

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

X New Submission ___ Amended Submission

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A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

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Virginia State Parks Built by the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1929-1936

DRAFT

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B. Associated Historic Contexts

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(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

The Development of Virginia State Parks, 1921-1936
The Civilian Conservation Corps in Virginia State Parks, 1929-36
Landscape Architecture in Virginia State Parks, 1929-1936
Tourism in Virginia, 1921-1936

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C. Form Prepared by

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D. Certification

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As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation. (___ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Signature and title of certifying official

Date

Table of Contents for Written Narrative

Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and the title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Fill in page numbers for each section in the space below.

E. Statement of Historic Contexts (If more than one historic context is documented, present them in sequential order.)

F. Associated Property Types (Provide description, significance, and registration requirements.)

G. Geographical Data

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods (Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.)

I. Major Bibliographical References (List major written works and primary location of additional documentation: State Historic Preservation Office, other State agency, Federal agency, local government, university, or other, specifying repository.)

Paperwork Reduction Act Statement: This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C. 470 et seq.).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 120 hours per response including the time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Chief, Administrative Services Division, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; and the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reductions Project (1024-0018), Washington, DC 20503.

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Signature of the Keeper

Date of Action

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SECTION E: STATEMENT OF HISTORIC CONTEXT

I. Landscape Architecture in Virginia State Parks, 1929-1936

Background

The design of the Virginia State Parks built by the Civilian Conservation Corps is directly derived from the conservation guidelines, aesthetics, and planning processes developed by the National Park Service for use in the National Parks. The NPS park design process, known as the Master Plan process, was developed over the course of several years as a way to accommodate the Park Service's dual obligation of conservation of natural resources and provision of those resources for human enjoyment. CCC personnel and park administrators in Virginia drew on the existing Master Plan process, as well as NPS personnel, to develop Master Plans for all six Virginia State Parks, and the design of the parks cannot be understood without a brief overview of the NPS Master Plan process.

The National Park Service and the Development of Park Design

The development of state park design in Virginia was a direct outcome of several years of growth and innovation in the National Parks. Before the establishment of the National Park Service in 1916, ad-hoc planning and lack of standardization threatened to degrade the fragile resources of the National Parks, as campers and tourists pitched camps, cooked, drove, rode horses, swam and hiked at will. Relatively unregulated concessionaires sought spots to set up their businesses with little or no attention to the effect of increased traffic or use in the area. The design and planning philosophy implemented in the National Parks was the outgrowth of a landscape architecture that carefully considered the balance between conservation of natural resources, recreational use for a growing tourist industry, and landscape scenery that could be experienced from both select viewpoints and moving vehicles.

The movement to create and protect National Parks began in the late nineteenth century, from an incongruous and sometimes competing conflation of railroad, industrial, and conservationist interests. The acts of congress that created Yellowstone (1872), Sequoia (1890), Grand National (1890), Yosemite (1890), and Mount Rainier National Park (1899), provided only that they would be administered by the army under the Department of the Interior. This arrangement proved unwieldy in light of the complexities of conservation regulation and enforcement that the parks required. In August 1916, Congress established the National Park Service as a separate entity within the department of the Interior to manage both the national parks and monuments such as the Grand Canyon. The mandate of the Park Service was clear—to balance the conservation of resources with their use, and to do so in such a way that that use might continue in perpetuity.

“...The service thus established shall promote and regulate the use of the Federal areas known as national parks, monuments and reservations hereinafter specified

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... which purpose is to conserve scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wild life therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such a manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations.”ⁱ

Stephen T. Mather, the first director of the National Park Service, was instrumental in developing the policy and administrative structure of the Service, and he recognized that the National Parks required a cohesive, rigorous approach to land planning and recreation use in order to fulfill the mandate of the Service. At the suggestion of assistant director Arno Cammerer, Mather created a division of landscape architecture to oversee the National Park design process. In 1927, landscape architect Thomas Vint, who had worked in Frank Lloyd Wright’s office, but whose expertise was grounded in landscape construction, was hired to run a newly consolidated design office in San Francisco, where he would serve with distinction for forty years. His signal contribution was the development of the Master Planning process for parks, which would later be used in the state park systems.

The practice of landscape architecture at that time was primarily focused on the design of formal and picturesque gardens of wealthy patrons that made up the bulk of the professions’ commissions. For some practitioners, new developments in urban planning and natural resource conservation offered an emerging field for their energies, especially in the development of parks and park systems. Beginning with Warren Manning’s National Plan of 1919, which linked parks together along “recreational way,” the use of zoning concepts allowed landscape architects and planners to articulate areas for specific uses as well as those set aside for future developments, and evaluated the project on a regional rather than a local scale.

The American Society of Landscape Architects, established in 1899, was a strong advocate for both the creation of National Parks in the early days of the movement, and for the employment of landscape architects as the primary stewards of park planning. Founding ASLA members Charles Eliot and Frederick Law Olmsted promoted and wrote extensively on the need for park systems at the urban and regional scale, and Olmsted in particular was a critical figure in the setting aside of Yosemite as a National Park. Yet, at the time of the establishment of the first National Parks, neither the ASLA nor the profession of landscape architecture had articulated a formal model for park planning on the national scale that could be replicated across a variety of terrain and topography.

Park Service landscape aesthetics evolved out the late nineteenth-century writings on pastoral landscapes popularized by architects such as A.J. Downing (1815-1852), whose influential texts, *Cottage Residences* (1842) and *Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Architecture* (1841) espoused picturesque compositions in suburban settings. Frederick Law Olmsted’s urban parks--Central Park (1858-78) and Prospect Park (1866-68) in New York, and Franklin Park

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(1885) in Boston--provided a constructive model of how these landscape aesthetics could be successfully combined with a variety of recreational uses in large-scale settings. The aesthetic, scenic narratives in the Olmsted parks were rhythmically composed through the careful arrangement of close and distant views, open fields, curvilinear paths, rolling landscapes, and serene bodies of water, screened and enframed by forest. These principles required a harmonious and unobtrusive relationship between circulation, structures, and service facilities, which was accomplished through the use of a common building palette of natural materials and textures.

In the early years of the Park Service, the rapidly escalating day and overnight use demands on the National Parks made the need for careful, comprehensive planning vital if the natural landscape features were to be conserved for future use, and this responsibility increasingly fell on the Landscape Division. Policy statements issued by the NPS in 1918 stated, “the construction of roads, trails, buildings, and other improvements, particular attention must be devoted always to the harmonizing of these improvements with the landscape.”ⁱⁱ Therefore, the division was charged with developing a set of planning processes and design guidelines that could accommodate the present and anticipated needs of visitors while protecting the landscape. Olmsted’s approach to accommodating different and potentially conflicting recreation uses through zoning and screening were particularly important in resolving this tension. The National Park Service’s park planning process was also influenced by progressive ideas of zoning in town and regional planning that had been gaining favor during the 1920s.

As National Park planning rapidly evolved into a combination of landscape design, civil engineering, road building, and enforcement, Vint’s task became the development of a planning process that would yield design and construction parameters that could be standardized while still respecting the desired qualities of each park property. This method, called the Master Plan process, allowed topographical and environmental features and resources to be recognized, constituencies of use to be identified and prioritized, and aesthetics to be codified into clear and easily replicable standards and practices. Vint’s prototype 1933 Master Plan for Mount Ranier National Park became the model for explicating this process to Park Service personnel as well as to State Park planners, including those for the Virginia State Parks.

National Park Service and the Development of the Master Plan

The Master Plan process developed out of a series of increasingly more comprehensive park design guidelines, to include such elements as service and access roads, trails, lodges and cabin structures, service buildings, ranger facilities, campgrounds, visitors’ and education centers, maintenance facilities, and a variety of recreation areas. The Master Plan was made of several overlaid maps constructed from a trace of a USGS base map. Each map described a particular function or use in the park, with all attendant services, structures and circulation. There were also

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detailed maps of developed areas and plans that indicated the relationship with the regional infrastructure. Standardized symbols allowed for easy updating, and the plans were to be accompanied by documentation that stipulated interpretation, function, and administration of different areas. Master Plans included both present and future areas of development, and provided Park administrators with a way to effectively estimate budgets and execute new work.

The Master Plan process was the outcome of several years of comprehensive planning development that strove to balance the landscape aesthetics of the park service, which were grounded in nineteenth century conceptions of the Picturesque, and the necessity to make the National Parks accessible to the public, as stipulated in the 1916 NPS Mission Statement. The creative tension inherent in these two objectives lay in landscape aesthetics that subjected the manmade to the natural landscape, while equally accommodating the increasing demands for human intervention through recreation areas and road access.

In addition, the Park Service, through the efforts of consulting architect Herbert Maier, developed a rusticated design standard for architecture that was based on complementary natural materials and local landscape character. Maier, who had originally come into contact with the NPS Landscape Division through his consulting work at the American Association of Museums, was eventually hired to run District III, and later the Southwest Region of the Emergency Conservation Work's state park programs. As a liaison between camp superintendents and the Park Service, Maier was instrumental in translating NPS aesthetics into park structure design.ⁱⁱⁱ In his role as chief Park Service spokesman on park structures, Maier assembled a portfolio of building designs and sources that would eventually be published in 1935 by Albert H. Good as *Park Structures and Facilities*. This publication, along with the approach to Master Plan development, provided the foundation for landscape and architectural design in the Virginia State Parks.

The NPS and State Park Development

Nearly from its inception, the Park Service recognized the need for a second system of parks at the state level that could both complement and buttress the stewardship of the National Parks. The rising levels of day-use due to increased automobile ownership obliged the National Parks to accommodate uses and volumes of visitors they had not been designed to absorb, and State Parks were conceived as a way to divert some of the National Park day-use traffic. Successful early State Park systems were in place in New York under Robert Moses' administration—Moses held

many influential positions in both the city and state governments of New York during his career, many of them concurrently, including New York City parks commissioner (1934 – 1960), head of the Triborough Bridge and Tunnel Authority, New York City construction coordinator, and sole member of the New York City Parkway Authority. In California, Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr.'s "State Park Survey for California" codified the fundamental planning issues and processes

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for state parks and set the criteria for selection and design development.

“They should be sufficiently distinctive and notable to interest people from comparatively distant parts of the State to visit and use them... They should be geographically distributed with a view to securing a wide and representative variety of types for the State as a whole... a fair assortment of parks should be within the reach of a day’s travel by automobile of any considerable body of population.”^{iv}

Olmsted’s criteria for selection echoed the Park Service’s 1918 statement that potential parks should have, “scenery of supreme and distinctive quality of some national feature so extraordinary or unique as to be of national interest and importance.”^v

In 1921, Mather organized the first National Conference for State Parks in Des Moines on the model of the National Parks Conferences he established in 1917. These conferences were attended by public and private entities interested in promoting the State Park movement in their locality. The conference brought together planners, conservationists, civic leaders and others. Mather and other National Park advocates argued tirelessly for the development of State Park systems, but some states like Virginia found that the programs could not come to fruition without committed public funds. For this reason, Virginia was sometimes referred to as a “latecomer” to the State Park movement--many states had established parks and park systems by the time Virginia’s first six parks opened in 1936—but Virginia state representatives had been attending the National Conference for State Parks regularly for several years. By the time the Fifth Conference, held in 1925, was hosted at Skyland in the proposed Shenandoah National Park, the movement for a State Park system in Virginia had been underway for almost fifteen years.

Design Development in the Virginia State Parks

The NPS closely guided the development of the first six Virginia State Parks through a number of mechanisms. Collaboration between federal and local administrators was essentially built into the Emergency Conservation Work act that would eventually provide the resources for the Virginia State Parks through the aegis of the Civilian Conservation Corps. In 1934, the National Park Service Branch of Planning and State Cooperation Region One office was relocated to Richmond, and it is likely that this office is where NPS and state park planners developed the Master Plan for Virginia state parks. Frederick Fay was the landscape architect in the Region

One office who worked closely with Robin Burson, the landscape engineer most responsible for the development of the Virginia State Parks.

The Virginia State Parks have a number of elements and approaches first developed or planned

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for the National Parks. Criteria for selecting land for the Virginia State Parks drew heavily on the existing body of knowledge developed by the National Park Service and articulated by Olmsted Jr.'s California Survey. Parks were to be no more than a day's drive from a major population center. Each park in the system should represent a different topographical or natural characteristic of the state. The natural features should be of a distinctive nature such that they could attract interest from other parts of the state, as well as outside the state's borders. A body of water would provide a central organizing feature as well as the site of several types of recreation. Zoning is evident in the separation and distribution of day use, group camps, service areas, ranger buildings, active recreation areas, and campsites.

In addition, the landscape and architectural aesthetics of the National Park Service guided the myriad smaller decisions that shaped the relationship between the natural and man-made landscape. Local materials and building traditions were evinced in the log and board and batten cabins, lodges and service buildings at all six parks. Paths, stairs, trails, and bridges were unobtrusively built into the landscape with local stones. Dams, retaining walls, and spillways suggested natural forms without imitating them. Single entrance points into the parks were along carefully planned curving roads with intermittent views of open landscape. The conformity of the aesthetic and planning principles in the Virginia parks to those of National Parks was underscored by the publication of buildings from the Virginia parks in the three-volume 1938 edition of Albert H. Good's *Parks and Recreation Structures*. These included buildings from Douthat, Staunton River, Westmoreland, Matoaka State Parks and Swift Creek (later Pocahontas State Park) and Chopawamsic (later Prince William Forest Park) Recreation Demonstration Areas. Lastly, the CCC resources were shared between state and National parks, as CCC companies moved from one to the other during the construction of Virginia state parks.

The Development of Virginia State Parks: 1921-33

Background

While development of state parks in the United States did not begin until after World War I, several events important in their development occurred between the end of the Civil War and the beginning of World War I. In 1926, Virginia established the Virginia State Commission on Conservation and Development, and appointed William E. Carson as its first chairman. The Commission was charged with oversight for all of Virginia's historic and natural resources, and Carson oversaw several subcommittees and departments including those of the State Forester, Geological Survey, Historic Highway Markers and Parks. Initially, the Parks department was

concerned almost exclusively with the progress on the Shenandoah National Park.

Tourism and Economic Development in Virginia, 1921-1936

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The tourist economy had been operating in concert with Virginia's historic legacy as early as the 1830s, when the state government directed resources into turnpikes and roads whose purpose was encouraging tourist and commercial traffic. The implementation of roads that linked mineral springs, scenic spots, and historic landscapes resulted in an explosion of tourist activity and a lively commerce sprung up in the western part of the state in the years leading up to the Civil War. The hot springs of the northwest area of the state were a fashionable spa destination and landscape features such as the Natural Bridge were frequently included in the tourist itinerary. After the Civil War, increasing interest in the preservation of natural and historic resources (and not a little nostalgia for the antebellum South) resulted in the recognition of several types of sites including battlefields, historic parks, and monuments. Historic sites in Virginia were not confined to buildings, but were entire regions that included agricultural, military, civic and domestic sites and landscapes. By the early twentieth century, privately managed historic sites proliferated all over the state. These civic groups quickly recognized the need for a transportation network that linked the sites in order to maximize their combined worth.^{vi}

Despite this prior knowledge of the economic benefit to be reaped from natural landscapes, the movement for state parks that had gathered strength elsewhere in the country struggled to garner support in Virginia. In 1919, a bill was in development that would introduce "a State Park System to include scenic and historic points throughout the State, to be selected along the State Highways or within reach of the same."^{vii} The bill ultimately failed, but the link between state parks, historic sites, and highway development had been established. The state parks were seen as adjunct to the expanding commercial possibilities of increased road travel, rather than as stand-alone conservation projects.

The effort to link parks, roads, scenic preservation and the tourist economy was strengthened with the establishment of the Shenandoah National Park in 1926. Although under the administration of the National Park Service, the collaboration between the state and federal entities to accomplish the park construction encouraged Virginia park system advocates in their efforts.^{viii} In 1926, Virginia established the Virginia State Commission on Conservation and Development, and appointed William E. Carson as its first chairman. The Commission was charged with oversight for all of Virginia's historic and natural resources, and Carson oversaw several subcommittees and departments including those of the State Forester, Geological Survey, the Bureau of Archeology and History, and Parks. The Bureau of Archeology and History included an Advisory Committee on Historic Markers, which oversaw the design and implementation of Virginia's Historic Highway Markers program, a further innovation in the link between roads and historic landscapes.

The need for a Virginia State Park system to support conservation efforts was legitimized by the success of the larger National Park system, but the opportunity for state parks to become an

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economic force at the regional and local level was inextricably part of their appeal. State parks had the potential to stimulate economic development in two important ways: through the development of a service economy and through the reclamation of agriculturally unproductive land.

With the development of increased inter and intra-state car travel and auto-camping in the 1920s, small independent concessionaires had developed into a roadside economy of campsites, restaurants and motels with little planning or consistency in services offered. The Commission on Conservation and Development saw the state parks as a way to maximize the revenue from this new kind of tourist economy. In a radio address from 1933, Carson spelled out the state's strategy for making the most of the natural and historic resources for tax revenue and economic benefit.

“Now let us try to vision how this great stream of visitors, spending say a week in their vacation in the mountains in the Shenandoah National Park, and streaming through the state to our seashore, would quicken and make prosperous not only the watering places and bathing beaches already established on the Atlantic coast, but every town and village in the State; and how the millions and millions of dollars these visitors will leave behind them will benefit our farmers and truck raisers, service stations, automobile mechanics, hotels and restaurants, tourist homes, and general stores, and all of our citizens who do business with them.”

“It was only after analysis of all the sources of wealth that could be brought to Virginia that the Conservation Commission embarked upon its deliberate policy of fomenting and encouraging tourist travel within the State... Tourist money is easy and profitable.”^{ix}

The link between the national parks, state historic and natural resources, and tourism dollars was quite materially, the development of highways, and Carson immediately understood the importance of developing scenic roads linking these resources throughout Virginia.

It had been the Shenandoah National Park, with President Hoover's proposed Rapidan “Summer Camp” that initially revealed the value of national publicity and tourist interest to the state park advocates. The Skyline Drive, completed in three phases beginning in 1934, and eventually the Blue Ridge Parkway, linked the Shenandoah National Park in the northwestern part of Virginia with the Great Smokey Mountains National Park in Tennessee, effectively creating a link between national parks that brought tourists into the local economies adjacent to the Parkway. The Virginia State Park system was conceived as an adjunct to the Shenandoah National Park and the network of scenic highways that was planned in conjunction with the Skyline Drive.

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Carson envisioned a State Park system connected by scenic highways similar to and connected with the National Park model, where tourists could be enticed into the less-frequented parts of the state to spend their money in local economies. The success of the plan in this light was indisputable. In 1934, Virginia earned \$55 million from tourist income; in 1935, the figure jumped to \$73 million, not including increased revenues from gasoline taxes and other related incomes.^x

Land Reclamation and Rural Economics in Virginia

The second kind of economic benefit derived from the park system was the regeneration of economically unproductive land. Like the revenue from road traffic, communities where parks were to be built could expect to profit both from the expenditures by the CCC camps and the tax revenue from fallow forest or the exhausted agricultural lands. Tobacco economics and plantation agricultural practices have been frequently cited as the main cause of southern agrarian failure, but the great timber resources of the south had also been systematically depleted and mismanaged since the arrival of European settlers in the seventeenth century. By the 1920s, much of the rural landscape of the South was stripped and barren, the result of soil degradation, deforestation, erosion, flooding and rampant forest fires. Ineffective or inconsistent forestry knowledge exacerbated the already difficult situation. By the 1920s, small rural farmers and landholders struggled to eke out a subsistence living on the exhausted land they had farmed for generations. As one historian noted,

“In some fashion every major social problem in the South had grown out of the land and its mismanagement.”... Never in the whole scope of southern history had such a large proportion of the land been caught in so harsh a crisis as that caused by defective farming practices and runaway erosion.”^{xi}

Parks, forestry and conservation projects that would be implemented under the New Deal offered new avenues for reclaiming acres of ruined land that had become a tax burden to the state. Some of these lands later became Recreation Demonstration Areas, and were absorbed into the state and National Park Systems. If Carson and the members of the Virginia Commission on Conservation and Development understood the potential that these programs could have to generate revenue, they also recognized the cost of land reclamation to human autonomy and community from their experience in the Shenandoah National Park.

During the Depression, government assistance and rural rehabilitation programs under the Resettlement Administration moved hundreds of Virginia families off the land in an effort to stabilize crop prices by retiring farmland. Reclamation programs forced small farmers to seek other kinds of work in cities and manufacturing for which they were not trained, and ill prepared

land use policies related to park development were not always embraced by those who lived on

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the land in question. Similar strategies were utilized in the effort to acquire the land that would become Shenandoah National Park. The protracted and passionate legal battles lasted for years as the state struggled to move recalcitrant landowners off the property that had been surveyed for the park. Eventually the state won the authority to condemn the land that was being occupied and evicted the families living there. In a 1934 progress report on the Shenandoah National Park, Carson referred to this bitterly as “a disagreeable and abhorrent job.”¹ The experience in developing Shenandoah National Park underscored the need for careful site selection and planning before state park development could be undertaken. The Commission was careful to lay the groundwork for park acquisition to the minimize the chance for a financial and public relations disaster.

Planning the State Park System, Early Efforts, 1926-1933

In order to enable the Commission to develop a state park system, the General Assembly enacted legislation authorizing

“...the acquisition, preservation, development and maintenance of areas, properties, land or estates of scenic beauty, recreational utility, historical interest, remarkable phenomena, or other unusual features. Such acquisitions and developments were declared to be used for the use, observation, education, health and pleasure of the people.”^{xii}

Three years later, in 1929, Carson publicly voiced his support for a state park to be located on Virginia’s seashore. At a series of talks given to civic organizations across the state, Carson argued that the best complement to the Shenandoah National Park, located in the Blue Ridge Mountains, would be park located on Virginia’s eastern coastline. In response, the Seashore State Park Association was established in Norfolk in the spring of 1929. At the same time, there was growing support in southwest Virginia for the establishment of an interstate park between Virginia and Kentucky at the Breaks of Cumberland.

The culmination of these efforts was a 17 December 1929 meeting in Richmond under the sponsorship of the Virginia Academy of Science, the Garden Clubs of Virginia, and the Isaac Walton League. Together, these organizations put together a series of resolutions in support of the establishment of a state park system, and presented these resolutions to governor-elect John Garland Pollard. In response, during July 1930 the State Commission on Conservation and Development hired Robin E. Burson as the head of the Division of Landscape Engineering.

Burson’s first charge was to make a comprehensive study of state park systems in the eastern

¹ *Conserving and Developing Virginia. Report of W.E. Carson, chairman, State Commission on Conservation and Development, July 26, 1926, to December 31, 1934, and Shenandoah National Park.* Virginia Conservation Commission. (1935) 23.

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United States. Burson was charged with examining “every phase of development, operation, maintenance and administration.”^{xiii} After concluding the study, Burson was instructed to tour Virginia and prepare a map recommending areas in which state parks might be located.

During his first three years in this newly created position, Burson laid the groundwork for the development of the Virginia state park system. During July of 1930, Burson visited the state park systems in Michigan, Indiana, and New York, spending at least one week at each and collecting his observations into a report for the Commission on Conservation and Development.

In 1930, Burson began to prepare plans for the reconstruction of George Washington’s Grist Mill, in Fairfax County, to commemorate the Washington Bicentennial Celebration of 1932. The Grist Mill, Virginia’s first state park, was acquired by the Division of Parks and Recreation in 1932.

Throughout 1931 and 1932, Burson toured all of the regions of Virginia seeking potential sites for state parks. During this time, Burson also actively promoted the idea of a state park system through talks at garden clubs and civic groups all over the state.^{xiv} In 1932, Burson hosted the National Conference on State Parks at Virginia Beach, boosting support for both Carson’s idea of a Seashore State Park and a statewide system of state parks for Virginia.

By the spring of 1933, on the eve of the enactment of the New Deal, Burson had completed preliminary plans for a state park system to serve all regions of the state. The system was to include the formation of six new state parks: Seashore (now called First Landing State Park) and Westmoreland state parks to serve the Tidewater region, Staunton River State Park to serve the middle region, Fairy Stone State Park to serve the Piedmont, Hungry Mother State Park to serve the Valley of Virginia, and Douthat State Park to serve the mountain and valley regions.^{xv}

The Civilian Conservation Corps in Virginia State Parks, 1933-36

The decisive boost for Virginia’s state parks occurred on 5 April 1933, with the enactment of the Emergency Conservation Work Act (ECW), a component of the New Deal. The New Deal legislation that provided for the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps was part of President Roosevelt’s “First 100 Days”—a whirlwind of legislation and executive action aimed at addressing the crisis in economic and social conditions brought on by the Depression. To enact the program, a 10 million dollar fund was established for “the emergency construction of public buildings.”^{xvi} Robert Fechner, a prominent labor leader, was appointed director. Twelve days later, on 17 April 1933, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was created to carry out the ECW program.^{xvii} The bill gave the President the authority to enlist a Civilian Conservation

Corps of unemployed young men between the ages of 18 and 25 to work on a variety of public

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works, which eventually included the development of state and national parks.

At the state level, federal New Deal relief programs were challenged to fit into existing state organizations and politics. The resources provided by the ECW for conservation work would be managed jointly by Federal and state agencies. The human and material resources of the Civilian Conservation Corps, overseen by Fechner, would build the parks and related roads. The design of state parks would be coordinated and approved by the National Park Service. The state was responsible for the acquisition of land and the selection of CCC recruits.

With the promise of funds and labor from New Deal legislation, Virginia, along with many other states, acted quickly to develop its state park plans. Having already researched and prepared preliminary plans for a state park system, the Virginia Commission on Conservation and Development needed only to acquire land on which to locate the parks. Following Burson's recommendations about the location of the parks, the Commission set out to secure property in each of the approved regions through donations of land and money. As a result of these efforts, "the majority of park property was so donated by public spirited citizens which had the foresight to see the tremendous advantage of a park in their community."^{xviii} In addition, the General Assembly appropriated an additional \$50,000 to further aid in the acquisition of park land. By 1933, the Virginia Commission on Conservation and Development had acquired six properties that would become Douthat State Park, Seashore State Park, Hungry Mother State Park, Fairy Stone State Park, Staunton River State Park, and Westmoreland State Park. Two Recreation Demonstration Areas were also developed at this time by the CCC and opened in 1936 under the National Park Service: Swift Creek Recreation Demonstration Area, which would become Pocahontas State Park, and Chopawamsic Recreation Demonstration Area, which would be renamed Prince William Forest Park in 1948.

Four Recreation Demonstration Areas were developed by the Forest Service and built by the CCC during the same era. Although these sites were not developed within the design framework of the NPS, they share some design features and approaches to planning, including long entry drives, organizing water features, and structures built out of natural materials to blend with the landscape. Of the four RDAs, Bear Creek, Holliday Lake, Goodwin Lake, and Prince Edward Lake, the last deserves special recognition as the only park in Virginia open to African-Americans.

Virginia's state parks were not open to African-Americans and would not be desegregated until the 1960s. The development of Seashore, now First Landing State Park, included African-American CCC camps, but the park closed rather than adhere to court-ordered desegregation in 1954. In 1939, Goodwin Lake and Prince Edward Lake were established as two racially segregated, but parallel, parks with Prince Edward Lake as the only state park facility for

African-Americans until desegregation. In 1976, the two parks merged and in 1986, they were

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renamed Twin Lakes State Park.

That the first six parks in the Virginia State Park system emerged almost at once in 1936 was a function of the judicious advance planning by the Commission on Conservation and Development, but also owed something to Virginia's deft, hard-nosed management of Federal New Deal politics. As the most popular of Roosevelt's New Deal programs, the Civilian Conservation Corps camps were sought after by state and local politicians for whom the economic boost of a CCC camp in their locality was politically advantageous. The equitable distribution and administration of CCC camps in Virginia was complicated both by the existing racial politics of the state and by the particularities of the Virginia state political machine.

From the beginning, there were difficulties in the management of the various components of the CCC project, both at the federal and state levels. The Labor department was charged with overseeing the selection of recruits, and was quickly confronted with the implacability of some local selection agents in the matter of fulfilling racial quotas. The War department was responsible for managing the CCC camps—feeding, clothing, training, and housing the recruits who came from disparate ethnic and educational backgrounds. Early integration of CCC camps quickly gave way to white-only and black-only camps, as local residents where the integrated camps were stationed successfully pressured Fechner through their local representatives. Some scholars feel that an opportunity for the federal government to enforce integration was lost by this decision, but it is evident that Fechner had President Franklin Roosevelt's support in his decision to segregate the CCC camps. The department of Agriculture oversaw the Soil Conservation and Forest Service projects that were intimately linked to the land reclamation efforts. The department of the Interior, represented by the National Park Service, provided technical consultants to supervise the design and construction work performed by the CCC camps.

Local Virginia politics during the New Deal era were highly contentious, and the CCC programs were an essential weapon in the power struggle between FDR's New Deal allies and the "Organization" machine of Virginia senators Harry Byrd and Carter Glass. After an initially tepid embrace of the CCC program, Byrd became a vocal opponent of Roosevelt's New Deal programs, which he perceived as intervening in matters rightly belonging to state oversight, and more personally, Roosevelt's interference with Virginia patronage appointments. Despite the pitched battle between the two factions, Byrd ultimately gained the upper hand, managing to secure a disproportionately high number of CCC camps and resources in relation to Virginia's population, while contributing a disproportionately low amount of state funds.^{xix} He was also able to effectively undermine Roosevelt's support of his opponent, Governor James Price, and reestablish control in matters of federal patronage. By late 1934, Byrd's allies had managed to maneuver William Carson out of his position as Chairmen of the Commission on Conservation

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and Development and by the following year had begun to apply similar pressure on Robin Burson.^{xx} By this time, the CCC-built state parks in Virginia were nearly ready to open, and Byrd was able to bask in the publicity and revenue from the parks while having effectively routed the opposition who were responsible for their development.

The first CCC camp arrived in Luray, Virginia in April of 1933. The enrollees were men between the ages of 18 and 25, single, and unemployed. In return for food, clothing and housing while enlisted, the enrollees were to commit to a minimum period of six months at a salary of \$30 per month, \$25 of which was to be sent home to dependants. They had been through a brief screening and training period before arriving at the camp, which usually housed approximately 200 enrollees. Camp life was run by the military and reflected the military's sense of time management and organization. In addition to the technical personnel provided by the National Park Service, local workers, or "L.E.M"—local experienced men—were also hired, sometimes to appease frustrated residents who resented the presence of outsiders in their midst.

The CCC camps were usually established close to or within the bounds of the park, and the enrollees performed a variety of tasks related to park development. Public facilities and structures developed in the Virginia State Parks included picnic shelters, campgrounds, cabins, lodges, bathhouses, swimming pools, superintendent lodging, restaurants, boathouses, stables, barns, and maintenance structures. Landscape features constructed or developed by the CCC included dams, spillways, bridle trails, stairs, bridges, campgrounds, paths, beaches and man-made lakes.

All six parks officially opened to great fanfare in 1936 and were an immediate success. If access to the parks was restricted for those who did not have cars, it was even more so for African-Americans--no state parks were made available for their use until the establishment of Prince Edward Lake Park. Although the advent of the automobile landscape did not get underway in earnest until after World War II, the highway was clearly a significant force in shaping the landscape of Virginia in the 1920s and 30s. Scenic highway and parkway development was still a rarefied experience compared to the mass consumption of highways that would occur in the 1950s. With the exception of the circulation systems and long entrances, the automobile had no more influence on the actual design of the parks than it did on the National Parks. The influence of the tourist economy on park design came not from the frame of the car windshield, but rather from the way the parks were conceived and promoted and distributed as part of a total economic fabric.

The indivisibility of historic and natural landscapes in Virginia's public image is apparent in the narratives that were developed or manufactured after the parks were established. Westmoreland was associated with the adjacent birthplaces of George Washington and Stratford Hall. Seashore was renamed First Landing to underscore the park's link with the early settlement at Jamestown.

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Hungry Mother manufactured a legend involving an Indian princess and Fairy Stone publicized its quasi-mystic religious rocks. The imaginative development of a tourist landscape that embraced natural, designed and historic sites linked by highways remains Virginia's unique legacy of the 1930s.

The following is a list of the CCC camps involved in the construction of the Virginia State Parks.

Douthat State Park

Douthat State Park, located in the Alleghany Mountains four miles north of Clifton Forge, was the first recreational park to be acquired by the Commonwealth. This park, described in 1937 as "one of the most outstanding examples of Virginia mountain scenery," is located in a valley between two ridges and cut from north to south by Wilson Creek.^{xxi}

The land on which Douthat State Park is located was originally part of a 105,000-acre parcel of land granted to Robert Douthat by the Commonwealth in 1795. In 1933, a total of 1,920 acres was donated to the state by the Douthat Land Company, a consortium of Virginia businessmen, for use as a state park. The subsequent acquisition of properties adjacent to this parcel during the following year brought the park up to its current 4,493 acres. Later in the 1930s, two thousand acres of land adjacent to the park became part of the George Washington National Forest, greatly enhancing the desirability of Douthat State Park.^{xxii}

Seashore State Park (now called First Landing State Park)

Seashore State Park was the first recreational state park to be proposed. Support for the establishment of Seashore State Park came as early as 1929, when Chairman William Carson began pushing the idea of a seashore park to complement the Shenandoah National Park. Soon after, the Seashore State Park Association was founded in Norfolk to encourage the idea, and as early as 1930, a beachfront area one mile north of Cape Henry was selected as the natural site for the park. The site had historical importance as well as natural beauty: the colonists who established Jamestown in 1607 had first landed at Cape Henry on 26 April 1607.

The Cape Henry site remained state property until 1886, when it was sold to private owners.^{xxiii} In 1933, it was returned to the Commonwealth when the Cape Henry Syndicate of Norfolk donated 1,100 acres in fee simple for Seashore Park, giving the commission an option on about 2,300 additional acres. The park has two water frontages: one on the Chesapeake Bay, and the other on a series of lakes known as Lynnhaven Inlet, Broad Bay, Linkhorn Bay, and Crystal Lake.

Hungry Mother Park

Hungry Mother Park is located in Smyth County, two and a half miles north of Marion, Virginia.

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This land was owned by the Copenhagen family from about 1800 until 1929, when Frank Copenhagen, along with local residents E.P. Ellis and J.D. Buchanan, received a charter from the State Corporation Commission to build a recreational area on the banks of the Hungry Mother Creek. Lake Forest, Inc., the first recreational complex in Smyth County, featured a "small lake, a bathhouse, a diving platform, with diving board, a picnic area and a dance pavilion, and a parking lot for 200 cars."^{xxiv} This complex, located in what is now the middle of the lake, was in operation for three years.

When a state park was proposed for Southwest Virginia, several stockholders of the Lake Forest Corporation, along with "several other public spirited citizens of the Town of Marion and Smyth County" influenced the donation of this land to the Commonwealth.^{xxv} In 1933, the corporate charter of Lake Forest was revoked, making possible the construction of a state park in that location. Two small adjacent tracts comprising about fifteen acres were also purchased.

Staunton River State Park

Staunton River State Park is located in Halifax, Mecklenburg, and Charlotte counties, on a point of land situated on the confluence of the Dan and Staunton rivers. The Commonwealth purchased the land outright. The counties of Halifax, Charlotte, and Mecklenburg together contributed a total of \$5,200 to the project.

Fairy Stone State Park

Fairy Stone State Park is located in Patrick County, twelve miles west of Bassett, nineteen miles from Martinsville, and eight miles from Stuart. The land for the park, embracing nearly five thousand acres, was donated to the state by Junius Blair Fisburn, of Roanoke, in May 1933. The land, which is covered with valuable hardwood timber, is also the site of an iron mine abandoned after the Civil War. The fifth park property to be acquired, this land was donated in fee simple, along with all mineral rights, a waterpower site, and a twelve-mile right-of-way.

Westmoreland State Park

Westmoreland State Park is located on the Potomac River between Wakefield, the birthplace of George Washington, and Stratford, the birthplace of Robert E. Lee. The 1,226 acres on which the park is located, including water frontage on one and a quarter miles, was originally part of the Stratford estate. The parkland was purchased outright by the state. Westmoreland County donated an additional tract of land to be used as a right-of-way from the state highway to the park. A 1937 article described the park as follows: "The beach is one of the most perfect in Eastern America, being composed of sand and shell of a gently shelving character. The trees come almost to the water's edge, merging with a cliff background that makes it quite picturesque."^{xxvi}

Although constructed by the CCC during the same period as the state parks, Recreation

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Demonstration Areas were National Park Service projects that were intended to directly address issues of group recreation. RDAs were built on exhausted land that had been abandoned or was no longer tenable for farming or foresting. Unlike the state parks, the emphasis at RDAs was on large group recreation activities, rather than family or day trip use. Lodges and cabins that could accommodate groups of campers for extended periods were constructed to be used by civic or welfare organizations that provided recreation for disadvantaged children.

The movement for recreation had been developing parallel to that of the state parks, but they were not indivisible. Recreation facilities were part of the taxonomy of parks that included national, state, and municipal or city parks but were tailored in both breadth and depth to each type or use. Where National Parks might provide facilities for camping and hiking, state parks provided swimming, boating, camping, hiking, and horseback riding while municipal parks would provide facilities for basketball and other team sports.

Swift Creek, later Pocahontas State Park

Swift Creek, later Pocahontas State Park, twenty miles south of Richmond near Chesterfield Court House, was one of two recreational demonstration areas developed by the National Park Service in Virginia during the 1930s. Located on land that had been formerly used to grow tobacco, this park was developed in the early 1930s by the National Park Service in cooperation with CCC camps located in Chesterfield County. When Swift Creek first opened in the summer of 1936, it offered three new lakes, numerous buildings, and miles of road. That very first summer, more than 100,000 people visited the park. According to Phoebe Cutler, author of *The Public Landscape of the New Deal*, Swift Creek, of all of the Recreational Demonstration Areas, subscribed most “convincingly to the stated intent of serving the disadvantaged and handicapped,”^{xxvii} by providing numerous recreational opportunities, including camping, child care, a nature and craft center, swimming lessons, games, and supervised equipment for thousands of children from Richmond, Hopewell, and Petersburg. Swift Creek was tremendously popular. As one satisfied visitor explained in 1938, “Most places, you know, are for people who have plenty of time and money to enjoy them. But Swift Creek is convenient to a lot of us who couldn’t go other any other place.”^{xxviii}

Chopawamsic/Prince William Forest Park

A second recreational demonstration area, Chopawamsic RDA, was developed at the same time as Swift Creek RDA, in Triangle, Virginia. Unlike Swift Creek, Chopawamsic (now known as Prince William Forest Park) was never transferred to the state and is still operated by the National Park Service.

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CHRONOLOGICAL LISTING OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF VIRGINIA STATE PARKS						
NAME	ACQUIRED	ESTAB.	METHOD	ACRES	LISTED	TYPE
George Washington Grist Mill. Mount Vernon, VA	1932	1932	donation	7	Yes	Historical Park
Douthat. Clifton Forge, VA	1933	1936	CCC ^{xxix}	4,493	Yes	Recreational Park
Fairy Stone. Stuart, VA	1933	1936	CCC	4,451		Recreational Park
Hungry Mother. Smyth County, VA	1933	1936	CCC	2,180		Recreational Park
Seashore (First Landing). Virginia Beach, VA	1933	1936	CCC	2,770	Yes	Recreational Park
Staunton River. Scottsburg, VA	1933	1936	CCC	1,414		Recreational Park
Westmoreland. Westmoreland County, VA	1933	1936	CCC	1,295	Yes	Recreational Park
Bear Creek. Cumberland, VA	1945	1935	Forestry ^{xxx}	150		Recreational Park
Holliday Lake. Appomattox, VA	1945	1939	Forestry	250		Recreational Park
Twin Lakes Cumberland County, VA	1945	1939	Forestry	270		Recreational Park
Southwest Virginia Museum. Big Stone Gap, VA	1946	1943	Donation	1	Yes	Historical Park
Pocahontas. Chesterfield, VA	1949	1939	CCC	156		Historical Park
Sailor's Creek Battlefield. Rice, VA	1937	1937	Donation/sale	221	Yes	Historical Park
Claytor Lake. Dublin, VA	1948	1951	Donation	472	Partially	Recreational Park

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Staunton River Bridge Battlefield. Randolph, VA	1957	--	Donation	7	Partially	Historical Park
Parkers Marsh. Accomack, VA	1960	1960	Donation	758		Natural Area
Lick Creek	1961	1961	Donation	863		Natural Area
Goshen Pass. Rockbridge County, VA	1961	1961	Donation	936		Natural Area
Wreck and Bones. Wachapreague, VA	1961	1961	Donation	1,380		Natural Area
Shot Tower. Foster Falls, VA	1964	1964	Donation	7	Yes	Historical Park
Charles C. Steirly Heron Rookery. Surry County, VA	1964	1964	Donation	7		Natural Area
Grayson Highlands. Volney, VA	1966	1965	Condemnation	19		Recreational Park
Chippokes Plantation. Surry, VA	1967	1967	Donation	1,683		Recreational Park
Mason Neck. Lorton, VA	1967	1967	Donation	1,804		Recreational Park
Natural Tunnel. Duffield, VA	1967	1967	Donation/ Condemnation	603		Recreational Park
Smith Mountain Lake. Huddleston, VA	1967	1967	Sale/ Condemnation	1,506		Recreational Park
False Cape. Virginia Beach, VA	1968	1968	Donation/Sale	4,231		Recreational Park
Occonnechee. Clarksville, VA	1968	1968	lease from Army Corps of Engineers	2,690		Recreational Park
York River. Williamsburg, VA	1969	1969	Sale	2,505		Recreational Park

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Lake Anna. Spotsylvania, VA	1975	1972	Condemnation/ Sale	2,058		Recreational Park
Caledon King George, VA	1975/1985	1974	Donation/ Sale	2,600		Natural Area
Sky Meadows. Delaplane, VA	1975	1975	Donation/Sale	1,132		Recreational Park
Leesylvania Woodbridge, VA	1980	--	Sale	508		Recreational Park

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Section F: Associated Property Types

1. CIRCULATION

Description

The major unifying element in each of the six original state parks is the circulation system composed of vehicular roadways, pedestrian paths and trails, and at one of the parks, horse trails. The subsystems are unified by certain similarities. In the construction of all three, special care was given to follow the contours of the land and use a minimum of cut and fill. The high quality of detailing associated with the original circulation system, including the construction of curbs culverts, and drop inlets, stands out when compared with the more recent detailing. Finally, all three subsystems were designed to take the maximum advantage of possible views. Despite these basic similarities, the three types of circulation provide three widely varied means for getting around the park that rarely cross or even run parallel to each other.

Vehicular Circulation

At all six of the parks, the vehicular circulation was designed with a central spine or main road leading directly from the entrance of the park to the center of the park activity, the beach/swimming area. From this main road branched a series of secondary and tertiary loop roads that passed through the cabin, campground, and maintenance areas. This system allowed daytime park visitors to travel directly to the day use area, while at the same time providing campers and cabin dwellers with greater privacy and quiet. All of the major roads (and minor ones with severe slopes) were lined with stone culverts and featured finely crafted drop inlets and retaining walls.

Entrances

All of the parks were designed to have long entry drives, ranging from .5 to 2.5 miles, and passing through the extensive undeveloped park land to the main area of the park. The divided road leading into Westmoreland State Park, with its planted midway, remains particularly impressive. All of the entry roads are heavily wooded, usually with evergreens. At three of the parks—Fairy Stone, Westmoreland, and Douthat—the wooded entry drives are dramatically punctuated with areas of open meadow. The alternation from wooded to meadowland, open to closed, was an intentionally designed feature clearly indicated on the original park plans. Entrances could also have rusticated fountains or wells or other roadside features.

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Pedestrian Circulation

At all of the parks, trails were accented with rustic stone steps, trailside seats, and shelters designed to blend in with the natural surroundings as closely as possible. Culverts and bridges occurring along the trails were also designed to be as unobtrusive as possible. Although at many of the parks the original details along the trails have been modified or removed, both Douthat and Hungry Mother State Parks still provide outstanding examples of original trail layout and trailside features.

Horse Trails

Horse trails were developed at Douthat, Fairy Stone, Hungry Mother, and Seashore state parks. Where horse trails were provided they were never as extensive a hiking trails; however, they served much the same purpose: providing a means to experience the extensive surrounding undeveloped parkland. Horse trails differed from hiking trails in that they were usually broader and more level; they lacked the pedestrian trailside details such as shelters, benches, and bridges. Associated with the horse trails at all four of these parks were stables, paddocks, and barns. The only remaining stable from this era is at Fairy Stone State Park—a one-story, board and batten structure with an end-gabled roof and a single dormer window. The building contained stalls for approximately twenty horses; each stall had a louvered window to provide light and air. A small paddock area and outbuilding was located to the rear of the buildings.

Statement of SignificanceCirculation design was a vital element in the landscape design of the Virginia parks. Trails, roads, roadside features, paths, embankments, entrances and drives, culverts, curbs and other circulation features were designed to be unobtrusive, while circulation planning assured that modes of transportation and different recreational uses were kept separate. The Circulation connected the various features within the park, as well linking the individual parks together as a park system. In both planning and execution, the design of circulation drew on existing design parameters developed by the National Park Service for the National Parks.

The circulation system is significant under criterion A, as a contributing feature to the system of Virginia parks built by the CCC, and the role of the CCC in the 20th century. Under criterion C, the circulation system embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, in its exemplary execution of National Park Landscape design, including the use of local or regional materials to harmonize with the landscape, as demonstrated by inclusion in Alfred H. Good's *Park and Recreation Structures* of 1933.

Registration Requirements

Circulation must be on or close to the original site and alignment as it was built by the CCC. Materials that have been replaced should replicate the originals, except where safety requirements demand otherwise.

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2. WATER FEATURES

Description

The central water feature at each of the six parks varied from a tidal bay to a river to a man-made lake. However, at all of the parks the central water feature played an important role as an organizing element in the overall design. Since the beach area, usually associated with the water feature, was planned to be the focus of park activity, the main park road and many of the paths and trails were designed to lead directly to the water, often providing alluring glimpses of it along the way. Picnic areas at all of the parks were also located directly on the water but often away from the central swimming area, providing the opportunity to see a different view of the water feature. Finally, at most of the parks the cabins were arranged to take advantage of the ocean, lake or river setting. An exception to this is at Hungry Mother, where only one of the original cabins stood directly on the water.

Beach and Swimming Areas

At all six parks, the swimming/beach area was intended to serve as the hub of park activity, and commanded a central location either directly off of, or at the termination of the main park road. The basic components of the beach area included a guarded swimming area; a bathhouse, often associated with a snack bar type of concession; and a central concession and restaurant located nearby. Additional facilities such as docks, boathouses, diving towers, shelters, and playing fields were also often constructed at the beach area. Additional structures associated with the beach are included docks, bulkheads, boat launches, boat shelters, diving towers, and shelters. All of these structures were wooden and simply constructed. Docks and piers were made using log piers and long planks. Boat shelters built at the parks range from shed-roofed open structures to the 100-foot frame boat barn at Staunton River.

Dams and Spillways:

At Douthat, Hungry Mother, and Fairy Stone artificial lakes were constructed by damming local rivers and creating sizable impoundment—150 acres at Fairy Stone, 108 acres at Hungry Mother, and 78 acres at Douthat. At all three parks, the handsome earth and rock-filled, stone-faced dams and well-detailed spillways were the very first elements to be constructed. Water features were also used for other purposes besides recreation such as filtration.

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Three of Virginia's original six parks had access to natural bodies of water: Seashore is located on the ocean, Westmoreland on the banks of the Potomac, and Staunton River at the confluence of the Roanoke and Dan rivers. At Staunton River, a large swimming pool was constructed; in this case the water feature and active swimming area were different. The significance of the water features is under criterion A, association with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history, and C, that which embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction.

Under criterion A, the broader narrative of the CCC can be demonstrated in the effort required to design and execute the water features and the elegance of the hydrologic features constructed to maintain them. Under criterion C, the water features were a central organizing aspect of the design of each park, and as such reinforced the individual park's connection to other parks in the system, as well as providing a central recreational focus within each park design.

Registration Requirements

The dams, spillways, pool, beach and lake structures and buildings related to water recreation must have been constructed by the CCC, and continue to be maintained in its original location. They should retain their centrality to the overall park design.

3. PICNIC AREAS

Description

Picnic areas were sited on near the water, to take advantage of both views and cool breezes. The focal point of the picnic areas at all six of the original parks was the picnic shelter. The typical picnic shelter used in the Virginia state parks was a partially enclosed five-bay structure built of rough-hewn timbers, with a fireplace and built-in seating area at either end. These shelters featured attractive stone floors and chimneys. The picnic shelter at Westmoreland, open on three sides with one central fireplace, provided a variation to the typical shelter plan. Another variation occurred at Seashore, where after 1940 picnic shelters were built according to the typical plan, but using concrete block rather than rough hewn timbers for supports. Movable picnic tables and benches were located inside the shelters, providing flexible seating and eating arrangements.

Several other structures were also commonly associated with picnic areas. Free-standing stone fireplaces for cookouts were often provided, as well as matching stone incinerators for safe and convenient ash and trash disposal. The typical water fountain used at the Virginia parks was a simple waist-high column constructed of rough-cut stone. Toilets located near the picnic areas were simple, gable-roofed frame structures clad in board-and batten siding. A significant

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variation to the standard toilet it's the impressive rustic Stone John located near picnic area number two and Hungry Mother State Park. Remnants of a camp circle made of a circular arrangement of stones are located near one of the picnic areas at Staunton River State Park, which may have been used for organized campfires. Several of the picnic areas currently provide playground equipment for small children; it is not known whether this was originally planned or not.

Statement of Significance

Picnic areas were integral to the design of water features and were located in relationship to natural features that would provide air circulation. Under criterion A, picnic areas and their associated fountains and service structures were built by the CCC as part of the central recreation areas that were present at each park in the Virginia park system. Under criterion C, the picnic areas and their associated structures

including the use of local or regional materials to harmonize with the landscape, as demonstrated by inclusion in Alfred H. Good's *Park and Recreation Structures* of 1933.

Registration Requirements

Picnic areas and their associated structures must have been built by the CCC. Moveable furniture need not be original to the CCC-era.

4. LODGING

Description

Campgrounds

Tent and trailer campgrounds were originally developed at all of the six parks. Both types of campground were located off the main road, removed from the activity and noise of the day use areas of the park. Tent and trailer camping areas were sited in separate but adjacent locations (today tents and trailers often share the same campground.) At some of the camps, such as Westmoreland, these two types of campsites shared bathroom, shower and laundry facilities. Tent campsites at all of the parks followed closely the basic layout recommended in *Park and Recreation Structures*.

Structures associated with the campgrounds included freestanding stone fireplaces, picnic tables, and benches. The typical toilet and laundry facility was a long single-pile, three-bay, wood-frame building clad in vertical siding with a gabled roof. Separate men's and women's facilities were located at one end of the building, and the laundry was located on the other side. At the front of

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the building, an overhanging roof and cement platform provided protection from the sun and rain for those who might be waiting outside. A wooden fence wrapped around the front of the building and screened views of the entrances. High louvered windows allowed adequate ventilation.

Cabins

Overnight cabins at all of the parks were located off a loop road or cul-de-sac leading off the main park road, in an area somewhat isolated from the rest of the park. Cabins were located at regular intervals near the loop road, either singly, with their own parking space and little yard, or in groups of two. At some of the parks, the original cabins were located to take advantage of the water feature.

Three sizes of cabins were built at all of the parks: one-room efficiencies and one- and two-bedroom cabins with separate kitchens and living rooms. These three sizes of cabins were built in three basic configurations. Typical examples of all three types of cabins are shown in Park and Recreation Facilities.

One-room efficiencies were typically built as a single rectangular room, three bays wide, with an end or side-gabled roof and a chimney on one of the gable ends. ... Porches for these one-room cabins varied from a simple stone terrace running along the front façade of the building to a massive log portico protruding from the front gable end.

One bedroom cabins were typically cross-gabled structures, with the rectangular main block of the building containing the living room and kitchen; the bedroom was located in the gabled front, rear, or side addition.

Two-bedroom cabins were typically larger rectangular structures, with two bedrooms and a bathroom on one side and a living room and kitchen on the other.

The materials used to construct park cabins varied from park to park. Variant in material were in part a response to the nature of the park setting and in part a reflection of the materials locally available. At Douthat, Fairy Stone, and Westmoreland state parks, the original cabins were constructed with rough-hewn logs, appropriate for the heavily wooded setting. The logs used at most of these cabins were laid horizontally, however, at some cabins vertically placed logs provided an interesting variation. At Staunton River State Park cabins were constructed with board-and-batten siding. At Seashore vertical siding was used, with rough-hewn weatherboarding at the eaves. At Hungry Mother a combination of log cabins and cabins clad in weatherboard were used.

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Lodges

Guest lodges were constructed at two of the parks, Douthat and Hungry Mother. At both parks, these grand buildings were located high on a hill above the main cabin area, overlooking the lake. At both parks, these grand buildings were located high on a hill above the main cabin area, overlooking the lake. The steep road winding up the hill to the lodge at Hungry Mother is lined with a massive stone retaining wall—both the road and the wall are impressive feats of engineering. The purpose of these buildings was to house short-term overnight visitors to the park (somewhat like a hotel) since cabins were available only to those who wished to stay a minimum of one week.

Both of these buildings were constructed of horizontal hewn logs on stone foundations, with multi-gabled roofs made of hand-split shingles. At Douthat, the lodge is eight bays across, divided into three wings with a large porch projecting from the center wing. The lodge at Hungry Mother is similar in configuration, but smaller, without some of the projecting wings. In overall appearance, both of these buildings follow the recommendation made in *Park and Recreation Structures* (which shows full plans and photographs of the lodge at Douthat) that lodges should be long, low and horizontal in their appearance, in order to best fit into their natural setting. Interiors at both buildings were the most highly crafted of any in the park, including beveled pine paneling on walls and ceilings, stone chimney and fireplace in the main area, five arches support ceiling frames with excellent examples of wrought iron hardware and paneled doors with leaded glass and giant strap hinges.

Statement of Significance

As built by the CCC, the lodging structures of the Virginia state parks are significant under criterion A, for their contribution to the broad patterns of our history related to the CCC and relief work during the Depression and New Deal. Under criterion C, the variety of materials and building traditions employed in the lodging structures reflected regional approaches to construction and contributed, along with the individual park's landscape features, to the regional character for which individual park sites were selected by Robin Burson.

Registration Requirements

Lodging structures must have been built by the CCC or remain on their original site.

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5. SERVICE AND MAINTENANCE BUILDINGS

Description

Maintenance Areas

Maintenance areas at all of the six parks were separated from the central recreation area. Maintenance yards at most parks included a garage, shop, storage buildings, boathouse or blacksmith shop, oil house, water tower, filtration building, net house, and pump house. Typically, these buildings were placed in a rectangular arrangement around an open work yard accessible to both cars and larger trucks. Maintenance structures in the Virginia state parks were characteristically modest, gable-roofed, board-and-batten structures painted a dull tan color, with a minimal number of doors and windows.

Staff Dwellings

Dwellings were constructed at all of the parks for the superintendent, assistant superintendent, and park rangers. The chief ranger's house and the rangers' bunkhouse were typically located immediately adjacent to the maintenance area. The standard rangers' bunkhouse built at the parks was an eleven-bay, wood-frame structure, with a gabled, shingled roof, and a shed-roofed porch supported by thick, rustic posts. At Fairystone, the long bunkhouse was built as a split level to conform to the terraced ground on which it stands. These long bunkhouses provided sleeping quarters for several rangers, with a central kitchen and lounge area. The chief ranger's house was a smaller, cross-gabled structure, similar to the bunkhouse in style, but built as a single family residence, with a kitchen, a living room, and one or two bedrooms.

The superintendent's residence at each park is located off the park entry road, removed from the center of park activity. A garage may be associated with this residence. In three of the six parks—Hungry Mother, Westmoreland, and Staunton River—the superintendent's houses have a similar location in respect to the overall layout of the park: to the left of the main entrance road and just beyond the contact station. These comfortable houses, with their yards, driveways, and garages, have all the trappings of standard, single-family homes, almost belying their role as part of the larger park.

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Generally, park maintenance areas, staff residential quarters, and the park office are all located in close proximity to each other, demonstrating the broader National Park Service ideas of separation and zoning of activity from which Virginia parks took their organization. Whatever their relationship, the components of the service buildings are nearly identical from park to park; many were taken directly from *Park and Recreation Structures*. The maintenance, service and staff lodging buildings are significant under criterion A, for their contribution to the larger narrative of CCC relief work in Virginia. Because some of the park service buildings were built as part of the original CCC camps, they have special importance as some of the few surviving remnants of the CCC eras at these parks.

Registration Requirements

The service buildings, maintenance areas and staff dwellings must have been constructed by the CCC and remain on the original site.

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Section G: Geographic Boundaries

The geographic data of the six state parks built by the Civilian Conservation Corps in Virginia are as follows:

Douthat State Park is 4,493 acres located in Millsboro, Virginia and entered via Virginia Route 659 (Clifton Forge, Virginia?) in Bath and Alleghany counties. It is bisected on a North-South axis by Virginia Route 629. [Ed note: address in Douthat NRL does not seem to match]

Fairy Stone State Park is 4,570 acres located in Stuart, Virginia and entered via Virginia Route 346 in Patrick and Henry counties.

Hungry Mother State Park 2,180 acres is located in Marion, Virginia in Smyth County. It is entered via Virginia Route 16.

Staunton River State Park is 1,414 acres located along the shoreline of the John H. Kerr Reservoir (also known as Buggs Island Lake), as well as the Dan and Staunton rivers in in Scottsburg, Virginia in Halifax County. It is entered via Virginia Route 355.

Westmoreland State Park is 1,295 acres that extend about one and a half miles along the Potomac River in Montross, Virginia in Westmoreland County. It is entered via Virginia Route 347.

Seashore/First Landing State Park is 2,770 acres in Virginia Beach, Virginia at Cape Henry on the Chesapeake Bay. It is entered on Shore Drive/U.S. Route 60.

Swift Creek Recreation Demonstration Area/Pocahontas State Park is located in Chesterfield, Virginia in Chesterfield County, and is accessible via Virginia Route 655.

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ⁱ Conrad Wirth, *Park, Politics and the People*. : 18. This is a quote from the August 25, 1916 Act establishing the National Park Service.

ⁱⁱ AR 1918, pp. 1074-7. Linda Flint McClelland. *Presenting Nature: The Historic Landscape Design of the National Park Service, 1916-42*. Washington DC: National Park Service, 1993. Chapter 4

ⁱⁱⁱ McClelland, http://www.cr.nps.gov/history/online_books/mcclelland/mcclelland.htm

^{iv} Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr. "California State Park Survey, 1929" excerpted in Herbert Evison, Ed. *A State Park Anthology*. Washington, D.C.: National Conference on State Parks; Harrisburg, PA: Pleasant Press, 1930. 67-8.

^v AR 1918, 1076. From *Presenting Nature*.

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^{xv} National Register Nomination, Douthat State Park Historic District Nomination (1986), continuation sheet 17.

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^{xvii} Norman T. Newton, *Design on the Land*. (Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press of the Harvard University Press, 1971), p. 577.

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^{xx} Horan, Jr., 409. See also, Letter to Harry F. Byrd from George M. Stevens. August 1, 1935. RG 79 Item 12. Wirth Correspondence, Box 5. "R.E. Burson" File. National Archives-College Park, MD.

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^{xxii} Stephen H. Loptspeich. "The Design Intentions and the Planning Process of the Virginia CCC State Park Master Plans 1933-1942." (Manuscript, report written for the Master Of Landscape Architecture Program, School of Architecture, University of Virginia, 1984), pp. 52-54.

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^{xxvi} Wilbur C. Hall, "Virginia State Parks." *The University of Virginia Newsletter* 13 (1937): p. 1.

^{xxvii} Phoebe Cutler, *The Public Landscape of the New Deal*. (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1985), p.

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^{xxviii} Phoebe Cutler, *The Public Landscape of the New Deal*. (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1985), p.

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^{xxix} Transferred from the Civilian Conservation Corps to the Division of Parks and Recreation. Douthat – along with the Fairy Stone, Hungry Mother, Seashore, Staunton River, Westmoreland, and Pocahontas parks -- was developed through a joint effort of the Virginia Conservation Commission, the National Park Service, and the Civilian Conservation Corps.

^{xxx} Bear Creek – along with the Holliday Lake and Twin Lake parks – was transferred from the Division of Forestry to the Division of Parks and Recreation through the Cooperative Use Agreement of 1939.