been altered in some cases to marble, schist, and phyllite.¹ Erosion has exposed a large variety of rock types and valuable minerals in these mountains. The highest peak in the Klamath Mountains is Mt. Ashland, 7,530 feet above sea level.

The Western Cascades in the northern and central area are also mountainous but not as rugged as the Klamaths. They contain ancient volcanic and sedimentary rocks that postdate the Klamath Mountains but predate the High Cascades with its well-known volcanic peaks. A long geologic history of fluvial erosion has given the Western Cascades a distinct topography. Its older rocks meet younger flows in the vicinity of Prospect on the Rogue River, and its thick Eocene flows and breccias are found near Dead Indian Creek and Green Springs Highway. Another Western Cascade outcrop can be seen in the north half of the Medford Quadrangle.²

The High Cascades lie immediately to the east of the Western Cascades in a narrow north-south strip. The area is dominated by a north-south line of volcanoes with a particularly violent eruptive history. Only a few thousand years

Fig. 2

PHYSIOGRAPHIC PROVINCES



JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA
1977

- County Boundary
- National Forest Boundary
- Master Unit Boundary
- National Forest Service
- National Resource Lands BLM

have elapsed since the last major eruptions, and geothermal heat from the area may well be a future major energy source for Oregon and northern California. Glacial erosion has stripped large quantities of material from the flanks of the range, but the volcanic configuration of the peaks is still clearly visible.

To the extreme east a small portion of the Planning Unit cuts into the Basin and Range Province, which is characterized by large-scale block faulting and dry playa lakes, internal drainage, and minimal vegetation.

Soils

Soil is the byproduct of complex processes involving rock, vegetation, climate, and weathering. Very generally, soils can be classified based on the amount of rainfall where they are located. With moderate rainfall dry or xeric soils develop, and these predominate in the Planning Unit. Higher elevations in the Unit have moderately acid xeric soils characteristic of a pronounced summer dry period. At the lower elevations in the major valley systems xeric soils occur which are moderately silty and strongly leached in places.

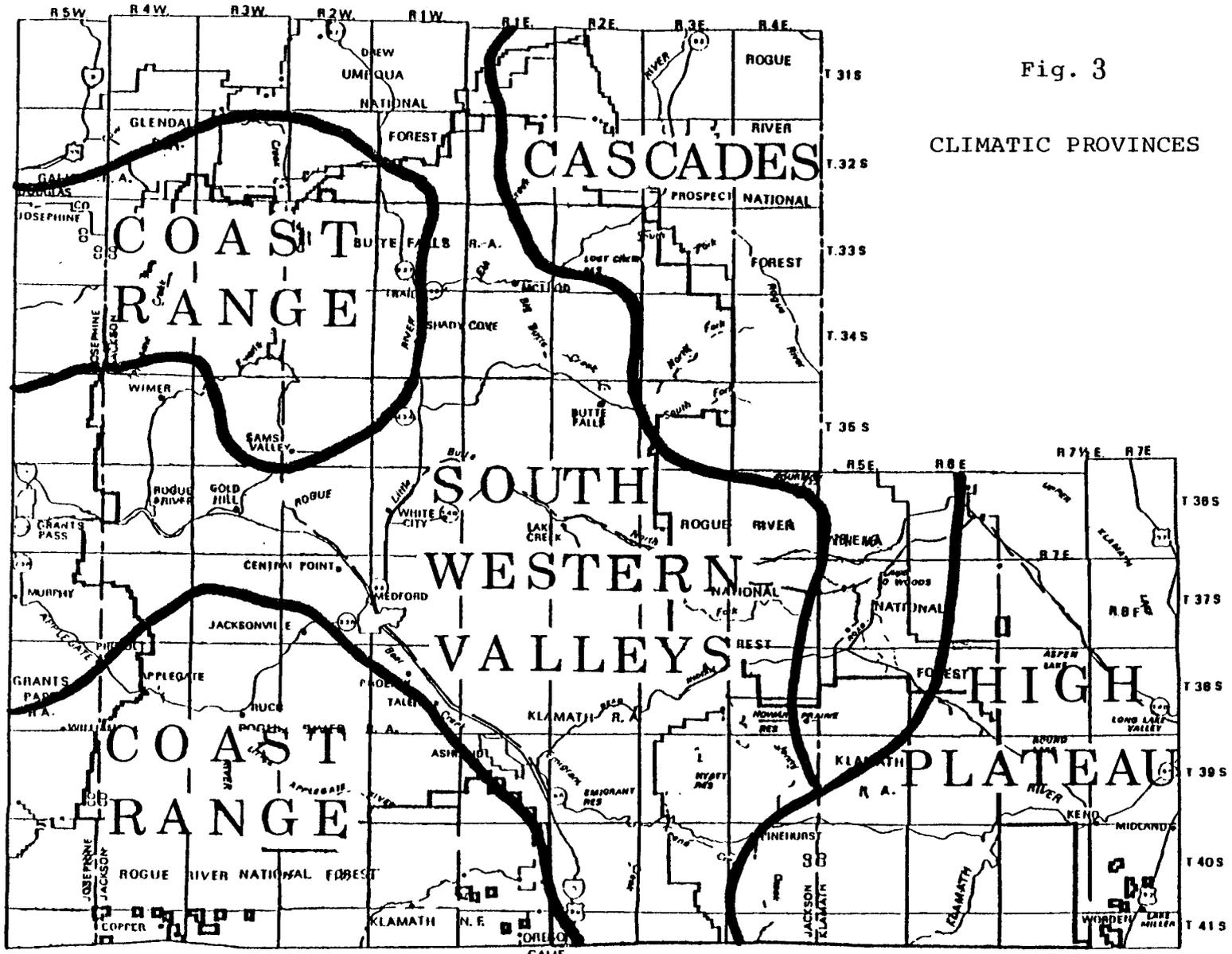
In a comprehensive report of soils from this area some fifty separate varieties of soils are enumerated.³ Of particular interest to the archaeological aspects of this study are soil series that occur near water courses, are well-drained, and only slightly sloped. These are prime factors in prehistoric settlement locations in southwest Oregon. For example, sites have been found on the Laurelhurst series, which is composed of thick, clayey, reddish-brown soils from areas of less than thirty-five inches annual precipitation. They develop on areas from nearly level river terraces to sloping foothills. In view of their characteristic topography, such soils are frequently associated with archaeological sites.

Climate

Varying physiography and the proximity of the ocean tend to diversify the climate of the Jackson County area so that four different regions are found (Figure 3). The Coastal Range Climatic Province extends into the study area in two lobes to the west and northwest. Climate in these two

Fig. 3

CLIMATIC PROVINCES



JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA
1977

- County Boundary
- National Forest Boundary
- ▭ National Forest Service
- ▭ National Resource Lands, BLM

areas is similar to that on the Oregon coast--despite higher elevations the air masses of the coastal range are not much cooler. Rainfall over this Province averages over 1,000 mm per year.

The Southwestern Valleys Climatic Province is sheltered from the ocean and is subsequently colder in winter, warmer in summer, and drier year round than areas to the north and west. Precipitation of the Southwestern Valleys may be only a quarter of that of the Coastal Range, and the annual temperature range (high and low) increases substantially to the southwest portion of the area. Ashland, Medford, and Grants Pass are in this Province.

The Cascades Climatic Region is characterized by low winter temperatures and precipitation (much of it snowfall) in the range of 1,000 to 1,500 mm per year. Finally the High Plateau Climatic Region in the southeast portion of the study area is mostly shielded from moist oceanic air masses. Subsequently, precipitation in this area is approximately 200-500 mm per year. The range in temperature (high and low) is even more dramatic than for the Southwestern Valley Climatic Region.

Water Supply

Maps depicting water supply in surplus and deficit categories express the hydrology of the Planning Unit particularly well (Figures 4 and 5). Water surplus (the total surface and subsurface runoff) diminishes from a high of 750 mm per year in the northeast portion of the study area to less than 500 mm per year in the southwest. Water deficit figures are expressed as the relative water need during dry periods. Deficit figures for most of the eastern portion of the study area are less than 125 mm per year due to the snowfall in the Cascades. The higher deficit figures of 125-250 mm per year in the west-central portion (Southwest Valleys) and southeast portion of the study area (High Plateau) are expressions of the low rainfall of 500 mm per year for both areas.

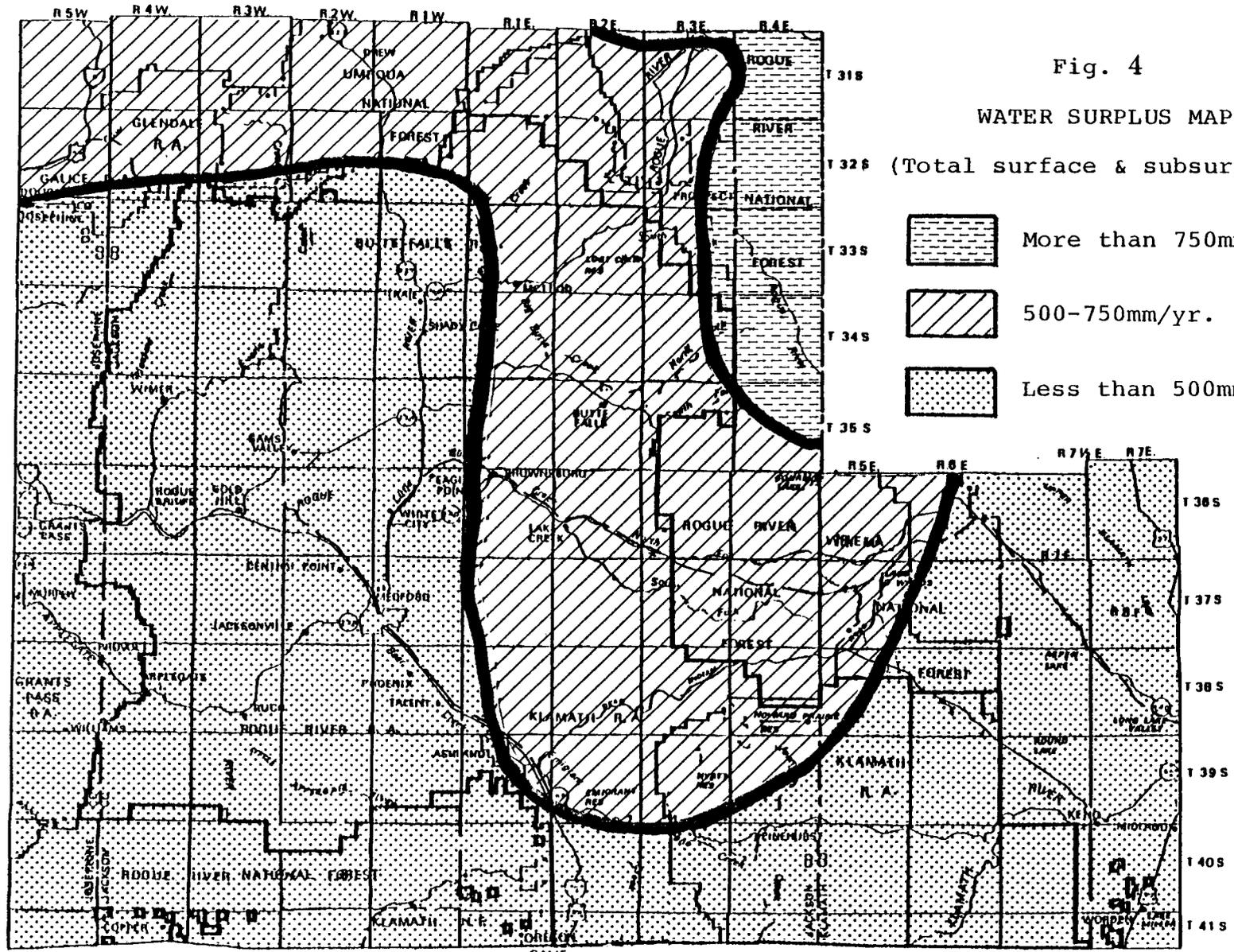
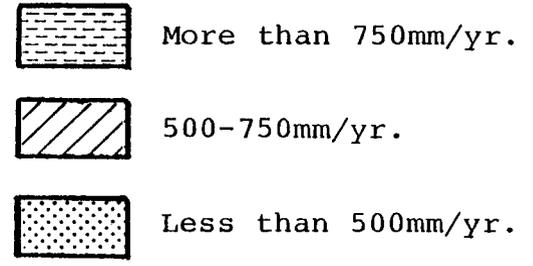
Vegetation

Vegetation is a function of climate, so that the natural vegetation provinces largely correspond to climatic regions (Figure 6). Most of the study area lies in a mixed Needle-leaf/Broadleaf Forest Zone. The Zone reflects a diverse range of soils and fire history. Toward the southern end of the area the Zone is characterized by broadleaf evergreen, tanoak, canyon liveoak, and madrone mixed with Douglas Fir. Toward the north, conifers including white fir and sugarpine are more common. Bordering the study area to the east the Pacific

Fig. 4

WATER SURPLUS MAP

(Total surface & subsurface runoff)



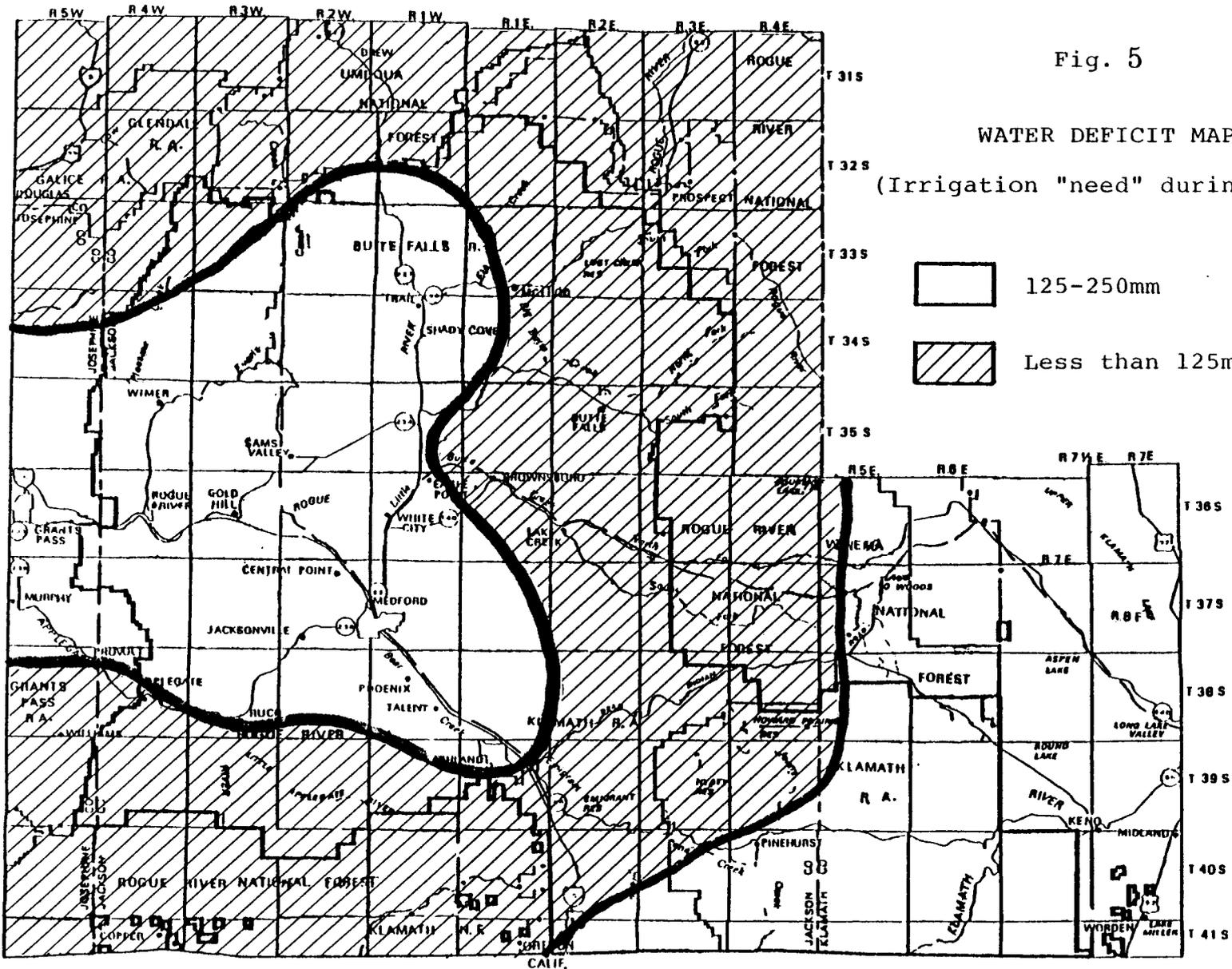
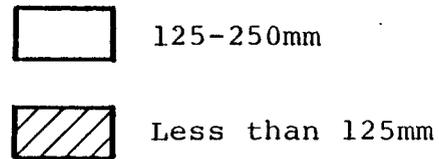
JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA
 1977



Fig. 5

WATER DEFICIT MAP

(Irrigation "need" during dry spell)



JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA
1977

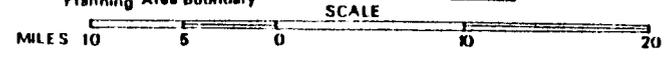
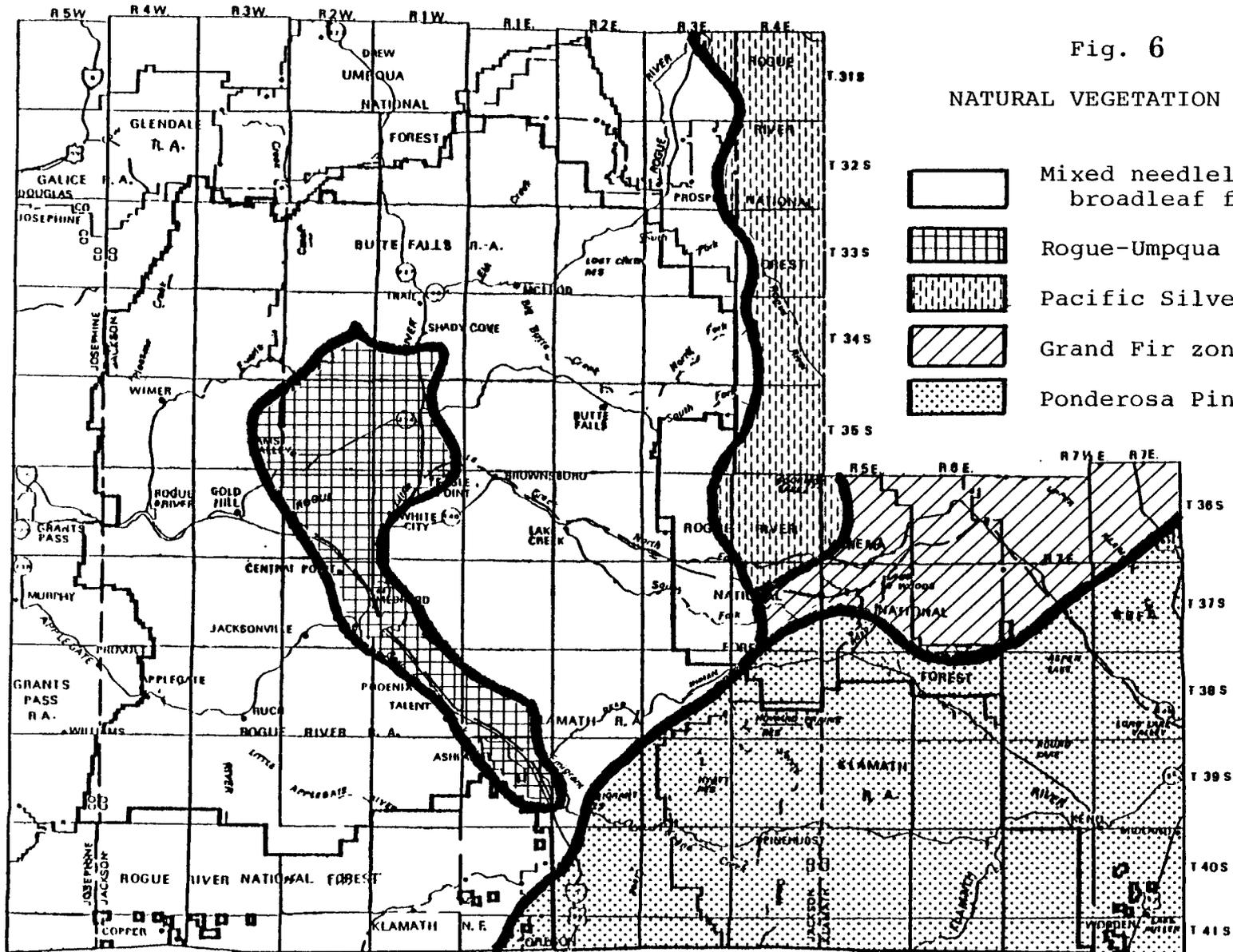


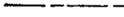
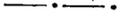
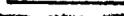
Fig. 6

NATURAL VEGETATION MAP

-  Mixed needleleaf & broadleaf forests
-  Rogue-Umpqua forest shrub
-  Pacific Silver Fir
-  Grand Fir zone
-  Ponderosa Pine



JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA
1977

-  County Boundary
-  National Forest Boundary
-  Master Unit Boundary
-  Planning Area Boundary
-  National Forest Service
-  National Resource Lands BIM
-  O&C Lands

Silver Fir and Grand Fir Zones reflect the higher elevations and drier climate of the Cascades. The Ponderosa Pine Zone to the southeast is a drought resistant flora reflecting the low precipitation characteristic of the high plateau. In the Bear Creek Valley a specialized Rogue-Umpqua forest shrub flora covers most of the lower elevations in the valley. This flora is a drought tolerant type ranging from Oregon white oak to California black oak, and the acorns were an important source of food to the Indians. Some cedar, Douglas fir, and ponderosa pine are found in the wetter portions of the Zone. Many of the drier areas are sites of old and new burns and are easily recognized by chaparral, buckbrush, and white-leaved manzanita.

Mineral and Energy Resources

Because of their complexity and different origins it is difficult to even briefly summarize mineral resources for the Planning Unit. In broad terms it is possible to characterize the western half of the study area as the mineral province due to the underlying geology of the Klamath Mountains. During the historic period these minerals were of major importance to the settlement and economy of southwest Oregon.

The Western Cascades and High Cascades to the east contain resources reflecting their volcanic history: geothermal heat, carbon dioxide springs, and pumice deposits. In the western mineral area many of the deposits such as cobalt, silica, and iron are known from only a few specific locations. Other minerals such as gold, silver, and mercury occur over very broad areas, and they are difficult to map as finite distributions (Figure 7).

Energy resources for the Planning Unit excluding potential hydroelectric power are restricted to the central and eastern portions. Geothermal resources are being successfully tapped just to the east of the Unit in Klamath Falls. The high geothermal potential of the Klamath Basin extends for a considerable distance north of Klamath Falls. Immediately to the west of this mapped geothermal area lies a larger province also in a north-south linear configuration in which geothermal prospecting is very promising. This latter area underlies the High Cascades Physiographic Province and takes in a large portion of the study area in the vicinities of Pinehurst and Butte Falls.

Fossil Fuel

Cutting almost through the center of the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit is a seam of coal associated with the western Cascade sediments of Eocene Age (Figure 8). This

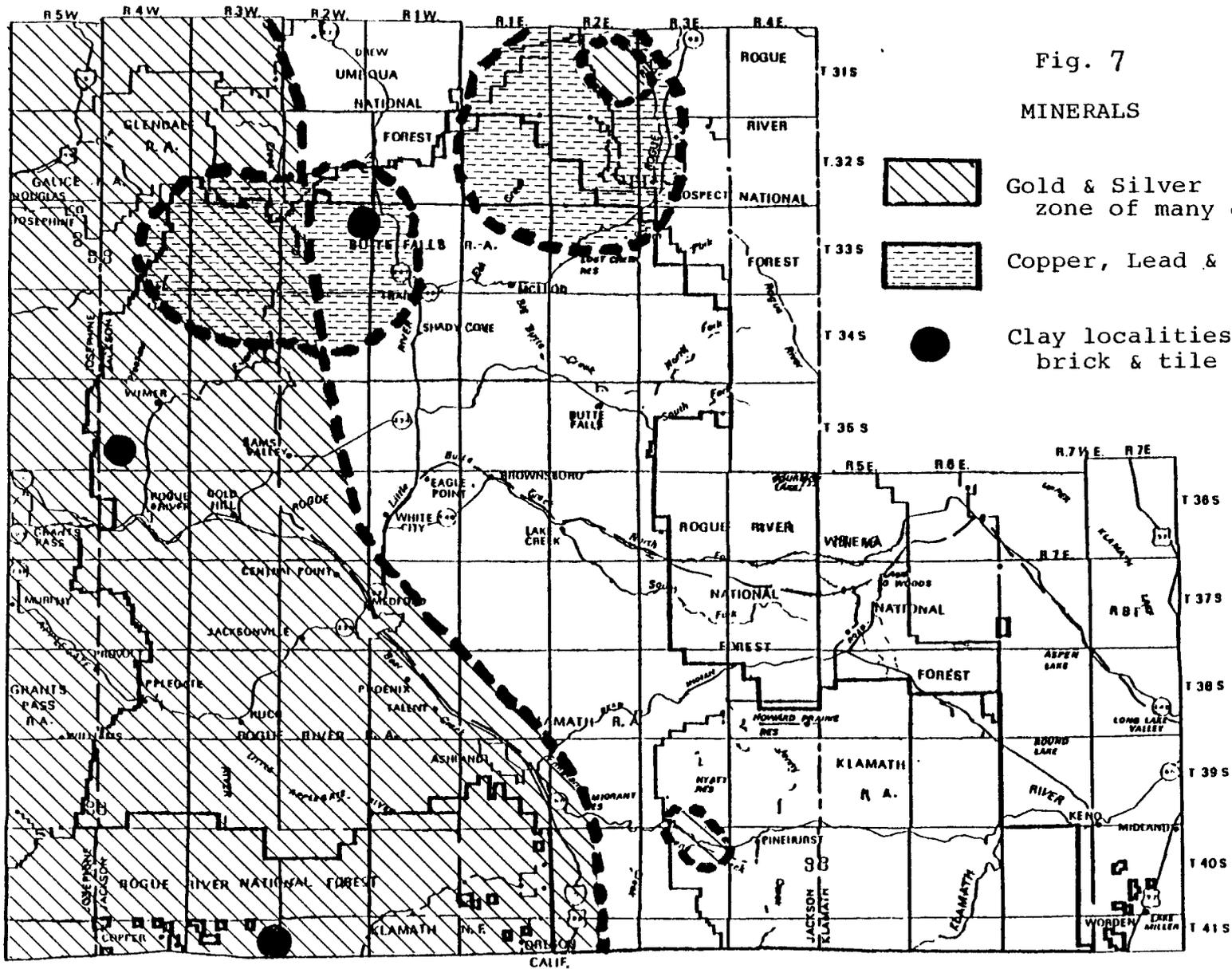


Fig. 7

MINERALS



Gold & Silver zone of many deposits



Copper, Lead & Zinc



Clay localities for brick & tile

JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA 1977

- County Boundary
- - - National Forest Boundary
- Master Unit Boundary
- Planning Area Boundary

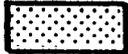
- National Forest Service
- National Resource Lands BIM
- ▨ O&C Lands Administered by Forest Service

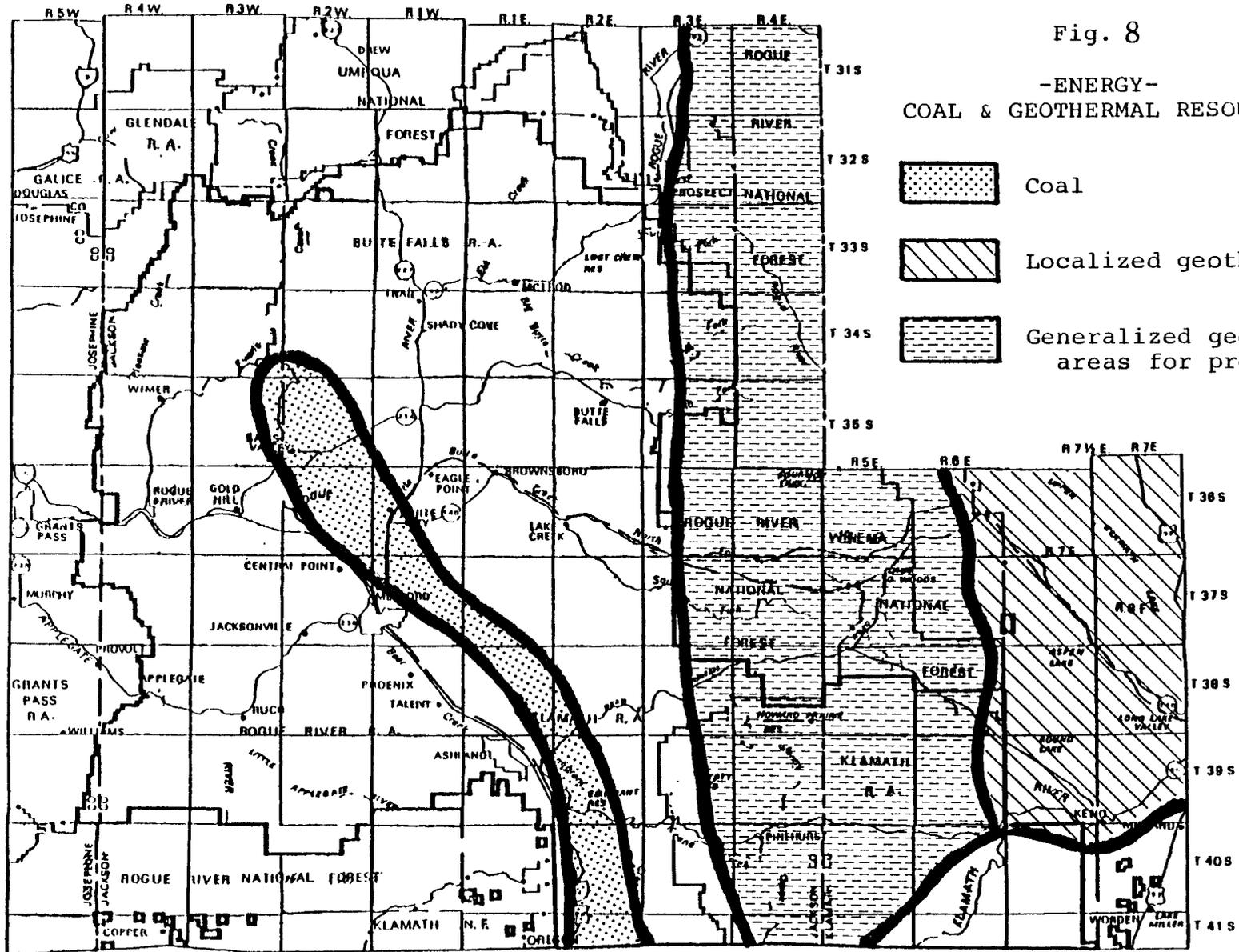
SCALE



Fig. 8

-ENERGY-
COAL & GEOTHERMAL RESOURCES

-  Coal
-  Localized geothermal areas
-  Generalized geothermal areas for prospecting



JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA
1977

-  County Boundary
-  National Forest Boundary
-  Master Unit Boundary
-  Planning Area Boundary
-  National Forest Service
-  National Resource Lands BLM
-  O&C Lands Administered by Forest Service

SCALE

MILES 10 5 0 10 20

coal field known as the Rogue River Field is one of the three most important in the state and can be followed for about 100 miles. Because of its local clay and sulfur content, the seam has never been mined on a large scale. At points near its northern limit in the vicinity of Evans Creek the coal deposit is up to eight feet thick.

Hydroelectric Power

In several areas of Jackson County the Rogue River and its tributaries have been harnessed for hydroelectric power. Power for the small communities of Trail, Butte Falls, and McLeod is supplied by several small power stations on the Rogue. Hydroelectric power for Ashland and other southern Jackson County communities is supplied by the drainage systems of the southern Rogue watershed. Large power stations are located on the Rogue between Medford and Grants Pass in the vicinity of Gold Hill and Gold Ray. In addition to these developed sites it has been estimated by the State Director of Geology and Mineral Industries that there are roughly fifteen other good sites in the Unit for hydroelectric power. Most of these sites lie on the upper Rogue Valley toward the northeastern portion of Jackson County, but three are on the Applegate River just north of the Oregon/California border.

ENDNOTES

¹Ewart M. Baldwin, *Geology of Oregon*, revised edition (1976), p. 71.

²Ibid., p. 60.

³LeRoy A. deMoulin, J.A. Pomerening, and B.R. Thomas, *Soil Inventory of the Medford District*, Oregon State Office, Bureau of Land Management (1975).

2. Shasta Ethnography

INTRODUCTION

Most of what is known about the customs of the Shasta Indians before European contact comes from the work of anthropologist Roland B. Dixon. He spent four field seasons (1900-1904) with the Shasta on their native land in California and on the Siletz Reservation in Oregon. Following his research, Dixon wrote a description of their culture, language and myths.¹

In 1946, Catherine Holt published a supplement to Dixon's work from her month's research in 1937 with Sargent Sambo, one of Dixon's informants.² In 1924, the photographer-ethnographer Edward S. Curtis published an excellent sketch of the Shasta based on his studies and those of Dixon.³ Other literature on the Shasta is taken largely from these ethnographies.⁴

Early historical information on the Shasta comes from the journals of Peter Skene Ogden, a Hudson's Bay Company trapper;⁵ from George Gibbs, an ethnologist with the Pacific Railroad surveys in 1853-1855;⁶ from Lt. Emmons of the 1841 Wilkes Expedition; and from Dr. Livingston Farrand, who collected southwestern Oregon Indian myths in 1900.⁸

SHASTA TERRITORY

The Shasta Indians occupied almost all of Siskiyou County, California, which--except Scott and Shasta Valleys--is an extremely mountainous, rugged land. Their settlements were located in the river valleys, especially along the Klamath River, where there were concentrations of the resources they depended upon: acorns, fish, game, and native fruits and vegetables.

Their Indian neighbors were the Sacramento Valley Wintun to the south, the Pit River Achomawi-Atsugewi tribes to the east, the lower Klamath River Karok and Yurok and the Trinity River Hupa to the west, and the Oregon Takelma, Klamath, Modoc, and various Athabaskan-speaking groups to the north.

Shasta Territory in Oregon

The Shasta northern boundary claimed portions of Klamath and Jackson Counties, but ethnographers disagree on whether

their territory embraced only the Jenny Creek drainage, or whether it also included Bear Creek Valley near Jacksonville and Table Rock. Dixon, whose Shasta informants claimed that valley, describes their territory.

Beginning at Mount Shasta, the boundary ran nearly due north, over Goose Nest Mountain to the Klamath River, reaching the river a little above the mouth of Jenny Creek. From this point on the river, the rather vague line seems to have swung to the east a little, so as to include within Shasta territory all the headwaters of Jenny Creek, and then to have followed roughly along the divide to Mount Pitt [Mt. McLoughlin]. Here the line turns westward to the Rogue River at the mouth of Little Butte Creek, and thence along Rogue River to Table Rock at the mouth of Stewart River, or, as it is also known, Bear Creek. From this point, the line ran apparently southward, along the divide between the western tributaries of Stewart River and the eastern tributaries of Applegate Creek, swung around the head of the latter, and curved sharply west, following the crest of the Siskiyou to the vicinity of Thompson Creek, where the boundary touched the Klamath again at the village of *Ussini*. Southward from here, the divide between the western tributaries of Scott River and the eastern tributaries of the Klamath and Salmon Rivers seems to have been the line dividing the Shasta from the Karok and from the two small fragments of the Shastan stock--the *Konomi'hu* and the New River Shasta. From the extreme southwestern corner of Siskiyou County the boundary ran east to Mount Shasta again, following approximately the divide between the Trinity and Sacramento Rivers on the south and the Scott and Shasta Rivers on the north.⁹

However, Dixon is uncertain of his informants' knowledge of the Oregon boundaries--he notes that the same territory was ceded by Oregon's Rogue Indians in the Treaty of 1853. His Shasta informants told him that they had driven the Rogues from this area about 100 years earlier and that it was theirs when the Europeans arrived. These informants also gave Dixon place names for geographical features in the Medford Valley, which could support the claim that the land once belonged to them.¹⁰ Dixon concluded that the Shasta and Takelma vigorously disputed the ownership of the land. Historical sources note that these groups ranged in one another's territories frequently, and there was a great deal of intermarriage. Under these conditions, land ownership cannot easily be assigned to either group.

Twenty years after Dixon wrote that the Shasta may have been near Table Rock and Jacksonville, the ethnographer Leslie Spier stated that his Klamath informants' enemies, the *Walumskni*, lived in the Table Rock region. Spier was not familiar with this tribe and tried to identify them. He found very little explicit information about the inhabitants of this region in the early literature, but his Klamath informants placed the Shasta on Jenny Creek--they were certain that the Shasta were not in the Bear Creek Valley, because the *Walumskni* lived there and on the Rogue River near Table Rock.¹¹ Spier concluded that the *Walumskni* were the Upland Takelma, or *Latgawa*, based on information from another ethnographer, Edward Sapir.¹²

Joel Berreman, who mapped the distribution of all the Indian tribes in Oregon in 1937, placed the Takelma in the Bear Creek Valley, based on 1) Takelma informants' explicit claims to the Bear Creek Valley; 2) the fact that the Bear Creek Valley is far from the main Shasta territory; and 3) the Klamath reported trading and occasional warfare with the *Walumskni*, which would be unlikely if the Oregon Shasta were situated between the Takelma and Klamath.¹³

Conclusion

It is likely that both the Takelma and the Shasta claimed the Bear Creek Valley in the 1800's because there was a great deal of interaction between them: intermarriage, trading, and fighting. How long this situation prevailed before the coming of the whites is a matter of conjecture. Historical sources detailing the Rogue River Wars seem to place most of the Takelma villages north of the Rogue River, around Table Rock. There were also Shasta bands living in the northern Siskiyou foothills and in the Applegate River area. Therefore, both groups may have claimed the valley because it was visible from their camps, and because both used it. Overlapping boundaries certainly seem appropriate in this situation.

ORIGIN OF THE NAME "SHASTA"

The Shasta have been referred to as the "Sastise," the "Saste," the "Shastika," and the "Shasty." The origin of this name is uncertain--some suggest that it was originally a chief's name or else the name of a prominent man who lived in Yreka during the Gold Rush.¹⁴ Another concludes that it is derived from the Klamath's name for their southwestern neighbors.¹⁵ The Shasta called themselves *Ka'hosadi*, a collective term that could be applied to any of the Shasta groups.¹⁶

There were apparently five or more groups among the Shasta who spoke different dialects of the same language and

lived in different geographic areas within Shasta territory. Curtis lists the names of some of these divisions, calling the Bear Creek Valley group the *Ikarakatsuhis* and the Klamath River group extending into Oregon (Jenny Creek) the *Kikatsik*.¹⁷ To simplify these divisions, the ethnographic literature often refers to four major divisions: the Oregon Shasta, the Klamath River Shasta, the Scott Valley Shasta, and the Shasta Valley group, but it should be remembered in using these divisions that there is no simple correlation with the Shasta's own division of their people.

SHASTA LANGUAGE

On older ethnological maps, the Shasta language is shown as *Sastean*, and it was thought to be unrelated to the language spoken by the Pit River tribes, called *Palaihnihan*. However, in the late 1800's, the linguist-ethnographer Albert Gatschet suggested that the two were related. In 1905, while gathering linguistic data for the American Museum of Natural History's Huntington Expedition, Dixon demonstrated the relationship and labeled the new language group Shasta-Achomawi. He later changed this designation to Shastan.¹⁸

Shasta is often classified as part of the Hokan language division, which includes some other California tribes and two in Mexico. However, one linguist claims that there is scanty data (and some of it poorly gathered) to support such an entity as a Hokan division.¹⁹ If this is the case, it is presently not clear what affinities Shasta may share with other Indian languages.

FOOD ITEMS AND FOOD PROCESSING

The environment of the Shasta Indians was mountainous, wooded and well-watered. Plentiful supplies of fish, game, wild vegetable foods and acorns from various oak species were available. Salmon from the Klamath River and acorns were the major food items. Roots and bulbs (including camas and ipos), berries, pine nuts and bark, game animals, fresh-water mussels, and ducks and geese were also eaten.

Food processing techniques included acorn leaching,²⁰ smoking and drying salmon and rubbing the dried meat into a powder, drying deer and bear meat or cooking it by boiling or roasting, and pulverizing deer bones for soup. Salt was obtained by all the Shasta divisions from two large deposits near Horse Creek and in the Shasta Valley, according to Holt's informant, but Dixon says it was obtained from lower Klamath River tribes.²¹

Several techniques are described for fishing and hunting. Salmon were caught by driving them into nets and weirs as they came upstream along the Klamath River to spawn. There were also three rock salmon dams along the river in Shasta territory, but none of them were in Oregon.²² Apparently the Oregon Shasta had a different technique for salmon fishing than their down-river kin: while a row of men held spears, women on rafts drove the fish toward them.²³ Deer were hunted with hidden nooses or with bows and arrows, using dogs to scent the prey. Sometimes a hill was set on fire, with a space left open for the deer to rush out and be killed.

TRADE

Although the Shasta rarely made long journeys, there was trade with neighboring tribes. Buckskin, flint blades, and pine nuts were traded with the lower Klamath River tribes for acorns, basketry, canoes, shell ornaments, and dentalia (a shell used widely as currency among coastal tribes and their interior neighbors). From the Wintun they acquired mostly acorns and a few clamshell disk beads, giving obsidian, buckskin, and dentalia in return. The Oregon Shasta traded native vegetable bulbs. There was much trading with the Takelma for dentalia, hats, and other items in exchange for acorns and acorn paste.²⁴ There was apparently little trade with the Klamath and Modoc.²⁵

MATERIAL CULTURE ITEMS

Stone Objects

Objects made of stone (steatite, basalt, and obsidian) included dishes, mauls, knives, arrowpoints, scrapers, arrow shaft straighteners, and pestles and pipe tips of fine-grained stone. The Shasta made no mortars--they regarded them as powerful spirits or objects of powerful spirits, having the ability to move about on their own or change their shape, and they were avoided at all times. Small pestles and stone pipes were also avoided. While mortars are found in Shasta territory, the superstition surrounding them may indicate that they were not made by the ethnographic Shasta or their recent ancestors, although there are no migration myths indicating a move into northern California from elsewhere. Many northern and central California tribes shared superstitions about mortars, but they were particularly pronounced among the Shasta.

Shell, Bone, and Wood

Shell, bone, and wood implements included beads, dentalia, clamshells, and abalone; bone flaking tools for flint-knapping, deer ulna scrapers, deer skull spoons, and elkhorn wedges for splitting logs, as well as awls, salmon gigs, and a number of other bone artifacts; and wooden spoons, mush paddles, three-holed flutes, fire drills, and pipes. Canoes were made of sugar pine logs, cedar, or yellow pine, although the Shasta rarely made canoes because of the swiftness of the Klamath River in their territory.²⁶ Other wooden implements were yew paddles, tongs for lifting heated stones, salmon spears, arrow shafts (used with or without foreshafts) of manzanita or syringa, and yew wood bows with sinew backing covered with salmon skin. The Wilkes Expedition witnessed the Shasta Indians' amazing dexterity with these bows--one man remarked that he would rather be hit by a musket ball than by a Shasta arrow. Lt. Emmons saw an archer strike a button sixty yards away three out of five times. The Wilkes Expedition traded for Shasta bows and arrows, and described the bows as three feet long and flat, and about two inches wide. The arrows were thirty inches long, made of either fine-grained wood or reed, and feathered from five to eight inches. The arrow points were barbed, "beautifully wrought from obsidian: the head is inverted in a grooved piece from three to five inches long, and is attached to the shaft by a socket; this, when it penetrates, is left in the wound when the shaft is withdrawn; a very shallow blood channel is sometimes cut in the shaft."²⁷ The bow was held horizontally for shooting. Quivers were made of raccoon, deer, or wildcat skins.

Stick armor made of round hard wood rods fastened together with cordage was used in warfare. Wood was also used to fashion some of the Shasta game devices.

Basketry

Shasta basketry was not as noteworthy as that of the central and northwest California tribes. During the late 1800's and early 1900's, the Shasta apparently gave up basket making altogether, obtaining what they needed from the lower Klamath River tribes. Curtis says that Shasta baskets were most like those of the lower Klamath River; perhaps the specimens he saw were actually trade items.²⁸

In addition to basketry, the Shasta had tule mats, mattresses, hopper mortars (a basketry device set over a rock for food processing), and balsa rafts. Hemp was used to make cordage for nets and ropes for deer snares.

In comparison with central California Indians, the featherwork of the Shasta was simple--it was probably not incorporated in their basketry. Feathers were most often made into bands that were worn on the head, wrists or shoulders. Wrist bands and shoulder bands were made of yellowhammer feathers, while bluejay feathers were used in the headbands prepared for girls' puberty ceremonies.

DWELLINGS AND SETTLEMENTS

There were five basic types of Shasta dwellings: winter earth lodges, summer brush huts, communal houses, sweathouses, and menstrual lodges.

The Earth Lodge

The earth lodge, called *umma*, was built in the early summer when bark was peeling from trees, which were cut with an elkhorn wedge. A rectangular or slightly oval excavation was made for the lodge, and dirt was sifted onto the floor from an old basket, then wetted and trampled until the floor was hard.²⁹ Eight posts supported the roof and walls--one at each of four corners, and two between the corner posts on each of the short sides of the dwelling. Cedar bark covered the excavated walls, and the peaked roof was made of split cedar or sugar pine boards. The entrance was through the side, and the roof often extended over it to form a porch. The firepit was rock-rimmed in the center of the lodge.

The Summer Shelter

The earth lodges were abandoned in the summer by all except a few old people, and brush shelters were constructed and shared by several families. Cooking was done in a fire in the center of this shelter.

There is some conflict about the type and location of the summer brush shelter--Dixon states that it was roofless and built in the mountains, while Holt claims that the shelters had pole-and-brush roofs and were built near the winter earth lodges in the shade near streams:

The winter house was near by, [i.e., near the summer shelter] a little higher up, and could be resorted to in case of heavy showers. They moved into these brush shelters in the spring...During the acorn season, they lived in single-family bark houses higher up on the hills. These houses were shaped like the *umma* [winter earth lodge] but were not so high and had no excavation. Still later in the fall,

when far in the Siskiyou for the fall hunt, they camped in the open.³⁰

It is likely that both Dixon and Holt are correct--there were probably different kinds of summer houses in different places, depending on the subsistence activity being pursued.

The Communal House

In addition to the dwellings of the Shasta, there was another substantial structure called the *okwa'umma*. Dixon says it was a men's lounge, a sweathouse, and a sleeping place, but Holt states it had a different function:

...according to Sargeant, [it] was not a sweat-house, but the place for general assemblies of the whole group, men, women, and children, for dances (such as the winter ceremonial of the shaman or merely for entertainment), gambling, etc.

She describes its appearance:

It was similar in construction to the *umma*, but larger and with a deeper excavation, being about 19 or 20 to 26 or 27 feet wide and from about 30 to 40 feet long with a depth of about 6½ feet. Instead of the double ridgepole of the *umma* with the pair of supporting posts at the end, there was a single ridgepole with a heavy supporting post at each end and one in the middle, slightly nearer the door than the exact center, the fireplace being on the farther side of this central post. Like the *umma*, the floor was of packed earth. Corner posts supporting the side poles for the roof were proportionally higher than in the *umma*, so that the roof was almost flat, and both the roof and sides were earth covered. Side walls were never cedar bark, as in the *umma* frequently, but always split boards set on pine needles with a thick layer of pine needles between the boards and the dirt piled against them. Pine needles also intervened between the roof and its dirt covering. The door was like that of the *umma*, except for a passage leading to it dug through the dirt against the wall. Thus, unlike the *umma*, earth was apparently heaped against the end as well as the side walls. When this passage was not in use, boards were laid over it. A tule mat closed the door, as in the *umma*.³¹

The *okwa'umma* was usually built in the center of a Shasta village. It may have also been used as a curing center--Curtis notes that when people were sick the shamans were requested to

find the cause, which they did by holding a dance in the largest house in the village.³² There may have been only two or three *okwa'ummas*, since they were built only in the largest villages. They were owned by the village headman, and passed to male relatives.

The Male Sweathouse

This structure, called the *wu'kwu*, was a smaller version of the *okwa'umma*, but it had a flat, board roof covered with pine needles and a layer of earth. The entry was cut in an end wall, with a ladder providing access to the floor. Firewood was stacked under the ladder; the door was closed by means of a sliding board. Unlike the dwelling houses of the Shasta, it had a board floor, and the firepit was near a wall, not centrally located. Men used this structure as a sweathouse and a sleeping place--it was always built close to a stream. Only villages of several families had a *wu'kwu*, and men from neighboring villages came to use it.

The Family Sweathouse

Built of willow poles and covered with pine bark slabs and skins, the small semi-circular sweathouse was owned and used by individual families. The opening usually faced east. Water was thrown on hot rocks to produce steam. Thus, the Shasta had both a dry sauna (in the *wu'kwu*, high temperatures for sweating were produced by an open fire) and a wet sauna, where sweating was induced by steam.

The Menstrual Lodges

Menstrual lodges for the women, called *wapsahuuma*, were built by the women on the west side of the village. They were a small replica of the earth lodge (standing only about five feet high) and accommodated two or three people at a time. They had doubled pine bark slab walls and a packed dirt floor. The *wapsahuuma* was also used for childbirth, with an older woman relative helping the mother. After the birth of the child, the mother and father stayed together in the *wapsahuuma* for a time.

Village Locations

Most of the Shasta villages were along the Klamath River. Favored village locations were near the confluences of smaller streams with the river. The earth lodges were built in rows facing the river. Usually two closely related families shared a lodge, with no more than two or three families in one village.

There were some other villages located on higher ground near large springs and stands of oak. The houses here were excavated deeper and had heavier timbers. These villages had no men's sweatlodges or communal houses.³³

Summary

To briefly summarize, five types of house structures were found in sizeable Shasta villages: 1) the *umma*, or winter earth lodge, built in rows facing the river; 2) the summer brush shelter, built near the *umma*, or wherever the seasonal gathering and hunting rounds took the Shasta; 3) the *okwa'umma*, or communal house, usually built near the village center; 4) the *wu'kwu*, or men's sweathouse, with board floors and flat dirt-covered roofs, found close to streams; 5) the family sweathouses of bent willow poles with skin and bark slab covers; and 6) the *wapsahuuma*, or menstrual and birth lodge found on the west side of villages--a small version of the winter earth lodge. The Shasta villages were mostly along the Klamath River with favored locations near its confluence with smaller streams, but some were on higher hills near large springs. During the summer months, people dispersed from these villages to gather acorns and hunt in the Siskiyou, living in brush shelters or in the open as they followed the seasonal round of food gathering.

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

The social and political organization of the Shasta was typical of most other western interior Indian groups in that the family and the village were the basic units. Beyond this, the villages were grouped into four divisions: the Klamath, Scott, Shasta and Oregon, each headed by a person selected on the basis of wealth and influence. Men most often held this position, but women were very important in political affairs--the wealthiest woman, usually the chief's wife, was the authority for the women of the division. If the chief were absent and trouble arose, she kept peace until his return. Further, if the chief was very young (the position was often hereditary), his female relatives would occasionally act for him. At one time there was a Shasta woman at *Ikiruk* (Jacksonville) who became chief "...by reason of her eloquence and her ability to prevent."³⁴ The duties of the chief included acting as mediator in feuds, settling disputes, and paying fines assessed against the division. There was no formal council to assist the chief.

According to Dixon and Holt's informant, Sargeant Sambo, the chiefs of the four divisions were fairly equal in authority, but if there was big trouble, the Oregon one was sent for.³⁵

CONFLICTS

The typical conflict was a raid, and the ethnographers do not say what usually provoked it or who was the target. Blood feuds were common among the Shasta and may often have caused raiding between villages or groups. Other Indian groups, like the Rogue River groups or the Modoc, may also have been the victims. In any case, the chiefs did not participate in raids, but they decided the terms of peace. War dances were held before raids.

PROPERTY

Private property consisted of hunting grounds, fishing places and fish weirs, and in some cases, oak trees near one's residence. The first three were owned by wealthy families but used by others with their permission. Slaves were owned in some cases, but this practice was not highly regarded among the Shasta.³⁶

MARRIAGE

The marriage customs of the Shasta were significant as a means of adding to a family's wealth. The most important feature of the marriage system was the bride price, or the amount paid by the groom's family to a woman's family for her hand in marriage. This price (the average price consisted of fifteen to twenty long dentalia shells, twenty to thirty woodpecker scalps, a dozen strings of beads, and one or two deerskins) not only added to the wealth of the woman's family, but it was used to set a value upon each of the children resulting from the union. The more that was paid for a bride, the more her children were worth. The value of the children was realized when the daughters married, or when sons or daughters were injured or murdered during feuds. The guilty party in a feud had to pay fines to the victim's family commensurate with his or her worth.

Children were engaged while very young, particularly the wealthy, and partners were usually chosen from other villages. The bride was purchased from her family by the father of the groom, and at puberty she was brought to the boy's family. There were periodic exchanges of property (usually items of clothing) between the boy's and girl's family after marriage. If the family was wealthy, more than one wife could be obtained

Because a girl was marriageable at puberty, and marriage brought her family more goods, public ceremonies were held at her first menses. This ceremony was the largest public ceremony of the Shasta, lasting ten days. Friends and relatives of the family were invited for dances held each night. During the day the girl remained in the menstrual lodge, but at night she participated in the dancing. During this ceremony she was subjected to a number of taboos, including wearing a bluejay visor--a custom that was widespread in neighboring Oregon and California tribes. The puberty dance was so popular that it was often done simply for entertainment, with some young girl playing the part of the menstruant.

Other public ceremonial dances were the war dance, the shaman's dance, and the spring "big head" dance, which lasted two days and involved wearing large headdresses made of eagle feathers.

MYTHOLOGY AND SHAMANS

The Shasta did not have a religion as we know it. Instead, their beliefs centered around animal myths and shamanistic practices. No central human figure or figures were regarded as the source of life and overall authority. The main mythological figure was Coyote, who was viewed as a trickster having the ability to transform into other creatures. Shasta myths consist of short anecdotes describing Coyote and other mythological animals and their dealings with each other and with humans. The emphasis on animal mythology is typical of many central California and Oregon and Washington tribes.

Shamans--either men or women--were the main supernatural and medicinal figures in Shasta villages. They received their power in dreams from spirits and could go into trances, during which blood would gush from their mouths. Evil shamans were believed to cause illness, which was cured by sucking some foreign object such as a stick or stone from the body. Shamans were paid for this service but had to refund the payment if the illness persisted.

CONFLICTS WITH OTHER INDIAN GROUPS

The enemies of the Shasta were the Modoc, the Takelma, and sometimes the Wintun, although they also traded and intermarried with the latter two groups. The Modoc Indians were the arch-enemies--they raided the Shasta for slaves every summer, trading Shasta slaves with the Paiutes of eastern Oregon for horses. The enmity between the two groups was such that even after the founding of Yreka, California, the Modoc would come there to trade, but they would kill or capture Shasta as well. 37

EUROPEAN CONTACT

Fur traders of the early 1800's coming down the Klamath River were probably the first Europeans to make contact with the Shasta. According to Edward Curtis, an old man living near Yreka remembered that the first whites seen by his band in the vicinity of Ashland were carrying flintlocks.³⁸ Peter Skene Ogden's trapping party was among the Shasta in 1826 during the Hudson Bay Company Snake country expeditions.

Lt. Emmons of the Wilkes Expedition visited the Shasta in 1841, but his account is unfortunately brief. He described the Shasta as "...a fine looking race, being much better proportioned than those more to the northward, and their features more regular."³⁹ It is not clear from his account whether he found Takelmans or Shastas in the Rogue River Valley--he says only that he camped on the Tootootutnas River (later known as the Rogue) and that he was among the Klamet Indians, "better known as the Rogues or Rascals, which name they have obtained from the hunters, from the many acts of villainry they have practiced."⁴⁰ He wrote about specific encounters with the Shasta in the Klamath River Valley and southward. He noted that some of the Shasta were afflicted with a leprosy-like disease that had wasted one of them away to a skeleton appearance.⁴¹

The whites did not heavily invade Shasta territory until the Gold Rush of the 1850's. Shastas were involved in the Rogue River Wars of 1853, and in 1855 and 1856 they went north across the Siskiyou to assist the Indians along the Rogue.⁴² In 1907, Dixon estimated that as a result of wars, disease, and famine, there were only forty Shasta left on the Siletz, Grande Ronde, and Yakima Reservations, and in their tribal territory. He estimated their number in the early 1800's at 2,000. By the time Curtis came through the Klamath River country in 1924, he found practically no full-blooded Shasta left.

CULTURAL POSITION OF THE SHASTA

Shasta ethnographers Dixon and Holt and anthropologist Alfred Kroeber agree that Shasta culture shares similar elements with Indian tribes in central California, northwest California and southwest Oregon, but they disagree on which of the three areas Shasta culture aligns with most closely.

Dixon felt that the Shasta were northern migrants, bringing with them elements of Oregon culture, but Kroeber says that because they were Hokan-speakers, they can be viewed only as the northernmost outpost of that widely distributed language group. He places them with the Karok, Yurok and Hupa of northwest California. Unlike Kroeber, Catherine Holt ties the Shasta most closely with central California, stating that the only reason

they shared cultural similarities with the Karok, Yurok and Hupa was because these tribes had a greater wealth of material items, which were impressive to, and therefore copied by, the Shasta. While discussions of these kinds of cultural connections are perplexing and may seem unimportant, they are relevant to archaeological work that may shed new light on the prehistory of the Indian groups of California and Oregon, such as movements of groups and the way contact between tribes changed their cultures.

SHASTA ENDNOTES

¹Roland B. Dixon, "The Shasta-Achomawi: A New Linguistic Stock with Four New Dialects," *American Anthropologist*, VII (1905a), 213-18; "The Mythology of the Shasta-Achomawi," *American Anthropologist*, VII N.S. (1905b), 607-612; "The Shasta," *Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History*, XVII, part V (1907), 381-498; and "Shasta Myths," *Journal of American Folklore*, XXIII (1910), 8-37.

²Catherine Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," *Anthropological Records*, III, no. 4 (1946).

³Edward Curtis, "The Shasta," *The North American Indians*, XIII (1924), 105-26.

⁴A.L. Kroeber, "Handbook of the Indians of California," *Bureau of American Ethnology Bulletin No. 78* (1925); J.V. Berreman, "Tribal Distribution in Oregon," *Memoirs of the American Anthropological Association*, No. 47 (1937), pp. 4-67; and J.R. Swanton, "The Indian Tribes of North America," *Bureau of American Ethnology Bulletin No. 145* (1952).

⁵Peter Skene Ogden, *Snake Country Journal 1826-27*, ed. by K.G. Davies (London, 1961).

⁶George Gibbs, "Observations on Some of the Indian Dialects of Northern California," *History of the Indian Tribes of the United States*, III, ed. by Henry R. Schoolcraft for the Bureau of Indian Affairs (1853).

⁷Charles Wilkes, *United States Exploring Expedition*, V (1845), 238-41. This was the first scientific expedition to be outfitted by the U.S. government for purposes of exploration and colonization of the West Coast.

⁸Leo J. Frachtenberg, "Shasta and Athabaskan Myths from Oregon," *Journal of American Folklore*, XXVIII (1915), 207-42. The myths were collected by Dr. Livingston Farrand in 1900 on the Siletz Reservation in northwest Oregon. His collection consists of fifteen Shasta, five Joshua and two Tutu'tuni traditions. The material was turned over to Frachtenberg by Franz Boas.

⁹Dixon, "The Shasta," p. 386.

¹⁰Edward Sapir, "Notes on the Takelma Indians of Southwestern Oregon," *American Anthropologist*, IX (1907), 253.

¹¹Leslie Spier, "Tribal Distribution in Southwest Oregon," *Oregon Historical Society Quarterly*, XXVIII, No. 4 (1927b), 359-60.

¹²Ibid., pp. 362-63.

¹³Berreman, "Tribal Distributions," pp. 26-27.

¹⁴Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 106.

¹⁵C.H. Merriam, "Origin of the Name Shasta," *Washington Academy of Science Journal*, XVI (1926), 522-25.

¹⁶Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," p. 344.

¹⁷Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 106.

¹⁸Dixon, "The Shasta," p. 385.

¹⁹See Hoijer in *The North American Indian*, ed. by Owen, Deetz and Fisher (1967), p. 85.

²⁰For a detailed description of this process, see Dixon, "The Shasta," p. 425. Implements used in processing acorns were a basketry sifting tray, a mush paddle for stirring acorn soup, a milling basket, and brushes for getting meal off the sifting tray.

²¹Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," p. 309.

²²Dixon, "The Shasta," p. 428.

²³Ibid., p. 430.

²⁴Edward Sapir, "Takelma Notes," pp. 264-65; Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 426.

²⁵Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," p. 312.

²⁶Dixon, "The Shasta," p. 396; Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 114.

²⁷Emmons in Wilkes, *U.S. Exploring Expedition*, p. 239.

²⁸Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 115. He notes that the hazel and willow rods were most often used for the warp, and pine and willow roots constituted the weft.

²⁹Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," pp. 305-6. Holt said the dwelling was about twenty-two feet long and slightly less wide. It was excavated to a depth of about three feet.

³⁰Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," pp. 307-8.

³¹Ibid., pp. 305-6.

³²Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 124. Holt suggested that the *okwa'umma* is analogous to the dance house of the central California tribes, and that its structural form was borrowed from the lower Klamath River Karok and Yurok. She hypothesized that it was an integral part of Shasta culture, while the male sweathouse was an element borrowed from the lower Klamath River groups. All the Shasta divisions had a communal house, but the male sweathouse was only found among the Shasta of the Klamath River, the lower Scott River, and the lower Shasta Valley ("Shasta Ethnography," p. 307).

³³Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," p. 308.

³⁴Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 116.

³⁵Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," p. 316.

³⁶Curtis, "The Shasta," p. 452.

³⁷Ibid., p. 107; Keith Murray, *The Modocs and Their War* (1959).

³⁸Ibid., p. 107. One of the earliest references to the Shasta is found in an article by Gairdner in the *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, XI, 256, entitled "Notes on the Indian Tribes on the Upper and Lower Columbia." Gairdner obtained his list of tribes in this area from the French trapper Michel la Framboise.

³⁹Emmons in Wilkes, *U.S. Exploring Expedition*, p. 239.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 232.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 240.

⁴²H.H. Bancroft, *History of Oregon, Volume II*; see also Report on Indian Hostilities in Oregon and Washington, 34th Congress, 1st session, House Executive Document, XI, No. 93.

3. Takelma Ethnography

INTRODUCTION

It is unfortunate that so little is known about the Takelma Indians because their territory comprised a major portion of the Klamath-Jackson Planning Unit at the time of European contact. By the time ethnographers were working on southwestern Oregon tribes, no Takelma were found in their native territory because: 1) the Takelma inhabited country that was greatly desirable to white settlers for its mining and agricultural potential, and 2) the Takelma were extremely hostile to European encroachment on their land, which resulted in the Rogue River Wars of 1851-1856. At the conclusion of these Indian and white clashes, the Takelma and other Rogue River Indians were removed to reservations far to the north of their homeland.¹ By 1884, the Takelma living on reservations numbered no more than thirty.² Their culture was rapidly subsumed, and when J.O. Dorsey went to the Siletz Reservation for the Bureau of Ethnology in 1884 to obtain linguistic and ethnographic information, the Indians were attending a boarding school, living in houses, and bereft of native dress. About twenty tribes--mostly Athabaskan--are represented in the notes Dorsey obtained, so the Takelma are only briefly discussed. He was unable to get much information on the native social organization of any of these tribes.³

Edward Sapir is responsible for most of the information about the Takelma. He spent the summer of 1906 on the Siletz Reservation working on their language and culture. By that time the Takelma were almost extinct, and his informant, Frances Johnson, communicated in broken English, Chinook jargon, and Athabaskan. Ms. Johnson was one of three or four women who recalled their native tongue and at least part of the Takelma culture. From his work with her, Sapir published a short ethnography,⁴ a description of Takelma ideas on the supernatural,⁵ a list of Takelma place names, a translation of some of their myths and legends,⁶ and a Takelma grammar.⁷

Another major contributor was Philip Drucker, who spent the summer of 1933 with the Athabaskan people of northern California and the summer of 1934 with the Indians of the Siletz Reservation in Oregon.⁸ The purpose of his work was to gather data on the Athabaskan groups, but he also spent time with Molly Orton, an Upland Takelma Indian who recalled some of that culture.⁹ Drucker's short but well-done appendix on the Upland Takelma has descriptions of their subsistence, material

culture items, and social customs. Because the Upland Takelma inhabited the major portion of the planning unit, Drucker's descriptions are more pertinent to this Overview than those of Sapir.

TAKELMA TERRITORY

Tribal boundaries of the Takelma are inferred from two sources: 1) a list of villages, some with references to known geographic locations, obtained by both Dorsey and Sapir, and 2) the boundaries of neighboring tribes.

There were two groups of Takelma Indians, separated dialectically and geographically. They were the *Dagelma* ("those who live along the river"), or Lowland Takelma of the middle Rogue River, and the *Latgawa* ("those living in the mountains"), or Upland Takelma, occupying the Upper Rogue River and Bear Creek Valley.¹⁰

The Lowland Takelma inhabited the Rogue River Valley from somewhere near its confluence with the Illinois River on the west to the upper courses of Cow Creek, an Umpqua River tributary, on the north and east. To the south their land extended approximately to the California boundary.¹¹ Their eastern boundary, then, must have been in the vicinity of the present Jackson-Josephine County line, encompassing portions of the Illinois and Applegate River headwaters.

The Upland Takelma claimed most of the land that now comprises the planning unit, from the Bear Creek Valley and Table Rock east to the Cascade crest. To the north their territory extended to the upper reaches of the Rogue River, which in historic times was inhabited by the southern Molalla. This northern boundary may have been near the town of Prospect after the Molalla intruded into the area in the 1700's, but some think they may have occupied the entire Rogue River headwaters to Diamond Lake before this Molalla incursion took place.¹²

To the west of the Takelma on the lower Rogue River and on the Oregon Coast were Athabaskan-speaking tribes: Chasta Costa, Tututni, Chetco, and Tolowa. To the south were the Shasta and the Karok. To the north were the Upper Umpqua and the Southern Molalla, and the Klamath and Modoc land was to the east.

Within Takelma territory were two enclaves of Athabaskan speakers, the Galice Creek and Applegate River groups. On one map the territory of the Applegate River Athabaskans extends less than ten miles into the southwestern portion of the planning unit,¹³ but on another it encompasses southeast Jackson County.¹⁴ These groups are generally thought to be later arrivals in southwest Oregon and northwest California.

THE UPLAND AND LOWLAND TAKELMA RELATIONSHIP

Although the Upland and Lowland groups spoke mutually intelligible dialects of the Takelman language, interactions between them were not altogether friendly. The Upland Takelma of present Jackson County periodically raided the Lowland Takelma for food, valuables, and slaves, which they sold to their eastern neighbors, the Klamath. They were referred to by both the Klamath and the Lowland Takelma as "enemy," and there are Klamath accounts of skirmishes with them.¹⁵

There were apparently cultural, as well as geographic and dialectic, differences between the two Takelman groups. Sapir's informant told him that the Uplanders were considered culturally inferior to the Lowlanders--they used log rafts instead of canoes, and ate foods which disgusted the Lowland Takelma, such as ant's eggs and crows.¹⁶ Nevertheless, the two intermarried frequently.¹⁷

TAKELMAN LANGUAGE

The classification of the Takelma Indian language is problematical. It has recently been grouped with six other Oregon languages (Alsea-Coos-Siuslaw, Chinook, Kalapuya, Klamath-Modoc, Molale-Cayuse, and Sahaptin) as part of the Penutian family.¹⁸ This grouping resulted from a comparison of Takelma with Kalapuya and Chinook, and with the California Penutian family.¹⁹ However, Rigsby's study of the "Plateau Penutian" languages of Washington and Oregon (*viz.*, Nez Perce, Sahaptin, Cayuse, Molalla, and Klamath) concluded that the existence of a "Plateau Penutian" group cannot be demonstrated because the similarities of the languages may be due to borrowing rather than to common origin. The Penutian classification of Takelma and other southwest Oregon languages may be unjustified for the same reason. If this is the case, Takelman may be a language isolate. Without further linguistic research, however, any conclusions regarding this issue are certainly tenuous.

SUBSISTENCE

Upland Takelma

The Upland Takelma hunted and gathered, relying less on fish than their downriver kin. During low water near Table Rock, however, they fished for salmon, which the women split and dried, or pulverized for later consumption. Acorns, pine nuts, grass seeds, and camas were the prime vegetable foods. Insects such as caterpillars, yellowjacket larvae, and grasshoppers were eaten, and snails were also part of the diet.

Deer were hunted with snares and stalked with deer-head disguises, or they were driven by men and dogs. Some were caught in deep winter snow. Molly Orton said that pits were not used. Rabbits and, possibly, deer were driven into fences with snares in openings.²⁰

Lowland Takelma

Additional information on Takelma subsistence comes from Sapir, whose informant was a Lowland Takelma. Therefore, some of the following statements may apply only to that group.

Of the various species collected, the black acorn was most frequently used. The women gathered and prepared acorns in early spring, shelling and mashing them with long stone implements--probably pestles. Hopper mortars were used during this process to prevent loss of the meal, which was sifted in shallow, circular baskets and placed on clean sand. Boiling water was poured over the meal to leach the acid. Then the dough was boiled to produce mush in a basket of split roots and hazel shoots.

Hardwood sticks with sharpened ends and handles of deer antler were used to dig camas. It was cooked in a pit with alder bushes and bark for two days.

Manzanita berries were pounded into flour and mixed with sugar pine nuts. The mixture was eaten with a squirrel tail fastened with sinew to a six-inch stick. The Indians ate madrone and pine nuts and a number of seeds, including sunflower and tarweed, which were parched and ground.

Both Upland and Lowland Takelma groups cultivated tobacco on land cleared by burning. It was the only plant cultivated by the Takelma and other southwestern Oregon and northern California tribes.

The most important animal foods were salmon and trout species, craw fish, and freshwater mussels. Fish lines were made of grass, and hooks were two pieces of bone fastened with sinew. Fish were also netted, then clubbed or speared. They were roasted on split hazel sticks stuck in the ground. Roasted salmon were stored for the winter.

Deer were driven toward rope fences with the assistance of shoulder blade bone rattles, dogs, and sometimes fire. Once inside, the deer were clubbed. These fences (sometimes as many as 150) were set up near salt licks and creeks.

Salt obtained at Leaf Creek²¹ was used in cooking and boiling meat. Dried salmon was not salted.²²

MATERIAL CULTURE ITEMS

Stone Objects

Some Upland Takelma stone objects included ring-topped pestles, slabs with basketry mortars attached for pounding, mauls, and arrow points.²³ Some pipes were made of stone.²⁴ Their use was rather limited according to the informants.

Bone Tools

Deer-hoof rattles, scratching sticks, two-pronged harpoons, and elkhorn wedges are the only bone tools of the Upland Takelma specifically mentioned.²⁵ Pressure flakers (used in making arrow points), fire drill tips, needles, elkhorn spoons, and digging stick handles are mentioned for the Lowland Takelma.

Wood Tools

Drucker noted the Takelma use of concave, tubular wood pipes, ladders made of poles with cross-pieces fastened to them, and looped stick food stirrers. Spoons, stirrers, bows, fire hearths, and hardwood needles are included in Sapir's description of Takelma implements. The bows were fashioned from one piece of wood and polished.

Skins

The Upland Takelma made aprons, leggings, skirts, moccasins, caps, sleeves and mittens, robes, and snowshoes of the skins of various animals.²⁶ Sapir mentions only that the bowstring was made of skin.

Basketry

Many Takelma implements were made of basketry materials. Molly Orton told Drucker that spruce roots and tules were the principle basketry materials. Cradles, seed baskets, storage baskets, cooking and eating utensils, burden baskets, winnowing and parching trays, hopper mortars, and hats were some of the items she mentioned. Sapir notes the same basic items from Frances Johnson, who said that the warp was of hazel or willow and that the only dyes used were red and black.²⁷

War Implements

Bows and arrows were the principle weapons, and the bow was held horizontally. Arrowheads were poisoned with rattlesnake venom. Armor was made of elk hides covering sticks of wood, without sleeves and reaching to the hips.

Ornamentation

Takelma women tatoored their chins and arms; the men were tatoored on the left arm between the shoulder and elbow for the purpose of measuring strings of dentalia, the shell currency. Tatooring was done with charcoal-tipped needles. Both the Upland and Lowland groups put strings of shells in their pierced noses and ears. Black, red, and white paint was used on the face. Porcupine quills and feathers from red-headed woodpeckers, eagles, and yellow hammers were also used as ornamentation.

SETTLEMENTS AND DWELLINGS

House Types

Five structures were noted for the Lowland Takelma: the semi-subterranean winter dwelling, the bark structures of poor people, the men's sweathouse, the women's sweathouse, and the summer brush shelters. Upland Takelma structures are only briefly described by Drucker--those mentioned are the winter dwelling, the men's sweathouse, and the rude summer shelter.

The rectangular Lowland Takelma winter dwelling was excavated to about one-and-a-half to two feet and had a smooth-stamped floor. There were four corner posts with connecting crossbeams. The walls were split sugar pine boards placed vertically between the cross beams to the floor. Above the crossbeams was a ridgepost supported by two forked posts. The rectangular door, made of several pieces of lumber, was above the surface of the ground and had a dirt ramp for access. Inside a ladder stretched from the door to the center of the lodge, where the fire was located.²⁸ It is interesting to note that Molly Orton's description of the Upland Takelma house is different, because Drucker stated that the houses were crudely constructed, and that both the lodge and the men's sweathouse sometimes had earth-covered roofs.²⁹ It is not clear whether this was a difference between the Upland and Lowland groups before white contact, or whether the crudeness of the Upland Takelma dwelling was due to culture stress from European intrusions.

The men's sweathouse is described as rectangular, semi-subterranean, and earth-covered. The door was on one side and a hole for bringing in heated rocks was on the other. These sweathouses were owned by wealthier men, and poor people who worked for them tended the fires. There was usually only one in a village. About six men could fit in it.

The women's sweathouse was a small stick structure covered with blankets for two or three people. There is no mention of a menstrual or childbirth lodge or of a community structure like the *okwa'umma* of the Shasta to the south.

Poor people did not live in timbered lodges. Instead, their house walls were made of pine bark.³⁰ The only description of the summer brush hut is that it was crudely constructed of boughs.³¹

Villages

Both Dorsey and Sapir obtained lists of at least some of the Takelma villages. Dorsey's seventeen names are Athabaskan, not Takelman, place names. Sapir obtained eleven village names in the Takelma language, however. There is probably some duplication of villages between these two lists. Dorsey said that the reason his informant gave Athabaskan names for Takelman villages was due to an Athabaskan invasion, after which the conquerors gave their names to the Takelma villages.³² Sapir said it is more likely that Athabaskan place names were adopted because of the Takelman's use of this language on the Siletz Reservation.³³

Only three of these villages were probably within the planning unit boundaries: *Hatil*, east of Table Rock; *Gelyalk*, below Table Rock; and *Latgau*, beyond Table Rock. The village *Didalam* was on the present location of Grants Pass, just outside the planning unit. Sapir speculates that another village, *Ditani*, translated as "rock above," may mean Table Rock, since the names of the villages come mostly from some natural geographic feature near them. Applegate Creek was called *Sbink* or "beaver place."³⁴

TRADE

The Takelma had never heard of the Coos or the Kalapuya; their trade relations were with neighboring tribes only.³⁵ It has been mentioned already that the Upland Takelma traded Lowland Takelma slaves to the Klamath. Many items were traded with the Shasta, despite unfriendly relations at times. These included dentalia, which were obtained from the north by the Takelma³⁶ in exchange for acorns and acorn paste. Because Shasta and Takelma frequently intermarried, their clothing was similar.³⁷

The white grass basketry hats worn by the Takelma women were trade items from the Shasta. Basketry items were obtained from the Karok of Happy Camp, California.³⁸ No information could be found regarding trade with Athabaskan speakers on the lower Rogue River and on Galice and Applegate Creeks.

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

The Takelma social organization was extremely simple. The basic units were the family and the village, and each village was independent of the others. Apparently there were no groups of villages with a single head person, as among the Shasta. Rather, each village had several head people whose positions were based on wealth. Anyone who was wealthy could be a leader of sorts, so it can be inferred that wealthy people controlled villages.³⁹ If these people had any specific duties, they are not described in the ethnographies, nor is it mentioned whether the Takelma kept slaves.

MARRIAGE

The Takelma purchased women for marriage like the Shasta. Marriage arrangements were made when the bride and groom were very young. When the marriage took place the couple's families exchanged goods, and the family of the bride continued to receive gifts from their new son-in-law for a time after the marriage. After the birth of a couple's first child, a deer-skin sack filled with "Indian money" (probably dentalia) was given to the woman's father as payment for the child.⁴⁰ The social status of the children depended on the purchase price, or "bride price," of their mother.

The Takelma could not marry within their own family, and marriage between cousins, a common event among many North American Indian tribes, was forbidden. If a husband died, his brother married his widow. Customarily, marriage partners were selected outside the village, and even outside the Takelma group. Marriage with the Shasta and Galice Creek Athabaskans was not uncommon. Polygamy is noted among the Upland Takelma.⁴¹

Because a Takelma woman was a source of wealth to her family, she was carefully guarded. At puberty, a menstrual dance was held in her honor, and with it, a feast to which neighbors and relatives were invited. This ceremony lasted five days, and the girl observed taboos. Her bangs were cut off, she could not look at the sky (she wore a cap to prevent her from doing so), her cheeks were painted with three black stripes and one red stripe, and to prevent bad dreams, which were believed to come true, she slept with her head in a funnel-shaped basket.⁴²

Drucker's description of this ceremony among the Upland Takelma is concise:

There was a dance to celebrate a girl's first menses. Men and women formed a circle around a fire outdoors. The girl seems to have been inside the circle, covered with robes. At some time in the proceedings, she danced herself, while the rest of the people watched. She danced back and forth, facing the east. She wore a visor of blue-jay feathers, and used a deer-hoof rattle. A scratching stick of bone was fastened to her wrist. She was permitted to sleep but little; "she might dream something bad, and poison the people." Just before dawn she bathed, and was allowed a few hours sleep, with a basket hopper over her head. Afterward, she carried wood for the dance fire of that night. For the five days of the rite, she was given only dried food, and not much of that. The ritual was repeated for each of her first five periods. Thereafter an old woman painted the girl's face, cut her hair in bangs across her forehead, and recited a formula over her. For this the old woman was given the clothes, etc., which the girl had used.⁴³

Like the Shasta, the Takelma had a system for acquiring wealth from payments made for injuries incurred during feuds. Payments were determined by a person's worth, which was reckoned by the purchase price paid for his or her mother. A go-between acted for the parties involved. Drucker's Upland Takelma informant mentions a display of wealth similar to the lower Klamath River tribes at the First Salmon Ceremony.⁴⁴

MYTHS AND SHAMANS

The Takelma Indians believed in no supreme creator, but rather that powerful spirits controlled people's lives and certain natural phenomena. These spirits were identified with plants and animals. A number of charms and special prayers were used to gain the favor of the spirits and as protection from evil spirits.

The shamans were thought to be extremely powerful, evil persons, who gained their power from guardian spirits. They were best shunned, although they apparently practiced curing by sucking foreign objects from the afflicted people's bodies. The Takelma believed that evil people and powerful shamans caused disease. Many animals, like hummingbirds, were also thought to be evil.

Shamans were hostile to another Takelma class of magic practitioners, the dreamers, or *somloholaxas*, who were thought to be omnipotent, capable of influencing powerful spirits, and able to cure disease (but not by extracting objects from the body). Their powerful spirits were chickenhawk, sparrowhawk, Acorn Woman, and nearby mountain spirits, one of whom resided in the mountains near Jacksonville.⁴⁵ Thus, geographic locations within Takelma territory were imbued with mythological and magical significance.

The Takelma had a few ceremonies, including the menstrual dance, some shamanistic rites, and celebrations of the first salmon catch and harvest of acorns. War dances were also performed. Unfortunately, Sapir was able to collect very little information from his Takelma informant because women were prohibited from participating in several ceremonies.

After death the ghost of a person was thought to live in a special land down the river on the opposite shore. People were buried in the ground with acorns in deerskin blankets with strings of dentalia. Baskets and other trinkets were strewn over the grave. If someone died away from home, the flesh was burned off the body, and the bones were brought home for regular funeral rites. As a sign of mourning, widows cut their hair and smeared themselves with pitch. Whistling sounds at night were attributed to ghosts.⁴⁷

WHITE CONTACT

Trappers Peter Skene Ogden and Michel LaFramboise were the first explorers to mention the Indians along the Rogue River. Because the distinctions among the Rogue Indian groups were not well-known at the time and because different names were given by different groups, it is difficult to say with certainty which Indian group they encountered in any particular location. It is unclear whether Ogden was among the Shasta or the Takelma, but he was told that what one recent author has interpreted to be the Applegate River was full of beaver.⁴⁸ It is notable that the Takelma had a special name for this river: *Sbink*, which means "Place of the Beavers."⁴⁹ Ogden called whomever he was among the "Sastise" because he had just come from Klamath country, and this was their term, or so he thought, for all the groups living west of them. His Klamath guide apparently did not inform him otherwise.

In June, 1846, Lindsey Applegate crossed the area between the Rogue River and Emigrant Creek and saw no hostile Indians or settlements.⁵⁰

The Gold Rush of the 1850's in this part of Oregon brought open hostilities between whites and various Rogue River and other Indian groups, resulting in the removal of these groups from their native lands to the Siletz Reservation. This will be discussed in Chapters 11 and 12.

CULTURAL POSITION OF THE TAKELMA

The Takelma were closely allied culturally with their southern neighbors, the Shasta. Both had characteristics resembling the lower Klamath River tribes in that they depended a great deal on river resources, had displays of wealth, and defined notions of social status based on wealth. They are most often allied with the people in the Northwest California Culture Area as are their western neighbors, the Athabaskan-speaking tribes of southwest Oregon.

TAKELMA ENDNOTES

¹Howard McKinley Corning, *Dictionary of Oregon History* (Portland, 1956), p. 211

²J.W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology*, p. 121.

³J.O. Dorsey, "Indians of the Siletz Reservation, Oregon" *American Anthropologist*, II O.S. (1889), 55-61. Dorsey classifies the Indian languages on the Siletz Reservation as follows: 1) Athabaskan--Applegate Creek, Galice Creek, Chasta Costa, Upper Coquille, Chetco, Mikonotunne, Tutu Joshua, Euchre Creek, Sixes Creek, Naltunne Tunne, Smith River (California), and Upper Umpqua; 2) Yakonan--Yaquina, Alsea, Siuslaw, and Kiutc or Lower Umpqua; 3) Kusan--Lower Coquille; 4) Takilman--Takelma or Upper Rogue River; 5) Shastian--Shasta; 6) Sahaptian--Klikitat. Further information comes from J.O. Dorsey, "The Gentile System of the Siletz Tribes," *Journal of American Folklore*, III (1890), 227-37.

⁴Edward Sapir, "Notes on the Takelma Indians of Southwestern Oregon," *American Anthropologist*, IX (1907a), 251-75.

⁵Edward Sapir, "Religious Ideas of the Takelma Indians of Southwestern Oregon," *Journal of American Folklore*, XX (1907b), 33-49.

⁶Edward Sapir, "Takelma Texts," *Anthropological Publications* II, no. 1 (1909). This "dictionary" gives Takelma place names for natural features such as Mt. McLoughlin and Mt. Ashland.

⁷Edward Sapir, "Takelma Grammar" in "Central and North American Languages," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, 14th ed., V (1929), 138-41.

⁸Philip Drucker, "The Tolowa and Their Southwest Oregon Kin," *Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology*, XXXVI (1936). The appendix in this article includes a brief description of the Upland Takelma of the Upper Rogue area. It is the only direct ethnographic account of this group.

⁹Molly Orton told Drucker that she was related to Frances Johnson, Sapir's Lowland Takelma informant.

¹⁰The conflicting claims of the Shasta and the Upland Takelma to the Bear Creek Valley are discussed in detail in chapter 2.

¹¹Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 252.

¹²Joel Berreman, "Tribal Distribution in Oregon," *Memoirs of the American Anthropological Association*, no. 47 (1937), p. 27.

¹³Claude Schaeffer, map entitled "Indian Tribes and Languages of the Old Oregon Country," Oregon Historical Society Portland, Oregon, 1959.

¹⁴William Loy, *Atlas of Oregon* (1976), p. 7.

¹⁵Leslie Spier, "Tribal Distribution in Southwest Oregon," *Oregon Historical Society Quarterly*, XXVIII, no. 4, (1927b), 362.

¹⁶Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 252.

¹⁷Drucker, "The Tolowa," p. 294.

¹⁸Spencer and Jennings, *The Native Americans* (New York, 1965), p. 108.

¹⁹Leo Frachtenberg, "Comparative Studies in Takelman, Kalapuyan, and Chinookan Lexicography," *International Journal of American Linguistics*, I (1918), 175-82; Sapir, "Takelma Grammar."

²⁰Drucker, "The Tolowa," p. 294.

²¹Leaf Creek has also been referred to as the western boundary of the Takelma. At present, no one has been able to identify this creek Berreman (1937, p. 28) said, "I am unable to identify this stream. It must be Howard Creek or in that neighborhood, as Dorsey says it is the next below Galice Creek on the south side of the river."

²²Sapir, "Takelma Notes," pp. 257-61.

²³Drucker, "The Tolowa," pp. 294-95.

²⁴Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 259.

²⁵Drucker, "The Tolowa," pp. 294-95.

²⁶Drucker, "The Tolowa," pp. 294-95. In his journal entry of February 10, 1827, Peter Skene Ogden noted that the Indians he saw, who were probably in eastern Josephine County, were wearing beaver skins, minus the hair, and that they had beaver skin arrow quivers and caps.

²⁷Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 261.

²⁸Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 262.

²⁹Drucker, "The Tolowa," p. 294.

³⁰Sapir, "Takelma Notes," pp. 262-63.

³¹Drucker, "The Tolowa," p. 294.

³²Dorsey, "The Gentile System," p. 235.

³³Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 254.

³⁴On page 255 of his "Takelma Notes," Sapir makes reference to the notes of H.H. Sinclair. He does not explain what this means; perhaps it was dictation from another Takelma informant. If so, it is not clear whether Sapir or Dorsey or someone else obtained these notes.

³⁵Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 253.

³⁶Ibid., p. 265.

³⁷Ibid., p. 264.

³⁸Drucker, "The Tolowa," p. 295.

³⁹Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 267.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 275.

⁴¹Drucker, "The Tolowa," p. 295.

⁴²Sapir, "Takelma Notes," pp: 273-74.

⁴³Drucker, "The Tolowa," pp. 295-96.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 296.

⁴⁵Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 45.

⁴⁶Sapir, "Takelma Religious Ideas," p. 33.

⁴⁷Ibid., 48.

⁴⁸Richard Dillon, *Siskiyou Trail: The Hudson's Bay Fur Company Route to California* (1975).

⁴⁹Sapir, "Takelma Notes," p. 256.

⁵⁰Spier, "Tribal Distribution," p. 359.

4. Klamath Ethnography

INTRODUCTION

Perhaps it is unfortunate that the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit encompasses only a small portion of Klamath territory, for the literature on this tribe is more detailed, varied, and certainly more voluminous than that for any other Indian group in the Unit. This section on the Klamath contains information comparable to the sections on the Takelma and Shasta, but it is based on much more information.

Albert S. Gatschet was the first ethnographer to visit Klamath country (in the autumn of 1877) and describe its culture and language.¹ In 1896, botanist Frederick B. Coville inventoried the plants used by the Klamath and studied their method of processing the seeds of the yellow water lily for food.² In 1900, George A. Dorsey spent a week among the Klamath gathering ethnological specimens for the Field Museum of Natural History in Chicago and later published an article on the games played by the Klamath Indians.³ In 1907, S.A. Barrett came from the University of California to collect ethnological specimens for the present Lowie Museum at Berkeley. Barrett subsequently published an extensive description of the material culture of the Klamath Indians.⁴ Edward Curtis photographed Klamath Indians in the early 1900's and collected information on their culture and language as well.⁵

A number of researchers have done linguistic field work among the Klamath. They include Gatschet, Jaime de Angulo and L.S. Freeland,⁶ and M.A.R. Barker, who published Klamath texts, a Klamath grammar, and a Klamath dictionary.⁷ The earliest linguistic work among the Klamath was done by Horatio Hale, the linguist for the U.S. Exploring Expedition under Commander Charles Wilkes.⁸

There are also a number of early historical accounts of the Klamath. Lt. Henry L. Abbot, a member of the Pacific Railroad Survey, was among the Klamath for nineteen days in August of 1855, and he described their houses, burials, and the Indians themselves.⁹ The very earliest account of contact with the Klamath comes from Peter Skene Ogden's journals, which date from the winter of 1826-1827.¹⁰ John C. Fremont, who was in the area for the U.S. Topographical Corps after obtaining federal aid for a western railroad survey, also described his observations of the Klamath.¹¹

Undoubtedly the best known source of information about the Klamath culture is *Klamath Ethnography* by Leslie Spier.¹² This 300-page document is based on two months' field work among the Klamath during 1925 and 1926. Spier interviewed four elderly Klamath informants, of whom three were about seventy years old. Since these early writings many anthropologists and other social scientists have studied the Klamath Indians. B.K. Swartz, Jr., of the Klamath County Museum has prepared an extensive annotated bibliography of Klamath resource materials that includes everything published up to the early 1960's.

KLAMATH TERRITORY

The Klamath Indians relied on the lakes, marshes, and rivers in their territory for primary food resources. Therefore, their main settlements were found on Klamath Lake, Klamath Marsh, and on the Sprague and Williamson Rivers. These settlements were permanent winter villages--summer camps were dispersed over a wider area.

The boundaries of Klamath territory were the Cascade watershed to the west, including the northwest side of Mt. McLoughlin and the southwest side of Crater Lake as far south as the Spencer Creek-Keno vicinity;¹³ the north bank of the Lost River about a mile south of the buttes at Olene to the south; as far as the headwaters of the Deschutes River to the north; and, finally, as far as Silver, Summer, Goose and Abert Lakes near the modern community of Lakeview, Oregon, to the east. The eastern and northern boundaries were somewhat indefinite. This territory included Sycan River, Sycan Marsh, and Yamsay Mountain, where the Klamath spent time in the summers. Their easternmost settlement was west of Gearhart Mountain. The Klamath also probably visited Chewaucan Marsh.

Indian groups surrounding the Klamath included the Molalla to the northwest, the Upland Takelma to the west, the Shasta to the southwest, the Modoc (a group related closely to the Klamath) to the south, the northern Paiute to the east, and Sahaptian groups to the north and northeast.

ORIGIN OF THE NAME "KLAMATH"

The Klamath did not call themselves by this term, and its origin is obscure. Peter Skene Ogden first used it in 1826 and spelled it "Clammitte," but his journal records show that he used this designation before he was among the Klamath. He apparently heard this term from Indians north of the Klamath. Albert Gatschet suggested that it was derived from a Yurok designation, but Kroeber suggests it was derived from the Kalapuya term for the Klamaths, *Athlameth*. Prehistorically, the Klamath

were probably designated by as many terms as they had neighbors or other groups who had heard of them. The Klamath's own name for themselves is *Maklaks*. These Indians later referred to themselves as Klamath, pronouncing it kla'met, which is the way it appeared in the accounts of early travelers.

KLAMATH LANGUAGE

Horatio Hale, linguist on the Wilkes Expedition of 1841, collected information on the Klamath language along with the languages of other Indian groups visited by the expedition. He linked the Modoc and the Klamath languages together under the designation "Lutuami." Later Gatschet's two-volume work on the Klamath, which included a dictionary, a grammar, and texts, noted resemblances among Klamath and languages to the north. Then in the early 1900's, W.E. Myers, linguist for Edward S. Curtis, collected information on Klamath language and also suggested resemblances to languages north of the Klamath Basin and up into the Columbia River region. In 1929, Edward Sapir grouped Klamath and Modoc with a number of these northern languages, designating them "Plateau-Penutian."¹⁴ Still later, linguist Haruo Aoki observed lexical resemblances between northern Sahaptian and Nez Perce languages and the Klamath languages.¹⁵

Together with the Sahaptian and Cayuse languages of the Columbia Plateau area and the Chinook, Kalapuya, Alsea-Coos-Siuslaw, and Takelma, the Klamath-Modoc languages are grouped into the Great Penutian language division, which includes some of the California languages of the Sacramento-San Joaquin River Valleys, as was proposed by Sapir in 1929. However, the Plateau-Penutian grouping has recently been criticized because most of the resemblances noted are due to borrowing among the tribes rather than to a common ancestor language.¹⁶ If this is true, the Klamath-Modoc linguistic relationships remain obscure.

SUBSISTENCE

As previously stated, the Klamath were most dependent on water resources for their food supply, but they were more dependent upon rivers and marshes than they were on lakes. Their primary food was fish, mostly salmon, which migrated up the Klamath River to spawn in the headwaters of its tributaries. The Klamaths also relied heavily on the seeds of the yellow water lily, called *wokas*, which was gathered in late summer and processed into a variety of forms.¹⁷ They ate various other vegetable foods, but these were not nearly as important as *wokas* to their food economy. Some of these other foods, which have been described in detail by Coville, were lichens, pine nuts, various marsh grasses, camas, the bark of several

different kinds of trees, chinquapin nuts, hazelnuts, lambs' quarters, current berries, gooseberries, native strawberries, buck brush roots, chokecherries, wild red plums, ipos roots, manzanita berries, huckleberries, native mint and elderberries.¹⁸ A number of other plants were used for medicinal purposes.

Large and small game hunting, which was a main pursuit of their kinfolk the Modoc to the south, was much less important to the Klamath. The divergence in subsistence practices of these two closely related tribes was the result of different environments.

The seasonal journeys of the Klamath Indians through their territory were mostly directed by the availability of food resources. In the winter they lived in winter settlements and subsisted on stores of vegetable foods gathered during the summer months and whatever fish could be caught in the lakes and streams. Often toward the end of the winter there were food shortages and famine. Early in the spring, the Klamath would strip the bark layers from the yellow pine to reach the underlying cambium, which was eaten. In April or May, people left the winter villages to gather the edible plants ripening in the marshes and prairies, and they joined the Modoc on Lost River to catch the first salmon runs. From mid-August until late September the Klamath women harvested *wokas* at Klamath Marsh. At this time some of the men hunted in the eastern portion of their territory for deer, antelope, and other game. Late summer-ripening berries, seeds, and nuts were also gathered at the end of the *wokas* season. The Indians journeyed to Huckleberry Mountain (about fifteen miles southwest of Crater Lake) to obtain this fruit. In late September, many people returned to winter earth lodges to repair them for coming months, usually completing this task by December.

TECHNIQUES OF FOOD PROCUREMENT

Fishing

According to Spier's informants, fish could be caught year-around on the Williamson River, but in many other streams they ran only in the spring. Therefore, most of the settlements were on the Williamson River. The height of the fish run was in March and April, and other kinds of fish followed throughout the summer. Seven kinds of fish ran in the spring, and larger varieties came in the fall.¹⁹

The Klamath caught fish in a number of ways. They built dams along the river in order to net fish more easily, since netting was the most common way of catching fish. They used several different kinds of dip and gill nets, including a large, triangular dip net that was fastened to the front of

canoes. Both men and women made nets. Fish traps, not often used, were cylindrical baskets of willow branches hauled up when fish were seen in them. They also used fish spears, which usually had two prongs with detachable barbless bone points. These spears were used in the rivers and for ice fishing. Another kind of spear, made of a number of hardwood prongs bound together, was used for spearing slow-moving bottom fish. The Klamath rarely fished with hook and line.

Wokas Gathering

Women harvested *wokas* mostly on Klamath Marsh, using a special canoe and long forked pole to move about. *Wokas* seeds in various stages of maturity were gathered in the canoe and returned to the shore where they were processed into many different kinds of food. A good day's harvest consisted of four to six bushels of hard pods. One of the favorite foods made from *wokas* was cooked in large pits about one-and-a-half to two feet in depth and diameter.²⁰

Klamath women harvested various roots with digging sticks. Fremont noted that large patches of ground were dug up by women.²¹

Hunting

The Klamath hunted in the Cascade Mountains to the west and in the deserts to the east of their territory, but there were also many large game animals in the heart of their territory, including elk, deer and antelope. South of Klamath Falls, near the present wildlife refuge, deer and Pacific migratory fowl were abundant. Spier prepared a list of thirty-one animals and wildfowl that the Klamath were accustomed to eating.²²

Large game was hunted with a bow--the Klamath did not use snares for either large game or waterfowl. Only occasionally did they use deadfall traps. Unlike the Shasta and Takelma Indians, the Klamath did not drive deer or other large game into enclosures, nor did they use nets for catching various large and small game. They did, however, drive deer into a different kind of enclosure--the marshes, where women waiting in canoes shot or clubbed them to death. No disguises were used to conceal deer hunters. Dogs were used in hunting, but they did not track or drive game, and it is not clear from the ethnographies exactly how they were used.

Deadfall traps were made of logs and had devices that trapped the animals inside. They were used in the Cascades for small fur-bearing animals and coyotes.²³

Three methods were used to hunt waterfowl: they were shot, hunted at night with a light, or caught in nets. The arrows used to get waterfowl had light cane foreshafts, each with a ring of pitch serving as a barb, or a barb carved from the shaft itself. Large nets were used in marshes for waterfowl; they were set underwater to catch the birds when they dove.

To catch birds at night, fires were built in the front of canoes, and large triangular fishing nets caught the birds as they flew towards the light. They were then clubbed to death. Other times diving birds were speared with the many-pointed fish prongs described earlier, or sometimes nets were attached to shafts--the shafts were thrown at flocks of birds on the ground, spreading the nets over the prey. Sharpened rods were attached to the nets to hold them in the ground.

Meat was prepared in various ways. Some of it was boiled, probably by placing hot stones in a basket as was done in *wokas* preparation. Some kinds of meat were pit roasted, and grizzly bear paws were baked in ashes before they were skinned. Salt was apparently unknown to the Klamath before the whites came to their territory.

Insects were not a regular part of the diet, but the women gathered moth chrysalids and pit-roasted them in layers of grass.

TRADE

The Klamath, unlike the Shasta and the Takelma, were part of a large trading network at The Dalles, Oregon, where a number of the Plateau and western Plains tribes met regularly to obtain trade items from other groups. Consequently, the Klamath were beginning to show a number of Plains and Plateau characteristics that were not present among other tribes of southwest Oregon. The Klamath traded slaves, captured from northeastern California tribes, especially the Pit River groups.²⁴ The Klamath exchange of goods at The Dalles is described:

Slaves, Pit River bows and beads, and lily seed were taken there to exchange for horses, blankets, buffalo skins, parfleches, beads (probably dentallium shells), dried salmon, and lamprey eels. Occasionally, they stayed the winter on the Columbia, sometimes for a number of years.

...the Klamath set the exchange price of two slave children taken to The Dalles at five horses, several buffalo skins, and some beads.²⁵

Spier and Sapir observed that the Klamath probably traded mostly with the Chinook-speaking Wasco and the central Oregon Sahaptian-speaking groups, commonly known as the Warm Springs Indians.²⁶

Although the *Walumskni*, or Upland Takelma, were bitter enemies of the Klamath, it has been noted that the Klamath obtained Lowland Takelma slaves from them.²⁷ The Klamath also raided the northern Paiute and Shasta for slaves, but not as frequently or systematically as they invaded the Pit River tribes for this purpose.²⁸

The Klamath also traded with the Molalla to the northwest of Klamath territory. Trading encounters between these two groups took place on the headwaters of the Rogue River west of Crater Lake. They traded beads and water lily seeds for buckskins. Curtis also noted the Klamath and Molalla trade in which *wokas* was exchanged for Molalla elkhorn spoons.²⁹ Although Dixon stated that Shasta and Klamath trade was slight, there was trade with the Shovel and Jenny Creek groups for Shasta beads. For these, the Shasta were given skins and skin blankets.³⁰

Because they were closely related, there was much interchange between the Klamath and the Modoc. Some items manufactured by the Pit River Indians were obtained by the Klamath from the Modoc. The Klamath and Modoc frequently intermarried.

MATERIAL CULTURE ITEMS

Introduction

The ethnographic descriptions of Klamath material culture are much more comprehensive than those of other southwest Oregon groups. The articles contain many illustrations of the items described, and several museum collections of Klamath artifacts have been located during the research for this Overview. The different types of artifacts are briefly listed below, and unless otherwise noted, this section is derived primarily from Barrett's article (1910) on the material culture of the Klamath Lake and Modoc Indians of northeastern California and southern Oregon.

Stone Implements

The two-horned muller, used in grinding *wokas* seeds with a flat, thin metate base, is the most distinctive stone artifact of the Klamath, and it is largely unique to them. The two horns of this implement were grasped by the Klamath women to pull the muller back and forth over *wokas* seeds. Small mortars

and pestles were sometimes used for grinding seeds, but their use was most common among older people who had lost their teeth. Another common stone implement was the maul, which had a very conical form.³¹ The maul was used in driving elkhorn and mountain mahogany wedges into trees to split them. A single-grooved, flat-bottomed arrow straightener was made of stone, as were net sinkers, knives, and large pestles, which were cylindrical or slender cones with rounded bases and sometimes with nobs at the top. Also, some spear points and arrowheads were made of stone, and the Indians often used ones they found lying on the ground in their territory. Several different types of angular stone pipes were made (the Klamath cultivated tobacco by planting seeds under burnt logs).³²

The Klamath had three types of stone sculpture. The shamans used the first of these, anthropomorphic figures called *henwas*. The Indians believed that *henwas* were either male or female and that they had the power to move about independently. *Henwas* are now quite rare; the Lowie Museum at the University of California at Berkeley has some, but there is also an excellent display in the Klamath County Museum in Klamath Falls, Oregon.

The second kind of sculpture was free-standing figures, some of which were animals, and others unidentifiable but given names like "windrock." Finally, there were decorated utilitarian items such as manos, metates, mortars and bowls, mauls, and heating stones with symbolic decorations.³³

Wood

Probably the most notable wooden implements used by the Klamath were their dugout canoes, made of fir logs hollowed out by burning. They were about thirty feet long and twenty-six inches wide. Cedar paddles were used to propel the canoes, or, in the case of *wokas* gathering, a long pole with a forked end was pushed against the roots of the marsh plants. Spears, and sometimes points, were also made of wood. Mountain mahogany wedges were used to split trees.

Drums were made of juniper, with deerskin heads, and flutes were made of grapevine. The lower end of a cedar canoe paddle was used as a hearth for fire-making.

Bone and Shell

According to the literature, the only shell used by the Klamath was dentalia. This shell currency was believed by the Karok of the lower Klamath River to grow in the mud of the Klamath marshes,³⁴ but the Klamath used it for ornamentation rather than for money.

Bone artifacts included elkhorn wedges, awls, harpoon points, fish hooks, and adzes, which were blades of elkhorn lashed to wooden handles and used in making canoes and cutting firewood. Elkhorn spoons were obtained from the Molalla. An implement made from a deer rib was used to peel bark from pine trees.

Basketry

The basketry of the Klamath was twined and of two types: soft basketry and rigid basketry, the former being more prevalent. Basketry materials included the leaves of the cattail tule and the skin of the circular tule. The Klamath twisted tule fibers, which were then incorporated into the soft basketry. Many baskets have designs made with dyed grasses and dyed porcupine quills.

Unsplit tule was used in coarser baskets, which were mostly larger conical burden baskets and large straight-walled storage baskets for holding berries and fish. Tule was also used for mats, caps, quivers, moccasins and leggings, blankets, snowshoes, and some rafts. One of the Klamath's most characteristic baskets was a flat, triangular platter made of tule and used for serving food. There were tule sacks for transporting and storing *wokas*. Burden baskets were made of willow and other sticks and used specifically for gathering wild plums. Another basket with a handle was used as a sieve and sifter.

War Implements

The bow and arrow and a short javelin were the principal Klamath weapons. The war bow was similar to that found in northwestern California--it had a sinew back and sharply up-curved ends.³⁵ The arrows had light wood or cane shafts with hardwood foreshafts and large obsidian points. Javelin shafts were made of heavy wood with large obsidian points from two to six inches long. The Klamath also had armor made of small rods of pine wood bound together with hemp and sisal. The armor was decorated with red and yellow cords and red-painted buckskin.³⁶

Bows were made of yew wood. Arrow shafts were made of cane or straight shoots of service berry or rose, with shafts of hardwood, preferably mountain mahogany.

Ornamentation

The Klamath applied black, red, and yellow pigment to their faces for ornamentation, particularly during dances. They painted stripes or streaks over their bodies with white clay. Charcoal was used in tattooing, although the practice

became less frequent in ethnographic times. Klamath men were tattooed with single black lines running from the middle of their lower lips to their chins. Women had four perpendicular lines on their chins. The Klamaths also practiced frontal head-flattening.

Like the Takelma, the Klamath pierced their noses and ears and inserted dentalia. Dentalia and stone bead necklaces, as well as decorative elements on clothing, were used for ornamentation.

SETTLEMENTS AND DWELLINGS

Settlements and Other Features of Klamath Territory

Spier prepared maps of the locations of cremation piles, mourner sweatlodges, and village sites of the Klamath Indians based on information from Klamath, other sources, and personal observation. None of these major features occurs within the eastern Planning Unit boundaries. However, it is reported that the Shasta and the Klamath jointly occupied a fishing site upstream from Jenny Creek.³⁷ It is likely that the southeast boundary of the Planning Unit was a hunting grounds for the Klamath and possibly the Modoc. It may also have been an area where trading took place--there are a number of sites in this area, and several are quite extensive.

House Types

Six types of structures were found among the Klamath: 1) the winter lodges, 2) the summer houses, 3) the poor people's houses, 4) the cooking lodges, 5) sweatlodges, and 6) the mourners' sweatlodges. These are briefly described below.

Winter Dwellings

Building houses was a major occupation of the Klamath. They frequently tore down their earth lodges in the spring and rebuilt them in the fall. The manufacture of tule mats, which covered all the lodges, was a major facet of house preparation. The Klamath celebrated the completion of winter houses with feasts.

The Klamath house was circular and had a conical roof. Considerable variation in the sizes of the various kinds of houses was observed--the largest winter dwellings could accommodate several families, and the largest pit Spier saw was thirty-five feet in diameter. The largest houses always belonged to shamans because the shamanistic performances were held in them.

The houses were excavated to about two feet, but the largest ones were waist-deep. Pits were excavated with digging sticks, and the dirt removed was thrown around the edges of the pit. Four central posts in the pit formed the main frame of the house. Other poles connected these corner posts, which were then covered with mats, dirt, and grass. Access was through a hole in the roof.³⁸

The access hole in the roof was covered with mats at night. Houses faced southeast because of the prevailing winds from the west. There were steps to the hole in the roof made of tree trunks set in the roof to form rungs, and the ladder to the interior was made of poles with the rungs tied on.

The fireplace was in the center between the four center posts and under the entrance. No pits or surrounding stones were used to contain the fire.

The Summer House

The summer house differed from the winter dwelling in only two respects: there was no excavation, and the roof was covered with mats instead of dirt. These houses were smaller in diameter than the winter dwellings, and they had no ladders because the entrances were on ground level.³⁹

The Cook House

The cooking house was dome-shaped with a series of parallel arches formed by willow poles lashed together to create a frame. Mats covered the structure, and spaces were left at the top for a smoke hole and a doorway. Cooking was done in this structure by the women of the household, which could include more than one family. They carried food to the earth lodges from this unit.

Sometimes poor people used these cooking houses for winter dwellings, apparently after they had been abandoned by the original owners.

Sweatlodges

There were two kinds of sweatlodges: the summer lodge, which was larger, and the winter lodge.⁴⁰ These were dome-shaped and mat-covered and had willow frames. Green grass was placed between the mats to prevent steam loss. The small entrance was covered by a mat. Stones were heated outside and rolled into the lodge through a special hollow. These lodges were shared by men and women.

The Mourners' Sweatlodge

These special-function sweatlodges were usually very similar to the winter sweatlodges, but one that was pointed out to Spier was quite different. It was apparently not being used, and all that remained was a U-shaped wall of stones, which at one time had a gable roof covered with dirt. There were no menstrual lodges for women, except those living with shamans. These women constructed small, dome-shaped lodges near the dwellings.

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

The Klamath were divided into four, and possibly five, groups. Each group occupied a specific location and was politically independent. The groups frequently feuded with each other, but in times of danger from outsiders they united to protect themselves. Feuds between them were, however, carried on much the same as raids against non-Klamath--slaves were taken and property was destroyed or confiscated.

Various settlements within these divisions constituted the towns, which for the most part consisted of related individuals. No linguistic differences were observed among the divisions by either Gatschet or Spier.

The divisions were:

1) The *Aukckni*, the Klamath proper. Their territory included Klamath Marsh and the middle Williamson River. The Sprague River people may have also been included.

2) The *Kowa'cdikni*. The people of this division lived in a village on Agency Lake. Apparently, they were very closely related to *Aukckni*.

3) The *Du'kwakni*, on the delta of the Williamson River.

4) The *Gu'mbotkni* of Pelican Bay and the marsh north of it. They were closely related to the *Dukwakni*.

5) The *Iu'lalonkni*, who lived along Klamath Falls and the eastern shore of Klamath Lake.

Spier gives an idea of the size of these divisions: the *Aukckni* had about thirty settlements, about half the total number of Klamath Indians. The *Iu'lalonkni* had about thirteen settlements; the *Gu'mbotkni* had seven, the *Du'kwakni* five, and the *Kowa'cdikni* one.

The *Aukckni* were regarded as the most powerful of the subdivisions. Klamath myths state that they were created by the culture hero, *Kemu'kumps*, before the others.⁴¹

Importance of Shamans

Spier pointed out that in pre-reservation days, shamans were considered much more important than chiefs. The presence of a head, or a chief, may have been accentuated in response to increasing contact with the Europeans, and their importance may also have coincided with the concept of chieftainship among the Columbia River tribes, with whom Klamath contact was increasing due to trade. Both Gatschet and Spier had difficulty obtaining the names of chiefs and their functions, although the names of shamans could be easily recalled.

Not all the divisions had chiefs; the three that Spier knew of were *Aukckni* men. The divisions were so separated politically that there was no supreme chief. Chieftainships were obtained by those who were wealthy and articulate, and by those who had backgrounds in war and spirit experiences. Some hereditary influence may have been important as well. It should be noted that the term for wealthy person and chief were the same: *Lo'ki*. Wealth was partly measured by number of slaves, and some chiefs had a number of wives.⁴²

Spier noted that the Klamath had no conception of class stratification, even though there were wealth differences among them and slaves were present.

Division of Labor

One of Sapir's informants described the division of domestic activities: "Women fetch wood and gather food. Old men as well as women grind and pound seeds. Men lie about all the time, working but once in a while. They hunt, fish, and, in the winter, build houses."⁴³ Both men and women fished and hunted, but root-harvesting and seed-gathering were women's work, as well as the preparation of food and probably the storing and drying of it. Thus, the women took part in all food-getting activities, and their work was continuous, while that of the men was less so.

Women and men also built houses and made canoes. The women prepared skins and made baskets and hats. Women also fashioned the mortars, metates, and other similar stone tools. Both men and women manufactured nets, while ropes and cords were made only by women. The women obviously had a heavier workload.

PROPERTY

The Klamath Indians owned personal property, but they recognized no private ownership of fishing places, dams, berry or seed patches, or hunting territory.

MARRIAGE

Klamath marriage differed from that of the Takelma and the Shasta. Among the latter a marriage payment determined the social and financial status of the family, but among the Klamath the marriage payment was merely a social obligation, and it consisted of an exchange of gifts between the families of the bride and groom. The bride was free to leave the husband at will since she was not regarded as property. The term "bride purchase" was not applicable to the Klamath marriage situation. In fact, Spier observed that the groom's family usually profited more from the exchange of gifts at marriage than did the bride's family. Failure to give gifts constituted a social stigma.

Relatives could not marry, and village exogamy was practiced when no available mate could be found in a village due to blood relationships.⁴⁴ Girls usually married within a year after reaching puberty. Sometimes engagements were arranged by an exchange of gifts while the couple was younger. Gifts exchanged between the families varied with their wealth, but those customarily exchanged were horses, blankets, beads, food, skins, and slaves. After the marriage, the couple usually lived with the family of the groom, but they returned to the mother's family for the birth of the first child. Wealthy men had more than one wife, but it was considered adulterous for women to have more than one husband. If a man died, his brother could marry his wife, but it was not obligatory.

SHAMANISM

The shamans and their practices were the most significant element in Klamath religion. Spier stated:

Klamath religion centers so largely in shamanism that it may be permissible to describe the whole in terms of shamanistic practices, the spirits with which they are concerned, and the acquisition of supernatural powers. There is little ceremonialism apart from the shaman's performances. There is a rite for girls at puberty, a dance in preparation for war and another in celebration of captured scalps, some formal feasting at marriage, and of recent date the Ghost Dance of 1870.⁴⁵

Spier further stated that the religion was only weakly developed; people sought power from a number of spirits, mainly animals, but also from natural forces. These spirits had no sort of ordered relationship to one another. A belief in a land for the departed was separated from the spirits and their functions.

All the Klamath sought power from spirits, particularly at certain times like death or puberty. Before attempting to obtain this power, one was purified by sweating.

People acquired spirit power by fasting in lonely spots in the mountains, or by piling up rocks and diving beneath pools of water. Once spirit power was obtained, the recipient had to use the power in some form.

A number of places in Klamath territory were believed to be imbued with spirit power. Some of these were in the Cascade Mountains,⁴⁶ where dwarves were thought to live. Aside from places inhabited by spirits, there were myths pertaining to practically every geographic location within Klamath territory.

Shamans could be either men or women, but most of them were men. Women were believed to be able to cure more readily than men, although their ability at physical events was believed less pronounced than men's. The abilities of shamans were not specialized. They acquired power from many spirits and were always trying to get more power. They gave winter performances in which they were possessed and thought to be imbued with certain powers as the vehicles of certain spirits. During part of their performances, the shamans fell to the ground with blood gushing from their mouths. The performances took place within the shaman's earth lodge, which, as previously observed, was always the largest in the village. The shamans were believed to be able to manipulate conditions and see into the future, control weather, make fish run, and protect the community against evil spirits.⁴⁷ The Klamath also believed they could control the weather. Illness was believed to be caused by an intrusive object, and the shamans performed a cure by sucking this element from the body.

The closest the Klamath came to belief in a supreme being was their belief in the culture hero, *Kemu'kumps*. They believed that this person, called "Old Man Ancient," created the land, the features, the animals, and the Indians and gave them their territories, with the assistance of a pocket gopher. He also built the fish dams.

DEATH

At death, the Klamath were cremated. Each settlement had its own cremation pile, many of which were large and still observable when Spier was doing field work. One of these was twelve feet high in 1877, according to Gatschet.⁴⁸ Many were vandalized by the whites.

Bodies were wrapped in tule mats and cremated five days after death on the ashheap of previous cremations. The property of the dead person was placed on the body as it was cremated.

After the cremation, mourners sweated for five days in special mourners' sweatlodges, or *spo'klik*s.

PUBERTY CEREMONY

Unlike the Shasta and Takelma, only the daughters of the wealthy Klamath had puberty ceremonies. These dances were held five nights for each of the girl's first four periods. During the dance, the girl faced the east while trotting forward and backward with two people supporting her. She danced all night in this fashion. There were special songs sung by people who knew them--these singers were in great demand and were paid for their services. They were accompanied by rattles.

Three tabus were observed by the girl during this time: she could not eat fish or meat, only lily seeds or roots. She had to use a scratching stick rather than touch her face or head with her hands. Every morning she ran toward the sunrise, and during the day she slept in the bushes or in a nearby dome-shaped mat lodge. Pitch and charcoal were smeared on her face, and her hair was fixed a special way. At the end of this ceremony, the girl purified herself by swimming.

OTHER CEREMONIES

The Klamath also had war dances and a "first sucker" ceremony south of Braymill, Oregon. In a cave above this location was the home of the culture hero, *Kemu'kumps*.

WARFARE

The Klamath aptitude for war and raiding undoubtedly came from contact with tribes to the north and east along the Columbia Plateau, which stimulated their need for trade items. They were periodically at war with the Shasta, the Upland Takelma, and the northern Paiute to the east, and their motive was to gain these trade items, particularly slaves. The Kalapuya of the Willamette Valley were adversaries as well, and horses were stolen from the Warm Springs Indians. The Klamath themselves were raided for slaves by some of the Sahaptian speakers, the Cayuse and the Shasta.⁴⁹ The Pit River Indians, particularly the Achomawi, bore the brunt of Klamath raids.

EUROPEAN CONTACT

Probably the first white incursion in Klamath territory came no earlier than 1826, when Finan McDonald of the Northwest Fur Company trapped in the Klamath Basin with Thomas McKay.

McDonald and others of his party left no written accounts of their travels in Klamath country, but their journey there was recorded by Peter Skene Ogden, who came in 1826-1827 from the Deschutes River country. Around 1835 some French-Canadians were in the area, but they left no record besides trade goods given to the Klamath.

The second historically documented expedition in Klamath territory was made by General John C. Fremont in 1843, sixteen years after Peter Skene Ogden. The Klamath were not treated kindly by Fremont; the first thing he did upon seeing a Klamath settlement was fire a Howitzer into the air as a warning. The expeditions of Ogden, McDonald, Fremont, and the South Road Party led by Lindsey Applegate are more fully chronicled in the history section of this report.

CULTURAL POSITION

The cultural position of the Klamath is different from the other tribes in the Planning Unit because they were influenced to a great extent by their contacts with the Columbia River tribes in late prehistoric times. For this reason they are more often linked with the Plateau area than with northwest California culture. There is some speculation, however, that before this contact with northern tribes began, Klamath culture was more similar to northwest California than it was to the Plateau. However, their dependence on the rivers of the region linked them closely with the Plateau. In his ethnography, Spier prepared a list of culture traits and contrasted the Klamath with other areas. He concluded that the Klamath resembled the Plateau areas to the north much more than other areas, although there were some northern California features.⁵⁰

KLAMATH ENDNOTES

¹Albert S. Gatschet, *Contributions to North American Ethnology*, Vol. II, No. 1: *The Klamath Indians of Southern Oregon* (1890); "Method of Recording Indian Languages," *Ethnology Bureau*, I (1879-1880); "Linguistic and General Researches Among the Klamath Indians," *First Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology* (1879-1880), pp. xix-xxii.

²Frederick B. Coville, "Notes on the Plants Used by the Klamath Indians of Oregon," *U.S. National Herbarium Contributions*, V (1897), pp. 87-108; "Wokas, a Primitive Food of the Klamath Indians," *Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institution* (1902), pp. 727-39.

³George A. Dorsey, "Certain Gambling Games of the Klamath Indians," *American Anthropologist*, III N.S. (1901), pp. 14-27.

⁴S.A. Barrett, "The Material Culture of the Klamath Lake and Modoc Indians of Northeastern California and Southern Oregon," *University of California Publications in Anthropology and Ethnology*, V, No. 4 (1910), pp. 239-92.

⁵Edward Curtis, "The Klamath," *The North American Indian* (1924), pp. 161-82.

⁶Jaime de Angulo and L.S. Freeland, "The Lutuami Language," *Societe des Americanistas*, XXIII, Part 1 (Paris, 1931), pp. 1-45. These authors spent two weeks in 1926 with an informant at Beatty, Oregon. They maintained that Gatschet (1890) complicated the Lutuami grammar.

⁷M.A.R. Barker, "Klamath Texts," *University of California Publications in Linguistics*, XXX (1963a); "Klamath Dictionary," *University of California Publications in Linguistics*, XXXI (1963b); "Klamath Grammar," *University of California Publications in Linguistics*, XXXII (1964).

⁸Horatio Hale, "Ethnology and Philology," *United States Exploring Expedition During the Years 1838, 1840, 1841, 1842* (Philadelphia, 1846).

⁹Henry L. Abbott, "Report of Lt. Henry L. Abbott upon Exploration for a Railroad Route from the Sacramento Valley to the Columbia River," *Reports of Exploration and Surveys to Ascertain the Most Practicable and Economical Route for a Railroad from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean*, VI, Part 1 (1857), pp. 1-134.

¹⁰K.G. Davies, ed., *Peter Skene Ogden's Snake Country Journal 1826-1827* (London, 1961).

¹¹John C. Fremont, *Report of the Exploring Expedition to the Rocky Mountains in the Year 1842, and to Oregon and Northern California in the Years 1843-44* (Washington, 1845); *Memoirs of My Life, I* (1887).

¹²Leslie Spier, *University of California Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology*, Vol. XXX: *Klamath Ethnography* (1930).

¹³"The Klamath have no settlements on the river, but fish, hunt, and gather roots at such points as Keno, Spencer Creek, and at another place five or six miles upstream from Doris." Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 9.

¹⁴Edward Sapir, "Central and North American Languages," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, 14th ed., No. 5 (1929), pp. 138-41.

¹⁵Haruo Aoki, "On Klamath Sahaptian Linguistic Affiliations," *International Journal of American Linguistics*, XXIX (1963b), pp. 107-12.

¹⁶Bruce Rigsby, *Linguistic Relations in the Southern Plateau*, Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Anthropology, University of Oregon (1965).

¹⁷Coville, "Wokas."

¹⁸Coville, "Klamath Plants."

¹⁹For a more detailed description, see Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, pp. 147-48.

²⁰Coville, "Wokas." These pits may be visible archaeologically.

²¹Fremont cited in Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 163.

²²Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, pp. 156-57.

²³Ibid., p. 159.

²⁴Ibid., p. 40. Spier said, "Most slaves (*loks*) are from Pit River (Achomawi and Atsugewi); others are northern Paiute and Shasta, with a few Upland Takelma from the Rogue River drainage. A few of these Takelma are known to have been made captives on a raid into Klamath territory."

²⁵Leslie Spier and Edward Sapir, *University of Washington Publications in Anthropology*, Vol. III: *Wishram Ethnography*, pp. 224, 227.

²⁶The boundaries and names of the central Oregon Sahaptian speakers are difficult to assess because of the Snake River Indians' pre-contact incursions into the area.

²⁷Leslie Spier, "Tribal Distribution in Southwest Oregon," *Oregon Historical Society Quarterly*, XXVIII, No. 4 (1927b), p. 363.

²⁸Spier and Sapir, *Wishram Ethnography*.

²⁹Curtis, "The Klamath," p. 237.

³⁰Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 41. Spier also notes that the Shasta and Klamath jointly occupied a fishing site, called *Lik'elmi*.

³¹*Ibid.*, p. 201. Spier contradicts Barrett's information on the maul--he says that stone mauls were not used.

³²C.H. Merriam, "The New River Indians, "*Tlo-hom-tah-hoi*," *American Anthropologist*, XXXII, No. 2 (1930), p. 289. A display in the Klamath County Museum shows the four kinds of tobacco that were used by the Klamath. A number of pipes are also exhibited in this display.

³³For a description of stone sculpture among the Klamath, see Roy L. Carlson, "Klamath Henwas and Other Stone Sculpture," *American Anthropologist*, LXI (1959), pp. 88-96.

³⁴J.P. Harrington, "Tobacco Among the Karuk Indians of California," *Bureau of American Ethnology Bulletin* 94 (1932), pp. 3-4. In the Klamath County Museum there is a display on primitive trade. There are abalone shells in this case, which were found near Merrill, Oregon, in the Klamath Basin.

³⁵There is a bow with upcurved ends in the Jackson County Museum. This bow has been decorated in geometric designs with black and red paint.

³⁶Walter Hough, "Primitive American Armor," *U.S. National Museum Reports*, V (1895), p. 640.

³⁷Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 41.

³⁸There are several illustrations of the floor plan and frame of the structure in Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, pp. 199 and 201, as well as a very detailed explanation of the structure on pp. 199-200.

³⁹The floors of both the winter earth lodge and the summer lodge were covered with mats.

⁴⁰The winter sweatlodge is illustrated in figure 20 of Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 205.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 23.

⁴²Apparently, the most important quality for becoming a chief was leadership in war (Ibid., p. 38).

⁴³Ibid., p. 144.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 44. Spier's description of village exogamy and the prohibition of marriage between kin is inconsistent. He states, "No relative of any degree may be married" but that "there is no village exogamy despite the relationship of most co-villagers." I have interpreted this to mean that when one could not find a mate within a village, because everyone was related, a mate was selected from another area.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 93.

⁴⁶None of them could be definitely placed in the Planning Unit.

⁴⁷Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 118.

⁴⁸Gatschet, *The Klamath*, p. 86.

⁴⁹Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 25.

⁵⁰Ibid., pp. 227-29, 232.

5. The Molalla and Athabaskans

INTRODUCTION

The Molalla and Athabaskans came into the land encompassed by the Planning Unit relatively late. It is generally believed that the Athabaskan entry into the western U.S. from the north occurred around 1500 A.D., but it is not known exactly when these people came to Oregon or when two small enclaves of Athabaskan-speakers--the Galice and Applegate groups--moved into the areas they occupied in historic times. Only the Applegate River group was in the Planning Unit (along the Applegate River in the southwestern corner). The Molalla inhabited the ridges of the northeastern Planning Unit in the headwaters of the Rogue River drainage in historic times. Very little is known of either the Applegate or the Molalla; ethnographic studies took place when both were on reservations and very little is known about their pre-reservation life.

THE MOLALLA

In 1853, the Indian agent for Oregon, Joel Palmer, wrote:

While on my late expedition, I came to the knowledge of the existence of a tribe of Indians inhabiting the country on the upper waters of the north and south forks of the Umpqua and the headwaters of the Rogue River, called the wild Molallas. The name so nearly resembles that of the Molallas of the Wilamette that they have been confounded with that tribe; but the information I have obtained satisfies me that they are a distinct tribe speaking an entirely different language and having no connections whatever with them. They have had but little intercourse with the whites, being located in a mountainous region off the line of travel from Oregon to California. They roam sometimes as far east and southeast as the headwaters of the Deschutes and the Klamath Lake.¹

It is generally believed that the Molalla, who in historic times were found in two groups in the Cascades--one in the north Cascades near Mt. Hood and the other in the south Cascades west of the Klamath Lake area--were late inhabitants

of those areas. The Molalla and a number of other Sahaptian-speaking groups were apparently pushed from their southern Columbia River homelands in Oregon westward toward the Cascades by hostile Shoshonean (Snake) tribes who had acquired horses and guns.² After the Molallas reached the Cascades, they separated into the northern and southern bands by further pressure from the Snake Indians.³ What had been their territory in the Deschutes and Warm Springs country of central Oregon was then occupied by other Sahaptian bands who were also pushed by the Snake encroachment out of their former lands. The movements of tribes caused by this Shoshonean push was between 1740, when the northern Shoshonean tribes first acquired horses, and about 1820, when they succeeded in driving many east and central Oregon tribes from their territory.⁴ When they came down the Columbia River in 1805 and 1806, Lewis and Clark noted that the south bank of the river was uninhabited above Hood River. Later the Snake settled these areas along the Columbia. Joel Berreman said:

Thus, at the height of their westward invasion the Snake and Bannock [both Shoshonean-speaking groups] seemed to have occupied the whole of eastern Oregon with the exception of the lands of the Nez Perce to the northeast, the Klamath to the southwest, and the Paiute in the southeastern part of the state.⁵

Berreman also noted that sometime early in the 19th century the Snake seem to have retreated, so that several of the Sahaptian tribes were returning to their previous territory. But by this time European contact was beginning and the final distribution of the tribes was quite different from what it was before 1750 when the raids began. The names and former tribal boundaries of various Sahaptian-speaking groups were obscured by their movements because of the Shoshone raids. Further, the Molalla occupation of the Planning Unit was very short--probably not more than sixty years before European contact in the area began.

Accordingly, most of the information about the Molalla in the Planning Unit comes from the Klamath, who seemed to have had the most contact with them. The Klamath called them *Tcoka'nkni*, "those of the service berry patch." According to the Klamath, their winter village was *Bu'kstubu'ks*, which was a little below Prospect, Oregon.⁶ Like the other Sahaptian-speaking tribes to the north in the Deschutes region, the Klamath were friendly with the Molalla and traded with them regularly. The two tribes met on the headwaters of the Rogue River west of Crater Lake, and the Klamath traded *wokas* seeds and beads for their buckskins and elkhorn spoons. According to Spier's Klamath informants, the Molalla also flattened their foreheads (while the Klamath and Molalla practiced head deformation, apparently the Upland Takelma did not).

There is evidence that the Molalla had to depend heavily on hunting game for subsistence in their new territory. For example, buckskin was a trade item, and Klamath informants mentioned that the Molalla used snare for deer.⁷ Their bows were made of yew wood, and Molalla women used curved dentalia for ornamentation.⁸ Other than this information, little is known about the Molalla adaptation to life in the Cascades.

The exact territorial limits of the southern Molalla are not determined, but they occupied the headwaters of the Rogue and Upper Umpqua Rivers. They may have extended as far into the Planning Unit as Trail Creek, extending eastward to the boundary of Klamath territory.⁹ In 1841, Horatio Hale mapped the Molalla territory from Mt. Hood to the Klamath country.¹⁰ J.W. Powell showed the same distribution in his *Indian Linguistic Families of America North of Mexico*.¹¹ The date the northern and southern Molalla groups became separated is unknown, and the mechanics of this separation are only speculative. It is presently believed that the Molalla occupied the greater part of the Deschutes River region and the eastern mountain slopes of the Cascades prior to 1750, and that the separation took place due to Snake invasions after that time.

THE APPLGATE ATHABASKANS

Less is known about the Applegate Athabaskans than is known about the Molalla. There is a description of their close relatives, the Galice Creek Athabaskans, in Drucker's study of the Athabaskan speakers of southwestern Oregon.¹² This description may also apply to the Applegate Athabaskans.

The Galice and Applegate Athabaskans were entirely surrounded by Takelman speakers. Because the extent of the Applegate territory is unknown, how far they extended into the Planning Unit, if they did at all, is unknown. Drucker stated that these groups were never very large and that they became, through contact and intermarriage, almost wholly Takelman. It should be noted that Drucker obtained information on the Galice Creek Athabaskans from H.G. Barnett, who worked directly with them while gathering information for his culture element distribution study.¹³ Barnett's cultural element list includes the double foreshafted salmon harpoon, fish poisoning, a long narrow plunge net like those of north central California, and the deer head disguise. Small game hunting was prevalent. Pine nuts and grass seeds were also important. It is apparent that the adaptation of these Athabaskans to their environment was similar to that of the Takelma in that they relied on hunting, fishing, and gathering.

Drucker stated that informants' descriptions of house types for the Galice and coastal Athabaskan groups differed: one had the house identical with those of the coastal groups; the other had a structure with a two-pitch, bark-slab roof over a rectangular pit. Walls were not plank-lined but were covered with tule mats. Sweathouses were small structures with gabled roofs over unplanked pits and heated by direct fires. Material culture items were similar to those of the Athabaskan speakers of the lower Rogue River.

Almost no information could be obtained regarding Athabaskan social organization. Wives were purchased from outside the village, and the head of the village was the wealthiest person. Shamans derived power from dreams, and curing procedures were similar to those practiced by the Takelma shamans. There was another category of "priests" who were believed to be more powerful than the shamans.

Ceremonies among the Athabaskans included a public ritual for a girl at puberty, during which she was placed in the middle of a circle and covered with robes (similar to the Takelma). Deer hoof rattles were used during the dance, which was repeated during five of her first periods. There was also a wealth display ceremony and a first salmon ceremony. The only element unrelated to the Takelma culture was their belief that wolves, regarded as friends and allies of people, could take revenge if one of their kind was killed by stealing a child from a village or killing the guilty human. If a child was taken by the wolves, it would become a member of their pack.

In summary, the Galice and Applegate Athabaskan culture was scarcely distinguishable from that of the Takelmans. They are classified with the Shasta and other north-central California people.¹⁴

APPLEGATE AND MOLALLA ENDNOTES

- ¹Annual Report of the Superintendent of Indian Affairs for Oregon Territory for 1853, cited in *Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, XXIII (1922), p. 34.
- ²James H. Teit, "The Middle Columbia Salish," *University of Washington Publications in Anthropology*, II, No. 4 (1928).
- ³J.V. Berreman, "Tribal Distribution in Oregon," *American Anthropological Association Memoirs*, XLVII (1937), p. 59.
- ⁴Leslie Spier and Edward Sapir, *University of Washington Publications in Anthropology*, Vol. III, No. 3: *Wishram Ethnography* (1930), p. 60.
- ⁵Berreman, "Tribal Distribution," p. 60.
- ⁶Leslie Spier, *University of California Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology*, Vol. XXX: *Klamath Ethnography* (1930), p. 4.
- ⁷Ibid., p. 158.
- ⁸Ibid., p. 194, 214-15.
- ⁹Berreman, "Tribal Distribution, p. 64.
- ¹⁰Horatio Hale, "Ethnology and Philology," *U.S. Exploring Expedition*, Vol. VI (1846), p. 214.
- ¹¹*7th Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology* (1889), pp. 1-148.
- ¹²Philip Drucker, "The Tolowa and Their Southwest Oregon Kin," *University of California Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology* (1937), p. 238.
- ¹³Homer G. Barnett, "Culture Element Distributions: VII," *California University Publications in Anthropological Records*, I, No. 3 (1939), pp. 155-203.
- ¹⁴Drucker, "The Tolowa," pp. 283-84.

6. Archaeology of the Planning Unit

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this section is to present a summary of the archaeological investigation accomplished in and near the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit. To date there have been excavations and testing in six widely dispersed areas within the Unit, so there is a fairly good comparative base. The distribution of excavated sites is shown on the map on the next page. Four additional sites have been excavated near the Planning Unit boundaries in the Klamath Basin and in the city of Grants Pass, Oregon. There has been at least one amateur excavation, the Cove Creek Site, which is being analyzed at Southern Oregon State's Anthropology Department. At least a dozen surveys have been done for cultural resources on federally funded projects as required by recent legislation. There are also, unfortunately, a number of sites that have been and are being destroyed by vandals.

This section describes the sites and areas that have been excavated and surveyed. It is often stated that this area of Oregon is one of the least well-known archaeologically, but it is clear that there is presently a sufficient data base for synthesis and formulation of research directives for this portion of Oregon.

THE GOLD HILL BURIAL

The earliest professional excavation in the Planning Unit took place at the Gold Hill burial site near the present community of Gold Hill, Oregon, during four months in 1930; in May, 1931; and in 1932. Two articles about this excavation were published by Luther Cressman, director of the project.¹

Although the burials at the Gold Hill site were in a mound, it was not of human origin, but rather the result of Rogue River deposition. The mound was located on the highest of three terraces on the south bank of the Rogue River--the top of the mound was about fifty feet above the present river level.² The surface area of the mound was over forty square yards, and excavations reached a depth of seven feet.

No depressions were visible on the mound's surface, but there were other indications of human use: fire-cracked stone, ash lenses, animal bones, and artifact fragments,

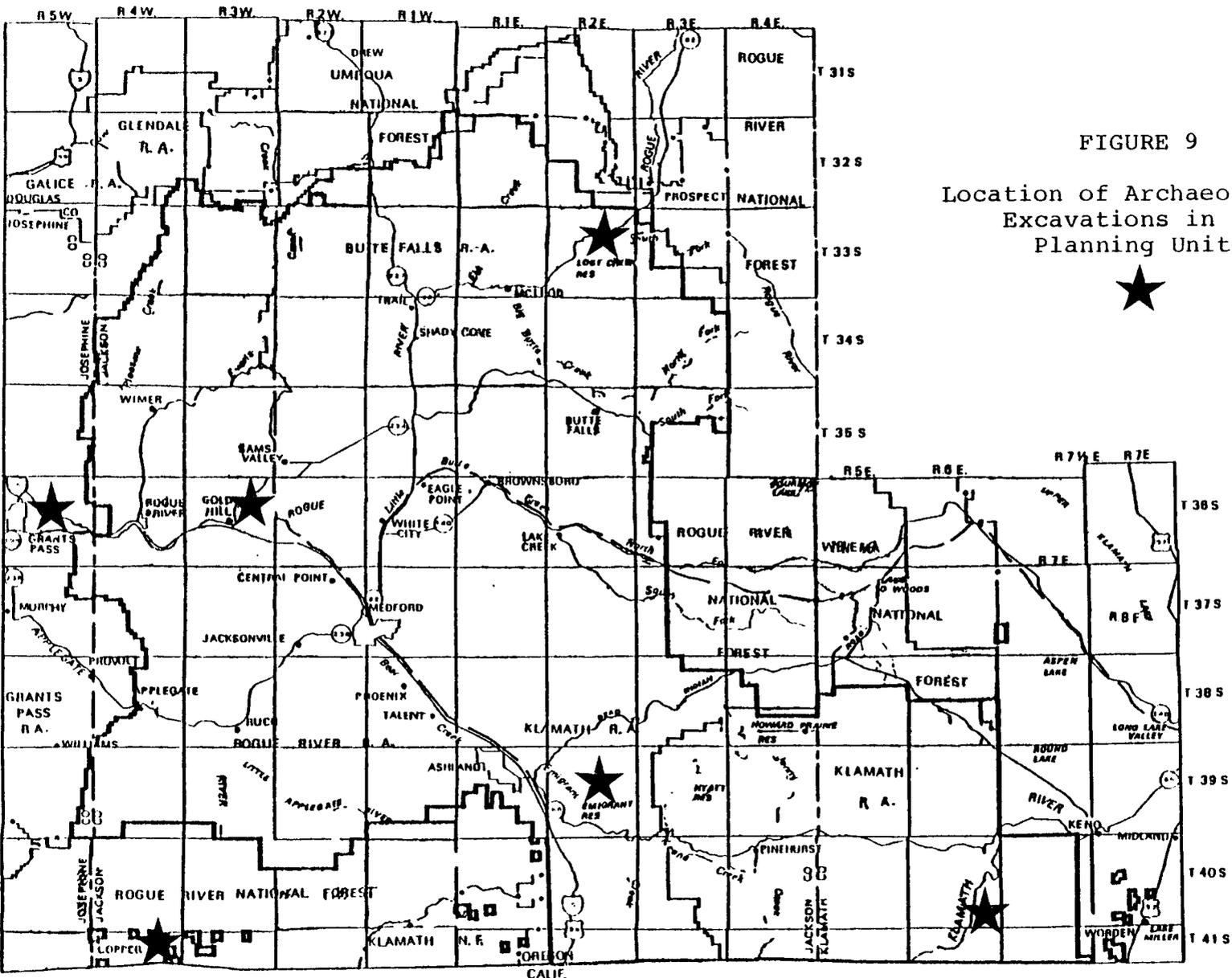


FIGURE 9

Location of Archaeological Excavations in the Planning Unit



JACKSON-KLAMATH PLANNING AREA
1977

- County Boundary
- National Forest Boundary
- ==== Master Unit Boundary
- ==== Planning Area Boundary
- National Forest Service
- National Resource Lands BLM
- ▨ O&C Lands Administered by Forest Service

SCALE



concentrated in certain areas of the mound. Three of these areas were thought to be used for tool manufacturing. Cressman inferred that the widespread deposits on the mound's surface indicated a long, continuous occupation by a fairly large number of people, or a heavily used temporary site.³ There were a number of interesting finds in the Gold Hill site, including a distinctive lanceolate projectile point later called the "Gold Hill point," but it is most widely known as a burial site.

Although no soil stratification was evident in the mound, occupation areas on the mound's surface appeared to overlap with earlier burials. These near-surface burials further appeared to overlap with even earlier occupation levels. A total of thirty-two burials were found at varying depths.⁴ The skeletons were mostly adult and were badly disintegrated--only the skulls remained intact. In each case the burials appeared to have been flexed--that is, the people were buried on their sides with their knees drawn up. There appeared to be no pattern as to placement of bodies in the mound.⁵

The most striking characteristic of the skulls recovered was the amount of dental pathology. The teeth were extremely worn, and there was evidence that abscesses were prevalent. In some cases the teeth were worn to the roots. This kind of wear is usually indicative of a diet heavily dependent on vegetable foods, where particles of grit are eaten with the food to the extent that the teeth are worn down. The grit usually comes from processing the food with stone tools, such as manos, metates, mortars and pestles.

Stone Implements

Fifteen pestles in various stages of completion were found during the Gold Hill excavations. A portion of a mortar was uncovered, but there were no complete metates, although some fragments were found that could have been parts of metates. There were other stones that had been hollowed out from grinding, but they were not mortars. One of the pestles was eighteen inches long with a diameter of four inches; it was made of basalt and weighed ten pounds.⁶

A total of thirteen obsidian blades was found. Six of these were black obsidian, seven were red, and one was made of slate--some were approximately twelve inches long with constricted centers. Arrowhead fragments and small, curved points were recovered from the deposit. Cressman noted that the point styles changed from the deepest to the surface deposits from a simple oval form to one with a tang and no barbs, to a point with barbs. This indicates a chronological sequence of projectile point styles in the site. One of the points was

serrated and had a long, projecting barb--Cressman also observed this type in private collections at the time.⁷ The points were made from a variety of materials including chert, chalcedony, red jasper, opal, and black obsidian. Four skeletons had pairs of obsidian blades nearby, which may have been grave goods, along with shells and seeds. The large blades were found only in the deepest burials.

Shell

A large number of fresh-water mussel shells were found at Gold Hill. There were several hundred olivella shells and some abalone, which had been cut. Some of these shells were found in one of the burials. They were apparently used for ornamentation (one bone ornament was decorated with incised lines forming triangles). No dentalia were found, indicating that these shells were not trade items at the time the site was occupied.

Seeds

Digger pine seeds with holes drilled in them for stringing were found in the same burial as the shells. Some were carbonized, which preserved them more than other seeds. Cressman said that the particular pine species represented by the seeds have never been found on the north slope of the Siskiyou.⁸ The presence of coastal shells, such as abalone, and these pine seeds indicates prehistoric trade to the south similar to that reported ethnographically.

Pipes

There were seven stone pipes associated with one burial found by the landowner. The pipes are between 206 and 465 mm long, 26 to 35 mm wide, and are made of serpentine and green stone schist.

Gold Hill Cultural Relationships

Very little was known about the archaeology of southern Oregon and northern California at the time of the Gold Hill excavation, but Cressman pointed out that there appeared to be more similarity with Californian archaeological sites than with west central Oregon sites, where most of the archaeological work in Oregon had been done at the time.⁹ Cressman concluded that the Gold Hill culture was similar to that found in northwest California.¹⁰

EMIGRANT DAM RESERVOIR EXCAVATIONS

In August of 1958, the area to be impacted by a proposed enlargement of Emigrant Dam Reservoir was surveyed for archaeological sites by Thomas Newman of the University of Oregon. Few sites were found--Newman suggested that if any existed, they were probably destroyed by the reservoir construction.¹¹ The sites found were near the upper limits of the proposed reservoir level, near small water courses. One of the sites discovered, 35 JA 1, was tested extensively.¹² In October, testing continued at 35 JA 1 and began at 35 JA 2, which proved to be only a surface site.

Newman noted that the archaeological remains in the Emigrant Dam Reservoir area were not numerous or impressive. He probably meant that they were small and without much artifactual material. Informants mentioned several camps that were used by the Indians in historic times--35 JA 2 was one of these.

35 JA 1 and 35 JA 2

35 JA 1 was a large site at the base of a cliff. Occupational debris was found for sixty meters along the base of the cliff and as far as fifteen meters from its base. The main activity areas appeared to be concentrated at either end of the occupation area. Newman inferred that it was a campsite, used seasonally by bands of hunters or gatherers.

Although vandals destroyed portions of the site, most of it was well-preserved. There were numerous flakes and a few manos on the surface, but there was no evidence of house pits. The archaeological deposits did contain evidence of fires: there were extensive lenses of ash, charcoal, and burned soil. Seven test pits were dug at 35 JA 1 to an average depth of 1.5 meters, until non-artifact-bearing soil was encountered. No stratification of either soil or cultural material could be detected.

Only a few milling stones, flakes, and a trade bead were found at 35 JA 2. The owner of the land on which 35 JA 2 was situated had recovered a few milling stones, two pestles, an apparent stone bowl fragment, and mortar fragments from the site during plowing. When this site was tested, very few artifacts were recovered from below the ground surface.

Artifacts

Newman noted two interesting features during excavations at 35 JA 1 and 2. First, a variety of point types was found. This was surprising in a site for which a brief occupation was

inferred. Newman pointed out that this kind of variety is usually found only at sites with long occupational histories or cultural influences from several sources. In this case Newman felt that there must have been influences from several sources since there was no indication of a long occupation. Second, he remarked that the large number of milling stones found pointed to "seed and nut crops" as a substantial part of the diet.

The projectile points found--all an inch or less long--included three corner-notched points, three base-notched points with short tangs and barbs, three side-notched points, and one triangular point without notches. The projectile points were made mostly of chalcedony, but some were obsidian and quartzite.

Two different kinds of blades were recovered from the Emigrant Dam site. One type had flaking over its entire surface, and the other had flaking only on one side. None of the blades was over two-and-a-half inches long.

Other artifacts recovered included sixteen scrapers, apparently made from waste flakes; three graters or punches, two scrapers, and twenty-five manos with indications of wear on at least one side. Manos were made from basalt or quartzite and their average size was about five inches long. Four metates were found, all broken except one, and there were a number of cobbles with battered ends. At 35 JA 2, a spherical blue glass trade bead was found, suggesting a relatively recent occupation of the site.

Two fragments of a human skull and three unidentifiable fragments of shell were also found (although abalone and freshwater mussel were suggested), as well as deteriorated animal bones that were difficult to identify. It was assumed that the bones were deer, with the exception of part of a turtle and a mustelid.

Conclusions

Newman concluded that the artifacts at the Emigrant Dam Reservoir sites point to cultural connections between the Klamath Basin area and the coast. It is clear from the large number of milling stones present at 35 JA 1 and 35 JA 2 that the subsistence patterns followed by the inhabitants were not much different from those described for the ethnographic Takelma and Shasta.

APPLEGATE DAM RESERVOIR

Introduction

In the spring of 1977, archaeologists from Oregon State University conducted a survey and testing within the proposed Applegate Dam Reservoir area. The area was first surveyed by David Cole of the Museum of Natural History, University of Oregon, and he wrote a very brief report in 1966 stating that no archaeological resources were observed in the area.¹³ In 1976 however, archaeologists from the Rogue River National Forest and Dr. Joseph Hopkins III of Southern Oregon State College surveyed thirty-seven potential recreation sites for cultural resources. A number of archaeological and historical sites were found as a result of this survey, and in 1977 the Corps of Engineers contracted with Oregon State University to re-survey and make recommendations for any cultural resources found within the Applegate Reservoir project area.¹⁴

Graduate assistants examined "habitable" land in the project area:

Habitable was defined as "all alluvial terraces, fans, and all remaining topography with an incline of less than 45 degrees. The base (first vertical 100 feet) of steeper talus slopes and hillsides adjacent to habitable land was surveyed for burials or features such as hunting blinds. An occasional transect was made of steep, rocky slopes, but no attempt was made to systematically search these areas. Cliff faces were viewed with the aid of binoculars to locate potential rock shelters or caves. No such features were observed.¹⁵

Test excavations were performed at sixteen of the archaeological sites. Some of these had been extensively disturbed by the time the survey was undertaken, but five sites were significant enough to be nominated to the National Register of Historic Places: 35 JA 42, 35 JA 47, 35 JA 49, 35 JA 52, and 35 JA 63.

Sites observed by the OSU team varied from probable winter village settlements to small campsites. House pits were observed at 35 JA 42 in a single row paralleling the river. These depressions were circular with diameters ranging from three to four meters and average depths of forty centimeters. It is interesting that much of the lithic debris was obsidian because in sites to the east near the Lost Creek and Elk Creek Dam Reservoirs and in the Bear Creek Valley itself, chert is more common. The artifact types, on the other hand, resemble those found in other areas of the upper Rogue country--several Gold Hill projectile points were recovered. A total of 170 prehistoric artifacts were recovered during the initial survey, and at the time this Overview was prepared, excavation work was underway in the reservoir area.

LOST CREEK AND ELK CREEK DAM RESERVOIR

From October, 1966, to August, 1967, salvage archaeology was undertaken in the Lost Creek and Elk Creek Dam Reservoirs in the northeastern corner of the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit. The archaeologic work was done by Wilbur A. Davis of the Department of Anthropology at Oregon State University for the National Park Service. Three reports were written in conjunction with this project.¹⁶ Some of the sites were first recorded by David Cole of the University of Oregon's Museum of Natural History during preliminary survey work.¹⁷

Altogether nineteen sites were located during the surveys.¹⁸ Of these four were excavated, nine were tested, and six others were observed. This extensive work made possible the first attempt to define prehistoric cultural sequences in this portion of southwestern Oregon, by observing different artifact types in different levels of the sites, and by comparing them with artifacts from levels of the Gold Hill site.¹⁹

Archaeology of the Lost Creek Dam Reservoir

When Mt. Mazama erupted around 6600 B.P., creating Crater Lake, large amounts of pumice were deposited on the western slope of the mountain.²⁰ The pumice reached depths of up to seven meters on the river terraces along Lost Creek. River action has since cut this pumice terrace back to the slope of the valley, and a post-Mazama terrace has been deposited. This recent terrace, containing soils of the Newberg series, was occupied by prehistoric people of the upper Rogue drainage. A higher terrace, also containing sites (35 JA 8 and 35 JA 13), consisted of soils of the Laurelhurst series. 35 JA 12 was found on yet another type of soil, called the Fantail series, which is an upland soil of northern Lost Creek.

Davis noted that the area was probably most important for its fish resources: salmon, steelhead, and rainbow and cutthroat trout. The reservoir area is also rich in native plant foods, birds, and large and small game. With this lucrative food resource base, the area was favorable for human use.

During the 1968 season, archaeological excavations were conducted at four sites: 35 JA 5, 35 JA 8, 35 JA 12, and 35 JA 13. The recovery of artifacts from these sites allowed inferences about the prehistory of the upper Rogue River: two phases were defined,²¹ and cultural relationships with other areas were observed.

TABLE 1

Artifact Distribution, Elk Creek and Lost Creek Sites

| | JALOA | JALOB | JA5 | JA8 | JAL2 | JAL3 | Survey |
|--------------------------|-------|-------|-----|-----|------|------|--------|
| Projectile points | | | | | | | |
| Gold Hill | | 3 | 9 | | | | |
| Gunther Barbed | 9 | | 3 | 6 | 4 | 2 | |
| Lingo | 1 | | 1 | | 5 | | |
| Triangular nonstemmed | | | | | 1 | 2 | |
| Corner-Notched | 1 | | 4 | 1 | 1 | | 1 |
| Desert Side-notched | | | | | 1 | | |
| Shouldered | 1 | | 1 | | | | 1 |
| Fragments | 2 | | 9 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Knives | | | | | | | |
| Micro-tool | 4 | | 1 | 2 | 3 | | |
| Biface | 3 | | 4 | 2 | 2 | 1 | |
| Vein chalcedony | | | 1 | 2 | | | |
| Blade blanks | | | 3 | | 3 | | |
| Fragments | | | 1 | 1 | 3 | | |
| Scrapers | | | | | | | |
| Side | 11 | | 1 | 4 | | | 2 |
| Snub-nose | | 2 | 3 | | 4 | | |
| Keel end | | | 2 | 1 | 1 | | |
| Flake | 1 | | | 1 | 4 | | |
| Concave | | | | | 1 | | |
| Denticulate edge | | | | | | | 1 |
| Scraper/Graver | | | | 1 | 1 | | |
| Graving Tools and Burins | 10 | | 10 | 14 | 10 | 7 | |
| Drills | | | 3 | | 4 | | 1 |
| Cores | | | 10 | 2 | 6 | 1 | |
| Waste cores | 24 | | 24 | 8 | 7 | 4 | |
| Flaked fragments | 10 | | 2 | 5 | 2 | 5 | |
| Choppers | 7 | | 3 | 2 | | | |
| Hammerstones | 4 | | 3 | 4 | 6 | 4 | |
| Pyramidal pestle | | | 1 | | | | |
| Metates | 1 | | 3 | 5 | 2 | 1 | |
| Mano | 1 | | 3 | 2 | 5 | 1 | |
| Polished stone disk | 1 | | 4 | 2 | | | |
| Stone bowl fragment | | 1 | 1 | | | | |
| Hopper mortar | | | | | 1 | | 1 |
| Engraved stone cobble | | | | 1 | | | |

The earlier phase containing material similar to the earliest occupation of the Gold Hill site is called the *Terrace Phase*, and it is defined by the occupation of stream terraces and the presence of the leaf-shaped Gold Hill projectile point,²² stone bowl mortars, snub-nosed scrapers, keeled scrapers, and expanded base drills. Other traits possibly belonging to this phase are cylindrical pestles, shell ornaments, pine nut beads, ceremonial obsidian blades, and flexed-left-side burials.

The later *Upland Phase* is defined by an occupation of upland localities and the presence of Gunther-barbed and Lingo projectile points, metates and manos, hopper mortars, specialized graving tools, and shallow, oval house pits. Tubular stone pipes may also belong to this phase. Many of the traits of the *Upland Phase* are shared with other northwestern California-southwestern Oregon sites dating from the past 1,000 years.

House pits were excavated at 35 JA 8 and 35 JA 12.²³ The floor plans of these house pits were oval, not rectangular like the planked houses built by the ethnographic Takelma. These oval floor plans and some of the lithic materials closely resemble those found at the Iron Gate site on the Klamath River in California.

Elk Creek Sites

The Elk Creek area was examined for sites after test excavations were completed in the Lost Creek area. Archaeologists noted only two sites: 35 JA 10 and 35 JA 11. The artifacts found in these sites were similar to those found at Lost Creek, indicating that the Terrace and Upland Phases were present along Elk Creek as well.²⁴ Davis observed that Elk Creek was probably more important as a means of reaching Upland hunting and gathering grounds and for fishing than it was for camping or habitation. The Elk Creek Valley is much steeper and narrower than the Lost Creek Valley, making it less suitable for habitation. The Elk Creek Valley is a major route to the highlands dividing the South Umpqua and Rogue River Watersheds.²⁵

Neither 35 JA 10 nor 35 JA 11 could be excavated extensively, due to their agricultural use at the time, but three test pits were excavated in an area designated "A" in 35 JA 10. Nine square meters were excavated altogether, and the culture-bearing deposits were fifty to sixty-five centimeters deep. These pits all contained similar artifacts, indicating a single component.²⁶ The artifacts included Gunther-barbed points, plano-convex side scrapers, a variety of graving tools, large flake choppers, manos and metates, and bifacially flaked points that were tentatively classified as knives. There were no

specialized scraping tools like those found in some of the sites along Lost Creek, but side scrapers were present which were rare at Lost Creek. Area "A" of 35 JA 10 was placed chronologically in the later Upland Phase. Area "B" of the site had traits similar to those found in the lower levels of Cressman's Gold Hill site, and it was placed in the Terrace Phase.

To briefly summarize, 35 JA 10a on Elk Creek and 35 JA 8, JA 12, and JA 13 of Lost Creek were assigned to the Upland Phase, based on the similarity of cultural material between them and the later deposits at Gold Hill. Elk Creek's 35 JA 10b and 35 JA 5 on Lost Creek appear related to the lower deposits at the Gold Hill site, and they are assigned to the earlier Terrace Phase. The material in these sites, including the oval-shaped house pits, resembles that recovered from the Klamath River Canyon Iron Gate site.²⁷ Stone artifacts were made mostly from red or yellow jasper and veined chalcedony; obsidian was not so commonly found, and it was used primarily for projectile points. Gunther-barbed points were most numerous, followed by the leaf-shaped Gold Hill points and very small, late points, called "Lingo points," which are all corner-notched, triangular-shaped, and deeply serrated. These points are found from the upper Willamette Valley to the central Klamath River country. They are dated at 95 B.C. in the Willamette Valley.²⁸ The Gunther-barbed point is a widespread late variety found in many northern California and Oregon sites.²⁹

All the sites in these reservoir areas, except 35 JA 10a, were found on benches and knolls at elevations at least thirty meters above the river.

Lost Creek Archaeology, 1972

In 1972, seven additional sites were excavated in the Lost Creek area as a result of land acquisition by the Corps of engineers for the Lost Creek Dam Reservoir. These sites were designated 35 JA 15 through 35 JA 24. Six of the sites were adjacent to one another on the middle terrace above the confluence of Lost Creek with the Rogue River. Unfortunately, by the time professional excavation took place these sites were mostly destroyed by vandals. Nevertheless, excavations at the seven sites allowed an inference of four chronological divisions, called phases, based on different kinds of cultural material. They are:

- Phase 4: Terminal phase defined by the association of hopper mortars and Gunther-barbed points. Earlier projectile point and tool forms persisted. The phase had probably been established by 1400 A.D.

- Phase 3: This phase is defined by the association of mortars and pestles, micropoints, many triangular-stemmed points, and scraping and incising tool complexes. It is thought to have begun during the first millenium B.C.
- Phase 2: This phase is defined by the appearance of a side-notched point style. Keeled end scrapers, and milling stones. No age estimate is given.
- Phase 1: Initial occupation defined by Gold Hill type points, possibly by transitional notched points, and by a rather generalized small tool kit. The phase might have begun in the fourth millenium B.C.³⁰

It is unfortunately not stated how these phases relate temporally to the Upland and Terrace Phases. In any case, Davis infers that these sites were apparently inhabited seasonally from the earliest to latest phases and that they were probably used as fishing camps. After comparing projectile point types, he suggested that initial occupation in this area of the Rogue River may have begun in 4000 B.C. and possibly terminated in the historic period. He further pointed out that the lithic industry revolved around a technique for producing tools called "chunk and sort." In this method, nodules of stone were smashed, and then the usable flakes were selected. The stone material most used was locally available chert.

Based on comparisons of tool complexes, Davis inferred "early and persistent affiliations with northern cultures west of the Cascade Range. Northwestern California cultural influences were late. Obsidian indicated trade to the east, probably with Klamath cultures."³¹

Davis felt that the volcanic ash that blanketed the region after Mt. Mazama erupted caused major, widespread cultural adaptation.³² He noted that the side-notched points at one of the older sites (35 JA 6) resembled points from the Columbia Plateau and the Klamath Basin. These point styles are commonly thought to be associated with post-Mazama cultures.³³ Thus, the point styles that occur in the Rogue River drainage and other areas of Oregon to the east and northeast may indicate new adaptations resulting from this cataclysmic event including movements by people from the Plateau and northern Great Basin into the Rogue River area.³⁴

KLAMATH RIVER ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Introduction

To date, archaeological work has been done in three areas along the upper Klamath River: Big Bend,³⁵ Salt Cave,³⁶ and Iron Gate three miles south of the Oregon border.³⁷ The University of Oregon began archaeological research in 1958 in areas to be affected by the construction of power house and dam facilities. These studies were financed by the California-Oregon Power Company (Copco). Field work began along the Big Bend of the Klamath River in Klamath County. In 1960, the Iron Gate project began in northern California. From 1961 until 1963, efforts were concentrated at the Salt Caves sites in western Klamath County. Six interim and final reports were written as a result of this research.

Big Bend Archaeology

Initial surveys of the archaeological potential near Big Bend were done in the spring of 1958. In the summer, excavations were conducted at the sites discovered and additional tests were made. Although seven sites were discovered, only three were considered significant enough to have number designations: 35 KL 13, 14, and 15. Most of the information about this area came from the rock shelter, 35 KL 13, which had large concentrations of artifacts and some faunal remains. It also contained pottery fragments--the first to be found in southern Oregon.

Thirty projectile points were found at 35 KL 13--the variety in styles was similar to that observed at Emigrant Dam, Lost Creek, and in the Klamath Basin to the east. Most of the Big Bend projectile points were quite small--none were more than about one-and-a-half inches long. Twenty-three of the points were made from obsidian, and the rest were of gray or tan chalcedony. Obsidian is locally available in this area; it is found in water-worn pebble and cobble form in stream beds and dry washes. Most of the points recovered were extremely well-made.

In addition to projectile points, 35 KL 13's tool inventory included blades, scrapers, modified flakes, and basalt metates and manos. Six large basalt metates were recovered. Only one bone artifact was recovered.

The most interesting discovery at 35 KL 13 was three fragments of very crudely made pottery. The largest fragment was about two inches wide and two inches long. The clay appeared to be local, the temper was sand or crushed rock granules, and the pottery was soft enough to indicate a low firing temperature. There was no sign of coiling: rather, the pottery was made by the lump modeling process, with shaping done by a scraper or paddle and anvil. There was no sign of surface decoration.

Conclusions

Based on the discovery of ceramics, the site was dated no earlier than 1000 A.D., and the most reasonably inferred date was 1500-1700 A.D. The projectile point styles suggested a late occupation of the site; several of the types at Big Bend resembled those found by Cressman at Kawumkan Springs in the Klamath Basin.³⁸ Close relationships with the Klamath area were inferred, and 35 KL 13 was considered a Klamath site, although some of the artifacts suggested contact with the Rogue River area.³⁹

Although few faunal remains were found, there were some turtle, cervidae, rodents, and carnivore. Fresh water mussel shells and fruit pits were also found. A varied economic base was suggested for this site, including hunting and gathering, but fishing was not mentioned. It was also suggested that the site was only briefly occupied each time it was used.

SALT CAVE SITES

Introduction

A preliminary archaeological survey of the Salt Caves Dam Reservoir area was conducted in 1961, and twelve sites were located. With few exceptions, the Salt Caves sites contained house pits and concentrations of cultural material indicating villages. Three field seasons in this area were devoted to excavating portions of these sites. The Salt Caves material is presently being analyzed by Joanne M. Mack for a doctoral dissertation at the University of Oregon, and the results of her work were unavailable for this Overview. Nevertheless, something about the sites can be learned from reports that have been prepared.

Preliminary Reports

The sites were in the Klamath River canyon, which lies 800 feet below the surrounding land. Most of the sites were located on river terraces. Pine, juniper, and black and white oak are common the the canyon, and cedar and fir grow there as well. Wild game and birds are abundant.

The number of depressions in each site differed, but they were generally circular and from two to six meters in diameter, with varying depths to over one meter. Several midden areas and a rock shelter (Salt Cave) were also found.⁴⁰ Three of the twelve sites (35 KL 21, 35 KL 18, and 35 KL 16) were extensively excavated, and three were tested (35 KL 17, 35 KL 22, and 35 KL 24).

The settlement patterns observed at the Salt Caves Dam Reservoir area resemble closely those described for the ethnographic Shasta, even though the archaeologists concluded that the sites were a phase of Klamath culture. The sites were on river terraces, for example, and several were near tributary streams. Further, the house pits appear to be set up in rows roughly paralleling the river front. At 35 KL 18 there was evidence of three rows of house pits.⁴¹ Some characteristics of the three house pits that had been excavated by the end of the 1962 season were: 1) oval-shapes in plane view and saucer-shapes in profile; 2) central fire pits; 3) cache pits present near the outer rim; 4) rings of stones surrounding the outer rims of the houses; 5) super-structures of wood made almost exclusively from cedar; 6) entrances through openings at the top; 7) partial benches along the rims; 8) timbers re-used in construction of new houses; and 9) one house pit had a lining of cobbles, which indicated either individual variation or a time difference.⁴²

A hunting economy was inferred for these sites, even though the Klamath River is nearby. Like the sites at Big Bend, nothing indicative of a fishing economy was found. Vegetable and seed products were suggested as food due to the presence of grinding tools. Obsidian was the most common material used for making stone tools, followed by chert. Two different stone tool making techniques that suggested contact with both the Rogue and Great Basin areas were represented: 1) use of prepared flakes, and 2) chunk and sort. The first method was more common in the Great Basin, while the second was widespread in Rogue country. Chunk and sort was used only with obsidian.⁴³ Chunk and sort is a newer technique, but the tools appeared less finely made than those from the flake preparation technique. Contact with California as well as with the Rogue and Great Basin areas is indicated by the presence of Gunther-barbed points.

By the end of the 1962 field season, it was inferred that occupation of the Salt Cave sites dated from at least 4000 B.C., when there was a great deal of influence from the Great Basin. There was also evidence that after early times the culture became more localized, but there appeared to be later contact again with the Great Basin and the Columbia Plateau. There were similarities to the Klamath region in house types, but the fishing economy was apparently much less developed than that of the Klamath. Instead, the emphasis appears to have been on hunting and gathering.⁴⁴

Extensive excavations were carried out at 35 KL 16 during the final field season. This site had nineteen probable house pit depressions spaced in two rows. The depth of the depressions varied to over a meter. One of the houses that was excavated showed at least three successive occupation levels. A carbon date obtained from this house was 1420 A.D.⁴⁵

Two hundred and forty-six pottery sherds were found at the site, as well as a fired clay spindle whorl-like object and some small fired clay objects that might have been fragments of figurines. This pottery was tempered with sand, which probably occurred naturally in the clay. The method of manufacture seemed to be lump modeling, like that at Big Bend's 35 KL 13. Most of the sherds were undecorated, although there may have been fingernail incising. It appears that at least some of the fragments were parts of bowls.

Apparently, the Salt Cave sites were not continuously occupied--there appears to be a gap of 800 or 900 years after the earliest occupation until the area was re-occupied at about 680 A.D. The small and delicately worked points that later came into vogue at the Salt Cave sites are comparable to those found in the Rogue River Valley, by Klamath Lake, and south into California around 1400-1500 A.D.⁴⁶

IRON GATE VILLAGE SITES

Three village sites were found along the Klamath River in northern California by the University of Oregon crew. One of them, Iron Gate 2, was excavated, analyzed, and extensively reported.⁴⁷ Iron Gate was near the mouth of Jenny Creek, whose watershed marked the northeastern extent of the ethnographic Shasta territory. Because the report is readily available, the results of Iron Gate excavations are only briefly described here.

Seven hundred and eighty-five artifacts and details of eleven house floors were recovered. The Iron Gate houses were different from the historic period rectangular house. They were apparently conical, bark-covered structures resembling historic Indian houses found farther south in California. Most of them had centrally located fire pits, and only one floor had a cache pit. There were clusters of rocks on the floors and in the centers of the house pits that could not be explained. One of the house pits had a clay floor, and benches were present.

The houses were described as follows:

A conical framework of poles was erected over a circular pit, five to six meters in diameter, and twenty to thirty centimeters deep. Large slabs of bark and perhaps planks or large splinters of wood were laid over the framework. Dirt was banked up against the sides of the house, and rocks may have been set on the walls to hold the bark in place. Vertical posts may have been used occasionally to support the framework. No information about the entry to the house was recovered.

House pits were reused, but when a new house was constructed over an abandoned pit, the debris and accumulated fill from the previous occupation were not removed.⁴⁸

Stone tools were the most common artifacts recovered. They were made mostly from obsidian, but jasper and chalcedony were also used. The workmanship was mediocre--the chunk and sort technique was apparently used. A great deal of similarity in projectile points was noted between the Iron Gate site and Kawumkan Springs midden on the Klamath Reservation. There is also a good deal of correspondence with points from other sites in northern California and in the Trinity Reservoir area. Some bone artifacts (including beads) and pottery was also found.

The Iron Gate site was similar to the Salt Cave and Big Bend sites in that projectile points were very common, and fishing implements were lacking. Leonhardy suggested that since most of the fishing in ethnographic times was done with nets, these were not preserved in the site. The projectile points and the presence of grinding tools, including hopper mortars, indicated a hunting and gathering complex similar to that at Salt Caves. There were no trade goods at Iron Gate, which indicated it was abandoned before contact times. This site is not mentioned in any of the Shasta ethnographies, but a site was located by Holt just west of Jenny Creek, which was 200 meters downstream from the Iron Gate site.⁴⁹

Unfortunately, Leonhardy could not demonstrate a connection between Iron Gate and historic Shasta sites due to the fundamental difference in house types, even though Iron Gate was in historic Shasta territory. Leonhardy suggested that there are two possibilities for interpreting the Iron Gate site: either it was occupied by a group that moved to the south in historic times, such as the Pit River tribes, or else the Iron Gate culture was antecedent to the Shasta, who, shortly before contact times, adopted a rectangular house to replace the circular house. Neither hypothesis has been tested to date.

KLAMATH BASIN ARCHAEOLOGY

Introduction

There has been only one major archaeological excavation in ethnographic Klamath territory. The work was done by a University of Oregon crew under the direction of Luther Cressman in the early 1950's. Excavations took place in three areas: 1) Medicine Rock Cave, which was thought by the Klamath to be the home of their culture hero, *Kemu'kumps*; 2) Kawumkan Springs midden, which contained house pits, and 3) some house

pits along the lower Williamson River, the Sprague River east of Chiloquin, and one at the confluence of the Sprague and Williamson Rivers. The purpose of Cressman's work was to investigate the relationship of ethnographic Klamath culture and prehistoric remains. Work began with historically occupied house pits, and the cultural material found in them was compared to material found in pits of greater antiquity. Although none of the excavated sites are near the Planning Unit boundary, it is necessary to discuss them because some of the archaeological sites in the Planning Unit may be attributable to the Klamath.

Medicine Rock Cave

Little archaeological material was found in Medicine Rock Cave; only forty-four classifiable artifacts were found. The top level of the cave included glass trade beads. Water-laid Mt. Mazama pumice was also found in the cave. The date of this eruption is known to be 6453 B.P. \pm 253. Therefore, any material below this pumice would indicate that the cave was occupied earlier than 6500 years ago. Because cultural material was found below this pumice, it is apparent that the Klamath Basin was occupied before this time, perhaps by people who were contemporary with the hunter-gatherers of the northern Great Basin to the east. One of the artifacts below the pumice was an atlatl point made from fine-grained basalt. This point was unusual because Great Basin points of this type are made from obsidian. Several bone artifacts were also found in the cave, as well as fish bones and mussel shells, almost to the exclusion of mammal bones. Due to the paucity of cultural material in Medicine Rock Cave, Cressman inferred that its occupation was not continuous. Historically, the Klamath Indians regarded this spot as sacred and avoided it, but in post-reservation days it was used as a camping spot by whites and Indians.⁵⁰

House Types Inferred from the Archaeological Record

Based on excavations and measurements of house pits on the Kawumkan Springs midden and the Sprague and Williamson Rivers, a description of the prehistoric house types was made. Many of the house pits along the Williamson River where the Klamath had their winter village settlements had already been destroyed by vandals by the time of Cressman's research. Few remain.

The floor plans of the houses tended to be round, but there were different sizes. There were large house pits with diameters of about six to seven meters, and smaller house pits between three and four meters wide. At first it was thought that the smaller pits were the remains of the ethnographically

reported cooking houses, but no evidence of ash lenses or fire pits could be found. There were other pits that were much larger, with diameters of eighteen meters and depths of more than three meters. These house pits had fire pits and floors. It is not known whether these were shamans' houses or some kind of communal houses.

No remains of post holes were found in the house pits, although ethnographically there were four post holes arranged in a rectangle to support the roof. There was, however, an unexpected feature in the house pits: benches that encircled the entire pit, like those at Iron Gate. The floor was saucer-shaped rather than flat, and in at least one house the floor appeared to have been covered by bark.

There were some unusual house types, but they were not well-described in Cressman's report. He stated that these houses were probably chronologically separate from the other houses and that they were apparently cook houses, because grinding tools were found in them, as well as ash lenses. Some had stone platforms, and under these were found skeletal remains. A bone point found in one of the skeletons was thought to be about 7000-7500 years old.⁵¹

No pattern was seen in the distribution of the house pits like the rows found at the Salt Caves sites on the Klamath River. The house pits were usually on terraces above the river and close to springs or tributaries where the river would not freeze in the winter. Cressman summed up his impressions of the houses by stating that they showed a distinctive variation in detail from the houses described in ethnographic sources. He further stated that there is a long sequence where little variation in house pit types occurs, except for the earliest house types, which had the stone platforms.

Artifacts

Most of the artifacts were recovered from the Kawumkan Springs midden. It is unfortunate that this site was excavated in much larger vertical units than are presently acceptable. As a consequence, some of Cressman's chronological interpretations are viewed with skepticism.

A total of 374 projectile points were found. These were classified into twenty-five separate categories for comparison with Great Basin points. Further, the distribution of these types throughout the midden was charted for analytic purposes. Cressman observed that the Klamath specimens exhibited poorer workmanship than those from the Great Basin. He also observed that there was a rise in smaller point types near the top of the midden, indicating a definite change in preference for certain types over time. One particular type of point accounted

for over half the total number of points. This point type is not widespread in other areas of Oregon or California, but it is found on the Deschutes River in post-Mazama deposits and at the Five-Mile Rapids site on the Columbia River. Only six knives were found in the entire midden--a situation similar to that at the Iron Gate site. In comparison with sites in the Great Basin, this proportion is exceedingly small, and Cressman inferred that big game hunting was relatively unimportant.

The largest category of stone tools found in the midden was scrapers--there were more than 2,000. Other stone tools included manos, metates, mortars, and pestles. Manos and metates occurred frequently and, strangely, mortars and pestles were usually broken. An unusual feature of the metate was the use of a huge rock as a grinding base--two people were required to lift them. There were also many composite grinding tools, such as stones battered on one end and ground on the other. One of these composite tools, which appeared to be a pestle and a hammer stone, weighed twenty pounds. A number of smaller shaped stones were found, which were called "hot rocks." An informant told Cressman they were used to heat beds or in cooking. There was also a large number of choppers, mauls, and bone and antler artifacts, although by far the most common artifact in the inventory was made from stone. In terms of material used, there was a proportion of 10 per cent basalt to 88 per cent obsidian.⁵² These artifacts show little variation through time, although the projectile points are smaller in later deposits. Cressman associated their appearance with the bow and arrow and with his theory of a population movement out of the northern Great Basin during the Altithermal (5000-2500 B.C.) when the water sources were supposed to be drying.

Chronology

Cressman developed a chronology for the Klamath Basin based on the division of the Kawumkan Springs midden into four arbitrary levels, which are dated by the types of projectile points found with them. He related the chronology to the supposed climatic changes occurring in the western United States at the time, based on the Antevs hypothesis.⁵³ Cressman said the midden began about 9000 years ago. The four levels are dated as follows:

Level Four: 9000-7500 years ago
 Level Three: 7500-3500 years ago
 Level Two: 3500-2500 years ago
 Level One: 2500 years ago to 250 A.D.

The house pits in the midden at Kawumkan Springs were dated at A.D. 700, on the basis of carbon 14 dates.⁵⁴

Food Economy

From the kinds of artifacts recovered in the four levels, Cressman inferred the food habits that were followed by the prehistoric inhabitants of the Klamath Basin. In levels three and four of the midden, there was an emphasis on small game animals and seeds and roots. In levels one and two, fish also played a major role in the diet. Birds increased in these levels, while rodents decreased. There is no indication that large game animals were ever a major part of the diet. Mussel shells were found throughout the four levels. There was no evidence of specialized *wokas* tools in this midden.⁵⁵

The Klamath Ecological Adaptation

Cressman noted that compared to several profound changes in ecological adaptations that apparently took place from 9000 B.C. to historic times in the northern Great Basin, there is evidence of a stable subsistence economy in the Klamath Basin. There was an increasing dependence on the resources of the rivers and marshes by the prehistoric occupants of the Klamath Basin over time. There is a great deal of artifactual similarity to the Columbia River region in this respect, which might indicate an early migration of Columbia River peoples down the Deschutes River into the Klamath Basin.⁵⁶

Cressman also attempted to assess the cultural and ecological relationships of the Klamath Basin with the Great Basin. He noted that there is a great deal of similarity in artifact types, but that the Great Basin had a well-developed knife and scraper industry for large game hunting. Except scrapers, this complex is almost absent in the Klamath Basin, indicating a different economy. And while early grinding tools are similar, the development of a specialized two-horned mano for processing *wokas* further differentiated the Klamath Basin from the Great Basin. Basketry-making techniques were also different.

Cressman said that the reason for the distinctive appearance of Klamath material culture items is the gradual adaptation to a localized ecological situation. Further, he said there was little contact with Basin influences during the period from 5000 to 2500 B.C. because people migrated from the area due to difficult climatic conditions.⁵⁷ When this climatic regime ended, however, he theorized that there was a new influx of people into the Great Basin, and that they pushed into the Klamath area as well. At the same time, the Klamath were in contact with their neighbors on the north and south. Therefore, Cressman concluded that while in the earliest times the inhabitants of the Klamath Basin were similar to their neighbors in the Great Basin, they gradually adapted to

distinctive features of their environment. Their later contacts were largely with the people along the Columbia River and southwestward into northern California along the Klamath River.⁵⁸

RECENT ARCHAEOLOGICAL WORK IN THE PLANNING UNIT

Introduction

There has been increasing professional archaeological activity in Oregon as a result of recent federal legislation. A number of these surveys and subsequent test excavations have taken place within the boundaries of the Planning Unit. This work, combined with earlier excavations and research, is rapidly yielding a much greater data base with which to interpret the prehistory of the area. The most recent discoveries are detailed below.

The Saltsgaver Site (35JA15)

Because no formal report has ever been written on this interesting site, the information included here comes from old newspaper clippings and from personal communication with Dr. LeRoy Johnson, Jr., formerly of the University of Oregon Museum of Natural History, who examined this site in 1968. His notes and the artifacts are presently at the University of Oregon.

The Saltsgaver site consists of at least 100 clay-lined pits varying from four feet to sixteen inches deep. The pits were found while ditch-digging near Central Point, Oregon. Johnson said that the pits were used for cooking. Some carbon recovered from one of them was dated at 3360 years B.C. ±160. Johnson said:

Apparently these were cooking pits, probably used to cook or leach acorns. The clay walls of the pit show clear signs of rather intense heat, but apparently fires were not built in the pits. Rather large chunks of basalt were heated in the nearby open fire. The hot rocks were then dumped in the pits to provide the necessary heat. Many historic Indian groups prepared food by heating rocks and using them much like this for cooking the food.⁵⁹

Johnson suggested that this site was a late autumn campsite used mainly by women to cook vegetable foods. Johnson pointed out that the full range of stone tools and other artifacts normally found at an Indian village were not present at the Saltsgaver site, but projectile points were found.

The pits were lined with clay except at the bottom, large chunks of basalt, some of them as big as a diameter. These basalt rocks showed definite signs of use. Both basalt and clay are found on the Saltsgaver

Medford Forest Nursery Site

Recently, the U.S. Forest Service acquired some land for a tree nursery. The nursery site was surveyed by U.S. Forest Service archaeologists, and an archaeological site was found on the property. Although no house or stone features were observed, there was a thin scatter of artifacts near the creek running through the nursery. Further excavation revealed grinding tools, cores, waste flakes, and pieces of firecracked rocks. A local collector told the archaeologists that the site had been known for a number of years and that it had been substantially surface collected. This material is on display in the Crater Rock Museum in Medford, Oregon. The display includes jasper projectile points and scrapers, pestles, bowls, and hopper mortars. Three possible site areas were found during the investigation of the nursery. One of them may be an extension of the site found earlier by a crew from Oregon State University during a survey of a proposed sewer line.⁶⁰

The archaeologists concluded that the material recovered from these areas points to a seasonal occupation. A Gold Ring was found, indicating an early use. They stated that a number of sites are known for this vicinity, some probably heavily used in prehistoric times. At the Medford site, however, the depth of the cultural deposits was small and they have consequently been disturbed by agricultural activity.

Jacksonville Sewer Survey¹

In 1976, Oregon State University did an archaeological survey along the proposed sewer route for the city of Jacksonville. A large site, 35 JA 38, was found not far from the Medford Forest Nursery. No testing was done, but on the surface evidence, it was recommended that the sewer be rerouted.

McGregor Park Staging Area (35 JA 37)

In 1976, Dr. Joseph Hopkins III of Southern Oregon State College did a survey of the McGregor Park Staging Area for the Portland District of the Corps of Engineers. The area

was near the confluence of a stream with the Rogue River. Dr. Hopkins surveyed and tested this site and found that it was a stratified site possibly dating from the Gold Hill horizon. One hundred and thirty-six lithic artifacts were recovered during the testing, mostly jasper and basalt. Only seven identifiable tools were found, including blades, the tip of a boring tools, and a knife. Earlier, Dr. John L. Fagan, the U.S. Army Corps archaeologist, found the base of a leaf-shaped projectile point or blade that resembled an earlier Cascade point found west of the Cascades. This point type has been assigned a date of 6000 B.C. or earlier.

Hopkins noted that the technique for producing stone tools at this site was the chunk and sort method.⁶¹

Grants Pass Excavations

In 1976, archaeologists from Oregon State University located eight sites near Grants Pass, Oregon, in an area to be impacted by sewer facilities construction. Two house pits were excavated on a terrace near the Rogue River. Two components were identified, and projectile point types from these components indicated that the house pits were not more than 500-1000 years old. The final report had not been prepared at the time of this study.

Summary

Several other surveys have been done in the Planning Unit. The finds are not discussed here because of the preliminary nature of the work, but most authors point to a resemblance between material discovered in them and previously recovered artifacts from the area.

ARCHAEOLOGY ENDNOTES

¹Luther Cressman, "Aboriginal Burials in Southwest Oregon," *American Anthropologist*, XXXV, No. 1 (1933), 116-130; "Contributions to the Archaeology of Oregon, Final Report on the Gold Hill Burial Site," *University of Oregon Studies in Anthropology*, I, Bulletin 1.

²Dr. W.D. Smith of the Geology Department of the University of Oregon, a consultant on the project, dated the mound deposit to the Pleistocene, or the Ice Age. However, a recent flooding may be responsible for deposition near the top of the mound.

³Cressman, "Contributions," p. 7.

⁴The burials were found at three different depths: 1) from 4.5 to 6.5 feet; 2) from 3.2 to 4.5 feet; and 3) from the surface to about 3.25 feet deep. The lowest occupation level was below 5 feet; the next occurred between 3.5 to 5 feet; and the third, from the surface to about 3.5 feet. The different artifact types in these levels have been used to define a relative chronology for this site and others in the Planning Unit. These levels must be viewed with skepticism due to excavating methods, however.

⁵In "Aboriginal Burials in Southwest Oregon," Cressman stated:

The bodies were buried with the arms folded across the chest, the knees flexed and pulled up as near to the chest as possible, and the feet pressed back against the pelvis. The bodies all lay on the left side, head to the south and facing the west. Four of the bodies had buried with them obsidian blades in pairs, three of them having a red and a black one in the pair. These were at approximately the seven-foot level. The other at the four-foot level had the two smaller black knives with it. One blade, a red one, was broken into two pieces, but this was undoubtedly accidental, as none of the others was damaged. (p. 126-27)

During the 1932 excavations, however, in which more burials were discovered, this pattern of body placement was not apparent, so that Cressman revised his original observation ("Contributions," p. 10).

⁶Cressman, "Contributions," p. 13.

⁷This point is probably the Gunther-barbed point--a style common to northern California and parts of Oregon, which is usually an indicator of a late horizon (i.e., it is a relatively recent point type).

⁸Cressman, "Aboriginal Burials," pp. 122-23.

⁹See Cressman's *Archaeological Researches in the Northern Great Basin*, Carnegie Institution of Washington, Publication 538 (1942).

¹⁰Cressman told the author that the Gold Hill burial material should be re-analyzed if possible, because the methods used at the time were not sufficient by present standards.

¹¹Thomas M. Newman, *Final Report on Archaeological Salvage, Emigrant Dam Reservoir, Rogue River Project, Oregon*, contract between the University of Oregon and the National Park Service (1959).

¹²Although the Gold Hill site was also in Jackson County, apparently no site form was ever filled out for it, so the Emigrant Dam site was given the first number designation in the county.

¹³David L. Cole, *Report on Investigations of Archaeological Sites in the Reservoir Areas of Sucker Creek Dam, Applegate Dam, Elk Creek Dam, Lost Creek Dam, Willow Creek Dam, and Collier State Park*, Museum of Natural History, University of Oregon (1965); *Archaeological Survey of the Applegate River Dam Reservoir, Lost Creek Dam Reservoir, and Elk Creek Dam Reservoir, Part I: "Report on the Archaeological Survey in the Reservoir Area of the Applegate River Dam and Lost Creek Dam"* (1966).

¹⁴David Brauner and William Honey, *A Re-evaluation of Cultural Resources Within the Applegate Lake Project Area, Jackson County, Oregon* (1977). None of the sites are on BLM land. No site forms were available from the State Museum; the work is ongoing.

¹⁵Brauner and Honey, p. 36.

¹⁶Wilbur A. Davis, *Salvage Archaeology of the Elk Creek Dam Reservoir--Final Report*, USDI purchase order no. 940-568 between the National Park Service and Oregon State University (1969); *Salvage Archaeology of the Lost Creek Dam Reservoir--Final Report*, USDI purchase order no. 940-569 between the National Park Service and Oregon State University (1968); *Lost Creek Archaeology, 1972--Final Report*.

This last article includes surveys on land where permission to survey was previously denied, until the Corps of Engineers got the land. Ten additional sites were found as a result-- 35 JA 15 through 35 JA 24.

¹⁷Cole, *Report on Investigations and Archaeological Survey*.

¹⁸Most of these sites are presently under the Lost Creek Reservoir.

¹⁹To facilitate discussion of artifacts recovered from the sites in the reservoir areas, a table is included from Davis's 1969 Elk Creek report; this table does not include the artifacts recovered from ten sites surveyed later in the Lost Creek Dam Reservoir. No comparable table is available for artifacts from these more recently surveyed sites.

²⁰Howell Williams, *The Geology of Crater Lake National Park, Oregon*, Carnegie Institution of Washington Publication 540 (1942).

²¹A phase is usually defined as a period of time during the life of a particular culture in a specified area. It is usually characterized by certain kinds of artifacts (see Willey and Phillips, *Method and Theory in American Archaeology* (Chicago, 1958), p. 22).

²²Davis is the first to name this distinctive point type the "Gold Hill" style, after the type that was also found at the Gold Hill site. The point is described as: "Small, averaging less than 30 mm in length, and 15 mm in width, with rounded base, lenticular cross section, and collateral flaking. The greatest width faces near the center of the point." (*Lost Creek Archaeology* (1968), p. 19)

²³It should be noted that house pits, known locally as "tepee rings," are present throughout the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit; they have been observed by both professionals and amateurs.

²⁴Davis, *Elk Creek Dam Reservoir Report*, p. 1.

²⁵Davis, *Lost Creek Archaeology* (1968), p. 3.

²⁶The term "component" as it is usually used in archaeology, indicates a site or part of a site which was occupied over a limited period of time, as inferred from similarity in artifact types.

²⁷Frank Leonhardy, *The Archaeology of a Late Prehistoric Village in Northwestern California*, Bulletin 4 of the Museum of Natural History, University of Oregon (1967).

²⁸Linda Cordell, *The Lingo Site, A Calapuya Midden*, Masters Thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of Oregon (1967).

²⁹Gunther-barbed points were first described and named in 1958 by Adam E. Treganza in *Salvage Archaeology in the Trinity Reservoir Area, Northern California*, University of California Archaeology Survey Report No. 43.

³⁰Davis, *Lost Creek Archaeology* (1972), p. 5.

³¹Ibid., p. 52.

³²Ibid., p. 53.

³³Robert Butler, "Contributions to the Prehistory of the Columbia Plateau," *Occasional Papers of the Idaho State College Museum*, No. 9 (1962), p. 79.

³⁴Follansbee did a computer analysis of projectile point collections from the southern Columbia Plateau, the northern Great Basin, and the Klamath Basin--it was apparent from this study that from 7000 to 5000 B.P. a number of projectile point types were shared in the three areas. Before this time the point styles were different.

³⁵Thomas M. Newman and L.S. Cressman, *Final Report on Archaeological Salvage Program in the Big Bend Project of Copco on the Klamath River, Oregon*, University of Oregon (1959).

³⁶L.S. Cressman and J. Wells, *Salt Caves Dam Reservoir, Interim Report on Archaeological Project: 1961 Field Season*, University of Oregon Report to Pacific Power and Light Company (1962); L.S. Cressman and M.D. Olien, *Salt Caves Dam Reservoir Interim Report* (1962); and A.D. Anderson and D.L. Cole, *Excavations at Site SC-1* (1964).

³⁷L.S. Cressman and F. Leonhardy, *Final Report: Iron Gate Reservoir*, University of Oregon Department of Anthropology, Report to Copco (1961); and F. Leonhardy, *The Archaeology of a Late Prehistoric Village in Northwestern California*, Museum of Natural History Bulletin No. 4 (University of Oregon, 1967).

³⁸L.S. Cressman, *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society*, Vol. XLVI: *Klamath Prehistory*, Part 4 (1956).

³⁹Newman and Cressman, *Big Bend*, p. 13.

⁴⁰This prehistoric Salt Cave may also be an historic site--according to an article in the Jackson County Museum from the *Sacramento Bee* of January 13, 1965, there was a standoff in Salt Cave between some Shasta Indians and some whites. The Shasta holed up in the cave and were attacked from across the river with metal scraps fired from a cannon.

⁴¹Cressman and Wells, *Salt Caves Dam*, p. 8.

⁴²Cressman and Olien, *Salt Caves Dam*, pp. 14-15.

⁴³Ibid., p. 23.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 31.

⁴⁵Anderson and Cole, *Excavations*, pp. 9-10.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 22.

⁴⁷Leonhardy, *Late Prehistoric Village*.

⁴⁸Ibid., pp. 12-13.

⁴⁹Catherine Holt, "Shasta Ethnography," *Anthropological Records*, III, No. 4 (1946), map 1.

⁵⁰Cressman, *Klamath Prehistory*, p. 402.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 444.

⁵²It is not clear why these percentages do not total 100 percent.

⁵³Ernst Antevs, "Climatic Changes and Pre-White Man," *University of Utah Bulletin*, XXXVIII, No. 20, pp. 168-91.

⁵⁴Cressman, *Klamath Prehistory*, pp. 463-64.

⁵⁵Ibid., pp. 447-48.

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 455.

⁵⁷For a different interpretation, see John L. Fagan, *Altithermal Occupation of Spring Sites in the Northern Great Basin*, Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Anthropology, University of Oregon (1973).

⁵⁸Cressman, *Klamath Prehistory*, pp. 467-70.

⁵⁹Eva Hamilton, article in the *Sunday Medford Mail-Tribune*, April 7, 1968.

⁶⁰David R. Brauner, *Archaeological Reconnaissance of the Proposed Sewage Treatment Facilities: City of Jacksonville, Jackson County, Oregon* (1976).

⁶¹Joseph W. Hopkins III, *An Archaeological Assessment of the McGregor Park Staging Area (35JA37)*, 1976.

7. Early Claims to the Pacific Northwest

INTRODUCTION

In the early nineteenth century, four international powers sought control of the Pacific Northwest: Spain, Russia, Great Britain, and the United States. By 1819 Spain relinquished all claims to the Pacific Northwest, and the Russians followed in 1824 by agreeing to stay in Alaska. Great Britain and the United States jointly occupied the area until 1846, when the present boundary was established at the forty-ninth parallel. Fortunately, the boundaries were established diplomatically with few disputes between the powers.

EARLY CLAIMS TO THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST

Spain

Among the items Columbus brought back to Spain from the New World were a few small treasures of gold and some low-grade pearls. This was enough to stir the interest of European fortune seekers, who soon set out for this land of untold wealth and riches. In this atmosphere, the legend of the wealthy kingdoms of Quivira and the Seven Cities of Cibola somewhere in Western America began.

Explorers came overland and by sea to find these mythical cities. Vasco Nunez de Balboa was the first to reach the Pacific Ocean by way of Cape Horn in 1513. Seven years later, Ferdinand Magellan and Juan del Cano revealed the gigantic size of this newly discovered ocean. With the discovery of this ocean came another legend of a mythical Northwest Passage, connecting the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. In an attempt to find this passage, Spain sent Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo north from Mexico in 1542. Cabrillo died during the journey, but his lieutenant Bartolome Ferrello reached the 42nd parallel. In 1602-1603, Spain sent Sebastian Vizcaino and Martin de Aguilar again in search of the passage, and they reached 43° north latitude. Over 150 years elapsed before Spain again sent explorers up the Pacific Coast. In 1774, Juan Perez reached 55° 30' and encountered the Haida Indians. The following year Bruno de Heceta and Juan Francisco Bodega Y Quadra reached 58° 30', claiming all the land for imperial Spain.

England

England began her activities in the Pacific Northwest with the pirate raids of Sir Francis Drake in 1578-1579. Although it is uncertain whether Drake reached the Oregon Coast, his importance to English land claims was insignificant. In 1777, Captain James Cook sailed up the Northwest Coast to 70° 44' attempting to find the Northwest Passage. Although he did not find it, Cook's journey to the coast showed that seal and sea otter pelts could be purchased inexpensively and sold in China for huge profits.¹ With this discovery, England began to show new interest in the Pacific Northwest.

Great Britain's claim to the north Pacific Coast was strengthened by the voyages of Captain George Vancouver in 1792-1794. Vancouver carefully charted most of the coastline, but of special significance to Oregon was Lt. William R. Broughton's voyage up the Columbia River to the Willamette River in his ship the *Chatham*, on which he claimed possession of the area for England.² The overland expedition of Alexander MacKenzie from Hudson's Bay across Canada to the Bella Coola River on the Pacific Ocean in 1793 gave England an even stronger foothold in the Pacific Northwest.³ By 1800, Great Britain's claim to the Pacific Northwest appeared undisputed.

United States

Americans came to the Northwest later than Great Britain or Spain. U.S. Captain Robert Gray was the first white man to discover the Columbia River by sailing his ship the *Columbia* into the mouth of the river on May 12, 1792. Although Gray did not claim the river for the United States, his discovery was impressive. Yankee sailors followed up the discovery by trading for furs on the north Pacific Coast until the early 1800s. The Lewis and Clark Expedition of 1805-1806 improved the American claim to the Pacific Northwest, but more important, as historian William H. Goetzmann suggested, Lewis and Clark altered America's view of the West and showed that it was accessible as well as desirable.⁴ John Jacob Astor's American Fur Company fort constructed at Astoria in 1811 was financially unsuccessful, but it demonstrated American's intention of permanently settling the area.

Russia

Russia established a claim to the north Pacific Coast early in the eighteenth century. Peter the Great instructed Vitus Bering, Martin Spanberg, and Alexei Chirikov to search for an ice-free passage through the Arctic Ocean to China and India in 1725. Bering made the most significant contributions in 1728 when he found that North American and Asia were separated by only a narrow strait in the north. In 1732, his brief survey of the north Pacific Coast determined

that the area was rich in sea otter furs. Russian traders followed this discovery by starting a profitable trade in Alaskan furs.

Russia showed intentions of spreading her influences farther south from Alaska in 1806 when Baron Nikolai Rezanov, an organizer of the Russian American Company (a fur company), urged his government to establish a colony at the mouth of the Columbia River.⁵ By 1812 Russia established Fort Ross in northern California with the consent of the Spanish. In the same year, Russia established a trading post in the Hawaiian Islands.

LAND AND BORDER SETTLEMENTS

Although Spain was the first country to make claims to the Pacific Northwest, little was done to permanently settle the area. When English merchants began trading on the north Pacific Coast, Spanish authorities insisted that the British pay for the privilege. In May 1789, Don Esteban Jose Martinez seized two British trading ships at Nootka Sound on Vancouver Island and took the vessels and crew to Mexico as prisoners. The British merchant John Meares demanded payment for loss of trade, and the incident nearly caused war between England and Spain. The Nootka Convention of 1792-1793 settled the differences and averted war, but Spain was forced to acquiesce to English demands, and by 1795, Spain no longer claimed any land on the north Pacific Coast.⁶

Spain was permanently removed as a power in the Northwest with the Adams-Oniz Treaty of 1819. Although this treaty was aimed primarily at the acquisition of Florida, it also established a permanent line between Spanish and American possessions. The boundary between Spain and the United States west of the Rocky Mountains was settled at 42°.

Russia did not follow up Baron Rezanov's idea to build a settlement on the mouth of the Columbia River, but the settlement at Fort Ross remained active. The Russians probably did not intend to expand to the area between Alaska and Fort Ross, but some of their actions caused the British and the Americans to fear that they would. The biggest cause for concern was a *ukase* issued by Tsar Alexander in 1821 excluding all trade on the northern coast from the Bering Strait to the 51st parallel and one-hundred Italian miles from the shore. The American Monroe Doctrine of 1823, which stated that the United States would not allow European countries to further colonize the Western Hemisphere and that Americans would not become involved in European affairs, was partly aimed at Russian interests in the Pacific Northwest. One year later the United States and Russia agreed that the latter's southern boundary in Alaska

would be 54° 40', but that both countries could have free trade and navigation between 49° and Alaska. With Russia and Spain relinquishing their claims to the Pacific Northwest the only powers still in contention were United States and Great Britain.

Great Britain proved the most aggressive of the two countries in the early 1800s. In 1824 the Hudson's Bay Company was established at Fort Vancouver with Dr. John McLoughlin as Chief Factor. The Company spread throughout the Pacific Northwest with strategically placed trading posts and annual trading expeditions.⁷ The British believed that their great fur company would assure their claims to the Pacific Northwest.

Americans were slower to develop their interests in the area, but when settlers began pouring into Oregon, they demonstrated that the American claim was substantial. In 1834 Jason Lee and his nephew Daniel Lee came to Oregon as missionaries, establishing their stations at The Dalles and in the Willamette Valley. Two years later, Marcus and Narcissa Whitman and Henry and Eliza Spaulding traveled across the Rocky Mountains to establish missions near present-day Walla Walla, Washington, and Lewiston, Idaho. The missionary efforts of the Whitmans, Spauldings, and Lees were not overly successful, but their pioneering efforts paid off in other ways. Their letters to the states, along with the publicity of earlier travellers and explorers, encouraged settlers to come to the Northwest.

The political and diplomatic process that finally determined possession of land in the Oregon Country was long and tedious. Great Britain and the United States recognized early that the area's resources were valuable and that each wanted some of the land, but they also realized that each country's claim was negotiable. In 1818, commissioners from both countries met to settle the boundary issue. They agreed to jointly occupy the area for ten years without the prejudice of either nation's claims or interference with other nations. Again in 1827 both powers attempted to reach a boundary settlement. The problems were more clearly defined by this time, but still no final agreement was reached. There was little argument that England would eventually settle the area north of the 49th parallel and that the United States would possess the area south of the Columbia River--the difficulty lay in determining who would possess the triangular area between the Columbia River, the Pacific Ocean, and the 49th parallel. Since this issue could not be settled, both countries agreed to continue the 1818 agreement indefinitely, but either party could terminate the agreement with a one-year notice.

By the 1840's, events were taking place so fast that a settlement became mandatory. The number of American settlers in Oregon increased dramatically in this period; in 1843 alone,

eight hundred to nine hundred Americans crossed the Oregon Trail to settle in the Willamette Valley.⁸ The Hudson's Bay Company had trapped out nearly all the fur-bearing animals in the region below 49°⁰, and their attempt at agriculture, the Puget Sound Agricultural Company, was a failure. Also, by this time the Oregon question entered the American political spectrum.

When James K. Polk was elected President in 1844, one plank of the Democratic Party platform was the "re-occupation" of Oregon all the way to 54° 40'. Although Party rhetoric called for Alaska as the northern boundary, Polk was realistically willing to settle for 49° as the border. Another important plank in the Party platform was the annexation of Texas. There was little question that Texas would either be admitted as a slave state or divided into several slave states, a move that was bitterly opposed by the Northeast and the Midwest. By adding the Pacific Northwest as an issue in the campaign, the Democrats gambled to gain the support of the anti-slavery northerners. The northeastern merchants were eager to have west coast shipping ports to carry on a trade with the Orient. Puget Sound was a desirable port for these interests. The Midwestern farmers wanted the lush farmland of the Willamette Valley, and they traditionally harbored strong anti-British feelings. The campaign slogan of "54-40 or fight" was therefore appealing to this group. At the same time, Great Britain was having problems of her own--famine in Ireland and war in India. In other words, both sides were ready for a settlement.

Final settlement came fairly quickly, with both sides accepting the 49th parallel as the boundary. The only difficulty lay in deciding whether to extend this border through Vancouver Island. This problem was settled by allowing the island to remain as a British possession. The Hudson's Bay Company maintained all its property in American territory, and the Columbia River was left open for navigation. Fortunately, a settlement was reached without resorting to war. Both Great Britain and the United States received ports on Puget Sound, American farmers gained the Willamette Valley, and the boundary of 49°⁰ was extended to the Pacific Ocean.⁹

ENDNOTES

¹J.C. Beaglehole, ed., *The Journals of Captain James Cook on His Voyage of Discovery*, III (1955-1967), 714.

²George Vancouver, *A Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean and Around the World*, I (1798), 210, 259.

³W. Kaye Lamb, ed., *The Journals and Letters of Sir Alexander Mackenzie* (1970).

⁴William H. Goetzmann, *Exploration and Empire: The Explorer and the Scientist in the Winning of the American West* (1966), p. 8.

⁵Dorothy O. Johansen and Charles M. Gates, *Empire of the Columbia*, 2nd ed. (1967), p. 113.

⁶Ibid., pp. 39-43.

⁷John S. Galbraith, *The Hudson's Bay Company as Imperial Factor 1821-1869* (1957).

⁸Gordon B. Dodds, *Oregon, A History* (1977), p. 92.

⁹A number of historical sources deal with the politics and diplomacy relating to the Oregon question. Among the more important are: Frederick Merk, *The Oregon Question* (1967); Merk, *Manifest Destiny and Mission in American History* (1963); Bernard De Voto, *The Year of Decision, 1846* (1942); Norman A. Graebner, *Empire on the Pacific* (1955); and, the most recent and perhaps the most impressive volume, David M. Pletcher, *The Diplomacy of Annexation: Texas, Oregon and the Mexican War* (1973).

8. Early Explorations to the 1840's

Explorations into the interior of the Pacific Northwest began with the voyage of Lt. William Broughton in his ship the *H.M.S. Chatham* as part of Captain George Vancouver's expedition of 1792. Broughton sailed up the Columbia River to a point just east of its confluence with the Willamette River, demonstrating that the Columbia was navigable. Meriwether Lewis and William Clark penetrated the Northwest interior from the east in their famous expedition of 1805-1806. Neither of these excursions were significant for their immediate benefits, but both showed that the interior was accessible and that the natural resources were desirable. These exploring parties established Great Britain and the United States as the primary powers seeking control over the area.

In 1811, John Jacob Astor of the American Fur Company established Fort Astoria, the first permanent settlement in the Northwest, near the mouth of the Columbia River. This undertaking was wracked with disasters, including the explosion and sinking of the company ship *Tonquin* near Vancouver Island and frightful experiences on overland expeditions, but the Astor adventure was successful, for the area was rich in furs. In 1813, during the War of 1812, the British North West Company purchased Fort Astoria, thus beginning British control of the Northwest's fur industry for nearly half a century.

The North West Company did little to take advantage of their new territory. Much of the company's time and effort was spent feuding with the rival Hudson's Bay Company east of the Canadian Rocky Mountains, but in 1821 the two companies merged, and a new era began in the Pacific Northwest.

BRITISH EXPEDITIONS

Explorations of the Hudson's Bay Company

The Hudson's Bay Company immediately began an aggressive program to trap furs in the Pacific Northwest. Dr. John McLoughlin was appointed Chief Factor for the Columbia Department of Hudson's Bay Company, which extended from Russian Alaska in the north to Spanish California in the south, and from the Rockies to the Pacific Ocean. McLoughlin was an imposing figure, and his leadership contributed to the highly successful operation of the Columbia Department.

Although McLoughlin was in charge of his department, George Simpson of the Northern Department conceived of and implemented many of the company's programs. One such program was the Snake Country expeditions. The purpose of the expeditions was twofold: 1) to collect beaver furs, and 2) to make the Snake River drainage a "fur desert" to discourage American trappers from venturing west of the Rocky Mountains. The latter plan was a departure in policy for the company. Traditionally, Hudson's Bay Company left enough fur-bearing animals in a region to repopulate.

Simpson chose Peter Skene Ogden to lead the Snake River brigades. Ogden was a former North West Company man (as was McLoughlin) who had been involved in the bitter feud between the two companies, but in the merger he became a dedicated Hudson's Bay Company employee. Simpson recognized Ogden's leadership qualities and potential for physical endurance. Ogden spent six years (1824-1831) exploring and trapping in all the areas where the Hudson's Bay Company anticipated possible American competition. In the process he discovered much of Nevada and Utah, including the Humboldt River, sections of Idaho and northern California, and in the last journey, the Gulf of California.¹ He was also the first white man to document his exploration of south-central Oregon.²

Hudson's Bay Brigade to Southwest Oregon

Ogden's party explored and trapped in the Klamath region in December on the third Snake Country Expedition of 1826. Finan McDonald and Thomas McKay of Hudson's Bay had trapped in the Klamath Basin earlier that year, but found few beaver. The purpose of a second Klamath excursion was to find a large river reported to be in the vicinity, to explore the unknown country south of the Umpqua, and to trap should major new rivers be discovered.

Ogden's expedition went east along the Columbia River, turned south at the Deschutes River, and proceeded into central Oregon, trapping along the Crooked River and traveling to Malheur and Harney Lakes. He eventually worked his way west to Klamath Lake in late November, 1826. His journey in central Oregon was filled with the hardship of starvation and attacks by Snake Indians.

At "Clammitte" Lake, as he called it, Ogden found a number of Indian villages. His description of one of the villages provides probably the first white man's description of Klamath dwellings. "It (the village)," he wrote, "was composed of twenty tents built on the water, surrounded by water approachable only by canoes, the tents built of large logs shaped like block houses, the foundation stone or gravel made solid by piles sunk six feet deep."³ The trappers were

impressed by the strength and ingenuity of the Klamaths, but Ogden feared that "two years of intimacy with the whites will make them like all other Indian villains."⁴

After spending approximately two months in the area around Klamath Lake, the trappers ventured into California to a point south of Tule Lake. On their journey they could see Mt. Shasta, or as Ogden called it in his journal--"Mt. Shastise."

Part of Ogden's party went down the Klamath River toward the northern California coast under Francois Payette. They observed that many aspects of native life along the river closely resembled the Chinook villages on the Columbia River: the "villages (were) built in the manner as the Indians of the coast with cedar (sic) plank sufficiently large to contain from twenty to thirty families...and they have large fine canoes resembling the Chinook and various trading articles such as knives, axes and tea kettles."⁵

From the Klamath River, Ogden and the rest of the brigade crossed the Siskiyou Mountains and followed the Applegate River into the Rogue River Valley of Oregon. Ogden thought the Rogue River was actually a tributary of the Klamath River and was surprised to find that the Indians of the area were more like the Umpqua to the north. The beaver in the Rogue and its tributaries were not numerous and the Hudson's Bay Company men spent little time exploring and trapping the area. Unfortunately, Ogden's observations of the Rogue Valley were not as incisive as those for the Klamath Basin. At one point he mentioned that the party had twenty days of constant rain and snow, and that all of their possessions were soaked. As they began to head east it is understandable that Ogden would not be as enthusiastic as he had been earlier.⁶

From the Rogue Valley, Ogden headed south and east until he again reached the Klamath River on April 19, 1827. The weather was warmer and drier and the first run of salmon provided a welcome change in diet. With the change in environs, Ogden reflected on the winter: "the severity of the winter time lost our want of knowledge of the country," but on a brighter note he mentioned that he had "every reason to be well satisfied with our returns which now amount to 2,230 beaver and otter."⁷ From the Klamath, Ogden crossed northern California until he reached Goose Lake, then went north and east to Harney and Malheur Lakes.

Unfortunately, Ogden's expedition into the Klamath and Rogue River areas provided little in the way of specific geographical data, but the journey did provide the first written account of the area with some valuable information. The Klamath, but not the Rogue, Indians and their dwellings were discussed at some length; the flora and fauna received

attention, but more important, future explorers would have some familiarity with the area.

Other Early Explorations

After Ogden's visit to south-central Oregon, other Hudson's Bay Company expeditions traveled and trapped in this area, some venturing well into northern California. Among them were several who entered the Planning Unit, including the French trapper Michel Laframboise. Laframboise who was in charge of Hudson's Bay trapping in southwest Oregon after Ogden, was guiding the Hudson's Bay trading expedition of Alexander McLeod in the Umpqua Region at the same time Ogden was on the Applegate,⁸ although his entry at this time into the Planning Unit is uncertain. In 1833, Laframboise came north from trapping in California, going through the Rogue Valley to the Willamette.⁹ He probably was in the Planning Unit many more times.

Another trapping expedition was that of John Work, including sixty-three men, women, and children, and several Indians. They had journeyed through eastern Oregon to the Sacramento River in 1832-1833, returning to Fort Vancouver in the summer of 1833. In the Rogue Valley, they camped at Bear Creek on September 16, 1833, and met with friendly Shasta Indians.¹⁰

Most of the Work expedition members were ill at the time they were crossing the Rogue Valley. This, coupled with bad weather and troubles with Indians after September 16, made their journey through the Planning Unit a difficult one. Not until October 3 did they leave the Rogue country.¹¹

One of the more significant ventures into the area was the effort to bring California cattle into the Northwest. In 1837, Ewing Young purchased about 730 head of cattle in California to bring north. Several years earlier Young had brought 150 mules and horses over Siskiyou Pass into the Willamette Valley, and he knew that the plan was feasible. With about \$3,000 collected from various investors, Young reached California in February, 1837. He and the cattle started north in August. He crossed the Siskiyou through the same pass as present Interstate 5 in September, went through the Rogue country (where he skirmished with the Indians at the mouth of Footh Creek), and reached the Willamette Valley in October with 630 head of cattle.¹² The famous Texas cattle drives several years later became much more celebrated in western history, but Ewing Young's cattle drive of 1837 was certainly a remarkable achievement.

An 1845 expedition headed to California through the Planning Unit was lead by James Clyman, with thirty-five men, three children, and one woman. Clyman's diary describes

Table Rock as "a place of safety in seasons of danger" for the Indians. The Clyman party traveled along Bear Creek and climbed the Siskiyou.¹³

AMERICAN EXPLORATIONS

Jedediah Smith (1828)

Jedediah Smith and his fur trading expedition into Oregon are discussed here not so much for the information gained about southwest Oregon, but more to show relationships between American and British fur trappers and the demonstration by Smith that the coastal route was an inefficient means of travel from north to south.

Smith was a partner in the American fur company of Smith, Jackson, and Sublette. In 1826, Smith and his band of fur trappers headed across the southwest into Mexican California. He trapped in California with his men, and in spring 1827 he left most of his party in California and traveled with his one-year trapping of furs to the annual rendezvous in Bear Valley, Utah. He returned to California in 1827, losing ten men in an attack by Mojave Indians on the Colorado River. There were difficulties with the Mexican authorities, causing Smith to spend some time in a Mexican jail, but in early 1828, he was able to outfit his party and head north.

Smith went north up the Sacramento River to somewhere near its headwaters, then west probably along the Trinity River to the coast. The party slowly worked its way along the coast, reaching Oregon sometime in late June. Smith crossed both the Rogue and Coquille Rivers. During the Rogue crossing they lost twenty-three horses either by drowning or from Indian attacks. Finally on July 14, Smith reached the Umpqua River where he discovered that the Willamette River was not far north, and neither was Fort Vancouver, his destination. On the way, however, he was attacked by Kelawatset Indians, and all but four men were killed. Smith and two other men had been on a hunting expedition, and one other man escaped into the woods. Miraculously, all of the men reached Fort Vancouver within two days of each other in August.¹⁴

When the survivors reached Fort Vancouver, not only were they welcomed by Dr. John McLoughlin, but the chief factor sent a brigade of Hudson's Bay Company men to reprimand the Indians and recover as much of the American's property as possible. McLoughlin was friendly to Smith for several reasons. The Hudson's Bay Company fur trading business depended on cooperation with the Indians. The company could not afford to have Indians such as the Kelawatsets unfriendly to fur trappers, so a reprimand from the company showed official displeasure. More important, however, McLoughlin and Sir George Simpson, who was inspecting Fort Vancouver at the time, believed that Smith's misfortune

could be of great benefit to their company and the British Empire. As Simpson stated in his journal:

The flattering reports which reached St. Louis of the Wilhamot (sic) Country, as a field for Agricultural speculation, had induced many people in the States to direct their attention to that quarter; but he [Smith] has on his present journey, discovered difficulties which never occurred to their minds, which are likely to deter his Country-men from attempting that enterprise.¹⁵

Simpson mistakenly believed that Smith was an uncouth mountain man who would not recognize that the Pacific Northwest was suitable for agricultural settlements and would report this to his American compatriots. He greatly underestimated Smith.

Jedediah Smith observed, on his way back to the East, that the route to Oregon was possible to travel with wagons, milk cows and families, and he reported his findings directly to Secretary of War John H. Eaton in 1830. The route by way of South Pass provided access for wagons all the way to the Celilo Falls of the Columbia River. This report was enthusiastically received by Eaton and President Andrew Jackson, and gained national prominence, published as Senate Document 39 of the second session of the 21st Congress of the United States.¹⁶ Smith was important to the Pacific Northwest for encouraging immigration over the Oregon Trail several years later, but indirectly his travels in Oregon were significant to southwest Oregon. Smith's journey along the California and Oregon coast demonstrated to other travelers that the Siskiyou Pass was a much more desirable route.

The Charles Wilkes Expedition (1841)

During the 1830's, European countries were engaging in impressive scientific explorations all over the world. Charles Darwin conducted his famous explorations on board the British ship *Beagle* from 1831-1836, and France made some impressive discoveries. Not to be outdone, President Andrew Jackson was anxious to have Americans involved in important scientific expeditions as well. Planning for the United States Exploring Expedition began during Jackson's last year in office (1836), and was conceived of as a comprehensive survey with land and maritime explorations of the whole Pacific.

U.S. Navy Lieutenant Charles Wilkes was chosen to lead the expedition, and he departed with six naval vessels in 1838. The party spent several years exploring the islands of the South Pacific, and they ventured into the Antarctic regions

believing they had found a great southern continent, but this later proved to be a huge ice field.¹⁷ On May 1, 1841, the expedition entered the Straits of Juan de Fuca and began the summer's work in the Pacific Northwest. During the summer, Puget Sound was charted more thoroughly than had previously been accomplished, and Wilkes made an overland journey from present-day Tacoma south to the Cowlitz River, then down to the Columbia River. From Fort Vancouver, Wilkes sent an overland party under the leadership of Lieutenant George F. Emmons to California, while the leader rejoined his naval vessels.

Emmons' party consisted of forty-one people, including navy men, scientists, Hudson's Bay Company employees and their wives, and four American Willamette Valley settlers. The group left Jason Lee's Willamette mission on September 9, 1841, heading south along the Willamette River. By this time, the Hudson's Bay Company had made several expeditions along the route and the Siskiyou Trail was a well-beaten path. Within a couple of weeks, Emmons and his men reached the Umpqua River and the Hudson's Bay Company trading post, Fort Umpqua. Emmons was warned by the fort factor, Jean Baptiste Gagnier, not to proceed any farther because of threatened Indian attacks. The lieutenant heeded the warning, but continued on the journey.

When the party crossed the mountains into the Rogue River Valley, they traveled on a route very close to the present Interstate 5. They headed south until they hit the "Tootootnas" (Rogue) River near Grants Pass, then traveled east along the river to present-day White City, where they again headed south over Siskiyou Pass. It was along the Rogue River where Emmons and his men had difficulty with the Indians, and from the journal of Midshipman George Colvocoresses, it appears that the Hudson's Bay Company had their major problems with Indians in this region. Colvocoresses wrote:

On the 27th [of September], we reached one of those places where it was said the Indians never failed to make their attacks. We had one man in the party [Guardapii, Hudson's Bay Company employee] who had been twice assaulted at the same place. It was a steep rocky spot, close by the river Tootootnas. As we passed on, many alarmed Indians were observed on the opposite side of the stream, and, occasionally, were heard to utter yells, which were absolutely infernal, but they did not attempt to oppose our progress. We were fully prepared for them, and, it was this, no doubt, which prevented their making an assault. Even the wives of the hunters were armed on the occasion.¹⁸

The party made it over the Siskiyou Mountains and into California without incident, and rejoined Wilkes and the main party at San Francisco.¹⁹

The violent nature of the Indians in the Rogue River vicinity encouraged the Hudson's Bay Company men and Emmons to refer to them as "Rogues." Eventually this became the accepted name for the tribe and the river running through their region.

In 1849, shortly after gold was discovered in California, Wilkes wrote a short book describing his observations in Oregon and California. He discussed the geography of the area, including the areas rich in agricultural potential and mineral deposits (gold), and he mentioned the Indians, rivers and harbors of both California and the Pacific Northwest, and important routes of communications between these areas. With the settlements in Oregon and California, Wilkes considered an effective system of communication to be absolutely mandatory. As Wilkes was writing his book, talk was becoming serious about constructing a transcontinental railroad. The explorer became an early promoter for four railroads across the continent, one across Mexico and one across Panama.²⁰ To reach the Pacific Northwest, he recommended a route from Lake Michigan to the lower waters of the Columbia with a connecting line to Puget Sound. Not only would this provide a link between the continental east and west, but it would provide a convenient connection to China--for as he said: "no country is so well situated to communicate with all parts of the Pacific Ocean as Oregon."²¹

Wilkes' idea of communication between Oregon and California were less ambitious. Recognizing the difficult terrain in southern Oregon and northern California, he recommended that the government take the responsibility for constructing a wagon road either on the west or east side of the Cascade Mountains. He also mentioned that sea travel between the two areas was much more efficient both in time of travel and cost.²²

The John C. Fremont Expeditions: 1843, 1846

Of all the explorations into the American West, none are as famous and romantic as those of John C. Fremont. The notable historian Allan Nevins has summed up this explorer's importance in the title of his two-volume book, *Fremont, The West's Greatest Adventurer*. Literally dozens of books, articles, movies, and television programs have presented the exploits of Fremont and Kit Carson. It is appropriate to deal with the famous expeditions here, although Fremont was not in the Planning Unit boundaries.

The 1843 Expedition

Fremont's first expedition into Oregon was encouraged by his father-in-law Thomas Hart Benton, who was also a powerful U.S. Senator from Missouri, and Lewis F. Linn, the other Missouri Senator. Both men were early advocates of expansion into the Pacific Northwest, and both were anxious to do whatever was necessary to encourage Oregon migrations (appropriately two Oregon counties are named for these men). Fremont's duty was to furnish scientific information, including carefully prepared maps, to dispel the belief that the Oregon journey was extremely difficult, and to show the Pacific Northwest as a desirable place to live. Another part of Fremont's exploration, although not widely known, was to survey Mexican possessions in California.²³

With thirty-nine men, several experienced trappers--including Kit Carson, who joined the party in Colorado--and the finest arms and equipment available, the party left Kansas City, Missouri in May, 1843. They passed numerous wagon trains along the way, spent several days exploring the area around the Great Salt Lake, and reached Fort Hall on the Snake River in the middle of September. A month later, Fremont reached the Columbia River, and on November 5 the party reached The Dalles. Fremont and several men made a quick trip to Fort Vancouver and back, and the expedition headed south along the last ridge of the Cascade Mountains where no explorer had previously been.²⁴

As Fremont traveled, he kept a meticulous journal, logging the events and observations of each day. From the journal it is fairly easy to determine where Fremont and his party were. They followed the Deschutes (or, as they called it, Fall) River through the lava beds to its headwaters, then south to Klamath Marsh. The Pathfinder had heard that the Klamath Indians around the lake were hostile, so he stated in his journal, "seeing smokes rising from the middle of the lake (or marsh) and along the opposite shores, I directed the howitzer to be fired....The smokes in the lake and on the shores immediately disappeared."²⁵ The party visited the Klamath Indians several days later, and Fremont described them as being peaceful in appearance. He also observed their dwellings: "they are large round huts, perhaps twenty feet in diameter, with rounded tops, on which was the door by which they descended into the interior. Within, they were supported by posts and beams." The Indians survived primarily on fish and some marsh plants, and they made closely weaved baskets, hats, mats, and shoes out of marsh grass.²⁶ Fremont at several points in his journal mentioned that he was not anxious to meet the same fate of Jedediah Smith at the hands of the Indians in southern Oregon.

From Klamath Marsh, the explorers headed directly east through a heavy pack of snow for about thirty miles to Winter Ridge and Summer Lake--named while the party was standing on a ridge in heavy snow looking down into the sunny valley and lake below.²⁷ After continuing east another forty miles, Fremont headed south into Nevada, then across the Sierra Nevadas into California.

This first exploration into south-central Oregon did not have direct impact on the present Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit, but it was indirectly important, because one of the purposes of this expedition was to carefully map the route of the Oregon Trail. To prepare the maps, the expedition included the German topographer Charles Preuss. The maps of the Oregon Trail were drawn and published in 1846 in seven sections on a scale of ten miles to the inch and 250 miles on each map. There were 10,000 copies printed, and each sold for five to ten cents. Included was information on the weather, grass, terrain, Indians, and wildlife, plus descriptive comments taken from Fremont's narrative.²⁸ Many of the immigrants coming to Oregon during the next decade relied on Fremont's maps.

The 1846 Expedition

Shortly after Fremont arrived on the east coast, he began planning another expedition into the same area. U.S. relations with Mexico were unstable over the issue of the annexation of Texas, and pro-expansionists such as Thomas Hart Benton were anxious for the United States to be prepared in the case of a war. Years later, Fremont remarked in his *Memoirs* that "in arranging this expedition, the eventualities of war were taken into consideration."²⁹ Although this never appeared in any official documents, it appears that Fremont's "scientific" explorers could be easily transformed into a company of hard-fighting troops for the American Californians to rally around.

Fremont departed in the summer of 1845 and headed toward the Great Salt Lake. During the trip, Fremont spent time at the lake making numerous observations. He then headed across the Great Basin to the Humboldt River, through Carson's Sink, and over the Sierra Nevadas into California, where he reached Sutter's Fort in December, 1845. Fremont's stay in California for a little over a year was one of the most controversial periods in his career. Numerous books and articles by historians have either praised or condemned his activities during that time.³⁰ It is not necessary to discuss Fremont's activities or the various historical interpretations here, but the most important event was that the Mexican military commander, General Jose Castro, ordered Fremont to leave California immediately in March, 1846.³¹ Fremont at first intended to defy Castro, and prepared his men for battle by

building a stockade and raising the American flag. He soon changed his mind, however, and in a couple of days the expedition headed toward Oregon.

In his travels north, Fremont intended to at least reach the point in Klamath Marsh where he had turned east several years before. Along the way the expedition visited the German emigrant Peter Lassen, and then they proceeded north to the Klamath River and Upper Klamath Lake. Upon reaching the lake, Fremont noted:

This is a great fishing station for the Indians, and we met here the first we had seen since leaving the lower valley. They have fixed habitations around the shores of the lake, particularly at the outlet and inlet up to the swamp meadow, where we met the Tlamaths in the winter of '43-44.³²

Fremont headed north along the east bank of Klamath Lake, carefully noting the vegetation, the wildlife and the tributary streams.

At a point somewhere near the mouth of the Williamson River, however, Fremont received a letter stating that war with Mexico seemed likely. Fremont was ordered to return to California to ascertain the situation.

Before the party left Klamath Lake they had difficulties with the Indians. The night before they intended to leave the Klamath country was only the second time on the journey when Fremont failed to post a guard.³³ During the night a band of Klamath Indians attacked the camp and killed three members of the party and injured another. In the process, the Klamath chief was also killed. The attack lasted most of the night, and in the morning Fremont noticed that the arrows were "all headed with a lancet-like piece of iron or steel--probably obtained from the Hudson's Bay Company's traders on the Umpqua--and were poisoned for about six inches."³⁴ Before the party departed for California, Fremont wreaked vengeance on the Klamath village, killing fourteen or fifteen braves and destroying the rush huts and salmon-drying racks.³⁵

A valuable contribution of Fremont's second expedition to Oregon was the production of a large map in 1848. The map showed Fremont's travels from both expeditions, and included other maps and charts from earlier explorations. Very little scientific or cartographic information was shown for the Jackson-Klamath Planning area. Peter Skene Ogden's notion from twenty years earlier that the Klamath and Rogue Rivers eventually joined was reproduced on Fremont's map.

ENDNOTES

¹Dorothy O. Johansen and Charles M. Gates, *Empire of the Columbia: A History of the Pacific Northwest* (1967), pp. 123-24.

²Some authors have suggested that members of the North West Company, especially Alexander Ross, possibly ventured into south-central Oregon. The historical evidence that anyone before the Hudson's Bay Company visited the area is sketchy at best, but more important, no records survive to explain what anyone found.

³Peter Skene Ogden, *Snake Country Journal, 1826-27*, ed. by K.G. Davies (1961), p. 33.

⁴Ibid., p. 35.

⁵Ogden, *Snake Journal*, p. 81.

⁶Ibid., pp. 98-107.

⁷Ibid., p. 109.

⁸Richard Dillon, *Siskiyou Trail: The Hudson's Bay Fur Company Route to California*, chapter 3: "Blanks and Prizes," chapter 5: "Terra Incognita."

⁹Stephen Dow Beckham, *Requiem for a People: The Rogue Indians and the Frontiersmen* (1971), p. 31.

¹⁰Alice Bay Maloney, ed., "Fur Brigade to the Bonaventura: John Work's California Expedition of 1832-33 for the Hudson's Bay Company," *California Historical Society Quarterly*, XXII, No. 4 (1943), 330-31, cited in Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 30-32.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Dillon, *Siskiyou Trail*, pp. 241-56.

¹³James Clyman, *Frontiersman: The Adventures of a Trapper and Covered-Wagon Emigrant as told in His Own Reminiscences and Diaries*, pp. 161-62, cited in Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 38-39.

¹⁴Dale L. Morgan, *Jedediah Smith and the Opening of the West* (1953), pp. 256-69.

¹⁵Quoted in Johansen, *Empire of the Columbia*, pp. 139-40.

¹⁶The entire text of the letter as it appeared in the Senate Document is quoted in Morgan, *Jedediah Smith*, pp. 343-48.

¹⁷Edmond S. Meany, ed., "The Diary of Wilkes in the Northwest," *The Washington Historical Quarterly* (January, 1925), pp. 49-51.

¹⁸George Colvocoresses, *Four Years in a Government Exploring Expedition* (1852), p. 291.

¹⁹An excellent account of the overland journey of Emmons and his men is presented in Dillon, *Siskiyou Trail*, pp. 265-318. Apparently, Dillon used the original journals of Emmons and Medshipman Henry Eld, located in Yale University Library. George Colvocoresses also devoted a chapter in his published account of this journey.

²⁰Charles Wilkes, *Western America, Including California and Oregon* (1849), p. 108.

²¹Ibid., pp. 111-12.

²²Ibid., pp. 115-16.

²³Allan Nevins, *Fremont, The West's Greatest Adventurer*, 2 vols. (1928), I, 138.

²⁴Ibid., pp. 138-61.

²⁵John C. Fremont, *The Expeditions of John Charles Fremont*, ed. by Donald Jackson and Mary Lee Spence, 2 vols. (1970), I, 586.

²⁶Ibid., I, 587.

²⁷Ibid., I, 592.

²⁸Volume 3 of the Jackson and Spence work is a compilation of the important Fremont maps, including the seven Oregon Trail maps. There is also a commentary prepared by Donald Jackson.

²⁹Cited in Nevins, *Fremont*, I, 235.

³⁰Nevins discusses many of the interpretations on Fremont during the California stay in *Fremont*, I, 250-51.

³¹Ibid., pp. 259-62.

³²*Fremont, Expeditions*, II, 103.

³³*Fremont, Expeditions*, II, 111.

³⁴Ibid., p. 113.

³⁵Ibid., pp. 116-18.

9. Overland Migrations

INTRODUCTION

The routes used by fur trappers and traders during the 1830's were widened and improved to accommodate pack trains and wagons. By 1833 as many as 250 British and Americans had crossed the Oregon-California land route, or Siskiyou Trail.¹ This was a north-south route through the Willamette Valley between the Coast and Cascade Ranges, swinging east through the Rogue Valley, then over the Siskiyou summit, south along the Klamath River into California and leading into the Sacramento River Valley. Before 1846 the non-indigenous people who traveled through the southern Oregon section of the Siskiyou Trail were mainly fur trappers, explorers, and livestock drivers.

Overland migrations to the Willamette Valley had begun as early as 1840 from the northeast over the Oregon Trail through The Dalles and the Columbia River.² After the "Great Migration of 1843" a substantial population of pioneer families was settling the fertile bottomland of the Willamette from Oregon City to as far south as Eugene. The Rogue River Valley was not yet considered a place to settle but rather a rugged passage to desirable agricultural land to the north or to much needed resources, such as cattle, available in California to the south.³

In 1846 American settlers began to traverse the Rogue Valley enroute to agricultural lands along the Willamette. Although their destinations were still the settlements in Eugene and farther north, those farming pioneers who entered the Willamette Valley from the south along the Applegate Trail led the way for permanent settlement of southwestern Oregon. They eventually transformed the Rogue, Applegate, and Bear Creek Valleys into a patchwork of orchards, fields, and timber lands.

The Applegate Trail

Fortunately, there is a great deal of primary material in the form of diaries, letters, and newspaper articles regarding the opening of and subsequent emigrations over the Applegate Trail. It is, in fact, the wealth of information from various sources that has led to confusion. There are inconsistencies in dating as well as differing perceptions of people's experiences along the trail. The Applegate brothers, Jesse and Lindsay, left accounts of the initial pathfinding.

Jesse Applegate wrote a series of articles for the *Oregon Spectator* which were published between January and April of 1847. Lindsay Applegate wrote an account, presumably from a diary, thirty years later which was printed in the *Portland West Shore* between June and September of 1877.⁴ In addition to these records, both brothers wrote letters to their families and friends at various times during and after the journey which contain specific information about the trail and their motives for undertaking this venture. The diaries of Lester Hulin and Virgil Pringle are invaluable for understanding the day by day experiences of pioneers on the trail.⁵ There are numerous recollections of journeys on the Applegate Trail written years later, some from journals kept on the trail. The information in this section is taken from Devere and Helen Helfrich's *The Applegate Trail*, parts I and II, and from Dale Morgan's *Overland in 1846*. In both works, the authors have successfully synthesized primary sources and resolved many discrepancies, while allowing the pioneers to speak for themselves.

A number of factors stimulated Jesse and Lindsay Applegate, Levi Scott, and a dozen other residents of the Willamette Valley to leave their homes in June of 1846 to open a southern alternative to the established trail from Fort Hall.

First, it appeared at the time that war with Great Britain over the location of the boundary between Canada and the United States was a definite possibility. Great Britain controlled, by means of Hudson's Bay Company posts at Fort Vancouver, Fort Nez Perce, and Fort Hall, the only road into or out of the Oregon country to move supplies and troops. In the event of war the settlers in the territory south of the Columbia needed a way to leave the country through the south to avoid both the Hudson's Bay Company's forts and Indian tribes under British influence to the north.⁶

A second reason a new trail was needed was that the section of the Oregon Trail down the Snake and Columbia Rivers to The Dalles, where the wagon road ended, was tremendously difficult, and there was little water or grazing land for livestock most of the way.⁷ Jesse Applegate wrote of the 1843 migration:

"When we consider the scarcity of grass and water along most of the route, the dangerous crossings of Snake River, and the making of the road for so great a distance, over wide plains of sage and sand, and almost impassable mountains, that they arrived on the Columbia at all, is a proof of energy and perserverance not often equalled by those who have followed them."⁸

From The Dalles, only crude Indian trails crossed the Cascades over which wagons could not be transported. Wagons had to be taken apart and floated down the river at The Dalles or abandoned. The dangerous trip on rafts from this point resulted in the loss of property and many lives.⁹ In 1843 both Lindsay and Jesse Applegate lost ten-year-old sons who drowned in whirlpools crossing The Dalles. According to Jesse Applegate, "...though so near the end of their journey, they experienced by far, more losses, hardship and sufferings in descending from The Dalles to the Willamette, than in all the rest of the journey together...."¹⁰

Third, the established Oregon Trail had been laid out by the mountain fur traders to reach the American Fur Company's Astoria and the various posts of the Hudson's Bay Company.¹¹ The trail served the needs of the fur trade and was adaptable to the methods of transportation used in it, but it was intolerably difficult for covered wagons, as every annual emigration had discovered. The Hudson's Bay Company had a stake in continued use of the northern route because they had a line of forts there that profited by commerce with trail-weary emigrants. Lindsay mentioned that this may have been why the Hudson's Bay Company discouraged the Applegate party from opening a southern emigrant route. The need for a better road was so strong, however, that a number of alternative cutoffs to the main route, including the ill-fated Meeks Cutoff, had already been attempted, but with little or no success.¹² In the summer of 1845, Elijah White led a party along a former Hudson's Bay Company route, leaving the main trail in the Malheur (Powder) River Valley and crossing the Cascades at a pass near Mt. Jefferson. After a month exploring the Santiam River area of the Cascades, the party gave up and returned.¹³ Because Dr. White failed, the 1845 emigration again had to enter the Willamette Valley through The Dalles. That year's extreme hardship aroused much sympathy. In addition to the two road companies chartered by the legislature, a large amount of support was raised by subscription for individual enterprises.¹⁴ On December 17, 1845, the Oregon Legislature authorized Samuel K. Barlow to build a road over the densely forested shoulder of Mt. Hood. The Barlow Toll Road proved passable but not totally satisfactory because there was no feed for grazing animals and most of the route was covered with deep mud or snow.¹⁵

Trailblazing the Applegate Cutoff in 1846

Motivated by personal tragedy and by the needs of the larger community of settlers, Jesse and Lindsay Applegate organized a company to find a southern pass through the Cascade Mountains.¹⁶

There were several reasons why the Applegate party knew where to find trails other than the existing Oregon-California Trail over the Siskiyou to the Klamath River:

- 1) Apparently Lindsay Applegate had gathered information from old pioneers.¹⁷ In addition, one of the Applegate party members, Black Harris, had been a mountain man and may have had some first-hand knowledge.¹⁸
- 2) The Applegates obtained all the information they could from the Hudson's Bay Company employees.¹⁹
- 3) Jesse Applegate possessed a map drawn by Peter Skene Ogden, which was apparently quite accurate for the territories over which Ogden had traveled.²⁰
- 4) Jesse Applegate had consulted "Mitchell's Map" and learned that the 42nd parallel ran from a point just south of the head of the Rogue River Valley (near the summit of the Siskiyou Mountains) through a point on Bear River near present Cokeville, Wyoming. The Applegate party hoped to find a route that would connect the headwaters of the Humboldt with Bear River in order to cut out the long north loop to Fort Hall. Their plan was to meet the Humboldt as near the 42nd parallel as possible and follow the California emigrant road (the Truckee route) as far east as practical. They originally intended to intercept the 1846 emigrants on the Oregon Trail at this point on Bear River at the 42nd parallel.²¹ Apparently, Jesse Applegate had recently read one of Fremont's reports of 1843-1844 explorations through Oregon and Nevada. Although he knew that Fremont crossed the 42nd parallel on December 27, 1843, he thought he crossed the Sierra Nevada Mountains and imagined them to be a continuation of the mountains of northeastern Oregon, when in fact they were the Warner Range.²²
- 5) Jesse Applegate, a professional engineer, owned a Burt's solar compass, although it is not clear whether he had it with him.²³
- 6) A French-Canadian and half-breed party they met during trailblazing directed them east to a crossing via Green Springs Summit, rather than following the old trail south over the Siskiyou. The Green Springs passage was the first new section of the trail that the Applegate party opened for wagon travel.

The following is a summary of the opening of the Applegate Cutoff from the Willamette Valley to the Humboldt River.²⁴

On June 22, 1846, the party of fifteen left Lacreole, near present Dallas, Oregon, and traveled southeast

along the base of the Calapuya Mountains past Spencer's Butte. They followed an Indian foot trail across a prairie at the base of the main Calapuya Range and entered the mountains, reaching and crossing the north Umpqua River. They traveled up the south branch of the Umpqua River to where the old Siskiyou Trail crossed the Umpqua Mountains opposite the historic Umpqua Canyon. On June 29 they reached Grave Creek. Just before coming to the Rogue, they entered a prairie of several hundred acres, which extended almost to the bank of the river. Lindsay Applegate knew that this crossing was a favorite place for Indian attacks. They noticed many Indians along the banks where the trail crossed the river. There was no attack, however. Lindsay later learned that the Indians had followed a party of about eighty people who had left the French settlement in the Willamette Valley several weeks ahead of the Applegate party. They apparently met the French party near Emigrant Creek where the Applegate company camped near the foot of the Siskiyou. The Applegate road went east through the Green Springs passage. They traveled along the north bank of Emigrant Creek and began to ascend the mountains eastward through the hills around Keene Creek. On July 2 they camped in a little valley now called Round Prairie. After several days of exploring to find an open route from the Rogue River to the Klamath country, on July 5 they traveled north again and finally found a pass near a valley now known as Long Prairie. On July 6 they crossed the summit of the Cascade ridge. They could see the Klamath River as they descended. They followed the river up to its departure from Lower Klamath Lake and came to a crossing, which they passed over safely-- despite Modoc signal fires in all directions, there was no problem with the Indians.²⁵ They camped at Hot Creek and continued along the shore of Lower Klamath Lake, moving to the east shore, crossing a ridge east of Lower Klamath Lake, and coming to Tule Lake. There were several fruitless searches to find a pass through the mountains encircling Tule Lake Basin to the east. They traveled up the west side of Tule Lake and came to Lost River, which was very deep and forced them to turn north up the river. An Indian showed them the Stone Bridge crossing on Lost River, an immense rock spanning the river. The Stone Bridge was an important crossing mentioned often by later travelers. They went through hilly juniper country between Langell Valley and Clear Lake before reaching the basin of Goose Lake. There was a long mountain range to the east, and on July 11 they moved up the ridge towards Fandango Pass and entered Surprise Valley, where there was a spring that was a major stopping place for emigrants along the route for many years afterward.²⁶

East of Surprise Valley they crossed a desert plain and eventually came to Mud Lake. The new trail passed Black Rock and then went through Rabbit Hole Springs. After days of searching for the Humboldt River (then called Ogden's River) they finally reached it on July 20. Because the Applegate party had taken a very circuitous route to the Humboldt, they

went back west again to find a more direct route from Black Rock suitable for a wagon road. They also wanted to find a place where there was pure water. They followed a dry channel stream about fifteen miles, found a pure water stream, and eventually reached the Rabbit Hole Springs (the place where they had gone too far south to the river). Their road was now complete because the source of the Humboldt was near Fort Hall, the major stopping place at the fork of the California and Oregon Trails.

The First Westward Emigration Over the Trail: 1846

Once the fifteen trailblazers reached the Humboldt River, five of the party, led by Jesse Applegate, traveled ahead to find the road near the head of the Humboldt to Bear River. They hoped to arrive at the junction of the Oregon and California Trails on the Raft River, about fifty miles south of Fort Hall, before the Oregon-bound emigration passed that point. The plan was for the rest of the party to move along more slowly, working on the road to make improvements and eventually to meet Jesse Applegate's group at Hot Spring or Thousand Springs Valley.²⁷

As many as eighty wagons to Oregon had already passed the intersection of the California and Oregon Trails before Jesse Applegate could reach it. He managed to recruit a number of trains, including some previously bound for California, to take the newly opened cutoff through southern Oregon. David Goff, who was with Jesse Applegate in the lead party, later wrote that Applegate arrived at the junction of the trails on August 6, and Harrison Linville's company of fifteen wagons, the first to use the new Applegate Cutoff, arrived there on the 7th, five days and one hundred miles behind the emigrants on the Oregon Trail.²⁸

The Linville train was probably followed by the Medders Vanderpool train of fourteen wagons, originally headed down the Snake River for California, but persuaded by Goff and Black Harris to turn directly south on Goose Creek (near present Burley, Idaho), where Goff and Harris intercepted them. It appears that the Vanderpool train then took a new route to hit the California Trail near the junction of Birch and Goose Creeks, to avoid doubling back two days on their trail to return to the junction of the Oregon and California Trails by the Raft River. If so, they are the only emigrant train known to have used this route.

Jesse Applegate, heading east on the old trail that emigrants took west from Fort Hall, met Virgil K. Pringle somewhere above American Falls on Snake River on August 8. Pringle was a member of a twenty-one-wagon train and the only day-to-day diarist known to travel the Applegate Trail in 1846 and record the entire overland trip from the Missouri River to the Willamette.

On the same day, Jesse Applegate met Jesse Quinn Thornton eight miles south of Fort Hall. Thornton's diary, published in 1849 as *Oregon and California*, is only a day-to-day record until August 21 in Thousand Springs Valley. The later sections about the trip through the Klamath country and Rogue River Valley were written from memory and are sometimes unclear. Two California-bound emigrants, William E. Taylor of the Larkin Stanley train and Nicholas Carriger of the train that entered the California Trail on August 8th, kept diaries that have been invaluable to historians for reconstructing the first part of the journey, before the Applegate Trail split off from the main California Trail.

In late August the first west-bound travelers on the Applegate Trail--the original road-hunting party and about five volunteers--left the rendezvous site at Thousand Springs Valley to return to Oregon, which they judged to be about eight or nine hundred miles distant.²⁹ They were followed at intervals by about 90 to 100 wagons, or 450 to 500 persons. According to Joel Palmer, the total California and Oregon emigration for 1846 was 541 wagons or 2,500 to 2,700 people.³⁰ The Oregon-bound emigration was 1,100 to 1,200 people, of whom about 450 to 500 came by the Applegate Trail. Between Raft River and the Applegate Trail cutoff, about 1,000 California-bound emigrants intermingled with the 450 to 500 emigrants headed for Willamette settlements on the newly opened route.

The exact place where the Applegate Trail branched from the parent California Trail has been a subject of contention among historians. The Helfrich's based their location of the spot on the accurate and detailed maps of T.H. Jefferson, an 1846 California emigrant (one of the lead Hastings cutoff travelers), who reached the Applegate Trail turnoff two weeks after the route was opened and several days behind the last wagons to turn into it.³¹ In 1846 the Applegate Trail left the California Trail at the upper end of Lassen's Meadow, now covered by the Rye Patch Reservoir on the Humboldt River in Nevada.

The Applegate Trail in Southwestern Oregon: 1846

The Applegate Trail crossed into Oregon from California just west of the corner of Modoc and Shasta Counties where they join Klamath County. Then, keeping just inside Oregon, it arrived at Lost River about one mile north of Hatfield, California. Virgil Pringle's diary mentions crossing the Sacramento River at the Stone Bridge.³² The trail dipped back into California southwest around Lower Klamath Lake before returning north into Worden, Oregon.

The trail crossed the California-Oregon state line through a low gap 2,080 feet east of the center of present Highway 97 at the state line.³³ It followed around Miller Lake to what later became the John F. Miller ranch and then the Downing Ranch. The 1846 trail turned northeast from Miller Lake Junction, passing through what is now Worden, and pursued a course roughly along the present Keno-Worden paved road, but probably closer to the Klamath River (Figure 10). Pringle's diary indicates that they camped at Teeter's Landing on the present Calmes Ranch, which is south of Keno. The 1846 party forded the Klamath River about a mile below Keno, just above the present Pacific Power & Light Recreation Area. This site is now under the Keno Dam Reservoir. From Keno to Grant's Pass the Applegate Trail lies within the Planning Unit.

The trail then turned almost due west for about five miles to Spencer Creek, which was earlier known as Wet Ass and Clear Creek. This section, later improved, became a portion of the old Southern Oregon Wagon Road in 1868 between the Rogue River Valley and the Klamath Basin.³⁴

West of the Klamath River (Figure 11), the Applegate Trail remained in about the same location between 1846 and 1868 when it was replaced by the Southern Oregon Wagon Road. According to Pringle, in 1846 they crossed the Cascades at Hayden Mountain and the next day reached somewhere near the former Parker Stage Station on the Southern Oregon Wagon Road. In siting the trail across the Cascades, the Helfrich's found that the 1846 and 1847 branches rejoined in the old Anderson Ranch meadow, where Grubb Spring Creek enters the Klamath River near the Big Bend. Except for a few short stretches, they found that the trail had become almost non-existent from that point west to the summit of Green Springs Mountain. Logging operations in the Hayden, Parker, and Green Springs Mountains have almost completely destroyed the trail. Logging railroad spurs and truck roads were often built over the old ruts. Log dragging has also obliterated sections of the original trail, as have the old roads of early homesteaders and timber claimers. In addition, a few fires have contributed to its destruction. The current growth of young timber and underbrush makes the few remaining traces almost impossible to track.

Based on old Government Land Office (GLO) Survey Maps, many weeks of retracing on foot and by car, and the writings of Pringle, Hulin, and Stearns,³⁵ the Helfrich's have pinpointed that portion of the trail from the Klamath to the Rogue Valley. The Applegate Trail went up the south side of Grubb Spring Creek to Grubb Spring Reservoir, the original Grubb Spring site. Turning southwest and crossing under what is now a high fill on the old Weyerhaeuser Railroad Bed No. 100 approximately one and a half miles south of present Grubb Springs, the trail climbed to the first bench of Hayden Mountain. It followed the same general route as the later Southern Oregon Wagon Road, now approximated by the SS fire road--except the old trail went straight up where the SS road zig-zags up the last pitch of Hayden Mountain.

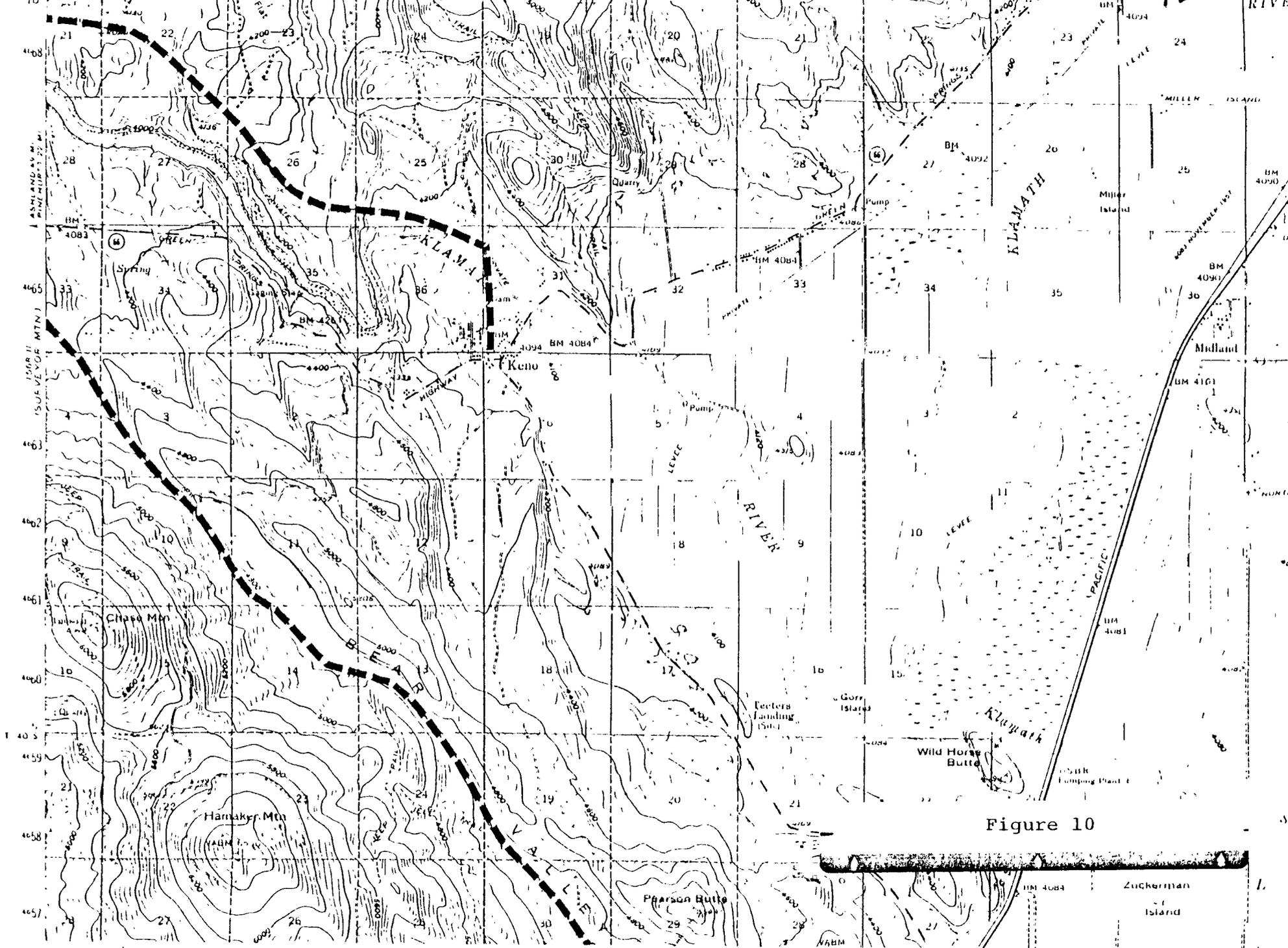


Figure 10



Zuckerman Island

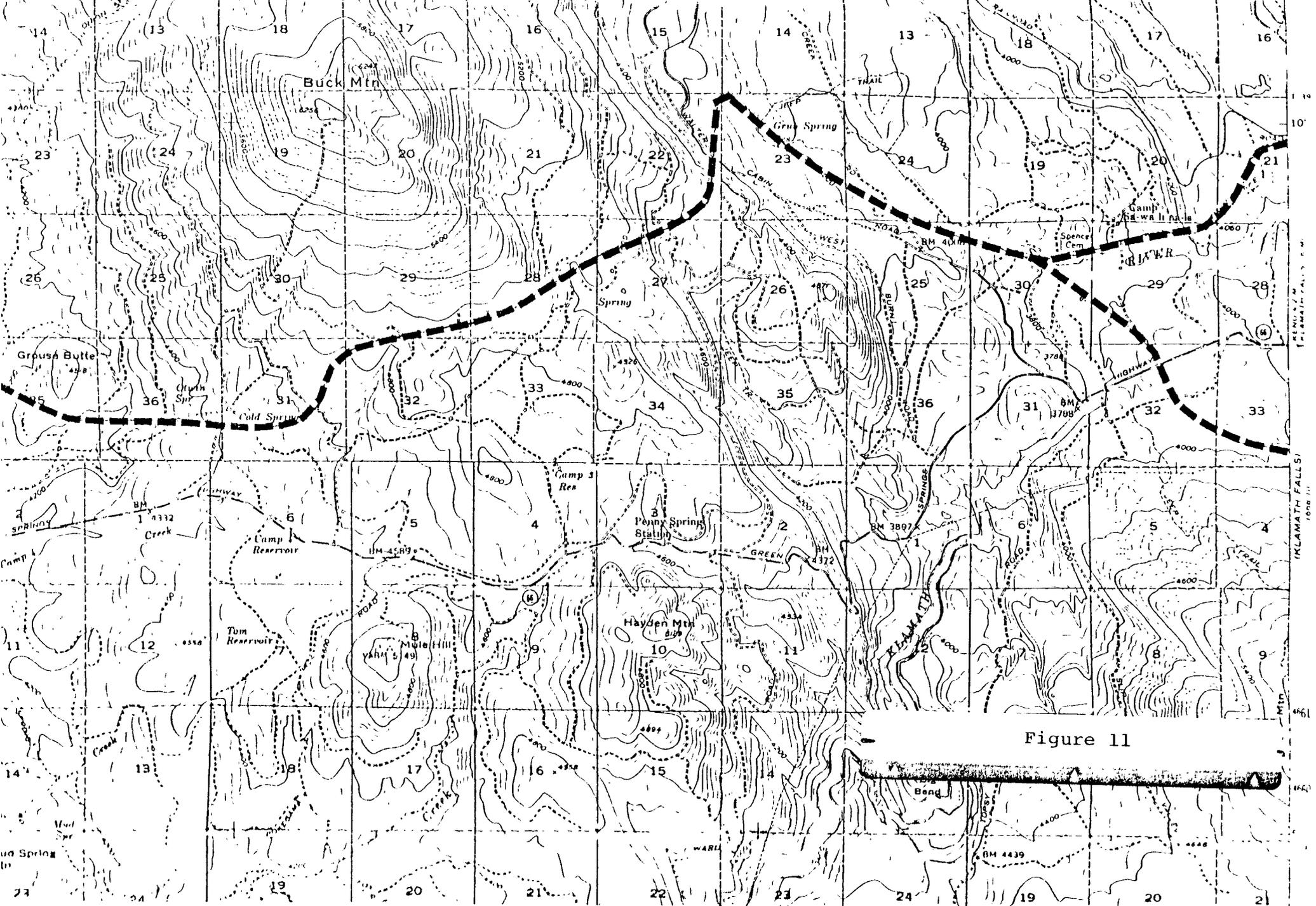


Figure 11



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PHOTOGRAPHED BY THE U.S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
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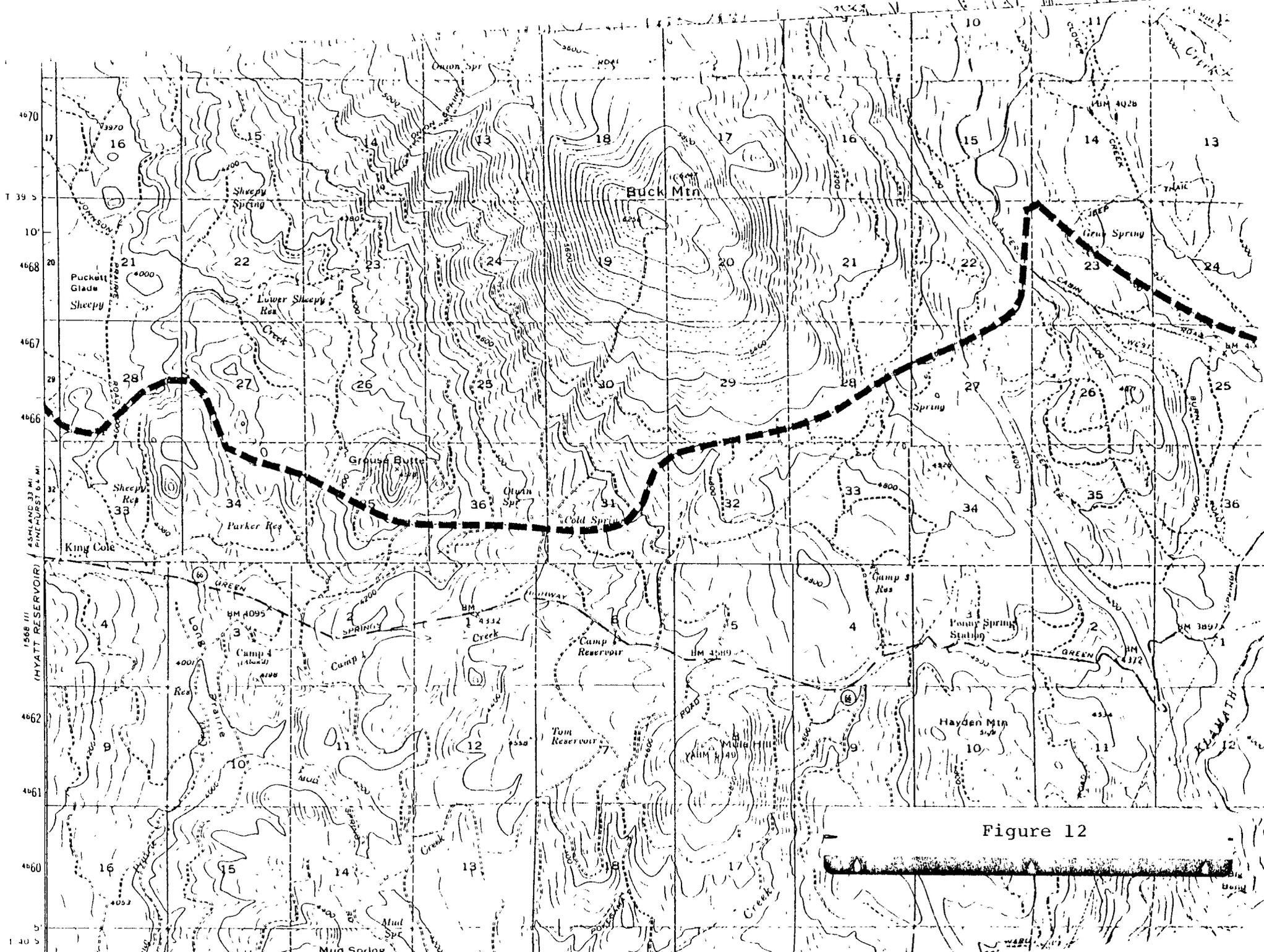
The trail went past Cold Spring (Figure 12), location of the Puckett timber claim and station.³⁶ It stayed north of the Southern Oregon Wagon Road through a saddle on the southern slope of Grouse Hill, and turned northwest to reach the upper drainage of Sheepy Creek, a tributary of Johnson Creek, called Beaver Dam Creek by the emigrants. Past Puckett Glade, site of the old Puckett homestead on Sheepy Creek which is crossed by Weyerhaeuser logging spur no. 36, the trail continued down Sheepy and Johnson Creeks for the next two and a half miles (Figure 13), closely approximating spur no. 41-1, although detouring to cross over rocky ridges.

Near Moon Prairie Road crossing at Johnson Creek, the trail followed the old Moon Prairie Road (spur no. 47). The trail led west over the present Fredenburg Spring Road (spur no. 42 and present Moon Prairie Road, in a shallow swale about one and a half miles north of Highway 66). It then curved northwest to a forty-five degree drop into Jenny Creek Canyon, known as the "Jenny Creek Wagon Slide." Stearns described approaching the slide:

...the road suddenly seemed to drop down over its summit nearly perpendicularly into the dark depths below, the wagons were all stopped and the drivers instructed to unhitch all but the wheel oxen; they then cut down small trees and hitched them to the hind axle of each wagon, and after chaining the hind wheels, plunged into the darkness below.³⁷

Down in the canyon, the actual ford across Jenny Creek was fairly easy.

The trail continued over the southern slope of Little Chinquapin Mountain northwest of Jenny Creek to Beaver Creek, and then to Round Prairie, about a quarter mile farther. This was a favorite emigrant campsite with plentiful water, grass, and wood. According to David Thompson's 1858 GLO survey, the emigrant trail ran southwest from Round Prairie to meet present State Highway 66 at Lincoln, and from there followed approximately the highway to Tubb Spring (Figure 14), passing just south of the Lincoln Ranger Station. The trail again joined the present Highway 66 where the concrete-covered canal leading to the Keene Creek diversion dam now crosses the highway and follows it for the next three-fourths mile. According to the GLO survey, the trail hit the Keene Creek Canyon west of the Hyatt Lake and Highway 66 junction at about the same place the present power line descends into the canyon. The Keene Creek Wagon Slide has been completely obliterated by logging operations, the power line right of way, and canal construction. As indicated by Stearns, "...the Keene Creek [Wagon Slide was] not quite so long [as the Jenny Creek Slide] but steeper as the teamsters used to say, 'It hung over a little!'"³⁸ From the bottom of the canyon, the trail ran upstream about one-fourth



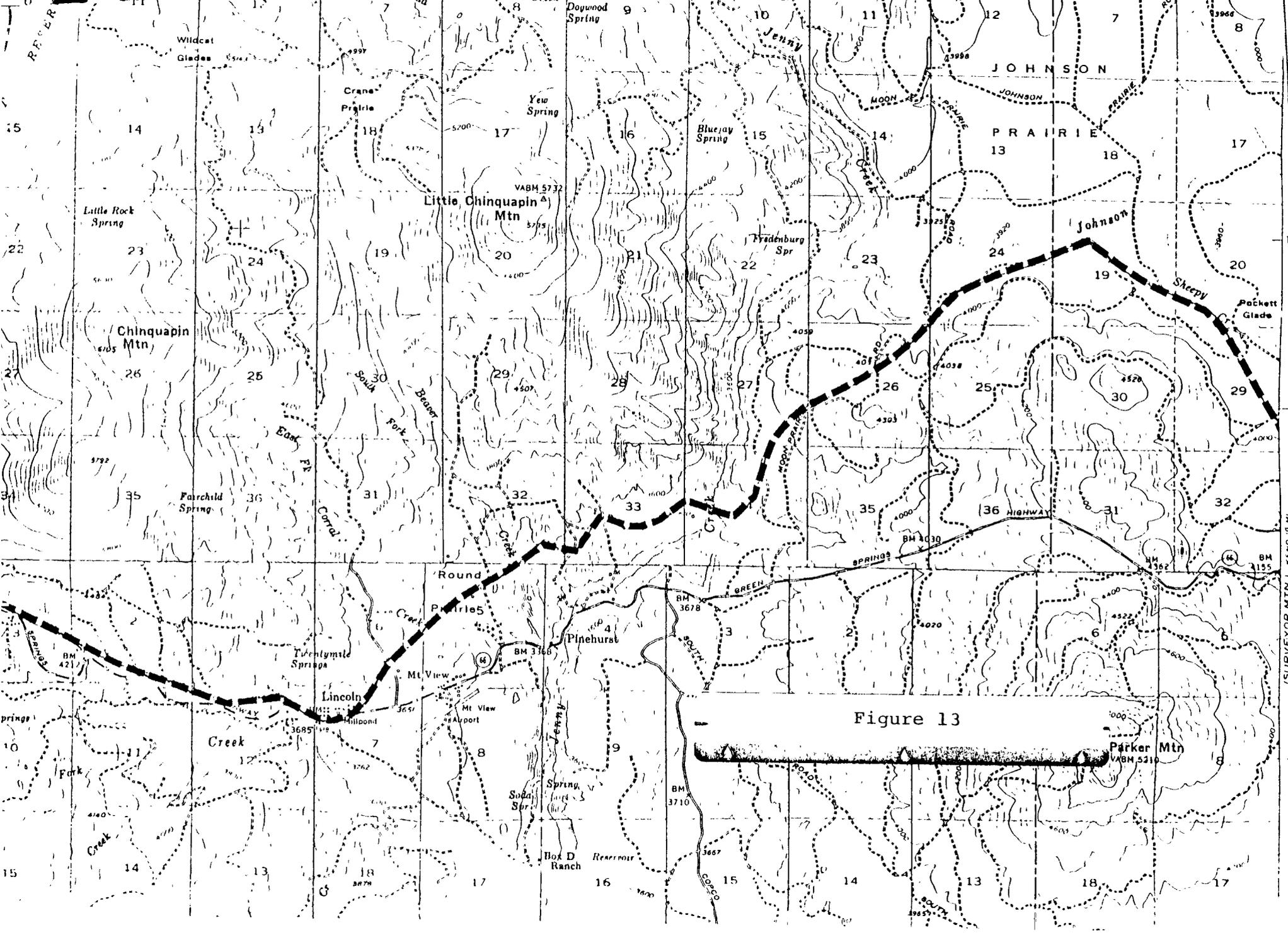


Figure 13

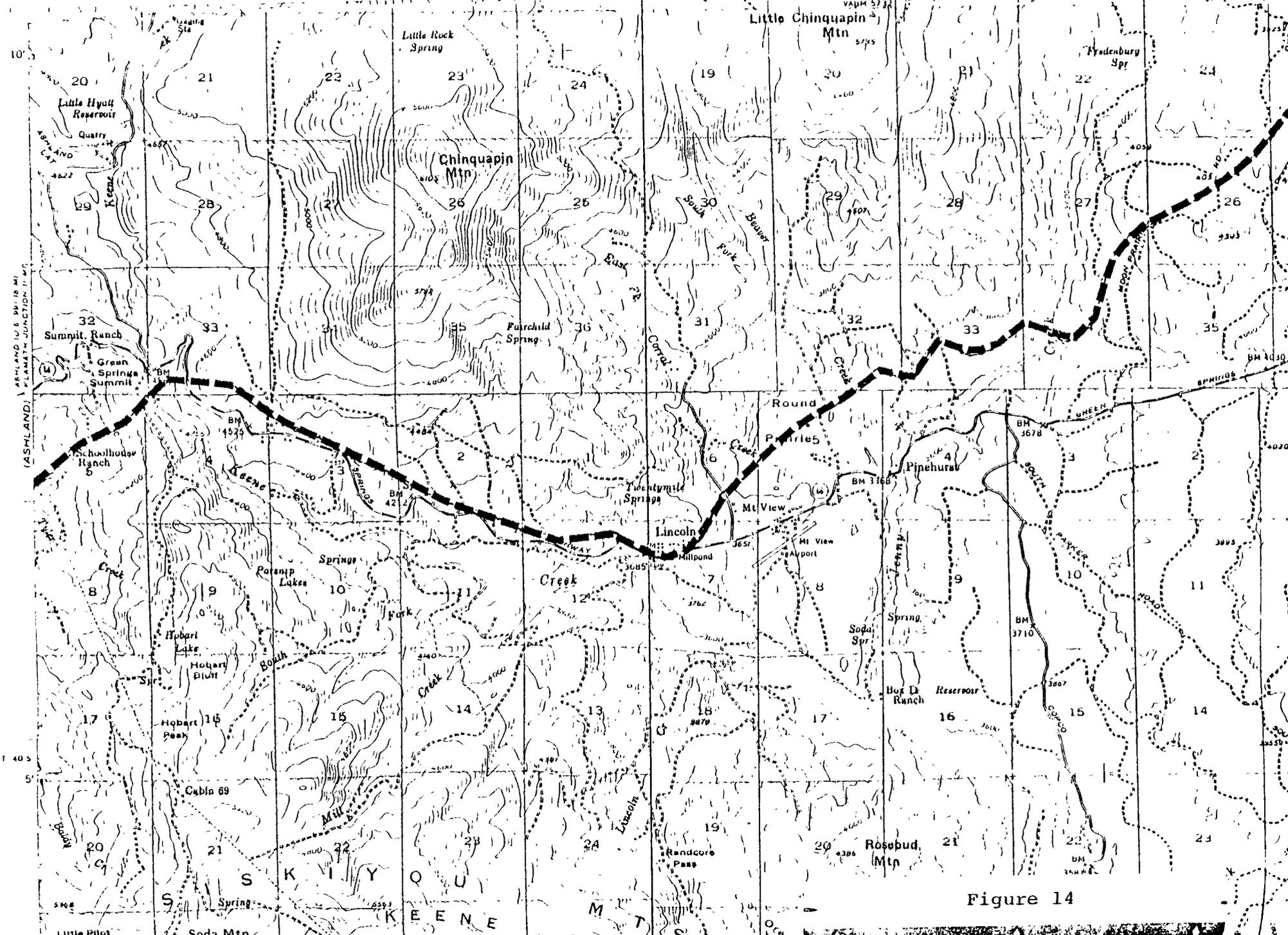


Figure 14

mile to a spot near the Keene Creek diversion dam where it turned directly west and climbed to the summit of Green Springs Mountain. According to the 1858 GLO survey, this may have been about 250 yards south of the present summit crossing, but no traces have been found so far.³⁹ The emigrant trail turned southwest about fifty yards down the highway on the western slopes of Green Springs Mountain. It can now easily be walked for a half mile until it meets the old Southern Oregon Wagon Road and present county road below the old Summit Ranch Stage Station. The emigrant trail was below the present road which follows the original stage road to School House Ranch. From there the Applegate Trail followed the stage road to the old Tyler ranch and Tyler Creek. After crossing Emigrant Creek to the west bank, the trail followed downstream, re-crossed the creek just above its junction with Highway 66, reached the mouth of Sampson Creek (Figure 15), and again crossed Emigrant Creek before climbing to Songer Gap. The trail probably dropped down from Songer Gap to Hill Creek near Old Klamath Junction, under present Emigrant Reservoir waters.

As indicated by the GLO survey of Ives and Hyde for 1854, the Applegate Trail led north on the east side of Neill Creek to near the southeast corner of Oak Knoll Golf Course, then crossed Neill Creek to the west and followed what is now East Main Street to cross Ashland Creek near the intersection of B and Water Streets. The trail passed south of Jackson Hot Springs, crossing Bear Creek (then called Stewart's Creek) to the north side to avoid the rock ledge and immediately re-crossing.

From there the Applegate Trail generally coincides with old Highway 99 through Talent (Figure 16), Phoenix, and Medford (on Riverside Avenue) (Figure 17) to near the junction of present I-5 and Crater Lake Highway 62. The route continued northwest approximately to the junction of Table Rock Road and Mirriman, where it turned west, passing near the present Howard School and the junction of Beall Road and U.S. 99. From there the original trail probably led west to Willow Springs (Fig. 18). The 1854 GLO survey, however, shows the existing trail or road going west and somewhat south of Beall Road. This divergence from the original 1846 trail may have been due to two land claims of early settlers. Another likely reason is that in pre-Gold Rush years the emigrant trains always passed through that area during the fall when the streams were dry or very low. With the discovery of gold at Jacksonville, however, traffic moved over the area throughout the year, and the route had to be switched to higher and drier ground. It later became the "Old Stage Road" linking Gold Hill with Jacksonville. The trail coincided with the "Old Stage Road" that runs between Jacksonville and Gold Hill from the west end of Taylor Road north to I-5 on the south bank of the Rogue River opposite Gold Hill (Figure 19).

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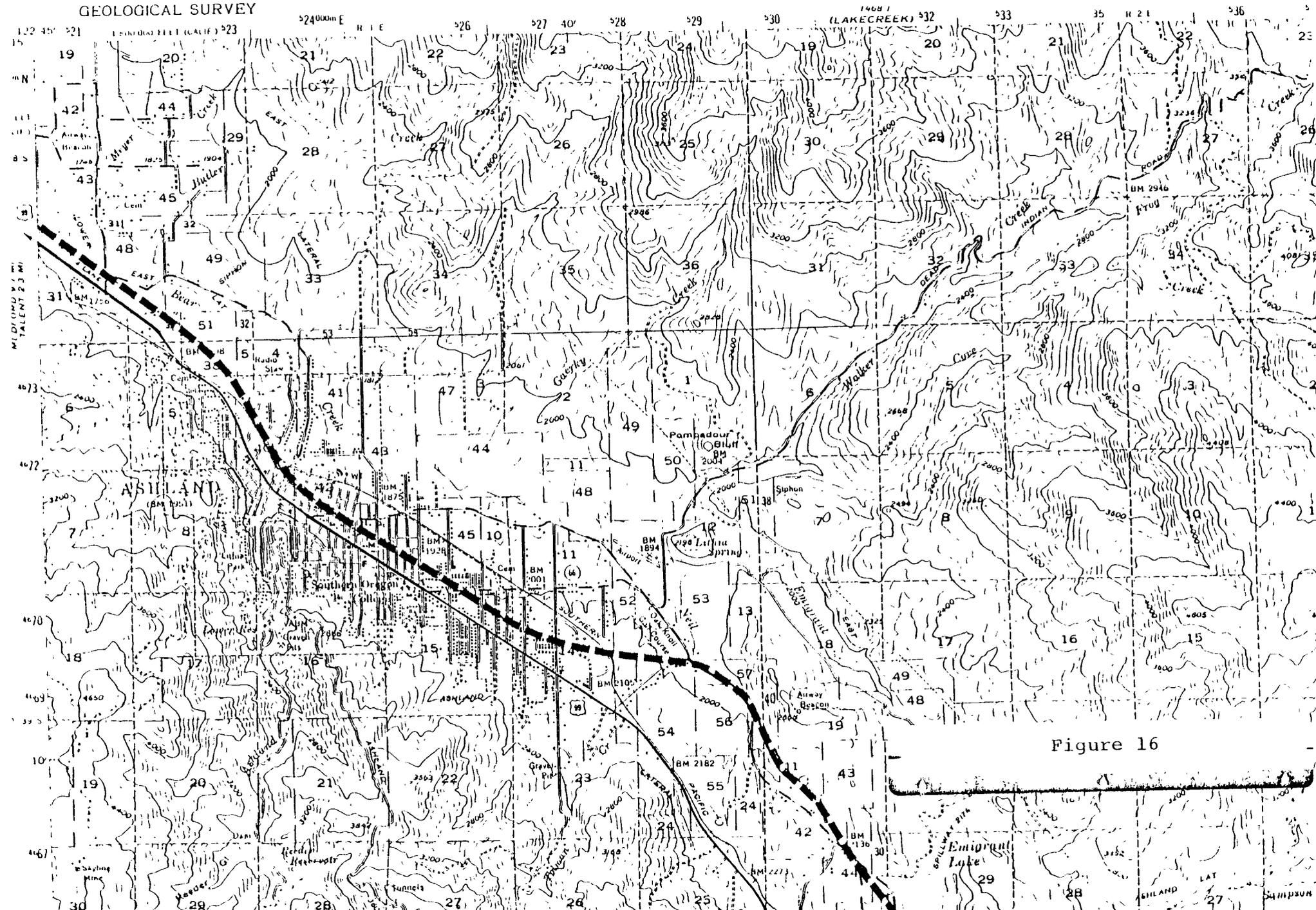


Figure 16

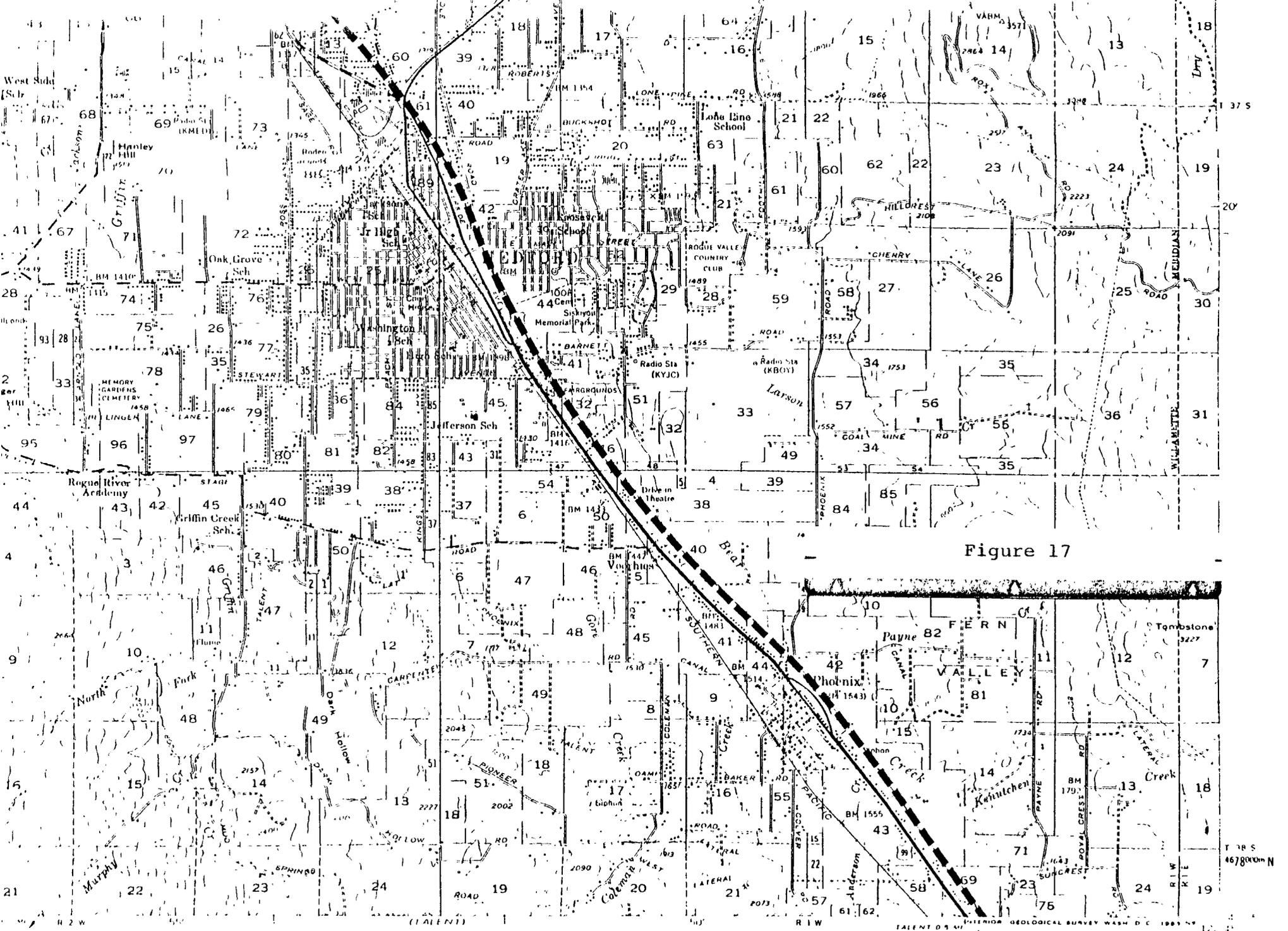


Figure 17

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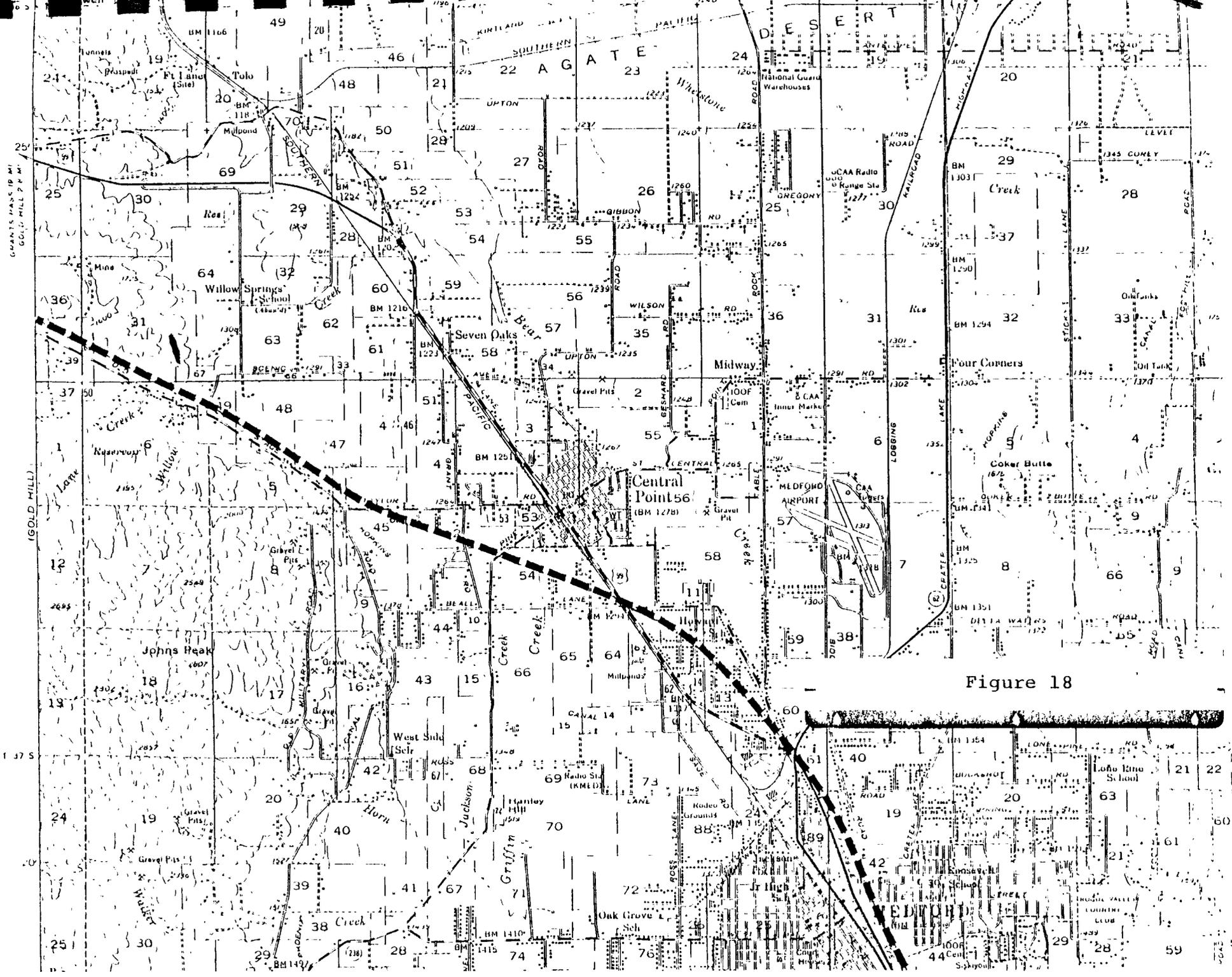


Figure 18

As the wagon trains made their way down the Rogue River from Gold Hill, one of their campsites appears to have been in the Foothills Creek area. It was here that Medders Vanderpool lost a herd of about fifty sheep to Rogue River Indians, probably in Foothills Creek Canyon, and where Virgil K. Pringle likewise lost a cow. According to Levi Scott, the place where the emigrants forded the Rogue was "deep and rough," and there were few places for safe passage even at its lowest stage.⁴⁰ From Gold Hill to Rock Point, I-5 and Lampman Road have obliterated all remains of the original Applegate Trail. From Rock Point to the part of Grants Pass (Fruitdale) south of the Rogue River, old Highway 99 closely approximates the original trail.⁴¹ Beyond Grants Pass the 1846 Applegate Trail followed a route much the same as present I-5 and at times Highway 99 northward into the Willamette settlements.⁴²

It appears that Jesse Applegate did not make clear to the emigrants he recruited at Fort Hall that they would have to do road construction along the southern route. The road from the Rogue to the Umpqua Valley was particularly tortuous, especially through the Canyon Creek area, where major clearing work was needed. Applegate had to leave the parties straggling from Canyon Creek to go for a relief party from the Willamette Valley. Many bitter travelers, including J. Quinn Thornton, claimed that Applegate had deliberately abandoned the travelers, fleeing from angry pioneers to save his life. Other evidence supports Applegate's reputation as an ethical and honest person, whose enthusiasm for the new road may have colored his descriptions. He sent pack trains with food for the starving emigrants and livestock to carry their possessions. Without this aid from the Willamette Valley the parties may have perished. As recorded by young Narcissa Cornwall, a number of families wintered on the Umpqua, built crude shelters or small log cabins, and competed with the Indians for game. The majority pushed on, reaching the Willamette settlements. Jesse Applegate, however, suffered abuse for the rest of his life from some survivors of the 1846 emigration, particularly J. Quinn Thornton.

Subsequent Travel on the Applegate Trail

As negative as the experiences of 1846 were for some emigrants, they did not discourage other travelers from using the new southern route. Levi Scott's 1847 trip east with twenty men and his return to the Willamette Valley leading forty-five wagons were much easier than the 1846 trip. The trail was in good shape by then, and the only real problems were Indian conflicts along Humboldt River and at Tule Lake. The positive experiences of 1847 overcame the unfavorable publicity of 1846. For the most part, the 1847 trail followed the 1846 route. The 1847 route diverged from the earlier trail at Miller Lake. Levi Scott led 1847 emigrants through Bear Valley to bypass the Keno route and save several miles (Figures 10 and 11). (Bear Valley, which served as a campsite for many years, is located west of Keno). Once out of this valley, the trail dropped down a

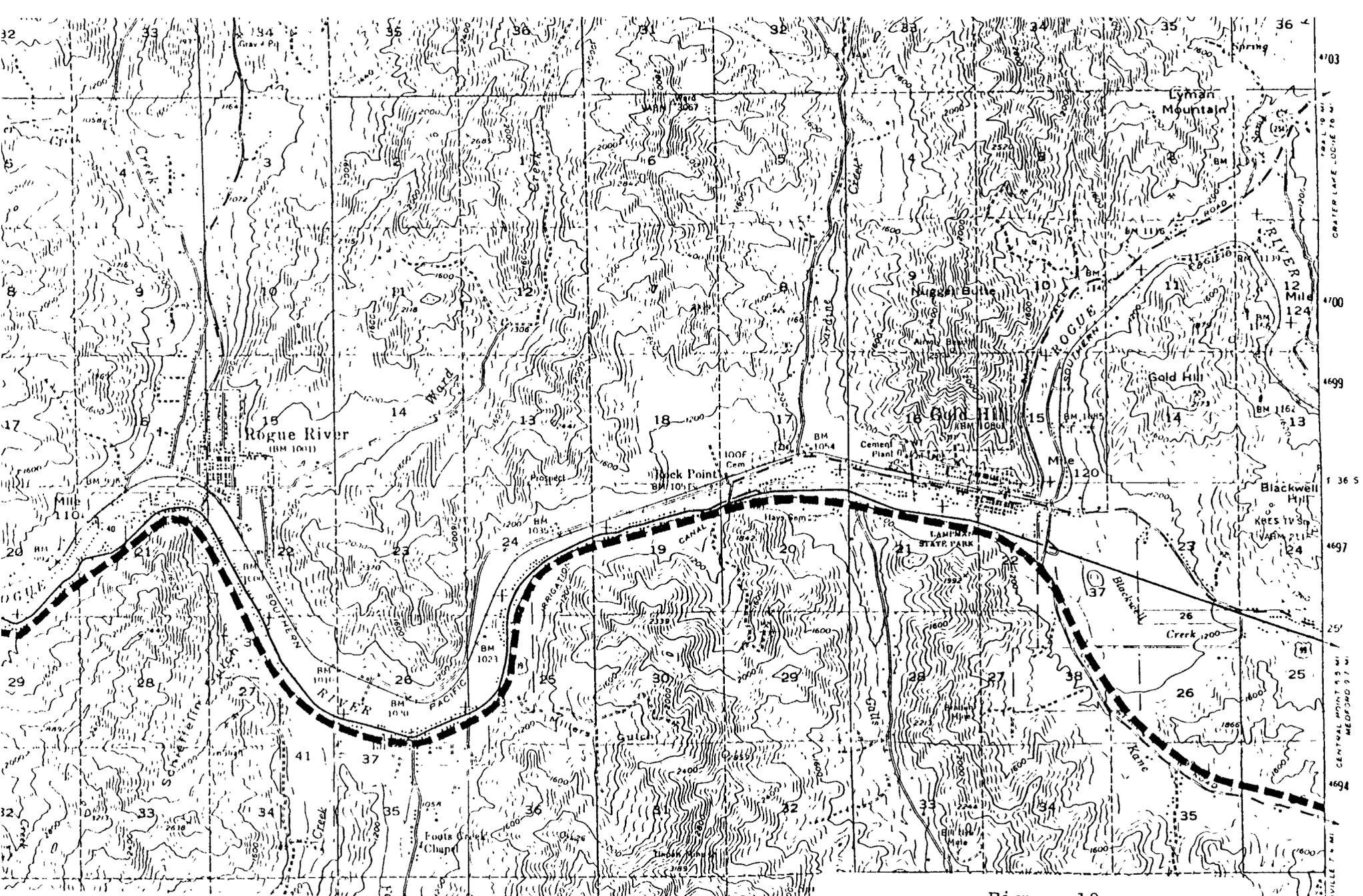


Fig. 10

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draw on the north slope of Chase Mountain past what later became the old Chase Stage Station on the Yreka-Linkville Wagon Road, and forded the Klamath River just below the big eddy where the river turns sharply south. This site is less than one-half mile above the present State Highway 66 bridge at the old McCollum Sawmill site, now covered by the Pacific Power & Light Reservoir. Although it is not clear where the 1846 trail crossed the Rogue River, Lester Hulin recorded that his train of 1847 emigrants forded the Rogue approximately one mile east of Grants Pass.⁴³

The Whitman massacre in Walla Walla panicked the Pacific Northwest, and in 1847 Oregon Governor Abernathy asked Jesse Applegate to lead a party to California to seek help against the Indians. Applegate declined leadership but accompanied Levi Scott and a party of sixteen as far as the Siskiyou Mountains, where deep snow forced them to turn back.

Only one emigrant train is known to have made the trip all the way to Oregon in 1848 over the Applegate cutoff. This wagon train traveled with a company of twenty armed men, escorting the newly appointed Indian subagent for southern Oregon, Felix Scott. In May, 1848, Isaac Pettijohn's saddle and packhorse party took the Applegate Trail east on their return to the states. After the discovery of gold in California, about 2,000 people left Oregon for the mines. Pack trains used the old Siskiyou Trail at first, but in September of 1848 150 men with 46 wagons, led by Peter H. Burnett and guided by Thomas McKay, backtracked the Applegate Trail from Oregon City to Tule Lake and turned south to find Lassen Trail, which was newly opened into the Sacramento Valley.⁴⁴ A wagon train from Puget Sound in Washington caught up with this party via the Applegate Trail in the Sacramento Valley.

There is no record of any emigrant trains traveling the Applegate Trail to Oregon in 1849; that was the year for travel to California. Numerous wagons and packers used the combined Applegate-Lassen route to California. It has been estimated that 21,000 people, mostly men, swarmed over the central routes to the gold fields of California in 1849. By the end of 1849, however, the Gold Rush expanded into northwestern California, and the Applegate Trail became a two-way route between Oregon and California, over which hundreds and later thousands of people traveled. One party with wagons traveled from the Willamette Valley over the Applegate Trail carrying supplies and cattle for Colonel Loring's company of mounted riflemen from Missouri, which was headed west for the Oregon country.⁴⁵

1850 has even less evidence of migration to Oregon by the Applegate Trail--all movement was toward California. The gold camps moved farther and farther north to the Trinity, Salmon, and Klamath Rivers, however, and by March, 1851, gold was discovered at Yreka. The shortest route to Yreka was the Applegate Trail. The northward expansion created a need for provisions which at first were supplied by pack trains from the Willamette Valley. After the founding of Scottsburg, a new pack trail was constructed in 1851 up the Umpqua River to intersect the Oregon-California (Applegate) Trail, transforming Scottsburg into the main port of entry for all freight to the far northern California mines. In December of 1851, gold was discovered in the Rogue River Valley at Rich Gulch, resulting in the founding of Jacksonville,⁴⁶ and drawing large numbers of people along the Applegate Trail. From 1851 on, the trail ceased to be principally a one-way emigrant route, and became a two-way road for pack trains from Portland and Scottsburg destined for the Rogue Valley and northern California. There is record of only one emigrant train, the Hills-Riddle train of twelve wagons, entering Oregon on the Applegate Trail in 1851.

In late spring of 1852, Major Phil Kearny, assisted by Jesse Applegate and Levi Scott, traveled south along the Applegate Trail in an attempt to establish a new route from Canyonville to Table Rock in the Rogue Valley to bypass the difficult Canyon Creek route. They found no better route than the one opened in 1846. Interstate 5 presently follows the same route.

In 1852 many emigrants arrived in the Rogue River Valley from both north and south via the Applegate Trail. Instead of traveling north to the Umpqua and Willamette Valleys, the emigrants settled the rich mining districts and fertile farmlands of the Rogue Valley. Altogether 159 wagons, 400 men, 120 women, 170 children, 2,600 cattle, 1,300 sheep, 140 horses, and 40 mules entered the Rogue Valley over the Applegate Trail.⁴⁷

The road underwent changes in 1852 and 1853. In 1852 the road bent west to pass through Jacksonville, the trading center, instead of following Bear Creek to the Medford-Central Point vicinity. A new cutoff was established before the fall of 1853. Its northern end branched from the Applegate Trail near Hugo to pass north of Grants Pass much the same as does present I-5, crossing the Rogue River three miles west of the mouth of Evans Creek.

Because of the Treaty of Table Rock of September 9, 1853, the 1854 emigration arrived in the Rogue Valley without Indian interference. The old Oregon Trail to the north, however, was still plagued by Indian conflicts. In 1855 the Rogue River Valley was again involved in Indian war, which lasted until 1856. This war and the lack of new mining discoveries in the region

probably discouraged travel along the Applegate Trail. The only train recorded in 1855 was led by Captain Rufus Ingalls, his company, and seventeen wagons. It came from the Humboldt River to Fort Lane. Little is known of travel on the trail in 1856-1858.

In 1859 Lt. Alexander Piper and his soldiers from Fort Jones entered the Klamath country searching for stolen stock. They camped for several days on the north side of the Klamath River one mile below present Keno at a place known in early pioneer days as "the cabins," which was very near the original emigrant ford of 1846. During 1860 Lt. Lorenzo Loraine and his Company L, 3rd Artillery, established a post called Camp Day on Spencer Creek west of Keno for protection of emigrants.

No specific information concerning emigrations over the Applegate Trail is recorded for 1860-1862. In 1861, Lindsay Applegate and forty-two volunteers rescued a wagon train that was having difficulty with the Modoc at Bloody Point in the Klamath Basin.

By 1863 the Applegate Trail was fading as a major route of transportation. When gold was discovered in northeastern Oregon, southwestern Idaho, Montana, and north-central Nevada, Californians took the new Chico-to-Boise Trail, and Oregonians apparently set off straight across country rather than follow the emigrant trails. Other new trails and roads began to replace the Applegate, except sections used by pack trains between Yreka, Ashland, Jacksonville, and the Klamath Basin. In 1867 Linkville (Klamath Falls) was established, and settlers used the Applegate Trail to reach the new town until 1869. In 1868 the Jackson County commissioners authorized a survey for a road from Jacksonville to Linkville, and within a few years the Southern Oregon Wagon Road was constructed, almost entirely replacing the Applegate Trail from Bloody Point to the Rogue River Valley.

The Applegate Trail Today

The remaining traces of the Applegate Trail are rapidly disappearing. This trail has much historical significance not only as an important route of emigration into the Willamette Valley settlements but also as forerunner to settlement of southern Oregon and northern California. After 1851, most Applegate Trail emigrants settled either in the Rogue and Umpqua Valleys of southwestern Oregon or in the Scott and Shasta Valleys of northern California. After 1869 new demands of the developing state of Oregon and its settlements gave rise to changing patterns of transportation. Very few of the new routes coincided with the Applegate Trail (only stretches of I-5 and Highway 66 in Oregon). The rest of the route was rarely used for transportation except for occasional cattle drives or movement of military operations. Very little of the trail has been left untouched, however, due to time and heavy human

disturbance. From Grants Pass to Keno, traces of the trail remain in a few areas, particularly the Jenny Creek Slide, and efforts should be made to mark and preserve these remains.

Several organizations in Nevada, California, and Oregon have been working to mark the entire Applegate Trail.⁴⁸ The Jackson County Historical Society has marked trail sites in Jackson County since 1976. The Klamath County Historical Society placed ten markers along the Applegate Trail between Keno, Oregon, and Jenny Creek on August 17, 1974.⁴⁹ The Jenny Creek marker will be placed in June, 1978. According to the Helfrich's, the Oregon Council of American Pioneer Trails Association placed a number of Applegate Trail markers during the 1940's, starting in the Willamette Valley and reaching as far south as Emigrant Creek at the western base of Green Springs Mountain. There a certain group objected to the name "Applegate Trail," preferring to call it "Southern Route to Oregon," and the project died. The marker on Emigrant Creek has disappeared. When completed, the active groups will have placed 150 markers, one every six miles, to commemorate the Applegate Trail.

ENDNOTES

¹Stephen Dow Beckham, *Requiem for a People: The Rogue Indians and the Frontiersmen* (1971), p. 32.

²Dale Morgan, ed., *Overland in 1846: Diaries and Letters of the California-Oregon Trail*, 2 vols. (1963), p. 69.

³See Chapter 10.

⁴Morgan, *Overland*, pp. 66-88; *Oregon Historical Quarterly*, XXII (March, 1921), pp. 12-45 for Lindsay Applegate's Journal, also in Maude A. Rucker, *The Oregon Trail and Some of Its Blazers* (1930), pp. 248-88.

⁵The diaries are both printed in Morgan, *Overland*, and in Devere and Helen Helfrich, *Klamath Echoes* (1971 and 1976), Nos. 9 and 14. Hulin's original in Lane County Museum, Eugene; and also on microfilm in the University of Oregon Library, Oregon Collection.

⁶Bernard DeVoto, *The Year of Decision: 1846* (1943), p. 375.

⁷For comprehensive resourcebook on the Oregon section of the Oregon Trail, see Stephen Dow Beckham, *The Oregon Trail in Oregon* (1974). Additional source: Haines, *Historical Sites Along Oregon Trail* (1973).

⁸Jesse Applegate, *Oregon Spectator* (January 21, 1847), noted in Morgan, *Overland*, p. 69.

⁹Helfrich, "The Applegate Trail," Part I, *Klamath Echoes*, No. 9, Introduction.

¹⁰*Oregon Spectator* (January 21, 1847), quoted in Morgan, *Overland*, p. 70.

¹¹DeVoto, *Year of Decision*, p. 372.

¹²See Roland K. Clark and Lowell Tiller, *Terrible Trail: The Meek Cutoff, 1845* (1966).

¹³Morgan, *Overland*, pp. 70-71, Applegate article.

¹⁴According to Jesse Applegate, in Morgan, *Overland*, p. 71.

¹⁵Morgan, *Overland*, pp. 71-72.

¹⁶There are discrepancies in the dating of the trail-blazing journey between Jesse and Lindsay Applegate. For this Overview, the date is based on Helfrich data, Part I, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 3, re: Jesse's letter dated Fort Hall, August 9, 1846.

¹⁷Lindsay Applegate, "Notes and Reminiscences of Laying Out and Establishing the Old Emigrant Road into Southern Oregon in the Year 1846," *Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, XXII, No. 1 (1921), 12-45. Includes biographical sketches of the fifteen company members.

¹⁸According to Francis D. Haines, *The Applegate Trail: Southern Emigrant Route 1846* (1976), Harris spoke Shoshone, what Lindsay calls "Snake" language.

¹⁹Helfrich, Part I, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 2.

²⁰Ibid. and Morgan, *Overland*, n.p.

²¹This is where the southern border of Oregon and Idaho hits the western border of Wyoming.

²²Helfrich, Part I, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 2.

²³Ibid.

²⁴According to Lindsay Applegate, "Notes and Reminiscences," pp. 12-45, unless other wise noted.

²⁵Lindsay later learned that this was the point where Col. Fremont had been only a few days before on his way northward when he was overtaken by Lt. Gillespie of the U.S. Army dispatching Fremont to return to lower California where the Mexican War had begun and Fremont was needed.

²⁶Had camped on Lassen Creek before entering this path; named for Peter Lassen who led a small party of immigrants across the plains in 1848, following the Applegate Route from the Humboldt through this pass, then down Pit River to the Sacramento.

²⁷August 9, the rest of the Applegate party waiting on the Humboldt River met up with the Col. Russell company of horsemen from the United States, among whom were Edwin Bryant, an important journalist, who in 1848, published his "What I Saw in California." The parties met opposite the mouth of Secret Creek. The Russell party headed for California down that creek via the Great Salt Desert of Utah. Bryant writes of this particular meeting with the Applegate party. The author points out that this is one of the trail's most noteworthy oddities recorded. The two parties from so widely separated areas met in the desert, hundreds of miles and many

weary days from any settlement in either direction, and had only a matter of "ten minutes to spare from missing each other." Lindsay Applegate makes no mention in his journal of this meeting or of other meetings along the way. Bryant's recordings again prove Applegate's dates to be wrong in many cases, sometimes by five days.

²⁸David Goff, *Oregon Spectator* (April 3, 1847) in Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 4.

²⁹Lindsay Applegate, "Notes and Reminiscences," pp. 12-45.

³⁰Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, pp. 5-6.

³¹See map inserts in Morgan, *Overland*; Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, pp. 17-20.

³²See map, Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 82. On pages 85-87, Helfrich's deal with accounts of crossing the Stone Bridge, starting with the earliest one by Peter Skene Ogden in 1826-1827 and Indian skirmishes relating to it. In 1847, Lester Hulin in his diary also described crossing the Stone Bridge, and called the river the Lost River rather than the Sacramento. This is the first known use of the name Lost River.

³³Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 89.

³⁴See *Existing Site Data Compilation*

³⁵Aside from Pringle in 1846 and Hulin in 1847, only Orson A. Stearns who crossed the plains in 1853 has written reminiscences regarding the Applegate Trail from the Klamath River westward to the Rogue Valley, written in 1909 and 1919. In Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 96.

³⁶The Southern Oregon Wagon Road can still be traveled here, but the old emigrant trail has been lost, although the GLO survey shows it one-fourth to one-half mile farther north. Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 97.

³⁷Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 96. Incredibly, in 1848, wagons were pulled up the 200-yard long slide by "gold-rushers" headed for California from Oregon, and again from 1867-1869 by settlers going east to the Klamath Basin.

³⁸1909 reminiscences in Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 103.

³⁹Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 103, re: Peter Applegate survey done later, and present disagreements.

⁴⁰ Helfrich, Part 2, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 25.

⁴¹ There are a number of historically significant sites west of Rock Point along the trail towards Grants Pass. Footh Creek was an emigrant campsite and site of Indian conflict. Old Fort Birdseye Wayside Park was the site where settlers congregated during the Indian War of 1855 (See *Existing Site Data Compilation*). The Coyote Evans Wayside Park just east of the bridge across Rogue River to the town of Rogue River marks the site where an early-day saddle and pack-horse ford was located. See Helfrich, Part 2, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 35.

⁴² For in-depth discussion, see Helfrich, Part 2, *Klamath Echoes*, chapters 6-10.

⁴³ Helfrich, Part 2, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 35. About one mile below the mouth of Evans Creek a ferry was in operation at least as early as 1855; the Joel Perkins Ferry operated one mile east of Grants Pass.

⁴⁴ Helfrich, Part 1, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 9.

⁴⁵ Ibid., p. 11

⁴⁶ See Chapter 10.

⁴⁷ Helfrich, Part 2, *Klamath Echoes*, p. 14.

⁴⁸ Ibid., p. v.

⁴⁹ Devere and Helen Helfrich have been involved with marking the trail for many years. George Burrell, of Medford, has also worked actively, mapping and marking the trail in southern Oregon. June 6-18, 1976, the Applegate Bicentennial Wagon Trail followed the trail from Keno to Jacksonville to commemorate the 130th anniversary of the opening of the route.

10. Development of Jackson and Klamath Counties 1840-1920

THE FUR TRADE

From the late 1820's through the early 1840's, European and American interaction with the Upper Rogue River Valley was in terms of a network of trails through the area, connecting the settlements of the Willamette Valley with California. These trails had evolved from Indian pathways into the routes used by fur trappers. The search for furs in the Oregon country led trappers southward and inland as coastal otter and beaver were depleted. As early as 1818, Alexander Ross had explored the upper Umpqua area. A fur trapper named Thomas McKay ventured south by land around 1820 but was prevented from entering southern Oregon by Indians living along the Umpqua.¹ In 1826, upon hearing Alexander McLeod's report of abundant beaver along the southern Oregon coast, Hudson's Bay Company factor John McLoughlin sent a brigade of fur trappers, accompanied by the British botanist David Douglas, to the Umpqua River region.² The first explorers to enter the Rogue country in search of furs were Peter Skene Ogden and his Hudson's Bay Company brigade. In 1826, Ogden and his fur trappers worked the Snake River country and reached Klamath Lake in December. Ogden's men covered the area as far south as Mt. Shasta and the Klamath River. During March of 1827 Ogden and company crossed the Siskiyou and camped on the Rogue River. Ogden and part of the company remained in the Rogue Valley until April 7, when they returned to Klamath Lake.³ Both the Laframboise and Work fur trapping expeditions passed through the Rogue River Valley in 1833 on their return from trading and trapping in northern California.⁴ Conflicts with the Rogue River Indians continually impeded travel through the area and permanent settlement was not even considered.

Apparently the beaver were not numerous enough in the Rogue and Klamath areas for the kind of prolonged fur trapping that would necessitate building a permanent structure. Several different sites on the Umpqua became fur trading centers. Fort McKay near the mouth of Calapuya Creek was the earliest.⁵ Fort Umpqua was established in 1836 opposite the mouth of Elk Creek and present-day Elkton. There were no permanent settlements in what is now the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit. The fur trade was responsible for drawing European and American attention to the Rogue River Valley and the Klamath Basin, but its effects were too transient to stimulate permanent settlement. The lure of gold and rich farmland would ultimately result in the region's development.

MINING FRONTIER AND MINERAL DEVELOPMENT

The most significant stimulus for settlement and development of the area comprising the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit was the Gold Rush. The development of northern California and southwestern Oregon followed a pattern different from that of the Willamette Valley, where pioneer farmers and settlers followed the first fur hunters. The miners not only preceded the pioneer farmers but stimulated the farmers' settlement around the mining regions as well as the growth of towns.⁶

In the Rogue River Valley, the mining camps were the cohesive force in the settlement process. Merchants, packers, and stagecoach lines quickly brought their services to each new camp to supply miners' needs. Wagon roads constructed to link mining camps with markets later became major travel and transportation routes. Towns grew at strategically located points in the camp centers or on transportation routes.

The unique western social order emerged through the development of law in the mining camps and left enduring results. Many laws concerning water rights, grazing privileges, and land tenure developed out of early self-government in the mining camps of California and Oregon.⁷

Mining depended on winter rains and was therefore compatible with the spring-to-fall cycle of farming in the fertile regions of the Rogue River Valley. This unique climatic and geographic situation resulted in farmer-miners and their families permanently settling the otherwise unstable mining districts. The rich agricultural land and the ready market from increased population also attracted many emigrant families traveling on the Applegate Trail. Many emigrants chose Donation Land Claims in the Bear Creek Valley and began to supply the miners with food. Thus, mining activity in southwestern Oregon directly stimulated the development of towns, populations, road networks, agriculture, and a legal and social order.

Early Placer Mining

By 1850 the California Gold Rush had reached as far north as the camps around Yreka. It became more economical to haul food and supplies by pack train from the Willamette Valley across the Siskiyou into northern California than to depend on supplies from the coastal ports. Travel through the Rogue River Valley increased as both packers and would-be miners from the Willamette settlements joined the race for riches. In the winter of 1851-1852, gold was discovered in Oregon at Rich Gulch by two packers, James Cluggage and James Poole.⁸ Within two months a thousand men were there.

Claims were staked out and every man went to work to dig out the gold. No time was spent in building cabins; a man would throw his saddle blanket over a manzanita bush and put his bed under it. Some built shelters of bark and brush while others put up tents. Fortunes were being taken out that winter, and many who had families in the east and elsewhere went back in the spring and brought them to Rogue River Valley....Until 1853 there were but four white women in Jacksonville.⁹

In a short time the shallow surface gold deposits of the Jacksonville site were panned out. The site, known briefly as Table Rock City, became available for building a town as miners moved out to the gulches and hillsides of the surrounding area. Appler and Kenney set up the first supply store in February, 1852. In March the first log cabin was built by W.W. Fowler. Jacksonville was on its way to becoming a permanent settlement, and Jackson County became Oregon's most populous county.

In the same year as the Rich Gulch strike, gold was discovered at Althouse Creek and Waldo (Sailor's Diggings) on the Illinois River. By May, 1852, many miners had spread out to prospect the hills and streams and mine the bars on the Rogue. The following early mining districts are of historical significance and are located on or near Bureau of Land Management land in the Planning Unit.

The *Applegate District* in Jackson County was organized in 1853 on that river about ten miles south of Jacksonville.¹⁰ Placer deposits found in bars along the Applegate were worked by means of water supplied by a four-mile ditch owned by Kasper Kubli. During the same year the discovery of coarse placer gold in Foothills Creek resulted in the organization of the *Foothills Creek District*. The *Sterling Creek District* was organized in 1854.¹¹ In 1856, the *Evans Creek* and *Pleasant Creek Districts* were organized. Around 1856, the *Buncom District* was organized near the mouth of the Little Applegate River, where three ditches provided the water supply. In 1858, *Forty-nine Diggings* was organized about three miles northwest of present Ashland, where water was obtained from Wagner and Anderson Creeks.¹²

The earliest gold mining was mostly limited to small-scale placer operations. Panning, the simplest form of gold extraction, paid well in rich areas. A somewhat more advanced form was the "rocker," a box-like device mounted on rockers with one open end. Two men could work the rocker, handling from three to five cubic yards of earth or gravel in ten hours.¹³ This method was very wasteful, however, especially when the gold was fine. The amount lost is indicated by the fact that Chinese miners were able to rework abandoned claims three or four times, each time earning wages of about two dollars per day.¹⁴

The most efficient mining method was sluicing, using a wooden trough or, in some cases, a ditch on bedrock. Sluices, usually ten to twelve feet long, were often placed end to end for a distance of one hundred to three hundred feet, with a drop of six or seven inches to each box.¹⁵ Riffles were placed at intervals to catch the gold. The tailings from these operations were moved away and dumped in order not to interfere with other mining operations. Remains of tailings are still in evidence at some sites. The miners found it profitable to organize small companies to construct the ditches for the considerable water supply needed, and to work the sluices.

Many early placer mining sites have undoubtedly been destroyed by high-pressure streams of water in later hydraulic operations. Additionally, flood damage has probably impacted many early sites that were close to or in stream beds and riverbanks. Depression era mining, farming activity, and grazing have taken their toll as well. The historical significance of the early mining period makes it essential that areas with potential sites be surveyed and that steps be taken to preserve those that might remain.

Hydraulic Mining

Almost all placer deposits on the tributaries of the Rogue and Applegate systems were worked by hydraulic methods at one time or another. After the most accessible gravel deposits had been mined out, placer miners set to work on bench deposits and other gravels. Water for these operations was carried many miles in ditches following land contours. When situated high enough over the deposit, the water could be brought down in pipelines and released in powerful, high-pressure streams through large nozzles, called giants, under mechanical control.¹⁶ Blasting water tore gravel banks down and pushed the loosened gravel through the sluice boxes, where gold gathered behind the riffles. Mercury was often used to extract the gold.

The hydraulic method was used in southern Oregon more or less continuously from as early as 1856, although its major use was in the 1870's.¹⁷ Large amounts of capital were required to construct hydraulic operations, which relied on many laborers, both caucasian and Oriental. A second immigration of Chinese laborers to the Rogue River Valley began in about 1875, primarily for work on hydraulic excavations.¹⁸ Two of the most important hydraulic mining ditches in the Planning Unit area were the China Ditch and the Sterling Ditch. Chinese laborers were involved with both of these operations.

The China Ditch was part of an extensive hydraulic system owned by the Chinese businessman Gin Lin near the mouth of the Little Applegate River. The fifteen- to twenty-mile China Ditch was constructed from the Applegate River around the mountain, at an elevation of several hundred or more feet to get the pressure necessary to operate two very large hydraulic giants. The gravel deposit that Gin Lin mined was thirty or thirty-five feet deep, and many of the boulders removed were very large, requiring large sluice boxes.¹⁹ Evidence of this mine and the China Ditch are still visible.

The Sterling Creek mining district has a long history which precedes the hydraulic phase, beginning with Jim Sterling's discovery of gold in 1854.²¹ Virtually overnight the creek was staked from source to mouth. The town of Sterlingville sprang up shortly after the strike as numerous businesses were created to supply the miners. Lack of water continually plagued the gold-rich area, and dreams of a ditch were discussed. As early as 1856 a group of miners had a route surveyed for a water ditch from the west fork of the Applegate to the Sterling Deposits. The proposed length and the complicated construction necessary made the ditch impossible for that group to build. In 1863 the Southern Oregon Water Ditch and Mining Company brought in a sawmill to provide lumber for the considerable flume work necessary to build the ditch,²³ but the project apparently went no further.

Placer mining on Sterling Creek was declining in 1867 when the district underwent reorganization. The few remaining white miners showed their intention to stay by pushing the Chinese miners out. The first large-scale amalgamation of holdings by Tod and William Cameron and Lyman Chappell was a move toward the establishment of an organization that would be financially capable of solving the water problem. In 1876 the firm of Cameron and Hayden hired J.S. Howard to survey a high ditch line for their mine. The proposed route required a twenty-three mile ditch.²⁴ In 1877 they sold their mine to a Portland company incorporated as the Sterling Mining Company that immediately began letting contracts on the proposed ditch. By mid-November, 1877, the project was completed and "for the first time in the twenty-three year history of the diggings, the mine had an ample quantity of water and a dependable source."²⁵ The company installed two hydraulics that operated with a head of 761 feet, stripping the ground at the rate of 800 cubic yards per day. The Sterling was one of the largest hydraulic mines and continued with varying rates of success for many years. The high-pressure sprays worked four miles of Sterling Creek's seven-mile length, leaving a permanent imprint on the landscape. Total production was valued at \$3,000,000 by 1916.²⁶

Lode Mining

As the high-grade stream gravels gave out, some miners began to search for the lodes or veins that were the sources of gold in the placer deposits.²⁷ Hard-rock mining, as it was called, involved much labor, time, and money for excavations, including cuts, tunnels, and shafts. Jackson County "pocket hunters" became skilled in finding traces that might lead to pockets of gold. Most finds were small--worth a few hundred or perhaps a thousand dollars--but for those days their value was high. A few large, rich pockets were discovered. One of the most famous was the Gold Hill Pocket, discovered in 1857 by Emigrant Graham and partners near the top of a hill two miles northeast of Gold Hill in the southwest quarter of the northeast quarter of Section 14, Township 36 south, Range 3 west. "The outcropping rock was so full of gold that it could scarcely be broken by sledging."²⁸ This pocket was supposed to have produced at least \$700,000 of which \$400,000 was taken out in 1860.²⁹

Numerous gold lodes were found over the years in southwestern Oregon. The following are some of those that were located on or near what is now Bureau of Land Management land: Sylvanite Mine (Section 2, Township 36 south, Range 3 west),³⁰ Revenue Pocket (Section 11, Township 37 south, Range 3 west),³¹ and Johnson and Bowden Pockets (Section 25, Township 37 south, Range 3 west).³²

Twentieth Century Mining

In 1886 the most important placer mines in the Applegate Valley belonged to the Sterling Mining Company, the Gin Lin Company, and I.T. Layton.³³ In the early 1890's, the lode mines became more successful. In the first decade of the 20th century, the most productive lode mines in Jackson County were the Opp (Section 36, Township 37 south, Range 3 west), Oregon Belle, the Pacific American Gold Mining Company, the Bill Nye (Section 4, Township 37 south, Range 3 west), Millionaire mines near Gold Hill, and the Little Wonder Mine of the Enterprise Mining Company.³⁴ Other active gold mines from this period located on or near Bureau of Land Management land include the Braden Mine (south half of Section 27, Township 36 south, Range 3 west), Tinpan (southwest quarter, Section 31, Township 36 south, Range 3 west), and Maid of the Mist (Section 4, Township 39 south, Range 4 west).

Both placer and lode mining continued into the 1920's. By the late twenties, large-scale mining had virtually ceased. But during the Depression, small gold mining activities were revived. For many residents of Jackson County, the employment outlook was dim, and placer mining was a chance for survival.

Families took picks, shovels, and pans into the hills where there was still enough gold for subsistence in the depths of the Depression. During the 1930's farmers mined their own land or leased mineral rights to gold miners on a royalty basis.³⁵

In Jacksonville, people began sinking shafts in their backyards and drifting under the town. Old shafts were re-opened and new ones made. Banks dusted off their gold scales and small stores throughout Jackson County installed scales and sold groceries for gold dust.³⁶

The Jackson County Court, subsidized by the federal government, started a mining school to teach people to be self-sufficient and ease the demand for relief funds.³⁷ A local survey had apparently shown that nearly 1,000 people were already at work panning gold with no experience or knowledge of the techniques, and that they were consequently losing money. The school assisted several hundred miners in locating claims and improving their mining operations. In 1933, six of the ninety-seven people who completed the formal course of instruction were women.³⁸ The school did not continue past 1933. Late in 1933, the Sterling Mining Company became involved in the New Deal program and permitted miners to work company ground, except areas being worked by the company, for no charge. That year around 100 men and women were mining on the Sterling Creek Company's deeded ground. The increase in the price of gold in 1934 brought a gold rush revival, and stores were re-opened in old camps like Sterlingville. Many mid-19th century sites were re-worked, and old mining cabins were rebuilt. Depression mining in areas such as the Applegate Drainage obliterated or drastically altered many early mining sites. World War II brought new employment and federal regulations to southwestern Oregon's mining districts, and most gold mining virtually ceased.

Other Mineral Development

After 1900 other minerals attracted interest. Copper, chromite, cinnabar, and antimony deposits were developed. For a short time coal was mined. Granite and limestone became important industries. Both Jackson and Klamath Counties exploited their extensive mineral water resources. Before white contact, Indians had used the more than thirteen known mineral springs in the Ashland area. Wagner Soda Springs became popular with early pioneers.³⁹ In the 1920's mineral spring health resorts flourished briefly, and Ashland Lithia Spring Water was particularly well-known.⁴⁰ None of these other minerals proved as sustaining as gold mining for southwestern Oregon, however.

FARMING FRONTIER SETTLEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

Southwestern Oregon dates its settlement from the discovery of gold in late 1851. A number of miners saw agriculture as a more predictable and stable livelihood in the valleys of the Rogue River tributaries. These farmer-miners acquired Donation Land Claims that they worked from spring to fall, and they mined during the rainy winter season. During the 1850's a growing proportion of Applegate Trail emigrants passing through the Rogue River Valley on their way to the Willamette Valley chose to settle in the southwestern part of the state instead. The 1850 Donation Land Law encouraged settlement in Oregon by granting a half-section of land to every white man and Indian half-breed who was a citizen of the United and a resident of the territory by December 1, 1850.⁴¹ Married women were also granted half-sections. Therefore, in Oregon a married couple could claim 640 free acres (claims were half this size from 1850-1855), whereas public land in the rest of the U.S. was selling in 160-acre tracts. Because the Willamette Valley was already mostly settled, the rich lands of the Rogue River Valley were particularly attractive. The Indian wars of the mid-1850's brought a large force of volunteers from the Willamette Valley, many of whom decided to stay. Once the fear of Indian conflicts no longer deterred them, more and more pioneers began to farm the valleys. When Oregon became a state in 1859, Jackson was the wealthiest and most populous county.

During the 1860's the discovery of gold in Idaho and eastern Oregon resulted in the virtual desertion of Jackson County by the miners and the loss of local demand for products. This decade became the era of Jackson County's transition from a mining frontier to an agricultural community. The pioneer farmers had first produced small amounts on their Donation Land Claims for subsistence, and then began to produce for markets to supply the miners. By 1870 a variety of agricultural items raised for export became the new basis of Jackson County economics.

While land on the east side of the Cascades offered valuable potential for grain production as well as livestock, there was no economically feasible means of transportation. Wagon roads had been constructed in Jackson County to serve the gold rush, but there was still no stimulus for development in Klamath County. The Swampland Act of 1870 brought attention to the rich pasture grounds of Klamath County. The flurry of settlement in that area and the increased military service at Fort Klamath created more markets for Rogue River Valley farmers. The situation was described in the *Portland Oregonian* on August 8, 1868, as follows:

For the products of agriculture, there is a fair market in Jackson County--quite as good, in fact, as in any part of Oregon. The supply required by the mines is a considerable item. For some time past, the government demand for flour and grain at Fort Klamath has called for no small portion of the products of this valley. Flour is also sent from here into northern California. Some of the best improved farms in Oregon lie in Jackson County, and their owners are doing fully as well as any farmers in the Willamette Valley.⁴²

Grain and Fruit Production

The earliest farmers in the Rogue River Valley saw how well suited the land and climate were for growing grains. Wheat was an extremely high yield crop. Oats, corn, rye, and barley were also productive crops. During the 1860's there were eight large flouring mills in the valley. Flour was transported out of the valley by pack animals and freight wagons.⁴³

Almost every pioneer farmer in the valley planted orchards, many of which were very large. Hard fruits such as apples and pears were extremely well-suited to the cool climate of the hills and mountainsides. Subtropical fruits, grapes, and berries grew abundantly in the lowland valleys. According to Alice Applegate Sargent, the first apples raised in the valley were Gloria Mundis, grown on the Skinner place on Bear Creek in the 1860's. She recalled that the apples were sold to a wealthy miner from Gold Hill for \$2.50 each.⁴⁴ The international lure of gold in southwestern Oregon brought many Europeans, some of whom settled and ventured in fruit crops, introducing new varieties for cultivation. The photographer Peter Britt was well-known for his interest in horticulture and his extensive vineyards and orchards. Apples, pears, plums, and peaches were the principal crops from the beginning of fruit production. In addition, nectarines, figs, almonds, apricots, and all kinds of berries had some success. For a time, varieties of grapes were introduced with the hope of competing with California vineyards in wine and champagne production.

The high-production agricultural lands do not generally coincide with Bureau of Land Management lands, which are mainly timber and borderline arable. Therefore, there are few, if any, historically significant sites from the farming frontier of the third quarter of the nineteenth century in the Planning Unit.

Homesteading

From about 1890 to shortly before 1920, there were attempts to homestead on marginal lands. By then the Rogue River Valley and the Klamath Basin were well settled. The surrounding mountainous areas containing large timber stands became the targets of a new public land rush.⁴⁵ Many of these sites are now in Bureau of Land Management ownership and are of particular interest as cultural resources. The Homestead Act and other public land laws were used to gain ownership of property. In many cases the homesteaders wanted timber to sell to large lumber companies. There were some areas, particularly around Keno and along stream bottomlands, where the ground was level and received enough moisture to grow crops, but had previously been considered too small or too remote to be farmed on a large scale. In these areas people made sincere efforts at subsistence homesteading. The Homestead Law required a minimum length of residence on the land and the construction of a dwelling. For these reasons homestead sites usually have remains of a variety of structures, including cabins and sheds made of logs, shake-and-pole construction, or board-and-batten.⁴⁶ Cleared garden plots, small orchards, and remains of wagon roads may be visible at homestead sites.

A number of homestead applications were rejected, usually because the land in question had sufficient timber for designation as timber land not suitable for agriculture. These homestead lands were turned over to the National Forest, and some were later traded to the Bureau of Land Management.⁴⁷ There are Homestead entry files for these sites that contain maps and indicate the types of dwellings that were constructed and the degree of agricultural activity performed. In some cases, photographs were taken at the time of application. Most of the photographs from the early teens of the century were taken by the claims examiner J.E. Gribble. Some of these files contain personal background on the claimants, as well as legal documents, and in some cases lengthy series of appeals. From a sampling of applications it is evident that a significant proportion of Homestead applicants were women. The Homestead entry files are a valuable resource for examining late nineteenth and early twentieth century homesteading on Bureau of Land Management lands. They can be used not only in future field surveys to inventory the number and quality of sites as cultural resources, but also to document the extent, historical significance, and impact of homesteading on Bureau of Land Management forest lands.

CATTLE AND SHEEP FRONTIER AND DEVELOPMENT

During the mid-1830's new settlement along the fertile river bottoms of the Willamette Valley brought an increased need for cattle and other livestock, which were readily accessible only in Mexican California. In the summer of 1834, Ewing Young, Hall J. Kelley, and fourteen men drove about 100 horses and mules from Monterey and San Jose to Oregon. During that trip they murdered several Indians, including two young warriors on the Rogue River, before arriving safely on the Willamette. In that same year John Turner and fourteen Willamette Valley settlers went to California to purchase cattle. After a conflict with Indians at the base of the Siskiyou Mountains, Turner and survivors turned back. A second effort by Turner and seven men the following year was also thwarted by Indian hostilities.⁴⁸

In 1837 Lieutenant William A. Slacum came to Oregon under orders from President Jackson. Slacum was aware of the need for more horses and cattle in Oregon to support the American settlement. The Hudson's Bay Company owned most of the livestock consisting of about 500 horses and the same number of cattle. Slacum offered American settlers free passage aboard his ship the *Loriot* if they would go to California, purchase cattle, and drive them north to the Willamette settlements.⁴⁹ The Willamette Cattle Company, a party of ten men led by Ewing Young, accepted the offer. On February 10, 1837, Young sailed to California.⁵⁰ He had some difficulty with Mexican officials over permission to take the cattle out of the country, but he was able to purchase about 730 head of cattle. The Young party of fifteen cattle drovers headed toward the Willamette Valley, and on September 18, 1837, they battled Rogue River Indians at Rocky Point, near Gold Hill. In October they reached the Willamette Valley with 630 cattle, after incurring heavy losses along the way. The successful drive meant that Americans were no longer dependent upon the Hudson's Bay Company for cattle. In addition, it was a clear indication that overland livestock drives were commercially feasible. In 1848 John Saxton and six men attempted to drive 100 head of horses from Oregon to California. Sixty-five of the herd were killed or stolen during Indian conflicts before reaching the Klamath River.⁵¹

Therefore, when the California Gold Rush of the 'fifties came, raising the price of beef to unheard-of heights, there already was known a very practical method of marketing cattle in a country where railroads were still a future dream. By then, one observes, cattle were being driven not only north from Los Angeles, but south from Oregon as well.⁵²

Livestock Grazing and Development

The swelling population of miners in the Rogue River Valley after the discovery of gold in 1851 created a high demand for meat. Stock-raising became extremely important to the local economy as farmers diversified and began raising livestock. Swine were raised in large numbers in the Rogue Valley especially during the 1850's. "The big hog drives [from the Rogue and Illinois River Valleys] to Happy Camp in the fall usually was an exciting time as every available man was out helping with the butchering."⁵³

During the 1860's a number of ranchers on the Applegate and Rogue Rivers drove cattle into the high elevation meadows. Some of these areas are now partially owned by the Bureau of Land Management. Robert and Wilbur Cameron, whose ranch was in Cameron Meadows on the Applegate, had summer pastures on the Butte and Middle Fork drainages.⁵⁴ Prior to 1870, Rogue Valley ranchers were unable to supply all the meat required by gold miners, so supply wagons from the Willamette Valley and Crescent City converged on Jackson County. By the 1870's, however, Rogue Valley farmers produced enough bacon, lard, butter, cheese, and hides for export to Fort Klamath, Lake County, and northern California.⁵⁵

During the mid-1850's people began to exploit the excellent range lands on the east side of the Cascades in Klamath County. At that time some Ashland farmers began grazing large herds of cattle in the vicinity of present-day Keno. Judge F. Adams was the first man to drive a herd of cattle into Klamath County. In the winter of 1856 he grazed 2,000 head of cattle where Keno now stands.⁵⁶

Judge Adams stated that the winter was quite mild; the wild rye so high and plentiful that stock came out in the spring fat and ready for market. He sold 1,100 cattle at \$80 a head at Yreka and the northern California mining towns.⁵⁷

Wendolen Nus grazed stock on the Klamath River midway between Keno and Klamath Falls during the winter of 1858-1859.⁵⁸ Also in 1859, a detachment of soldiers from Fort Jones under Lieutenant Piper camped in Klamath County in the vicinity of Nus and his stock. The detachment's camp was on the north side of Klamath River, just below the present site of Keno, at the place known in the early days as "the cabins."⁵⁹ The soldiers were looking for stock that was supposed to have been stolen by Indians, but none was found in the area. Nus later became the first settler of the county in 1866-1867, bringing another herd of cattle and settling on the west side of Klamath Lake about three miles north of Klamath Falls. Thousands of head of Rogue Valley cattle were driven over the Cascades during the 1860's and 1870's headed toward eastern

Oregon and the developing cattle empire.⁶⁰ Sheep raising became important in the late nineteenth century. They were also pastured with cattle in the high mountain meadows of the Cascades. Severe overgrazing in some areas of the upper Rogue Valley often resulted. Woolen mills established in Ashland were successful until the drop in wool prices during the 1930's.

Thus livestock raising was very profitable in both the Rogue River Valley and the Klamath Basin area. By 1889, Klamath County ranchers were exporting cattle to Portland and San Francisco for beef and dairy purposes.⁶¹ Klamath grazing lands were notable for raising sheep, horses, and mules. Jackson County ranked second only to Lane County for production of swine in 1889.⁶² By this date the number of sheep in Jackson County rivaled the flocks east of the Cascades.

TRANSPORTATION ROUTES: EARLY ROADS AND RAILROADS

Early Transportation Routes

The earliest transportation routes in southwestern Oregon were the innumerable trails that were used by the Indian tribes of the region for centuries. Hudson's Bay Company fur hunters used the network of Indian paths because they were consistently the most viable routes through the rugged landscape. An Indian trail over the Siskiyou Mountains eventually became the Oregon-California or Siskiyou Trail. Peter Skene Ogden used the trail in 1827 and established the route for the Hudson's Bay Company fur traders and trappers. In the next two decades the route was traveled by pioneer settlers, traders, missionaries, livestock drivers, and military exploring expeditions.⁶³ The Applegate Trail, opened in 1846 by a party led by Jesse and Lindsay Applegate, made it possible for emigrants from the eastern United States to travel to the Willamette Valley on a southern route over the Siskiyou, through the Rogue River Valley and the Umpqua Valley.⁶⁴

When gold was discovered in California in 1848, a flood of miners from the Willamette settlements traveled on the Siskiyou Trail. The northern California discoveries around Yreka a few years later and the subsequent gold strike at Jacksonville in late 1851 created the need for a route for supplies and communications (see map, Figure 20). At first the main supply route was by sea to Crescent City and then by pack train via Yreka over the Siskiyou to Jacksonville. Scottsburg, on the Umpqua River, became the preferred outfitting point for pack trains to southern Oregon and northern California in the 1850's. The pack trails were established by widening original Indian trails and setting up temporary ferry crossings on the rivers.⁶⁵ Requests for federal aid

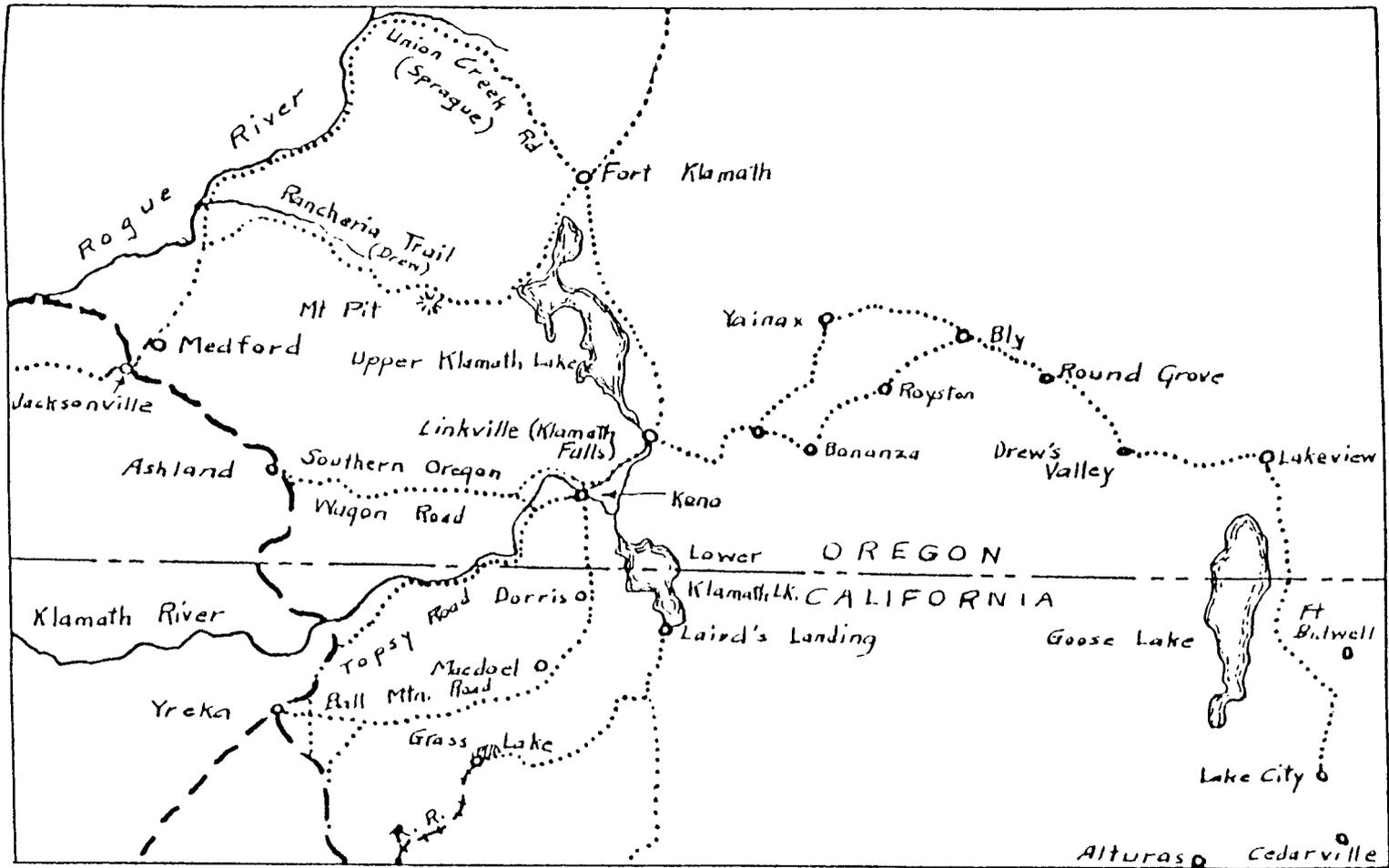


FIGURE 20

to improve southwestern Oregon transportation routes had been sent to Congress since the first legislature of the Oregon Territory. In 1852-1853, a \$20,000 federal appropriation was approved for a military wagon road from Myrtle Creek to Camp Stewart on Stewart Creek (Bear Creek). One-fourth of the appropriation was spent on the Alvord-Applegate survey in the fall of 1853. The primary purpose, to find a passage avoiding the Umpqua Canyon, was not achieved. The original route taken by the 1846 Applegate party could not be improved. The 33rd Congress appropriated an additional \$20,000 to extend the first road from Myrtle Creek to Scottsburg, making it suitable for wagon transport of government supplies to Forts Lane and Jones. Due to congressional delays, funds were not available to complete the road until 1858.⁶⁶

In August, 1851, William G. T'Vault attempted to open a road from the coast at Port Orford to the Oregon-California Trail. There were some who hoped that Port Orford would become an important supply port if a connecting road were built. T'Vault and his party followed the Rogue River to Big Bend, where they were forced north by Indians all the way to the mouth of the Coquille.⁶⁷ In 1852 T'Vault was still hoping to build a connecting road to Port Orford, but his correspondence indicates that he miscalculated the distance between Grave Creek on the Rogue and the Coquille River.⁶⁸ Finally in 1855 a surveying party led by Lieutenant August V. Kautz reached the Oregon-California Trail after a thirteen-day journey from Port Orford.⁶⁹

One of the first endeavors of the newly organized Jackson County Court in 1853 was to establish roads. The first road went east from Jacksonville, and it connected with the government trail leading into California.⁷⁰ The next road was built from Jacksonville to Willow Springs, where there was a mining camp in 1853.⁷¹ Pack trains were used exclusively during the early 1850's to carry freight to the mining camps. By September 30, 1857, the Cold Springs Pack Trail from Crescent City was replaced by a pioneer wagon road, over which most of the freight of the Rogue River Valley was hauled.⁷² Stages soon began tri-weekly runs between Crescent City and Jacksonville.

On January 14, 1858, the Oregon Territorial Legislature established the Siskiyou Mountain Wagon Road Company and gave a twenty-year franchise to Michael Thomas and Associates for a toll road from southern Oregon into California. The following year Lindsay Applegate purchased the franchise, and he opened the toll road on August 29, 1859. Traveling south, the first stage station on the Siskiyou Mountain Wagon Road was Barron's Mountain House, about ten miles southeast of Ashland, run by Major Hugh Barron and James and Ann Haseltine Hill Russell.⁷³ The toll house that Lindsay Applegate built in 1861 was about half way up the mountains from Barron's. In her recollections, Lindsay's daughter Alice Applegate Sargent described the various freight that traveled over the toll road when she was there: huge freight wagons drawn by six and eight yoke of oxen; bell teams of six span of horses drawing wagons; long trains of fifty, sixty, and eighty pack

mules in single file; the twice daily red and yellow stage coach pulled by six horses.⁷⁴

Gold was discovered in the John Day country in 1862, and a small company of men cut a road out of Jacksonville up the Rogue River to Union Creek for passage to the John Day mines.⁷⁵

The creation of the Klamath Indian Reservation led to the establishment of Fort Klamath in 1863. In order to bring supplies to the fort from Jacksonville, the Jacksonville-to-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road was routed by Col. Charles Drew and constructed in 1863 by the men commanded by Capt. William Kelly, Oregon Volunteers, U.S. Army.⁷⁶ This road is significant because it was the first road across the Cascades connecting the Rogue River Valley with the upper Klamath Basin.⁷⁷ It apparently followed a well-traveled Indian trail. In 1865 the military discontinued use of the road, which proved almost impassable for wagon travel, after constructing a more northerly route, the Union Creek Trail. The latter road was more passable in winter snows and became Old Crater Lake Road.⁷⁸ The original road remained in use by local ranchers, agricultural settlers, and travelers on horseback until 1909.⁷⁹ The Ashland-Fort Klamath Wagon Road, or Dead Indian Highway, was constructed in 1869 or 1870 from Ashland via Lake of the Woods to Fort Klamath. The road, built by O.C. Applegate, connected with the Jacksonville-to-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road at Fourmile Creek.⁸⁰

In 1868 O.A. Stearns, a pioneer who settled between present Keno and Klamath Falls, circulated a petition among the settlers of Jackson County to survey a wagon route between the Rogue River Valley and the Klamath country.⁸¹ The old emigrant road first opened by the Applegate party in 1846 was still in use, but it was essentially impassable from west to east, except by pack animals, because of four wagon-slides over the Cascades at Jenny Creek, Keene Creek, Green Springs Summit, and at Strychnine Hill on Tyler Creek. It had been meant for travel from east to west only. In 1868 the county agreed to the survey and appointed W.F. Songer, O.T. Brown, and Samuel Colver as viewers, and J.S. Howard as surveyor. In 1872, the state legislature appropriated \$25,000 for survey and construction of the Southern Oregon Wagon Road. When it was complete in 1873, the trail closely approximated that portion of the Applegate Trail (and present State Highway 66), although the two roads criss-crossed each other a number of times. The Southern Oregon Wagon Road, also known as the Green Springs Route, has remained in continuous use since the opening of the trail in 1846.

During the 1860's, the Ball Mountain Road was built for pack train travel between Yreka and the Klamath country.⁸² Pack trains also followed a route via Killibrew's on the north side of Klamath River to Keno. Early settlers, including George Nurse and Robert Whittle in the Keno area, used this

route to obtain supplies after 1865.⁸³ The first wagon road from Yreka to Keno and Linkville (Klamath Falls) was built around 1873 along an old Indian trail. During the 1880's, the road was rebuilt by Chase, and in 1889, Emmitt rebuilt the grade in its present location, about 200 yards below the 1873 route.⁸⁴ The wagon road was called Topsy Grade by at least 1891.⁸⁵ Topsy Grade was an important freight road connecting with the railroad at Montague, California, from 1884 until 1909 when the railroad reached Klamath Falls. Even after rail service was developed, Topsy Grade remained the only all-weather road into the Klamath Basin through the 1920's. There are significant nineteenth and early twentieth century structures extant along the road. Much of the original road remains, making Topsy Grade one of the rare historic wagon and early automobile roads still in existence.

In 1911, the Pacific Highway Association kindled interest in a paved Pacific highway through Oregon. In 1917 and 1919, the State Legislature appropriated funds to supplement county funds in a program of localized point-to-point construction. Existing wagon roads were abandoned in many areas, and a through-route was relocated. On October 26, 1923, a completion celebration was held at Olympia, Washington. The Pacific Highway (now Interstate 5) traversed three countries: the United States, Canada, and Mexico, and was at the time the longest paved highway in the world.

RAILROADS

The Oregon and California Railroad

During the 1850's the dream of a railroad across the United States was attracting attention in Oregon. As early as 1855 a government survey crew under First Lt. Robert S. Williamson and Lt. Henry L. Abbot was surveying in Oregon for the Oregon-California portion of the Pacific Railroad.⁸⁶ Williamson's party passed through the Klamath country, while Abbot led a group west of the Cascades in Josephine and Jackson Counties.

The California surveying engineer Simon G. Elliott initiated a California-Oregon railroad. He gained the support of about seventy people, and on October 7, 1863, the first railroad of the Pacific Northwest, the California and Columbia Railroad, was incorporated at the Jacksonville County Courthouse.⁸⁷ Elliott soon broke from the original group and formed the California and Oregon Railroad Company. Both companies made surveys in 1863-1864. In Oregon, the routes went through the Bear Creek Valley to Jacksonville, then followed the Rogue, the Umpqua, and the Willamette Rivers to Portland.

Following the Railroad Land Grant Act of Congress, passed on July 25, 1866, the Oregon Central Railroad's two factions, east side and west side, engaged in political and financial battles until Ben Holladay's company, the Oregon and California Railroad, took over the west side project in 1870 and absorbed the east side company.⁸⁸ By 1871 the rails reached from Portland to Eugene. The California and Oregon Railroad was building from Sacramento toward the north at the same time.

In 1872, after the O&C line reached Roseburg from the north, Holladay's financial troubles halted construction. By the first of September, 1872, stages were connecting with the railroad on daily runs between Roseburg and Redding, California. Henry Villard took over management in 1876, but because construction did not resume south of Roseburg until December, 1881, the California-Oregon Stage continued to make connecting runs for almost ten years. The railroad kept inching southward until April 19, 1884, when it reached Ashland. The California and Oregon stages then ran between Ashland and Redding. More than three years passed before it connected with the California line coming from the south; the Southern Pacific took over in 1887 to complete the line, and the last spike ceremony was held at Ashland on December 17, 1887.

The arrival of the transcontinental railroad in southwestern Oregon had a number of far-reaching effects. First, the railroad bypassed Jacksonville, marking the decline of that town and the birth of Medford as the economic center of Jackson County.⁸⁹ Ashland housed the railroad car center and continued to be prominent. Second, the railroad caused dramatic changes in agricultural patterns as single products such as fruit were cultivated in great quantities for export to competitive markets. Diversified farming became uneconomical, and many small farms died out from the competition as items were shipped in from other markets by rail. On the other hand, as the next section illustrates, the timber resources of the upper Rogue and Klamath areas developed into an enormous lumber industry due to the railroad.

Third, the railroad signified the end of a long era of isolation in southwestern Oregon. The *Oregonian* described the importance of the railroad for the Rogue River Valley in February of 1884:

Since first settlement it has been the home of a prosperous and stable community; but owing to isolation, progress has been slow. Its genial climate, fruitful soil and great resources have not attracted the attention they deserve, because there has been no means of transportation, and it has even been a serious task to travel into that district or out of it. All this disadvantage the railroad has now overcome or removed, and this

very important part of the state will now be drawn into closer relations with other parts of it.⁹⁰

SHORT LINE AND LOGGING RAILROADS

Jackson County

After the O&C Railroad bypassed Jacksonville, astonished community members began to consider the possibility of building a short line from Medford through Jacksonville with the idea of eventually extending to the Pacific Coast, and possibly to the east as well. On January 17, 1890, the Medford and Jacksonville Railway Company was incorporated to build a railway from Medford to Jacksonville and two miles beyond.⁹¹ The road was completed by Honeyman, DeHart and Company of Portland (the Rogue River Valley Railway Company). The same firm, incorporated as the Rogue River Valley Railway and Improvement Company, proposed an extension to Eagle Point via Central Point from 1891 to 1904, but the plan never materialized. In 1904 the W.F. Barnum family of Medford bought the existing line and ran it as a family business. As more and more businesses moved to Medford, and because Jacksonville had no exports, the closed future of Jacksonville became apparent. At one point the city of Medford owned the road (1919-1930), and apparently for a time in 1919 the Bullis Logging Company operated the line with a street car called the Southern Oregon Traction Company.⁹²

The Pacific and Eastern Railroad was incorporated in 1891. The Medford and Crater Lake Railroad, formed in 1904, completed twelve miles of the line to Eagle Point during the period from 1906-1909. The Butte Falls and Western Railroad was incorporated in 1910. With the backing of James J. Hill, the Pacific and Eastern edged out the other two railroads and began construction to Butte Falls, with plans for connections with Salt Lake City.⁹³ Many Sikhs apparently worked on the railroad construction. Spectacular trestles, built to bridge the many canyons, were hoisted into place by a steam crane. Eight of the trestles, numbering from twelve to twenty-two, are still evident.⁹⁴ On November 15, 1910, the first train reached Butte Falls, and in 1911 the first tourist excursion rolled in. The road to Willow Creek Summit was surveyed, and the track was laid in 1910. Construction to Fort Klamath and Klamath Falls was never completed due to the recession of 1910 and World War I. The \$2,000,000 railroad was sold to a lumber company for \$270,000, and the trains began to haul pine and fir logs to the sawmill at Medford.⁹⁵ It was called the Medford Logging Railroad, and the line grew from thirty-one to sixty-five miles, reaching toward Crater Lake. The railroad traveled through Camp 4, which is on Bureau of Land Management land, and switched at Medco Pond.⁹⁶ Until the spring of 1959, Medford Corporation operated the last all-steam logging railroad in the West.

Klamath County

The railroad arrived later in Klamath County, where its history is intertwined with that of the lumber industry. The earliest rails in the area were tracks laid by the Sugar Pine Lumber Company to Pokegama in 1891. The Klamath Lake Railroad entered the county in 1903, completed to Pokegama. Although its chief function was to haul logs, it also carried passengers and other freight. Weyerhaeuser acquired the railroad along with a large amount of timber in 1905 and planned to extend the road to Klamath Falls using the Sugar Pine Lumber Company's right-of-way. Because the Southern Pacific Company decided to build into Klamath Falls in 1906, the Klamath Lake Railroad Company abandoned plans for further construction.

The first Southern Pacific Railroad engine entered Klamath Falls via Keno in May of 1909. The Klamath Falls Municipal Railway, later known as the Strahorn Railroad, was begun in 1917. The tracks ran from Klamath Falls to Sprague River and Bly. A spur line went to Weyerhaeuser's Camp 6. Later known as the Oregon, California and Eastern, the line was taken over in 1927 by the Southern Pacific. Southern Pacific and Great Northern now manage the OC&E, alternating every five years. The Great Northern track reached Klamath Falls in 1928, closely approximating the route surveyed by Williamson and Abbott in 1855. Unlike the other major railways, the Great Northern received no federal land grants.

There were a number of other logging railroads in Jackson and Klamath Counties besides the Medford Logging Railroad and the Rogue River Valley Railway. These included the Butte Falls Logging Company (1913-1918); the Gold Hill Logging and Railway Company, six miles long (1910-1919); the Nine Logging Company, Klamath Falls, eight miles long (1917-1926); the Oregon, California and Eastern Railroad, Klamath Falls, eighty-two miles long (1919-present, acquired by Southern Pacific and Great Northern in 1928); the Municipal Railroad, Klamath Falls, twenty miles long (1917-1919); the Pelican Bay Logging Company, Algoma, forty-four miles long (1911-1934); the Pine Logging Company, Klamath Falls, one mile long (1931-1933); the Pokegama Railroad and Logging Company (Keno RR&L Co.), Keno (1910); the McCormick Sawmill, Keno (1910); the Pokegama Sugar Pine Logging Company, Pokegama (1892-1902); the Presley and Hackett, Gold Hill, one mile (1918-1919); the Shaw-Bertram Logging Company, Klamath Falls, twenty-nine miles long (1920-1936); and the E.C. Steiger, Gold Hill, two miles long (1912).⁹⁷

LUMBERING DEVELOPMENT

When the railroad came to southern Oregon, local timber suddenly had world markets. Logs could be carried from forest to mill on company logging railroad lines. Milled lumber could move by rail to major cities, where it was switched to transcontinental lines that carried it to ports for shipping worldwide. Many small mills began to spring up, particularly in western Klamath County. The introduction of steam-powered equipment in logging operations further accelerated the development of a large-scale timber industry in southern Oregon. The majority of timber on the eastern slopes of the Cascades is pine, and Ponderosa and sugar pine are the major production trees. On the western slopes of the Cascade range are Douglas fir and hemlock.⁹⁸

Klamath County

The first sawmill in Klamath County was a steam-driven circular mill erected by the U.S. Army in 1863 opposite the site of old Fort Klamath.⁹⁹ One section of the Treaty of 1864, which established the Klamath Indian Reservation, provided a sawmill for Indian use for a period of twenty years. The mill was used to furnish lumber for the Indians and to build structures connected with the fort.

The earliest privately owned sawmills were crudely constructed wood and iron sash mills powered by waterwheels. In the Keno district, the "overshot" type of waterwheel was used because there was sufficient water.¹⁰⁰ The sash mill required only one person to operate the entire mill, cutting 500 to 1,500 board feet per day. The first privately owned sawmill in the Klamath area was built in 1869 by Naylor and Hockenouse on Spencer Creek in the Keno district.¹⁰¹ Daniel Gordon, also known as "Grandpap," built the second private sawmill in the county in 1874 on the south side of the Klamath River about one mile west of Keno. The mill changed hands several times and was finally purchased in 1888 by R.E. Dusenberry. Dusenberry went into a partnership with Herbert Cooper and moved the circular mill from Cooper's site on the north side of the river to Dusenberry's site on the south. In 1892 Thomas McCormick gained ownership of the mill and ran it until 1909.¹⁰² In 1895, John Connolly built a sash mill about one mile downriver from the present highway crossing west of Keno. Connolly and his partner Henry Snowgoose operated it until 1903. Elfonz Kinney operated the mill until 1907.

The Keno area was a center for logging as well as lumber milling. In the early years of the 20th century, both the Ackley Brothers' and the Moore Brothers' mills had logging camps near Keno but maintained their mills in Klamath Falls.¹⁰³

In 1903, Ray Potter built a small sawmill at Pokegama and shipped the lumber out of the county. The mill operated until 1906. The Algoma Lumber Company built a large mill at Pokegama in 1910. This mill ran three seasons and closed in 1912. In 1913, the Algoma Lumber Company, owned by the Faye Fruit Company and E.J. Grant, moved their operations from Pokegama and built a mill at what became Algoma.

The California Fruit Cannery Association built the first box factory in Klamath County in 1908. It was located at Shippington next to the Long Lake Lumber Company mill until 1912. The box factory shipped the first boxes in wagons to Pokegama, where they were carried on the Klamath Lake Railroad to the California market.

Jackson County

Small sawmills produced lumber for local building from the early days of settlement in Jackson County. In 1852, Abel Helman built a water-powered sawmill on the banks of Ashland Creek, which flows into Bear Creek. He was apparently aware that the gold discovery would bring in many settlers who would need lumber.¹⁰⁴ The town then known as Ashland Mills developed around Helman's sawmill and a nearby flour mill.

As in Klamath County, the commercial value of the great stands of virgin timber surrounding the Rogue and Bear Creek Valleys was not fully realized until the advent of the railroad in the late 19th century. The Neil Creek sawmill, southwest of Ashland, probably produced the first Jackson County lumber exported by rail to California in 1897.¹⁰⁵

Butte Falls was an important center for logging activities in Jackson County. The Medford Logging Railroad had sixty-five miles of track from Medford through Butte Falls and Willow Creek and beyond toward Crater Lake.¹⁰⁶ The railway, operated by Medford Corporation during its years as a logging railroad, passed through Camp 4 on Bureau of Land Management land and switched at Medco Pond. There were logging activities on Willow Creek at Prospect.

From the first three decades of the century, the largest logging and milling operations in the area of the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit have been those of the Weyerhaeuser Timber Company. In the decade before 1914, the company was mainly involved in the acquisition of timber lands. By June, 1914, Weyerhaeuser owned almost 400,000 acres in Oregon.¹⁰⁷ The most impressive addition to the company's empire was 265,000 acres in the Klamath Lake area. From 1903-1906, George S. Long negotiated for Weyerhaeuser, buying out numerous small companies, including the Pelton-Reid Sugarpine Co., the William R. Thorsen Co., and the Pokegama Sugarpine Company.

Weyerhaeuser was indirectly involved in the litigation concerning the 1866 congressional land grant to the Oregon and California Railroad through its acquisition of the Pokegama Sugarpine Lumber Company, which had a contract for the purchase of lands from the railroad company.¹⁰⁸ Weyerhaeuser built a railroad west into Jackson County and for a number of years obtained all their logs from their own timber holdings in eastern Jackson and western Klamath Counties.¹⁰⁹

Summary

Beginning in the late 19th century, logging and lumber milling have been the major sources of revenue in Klamath County. In the Rogue River and Bear Creek Valleys, the lumber industry became almost as important as fruit production by the late 1920's.¹¹⁰ To date the inventoried historic sites pertaining to lumbering development on Bureau of Land Management land are limited to the Keno and Dixie-Pokegama districts of Klamath County.¹¹¹ Field surveys are needed for the other areas of the Planning Unit where logging camps, sawmills, and logging railroads were in operation and may still be evident.

ENDNOTES

¹E.E. Rich, ed., *The Letters of John McLoughlin from Fort Vancouver to the Governor and Committee*, 2nd Series (1839-1844), p. 144, cited in Stephen Dow Beckham, *Requiem for a People: The Rogue Indians and the Frontiersmen* (1971), pp. 24-25.

²Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 25-27.

³Ibid., p. 27.

⁴Ibid., pp. 30-31.

⁵Ibid., p. 30, n. 16.

⁶Rodman W. Paul, *Mining Frontiers of the Far West, 1848-1880* (1963). Paul takes issue with Frederick Jackson Turner's classic essay, "The Significance of the Frontier in American History."

⁷Charles Howard Shinn, *Mining Camps: A Study in American Frontier Government* (1885, reprint 1948).

⁸There has always been controversy over the first gold strike in Oregon. Some writers credit James Skinner and Wilson with finding the claim and telling Cluggage and Poole, which is why it was originally called Jim-town for the four James.

⁹Alice Applegate Sargent, "A Sketch of the Rogue River Valley and Southern Oregon History," *Oregon Historical Quarterly*, XXII (1921), pp. 1-11. The four women were Mrs. McCully, Evans, Lawless, and Gore.

¹⁰A.N. Winchell, "Petrology and Mineral Resources of Jackson and Josephine Counties, Oregon," *The Mineral Resources of Oregon*, I, No. 5 (August, 1914), p. 24; see *Existing Site Data Compilation*, SHPO form, BLM/private.

¹¹See *Existing Site Data Compilation* and section below.

¹²Information on the establishment of mining districts from Winchell, "Petrology," p. 24. As only Sterling Creek and the Applegate District have been inventoried, mining site surveys and further research are recommended.

¹³Christian August Spreen, *A History of Placer Gold Mining in Oregon, 1850-1870*, University of Oregon M.A. thesis (1939), Chapter V, n.p.

- ¹⁴Spreen, *Placer Mining*, note 6, chapter V, n.p.
- ¹⁵Ibid., chapter V, n.p.
- ¹⁶Ibid., and Winchell, "Petrology," pp. 24-25.
- ¹⁷Winchell, "Petrology," p. 25.
- ¹⁸See Chapter 13 for a discussion of Chinese and mining.
- ¹⁹Reminiscence by Fletcher Linn, Jackson County Museum Vertical Biographies file under Gin Lin.
- ²⁰Jeffrey M. LaLande, "Outlook: The Forest's Past, Rogue River National Forest," *Studies in Cultural Resource Management*, No. 1 (1977), pp. 18-19 and photograph, figure 2.
- ²¹Francis D. Haines, Jr., and Vern S. Smith, *Gold on Sterling Creek: A Century of Placer Mining* (1964), pp. 22-23.
- ²²Haines, *Gold on Sterling Creek*, p. 29.
- ²³Ibid., p. 39.
- ²⁴Ibid., p. 47.
- ²⁵Ibid., p. 51.
- ²⁶Oregon Department of Geology (1943), p. 190, in F.W. Libbey, "Lest We Forget," *The Ore Bin*, XXXVIII, No. 12 (1976).
- ²⁷Winchell, "Petrology," p. 25.
- ²⁸Libbey, "Lest We Forget," p. 19.
- ²⁹Ibid., p. 19, and Winchell, "Petrology," p. 25.
- ³⁰Libbey, "Lest We Forget," p. 190.
- ³¹Ibid., p. 191.
- ³²Ibid., p. 192. For data on the Corporal G. Mine (Section 19, Township 35 south, Range 3 west) and the Lucky Bart Group (Sections 29-30, Township 35 south, Range 3 west) in the Gold Hill area, see Howard C. Brooks and Len Ramp, *Gold and Silver in Oregon*, State of Oregon Department of Geology and Mineral Industries Bulletin No. 61 (1968), pp. 235-66. This bulletin includes information on most of the mines in the Planning Unit.
- ³³Winchell, "Petrology," p. 26. The Layton gold mine is located in Section 20, Township 38 south, Range 4 west.
- ³⁴Ibid., p. 27.
- ³⁵Haines, *Gold on Sterling Creek*, p. 94.

³⁶Ibid.

³⁷Ibid.

³⁸Ibid., p. 95.

³⁹Marjorie O'Harra, *The Ashland Story* (1971), n.p. Site may be near or on BLM land.

⁴⁰Winchell, "Petrology," pp. 82-107.

⁴¹Carroll E. Brown, *History of Rogue River National Forest* (1960), p. 4.

⁴²Cited in Brown, *History*, pp. 3-4.

⁴³Sargeant, "Sketch of the Rogue Valley," p. 8.

⁴⁴Ibid.

⁴⁵LaLande, "Outlook," p. 33.

⁴⁶Ibid.

⁴⁷For a discussion of Rogue River National Forest homesteads and management recommendations, see LaLande, "Outlook," pp. 33-36.

⁴⁸Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 34.

⁴⁹Oscar O. Winther, *The Old Oregon Country: A History of Frontier Trade, Transportation and Travel* (1950), pp. 136-37.

⁵⁰Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 34.

⁵¹Ibid, p. 41.

⁵²Winther, *Old Oregon*, p. 138; Robert G. Cleland, *The Cattle on a Thousand Hills* (1941), chapter 6.

⁵³Siskiyou County Historical Society (1967), p. 67; *Grants Pass Daily Courier* (April 12, 1960), p. 15, quoted in LaLande, "Cultural Resource Overview," North Siskiyou Planning Unit (1976), p. 22.

⁵⁴Walling (1884), p. 502, cited in LaLande, "North Siskiyou," p. 22.

⁵⁵Winther, *Old Oregon*, p. 138.

⁵⁶*History of Central Oregon* (1905), pp. 931, 938-40, 981-82, printed in Helfrich, *Klamath Echoes*, No. 7 (1969), p. 47.

⁵⁷Ibid., pp. 931, 938-40, 981-82.

⁵⁸Ibid.

⁵⁹Ibid.

⁶⁰J. Orin Oliphant, *On the Cattle Ranges of the Oregon Country* (1968), cited in LaLande, "Outlook," p. 27.

⁶¹Southern Oregon State Board of Agriculture, "The Resources of Southern Oregon: Statistical Information Relative to the Counties of Lake, Klamath, Jackson, Josephine, Douglas, Coos, and Curry," appendix to the *Annual Report of 1889 to the Governor* (1890), p. 41.

⁶²Ibid., p. 19.

⁶³See chapter 8 of this Overview.

⁶⁴See Chapter 9.

⁶⁵Brown, *Rogue River*, p. 1.

⁶⁶Devere and Helen Helfrich, "Applegate Trail II," *Klamath Echoes*, No. 14 (1976), pp. 13-14.

⁶⁷Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 59-63.

⁶⁸Ibid., pp. 75-76

⁶⁹Ibid., pp. 157-58.

⁷⁰Chandler B. Watson, "Roads of Jackson County," *Historical Special Collections*, Southern Oregon State College (1924), p. 1. The road extended from Jacksonville to what is now I-5 on a site between Medford and Phoenix. This is probably the old stage road.

⁷¹Ibid., p. 1

⁷²Helfrich, "Stagecoach to Linkville," *Klamath Echoes*, No. 11 (1973), pp. 15-17.

⁷³Barron's Station is on State Historic Preservation Office inventory form. See also, SHPO form for James and Ann H.H. Russel house, Ashland, for data on the Russells.

⁷⁴Sargent, "Sketch of the Rogue Valley," p. 9.

⁷⁵Watson, "Roads," p. 2.

⁷⁶Helfrich, "Stagecoach," p. 10.

⁷⁷See *Existing Site Data Compilation* for information and alternate names of the route.

⁷⁸Also called Annie Creek; present State Highway 62. Helfrich, "Stagecoach," p. 12.

⁷⁹See *Existing Site Data Compilation*. The BLM and Forest Service are cooperating to nominate the road to the National Register.

⁸⁰See *Existing Site Data Compilation* and Helfrich, "Stagecoach," p. 17.

⁸¹Helfrich, "Stagecoach," pp. 15-17 for a reprint of description by Stearns in 1909.

⁸²Ibid., p. 15

⁸³Ibid., p. 14.

⁸⁴Interview with Devere Helfrich by Lyman Deich, November 9, 1976; see *Existing Site Data Compilation*.

⁸⁵Ibid.

⁸⁶Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 159.

⁸⁷Winther, *Old Oregon*, pp. 294-95.

⁸⁸See Chapter 14, Overview, on O&C lands. Brown, *Rogue River*, p. 9.

⁸⁹For a discussion of the ramifications of the railroad for Jacksonville, see Francis D. Haines, Jr., *Jacksonville: Biography of a Gold Camp* (1967).

⁹⁰*Oregonian* (February, 1884), reprinted in Brown, *Rogue River*, p. 10.

⁹¹Haines, *Jacksonville*, chapter 8.

⁹²Brown, *Rogue River*, p. 11.

⁹³Mark E. Lawrence, "The Great Pacific and Eastern Railroad," n.d., n.p.

⁹⁴Ibid.

⁹⁵Ibid.

⁹⁶This is clearly marked on BLM ownership map.

⁹⁷K.A. Adams, *Logging Railroads of the West* (1961), Table 1.

⁹⁸On the ponderosa pine see Heald, "Cascade Holiday Inn," in Peattie, ed., *The Cascades*, p. 107; "Trees," *USDA Yearbook*, pp. 800-802.

99W.E. Lamm, *Lumbering in Klamath*, pamphlet (October, 1941).

100Ibid.

101For detailed write-up, see *The Timberman* (July, 1928).

102Lamm, *Lumbering*; section reprinted in Helfrich, *Klamath Echoes*, No. 7, p. 67.

103Helfrich, *Klamath Echoes*, No. 7, p. 67.

104O'Harra, *Ashland*, n.p.

105Marjorie O'Harra, "From the Desk of Marjorie O'Harra," *Medford Mail-Tribune*, 2 vols. (1964-1974), cited in Jeffrey LaLande, "Outlook," p. 41. This site is in the Rogue River National Forest.

106Originally Pacific and Eastern Railroad. Previously discussed in section railroads.

107Ralph W. Hidy, Frank E. Hill, and Allan Nevins, *Timber and Men: The Weyerhaeuser Story* (1963), n.p.

108Ibid. See Chapter 14, *Federal Government in the West*.

109Lamm, *Lumbering*.

110LaLande, "Outlook," p. 42.

111See *Existing Site Data Compilation*.

11. The Rogue River Indian Wars 1851-1856

INTRODUCTION

The Rogue River Wars of 1851-1856 were some of the most devastating Indian battles in Oregon history. Although there had been skirmishes with Indians from time to time since the first white explorers came into southwest Oregon, the conflict began in earnest in 1851, spreading all across southwest Oregon, from Klamath country to the coast, and encompassing the Planning Unit. The wars involved the Klamath, the Modoc, the Shasta, the Deschutes, the Upland and Lowland Takelma, the Umpquas, and the coastal Athabaskan-speaking tribes.

Most of the histories of the Rogue River Wars are written from the white perspective. For that reason the authors often attempt to justify the actions of settlers in southwest Oregon, without considering the devastating effects of white encroachment on Indian lands. The ultimate cause for the Rogue River Wars was the mutual desire of Indians and whites for land and resources in southwest Oregon.

The factions fighting for the land had conflicting and often mutually exclusive ways of exploiting the environment. Land clearing, farming, mining, and stock raising were at odds with the native hunting and gathering customs. Land clearing and farming resulted in the loss of native grass seeds, camas, and acorns, which the Indians relied on for subsistence. Deer and elk were hunted by both Indians and whites, and the supply of large game animals was rapidly depleted. Mining debris interfered with annual fish runs, which the Indians depended on. Because the adaptational activities of the whites and the Indians could not both be sustained by the land each sought to dominate, it is no wonder that the Rogue River Wars occurred.

The Rogue River Wars took place all over southwest Oregon, but this chapter will mostly point out those confrontations that occurred in the Planning Unit boundaries. The discussion is chronological, from the time of the earliest skirmishes until 1856 when the Indians were finally removed from southwest Oregon. Those encounters that took place on land now under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Land Management are noted.

EARLY SKIRMISHES

Many of the earliest hostile encounters with the Indians of southwest Oregon occurred on the coast and on the lower reaches of the major southwest Oregon rivers. The first skirmish with the Indians in or near the Planning Unit boundaries occurred on September 20, 1833, when the Indians ambushed the Work expedition, the second large overland party journeying from California to Oregon across the Siskiyou. This trapping party of ninety-four men, women, and children was attacked as they neared the Rogue River from Bear Creek. The fever-ridden expedition had only fifteen healthy men, but the Indians left, and by the 3rd of October, the party made its way out of the Rogue watershed and reached their destination of Fort Vancouver in late October.¹

In the summer of 1834, two Indians who visited the camp of the Young-Kelley party, which was taking horses and mules north from California to help colonize Oregon, were killed on an island in the Rogue River. The Young-Kelley party killed the two Indians because they feared that word would spread that they were ill with malaria and unable to withstand an Indian attack.²

Another skirmish in 1834 occurred at the base of the Siskiyou Mountains as a party of settlers made their way to California to buy cattle. Ten people in this expedition were killed by the Indians. The survivors, led by John Turner, escaped north to the Willamette Valley.³ In the spring of 1835, Turner was involved in another skirmish with the Indians of southwest Oregon. With seven other men, he left California to follow a trail to the Columbia River, but nothing was heard of the party until August when one of the survivors, Dr. William Bailey, came into Fort Vancouver after a fifteen-day journey from the Rogue Valley. A few days later, other survivors, among them Turner, arrived on the Columbia. They had been ambushed by the Indians in southern Oregon, and half their party was killed.⁴

The Ewing Young cattle driving expedition was also attacked by the Rogues on September 18, 1837. The ambush occurred near Rocky Point at the head of the Bear Creek Valley, but the cattle drivers were able to repulse the attackers. Rocky Point, or Rock Point, was a well-used Indian ambush site-- it is about two miles west of Gold Hill near the intersection of Sections 17, 18, 19, and 20, Township 36 south, Range 3 west. It is not on Bureau of Land Management land.

By 1846, when the Applegates began opening the Southern Oregon Trail, the Indians contested almost every intrusion of whites in their territory. In his notes on trailblazing the Southern Oregon Wagon Road, Lindsay Applegate noted that the Indians followed his party continually and that they saw signs

of clashes between the Indians and other travelers.⁵ Later, as immigrants traveled more along the southern Oregon route, the fear of Indian attacks grew, and sentiment against them mounted. Further, the Indians not only attacked parties of white settlers, they also took supplies and horses and cattle from the travelers.

1850 THROUGH 1856

In 1850, Oregon Territorial Governor Joseph Lane initiated the first government action toward the Rogue River Indians. Shortly before, a party of California miners was attacked near Rocky Point and robbed of their gold dust. When the miners reached the Willamette Valley, they complained vociferously to Lane. In June, Lane led fifteen whites and ten Klicitat Indians with their chief Quatley to the Rogue Valley, hoping to obtain the stolen gold and initiate a treaty with the Indians. When he reached the Rogue Valley, Lane camped on the south bank of the Rogue River and sent word that he wished to speak with the Indians. After some delay, two chiefs and a party of seventy-five warriors arrived at Lane's camp. Shortly after they began to talk, a second party of warriors came armed with bows and arrows. Lane invited them to join the meeting, but instructed Quatley to take the head chief of the Rogues hostage should trouble break out. This occurred as soon as Lane's speech was finished. Headman "Jo" apparently ordered his people to attack. "Jo" was seized by Quatley, however, who held a knife at his throat. "Jo" then ordered his warriors to lay down their arms. Lane, continuing to hold "Jo" hostage, ordered the Indians to return in two days.

During the time "Jo" was held hostage, Lane endeavored to make him understand the benefits of the treaty, promising him and his people gifts and the benefit of an Indian agent. Two days later, the rest of the Indians returned, bringing with them goods stolen from the miners, but without the gold, which had been dumped into the river because the Indians were unaware of its value. The Indians agreed to the treaty on the advise of "Jo," and to prevent the loss of Indian rights under the treaty, each member of the tribe was given a paper signed by Lane with a warning for anyone who would attempt to violate those rights.⁶

Despite this treaty, the Indians became more alarmed as parties of miners tramped up the rivers and streams of their territory in search of gold. In May, 1851, the Rogues attacked three members of a pack train on Bear Creek south of the Rogue River. Two of the packers escaped, but the third, David Dilley, was killed near the present-day community of Phoenix, just south of Medford.⁷ In retaliation, the miners shot two Indians and seized four others as hostages.

In June of 1851, there were several skirmishes just west of the Planning Unit, south of Grants Pass. On June 2nd or 3rd, the Rogues ambushed a mining party under Dr. James McBride on Bear Creek. There were 200 Indians and 31 whites, but the Indians left at the end of a four-hour battle after confiscating \$1,600 worth of gold dust and property.⁸

Attacks such as these greatly alarmed the white newcomers to southern Oregon. Joseph Lane volunteered to return to the Rogue country and negotiate a new peace, but at the same time a detachment of U.S. troops under Major Phillip Kearny was journeying south to find a new route that would avoid the Umpqua Canyon. Kearny was proceeding over the Umpqua and Rogue River divides toward Trail when he was informed of the outbreaks in the Rogue Valley, and that the Indians were massing near Table Rock. Kearny proceeded into the Rogue Valley with twenty-eight men, and on the 17th of June, 1851, he reached the Rogue River five miles below Table Rock. At this point he divided his troops into two forces, sending one on the south side of Table Rock under Captain Walker, and the other on the north side under Captain James Stuart. The latter party came upon the Indians quite prepared for an attack, and Stuart was mortally wounded in the battle. He was buried near Phoenix.⁹ Bear Creek was originally named for Stuart, but it was misspelled "Stewart."

After this encounter, Major Kearny sent to Yreka for enforcements, and Joseph Lane, with volunteers from the north, hastened to the Rogue Valley. Lane and Kearny joined forces on June 23, 1851. Lane estimated that about fifty Indians had been wounded or killed during encounters with his or Kearny's forces.¹⁰ Kearny had about thirty Indian hostages whom Lane placed in the custody of John Gaines, the governor of Oregon, and who came south to assist in the battles. On July 7, 1851, Governor Gaines again negotiated a peace with the Rogue River Indians, and for a time the Rogue Valley was quieter.¹¹

In September, however, the Indians attacked some miners along the Rogue River. Superintendent of Indian Affairs Anson Dart sent the new southern Oregon agent, A.A. Skinner, to bring gifts to the Indians near Umpqua Canyon and in the Rogue Valley.¹²

The next notable controversy between the Indians and the whites was over the ownership of land near the present-day community of Gold Hill. Sam, one of the head chiefs in the Rogue River Valley, claimed that Dr. George Ambrose had settled on land where Sam maintained his winter residence. Further, Sam was angered because he could not arrange a betrothal between his infant son and Dr. Ambrose's infant daughter.¹³ On July 15, 1852, there was a meeting of the Indians and whites at the Ambrose place. The Rogues told the whites

they were upset that miners were killing Indians in the Klamath Basin country and that they foresaw the same fate for themselves. The Rogues insisted they would resist, and the whites returned to Jacksonville with the story that Indian hostilities were imminent. A company of about eighty volunteers organized under John K. Lamerick in Jacksonville and marched to the Ambrose place. Fearing violence would erupt, Indian Agent Skinner convinced the volunteers to take no action until he met with the Indians. On July 17, the Indians and Skinner met near a gravel bar on the Rogue River south of Table Rock. Unfortunately, some volunteers from Yreka under Elisha Steele arrived at the scene, believing that the Rogue Indians were the cause of some murders near the Scott River in California. Earlier, Steele and his volunteers went into an Indian village on Bear Creek and took a prisoner, the son of a headman named Sullix.¹⁴ Upon arriving at the Rogue River, Steele demanded the Indians he thought responsible for the murders in California. Agent Skinner, fearing for the successful resolution of his negotiations, refused to turn over any Indians to Steele. A skirmish between Steele's volunteers and the Indians ensued, with Lamerick's forces assisting Steele. On July 18, Lamerick's men attacked a village at the mouth of Evans Creek. Most of the Indians scattered into the mountains, but the next day some of Sam's band were found hiding near Table Rock. On July 20, Agent Skinner negotiated a peace settlement. One of its terms was that the Rogue Indians have nothing to do with the Shastas, in order to prevent attacks on California miners.

Some Jackson County residents also participated in Indian incidents outside the Rogue Valley. On September 13, 1852, a party of twenty-two Rogue River settlers under John Ross joined forces with volunteers from Yreka under Ben Wright to patrol the Applegate Trail near Tule Lake, where the Modocs killed a number of immigrants near Bloody Point. After two months of patrolling, they returned to the Rogue Valley.¹⁵

Although some Grave Creek Indians were killed by miners on the mouth of Applegate Creek in the summer of 1853, the preceding winter had been harsh, and there were few conflicts with the Indians. In August of 1853, however, troubles began anew in the Rogue Valley. The Indians were blamed for a number of petty thefts and killings of travelers, miners, and settlers. On August 3, the mutilated body of a man named Edwards was found near Phoenix on Bear Creek. The next day, a miner named Noland was murdered at his cabin on Jackson Creek. On the morning of August 5, Thomas Wills was attacked by Indians at the edge of Jacksonville. He died from his wounds on August 17. In retaliation for these deaths, the miners captured two Shasta Indians and hanged them, as well as a nine-year-old Indian boy who was living with some miners on Butte Creek. The same day a party of volunteers under Isaac Hill killed six Indians a few miles from Ashland. Ten days later, the Indians murdered two men and wounded others at an immigrant camp near Ashland.

In addition to the volunteers who attempted to deal with the Indians, a contingent of ten men arrived from Fort Jones, California, under the command of Lt. Bradford R. Alden, and made their headquarters at Camp Stuart. While they were preparing this camp, the Rogues attacked five men at Willow Springs and killed two.¹⁶

There was more conflict with the Indians near the Applegate River. Some miners there volunteered to route the Indians, and on August 10, they attacked some Indians near the mouth of Sterling Creek, a tributary of the Little Applegate. On August 12, the miners were ambushed by Indians on Williams Creek.¹⁷

Meanwhile, in the valley, the volunteers under Lt. Alden attacked the Indians between Table Rock and the mouth of Evans Creek. Three companies of volunteers rode ahead to find Indian camps, and discovered them on Evans Creek. Two companies returned to Camp Stuart for reinforcements. On the night of August 17, 1853, the Rogues ambushed the volunteers who remained behind in a meadow near the creek. The warriors under Headman "Sam" had practically overcome the volunteers by the time reinforcements arrived. Before retreating, however, the Indians escaped with guns, ammunition, and blankets loaded on horses and mules. Six men were killed in this encounter.¹⁸ That same day, the Rogues killed at least six people in various places in the valley.

News of the outbreak traveled quickly through Oregon, and soon Joseph Lane was on his way to the Rogue country again. On August 21, he arrived at Camp Stuart where Lt. Alden's volunteers were placed under his command. Two battalions formed: one under John Ross, which proceeded down the Rogue and turned up Evans Creek into the mountains, and the other led by Alden and Lane, which went up the Rogue near Table Rock. The two battalions reunited in the wooded country north of Table Rock.¹⁹ The Indians became increasingly difficult to follow because of the smoke from fires they set in the hills to hinder their pursuers. The battalions returned to Evans Creek following the Indian trail and finally found the Indians at a place now known as Battle Mountain, where they had erected log fortifications. This important battle site is within the Planning Unit on Bureau of Land Management land, in the southeast quarter of Section 1, Township 33 south, Range 4 west. There is a large bull pine on Battle Mountain with a large notch in it which is thought by some to mark the burial site of three men killed by the Indians. The notch mark was located in 1957.²⁰ One of those who died was Pleasant Armstrong, a man for whom Pleasant Valley and Creek were named. Pleasant Creek flows through Bureau of Land Management land north and northwest of Battle Mountain, and there is Bureau of Land Management land in Pleasant Valley about three miles north of Wimer.

The whites finally won this battle after sustaining many dead. The wounded included Lt. Alden and General Lane. Lane nevertheless went forward to talk with "Jo," "Jim," and "Sam," the headmen who desired peace. They agreed to come to Table Rock for treaty talks. Meanwhile the soldiers buried their dead on Battle Mountain.

Several days before the treaty talks began, volunteers and Indians prepared for the negotiations at Camp Alden near Table Rock, which later became Fort Lane, in the southeast quarter of Section 19, Township 36 south, Range 2 west. There is Bureau of Land Management land on the western side of this section.

On September 10, 1853, the treaty talks were concluded with "Jo," "Sam," and "Jim," headmen of the Rogues. They agreed to give up titles to Indian land, live on a reservation, and give up their guns for blankets and clothing. They were to be paid for their land by the whites, but damage claims for the war were to be deducted from the payment.²¹

The reservation established for the Indians at the time of this treaty went as far west as Evans Creek, extending east to upper Table Rock and south to the Rogue River. A number of sections presently owned by the Bureau of Land Management were included in this Table Rock Reservation. The reservation was short-lived, as was Fort Lane, the military post established for the reservation, and for the continuing Indian encounters west in the Illinois Valley and south in the Siskiyou. About 100 men were on duty at Fort Lane.²²

Only half the Rogues, numbering about 290, accepted the conditions of the treaty and lived on the reservation. The rest held out, including those of Tipsey's band, who were the most warlike of the Rogues.

While the Treaty of 1853 quelled the Indian-white hostilities in the interior Rogue Valley, clashes continued west into the Illinois River Valley country and on the coast. In January, 1854, an altercation with some Shasta Indians took place in the southeast portion of the Planning Unit, at Salt Cave on the Klamath River. Some fifty men, women, and children had taken refuge there as they were pursued by a military detachment from Fort Jones. This detachment brought a Howitzer and fired scraps of metal into the cave until the Indians surrendered. Salt Cave was excavated by archaeologists from the University of Oregon in the 1960's, and scraps of metal were found on and near the cave surface.²³

In the winter months of 1853-1854, an epidemic struck the Table Rock Reservation. Many Rogues were allowed to leave in an attempt to save them from the disease, which may have been a type of flu. Additional problems were caused by the

warlike headman Tipsey, whose band vowed vengeance against the white settlers and the Indians who signed the Treaty of 1853. In April, 1854, members of his band murdered Tyee Jim, an Indian, and a miner named Edward Phillips.

During the hot, dry summer months, grasshoppers destroyed much of the native vegetation and the settlers' crops. These hard times brought new fears of Indian attacks, especially for immigrants coming through Modoc country on the Applegate Trail. Volunteers from the Rogue Valley went east to help patrol the trail and destroy Indian villages. Indian Agent Joel Palmer noted the effects of that summer on the Indians of the Table Rock Reservation:

I found the Indians of the Rogue River Valley excited and unsettled. The hostilities of last summer had prevented the storing of the usual quantities of food; the occupation of their best rootgrounds by the whites greatly abridged that resource; their scanty supplies and the unusual severity of the winter had induced disease, and death had swept away nearly one-fifth of those residing on the reserve. Consternation and dismay prevailed; many had fled, and others were preparing to fly to the mountains for security.²⁴

The Last Rogue Indian War, 1855-1856

In the spring and summer of 1855, there were clashes with Indians in areas outside the Planning Unit in northern California in the Siskiyou and along the Klamath River. Unfortunately, some Rogue Indians who had passes from the reservation were seen in northern California and were associated with the killing of twelve miners along the Klamath, Scott, and Shasta Rivers. In August, volunteers from northern California came to Fort Lane and demanded custody of those Indians--it was denied. Subsequently, a meeting was held at some miners' cabins on Sterling Creek in the Applegate country to decide the next move against the Indians. To further the Rogue Indian troubles, Tipsey's band was active in the Grants Pass area, and in the Siskiyou the tensions of a dry summer added to the growing unease in the Rogue Valley.

The War of 1855 began when a company of volunteers from Jacksonville, under James Lupton, massacred the people in an Indian village at the mouth of Butte Creek. This senseless slaughter brought reprisals on families of isolated settlers living between Table Rock and Vannoy's Ferry in Grants Pass. The Indians worked their way down the Rogue River and its tributaries, leaving a trail of murdered whites in their wake. Except for some forays into the Rogue River Valley, the War of 1855 was mostly confined to the Coast Range Mountains west of the Planning Unit, at such places as

Hungry Hill and Whiskey Creek. One exception was another massacre on Butte Creek on December 24, 1855, when volunteers again murdered people living in villages near the mouth of Butte Creek.²⁵ In January, 1856, there were skirmishes between the whites and the Indians in the Applegate country, where Indians were living in abandoned cabins.

It was becoming clear by this time that the Rogue River Wars would end only when the Indians were completely removed from their native homeland, and Indian Agent Palmer worked fast and hard to meet this goal. In January, 1856, Palmer began to move Umpqua, Calapuya, and Molalla Indians to the Grande Ronde Reservation on the Yamhill River in the Willamette Valley. Shortly afterward, 400 Indians from the Table Rock Reservation marched north to join them, leaving forever the land of their ancestors.²⁶

ENDNOTES

¹Alice Bay Maloney, ed., "Fur Brigade to the Bonaventura: John Work's California Expedition of 1832-33 for the Hudson's Bay Company," *California Historical Society Quarterly*, XXII, No. 3 (1943), No. 4; XXIII, No. 1 (1944), No. 2, cited in Stephen Dow Beckham, *Requiem for a People: The Rogue Indians and the Frontiersmen* (1971), pp. 30-32.

²Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 32-33.

³George M. Colvocoresses, *Four Years in a Government Exploring Expedition*, pp. 276-77, cited in Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 53.

⁴Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 33-34.

⁵Lindsay Applegate, "Notes and Reminiscences of Laying Out and Establishing the Old Emigrant Road into Southern Oregon in the Year 1846," *Oregon Historical Quarterly*, XXII, No. 1 (1921), pp. 16-20.

⁶Francis Fuller Victor, *Indian Wars of the Rogue River*, ed. by Dorothy Sutton and Jack Sutton (1969), pp. 1-6; Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 49.

⁷Sutton, *Indian Wars*, p. 13; Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 49.

⁸Sutton, *Indian Wars*, p. 14; Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 50.

⁹Sutton, *Indian Wars*, pp. 17-20. There is some controversy about whether Stuart was buried at Phoenix or Central Point, but diaries of his comrades, George B. McClellan and J.A. Cardwell, indicate the Phoenix Site.

¹⁰Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 52.

¹¹During Lane's and Kearny's skirmishes with the Indians, the Indians built a log barricade at Table Rock. On the 25th, the Indians abandoned this barricade, and went down the Rogue and up Sardine Creek, where they were overtaken by Kearny's forces. Some of the action may have taken place on BLM land, since there are parcels of it both east and west of this creek. See Sutton, *Indian Wars*, pp. 24-25.

¹²Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 67-68.

¹³Sutton, *Indian Wars*, p. 52.

¹⁴At this time there were several head chiefs of the Shasta-Rogue River Indians. "Sam" and "Jo" were head chiefs in the Rogue River Valley, and "Tipso" and "Sullix" were two headmen living on the northern base of the Siskiyou.

¹⁵Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 80; Sutton, *Indian Wars*, pp. 59-64.

¹⁶Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 117; Sutton, *Indian Wars*, p. 81. Sutton noted that the body of one of the murdered men was horribly mutilated.

¹⁷Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 118.

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 118-19; Sutton, *Indian Wars*, pp. 83-85.

¹⁹Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 119; Sutton, *Indian Wars*, p. 86. These battalions may have passed over what is presently BLM land, although the BLM sections are rather scattered in the area.

²⁰See Sutton, *Indian Wars*, p. 89, for a picture of this notch mark.

²¹Beckham, *Requiem*, pp. 122-23; Sutton, *Indian Wars*, pp. 89-98.

²²Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 127.

²³Ibid., p. 140; Sutton, *Indian Wars*, pp. 109-11 (see *Sacramento Bee* (January 13, 1965) news clipping in the Shasta Indian file at the Jackson County Museum, Jacksonville. Includes pictures of the cave).

²⁴Cited from Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 144.

²⁵Beckham, *Requiem*, p. 164.

²⁶Life on the reservation is discussed in Section II. Not all the Indians left southern Oregon--a few women were permitted to remain, and some escaped the reservations and returned. See Sutton, *Indian Wars*, p. 289.

12. Impacts on Indian Culture

INTRODUCTION

There were many changes in the native way of life resulting from European contact. Two studies of this culture change among the Klamath have been prepared in recent years.¹ Less detailed information is available on Takelma culture change because of their eventual extinction and lack of knowledge about their pre-reservation life.

The Takelma reacted with much more hostility to white settlement on their land than did the Klamath. This hostility, which led to their participation in the Rogue River Wars of 1851-56, prompted their removal to far-away reservations. The Klamath, on the other hand, feared the hostile Snake Indians, and they requested a treaty with the whites, hoping for protection and European goods.² The whites were anxious to comply with this request, and the Klamath Reservation was established in 1864 within former tribal boundaries. Therefore, the impact of reservation life on the Klamath was not nearly so devastating as it was for the Takelma, who had to adapt to a land they had never seen.

THE MOVEMENT OF THE MOLALLA

The earliest indication of imminent change for the Indian groups in the Planning Unit was the arrival of the Molalla in the northeastern portion of the Unit on the upper Rogue River drainage sometime after 1750. The Molalla were refugees from the Deschutes and Warm Springs country--they were pushed westward by the raiding Snake Indians, a Shoshonean-speaking tribe.

The Snakes were raiding eastern Oregon as the direct result of a European introduction, the horse.³ Horses were brought to North America by the Spanish, who settled in the Southwest in the 1600's. By the 1700's, due to Indian trade networks, horses had arrived in sufficient numbers in the northern Plains to produce a culture change well known in western history--the Plains Indian. These Indians began a concerted effort to expand their territory, and as a result, their culture traits spread far beyond the Plains.

THE KLAMATH: IMPACT OF CONTACT TO 1864

The Klamath participated in the Indian trading network at The Dalles, Oregon. This exposed them to not only the Columbia Plateau Indian groups, but also to the Plains Indians who were taking part in the trade. Prior to 1835, the Klamath did not journey to The Dalles themselves, but traded through intermediaries.⁴

In 1826, shortly before the Klamath began trading directly at The Dalles, the first white trappers led by Finan McDonald came into Klamath territory. In 1826-1827, Peter Skene Ogden passed through Klamath territory during his Snake Country Expeditions. Although Ogden traded with the Klamath for dogs and food, his diary does not mention specifically the items he gave them. However, the trade items taken along on the Snake Country Expeditions are known:

...awls, scalpors and common English butcher knives, blue and green glass necklace beads, blankets, blue and red baize, brass rings and wire, fishing lines, Fort Vancouver-made axes, hawks' bells, bastard files, highland garters, combs, east Indian print cotton, cordoruy, flannel, scissors, looking glasses, buttons and European cloth jackets--the latter slightly damaged goods. Ogden even had some gunpowder, lead and two old second-hand muskets for the most demanding barterers...like McLoughlin, he was chary about giving guns to Indians, even the cranky old trade muskets....He knew that the hostile tribes had too many arms already, taken from murdered whites and Iroquois, looted from caches, and purchased from unscrupulous traders.⁵

Ogden observed at this time that the Klamath had only one horse and no firearms.

In 1835, some French Canadian trappers were in Klamath country at the mouth of the Williamson River. In exchange for domesticated Klamath dogs, they gave buttons and perforated metal discs. At the same time there were whites moving north on the west side of Klamath Lake, but they had no contact with the Klamath. The Klamath saw their horses, axes, and food, and after the whites broke camp, the Indians discovered some flour left behind and smeared it on their faces.⁶

By 1840, several Klamath individuals owned a large number of horses, which probably stimulated trade, warfare, and the concept of wealth. The Klamath had also begun to adopt the Plains style of dress and to use Plains items like parfleches and buffalo skins.⁷

The introduction of horses and the Plains-Plateau wealth concept caused changes in the Klamath socio-political structure. Before contact, shamans exerted tremendous influence in Klamath communities, but the accumulation of wealth--mainly horses and slaves--and the need for political authority in the face of growing pressure from hostile tribes and whites led to the designation of a wealthy non-shaman, *Lalakes*, as head of the Klamath.⁸ Nonetheless, there was still a great deal of autonomy among the Klamath tribes, which did not disappear until long after the establishment of the Klamath Reservation.

CHANGES AFTER THE TREATY OF 1864

Economic Change

One of the priorities of the American government after the establishment of the Klamath Reservation in 1864 was the introduction of agriculture to replace the native hunting and gathering subsistence. Unfortunately, the Klamath attempts at agriculture were disastrous--vegetable crops failed, and severe frosts forced them to subsist on native foods. Klamath Chief Allen David claimed that they did not have sufficient tools, money, or instruction from the whites to raise crops.

Because hay crops were successful on the Klamath Reservation, it was decided in 1870 that they should try cattle raising. Two hundred and thirty-five cattle were distributed to them between 1878 and 1881, but a severe winter in 1880 killed about 75 per cent of the cattle.⁹

About 665,185 acres of the Klamath Reservation were forest lands. These contained the largest stand of ponderosa pine on any Indian Reservation in the United States. Around the turn of the century, large-scale logging operations began on the Reservation, and income from timber was an important source of revenue. By 1920, the total annual cut was 120,000,000 board feet. For this timber the Klamath received per capita payments, which amounted to approximately \$800 per person each year between 1939 and 1954.¹⁰

The Treaty of 1864 authorized the U.S. government to assign 120 acres to each head of household, with restrictions from levy, sale, or forfeiture until the government decided the Klamath would benefit from the removal of these restrictions. Under the General Allotment Act of 1887, tribal lands were assigned to individual tribal members, with the titles held in trust by the government.¹¹ This led to conflicts among the Indians because division into privately owned plots was not an aboriginal custom.¹²

The Klamath also constructed fences and roads in exchange for rations of beef and flour. At the boarding school established in 1875, they received training in farming, blacksmithing, and carpentry. A general store was established early in the history of the Reservation, so the Klamath had to learn to handle money and the foreign concepts of debt and credit.

Material Culture Change

The Klamath abandoned many items of aboriginal life necessary for hunting and gathering activities as they adapted to agriculture, cattle raising, and lumbering. In 1870, they were asked to build houses like those of the whites instead of their earth lodges--a change that was resisted at first because the earth lodges were warmer.¹³ By 1877, European dress was prevalent among the Klamath (this transition took place earlier among the men than among the women, because government rations of clothes consisted mostly of soldiers' clothing).

Socio-political Change

Because many Indian customs were directly opposed to the moral standards of the white settlers, the government issued directives to abolish them. These customs included polygamous marriage, cremation of the dead, and payment of the bride price in marriage. Liasons between Indian women and white men were also forbidden.

The headmen played an important role in adopting white customs. They were given responsibilities that put them in positions of authority on the reservation. *Lalakes* was elected head of the tribe, and under his leadership a rigorous system of government was established, with the civil and criminal authority (including a prison system) vested in him. The chiefs were elected, but they had to answer to Indian agents, so their ability to speak English became an important criterion. The chief also controlled marriages--payments for brides were given to him, rather than to the woman's family. The rise of the chief did much to undermine the authority of the extended family, which was also eroded because nuclear families lived by themselves in the new American houses.¹⁴

Shamans and Religion

While the shamans were losing their power to wealthy individuals after trading began at The Dalles, they were still an important element in Klamath society--more important than the Indian agents realized. Because the Klamath believed shamans had supernatural power, they were not anxious to dispose of them for fear of retaliation. When many Indians became sick after the reservation was established, they did not trust the white doctors and preferred the attention of the shamans. They would not take medicine internally because they feared attempts to poison them by white doctors.¹⁵

An Indian revivalistic movement, the Ghost Dance, came into vogue on the Klamath Reservation in 1871. Ghost Dance practitioners believed that if they danced in a prescribed fashion, the dead would return, along with the animals, fish, and food that had been a part of aboriginal subsistence. This dance was done in the open until four large dance lodges were built.¹⁶ Leslie Spier stated that the chiefs encouraged the Ghost Dance to check the rival power of shamans. However, another anthropologist, Hiroto Zakoji, stated that two Modoc shamans became Ghost Dance leaders. Further, although the Ghost Dance ended in 1873 with the end of the Modoc War, it continued as a secret ritual for a number of years, and shamanism persisted with it. Both the Ghost Dance and shamanism declined, however, as fewer Indians continued to participate, as treatment by white doctors became more acceptable, and as shamans themselves began to believe their power was slipping away.¹⁷

As early as 1838, missionaries were entrenched at The Dalles. It is therefore likely that the Klamath's first exposure to Christianity occurred there.¹⁸ In 1878, a Methodist Church was built on the reservation, and services were conducted in Klamath. Its preacher condemned the aboriginal Klamath beliefs, so the church on the reservation had a political as well as a religious significance.

To conclude, the reservation forced changes in the aboriginal religious and mythological views, and spelled an end for shamans as well. These changes took a number of years to accomplish, however, as did most changes in the Klamath way of life after European contact.

THE TAKELMA

Very little is known about the changes in Takelma culture after the whites came into their territory and before they were removed to the reservation. They undoubtedly received trade items from the trappers who came into their region in the 1820's, and they may also have obtained European trade goods from the tribes around them: the Umpqua to the north, the Athabaskans downriver to the west, and the Shasta to the south. Ogden noted no horses or firearms among the Takelma. Early on, however, the Takelma and other Indians in the Rogue country demonstrated hostility to white intrusions, and much of it was due to the rape of Indian women by white males. Additionally, the Indians were angry with white intrusions because of the introduction of diseases (small pox and malaria), and also because the trappers refused to give them guns.¹⁹ On September 20, 1833, the Indians attacked a trapping party under John Turner of the Hudson Bay Company when it reached the Rogue River after traveling north through the Bear Creek Valley.²⁰

-By 1833 as many as 250 people had traveled the Oregon-California land route through the Rogue country.²¹ The Indians often asked travelers through their territory for guns, asserting that they were friendly, but their requests were seldom met.²²

One result of the cattle drives over the California-Oregon land route was that some cattle strayed off and became wild. Lt. Emmons of the Wilkes Expedition noted, as he proceeded south from the Umpqua River, that the Indians had put up pens to trap these wild cattle.²³ Emmons also noted that one Indian wore a Hudson Bay shirt and another a conical American hat, and there were horse hoof prints that were not from his party. He suspected that the horse had been stolen by the Indians.²⁴

This early contact and its impact upon the Rogue Indians is mostly described in short travelers' accounts rather than in academic analyses. The descriptions note the clothing, horses, and tools the Rogues were able to obtain from whites. The changes that might have taken place in their social organization or religion as a result of this contact are unknown.

In 1846, the whites' first heavy use of the Rogue country began with the arrival of the Applegate families, Levi Scott, and a number of other Willamette Valley people. Their plan for southwest Oregon was to open a southern wagon route. The opening of the Applegate Cutoff from the Rogue Valley to the Klamath Basin brought a number of travelers in wagon trains through the Rogue Valley. Later, settlers came to southwest Oregon. Their hogs ate the acorns, and their cattle destroyed the camas--both staple foods for the Takelma. After mining began, salmon could not survive in the debris-choked streams. It is no wonder the Takelma were hostile--their basic foods were disappearing because of white activities.

The continued attacks on trappers, immigrants, settlers, and miners in the Rogue country brought white wrath on these Indians. Not only were there Indian attacks, but goods and horses were being stolen. The continued hostilities between whites and Indians led to the Rogue River Wars of 1851-1856, which were discussed in chapter 11. The rest of this chapter will consider the changes the Takelma underwent on the reservation.

Culture Change on the Reservation

The Indians who survived the Rogue River Wars were ordered out of southern Oregon in 1856 by Indian Superintendent Joel Palmer. The military was ordered to bring these Indians to the Grande Ronde Reservation on the south Yamhill River.

Other Takelma were placed on the headwaters of the Siletz River in the Coast Mountains. In 1855, President Pierce ordered the formation of the Siletz Reservation, whose boundaries ran from Netarts Bay to the Siltcoos River, reaching inland to the Coast Range summit. In 1857, President Buchanan established the Grande Ronde Reservation, although Superintendent Palmer had already established Indians on property he had purchased there from white settlers.

The changes for the Takelma came from two sources: 1) their sharing the reservation with other Indian tribes, and 2) the government policies toward reservation Indians. Living with other Indians probably caused the adoption of foreign Indian and American customs and the loss of others, although the specifics of this change are unknown.²⁵ There were also changes in language as the Indians communicated with one another. Because the Athabaskan speakers were the largest reservation group, many of their words were adopted by the other Indians. English was learned as well.

Material Culture Change

When the Rogue River people went to the reservation, they had to leave behind many personal possessions. Without their tools, they could not build new homes. Their guns were taken away. Furthermore, unless their tribes had ratified the treaties, they were not eligible for either food or clothing. And if they had ratified the treaties, the Indians had to purchase these supplies by the sale of their homeland to the government.

Economic Change

The Indian agents on the Siletz and Grande Ronde Reservations had a special fund for distributing food and clothing to the Indians, but the main thrust of government policy was to teach the Indians how to farm. Two years of attempted farming produced disastrous results, however. The soil at Grande Ronde was unsuitable for many crops, and ferns overran the gardens on the Siletz. An attempt to operate a grist mill on the Grande Ronde Reservation also failed. The Indians were given tools to farm with, but most of them were damaged and could not be used. The Indians could not hunt, because of the lack of guns, and they could not find enough material to make snares. In 1858 the Indian agent at Siletz observed that in a year almost a third of the Indians had died, and many were ill.

Education

Schools were established early on the reservations, but students were often sick, and few teachers stayed for any length of time. Reading and writing English was emphasized at first. Later, the education program focused on teaching the boys to be blacksmiths and carpenters, while the girls learned cooking, sewing, and cleaning. One of the ways of implementing culture change among the Indians was to separate families by sending children to far-away boarding schools, such as the Indian Manual Labor Training Center in Forest Grove, Oregon, or the Chemawa Training School in Salem. At these schools the students were issued uniforms and their hair was cut.²⁶

FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND THE INDIANS

A number of federal laws have had an impact on Oregon Indians, and the results have been mostly negative.

The Organic Act of 1848 created the Oregon Territory and confirmed the Indians as rightful owners of their land within it. In 1850 however, Congress passed the Donation Land Act, which resulted in the nationwide loss of Indian lands to white settlers. More than 7,600 settlers took advantage of this act, and 90 per cent of the land they took had not been secured by treaty (most treaties attempted to limit the reservation boundaries of the Indians).²⁷ After reservations were established, various laws like the Donation Act were passed, resulting in parcels of Indian land going to non-Indians.

The Allotment Act of 1887 authorized the Secretary of the Interior to purchase land from tribes not needed by its members and to open land for public sale. This act and subsequent similar policies resulted in the loss of 90,000,000 acres of Indian land between 1887 and 1934, when the allotment policy ended.²⁸ Under the Allotment Act, Indians were allowed U.S. citizenship, but state governments could refuse to grant state citizenship. The idea behind citizenship was to encourage the Indians to give up their customs and to assimilate. This did not occur, however, and the result of the Allotment Act was simply loss of Indian lands.

Until 1930, the Indians were under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. This agency tried to teach the Indians American ways without regard for native identity. The Bureau drew much criticism, and anthropologist John Collier was appointed Commissioner of Indian Affairs. In 1934, under his guidance, the Indian Reorganization Act, which gave the Indians self-government, was passed. Under this program the Indians were able to advance in health care, education, and

land conservation. Nonetheless, after fifteen years the Indians began to agitate to end their special status within the United States. They also objected strenuously to the Bureau of Indian Affairs--they felt the Bureau had grown far too large and should be terminated. The philosophy that arose from their actions was that of "termination," which allowed federal control of Indians to end.

In the early 1950's, the Bureau of Indian Affairs accepted termination and began plans to implement it. In 1953, the passage of House Concurrent Resolution 108 meant Congressional approval for this policy and Congressional intent for Indians to be subject to the same laws as other citizens. In the same year, Public Law 280 was passed by Congress, which ended federal, but not state, jurisdiction over Indian land. As a result, the Indians became legally answerable to state and local governments, rather than to tribal governments or federal agencies.

Congress passed two laws, Public Law 587 and Public Law 588, in 1954 to terminate the Klamath Tribe and the Oregon Indian Tribe under the Grande Ronde-Siletz Agency. Under these laws, each tribe had to inventory its members in order to establish property rights for tribal assets.

The Indians did not all agree on termination. Some believed that it would result in the cutoff of federal aid and treaty rights; but others favored an end to tribal status, thinking they would gain full citizenship with the end of federal control.

After the termination policies were effected, the Klamath and Siletz Indians lost federal educational services, health care, and other beneficial programs. Much more Indian land was lost as individual tribal members sold their land for cash payments, although some individuals retained property titles. Many Indians electing for cash payments rapidly lost their money through misuse and cheating on the part of local businessmen. The last land remaining in the Klamath Reservation was sold in 1973. The government also sold the Siletz Reservation, except for the tribal cemetery, which was given to the town of Siletz by the Bureau of Land Management.

Thus ends the story of the impact of European settlement on the native inhabitants of Oregon. There are no Shasta or Takelma left, and the Klamath, many residing near their former reservation and native land, still struggle to adapt to the two worlds they inherited.

INDIAN HISTORY ENDNOTES

¹Theodore Stern, *The Klamath People* (1966); Hiroto Zakoji, *Klamath Culture Change*, M.A. Thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of Oregon (1953).

²Zakoji, *Klamath*, pp. 45-46.

³Joel V. Berreman, "Tribal Distribution in Oregon," *Memoirs of the American Anthropological Association*, No. 47 (1937), pp. 55-64.

⁴Zakoji, *Klamath*, p. 33.

⁵Richard Dillon, *Siskiyou Trail: The Hudson Bay Fur Company Route to California* (1975), p. 44.

⁶Zakoji, *Klamath*, p. 32.

⁷Leslie Spier, *University of California Publications in Anthropology and Ethnology*, Vol. XXX: *Klamath Ethnography* (1930), p. 43.

⁸Zakoji, *Klamath*, p. 23. See also Spier, *Klamath Ethnography*, p. 35, and Stern, *The Klamath People*, pp. 75-94. Stern's discussion of political change is concerned mostly with post-1864.

⁹Zakoji, *Klamath*, pp. 56-57.

¹⁰*Oregon Termination: A Study of the Process and Effects of the Federal Government's Policy of Termination on the Lives of the Oregon Indians*, Task Force No. 10, The American Indian Policy Review Commission (Eugene, 1976), p. 15.

¹¹*Oregon Termination*, pp. 14-15. Without government permission, Indians could not sell the land.

¹²Zakoji, *Klamath*, p. 55.

¹³Ibid., pp. 57-58.

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 77-82.

¹⁵Ibid., pp. 63-64.

¹⁶Leslie Spier, "The Ghost Dance of 1870 Among the Klamath of Oregon," *University of Washington Publications in Anthropology*, II, No. 2 (1927), pp. 39-56.

¹⁷Spier, "Ghost Dance," p. 51; Zakoji, *Klamath*, pp. 69-70; and Stern, *The Klamath People*, pp. 111-21.

¹⁸H.H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific States*, I (1888), p. 164.

¹⁹Dillon, *Siskiyou Trail*, p. 296. There are reports of Indians attempting to trade women for guns.

²⁰Alice B. Maloney, "Fur Brigade to the Bonaventura," *California Historical Society Quarterly*, XXIII, No. 2 (1944), pp. 139-40.

²¹Stephen D. Beckham, *Requiem for a People: The Rogue Indians and the Frontiersmen* (1971), p. 32.

²²Dillon, *Siskiyou Trail*, pp. 303-4.

²³Ibid., p. 305.

²⁴Ibid., p. 314.

²⁵One custom that emerged on the reservations was a celebration on the 4th of July, which combined American and Indian events, such as a picnic and a feather dance.

²⁶The material for these sections comes from a recently published book which describes some of the changes reservation life imposed on the Indians of southwest Oregon: Stephen D. Beckham, *The Indians of Western Oregon--This Land Was Theirs* (1977), Chapter 10, "The Reservation Years," Some information also came from the *Oregon Termination* study of 1976.

²⁷*Oregon Termination*, p. 17.

²⁸Ibid., p. 4.

²⁹*Oregon Termination* and Beckham, *Indians of Western Oregon*

13. Non-Western and Minority Groups

This chapter deals with non-western peoples and minority groups that were significant to the early history of the Planning Unit. Included are Chinese, Hawaiians, Blacks, and Jews. The majority of early settlers in the Rogue River Valley were white Christian males who came for gold in the 1850's. American miners discriminated against foreigners of non-caucasian races. Thus, in addition to the Indians, the Chinese, Hawaiians, and Blacks were targets of racial prejudice.

While the Jews are not technically non-western, they were not part of the mainstream of miners who came up from California, or farmers who traveled west on wagon trains over the Oregon and Applegate Trails. Their role in the early history of the Jacksonville area is significant and unique.

Women were a minority. The ratio of men to women during the mining era was about twelve to one, and at times it was as high as twenty-four to one. Like the racial minorities, women were denied suffrage and participation in the judicial process. The important contributions of women to the early settlement and civilizing of the southern Oregon area have been largely ignored and clearly merit attention. Although a detailed narrative of the historical role of women is not within the scope of the project (because they cannot be included in the categories of "non-western" or "indigenous" as specified in the contract), some consideration of women in the history of the Planning Unit is incorporated into the Overview when possible.

THE CHINESE

Early Contact Between China and the Northwest

In 1784 the American ship *Empress of China* carried the new nation's flag to China and was soon followed by other American ships. In 1786, five American vessels entered Canton harbor. That same year a U.S. consul to China was created, but it was placed in Macao according to the Chinese restrictions. By 1807 thirty-six American ships from east coast ports participated in the China trade.¹ Ambitious American traders in search of seal skins to trade with the Chinese expanded their hunting territory from the South Seas to the Pacific Northwest. It has been suggested that the Americans' eventual possession

of Oregon and Washington was due to the keen desire of the Chinese aristocracy for furs and the American ambition to maintain that market.²

The first Chinese to arrive on the Northwest Coast were fifty Chinese carpenters, coopers, armorers, and craftsmen who came to Nootka Sound on two ships under John Meares in 1788.³ They built a two-story fort at Nootka Sound and launched the schooner *North West America*, the first sailing vessel built on the Northwest Coast. Three Chinese were among the crew of the schooner on its first voyage to the Queen Charlotte Islands. In 1789, two additional ships owned by Meares recruited twenty-nine Chinese to settle at Nootka Sound. The Spanish captured these settlers and sent them to labor in San Blas, Mexico, before releasing them in 1790.

Captain Metcalf, an American, carried forty-five Chinese to the Northwest Coast in 1789.⁴ In 1794, the American ship *Jefferson* picked up some Chinese at Nootka.⁵ The Hudson's Bay Company's log at Fort Nisqually recorded two Chinese held prisoner by Indians and also stated that the Chinese came from Fort Vancouver in 1834. In 1838, the brig *Boliyar* sailed into San Francisco Bay carrying a Chinese cabin boy.⁶ Three Chinese, two men and a woman, arrived on the ship *Eagle* with Charles V. Gillespie on February 2, 1848.⁷

The opening of ports after the Opium War of 1840 with England forced the isolationist Chinese into greater contact with the outside world. By about 1845, many Chinese were employed in the well-established China shipping lines between Canton and Macao and San Francisco and the West Coast. Word of the vast expanses of unoccupied land in Oregon, and in 1849, news of the California Gold Rush, were sent back to the mainland.

Emigration of Chinese Labor

There were a number of causes for Chinese emigration during the second half of the nineteenth century. Conditions in China had become severe. The land was overpopulated, and economic deterioration encouraged peasants to leave home. The unskilled laborer, weighed down by heavy taxation from the land-owning aristocracy, was hard-pressed to make a living. The political turmoil in China, both civil and foreign, resulted in even more oppressive treatment of the peasants. There were major rebellions in the first half of the century, culminating in the T'ai-p'ing Rebellion of 1851-1864. The Opium Wars with England resulted in western commercial dominance in China and facilitated large imports of trade goods from western nations. Western trade caused additional hardship for peasants as it undermined the self-sufficient agricultural economy of China and ruined native handicraft industries.⁸

At the same time, large-scale development was taking place in the colonies of the European powers and in the frontier areas of the United States that required large quantities of cheap labor. The U.S. Constitution banned the African slave trade after 1820. The British Act of Emancipation of 1833 freed black slaves, but left mine owners and colonial planters in Cuba and Peru without a source of cheap labor. The use of contract laborers began in the late 1830's, and Chinese laborers were imported to the Western Hemisphere in the late 1840's. The contract labor system, or "Coolie" trade, was often a modified form of slave trade. Local recruiters (crimps) received seven to ten dollars per head and often used deceit or force to obtain signatures on contracts. Inhumane treatment was frequent and the mortality rate high.

During the early 1850's, Chinese contract labor was introduced to California, but the practice was evidently discontinued by the mid-1850's in favor of the credit-ticket system after efforts to legalize contract labor in California failed. Anti-slavery sentiment was a major obstacle to the establishment of the contract labor system. Under the credit-ticket system, passage money was advanced to the emigrant, who was expected to repay the debt from his earnings in America. A small number emigrated to California and Oregon independently by mortgaging farm lands or borrowing money from friends or relatives. Most Chinese laborers and miners came from Canton or Kwang-tung. Most laborers enlisted under the patronage of one of six Chinese companies in San Francisco that acted as employment agencies and bankers and collected a certain percentage of the laborer's wages. They provided unskilled labor for employers, first in the mining regions and later in railroad construction and canneries. In return they were bound to return the laborers' bones to China for proper burial.⁹

Chinese Miners in Southwestern Oregon

Chinese miners arrived in the mining regions of southwestern Oregon soon after the 1851-1852 gold discoveries in the Rogue River Valley. Mine owners in Jackson and Josephine Counties contracted with "bosses" for a supply of cheap labor to work the gold fields. The steamer *Columbia* made regularly scheduled stops at Port Orford in 1851. The vessel's steerage could carry more than 200 Chinese laborers. Some independent Chinese miners arrived to work on their own, usually working placers that the white miners abandoned in the race for richer lodes. Through painstaking, industrious labor, these Chinese yielded large quantities of gold from the abandoned mines.

There are no statistics for the number of Chinese in Jackson County during the 1850's, although it is known that in 1857 there were 1,000 to 1,200 of them working in Josephine County.¹⁰ Considering that Jacksonville was the commercial

and overland transportation center and that there was a continual migration of white miners from the northern California mines to the Rogue Valley mines, it is probably that at least as many Chinese were in Jackson County.

Their hard work, their vastly different lifestyle, and their numbers threatened the caucasian miners from the beginning. The Chinese lived spartan lives, saving their earnings or sending them back to China. Local businesses felt the Chinese miners were investing enough of their money in the local economy. In the mid-1850's, Jackson and Josephine Counties charged the Chinese engaged in trade a fifty-dollar monthly fee.¹¹ Chinese miners were taxed two dollars per month in 1857, and the levy was doubled in 1858. The Oregon Constitution, ratified in 1857, denied Chinese, Blacks, and mulattoes the right of suffrage.¹² It also stated that Chinese who were not residents of the state at the time of the adoption of the state constitution were forbidden to own real estate or mining claims, or to work any mining claims.¹³

When the Rogue Valley mines became less productive, and miners eagerly moved to newly discovered finds in the 1860's, they were anxious to sell their claims to Chinese companies or individuals. Either constitutional law was ignored, or there were far more Chinese in the county before 1857 than the records indicate. Jackson County records show numerous conveyances of mining claims from whites to Chinese during the 1860's and 1870's. Certain areas were known as "China Diggings" and were worked almost exclusively by Chinese. The Chinese in Jackson County numbered 300 in 1863, 634 in 1870, 323 in 1880, and 224 in 1890. In 1870, one person in eight was Chinese.¹⁴ The anti-Chinese agitation that developed in California in 1865 caused the Chinese to move to Oregon mines. Their reception was hardly warmer in Oregon by the mid-1860's, however, The *Oregonian* of May 4, 1866, remarked that "the moon-eyed pests are coming by every steamer, 200 arrived this week."¹⁵

Individual mining districts feeling the influx of Chinese mining activities in the 1860's passed repressive laws. The law in the Jackass Creek (Forest Creek) and Poor-man's Creek districts in 1876 stated:

No Mongolian or alien who has not declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States shall ever hold or work any mining claim in this district.¹⁶

Humbug Creek passed a similar law forbidding Chinese from purchasing or holding claims on the creek.¹⁷ The 1860 mining laws of Jacksonville are full of restrictive acts against the Chinese owning or working claims.¹⁸ Apparently, the Jackson Creek area was being entirely mined by Chinese in 1864.

In 1862 the Oregon Legislature enacted a poll tax. Section I stated:

That each and every negro, chinaman, kanaka, and mulatto residing within the limits of this state, shall pay an annual poll-tax of five dollars for the use of the county in which such negro, chinaman, kanaka, or mulatto may reside.¹⁹

The law further stated that if they could not pay the tax, they should be required to do road work in exchange.²⁰ In 1864, all former state laws relating to the Chinese were repealed, and a new act was passed banning all those not born in the United States from mining, unless they paid four dollars per quarter.²¹ Their property would be seized if they failed to pay this tax. All employers were liable to a tax for employing Chinese. Bancroft stated that:

In 1861 Jackson and Josephine Counties reaped an income of ten thousand dollars from Chinese taxation, that no Chinese could bring a suit against a white, that all Chinese evidence was banned in the courts, and that any Chinese caught brawling was fined fifty dollars.²²

As suggested above, the fact that there were so many Chinese miners during the 1860's in spite of state and local laws supports the theory of a large influx of Chinese into the state before the Constitution was adopted, or else the more probable theory that, when expedient for white miners, the laws were ignored.²³ The tremendous sums collected by Jackson and Josephine Counties indicate that some of the larger Chinese mining companies had businesses lucrative enough to afford the taxes. In any case, those mining claims abandoned by the whites were easily available to Chinese during the 1860's. In 1870, of 3,965 miners in Oregon, 2,428 or 61.2 per cent were Chinese.²⁴

Gin Lin

Some Chinese companies that bought out white mining claims were Tan and Company, Wong and Company, Lo and Company, and Lin and Company. Of these, the most numerous and well-known holding were those of Gin Lin. Gin Lin was in Jackson County as early as 1864 when he bought property from John A. Wilson including the Wilson ranch at Bunkum, the field up the gulch known as the "Horse Pasture," all of Wilson's mining claims at Bunkum with all the flumes and sluices and tools, and Wilson's ditch, except for one sluice head belonging to Phillips.²⁵ He had an extensive hydraulic operation near the mouth of the Little Applegate River on property purchased from Cameron Brothers near Union Town. To get the desired water

pressure necessary to operate two very large hydraulic giants, Gin Lin constructed a canal known as China Ditch from the Applegate River around the mountain about fifteen or twenty miles, bringing water in at an elevation of several hundred or more feet. The gravel deposit he mined was thirty or thirty-five feet deep, and many of the boulders to be removed were very large, requiring large sluice boxes.²⁶ Evidence of this mine and the China Ditch are still visible.²⁷

In 1881, Gin Lin purchased a claim on upper Palmer Creek that may have been the site of the present-day "Chinese Walls." Gin Lin purchased another large hydraulic mine on Galice Creek. When he died in China in 1897, Gin Lin owned 196 acres of land on Pleasant Creek, Palmer Creek and elsewhere, although he had never been a citizen of the United States. Gin Lin employed mostly Chinese, of whom four or five hundred lived in Jacksonville's Chinatown on California Street.

Other Occupations

As the mines gave out the Chinese laborers began working in other occupations. Many were employed by canneries in the growing fishing industry of the Northwest Coast. Others moved to California and became involved in agriculture. Some Chinese became very successful rice producers in California's agricultural valleys. Those Chinese who remained in Jackson County mostly became employed as domestic servants or cooks. A number of Chinese ran laundries in Jacksonville and Ashland. When railroad construction began, some of the early Chinese emigrants helped build the new lines.

The Chinese and the Railroads

Railroad construction in Oregon took place between 1868 and 1888.²⁸ Labor on the western railroad lines was almost entirely performed by Chinese. In his memoirs, Henry Villard remarked that the railroads would not have been built without Chinese labor and that 15,000 of a total of 25,000 railroad workers were Chinese.²⁹ Most Chinese railroad workers were imported from China in the 1870's and early 1880's. More were brought to Oregon for railroad construction than had migrated during the mining era. The Chinese population in Oregon grew from 3,330 in 1870 to 9,510 in 1880 and a total of 9,540 in the 1890 census. In Jackson County, however, the Chinese population peaked in 1870.

The Oregon Central Railroad, later called the Oregon and California, began construction between 1868 and 1870.³⁰ Many Chinese who worked on the Oregon and California in Jackson County had already spent years of hard labor on the east-west Central Pacific Railroad and remained in the West to work on

the O&C-from Portland to Sacramento. Others were sent to southwestern Oregon by the Southern Pacific after it took over the O&C Railroad to complete the Sacramento to Portland section and join it to the already constructed Southern Pacific line. The O&C line inched down from Portland and up from Sacramento as thousands of Chinese shovelled and blasted through rock to make the road bed and lay the rails. The dangers and hardships of railroad building were great, and it was commonly remarked that under each tie lay the body of a Chinese laborer.

Many Chinese worked on railroad construction and serviced trains and road beds in Ashland, the railroad center at the time. They lived in what is now the railroad district on A Street near the railroad tracks. For many years their "boss" was Wah Chung, who provided contract labor to the Southern Pacific for construction and maintenance of railroad lines. Wah Chung, also a prominent merchant and restaurateur, lived with his wife and daughter on A Street in Ashland. In an interview with Kay Atwood, Henry Enders recalled:

All the Chinese over here were laborers, setting the railroad ties. They'd keep a road crew all the time....These Chinamen worked from the California line to Roseburg. They kept up all the lines and Wah Chung, he hired and fired all of them.³¹

Chinese Exclusion

The anti-Chinese agitation that had begun in California spread to Oregon in the 1870's. The Chinese industriousness and high standards of workmanship, combined with their willingness to work for low wages and the highly successful enterprises of Chinese companies, caused resentment and suspicion. Chinese clothing and living habits aroused fear and racial prejudice. While the caucasian laborers lived on beef, beans, and potatoes, the Chinese fare included rice, salted cabbage, dried seaweed, sweet rice crackers, dried oysters, abalone, and tea, ordered from San Francisco through local merchants.³² Politicians and anti-Chinese lobbyists used the cultural differences to influence voters.

When railroad construction in the West was nearly completed and the need for Chinese labor declined, anti-Chinese forces easily passed an Exclusion Act. The Exclusion Act of May 6, 1882, suspended immigration of Chinese laborers for ten years.³³ All illegal entrants were to be deported. Laborers who were already residents as of November 17, 1880, were exempted, but all Chinese were forbidden to become naturalized citizens. The Chinese Exclusion Act was the first U.S. law to restrict immigration of an entire ethnic group. In response to the national anti-Chinese movement,

the United States rescinded its traditional free and non-restrictive policy towards immigration. Following this act, a wave of violence mounted against the Chinese remaining in the Northwest and California. Faced with such strong anti-Chinese sentiment, the few Chinese still residing in rural areas such as Jackson County left for Chinatowns in San Francisco and other major West Coast cities, where they could withdraw into segregated but supportive environments.

THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDERS

In the preceding section several state and local laws were cited which discriminated against Kanakas, mulattoes, and Blacks, as well as the Chinese. The people known as Kanakas by the miners were from the Hawaiian Islands (called the Sandwich Islands in the mid-19th century). The islands were a way-station on the route around Cape Horn to San Francisco and Portland. It was there that Captain Cook was slain by islanders in 1779, an incident that probably contributed to their persecution in this country.³⁴ The Hawaiians had been missionized on the Sandwich Islands and were Christians when they came to the mining camps of southwestern Oregon.³⁵ They expected to be readily adopted into life on the West Coast. Instead, their non-caucasian features and lifestyle led to discrimination against them just as it did with the Chinese.

The first Hawaiians who came to the Northwest were fur traders. The largest influx of Islanders was during the Gold Rush. A colony of Hawaiians found their way to Jacksonville and Jackson Creek mines in the late 1850's and early 1860's. The mines were then predominantly worked by white Americans and Europeans, but there were also Mexicans, Blacks, and Chinese. There were a number of settlements known as "Kanaka Flats" and "Kanaka Gulches" in the mining districts around Jacksonville. Several "Kanaka Gulches" in the Sterling Creek mining district were listed in the 1860 census. By the 1870 census, all the Hawaiians had apparently left Sterling Creek.³⁷

The Hawaiians worked in small groups without elaborate mining equipment. Hawaiian women also mined. The men and women used big wooden bowls for panning similar to those used by the Mexicans and Spaniards.³⁸ It is unclear to what extent the discriminatory laws affected "Kanaka" miners or how long they remained in Jackson County. This is an area that requires further primary research not possible at this time.

THE BLACKS

Blacks in the Oregon Territory

The earliest Blacks in Oregon were probably crew members of Spanish, English and American ships that came to Oregon and the Northwest Coast between 1787 and 1842.³⁹ Marcus Lopez, personal servant to Captain Gray on his first expedition in 1787-1788, was the first Black recorded in Oregon.⁴⁰ There was a Black man named "York" in the employ of Captain Clark on Lewis and Clark's expedition of 1804-1806.⁴¹ In *Memoirs of My Life*, John C. Fremont mentioned Jacob Dodson, a Black who came in 1843 on Fremont's second expedition, which passed through the northern section of Klamath County.⁴²

George Washington Bush, a free mulatto, came from Pennsylvania to Oregon in 1844 and farmed in the Willamette Valley. In 1845 the Provisional Government of the Oregon Territory prohibited free Blacks and mulattoes from residing in the region, but the provisional laws' jurisdiction was confined to the district south of the Columbia. Bush and his family therefore moved to the region north of the Columbia River and later in 1845 settled on a 640-acre donation land claim. A special act of Congress in 1855 enabled Bush to keep the land. He had become well-known and financed wagon trains from Missouri to the Oregon country. He was one of the richest men in Oregon Territory prior to 1859.⁴³

The Slavery Issue

A burning legal and political question during the early days of Oregon Territorial history was whether slaves could come into the Oregon Territory. A large part of Oregon's population came from the border states of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, and these people either brought slaves with them or were sympathetic to the South. A few whites from those states migrated to Oregon because of their strong beliefs that slavery was wrong. Jesse Applegate wrote in several letters that a major impetus for the Applegate families' migration from Missouri was their opposition to slavery. Jesse, Lindsay, and Charles kept no slaves in Missouri and were financially unable to compete with the lower-priced agricultural products of farmers who used slave labor. The ethical conflict over slavery was so strong that it caused a permanent family rift between Jesse, Charles and Lindsay, who were against slavery, and their brothers Lisbon and John Milton, who were pro-slavery.⁴⁴ In a letter written to his brother Lisbon in Missouri in 1846, Jesse discussed the situation for Blacks. He said Black slaves were compelled to come to the Territory by their masters and were then "whipped in geometrical progression until they ran away or died."⁴⁵

A major test of the legality of slavery in the Oregon Territory occurred in 1852. Robin Holmes, a slave of Nathaniel Ford, who migrated with his family and several slaves from Missouri in 1844, appeared before Territorial Supreme Court Justice Orville C. Pratt at the Polk County Courthouse and applied for a writ of *habeus corpus*, stating that Ford was unlawfully holding his children and family as slaves. After more than a year of hearings by four different judges, Judge George H. Williams ruled in June, 1853, that slavery was outlawed in Oregon Territory, and that the children should be returned to Robin Holmes.⁴⁶ According to one of Ford's descendants, Ford had requested that Holmes bring the suit as a legal test of slavery.⁴⁷ The Holmes and Ford families remained close in the years after the decision.

There were several instances of whites bringing slaves or servants with them to southwestern Oregon from "the States." Dr. Brooks, listed in the 1857 and 1860 Jacksonville census records, brought four Black slaves with him across the plains from Virginia. He had promised them their freedom if they helped him for a year. He kept the bargain and Charlie, one of the Blacks, became a well-respected and successful barber.⁴⁸

In 1852, Jackson Berry arrived in the Oregon Territory as a slave of H.A. Overbeck. On April 1, 1857, Overbeck agreed to free Jackson Berry on October 15, 1862. This contract, on record in the Jackson County Courthouse, was to grant Berry his freedom ten years after entering Oregon Territory.⁴⁹ Jackson Berry made a land claim entry listed as Section 10, Township 38, Range 2 west, 112 acres, on December 8, 1866.⁵⁰ In 1872, Berry made the final payment on his land and received title to it. He was listed as a farmer on the 1870 and 1880 censuses.

Lou Southworth, a slave from Kentucky, was taken to Missouri and then to Oregon in 1851. He dug gold in the Jacksonville and Yreka mines to buy his freedom and then settled in Oregon.⁵¹

There are Blacks listed in Jackson County census records or other sources from as early as 1851, but their status as slaves or free Blacks is often unclear. While some slaves were freed by their masters before or after reaching Oregon, others fled from the South to the Oregon Territory, hoping to make it on their own in the booming mining towns. Andrew Jason and Isaac McBride, both listed in the 1860 Jackson County census as forty years old, became miners.⁵² Other Blacks became woodcutters, bootblacks, barbers, and domestic servants. Richard Conway, thirty years old in the 1860 Jackson County census, was a laborer who married an Indian woman. Both Daniel Jones and Samuel Vose were barbers in Jackson County during the 1860's. Vose worked as a barber

and bootblack in the Elite Barber Shop in Jacksonville. In 1872, when he was sixty years old, he was granted a house and land by the Trustees of Jacksonville. In 1879, Vose traded his house and land to Jeanne DeReboam Holt in exchange for permanent care and residence in her hotel.⁵³ Anna Dowell mentioned the "negro," Isaac, working in the garden of their Jacksonville home in a letter to her husband B.F. Dowell on April 9, 1867. This might have been Isaac Cowan, who was in Jackson County by about 1854 and died of smallpox in 1869.⁵⁴ According to Buena Cobb Stone, John Matthews, a mulatto and a pioneer frontiersman, helped Captain Franklin B. Sprague of Company I, Oregon Volunteer Infantry, build a road from Fort Klamath to Union Creek on the Rogue River in the summer of 1865.⁵⁵

Very little is known about the number or position of Black women in southwestern Oregon. The Peter Brit collection includes a photograph of an apparently well-to-do woman named Emily Butler Blockwell.⁵⁶ She married Charles Blockwell, a barber, on November 20, 1870. Perhaps it was he who came to Oregon with Dr. Brooks.

The Slavery Question in Jackson County

From 1856-1860 Jackson County became vitally concerned with slavery. As a result of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, citizens of the Territory could decide on the slavery question before becoming a state. Since the settlers had decided to seek statehood, they now faced the decision. Several of Jackson County's leaders favored slavery and continually agitated for it. They found enthusiastic support from many transplanted southerners in Jackson County who were labeled "The Noisy Slavocrats of Jackson County."⁵⁷ In June, 1857, Jackson County joined the rest of the Territory in approving statehood and sent four democrats to the constitutional convention. The slavery debate intensified, and William T'Vault and other Jackson County pro-slavery delegates initiated several moves to support slavery and exclude "free negroes" from Oregon.⁵⁸ Jackson County voters endorsed a free state in the election by a margin of fifteen votes. Of 837 Jackson County voters, however, only 46 thought free Blacks should be allowed into Oregon. Oregon as a whole supported a free state by a much larger margin, and also voted against admission of free Blacks, but not by the overwhelming majority that occurred in Jackson County.

When the Constitution of Oregon was completed in 1859, Article I, Section 35, read:

No free negro or mulatto, not residing in this state at the time of this constitution, shall come, reside or be within this state, or hold any real estate, or make any contracts, or

maintain any suit therein; and the legislative assembly shall provide by penal laws for the removal by public officers of all such negroes and mulattos, and for their effectual exclusion from the state, and for the punishment of persons who shall bring them into the state, or employ or harbor them.⁵⁹

Article II, Section 6, read:

No negro, chinaman, or mulatto shall have the right of suffrage.⁶⁰

These laws prevented Black settlement in Oregon. Besides the few Blacks already in the county before 1859, almost none came for the rest of the century. Seven Blacks were buried in the Jacksonville cemetery "colored" section between 1882 and 1909. Not until November 2, 1926, was the exclusion article repealed by election. The suffrage article was repealed by a fairly small margin on June 28, 1927. Thus, more than fifty years after the United States freed Blacks, Oregon still had these laws.

In 1850, the census recorded forty-two Blacks in Jackson County. The next recorded count of Blacks was forty-one in 1910, out of a county population of 25,756. By 1930, the Black population had dropped to eighteen, and it was down to twelve in 1950, while the total county population rose to 58,510. In 1970 there were fifty-one Blacks in Jackson County.

Ku Klux Klan in Southwestern Oregon

The Ku Klux Klan took a firm hold in the Jackson-Klamath area in the 1920's. Southern Klan leader Luther I. Powell visited Portland and Medford in January, 1921, and by that fall there were several thousand members within the entire state. During the next year, the Klan worked all over Oregon lecturing on its beliefs and doctrines, and involving its members in state and local governments. Terrorism became frequent as the Klan gained in influence.⁶¹

After Powell's visit to Medford in 1921, several Medford citizens became core members of the Ku Klux Klan. There was also Klan support in Ashland, where there was at least one parade of white hooded Klansmen in the early 1920's.⁶² Klan violence and terrorism were particularly strong in Jackson County, although there were very few Blacks in that part of the state. On three separate occasions hooded night riders took individuals out and strung them to a tree threatening and partially hanging them until they agreed to demands or became unconscious. Two of the three victims were local residents. Each man was coerced into a car, which was joined

by a number of other cars, and driven to remote places including Table Rock and the foot of the Siskiyou. The county jailor apparently condoned, and maybe even participated in, these "necktie parties."

The community was torn by a bitter recall election over Sheriff Terrill, who, after being very lax about investigating and reporting the Klan violence, had finally offended the local Klan organization "by stating that he believed law enforcement should be in the hands of elected authorities."⁶³ Terrill narrowly won the recall vote, but the Klan was still very powerful in Jackson County.

Some newspaper editors, including the editor of the *Salem Capitol Journal* and Robert Ruhl and George Putnam of the *Medford Mail-Tribune*, courageously opposed the Ku Klux Klan and tried to expose the suppressed incidents of violence.

Oregon Governor Olcott fought the Klan's attempts to take over political control of the state. When in July of 1922 no action had been taken against the accused Klansmen in Jackson County, the governor sent Assistant Attorney General L.A. Liljequist and a team of state and federal agents to investigate the incidences. But the Attorney General failed to get a conviction in Medford, and the terrorist acts went unpunished.

In November, 1922, the Klan-endorsed candidate Walter Pierce defeated Olcott by 34,000 votes. The Klan controlled half the members of the State Senate and a large number of seats in the House. Two Klan candidates for Jackson County Commissioner won. This was the high point of Klan control in Oregon.

The Klan lost power for a number of political reasons. Membership dropped quickly all over the state, as well as in Jackson County. The damage caused by acts of violence and hate-mongering, however, would take many years to repair.

THE JEWS

Jewish Immigration to Southwestern Oregon

Like the Chinese, the Jews came to the United States in order to escape social and economic oppression in their homelands. The Jews, however, were escaping religious persecution. In *The Jews of Jacksonville*, Robert Levinson outlined two circumstances in 1848, occurring 8,000 miles apart, which became joint causes of Jewish settlement in Jacksonville:

1) The liberal revolutions of central Europe had failed and were followed by harsh political reactions involving renewed prejudice against the Jews. The younger generation of central European Jews had attained some semblance of civil rights and professional education and were less willing to give them up than were their parents who never knew freedom. Thus, the younger Jews began to emigrate to the U.S. where they believed they could have freedom for religious beliefs and economic betterment.

2) As the first Jews arrived on the east coast, news of the great gold discovery in California reached them. These recent immigrants, mainly from Germany, traveled to California overland or by ship to begin new lives as gold miners or as merchants catering to the needs of the miners.⁶⁴

The major Jewish settlement on the West Coast was in San Francisco, but there were enough Jews in mining settlements for establishment of a number of temporary "mining congregations" in such remote places as Nevada City, Placerville, and Indian Diggings.⁶⁵ When gold was discovered in southern Oregon, many Jews went north. The growth of permanent agricultural settlements in the area around Jacksonville was as important an attraction to Jewish merchants as the gold camps. What were probably the first Jewish religious services in the Oregon Territory were held upstairs in the old McCully building, later the Oddfellows Hall, in Jacksonville during the 1850's.

Jewish Businesses in Jackson County

Although there are scattered references to Jewish miners and prospectors, few Jews came to dig gold themselves. The Althouse mining camp of 1853 included Jews and gentiles.⁶⁶ Samuel Sachs, who lived in Jacksonville in the mid-1860's, was the only Jew in the community known to be primarily interested in mining. In January and February, 1866, he staked five claims in Jackson County, while Joseph Jacobs, Morris Baum, and Isaac Sachs staked one claim each, and Max Muller staked two claims.⁶⁷

Most of the Jews in Jackson County conducted general store businesses as dry goods dealers, grocers, and suppliers of mining equipment. A few were clerks and bookkeepers for the merchants, although the Federal Census recorded all the adult Jewish males as dry goods merchants.⁶⁸ In 1852, the Census listed seven male Jews in Jackson County. The first long-lived Jewish business was probably that of J.A. Brunner and Brother. Business was so prosperous that early in 1855 they commissioned the erection of the second brick building in the Oregon Territory for their store. The building was used as a fort for the women and children of the area during the Rogue Indian War that same year because its iron doors and

brick walls made it the most defensible. On September 20, 1855, S. Ettlenger and two Jewish businessmen received a license to operate a saloon in the Althouse mining precinct. If Ettlenger was Jewish, he was the only Jew to participate actively in the Rogue Indian War. In 1853, he was dispatched with letters to the governor of Oregon soliciting aid for the war. He was later involved in negotiating an early treaty with the Rogue Indians.

The Jewish merchants of Jacksonville dominated the business community of southern Oregon, especially in dry goods. Six of the nine merchants were Jews.⁶⁹ Lipman C. Coleman, married to Adeline Mensor, sister of Morris, clerked in Mensor's "New York Store" in Jacksonville from 1866 to 1870. He was also a grain dealer and at one time owned 2,000 acres in the Rogue River Valley.⁷⁰ The Sachs Brothers Store, established in 1861, was a branch of a world-wide family enterprise that included stores in New York and San Francisco. Sachs brought the first stock of women's apparel to the community. Isadore and Simon Caro, two Jewish merchants, moved from Jacksonville to Ashland in 1869 or 1870 to become the first merchants in that city.⁷¹ Simon Caro learned Chinese in order to conduct business with the many Chinese miners in Jackson County. Most Jewish businesses were or became family partnerships, and these merchants became very wealthy.

The Jews in the Community

The fate of Jews in southwestern Oregon was quite different from that of the Chinese or Blacks. Despite their religious identity, they were apparently accepted by the majority. Religious differences might have been less threatening to the white miners than racial differences, but they were probably accepted more because their presence benefited the community financially. In 1883, for example, seven Jewish merchants paid \$60,000 in county taxes.⁷² More than two-thirds of the Jewish immigrants had become citizens of the United States by 1870, whereas the Chinese and Blacks were excluded from such rights. The Jews' new patriotic feelings and appreciation for acceptance spurred their generous contributions for improving Jacksonville, including remodeling the Methodist Church.

While there is no recorded prejudice, certain practices inadvertently discriminated against Jews. The Oregon Territory enforced a territorial Blue Law in 1855 that prevented businesses from opening on Sunday. Since no Jewish merchant would conduct business on Saturday, the Jewish Sabbath, they lost two days of trade. Several Jewish merchants were charged with violating the law.

Jewish social and religious ties with San Francisco generally remained strong. In many cases the wives and children of Jewish merchants continued to live in the Bay area. Weddings and funerals were usually held in San Francisco, although some Jews were buried in the Jewish section of the Jacksonville Cemetery. Very little is known about the personal lives of the Jews in Jackson County, especially those of the few Jewish women. Jewish men became actively involved in community affairs and politics, however. They ran for and served in public offices freely and sat as jurors in the circuit court. They were members of the Masons, Redmen, and Warren Lodges. Possibly some Jews, in becoming U.S. citizens, lost their identification with the Jewish religion and became completely assimilated with the white Christian community. Jewish children were educated at the Catholic Academy. A number of Jewish men married out of the faith, including Max Muller, who married Louisa Hesse in a civil ceremony.⁷³ Muller was the most politically active Jew in both city and county politics. He was City Trustee and President in 1863, and City Treasurer in 1864, 1867, and 1868. He became County Treasurer on the Republican ticket in 1868; County Clerk in 1890, 1892, and 1894; and County Treasurer again in 1900. He was Jacksonville Postmaster for eighteen years beginning in 1870.

End of an Era

After close to forty years of prosperity, most Jews left southwestern Oregon in 1887 because of the coming of the Southern Pacific Railroad. The railroad affected the entire structure of the merchant economy and signalled the decline of Jacksonville. The Jews left because profits were no longer available. Merchants with large stocks of goods on hand, at prices including expensive shipping costs by stage or steamer, feared that their inventory would remain unsold when goods arrived more cheaply by rail. They failed to see the potential advantages of the railroad and did not join the non-Jewish merchants who moved to the new railroad centers in Medford and Ashland. A few merged with other merchants in order to compete with new businesses, but the majority returned to San Francisco or other large cities.

Unlike the Chinese or the Blacks, the Jews found the freedom and economic opportunity in southwestern Oregon that they had hoped for when they left their homelands. Their own ability to adapt, born of centuries of anti-semitic persecution, and the fact that they were ultimately white Europeans, made it possible for them to be relatively easily accepted. It is significant that the Chinese proved they were equally adept at successful business ventures and yet could not shake racial prejudice and exclusion. In the face of the extreme lines of racial separatism they saw around them, it seems that the Jews, out of necessity, had to sacrifice their cultural identity in order to blur the lines of religious differences.

ENDNOTES

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³H. Mark Lai and Philip P. Choy, *Outlines: History of the Chinese in America*, Chinese-American Studies Planning Group (1973), p. 25 for all of the information on Meares.

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⁷*San Francisco Chronicle* (July 8, 1878), cited in Lai and Choy, *Outlines*, p. 26.

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⁹Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 19.

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¹²Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 25.

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¹⁴Wallace D. Farnham, *Religion as an Influence in Life and Thought: Jackson County Oregon 1860-1950* (1956), dissertation, as cited in Kay Atwood, "The Chinese," *Minorities of Early Jackson County, Oregon* (1976), p. 7.

¹⁵Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 28.

¹⁶Kay Atwood, "The Chinese," p. 7.

¹⁷*The Mining Laws of Humbug Creek*, II, p. 112, article 8, cited in Atwood, "The Chinese," p. 7.

¹⁸*Oregon Historical Quarterly*, No. 23, p. 140, cited in Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 26.

¹⁹Atwood, "The Chinese," p. 7.

²⁰Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 26.

²¹Ibid.

²²Bancroft, *History of Oregon*, II, p. 741, cited in Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 27.

²³Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 27.

²⁴Lai and Choy, *Outlines*, p. 53.

²⁵Atwood, "The Chinese," p. 20.

²⁶Reminiscence by Fletcher Linn in biographies file, Jackson County Museum vertical file under Gin Lin.

²⁷Jeffrey M. LaLande, *Outlook: The Forest's Past*, Rogue River National Forest, pp. 18-19 and photograph, figure 2.

²⁸For an overview of the development of railroad see Chapter 12 of the Overview.

²⁹Henry Villard, *Memoirs*, II, p. 302, cited in Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 31.

³⁰Currier, *The Chinese Web*, p. 31.

³¹Kay Atwood, *Jackson County Conversations* (1976), p. 82.

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³³Lai and Choy, *Outlines*, p. 88, for all points regarding the Exclusion Act.

³⁴A.G. Walling, *History of Southern Oregon, Comprising Jackson, Josephine, Douglas, Curry and Coos Counties* (1884), p. 60.

³⁵W.W. Fidler, "Kanaka Flat," *Bonville's Western Monthly* (March, 1909).

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³⁷Ibid.

³⁸Fidler, "Kanaka Flat," n.p.

³⁹Lenwood G. Davis, "Sources for History of Blacks in Oregon," *Oregon Historical Quarterly*, LXXIII, No. 3 (1972), p. 198.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 199.

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²Ibid., p. 204.

⁴³Howard McKinley Corning, ed., *Dictionary of Oregon History*, p. 174.

⁴⁴Shannon Applegate, notes.

⁴⁵Maude Applegate Rucker, "Previously unpublished letters of Jesse Applegate to his brother Judge Lisbon Applegate," *The Oregon Trail and Some of Its Blazers* (1930), p. 232.

⁴⁶Davis, "Sources," pp. 201-2. Includes extensive bibliography on Holmes-Ford families.

⁴⁷Pauline Burch, "Pioneer Nathaniel Ford and the Negro Family," *Oregon Historical Quarterly* manuscript in Davis, "Sources," p. 201.

⁴⁸Davis, "Sources," p. 204.

⁴⁹Kay Atwood, "The Blacks," *Minorities of Early Jackson County, Oregon* (1976), p. 8, photos I and J.

⁵⁰There is a possibility that Berry's homestead was on what is now Bureau of Land Management-managed land. Further checking is recommended.

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⁵²Ibid.

⁵³Ibid.

⁵⁴Ibid.

⁵⁵Buena Cobb Stone, *Fort Klamath: Frontier Fort in Oregon, 1863-1890* (1964).

⁵⁶Jackson County Museum. Information from Ida Clearwater.

⁵⁷T.W. Davenport, "The Slavery Question in Oregon," *Oregon Historical Quarterly*, IX, No. 1 and 2 (1908), p. 235.

⁵⁸William M. Kirtley, *Partisan Politics in Jackson County, Oregon, 1852-1868*, University of Oregon Masters Thesis (1973), chapter 2.

⁵⁹Atwood, "The Blacks," p. 3.

⁶⁰Ibid.

⁶¹All of the information on the Ku Klux Klan is from Atwood, "The Blacks," pp. 11-15.

⁶²Ibid., photo L.

⁶³Ibid., p. 13.

⁶⁴Robert Edward Levinson, *The Jews of Jacksonville, Oregon*, University of Oregon Masters Thesis (1962), pp. i-ii.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. ii.

⁶⁶*Medford Mail-Tribune* (April 30, 1900), p. 1, cited in Levinson, *Jews of Jacksonville*, p. 3.

⁶⁷Jackson County Archives, Mining Record, 1864-1866, University of Oregon Library, Eugene.

⁶⁸Levinson, *Jews of Jacksonville*, p. 6.

⁶⁹See Levinson, *Jews of Jacksonville*, for extensive data on individual Jews and their families.

⁷⁰Ibid., p. 8; see also Kay Atwood, "The Jews," *Minorities of Early Jackson County, Oregon* (1976), photos.

⁷¹Levinson, *Jews of Jacksonville*, p. 10.

⁷²Ibid., p. 25, cited in Atwood, "The Jews," p. 9.

⁷³Levinson, *The Jews of Jacksonville*, p. 33 and note 15.

14. Federal Government and the Railroads

INTRODUCTION

Of the federal government activities in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Area, by far the most significant is the Oregon and California Railroad Land, and this chapter is devoted entirely to it. Many points presented here will probably be amplified in a major study being prepared for the Bureau of Land Management.¹

BACKGROUND OF THE OREGON AND CALIFORNIA RAILROAD LAND

As the first transcontinental railroad was constructed from Omaha, Nebraska, to Sacramento, California, much interest developed on the West Coast for more efficient transportation between Oregon and California. In 1866, Oregon businessmen organized the Oregon Central Railroad Company to construct a line from Portland to meet the railroad starting north from Sacramento. In the same year Congress granted 3,700,000 acres of land from the public domain to help construct the railroad. Ben Holladay, a famous figure in the history of early Oregon transportation, purchased the reorganized Oregon and California Railroad Company in 1868, and within one year twenty miles of track were completed. By 1872 the railroad stretched from Portland to Roseburg, 200 miles to the south, but at that point constructed ended. German bondholders eased Holladay out of his railroad interests within two years and turned over management to Henry Villard. The Panic of 1873 froze nearly all capital for railroad construction. Engineering for the section between Roseburg and northern California was another problem. When the grant expired on July 1, 1880, the road was unfinished, but after another change in ownership, the company was merged with the Southern Pacific, and the route was completed in 1887.²

Besides leadership and financial difficulties, the railroad builders encountered serious public relations problems in dealing with the citizens of Oregon. Railroads were constructed with government land grants to encourage settlement along the line. A specific clause in the grant to the Oregon and California Railroad stated that land should "be sold to actual settlers only, in quantities not greater than one quarter section (160 acres) to one purchaser, and for a price not exceeding \$2.50 per acre."³ During the construction of the railroad, the company did little to encourage

settlement on their lands. Between 1874 and 1881, the Oregon and California Company made a concerted effort to sell lands to settlers for \$1.25 per acre, but railroad construction did not keep up with land sales. In 1884, settlers and businessmen in Oregon started a statewide movement to secure the forfeiture of Oregon and California lands. One year later Congress reclaimed 810,880 acres from a planned subsidiary route between Forest Grove and Astoria that had not been constructed. The General Land Office immediately opened the reclaimed land to settlement and for a time Oregonians were pacified.⁴

The company paid little heed to the concerns of the citizens, mostly ignoring the homestead clause of the land grant. A government report of 1908 showed that of the 3,700,000 acres granted to the railroad, only 813,000 acres were sold, and of this land more than half was sold in 2,000-acre units for an average of five dollars an acre (twice the amount stipulated in the grant). Many large land parcels were sold to timber companies for between five to forty dollars an acre, and approximately 363,000 acres passed into the hands of thirty-eight large timber companies. One purchaser, for example, bought 45,000 acres at ten dollars an acre. In 1903, Edward H. Harriman, new owner of the railroad, stopped all sales of timber land. He allowed the sale of agricultural land but refused to sell timber land, holding this acreage for the future rise in stumpage values.⁵

Harriman's action stirred latent railroad opposition in Oregon. In 1904, an article appeared in the *Portland Morning Oregonian* discussing a local citizen's discovery of a "homestead clause" in the government charter to the Coos Bay Wagon Road Company. This 100,000-acre grant was made in 1869 to build a military road from Roseburg to Coos Bay, and it included a homestead clause identical to the Oregon and California Railroad grant (\$2.50 an acre for 160 acres). With the discovery of this clause, attention soon shifted to the railroad grant and the alleged abuses of land privileges. The protest came from citizens who detested railroads on general principle and from timber companies who wanted prime forest land for the deflated price of \$2.50 per acre.

By 1907, the public outcry encouraged the Oregon Legislature to send a memorandum to Congress, urging that body to find a solution to the Oregon and California homestead clause violation. This started a lengthy, involved process that finally ended in 1916 with the revestment of 2,891,000 acres to federal ownership. The action started with a joint resolution from Congress in 1908, directing the U.S. Attorney-General to enforce compliance of the homestead clause and recover the granted land for the government. In 1915, after numerous court cases, the issue finally reached the Supreme Court, where the final determination was turned back to Congress.

Congress was nominally involved in the long court proceedings and had taken several initiatives on its own. In 1910, the Senate passed a resolution to prod the Justice Department to continue its legal suits, and in 1912 bona fide purchasers of about 400,000 acres of timber land within the Oregon and California grant were allowed to receive new patents on their properties for \$2.50 an acre. Disposition of the remaining acreage was much more involved, however. The value of the timber alone was estimated between \$30,000,000 and \$50,000,000, and the citizens of Oregon, the railroad, bona fide settlers and land holders, and the U.S. Treasury were all interested parties. The Chamberlain-Ferris Act was a compromise among all these groups. The 2,891,000 acres reverted to federal ownership, with the railroad receiving compensation of \$2.50 per acre. Jurisdiction of the land was given to the Department of the Interior, partly to appease lumbermen who felt that the Department of Agriculture (Forest Service) was too constrictive about cutting in the national forest lands. The Secretary of the Interior was to designate the lands as powersite, timber, or agricultural land, and he was further authorized to sell timber as rapidly as possible under competitive bidding. Agricultural land was opened to homestead entry at \$2.50 per acre.⁶

The solution was notably lacking in conservation measures, but it seemed to satisfy nearly all of the parties. The act also established the Oregon and California Land Grant Fund to receive income from timber sales and homestead fees and to disburse any necessary expenditures. Almost \$4,000,000 was paid to the railroad for the revested land and \$1,600,000 was advanced to land grant counties in Oregon for back taxes from 1913-1915.

FEDERAL MANAGEMENT OF THE OREGON AND CALIFORNIA LANDS AND PRESENT STATUTES

A number of problems developed when the land was re-vested to federal ownership. The Department of the Interior was inexperienced in managing timber land and determining which lands were best suited for timber, agricultural, or power uses. Nearly all of the land designated for homesteading was unsuitable for agriculture and soon reverted to federal ownership. Income from timber sales did not begin to pay for expenditures, and the federal government neglected to pay any money to the land grant counties from 1916 to 1926.⁷ Oregonians again complained bitterly and demanded compensation for the land that had paid taxes under the railroad's control. The Stanfield Act of 1926 was passed in response to these demands, giving the land grant counties payments equal to taxes that would have accrued between 1916 and 1926 if the lands had remained in private ownership. The amount paid to the counties was \$7,000,000 in 1926 and \$6,000,000 between 1927 and 1937, which, added to the 1916 payments to railroads

and counties, totalled nearly \$19,000,000. Because the receipts from timber and land sales were \$8,000,000, the deficit was nearly \$11,000,000.⁸ Since the Oregon and California Fund was designed to not only pay its own way, but also add revenue to the General Fund, federal managers had a difficult time by 1937.

In that year civic leaders, government administrators, and other professional foresters combined their forces to secure enactment of the O&C Sustained Yield Act. By this act, the lands remained under federal control, the timber was managed on a sustained yield basis, and a new formula was devised to dispose of dividends from timber sales. The formula directed 50 per cent of the revenue to the counties, with an additional 25 per cent applied to unpaid tax claims. After the deficit was paid the counties received a straight 75 per cent.⁹ Land grant counties were somewhat apprehensive about the agreement because of deflated timber prices in the 1930's, but by the early 1950's they realized their agreement was a bonanza.

To more effectively manage the Oregon and California and other Department of Interior-leased lands, the Bureau of Land Management was created in 1946. In Oregon this new agency emphasized management of timber on a sustained yield basis, which meant the annual cut was about the same as the annual timber-growing capacity, and a new emphasis on income production was stressed. By 1952, the entire indebtedness of \$16,000,000 was paid, and the eighteen land grant counties were receiving 75 per cent of the gross receipts, but the counties agreed to reinvest 25 per cent of their receipts into road building, reforestation, and other improvements on the federal lands.¹⁰

The Oregon and California lands within the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit are extremely important. When the railroad grant was made in 1866, this area was sparsely populated, and the railroad received a high concentration of land--especially within Jackson County. Much of this area remained under railroad control until the land was finally revested in 1916. Because of the large percentage of land involved, Jackson County was among the more vocal counties in the disputes. In 1974, about 460,000 acres of Oregon and California land were within Jackson County, bringing an annual income of \$9,000,000 or 51 per cent of the entire county budget. In Klamath County about 51,000 acres are Oregon and California lands, bringing \$1,350,000 in annual revenue or 14 per cent of the county budget.¹¹

To give an idea of the amount of money currently involved in Oregon and California revenues, timber sales for the land in fiscal year 1973-1974 were \$119,000,000, of which \$58,000,000 went to the eighteen land grant counties. A breakdown of land and revenue of Oregon and California land per county is shown in a chart taken from the *Atlas of Oregon*:

O & C REVENUES BY COUNTIES

| County | O&C Lands 1965 (ha) | Fiscal Year 1973-74 ^a (\$) | As % of County Revenues ^b | As % of Property Tax Levies ^b |
|--------------|------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Douglas | 285,840 | 14,476,232 | 50.5 | 51.2 |
| Jackson | 176,037 | 9,055,391 | 50.7 | 28.2 |
| Lane | 151,439 | 8,824,433 | 23.0 | 9.9 |
| Josephine | 148,358 | 6,980,953 | 44.6 | 69.8 |
| Coos | 49,372 | 3,409,572 | 40.8 | 15.7 |
| Clackamas | 37,153 | 3,207,309 | 17.5 | 4.1 |
| Curry | 37,841 | 2,109,311 | 31.8 | 46.5 |
| Benton | 21,244 | 1,623,881 | 35.0 | 8.7 |
| Linn | 34,870 | 1,525,639 | 13.6 | 4.9 |
| Klamath | 27,237 | 1,352,271 | 14.4 | 10.1 |
| Polk | 17,080 | 1,248,250 | 27.7 | 9.8 |
| Columbia | 4,484 | 1,190,461 | 32.1 | 9.7 |
| Marion | 8,382 | 843,724 | 5.9 | 1.6 |
| Multnomah | 1,719 | 629,904 | 0.8 | 0.3 |
| Yamhill | 16,777 | 416,083 | 8.8 | 3.0 |
| Washington | 4,733 | 364,073 | 3.1 | 0.5 |
| Tillamook | 11,157 | 323,620 | 5.5 | 5.3 |
| Lincoln | 3,731 | 208,042 | 3.7 | 1.9 |
| TOTAL | 1,037,454 | 57,789,348 | 20.3 | 7.9 |

^aRevenues are distributed among the 18 counties in proportion to their respective shares of O&C acreage in 1915.

^bO&C revenues are often compared to "total county revenues," but such county revenues include only property tax receipts destined for the support of county government, and not those earmarked for other purposes. As the table shows, a large part of the money available for county services, thus narrowly defined, comes from O&C revenues.

ENDNOTES

¹This major historical study on the Oregon and California lands is currently being prepared by Dr. Elmo Richardson for the Bureau of Land Management and will no doubt fill in some of the gaps in the historical record.

²David Maldwyn Ellis, "The Oregon and California Railroad Land Grant, 1866-1945," *Pacific Northwest Quarterly* (October, 1948), pp. 253-59.

³Ibid., p. 253.

⁴Ibid., pp. 258-59.

⁵Ibid., pp. 260-62.

⁶William G. Loy, *Atlas of Oregon* (1976), p. 11.

⁷Russell E. Getty, "O&C Lands Offer Increased Timber Sales," *Western Conservation Journal* (July-August, 1960), p. 63.

⁸Ellis, "Oregon and California Grant," p. 275.

⁹Loy, *Atlas of Oregon*, p. 11.

¹⁰Ibid.; Getty, "O&C Lands," pp. 64-65.

¹¹Loy, *Atlas of Oregon*, p. 11.

15. Synthesis

INTRODUCTION

It is clear from the preceding chapters that there has been long and varied human use of the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit. Although only about 130 years have elapsed since white settlement of the area began, vast changes have occurred in settlement patterns, land use and tenure, and in cultural systems. Resources ignored by the aboriginal inhabitants were exploited by white settlers, and in many cases resources that were absolute necessities to the Indian culture were not recognized, and even destroyed, by the new arrivals. Other resources were used by both cultures, but in different ways.

It is not known when the first people arrived in southwest Oregon. Fluted projectile points, found in the Planning Unit and to the north in the Roseburg District of the Bureau of Land Management,¹ have a wide distribution in North America, and they are usually dated between 10,000 and 5,000 B.C.,² but there are no firm dates for these points in Oregon. Fluted points have often been associated with a big game hunting economy because they have been found in kill sites. A possible Cascade point has been found near Medford;³ these points are usually found just below or just above deposits of Mazama ash, and they are dated from about 7000-4500 B.C.⁴ Cascade points are found in archaeological sites thought to be representative of generalized hunting, fishing, and gathering economies.⁵ The Gold Hill projectile point has been found in various locations in the Planning Unit. Its style and its occurrence in deeper levels of sites indicate that it is relatively early, but no firm date has been established.

Tentative Prehistory to the 1800's

So little archaeological research has been accomplished in the Planning Unit to date that it is not possible to describe the chronology, the cultural relationships, or the environmental adaptations in detail. It is not known how long the ethnographic inhabitants (mainly the Upland Takelma) were in the area. Nonetheless, a few preliminary observations can be made about the prehistory of this portion of southwest Oregon.

First, the fluted points indicate that the area *may* have been inhabited at quite early times, perhaps as early as 10,000 B.C. Occupation of the northern Great Basin in Oregon began at this time and even earlier.⁶ Further, these points were found in different ecological settings. One was found in an open meadow near Green Springs summit at an elevation of approximately 4,600 feet. The other was found in a riverbank site at an elevation of about 450 feet in a modern-day oak-savanna zone. Neither was associated with a kill site, although mammoth remains were discovered by a miner on Sterling Creek in the late 1950's.⁷

Because no firm chronology based on dated projectile point styles is available for southwest Oregon and because no in-depth comparisons of point types from other areas with better developed chronologies (the Great Basin, for example) have been done, only a few tentative suggestions regarding temporal and cultural relationships have been made for the Planning Unit from about 7000 B.C. to 1400 A.D., when late manifestations like the Gunther-barbed point and pottery probably appeared. The presence of Gunther-barbed points and small, serrated (Lingo) points in the Lost Creek area show late affinities with both northwest California and the Willamette Valley. Corner- and side-notched points (particularly the Desert side-notched style) are at least tentatively attributed to the recent intrusive Molalla, emigrants from east of the Cascades where these styles are commonly found.⁸ The Gunther-barbed points and associated hopper mortars have been assigned to the final phase of prehistoric occupation on Lost Creek.⁹

The earliest projectile point at Lost Creek was the Gold Hill type; it has been compared with other points belonging to the western Cascades leaf-shaped point tradition, dated from about 7000-4500 B.C.¹⁰ The Gold Hill point was followed by a side-notched point similar to Cressman's type 7A at Kawumkan Springs in the Klamath Basin. The size of these points diminished in upper levels of the Lost Creek sites, although they retained the same shape. They have been compared to the Cold Springs side-notched point from the middle Columbia River and to the Bitterroot side-notched point from Idaho, which date very generally around 5000 B.C. Milling stones were associated with these points at Lost Creek.¹¹

Extremely small points ("micropoints," or Lingo) followed the side-notched variety, associated with pestles and bowl-like mortars. This artifact assemblage might date from 1000 B.C.¹² Lingo points are common in the Willamette Valley.

At Lost Creek there were a number of burins, graters, and end scrapers. Archaeologist W.A. David thought they were of major importance to the Lost Creek inhabitants. He stated

that fishing was probably important to subsistence, although it could not be directly inferred.

Archaeological sites containing housepit depressions are widespread throughout the Planning Unit. A large majority are located on stream terraces. Very few have been professionally excavated, and hundreds have been vandalized. Those that have been excavated show oval floor plans unlike the rectangular structures of the ethnographic groups. The artifacts are varied. At most sites grinding tools, indicating a seed, root, and vegetable diet, are present. Stylistically, the projectile points vary considerably in some sites.

Chunk-and-sort is the prevalent manufacturing method for stone tools, but it is restricted to obsidian in some sites along the Klamath River, while prepared flakes were made from other materials. The latter technique is common in the Great Basin. Along Lost Creek, however, chunk-and-sort was used with cherts instead of obsidian, which was not available locally.¹³

There are also surface sites with no depressions containing lithic debris throughout the Unit. These are particularly evident in the east towards the Klamath Basin. Some are extremely large. These sites are very important--they occur above the Klamath River village sites along tributary streams and springs. Not only will they be valuable in learning how the Indians exploited different areas, but they occur near the boundaries of several different ethnographic groups (Shasta, Takelma, and Klamath) and may help to clarify cultural relationships and contact in the area. They may have functioned as exchange centers when various groups were traveling to the mountains in the summer.

An unusual archaeological find in the Planning Unit was the recovery of crude pottery and figurines. They were discovered north of Table Rock and in two sites along the Klamath River: 35KL13 and 35KL16.¹⁴

One very specialized site, the Saltsgaver Site (35JA15), has a concentration of clay-lined pits, which may have been used for food processing. This site has been radiocarbon dated at 3360 B.C., and it is surrounded by a number of other Bear Creek Valley floor sites. None has been thoroughly analyzed.

Most archaeologists agree that the more recent sites (from 1400 A.D. to historic times) show affinities with sites in northwest California, while artifacts in earlier sites in the Lost Creek and Elk Creek drainages are more like those of the Umpqua drainages and the southern Willamette Valley. Some quantitative studies of artifacts from western Oregon and northwest California would be helpful in exploring these resemblances further and could pose interesting problems for future analyses.

Generally, research into the prehistory of southwest Oregon is only beginning, and archaeological sites are rapidly disappearing. Careful planning and effective management are the only ways to preserve this non-renewable resource and make possible a better description of the area's prehistory.

Indians of the Planning Unit

The Upland Takelma, Shasta, Applegate Athabaskans, Molalla, and Klamath Indians all claimed territory in the Planning Unit boundaries in the early 1800's, when white incursion into southwest Oregon began. Except for the Klamath, little is known of these groups because they rapidly became extinct from disease, wars, intermarriage with whites, famine, and life on the reservations.

Although it is not known how long any of them were in the Unit (except for the Klamath, who apparently have been in the Basin for several thousand years at least), they exploited the available fish, animal, and plant resources in ways that were probably not too different from those of the inhabitants of the archaeological sites, where the presence of grinding tools indicates a subsistence partially based on wild roots, seeds, and vegetables. There are ethnographic accounts of these groups' dependence on fish, game, and wild plants, and in some cases their methods of procuring them. There are also museum collections of their tools, clothes, and basketry. All the ethnographic information is useful for comparison with material recovered from the area's archaeological sites.

The Indians' settlement patterns and land use were closely related to their subsistence economy, which was a major pursuit. The Klamath and undoubtedly the other Indians moved seasonally through their territories, harvesting the mature plant food resources that were found at different elevations, hunting in the mountains in the summer and fishing when salmon runs occurred. Because the amount and kinds of available foods changed during the year, however, storage for the winter was imperative. The Klamath processed *wokas* and other plants, and dried fish for this purpose. Nonetheless, their food supply usually ran short in the spring.

Settlements tended to be seasonal, except in prime locations where staple resources were available most of the year. The winter settlements were almost without exception along major water courses where game and fish were most easily procured. These villages were usually somewhat dispersed to maximize fishing, hunting, and gathering opportunities. The more available resources and the more the summer surplus, the closer villages could be.

Although the ethnographic Indian groups had generally similar subsistence economies, their environments provided different foods that allowed for specializations in one culture not apparent in the others. The acorns of southwestern Oregon Indians and the *wokas* of the Klamath are examples.

The most drastic change came when white settlers brought new resources--domesticated plants and animals--to the Planning Unit. The introduction of these factors brought totally different patterns of land use and settlement. The cattle, horses, and sheep competed with the Indians for many of the same foods, and oak stands were cleared for planting crops. Mining interfered with the fish runs, and both whites and Indians competed for game.

It was simply a matter of time before one group overcame the other, putting in effect a whole new cultural system in the Planning Unit.

HISTORY

The comparatively short period of American settlement on the land that had been the home of ancient cultures in southwestern Oregon is marked by distinct phases of land use and tenure. The search for furs brought the first Europeans and Americans to the Rogue Valley and Klamath Basin. In 1827 Peter Skene Ogden and his Hudson's Bay Company brigade were the first trappers to enter the Rogue River Valley. Other fur trapping expeditions passed through the Rogue Valley and Klamath Basin during the 1830's, but the beaver were not numerous enough for prolonged trapping and trading or building of permanent structures. Ogden and others left journals and maps documenting the routes they took over the existing network of Indian trails.

From 1830 to 1850 the Oregon-California land route over the Siskiyou was traveled by pioneer settlers, traders, missionaries, livestock drivers, and military exploring expeditions. The Applegate Trail, opened in 1846, made it possible for emigrants from the eastern United States to travel to the Willamette Valley on a southern route through the Rogue River and Umpqua Valleys. The Applegate party opened the Green Springs passage over the Cascades to wagon travel, and a few sections of the road between Emigrant Creek and Keno, including the Jenny Creek Wagon Slide, still remain. In the Rogue River Valley, the discovery of gold in December, 1851, directly stimulated the development of towns, roads, communications, and a legal and social order. Gold mining brought Blacks, Chinese, Hawaiians, and Jews to the area, hand in hand with racial prejudice and exclusion.

The pattern of land use in southwestern Oregon is strikingly different from the earlier settlement of the Willamette Valley, where pioneer farmers and settlers followed the first fur traders. The rich agricultural land and the ready market of miners attracted emigrant families who began to settle in southwestern Oregon rather than continue north to the Willamette Valley. The compatibility of mining, which depended on winter rains, with the seasonal cycle of farming, led to a unique situation where two occupations were practiced during the year. The farmer-miners and their families brought permanent settlement to the otherwise unstable mining districts. Women, who were outnumbered by twelve-to-one and denied suffrage and economic power, had a significant role in the cultural and social development of the area.

Small-scale placer operations were the earliest phase of gold mining. Some early mining districts of historical significance on or near Bureau of Land Management land in the Planning Unit include the Applegate District, the Sterling Creek District, the Foots Creek District, the Buncom District, the Evans Creek District, the Pleasant Creek District, and Forty-nine Diggings.

Almost all placer deposits on the tributaries of the Rogue and Applegate systems were worked by hydraulic methods at one time or another, mainly during the 1870's. Two of the most important hydraulic mining ditches within the Planning Unit area were the China Ditch, owned by the Chinese businessman Gin Lin, and the Sterling Creek Ditch. Chinese and Hawaiian laborers were involved with both of these mining operations. Numerous gold lodes were found in the Planning Unit area including the Gold Hill Pocket, discovered in 1857. The secondary effects of mining--tailings, miles of ditches carved along land contours, erosion of stream banks and river beds by blasting water, and hard rock cuts--have left a permanent imprint on the landscape.

From 1860-1870, southwestern Oregon was changing from a mining frontier to an agricultural community. Most miners left for other gold fields. The loss of local demand for products necessitated raising agricultural items for export. This new economic basis changed land use patterns as small farms producing diverse crops transformed into single-crop farms and orchards. New varieties of fruit were introduced for commercial cultivation. Although high production agricultural lands are generally privately owned, there were late nineteenth century homestead attempts on marginally arable lands under Bureau of Land Management jurisdiction. A variety of structures, traces of wagon roads, cleared garden plots, small orchards, and other remains of human land use and settlement are in some cases still visible on homestead sites.

Along with plant cultivation, livestock raising became increasingly profitable in both the Rogue Valley and the Klamath Basin area. During the 1860's and later, many ranchers drove cattle and sheep to the high elevation meadows of the Cascades in areas now partially under Bureau of Land Management jurisdiction.

Many pack trails and wagon roads were built because of the need for supplies and communication routes between mining camps and main supply points during the 1850's. The beginning of agricultural exports created a demand for roads out of the Rogue Valley to new markets. In 1863, the Jacksonville-to-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road was constructed across the Cascades to connect the Rogue River Valley with the upper Klamath Basin for the first time. Several years later the Dead Indian Highway joined Ashland with the Jacksonville-to-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road at Fourmile Creek. In 1868 the Southern Oregon Wagon Road was begun to replace the Applegate Trail over the Green Springs passage, and has remained in continuous use. Topsy Grade, an important freight road connecting Klamath Falls and Keno with Yreka was first built in 1873 and rebuilt in 1889. Much of the original road remains, making Topsy Grade one of the rare historic wagon and early automobile roads still in existence. The completion of the paved Pacific Highway (now Interstate 5) in 1923 caused abandonment of many of the older wagon roads.

The arrival of the transcontinental railroad in southwestern Oregon in 1887 had far reaching effects. The urban economic center of Jackson County switched to Medford from Jacksonville, which rapidly declined. Agricultural land use patterns changed drastically as single products such as fruit were cultivated in great quantities for export to competitive markets. The railroad signified the end of a long era of isolation in southwestern Oregon.

Due to the railroad, the timber resources of the upper Rogue and Klamath areas were developed into an enormous lumber industry. Short line logging railroads were constructed to haul logs from forest to mill to connections with major railroads that carried the milled lumber to national markets or shipping ports for worldwide distribution. In 1910 the Pacific and Eastern Railroad constructed a line to Butte Falls that later became the Medford Logging Railroad. A number of spectacular trestles built to bridge the many canyons are still evident. Some of these, as well as sections of track, are on Bureau of Land Management land. The earliest rails in Klamath County were laid by the Sugar Pine Lumber Company to Pokegama in 1891. The introduction of steam-powered logging and milling equipment further accelerated the development of a large-scale timber industry in southern Oregon. Butte Falls, Keno, and Dixie-Pokegama were important centers for logging activities. Beginning in the late nineteenth century, logging and lumber milling have been the

major sources of revenue in Klamath County. In the Rogue River and Bear Creek Valleys, the lumber industry became almost as important as fruit production by the late 1920's. There are numerous cultural resources relating to logging and railroading in the Planning Unit that would add significant data to the growing areas of engineering history and industrial archaeology.

In the nineteenth century, settlers transformed the landscape of the Rogue, Applegate, and Bear Creek Valleys into a patchwork of orchards, fields, and timber lands. In the mid-twentieth century there have again been major shifts in land use and settlement patterns, particularly in the Bear Creek Valley. Many lands that were Donation Land Claim farms during the early pioneer settlement period, and later large commercial orchards and grain fields, are being broken up and developed into residences to meet the housing demands of the fast-growing population. The timber and agricultural industries, still the economic base of southwestern Oregon, have undergone technological changes and employ large numbers of people.

Urbanization and denser populations appear to be affecting social patterns. Some minority groups who left in the late nineteenth century because of persecution, exclusion, removal, or economic reasons, including Blacks, American Indians, and Jews, are beginning to move to the area.

Gold mining has never revived except for subsistence mining during the Depression. In recent years consciousness of the significance and economic potential of the cultural resources that grew out of the Gold Rush have created a successful tourist industry. Jacksonville's historic district was designated a Registered National Historic Landmark in 1966. Snowy Butte Flour Mill at Eagle Point, the David N. Birdseye house near Rogue River, and the John Orth house in Jacksonville have been named to the National Register of Historic Places. The Jacksonville-to-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road has been submitted for nomination to the National Register. Ashland's world-renowned Shakespeare Festival and the Peter Britt Music and Arts Festival on the site of the old Peter Britt Gardens in Jacksonville have become annual cultural events. Environmental resources such as recreational and wilderness areas on public lands and waterways are attracting nationwide interest, and efforts are being made to interpret cultural resources in some of these areas in both an historical and an environmental context.

ENDNOTES

¹Current Archaeological Happenings in Oregon, ed. Julia Follansbee, II, No. 1 (January, 1977), 4.

²William T. Sanders and Joseph Marins, *New World Prehistory: Archaeology of the American Indian* (1970), p. 27. The fluted point phases are: Clovis, 10,000-9,000 B.C.; Folsom, 9000-7000 B.C.; and Plano, 7000-5000 B.C.

³Joseph W. Hopkins III, *An Archaeological Assessment of the McGregor Park Staging Area (35JA37)* (June, 1976), p. 8.

⁴David G. Rice, "Basin-Plateau Cultural Relations in Light of Finds from Marines Rockshelter in the Lower Snake River Region of the Southern Columbia Plateau," *Northwest Anthropological Research Notes* (1970), p. 87; L.S. Cressman, *Prehistory of the Far West: Homes of Vanished Peoples* (1977), p. 133.

⁵Cressman, *Prehistory*, p. 133.

⁶Ibid., p. 73.

⁷Francis D. Haines, Jr., and Vern Smith, *Gold on Sterling Creek: A Century of Placer Mining* (1964), pp. 101-102. One of the tusks was over six feet long.

⁸W.A. Davis, *Lost Creek Archaeology* (1968), pp. 18-22.

⁹W.A. Davis, *Lost Creek Archaeology: 1972* (1974), p. iii.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 48.

¹¹Ibid., pp. 48-51.

¹²Ibid., p. 52.

¹³Ibid., pp. 45-46. ,

¹⁴For a description of figurines, see Lyman Deich, "Aboriginal Clay Figurines from the Rogue River Area," (1977), MS. In a personal communication, Joanne Mack stated that this distribution might indicate that the Upland Takelma once inhabited some Klamath River sites.

16. Cultural Resource Management

ARCHAEOLOGY: PRESENT RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Present research directions in archaeology and management decisions for protection and enhancement of archaeological sites on federal land must go hand in hand in order to substantially benefit the study of southwest Oregon prehistory. Therefore, it is important to define three current archaeological research goals that can be applied to the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit:

- 1) The definition of culture areas based on the occurrence of similar culture traits in similar quantities in a number of archaeological sites. These areas define the boundaries of prehistoric Indian cultures.
- 2) The description of cultural sequences through time in one or more archaeological sites with a long occupation history. Changes in artifact types and in other culture traits are used to define the sequences.
- 3) The study of the past interaction of humans and their physical environment.¹

Although these goals are combined in most archaeological efforts, their separation here clarifies the various issues that need to be addressed in southwest Oregon in general and in the Planning Unit in particular. The more that is known about these three factors, the better the prehistory of the area is understood, and the easier the task of evaluating archaeological sites in management decisions becomes.

The less that is known about these factors, however, the more difficult it is to deal with sites from the Bureau of Land Management's multi-land use perspective, because every site is potentially important and will have a high priority in relation to other land uses. This is the case in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit--at this point every site is likely to yield information important in prehistory, the single criterion for eligibility to the *National Register*.² As more is known about the area's prehistory, the easier it will become to rate sites on their *National Register* merit, and to vary management decisions based on these ratings.

Another reason for assigning high priority to archaeological sites is that they are a non-renewable resource--once altered or destroyed, they are irreplaceable. The potential for information that is lost can never be measured.

Gaps in the Planning Unit Data Base:
Needed Management Action

The following items are needed in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit in order to meet the three research goals:

1) A large inventory of archaeological sites. In the *Existing Site Data Compilation*, the companion document to this Overview, only 100 sites were mapped using available sources. Of these, only thirty-nine are on Bureau of Land Management land, and one is on U.S. Public Domain land, which is administered by the Bureau of Land Management. Given the size of the Planning Unit, the amount of Bureau of Land Management-administered land within it, the fact that only very small parts of the area have been professionally surveyed, and private collectors' knowledge of many more sites, these numbers are not impressive.

2) In conjunction with the need for a large site inventory, various types of sites in diverse ecological zones are necessary to interpret human use of the area and to distinguish cultural sequences through time. It is also very useful to have an idea of the number and density of each type of site.

3) Extensive documentation of known and discovered sites, through formal records and published reports.

4) Protection of archaeological sites from vandalism.

5) Nomination of sites to the *National Register*.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT ACTIONS

In response to these needs the following management recommendations are proposed.

1) An expanded inventory of archaeological sites, as required by Executive Order 11593, Section 1(a).

Recommendation

This Overview and the *Existing Site Data Compilation* list all sites in the Planning Unit formally recorded as of January, 1978, thus providing a base for future inventory. The Medford District archaeologist should decide, based on

the locations of known sites, where to concentrate inventorying efforts *in addition to areas where impact is likely from Bureau-authorized action*. Several criteria can be used to determine where to begin--for example, areas where sites are endangered by vandalism, sections in U.S.G.S. quadrangles where few or no sites are recorded, or areas where sites are recorded that have not been completely surveyed. Efforts should be made to include diverse ecological zones.

Only people with documented, extensive training in recognizing archaeological sites, sampling, note-taking, photography, and cartography should perform the inventories. They should not retrieve artifacts, test, evaluate sites, or excavate, and in most cases they should work under the field supervision of an experienced professional. There are a number of people who have completed archaeological field schools in other states and in Oregon colleges and universities; efforts to recruit them should be made in order to avoid lengthy training sessions and maximize field time.

A major goal of this inventory effort using sampling techniques is to enable Bureau of Land Management personnel to predict areas where sites are likely to occur on their land.

2) Location and definition of different types of archaeological sites.

Recommendation

In conjunction with the inventory efforts recommended above, special attention should be given to the location and definition of different types of sites. In response to the need for a more concise definition of the site types already recorded for the Planning Unit, the *Existing Site Data Compilation* proposes these definitions:

- 1) *surface lithic scatters*: Lithic (stone) debris or artifacts (flakes, projectile points, scrapers, milling stones) or both are visible on the surface of the ground.
- 2) *subsurface deposits*: lithic debris, artifacts, dark soil, fire-broken rock, and/or bone fragments are found below the ground's surface. The deposits are detected by stream bank erosion, rodent activity, or subsurface testing. These deposits are often referred to as "midden."
- 3) *depressions*: circular or oval-shaped pits on the surface of the ground that may be approximately five feet to twenty-five feet in width and of

varying depth. They may be encircled with stone or have stones within the interior of the depression. These depressions, often called "housepits," usually indicate that some type of structure was present, although much smaller ones may indicate storage pits or chaches, or cooking pits.

4) *burials*: human bones, which may be found in a variety of locations, including rockshelters, rock outcrops, stream banks, and subsurface deposits.

5) *petroglyphs*: various designs on rock made by carving or rubbing depressions into the rock.

6) *rock formations*: (a) a single pile of rocks, like a cairn; (b) rocks piled into certain shapes, in order to enclose or partially enclose an area; (c) rock mounds, usually larger than single rock piles.

Each recorded archaeological site in the Planning Unit has been reclassified according to these definitions in the Site Summary Table,³ and all future sites should be similarly defined.

In order to achieve a greater understanding of past human use of the Planning Unit, a classification of the *locations* of archaeological sites in the Planning Unit should be developed. Such factors as elevation, soil type, ground slope, vegetation, and availability of water should be considered in this classification. Then comparisons of site types *vis a vis* site locations can be made for purposes of inferring human use, predicting locations where sites can be expected, and predicting which types of sites are likely to be present in a given location. An effort of this nature will assist considerably in the definition of future research goals and investigation needs.

3) Extensive documentation of known and recorded sites, through formal records and published reports.

Recommendation

Because there is no standardized system for documenting archaeological sites in the Planning Unit, many recorded sites on Bureau of Land Management land need additional documentation. That is, some have not been recorded on Oregon Archaeological Site Survey forms, but only on Bureau of Land Management forms; some recorders have not responded to each category when filling out the forms; and some forms need to be updated in light of work that has been accomplished. On many forms the locations are too general--it is extremely important to pinpoint site

locations at least to the nearest quarter section. Therefore, a great deal of time must be spent locating reference points (such as corner section markers or bench marks) in relation to the site.

In addition to filling out Oregon Archaeological Survey site forms, detailed field notes should be taken at each site. Pocket recorders are useful for making many observations in a short time, and typed, transcribed notes can be filed with site forms and photographs in an organized site data compilation.

The Rogue River National Forest in Medford has published some excellent reports on testing done to evaluate sites in project areas.⁴ The Bureau of Land Management could use these as examples when performing similar evaluations.

It is strongly recommended that Oregon Archaeological Site forms and numbers be used (rather than the Bureau of Land Management forms) to systematize archaeological record-keeping in Oregon. Site forms should be filed with the State Museum of Anthropology as soon as possible.

The master maps included in the *Existing Site Data Compilation* showing archaeological site locations in the Planning Unit should be kept up to date.

Much of the work discussed here should be done by an archaeologist with a graduate degree employed by the Bureau of Land Management, or by contract with an agency specializing in cultural resource management. Updated documentation of recorded sites should be done as soon as possible.

4) Protection of archaeological sites from vandalism.

Recommendation

Hundreds of people in Oregon collect Indian artifacts as a hobby, which is lucrative because the artifacts can be sold;⁵ there are many easily accessible sites on federal property; and the sites are not patrolled. Offenders are usually not prosecuted under the Antiquities Act of 1906 and other relevant legislation on destruction of federal property. Therefore, this non-renewable resource has been and is being destroyed throughout the Planning Unit. These vandalized sites are shown on the maps in the *Existing Site Data Compilation*. Large portions of sites are eradicated for analytic purposes because distributions of artifacts critical to inferring culture sequences and activity areas have been altered.

Therefore, it is imperative that a system for surveillance and monitoring of sites on Bureau of Land Management land be initiated as soon as possible at the highest level of management. Methods for concealing sites, such as planting thick shrubbery, should be discussed.

5) Nomination of sites or districts to the *National Register*.

Recommendation

Areas or sites on Bureau of Land Management land that have been previously studied and have added substantially to the area's prehistory should be nominated to the *National Register*. Additionally, other sites should be tested to determine depth and density of cultural material. Because sites containing many artifacts and evidence of long occupational histories yield much prehistoric data, they almost always merit nomination to the *Register*. Surrounding smaller surface sites may be included in the nomination as well.

Future implementation of these five recommendations would enable the Bureau of Land Management to substantially comply with the directives of Executive Order 11593, Sections 2 (a) (b) (c) and (d).

Bureau of Land Management's Present Practices and Recommendations

Executive Order 11593, Section 2(b) forbids the destruction or substantial alteration of archaeological sites on federal land that qualify for nomination to the *National Register*. Because so little is known of the area's prehistory at present, every site is a potential nominee and must be so treated. For this reason, the Bureau of Land Management, other federal agencies, and private enterprises using federal funds must survey project areas, locate sites, and recommend mitigation measures if sites are likely to be impacted. Examples of Bureau of Land Management projects are timber sales, road building, and development of recreation sites. Of these, timber cutting impacts the greatest area and therefore the most archaeological sites.

Presently, Bureau of Land Management timber cruisers initially survey timber sales for archaeological sites, after a several-day training course in recognizing cultural material. This practice is questionable for two reasons: 1) much more training is necessary to acquaint surveyors with sampling techniques, note-taking, and other facets of archaeological survey, and 2) 36 CFR 66, Appendix C states the *minimal* professional qualifications for those performing archaeological surveys are:

The minimum professional qualifications in archeology are (a) a graduate degree in archeology, anthropology, or closely related field, or equivalent training accepted for accreditation purposes by the Society of Professional Archaeologists, (b) demonstrated ability to carry research to completion, usually evidenced by timely completion of theses, research reports, or similar documents, and (c) at least 16 months of professional experience and/or specialized training in archeological field, laboratory, or library research, administration, or management, including at least 4 months experience in archeological field research and at least one year of experience and/or specialized training in the kind of activity the individual proposes to practice.⁷

Although the Medford District archaeologist inspects timber sales where timber cruisers find sites, and in some cases sales where no sites were reported, this practice is not in the best interests of federal stewardship of these non-renewable resources. Further, the forms filled out as a result of this practice do not meet the guidelines and directives of either 36 CFR Part 800 (particularly 36 CFR 800.4(d) and (3)), or 36 CFR Part 66, Appendix B (particularly Section I), because adequate documentation is not provided (even when no sites are found, it is necessary to present detailed documentation of the methods used). It is recommended that the Medford District Office either employ qualified personnel for archaeological reconnaissance surveys, or else hire professional consultants to perform surveys. If the first alternative is chosen, care should be taken that the directives in 36 CFR Part 800 and 36 CFR Part 66 are specifically addressed. If consultants are hired, the District Archaeologist should carefully evaluate their work on the basis of these regulations.

Conclusions: Directions and Options

There are several directions or options the Medford District can use to enhance its present management of archaeological sites in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit. These are: (1) defining the significance of archaeological sites; (2) studying the effect of projects on archaeological sites; and (3) funding or otherwise encouraging research of past human use of the area.

Archaeological sites can have significance for the local community, particularly in terms of education. They are also significant to the scientific community as research material, and they are significant to the Bureau of Land Management in terms of management decisions. Their significance to each concern may often coincide.

The more information a site is thought to contain, the more significance it usually has for the scientific community, and its potential for *National Register* nomination increases. In this respect it also becomes more significant for management purposes and for public education.

The Medford District Office has developed a significance scale for archaeological sites which incorporates these three concerns:

- S-1 These sites either have yielded or can be expected to yield important information on prehistory or history or have a clear potential for interpretive development. They need not be of national significance but should be important to understanding the history or prehistory of the local area. If the S-1 designation is applied, *National Register* nomination is mandatory and management responsibilities include active protection.
- S-2 These sites appear to be of somewhat lesser importance *on the basis of present information*. They are potentially eligible for *National Register* nomination. The sites may be very extensive but of no great age, or great age but not extensive. Many old mining towns or some larger Indian sites may fall into this category. If an S-2 site is to be impacted, management responsibility would require that sufficient study be undertaken to determine its *National Register* eligibility.
- S-3 These sites are individually of little importance to understanding the history or prehistory of the area, *although a number of them taken together may be important*. Examples would be small flake scatters and small isolated cabins. Management responsibility requires that these sites be salvaged (i.e., studied and thoroughly recorded) when faced with impact. For example, a log cabin of some antiquity but no important historical associations has become an occupancy trespass problem. It may be torn down if it is photographed and thoroughly recorded.
- S-4 This designation is applied to sites which have been completely destroyed in the field. Consequently, Bureau of Land Management responsibility involves recording the site and placing a marker.⁷

This scale will be particularly useful to site significance when more is known about the area's prehistory. Presently, it should be applied with caution.

In order to facilitate multiple land use plans, it would be extremely useful to know how archaeological sites are affected by different ground disturbing activities, such as road building, timber cutting, and recreation. Studies of a few locations containing archaeological sites both before and after project implementation could help assess the changes that occur for future planning purposes. For example, it has been recommended to the Willamette Forest that

Selected sites...should be carefully mapped, and monitored over a typical season of use. Signs that would both interpret the sites and explain the necessity for protecting them should be installed at some locations, while others should be left unsigned. In this way, the relative effect of attempted public education about cultural resource values, versus attempted concealment of cultural resource sites, could be evaluated, and could provide a basis for further management decisions.⁸

Finally, the Medford District could profit by funding archaeological research, including excavation, on land it administers. Although it is expensive, excavation of a *National Register* site could be cheaper than long-term mandatory protection. Excavation is also required when destruction is unavoidable from federally initiated or authorized projects. Other research efforts to help the District determine site significance, write human-use narratives, evaluate the *National Register* potential of sites, and develop long-range planning programs are effective management tools.

HISTORY: RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Presently, historic preservation goals are in flux. In the past, preservation effort has been directed at saving particular buildings. The chief criteria were connection with an established historic event or person, antiquity, and quality of structure.⁹ In southwestern Oregon, and particularly in the Planning Unit, these criteria are inadequate. There are no historic sites more than 140 years old, and many sites are less than 100 years old. Most sites are significant for their association with particular phases of economic and social development rather than for specific events or persons. Sites are often alterations of the environment (for example, roads and mining districts) rather than individual structures. In light of these factors, historical research must anticipate the future importance of cultural resources and document the evidence in an environmental context.¹⁰ A scientific research orientation is a recent development, and new disciplines including industrial archaeology, engineering history, landscape history, and environmental history have begun to change accepted priorities regarding historic resources.

Another goal that pertains specifically to the historic resources in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit is determining the relationship of specific sites to distinct phases of the area's development. Environmental history should be considered when historic resources are evaluated and interpreted. Historic resources should be integrated with other resources to develop land planning policies from a multi-land use perspective.

Requirements for Historic Cultural Resource Data Base

The following items are necessary in order to obtain comprehensive data on historic resources:

- 1) A complete inventory of historic sites.
- 2) A site inventory relating to engineering and industrial development for the Historic American Engineering Record.
- 3) Nomination of sites or districts to the *National Register*.
- 4) Extensive documentation of inventoried sites in formal records and published reports, combining written

historical material with on-the-ground inspection.

5) Interpretive programs for specific historic sites in the Planning Unit should be developed in an environmental context.

6) Protection of historic sites from vandalism.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT ACTIONS

1) A comprehensive inventory of historic sites, as required by Executive Order 11593, Section 2 (a).

Recommendation

To date only eighteen historic sites have been recorded for the Planning Unit. The Overview narrative and *Existing Site Data Compilation* provide a base for future inventory. In addition, the study of written materials, including Donation Land Claim maps, Homestead claim files, genealogies, diaries, journals, and newspapers, is useful to determine the location and type of historic sites. In some cases the original ownership can be learned. Systematic inventory should not be limited to areas impacted by Bureau-authorized action. Areas developed early in local history (for example, the earliest mining phase, first water-driven sawmill) should be surveyed first so that protection of these sites can be initiated as soon as possible.

State of Oregon Inventory of Historic Sites and Buildings forms should be filed with the State Historic Preservation Office in addition to (or instead of) Bureau of Land Management forms in order to maintain a statewide record of historic sites.

Only people with extensive historical training should perform these inventories. Further field work, including excavation and site evaluation, should be done by a professional with graduate training in the history of land use and development, industrial archaeology, environmental history, and/or engineering and architectural history.

2) The inventory of sites relating to engineering and early industrial development for the Historic American Engineering Record.

Recommendation

In the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit a large number of historic sites relate to distinct phases of industrial and engineering development. Sites pertaining to gold mining (the foundation of southwestern Oregon's historical development)

and to the timber industry (the present economic base) are particularly important. The pack trails, wagon roads, and railroads constructed in response to the area's growth directly affected environmental history (for example, railroads made large-scale logging possible). There are notable examples of civil engineering, including bridges, hydraulic mining ditches, tunnels, wagon roads, railroad trestles, and logging railroads.

Historians and other professionals have begun to recognize the importance of our early industrial age and have developed the discipline of industrial archaeology to record it. The American Society of Civil Engineers' Committee on History and Heritage, in cooperation with the National Park Service and the Library of Congress, has organized the Historic American Engineering Record (HAER) to facilitate recording technological development in America. No HAER inventories have been done in Oregon to date. The historic sites in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit represent noteworthy aspects of industrial and engineering history in the Northwest and require thorough HAER recording, using measured drawings, photographs, and written documents. The sites may achieve national recognition if they are properly documented. The HAER cooperates with other agencies to nominate appropriate sites to the *National Register*.

3) Nomination of sites or districts to the *National Register*.

Recommendation

Historic sites or districts on Bureau of Land Management land should continue to be evaluated for their potential listing on the *National Register*. Certain sites such as wagon roads or mining districts comprise large areas under various ownership, and joint efforts should be made to nominate all sections or areas retaining the original historic integrity.

4) Systematic documentation of sites.

Recommendation

In contrast to archaeology, the study of historic resources benefits from large quantities of both primary and secondary written materials. These materials should be used to help assess and document site significance and to develop a historic site management program. In addition, personal interviews can be extremely useful where documents may be lacking, or to supplement research. Evaluation and documentation of historic sites should be based on field studies, research of written historic material, and personal interviews.

5) Development of interpretive programs for specific historic sites.

Recommendation

An interpretive program should be developed for specific historic sites containing important historical information. These sites need not be *National Register* material. They may be of either local or national significance. Public access and education should be major goals of interpretive projects. Sites near existing recreation areas are well-suited to public education.

6) Protection of historic sites from vandalism.

Recommendation

A system for surveillance of historic sites is recommended. These sites are usually accessible and are therefore easy prey for vandals.

Conclusions: Directions and Options

The management of historic sites in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit can be furthered by funding historical research and by studying the effects of Bureau-authorized actions on these resources. Additionally, the site significance scale developed by the Medford District Office needs to be amended for historical sites, and the District should hire a specialist in historical resources.

Site Significance

The S-1 designation is appropriate for historic sites. The S-2 designation, however, should be reevaluated in light of current historic preservation goals. Great age need not be a criterion for historic resources if significance in other terms, such as the development of engineering or industrial technology, is applicable.

The S-3 designation is adequate, but the long-range significance of a number of sites should be stressed. These sites should be considered in terms of their total environment. For example, the Sterling Creek Mining District not only includes remains of the ditch, settlements of whites, Chinese, and Hawaiians, the town of Sterlingville, and individual mining operations, but also the creek itself as a natural historic resource. The District should be considered a cultural resource in an environmental context. Another example is a high-elevation homestead on the forest's edge. It is

significant not only structurally, but also in terms of human use--the adaptation of marginal land for subsistence farming. Thus, evidence of clearing, road construction, vegetation and orchards, and siting of the homestead should be evaluated in an environmental context. For this type of site, a recording of only the structure would be inadequate.

The S-4 designation is adequate. In addition to recording the site, however, some recording of the environmental context of the destroyed site would be extremely valuable.

The Medford District Office should hire a specialist in historical resources on a full-time or consulting basis. The specialist should have graduate training in several of the following areas: history of land use and development (landscape history), environmental history, industrial archaeology, engineering history, historic preservation, and architectural history. At universities in Oregon and other states there are graduate programs in landscape history, environmental history, and architectural history, which integrate some or all of the closely related fields mentioned above and produce qualified professionals. Local historians familiar with places, events, people, and lifestyles in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit should be consulted in conjunction with a trained professional.

In southwestern Oregon it is fortunate that history is recent and that it has an important demonstrable connection with the present. The sense of local continuity in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit gives a tangible historical context to the present environment.

ENDNOTES

¹Adapted from C.M. Aikens, *Evaluating the Significance of Archaeological Sites for Purposes of Cultural Resource Management*, paper presented to the Oregon Academy of Sciences, Eugene, Oregon (February 28, 1977).

²36 CFR 800.10 (4). See *Federal Register*, XL, No. 24, Part II (February 4, 1975), p. 5248.

³See *Existing Site Data Compilation* for this table.

⁴For example, Jeff LaLande, *An Inventory and Evaluation Report for the Brokaw Archaeological Site, 35JA*, Jackson County, Oregon, C.R. Job RR-114, Rogue River National Forest (1977).

⁵See Marvin and Helen Davis, *Relics of the Red Man* (1972).

⁶*Federal Register*, XLI, No. 6 (January 9, 1976), p. 5382.

⁷These descriptions have been slightly modified by Follansbee.

⁸Rick Minor and Audrey Frances Pecor, *Cultural Resource Overview of the Willamette National Forest, Western Oregon*, University of Oregon Anthropological Papers, No. 12 (1977).

⁹National Trust for Historic Preservation, Tony P. Wrenn and Elizabeth D. Mulloy, *America's Forgotten Architecture* (1976), pp. 20-23.

¹⁰Kevin Lynch, *What Time Is This Place?* (1972), p. 49.

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HISTORIC CHRONOLOGY

HISTORIC CHRONOLOGY

EVENTS IN OREGON INFLUENCING THE PLANNING UNIT

- 1792: Second voyage of Captain Robert Gray, this time between the Umpqua River and Coos Bay for otter trade.
- 1792: Captain George Vancouver reaches Cape Blanco by ship for fur trade.
- 1817: British vessel Columbia at Cape Blanco. Peter Corney, diarist, is aboard.
- 1818: Alexander Ross explores upper Umpqua area.
- 1820: Thomas McKay, fur trapper, travels south by land to Umpqua region; battles Indians and withdraws.
- 1826: Hudson's Bay Company factor John McLoughlin sends fur trapping brigade to Umpqua River region.
- 1826: Finan McDonald leads first white trappers to enter Klamath Indian territory.
- 1826-1827: Peter Skene Ogden and his Hudson's Bay Company brigade work Snake River country to Klamath Lake, passing through Klamath Indian Territory.
- 1827: Ogden and company of men and women are first to enter Rogue country; camp on Rogue River, March-April.
- 1828: Jedediah Smith expedition reaches Rogue country from south; reaches south side of Chetco River and eventually Rogue River near coast.
- 1833: Michel Laframboise and John Work fur trapping expeditions, including women, pass through Rogue River Valley on return journeys from California. September 20: conflict between Rogue River Indians and Work expedition, the second large overland party journeying from California to Oregon over Siskiyou; first Indian-settler skirmish in Planning Unit area.
- 1834: Ewing Young, Hall J. Kelley, and fourteen people drive about 100 horses and mules from California to Oregon; murder several Indians, including two young warriors on the Rogue River.
- 1834: John Turner joins fourteen settlers from Willamette settlements to go to California to purchase cattle; attack by Indians at base of Siskiyou and return to Willamette Valley.

- 1835: John Turner guides seven men trying to follow trail from the Sacramento to the Columbia; conflict with Indians.
- 1836: Fort Umpqua established opposite mouth of Elk Creek and present-day Elkton.
- 1837: Ewing Young and party drive about 730 head of cattle from California to the Willamette Valley, arriving there in October after heavy losses along the way.
- 1837: Jason Lee, Methodist missionary, decides to investigate Umpqua River region for establishing mission among Indians.
- 1840: Lee arrives at Fort Umpqua with Dr. Elijah White, Rev. Hines and Indian guide.
- 1841: Lt. Charles Wilkes, commander of U.S. South Seas Survey and Exploring Expedition, orders detachment under George F. Emmons to explore land route between the Columbia River and San Francisco Bay. Party of thirty-nine included women.
- 1843: Joel P. Walker, whose family had journeyed to California with Emmons expedition, returns to Oregon driving 1,200 cattle, 200 horses and 600 sheep.
- 1845: James Clyman leads party of thirty-five men, one woman, and three children, reaching Rogue River on June 20.
- 1846: Southern emigrant route into Oregon opened by a party led by Jesse and Lindsay Applegate; later named the Applegate Trail. In August, 90-100 wagons take new route to the Willamette Valley.
- 1847: Levi Scott leads twenty men over Applegate Trail; returns in fall guiding twenty-five wagons over Trail from Fort Hall.
- 1848: John Saxton and party attempt to drive 100 horses from Oregon to California.
- 1848: James W. Marshall discovers gold at Sutter's Mill on the American River in California.
- 1850: Passage of Donation Land Act by U.S. Congress.
- 1850: Oregon Territorial Governor Joseph Lane initiates first government action toward Rogue River Indians.
- 1850: Forty-two Blacks listed in Jackson County census.
- ca. 1850: Chinese contract labor introduced to California.
- 1851: In August, William G. T'Vault attempts to open road from Port Orford to Oregon-California Trail.
- 1851: Discovery of gold at Rich Gulch, site of Jacksonville, by James Cluggage and James Poole in December.

Beginning of Oregon Gold Rush.

- 1851- Chinese miners arrive in southwestern Oregon mining
1852: regions. Steamer *Columbia* makes regularly scheduled stops at Port Orford carrying more than 200 Chinese laborers at a time.
- 1851- Rogue River Indian Wars, participated in by Takelma,
1856: Klamath, Modoc, Shasta, Deschutes, coastal Athabaskan-speaking tribes and Umpquas, and American settlers and the U.S. Army.
- 1852: Abel Helman builds water-powered sawmill on banks of Ashland Creek.
- 1852: Seven male Jews listed in Jackson County census.
- 1853: Newly organized Jackson County Court begins to establish county roads.
- 1853: Alvord-Applegate survey made for Myrtle Creek to Camp Stewart Military Wagon Road over part of Applegate Trail.
- 1853: September 10, treaty talks at Camp Alden near Table Rock established short-lived Table Rock Indian Reservation.
- 1853: Judge George H. Williams rules that slavery is outlawed in Oregon Territory.
- 1855: Lt. August V. Kautz opens route from Port Orford to Oregon-California Trail.
- 1855: U.S. government survey crew under First Lt. Robert S. Williamson and Lt. Henry L. Abbott in Oregon making Oregon-California reconnaissance for Pacific Railroad surveys, pass through Klamath and Jackson Counties.
- 1855: Jackson and Josephine Counties tax Chinese engaged in any kind of trading \$50 per month.
- 1855: J.A. Brunner and Brother, who started first long-lived business operated by Jews, erect second brick building in Oregon Territory for their store; Brunner building is used as fort during Rogue Indian War of 1855.
- 1855: Establishment of the Siletz Reservation.
- 1855- Last Rogue Indian skirmishes.
1856:
- 1856: Judge F. Adams grazes 2,000 head of cattle at Keno; first livestock drive from Jackson County to Klamath County.
- 1856: Indian Agent Palmer begins removal of all Rogue River

Indians from their native homeland to the Grande Ronde Reservation on the Yamhill River.

- 1857: Establishment of Grande Ronde Reservation.
- 1857: 1,000-1,200 Chinese miners working in Josephine County.
- 1857: Oregon Constitution ratified, denying right of suffrage to Chinese, Blacks, and mullattoes.
- 1857: Chinese miners taxed two dollars per month; tax doubled in 1858.
- 1857: September 30, Cold Springs Pack Trail from Crescent City replaced by wagon road from Crescent City to Jacksonville; stages begin tri-weekly runs.
- 1858: Siskiyou Mountain Wagon Road Company established.
- 1858-1859: Wendolen Nus grazes stock between Keno and Klamath Falls.
- 1859: Oregon becomes a state.
- 1859: Oregon Constitution, Article I, Sec. 35, denies free Blacks or mulattoes admission to Oregon (repealed in 1926).
- 1860: Census lists several "Kanaka Gulches" and "Kanaka Flats" in Jacksonville area mining districts.
- 1860s: Repressive laws passed in individual mining districts against the Chinese.
- 1860-1870: Agriculture replaces mining as economic base of Jackson County.
- 1861: Sachs Brothers Store established, branch of world-wide Jewish family enterprise.
- 1862: H.A. Overbeck grants freedom to his slave, Jackson Berry, who becomes farmer on his own land claim in 1866.
- 1862: Oregon Legislature passes poll tax against Blacks, Chinese, Kanakas (Hawaiians), and mulattoes of \$5 a year.
- 1863: First sawmill in Klamath County erected by U.S. Army.
- 1863: Jacksonville-to-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road routed by Col. Charles Drew and constructed under Captain William Kelly of U.S. Army.
- 1863: October 7, the California and Columbia Railroad, first railroad of the Pacific Northwest, is incorporated at the Jackson County Courthouse.
- 1864: New Oregon legislative act raises poll tax on Blacks, Chinese, Kanakas, and mulattoes to \$4 per quarter.

- 1864: Treaty establishes Klamath Indian Reservation within former Klamath tribal boundary.
- 1865: Union Creek Trail replaces Jacksonville-to-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road for military use.
- ca. 1865: Ball Mountain Road opens for pack train travel between Yreka and Klamath country.
- 1866: Oregon Central Railroad Company forms to construct line from Portland to meet railroad starting north from Sacramento. Congress grants 3,700,000 acres of land from public domain to help construct railroad.
- 1866-1867: Wendolen Nus becomes first settler of Klamath County.
- 1868: Ben Holladay purchases reorganized O&C Railroad Co.
- 1868: Max Muller, a Jew, elected Jackson County Treasurer.
- 1868-1873: Survey and construction of Southern Oregon Wagon Road or Green Springs Route.
- 1869: First privately owned sawmill in Klamath area built by Naylor and Hockenouse on Spencer Creek in Keno district.
- 1869-1870: O.C. Applegate constructs Ashland-Fort Klamath Wagon Road or Dead Indian Highway.
- 1870: More than two-thirds of Jewish immigrants to Jackson County have become U.S. citizens.
- 1870: One person in eight in Jackson County, or a total of 634, are Chinese.
- 1870: Swampland Act brings attention to rich pasture lands of Klamath County.
- 1870s: Anti-Chinese agitation spreads to Oregon.
- 1872: Railroad from Portland to Roseburg; Chinese labor used in railroad construction.
- 1873: First wagon road from Yreka to Keno and Klamath Falls.
- 1882: Exclusion Act of May 6 passes, suspending immigration of Chinese laborers for ten years, excluding all Chinese from U.S. citizenship.
- 1882-1909: Seven Blacks buried in Jacksonville cemetery "colored" section.
- 1884: Yreka to Keno and Klamath Falls road rebuilt and called Topsy Grade (by 1891).

- 1884: Railroad reaches Ashland from the north on April 19.
- 1887: Southern Pacific completes railroad. Last spike ceremony held at Ashland on December 17.
- 1887: Most Jewish merchants leave southwestern Oregon because of completion of railroad.
- 1887: General Allotment Act results in loss of 90 million acres of Indian land between 1887 and 1934.
- 1888: B.F. Dowell and daughter Anna argue Indian Depredation Claim for heirs of George W. and Mary A. Harris regarding 1855 attack by Rogue Indians on Harrises.
- 1890: Medford and Jacksonville Railway Co. incorporated to lay track from Medford to Jacksonville.
- 1890: Max Muller elected County Clerk; again in 1892 and 1894.
- 1890-1920: Homesteading attempts on marginal public lands; new land rush.
- 1891: Earliest rails in Klamath Co. laid by Sugar Pine Lumber Co. to Pokegama.
- 1891: Pacific and Eastern Railroad incorporated and backed by James J. Hill.
- 1895: Ann Haseltine Hill Russell, pioneer marble carver and sculptor since 1865, took over husband's marble business in Ashland. She had previously cut and sculpted a history of the 1853 Indian Uprising on a seven-foot block of granite, placed over Isham Keith's grave in Hill Cemetery by Emigrant Lake.
- 1898: Two southern Oregon women, Rebecca E. Hockersmith Fountain of Klamath County, and Margaret Chavner Thompson of Jackson County, representing their counties' committees to the State Equal Suffrage Association, sign open letter to legislative assembly of State of Oregon and the press.
- 1900: Max Muller elected County Treasurer.
- ca. 1900: Ackley Brothers and Moore Brothers mills establish logging camps near Keno.
- 1903: Klamath Lake Railroad enters county to Pokegama.
- 1908: Mrs. O.C. Applegate, Klamath County, and Hattie S. Day, Jackson County, vice-presidents of Oregon State Equal Suffrage Association, sign open letter supporting initiative for Woman Suffrage on 1908 state ballot.
- 1909: First Southern Pacific Railroad to Klamath Falls via Keno.

- 1910: Algoma Lumber Company operates large mill at Polegama until 1912.
- 1910: First train of Pacific and Eastern Railroad line reaches Butte Falls November 15.
- 1912: Woman suffrage passes in Oregon.
- 1912: Reorganization of O&C lands; 2,891,000 acres reverts to federal ownership under jurisdiction of Department of the Interior.
- 1915: Marion Towne, of Jackson County, was the first woman elected to State House of Representatives.
- 1917: Klamath Falls Municipal Railway, or Strahorn Railroad, begins construction; later became Oregon, California, and Eastern Railroad.
- 1917: Death of Regina Dorland Robinson, Jacksonville artist; she had studied and exhibited in Philadelphia, New York, San Francisco, and Portland.
- ca. 1920: Pacific and Eastern Railroad sold to Medford Corporation and sixty-five miles operated as logging railroad.
- 1921: Luther I. Powell, Klu Klux Klan leader from south, visits Medford and Portland. By that fall, several thousand Klan members in state.
- ca. 1922: Klu Klux Klan parade of white hooded Klansmen in downtown Ashland "necktie parties" and acts of violence by Klan members against Blacks and sympathizers in Jackson County.
- 1923: Completion of hard-surface Pacific Highway through Oregon and West Coast on October 26.
- 1926: Black Exclusion Article in Oregon Constitution repealed by narrow election.
- 1927: Oregon, California and Eastern Railroad taken over by Southern Pacific.
- 1928: Great Northern Railroad reaches Klamath Falls.
- 1928: Repeal of Article in Oregon Constitution, which had denied suffrage for Blacks, mulattoes, and Chinese, on June 28.
- 1930s: New small-scale "gold rush" in Jackson County during Depression Era.
- 1934: Indian Reorganization Act under John Collier's guidance.

- 1937: Oregon and California (Railroad lands) Sustained Yield Act passes.
- 1950: Jackson County census lists twelve Blacks.
- 1953: House Concurrent Resolution 108--Congressional approval of termination of Bureau of Indian Affairs.
- 1953: Public Law 280 passes by Congress ending federal, but not state, jurisdiction over Indian land.
- 1954: Public Laws 587 and 588 passed by Congress, terminating Klamath Tribe and Oregon Indian Tribe under Grande Ronde-Siletz Agency.
- 1959: Medford Corporation ceases operation of the last all-steam logging railroad in the West.
- 1970: Fifty-one Blacks listed in Jackson County Census.
- 1973: Last land remaining in Klamath Reservation sold. Government also sells Siletz Reservation.

CULTURAL RESOURCE RESEARCH AND INVESTIGATION PROJECT SUMMARY

ARCHAEOLOGY

COVE CREEK ROCK SHELTER

Principal Investigator: an amateur--Eugene Brown

Sponsoring Institution: Ashland High School (?)

Dates of Field Work: 1966-1970

Location of Field Work: Cove Creek, Jackson County, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: Apparently, to conduct a dig with high school students.

Field Procedures and Techniques: All items catalogued have horizontal coordinates given in feet and inches. Some have vertical coordinates. Others are merely assigned to a level from I to IV. Notes do not give the depths of the levels. Almost half the rockshelter interior was excavated, but not all the excavation done reached bed-rock. Profiles of the floor were made prior to excavation.

Project Results: The artifacts are currently being analyzed by Joseph Hopkins of the Department of Anthropology, Southern Oregon State College.

Evaluation of Project: Not enough is known to evaluate this site; no reports of the amateur excavation were available.

Records: Notes and photographs were taken by the amateurs. They are probably in Hopkin's possession. There are additional notes, drawings of projectile point styles, and a list of vegetation around the Cove Creek site in the Existing Site Data Compilation. This was prepared by Lyman Deich, who visited the site with Mr. Brown.

Reference: Lyman Deich

SODA CREEK SITE

Principal Investigator: Jeff LaLande

Sponsoring Institution: unknown

Dates of Field Work: 1974 (?)

Location of Field Work: Soda Creek, Jackson County

Purpose of Field Work: unknown

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: Based on the artifacts recovered at this site, LaLande inferred that it was used as a regular seasonal camp for small groups.

Evaluation of Project: The project is difficult to evaluate from the LaLande report, although the report is well-done.

Records: It is not known what kind of records were kept or where they are. LaLande should be contacted. There are some additional notes on this site by Lyman Deich in the Site Data Compilation.

Bibliographic Reference: LaLande, 1974

BROKAW SITE, C.R. JOB RR-144, ROGUE RIVER NATIONAL FOREST

Principal Investigator: Jeff LaLande

Sponsoring Institution: Rogue River National Forest

Dates of Field Work: 1977

Location of Field Work: Ashland Ranger District, Jackson County

Purpose of Field Work: archaeological reconnaissance before proposed ground disturbing activities

Field Procedures and Techniques: Walk-over survey and systematic testing.

Project Results: Two definite concentrations of cultural material were found. The artifacts and features of the sites are described in the report. No grinding tools were found. Cultural material extended to 47 centimeters below surface in one test pit. Three test pits were excavated.

Evaluation of Project: Good report on survey and testing. Further excavation and analysis need to be done.

Records: Presumably the notes and artifacts are in the possession of the Rogue River National Forest, Medford, Oregon.

Bibliographic Reference: LaLande, 1977

SURVEY OF THE KENNETH DENMAN WILDLIFE AREA

Principal Investigator: Joseph Hopkins III

Sponsoring Institution: Southern Oregon State College

Dates of Field Work: 1977 (?)

Location of Field Work: Kenneth Denman Wildlife Area, Central Point, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To assess possible impact on archaeological sites from ground disturbing activities planned for the area.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Ground survey; apparently no testing.

Project Results: Probably heavy prehistoric occupation occurred in this area. Many areas contained artifacts, but there was not testing or analysis.

Evaluation of Project: It is apparent that work needs to be done, preferably before construction takes place.

Records: Department of Anthropology/Sociology, Southern Oregon State College, Ashland, Oregon

Bibliographic Reference: Hopkins, 1977

ARCHAEOLOGICAL RECONNAISSANCE OF A PROPOSED 500 KV TRANSMISSION LINE

Principal Investigator: Julia Follansbee

Sponsoring Institution: None. The work was done under contract with Pacific Power and Light

Dates of Field Work: summer, 1975

Location of Field Work: along proposed transmission line between Malin and Medford, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To locate and evaluate archaeological sites along the proposed transmission line route and make recommendations for mitigating measures of anywhere endangered by construction of the line.

Field Procedures and Techniques: The BLM was the lead government agency in this project, and their methods were followed. These methods called for a surface reconnaissance of areas highly likely to contain archaeological sites. Choice of those areas was left to the principal investigator. She chose to investigate areas near water sources. Additionally, an eight-mile section of diverse terrain was surveyed to test the hypothesis that sites would be likely only near water sources. This proved to be the case along the transmission line route.

Project Results: Seven archaeological sites were located along the transmission line route.

Evaluation of Project: Because only certain areas along the transmission line route were surveyed, there may be more sites. It was recommended in the final report that the entire line be surveyed, because it was not always possible to tell where prehistoric water sources may have been from recently made U.S.G.S. maps.

Records: Photographs, notes, and tapes from the project are in the possession of Julia Follansbee, 1953 Columbia, Eugene, Oregon.

Bibliographic Reference: Follansbee, 1975

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY FO SHADY COVE, OREGON

Principal Investigator: Ron D. Stubbs

Sponsoring Institution: Southwestern Oregon Community College

Dates of Field Work: 1976

Location of Field Work: Shady Cove, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: Archaeological reconnaissance before construction of sewerage facilities.

Field Procedures and Techniques: A ground survey of the project area, interviews with local residents.

Project Results: Stubbs discusses a great number of sites found in and near the Shady Cove vicinity. He describes where the sites are found in relation to different property owners in Shady Cove. He states the area was extensively used by the Upland Takelma for many centuries and that subsurface sites might be encountered during pipeline installation.

Evaluation of Project: Unfortunately, Mr. Stubbs conducted no subsurface testing to determine the location of possible archaeological sites before construction began. He leaves the finding of the archaeological sites up to the construction crews, stating that a professional should be called in if they discover anything. Generally, this is not a good idea.

Records: Contact Ron Stubbs, Southwestern Oregon Community College, Coos Bay, Oregon.

Bibliographic Reference: 1976b

GOLD HILL SEWER PROJECT

Principal Investigator: Ron Stubbs

Sponsoring Institution: Southwestern Oregon Community College

Dates of Field Work: 1976 (?)

Location of Field Work: Gold Hill, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: Archaeological reconnaissance before construction of proposed sewerage facilities for Gold Hill.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Not mentioned in the report.

Project Results: Stubbs mentions a number of sites discovered previously around Gold Hill, but says he encountered none during the survey.

Evaluation of Project: Difficult because the report is not specific enough on a number of details.

Records: Contact Ron Stubbs, Southwestern Oregon Community College, Coos Bay, Oregon

Bibliographic Reference: Stubbs, 1976

HEAD ROAD-AIRPORT ROAD SECTION OF BIDDLE ROAD, MEDFORD

Principal Investigator: Richard Pettigrew

Sponsoring Institution: Museum of Natural History, University of Oregon, under contract with the Highway Division of the Oregon State Department of Transportation

Dates of Field Work: 1976

Location of Field Work: Medford, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: to find archaeological sites that might be disturbed by construction of new highway

Field Procedures and Techniques: a surface reconnaissance along the proposed project area

Project Results: No archaeological sites were discovered.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: at the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology, Eugene, Oregon

Bibliographic Reference: Pettigrew and Cole, 1976

GRANTS PASS EXCAVATIONS

Principal Investigator: David Brauner

Sponsoring Institution: Oregon State University, under contract with CH₂M Hill

Dates of Field Work: 1976

Location of Field Work: Grants Pass, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: archaeological reconnaissance and salvage of archaeological sites to be impacted by construction of sewerage facilities

Field Procedures and Techniques: These are unknown; a report was not yet published at the time this Overview was written.

Project Results: Two house pits were excavated on a terrace near the Rogue River. Two components were identified, and projectile point types from these components indicated that the house pits were not more than 500-1000 years old.

Evaluation of Project: The analysis is not yet complete

Records: Artifacts and field notes are at the Department of Anthropology, Oregon State University, Corvallis.

Bibliographic Reference: Brauner, et. al, 1976

THE MCGREGOR PARK STAGING AREA PROJECT

Principal Investigator: Joseph Hopkins III

Sponsoring Institution: Southern Oregon State College, under contract with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Portland District

Dates of Field Work: spring of 1976 (?)

Location of Field Work: north of Medford

Purpose of Field Work: archaeological reconnaissance before development of a staging area as part of the Lost Creek Dam project

Field Procedures and Techniques: Surface survey and testing of sites that were located. The test pits were 2x2 meters; the vertical components are not known.

Project Results: Testing of a site revealed that there was a stratified prehistoric site, possibly dating from the Gold Hill horizon. This site was recommended for nomination to the *National Register*. The base of a Cascade point may have been found at this site; these points may date to 6000 B.C. or earlier.

Evaluation of Project: Hopkins is the first to refer to a Gold Hill horizon, stating it was the earliest phase identified in the Lost Creek investigations.

Records: The artifacts from this site are probably still being analyzed at the Department of Anthropology at Southern Oregon State College.

Bibliographic Reference: Hopkins, 1976

JACKSONVILLE SEWER SURVEY

Principal Investigator: David Brauner

Sponsoring Institution: Oregon State University

Dates of Field Work: August, 1976

Location of Field Work: Jacksonville, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: archaeological reconnaissance of a proposed sewage treatment facilities for the city of Jacksonville.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Reconnaissance of the proposed project areas.

Project Results: A major archaeological site was discovered during the survey; it is not known if this site was tested.

Evaluation of Project: None.

Records: Contact David Brauner, Department of Anthropology, Oregon State University.

Bibliographic Reference: Brauner, 1976

MEDFORD FOREST NURSERY SITE

Principal Investigator: Jeff LaLande

Sponsoring Institution: Rogue River National Forest

Dates of Field Work: 1976 (?)

Location of Field Work: near Central Point, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: Locate and salvage archaeological sites on Forest Service land.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Testing of the discovered sites to determine their horizontal and vertical extent. Full-scale excavation was not done.

Project Results: LaLande inferred a seasonal occupation of this site, and a Gold Hill point was found, indicating an early use. However, the site depth was shallow, and much had been disturbed by agricultural activity.

Evaluation of Project: This site may be an extension of other sites discovered during a sewer survey of the area. If these other sites are

excavated, they may aid in interpreting this site.

Records: Field notes and artifacts may be in the possession of the Rogue River National Forest, Medford. A report was also written, but no bibliographic reference is available.

Bibliographic Reference: unknown

THE SALTSGAVER SITE (35JA15)

Principal Investigator: LeRoy Johnson, Jr.

Sponsoring Institution: Museum of Natural History, University of Oregon

Dates of Field Work: 1968

Location of Field Work: near Central Point, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To investigate some clay-lined pits uncovered by a landowner.

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: The description of the clay-lined pits and the inference that they were cooking pits, probably used to leach or cook acorns. It was inferred that the site was a late autumn campsite used by women. A carbon date of 3360 B.C. ± 60 was obtained from one of the pits.

Evaluation of Project: No formal report has ever been written on this site--what is known comes from personal communication with Johnson and a newspaper article. It would be desirable to have this site analyzed and reported more fully, or to discover another similar site that could be reported.

Records: Notes and a project map are in the State Museum of Anthropology (LeRoy Johnson, Jr., personal communication)

Bibliographic Reference: *Medford Mail-Tribune* article found in the Jackson County Museum Library files under "Archaeology."

KLAMATH BASIN ARCHAEOLOGY

Principal Investigator: Luther S. Cressman

Sponsoring Institution: University of Oregon

Dates of Field Work: several field seasons in the early 1950's

Location of Field Work: 1) Medicine Rock Cave, 2) Kawumkan Springs midden, and 3) some house pits along the Williamson and Sprague Rivers (all these locations are far east of the Planning Unit).

Purpose of Field Work: To investigate the relationship of ethnographic Klamath culture and prehistoric archaeological remains.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Work on the house pits was primarily aimed at determining the type of structures and any changes that took place in style of houses over time. Vertical control was in forty-centimeter units--much larger than is presently acceptable.

Project Results: Cressman was able to describe the development of Klamath culture as the subsistence economy went from general hunting and gathering to a localized fishing and *wokas* economy. He inferred a relative chronology for the Klamath area and inferred relationships with other culture areas over time, including the Columbia Plateau and the Great Basin.

Evaluation of Project: Because the controls used in excavating the Klamath Basin sites are not presently acceptable, it is difficult to judge whether many of the inferences made by Cressman are valid. However, the Klamath Basin project did provide an idea of the kind of archaeological remains to be expected there and how these remains differ from other nearby areas.

Records: Recovered artifacts and field notes are in the State Museum of Anthropology.

Bibliographic Reference: Cressman, 1956

IRON GATE ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROJECT

Principal Investigator: Luther S. Cressman

Sponsoring Institution: University of Oregon

Dates of Field Work: June and September of 1960

Location of Field Work: on the Klamath River, three miles south of the Oregon border

Purpose of Field Work: salvage work for COPCO

Field Procedures and Techniques: Grids of two-meter squares were laid out in the house floors, and excavation was limited to one square at a time. Excavation was begun in the center of the house pit to find the top floor, and each floor was followed to the outside of the pit.

Project Results: One village site, Iron Gate 2, was extensively excavated. Seven hundred and eighty-five artifacts and details of eleven house floors were recovered. A connection with the ethnographic Shasta could not be demonstrated.

Evaluation of Project: The Iron Gate report is extremely detailed and professional. It is one of the most usable reports for further research on the area.

Records: Because the University of Oregon conducted the Iron Gate excavations, the recovered artifacts and field notes may be at the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology. However, because the artifacts were recovered in California, they may have been sent to a California institution.

Bibliographic Reference: Cressman and Leonhardy, 1961; Leonhardy, 1967

SALT CAVES SITE

Principal Investigators: Dr. L.S. Cressman (1961, 1962); thereafter, David L. Cole

Sponsoring Institution: Museum of Natural History, University of Oregon, under contract with COPCO

Dates of Field Work: 1961-1963

General Location of Field Work: Township 41 south, Range 6 east, Willamette Meridian. Surveyor Mountain Quadrangle, U.S.G.S.

Purpose of Field Work: Location and salvage of archaeological sites to be inundated by the proposed Salt Cave Dam.

Field Procedures and Techniques: House pits were a major feature that were excavated during the Salt Caves archaeological project. The techniques used in excavating these house pits are not well described in the preliminary reports.

Project Results: A hunting economy was inferred for the sites, because no evidence of fishing could be found. "Chunk and sort" was described as the predominate method of stone tool manufacture. It was inferred that many of the sites had been occupied from at least 4000 B.C., and contacts were hypothesized with the Great Basin and the Columbia Plateau. A carbon date of 1420 A.D. was obtained at 35 KL 16. Two hundred and forty-six pottery sherds and a fired clay object were found at this site. The Salt Caves sites may not have been continuously occupied--there is a gap of 800-900 years after the earliest occupation until the sites were re-occupied at approximately 860 A.D. Later point styles are comparable to those found in the Rogue River Valley, by Klamath Lake, and south into California around 1400-1500 A.D.

Evaluation of Project: Joanne M. Mack is presently doing a doctoral dissertation on the Salt Cave collections. Her dissertation will probably contain an evaluation of the preliminary work done at Salt Caves.

Records: The field notes and collections have been in Ms. Mack's possession. They will be returned to the State Museum shortly.

Bibliographic References: Cressman and Wells, 1962; Cressman and Olien, 1962; Anderson and Cole, 1964. None of these reports are readily available; they are at the State Museum.

BIG BEND ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROJECT

- Principal Investigator: Luther S. Cressman (Thomas M. Newman, field supervisor)
- Sponsoring Institution: University of Oregon, financed by the California-Oregon Power Company (COPCO)
- Dates of Field Work: To locate and salvage archaeological sites to be adversely impacted by the construction of powerhouse and dam facilities by COPCO.
- Field Procedures and Techniques: Systematic sampling (?) during excavation of sites. Enough of the sites were left so that future work could be done. The excavation procedure and controls are unknown from the report.
- Project Results: Three sites were given numbered designations: 35 KL 13, 14, and 15. Most of the information came from 35 KL 13, a rockshelter, which had large concentrations of artifacts and some faunal remains. It also contained some pottery fragments. A variety of projectile point styles was observed. A number of other flaked tools and grinding tools were present. Based on the ceramics, the site was dated between 1500 and 1700 A.D. Close relationships were inferred with the Klamath area. A varied economic base for the inhabitants was suggested.
- Evaluation of Project: none
- Records: Field notes and collections are at the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology, Eugene, Oregon
- Bibliographic Reference: Newman and Cressman, 1959. See also Anderson and Cole, 1964. These reports are not readily available; they are kept at the State Museum.

ELK CREEK SURVEY AND EXCAVATION

- Principal Investigator: Wilbur A. Davis
- Sponsoring Institution: Department of Anthropology, Oregon State University, under contract with the National Park Service

Dates of Field Work: October, 1966, to August, 1967

General Location of Field Work: Elk Creek, above the Lost Creek Dam Reservoir

Purpose of Field Work: To locate and excavate archaeological sites. The Elk Creek Dam has not yet been built.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Same as Lost Creek archaeological project.

Project Results: Two sites were located: 35 JA 10 and 35 JA 11. Neither could be extensively excavated. Nine square meters were excavated altogether. Vertical controls are unknown from the report. The Terrace and Upland Phases were thought to be present on Elk Creek, as well as Lost Creek. However, the Elk Creek Valley is less habitable than the Lost Creek Valley, which may account for the smaller number of sites found there. Davis suggested that Elk Creek Valley was used as a means of reaching the Umpqua Valley to the north.

Evaluation of Project: Due to the agricultural use of the land at the time the survey was done, excavations could not be done to the extent desired by the principal investigator. It is not known if these sites still exist; it may be possible that further excavation work can be done here.

Records: It is not known if the Elk Creek artifacts have been turned over to the official state repository, the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology at the University of Oregon in Eugene. If not, they are stored at the Department of Anthropology, Oregon State University, Corvallis.

Bibliographic Reference: Davis, 1969

LOST CREEK DAM RESERVOIR

Principal Investigator: W.A. Davis

Sponsoring Institution: Oregon State University, under contract with the National Park Service

Dates of Field Work: October, 1966, to August, 1967; summer of 1972

General Location of Field Work: Lost Creek Dam Reservoir area

Purpose of Field Work: To salvage archaeological sites in danger of destruction by construction of the Lost Creek Dam.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Location and testing of archaeological sites. The survey of the pool limits included all portions of the reservoir accessible to foot travel. The horizontal and vertical controls used in testing sites are not stated in the report.

Project Results: The definition of two sequential occupation phases--the earlier Terrace Phase and the later Upland Phase. During the 1968 season four sites were excavated: 35 JA 5, 35 JA 8, 35 JA 12, and 35 JA 13. During the 1972 season seven additional sites were excavated: 35 JA 15 through 35 JA 24. These sites had been heavily vandalized. Four phases were defined on the basis of the 1972 work, and relative dates are assigned to them. These were not tied into the Terrace and Upland Phases defined earlier.

Evaluation of Project: Davis based part of his chronology on comparisons with the Gold Hill site. This comparison may not be warranted, due to the excavation procedures used at Gold Hill. Additional work may be necessary in the Planning Unit to confirm the chronological sequence Davis assigns to the Terrace and Upland Phases.

Records: It is now known if the artifacts recovered during testing and excavation of the Lost Creek site have been turned over to the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology, the official state repository for collections. If not, the artifacts are in the storage facilities of the Department of Anthropology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon.

Bibliographic References: Davis, 1968, 1974

APPLEGATE DAM RESERVOIR SURVEY AND EXCAVATIONS

Principal Investigator: David Brauner and William Honey

Sponsoring Institution: Oregon State University, under contract with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Portland District

Dates of Field Work: spring of 1977, spring and summer of 1978

General Location of Field Work: Copper, Oregon. Area to be impacted by construction of Applegate Dam and recreation facilities.

Purpose of Field Work: To locate, evaluate and salvage archaeological sites to be adversely impacted by Applegate Dam construction.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Survey of all habitable areas of the proposed project. Test excavations were done at sixteen located sites. Excavation is in progress on a number of these sites at present, and the techniques are unknown.

Project Results: Preliminary testing showed that five sites were significant enough to be nominated to the *National Register*. The results of excavation of these sites are as yet unknown.

Evaluation of Project: Not possible at this time.

Records: Artifacts recovered in testing are presently at the Department of Anthropology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon.

Bibliographic Reference: Brauner and Honey, 1977; Hopkins, Joseph, et. al., 1976; and Cole, 1966

EMIGRANT DAM RESERVOIR EXCAVATIONS

Principal Investigator: Luther S. Cressman (Thomas M. Newman, field supervisor)

Sponsoring Institution: University of Oregon, under contract with the National Park Service

Dates of Field Work: August, 1958; October, 1958

Location of Field Work: Emigrant Dam Reservoir, southeast of Ashland, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: to salvage archaeological sites near Emigrant Dam

Field Procedures and Techniques: Intensive survey and testing and excavation of located sites. Test pits were dug in one or two square meter units; test trenches were one meter wide. These were excavated in unknown vertical units until sterile soil was reached.

Project Results: Artifacts from 35 JA 1 and 35 JA 2 were described, which added to the knowledge of the artifact inventory in Jackson County. The large number of milling stones found allowed an inference of a diet largely composed of seed and nut crops. A variety of projectile point types was also recovered. Cultural relationships were suggested with both the Coast and the Klamath Basin; it was suggested that the culture represented at 35 JA 1 and 35 JA 2 was transitional between these two areas.

Evaluation of Project: This was a low-level salvage operation at a time when little was known about the archaeology of southwest Oregon. The report is not particularly useful, except for the descriptions of artifact types. Unfortunately, these are not illustrated.

Records: Artifacts and notes from this project are in the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology.

Bibliographic Reference: Newman, 1959. This report is not readily available; it is kept at the State Museum.

GOLD HILL EXCAVATIONS

Principal Investigator: Luther S. Cressman

Sponsoring Institution: University of Oregon

Dates of Field Work: 1930 (4 months); May, 1931; 1932

Location of Field Work: Gold Hill, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: excavation of a mound containing artifacts on private property. The landowner notified Cressman about this site.

Field Procedures and Techniques: The ground was opened by plowing; when a burial was encountered, the archaeologist used hand tools and brushes to remove it. It is not stated in the published reports what excavation techniques were used, but Luther Cressman told Follansbee that they were not at all acceptable by modern standards.

Project Results: A number of burials and artifacts were recovered during excavation, allowing the first prehistoric interpretation to be made for the area. For the first time, artifacts were described, as well as pathological conditions of the teeth and skulls. Cressman decided that the Gold Hill site showed more similarity to California sites than to eastern Oregon sites or sites north of the Umpqua Divide. Shells, seeds, and bones were recovered, as well as stone artifacts.

Evaluation of Project: This project was valuable in that a wide range of items was found in the site, giving an idea of the kind of sites that might be expected in southwest Oregon. However, the excavation procedures lacked standards which would allow the kind of inferences that can be made with the excavation techniques used presently. Chronologies which have been based on artifact styles found in levels of the Gold Hill site should be verified at other sites.

Records: The artifacts, burial remains, and notes are at the Oregon State Museum of Anthropology at the University of Oregon.

Bibliographic Reference: Cressman, 1933 a and b

HISTORY

SURVEY OF STATE AND LOCAL HISTORICAL RECORDS
 OREGON HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY--JACKSON COUNTY, KLAMATH COUNTY

Principal Investigators: Thomas Heap, Alfred Segsworth

Sponsoring Institution: Works Progress Administration

Dates of Field Work: 1936-1942

Location of Field Work: Jackson and Klamath Counties, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To inventory and compile data on local cultural resources

Field Procedures and Techniques: The investigators conducted research involving a documents search, locating numerous items of local historical significance, and personal interviews. Information was gathered using the following forms: the Individual Manuscript Form (WPA form 19HR), the Individual Record Form (18HR), the Miscellaneous Items Form (SWPA PD-W Form 22), the Newspaper Form (14 HR), the Unbound Record Form (13HR), the Maps and Photographs Form (15HR), the Paintings and Statuary Form (16HR), the Manuscript Collection Form (17HR), Historical Celebrations and Associations Form (SWPA PD-W Form 27), the Volumes Form.

Project Results: A large body of data was inventoried on the forms, and subsequently indexed. A six-page index of the names and subjects of personal interviews in Jackson County was compiled.

Evaluation of Project: The Jackson County survey was very thoroughly conducted, and a wealth of information has been made accessible. The Klamath County survey was very brief and is much less complete.

Records: Historical Records Survey, Oregon, for Jackson and Klamath Counties are in the Manuscript Collection of the University of Oregon Library, Oregon Collection, Eugene, Oregon. Index to Historical Records Survey is filed with the Manuscript Collection.

Bibliographic Reference: 472/Bx/66, Oregon Collection
Manuscripts, University of Oregon

SURVEY OF STATE AND LOCAL HISTORICAL RECORDS: 1936-37
OREGON HISTORICAL RECORDS SURVEY, HISTORIC BUILDINGS

Principal Investigator: Alfred Segsworth

Sponsoring Institution: Works Progress Administration

Dates of Field Work: 1936-1937

Location of Field Work: Jackson County, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To compile an inventory of existing
historical structures

Field Procedures and Techniques: Segsworth did a field survey
and interviews using the
Historic Buildings Form,
which lists physical location,
architectural description,
and materials used (including
hand preparation) as well as
historical data. When
possible, photographs were
taken.

Project Results: There are Historic Building Forms for
approximately 40 buildings in Jackson
County. In addition, a large number of
Maps and Photographs Forms, Individual
Record Forms (i.e., personal recollections),
Paintings and Statuary Forms, and Miscel-
laneous Forms are included with the Historic
Building Forms.

Evaluation of Project: The WPA survey forms are an excellent
resource. The fact that a number of
original settlers or their children
were still alive in the 1930's pro-
vided invaluable first-hand information
that otherwise would have been lost.
Many of the buildings surveyed have
since been destroyed, so that the forms
and photographs are in many cases the
only record.

Records: The Historical Records Survey, Oregon Historic
Buildings Forms are in the Manuscript Collection of
the University of Oregon Library, Oregon Collection,
Eugene.

Bibliographic Reference: 472/Bx/66, Oregon Collection
Manuscripts

GENERAL AND SPECIFIC RESEARCH ON THE APPLGATE TRAIL

Principal Investigators: Devere and Helen Helfrich

Sponsoring Institution: The Helfrich's have worked both independently and with Trails West, Inc., Reno, Nevada; the Klamath County Historical Society; and Jackson County Historical Society.

Dates of Field Work: The Helfrich's have done field work on the Applegate Trail from at least 1951 to the present.

General Location of Field Work: Linear site from Fort Hall in Idaho through Nevada and northern California, into Oregon. In Oregon the field work took place in Klamath, Jackson, Douglas, Lane, Josephine, Benton and Polk Counties.

Purpose of Field Work: To determine the actual location and condition of the routes taken by emigrant wagon trains over the Applegate Trail from 1846 on.

Field Procedures and Techniques: On-the-ground survey in conjunction with studying early maps and primary historical sources (such as diaries of emigrants who described the route). Both Helfrich's took numerous photographs recording Trail sites.

Project Results: In all, the Helfrich's, the cooperating state and county historical societies, and Trails West hope to place 150 markers, one every six miles, commemorating the Applegate Trail. Through their field work, the Helfrich's have been able to clarify the location of a number of previously unidentified portions of the original trail and the point where the trail left the California Trail.

Evaluation of Project: Devere and Helen Helfrich have combined rigorous field work with high quality historical research. Their two publications in *Klamath Echoes*, Nos. 9 and 14, are an outstanding contribution, pointing out the historical significance and urgent need for preservation of the few remaining portions of the Applegate Trail.

Bibliographic Reference: Devere and Helen Helfrich, "The Applegate Trail, I & II," *Klamath Echoes* (Klamath Falls, Oregon: Klamath County Historical Society, 1971 and 1976), nos. 9 and 14.

ANTIQUITIES SITE INVENTORY - HISTORICAL

Principal Investigator: Lyman Deich

Sponsoring Institution: Medford Office, Bureau of Land Management, Department of the Interior

Dates of Field Work: 1975 to present

General Location of Field Work: Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit, BLM-administered land

Purpose of Field Work: To locate and evaluate historical sites for future planning to mitigate potential impact on those with historical significance.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Ground surveys, photographs of sites, and personal interviews.

Project Results: Approximately eighteen historic sites have been inventoried to date.

Evaluation of Project: Follow-up historical research and clearer criteria for dating and determination of significance would make these forms much more useful.

Records: Site forms are in the files of the Bureau of Land Management, Medford Office. See Lyman Deich, archaeologist.

TOPSY ROAD SITE INVENTORY

Principal Investigator: Lyman Deich

Sponsoring Institution: Medford Office, Bureau of Land Management

Dates of Field Work: August-November, 1976

Location of Field Work: Township 40 and 41 south, Range 6 east, Willamette Meridian

Purpose of Field Work: Reconnaissance survey of Topsy Road to determine its significance as historic resource.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Physical assessment of portions of the remaining road, historic structures associated with the road, personal interviews with knowledgeable individuals, and document search.

Project Results: Through interviews a high level of local interest in the site as an historic resource became apparent. It was found that the alignment and general appearance of the road has not been altered since 1891. Several pre-1900 structures were found along the route. Deich determined that the site is highly significant as an historical cultural resource.

Evaluation of Project: Topsy Road will be nominated to the *National Register* by the Medford District Office.

Records: Site form, records and notes on file at Medford Office, Bureau of Land Management. See Lyman Deich, archaeologist.

STATEWIDE INVENTORY OF HISTORIC SITES AND BUILDINGS:
JACKSON COUNTY AND KLAMATH COUNTY

Principal Investigator: Stephen Dow Beckham

Sponsoring Institution: Oregon State Historic Preservation Office, Parks and Recreation Branch, Department of Transportation

Dates of Field Work: 1976

Location of Field Work: Jackson County and Klamath County, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To revise and expand the listings of historic sites and buildings for the purposes of site protection and development of comprehensive planning in areas with historic properties.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Beckham surveyed the major settled areas in Jackson and Klamath Counties and recorded physical descriptions of historic sites, homes, and commercial buildings. He consulted historic literature and gave descriptions of the original or historic owners of the sites.

Project Results: Over 100 Jackson and Klamath County historic sites and buildings were added to the Statewide Inventory.

Evaluation of Project: This is an invaluable resource for preliminary information and physical descriptions of historic sites and buildings in Jackson and Klamath Counties. So far the inventoried sites are mainly in settled towns and villages (e.g., Jacksonville, Ashland and Klamath Falls), and there is little data on historic sites on public lands or in rural areas.

Records: The site forms for Jackson and Klamath Counties are available from the Oregon State Historic Preservation Office, Parks and Recreation Branch, Department of Transportation, Salem, Oregon.

Bibliographic Reference: There are numerous bibliographic references recorded on the individual site forms.

HABS - HISTORIC AMERICAN BUILDINGS SURVEY
JACKSON COUNTY, OREGON

Principal Investigators: Marion Ross (1971), Mrs. Dwight L. Houghton (1963), and Jamieson Parker (1934)

Sponsoring Institution: National Park Service in cooperation with American Institute of Architects and the Library of Congress

Dates of Field Work: 1934, 1963, 1971

Location of Field Work: Jackson County, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To assemble a national collection of detailed records of historically and architecturally significant buildings.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Survey of historically and architecturally significant buildings, including photographs and measured drawings, architectural data, and historical information.

Project Results: Detailed data on significant Jackson County buildings have been added to the national collection.

Evaluation of Project: No basis for evaluation.

Records: HABS records are filed by individual building in the vertical files of the Jackson County Museum, Jacksonville. Complete HABS files are archived in the Library of Congress. Color photographs were taken by Jack Boucher for the 1971 HABS survey which are either in the Library of Congress or in the archives of the National Trust for Historic Preservation.

Bibliographic Reference: Marion D. Ross, "Preservation in Small Towns, 'Jacksonville in HABS (Historic American Buildings Survey) Color,'" *Historic Preservation*, April-June, 1972.

NATIONAL SURVEY OF HISTORIC SITES AND BUILDINGS
DESIGNATION OF JACKSONVILLE HISTORIC DISTRICT,
JACKSON COUNTY, AS NATIONAL HISTORIC LANDMARK

Principal Investigator: unknown

Sponsoring Institution: National Parks Service

Dates of Field Work: 1966

Location of Field Work: Jacksonville, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To identify historic buildings in Jacksonville's historic district and to determine national significance of district.

Field Procedures and Techniques: The National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings forms the basis of National Historic Landmark designations.

Project Results: Designation of Jacksonville Historic District as a National Historic Landmark, 1966. Bronze plaque erected at northwest corner of West California and South Third Streets in Jacksonville.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: There are probably records in the archives of the Southern Oregon Historical Society in the Jackson County Museum at Jacksonville.

Bibliographic Reference: Marion D. Ross, "Jacksonville, An Oregon Gold Rush Town," *Journal of the Society of Architectural Historians*, XII, No. 4.

NOMINATION OF SNOWY BUTTE FLOUR MILL, EAGLE POINT,
JACKSON COUNTY, OREGON, TO NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

Principal Investigator: unknown

Sponsoring Institution: unknown

Dates of Field Work: ca. 1976

Location of Field Work: Eagle Point, off Oregon Highway 62,
Jackson County, Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: To determine the potential eligibility
of Snowy Butte Flour Mill to the
National Register.

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: Approved for nomination to the *National
Register*, September 1, 1976.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: Probably in the Library of Congress; also data at
Southern Oregon Historical Society, Jackson County
Museum.

Bibliographic Reference: *Federal Register*, Vol. 42, No. 21,
Tuesday, February 1, 1977, p. 6310.

NOMINATION OF DAVID N. BIRDSEYE HOUSE,
ROGUE RIVER VICINITY, JACKSON COUNTY, OREGON

Principal Investigator: unknown

Sponsoring Institution: unknown

Dates of Field Work: ca. 1971

Location of Field Work: Rogue River vicinity, Jackson County,
Oregon

Purpose of Field Work: to determine eligibility of David N.
Birdseye house for nomination to the
National Register.

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: Approved for nomination to the *National
Register*, May 27, 1971.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: Probably in Library of Congress; also data at Southern Oregon Historical Society, Jackson County Museum

Bibliographic Reference: *Federal Register*, Vol. 42, No. 21, Tuesday, February 1, 1977, p. 6310.

NOMINATION OF THE JACKSONVILLE-TO-FORT KLAMATH
MILITARY WAGON ROAD TO THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

Principal Investigator: Jeffrey LaLande, Rogue River National Forest

Sponsoring Institution: U.S. Forest Service, Region Six, and Bureau of Land Management

Dates of Field Work: 1977

Location of Field Work: Linear feature through Jackson/Klamath Counties in vicinity of Butte Falls, Oregon.

Purpose of Field Work: To conduct segment-by-segment assessment of physical character of the road to determine whether it retains sufficient integrity (original workmanship, wagon-width, settings, etc.) to merit *National Register* nomination.

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: Those portions considered to retain characteristics of original road have been nominated to the *National Register of Historic Places*. Approval is still under consideration.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: Maps, photographs, records for respective sections of the road are in the Cultural Resource Files of the Rogue River National Forest, Winema National Forest and the Medford District of the Bureau of Land Management.

Bibliographic Reference: "Inventory and Evaluation Report, Jacksonville-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road," C.R. Job RR-195 (LaLande); "2360 SIA, Jacksonville-Fort Klamath Military Wagon Road (Calvi); "Field Notes--Obenchain Section of Military Wagon Road" (Deich).

FLUMET/JACKSON CULTURAL RESOURCE INVENTORY
CR JOB RR-200, ROGUE RIVER NATIONAL FOREST

Principal Investigator: Jeffrey LaLande

Sponsoring Institution: Rogue River National Forest

Dates of Field Work: 1977-1978

General Location of Field Work: Flumet Flat and Gulch, and Jackson Picnic Ground, Township 40 south, Range 3 west on the Applegate River, Rogue River National Forest

Purpose of Field Work: To evaluate and interpret two early hydraulic mining sites, and to conduct a cultural resources inventory of the area.

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: No equipment or habitation features were found to remain. LaLande has written an evaluation report and cultural resource inventory. Using the criteria of eligibility to the *National Register of Historic Places*, the investigator determined that none of the features at these sites be recommended for nomination. LaLande did recommend, however, that the Forest Service protect and enhance the cultural resources of the area and develop an historical interpretive program, as the major significance of the sites is its association with the local history of Chinese involvement with 19th century mining. Potential for scientific information was determined to be low at both sites.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: CR Job file, RRNF, Medford

CHINA GULCH MINING SITE CULTURAL RESOURCE INVENTORY,
CR JOB RR-51, ROGUE RIVER NATIONAL FOREST

Principal Investigator: Jeffrey LaLande

Sponsoring Institution: Rogue River National Forest

Dates of Field Work: unknown

General Location of Field Work: Northeast quarter of the northeast quarter of Section 27, Township 40 south, Range 4 west, Willamette Meridian.

Purpose of Field Work: To determine significance of site as cultural resource.

Field Procedures and Techniques: Survey of area, photographing of existing site, examination of artifacts and human-made features of the site, interviews.

Project Results: LaLande determined that the site was not eligible for nomination to the *National Register of Historic Places* or HABS. The investigator recommended that mitigation of impacts be accomplished by withdrawing site from project area, with no timber harvesting allowed within a 175-foot radius.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: CR Job File, RRNF, Medford: artifacts collected are stored at the Medford Office, Rogue River National Forest. Site forms have been filed with the State Museum.

KUAN YIN MINING SITE CULTURAL RESOURCE INVENTORY
CR JOB RR-3, ROGUE RIVER NATIONAL FOREST

Principal Investigator: Jeffrey LaLande

Sponsoring Institution: Rogue River National Forest

Dates of Field Work: unknown

Location of Field Work:

Purpose of Field Work: To determine significance of site as cultural resource.

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: LaLande is nominating the Kuan Yin site to the *National Register of Historic Places*.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: CR Job File, Rogue River National Forest, Medford

OREGON HISTORIC LANDMARKS: SOUTHERN OREGON

Principal Investigators: Hazel Walwyn, Elizabeth Sheffield, Katharyn Seiver Farr, Catherine Gribble Lynch, Willeska R. Loosley, Marguerite W. Black, etc.

Sponsoring Institution: Oregon Society of the Daughters of
the American Revolution

Dates of Field Work: unknown

General Location of Field Work: Douglas County, Coos County,
Curry County, Josephine County,
Jackson County, Klamath County,
and Lake County.

Purpose of Field Work: To compile historic data on signifi-
cant buildings and other landmarks
in Southern Oregon.

Field Procedures and Techniques: unknown

Project Results: A book entitled *Oregon Historic Landmarks:
Southern Oregon* was published in 1974 con-
taining illustrated brief histories of
specific historic sites.

Evaluation of Project: none

Records: *Oregon Historic Landmarks: Southern Oregon.*
Drain: *The Drain Enterprise*, 1974. Oregon Society
of the Daughters of the American Revolution.

COLLECTIONS

HISTORICAL ARTIFACTS COLLECTIONS

1. Jackson County Museum (Southern Oregon Historical Society):

Major historical artifacts include: pioneer period objects of clothing, dolls, toys, furniture, quilts, glassware, dishes, candlesticks, etc.; mining era objects including pan, scales and weights, pick axe, etc.; objects pertaining to the residence of Chinese miners in Jackson County including celadon, temmoku, and blue and white glazed stoneware teacups and jugs, a brick used as a gravestone containing two Chinese characters, gold scales, a roll of Chinese tea wrapped in paper printed with Chinese characters, small brass Buddha, moon lute, Chinese tea tin, a gong, etc.; artifacts from early transportation in Rogue River Valley including Wells Fargo Express objects.

Peter Britt Gallery--reconstruction of Britt's photographic studio and drawing room; extensive collection of Britt's photographic equipment, paintings, photographs, and personal items.

Regina Dorland Robinson Gallery--paintings and drawings of prominent Jacksonville artist who died in 1917.

2. Klamath County Museum

Historical artifacts include: fur trade collection including samples of beaver skin, early traps, trade articles, etc.; Applegate Trail artifacts including oxen horns, traps, nails and homemade whetstones found on the trail, etc.; objects relating to the Pacific Railroad Surveys of 1855; objects relating to ranching, sheep-shearing and wool-carding; objects related to the Indian Treaties and Modoc War including map of boundary of Klamath Indian Reservation and copies of documents; logging display including saw plates of many sizes and varieties.

ARCHIVAL COLLECTIONS

1. Jackson County Museum

The numerous collections housed in the Jackson County Museum Archives are well-catalogued and accessible. There are comprehensive Vertical Files by subject and biography (by families). There is a marriage certificate index which gives the maiden names of married women so that the too often impossible task of tracing married women's family backgrounds is made much easier.

The manuscript collection is catalogued along with books and periodicals in the large, well-organized card catalog. Many records, public documents, and newspapers are on microfilm and are catalogued.

2. Klamath County Museum

The number and quality of the museum's archival collections could not be assessed due to their inaccessibility and the lack of a catalogue or filing system. Some Klamath County newspapers are apparently on microfilm in the museum archives.

3. Oregon Historical Society, Portland

The library of the Oregon Historical Society contains well-catalogued collections of books, periodicals, newspapers, journals, manuscripts, and other archival material such as public documents and business records, which pertain to Jackson and Klamath Counties. There are also extensive Vertical File entries by subject and geographic locales related to the Planning Unit area.

4. Southern Oregon State College Library, Ashland

Special Collection F884/A78/A19x, Ashland, Oregon, Misc. Pamphlets and Clippings on Ashland.

Special Collection F884/A78/A8sx. *The Eugenia Atkinson Scrapbook*. With an index prepared by Giles S. Green, Ashland, 1938. Newspaper Clippings scrapbook.

The Southern Oregon State College Library has a number of special collections of papers of business.

5. Medford Public Library, Jackson County Library System

History Notebook Project by Marian Templeton Place, June, 1975. O REF 979.5 Place, M. This collection, a bicentennial project, is a series of history notebooks. There is a key volume which indexes the materials on Rogue Valley history and the Indians of southern Oregon. The history notebooks and numerous individual titles were gathered from many sources, indexed where practical, and bound. The collection key volume is organized as follows: 1) Table of contents listing each selection included in notebooks; 2) Theses and Dissertations; 3) Individual titles.

Backtrack: A Collection of Folklore. This collection was gathered and written by folklore students of the Medford Senior High.

6. Medford Office--Bureau of Land Management

Homestead Entry Files: includes claims, correspondence, legal documents, photographs, and written description of homestead claims, which had been rejected and returned to the Bureau of Land Management.

Rogue River Study by Kay Atwood--series of interviews with older members of the community who have lived and worked on the Rogue River.

7. Bancroft Collection, Hubert H. Bancroft Library, Berkeley, California

For a complete listing see Walter C. Woodward, "A Report on the Manuscripts on Oregon in the Bancroft Collection, 1908," in the Oregon Historical Society Library, call no.: 016.979105 W899 BAN 1908.

The relevant documents include the following: B.F. Dowell Papers, court proceedings, journal and letters, etc.; dictations by Jesse Applegate, Paine P. Prim, J. Quinn Thornton, "Autobiography," etc.

8. Oregon Collection, University of Oregon Library, Eugene

The Oregon Collection has extensive well-catalogued collections of books, theses, dissertations, periodicals, newspapers, manuscripts, and other archival material. There are several special collections including the Haycox Memorial Collection. The Historical Records Survey for Oregon, done under the Works Progress Administration in 1936-1937, is kept in the manuscript collection. The Historical Records Survey data for Jackson County is particularly comprehensive, including historic buildings surveys, county court records and documents, personal interviews with early settlers, and art and artifact inventories. The material for both Jackson and Klamath Counties is indexed and filed with the manuscripts. Call no.: Or Collection, Manuscript (472) Bx 66.

The Manuscript Collection in the Oregon Collections contains much material pertaining to the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit. Among relevant works are the following:

(460) A 48 Helman, Abel D. 1824-1916 Papers 1850-92
240 p.

(517) BX 67 Jackson Co. Archives of Jackson Co. 1856-1920. Records of County Court and administrative services, taxes, etc.

- (518) BX 45 Jackson Co. School Dist. No. 5. Records 1857-68.
- (37) CA Ap52 Applegate, Elisha Lindsay. Scrapbook-biographical sketches, address and other misc. clippings, 1880-1890.
- (38) AX 4 Applegate, Lindsay (1808-92). Papers 1863-91.
- (40) AX 5 Applegate, Oliver Cromwell (1845-1938). Papers to 1938. 4,000 letters.
- (889) CB R211 Ray, C.R. Scrapbook of newspaper clippings and broadsides relating to agriculture and business in Jackson Co. 1907-13.
- (573) BX 12. Kubli General Store, Jacksonville, Account Books 1858-86. Day books, ledgers.
- (914) B 60 Rough & Ready Quartz Mining Co. Jacksonville. Treasurers Book 1861-64.
- (920) B 142. Sachs Brothers. Jacksonville. Dry goods and sundries. Ledger 1874-75.
- (278) AX 31. Dowell, Benjamin Franklin. 1826-97. Papers, 1848-80. 23 v. includes 1134 letters.

PHOTOGRAPHIC COLLECTIONS

There are numerous collections of photographs, film and glass negatives, and engravings which pertain to people and places in the Jackson-Klamath Planning Unit. The local collections are inventoried in "A Guide to the State of Jefferson, a Union List of Historical Materials Relating to Southern Oregon and Northern California," compiled by the Southern Oregon Library Federation, Portland, 1972, Oregon Historical Society Research and Bibliography, series no. 2. The major collections are in the Jackson County Museum (most notably the Peter Britt photographs) and the Klamath County Museum (particularly the Maude Baldwin photographs). The Jackson County collection is catalogued. There is no catalogue for the Klamath County Museum photographs, which are organized by subject.

In addition to local collections in numerous museums and libraries, there are relevant photographs, film and glass negatives in the collections of the Oregon Historical Society, the Douglas County Museum, Roseburg, and the Oregon Collection of the University of Oregon Library.

ETHNOGRAPHIC COLLECTIONS

1. Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, Illinois

The Field Museum contains a collection of about 300 artifacts that George Dorsey and R.C. Spink collected in the Klamath Lake region in 1900. The accession number is 690. The accession lists the artifacts, giving their English and Indian names and the purchase price of each item. The artifacts include a water jug, a wokas shaker, an arrow straightener, a comb, a mortar basket (hopper mortar), a spear, etc. Correspondence between Spink and Dorsey is available.

The custodian of collections did not know if these artifacts were stored at the Museum, or if some had been exchanged with other Museums. There are no pictures available from the Museum. The address is Field Museum, Roosevelt Road at Lakeshore Drive, Chicago, Illinois, 60605. Telephone: 312-922-9410.

2. The Lowie Museum at Berkeley, California

The Lowie Museum houses about 1,000 artifacts that were collected by S.A. Barrett in 1907 and used for his article, "The Material Culture of the Klamath Lake and Modoc Indians of Northeastern California and Southern Oregon," *University of California Publications in Anthropology and Ethnology*, V, No. 4, 239-92. Correspondence with The Lowie Museum indicated that their services and materials may not be readily available for non-academic personnel. Two weeks' notice of research intentions should be given. Address: Lowie Museum of Anthropology, Kroeber Hall, Berkeley, California, 94720.

3. Klamath County Museum

The Museum contains over 35,000 artifacts. A sample is on display, but the rest are inaccessible according to Museum Director Harry Drew. Most of those on display deal with the Klamath Indians, and they are generally informative.

The ethnographic files in this Museum are not particularly useful, and some cards contain erroneous information. No sources for the information on the cards are given. The library does contain some ethnographic literature. The photograph collection is inaccessible, according to Drew.

4. The Jackson County Museum, Jacksonville

The artifact display is very general. There are some Takelma projectile points displayed, hafted arrows and a bow, and some

pestles and other grinding tools. The display stresses Oregon rather than Jackson County and nearby areas. The information on the provenience of some of the artifacts may be available in the museum records.

This Museum has an excellent library, newspaper clippings, and other materials in the vertical files for ethnographic research, including a recent interview of Sargeant Sambo, the Shasta informant used by Dixon and Holt.

5. The State Museum of Anthropology, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon

This Museum was reorganized from the former Museum of Natural History. It is the official state repository for archaeological collections. The collections relevant to the Planning Unit are listed on the Cultural Resource Research and Investigation Project Summary forms in this Appendix.

The Museum contains site survey forms for archaeological sites recorded in Oregon. It has a library and keeps cultural resource survey reports that are not available to the public.

6. The Medford Public Library

The Medford Public Library's card catalog contains many archaeological and ethnographic source materials that duplicate those at the University of Oregon Library. An exception is Edward Curtis' volumes on the North American Indian, which are found in the rare books collection of the University Library, Oregon Collection, 970.1 C942.