Chapter II.
Methodology

When the one great scorer comes
To mark against your name
He marks, not that you won or lost,
But how you played the game.
   —Grantland Rice

This chapter describes the types of data that were used to create the oral histories that were synthesized for this study (see Appendix A; Table 1), how the oral histories were created, and how results were organized for display and analysis (see Chapters III and V). Detailed information is provided about the selection and profile of oral history subjects and interviewers who participated in the OSU Horner Museum Oral History Project of 1975 to 1989, the OSU College of Forestry Oral History Program of 1979 to 1981, and/or the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series Project from 1989 until the present (see Appendix B).

TYPES AND USES OF RESEARCH INFORMATION

At least 19 different types of information were used for research purposes during the course of this thesis. Specific sources of information are listed in the reference section and representative findings are described in text and/or displayed as tables, figures, and/or maps in the body of this document. Types of information used in this research included: 1) aerial photographs, 2) archives (including libraries), 3) artifacts, 4) drawings, 5) fossils, 6) journals (including diaries and correspondence), 7) land surveys, 8) living memory (source of oral traditions, oral histories, interviews, and consultations), 9) maps, 10) newspapers, 11) photographs (other than aerial photographs), 12) pollens, 13) popular literature, 14) satellite imagery, 15) scientific literature, 16) timber cruises, 17) tree rings, 18) vegetation patterns, and 19) video (and film).

Information was used in a variety of ways. It provided background detail and historical context for developing interview questions and strategies. Visible landscapes, objects, aerial photos and other sources of information often functioned to trigger additional memories and/or detailed interpretations from

informants Reliability and validity of informant's data were tested through "triangulation" of theoretical, disciplinary, source, methodological, and/or types of information perspectives (Berg 1998). Ultimately, data obtained through oral histories were used to create the series of monographs and archived files and objects that are the basis of this study (see Appendices A and B).

Definitions, Uses, and Values of Research Information

This section defines and discusses the use and relative values of each type of information employed in this research. The following paragraphs are organized by type and alphabetized for ease of reference.

1) Aerial photographs are photographs taken from the air typically from airplanes or balloons. Several detailed series of aerial photographs were obtained for Soap Creek Valley (Zybach et al., 1990). These photographs begin in the 1930s and continue at periodic intervals to the present; a period of nearly 65 years time (1936-1999) for which ten or more photographic datasets of the same study area locations have been taken (Zybach 1992a). Continuous series of aerial photographs provided the surest, most reliable, and most detailed form of repeat photography (Progrotskie 1974; Gruell 1980; Skovlin & Thomas 1995) used for this study. Because they were taken at specific points in time and were taken in series at intervals of less than ten years each, aerial photographs were a major value for locating and mapping landscape features and vegetation patterns and as temporal and spatial references for oral history interviews. Many interviewees provided additional information to, and interpretations of, aerial photographs discussed during the interview process (e.g., Hindes 1996).

2) Archival Records used in this study were limited to public and private records and other artifacts maintained for research purposes at libraries and designated archive facilities. Government documents and private collections included student and business reports, census data, property transaction records, photographs, maps, and legal filings, that provided important historical information about Soap Creek Valley and its forests from the early 1840s until the present (e.g., Glender 1994). Other types of archive records are listed and described separately, under more specific headings.

3) <u>Artifacts</u>, for the purposes of this study, were limited to the physical cultural remains of past and current residents and visitors in Soap Creek Valley. Such evidence dates from the cooking fires and stone tools of thousands of years ago (e.g., <u>Hanish 1994</u>) to the homes, telephone poles, and surfaced roads of today. Both prehistoric and historical artifacts served as effective tools for triggering detailed memories and corroborating information obtained from other sources (e.g., <u>Vanderburg 1995</u>).

4) <u>Drawings</u>, with a few notable exceptions, were of limited value for this research, unless one includes hand sketched maps (e.g., <u>Hindes 1996</u>) and other illustrations made during the interview process. Exceptions include the highly detailed landscape drawings in Fagan (1885) that form an important informational bridge between the land surveys of the 1850s (see Map 2) and the existing landscape photos of the 1890s (e.g., <u>Grabe 1990</u>; <u>Glender 1994</u>). A drawing of Coffin Butte in particular (see Chapter III), was instrumental in obtaining the oral histories of Jake and Wilma Rohner (<u>Rohner 1993</u>). Other drawings from this source clearly show the change from open prairie and savannah that characterized presettlement Soap Creek Valley, to the farms, open pastures, young conifer stands, and oak woodlands of the late 1800s.

5) <u>Fossils</u>, for the purposes of this study, are the remnants of prehistoric plants and animals in Soap Creek Valley, excluding the pollens, tree rings, and vegetation patterns discussed in the following paragraphs. The only example of such fossils in the study area were two elephant teeth discovered by the Glender family in 1919 and/or 1926 (see Chapter III). However, the teeth were an important part of this research for a number of reasons. When first discovered, they were widely publicized and became a part of Oregon history (<u>Glender 1994</u>). They provided important insights into past Soap Creek Valley environments and wildlife extinction processes, and strong support to a number of scientific documents generated during the 1930s and 1940s (Allison 1946; Cressman 1946; Hansen 1949). The teeth also helped demonstrate the capability of oral history subjects to add important details and interpretations to existing scientific data and were useful aides for piquing the interest and encouraging the cooperation of several study participants (<u>Glender 1994</u>; <u>Hanish 1994</u>). The larger fossil continues to provide a point of historical interest to Soap Creek Valley visitors and residents to this time (Zybach 1989; Oregon State University 1990).

6) <u>Journals</u> were the first form of historical documentation for Soap Creek Valley (Douglas 1905; Davies 1961) and the primary source of historical data for late presettlement time. Family diaries often formed the basis of important local memoirs (<u>Rawie 1994</u>) and family histories (Smith 1974; Davis & Davis 1978; Grant 1990). Correspondence dating to the 1840s (<u>Rawie 1994</u>) and continuing through the 1930s (<u>Dickey 1995</u>) and 1990s (<u>Vanderburg 1995</u>) often provided excellent information regarding forest conditions (<u>Cook 1995</u>), climate (<u>Dickey 1995</u>), wildlife populations (<u>Dickey 1995</u>), and other topics of interest. Family letters also functioned to verify, through corroboration, details of local forest history, climate, and wildlife populations obtained from other sources (<u>Dunn 1990</u>; <u>Rawie 1994</u>; <u>Dickey 1995</u>).

7) <u>Land Surveys</u> provided valuable information regarding forest cover patterns that preceded living memory (1890s), timber cruises (1910s), and aerial photographs (1930s). Detailed maps and field notes from the 1850s and 1880s recorded specific locations, sizes, and species of trees and understory vegetation on a regular grid that subdivided the landscape into square-mile sections and pioneer land claims (see Appendices F and G; Maps 2 and 5). Data regarding crops, structures, roads, and other surface features were also identified, described, and mapped. In addition to providing basic background data for this research, land surveys were also useful for interpreting and corroborating later drawings, photographs, timber cruises, aerial photographs, satellite images, and interviewee memories and assertions (e.g., <u>Olson 1994</u>).

8) <u>Living Memory</u> is the basis for oral histories, oral traditions, formal interviews, focus groups, conversations, and consultations. It is the one type of information that can be derived from dialogue with living experts and other observers (Berg 1998). Living memory is the principal, and foundational, data source used for this study and was a critical element for interpreting, corroborating, and/or locating other sources of data. Living memory was also the most useful type of information for triangulation tests of reliability and/or validity (Hoffman 1996) in that several different individuals could be queried easily at any given point in time regarding particular details, sources of information, or observations. Definitions and uses of living memory for this thesis are discussed more completely later in this chapter.

9) <u>Maps</u>, for the purposes of this study, exclude the detailed land surveys and timber cruises (and their attendant maps) that are considered separately (Zybach et al., 1990; Zybach & Maeder 1996). Cadastral (land ownership) maps from the 1920s (Metsker 1929a; 1929b; 1929c) and 1990s (Benton County Tax Assessor's Office 1990) were used to interpret current, hypothetical, and historical forest cover patterns (see Chapters I, III, IV, and V). They provided good means for directing oral history subjects to designated meeting spots and for helping to document recorded tours of the study area (<u>Rohner 1993</u>; <u>Cook 1995</u>; <u>Vanderburg 1995</u>). Maps also proved an excellent tool for interpreting aerial photographs (<u>Hindes 1996</u>) and indexing oral history monographs (<u>Rohner 1993</u>; <u>Hanish 1994</u>; <u>Cook 1995</u>; <u>Vanderburg 1995</u>). Maps are the primary medium used in this study to display and compare spatial and temporal information.

10) <u>Newspapers</u> were used extensively as a source of background data and to corroborate names, dates, and events discussed by oral history subjects. With the exception of a few magazine articles (e.g., Peterson 1994; 1998), no other news media (other than newspaper) sources were used in this study. Obituaries and news articles dating from the 1840s and 1850s provided excellent historical context; more contemporary articles provided important political and environmental details and included photographs, interviews, and results of modern information-gathering and display technologies. Newspaper articles proved to be a reliable source of data that were used in conjunction with scientific literature and oral history transcripts to verify and strengthen the validity and reliability of informant memories and observations (Hoffman 1996; Berg 1998). Recent news articles also have the value of documenting current public perceptions and sources of information regarding local, regional and national issues of concern, particularly those that might focus, or have a potential impact, on Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns (e.g., Jones 1993; Loew 1993; Stouder 1995; Hogan 1998; Brinckman 1999).

11) <u>Photographs</u> (excluding aerial photographs), were obtained from a variety of sources and documented all living memory time, from the 1890s to the present. Photographs provided an important primary source of data for this research and they were used in conjunction with tape recordings as the principal method to document the oral history research process (see Chapter III; <u>Dunn 1990</u>; <u>Grabe 1990</u>; <u>Sekermestrovich 1990</u>; <u>Rohner 1993</u>; <u>Glender 1994</u>; <u>Rawie</u>

1994; <u>Murphy 1995</u>; <u>Vanderburg 1995</u>; <u>Rowley 1996</u>). Interviewees often provided highly detailed descriptions and accounts of specific photograph collections, many dating to the 1890s (<u>Glender 1994</u>; <u>Olson 1994</u>) or before (<u>Rawie 1994</u>). Photographs were also important stimuli at key points of nearly all of the oral history interviews conducted for this study and functioned as a valuable tool to interpret and corroborate other sources and types of information. A method described as "repeat photography" (Progrotskie 1974; Gruell 1980; Rogers 1984; Skovlin & Thomas 1995) is demonstrated in several figures in Chapter III. Repeat photography involves taking new landscape photographs from the same locations and perspectives as historical photographs in order to compare differences and document change. A selection of aerial photographs taken of the same location over time is a common use of this methodology.

12) <u>Pollens</u>, fossil remains of vascular plants capable of being preserved and interpreted for tens of thousands of years (Hansen 1947), were of limited use for this study. Such sources were primarily valued for their capability to place forest cover patterns of the past 500 years in context to general patterns since the last ice age (10,000 to 15,000 years). As such, they functioned to bridge the time from the known advent of people in Soap Creek Valley (at least 10,000 years ago) until the beginning time of this study, 500 years ago. The interpretative value of pollens for the period of time of this study was minimal and limited largely to discussions of their seasonal allergenic properties.

13) <u>Popular Literature</u>, with the exception of a few local histories (Fagan 1885; Clarke 1927; Davis & Davis 1978; Smith 1974; Smith 1978; McDonald 1983; Wiese 1990) and topical books (Anderson 1993; Chase 1995), were of limited value for this study. Relatively little information specific to Soap Creek Valley exists in this format, and more precise and reliable information was readily obtained through other sources. Popular literature proved useful to establish historical context (<u>Rawie 1994</u>) and/or to further conversation (<u>Glender 1994</u>; <u>Olson 1994</u>; <u>Vanderburg 1995</u>).

14) <u>Satellite Images</u> were also of limited use for this study. They are less detailed than aerial photographs for interpretation by interviewees and less accurate than land surveys and timber cruises for depicting most forest conditions at a scale useful for comparison with other sources of information.

Additional problems are their relatively recent vintage (no data before the 1970s), their limited availability to the general public, and a general lack of ability on the part of most interviewees to interpret them. The principal use of satellite imagery in this study was the assemblage of basic GIS elevational and aspect layers (see Maps 6 and 7) as a model for future display and analysis.

15) Scientific Information was obtained and used in a number of ways for this research. A comprehensive literature review provided a framework of recognized methods for collecting data through oral histories (Dunaway & Baum 1996) to challenge or corroborate other types of data (Berg 1998); to reliably use these methods (Hoffman 1996); to provide established frameworks for summarizing research findings (Raup 1966; Zybach, Barrington, & Downey 1995; Downey, Rilatos, Sondenaa, and Zybach 1996); and to provide a theoretical basis for considering and interpreting findings (Chamberlin 1965; Giere 1979). Literature reviews also assisted in the interpretation of prehistoric landscapes that predated most oral history documentation (Cressman 1946; Hansen 1947; Sanborn 1947; Allison 1953; Hermann 1976; Orr & Orr 1981; Hermann 1985; Bradley & Jones 1995). Theoretical sources included information regarding the uses and values of oral history research (Dunuway & Baum 1996), interdisciplinary communications (McGraw & Harbison-Briggs 1989), and studies of landscape history (Hansen 1947; Hermann 1976) and forest ecology (Franklin & Hemstrom 1981; Kimmins 1987). Methodology focused on oral history research methods, particularly from historical, postmodernist, and feminist perspectives (Dunaway & Baum 1984; Gilgun 1992; Boss, Doherty, LaRossa, Schumm, & Steinmetz 1993; Schvanaveldt, Pickett, & Young 1993; Ray 1996). In general, review of scientific literature was multidisciplinary in scope, but interdisciplinary in design and application. That is, multiple scientific disciplines were identified and considered for their use to this study, and then combinations of selected sources were synthesized to serve various functions related to project design (theory), process (methodology), and analysis (corroboration and comparison). Each of these approaches can be defined as "triangulation" (Berg 1998), which typically involves the use of two or more theories, methodologies, and/or sources of information for purposes of reliability and validity. The method of multiple working hypotheses (Chamberlin 1965) is used to test current theories of forest evolution (Raup 1966; FEMAT 1993), Oregon forest prehistory (Pyne 1982; Botkin 1996), and symbiotic forest cover relationships (Schvanaveldt

et al., 1993), using accepted "weight of the evidence" approaches (Chamberlin 1965; Botkin, Cummins, Dunne, Regier, Sobel, & Talbot 1993). (Note: Many words used routinely in this thesis often carry significantly different definitions for the separate disciplines that use them. For examples: population, reliability, subject, validity, wildlife, and the word significant, itself. A "test of significance" is substantially different for an historian or a cultural resource specialist (Zybach et al., 1990) than it is for a statistician or social scientist (Boss et al., 1993). Scientific and technical terms will be defined in this study as they are first used, or used in a manner that is clear and interdisciplinary in intent, rather than specific to a particular discipline.)

16) Timber Cruises (as distinct subsets of land surveys and/or maps discussed above) provided excellent data for this study particularly for the years 1915 (Bagley 1915), 1940, 1951, 1956 (Johnson 1996: personal communication) and for the period of time from 1961 to 1990 (Rowley 1990: personal communication). Chapter III and Chapter V contain several examples of tables and maps wholly or partially derived from timber cruises. With the exception of discussions with Rowley (1997), however, they were of limited value for most of the oral history research process. A key use of timber cruises was to interpret and display new findings; a function specific to the focus of this study.

17) Tree Rings provide detailed age, fire history, and vegetational response to climate information and have been used by "dendrochronologists" and other scientists for over 60 years to research forest and climate histories. Tree rings were a useful tool for interpreting forest conditions for prehistoric time in Soap Creek Valley (see Chapter III and Chapter V). Their value for oral history interviews was primarily informational, although they were of some use for purposes of corroboration. A principal use of tree rings may be in the future, as a method for further interpretation of oral history findings or for "ground-truthing" satellite imagery to make it more reliable. The long-term OSU Research Forests' timber inventory initiated by Rowley (Johnson, personal communication: 1991; Garver, personal communication: 1996; Rowley 1996) of trees in Soap Creek Valley (see Map 3) has produced a large amount of tree ring data in the form of systematically gathered and documented "increment bores." Because most trees sampled by this method have been less than 150 years of age, the 500-

year time frame of this study provides useful information for interpreting the Research Forests' findings (see Chapter V).

18) <u>Vegetation Patterns</u> form the basis for most descriptions of "forest cover patterns" (see Chapter I). Maps, aerial photographs, and landscape photographs of forested areas are commonly used to depict these types of patterns. Contemporary Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns were a significant value to this study primarily for the same reasons that aerial photographs and timber cruises were valuable; they provide a common basis for better understanding and depicting forest cover patterns, the primary focus of this study. Documented vegetation patterns, in conjunction with early land surveys, also provided a useful source of information for interpreting late prehistoric and early historical forest cover conditions. Contemporary vegetation patterns were an exceptionally useful topic for a number of participants in this study (<u>Olson 1994</u>; <u>Vanderburg 1995</u>; <u>Hindes 1996</u>; <u>Rowley 1996</u>) and were discussed for their interpretive value for determining past conditions as well as their depiction of current conditions.

19) <u>Videos</u> (and films) were likely the most underutilized and, potentially, one of the most useful types of data associated with this study. No videos or films were located that documented Soap Creek Valley in any manner, much less forest cover patterns. The earliest documentation of this type was purposefully gathered in 1998 to record a 360-degree panorama of The Valley from its floor and a 270-degree panorama from Lewisburg Saddle (Zybach & Fraser 1998). The potential for video to efficiently capture many of the lost nuances of oral history recordings, to document recorded tours of specific locations, and to document changing forest cover conditions remains unrealized.

Primary Research Data

Oral histories are tape recorded and transcribed interviews with individuals that document living memory. Sitton, Mehaffy, and Davis (1983) define oral histories as "recollections and reminiscences of living people about their past." According to Dunaway (1996), oral histories commonly include relevant materials such as tables of contents, indexes, photographs, maps, texts, and other documents

to complement interview transcriptions. An oral history, in addition to being a final product of historical research, "differs from other sources of information in that it is also a method; it requires an active collaboration between the historian who collects the information and the narrator" (Schvaneveldt et al., 1993).

The basis for this study is the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series, a component of the SCV History Project which focused on the recollections of individuals who had lived or worked in The Valley for extended, or during critical, periods of time. Most of these individuals were in their 70s, 80s, or 90s during the completion of their personal history monographs (see Appendix A), and several produced numerous documents and artifacts of value to this study (Islam & Zybach 1999a). The primary and secondary documentation either located (identified, evaluated, and listed) or created through the process of oral history research includes several sources that can be used to contrast, compare, and interpret the history of change to Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns: oral history monographs (Table 1; Appendix A); maps (see Chapters I, III, IV, and V), photographs (see Chapters II, III, and V), indices (see Table of Contents; References, Appendices); GIS layers (see Maps 2, 3, 5, 6 and 7) computerized databases (see Appendices C, D, E, F, and G; Trosper & Zybach 1996; Islam & Zybach 1999a), artifacts (Zybach et al., 1990; Wisner 1992; Zybach & Phelps 1998; Wisner 1999; Zybach & Wisner 1999), and wildlife checklists (Sondenaa 1991; OSU College of Forestry Forest Planning Team 1993; Comacho & Notting 1997).

Gluck (1996) claims that oral history research "traditionally has been divided into three types: topical, biographical, and autobiographical." This study may constitute a fourth type of oral history—geographical—a type that has good precedence; spanning the very earliest oral history projects. Topical oral histories regard an event, circumstance, or some other thematic focus, as the basis for historiographical documentation. Examples of topical oral histories include studies of the aging process for women (Ray 1996), of the lack of African Americans in resource sciences and US resource management positions (Ponds 1993), and of a sudden decline in local wildlife species (Downey, Rilatos, Sondenaa, & Zybach 1993; Downey et al., 1996). The topic of this study is the documentation of changing forest cover patterns for a specific geographic area (see Map 2) over time (Fig. 4), so it is possible to categorize this paper as a type of topical oral history. Biographical oral histories focus on a single individual from a

variety of perspectives. Examples include oral history interviews regarding a well known scientist, business leader, athlete, artist, or politician, collected from family members, friends, and/or business associates. An autobiographical oral history is a comprehensive history of the interviewee, typically made almost entirely from their own perspective. Using this definition, several oral history monographs assembled for this study (see Table 1; Appendix A) can be individually categorized as autobiographical. The Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series, however, is probably best categorized as a "geographical oral history," qualifying as a possible fourth type of oral history. Other oral history studies have also been assembled that focus on environmental (and cultural) change for an area over time. Well known examples of this fourth type of oral history include the story of Coe Ridge (Montell 1996) and Studs Terkel's interviews with citizens of Chicago (Baum 1996). This category can also be used for more localized and lesser-known examples, including a study of northeastern Oregon wildlife (Gildemeister 1992), a rural Benton County (see Map 1) community's 20-year adaptation of the "Foxfire Model" (Alsea High School Students 1989; Baum 1996), and a cultural resources inventory centered in an urban N/NE Portland, Oregon neighborhood (Gardner, Clark, Foster, Horn, Owens, Stroud, & Ward 1992).

Summary. This study is based on a series of oral histories gathered for the purpose of documenting changing forest conditions that have occurred in a sub-basin scale watershed over several centuries' time. Products identified and/or created during the course of this study include a number of printed monographs, maps, pictures, reports, computerized databases, GIS layers, indexes, objects, etc. The synthesis of these materials, to understand better the causes and effects of changing forest cover patterns and conditions, is the principal focus of this study.

BACKGROUND AND DOCUMENTATION OF ORAL HISTORIES

Oral history research can be traced to a synthesis of age old practices of oral traditions, early anthropological and historical research methods, and new technology that occurred in the eastern US in 1948. This section briefly describes the similarities and differences between oral histories and their direct ancestor, oral traditions, the development of oral history research methodology since its

technical definition in the late 1940s, and the types and uses of historical documentation that result from the oral history research process.

Oral Traditions and Oral Histories

Oral traditions include accounts of local community and family histories and cultural beliefs that are verbally transmitted among people through stories, songs, games, myths, and other means (Nevins 1996). They have been described as unwritten knowledge passed verbally through successive generations (Vansina 1996). Appendix H provides examples of oral traditions that have been obtained through transcribed interviews and then edited for historical values (Zybach 1999). The two subjects are older, male Kalapuyans (see Fig. 1). Both were born, and had direct ancestors, in the Soap Creek Valley area, and used their native language to answer cultural and historical questions about their own past and the past of their ancestors (Jacobs 1945). Appendix I is an example of an oral tradition that has likely existed only through written history for over 130 years. The Tampico Song was read, sung and otherwise repeated verbatim in Soap Creek Valley in the late 1850s, following the creation of the town of Tampico in 1857 (see Chapter III; Davis & Davis 1978); perhaps it was even written there. After the town was disbanded in 1861 (Zybach 1989; Zybach & Meranda 1989), it is unlikely many people bothered to sing or repeat the Tampico Song; several however, thought it worth preserving, and it has continued to survive in many forms of publications.

Oral histories, in comparison to thousands (perhaps millions) of years of oral traditions, have existed for only 50 years. They are generally recognized as originating in 1948 with Professor Allan Nevin's initiation of the Oral History Project at Columbia University (Dunaway 1996). Nevin combined established interview techniques of anthropologists with a focus on factual (rather than cultural) data, and used recording equipment, rather than written notes, to document interviews. Frisch (1977) contends the primary purpose of American oral history recordings was to document "political and diplomatic history," and the main work of oral historians was "debriefing the Great Men before they [have] passed on." This reflects a common assumption among historians that oral

Fig. 1. William Hartless (Sawala), Champoeg, OR, c.1913. Sawala was born within the current city limits of Corvallis, OR, sometime around 1844. He was likely the "Unknown Heartless" (see Table D.1) of the 1860 census, a possible son of Nancy and George Heartless; all three were Chapanafa (Mary's River) Kalapuyans on the Grande Ronde Reservation rolls of that year (Whitlow 1988). Nancy and George Heartless are each believed to have been about nineteen years old at the time of Sawala's birth; they would have been young children at the time of the early 1830s prairie burning and plagues, but old enough to have remembered them. Sawala's name was changed to William Hartless and he lived long enough (at least until 1914) to witness all but the very last members of his nation to die. This photograph is thought to have been taken in 1913 by Leo Frachtenberg, an anthropologist who interviewed Hartless to obtain oral traditions of the Chapanafa Kalapuyans. Additional biographical details and a translated and edited portion of the interview are included in Appendix H.

history, as an historical tool, was intended to be explicitly archival, informational, and elitist (Frisch 1997).

Technological advancements in the 1950s and 1960s allowed oral historians to conduct oral histories more easily and efficiently than before. The advent and increased availability of portable tape recorders, copying machines, and word processors improved the quality and accuracy ofinformation obtained in oral histories and reduced the amount of time previously needed to record and transcribe formal interviews. Many oral historians soon recognized potential interviewees beyond elitists and expanded life history documentation to include the thoughts, memories, and stories of musicians, educators, black settlers, women, and other social groups (Dunaway 1996). The principal purpose of oral histories, in general, remains the documentation of memories about the recent past.

The terms "oral histories" and "oral traditions" are often used interchangeably, despite their quite different meanings. This division has resulted partly from the differing purposes and intents of each practice, and because of differences in scientific criteria. Oral traditions tend to preserve and communicate cultural information, principally through spoken words, songs, games, and gestures, whereas oral histories explicitly attempt to preserve and communicate historical data via recorded interviews and the written transcriptions of those interviews (see Table 3). The latter, technical, difference are due to historical and scientific requirements that information obtained through primary sources, such as interviews with human subjects, meet sufficient criteria to establish credibility, accuracy, and reliability (Hoffman 1996). Criteria is often established through methods which corroborates the information obtained from the interviewee (primary source) with information derived from alternate or multiple credible sources, such as signed documents, photographs, news reports, and scientific research.

Montell (1996) asserts that the use of oral traditions as having a basis in historical fact "represents an area of open controversy" that has been "severely attacked" by certain scholars "accustomed to more conventional methods of documentation." He describes a range of four "lines of thought" regarding the historical value and accuracy of documented oral traditions, or "folk history"

(Montell 1996): 1) they are of no value as history, 2) they are of some historical value, but should be used with caution, 3) they function as a mirror of history (history can be viewed through folklore, and folklore as part of history), and 4) they are grounded in historical fact. These lines of reasoning are exemplified by such scholars as: 1) Lowe ("Indian tradition is historically worthless because the occurrences, possibly real, which it retains, are of no historical significance; and because it fails to record, or to record accurately, the most momentous happenings"); 2) Paredes ("Where documents are available for comparison, one may actually trace the process—the reshaping of history to conform with the folk group's own world view, the embellishment of bare historical detail with universal motifs"); 3) Nevins ("in our more recent history the legends of pioneer settlements, mining camps, lumber-men, and the cowboys of the western range, whether in prose or ballad, are by no means devoid of light upon social and cultural history"); and 4) Pendergast and Mieghan, who asserted that "casual comments" made by Paiute Indians of southern Utah "was consistent with archaeological data some 800 years old" (all examples cited in Montell 1996).

Table 3. Basic components of oral histories and oral traditions.

Oral Traditions	Oral Histories
Information is cultural and verbal	Information is historical and documented
Focuses on songs, myths, and stories	Focuses on individuals, facts, and events
Personal and general sources	Eyewitness and 2nd hand accounts
Narrative and explanatory style	Dialogue and interpretive style
May be recorded	Always recorded
May be transcribed	Always transcribed

Finnegan (1996) states that it is important to clarify when information is obtained primarily from legends, myths, songs, etc., because the motivations to create these forms of communication may have "little direct historical relevance: they tend to reflect present realities and preoccupation's rather than those of earlier periods." Vansina (1996), whose work, in common with Finnegan's, is "primarily based on traditions still alive among people without writing," cautions that "oral tradition is not necessarily untrustworthy as a historical source, but, on the contrary, merits a certain amount of credence within certain limits." Finnegan (1996) identifies three "main classes" of oral tradition: 1) recognized

literary forms, such as poems, myths, and song lyrics (see Appendices H and I); 2) generalized historical knowledge (see Appendix H); and 3) personal recollections; often the "best source" of historical data available from oral traditions (Finnegan 1996). In order to place Finnegan's and Vansina's observations into context, it is helpful to consider the popular movies, novels, and music of modern industrial nations. Each of these media, or "art forms," is dependent on words to transmit ideas and information, yet few would argue that, in common with oral traditions, "they tend to reflect present realities and preoccupation's rather than those of earlier periods" (Finnegan 1996), and that they are "not necessarily untrustworthy as a historical source, but, on the contrary, merits a certain amount of credence within certain limits" (Vansina 1996). The popular movies, Birth of a Nation (1915) and Gone With the Wind (1939) for example, deal directly with historical details of US history, yet are routinely castigated for their misrepresentations of historical fact and their stereotypical depictions of racial relations. Were these films to be made today, modern writers and directors would undoubtedly present entirely different themes, words, music, and images, even though the times, topics, locations, and events remain the same. Oral traditions, from whom all oral histories, songs, political speeches, games, stories, myths, poems, and secrets have been derived, therefore carry much more meaning and serve far more purposes than simply documenting recent history; oral history strives to do little else.

Documentation of Oral Histories

The documentation of natural and cultural resources information is an integral part of a society's history (Nevins 1996). Berg (1998) contended oral histories provide a distinctive process of historical documentation. Oral histories require that systematically recorded interviews be transcribed in order to be used. The use of recording equipment instead of "taking notes" or other methods of recording formal interviews is advantageous in that relevant verbal nuances and background noises are documented, pauses and repeated phrases necessary to accommodate note taking are reduced, and participant spontaneity and conversational flow are usually improved. For example, the advent of video cameras and players in the 1980s has resulted in additional opportunities for oral historians to capture both event and topic of an oral history interview in a

medium that is more detailed and graphic than the tape recorded interviews and photographic snapshots of the early 1950s. As a result of changing technologies, oral histories have come to be described as "a complex form of electronic preservation of dynamic audio-visual documents" (McGraw and Harbison-Briggs 1989).

As described in a previous section of this chapter, oral history documentation is achieved through recording, organizing, and evaluating various informational sources that include language and literature, still and motion pictures, maps, charts, tables, and numerous computerized formats that include databases, GIS layers, text files, and digital images (Berg 1998). These latter types of documents were used to illuminate, corroborate, complement, and/or challenge oral histories assembled for this study. Combined uses of these formats and documents helped specifically to confirm and/or question the validity and reliability of data contained in the oral history transcripts (Hoffman 1996).

Summary. Table 3 summarizes and lists some of the key technical, methodological, and informational similarities and differences between oral traditions and oral histories. In general, oral traditions have proven to be of little value for this research, both because of their general lack of availability (only a few examples could be located) and because the information they contain is of poor historical value. Oral histories are occasionally confused with oral traditions (or "folklore") by some scholars, thereby contributing to a general lack of understanding of the historical value of documentation obtained through oral history research.

CREATION OF THE SOAP CREEK VALLEY ORAL HISTORY SERIES

The research data for this study were obtained principally from the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series project (see Chapter I; Appendix A; Islam & Zybach 1999a). A primary purpose of the project was to increase understanding of the history, ecology, and culture of the Soap Creek Valley area; an area impacted by OSU land management practices for nearly 70 years (Grabe 1990). The location, creation, and/or publication of recorded oral history interviews with individuals who were/are a part of The Valley's history was of primary importance in

completing this study. The Soap Creek Valley oral history interviews were published and distributed as a series of cross-referenced and indexed monographs (Zybach & Islam 1999) for the purposes of providing a resource base for OSU land managers (Islam & Zybach 1999b) and a research model and data source for students, researchers, and educators (see Map 3; Islam & Zybach 1999a).

Selection and Profile of Informants

Two primary objectives were used to guide the location and selection of participants for this study. First, oral history informants were selected on the basis of whether information they possessed was valid and reliable (Hoffman 1996). Second, it was essential that credible and trusting rapport was built between interviewers and interviewees in order to assure that critical data was not withheld or distorted (Dunaway 1996; Gluck 1996; Schvanaveldt et al., 1993). Additional criteria used in the selection process, the methods of contacting potential participants, and a general profile of selected subjects for the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series are described in the following paragraphs.

Criteria and methods for participant selection. Criterion used for locating existing oral histories of value to this study (see Table 1) also functioned as a basis for determining potential interview subjects. Two criteria were applied to all selections: participants must have had a first-hand knowledge of events in Soap Creek Valley and they must have lived or worked in the area for a significant period of time. Criteria used to establish the total number of oral history interviews for this study and to control the demographic profile of selected individuals included: 1) efforts to insure informants represented: women and men, local occupations, diverse experiences, and a range of ages within the specified time period (Gluck 1996; Lance 1996; Ray 1996); 2) knowledge that the number of oral history interviews conducted were limited by OSU Research Forests financial constraints (Garver 1990: personal communication; OSU College of Forestry Forest Planning Team 1993); and 3) informants must be "credible" (Giere 1979; Hoffman 1996). In order to obtain as much useful data as possible, while adhering to project budgetary constraints, OSU Research Forests Director Atkinson and Soap Creek Valley oral historian Zybach determined that a

minimum of 12 to 18 selected subjects would be interviewed and recorded for publication (see Table 4).

Older participants were given priority and interviewed first whenever possible. This precedence, or bias, was considered worthwhile because the oldest members of potential interviewees held the earliest and most fragile memories of Soap Creek Valley. One result of this approach was an imbalance in information in terms of time periods studied, in that more information regarding pre-World War I (WW I) and pre-World War II (WW II) Soap Creek Valley was obtained for the modern period subsequent to WW II. The decision to deviate from more common practices of affecting equal representation for a study time period is merited, as most of the older Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series informants are now deceased (see Table 4), whereas numerous individuals with post-WW II memories of Soap Creek Valley remain available for interviews at this time. Further, the imbalance is mitigated to some degree by the use of numerous consultants familiar with The Valley's more recent past (see Table 5).

Other factors considered when selecting participants for the new oral history series included: age and health, lucidity, quality (reliability and/or validity) of memories (Hoffman 1996), breadth of knowledge regarding times, places, and themes of research and resource management interest, willingness to cooperate with the interviewer, and availability to participate in the study. Final selection was based on the potential number of interviews to be conducted.

Informants selected for the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series were identified and/or located in one or more of five ways: literature review, archival research, referral, solicitation, and volunteer; in most instances through a combination of direct referral and third party references. In December 1989, Lorna Grabe (Grabe 1990; see Fig. 2, Tables 1 and 4) became the first person interviewed for the new oral history series. Grabe was a long-time resident of Soap Creek Valley and was selected on the basis of interest in, and knowledge of, Soap Creek Valley history, her long-standing position with the Soap Creek Schoolhouse Foundation (a local historical preservation organization and co-initiator of the Soap Creek Valley History Project), and because of her acquaintances with early-day Soap Creek Valley residents. Grabe's interview resulted in referrals to Wanda Cook (Cook 1995), Gene Glender (Glender 1994;

Fig. 2. Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series participants, 1940-1991 (see Tables 1 and 4).

Top Left. Marvin Rowley (<u>Rowley 1996</u>) stands next to the rootwad of a wind thrown Douglas-fir along the pioneer (and possibly Kalapuyan) ridge line trail dividing Bakers Creek and Oak Creek (see Map 2) during February 23, 1991 tour of Soap Creek Valley. Photograph by author.

Top Right. Bessie Gragg Murphy (<u>Murphy 1995</u>) and friend view catsears and other wildflowers on grounds of Soap Creek Schoolhouse (see Map 2 and Table 2) in April, 1991. Photograph by author.

Bottom Right. Gene Glender (<u>Glender 1994</u>) at family farm, 1940. Note old-growth savannah oak and barn (Zybach et al., 1990; Sardell, Sears, & Watson 1999) in the background (see Map 9). Both remain local landmarks at the intersection of Tampico Road and Soap Creek (formerly Sulphur Springs) Road to this time. Photographer unknown.

Bottom Left. Lorna Grabe (<u>Grabe 1990</u>) stands in front of Soap Creek Schoolhouse in period dress, April, 1991. Photograph by author.

Fig. 2

Table 4. Profile of oral history informants, 1894-1999.

Name	G	Lifetime	Profession	Interview Focus	Ref.
Murphy	F	1894-1991	Botanist	Wildflowers	11
Cook	F	1895-1991	Rancher	Stock ranching	12
Dunn	M	1898-1988	Forester	Land ownership	02
Olson	M	1898-1993	Rancher	Afforestation	07
Davies	M	1908-1985	Forester	Forest management	13
Hanish	M	1910-	Logger	Prehistoric sites	06
Dickey	M	1914-1990	Wildlife	Wildlife populations	03
Rohner, J.	M	1914-	Farmer	Grass seed farming	05
Rawie	F	1916-	Farmer	Pioneer settlement	10
Sekermestrovich	M	1918-	Firefighter	CCC fire fighting	04
Hindes, N.	M	1919-	Logger	Logging	14
Hindes, C.	M	1921-	Sawmiller	Sawmilling	14
Vanderburg	M	1923-	Sawmiller	Sawmilling	08
Glender	M	1923-	Farmer	Hunting and fishing	09
Rohner, W.	F	1925-1998	Farmer	Military occupation	05
Rowley	M	1928-	Forester	Forestry research	15
Grabe	F	c.1935	Farmer	Modern settlement	01
Total 17	(5 F/12 M)	1894-1999			15

G	Gender
Lifetime	Approximate birth and death years for informants.
Profession	Principal subject career of interest to this study.
Ref.	Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series Monograph number (see Tables 1 and A.1; Map 9)

Fig. 2), James Hanish (Hanish 1994), and Charlie Olson (Olson 1994). Direct referrals from Research Forests staff and associates resulted in interviews with Neil Vanderburg (Vanderburg 1995), who recommended Donald Dickey (Dickey 1995), a former Berry Creek resident. Bessie Murphy (Murphy 1995; Fig. 2) was recommended by OSU Research Forests Advisory Council member (OSU College of Forestry Forest Planning Team 1993) Phil Hays, and by OSU College of Forestry graduate student Marlene Finley. Charles and Norman Hindes (Hindes 1996) volunteered as interviewees after learning of the project from friends. Others, including Velma Rawie (Rawie 1994), Jake Rohner, and Willie Rohner (Rohner 1993) were referred by other Soap Creek Valley subjects (see Table 1).

Twenty-two people were ultimately identified and approached to be interviewed for this project; of these, only one declined to participate (Zybach et al., 1990). The high rate of interest and cooperation in this project facilitated strict adherence to the participant selection criteria, resulting in increased reliability and validity of the information that was subsequently obtained

Map 9. Locations of Soap Creek Valley informants, 1898-1999. Circled numbers indicate Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series' subjects by monograph number (see Tables 1 and 4). Icons and family names show relative locations of subject residences most closely associated with Soap Creek Valley history, with the exceptions of Dunn (#2), Davies (#13), and Rowley (#15). The latter three informants are shown near their OSU base of professional operations. Uncircled numbers correspond to 1929 landowner names and types listed in Table D.3. Solid lines surrounding numbers designate 1929 property boundaries.
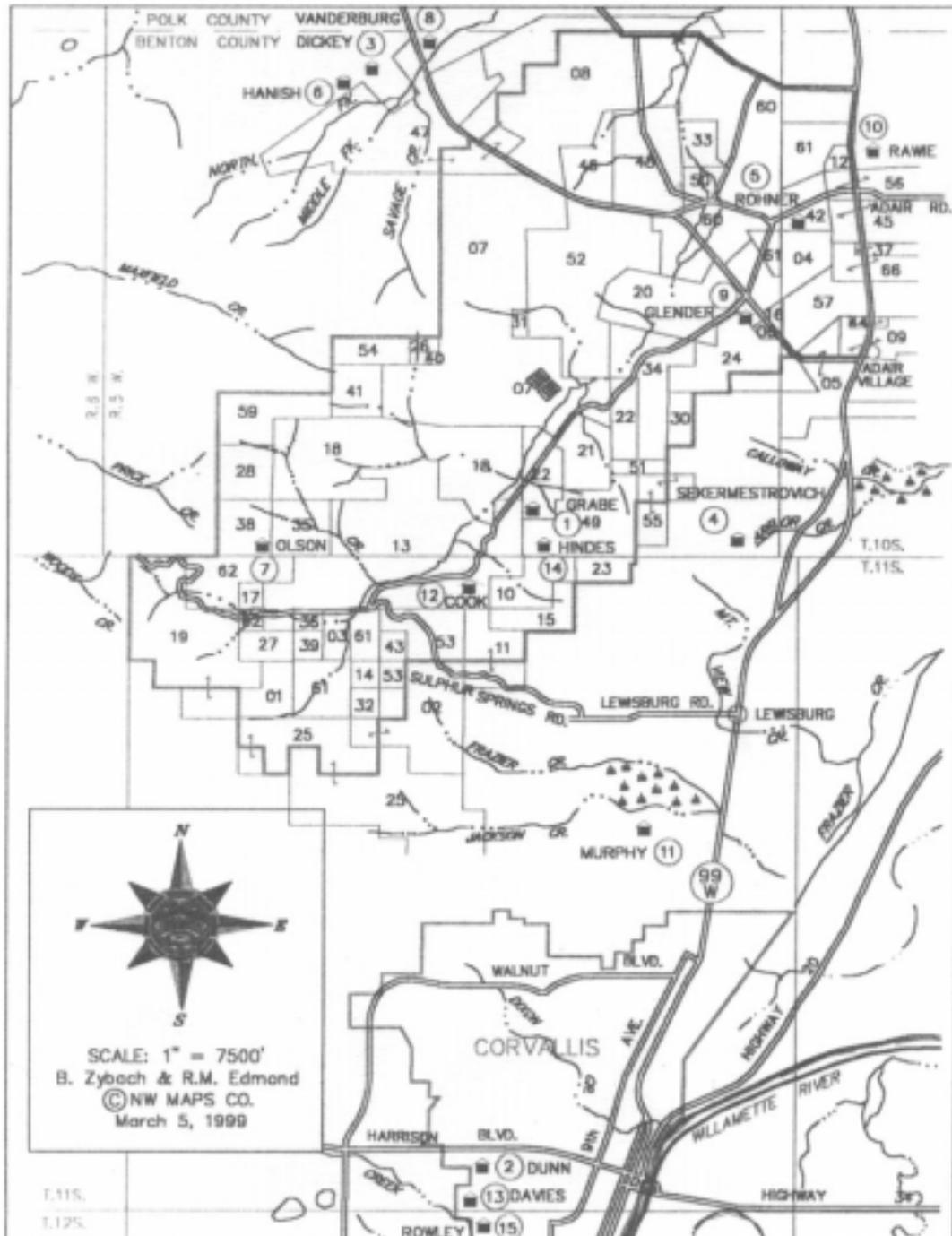
Table 5. Profile of research study consultants, 1984-1999. This table lists the name, gender, professional discipline, organization or university, and time(s) of consultation(s) for individuals cited in this thesis. Note the multiple scientific disciplines and ratio of genders represented by these experts, and compare with Table 4. Of the 34 cited consultants, 22 are male; a partial result of the historical preponderance of males in the forest science and resource management professions.

Name	G	Dates	Affiliation and Discipline
Allen, John E.	M	1989, 1996	PSU Geologist
Allison, Ira S.	M	1988	OSU Geologist
Benner, Patricia	F	1989, 1998	OSU Historical Ecologist
Blanchard, Gary	M	1995	Starker Forests, Inc. Forester
Boyd, Robert	M	1990	Portland, OR Anthropologist
Chambers, Carol	F	1992	OSU Wildlife Biologist
Chambers, Kenton	M	1989	OSU Botanist
Compton, Cecil	M	1991	OSU Horticulturist
Davies, Joan Button	F	1996, 1998	William Davies spouse
Dickey, Maxine	F	1990, 1995	Donald Dickey spouse
Dunn, Neva	F	1990, 1992	Paul M. Dunn spouse
Garver, Jeffrey	M	1990, 1996	OSU Forest Manager
Grabe, Lorna	F	1989, 1996	Soap Creek Schoolhouse Foundation
Gu, Sanliang	M	1991	OSU Horticulturist
Hays, Philip	M	1990, 1993	Corvallis, OR Botanist
Hansen, Henry H.	M	1988	OSU Palynologist
Henderson, Jan A.	M	1993	USDA Forest Ecologist
Jackson, Royal	M	1989, 1997	OSU Forest Historian
Johnson, Debora	F	1991, 1996	OSU Research Forester
Kay, Charles	M	1993, 1996	Utah Wildlife Biologist
Miller, Roger	M	1990, 1995	OSU Farm Manager
Perry, Joanne	F	1989	OSU Map Librarian
Phillips, Jerry	M	1989	ODF Forester
Rowley, Marvin	M	1990, 1998	OSU Forest Manager
Sandstrom, Harold	M	1990, 1998	OSU Forest Historian
Sessions, John	M	1996	OSU Forest Scientist
Silen, Roy R.	M	1989, 1993	USDA Forest Scientist
Smith, Pat	F	1992	Polk County, OR Farmer
Snyder, Sandra L.	F	1990	PSU Archaeologist
Sondenaa, Angela C.	F	1989, 1999	OSU Wildlife Biologist
Taylor, George	M	1999	OSU Climatologist
Trosper, Terri M.	F	1992, 1999	OSU Family Studies
Wakefield, Rex	M	1984, 1989	USDA Forest Supervisor
Webber, Bill	M	1998	Valley Landfills, Inc. General Mgr.
Total 34	(22 M/12 F)		

G	Gender of consultant
Dates	Year(s) of consultation(s)
Affiliation and Discipline	Organization and position at time of consultation

(Hoffman 1996), and added credibility to the methods used to achieve it (Berg 1998; Lance 1996). In addition to the two existing oral histories of value to this project (Berg 1983; Starker 1984), fifteen new oral history monographs have been

completed and distributed for the Soap Creek Valley History Series, with emphasis on the targeted 1900-1940 time period (see Appendix A). Pre-existing oral history monographs and transcripts were supplemented through interviews with original interviewees and/or interviewees' spouses (Sekermestrovich 1990; Dunn 1990: personal communication; Dickey 1995: personal communication; Murphy 1995; Davies 1997: personal communication; Rowley 1997). In all, nineteen oral history monographs were used for this thesis (Table 1; Appendix A), including two published (Berg 1983; Starker 1984) and several unpublished (Dunn 1990; Sekermestrovich 1990; Murphy 1995; Rowley 1996; Davies 1997) 1975-1980 OSU College of Forestry/Horner Museum interviews obtained through archival research (Table 1; Appendix B), three oral histories involving more than one interviewee (Rohner 1993; Cook 1995; Hindes 1996), and two monographs that serve as a general methodology (Islam & Zybach 1999a) and index (Zybach & Islam 1999) for the entire Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series.

Profiles of Selected Informants. Table 4 provides demographic profiles of selected interviewees, including their date of birth and (when relevant) date of death, their principal occupation or field of expertise, and a general thematic focus of individual interviews. Map 9 shows the location of informants' current and former residences relative to Soap Creek Valley. This combination of tabular, graphic, and spatial information provides context to better consider individual informant observations, and provides an idea of historical time periods and topical themes examined by the entire series of monographs (see Appendix C). Table 5 lists demographic profiles of individuals who provided information through informal discussions and consultations, rather than oral history interviews. Rowley (see Fig. 2; Table 1; Rowley 1996) is the only individual listed in both Tables 4 and 5.

Development of Data

Efforts were made to maintain consistent interviewers, interview methods, topics, and formats during all recording, transcription, editing, and publication processing phases of informant interviews (Baum 1985; Lance 1996). For example, although Soap Creek Valley oral history recordings were obtained over a 20-year period (1975-1997) with over 20 people (including a few individuals not

listed in Tables 1 and 4), only two people, Jackson (1978-1980 OSU College of Forestry recordings) and Zybach (1989-1997 Soap Creek Valley recordings), conducted almost all interviews. Consistent research design and data processing methods further enhanced the quality of interviews (Hoffman 1996; Berg 1998; Islam & Zybach 1999b), as described in the following sections.

Types of recording approaches used. Two approaches to recording oral history interviews were used in this study (Baum 1985). These approaches can be characterized as "historical event" and "historical content," as described in the following paragraphs. Generally, a modified combination of both styles was used to obtain and document most interviews. Efforts were made to accurately and fully document all interviews, yet thoroughly review and edit final transcriptions to insure printed information was accurate as possible, no matter what was initially recorded (Islam & Zybach 1999).

Historical event oral histories focus on "creation of primary source documents" (Baum 1985; Dunaway 1996). They are the result of well documented events in which an oral history interview is the primary occurrence. Historical event approaches to oral history recordings use all forms of available recording technologies, including audio tapes, photographs, handwritten notes, movies, videotapes, etc., to obtain detailed documentation's of oral history interviews. Circumstances, locations, and surroundings of recorded sessions are documented as carefully and completely as possible; verbal nuances and inflections of researchers and informants are recorded and transcribed without alteration. This method provides widely accepted, highly accurate historical documentation of, and context to, what was said, how it was said, and why it was said. The great attention given to detail in historical event oral history interviews adds significant reliability and credibility to information obtained in this manner (Hoffman 1996).

By contrast, the historical content method of producing oral histories may be far less formal. This approach stresses the clarity of ideas and opinions and accuracy of details and observations, rather than the exact wording or circumstances in which they were first described (Baum 1985; Dunaway 1996). For instance, if an informant is recorded as saying their mother was born in 1913, and the date is later determined to be 1915, then the transcript is changed to

reflect the more accurate information. A note is then added to the final transcript that such a change has been made. The recording can always be used to determine exactly what was said, and the oral historian can safely quote transcribed text with assurance that historical documentation is given priority over human recollection. Likewise, subjects are given opportunity to amend or edit their words if, upon review, an opinion is deemed to be poorly stated, inaccurate, or unnecessarily harsh or judgmental. This approach provides clarity and accuracy of the recording's content, as opposed to emphasizing the precise details and circumstances of the recording event. It also builds trust between interviewer and interviewee, who can afford to be more candid and forthcoming without fear of appearing foolish or spiteful on final transcripts.

Differences in recording circumstances and objectives existed between archived College of Forestry interviews and the newer Soap Creek Valley interviews, although both tended toward an historical content approach. These differences created somewhat differing profiles and understandings of individual participants. For example, most College of Forestry interviews were conducted in the late 1970s under formal circumstances with two interviewers in Peavy Hall on the OSU campus. By contrast, most Soap Creek Valley interviews were recorded in the early 1990s in subjects' homes and/or Soap Creek Valley locations by a single interviewer. In addition, most College of Forestry interviewees were male OSU College of Forestry students and professors with direct ties to forestry professions, while most Soap Creek Valley interviewees were elderly male and female former residents of The Valley, from a wider variety of professional disciplines (see Table 4). One result of these differences is College of Forestry interviews tend to be more formal and concentrate on scholarly topics and OSU history—including OSU Research Forests and College of Agricultural Sciences lands in Soap Creek Valley—while Soap Creek Valley interviews are more informal and focus more specifically on The Valley's social, wildlife, and landscape histories. Other differences include ages of interviewees and timing of interviews. College of Forestry subjects tended to be much younger when interviewed; either still employed or recently retired, whereas many Soap Creek Valley subjects were purposely selected because they were in their 80s or 90s. Several College of Forestry subjects were unable to consider information subsequent to their interviews (including all of the 1980s and 1990s), particularly when individual deaths preceded the 1989

creation of the Soap Creek Valley History Project (e.g., <u>Dunn 1990</u>; <u>Davies 1997</u>). Some of the best bridges between the two oral history series were provided by individuals who had been recorded in the 1970s and were willing to be interviewed again in the 1990s (<u>Murphy 1995</u>; <u>Rowley 1996</u>). Other methods of bridging the two datasets included consultations with surviving spouses (Dunn 1990: personal communication; Davies 1997: personal communication) and discussions with earlier interviewers (Jackson 1989: personal communication).

<u>Selection of topics</u>. Two primary sets of topics were used in Soap Creek Valley interviews: those generally related to the entire series and those specific to individual informants. In this manner, interviewers were able to gain detailed information and insights as recordings were added to the series and as subsequent interviews and questions became more detailed and specific. For instance, specific occurrences, such as the burning of a local house or the celebration of a particular community event, could be discussed with increasing confidence and detail, or a specific individual could be readily identified by nickname, family surname, or relationship to the interviewee. These types of advantages allowed for more succinct interviews, increased subjects' confidence in interviewer's credibility, and often resulted in more complete and accurate data.

Whenever possible, general topics were included in each interview and/or identified in existing transcripts. They can be categorized as: family history and migration to Soap Creek Valley; family subsistence strategies in Soap Creek Valley; local recreational, academic, and religious training opportunities; informants' impressions and memories of other Soap Creek Valley residents, including names, current addresses and telephone numbers; location and interpretation of historical documents and artifacts related to Soap Creek Valley history; identification and assessments of major events and social changes that affected Soap Creek Valley history; changes in local plant and wildlife populations; and personal perspectives regarding future changes in Soap Creek Valley.

More specific topics were based on the subject's personal experience or expertise. For example, interviews with <u>Sekermestrovich (1990)</u> included questions about US Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) road construction, tree planting, and fire suppression projects in Soap Creek Valley (Thomas 1980); <u>Dickey</u> (<u>1995</u>) discussed Soap Creek Valley wildlife populations; and <u>Rohner</u>

(1993) interviews contained questions about grass seed production. Sekermestrovich came to Oregon in the 1930s as a CCC "boy" housed in nearby Camp Arboretum (now Peavy Arboretum); Dickey was raised about a mile north of Soap Creek Valley and obtained a degree in Wildlife Science from OSC in the 1930s; and Rohner farmed grass seed row crops in Soap Creek Valley during the 1920s and 1930s. In addition, interviewees sometimes initiated specific topics, such as Olson's (1994) recollections of a local timber ownership dispute or Vanderburg's (1995) memories of the Sulphur Springs trail to Oak Creek.

The recorded discussions of general and specific Soap Creek Valley topics provided an excellent basis for building a detailed account of Soap Creek Valley history, as well as numerous opportunities to compare memories of individual subjects. For example, Olson (1994) and Cook (1995) provide quite different accounts of a pre-WW I structure near Sulphur Springs, and Hanish (1994) and Dickey (1995) offer contradictory recollections of a local population of (believed to be) feral "curly-q" horned sheep.

Interview process. The interview process used strategies that included creation, development, and/or location of needed recording and transcription tools, interview question guidelines, appropriate interview locations, and the actual conducting of interviews (Dunaway 1996; Hoffman 1996). This section describes this process in greater detail and provided context for individual oral histories and for the entire Soap Creek Valley Series.

A number of open-ended questions were used for most Soap Creek Valley interviews. A one page outline of general topics was used as a checklist to track questions during interview sessions. This procedure assured that basic project themes were discussed in detail. Interview topics were also tailored to an informant's knowledge of, and experiences in, the Soap Creek Valley area. In order to facilitate recall, interviews were often conducted at locations in which specific events had transpired; e.g., a house fire in which members of a local family had died (Glender 1994; Vanderburg 1995), or a cattle drive in the late 1930s over a trail used by CCC workers (Vanderburg 1995). Specific artifacts, including maps (Rowley 1994), aerial photographs (Glender 1994), sketches (Rawie 1994), prehistoric tools (Hanish 1994), and even broken glass, old bricks, and nails (Hindes 1996) were used to obtain informant interpretations and

stimulate memories regarding specific events, times, and/or places. In most instances, locations, scenes, objects, and other forms of stimulus proved very effective in rekindling memories or triggering additional thoughts (Olson 1994; Cook 1995).

Research assistants were used during the interview process whenever possible. The presence of an additional person made uses of audio recording and photographic equipment easier, created a buffer between the primary interviewer and the subject (often found useful for improving clarity or defusing tension during discussions), and provided additional expertise. In instances where two individuals were being interviewed at the same time (Rohner 1993; Hindes 1996), assistants were not employed due to the potential for added confusion or distraction. Assistants were also not used when it was felt they might make a subject nervous, less candid, or otherwise uncomfortable (Rawie 1994; Cook 1995).

Interviews were conducted at times, locations and under circumstances that were convenient and agreeable to the subjects. This was done partly to build rapport between interviewers and interviewees in order to increase trust, reduce apprehension, and discourage overly-guarded responses. Subjects were informed of their right to stop interviews at any time, to decline answering uncomfortable questions, and to have their own questions answered regarding interviewer's motives, qualifications, and/or interests in the study. Subjects were also informed of the nature of questions to be asked, told their responses would be recorded and transcribed, and that transcriptions would be published and distributed for research and educational purposes. Informants were further assured they would be given the opportunity to edit and amend any transcribed statements they made before their history was distributed (Baum 1985; Lance 1996). The combination of interviewer interest, projected academic and management uses of their work, and personal control over final results produced circumstances in which subjects were uniformly cooperative, candid, and helpful. Another result was that very little recorded information was ever eliminated or significantly altered by any of the subjects.

Recorded interviews typically began with introductions, discussion and signing of an informed consent agreement (see Appendix B), a brief display of

recording equipment with explanation of its functions and limitations, and a discussion of the basic interview plan. Recordings were stopped to change tapes, during agreed upon breaks in the interview and/or at specific request of the interviewee. Questions were occasionally repeated or rephrased in an effort to gain additional thoughts or information, but efforts were made to keep repetition to a minimum to avoid irritating the interviewees (see Olson 1994) and to maintain the flow of conversation. Most informants did not mind repeating themselves for "the record" and understood the reasons for doing so. Interviews continued as long as subjects remained willing, with the understanding that follow up interviews and written amendments could be made. Several interviews lasted more than three hours, although most recordings lasted between one and two hours.

Upon completion of recording sessions, informants were told they would receive copies of tapes and transcripts and were encouraged to make whatever edits were desired or needed (Baum 1985). Arrangements for future interview sessions were planned, if deemed necessary. When no additional recordings were warranted, subjects were thanked for their assistance and assured they would be consulted periodically until the actual publication and distribution of their histories.

Transcription and editing of interviews. Tapes of completed interviews were duplicated and originals transcribed. Copies of transcriptions were read and amended while listening to the recordings ("audited") by people present during the interview (Baum 1985). The interviewees were often the best people for this step because they were most aware of who and what was talked about, general accuracy, how names were spelled, what they had intended to say, and what had been left unsaid. Audited copies were returned to transcribers and necessary corrections and amendments were made to the manuscripts. Unpublished College of Forestry interviews (Dunn 1990; Sekermestrovich 1990; Rowley 1996; Davies 1997) had been transcribed previously from tape recordings to typewritten documents by OSU Horner Museum staff and employees. Many of these transcriptions were incomplete, contained numerous errors, and/or were not in proper sequence, but were used as obtained because the Horner recordings were made unavailable for the first several years of this project. As a result, these transcriptions were edited, but not audited, prior to

beginning the Soap Creek Valley recordings. Edits made to the Horner transcripts were transferred directly to computerized word processing software for publication formatting as monographs.

Formatting and distribution of final products. Audited and edited transcripts were prepared for publication and distribution. This process involved creating and/or selecting complementary documents (including maps, illustrations, and appendices), formatting texts and other documents into titled chapters, writing necessary captions and explanatory footnotes, arranging the total manuscript into specific numbered pages, and indexing finished materials with a common (for the entire Soap Creek Valley series) two-tiered system (Islam & Zybach 1999a). Indexes were printed, numbered, and appended as the final pages to finished manuscripts. The resulting monographs were then distributed to subjects' families, selected libraries, Research Forests' staff, archives, and other appropriate individuals and facilities (see Appendix A; Baum 1996).

Documents used to complement transcribed interviews included historical and contemporaneous photographs, new and historical maps, select correspondence, excerpts of published materials, illustrations, drawings, explanatory captions, tables of contents, and introductory statements (Hoffman 1996). Selected materials were arranged as prefaces, appendices, and/or throughout a document, depending on content and purpose of their use. Documents were either specific to an oral history (particularly photographs, tables of contents, and introductory comments), or general to the entire series. Examples of specific documents include photographs of an obsidian biface discovered in Soap Creek Valley by Hanish in the mid-1930s (Hanish 1994) and excerpts from a family scrapbook owned by Rawie dating to the mid-1840s (Rawie 1994). Examples of general documents include prefatory Soap Creek Valley History Project overviews and location maps printed in each oral history, although slight amendments were usually made for each monograph to correct data, improve clarity, and/or acknowledge individual variations in perspectives and themes (e.g., Hindes 1996; Davies 1997). Another example is the 1910 Soap Creek Precinct census data and 1941 Corvallis telephone records appended to the Glender oral history (Glender 1994), a monograph specific to the 1910-1941 time period. These documents corroborate many names, families, spellings, and

locations described by Soap Creek Valley subjects other than Glender and form a good reference source for the entire series.

Formatting the 17 Soap Creek Valley oral history monographs included placement and arrangement of chapter breaks and titles throughout final transcriptions, placement and arrangement of complementary documents, selection of common type sizes, fonts, margins, spacing, and background data, and final pagination (Islam & Zybach 1999a). Consistent formatting of oral history manuscripts was required to make indexing processes possible and facilitate data analysis. Specific page numbers and page breaks were determined before indexing was started. Chapter breaks were determined and titled thematically or, for interviews that took place during tours of the Soap Creek Valley area, by specific location. In the latter instances, interview locations were also shown and cross-referenced on detailed maps (Rohner 1993; Glender 1994; Olson 1994; Vanderburg 1995).

Data obtained through earlier published oral histories (Berg 1983; Starker 1984; see Table 1) and transcripts of deceased subjects (Dunn 1990; Davies 1997; see Tables 1, 4 and 5) initially proved of limited value for addressing specific topics of interest. The principal reason for this result is that oral history recordings and transcripts are essentially linear in nature; i.e., information is provided in a narrative format and a reader (or listener) must often "skim" materials or review them in their entirety in order to find specific details of interest. For instance, an individual interested in spotted owl populations might have a difficult time finding: 1) whether they were mentioned at all in a specific document, and/or 2) whether all references were located. The problem is exacerbated if the birds are referenced solely by Latin name (see Appendix E), or by inference ("they," "those owls," "the ESA listing," etc.). In order to address this problem, and to make certain it wasn't compounded when additional monographs and transcripts were added to the series, computerized concordance files of proper and common names, themes, topics, plants, animals, and local landmarks were assembled for the entire Soap Creek Valley History Project (Islam & Zybach 1999a). Names, keywords, and topics were arranged alphabetically in a two-tier system to allow for additional grouping and cross-referencing. The files were then used as the basis for indexing each of the monographs in the series, including previously unpublished transcripts obtained through College of

Forestry interviews. Resulting indexes were printed at the back of each monograph, which permitted consistent "non-linear access" to printed materials throughout the entire series (Baum 1996). The indexes from the first 15 Soap Creek Valley Oral History monograph (see Appendix A) were then assembled into a single document, formatted and paginated as described in preceding paragraphs, and arranged by concordance file into a "master index" for the entire series (Zybach & Islam 1999). For example, references to Paul M. Dunn Forest (see Map 3) are listed separately under "Dunn Forest," "Paul M. Dunn Forest," and grouped under "Oregon State University" "OSU Research Forests," and "College of Forestry" headings (Dunn 1990). All references to the forest were then identified by monograph and page number for the entire series (Zybach & Islam 1999). Three monographs (Rowley 1996; Zybach & Islam 1999; Islam & Zybach 1999a) remain in final draft form and have not been printed or distributed. One monograph (Davies 1997), has been printed, but remains undistributed. References and citations for this thesis refer to the most recent drafts of these documents, all of which are being prepared for transmittal to OSU Archives. It is not known if, or when, this project will be completed and/or extended by OSU Research Forests (Johnson 1996: personal communication), another OSU department, and/or possible off-campus organizations.

In addition to monographs, other research materials were compiled during the Soap Creek Valley oral history process (Baum 1996). In most instances, master copies of monographs were stored at Research Forests offices, original tape recordings were sent to the Oral History Department of the Oregon Historical Society in Portland, Oregon, and original maps, correspondence, photographs, photograph copies, and copies of tape recordings were sent to OSU Archives in Corvallis, Oregon.

DATA ANALYSIS

Soap Creek Valley oral history monographs and supplemental comparative data were organized in a variety of combinations to identify general changes and causes of change in Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns. Cross-referencing was performed to corroborate and/or determine accuracy of data. Analysis was

completed to identify specific effects of historical events, processes, and activities on forest cover patterns.

Organization

Research data were organized within stated spatial and temporal boundaries and by thematic categories. Organization facilitated data analysis and provided acceptable methods for documenting and displaying changes to Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns.

Spatial displays. Maps, aerial and landscape photographs, drawings, and other figures were used to locate and identify specific areas and/or describe forest cover patterns in Soap Creek Valley. For example, Map 9 illustrates residential locations of oral history subjects in relation to one another and to Soap Creek Valley during the times they were most closely associated with The Valley's history. Thus, Map 9 provides a basis for better interpreting individual descriptions, family photographs, records of local animal populations, logging and farming methods, and changes in plant species locations. Other maps and figures in this thesis provide additional perspectives about patterns of change over time, water drainage, forest cover conditions, land ownership, and human development.

Thematic categories. The use of structured questions, keywords, chapter breaks, and indexes facilitated development and identification of themes during the research process (Berg 1998; Islam & Zybach 1999a). Interviewees' narratives of family history, local subsistence strategies, and changing wildlife populations were leisurely (but thoroughly) discussed during the course of recorded discussions, and then systematically referenced and considered after transcriptions had been indexed and printed as monographs. The first 15 monographs in the Soap Creek Valley series are oral histories (see Appendix A; Table 1). "Monograph #16" (Zybach & Islam 1999) functions as a "master index" to the 15 oral histories. Monograph #16 includes an updated two-tiered index constructed from the same concordance files as the oral histories, permitting systematic search, location and consideration of individuals, topics and themes for the entire Soap Creek Valley series. Appendix C lists six primary historical

themes derived from this process: land ownership, land use, local politics, structural development, transportation systems, and wildlife populations. A more detailed explanation of how systematization of data and subsequent identification of primary thematic categories for the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series was accomplished is described by Islam & Zybach (1999a).

Temporal markers and time periods. Research data was purposefully gathered with references to specific dates, particular years and seasons, and to "temporal markers." Temporal markers include: general events such as World War II and the October 12, 1962 Columbus Day Storm; local events specific to Soap Creek Valley, such as the establishment of Tampico in 1857 and the alleged burning of the "Sulphur Springs Hotel" in 1915; and events specific to the interviewee, for instance, an experience in first grade or the birth of a sibling. The consistent use of dated recollections and observations by Soap Creek Valley oral history subjects provided ready means of placing individual observations in temporal relation to one another (see Chapter V). Temporal boundaries shown in Fig. 3 illustrate the relative amount of local history spanned by Soap Creek Valley oral histories. Fig. 4 illustrates relative periods of time documented by individual subjects. By considering the temporal boundaries and type of each subject's observations of Soap Creek Valley history, insight was gained regarding credibility, accuracy, and detail provided by other individuals in the series. Recognition of common themes and temporal markers provided a sound basis for understanding better the broad patterns of The Valley's biological and cultural evolution.

Topical "time periods" for Soap Creek Valley were derived from identified themes and temporal markers. Elapsed time between markers is defined as "periods," as shown in Fig. 3 and listed as tables in Appendix C. The construction of time periods is an analytical device commonly used by historians, geologists, biologists, ecologists and other scientists to organize and consider incremental and cumulative effects of change (Hansen 1967; Berg 1998). For example, dramatic changes in Soap Creek Valley domestic animal and wildlife populations during the WW II time period (1941-1945) are nearly impossible to demonstrate on basis of individual events, seasons, or years within that period (Gleick 1987). Yet, combinations of livestock removal, fence and barn destruction, and cessation of most sporthunting, fishing, and fur trapping activities during those five years

Fig. 3. Timeline of Willamette Valley forest history, 15,000 BP-1999 AD. This timeline has been used to illustrate recent presentations and formal displays regarding the past 15,000 years of Willamette Valley forest and prairie history, including Soap Creek Valley (Zybach 1992b). Timeline periods and names are based on Allison (1946; 1953), Cressman (1946), Hansen (1947; 1949; 1961; 1967); Aikens (1975; 1993), and Allen (1984). The left hand scale is arranged in increments of 1000 years, with exception of the "Present" (European-American influences) millennium, which is slightly more than 200 years (see Appendix C). Names for earlier millennia were assigned on an interdisciplinary basis (anthropology, archaeology, botany, climatology, forest ecology, geology, paleontology), based on findings of cited sources. The colored right hand scale combines millennia into longer periods, providing additional context for current historical trends; e.g., compare the red "European" period (1788-1999) with the blue "Lake Allison" period (15,000 BP-12,800 BP).

Fig. 4. Timeline of oral history documentation, 1800 - 1999. The five oral histories shown on this graph (see Tables 1 and 4; Fig. 2) represent the documented history of Soap Creek Valley, as developed by participants in the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series (see Appendices A and C). Total time represented by this figure approximates the red "European" period shown on Fig. 3. Taken together, the two timelines illustrate oral histories as "documentation of the recent past" (Berg 1995). The
"Prehistoric Evidence" bar represents data provided by oral history informants regarding the presettlement period (before 1846) of human occupation in Soap Creek Valley. Such evidence includes obsidian artifacts and fossil plant (e.g., pollen and tree rings) and animal (e.g., bones and hair) materials.
"Historical Documentation" includes early maps, surveys, written accounts, pictures, correspondences, and photographs of the Soap Creek Valley area.
"Eyewitness Account[s]" are transcribed first person recollections that form the basis of most oral histories (see Table 6).
"Informed Interpretation" is the period of time between an informant's last direct involvement in Soap Creek Valley history and their most recent recorded interview or consultation.

Fig. 3

WILLAMETTE VALLEY FOREST TIMELINE

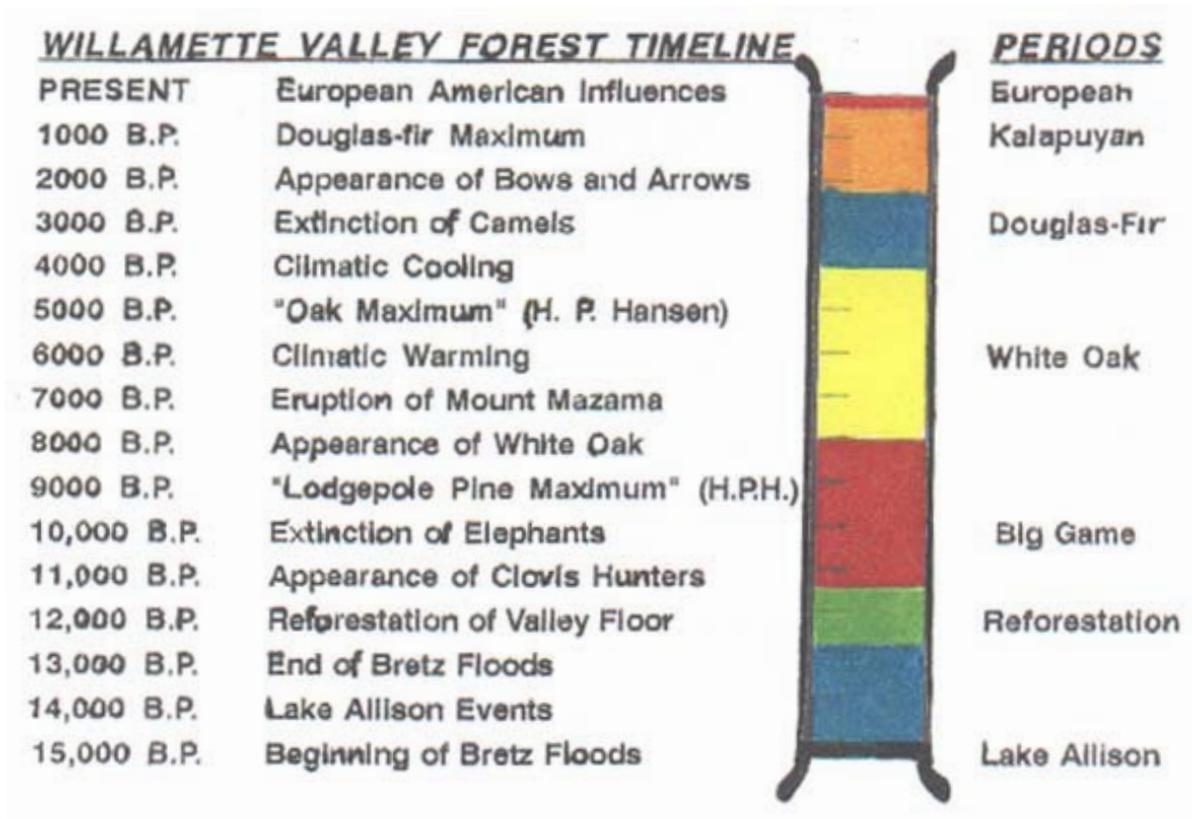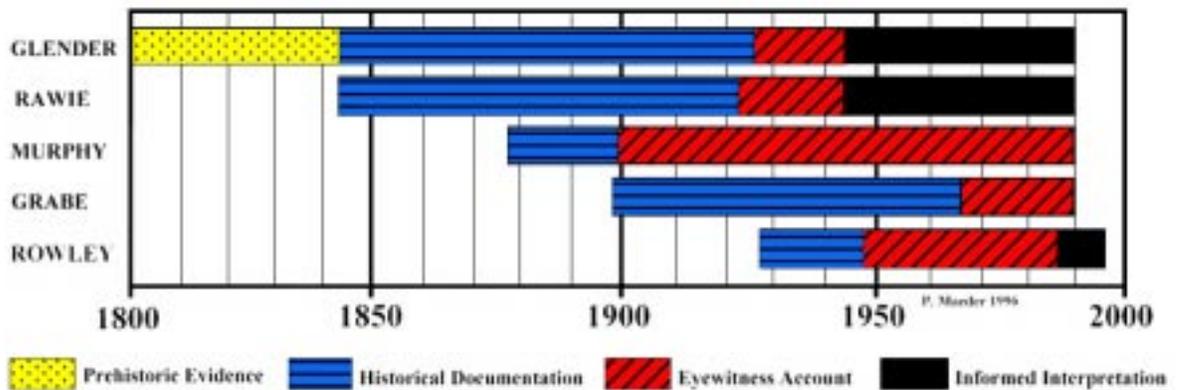|		PERIODS
PRESENT	European American Influences	European
1000 B.P.	Douglas-fir Maximum	Kalapuyan
2000 B.P.	Appearance of Bows and Arrows	
3000 B.P.	Extinction of Camels	Douglas-Fir
4000 B.P.	Climatic Cooling	
5000 B.P.	"Oak Maximum" (H. P. Hansen)	
6000 B.P.	Climatic Warming	White Oak
7000 B.P.	Eruption of Mount Mazama	
8000 B.P.	Appearance of White Oak	
9000 B.P.	"Lodgepole Pine Maximum" (H.P.H.)	
10,000 B.P.	Extinction of Elephants	Big Game
11,000 B.P.	Appearance of Clovis Hunters	
12,000 B.P.	Reforestation of Valley Floor	Reforestation
13,000 B.P.	End of Bretz Floods	
14,000 B.P.	Lake Allison Events	
15,000 B.P.	Beginning of Bretz Floods	Lake Allison

Fig. 4

led to profound increases in Soap Creek Valley hawk, owl, deer, bear, and native tree populations (Rohner 1993).

Table 6 summarizes Soap Creek Valley historical themes, the number of thematic markers, and the greatest, shortest, and average lengths of time periods for identified themes, as listed in Appendix C. Note that many markers are identical for a number of different themes, and only categories with potential impact on Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns are listed. For example, changes in local home construction standards or the history of public education are not considered as they are probably irrelevant to this study. As shown by Table 6, peoples' memories tend to group events and occurrences into similar periods of times, regardless of topic or theme. In general, important markers are all more than 10 years apart in time; resulting periods are all less than a century in length, and average less than 30 years each. Of the 44 periods identified for six thematic histories in Table 6, none are less than 12 years or more than 85 years in length. This remarkable consistency in grouping is likely a partial result of analytical bias by the researcher, but seems, more importantly, a general function of human perceptions of time; i.e., unless something remarkable occurs in the interim, most memories seem to focus on key events that occur about once every generation—on average, about every 30 years, no matter what topic is considered. This finding is particularly interesting when one considers that people rarely give birth at age 12 or less, nor do many individuals live long enough to recall as many as 85 years. On a practical basis, this finding demonstrates that, for older citizens who form the bulk of oral history subjects, a decade is generally too short a period to discuss in detail, and a century is too long. As a general rule then, time periods for histories that span living memory can be reasonably organized and considered on a human lifespan basis of three to six generations per century, regardless of the primary focus of the history.

General Chronology and Value of Data Types

There is a general debate among historians and oral historians about the definition and relative value of "primary source" data (Montell 1996). Many historians have argued that oral histories are simply the recollections of an individual and, as such, constitute a "secondary" form of historical

Table 6. Thematic time periods and historical markers, 1788-1999. Information in this table summarizes data contained in Appendix C.

Historical Theme	Markers	Length of SCV Historical Time Periods		
		(Shortest)	(Longest)	(Average)
Land Ownership	7	12	56	30
Land Use	8	12	69	27
Local Politics	9	12	47	24
Structural Development	8	14	51	27
Transportation	5	20	85	42
Wildlife Management	6	22	68	35
Averages	7	15	63	30

Historical Theme	Thematic categories related to forest cover (see Appendix C)
Markers	Event or occurrence of particular common interest or awareness
Length of SCV (Soap Creek Valley) Historical Time Periods	
(Shortest)	Least number of years between recognized thematic markers
(Longest)	Greatest number of years between recognized thematic markers
(Average)	Average number of years between recognized thematic markers

documentation (Moss 1996). Oral history advocates have argued that oral history transcripts, and the data that are assembled and created during the production of transcripts, are one of the best forms of primary source documentation; at least on par with sworn courtroom testimony, daily diaries, correspondence, and/or written eyewitness news reports favored by historians (Dunaway 1996). The basic research materials of archaeologists, geologists, paleoecologists, palynologists, botanists, and anthropologists may also be considered primary source data, as described at the beginning of this chapter. For the purposes of this thesis, primary sources are both the first-hand account products of oral history research and the principal research materials and artifacts used by other scientific disciplines.

Table 7 lists the principal sources of information used for this study. Sources are arranged by general Soap Creek Valley forest cover pattern time periods (see Table 6) that will be used for the remainder of this thesis (see chapter V). They are assigned an arbitrary "Use" rating by the author regarding their general availability and durability (Poor, Fair, or Good). Arrangement is also based on a source's actual use for interpreting earliest specific points of time (by year) for this study. Arbitrary numbers are also assigned by the author to represent a source's relative value for: 1) interpreting and/or documenting Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns; 2) potential uses for interpreting and/or

Table 7. General time periods and values of information, 1500-1999.

Type of Information		YRS	USE	AFC/P	AOH/P
		1500-1625: OLD-GROWTH			
1.	fossils	1000+	POOR	1/2	1/1
2.	pollens	1000+	POOR	1/2	1/1
3.	artifacts	1000+	FAIR	1/2	1/2
4.	vegetation patterns	1000+	GOOD	3/3	1/2
5.	tree rings	450-	GOOD	2/3	1/2
		1626-1825: 2ND GROWTH			
		1826-1845: SAVANNAH			
6.	journals	175	FAIR	1/2	1/2
7.	maps	173	GOOD	3/3	3/3
		1846-1883: RANCHING			
8.	newspapers	155	GOOD	1/1	2/2
9.	archives	155	FAIR	2/3	2/3
10.	land surveys	148	GOOD	3/3	1/2
		1884-1914: FARMING			
11.	drawings	115	FAIR	1/2	1/2
12.	popular literature	115	FAIR	1/1	1/1
13.	photographs	105	FAIR	3/3	3/3
14.	living memory	100	FAIR	3/3	3/3
15.	timber cruises	85	FAIR	3/3	1/2
		1915-1940: LOGGING			
16.	scientific research	80	GOOD	3/3	2/2
17.	aerial photographs	64	GOOD	3/3	1/3
		1941-1962: WAR			
		1963-1999: HOUSING			
18.	satellite imagery	26	FAIR	1/2	0/2
19.	video and film	1	POOR	1/3	0/3

YRS   Years Before Present (BP) that such documentation is known to exist specific to Soap Creek Valley (e.g., 80 BP = 1999 AD - 80 years = 1919 AD).
USE   A relative and arbitrary measure of the stability of information source over time:
POOR = Few sources exist and/or replications and interpretations are scanty,
FAIR = The information source is fairly well preserved, known, and available,
GOOD = The information source is well represented, distributed, and known.
AFC/P Actual Forest Cover pattern value/Potential future value. An arbitrary determination of the information source's actual and potential values for interpreting and/or documenting forest cover patterns at a scale useful for this study:
0= Not Useful, 1 = Occasionally Useful, 2 = Generally Useful, 3 = Very Useful.
AOH/P Actual Oral History usefulness value/Potential future value. An arbitrary determination of the information source's actual and potential values for interpreting and/or documenting oral history research for this study and other studies of this nature and scale:
0= Not Useful, 1 = Occasionally Useful, 2 = Generally Useful, 3 = Very Useful.

documenting forest cover patterns for similar, future studies; 3) interpreting and/ or documenting oral histories used for this study; and 4) potential uses for

interpreting and/or documenting oral histories for similar future studies. For example, videos and films were used very little during this study to interpret forest cover patterns (AFC = 1 = "Occasionally Useful"), but should be considered strongly for use in similar, future studies (/P = 3 = potentially "Very Useful.") Likewise, photographs were considered "Very Useful" for interpreting and/or documenting Soap Creek Valley oral histories (AOH = 3), and should be seriously considered for use in similar, future studies (/P = 3). Thus, videos were used for only a fraction of their potential value (1/3 for forest cover patterns and 0/3 for oral histories), while photographs were used to their full potential (or nearly so): 3/3 for both forest cover patterns and for oral histories.

Comparative

Data obtained from human subjects is frequently criticized as potentially inaccurate, self-serving, or even fabricated (Boss et al., 1993; Hoffman 1996). Little reliance is often placed on the spoken memories of others, particularly if the informant is a stranger, information is second or third hand, or memories are of times long past (Montell 1996; Moss 1996). These problems were resolved by triangulation of oral history transcripts with other scientific and documentary sources of information (Jones & Bradley 1995; Berg 1996) in order to help assess the credibility (validity and reliability) of Soap Creek Valley subjects (Hoffman 1996) and other sources of information used in this research. In most instances, corroboration demonstrated striking degrees of consistency in detail regarding descriptions and interpretations of forest cover change, no matter the ages, academic achievements, or occupations of the various observers (see Tables 4 and 5).

Scientific corroboration. Soap Creek Valley contains major portions of OSU McDonald and Paul M. Dunn Research Forests and College of Agricultural Sciences properties (see Map 3) and is located only a few miles north of the OSU campus (see Map 9). One result of this ownership and ready access is that substantial research has been performed by OSU students and faculty in Soap Creek Valley for over 80 years (Nettleton 1956; Glender 1994; Davies 1997). A 1992 evaluation of research projects on College of Forestry and College of Agricultural Sciences lands in the Soap Creek Valley area determined that over 70 research

projects were being performed by 150 to 200 OSU faculty and graduate student researchers at that time, and that these numbers represented "only forestry-related departments on campus" (Johnson 1996: personal communication). A result of widespread and ongoing OSU research is the existence of a large body of scientific literature regarding Soap Creek Valley land use history, forest evolution, and wildlife diversity that spans most of this century; a time and location purposely identical, by project design, to that documented by the Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series (Grabe 1990).

Research data regarding Soap Creek Valley are found in scientific journal articles, theses and dissertations, professional reports, student reports, and news releases (see Reference section for examples). An additional form of scientific information was obtained by direct consultations with local resource managers and OSU, University of Oregon (UO), and Portland State University (PSU) students, graduate researchers and professors (see Table 5). Most referenced professionals are conducting, or cooperating with, research in the Soap Creek Valley area at this time, or have participated in such research in the past. The existence of this body of scientific data and expertise allowed for stringent review of many claims and observations made by Soap Creek Valley oral history subjects. In this manner, observations of Soap Creek Valley tree migration and afforestation by Charlie Olson (Olson 1994) were compared with published findings of Hansen (Sprague & Hansen 1946; Hansen 1947), archaeological findings and predictions of Bell (1981) were compared with similar locations and findings of James Hanish (Hanish 1994), and botanical specimen locations and descriptions of Bessie Murphy (Murphy 1995) were compared with recent professional inventories (Hall & Alabeck 1982; Comacho & Notting 1997). Numerous other examples are found throughout this thesis, particularly in regard to historical Soap Creek Valley forest cover pattern descriptions and dynamics.

Discussion. Comparative analysis of scientific literature and opinion with Soap Creek Valley Oral History Series' methods and findings identified four types of conformance and/or value:

1) oral history research data were credibly gathered and documented using standard qualitative research methods established by a number of disciplines, including anthropological and oral history disciplines;

2) observations of most Soap Creek Valley subjects were consistent with most scientific findings of a similar focus;

3) Soap Creek Valley subjects often provided greater detail, and thus augmented scientific information available through other sources; and

4) new and credible information developed by this research provided a better understanding of the natural and cultural histories of Soap Creek Valley.

Soap Creek Valley oral histories have produced a number of valuable new products and scientific findings for a number of disciplines. New findings included the identification and documentation of at least three important prehistoric sites (Hanish 1994), the first detailed mapping and documentation of a Soap Creek Valley depression-era sawmill camp (Hindes 1996), and comprehensive listings of historical Soap Creek Valley wild plant and animal populations that date to the mid-1500s (Glender 1994; Murphy 1995). New products of scientific value created by this research (in addition to historical and cultural values related to oral history recordings, photographs, transcripts, and indices) include GIS layers, computerized databases and concordance index files, scanned maps and photographs, digital video segments, and digitized texts. The combination of locating significant existing scientific data, creating new documentation, and using computerized tools permitted highly detailed and technically sophisticated analyses of all oral history data gathered during the course of this study.

Historical documentation. A selection of historical documentation, or "documentary data" (Hoffman 1996), was included in each Soap Creek Valley monograph to illustrate, corroborate, or challenge data supplied by informants. Documentary information included aerial and terrestrial photographs (e.g., Cook 1995; Hindes 1996), family scrapbooks (e.g., Rawie 1995), newspaper articles (e.g., Grabe 1990; Davies 1996), correspondence (e.g., Dickey 1995), history books (e.g., Glender 1994), management reports (e.g., Rowley 1996), maps (e.g., Cook 1995), fossils (e.g., Starker 1984; Glender 1994) and prehistoric artifacts (e.g., Hanish 1994). In many instances, informants added important insights and details regarding documents that related to their own experiences, and often provided such documentation themselves. For example, see Rawie (1993), for a previously unknown addendum to family memoirs first published in 1899. This addendum adds important information regarding the 1846-1850 pioneer

settlement of the Willamette Valley and the Soap Creek Valley area. Another example is provided by Hindes (1996), in which 60-year old aerial photographs were used to help produce a detailed map of a previously unrecorded 1929 sawmill camp (see Chapter III). Documentary data were typically supplied as appendices to Soap Creek Valley oral history monographs, although they were also included within the body of several monographs to illustrate specific points or topics.

Computerized concordance files. The creation of concordance files (Islam & Zybach 1999a) and a single, computerized "master index" (Zybach & Islam 1999) made it possible to systematically cross-reference general and specific topics common to Soap Creek Valley interviewees, interviews with other local residents and knowledgeable individuals, and with other sources and types of historical documentation (Hoffman 1996). Islam & Zybach (1999a) provide a detailed discussion of how the series' computerized indexing system was developed and used, as briefly summarized earlier in this chapter. Refinement and use of these tools for this study demonstrated a remarkable consistency and corroboration among memories and observations of Soap Creek Valley oral history interviewees. For example, Glender's (1994) and Vanderburg's (1995) accounts of the c.1935 Hildebrandt fire, and Rohner's (1993) and Rawie's (1994) accounts of US Army occupation of Soap Creek Valley at the beginning of WW II. Individual accounts of the 1918 flu epidemic, the 1937 snowstorm, and the afforestation of the southern and eastern aspect Soap Creek Valley grasslands by first oak, and then Douglas-fir (see Chapters III and V), are also notably consistent among informants.

Theoretical Tests

This study used several theoretical perspectives and concepts in its design (Lance 1996; Frisch 1997), field research methods (Boss et al., 1993; Baum 1985), and evaluation of results for credibility (Dunaway 1996; Hoffman 1996). Other theories were used to guide predictions and analysis of: 1) the status of Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns and conditions in 1500 and in 1825 (Hansen 1947; Jones & Bradley 1995), 2) the causes and extent of prehistoric (pre-1826) human influences on forest cover conditions (Raup 1966; Pyne 1982; Kay 1995),

3) the methods used to test hypothetical reconstructions of "initial [forest cover pattern] conditions" in 1500 and/or 1826 (Giere 1979), and 4) the methods used to identify and measure human and non-human influences on forest cover patterns (see Chapters III and IV; Chamberlin 1965).

Theories used to establish oral history study design, methods, and resulting datasets have been referenced or discussed in earlier sections of this chapter. Theoretical forest cover patterns and other "initial conditions" for this study are discussed in Chapters III, IV, and V. Prehistoric and historical human influences on Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns are documented in Chapter III, examined from three different theoretical perspectives in Chapter IV, and are summarized chronologically in Chapter V. Tests of theories used to establish initial conditions and degrees of human influences on forest cover patterns, as outlined by Chamberlin (1965) and Giere (1979), are briefly discussed in this section and Chapter IV; test results are summarized in Chapters V and VI.

Initial conditions for this study (see Map 1 for spatial boundary and Table 7 for temporal boundary) are January 1, 1500 for prehistoric time (1500-1826) and October 5, 1826 for historical time (Douglas 1905; Davies 1961). Four hypothetical conditions will be considered for each of these times (Botkin 1996): 1) that people, unusual processes, and events have had little, if any, influence on prehistoric Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns; 2) that people have had little or no effect, but normal and unusual processes and events have had some measurable influence on The Valley's forest cover patterns; 3) that prehistoric people have had a minor, but measurable effect on The Valley's forest cover patterns, in addition to the effects of normal and unusual processes and events, and 4) prehistoric people were a principal determinant of prehistoric and early historical forest cover patterns in Soap Creek Valley, as modified by normal and unusual processes and events. For prehistoric time, initial conditions must always remain hypothetical; for historical time, standard historical research methods are assumed to be sufficient to determine likely answers (Chamberlin 1965; Boss et al., 1993).

Three common theories will be used to address Botkin's four possible conditions: successional (or climax) forest evolution theory (Franklin and Hemstrom 1981), landscape disturbance (or even-aged) forest evolution theory

(Raup 1966; Stout 1981), and structural-functional (or sustainable) forest evolution theory (Schvanaveldt et al 1996). These theories will be used in isolation to, and in combination with, one another to predict possible forest cover patterns (see Chapter IV) that can be compared with documented findings (see Chapters III and V). Particular attention will be given to the years 1500 (initial condition of prehistoric Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns for this study), 1826 (initial condition of historical Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns; extrapolated from 1853 and 1929 patterns), 1853 (historical forest cover patterns determined by land surveys, timber cruises, and landscape drawings and photographs; extrapolated from 1929 and 1945 patterns), 1929 (historical forest cover patterns; interpolated from 1853 and 1945 patterns, living memory, aerial photographs, and computerized mapping methods), and 1945 (historical forest cover patterns determined in the same manner as 1929 patterns, but with newer datasets; see Table 7) to test the three sets of (climax, disturbance, and system) theories (see Chapters IV and V). Finally, the best theoretical "fits," based on the "weight of the evidence" (Chamberlin 1966) have then been used to: 1) select the most likely of Botkin's conditions for each of the 1500 and 1826 "starting points" for 2) predicting the 1826, 1853, 1929, and/or 1945 Soap Creek Valley forest cover patterns (see Chapter VI).