

THE HISTORIC MINING COMMUNITY OF SUMMITVILLE  
DURING THE GREAT DEPRESSION: A HISTORICAL  
ARCHAEOLOGICAL APPROACH

By

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## ABSTRACT

### THE HISTORIC MINING COMMUNITY OF SUMMITVILLE DURING THE GREAT DEPRESSION: A HISTORICAL ARCHAEOLOGY APPROACH

By

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Thirty-Three historic structures in various stages of decay are all that remain of the gold mining community of Summitville. Summitville, which is nestled in the mountains of southern Colorado, was once known as one of the most productive gold mines in all of the state. This community was organized into a Company Town in 1934. There have been no prior archaeological investigations at this site, and, therefore, little is known about how far the company went to control the residents and their everyday lives. Based on the results from survey, readings, and interviews it can be shown that Summitville had a different social dynamic when it came to the company versus employees. What emerges from this research is a picture of a company town that seemed to occupy a more central location somewhere between complete paternalistic control and something that is more akin to benign paternalism. Background research, ethnographic interviews, in addition to comparative research into regional and national company town comparisons aided in the archaeological interpretations of what was a unique version of a Company Town.

## Acknowledgments

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*"Hey boys, come up here!" Lee's excited shout bounced from rock to rock down the gulch. "I've got all of California right here in this pan!"*

~ Phyllis Flanders Dorset, *The New Eldorado: The Story of Colorado's Gold and Silver Rushes*

## **Section 1: Introduction**

Company towns in the United States are an important fixture, embedded within the history of America. As Angela Vergara and Oliver Dinius note, “Company towns have been an integral part of the rise of industrial capitalism since the early nineteenth century (Vergara 2011, 2).” By the latter half of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Company Towns started to become more widespread in North America. The common perception of company towns are often images of poor working conditions, low paying work, and strict bosses. For example, the 1946 song penned by Merle Travis was made popular in 1955 by Tennessee Ernie Ford, “Sixteen Tons,” describes how, the miner, cannot die because “he owes his soul to the Company Store.” However, company towns took on numerous forms and spanned many different industries, which shaped the historical industrial landscape in the United States. Mining fueled by Capitalism and the need for steady work powered the economic growth and development in rural communities and in major urban centers as well.

## **Section 2: Thesis**

There are multiple defining characteristics of a company town, such as company owned housing, store, sanitation services and in such a community, the company ran all facets of life. These communities were common in various industries such as lumber, textiles, mass manufacturing of goods, and the extraction of raw minerals. These companies generally had a local monopoly on the industry in which they were taking part. Much of the previous research about company towns has been conducted within the traditional management versus worker’s framework. This format ultimately paints a picture of a divisive and troubling existence between the employees and employer and dominates the historical literature. In Randall McGuire and Paul Reckner’s “*Unromantic West: Labor, Capital, and Struggle*,” 2002, the authors analyze

class, ethnicity, and violence, which typified the exploitive extractive economics in the American West. However, the relationship between company and employee at Summitville can be interpreted differently, somewhere in between exploitation and a benign paternalism.

A case in point was the gold mining community called Summitville, located in the mountains of southern Colorado. The company town of Summitville was established during one of the greatest economic downturns in American history, and due to outside economic pressures, the company had very little monetary incentive to entice workers to relocate to Summitville. The location lacked the most basic of services (housing, electricity, minimal sanitation, etc.), but the company made efforts to provide these amenities. It was enough for the cash-strapped workers from all reaches of the country to remain and work there. Furthermore, the company's control did not reach the paternalistic levels like other contemporary company towns such as Pullman, Illinois or the copper mining community of McGill, Nevada.

The archaeological research and work conducted at Summitville suggested that Summitville in the twentieth century represented what could be considered a halfway point in of the social structure/hierarchy of company towns of the era. What made it distinctive, was that there existed no overreaching paternalistic Company dictating the everyday lives of the workers. Nevertheless, employees were not left to fend for themselves in the Colorado wilderness. What transpired at Summitville could be seen as a mutually beneficial arrangement of all the parties involved. The relationship in the town centered on a hard day's labor in exchange for wages and the company providing acceptable housing, standards of sanitation, and leisure activities. While the benefits to the workers may appear negligible, national, and regional economic hardships and external factors of the time contributed to the expectations of the community. This interpretation arose from ethnographic research and some limited historical narratives of town life, combined

with an archaeological survey of the physical remains of the townsite. It provided some insight into how Summitville functioned and how historical archaeology can contribute to a better understanding of labor relations in the not so distant past.

I approached my work at Summitville from viewpoint of a historical archaeologist utilizing historical evidence on the ground, along with ethnographic data, in the form of interviews with prior residents procured by the Rio Grande County Museum. James Deetz describes Historical Archaeology as the following, "...historical archaeology-the study of historically documented material through archaeological methods. The kinds of controls available in this sort of archaeology provide a suitable context in which to examine material and nonmaterial relationships in a manner that is similar to that from ethnographic data (Deetz 1972, 115)." A definitive conclusion when it comes to archaeological research is often not possible. Through the process of archaeology, we can establish interpretations that can challenge and question existing interpretations. The material remains of Summitville, along with archival research and ethnographic interviews from prior residents, established the context and the interpretation of the site at large.

### **Section 3: Literature Review**

The concept of a Company Town has existed in one form or another since the advent of the Industrial Revolution. During that time, a company needed to procure a large and consistent work base forming a town around the industry. As Andrew Herod states, "Company towns are the product of their designers' hope that shaping the built environment in particular ways will allow them to further their political, economic, and cultural goals, whether these be exerting greater control over their labor force, ensuring the development of particular type of industrial relations, or, perhaps more altruistically, providing their workers with better housing than they

might be otherwise able to secure (Herod 2011, 21).” It is social and spatial engineering on a grand scale. Many of the industries that utilized this model were extractive in nature, like the mining of gold, copper, silver, and coal, while some were in other industries such as transportation, and manufacturing. Many companies formed towns around their industry, while functional they were not well designed. This fact was noted in the US Coal Commission Findings from 1924. (P. V. Fishback 1992, 347) However, by the early 1900’s, the “New” Company Town concept arose. In the New Company Town “...professional designers-architects, planners, and landscape architects – took over the task of designing company towns. (Crawford 1999, 49).” One such example in the extensive planning of the New Company Town came from the Kohler Company near Sheboygan, Wisconsin around 1905. Walter Kohler, enlisted the services of the Olmstead Brothers of New York Central Park fame to design a town. By 1925, in a Kohler Village pamphlet, is described the town’s progress, “an interesting and heartening example of what American community life may be,” and life is, “pleasant and well-balanced (Johnson 1971, 220).” Walter Kohler, President of the Kohler Company, maintained that “cooperation, not exploitation, must be the basis for any lasting community (Johnson 1971, 221).” Progressive Company owners, like Walter Kohler, wanted to promote peace and harmony through social planning and to lift the dregs of society and keep the work and money flowing. Fredrick Winslow Taylor suggested the amenities that Corporate Welfare/ Paternalism was providing was all well, “but they should come only after the great problem of work and wages has been permanently settled to the satisfaction of both parties (Taylor 1912, 200).”

Progressive Reformers of the late 1800s declared themselves as arbiters of change. As the intellectuals of their day, they stood in the middle between labor and management, while both camps were becoming increasingly hostile towards each other. The reformers were hoping for

more social harmony between the classes, but they saw “their goal as an orderly and stable society, the progressives replaced class conflict with a vision of social harmony under the leadership of the “competent,” that is the educated Middle Class (Crawford 1999, 51).” The model company Town grew out of this concept with the effort to build a society where the classes could negotiate more evenly, and the masses would be properly cared for. In doing so the level of social congruence would increase. Accounts of life in Summitville, circa 1930s through the 1940s, would reflect the elements of a tight-knit community centered around the company town dynamic.

In 1879, George Pullman, the President of the Pullman Palace Car Company, had built one of the largest rail monopolies the world had ever seen. His company’s service stretched from the United States down into Mexico, and north into Canada (Reiff 1989, 99). Due to the size, clout, and desire of the company to further expand, the founder decided to build a whole new “Model Company Town” to house his workers. This community was built outside of Chicago. Since this was seen as a bid to expand the company, Pullman commissioned architects and landscape engineers to plan the town. George Pullman went on to select the land for his future town. “Since this location lay far from residential sections of Chicago or adjacent to communities it was essential that residential accommodations be provided for the shop workers and executives of the company. These were constructed as a company investment (Lillibridge 1953, 18).” Once the community was built, Pullman was eager to avoid labor problems and saw “...that paternalism wisely administered would lull the restless yearnings of the laborer and give to his powerful corporation a stability in labor conditions not hitherto known (Lindsey 1939, 273).” George Pullman was operating at a level of paternalism not seen before, and he attempted to control every facet of life in the community, which included “maintenance of the streets,

parks, fire department, sewage, and by virtue of its wealth, influence and ownership of the entire town (Lindsey 1939, 276).” He also wielded strict control over the leasing and renting of homes within the community setting rents that were outrageously high, “averaging 20-25% higher than similar units in Chicago town (Lindsey 1939, 281).” This combined with wage reductions brought on by the economic panic of 1893 would set the stage for a strike to happen in 1894. In May of 1894, workers walked off the job and started “striking against their exploitation in both the factory and the town. When the American Railway Union voted to support the strikers by boycotting Pullman cars, the local contest became a national railroad strike (Reiff 1989, 105).” Violence around the community and in Chicago broke out and the military was called in to quell the violence. Due to many unifying events, including negative public opinion, troop presence, and court actions, the strike was crushed. The same low wages, same rental costs, and renunciation of membership ties to the American Railway Union was the result (Lindsey 1939, 287). After the death of George Pullman in 1897, what was left of the company eventually lost control of the town leaving it to be ultimately absorbed by the city of Chicago. The town of Pullman might be seen as a cautionary tale on how not to manage a town and its populace. When you have divided interests and loyalties among your shareholders and residents, one group will always lose.

As a small child, Russell R. Elliott was born and grew up in the “company town,” of McGill, Nevada. Around 1906, his father was lured to McGill to become the bricklayer foreman for the Nevada Consolidated Copper Company that began to build their facilities there. The company had originally wanted to build their residential community away from the mining activity near the town of Ely, a little southwest of the worksite. But they soon realized that for convenience and expediency they would have to build their residential community on site. When

the Elliott's came to town, they were moved into one of the houses that made up "fifty concrete-block houses in an area that would soon become known as the Upper Townsite (Elliott 1990, 9)." In 1920, the Elliott family moved to the town of Ely, and Russell's father was dependent on riding the "shift trains" into work. As Elliott describes it, "The trains got their name from the fact their schedules were set to get employees to McGill and Ruth in time for their work shifts. Since the plant was on a three-shift, twenty-four-hour schedule, it was necessary to run several trains daily. Although the company had altered its original housing policy to build company houses in both Ruth and McGill, there were still enough employees living in Ely in 1920 to require the daily run of the shift trains (Elliott 1990, 23)." Russel Elliott went on to reminisce about his family's time in and around the town of McGill and the services/features the town would offer its employees. Elliott mentions that baseball was a major pastime summer activity, and McGill fielded a good team that had a friendly rivalry with the town of Ruth (Elliott 1990, 37). In 1925 with the pushing of John C Kinnear, Sr. (who would eventually become the General Manager) the company would go on to advocate for and encourage community welfare by forming community leagues and sponsoring such organizations as the Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, and other sports and social groups (Elliott 1990, 107). Management wanted to make McGill a "model" company town by building a large boarding house for single employees, at \$35.00 a month. Other facilities, including a dairy farm, were also updated. As Elliott succinctly summed up, "The movement into dairying was simply an extension of company control over the economic, social, and political life of the inhabitants of Ruth and McGill. The process had begun when the company first constructed its own houses for rent to employees and intensified with the provision of free water and sewage disposal, and wood, coal, and electricity at cost. Control was also affected as company officials restricted the type and number of businesses allowed operate



in the communities (Elliott 1990, 111).” This level of control brought forth by the management would go on to have repercussions on a social and work level.

Despite certain company incentives, employment with the Nevada Consolidated Copper Company, was not all roses. The area was home to several strikes and protests, one to note happened during the fall of 1919. During World War I, the local Unions promised not to strike if they would receive pay raises once the war had ended. Once the war ended, Company Officials were reluctant to raise wages due to declining copper production. Because the company refused to honor its pledge, the Union members opted to strike for higher wages and Union recognition. A settlement was not reached until the Governor and Federal Mediator were called in. They eventually agreed to a small pay raise, no union recognition, and establishment of Company Stores in Ruth and McGill. “The pay raise, substantially less than the unions requested, was made more attractive by the company stores, which were to sell groceries and a few articles of clothing to employees at cost (Elliott 1990, 21).” By the 1950s the Company through changing labor relations and other events, lost control over the communities. Eventually, everything became privatized, and the towns elected their own governments. Economic realities set in and the area went into massive decline. The Company tried to control all facets of life for its employees, but in the end, it could not. Elliott ends his memoir with the following on page 183, “It seemed ignoble end for a district that had dominated the mineral industry of Nevada for over seventy years and poured hundreds of millions of dollars into the economy of the state and the nation.”

Aside from the planned community McGill, another prime example of a “Model Company Town” comes from LeClaire, Illinois. The town of LeClair was established in 1890 by the N.O. Nelson Manufacturing Company, which specialized in plumbing supplies and fire

hydrants. The company named the new settlement after Jean-Edmond LeClaire, a French economist and businessman who pioneered the concept of profit-sharing (Garner 1971, 219). N.O. Nelson had envisioned a workplace where management and the employees would come together in the spirit of cooperation, for the betterment of everyone. N.O. Nelson hoped that one day his employees would eventually own the means of production. As part of the profit sharing model, employees received yearly dividends in the form of stock in the company. If the employee left, they were given the cash equivalent of what the stock was worth at the time.

LeClaire was really a model town for its day. The founders had the foresight to have all the buildings professionally designed and constructed. This included factories, housing, entertainment facilities, educational institutions, and utilities. The schools gave free vocational training for those who wanted it, and guest speakers from around the nation would come and speak on current topics of the day. There was no police force in LeClaire, rules of conduct were mutually agreed upon by the populace. When disputes happened, the participants would have the issue arbitrated out. Furthermore, employment was not denied to anyone based on labor affiliation, race, or religion (Garner 1971, 220).

LeClaire is an interesting take on the “Model Company Town.” The founder, Nelson O. Nelson, was a savvy capitalist and philanthropist. As John S. Garner points out (1971, 220): “An exception among businessmen, he became interested in the welfare of the less fortunate. He witnessed the rift between labor and management that divided the country in the latter part of the nineteenth century, and he dedicated his life to the reconciliation of that division. Well aware of the environment in the industrial city, he set a course to improve the conditions that we so appalling.” It seems obvious that Nelson was showing an altruistic form of Progressive Social Engineering. He saw that his town provided respite from the evils of the big city and helped the

downtrodden get through life with a little more comfort. In turn, he procured a willing work base, with no recorded strikes or stoppages

In 1934, after 40 plus years of collaboration between management and the workforce, the community of LeClaire was annexed by the neighboring city of Edwardsville, thus ending the Company Town (Garner 1971, 220).

Model Company Towns started to fall out of fashion by the late 1920s due to a downturn in the economic climate due to the onset of the depression. Some corporations started to see housing and other welfare type programs as a needless expense. Margaret Crawford mentions that the inexpensive nature of the automobile helped workers become more mobile and less reliant on what the company store had to offer. This new mobility also allowed the worker to be exposed to a “broader range of job opportunities (Crawford 1999, 55),” that allowed for travel to other parts of the country. This enabled families to travel great distances during the Great Depression to find new work opportunities in places such as Summitville.

It could be said, that by 1934, a company had to take certain steps to remain viable and productive. Summitville was far too remote of a location for workers to be commuting every day to work, and it was far too expensive, especially during the Great Depression, to try and build a “model town” in the wilderness. The Management of Summitville had to come up with a compromise that while not ideal, both parties would be willing to work with. This produced housing and other amenities. Although not optimal, this was better than the alternative in a desolate economic landscape. It offered full-time work.

#### **Section 4: History of the Mining District**

It has been said that Summitville was once the location of the most productive gold mines in all of Colorado. This mining town has had a long and storied past. It had three mining booms: 1873 to 1887, 1934 to 1947, and 1985 to 1992 (Clark 1997, 3). R.W. Raymond documented the early days of mining at Summitville. The following is an excerpt from his report dated 1875, covering the period 1870-1874:

The 1<sup>st</sup> discovery of gold in the Summit district was made in Wightman's Gulch about the last of June 1870, by a party consisting of James L. Wightman, E. Baker, J. Carey French, Sylvester Reese, and William Boran, Wightman getting the first "prospect." All of the party, with the exception of Wightman and Reese left by the middle of September. Wightman and Reese engaged in sluicing, until the 9<sup>th</sup> of November, when they left, heavily packed, and made their way out through snow waist deep, reaching Rio Grande in three days.

The entry for the following year reads:

In the spring of 1871, a large number of people flocked into the Summit, hundreds arriving while the snow was yet very deep and work impractical. A general disgust soon took possession of the prospectors and by the end of August there were but three men in the district – J.L. Wightman, P.J. Peterson, and J.P. Johnson. These then remained until about the 20<sup>th</sup> of October. Wightman, and Peterson being the last to leave. They took the gold realized by sluicing to Denver and had it refined at the mint, dividing \$170 between the three after paying all expenses of the season's operations; not a very encouraging yield for a hard summers work. Several lodes had in the meantime been found, or at least lode locations made. The specimens found in the gulch indicated to the miners that they had not washed far, and they believed the parent ledges in place were close by (Huston 2012, 26).

The early days at the "Summit," were tedious and backbreaking, but the miners kept at it. The District's 1<sup>st</sup> bonanza occurred in 1873 and lasted until about 1887. During this time the region "produced almost 94,000 troy ounces of gold and 107,000 troy ounces of silver for a value of more than \$2 million in then existing metal prices. By 1883, Summitville was the third largest gold producer in Colorado (Huston 2012, 37)."

Eventually, to get the ore processed more efficiently, many of the mines constructed tramways. By 1876 The Little Annie Mining Company had constructed a 2,215ft long tram to carry its ore down to their stamp mill. The Iowa & Colorado Consolidated Company's tramway was "3,665 feet long, and supported by thirty-six trusses, and transported ore from the Iowa tunnel portal to the company's mill. It had eighty-four buckets carrying 100 pounds of ore each for a tramway capacity of 150-200 tons per day (Huston 2012, 44)."

The District went into an economic decline between the years of 1888-1926. At this time, it was not economically feasible to treat low-grade ore. The repeal of the Sherman Act required the U.S. Government to purchase silver. Due to this, many of the mines were forced to shut down, and by "1889 Summitville's population was twenty-five including three "ladies of the evening." The town was deserted in 1893 (Huston 2012, 72)."

Mining at Summitville saw a rebirth from 1926 to about 1949. This was mainly due to the fact that the U.S. Government increased the price of gold in 1934 and because of advances in metallurgy and other technologies. However, production was limited after 1942 by the War Production Board. Richard Huston says this period offered jobs and stability, leading to Summitville in being the chief producer of gold in the state of Colorado at that time. It was in 1926, that the Summitville Mines Corporation formed with the merging of the Barnsdall Corp. and Reynolds-Morse Corporation. The Summitville Mines Corporation owned most of the mining property at Summitville, but it was not involved directly with mineral extraction. "The property, consisting of more than one hundred mining claims, was leased out to operating companies, and Summitville Mines Corporation received royalties from the operators (Huston 2012, 91)." When the smaller operating companies realized it would take significant capital to build mills and construct the infrastructure needed for miners and their families, Summitville

Consolidated Mines, Inc. was formed in April 1934, and many of these operators surrendered their leases and equipment in exchange for one-fifth capital stock in the new company.

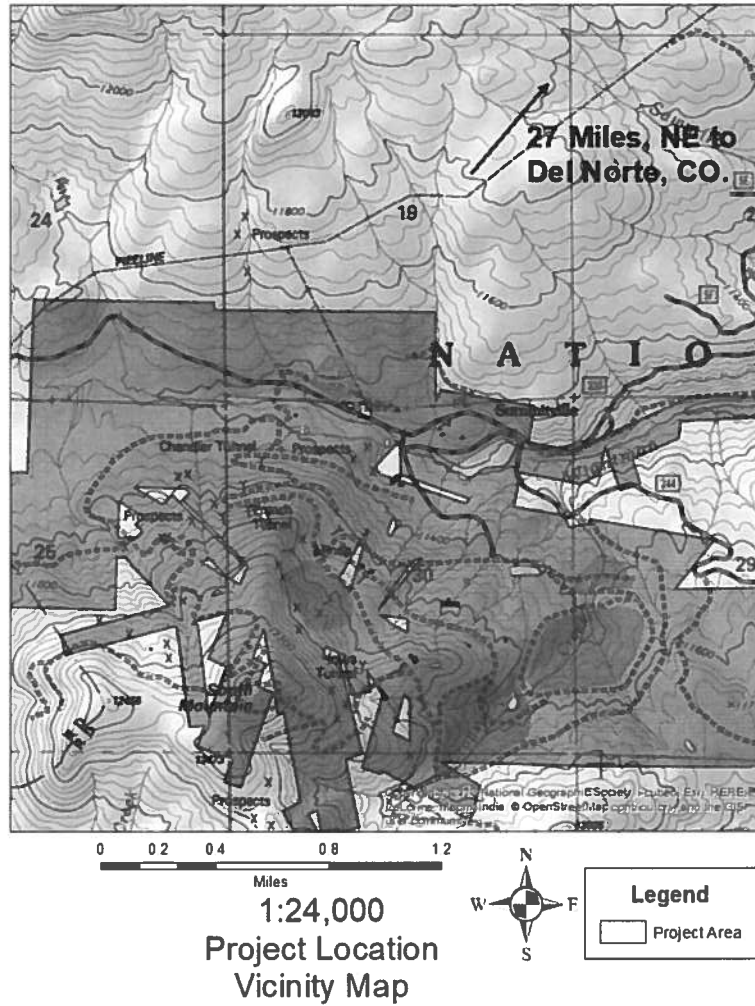
Summitville Consolidated Mines, Inc., was immediately provided with the funds for large-scale mining. A letter dated November 1, 1934, from B.T. Poxson, president of Summitville Gold Mines Inc., to George Garrey (former leaseholder, now stockholder) stated the following:

A one hundred ton combination floatation and cyanidation mill, a forty-six mile improved auto and truck highway, a main twenty-six mile electric power transmission line to supply 23,000 volts to our mines and mill, camp power and light lines, mine machinery installations, adequate bunk and boarding houses for present operations, an office and warehouse building, an aerial tram line, an assay and metallurgical office, a trunk telephone line, camp telephone lines, and other facilities necessary for the active operation of the entire properties of the Summitville Mines Corporation, the owners, have been completed and the mill has been tested and the mill and mines at Summitville, Colorado are now in operation by the SUMMITVILLE CONSOLIDATED MINES, INC (Huston 2012, 92).

The population estimates of this town are not clear. Since Summitville was a company town, it was not obligated to keep an official record with the State of Colorado Division of State Archives and Public Records. However, it has been suggested that by 1935 it was the second largest mining camp in Colorado with a population estimated between 500 and 700 people. Summitville's highest population count was estimated to be 1,500 with about "nine hundred men on the company payroll (Huston 2012, 107)." While not a "Model" Company Town like that of McGill, the company did construct, "seventy modern homes, bunkhouses, mess halls, a bathhouse, an amusement hall, two-room school, post office, a commissary and a municipal water system." and "The company houses generally contained two rooms, with tarpaper on the outside of the one-by-twelve-inch wood planks walls and Celotex on this inside. They were heated by pot-bellied coal and wood stoves which were constantly in use during long winter months. The houses had running water and electricity, but there were no sewers so the toilet was

outside in a two-holer in a wood shack (Huston 2012, 107, 108).” Seeing how this town thrived in the 1930’s, there are people still alive today that can speak of what they saw up at Summitville. While many of these interviewees were just children at the time, they still have memories of their time in Summitville. This important ethnographic data, while not complete, can help better interpret the physical remains that we can still see on the ground and will be discussed in the next section.

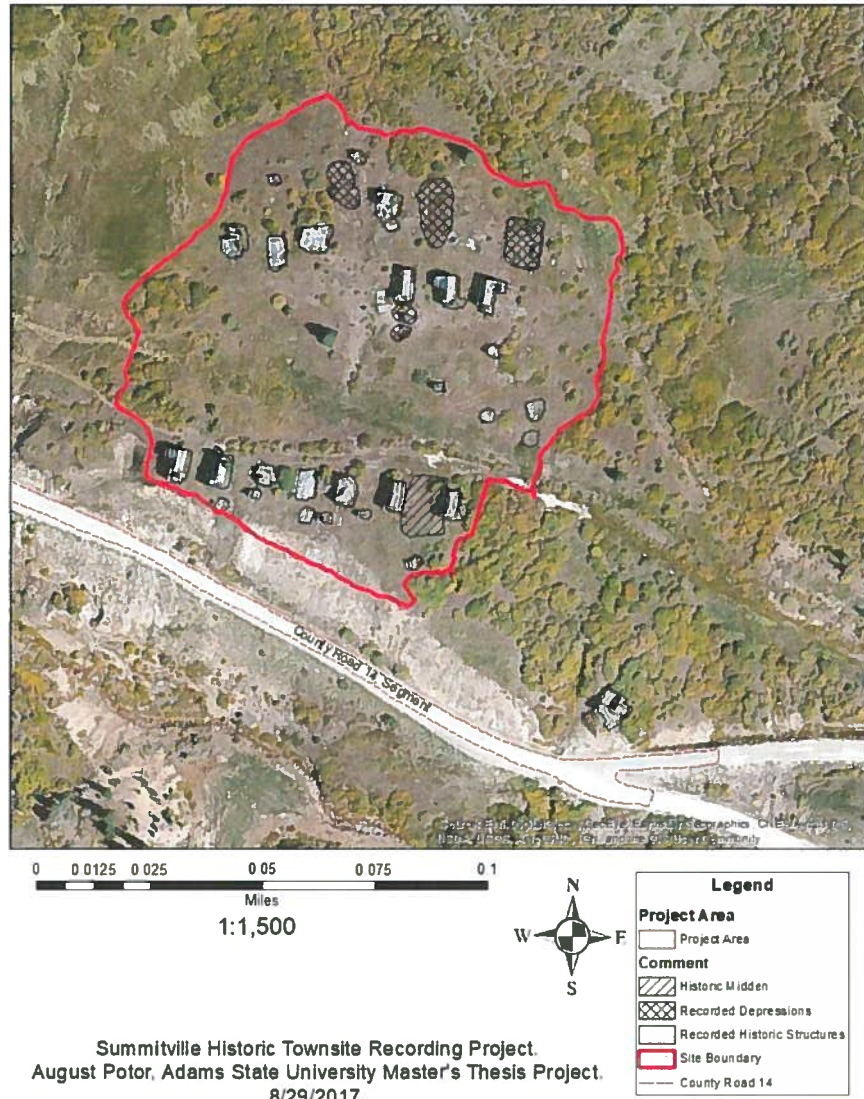
**Section 5: Research Results**



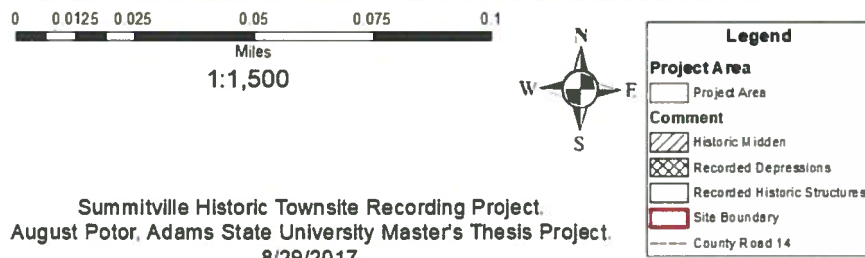
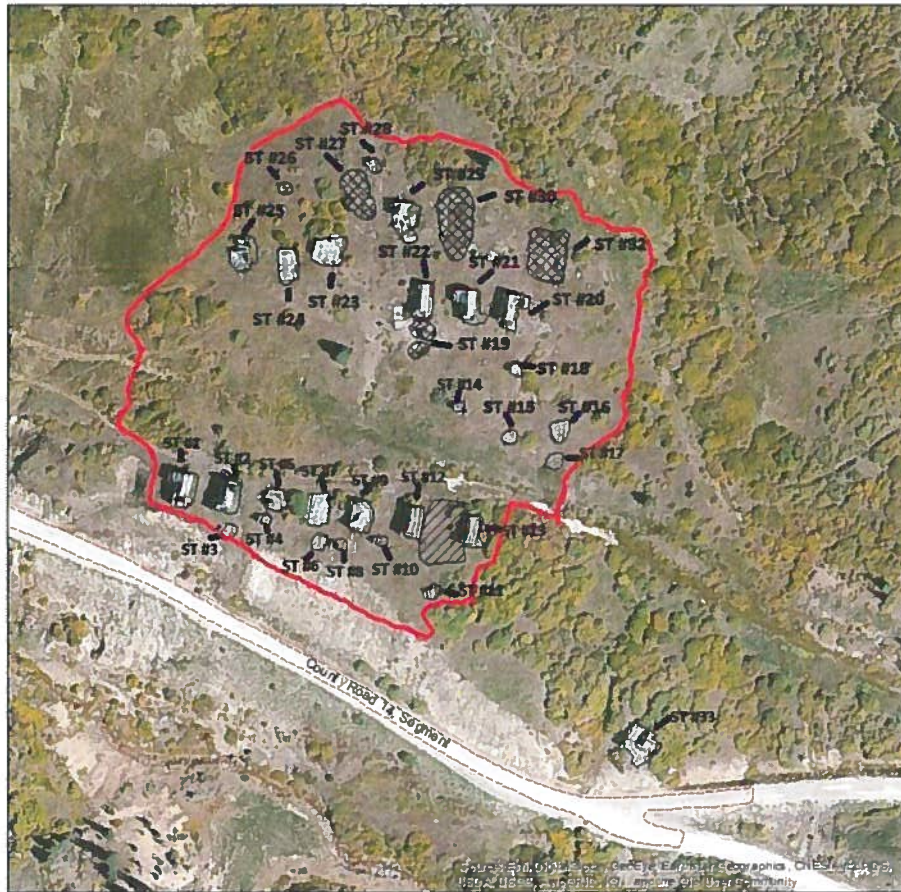
Summitville Historic Townsite Recording Project.  
August Potor, Adams State University Master's Thesis Project.  
8/29/2017.

*Figure 1, Project Vicinity Map*





*Figure 2, Site overview*

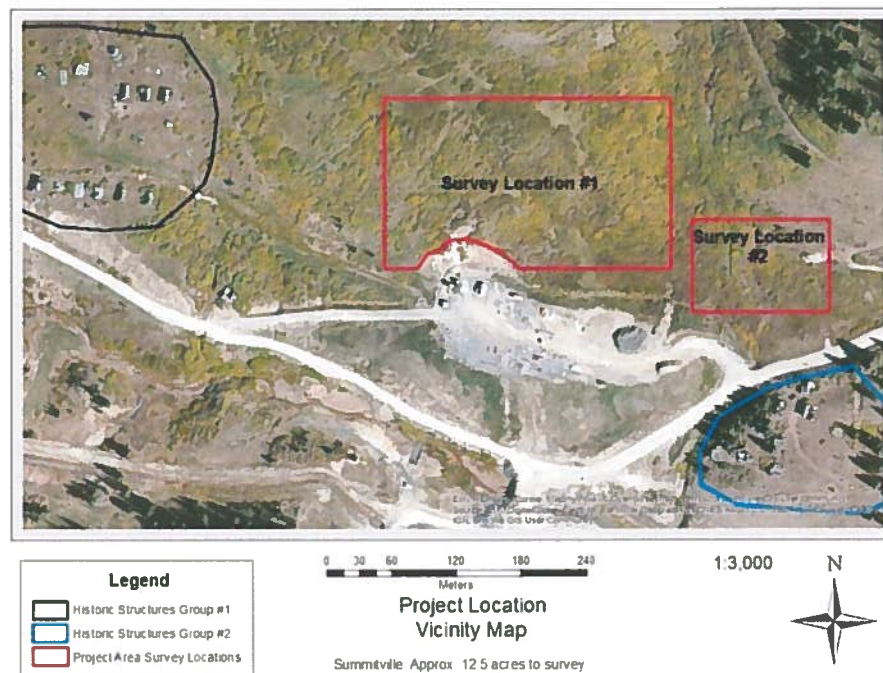


*Figure 3. Site overview, with labels*



*Figure 4, General site overview, looking SE. South Mountain in background*

Fieldwork was conducted at the site during Mid-August of 2017. Originally centered on a grassy area that fell between the group of historic standing structures that were eventually recorded, and another group of standing structures to the east. [The 2<sup>nd</sup> group had previously been recorded by SWCA in 1997, see Clark, B 1997, and is known as site 5RN.358.] The original plan, as shown by Figure 4, was to survey the “empty” area that fell between the unrecorded site and 5RN.358, to look for evidence of an older town site that once may have stood in that area.



*Figure 5, Project Map*

However, upon arriving and doing a quick reconnaissance of the area, it was determined that the area proved too steep and marshy to have served as a habitation area for the miners and their families. Later ethnographic and historical documents would support the fact that this was

an unused area. With the establishment that nothing was located in that area, the focus switched to recording the current standing structures of the unrecorded site to the west. This site proved far more interesting and produced important data on human lifeways in a company town in the mountains of Colorado.

During recording, thirty-three building structures in various forms of decay were photographed measured and recorded. The breakdown includes: 15 “residential,” 6 “outhouses,” 6 “hydrant houses,” 1 “collapsed building (function unknown),” and 5 “depression” type features. Along with artifact scatters that represented the occupation.

Building Type	Number	Percentage
Residential	15	45.45%
Outhouse	6	18.18%
Water Hydrant	6	18.18%
Depression	5	15.15%
Collapsed, unknown	1	3.04%
Total	33	100%

*Table 1, Building Type Breakdown*

Since the last major activity of Summitville took place during the 1930’s and 1940’s, there were still living people that grew up there or worked in the area and that are still alive today. These people were eyewitnesses to the history and events that went on at Summitville, and they can corroborate what we see in the archaeological record. While given the age of some of these informants might be problematic, the data is none the less important contribution to the historical narrative of the area. The following interviews, conducted between 2001-2003, were loaned to me by the Rio Grande County Museum, but they were originally conducted by Patricia

Pabst, a resident of Del Norte, Colorado, and show a wide range of memories about Summitville. What seems clear is that many of the parents of the interviewees moved to the area from elsewhere for economic reasons as related to the Great Depression. One other addition to the ethnographic data is a recent interview (Heidi 2018) of Bill Ellithorpe. He was a miner up at Summitville in 1936, and his testimony helps add to the historical interpretation of the site.

Patricia Pabst conducted a series of interviews in 2002 with prior residents of Summitville. The following entries are a fascinating look at what people remember about growing up around Summitville. Martin Gates and his brother Melvin, four years Martin's junior, moved with their parents to Summitville in 1936. Before heading to Summitville, their dad ran cattle around the San Luis Valley. At the advice of their uncle, their dad took a job on the "Bull Gang," a labor-intensive position that paid \$3.50 a day. Eventually, their dad was promoted to Manager of the Water System for the whole community, which sounded like a prime position. Martin and Melvin both went to school in the "two-room school house," constructed there for the children of the miners and other employees. Martin goes on to describe the house they lived in, which seems to generally reflect what we can still see today. "...it was a tar-paper house. It was built with one-inch boards, tar-paper on the outside, celotex on the inside. I don't think there was any insulation between 'em. Strictly not modern...I don't remember if there was any rent. The house was actually owned by the mining company...we had electricity. The mining company had electricity and I think all the houses had electricity. But the other facilities were kind of missing (M. Gates, Summitville Interviews 2002, 3)." His testimony is relevant because his descriptions go on to paint a picture of what facilities were available when he was growing up there.

Melvin Gates described what the children did for fun when school wasn't in session, "Depends on what time of year it was. In the summertime, we went to Park Creek, or the head of

Beaver Creek...run around the mountains. But, we weren't allowed to go to lower camp. We'd get in trouble with the other kids down there..." Melvin, when asked about the Company Store and the Boarding House, gave this description: 'The big store...when the camp was going big...before the war...the store was next to the schoolhouse. And the schoolhouse was where the present-day offices are up there. Up there on the big hill, there was a flat up there. It was a two-room schoolhouse. And the commissary and post office (M. Gates 2002, 2)." His account is interesting because it puts the schoolhouse across Whiteman Fork next to the standing administration building and not nestled among the standing structures of the Project Area.



*Figure 6, Summitville School, circa 1938-1939. (Huston, 2012:122).*

Robert Myers moved up with Summitville when he was starting the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade and lived with his folks there from 1935-1942. His father owned a mechanics shop in Monte Vista until the Depression put him out of business and they moved to Summitville. Robert describes some of the other social events that took place while he lived up there. "We always had a Christmas program. And pret' near all of the kids took some part in it. They had several plays or skits...in the school through the year. They had box suppers...one thing and another. They had dances ever' once in a while. The kids all went to the dances same as the parents did, you know. They'd clear out all the tables in the boarding house and move 'em back against the wall. And they'd just have a dance. The little kids who didn't want to dance would just crawl up on the table in a

pile of coats and go to sleep (Myers 2002, 6).” While his interview was like the others, he concluded his with, “It was always my job to shovel the trail to the outhouse. I went out once and shoveled just a little narrow trail and Mom said, “That’s not wide enough.” And I said, “wide enough for me (Myers 2002, 12).” This testament speaks to the social events that took place in and around the community, and as a side note shows that Robert Myers had a sense of humor growing up there.

Harriet Parker was born in Durango, Colorado to parents who were from Texas and Kansas. She would later go on to marry Clayton Parker, a young man who was working in a C.C.C Camp near South Fork, Colorado. They would eventually move to Summitville in 1938. Clayton was a miner and ran one of the cart extraction systems while there. When asked how much he was paid for that, Harriet Parker produced a copy of a pay slip, and said, “...he got four dollars an hour when he started. When we got married he got four and a quarter an hour (An hour or a day?) A day. I’m sorry. A day. That’s what my kids say, “Mom, it wasn’t a day it was an hour.” And I’d say, “No it was a day (Parker 2002, 3).” It is an interesting perspective to see how much her husband was paid, and how her kids reacted to the idea, that people were once paid by the day and not by the hour for their work.

Bill Ellithorpe, born in 1920, started working up at Summitville in 1936 when he was 16 years old. He claims that his family has been mining in the area since the inception of mining up at Summitville in 1872, and that “Lots of people around the Valley have ancestors that worked up there (Heidi 2018),” this includes his father, uncle, and brother. When Bill started working professionally at Summitville, he was the youngest member of a 6-person Sampling Crew that worked all over the site. Bill remembers taking his ore samples to the assay office for testing and recalls the post office, and at least 200 other men working while he was there. He goes on to say



that while people elsewhere were making a wage of \$1 a day, he was making \$4.50 a day, “that was big money then.” He continued to mine at Summitville until he was drafted into the Army in 1941 (Heidi 2018). The more recent accounting of his time at Summitville is an important addition to the historical narrative, his interview adds to the data about how much people were paid and how working up there might be a generational affair with other family members.

Of all the people interviewed, they all had fond memories of the place and they all recall minimal housing and other limited amenities that the company provided. None of them recall an employee strike or stoppage, and no record of one exists.

#### **Section 6: Analysis (Benevolent or Benign Paternalism or something else?)**

Summitville in the late 1920’s through the 1940’s operated as a Company Town, but to what level did the Company provide for its employees and residents? It appears that management kept a benign or indifferent stance towards the people living in the community. It could be stated that it was in the company’s best interest to provide what they could to keep the miners happy because, after all, the economic climate of the Depression meant a workforce could theoretically be more transient. This called for the construction of sturdy, well-built, reasonably insulated and wired for electricity residential housing, well-placed community outhouses, and water hydrants, along with a schoolhouse, post-office, store, and a communal meeting place. The interview Martin Gates and his fellows described the construction and reasonably concur with the building plan. While no official Summitville Build plan exists, the study area saw building placement going in a NW to SE alignment. This followed the contour of the side of the hill that the buildings were sitting on. The buildings had a pretty good view facing south towards South Mountain, and the view north was into the forest. From a placement standpoint, the resulting views were nice in any direction. Martin Gates couldn’t recall if his parents paid rent to the

Company and whether the coal or wood for fuel was included in their rent. This is an interesting contrast from the accounts from McGill, where the Company charged for all aspects of living within the Community.

All the recorded structures were of similar design and construction. Many of the residential structures had “lean-to” additions built on for additional storage, probably to protect coal from the harsh elements of the long winter months. They also had remnant tar paper siding and remnant Celotex on the inside for added insulation, with milled, tight-fitting wood plank construction. The buildings were wired for electricity. However, Building #29 was a repurposed cabin that featured “dovetail” cornering construction, a common building method in the late 1800s, a left-over structure from an earlier period in Summitville’s history. In addition to #29, there were Structures #19, #27, #30, #31, and #32, which were depressions that were interpreted as probable cellars or dugouts, which could be more associated with the older 19<sup>th</sup> century town.



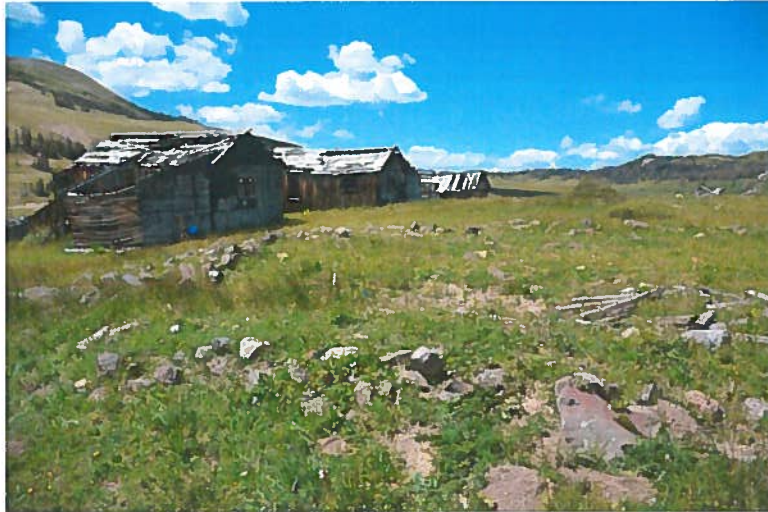
*Figure 7. Building 29*

Building #29 (see Figure 7, above) was constructed and later modified using the “Vernacular Architecture” a style of construction. As Thomas Carter puts it, “Vernacular builders, whatever their background, work within the specific restraints of the prevailing

fashions, their functional objectives, and the pocketbooks of their clients. They may have learned their building repertory, as Glassie suggests in *Folk Housing in Middle Virginia*, by looking around them, absorbing the formal vocabulary of the existing environment (Carter 1991, 420).”

What started out as a frontier looking cabin, inevitably became more modern with the addition of electricity and a plank wall room addition. As far as placement went, this structure was set farther north from the main road, and more modern houses, between Depressions #27 and #30. This suggests most of the later structures were built to be closer to the road and work.

Continuing with the age range of the town site, were a series of five depressions, probably components of commercial buildings, #19, #27, #30, #31, and #32. Four of them (#27, #30, #31, #32) were in the northern part of the site, not too far from Building #29. It seems like these might have been created for storage purposes like a cellar, or they were originally a dugout structure. Structure #32 was a large rock-rimmed depression that measures 38’(N) by 32’(S) ranging from five to six feet deep and had both wood and other debris located within. The function of these structures, while not definite, does seem to suggest that storage of goods was an important task, and possibly communal since it was located behind Buildings #20-22. (See Appendix A, for an in-depth look at all buildings.)



*Figure 8. Structure #32, Rock lined depression, possible cellar. Located behind ST #20-22. Looking southwest.*

Of the remaining public buildings i.e., outhouses and water hydrant buildings, there appeared to be an equal number of “two hole” outhouses and water buildings aka hydrant houses. These buildings were also well-built from milled lumber, like the residential houses they serviced. These buildings gave access to clean water for use in cooking, bathing, or cleaning. The clean water was piped in through the municipal water system that was provided by the Company. The ratio of municipal services buildings: water hydrants to outhouses is even and suggests that management cared enough for the well-being of the residents to pipe in fresh water with the minimal amount of sanitary services. While not routed into each house, just having water gathering stations at predictable intervals would benefit everyone living in the community. Building #14, a Hydrant Pump House, also had evidence of electricity, and it is possible that this is where the buildings were wired in from the Summitville electrical grid or a location of a powered pump to pressurize the incoming water. Currently, there is no evidence of how these buildings were tapped in since no power poles remain.



*Figure 9, Building 14 Hydrant Pump House*

The other water hydrant houses were small two-room buildings with lean-to roofs, with a spigot located in the entryway. The back of the building was generally insulated with sawdust that is still present. The outhouses were known as “two-hole” privies. With the general dimensions of: 8’ ft. wide, with 4’ ft. between holes, and hole dimensions 12” x 9”. The doors on all the outhouses faced south, overlooking the main road and the rest of the community.



*Figure 10, Building # 3, Two Door Privy, looking south*

The definition of a “Company Town” can be explained as the following: “The word ‘company’ is used to refer to organizations run by both individuals and corporations. Two major types of company imprint on the landscape are the company town and the company estate. These entities are not the means of production, but part of the infrastructure which makes production possible (Porteous 1970, 127).” The infrastructure being the buildings that are constructed to house the employees and their families.

While Summitville was a remote mining town in the Colorado Mountains, it can be said that the Company did try to offer the most basic of services, which included the personal services of housing, electricity, privies, running water, and a working post office to entice workers to move there. These services, however generous they may have been seen, were still rudimentary for this remote and rural area of Colorado. But being the Great Depression was taking place, a paying job was a great thing to have. When compared with company coal towns back east, from the 1920’s, they might be seen as equal. However, coal town’s sanitation practices can be seen as comparable with similar sized towns of the time. Regional Company Towns in the East had to contend with a tighter labor market, due to the presence of independent towns, and it behooved them to consider sanitation as a key factor when someone sought employment. Price V. Fishback, et al., describes it as, “Company towns may even have had reason to offer better sanitation than in independent towns. Since the employer in the company town owned all the property, he could internalize nearly all the gains from better sanitation.” They go on to cite a 1922 U.S. Public Health Service Survey of 123 coal mining communities, both company and independent, that showed that water sources used for public consumption were readily available and showed some level of filtration (P. V. Fishback 1989, 126,127). While there is no major comparable study, it seems Summitville in the 1930s was offering sanitation services for the

residents that were on par with the coal communities and smaller scale towns of the time. It was previously noted that the remaining visible Outhouses and Water Houses were even in number and evenly spaced throughout the community. This suggests a plan by the Management to make these communal buildings numerous and predictably spaced within the residential community.

The survey at Summitville, showed that Summitville Consolidated Mines, Inc. did attempt uniformity when designing their community. Housing, while modest by today's standards, had featured comforts. The company provided residents with a well-proportioned, multi-room house, that was heated by either coal or wood and had Celotex insulation. They were even provided with a rudimentary Outhouse sewage system and the residences were wired for electricity. While the people of Summitville lived in a remote area of Colorado, they, as a community, still had amenities and services that were provided by the Company. Residents could, if they had access to transportation, travel to Del Norte or Monte Vista if they needed to buy supplies and run other errands. This feat was made possible in 1934 when the Civilian Conservation Corps rebuilt the road up the Alamosa River through to the town of Platoro, then connecting it to the Project Works Administration and Rio Grande County's newly constructed road up Wightman Fork to Summitville. "These roads provided access and truck haulage to Monte Vista, forty-six miles distant (Huston 2012, 95)." The miners at Summitville also were paid more than their counterparts in other parts of the country.

As previously mentioned in the interviews, Bill Ellithorp was paid \$4.50 a day, while Martin and Melvin Gates' father started out \$3.50 a day, and Harriet Parker's husband was paid \$4.00 a day, the average of the three wages is \$4.00 a day or \$28 a week, assuming they are working a full seven days a week. This is not a bad average when compared to the Bureau of Labor Statistics numbers for the time. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, #573, published in

1933, western miners, including those in Colorado, saw a full-time average pay of \$30.83 per week in 1931. This is considerably higher than, for example, someone working in the copper mines of Michigan who were making an average of \$21.88 per week. An “Ore Sorter” stood to make a decent living if he applied his trade in Colorado. According to the same statistic, an “Ore Sorter” working anywhere within Colorado, saw an average pay of \$21.60 per week, while someone working in Idaho saw an average weekly pay of \$17.43. Going back to Martin and Melvin’s father, who was a “Pump Man,” he stood to make a good living while employed at Summitville. According to the same labor statistic, a “Pump Man,” someone who oversees the water needs of the mine, saw an average pay of \$32.14 a week within Colorado versus their counterpart in Idaho, who made about \$29.84. However, this data does not differentiate between Union and non-Union held positions.

According to the interviews, employees are alleged to have paid little to nothing for their housing, and heating and fuel supplies which meant they had more take-home pay, which was important during this time due to the economic climate of the United States. It should be noted that while Summitville was in operation there were no work stoppages or protests, probably because no one felt exploited or wronged enough to want to protest. Company Town Housing has been seen as a classic monopoly on real estate since the Company tended to own most of the surrounding land. However, most of the time this was not the case. As Fishback (1992,349) comments, “the companies’ success at charging monopoly rents were determined by the mobility of the miners between towns and the extent of competition in the labor market.” The rental rates at Summitville are unknown, but as previously mentioned the residents probably paid little and had the company make maintenance repairs whenever the need arose. It behooved the management to provide what it could to retain the best workforce. Fishback goes on to say, “by



providing better housing the company could increase productivity through enhanced health and work attitudes of workers; through reduced absenteeism; by attracting better quality workers, often with families; and/or by reducing turnover and its associated costs (P. V. Fishback 1992, 352).” It could suggest that the housing situation seen up at Summitville was not seen through the lens of a classic monopoly as Fishback earlier suggested but as a way to retain the workforce.

People most likely stayed because the work was lucrative, and the amenities provided were still seen as good enough. As previously stated, wages for people working there ranged from at least \$3.50-\$4.50 a day, while farmhands elsewhere were making \$1 a day (Huston 2012, 116). The passage of the National Labor Relations Act of 1935, also known as the Wagner Act, gave labor a stronger leg to stand on when it came to wages and collective bargaining. McCammon notes that “the Wagner Act did not simply help or hinder the labor movement. Rather the act and the institution of collective bargaining that emerged from it simultaneously enhanced and diminished the collective capacities of the workers (McCammon 1990, 206).” Summitville was not a known Union Town, the wages that the management were giving out seems to suggest a Union was not necessary for that time and place.

Over the course of this study from the fieldwork to examining the behavioral variations and attitudes of similar communities at the time, to exploring the material remains of the ethnographic records of Summitville, a picture emerges of life in a remote mining town, in a small corner of mountainous Colorado. The people that lived and worked in Summitville lived within a relationship dynamic with the management that fell somewhere between the overly exploitive and general indifference. Both owners and labor brought something to the table that the other one needed. Workers desired steady paying work, and a place to live and management required the muscle and sweat that the workers produced. This relationship could be taken as a

disproportionate system because labor costs fell more heavily on the workers. However, to meet this apparent uneven system management had constructed buildings that ranged in function from your average house to outhouses and water hydrants to the building of a schoolhouse and other social amenities. It could be said that the management style of the Summitville Consolidated Mines Inc., was more benign in the level of paternalism it was expressing to the workers. What remains of the studied standing structures, and the construction and spacing of these buildings suggest that management was trying to follow some basic design plan and offer consistency to the residents. The citizens may have had to walk to the bathroom, but at least they had one nearby, and they had running water and electricity. As noted from the ethnographic interviews the average pay for Colorado miners at this time was considerably higher than their mining counterparts across the country.

### **Section 7: Conclusion/Thoughts**

As a historical archaeologist, in the field all we are left with are the physical remains of a site. When those remains are limited in scope and density, we are left to rely on the documented historical narrative be it interviews with former residents and workers or the limited published literature to try and establish a more accurate picture of what took place. The interpretation at Summitville could be considered problematic when the majority of the ethnographic data comes from people who were children when the town was in operation. However, their recollections coupled with research and the archaeological ground study of the site could be considered an invaluable data source for future studies. Here, people came from all over the United States looking for work, any work. What they found were mining jobs that paid more than other jobs nearby, such as farm work. In the case of Bill Ellithorpe, he had a long family history of working at the site. Working at Summitville also provided free, to low-cost housing and other amenities.

It could be suggested that the system employed at Summitville by the management was not as paternalistic as some other company towns of the era, such as McGill, Nevada or in Pullman, Illinois but not indifferent to the workforce it employed and sought to capitalize on this fact by paying wages above the average for the time. Further archaeological studies of Summitville can continue to test hypotheses and add to the interpretation of the site. The story of Summitville occupies an interesting social and economic point in American history. Furthermore, the site of Summitville retains an important place in the history of Colorado and should be further studied and preserved for future generations. Because of its importance, possible future studies for Summitville could include refuse disposal patterns by studying the remaining material goods that are still seen and consulting historic store ledgers or delving into town demographics and comparing the ethnographic breakup Summitville to other similar communities of the day. The research topics are endless and can yield important data for future scholars.

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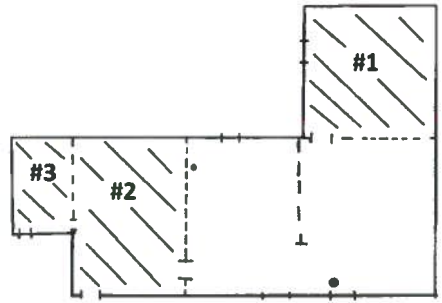
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APPENDIX A

Summitville Building Sketches and Photos

**Building #1**  
**Domestic Dwelling**



**Key**

┌ Window

— Door

/// Numbered additions

● Stove

**Notes**

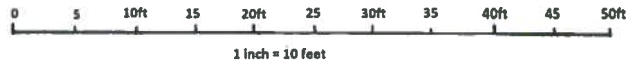
Main structure had two original rooms and a pitched roof, east and west.

Structure has 3 addition lean-to roofed rooms.

#1 Probable storage.

#2 Probable additional bedroom, with exterior door.

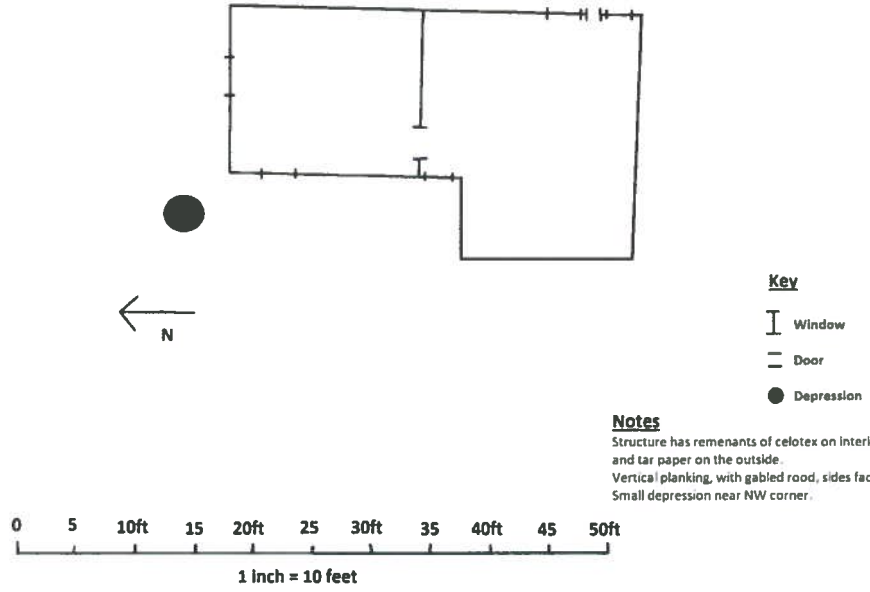
#3 Coal storage area, with small door.



*Figure 11, Building #1, looking west*



**Building #2**  
**Domestic Dwelling**



*Figure 12, Building #2, looking east*

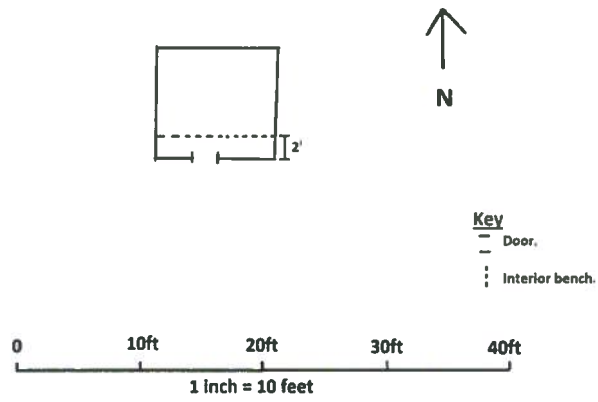


*Figure 13, Building # 3, Two Door Privy, looking south.*

### Two Door Privy

- 8' foot wide, two door Privy with center divide, evidence by marks on bench seat.
- Collapsed.
- Lean-to.
- Collapsed.
- Bench Seat is 8' ft. wide, with 4' ft. between holes, and hole dimensions 12" x 9".

**Building #4  
Water Hydrant**



*Figure 14, Building #4, Water Hydrant, looking north*



*Figure 15, Building #5, looking northwest*

Unknown Domestic Building

- Collapsed building, N/S oriented.
- Dimensions 20(N/S) x 14(E/W).
- Pitched gabled roof, slope on east and west.
- South facing wall, measures 14' with door and window, door has canvas nails.



*Figure 16, Building #6, looking north*

Collapsed Building

- Probable “Hydrant House,” in line with the others.
- Observable floor frame measures 8’2” and 9’9”.



*Figure 17, Building #7, looking north*

Large Collapsed Building

- Large, collapsed two story building, possible school house.
- Gabled roof, slopes E/W.
- South facing collapsed wall, measures 12'9".
- 23'3" + length (N/S).

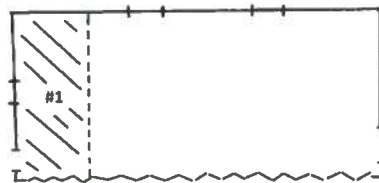


*Figure 18, Building #8, Two Door Privy, looking north*





### Two Door Privy

- Collapsed.
- 7'8" (west wall) x 8'5" (north wall).
- 4'3" depth.

**Building #9**  
**Public Building?**

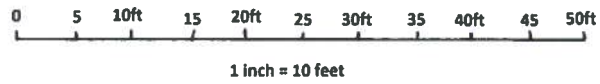


**Key**

-  Window
-  Door
-  Numbered Addition
-  Collapsed area

**Notes**

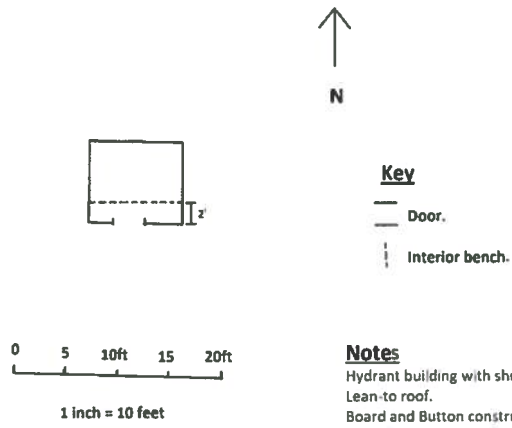
- Building had 1 addition added on.
- Subflooring, tongue and groove.
- Building had electricity
- Evidence of a staircase.



*Figure 19, Building #9, large collapsed building, looking southwest.*



**Building #10**  
**Water Hydrant with shut off valve**



**Key**

- Door.
- Interior bench.

**Notes**

Hydrant building with shut off valve.  
Lean-to roof.  
Board and Button construction.  
Height of south wall @ 7'6".  
Height of north wall @ 5'7".



*Figure 20, Building #10, Water Hydrant, facing north.*



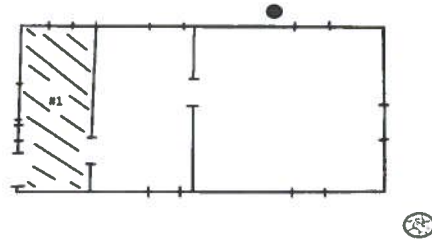
*Figure 21, Building #11, Two Door Privy, facing northeast*

### Two Door Privy

- Collapsed.
- Comparable to previously recorded Privies.

**Building #12**  
**Domestic Dwelling?**

N →



**Key**

⊥ Window

— Door

≡ Numbered Addition

● Depression

⊕ Rock Lined Well

**Notes**

Structure has two original rooms and 1 lean-to addition for coal storage.  
Gabled roof.

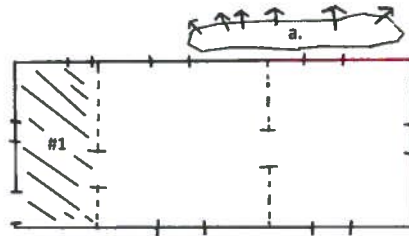


1 Inch = 10 feet



*Figure 22, Building #12, looking east.*

**Building #13**

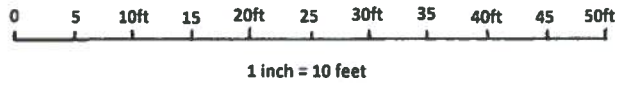


**Key**

- a. Artifact scatter
- I Window
- Door
- // Numbered Addition

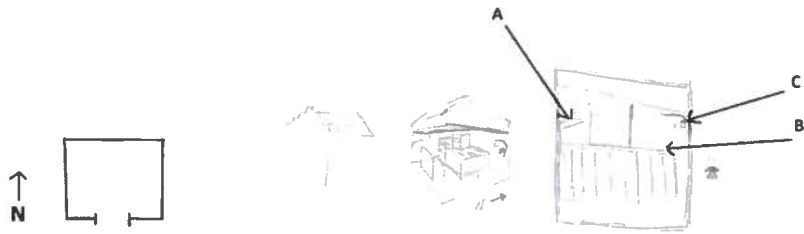
**Notes**

Structure has Tongue and Groove flooring over subfloor.  
Addition has a flat roof lean-to.  
Visible artifact scatter consists of: Solarized amethyst glass, hole in top cans, cut nails, white ware ceramic, and applied finish cork stopped bottle lipping tool, solarized.



*Figure 23, Building #13, looking east.*

**Building #14**  
**Pumo House**



0 5 10ft 15 20ft 25  
1 inch = 10 feet

**Key**

— Door

A Shelf

B Enclosed Well

C Pipe & Electrical Line



*Figure 24, Building #14, looking north.*



*Figure 25, Building #15. Collapsed structure, possible Privy, looking north.*



*Figure 26, Building #16, collapsed structure, possible Hydrant, looking north.*



*Figure 27, Building #17, Collapsed, function unknown. Looking north.*



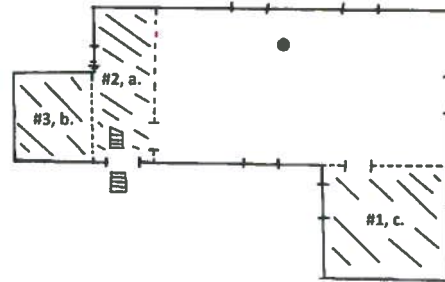
*Figure 28, Building #18, Hydrant House, same dimensions as others, warped. Looking north.*



*Figure 29, Structure #19, Depression, possible dual dugout. #1 (foreground) 14' x 20'; #2 (background) 34' x 21'. Looking north.*



**Building #20**  
**Domestic Dwelling**

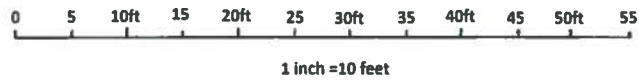


**Key**

- Door
- Window
- Numbered Add.
- Stove
- Stair remnant
- a. Slight slope roof, almost flat
- b/c. Lean-to sloped roofs

**Notes**

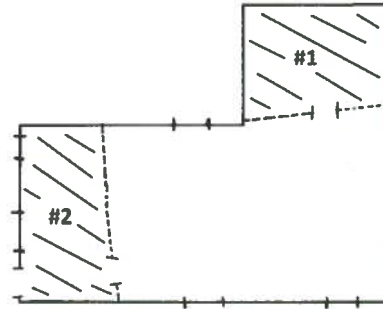
Structure has one original room, and 3 additions.  
 No interior walls in main room, but has built in shelves and cupboard.  
 Tongue and Groove flooring. Gabled roof over main room.



*Figure 30, Building #20, looking west.*

**Building #21**  
**Domestic Dwelling**

N →

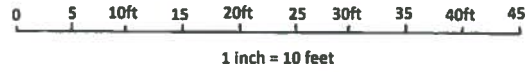


**Key**

- I Window
- Door
- /// Numbered Addition

**Notes**

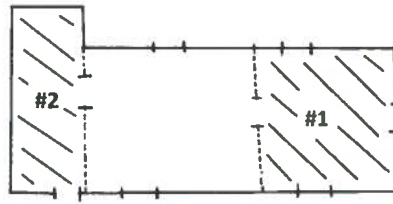
Tongue and Groove floor.  
No internal walls in main structure.



*Figure 31, Building #21, looking west.*

**Building #22**  
**Domestic Dwelling**

N →

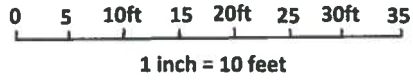


**Key**

- I Window
- Door
- /// Numbered Addition

**Notes**

Repurposed "Cabin" with more modern additions.



*Figure 32, Building #22, looking west.*



*Figure 33, Building #23, collapsed residential structure, 29' E/W on south wall, 17' N/W on west wall, 24' N/S on east wall. Looking north.*



*Figure 34, Building #24, collapsed residential structure. 19' x 14'. Possible lean-to addition on south side. Looking north.*



*Figure 35, Building #25, collapsed residential structure, 17' x 12'. Lean-to addition on north end, 13'6" x 9'. Looking north.*



*Figure 36, Building #26, Collapsed 2 hole/2 door Privy. Looking north.*



*Figure 37, Structure #27, Dug Out impression. Larger is 26' x 23'; Smaller 20' x 19'. Looking north.*



*Figure 38, Building #28, Collapsed 2 hole/2 door Privy. Looking north.*

**Building # 29  
Dovetail Cabin**



←Dovetail cornering



**Key**

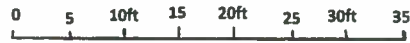
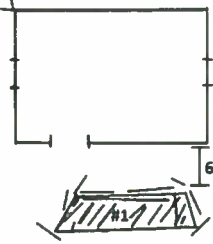
┆ Window

— Door

// Numbered Addition

**Notes:**

Dovetail cabin, domestic with collapsed addition.  
Main structure had hipped roof, addition had gabled roof.



1 inch = 10 feet



*Figure 39, Building #29, Dovetail cabin, looking north.*



*Figure 40, Structure #30, Rock depression, cellar? 25' x 68'.*



*Figure 41, Structure #31, Depression 9' x 8', looking north.*





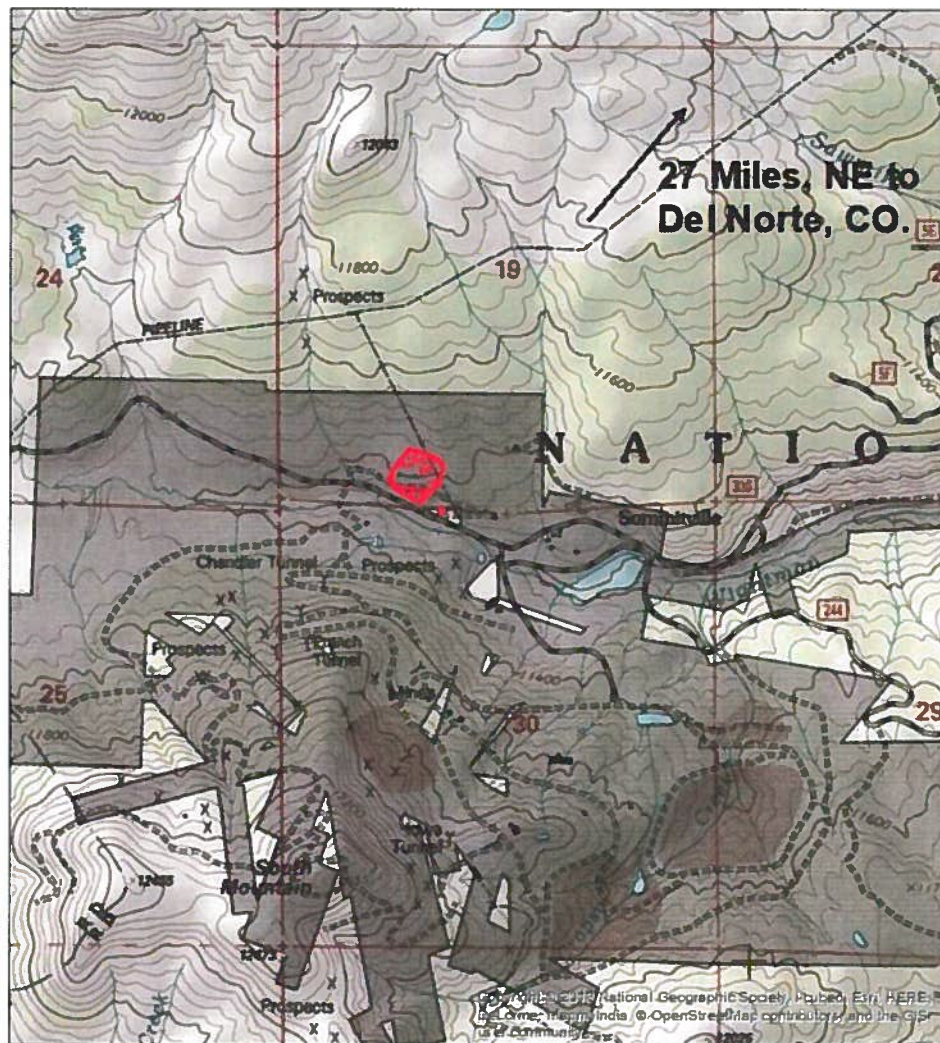
*Figure 42, Structure #32, Rock lined depression, possible cellar. 38' x 32'. Rock foundation wall is about 6' ft. wide on the side and east side, slightly smaller on west side, and absent on north side. Parts are 5-6 ft. deep. Looking southwest.*



*Figure 43, Building #33, Roofless building, of similar design as the others, 44' (NW/SE) x 40' (NE/SW). Sits 330 feet SE of main group, and Building #13, over looks main road. Looking SE, EPA Treatment Plant in background.*

APPENDIX B

Summitville Project Maps



Miles  
1:24,000

### Project Location Vicinity Map



Legend	
	Project Area

Summitville Historic Townsite Recording Project.  
August Potor, Adams State University Master's Thesis Project.  
8/29/2017.

*Figure 44, Project Vicinity Map*



Source: Esri, DigitalGlobe, GeoEye, Earthstar Geographics, CNES/Airbus DS, USDA, USGS, AeroGRID, IGN, and the GIS User Community

0 0.0125 0.025 0.05 0.075 0.1

Miles  
1:1,500



Legend	
<b>Project Area</b>	
	Project Area
<b>Comment</b>	
	Historic Midden
	Recorded Depressions
	Recorded Historic Structures
	Site Boundary
	County Road 14

Summitville Historic Townsite Recording Project.  
August Poter, Adams State University Master's Thesis Project.  
8/29/2017.

Figure 45, Site Overview.

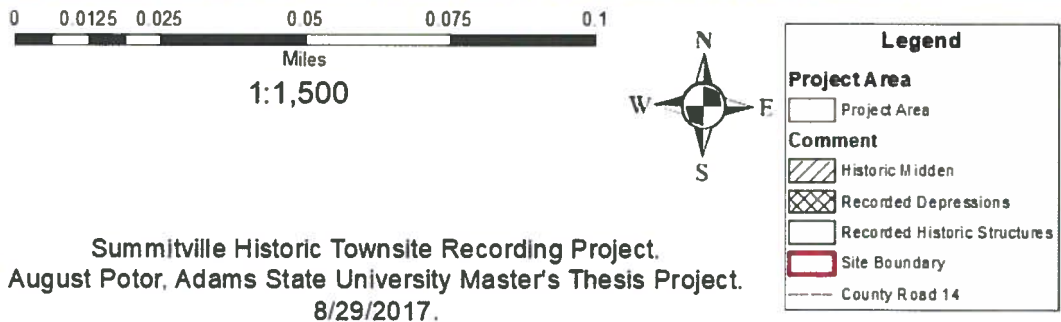
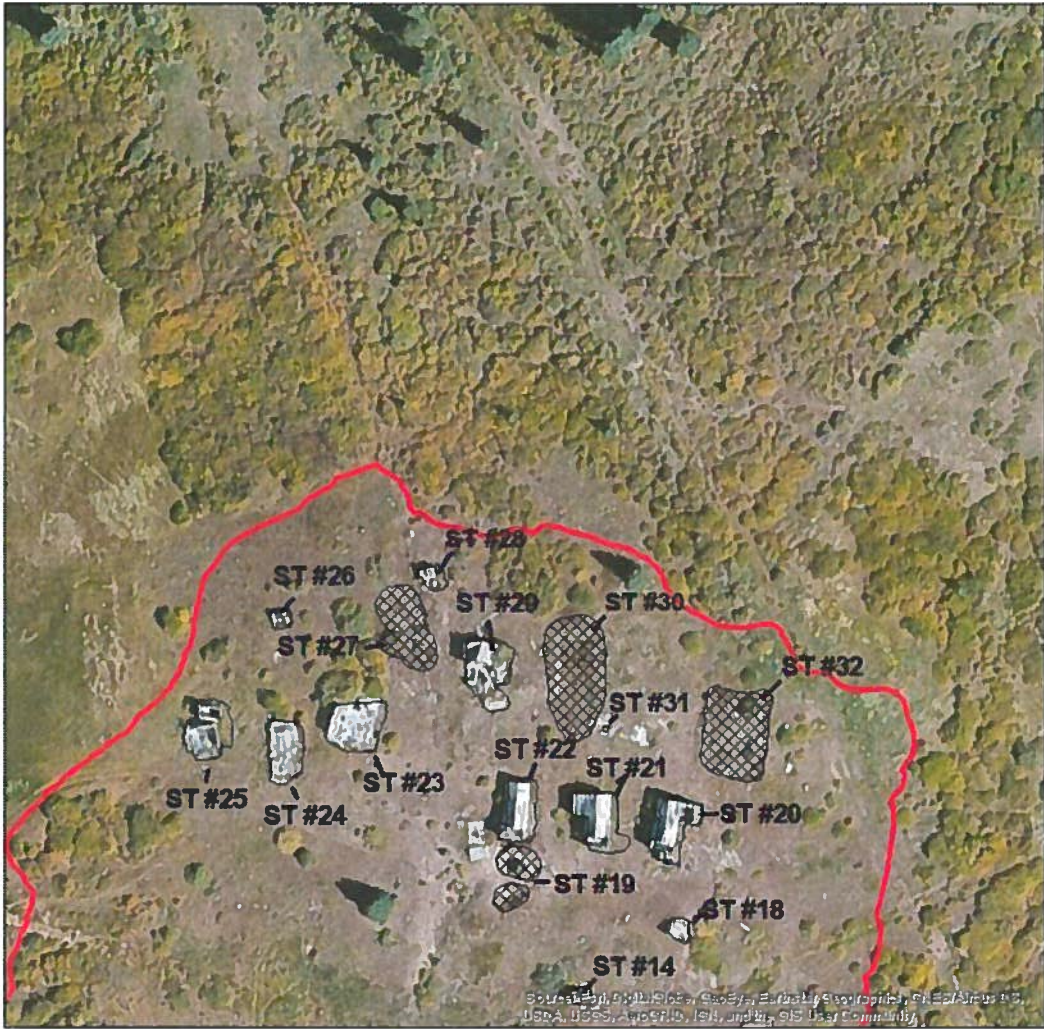
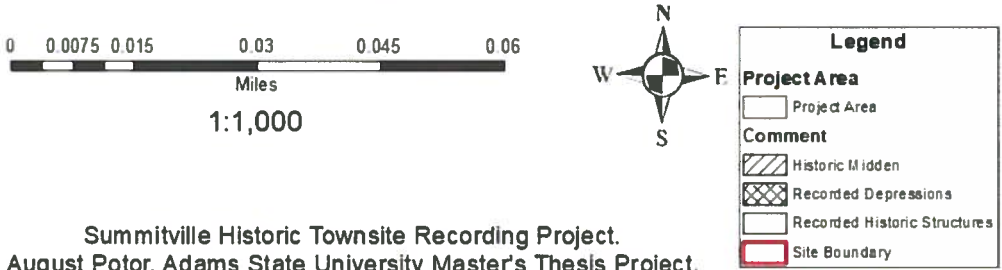


Figure 46. Site overview with numbers

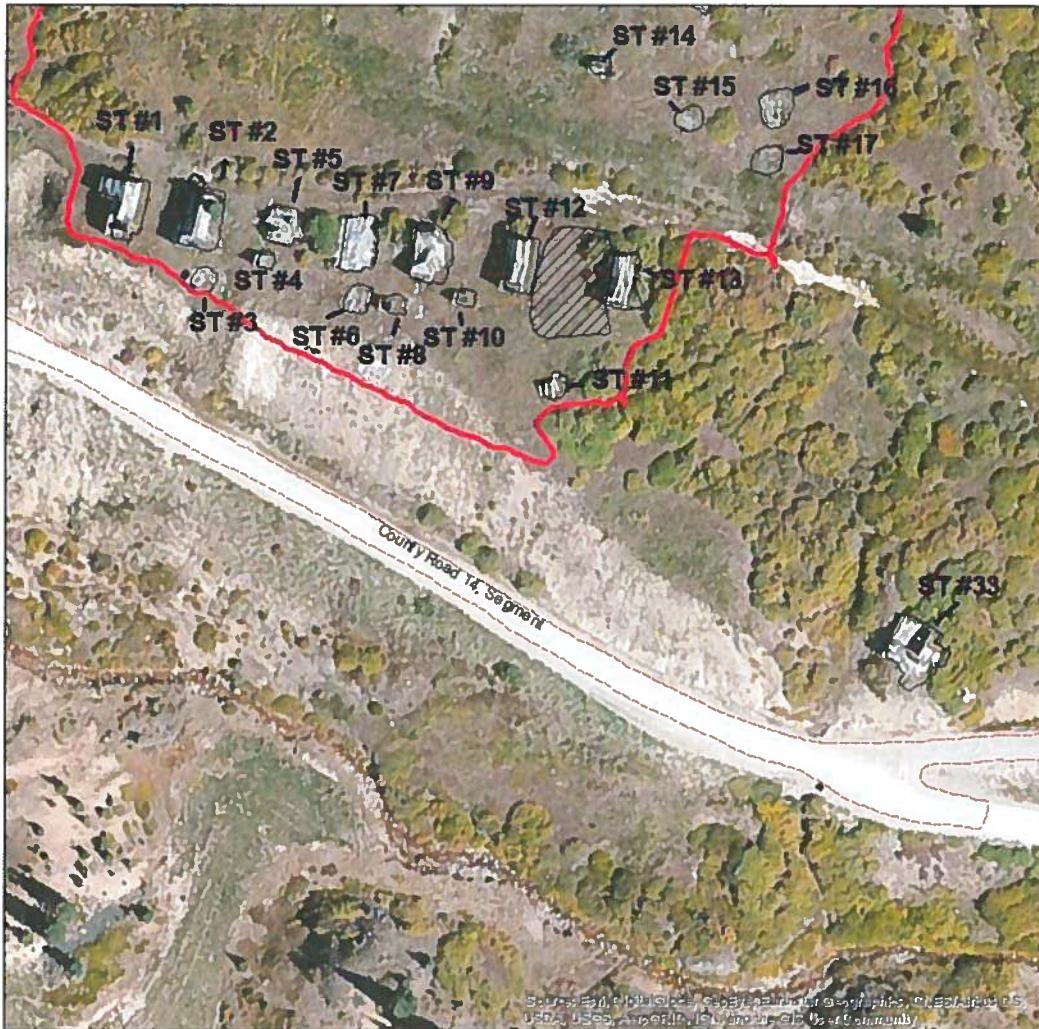


Northern Part of Site.

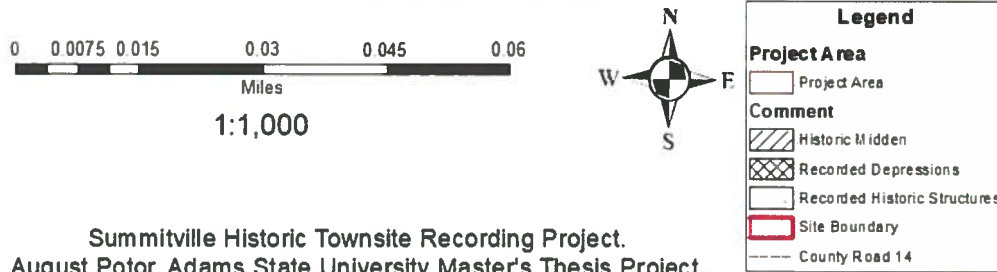


Summitville Historic Townsite Recording Project.  
 August Potor, Adams State University Master's Thesis Project.  
 8/29/2017.

Figure 47, Northern Part of Site.



Southern Part of Site.



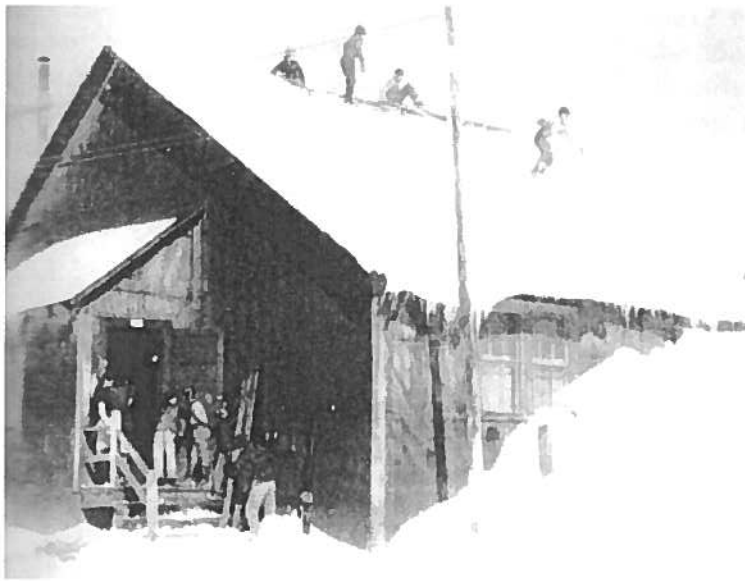
Summitville Historic Townsite Recording Project.  
 August Potor, Adams State University Master's Thesis Project.  
 8/29/2017.

Figure 48. Southern Part of Site.

Appendix C

Misc. Photos of Summitville, and McGill.





*Figure 49, School kids skiing off the roof (Rio Grande County Museum)*



*Figure 50, Young Robert Myers with his Mother (Rio Grande County Museum)*



*Figure 51, Woman, possibly Mrs. Myers sitting in front of a tar paper house (Rio Grande County Museum)*



*Figure 52, Date unknown, after a snow storm (Rio Grande County Museum)*



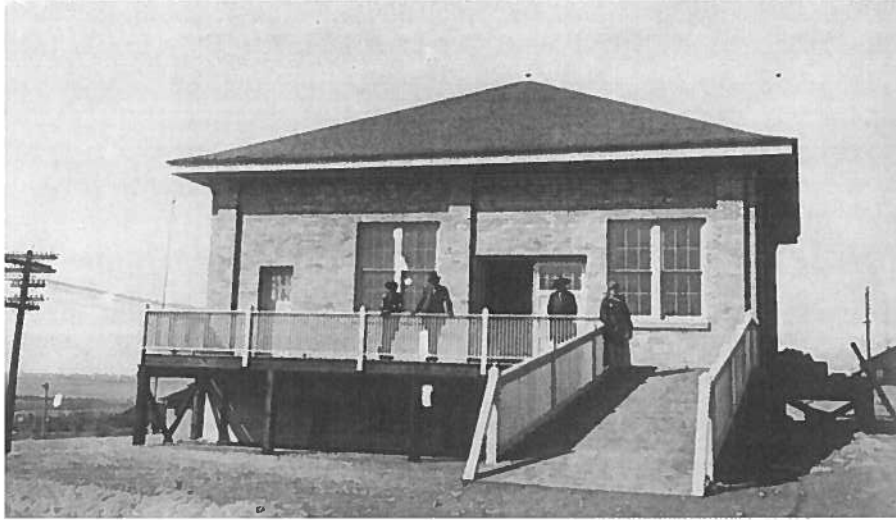
*Figure 53, Interior shot of a cabin*



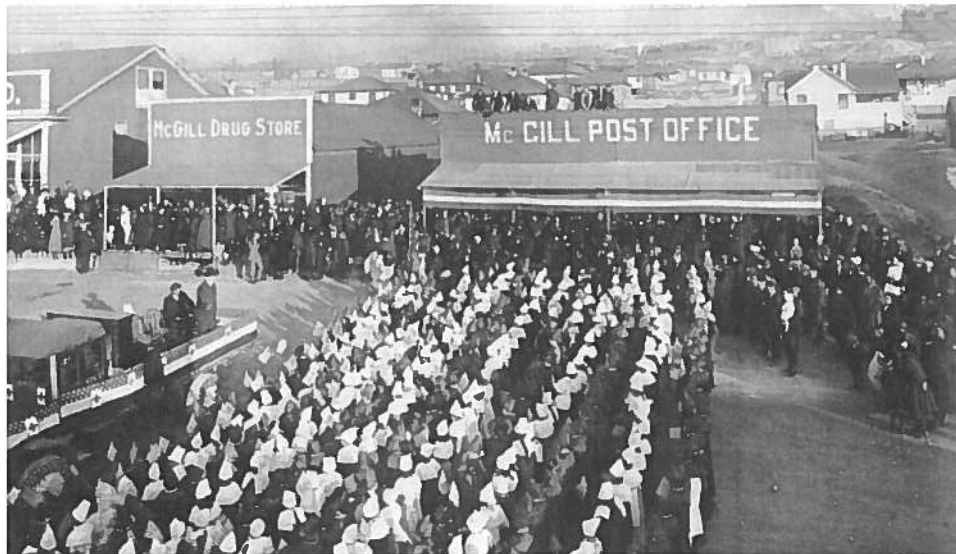
*Figure 54, Site overview, looking south*



*Figure 55, The McGill Juniors Baseball Team, circa 1910. (Elliott, 1990)*



*Figure 56, The McGill Commissary, built as part of the 1919 Strike Settlement. (Elliott, 1990)*



*Figure 57, McGill grade school students taking part in Armistice celebration, Nov. 11, 1919. (Elliott, 1990)*

APPENDIX D  
Legal Documents

August 26, 2016

To Whom It May Concern:

The Rio Grande County Museum is will to support August Potor with the excavation project at Summitville being done through Adams State University in Alamosa, Colorado.

There is a definite need to study and research our culture and historic heritage and the Museum is willing to provide curation and archival services to support the project.

Sincerely

Louise Colville

Director

*Figure 58, Agreement with the Rio Grande County Museum for Curation*

# STATE OF COLORADO

John W. Hickenlooper, Governor  
Larry Woda, MD, MSPH  
Executive Director and Chief Medical Officer

Dedicated to protecting and improving the health and environment of the people of Colorado

4300 Cherry Creek Dr. S  
Denver, Colorado 80246-1530  
Phone (303) 692-2000  
Located in Glendale, Colorado  
www.colorado.gov/cdphe

Laboratory Services Division  
8100 Lowry Blvd  
Denver, Colorado 80230-6928  
(303) 692-3090



Colorado Department  
of Public Health  
and Environment

August 18, 2016

Roni Wisdom  
Rio Grande County Administrator  
925 6th Street Room 207  
Del Norte, CO 81132

**RE: Comfort letter regarding proposed minor excavation near Summitville Townsite**

Dear Roni:

This comfort letter is issued by the Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment to Rio Grande County regarding the plans submitted by graduate student August Potor to perform historical studies near the Summitville Townsite. Mr. Potor's proposed study area is on property owned by Rio Grande County within the three outlined polygons shown in the attached map. Mr. Potor has provided CDPHE with project descriptions, and has indicated his work will not involve heavy equipment, may involve limited manual excavations no deeper than three feet below the surface, and will conclude by the end of 2017.

Mr. Potor's study area is subject to an Environmental Covenant that prior property owners granted to CDPHE in April 2002. The Covenant is associated with the environmental response actions at the Summitville Mine Superfund Site. The Covenant prohibits any disturbance of the ground surface, including any contouring, grading, drilling, excavation, digging, mining or re-mining. The potential excavations proposed by Mr. Potor would seem to fall within the restrictions set out in the Covenant.

The Record of Decision (ROD) prepared by EPA and CDPHE for the Summitville Mine Superfund Site defines the Superfund "site" as the permitted 1,231-acre mine site, and elsewhere describes the Summitville Townsite as "not within the mine permit boundary." The proposed study area also appears to be outside the mine permit area. Hence, according to the ROD, Mr. Potor's proposed activities will take place outside Superfund Site boundaries.

Therefore, by this comfort letter, CDPHE agrees not to take enforcement action under the Environmental Covenant if the County grants Mr. Potor permission to perform his historical studies project, provided Mr. Potor's project adheres to the description above, i.e., excavations limited to within the study area, no heavy machinery, no digging beyond three feet b.g.s., and concluding by the end of 2017.

If you have any questions, please contact me at (303) 692-3311.

Sincerely,

Mark Rudolph

Voluntary Cleanup and Brownfields Program

cc: Bill Dunn, Rio Grande County Attorney ([bill@dunn-law.com](mailto:bill@dunn-law.com))  
August Potor ([potorap@grizzlies.adams.edu](mailto:potorap@grizzlies.adams.edu))  
Lucas Staks, Attorney General's Office ([lucas.staks@coag.gov](mailto:lucas.staks@coag.gov))

Figure 59. Comfort Letter between CDPHE and Rio Grande County



