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National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (formerly 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

New Submission Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Virginia State Parks Built by New Deal Programs, including CCC and WPA 134-5088

B. Associated Historic Contexts

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

Landscape Architecture in Virginia State Parks, 1929-1936
The Development of Virginia State Parks, 1921-1936
The Civilian Conservation Corps in Virginia State Parks, 1933-1942
The Works Progress Administration, 1935-1943

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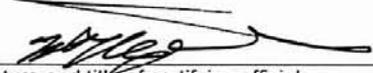
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D. Certification

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 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
Virginia Department of Historic Resources
State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

Date

9/6/12

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

Virginia State Parks Built by New Deal Programs, Including CCC and WPA
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Virginia
 State

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

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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.460 et seq.).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18 hours per response including 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, PO Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; and the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reductions Project (1024-0018), Washington, DC 20503.

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Statement of Historic Contexts

Landscape Architecture in Virginia State Parks, 1929-1936

The design of the Virginia state parks built by the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) is directly derived from the conservation guidelines, aesthetics, and planning processes developed by the National Park Service (NPS) 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 NPS's dual obligation of conservation of natural resources and provision of those resources for human enjoyment. Park administrators and CCC personnel in Virginia drew on the existing master plan process, as well as NPS personnel, to develop master plans for all six Virginia state parks.

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. Congressional acts created Yellowstone (1872), Sequoia (1890), Grand National (1890), Yosemite (1890), and Mount Rainier National Park (1899), and stated that those parks would be administered by the U.S. 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 NPS 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 NPS 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 act stated,

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...The service [NPS] thus established shall promote and regulate the use of the Federal areas known as national parks, monuments and reservations hereinafter specified.... [NPS's] 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.¹

The American Society of Landscape Architects (ASLA), established in 1899, was a strong advocate for both the creation of national parks 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. Olmsted, in particular, was a critical figure in setting aside 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.

The practice of landscape architecture in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century was primarily focused on the design of formal and picturesque gardens of wealthy patrons who made up the bulk of the professions' commissions. But 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. Warren Manning's National Plan of 1919, which linked parks together along "recreational ways," used the zoning concept which allowed landscape architects and planners to articulate areas for specific uses as well as those set aside for future developments, and evaluated projects on a regional rather than a local scale.

Stephen T. Mather, the first director of the NPS, was instrumental in developing the agency's policy and administrative structure, 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 NPS. 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. He served the San Francisco Branch of Plans and Designs with distinction for forty years. His main contribution to the national park system was the development of the master planning process for parks, which would later be used in the state park systems.

NPS landscape aesthetics evolved from 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), advocated picturesque compositions in suburban settings. Frederick Law Olmsted's urban parks

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demonstrated a constructive model of how landscape aesthetics could be successfully combined with a variety of recreational uses in large-scale settings. These parks included Central Park (1858-1878) and Prospect Park (1866-1868) in New York, and Franklin Park (1885) in Boston. The aesthetic, scenic narratives in Olmsted's 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 framed by forests. These principles required a harmonious and unobtrusive relationship between circulation, buildings, service facilities, and nature, which was accomplished through the use of a common building palette of natural materials and textures.

Because of rapidly escalating demands of day and overnight use of the national parks, a need developed for careful, comprehensive planning in order to conserve natural landscape features for future use. This responsibility increasingly fell on the Landscape Division of NPS. A policy statement issued by the NPS in 1918 stated, "In the construction of roads, trails, buildings, and other improvements, particular attention must be devoted always to the harmonizing of these improvements with the landscape."² 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. One influential model was Olmsted's approach of accommodating different and potentially conflicting recreation uses through zoning and screening. 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, it required the development of a planning process. This method, called the master plan process, developed by Thomas Vint, yielded design and construction parameters that could be standardized while respecting the desired qualities of each park property. The plan 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 Rainier National Park became the model for explicating this process to NPS personnel as well as to state park planners, including those for the Virginia state parks.

The National Park Service and the Development of the Master Plan

The master plan process developed out of a series of increasingly comprehensive park design guidelines and included 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

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function or use in the park, with all attendant services, structures, and circulation. There were also 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 estimate budgets and execute new work effectively.

The master plan process was the outcome of several years of comprehensive planning development that strove to balance the landscape aesthetics of the NPS, 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 NPS, 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 Region 3, later called the Southwest Region of the New Deal-era Emergency Conservation Work agency's state park programs. As a liaison between camp superintendents and the NPS, Maier was instrumental in translating NPS aesthetics into state park structure design.³ In his role as chief NPS 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 NPS 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. State parks were conceived as a way to divert some of the national parks' day-use traffic. An early state park system was in place in New York under Robert Moses' administration in the late 1920s. 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,

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and sole member of the New York City Parkway Authority. Another early state plan was developed in 1929 by Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr. and was called the “State Park Survey for California.”⁴ It codified the fundamental planning issues and processes for state parks and set the criteria for selection and design development as follows:

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.⁵

Olmsted’s criteria for selection echoed the NPS’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.”⁶

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. Nevertheless, some states, including Virginia, did not want to start a state park program without committed public funds. Virginia state representatives had been attending the National Conference for State Parks regularly for several years. By the time the fifth Conference for State Parks was held in 1925, it was hosted at Skyland, Virginia, in the proposed Shenandoah National Park. Thus, the movement for a state park system in Virginia was under way for almost fifteen years before state parks officially opened in Virginia in 1936.

Design Development in the Virginia State Parks

The NPS closely guided the development of the Virginia park system through a number of mechanisms. One method of influence involved collaborations between federal and local administrators that were built into the Emergency Conservation Work Act. A part of President Franklin D. Roosevelt’s New Deal, this act eventually provided the resources for the Virginia state parks through the aegis of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). In 1934, the NPS Branch of Planning and State Cooperation Region One office relocated to Richmond. This move provided the opportunity for NPS and Virginia state park officials, also based in Richmond, to work together. Frederick Fay, a landscape architect in the Region One office, worked closely with Robin Burson, the landscape engineer most responsible for the development of the Virginia

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state parks. Further personal influence occurred through the CCC companies who physically built the park. These companies worked at both national and state parks as the two systems were being constructed.

The Virginia state parks demonstrate a number of elements and approaches that were first developed or planned for national parks. Criteria for selecting land for the Virginia state parks drew heavily on the existing body of knowledge developed by the NPS and articulated by Olmsted's California Survey. The qualities desired for the park localities were that they should be no more than a day's drive from a major population center and that each park in the system should represent a different topographical or natural characteristic of the state. The natural features at each park 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 was evident in the separation and distribution of day use, group camps, service areas, ranger buildings, active recreation areas, and campsites.

In addition, the NPS's landscape and architectural aesthetics 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. Like national park designs, the state parks' paths, stairs, trails, and bridges were unobtrusively built into the landscape with local stones. Also dams, retaining walls, and spillways suggested natural forms without imitating them. Single entrance points into the state parks were along carefully planned curving roads with intermittent views of open landscape per Olmsted's principles of design. The conformity of the aesthetic and planning principles in the Virginia parks to those of national parks is demonstrated by the publication of buildings from the Virginia parks in the three-volume 1938 edition of Albert H. Good's *Park and Recreation Structures*.⁷

The Development of Virginia State Parks

The tourist economy was 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 sprang 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 resort 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 coupled with nostalgia for the antebellum South resulted in the recognition of several types of

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sites, including battlefields, historic parks, and monuments. Historic sites in Virginia 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.⁸

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 introduced “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.”⁹ The bill ultimately failed, but the link between state parks, historic sites, and highway development was established and state parks were seen as adjunct to the expanding commercial possibilities of increased road travel, rather than as stand-alone conservation projects.

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 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.

In 1926, Virginia established the Virginia State Commission on Conservation and Development, and appointed William E. Carson as its first chairman. The Commission managed 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, an innovation in the link between roads and historic landscapes.

With the development of increased inter- and intra-state car travel and auto-camping in the 1920s, small, independent concessionaires 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 in 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,

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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.¹⁰

Virginia's parks thus were conceived and promoted as part of a total economic fabric. Automobile-based tourism, and the highways that made it possible, shaped Virginia's landscape from the 1920s onward.

In northwestern Virginia, Shenandoah National Park, which also contained President Herbert Hoover's proposed Rapidan "Summer Camp," initially revealed the value of national publicity and tourist interest to Virginia's state park advocates. With its authorization in 1926, Shenandoah helped strengthen efforts to link parks, roads, scenic preservation, and the tourist economy. Although under the NPS's administration, the collaboration between the state and federal entities creating the parks encouraged Virginia park system advocates in their efforts.¹¹ A link to Shenandoah National Park further supported the tourist economic argument in Virginia. Skyline Drive, completed in three phases beginning in 1934 and eventually part of the Blue Ridge Parkway, connected Shenandoah National Park in the northwestern part of Virginia to the Great Smoky Mountains National Park in Tennessee. Skyline Drive effectively created a link between national parks that brought tourists into the local economies adjacent to the Parkway. 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.¹²

Land Reclamation and Rural Economics in Virginia

A second type of economic benefit that 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 of the CCC camps and the tax

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revenue from formerly fallow forests or 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, a 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 maintain a subsistence living on the exhausted land they had farmed for generations. As Thomas D. Clark noted in *The Greening of the South: The Recovery of Land and Forest*,

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.¹³

During the 1930s, park, forestry, and conservation projects implemented under the New Deal offered new avenues for reclaiming acres of ruined land that had become a tax burden to the state. Carson and the members of the Virginia Commission on Conservation and Development understood the potential that these programs could have to generate revenue, but they also recognized the cost of land reclamation to human autonomy and community. Government assistance and rural rehabilitation programs under the federal Resettlement Administration already had moved hundreds of Virginia families in an effort to stabilize crop prices by retiring farmland. Such reclamation programs forced small farmers to seek in cities and manufacturing other kinds of work for which they were not trained. These experiences meant that land use policies related to park development were not always embraced by those who lived on the land in question.

Land acquisition for Shenandoah National Park was emblematic of the situation. Authorized in 1926, the park was created from more than 3,000 land parcels. Protracted and passionate legal battles lasted for years as the government struggled to remove approximately 460 families from properties that had been surveyed for the park. Eventually, Virginia won the authority to condemn land and evict landowners who resisted selling their property to the government. In a 1934 progress report on the Shenandoah National Park, Carson referred to this bitterly as “a disagreeable and abhorrent job.”¹⁴ 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 future park acquisition to minimize the chance for a financial and public relations disaster.

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

In order to enable the Commission to develop a state park system, Virginia's General Assembly enacted legislation in 1926, 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."¹⁵ Such acquisitions and developments were declared to be for the use, observation, education, health, and pleasure of the people.

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 a 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 the Cumberland.

The culmination of these efforts was a meeting on December 17, 1929, in Richmond under the sponsorship of the Virginia Academy of Science, the Garden Clubs of Virginia, and the Isaac Walton League. Together, these organizations assembled a series of resolutions in support of the establishment of a state park system, and presented them 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 United States. Burson was to examine "every phase of development, operation, maintenance and administration" of the other park systems.¹⁶ During July 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. 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.

In 1930, Burson began to prepare plans for the reconstruction of George Washington's Grist Mill in Fairfax County as part of 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.¹⁷ In 1932, Burson hosted the

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National Conference on State Parks at Virginia Beach, boosting support for both Carson's idea of a state park at the seashore 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 that included areas in all regions of the state. The system was to include the formation of six new state parks: Seashore State Park (now called First Landing State Park) and Westmoreland State Park to serve the Tidewater region, Staunton River State Park to serve the middle region, Fairy Stone State Park to serve the Piedmont region, Hungry Mother State Park to serve the Valley of Virginia, and Douthat State Park to serve the mountain and valley regions.¹⁸

The Civilian Conservation Corps in Virginia State Parks, 1933-1942

A decisive boost for Virginia's state parks occurred on April 5, 1933, with the enactment of the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) Act, a component of the New Deal. This piece of New Deal legislation provided for the establishment of the CCC and 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 Great Depression. To enact the program, a \$10 million fund was established for "the emergency construction of public buildings."¹⁹ Robert Fechner, a prominent labor leader, was appointed director. Twelve days later, on April 17, 1933, the CCC was created to carry out the ECW program.²⁰ The bill gave the President the authority to enlist a CCC of unemployed young men to work on a variety of public works, which eventually included the development of state and national parks.

The U.S. Department of Agriculture was also involved in the CCC's work by overseeing the Soil Conservation and Forest Service projects that were intimately linked to land reclamation efforts. Meanwhile, the Department of the Interior, represented by the NPS, provided technical consultants to supervise the design and construction work performed by the CCC camps.

The first CCC camp in the United States was located in the George Washington National Forest, nine miles from Edinburg, Virginia. It was called Camp Roosevelt, assigned to National Forest Project number one and arrived on April 3, 1933.²¹ The men were 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 service at a salary of \$30 per month, \$25 of which was to be sent home to dependents. The men went 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. The characteristics of each enrollee were common to all subsequent CCC recruits. In addition to

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the technical personnel provided by the NPS, local experienced men (LEM) were 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 boundaries of the park where work would be performed, and the enrollees undertook a variety of tasks related to park development. Public facilities and buildings developed in the Virginia state parks included picnic shelters, campgrounds, cabins, lodges, bathhouses, swimming pools, superintendent lodging, restaurants, boathouses, stables, barns, and maintenance buildings. Landscape features constructed or developed by the CCC included dams, spillways, bridle trails, stairs, bridges, campgrounds, paths, beaches, and man-made lakes.

From the outset, 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 CCC, overseen by Fechner, built the parks and related roads. The design of state parks would be coordinated and approved by the NPS. 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 who had the foresight to see the tremendous advantage of a park in their community."²² 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 land tracts for what would become Douthat State Park, Seashore State Park, Hungry Mother State Park, Fairy Stone State Park, Staunton River State Park, and Westmoreland State Park.

As the most popular of Roosevelt's New Deal programs, the CCC was sought by state and local politicians for whom the economic boost of a CCC camp in their locality was politically advantageous. While the program was popular, the equitable distribution and administration of CCC camps in Virginia was complicated both by the existing racial politics of the state and by the peculiarities 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

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local selection agents in the matter of fulfilling racial quotas. The War Department was responsible for managing the CCC camps by feeding, clothing, training, and housing recruits who came from disparate ethnic and educational backgrounds. Early attempts to integrate CCC camps quickly gave way to white-only and black-only camps, as local residents where the integrated camps were stationed successfully pressured the director of the CCC, Robert Fechner, through their local representatives. On September 10, 1934, Robert L. Collins, the adjunct general for the War Department, enforced segregation as the preferred standard by stating,

. . . Colored personnel will be employed to the greatest extent practical in colored units within their own states of origin. In the future segregation of colored men by company, while not mandatory, will be the general rule and earnest effort will be made to reduce the total number of colored men in white units. . .²³

In July 1935, CCC Director Fechner made segregation official when he issued a directive of complete segregation. Some scholars feel that an opportunity for the federal government to enforce integration was lost by this decision, but Fechner's and others' stance on segregation was not opposed by President Franklin Roosevelt.²⁴

State politics influenced the CCC program in Virginia as well. Local Virginia politics during the New Deal era were highly contentious, and the CCC programs were an essential weapon in the power struggle between Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal allies and the "Organization" machine of Virginia, including 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 to be intervening in matters rightly belonging to state oversight. 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.²⁵ By late 1934, Byrd's allies had managed to maneuver William Carson out of his position as Chairman of the Commission on Conservation and Development and by the following year had begun to apply similar pressure on Robin Burson.²⁶

In 1936, the fact that the six CCC-built parks in the Virginia State Park system opened almost simultaneously was a function of the judicious advance planning by the Commission on Conservation and Development, but was also due to Virginia politicians' deft, hard-nosed management of Federal New Deal politics. All six parks officially opened to great fanfare and were an immediate success based on media accounts of the period. Having effectively routed the opposition who were responsible for their development, Senator Byrd was among those who basked in the publicity and revenue generated by the parks.

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Along with state parks, the NPS developed Recreational Demonstration Areas (RDAs) in the 1930s. They were intended to address issues of group recreation. The U.S. Department of Agriculture was also involved in the CCC's work by overseeing the Soil Conservation and Forest Service projects that were intimately linked to land reclamation efforts. Meanwhile, the Department of the Interior, represented by the NPS, provided technical consultants to supervise the design and construction work performed by the CCC camps.

Various New Deal-affiliated groups, including the CCC and the Works Progress Administration (WPA), were involved with RDAs, which were built on exhausted land that had been abandoned or was no longer usable for farming or foresting. Unlike the state parks, which were built for family or day trip use, RDAs focused on large group recreation activities. The lodges and cabins at RDAs could accommodate groups of campers for extended periods and were intended to be used by civic or welfare organizations that provided recreation for disadvantaged children.

The movement for recreation developed parallel to that of the state parks, with some overlap in approach and objectives. Recreational facilities were part of the taxonomy of national, state, and local parks, but were tailored to match the scale of the park where they were located. Whereas national parks might provide facilities for camping and hiking, state parks provided swimming, boating, camping, hiking, and horseback riding, while municipal parks provided facilities for basketball and other team sports.

In Virginia, two RDAs were developed by the CCC and opened in 1936 under the NPS: Swift Creek RDA, which later became Pocahontas State Park, and Chopawamsic RDA, which was renamed Prince William Forest Park in 1948 and remains under NPS control. Four additional RDAs later were developed by the U.S. Forest Service and built by New Deal associated groups, including the CCC and WPA: Bear Creek, Holliday Lake, Goodwin Lake, and Prince Edward Lake. 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.

Segregation in Virginia's State Parks

Just as CCC workers were segregated, and opportunities limited for African Americans to participate in the CCC, so were Virginia's African American residents restricted in their use of the state parks. Like other Southern states, Virginia adhered to the "separate but equal" doctrine when it came to public accommodations—although most such accommodations demonstrably lacked equality. Of Virginia's first six state parks built by the CCC, none were accessible for African Americans.

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In 1939, Goodwin Lake RDA and Prince Edward Lake RDA opened. The two manmade lakes were separated by an expanse of forested land. Goodwin Lake was intended for use by whites, and Prince Edward Lake by African Americans. In 1948, Danville banker M. Conrad Martin filed a lawsuit challenging Virginia's practice of maintaining state parks only for whites. In a nod toward the "separate but equal" doctrine, the Prince Edward Lake RDA received upgrades and became a full-fledged state park in 1949. Prince Edward Lake remained the only state-maintained recreational area open to African Americans through the early 1960s.

The development of Seashore State Park, which opened in 1936, included work performed by African American CCC camps. In 1951, a group of African Americans attempted to enter the park but were turned away by park staff due to their race. The group filed a lawsuit in the U.S. District Court in Norfolk alleging violation of their 14th Amendment Constitutional rights. The case still had not been decided when the Supreme Court's 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education, Topeka* decision finally abolished the "separate but equal" doctrine. Upon receipt of an injunction either to open Seashore State Park to African Americans or close the park, however, Virginia authorities chose the latter. The park was closed from 1955 through 1961.

Virginia's state parks finally desegregated during the mid-1960s, as the Civil Rights movement broke down barriers to integration across the country. Full integration and equal access to public accommodations gradually became the norm in Virginia, as illustrated by the evolution of Goodwin Lake and Prince Edward Lake. Officially desegregated during the 1960s, the facilities continued to be administered separately until 1976, when they merged under a single superintendent. After a decade of merged operations, a new name, Twin Lakes State Park, was adopted for the facility.

Virginia's New Deal Parks and RDAs

The creation of the Virginia park system emphasized Virginia's natural and historic environments. Each park was a distinct landscape type found in Virginia and most parks developed a historic or folkloric narrative based on their landscape. Westmoreland was associated with the adjacent birthplaces of George Washington and Stratford Hall. Hungry Mother manufactured a legend involving an Indian princess and Fairy Stone publicized its quasi-mystic religious rocks. During the 1990s, Seashore was renamed First Landing to underscore the park's link with the early settlement at Jamestown. 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.

Following is a list of Virginia state parks that involved the CCC in the construction process.

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Douthat State Park

Douthat State Park, located in the Alleghany Mountains four miles north of Clifton Forge, was one of the first recreational parks 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.²⁷

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 were donated to the state by the Douthat Land Company, a consortium of Virginia businessmen, for use as a state park. The following year, acquisition of properties adjacent to this parcel brought the park up to its current 4,493 acres. One of the CCC companies involved in Douthat’s construction was Company #1378. They arrived at Clifton Forge on June 26, 1933, to begin working on what was then dubbed State Park Project #2. The name of their camp was Camp Douthat.²⁸ Two other companies, #1373 and #1374, arrived at Clifton Forge on July 14 and 15, 1933, respectively. These three companies provided the labor and management for the construction of Douthat State Park. Later in the 1930s, 2,000 acres of land adjacent to the park became part of the George Washington National Forest, greatly enhancing the desirability of Douthat State Park.²⁹

Seashore State Park (now called First Landing State Park)

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 April 26, 1607.

The Cape Henry site remained state property until 1886, when it was sold to private owners.³⁰ 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. There were multiple CCC companies involved in the construction of Seashore State Park. The first company to arrive was Company #1287. One of the other companies was comprised of African American men, most of whom were from Virginia. A CCC company that came after the opening

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of Seashore State Park to CCC Camp Seashore was Company #1375. This company arrived in Virginia Beach on October 1, 1938, before making their way to Cape Henry.

Hungry Mother Park

Hungry Mother Park is located in Smyth County, two-and-a-half miles north of Marion, Virginia. The 2,180 acres of land were owned by the Copenhaver family from about 1800 until 1929, when Frank Copenhaver, 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.”³¹ 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.³² 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.

Two CCC companies were involved in the construction of Hungry Mother State Park. Company #1252 arrived on October 15, 1933, to the Marion Railroad Station and traveled 4.5 miles north to the park location. Another company, #2388, arrived in Marion on August 27, 1935, just before the grand opening in 1936; their CCC camp was called Camp Forest Lake.

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 (aka Roanoke) rivers. The Commonwealth purchased the 1,200 acres outright. The counties of Halifax, Charlotte, and Mecklenburg together contributed a total of \$5,200 to the project. CCC Company #1220 arrived in Scottsburg on October 16, 1933, to begin construction on Staunton River State Park.³³

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 5,000

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acres, was donated to the state by Junius Blair Fishburn, 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. The first CCC company to arrive at Fairy Stone State Park was Company #1267. These men arrived on October 16, 1933, and set up camp under the name Camp Fishburn. They were joined by Company #1389 on December 17, 1937. This company took their camp name after the park and called it Camp Fairystone.³⁴

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 1¼ 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."³⁵

Company #287 of the CCC was involved in the formation of Westmoreland State Park. The company arrived in Fredericksburg on October 14, 1933, then traveled 43 miles east to the park location.

Following is a list of RDAs that involved the CCC and/or WPA in the construction process.

Swift Creek (later Pocahontas State Park)

Swift Creek, later Pocahontas State Park, twenty miles south of Richmond near Chesterfield Court House, was one of the RDAs developed by the NPS in Virginia during the 1930s. Located on land that was formerly used to grow tobacco, this 156-acre park was developed in the early 1930s in cooperation with CCC camps located in Chesterfield County. It originally was known as State Park Project #24. CCC Company #2386 arrived on August 8, 1935, to work at Camp Black Widow Spider. When Swift Creek first opened in the summer of 1936, it offered three new lakes, numerous buildings, and miles of roads. That 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 RDAs, subscribed most "convincingly to the stated intent of serving the

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disadvantaged and handicapped.”³⁶ It served the disadvantaged 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 any other place.”³⁷

Chopawamsic (later Prince William Forest Park)

A second RDA, Chopawamsic, was developed in the early 1930s in Triangle, Virginia. In 1935, 115 tracts of land, amounting to 12,422.31 acres, were acquired for an average of \$13.33 per acre and a total of \$138,938.88. The land was chosen because it was considered blighted farmland and was occupied by poor inhabitants. After the relocation of residents, CCC, WPA, and Public Works Administration (PWA) funds were used to build the Chopawamsic RDA. The RDA incorporated land in both Prince William and Stafford counties, allowing the WPA to recruit labor from both counties. The location of the WPA camp and the identities of the workers are unknown. There were three CCC camps in the park, comprising between 100 and 200 men. These three camps were occupied by three CCC companies, #1374, #2349, and #2383. Company #1374 was the first to arrive on May 15, 1933, under State Park Project #22 and occupied the site until April 24, 1939. Company #2349 arrived on July 25, 1935, under State Project #25. This project was abandoned on May 25, 1938, but Company #2349 moved to State Project #26, still within the Chopawamsic RDA boundaries. Company #2383 constructed the camps of State Project #26 after their arrival on August 7, 1935, and abandoned the site on September 30, 1937, six months before Company #2349 arrived.³⁸ Chopawamsic (now known as Prince William Forest Park) is still operated by the NPS.

Bear Creek State Park

The construction of Bear Creek Lake Park was overseen by the Virginia Department of Agriculture. Approximately one hundred men, including carpenters, farmers and unskilled laborers who needed work, built the manmade lake, two pavilions, concession stand, and six fireplaces in 1938. CCC Company #2354 arrived in Farmville on May 7, 1933, and then traveled the twenty miles northeast to Cumberland Forest, where they worked on Private Forest Project #69. It is also thought that Company #1390, an African American company that constructed Prince Edward Lake Park, may have also worked at Bear Creek Lake.⁶ However, the CCC may have only cleared and restored the park lands at Bear Creek Lake. Bear Creek Lake Park was given to the Division of State Parks in 1940, and it was operated as a day-use recreational area. In 1962, the division added campgrounds and the area’s name was changed to Bear Creek Lake

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State Park. During the 1970s, the park undertook an ambitious construction program, during which time new facilities such as administrative headquarters, restrooms, maintenance buildings, and residences for park rangers were built. In 1998, four new wells and a new administrative office were constructed. In 2006, the park constructed twelve cabins, a lodge and the Bear Creek Lake Conference Center.

Twin Lakes State Park

Much of the land that includes Twin Lakes State Park was originally farmland and forest donated to the government by two benefactors, Emmett Dandridge Gallion and Thomas Milton Goodwin. Goodwin Lake State Park and Prince Edward State Park (now called Twin Lakes State Park) were approximately ten miles south of Farmville near Burkeville, Virginia. The two RDAs were developed in the early 1930s. The land was donated by Emmett Dandridge Gallion in 1919 with more land acquired in the early 1930s. The construction of the dams and lakes, buildings, forest roads, and other various park features were done by CCC Company #1390, comprised of African Americans. They arrived in Green Bay just south of the park on June 11, 1933. They then established Camp Gallion, nicknamed Lucky 13, near the site of the park. Although the primary duty of the CCC workers was to build fire trails, the Company #1390 was credited with a number of other construction projects, including the construction of five 100-foot fire lookout towers, 33 bridges and the two dams that created Goodwin Lake and Prince Edward Lake recreational areas.³⁹ In keeping with the prevailing policy of "separate but equal," Goodwin Lake RDA was open only to whites; Prince Edward Lake RDA was provided for use by African Americans.

Prince Edward Lake RDA was expanded and its facilities enhanced in 1949 when it became Prince Edward State Park for Negroes. The current Cedar Crest Conference Center at Twin Lakes State Park is on the site of the former Prince Edward State Park for Negroes. In 1948, during an era of rigidly enforced racial segregation in the South, an African-American named M. Conrad Martin was denied admission to Staunton River State Park. Martin, a prominent banker from Danville, Virginia, then filed suit to challenge the validity of the Commonwealth's policy of providing state parks only for whites. This legal challenge led to a decision by the Virginia Department of Conservation and Development to expand facilities at the Prince Edward Lake recreational area for African-Americans and turn it into a full fledged state park. In January 1949, Governor William Tuck wrote a special appropriation totaling \$195,000 for development of the new Prince Edward State Park for Negroes. As part of that appropriation, construction began on six concrete block cabins.

The new park opened to the public in June 1950. Edgar Latham, formerly a lifeguard at the Prince Edward Lake RDA, was appointed as the first African-American superintendent in the history of Virginia state parks. In 1960, Herbert N. Doswell, another former employee of the

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Prince Edward Lake RDA, succeeded Mr. Latham, becoming the second African-American park superintendent in Virginia state park history. Under Latham's supervision, the park enjoyed tremendous growth. Although never formally advertised in papers or magazines, word-of-mouth of the park's facilities and staff drew African-American families from throughout Virginia and North Carolina. By 1966, the park hosted as many as 4,000 people a day. Special activities for the Fourth of July and weekly Saturday night dances drew not only visitors, but local residents as well.

Although the Civil Rights Act of 1964 ended formal and legal segregation, the parks continued to operate as separate facilities until they were merged in 1976. The resulting Prince Edward-Goodwin Lake State Park was renamed Twin Lakes State Park in 1986.

Holliday Lake State Park

The area encompassing Holliday Lake State Park and the surrounding state forest was originally settled and farmed in the early-to-mid-nineteenth century. By the beginning of the Great Depression, the area remained largely agricultural and poor. As part of the ongoing resettlement effort by the federal and state government, area farms were bought or seized in the hopes of returning the land to its former hardwood forest state, and to create a recreational area. The land used to create the Holliday Lake RDA was owned by a local farming family, the Hollidays.

Construction of a 55-foot dam was begun at Fish Pond Creek in 1937, with water relocated to Holliday Creek where a 150-acre manmade lake was completed a year later. Co-sponsoring the dam construction was the United States Navy, which planned to use the area as an inland emergency landing base. The original height of the dam was abandoned with the discovery of the Jones family burial ground. Because the owners could not be located to move the bodies, the Navy abandoned its original plan and the height of the dam was scaled back. Construction of the park's facilities was done by local residents through the WPA program. A WPA camp, now the site of the Holiday Lake 4-H Camp, located across from the park, housed the workers. The camp included several wood frame cabins, a dining hall, and bath houses. The WPA camp was slightly less militaristic in its design and function than the CCC camps. The camp also did not provide as much housing because many of the WPA workers commuted from their local residences to build the dam and reforest the land at and near Holliday Lake. In 1942, the Commonwealth of Virginia, through an agreement with the United States Department of Agriculture, received a 99-year lease and took over the management of the recreational area. In 1972, with the addition of campgrounds, the recreational area became Holliday Lake State Park.

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CHRONOLOGICAL LISTING OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF VIRGINIA STATE PARKS***

NAME	LAND ACQUIRED	OPENED	METHOD	ACRES	NATIONAL REGISTER LISTED	TYPE
George Washington Grist Mill. Mount Vernon, VA	1932	1932	donation	6.65**	Yes	Historical Park
Douthat. Clifton Forge, VA	1933	1936	CCC ⁴⁰	1,920 ⁺ 4,493 ⁺	Yes	Recreational Park
Fairy Stone. Stuart, VA	1933	1936	CCC	4,570**	Yes	Recreational Park
Hungry Mother. Smyth County, VA	1933	1936	CCC	2,215**	Yes	Recreational Park
Seashore (First Landing). Virginia Beach, VA	1933	1936	CCC	3,400 ⁺ 2,889**	Yes	Recreational Park
Staunton River. Scottsburg, VA	1933	1936	CCC	1,200 ⁺ 1,414**	Yes	Recreational Park
Westmoreland. Westmoreland County, VA	1933	1936	CCC	1,226 ⁺ 1,299**	Yes	Recreational Park
Bear Creek. Cumberland, VA	1945	1935	Forestry ⁴¹	328.7**	Pending	Recreational Park
Holliday Lake. Appomattox, VA	1945	1939	Forestry	255.29**	Pending	Recreational Park
Twin Lakes Cumberland County, VA	1945	1939	Forestry	469.01**	Pending	Recreational Park
Southwest Virginia Museum. Big Stone Gap, VA	1946	1943	Donation	1 ⁺	Yes	Historical Park
Swift Creek (Pocahontas). Chesterfield, VA	1949	1939	CCC	156 ⁺		Historical Park
Sailor's Creek Battlefield. Rice, VA	1937	1937	Donation/sale	321 ⁺		Historical Park
Claytor Lake. Dublin, VA	1948	1951	Donation	472 ⁺	As Haven B. Howe House	Recreational Park
Staunton River Bridge Battlefield. Randolph, VA	1957	--	Donation	300 ⁺	Pending	Historical Park
Parkers Marsh. Accomack, VA	1960	1960	Donation	759 ⁺		Natural Area
Lick Creek	1961	1961	Donation	863 ⁺		Natural Area
Goshen Pass, Rockbridge County, VA	1961	1961	Donation	936 ⁺		Natural Area
Wreck Island, Wachapreague, VA	1961	1961	Donation	1,380 ⁺		Natural Area
Shot Tower. Foster Falls, VA	1964	1964	Donation	8**	Yes	Historical Park
Charles C. Steirly Heron Rookery. Surry County, VA	1964	1964	Donation	7*		Natural Area
Grayson Highlands.	1966	1965	Condemnatio	4,822 ⁺		Recreational

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NAME	LAND ACQUIRED	OPENED	METHOD	ACRES	NATIONAL REGISTER LISTED	TYPE
Volney, VA			n			Park
Chippokes Plantation. Surry, VA	1967	1967	Donation	1,683 ⁺		Historical Park
Mason Neck. Lorton, VA	1967	1967	Donation	1,814 ⁺		Recreational Park
Natural Tunnel. Duffield, VA	1967	1971	Donation/ Condemnatio n	950 ⁺		Recreational Park
Smith Mountain Lake. Huddleston, VA	1967	1967	Sale/ Condemnatio n	1,248 ⁺		Recreational Park
False Cape. Virginia Beach, VA	1968	1968	Donation/Sal e	4,321 ⁺		Recreational Park
Occonechee. Clarksville, VA	1968	1968	lease from Army Corps of Engineers	2,698 ⁺		Recreational Park
York River. Williamsburg, VA	1969	1969	Sale	2,550 ⁺		Recreational Park
Lake Anna. Spotsylvania, VA	1975	1972	Condemnatio n/ Sale	2,810 ⁺		Recreational Park
Caledon King George, VA	1975/1985	1974	Donation/ Sale	2,579 ⁺		Natural Area
Sky Meadows. Delaplane, VA	1975	1975	Donation/Sal e	1,862 ⁺		Recreational Park
Leesylvania Woodbridge, VA	1980	--	Sale	542 ⁺		Recreational Park

*** This chart contains land that was established as a state park but has either turned over to private hands or is now considered official Natural Area Preserves.

* Number of acres in initial land purchases

** Number of acres according to individual park nominations, August 2011

⁺ Number of acres according to Department of Conservation and Recreation, August 2011⁴²

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I. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE

There are three property types in Virginia's state parks that date to the New Deal era: historic districts, structures, and buildings. All of these resource types conform to the aforementioned rustic architectural and landscape design philosophies promulgated by the NPS through the CCC and WPA.

II. DESCRIPTION

Property Type Description – Historic Districts

Historic districts associated with the New Deal era in Virginia state parks are likely to include a variety of large-scale components, such as circulation systems, picnic areas, and campgrounds and cabin areas. These were intended to provide public access, recreational opportunities, and means for ongoing maintenance. Each met a functional purpose to enhance public access to the parks, making them crucial to the overall quality of the visitor's experience. Their relationship to one another, as well as their historic function, renders them likely to be contributing resources to a historic district. Further, they were designed according to the architectural and landscape design philosophies discussed in the historic context. An individual park is likely to have more than one component of a historic district within its boundaries, depending upon the integrity of the historic resources therein.

Circulation Systems

Circulation systems played a major role in the design of each Virginia state park. These systems included vehicular roadways, pedestrian paths and trails, and at some parks, horse trails. Each system was constructed following the same design principles and therefore they share similarities. In the construction of all three types of paths, special care was given to follow the contours of the land and to minimize cutting and filling land. 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 maximum advantage of views. Despite these similarities, the three types of circulation provide varied means for getting around the parks and thus rarely cross or even run parallel to each other.

Vehicular Circulation

Vehicular circulation at CCC parks was designed with a central spine or main road leading directly from the entrance of the park to the center of park activity, typically, the beach/swimming area. This long entry drive ranges from .5 to 2.5 miles at the various parks and passes through the extensive undeveloped park land to the main area of the park. All of the entry roads are heavily wooded, usually with evergreens. At Fairy Stone, Westmoreland, and Douthat state parks, the wooded entry drives are punctuated with areas of open meadow. The alternation from wooded to meadowland, open to closed, was an intentionally designed feature clearly indicated on original park plans. Some entrances also have rusticated fountains, wells or other roadside features. From the main entry road branch a series of secondary and tertiary loop roads that pass through the cabin, campground, and maintenance areas. This road system allows 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

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major roads (and minor roads with severe slopes) were lined with stone culverts and featured finely crafted drop inlets and retaining walls.

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. 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 as hiking trails, although they served the same basic purpose: providing a means to experience the extensive surrounding undeveloped parkland. Horse trails differed from hiking trails in that they were usually broader, more level, and lacked the pedestrian trailside details, such as shelters, benches, and bridges. Associated with the horse trails were stables, paddocks, and barns. The only remaining stable from the CCC era is at Fairy Stone State Park. It is a one-story, board and batten structure with an end-gabled roof and a single dormer window. The building contains stalls for approximately twenty horses, each stall featuring a louvered window to provide light and air. A small paddock area and outbuilding were located to the rear of this stable.

Picnic Areas

Picnic areas were sited on or near the water to take advantage of both views and cool breezes. Picnic shelters were the dominant features of the picnic areas. 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 variation to the typical shelter plan. Another variation occurred at Seashore, where after 1940 picnic shelters were built according to the typical plan, but used 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. Water fountains were also a common feature. The typical water fountain used at the Virginia state 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 variation on the standard toilet is the impressive rustic Stone John located near picnic area #2 at Hungry Mother State Park. A circular arrangement of stones located near one of the picnic areas at Staunton River State Park 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.

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Lodging

Overnight guests at the Virginia state parks typically had at least two housing options: individually owned shelters or rented buildings. There was a campground provided for personal tents and trailers, but there were also cabins provided for guests who wanted to rent for an allotted time. The overnight areas were located off the secondary or tertiary loops, creating more secluded areas of the park.

Campgrounds

Tent and trailer campgrounds were originally developed at all of the 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 parks, such as Westmoreland, these two types of campsites shared bathroom, shower, and laundry facilities. Tent campsites at all of the parks closely followed the basic layout that is demonstrated in *Park and Recreation Structures*.

Small-scale features associated with the campgrounds often 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. The building contained high louvered windows for adequate ventilation. At the front of the building, an overhanging roof and cement platform provided protection from the sun and rain. A wooden fence wrapped around the front of the building and screened views of the entrances. All of these features were designed and built using the rustic design principles typical of the new Deal period.

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 situated at regular intervals near the loop road, either singly, with their own parking space and small yard, or in groups of two. At some of the parks, the original cabins were positioned 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.

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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 side of each cabin.

The materials used to construct park cabins varied from park to park. Variations in materials 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.

Property Type Significance – Historic Districts

New Deal-era historic districts in Virginia's state parks may be eligible for the National Register under Criterion A. They are associated with the establishment of the state's publicly owned park system, and with the CCC and WPA programs created by the Roosevelt administration. Some also are directly associated with African American history and with the Civil Rights movement's success at desegregating public accommodations.

New Deal-era historic districts may be eligible for the National Register under Criterion C. Individual resources embody the distinctive characteristics of the NPS's rustic style of architecture and/or landscape design. When considered collectively as a district within a park, the New Deal-era resources represent a significant and distinguishable entity.

Property Type Registration Requirements – Historic Districts

New Deal-era historic districts in Virginia state parks will be eligible for listing in the National Register through this Multiple Property Listing if they maintain integrity of location, design, setting, feeling, workmanship, materials and association or some combination thereof, as specified below. The period of significance for architectural and landscape resources is typically the date of construction through 1942, when the New Deal programs with which they are associated drew to a close. The period of significance for historic districts associated with African American history and the Civil Rights movement should extend to include those events as well.

Eligible examples of historic districts must retain the general characteristics of the property type including:

- Managed forests and plantings that originated during the New Deal period and have been maintained according to professional forestry standards since that time;
- Natural features, such as streams, rivers, hillsides, valleys, and rocky outcroppings, that are characteristic of each park's topography and geology and are protected from unsympathetic

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development;

- New Deal-era landscaping features, such as roads, trails, stonework, and other structures, such as picnic areas and camping areas, that were integral to the original landscape design.
- Contributing resources within the historic district should retain original construction materials such as stone and wood; their basic original form; original relationship to other New Deal-era landscape features (i.e., a campground should retain campsites as well as associated picnic areas and bath and laundry facilities); and sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials and methods of construction.
- For all contributing resources to historic districts, sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials and methods of construction are important to maintaining integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Interior spaces are of less importance to overall integrity than exterior spaces; however, interior spaces that are frequented by the public should retain original materials and design to the fullest feasible extent.

With regard to integrity, historic districts must have integrity of location and setting. Integrity of design, materials, and workmanship are more likely to be represented by the presence of New Deal-era landscaping features and manmade features. Integrity of feeling and association will be maintained if the resource retains physical characteristics that convey a sense of the New Deal period's aesthetics and construction methods. Integrity of location and setting, along with integrity of design, materials, and workmanship of landscaping and manmade features, will convey integrity of feeling and association for New Deal-era historic districts.

For contributing resources to historic districts, such as circulation systems, picnic areas, and lodging areas, integrity of location and setting must be retained. The resource's setting should demonstrate continuity over time. For example, resources designed to be in public areas should continue to be in areas frequented by the public. Areas that have changed function over time, such as from service to public or from recreational to service, will have eroded integrity of setting.

For a contributing resource to retain integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, original construction materials should be retained to the fullest feasible extent. Additionally, repairs, if present, should have been carried out using new materials that match the original in content, color, texture, shape, and size, and using construction methods as similar to the original as possible. Introduction of unsympathetic components that obliterate or obscure historic materials will erode integrity of contributing resources. At the same time, resources must be maintained in such a way that they continue to fulfill their original function and purpose to the fullest feasible extent. Some contributing resources, such as riding trails and roads, are subject to weathering and wear and tear through daily use. Maintenance and repair of trails and roads as is required to maintain safe usage according to their originally intended purposes should not be construed as eroding their integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. When needed to maintain a resource's function and usability, introduction of new or replacement mechanical equipment, such as plumbing, water pumps, and electric lights, will not be construed as detracting from integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, so long as the equipment is unobtrusive in appearance either through design or visual screening.

Contributing resources still in use by employees and/or the public, such as campgrounds and trails, may be altered to enhance accessibility under the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA). Introduction of new surfacing, such as gravel or asphalt on a walking trail will not detract from integrity of design and workmanship

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so long as the original layout and/or alignment of the resource is maintained. Integrity of materials may be diminished if a new material, such as asphalt, is introduced to a resource that previously had a different surface, such as dirt or gravel. Similarly, introduction of a new form, such as a raised boardwalk on top of a walking trail, detracts from the integrity of materials and workmanship. If, however, the underlying layout and alignment is maintained then integrity of design will be maintained. Consequently, modifications to expand the accessibility of contributing resources, such as the addition of a wheelchair ramp to the approach of a picnic shelter or of a paved path around the perimeter of a campground, should not be considered as automatically detracting from the integrity of the resource, particularly if their materials and designs are complementary to rustic design principles and naturalistic settings.

Integrity of feeling and association will be maintained only if the resource retains physical characteristics that convey a sense of the New Deal period's aesthetics and construction methods. Integrity of feeling and association will be bolstered if one or more other aspects of integrity, such as location, setting, workmanship, design, and/or materials, also are present.

For contributing resources to historic districts, certain aspects of integrity are particular to the nature of the resource. For example, circulation 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 and natural, while circulation planning assured that modes of transportation and different recreational uses were kept separate. The circulation system connected the various features within the park while 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 NPS for the national parks. Circulation systems must be on or close to the original site and alignment as built by a New Deal organization and in the style of CCC circulation. Circulation patterns need to retain sufficient physical integrity. Depreciation or loss of these features may render them non-contributing, possibly affecting the overall eligibility of the historic district. Replaced materials should replicate the originals, except where safety requirements demand otherwise.

With regard to picnic areas, these were integral to the design of water features within parks and were located in relationship to natural features that provided air circulation. Picnic areas and their associated structures must have been built by a New Deal organization and in the style of CCC picnic areas. Moveable furniture need not be original to the CCC era and does not detract from the significance of historic structures and buildings. Picnic areas need to retain sufficient physical integrity. Depreciation or loss of these features may render them non-contributing, possibly affecting the overall eligibility of the historic district.

To retain integrity, tent and trailer campgrounds should remain in use according to their original purpose, and continue to feature small-scale elements, such as fireplaces, as well as amenities that include bath houses and laundry facilities. Updates and upgrades to these facilities to enhance accessibility and functionality will not detract from integrity so long as they are sympathetic in appearance, design, and materials to the design principles espoused by the NPS during the New Deal period. Original spatial relationships and harmony with the surrounding landscape also are character-defining elements of campgrounds. Similarly, rental cabins should maintain individual integrity of design both individually and collectively, using the same approach as for campgrounds.

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Property Type Description – Structures

Some large-scale New Deal-era structures may be individually eligible for the National Register or be contributing resources to a historic district. Primarily, this property type focuses on various types of water features and their associated resources, including beach areas, dams, and spillways. The central water feature at each of the six parks varied from a tidal bay to a river to a manmade lake, all of which were designed to enhance their recreational uses. Furthermore, the central water feature at each park played an important role as an organizing element in the park's overall design. Because 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 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, lodging areas 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

The swimming and beach areas at each state park were intended to serve as the hub of park activity, and command a central location in the park either at the termination of or directly off 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 boathouses, diving towers, shelters, and playing fields, were often located at the beach area. Additional structures associated with the beach area included docks, bulkheads, boat launches, and boat 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 these 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.

Property Type Significance – Structures

Large-scale New Deal-era structures in Virginia's state parks may be eligible for the National Register under Criterion A. They are associated with the establishment of the state's publicly owned park system, and with the CCC and WPA programs created by the Roosevelt administration. Some also are directly associated with

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African American history and with the Civil Rights movement's success at desegregating public accommodations.

These resources also may be eligible for the National Register under Criterion C if they embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction prevalent among New Deal-era projects. Specifically, three of Virginia's original six CCC 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. Staunton River was the only 1930s state park to include a large pool as the main swimming area. Collectively, the water features are demonstrative of the broader CCC narrative that can be demonstrated in the effort required to design and execute the feature and the elegance of the hydrologic mechanics to maintain the bodies of water. Additionally, the water features are a central organizing aspect of the design of each park, and reinforce each individual park's connection to other parks in the park system, while providing a central recreational focus within each park design.

Property Type Registration Requirements – Structures

Large-scale New Deal-era structures in West Virginia state parks and forests will be eligible for listing in the National Register through this Multiple Property Listing if they maintain integrity of location, design, setting, feeling, workmanship, materials and association or some combination thereof, as specified below. The period of significance for architectural and landscape resources is typically the date of construction through 1942, when the New Deal programs with which they are associated drew to a close. The period of significance for structures associated with African American history and the Civil Rights movement should extend to include those events as well.

Eligible examples of large-scale structures must retain the general characteristics of the property type including:

- Original construction materials such as stone, earth, concrete, and/or wood;
- Their basic original form;
- Original rustic design details and/or ornamentation;
- Their historic relationship to the overall landscape design and naturalistic setting created during the New Deal period;
- Sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials and methods of construction;
- Continuation of their original functional purpose.

With regard to integrity, large-scale structures must have integrity of location and setting. The resource's setting should demonstrate continuity over time. For example, resources designed to be in public areas should continue to be in areas frequented by the public. Areas that have changed function over time, such as from service to public or from recreational to service, will have eroded integrity of setting.

For a large-scale structure to retain integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, original construction materials should be retained to the fullest feasible extent. Additionally, repairs, if present, should have been carried out using new materials that match the original in content, color, texture, shape, and size, and using construction methods as similar to the original as possible. Introduction of unsympathetic components that

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obliterate or obscure historic materials will erode integrity of structures. At the same time, resources must be maintained in such a way that they continue to fulfill their original function and purpose to the fullest feasible extent. When needed to maintain a resource's function and usability, introduction of new or replacement mechanical equipment, such as a new sluice gate, will not be construed as detracting from integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, so long as the equipment is unobtrusive in appearance either through design or visual screening. Integrity of materials may be diminished if a new material, such as poured concrete, is introduced to a resource that previously had a different surface, such as cut stone or flagstone.

Integrity of feeling and association will be maintained only if the resource retains physical characteristics that convey a sense of the New Deal period's aesthetics and construction methods. Integrity of feeling and association will be bolstered if one or more other aspects of integrity, such as location, setting, workmanship, design, and/or materials, also are present. Finally, the water features and support buildings and structures should retain their centrality to the overall park design. Depreciation or loss of these features may degrade their eligibility for individual listing on the National Register, or render them non-contributing to a historic district.

For structures still in use by employees and/or the public, such as beach and swimming areas, additions and modifications to enhance physical accessibility may be needed. For example, the addition of raised boardwalks or paved paths can enhance access to the waterfront. Such additions should be complementary to rustic design principles and naturalistic settings so that integrity of the historic resource will not be eroded.

Property Type Description – Buildings

Some large-scale New Deal-era buildings may be individually eligible for the National Register or be contributing resources to a historic district. This property type includes lodges and maintenance areas, as well as staff dwellings and park offices. Examples of one or more of these building categories are evident in all of the state parks included in this MPD.

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. Even today, 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 the lodges 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 the lodges were constructed of horizontal hewn logs on stone foundations, with multiple gabled roofs sheathed with 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 recommendations later presented by NPS in *Park and Recreation Structures*. These guidelines state that lodges should be long, low, and horizontal in their appearance, in order to best fit into their natural settings. The lodge

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at Douthat followed the guidelines so well that full plans and photographs were included in the 1938 first edition of *Park and Recreation Structures*. The lodge interiors at Douthat and Hungry Mother were the most highly crafted of any in their respective parks, featuring beveled pine paneling on walls and ceilings, stone chimneys and fireplaces in main areas, and five arches supporting ceiling frames. These lodges also display excellent examples of wrought iron hardware and paneled doors with leaded glass and giant strap hinges.

Maintenance Areas

The parks required staff and upkeep to maintain the appearance and usefulness of the parks, necessitating the construction of maintenance buildings and structures located away from central activity and guest lodging. 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 arranged in a rectangle 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 was an eleven-bay, wood-frame structure, with a gabled, shingled roof, and a shed-roofed porch supported by thick, rustic posts. At Fairy Stone, a 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, and contained central kitchens and lounge areas. 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 superintendents' 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 the appearance of standard single-family dwellings.

Park Offices

Parks also had park administrative offices. The park office was typically the first building a visitor came upon when entering the park. The basic office facility provided a private office for the camp director and an anteroom, which contained files and a desk for the secretary or clerk. If necessary, space for an assistant director, program director, and/or additional clerks could be added into the design of the building.⁴³ The office building for Chopawamsic is shown in Good's *Park and Recreation Structures*. The building was comprised of a director's private office, a clerk's office, a canteen and a porch. Like the other structures at the parks, this building is built using local materials, in this case logs, and features multiple windows.

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Statement of Significance

Generally, park maintenance areas, staff residential quarters, and the park office are all located in close proximity to each other, demonstrating the broader NPS 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.

Property Type Significance – Buildings

Large-scale New Deal-era buildings in Virginia's state parks may be eligible for the National Register under Criterion A. They are associated with the establishment of the state's publicly owned park system, and with the CCC and WPA programs created by the Roosevelt administration. Some also are directly associated with African American history and with the Civil Rights movement's success at desegregating public accommodations.

These resources also may be eligible for the National Register under Criterion C if the individual resource embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction prevalent among New Deal-era projects. For example, the regional approaches to construction evident in the materials and building traditions employed in the lodges, in addition to the landscape features of each individual park, are illustrative of the criteria Robin Burson used to select park sites.

Property Type Registration Requirements – Buildings

Large-scale New Deal-era buildings in Virginia state parks will be eligible for listing in the National Register through this Multiple Property Listing if they maintain integrity of location, design, setting, feeling, workmanship, materials and association or some combination thereof, as specified below. The period of significance for architectural and landscape resources is typically the date of construction through 1942, when the New Deal programs with which they are associated drew to a close. The period of significance for individual buildings associated with African American history and the Civil Rights movement should extend to include those events as well.

Eligible examples of buildings must retain the general characteristics of the property type including:

- Original construction materials (generally stone and wood), particularly on exterior surfaces;
- Their historic relationship to the overall New Deal-era landscape design and naturalistic setting;
- Their basic original form and rooflines;

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- Original rustic design details and/or ornamentation;
- Sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials and methods of construction.

The maintenance areas, staff dwellings, and lodges must have been constructed by a New Deal organization and in a style consistent with the design principles described in the historic context.

With regard to integrity, buildings described in this section typically must retain integrity of location. The building's setting should demonstrate continuity over time. For example, buildings designed to be in public areas should continue to be in areas frequented by the public. Areas that have changed function over time, such as from service to public or from recreational to service, will have eroded integrity of setting.

For a building to retain integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, original construction materials should be retained to the fullest feasible extent. Repairs to buildings, if present, should have been carried out using new materials that match the original in content, color, texture, shape, and size, and using construction methods as similar to the original as possible. Introduction of unsympathetic components that obliterate or obscure historic materials will erode integrity. Interior spaces of buildings are of less importance to overall integrity than exterior spaces; however, interior spaces that are frequented by the public should retain original materials and design to the fullest feasible extent.

Integrity of feeling and association will be maintained only if the resource retains physical characteristics that convey a sense of the New Deal period's aesthetics and construction methods. Integrity of location and setting are necessary to convey integrity of feeling and association. Buildings also should retain at least some degree of integrity of design, workmanship, and materials in order to convey integrity of feeling and association. Depreciation or loss of these features may degrade their eligibility for individual listing on the National Register, or render them non-contributing to a historic district.

Recognizing that staff dwellings serve as primary living quarters for park staff, interior spaces may be updated or modified to accommodate modern living needs. As such, the configuration, materials, and appearance of interior spaces are of substantially less importance to overall integrity than exterior spaces.

Architectural resources still in use by employees and/or the public, such as lodges, must conform to current building codes and must meet requirements for physical accessibility established under the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA). Changes to the interior configuration of spaces and interior finishes and features and use of paving and ramps to increase physical access in compliance with ADA should not erode integrity of a historic resource so long as their materials and designs complement rustic design principles and naturalistic settings. Furthermore, common and minor modifications will not sufficiently affect the integrity of a building to cause it to be ineligible for listing, as follows:

- Alterations (including replacement in kind) of deteriorated decorative and structural elements such as porch railings, columns, and stonework;
- Modifications or additions for fire exits;
- Replacement in kind of windows and doors.

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Geographical Data

The geographic data of the ten state parks built by the CCC or WPA in Virginia are as follows:

Douthat State Park is 4,493 acres located near Clifton Forge, Virginia, and is accessible via State Route 659 in Bath and Alleghany counties. It is bisected on a north-south axis by State Route 629 within the George Washington National Forest.

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

Hungry Mother State Park is 2,215 acres located in Marion, Virginia, in Smyth County and is accessible via State 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 Scottsburg, Virginia, in Halifax County. It is accessible via State Route 355.

Westmoreland State Park is 1,229 acres that extend about 1.5 miles along the Potomac River in Montross, Virginia, in Westmoreland County. It is accessible via State Route 347.

Seashore/First Landing State Park is 2,889 acres in Virginia Beach, Virginia, at Cape Henry on the Chesapeake Bay. It is accessible via Shore Drive/U.S. Route 60.

Swift Creek Recreation Demonstration Area/Pocahontas State Park is 1783 acres located in Chesterfield, Virginia, in Chesterfield County, and is accessible via State Route 655.

Bear Creek Lake State Park is 324 acres, including a 40-acre lake, in Cumberland County and is accessible via State Route 629 within the Cumberland State Forest.

Holliday Lake State Park is 254 acres including a 150-acre lake in Appomattox County along the Buckingham County line bounded by Holiday, Forbes, and Sanders Creeks. A winding dirt and gravel road from State Route 15 leads to the park within the Appomattox-Buckingham State Forest.

Twin Lakes State Park is 495 acres, includes two lakes, and is located not more than three miles north of State Route 460 West in Prince Edward County, Virginia, within the Prince Edward State Forest.

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Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

The Virginia State Park System owes much of its early existence to the work of the CCC. Six early parks in the Virginia system – Douthat, Fairy Stone, Hungry Mother, Seashore (now known as First Landing), Staunton River, and Westmoreland – were built in the mid-1930s by the CCC. In 1939, four additional CCC-built RDAs authorized under the Bankhead-Jones Act were added to the state park system. These were Bear Creek Lake, Holliday Lake, Goodwin Lake, and Prince Edward Lake, the last two now known as Twin Lakes State Park. Finally, Pocahontas State Park, a CCC-built facility originally known as the Swift Creek RDA, was leased from the federal government in the mid-1930s and was added to the state system in 1946 by a deed from Harry S. Truman. Today, almost one-third of the parks in the Virginia State Park System were built by the CCC.

The addition of these sites to the Virginia Landmarks Register (VLR) and the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) would aid in the perpetuation and preservation of this rich CCC legacy. To that end, the Department of Conservation and Recreation (DCR) proposed the use of funds from a Department of Historic Resources (DHR) grant to develop a Multiple Property Document to cover the New Deal related state park system, as well as the parks not currently on the registers (Douthat was listed on its own in 1987). Following the completion of the context document, the remainder of the grant monies funded the development of individual nomination forms for the six original parks. Nomination forms for the RDAs would be developed in the future as additional funding becomes available.

In conjunction with DCR, DHR, and the University of Virginia, the Virginia State Parks Foundation identified appropriate state parks and individual resources within those parks eligible for listing in the VLR and NRHP under Criterion A (Property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history), and Criterion C (Property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components lack individual distinction). Once those parameters were established, students, staff, and qualified consultants were tasked over a period of time to complete the Multiple Property Document and later the individual nominations and survey necessary for listing the parks.

Both the nomination survey and preliminary survey of the first six CCC parks provided the following information as a starting point for the listing of the parks and the compilation of the cover document.

Douthat State Park has approximately 4,493 acres with 45 known contributing resources
 Fairy Stone State Park has approximately 4,570 acres with 36 known contributing resources
 Seashore (First Landing) State Park has approximately 2,889 acres with 24 known contributing resources
 Hungry Mother State Park has approximately 2,215 acres with 41 known contributing resources
 Staunton River State Park has approximately 1,414 acres with 24 known contributing resources
 Westmoreland State Park has approximately 1,299 acres with 54 known contributing resources

From there, as nominations are prepared, intensive survey and research would be completed for each of the following State Parks as relating to the CCC: Fairy Stone, First Landing, Hungry Mother, Staunton River, Westmoreland, Bear Creek Lake, Holliday Lake, Twin Lakes, and Pocahontas.

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- ¹ Conrad Wirth, *Park, Politics and the People*. 18. This is a quote from the August 25, 1916, Act establishing the National Park Service.
- ² AR 1918, 1074-7. From Linda Flint McClelland, *Presenting Nature: The Historic Landscape Design of the National Park Service, 1916-42* (Washington DC: National Park Service, 1993), Chapter 4.
- ³ McClelland, *Presenting Nature*.
- ⁴ 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).
- ⁵ Olmsted, 67-8.
- ⁶ AR 1918, 1076, in McClelland, *Presenting Nature*.
- ⁷ The 1938 version of *Park and Recreation Structures* included buildings from three of the six parks in the state park Master Plan, including Douthat, Staunton River, and Westmoreland, and two Recreational Demonstrations Areas, Matoaka State Park and Swift Creek (later Pocahontas State Park) and Chopawamsic (later Prince William Forest Park).
- ⁸ "Advertising Virginia: Tourism in the Old Dominion in the Twenties and the Great Depression." *Virginia Cavalcade* 1994 44(1): 28.
- ⁹ Records of the National Park Service, Record Group 79, Letter from Henry Roberts to the National Park Service, November 25, 1919 [NPS Central Classified Files, "Proposed State Parks," Box 657, Burson File] (National Archives-College Park, Maryland).
- ¹⁰ William E. Carson, "Radio Talk by William E. Carson," *Virginia Rare Pamphlets*, v. 355 (University of Virginia Special Collections):10-11.
- ¹¹ Stephen H. Loptspeich, "The Design Intentions and the Planning Process of the Virginia CCC State Park Master Plans 1933-1942," (Ms. Thesis, University of Virginia, 1984):17.
- ¹² John F. Horan, Jr., "Will Carson and the Virginia Conservation Commission, 1926-1934," *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* 1984 92(4):413.
- ¹³ Thomas D. Clark, *The Greening of the South: The Recovery of Land and Forest* (Lexington, KY: The University Press of Kentucky, 1984):73.
- ¹⁴ William E. Carson, *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 Commission on Conservation and Development, 1935):23.
- ¹⁵ Association of Southeastern State Park Directors, *Histories of Southeastern State Parks* (Printed for the Southeastern State Park Directors, 1977):18.
- ¹⁶ Wilbur C. Hall, "Virginia State Parks," *The University of Virginia Newsletter* 13 (1937):1.
- ¹⁷ Loptspeich, 24.
- ¹⁸ National Register Nomination, Douthat State Park Historic District Nomination, 1986 (Virginia Department of Historic Resources, Archives File 008-0136): continuation sheet 17.
- ¹⁹ Perry H. Merrill, *Roosevelt's Forest Army: A History of the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942* (Montpelier, VT: Perry H. Merrill, 1981):7.
- ²⁰ Norman T. Newton, *Design on the Land* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Belknap Press of the Harvard University Press, 1971):577.
- ²¹ Civilian Conservation Corps Legacy, "Camp Roosevelt," 18 August 2011, <http://www.ccclegacy.org/camp_roosevelt_history.htm>.
- ²² Hall, 1.
- ²³ Records of the Civilian Conservation Corps, Record Group 35, Letter from Robert L. Collins to all commanding generals, September 10, 1934 (National Archives-College Park, Maryland).
- ²⁴ New Deal Network, "African Americans in the Civilian Conservation Corps." 2003, 18 August 2011, <<http://newdeal.feri.org/aaccc/index.htm#resources>>.
- ²⁵ John P. Byrne, "The Civilian Conservation Corps in Virginia, 1933-1942," (M.A. thesis, University of Montana, 1982):29.

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²⁶ Horan, Jr., 409. See also, Records of the National Park Service, Record Group 79, Letter to Harry F. Byrd from George M. Stevens, August 1, 1935 [Item 12, Wirth Correspondence, Box 5, "R.E. Burson" File] (National Archives-College Park, Maryland).

²⁷ Hall, 1.

²⁸ Civilian Conservation Corps Legacy, "Virginia Camps."

²⁹ Loptspeich, 52-54.

³⁰ Loptspeich, 19.

³¹ Mack H. Sturgill, *Hungry Mother: History and Legends* (Marion, VA: Tucker Printing, 1986):41.

³² Hall, 1.

³³ Civilian Conservation Corps Legacy, "Virginia Camps."

³⁴ Civilian Conservation Corps Legacy, "Virginia Camps."

³⁵ Hall, 1.

³⁶ Phoebe Cutler, *The Public Landscape of the New Deal* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1985):74.

³⁷ Cutler, 74.

³⁸ Civilian Conservation Corps Legacy, "Virginia Camps"; Susan Cary Strickland, *Prince William Forest Park: An Administrative History* (Washington D.C., History Division, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, January 1986, updated 2 September 2011).

⁴⁰ Transferred from the Civilian Conservation Corps to the Division of Parks and Recreation. Douthat, along with 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.

⁴¹ Bear Creek, along with Holliday Lake, Goodwin Lake, Prince Edward Lakes, was transferred from the Division of Forestry to the Division of Parks and Recreation through the Cooperative Use Agreement of 1939.

⁴² Department of Conservation and Recreation, "Virginia State Parks," <http://www.dcr.virginia.gov/state_parks/state_parks.html>.

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