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United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is for use in documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *Guidelines for Completing National Register Forms* (National Register Bulletin 16). Complete each item by marking "x" in the appropriate box or by entering the requested information. For additional space use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Type all entries.

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Civilian Conservation Corps Properties in Iowa State Parks: 1933-42

B. Associated Historic Contexts

Iowa State Park Development by the Civilian Conservation Corps: 1933-42

C. Geographical Data

The survey of Civilian Conservation Corps properties is limited to all state park lands managed by the Department of Natural Resources within the State of Iowa.

☐ See continuation sheet

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 Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Planning and Evaluation.

Signature of certifying official — Date: 9/17/90

State Historical Society of Iowa
State or Federal agency and bureau

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.

Bill Boland
Signature of the Keeper of the National Register — Date: 11/15/90

E. STATEMENT OF CONTEXTS

INTRODUCTION

The multiple property group, Civilian Conservation Corps Properties in Iowa State Parks: 1933-42, represents the results of the state park work projects of the Civilian Conservation Corps in Iowa as related by the historic context, Iowa State Park Development by the Civilian Conservation Corps: 1933-42. Although the context focuses upon the Iowa CCC's state park work, it places the theme in the broader setting of the depression, conservation, recreation, and park movements, the New Deal, and the operation of the CCC at the federal level. This theme relates to the Iowa themes of public welfare (IC2b) and resource management (IC2g) under government functions, government and political activity. These Iowa themes speak to the changing role of public welfare in Iowa history and relate the social and economic programs to its citizens' changing view of the landscape and their effort to preserve the state's natural landscape in Iowa parks. A significant proportion of the context specifically related to the Iowa experience was heavily interpreted through knowledge of events occurring at the national level. The time period of the context, 1933 to 1942, represents the duration of the Civilian Conservation Corps as well as its state park program in Iowa. The comprehensive, intensive level survey which gathered data for the multiple property group included all state park properties erected by the CCC and currently under the management of the Iowa Department of Natural Resources. This scope allows the comparison of a large number of property subtypes resulting in a refinement of subtype definitions and the selection of the most intact and representative groupings of these subtypes.

The property type, CCC Park Properties in Iowa Parks, is intended to be not only applicable to state but county and city parks in which the CCC operated. Thus, the property type is somewhat larger in scope than the multiple property group. It is subdivided according to property function with three broad categories: park administration, recreational facilities, and overnight camping which represent more specific functional subtypes. This subdivision is based upon Albert Good's 1938 work (Good 1938) which although written as a guide to the construction of park properties was developed during the height of park construction by the CCC. As a retrospective categorization, it somewhat better represents reality than an idealized one prepared prior to extensive park development. Generally functional property subtypes were then combined in a single park to fulfill its needs. Good did not

create a manual with whole park plans but only its parts. However, his text did relate a philosophy guiding their combination.

CCC properties resulted from a new concept in national welfare executed at the state level to combat the effects of The Depression. It gave temporary employment to young men through a work program intended to benefit the public, one which included not only park construction but the conservation and preservation of the nation's natural resources. The close relationship of park work with conservation in the minds of the program's creators suggests their image of park work: to make the natural environment accessible to the enjoyment of Americans while ensuring its preservation. Thus, the CCC properties embody a latent tension between conservation of the natural environment and the development of state parks for recreation and temporary welfare projects. Significance then derive from the growth of national welfare program, the conservation movement, and park design.

The National Park Service explored the development of rustic architecture by 1917 as it searched for an appropriate architectural expression of its naturalistic ethic in its parks (Ahlgren 1987). The architecture reached its most elaborate expression in and near national parks in the 1920s, dominated park architecture in the 1930s, and came to a rather abrupt decline by 1942 as the pool of labor ended in June. Thus, CCC park properties represent the style in its mature form. It is an integral part of the general conservation/park movement which gained its widest expression through CCC labor. The concepts of the style are intimately intertwined with the prevailing notions guiding park design. For this reason, a discussion of this architectural movement is included in the more general historic context which discusses the work of the CCC in state parks.

Because no detailed examination of the operation of the state parks program at the federal level exists, and because its interpretation is necessary for an understanding of the Iowa state parks program, both federal and state levels are described in detail. The historic context embraces the growth of the conservation and park movement in Iowa prior to and during the New Deal era. It encompasses rustic architecture as an outgrowth of the manipulative view of Americans toward nature. After briefly examining the rise of the depression and relief programs antecedent to the New Deal, the presentation looks at the New Deal programs focusing upon the CCC, particularly its work programs. The discussion then turns to the operation of the CCC work programs in the State of Iowa and in

conclusion examines the significance of CCC work projects.

Many of the Iowa state parks display rustic architecture and represent themes related to CCC park development. The survey of state parks noted 31 parks containing approximately 670 resources constructed by the CCC. Iowa state parks such as Backbone, Springbrook, Lake Wapello, Dolliver, Stone, Lake of Three Fires, and Waubonsie contain the greatest number of resources which range from 30 to 95. Many of these resources survive intact with few intrusions into their surrounding landscape. Although whole parks are not eligible for National Register nomination, portions of twenty of these parks are worthy of recognition. Those containing eligible resources include state parks such as Backbone, Dolliver, Geode, Lacey-Keosauqua, Springbrook, Stone, Lake McBride, Lake Wapello, Palisades, and Waubonsie. Recreational reserves such as Beeds Lake, Black Hawk Lake, Lake Ahquabi, Lake Keomah, and Lake of Three Fires contain small potential districts. The more scenic, small lake reserves in northern Iowa such as Gull Point, Pikes Point, Pillsbury Point, and Trappers Bay contain a small number of eligible resources. And, Wanata and Pilot Knob are forest reserves which include single eligible resources. Eligible resources generally occur in parks with concentrations of CCC resources which remain in a setting parallel to that which the CCC created.

EMERGENCE OF THE CONSERVATION/PARK MOVEMENT

MIDWESTERN VIEW OF THE LAND

The changing Midwesterner's image of his natural surroundings strongly affected the development of the park movement in the later half of the nineteenth century. By the 1850s, contradicting images battled for the immigrant's imagination. One image advanced by promoters and romantic writers viewed the Middle West as a veritable garden. Such a vision represented not only fertile and beautiful lands but a wholesome atmosphere for the growth of democracy and an escape from the industrializing East (Billington 1958: 29). But this vision contradicted the cult of progress which dictated the conquest of the wilderness by the establishment of towns and cities and stressed the growth of America as an industrial nation. These contrasting interpretations lasted well into the late nineteenth century (Smith 1950: 55-56, 138-39, 240; Billington 1958: 27, 29-30).

Americans had generally conserved their resources prior to the 1800s. The resources of the American Middle and Far West remain closed to extensive exploitation in the early nineteenth century. But this attitude quickly changed as farmers accepted the fertility of the prairie, and industrialists realized their potential resources (Owens 1983: 39). Thus, the Midwest contained bountiful, even unending resources. This bounty extended to soil fertility and fish, game, fowl, timber, and mineral resources. Therefore, systematic conservation of resources in both farming and industry remained unnecessary (Federal Security Agency 1941a; Iowa State Planning Board 1936: (1) 1).

This view of midwestern lands led to extensive use of the resource base, particularly noted in farming and mineral and timber extraction. The original fertility of the land led to an emphasis on clearing land rather than expending time and resources upon replenishing soil fertility. The farmer sought the greatest return for the least labor and capital, both of which were in short supply. Likewise, the industrialist engaged in wasteful extraction of resources (Bogue 1963: 62, 145; Throne 1973: 112, 116). As the second half of the nineteenth century progressed, the newly invented machinery allowed extensive use of natural resources. In farming, the proper precautions dictated by traditional farming, deep plowing, manuring, and crop rotation, were ignored allowing rapid soil exhaustion (Throne 1973: 112; Richter n.d.: box 1). Iowa farmers overlooked the warnings of the scientific farmer who forecast soil exhaustion. The need to secure crops by the easiest and quickest method for trade resulted in a reluctance to abandon habits which worked (Throne 1973: 105-107, 124).

By the end of the century, the misconceptions regarding America's inexhaustible resources, especially its soil, slowly fell before the education efforts of state universities and farm organizations (Throne 1973: 126-28). However, despite a general awareness of these problems, old ideas died slowly. The image of abundance supported by the Golden Age of Agriculture lasting from 1897 to 1914 in general superseded attention to soil and other resource conservation practices. During this period, the price of land remained relatively low while farm prices were comparatively high. Those farmers who made significant gains during the early twentieth century maximized production through investments in machinery, crop specialization, and soil management and carefully watched shifts in demand. Thus, those farmers with sufficient capital to invest in scientific farming did begin to practice soil conservation but they remained in the minority (Bogue 1963: 62; Shanon 1945: 145-46;

Danhof 1969: vii, 6-7). Given the general agricultural depression of the 1920s which inhibited more expensive conservation practices, midwestern farmers continued to exploit their soil using the quickest and least expensive means to gain the largest yields. Poor conservation practices similarly plagued other resource exploitation industries (Grieshop 1989a: 6; Bogue 196: 62; Throne 1973: 112, 124-26; 128-29).

The effects of exploitative resource utilization became clearly apparent by the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Prior to the 1840s, 85% of Iowa lay under a tall-grass prairie. Rapid agricultural development left 5000 of the 30 million acres in prairie by 1980 (Grieshop 1989a: 3). Nation-wide, one-sixth of the fertile soils had been destroyed by erosion by the 1930s and one-third were endangered (Holland and Hill 1972 [1942]: 10). Expansion of farmlands also resulted in the drainage of wetlands. This action not only produced poor farmland but reduced habitat areas for wildlife and diminished their numbers. Once occupying 20% of Iowa, the woodlands were initially cut to clear fields, provide fuel, and erect buildings. Utilizing timber for building and fuel, the railroad accelerated this depletion by 1875. By 1980, less than 5% of the state remained in timber. The effects of severe soil erosion and the removal of Iowa's top soil proved disastrous to its agriculture by the 1930s. Short-term land tenure caused loss of holdings through low farm prices, high cost of manufactured goods, and relatively high taxes. High mortgages ensured continued disregard to long term care of agricultural lands and accelerated erosion. This land neglect along with natural disasters in the mid-1930s resulted in severe wind and water erosion of former prairie areas and wetlands, gullies and unstable stream banks in areas stripped of their timber which also caused flooding, and the contamination of surface waters through erosion and silting (Grieshop 1989a: 5-6; Crane 1933: 25, 31; Lacy 1976: 163; Salmond 1967: 4; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-37 [1937: 15]).

Into the twentieth century, most Iowans did not perceive the loss of their natural environment and therefore saw little reason to form parks for its preservation (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1936: 1 (1): 2]). The creation of parks at both a national and state level required changing cultural values toward nature. The nineteenth century believed their natural resources to be inexhaustible. By the turn of the century, a minority realized that their resources were finite and disappearing. Nature became not an entity to be feared and controlled but to be revered as a

thing of beauty. Such a perspective stimulated the founding of parks (Wirth 1980: 42).

THE CONSERVATION/PARK MOVEMENT IN IOWA

The conservation movement in Iowa began comparatively early. The national conservation movement slowly gained momentum during the 1860s and 1870s as a few realized that the threat of exploitative habits to national natural resources (U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 67). The original movement strove to protect lands and waters of high scenic value for public enjoyment (Wirth 1980: 16-17; Story 1934: 1).

The state park movement lagged the national movement by several decades. Although the first state park was formed in New York in 1885 by special legislation, Wisconsin became the first state to create a park system in 1907 (U.S. National Park Service 1941: 110). In Iowa, spokesmen for the conservation/park movement identified the need to preserve natural areas within the state by 1895. Thomas MacBride of the University of Iowa indicated the urgent need to care for Iowa's natural resources in his presidential address before the Iowa Academy of Sciences in 1897. Recognizing the rapid reduction of Iowa's forest cover, conservationist such as Louis H. Pammel of Iowa State College organized the Iowa Park and Forestry Association in 1901 (IOWA CONSERVATIONIST 1943: (2,2) 9; Grieshop 1989a: 7).

By the early twentieth century, federal and state governments displayed greater responsibility for their parks. The early national movement strongly affected state park management and state and national park design as late as the 1930s. Theodore Roosevelt aided by Gifford Pinchot championed the conservation movement and set the ground work for federal involvement. The movement strove to prevent the wasteful destruction of the nation's natural resources by private enterprise. The president created five national parks, four game preserves, and 51 wild game refuges, and Congress passed considerable legislation affecting the nation's resources. In 1906, John Fletcher Lacey of Iowa and Senator Cabot Lodge of Massachusetts advocated the 1906 Antiquities Act which by presidential declaration extended the concept of the forest preserve to national monuments, these federal lands of historic, prehistoric, and scientific value. At the Conservation Conference of Governors in 1908, Roosevelt stressed the need to manage natural resources such as minerals, soils, water, and forests through a

national plan. As a result, some states soon established conservation commissions (Otis 1986: 5; U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 19, 67; Owen 1983: 45-46; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: 3 (1): 2]; Wirth 1980: 17, 43).

Attempting to implement the national park program, the Secretary of the Department of the Interior which controlled park management began to centralize park administration under the Assistant Secretary and placed the general supervision of the parks under a landscape architect. In 1916, Congress created the National Park Service in the Department of the Interior with the overall purpose of protecting and preserving wilderness and historical areas in their natural state for public benefit (Owen 1983: 48; Tweed 1977: 18-19). It accomplished this goal through the administration of federal areas designated as national parks, monuments, and reservations (Wirth 1980: 18, 40). Yard explained the dramatically changing view toward park areas (1916: 3-4):

> The National Parks are areas which Congress has set apart because of extraordinary scenic beauty, remarkable phenomenon or other unusual qualifications.

They were no longer

> ...beautiful tracts of cultivated country with smooth lawns and winding paths like Central Park in New York.... They are, on the contrary, large areas which nature, not man, has made beautiful and which the hand of man alters only enough to provide roads to enter them, trails to penetrate their fastness, and hotel and camps to live in.

Yard thus set forth in 1916 the definition of park areas which guided their development through the CCC era. As this definition suggested, nature was no longer to be feared and conquered by taming and romanticizing it, by introducing man's concept of how nature should be as in the mid to late nineteenth century. It was now becoming a retreat where man could find peace from the strain of urban life. Nature was revered and treasured. It was to be made accessible in parks by limited modifications. In a sense, the villages and cities which had been viewed as safe from nature in the mid-nineteenth century were now themselves becoming objects of fear because of the vast changes which they were enduring (Tweed 1977: 1).

conservation movement accelerated at the national as well as the state level. Increased funding of the Hoover years allowed the National Park Service to expand its building program, particularly in the landscape division. Park development through the expertise of landscape architects and the tenets of the prevailing rustic architectural philosophy became well established prior to the CCC era (Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984). By the late 1920s, men were put to work in the forests and upon erosion control projects by states such as California and New York which suffered high unemployment rates (Otis 1986: 5). Thus, despite the neglect of the nation's resources by the private sector, the federal government had haltingly created some mechanisms to rectify these abuses. However, programs remained poorly coordinated prior to the early 1930s.

The 1930s witnessed a more formal articulation of ideas concerning conservation and park development. Approaches to conservation had matured. As the Federal Security Agency (1941a: 3) observed, conservation "...signifies not hoarding, but use - thrifty intelligent use - of natural resources which produce the Nation's wealth." Roosevelt advocated the protection and prudent use of the resources in a manner which would benefit a majority of the nation. Such use required a comprehensive consideration of all resources (Owen 1983: 82, 120). The Iowa State Planning Board echoed a similar concern for wasteful resource utilization (1936-38 [1938: 3 (1): 2]).

> Some, especially in former years, have defined the word as meaning "to preserve in a state of nature." However, it has been better defined as "the wise use of natural resources for the benefit of mankind.

National planning of resource use became a major objective of the Roosevelt administration (U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 18). The Federal Emergency Administrator of Public Works appointed the National Planning Board in July of 1933 which by November began to consider specific long-term, comprehensive plans for the management of national, state, and local public works. It encouraged regional and state planning particularly for the implementation of projects sponsored by the federal government (U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 18; Ahlgren 1987: 11). Up until the early 1930s, little national or state planning had occurred. This deficit hindered the operation of public works programs through July, 1934. Therefore, in 1936, the Park, Parkway, and Recreation Area Study

By 1921, state park systems were being organized in 19 states including Iowa. By 1925, all 48 states possessed some park development plans, but The Depression halted most of them. Prior to the 1930s, the National Park Service lacked any formal association with the state park programs (Paige 1985: 16).

Iowa's park movement developed along with the national movement. The promotion of early conservationists led to the creation of the State Board of Conservation in 1917. Before 1930, only three state agencies had such supervisory functions, and 26 were created during the 1930s (U.S. National Park Service 1941: 113-14). The Fish and Game Warden and the State Board of Conservation gained the authority to establish state parks with the consent of the State Executive Council composed of the governor, secretaries of state and agriculture, state treasurer, and auditor. The secretary of the council also became the secretary of the Board of Conservation. Appointed by the governor, the five member Board of Conservation investigated areas valued for their natural history, forest, and archaeological and geological resources and provisionally selected and also administered the parks, preserves, meander lakes, streams, and similar state-owned park property. The law provided the board with the technical services of a landscape architect furnished by the landscape architecture department and extension division of Iowa State College and of an engineer from the State Highway Commission. In 1929, the state employed a superintendent of parks who possessed an engineering background to supervise the daily operation of the parks and execute the plans and policies of the Board. Twenty full time park custodians who oversaw the maintenance of individual parks worked under the superintendent. Dwellings for park custodians were provided in 13 parks.

The same legislation also established the five-member Fish and Game Commission which was responsible for protecting, propagating, and preserving fish, game, and fur bearing animals and birds and for the enforcement of the laws relating to these duties. With the approval of the Board of Conservation, it established state game refuges and sanctuaries in parks (Iowa State Board of Conservation 1931: 3-5; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: (3, 2) 2]; IOWA CONSERVATIONISTS 1943: (2, 2) 13; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-41 [1936: 177]).

Until 1918, the state owned no park lands. In that year, they purchased 1300 acres in what became Backbone State Park. By 1922, the Board of Conservation administered 13 additional parks. But, the Board did not gain an appropriation for land purchases and

development until 1923 (IOWA CONSERVATIONISTS 1943: (2, 2) 13; Crane 1933: 120).

State and local parks gained increasing popularity in the early 1920s as Americans acquired greater mobility through the automobile. Iowa's leadership in the state park movement became apparent in 1921 when it hosted the National Conference on State Parks in Des Moines. The primary concern of the 200 conservationists focused upon the withdrawal of lands to create state parks to free them from commercial development and maintain a natural setting within them. The meeting addressed the creation of a system of state park areas which assisted selection according to the overall function they might fulfill. The meeting formally created the National Conference of State Parks whose purpose was to promote the state acquisition of land and water areas suitable for recreation, the study of natural history, and the preservation of wildlife (Tilden 1962: 1, 4).

Iowa possessed four state parks at the time of the conference in 1921. Its 17 state parks in 1923 served about 232,000 visitors. By 1932, the number had grown to 39 state parks and three preserves which occupied 8200 acres (Table 1). Visitation reached 1,542,557 per year by 1929, 1,644,007 in 1930, and 1,804,251 by 1931. The 1930 figure represented 70% of Iowa's population. Evenly spread across the state, park lands tended to serve their local regions rather than a large number from outside the state. Park growth occurred primarily through gifts of land by individuals or communities. The limited funding allocated for the parks did not allow purchase of large blocks of park lands and permitted only minimal park development. With very few areas then not in productive use, land expense inhibited Iowa's ability to accumulate park lands (Crane 1933: 120-23; Iowa State Board of Conservation 1931: forward, 14, 30). And, by 1933, the physical development of its parks had just begun. Nearly all of the 39 state parks possessed picnic grounds, seven contained lodges, one had cottages, camping was permitted in 13, lake fishing occurred in 8, boating was permitted in six, and swimming was established in six (Crane 1933; Iowa State Board of Conservation 1931: 8). In 1931, the Board of Conservation recognized the need for such "conveniences" as new trails, custodian's residences, shelters, improved water supply and sanitation and reforestation to enhance the recreational and scientific value of the parks (Iowa State Board of Conservation 1931: 10).

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conservation movement accelerated at the national as well as the state level. Increased funding of the Hoover years allowed the National Park Service to expand its building program, particularly in the landscape division. Park development through the expertise of landscape architects and the tenets of the prevailing rustic architectural philosophy became well established prior to the CCC era (Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984). By the late 1920s, men were put to work in the forests and upon erosion control projects by states such as California and New York which suffered high unemployment rates (Otis 1986: 5). Thus, despite the neglect of the nation's resources by the private sector, the federal government had haltingly created some mechanisms to rectify these abuses. However, programs remained poorly coordinated prior to the early 1930s.

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Act recommended by the National Park Service allowed the assessment of the current condition of local, state, and national parks and recreational facilities and by the late 1930s provided assistance in the creation of state park master plans to 42 states (Tilden 1962: 154; Grieshop 1989a: 16). The National Forest Service also published their national plan to ensure the proper utilization of the nation's forests and addressed their recreational potential (U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 75).

Iowa had begun planning early. In March, 1931, the Iowa General Assembly directed the State Board of Conservation and the State Fish and Game Commission to prepare a conservation plan published in 1933. The overall purpose of the REPORT ON THE IOWA TWENTY-FIVE YEAR CONSERVATION PLAN was to identify Iowa's diverse resources and long-range conservation needs and to present recommendations for their attainment. As Crane explained, conservation efforts had been diffuse and ineffective. The resulting report presented a coordinated explication of needs and solutions, a typical master planning document (Crane 1933: 13). It compiled the opinions of experts in diverse fields such as biology, geology, biochemistry, forestry, agronomy, landscape architecture, game and fishery, hydrology, history, archaeology, sanitation, economics, and engineering (Grieshop 1989a: 18; Crane 1933: 13-17). The resulting document advanced recommendations for the "orderly and scientific development" of natural resources, for example surface water management, soil erosion control, conservation of forests and small cover, fish and wildlife preservation, and the creation of recreation areas and park systems (Crane 1933: 13; Grieshop 1989a: 18; 1989b: 14).

The original impetus for the study had not been conservation but the interrelated park and recreation needs. A successful recreation plan required the study of a host of conservation problems which faced the State of Iowa including the pollution and silting of streams, the diminishing cover for wildlife as farmers opened more areas, surface water conservation to protect water fronts, and the restoration and maintenance of woodlands to ensure the beauty of Iowa's landscapes (Crane 1933: 2). Finally, Crane carefully justified the need for the recreation study utilizing the contemporary thinking of the National Park Service (1933: 144):

> As our day by day lives become more mechanized, further and further removed from the inspiration which only the beauty and grandeur of nature can give - year after year the value, in fact, the necessity increases for saving

> for public use these finest remaining sites where the various and magnificent work of natural forces can be seen at leisure....The state preserves and state parks offer the best opportunity for the overwrought mind to re-capture its serenity and dignity and spiritual power.

The plan thus recognized the increasing amount of leisure time which would be allocated to recreation in American society (Crane 1933: 11).

The 1930s park categorization suggests exactly which functions the parks were to fulfill. Parks were categorized according to the major focus of interest: preservation of natural or scenic qualities, protection and recognition of historical or archaeological resources, and recreational qualities. The classifications were subdivided several times into finer categories through the 1930s.

State parks such as Backbone or Springbrook provided general recreational activities. But they also had scenic qualities, woods and water, and with some exceptions contained more than 500 acres. They offered more active recreation in an unspoiled natural setting. They were to be not more than 80 miles apart. With large land areas, the state parks were better equipped to handle large crowds without danger to the natural qualities than the other areas. They also possessed greater artificial development such as lodges, cabins, picnic areas, and shelters.

Lake reserves such as Gull Point or Pikes Point preserved a point of special interest or beauty for public visitation. Their size and degree of development varied, and they were placed wherever the particular natural feature occurred. Appropriate development included access, parking, picnicking, comfort facilities, and shelters. Recreation reserves were often also created adjacent to lakes and provided public activities such as swimming, boating, and fishing. Examples include Black Hawk Lake and Lake Ahquabi. State forests such as Wanata and Pilot Knob contained timber stands maintained for demonstration of proper land use. They displayed principles of soil and water conservation, game management, and approaches to cultivation and grazing of public lands. Public use was limited to hunting, fishing, trapping, hiking, nature study, and other forms of informational recreation. Monuments preserved areas or objects of historic, prehistoric or scientific value. Few contained CCC resources. Waysides were small areas offering motorists quiet places for rest and relaxation along the highway.

Finally, a parkway was a strip of land devoted to recreation with a pleasure road travelling its entire length. The later two did not possess CCC properties (Crane 1933: 3, 8, 119; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1937, 1941 [1937: 3]; 1935-42 [1942: 108-10]; IOWA CONSERVATIONIST 1941-42: [1941: (1, 2) 7-8).

The Iowa twenty-five year conservation plan selected ten to twelve existing parks and recommended seven new locations for development. Along with the system of 17 parks, the original study isolated 75 to 80 reserves of various types (Crane 1933: 9-10; Grieshop 1989a: 20; IOWA CONSERVATIONIST 1941-42 [1941: (1, 2) 7]). Although the State followed the recommendations for park development relatively closely, the values for which the parks were set aside shifted through the decade. At the time of the report's publication in 1933, Iowa possessed 14 state parks, 25 recreational and lake reserves, two parks valued for their historical and archaeological potential, and four with geological and biological features, a total of 45 (Table 1) in addition to two other miscellaneous categories: five waysides and one other area. By 1943, the state had developed through the assistance of the CCC 86 state parks and preserves, 11 meander rivers, 18 artificial lakes, and 12,860 acres of forest lands of more than 21 different tracts. Because the State Board of Conservation created its plan for park development prior to the creation of federal programs for work relief, it received CCC as well as Works Progress Administration, Civil Work Administration, and Iowa Emergency Relief Administration labor (IERA) in the early phases of the program. Through this assistance, it achieved almost 70% of its master plan by 1937. By 1942, completed work included some projects judged too expensive to complete under normal economic conditions (Grieshop 1989b: 24; IOWA CONSERVATIONIST 1943: (2, 2) 14; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1936: (1, 1) 3; 1938: (3, 1) 3]; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1943: 127-28).

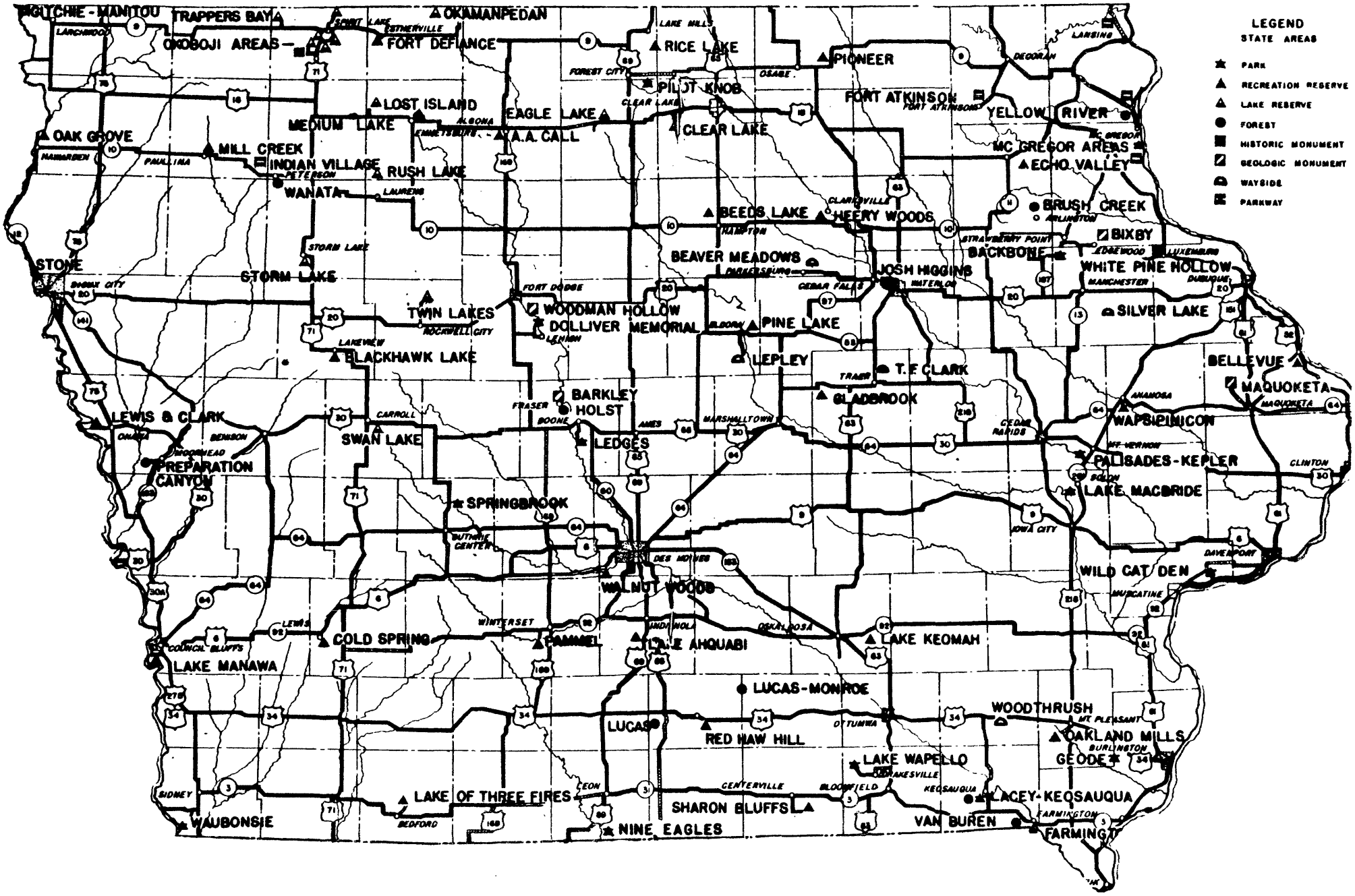
TABLE 1: STATE PARKS AND PRESERVES IN IOWA BY 1942 (1)

Park/Preserve	County	Date Acquired	Acreage: 1935	1942
		State Parks		
Backbone	Delaware	1918	1398.99	1411.38
Dolliver Memorial	Webster	1921	538.67	497.72
Geode	Henry & Des Moines	1936	.....	844.00
Lacey-Keosauqua	Van Bure	1919	1526.45	2209.85
Lake MacBride	Johnson	1934	680.87	773.88
Lake Wapello	Davis	1932	1036.49	1131.11
Ledges	Boone	1920	684.00	895.68
McGregor Areas	Clayton	1936	.....	576.00
Point Ann	Clayton			152.10
Pikes Peak	Clayton			140.65
McGregor Heights	Clayton			102.03
Other areas	Clayton			179.22
Nine Eagles	Decatur	1940	.....	1082.61
Palisades-Kepler	Linn	1922	513.74	648.03
Pilot Knob	Hancock	1921	375.13	368.81
Springbrook	Guthrie	1926	606.85	737.41
Stone	Woodbury	1935	820.00	881.72
Waubonsie	Fremont	1926	200.00	600.70
Wild Cat Den	Muscatine	1926	290.78	322.31
		Recreation Reserves		
Beeds Lake	Franklin	1934	267.35	258.95
Bellevue	Jackson	1925	148.15	148.50
Black Hawk Lake	Sac	1935	330.54	353.14
Ambrose A. Call	Kossuth	1926	134.00	129.65
Cold Spring	Cass	1935	80.00	60.00
Echo Valley	Fayette	1934	107.50	100.91
Farmington	Van Buren	1920	109.17	126.86
Heery Woods	Butler	1935	380.38	380.25
Lake Ahquabi	Warren	1934	560.00	773.53
Lake Keomah	Mahaska	1933	347.50	365.88
Lake Manawa	Pottawattamie	1927	691.00	939.16
Lake of Three Fires	Taylor	1934	385.53	385.53

Lewis and Clark	Monona	1924	315.00	315.00
Mill Creek	O'Brien	1935	.....	157.50
Oak Grove	Sioux	1924	101.00	101.19
Oakland Mills	Henry	1920	111.13	111.30
Pammel	Madison	1923	290.93	289.10
Pine Lake	Hardin	1920	533.30	548.22
Pioneer	Mitchell	1938	.....	12.27
Red Haw Hill	Lucas	1936	.....	419.86
Rice Lake	Winnebago & Worth	1934	50.57	46.90
Sharon Bluffs	Appanoose	1931	141.00	149.89
Union Grove	Tama	1940	.....	270.40
Walnut Woods	Polk	1925	261.37	260.16
Wapsipinicon	Jones	1921	220.00	232.20
		Lake Reserves		
Arnold's Park Pier	Dickinson	1930	0.20	.20
Clear Lake	Cerro Gordo	1924	27.00	70.45
Eagle Lake	Hancock	1924	107.50	20.75
Gull Point	Dickenson	1934	70.91	77.80
Inn Area	Dickenson	1935	.....	7.03
Lost Island	Palo Alto	1924	27.63	29.57
Medium Lake	Palo Alto	1940	.....	44.77
Mini-Wakan	Dickenson	1934	18.50	20.13
Okamanpedan	Emmet	1923	18.34	18.59
Pikes Point	Dickenson	1933	4.50	6.48
Pillsbury Point	Dickenson	1928	2.50	2.5
Rush Lake	Palo Alto	1931	62.00	82.84
Storm Lake	Buena Vista	1926	18.00	18.06
Swan Lake	Carroll	1933	230.52	229.30
Trappers Bay	Dickenson	1933	56.00	57.50
Twin Lakes	Calhoun	1923	15.50	15.27
		Forest Reserve		
Brush Canyon	Fayette	1936		216.74
Preparation Canyon	Monona	1935	187.00	186.99
Wanata	Clay	1934	136.46	145.46
White Pine Hollow	Dubuque	1934	390.00	610.00
Lucas-Monroe	Lucas & Monroe	1936	.....	3721.96
Van Buren-Lee	Van Buren & Lee	1936	.....	3709.07
Yellow River	Allamakee &	1936	.....	3906.11

	Clayton			
Holst	Boone	1939	.....	330.41
Pilot Mound	Boone	1941	.....	33.47
	Historical-Archaeological Monuments			
Fort Atkinson	Winneshiek	1921	5.00	6.00
Gitchie Manito	Lyon	1926	143.50	200.00
Indian Village	O'Brien	1936	.....	5.42
Turkey River Mounds	Clayton	1939	.....	85.07
Fish Farm Mounds	Allamakee	1935	.....	2.94
	Geologic-Biologic Reserves			
Bixby	Clayton	1926	69.00	69.00
Barkely Memorial	Boone	1929	40.00	40.00
Maquoketa Caves	Jackson	1921	85.01	111.07
Woodman Hollow	Webster	1928	62.89	62.89
National Monument	Allamakee	1942	.....	458.80
	Waysides			
Beaver Meadow	Butler	1935	80.00	74.00
Theo. F. Clark	Tama	1921	24.38	24.22
Lepley	Hardin	1920	9.00	9.00
Silver Lake	Delaware	1924	15.00	15.00
Woodthrush	Jefferson	1928	26.00	25.00
Steamboat Rock	Hardin	....	.....	.....
Orleans Hatchery	Dickenson	1923	.....	.....
	Parkways			
Josh Higgins	Black Hawk	1940	.....	166.15
	Other Areas			
State Forest Nursery	Story	1936	.....	99.65
Governor Lucas Home	Johnson	1941	.....	11.12
Gallard Area	Lee	1927	0.19	0.19
Total acreage			17216.89	35131.73

(1) Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 118-119; 1942: 127-28]).



Map 1: The location of state parks in Iowa and their classification in 1941 (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1937, 1941 [1941]).

The merger of the State Board of Conservation and the Fish and Wildlife Commission recommended by the twenty-five year conservation plan occurred in May, 1935. A seven member board appointed by the governor composed the Iowa State Conservation Commission. The Board selected the director who administrated its decisions. The three divisions under the director included the Administrative, Lands and Water, and Fish and Game divisions. Beyond providing the fiscal and records services, public relations, and enforcement of the Iowa code, the Division of Administration included the technical services of the chief engineer, assistant engineer, and a project supervisor. Between 1933 and 1942, this division also administered the funds for the federal work programs affecting natural resources in Iowa. The Division of Fish and Game inherited the responsibilities of the earlier commission and possessed jurisdiction over matters relating to fish, fisheries, waterfowl, game, fur-bearing animals, birds, and wildlife resources. The Division of Lands and Water maintained jurisdiction over state parks, waters, recreation areas, and forests as had the former board. A chief assisted by a landscape architect administered the division. His staff also included a boat inspector, a lake custodian, 28 full-time park custodians, and 25 part-time custodians. Four custodians under this division supervised the fish hatcheries and nurseries. The head of the Department of Forestry at Iowa State College was designated as the State Forester for the Commission (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 1, 14, 17-18]; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: (3, 1) 2-3]; IOWA CONSERVATIONISTS 1941-43 [1941: (1, 1) 4]).

During this period at the national level, Roosevelt reorganized the National Park Service and expanded its responsibilities to national monuments and memorials as well as military parks and national capital parks. By 1933, its diverse holdings included 67 areas to which the president added 77 historic areas, one recreational area, and other federal buildings in Washington (Wirth 1980: 117). At the state level, 42 states owned 797 parks by 1933, and 37 added 350 additional parks by 1937 (U.S. National Park Service 1937: 13). With such rapid growth, the criteria for the formation of parks became quickly clarified. National parks and often state parks (Tilden 1962: 11-13) were to preserve an area of unusual scenery or an outstanding scientific or historic feature. But (Story 1934: 2-3):

> The major function is the promotion of the well-being of Americans through the health-giving qualities of inspiration, relaxation, and recreation in pure,

unspoiled air, in natural surroundings of inspiring grandeur.

The two-fold purpose of parks: to ensure the preservation of examples of the nation's natural environment and provide areas for relaxation and recreation away from the growing strains of modern life, remained. Increasing emphasis was placed on the inspirational qualities of parks. Away from the urban center, they "refreshed the mind and spirit" (Tilden 1962: 9). The public works programs of the Roosevelt era enabled the development of a state and national park program across the nation.

RECREATION

The provision of appropriate public recreation had become an acknowledged government responsibility belonging to the National Park Service by 1936 when it initiated the Park, Parkway, and Recreational Area Study. The study provided the foundation for recreational land planning at the local, state, and federal levels (U.S. National Park Service 1941: v; Owen 1983: 120). With increasing mechanization of work through the 1920s, Americans gained a greater amount of leisure time. But with this asset came new problems. By speeding up production, the circumstances which shorten work time intensified the strain of work and created a greater need for relief through recreation. And, stated the 1930s philosophy, man had also substituted surroundings of his own making for the natural environment, particularly by the creation of cities but also in rural areas through the creation of farms. The rising mobility achieved in the 1920s through the increasing use of the automobile broadened the recreation opportunities making park recreation truly accessible to the general public for the first time (U.S. National Park Service 1941: v, 9).

The 1930s found the answer to their leisure-time needs in outdoor recreation, particularly in parks and other recreational areas. From this perspective, recreation then became "...the pleasurable and constructive use of leisure time"; "...the refreshment of body or mind after toil; diversion; amusement" (U.S. National Park Service 1941: 1, vii). Thus, the goal in recreation became the refreshment of mind, body, and spirit in a natural setting. These goals were accomplished by the National Park Service by safeguarding inspirational qualities of the nation's natural environment whether they be natural scenery or scientific, historical or prehistorical values. Under these circumstances, the

provision of physical recreation became permissible only when they did not impair the environment. Therefore, (U.S. National Park Service 1941: v, 9):

> ...Man's loss of intimate contact with nature has had a debilitating effect on him [the citizen]...which can be alleviated only by making it possible for him to escape at frequent intervals from his urban habitat to open country, and that furthermore, in order for him to obtain the maximum satisfaction out of his renewed association with nature, he must again learn how to enjoy himself in the out-of-doors by reacquiring the environmental knowledge and skills he has lost during his exile from his natural environment.

As noted, this escapist philosophy emerged during the late nineteenth century but was not then connected to recreation in parks (Wirth 1980: 3). During the 1930s, the provision of recreation always remained secondary to the retention of natural surroundings whose enjoyment in itself provided recreation (U.S. National Park Service 1937: 12). Since man had been so long removed from it, the public had also to be re-educated about its natural environment to appreciate it (Owen 1983: 89).

A similar view of recreation was also espoused by leaders of the conservation movement in Iowa. Such a perspective motivated the twenty-five year conservation study in 1931-1933. The growing need stimulated a second study in 1937 which investigated how Iowans utilized their leisure time and inquired into their recreational preferences (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1937: (2, 3) 7-8]). The IOWA CONSERVATIONIST explained that man's longing for unspoiled nature was "deep and unforgettable." Such surroundings could only be provided by large tracts of land which only the state government could provide (1941-42 [1941: (1, 2) 7]). Hence, concerns for the appropriate recreational outlets which were voiced by the National Park Service also fueled the development of the state's recreation planning as early as 1933 and guided park development executed by federally funded programs.

The need to preserve the natural and historical values of the park limited the kinds of recreation appropriate to parks. Because of the wide range of interests served by state parks, more accommodation to recreational use was tolerated than in reserves. The kinds of activities desired by the 1930s visitor which benefitted from their occurrence in a natural setting included

sightseeing; picnicking; water sports such as swimming and associated beach activities, canoeing, rowing, and fishing; music and drama in outdoor facilities; campfire programs with or without festivals; viewing of historical and archaeological sites; and camping. Recreation which appeared to be gaining popularity by the late 1930s included arts and craft; nature study; winter sports such as skating, skiing, snowshoeing, sleighing, and tobogganing; and sports which placed the visitor in intimate contact with nature: hiking, climbing, backpacking, and primitive camping. The most popular type of camping occurred in developed camping areas, rather than along the trail. Facilities accommodated family camping, informal group camps, and organized camping by groups participating in educational programs. Such camping occurred in cabins more than tents or trailers (U.S. National Park Service 1941: 14-18).

In Iowa, the visiting public expressed a greater interest in active recreation, i.e. sports, than those activities relating to observation and education. Rated most highly in the early 1930s were picnicking, swimming, boating, hiking, fishing, camping, vacationing in lodges, and winter sports. Those parks possessing facilities for water recreation attracted the most visitors (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: (3, 1) 19]). Recognition of this popularity by the twenty-five year conservation study led to the rapid development of water recreation facilities such as bathing beaches, bathhouses, boathouses, camping areas, skating areas in northern Iowa, and ten artificial lakes with associated facilities in southern Iowa which lacked such natural features. In association with lake facilities and lodges, the Conservation Commission rented concession space for boating, bath supplies, tobogganing and other winter sport equipment, refreshments, and more formal dining. Although cabin camping proved highly popular following their installation in 1937, tent camping received a lower level of participation. Group camping facilities with cabins, meeting halls, dining halls, and associated maintenance buildings remained in continual demand. Winter sports, especially skating, skiing, coasting, and tobogganing, gained popularity in the mid-1930s. While enrolles funded by the WPA in cooperation with the Conservation Commission gave nature tours in several parks by 1937, nature study and related recreation failed to attract much interest in this era (Crane 1933: 111, 114, 124; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 123; 1938: 108-110, 135; 1940: 154-57, 184, 190-91; 1942: 16, 104]).

During the 1930s and early 1940s, the Iowa State Conservation

Commission discovered a significant rise in park visitation indicating the growing need for park development. Attendance grew in direct proportion to the number of new parks acquired since visitors often came from within a 50 mile radius of the park (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 104]). Despite the rapid park development during the 1930s, the Commission found that facilities were still being taxed by high visitation in the early 1940s. The rise in attendance did not reach a plateau until 1942. Park visitation jumped 1.39% between 1933 and 1942 (Table 2) (1935-42 [1942: 108, 111]). Fluctuations between 1935-1937 resulted from a recession in the economy in that period. The rapid decline in visitation in the early 1940s reflected the nation's preoccupation with World War II.

Table 2: Park Visitation (1)

Fiscal Year	Number of Visitors	Percent Increase
1928	1,542,557	0
1929	1,644,007	7
1930	1,804,251	10
1934	2,065,639	14
1935	2,285,407	11
1936-37	2,457,423	8
1937-38	2,672,209	9
1938-39	3,051,786	14
1939-40	3,331,348	9
1940-41	3,617,924	9
1941-42	3,686,481	2

(1) Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936, 1938, 1940, 1942]; Iowa State Board of Conservation 1931: 30).

PARK DESIGN: RUSTIC ARCHITECTURE

Rustic architecture guided the design of park buildings, structures, objects, and landscaping from 1916 through the CCC era in the 1930s to the early 1940s. Rustic architecture was a national level movement which provided guidelines for the construction of park facilities in national and state parks. While the designs of rustic architecture were regionalized, the

principles which guided its creation remained the same nation-wide. The following section discusses the national movement whose design principles were closely followed in Iowa. Its modifications for the prairie region are also noted.

Although the National Park Service did not create rustic architecture, the National Park Service did expand the concepts of rustic architecture as it erected park buildings and structures in and adjacent to the National Parks. The same concepts were later utilized during the development of state parks by federally funded work projects from 1933 to 1942. The principles of rustic architecture meshed with those upon which the New Deal work relief programs were based. Both were deeply rooted in a naturalistic philosophy and required intensive labor. The large work crews required to provide materials, complete the stone work, and process and set the timbers as well as the amount and level of expertise required to supervise construction was financially possible on the broad scale of the 1930s only through such work programs (Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984).

Prior to the establishment of the National Park Service in the Department of Interior in 1916, the national parks had been under the haphazard supervision of the Department of the Army. Buildings erected between 1886 and 1916 such as those at Yellowstone generally were make-shift ones in which concessionaires provided services or the temporary buildings of the army. Railroad companies contributed the first major development associated with the national parks in the 1890s and during the first decade of the twentieth century. Providing transportation and accommodations, the railroad erected elaborate hotels following the prevalent Neoclassical style. They were designed without concern for their natural setting.

Between 1900 and 1910 as the railroads searched for an appropriate style to serve their guests, landscape architects began to exert an influence upon building design. In an essentially reactionary manner, they drew inspiration from the works of A.J. Downing who had designed picturesque landscapes and dwellings in the middle of the preceding century and from Frederick Law Olmstead who also reinforced the tie between architecture and the landscape. Both their designs called for natural materials native to the surrounding environment. The building form was apart of the overall building site so that landscaping formed an integral part of the whole. California architects of the 1900 to 1910 period reached for innovative ways to utilize natural materials in their

designs. Every element of their construction including the massing and detailing attempted to harmonize the building with its surrounding. Ornament for its own sake was avoided. They heavily employed textural richness based upon the juxtaposition of materials and shapes. The buildings primarily associated with the western national parks thus combined a romantic and naturalistic philosophy. In their attempt to blend the buildings with their natural setting, they also varied the design by region. But it was also an experimental era in park architecture which tried many forms from southwestern pueblos to the Swiss style in the Rocky Mountains. These concepts and some of the forms heavily influenced later park architecture. However, it was not until the formation of the National Park Services and its acquisition of a budget that the concepts of rustic architecture were refined and received broader use (Tweed 1977: 3-16).

The National Park Service began to formulate its own architectural guidelines in 1918. It retained the notions dictating harmony of man-made improvements with the natural landscape. Director Stephen Mather required the consultation of numerous professions including landscape architects and engineers as well as architects to create a master plan for each park project. Rustic architecture matured quickly in national parks during the early 1920s and climaxed in 1925 with construction of Ahwahnee, a five story, irregular stone hotel against the mountains in Yosemite Park. It was a structurally modern building with a veneer of stone and logs to retain its romantic aspect. Its tall massing was specifically adopted to the mountainous region. As funding was improved through the later half of the 1920s, the National Park Service elaborated but did not alter its vision of rustic architecture. The funding level and expanded building program continued from its high point in 1927 through the Hoover Administration under the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932. The National Park Service followed a six year development program which began in 1931. Each plan for landscaping and building was tailored to the park's region and each park's specific physical features (Tweed 1977: 23-26. 44-48, 74). Thus, the style had reached maturity before the commencement of CCC park development of the 1930s and early 1940s.

Rustic architecture of the 1930s continued to express the design principles set in the preceding decades. Man-made resources were to be non-intrusive producing built forms which were inconspicuous and harmonious with their natural surroundings. To achieve this quality, the impact of building construction upon the environment was minimized (Ahlgren 1987: 28; 1988; Tweed 1977: 63, 77). Design

simplicity and the use of native materials became correlates of this principle. Simplicity of design was also more suited to the limited skills of the available work force, the CCC, Works Progress Administration (WPA), and other federal program enrolles (U.S. Federal Works Agency 1946: 52). Because each region was characterized by different environmental factors, design had to be specific to the region if not the park. Buildings which served the same function appeared in different forms to suit forest, mountain parks, open expanses of prairie, rolling woodlands, and meadows (Good 1938: 1-3; Ahlgren 1987: 30; Tweed 1977: 55).

Rustic architecture possessed historical allusions through the use of the locale's pioneer building techniques and materials. The buildings and structures in each park were to represent or allude to a unified historical theme. The style thus retained some ties to the romantic movement from which it emerged. It also represented a reaction to the growing urbanism as did the establishment of parks themselves. Visitors escaped from the cities into nature and the past (Tweed 1977: i, 94, 104; Ahlgren 1977: 28-29).

> This theme of regional cultural context as part of non-intrusive architecture would grow to include not only cabins, but also Indian pueblos, Spanish colonial adobes, and New England colonial frame structures (Tweed 1977: 35).

Each building or group of buildings required an individual design to express the appropriate historical allusions and blend with the surrounding landscape. But contrasting with the outlook of settlers, the philosophy guiding the design of rustic architecture respected nature. Its construction was not to overly scar the landscape. Thus, the prevailing philosophy stated that rustic architecture (Good 1938: (1) 5):

> through the avoidance of severely straight lines and oversophistocation, gives the feeling of having been executed by pioneer craftsmen with limited hand tools. It thus achieves sympathy with natural surroundings and with the past. The scale of structural elements must be reduced proportionately as ruggedness and scale of the surroundings diminish.

Finally, all landscape and architectural design was to be guided by a master plan. The designer then assessed the park's physical

setting and its scientific, historical, and archaeological values including its wildlife capacities and recreational possibilities during the planning stage. Developed by the National Park Service during the 1920s, this approach allowed unity of design ensuring that the buildings, structures, and the landscape reflected similar themes and that the man-made environment blended as much as possible into that landscape. Each built element contributed to the whole plan. It was also to be flexible so that modifications might be introduced later (Ahlgren 1987: 9, 22, 27, 80). The master plan (U.S. National Park Service 1941: 47):

> ...simply represents an attempt to determine how the prospective use of an area shall be provided for most effectively at the same time safeguarding natural or historic features and making possible operation, maintenance and protection at the minimum of year-after-year cost.

The master plan described building form, materials, and the arrangement as well as the system of roads, trails, steps, benches, and other landscaping features in proper relation to the natural landscape such as the wooded and open areas, the rock formations, and the vegetation. Such planning reduced the clutter of minor buildings by combining functions but not producing overly large buildings (Ahlgren 1986: 186; Tweed 1977: 22). For example, a loose, uncrowded group of heavily used public buildings were placed in a service area rather than scattered across the park thereby reducing its impact on the environment. The utility area containing maintenance buildings occurred near to but was screened from the service area. Recreational areas receiving heavy use such as cabin, camping, bathing or picnicking areas wee also placed in well-defined areas in their appropriate setting. Development for more extensively defined recreation such as hiking trails, trail shelters, and riding trails was to remain sensitive to the landscape. To fulfill its role, the park facilities were to provide an inconspicuous access to landscape features valued for visitor use (Good 1938: (1) 8; U.S. National Park Service 1941: 45-47; Story 1934: 6-7).

From these interrelated principles: the demand for harmony of the built environment with the landscape, unity of historical theme, and the use of master planning to achieve these goals, derived numerous guidelines for park development. Those principles of rustic architecture relevant to park construction in Iowa include the following guidelines. The impact of construction was minimized

by hand labor, and heavy equipment was avoided. The blending of man-made resources with the landscape was also achieved through the use of native materials such as native stone and timber. Their refinement by hand left natural imperfections such as rough edges and knots in wood. But, logs were stripped of their bark to aid preservation. Buildings and structures were proportionately scale to their environment. Rough stone was often used as a veneer to conceal modern building materials. Low, horizontal lines in prairie areas tied the building to the environment as did coloring with grays and warm browns, placing native plantings near the foundation, the use of vegetation as a screen, and the construction of battered or buttressed walls and use of rough stone foundations to ease the transition from the surroundings upward. Severely straight lines were avoided in favor of irregular, "wavering, free-hand lines" (Good 1938: (1) 8). Materials were placed in their natural position. The size of stone decreased from base to top to ensure a stable appearance but regularity of shape was avoided. Stone were laid paralleling their bedding planes. Relatively large timbers often composed exposed roof elements covered with heavy shakes because they were to be heavy and durable to harmonize with the nature of the walls (Ahlgren 1987: 5, 56; 1988; Tweed 1977: 30, 35, 54, 71, 93-94).

One stylistic theme for buildings throughout the park presented a less obtrusive presence and achieved unity of design. One theme required the use of fewer construction methods and a smaller variety of materials (Good 1938: (1) 8). Simplicity of design with limited, simple ornamentation allowed each building to harmonize with its surroundings (Ahlgren 1988: 202-03). Any visible decorative detailing often followed the American Craftsman style (1900-1930), first introduced by Gustave Strickley. Often found on Bungalows in the Midwest, such buildings vaguely paralleled the principles of rustic architecture. Utilizing rectilinear, yet bold motifs, the style was simple in detailing, used brick, stone or stucco, had broad, low gables, low massing, and large dormers. Decorative details included exposed rafters and purlins, knee braces, king posts, collar beams, tie beams, additional elaboration in the peak of the roof, brackets, the relatively wide overhang, a dominating dormer, and enclosed porches (Gottfried and Jennings 1985: 140, 186, 222-23). Simplicity of style also permitted construction by large crews of unskilled labor. As the U.S. Federal Works Agency observed, the Works Progress Administration (WPA) like the Civilian Conservation Corps and other work relief agencies erected buildings which (1946: 52):

architecture altered after 1935. Between 1925 and 1935, the National Park Service had rapidly expanded its professional staff to keep pace with rising funding and the demand for park development. In this period, it attempted to follow the guidelines set forth by the National Park Service since 1917. After the reduction of the federally funded work programs in 1935 and the continued rising demand for park development with expanding visitation, the National Park Service failed to keep abreast of demand and slowly modified its architectural principles. The large pool of labor required for hand work and the skilled supervisors slowly disappeared.

Great diversity in design and uneven quality characterized park development after 1935. Influences from the International Style which emphasized honesty of design as well as simplicity exerted varying influence. The style rejected the romantic ideals evident in rustic architecture. It condoned the use of new materials throughout rather than the use of native materials alone or as a veneer. There was an increasing emphasis on simplification, efficiency, and functionalism and fewer concessions to the park setting evident in the designs. The National Park Service also tended to adapt prepared designs to new plans especially for the less public-oriented buildings. Thus, park-specific designs became fewer in number. Frame buildings with rustic sidings and stone veneer foundations wee a common result. By 1940, rustic architecture had become outdated. It was viewed as an affectation, as a fictitious rendering of pioneer architecture and therefore dishonest. In its stead, advocates reinterpreted the meaning of non-intrusive design. During this move toward realism and away from romanticism, harmony with nature was best achieved through modest, functional design (Tweed 1977: 95-104).

Rustic architecture was adapted to specific historical situations. The implementation of its principles required park development on a limited scale. A design which required a high level of professional input and large amounts of both skilled and unskilled intensive labor could not be achieved under the intensive state and national park expansion after 1935 (Tweed 1977: 105). As other design philosophies were emerging in the early 1940s, park development came to a rapid halt with American involvement in World War II.

THE DEPRESSION AND THE ORIGINS OF RELIEF

Although there appears to be a rather diverse opinion upon the causes of the Great Depression, several main factors primarily growing from an inability to demobilize the nation from the war effort are identified. An understanding of those causes assists comprehension of the nation's reaction to depression.

Agricultural depression began soon after World War I. Production remained at high levels while price supports were removed and demand declined quickly, especially as European nations rebuilt their agricultural economy. But the cost of manufactured goods held steady and well above those received by farmers. Iowa farmers had purchased considerable land on credit as prices rose during World War I. As they fell precipitously by 1920, farmers were unable to repay their loans and faced bankruptcy. The nation remained in an agricultural depression from 1920 onward. The farm block pushed for government intervention in laws governing land taxation and for assistance in resource development with little success (McElvaine 1984: 17-21; Grieshop 1989a:9-10; Ermentrout 1982: 2). And, without income, their agricultural lands which had already suffered from overproduction lay wasted. Since farmers composed one-quarter of the population by 1930, they represented a significant segment of the population unable to consume at levels necessary to support American producers (Ermentrout 1982: 1; McElvaine 1984: 35-37).

The structure of American business and industry also contributed to depression. Unprecedented prosperity continued in industrial production with some important exceptions. Those industries which had greatly expanded during the war failed to adjust their production downward and began to suffer as early as 1922. The rapid technological progress of this era also added to the ability of all industries to overproduce (U.S. Federal Emergency Administration 1934: 70-71; Ermentrout 1982: 21).

From the perspective of the employee, those workers who were consistently employed benefitted from this industrial prosperity with higher salaries. But, increasingly, laborers lacked steady work and neither the industrialists or the national government displayed public responsibility for their welfare (McElvaine 1984: 13-14, 17, 21).

After the war, European nations became debtors to American financiers. By 1928, investments became more attractive in America

rather than Europe, and financiers withdrew their support abroad. Both Americans and Europeans sought to protect their economy through high tariffs. As a consequence, Europeans lacked the capital to repay loans, and Americans lost a market in which to sell their products (McElvaine 1984: 10-11, 54-55; Ermentrout 1982: 1; Merrill 1981: 1).

The American economy also suffered from an extremely unbalanced distribution of wealth. Corporations not individual proprietors owned two-thirds of the industrial wealth of the nation. About 71% of Americans families earned incomes below $2500, while 24,000 families acquired an income greater than $100,000 in 1929. Large profit margins of a few derived from rising productivity opposed the modestly increasing income of a small percentage of the worker force and rising unemployment. The economy grew dependent upon the wide use of credit and the purchase of luxury goods by the wealthy. As this group lost confidence in the economy, their spending declined. As credit became saturated and as foreign markets disappeared, an already fragile economy collapsed (McElvaine 1984: 37-41; Merrill 1981: 2).

The three and a half years following the October, 1929 crash witnessed prices fall, savings disappear, bankruptcies increase, purchasing drop, debts rise, factories sharply decrease production or close, employers lay-off workers and cut wages, real estate values fall, tax revenues decrease, creditors foreclose farms and homes, and banks close. All levels of government cut spending. Between 1929 and 1930 and 1931 and 1932, investments fell 35%. By 1933, they almost ceased. The three million unemployed in 1929 became 14 million by March, 1933, and many held insecure jobs. One-quarter of the young and inexperienced men between 15 and 24, those hardest hit by the depression, were unemployed. Those who were often held part-time jobs. Seven million were homeless. In Iowa in 1933, eight in every hundred farms sold in a foreclosure sale (Ermentrout 1982: 1; Merrill 1981: 2; Holland and Hill 1974 [1942]: 8; Grieshop 1989a: 10; McElvaine 1984: 73-74).

In the past, the federal government had contributed little to recovery from depression which normally lasted several years. By 1932 when one in four lacked employment, this method was clearly not appropriate (Salmond 1967: 3-4; Cohen 1980: 2). The past experience of Americans no longer worked. Many unemployed wandered aimlessly looking for a job and future both of which seemed hopeless. The mood was one of disillusionment, pessimism, and apathy. By the end of 1932, the country was ready to accept new

solutions from the government (Salmond 1967: 4; Leuchtenbery 1963: 26).

Through the 1920s, relief was commonly administered at the local level. Individuals received local assistance when they became incapable of personal support (Johnson 1941: 148). This view of welfare continued into the early 1930s. The bread lines of the 1930s were run by private, local organizations (Holland and Hill 1974 [1942]: 8). Favoring the more traditional means of relief through private enterprise, private organizations, and local communities, Hoover opposed federal relief even though local agencies lacked the resources to provide support (McElvaine 1984: 80). Hoover did initiate some moves toward federal participation in the economy, but he aimed his programs at private industry in the form of price and output controls.

Work relief programs at the state and federal levels were also not a novel idea. In 1912, William James envisioned an army of young men engaged by the government to correct the abuses of nature by an earlier generations. In 1915, George Maxwell proposed a National Construction Corps to build bridges and engage in reforestation and irrigation projects. By the summer of 1932, the federal government finally financed public relief programs such as public works projects at the state and local levels through the authorization of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. The states distributed these loans which were later redefined as appropriations. Hoover also appropriated monies to build roads and trails in national parks and construct other public works. But, he was unwilling to set aside sufficient funds to significantly impact unemployment. In cooperation with the National Forest Service, the states of Washington and California supported work camps for the unemployed in the forests. As governor of New York, Roosevelt created reforestation, conservation, and park development programs in the 1920s. Other states such as Virginia, Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Indiana participated in similar programs in this period (Paige 1985: 1-4; Salmond 1967: 4-5; Dubay 1968: 341; Potter 1973: 37-78). In January, 1933, the Iowa governor created the State Emergency Relief Committee to administer unemployment relief and negotiate with the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. The loans were allotted to counties on the basis of need (Iowa Secretary of State 1939-40: 370).

Thus, although the distribution of relief had traditionally belonged to the local community, even the family, public programs in both relief and conservation were not novel. Although

operating within the constraints of his tradition, Hoover did hesitantly seek a solution to the depression through federal intercession. Such an approach became more palatable as the nation sought new solutions by 1932 (U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 70-71).

THE NEW DEAL

NATIONALIZATION OF AMERICAN SOCIETY

The nationalization of the American society began haltingly in the first decades of the twentieth century during the Progressive Movement. This era initiated a stage in social adjustment of industrialization far different from the preceding two decades of the nineteenth century. The leaders of the Progressive Movement sought to locate the causes of the social imbalance and proposed new solutions. They viewed the social disorder of the last quarter of the nineteenth century not as a result of an economic confrontation between the wealthy and the poor but as a consequence of the complex ways in which the industrialization process had profoundly altered American culture (Hays 1957: 188-90). By the early 1900s, the national government became more than a passive agency which simply removed the hurdles to economic opportunity. Adjustment to industrialization and alterations in American culture required a restructuring of the government and eventually a restructuring of the social order. The roles of local government and family became de-emphasized in favor of the national government and interest groups. Between 1900 and 1914 through the ideals of bureaucratic management, the leaders of the Progressive Movement created a strong national government and made the executive branch the most important influence within it (Hays 1957: 48, 140-41, 150; Weibe 1967: 111, 131). This approach found social order not in fixed regulation but in an organizational scheme which acknowledged the growing complexity of social life and allowed interaction and adjustment. Emphasizing participation rather than the withdrawal of laissez-faire advocates, the emerging professional government strove to direct a "harmonious society of interacting groups, not isolated individuals" (Weibe 1967: 145-61, 293). The social structure was then redefined in terms of a series of flexible, voluntary organizations rather than local communities which had been slowly disintegrating since the Civil War. This flexible system of management allowed administrative specialist to form and revise the actual policies (Wiebe 1967: 160, 168-69, 180, 185, 190,

212). Although the Progressive Movement fell short of their attempt to reorder government prior to World War I, it developed a framework and established a pattern of reform. It was left to the "New Nationalism" of the New Deal to achieve much of the visible government reorganization (Leuchtenbery 1963: 34).

A conservative era reverting to the social individualism and island communities of the late nineteenth century submerged the ideals of the Progressive Era after 1914 until the early 1930s. As the nation searched for new solutions to the depression, Franklin Roosevelt put into operation the ideals of the earlier era. The president quickly instituted economic and social planning, centralized government authority, and expanded the powers of the executive branch. He spawned a multitude of commissions and agencies, both temporary and permanent, and fleshed out the laws passed by Congress to define the lines of authority. The federal government thus fulfilled many needs which were never or could not be then met at the state and local level as well as absorbing some which had. It had the size and authority to quickly rise to crisis situations such as the depression (Howard 1943: 651-52). The federal government thus gained many new responsibilities, among them social welfare. "...The development of relief and welfare programs by the State and Federal governments [was]...rapid and cataclysmic" (Johnson 1941: 148). The bureaucracy rapidly expanded from 241,000 to 583,000 positions within four years to fulfill its role entering many phases of life which society had previously defined as the responsibility of the individual and his community (Ahlgren 1987: 10; Schlesinger 1940: 1-4).

The government work relief programs were a child of this broad-reaching era (Otis 1933: 1). Whereas two years before such moves had been suspect, the nation, demoralized by the depression and tiring of society's inaction, sought change (U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 71-72):

> ...Attitudes of mind were developed which seemed favorable to Attitudes of mind were developed which seemed favorable to experimentation with new proposals. And...there was a realization that recovery implied a certain reconstruction of institutions in accordance with new ideas and purposes.

Essentially, the life of small, insular communities which had lingered on since the Progressive Era had broken down and required

replacement (Lacy 1976: 2). The dramatic changes instituted by the New Deal inspired a new faith in the government and optimism for the future. It was called the "Roosevelt Revolution" because he had brought together the ideals of the Progressive Era and many programs which had emerged during the previous 30 years and executed them on a nation-wide basis (Winslow 1976: 6; Schlesinger 1940: 3).

THE CREATION OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

In the CCC work program, Roosevelt joined two urgent needs: conservation of natural resources and employment for the inexperienced. The public was growing increasingly restive as depression deepened in 1933. The report of the Research Committee on Recent Social Trends expressed a distinct fear of increased social unrest and violence without some social remedies initiated by the federal government (Grieshop 1989a: 12). Roosevelt recognized that a public works program would occupy those most prone to such activity, the young unemployed men who lacked job experience. And, dramatic steps caught public attention. As part of the program, the government provided areas for recreation to provide leisure-time activities for a population experiencing low employment and declining working hours when employed (Grieshop 1989a: 12). Thus, conservation came to have multiple meanings. In addition to natural resources, it was soon extended to human resources, the conservation of individual dignity and worth which in addition to its humane aspect also guarded against social upheaval (Paige 1985: 7; Ermentrout 1982: 13; Grieshop 1989a: 12).

On March 21, 1933, Roosevelt outlined what became "An Act for the Relief of Unemployment through the Performance of Useful Public Work, and for Other Purposes" to put men back to work. It passed Congress on March 31. The entity which the act created was officially known as Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) until 1937 when it gained its popular name, the Civilian Conservation Corps. It included few statuary limitations thus leaving the definition of the program to the president. The act combined and put into action many ideas which had existed individually before 1933. Congress authorized the president through existing departments of government to create a public work program for unemployed American citizens. The unemployed were to execute projects on forest lands owned by the United States or the states which were suitable for timber production. Such project included prevention of forest fires, floods, and soil erosion, insect and disease control, the construction, repair, and maintenance of paths, trails, and fire

lanes in national parks and forests, and any other work on national and state lands as the president deemed necessary. Congress extended this work to county, municipal, and private lands. The act also directed the president to house, cloth, feed, and provide cash allowances, medical attention, and necessary transportation to enrolles. The president contracted with the states and utilized existing state administrative agencies to operate the work programs. Congress appropriated unencumbered funds from public works programs and authorized the act for two years (Wirth 1944: 15-16 [copy of the act]; Salmond 1967: 7-9).

Congress allowed the president wide latitude in executing the act through Executive Order 6106 which established enrolle eligibility, pay, the spheres of authority within the government departments, the lines of direct supervision, period of enrollment, and the number of camps (Ermentrout 1982: 6). The Civilian Conservation Corps was not to interfere with normal employment. The CCC sponsored work which would many times not have been done but added to the nation's wealth by conserving and repairing its resources. In its defense, Roosevelt also explained that it would be of moral and spiritual value to those involved by placing them in a new environment. It reduced "...the threat of enforced idleness which brings spiritual and moral stability" (Paige 1985: 8). The executive order stipulated that the CCC would be composed of unmarried men between the ages of 18 and 24 who were unemployed and associated with families on relief. The pay was set at $30 per month with a significant percentage going to the enrolle's family to ease the relief load upon the states (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 181]). Because enforced idleness threatened the stability of the nation, its organization was effected immediately upon the signing of the executive order on April 5, 1933. The enrollment goal of 250,000 youths was to be met by July. Cooperating government departments who operated the CCC included the Departments of War, Labor, Interior, and Agriculture. Its representatives formed an advisory council to the director of the ECW, Robert Flechner (Ermentrout 1982: 3-5; Otis 1986: 6-7; Dubay 1968: 341). The organization of CCC camps in Iowa began during May, 1933 (Grieshop 1989a: 1).

The Department of Labor published numerous pamphlets describing the purpose and benefits of the CCC to the general public. It explained that the agency strove to employ those who had never possessed the opportunity to work, that it presented "...an opportunity to work for 6 months' period at wholesome, healthful, outdoor work." By sending the young men out into nature to work,

the employment would rejuvenate their mind and spirit as well as their physical strength. Roosevelt like many Americans saw nature in an idyllic fashion. Nature offered a semi-magical renewal capable which would rebuilt mental and physical energies. The work would contribute to the welfare of the whole nation not only by completing necessary conservation work in forests and parks but by building men through a sense of accomplishment in important tasks (U.S. Department of Labor 1933: 1; 1935: 1; Holland and Hill 1972 [1942]: 10; Salmond 1967: 6-7). These incentives were advertised throughout the years of CCC program (U.S. Federal Security Administration 1941a; Owen 1983: 141).

Because the CCC represented a new combination of ideas to be activated at the national level of government, it did encounter some skepticism in Congress as well as with the representatives of public interest. However, because the nation was absorbed in the immediate ramifications of the depression, the bill did slip through Congress with limited opposition (Salmond 1967: 24). The areas receiving the greatest criticism included the use of the army to supervise and house the enrolles and the potential competition of the CCC with the normal work force. The first reflected a fear of conscription, excessive discipline, regimentation, and enforced labor despite voluntary enrollment in the CCC. The nation's labor leaders such as William Green, the president of the American Federation of Labor, feared wage reduction for the work force. He believed the program sanctioned poverty at a bare subsistence level for non-enrolles. It "...smacked of fascism, of Hitlerism, of a form of Sovietism" (Dubay 1968: 345). Opposition to the CCC also feared the results of a concentration of an undesirable element in forests removed from legal authorities. With active support from the president and the need for government to advance a plan of action combating depression, the act passed Congress by a fairly large margin. Roosevelt signed the bill on March 31. Criticism died by the summer of 1933, but it emerged with some frequency until 1935. The most common concerns related to the fear of military rule in the camps particularly with the example of Hitler's actions increasingly before them in addition to the concentration of an unknown entity in or near small American communities (Dubay 1968: 346-353).

The organization of a tremendous, widely scattered work force in a short period of time also provided challenges to the creation of the CCC. Both the nation and the states lacked an organized public works and natural resource program. Therefore, after quickly identifying worthwhile projects in the summer of 1933, the nation

and many of the states initiated research to compile necessary project plans. Having just completed its twenty-five year conservation plan, Iowa proved the exception and in comparison to other states received a relatively high share of the total number of CCC camps established across the nation during the first six month period (Crane 1933; U.S. Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works 1934: 33; Grieshop 1989a: 13).

FEDERAL LEGISLATION AFFECTING THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

On March 5, 1933, Congress was called into session to act upon emergency legislation. The following one hundred days of the Roosevelt administration produced a model for much of the legislation which followed and remained in effect during the 1930s. Later acts defined and supplemented this legislation, but they did not altered its substance (Schlesinger 1940: 1; Cohen 1980). In this legislation, Roosevelt attempted to effect recovery for a major portion of society including agriculture, industry, and banking as well as the unemployed and disadvantaged members of society (Otis 1986: 5-6). Because of the variations in the types of individuals who required relief and the causes which gave rise to their needs as well as fluctuations in the public attitude concerning how those needs should be met, the solution for welfare was complex.

Thus, in the early 1930s, the federal government began to create an elaborate series of programs to assist the different classes of people (Howard 1943: 25). The programs associated with the Works Progress Administration (WPA), the National Youth Administration (NYA), and programs directly funded by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration in addition to the CCC all sponsored relief work in Iowa state parks along with the CCC program.

The Federal Emergency Relief Act of 1933 produced for the first time a system of federal relief. Initially, federal monies were distributed among the states which supervised relief measures. Under this act, a series of agencies such as the Works Progress Administration (WPA) of 1935 were created to tackle the problem of unemployment assistance. Like the CCC, rather than making doles to the unemployed, the program's funds supported projects to employ those needing work. It lifted the morale and sustained the skills of many American workers who had lost their jobs because of the state of the economy rather than their negligence. The WPA financed light public works defined as socially useful projects

including the development of public parks. Government grants to state and local agencies provided part of the funding. Appropriations came from the Emergency Relief Appropriations Act of 1935 (Isakoff 1938: 19-22; Blum et al. 1963: 656-57; Owens 1983: 84; Howard 1973 [1943]: 29, 105).

Also created in 1935, the National Youth Administration (NYA) originally assisted youths complete their high school or college education. To assist their support, they were given part-time work often related to their area of interest. It also aided young men and women who had left school with full-time work. In comparison to the CCC, the NYA accepted a more diverse enrollment population including women, and it worked with a broader range of projects. Assisting young people mainly in their home community, the NYA sponsored few camps (Salmond 1967: 76).

The Emergency Relief Appropriations Act of 1935 extended and refunded the CCC until 1937. It expanded CCC enrollment to 6,000,000 and raised the age limit from 23 to 25. Peak enrollment occurred in September, 1935 at 505,782 after which the number declined gradually (Lacy 1976: 64-65; Ahlgren 1987: 12; Paige 1985: 21). As the economy slowly began its recovery by 1935, the CCC began to shift its focus from relief to training so that enrolles could better support themselves upon their departure. The CCC more closely supervised the development of education and vocational training at its camps (Wirth 1944; U.S. Civilian Conservation Corps 1933-41 [1936]; Cohen 1980: 132).

The CCC was funded as a separate agency in June, 1937. Under this act, its name was officially altered from Emergency Conservation Work to the Civilian Conservation Corps, already its popular name. Unlike the 1933 act, its provisions incorporated specific directives. Work projects continued to include conservation, development, maintenance, and protection of forest, soil, fish and wildlife, and water resources. Emphasis upon vocational training as opposed to relief work was reflected in the act which allotted up to ten hours per week for educational activities. It lowered the enrollment rate to 300,000 men between the ages of 17 and 23 and included an additional 10,000 Native Americans . Each enrolle was allotted a term between six months and two years (Wirth 1944: 17-20 [copy of the act]; Cohen 1980: 132). The CCC remained a temporary agency, now extended for a period of three years (Wirth 1944: 17-20 [copy of act]; Paige 1985: 21).

In 1939, the CCC as well as the NYA, the Social Security Board, the

Office of Education, the Public Health Service, and similar agencies were placed within the Federal Security Agency because they shared a similar purpose: administration of public welfare furthering economic and social security, educational opportunities, and health (Ahlgren 1987: 105; Johnson 1941: 150-51). As the nation focused on World War II by the 1940s and prosperity climbed with industrial mobilization for war, the CCC became less essential to the recovery of the economy. The program ended June 30, 1942.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE CCC: THE ROLE OF THE FEDERAL AGENCIES

The Office of the CCC Director

Executive Order 6101 of April 15 placed the immediate supervision of the CCC under a director and advisory council. Director from 1933 to 1939, Robert Fechner set CCC policies vetoed only by the president. James McEntee replaced Fechner and served until the discontinuation of the CCC. The director developed the broad policies presented by Roosevelt, determined the work to be accomplished, and located work projects. Composed of about 50 employees, the Office of the Director in Washington contained the divisions of Planning and Public Relations, Research and Statistics, Investigation, Safety, and Automotive and Priorities. These divisions served administrative functions for the CCC. For example, they edited reports upon CCC activities; prepared and distributed information on all CCC activities; coordinated the work of the Departments of Interior and Agriculture, the technical services which directed work projects; evaluated camp inspection reports; and conducted a safety program in each camp. Additionally, the technical services hired the field staff associated with the director's office, the special investigators and liaison officers, to examine problems in the camps and inspect the work projects to ascertain if the work conformed to legal standards. Since three of the government departments administered their tasks by region whose composition varied, these field officers played a vital role in coordinating their programs. The inspectors' reports to the director provided much of the data describing the progress of the construction in state parks.

Roosevelt employed previously existing agencies to operate the CCC. He notified the relevant departments on April 15 to attain their input prior to the presentation of the act before Congress. Composed of two representatives each from the Departments of Labor,

War, Interior, and Agriculture, the advisory council aired problems, deliberated solutions, and recommended policies to the director. For a brief period just prior to 1936, the council also included representatives from the Veterans Administration, Office of Indian Affairs, and Office of Education. This system of personnel allowed the coordination of the activities of the four departments overseeing the CCC. However, the mobilization and supervision of the large number of men across the country was not immediately perfected as the president attempted to supervise details such as camp location. He eventually deferred them to Fechner, and the departments gained more freedom in their decisions. As a consequence, the CCC completed fewer tasks in the first six months of operation (Paige 1985: 12; Wirth 1944: 20; Salmond 1967: 10, 38-39, 71-77; Helms 1980: 1; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1937: 4]; Ermentrout 1981: 11).

The Department of Labor: Selection

Roosevelt set the enrollment guidelines in his executive order. CCC enrolles were chosen from young, single unemployed American citizens between the ages of 18 and 25 who came from families on relief rolls. Such inexperienced individuals faced the greatest difficulty securing employment. Enrollment lasted for a six month period. After September 19, 1933 when the CCC had proven a success, enrolles eventually gained the opportunity to enroll for three more periods or a total of two years. Additional enrollment guidelines included good health and a willingness to work. In response to deepening depression caused by the drought of 1934-1935, the age limit for enrollment was extended including ages 17 to 28 in 1935. By 1937 as the economy improved, the CCC emphasized training rather than relief. Therefore, young men without families on the relief rolls were admitted. Because the enrollment quota had dropped from 1935, the CCC admitted those between 17 and 23, those in most need of employment training. By 1940, economic status no longer remained a criterion for enrollment. To gain from the training experience, the aptitude of the enrolle was matched to the type of camp to which he was sent (Salmond 1967: 13, 201; U.S. CCC, Office of Director 1933-41 [1935: 12, 1940: 15]; Paige 1985: 11; Otis 1986: 7, 73; U.S. Federal Security Agency 1940c).

While the U.S. Employment Service of the Department of Labor organized the selection process which first began April 5, 1933, it relied on existing local relief agencies, usually directors of

local welfare departments which were coordinated by a state director of selection, to perform the actual selection process. These approximately 5,000 agents were placed at 3,500 points of selection. They certified each applicant's eligibility for relief and made the initial selection of enrolles. Nominated by the governor, the State Emergency Relief Administration at Des Moines acted as the state selection agent. It was apart of the Department of Labor in Iowa. The Employment Service set each state's quota in proportion to its population (U.S. Department of Labor 1933; U.S. CCC, Office of Director 1933-41 [1935: 11-12; 1937: 13; 1938: 81; 1939: 9-12]; Potter 1973: 43-45; Ermentrout 1981: 10).

Although the junior enrolles, those in their late teens and early twenties, filled most of the enrollment quotas, Roosevelt quickly added several other categories by May 11, 1933. A limited number of locally employed men with skills in the areas in which the camp performed work were hired from local communities. They were unemployed men of any age. This scheme not only provided leadership and instructors, but maintained harmony with the local community. Labor groups, in particular, feared that the CCC would perform the work of older workers and family men thus increasing local unemployment. Enrollment was also opened to veterans of the Spanish-American War and World War I who were selected by the Veterans Administration and placed in camps separate from the junior enrolles. The Bureau of Indian Affairs supervised the selection and administered the work of Native American groups who usually lived at home and performed work which benefitted their own group (U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1933: 12]; Salmond 1967: 36, 41; Grieshop 1989b: 14; U.S. Department of Labor 1933: 3).

Roosevelt authorized the enrollment of 250,000 men in the CCC by July 1, 1933. Enrollment quotas usually referred to the junior enrolles. The initial mobilization of men was rapidly accomplished in 64 days between April 15 and June 7. By June 16, there were 240,000 enrolles and 1300 camps by July 1. The second period quota between October 1, 1933 and April 30, 1934 reached 350,000. As the drought and other natural disasters worsen in 1934 and 1935, the peak quota of the CCC occurred in August, 1935 at 500,000 men. As the immediate emergency ended, the quota dropped to 350,000 in 1936. The president authorized a total of 300,000 men between 1938 and 1941. Between 1933 and 1942, the CCC served over 3 million men. Table III illustrates the fluctuation in the number of men in the CCC during these years (Ermentrout 1981: 6, 33; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41; Salmond 1967: 10-13, 55-57, 170;

Paige 1985: 17; Grieshop 1989a: 15; U.S. Federal Security Agency 1941c). In 1939, the Office of Director of the CCC took over the selection role of the Department of Labor when it was placed in the Federal Security Agency (Helms 1980: 1).

Table 3
Iowa and Total CCC Enrollment by High and Lowest Month
Between 1933 and 1941 (1)

Fiscal Year	Iowa: Number Low	Iowa: Number High	United States Low	United States High
1932 (2)	440	5127	37,189	300,633
1934 (3)	3532	9272	37,189	298,114
1935	6371	8675	254,981	371,596
1936	no statistics given			
1937	4046	5710	270,260	339,797
1938	3399	4126	284,528	312,027
1939	2931	4376	250,319	305,169
1940	3670	2625	243,077	297,316
1941	1544	2885	198,080	282,829

(1) Data are taken from U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-35 and 1937-41. Because the reports occasionally failed to show some months, these figure should be viewed as approximate highs and lows.

(2) Fiscal Year 1933 includes only the first period from the end of April to September 30, 1933.

(3) The other fiscal years run from July of the previous year to the next June.

Department of the Army: Camp Supervision

After the Department of Labor completed the selection process, the army immediately transported enrolles to conditioning camps in 1933. There, they received a more thorough physical examination and the army clothed and conditioned them for two weeks at a military installation. After the first period, the army eliminated the conditioning camps and sent the enrolles to the CCC camps. At either location, they received a regimen of physical exercise and counseling prior to beginning the full program (Paige 1985: 75).

The army supervised all activities at the camps. It divided the nation into nine corps areas which were further subdivided into districts of one or more states to facilitate administration of the camps. Iowa was placed in Corps Area 7. At the camp, the army

provided meals, clothing, shelter, transportation, and equipment and supervised recreational, religious, health and welfare, and educational activities. However, the army was not responsible for the work projects (U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1933: 4, 25]; Helms 1980: 1; Ermentrout 1981: 10; Potter 1973: 40-42; Salmond 1967: 84).

Generally, the army maintained camps of 200 men. Although positions were not always filled and camp personnel varied somewhat according to the work project they performed, the composition of the camps remained relatively similar. The regular or reserve army provided camp leadership until 1939 when civilians replaced them. After 1939, the army only retained supervision of camp administration. A commander, often a captain or lieutenant, acted as the personnel administrator. The second officer in command directed the areas of finance, transportation, supplies, and welfare. A medical officer and chaplain served two or more camps and frequently received assistance from local professionals. The position of educational advisor was established late in 1933. He supervised both the academic and vocational training programs and social activities. Experienced enrolles known as rated men assisted the camp administration. Composing 5% of the recruits, the senior leaders served as senior foreman, mess steward, supply steward, and two first cooks. Another 8% to 10% of the camp enrolles, assistant leaders, became company clerks, second cooks, baker or driver or assistants to the educational advisor.

The National Park Service field staff employed the camp project superintendent, called the project supervisor by 1934, who supervised work projects on a daily basis, formulated the work schedules, devised instructions for the foremen, created the work groups, inspected the work, and coordinated the technical supervisors.

Under the camp superintendent, there were about eight to nine civilian technical assistants such as landscape architects, architects, foresters, historians, and civil engineers depending on the nature of the project and four facilitating, non-technical personnel who provided special skills such as a blacksmith or mechanic. The project superintendent and technical assistants held college degrees or were at least college students, whereas the non-technical foremen often had little education. In 1939, the National Park Service removed design work from the camp level placing it in the regional offices.

Each CCC company was divided into sections led by an assistant. That section performed the tasks associated with his expertise. Foremen who were local experienced men directly ran smaller subsections. They provided the technical knowledge necessary to accomplish the project and supervise the enrolles in work groups of six to twelve. National Forest Service companies were divided into two platoons of 95 and 96. Each platoon was again subdivided into three sections each of which was led by a foreman. These sections were again subdivided several times to form squads of 6 to 7 men (Paige 1985: 19, 27, 53, 66-69, 73; Merrill 1981: 15; Ermentrout 1981: 48, 77; Salmond 1967: 84-87, 179; Potter 1973: 56-57; Cohen 1980: 25; U.S. National Park Service, Project Superintendent 1933-47 [Box 71: 1935]; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-37 [1935: 196]).

In 1933, the CCC was viewed more as a relief than a training program. In November, 1933, the CCC began to develop an educational program. While the Office of Education of the Department of the Interior organized the program, it was administered by the each corps area's commander and educational advisor and sponsored at the camp level by the camp commander and by December, 1933 by the educational advisor. Training occurred informally during the work projects and formally during evening classes taught by camp personnel, particularly the technical staff, local teachers, and social workers at the camp or by local educational institutions. After the camps became well established, they included an educational building with library and a recreation center.

After 1935, training increasingly became an important aspect of the camp program. Experience with as many work fields as possible during the 8 to 4 work day composed a major portion of the training program. Here, the enrolle learned good work habits and acquired useful work skills. During leisure time, the technical and administrative staff trained enrolles for the tasks they were to accomplish at the work projects. They also provided training for specific jobs not encounter in the camp to raise employment potential. Such vocational training ranged from welding, sheet metal work, mechanics, and forestry to cooking and office work. After 1940, these courses also included national defense training and an emphasis on preparation for occupations in the defense industries.

By 1935, the evening academic and vocational training courses

became an important part of the educational program. Many of the enrolles had never completed school because it lacked practical value in a world without job possibilities. In 1937, 3% of the enrolles were illiterate, 38% had not graduated from elementary school, and 48% had never completed high school. The CCC frequently arranged courses with local educational institutions to rectify these deficiencies. These courses included basic elementary classes as well as more advanced courses at the high school and college levels. Training at the camp also aimed at personal development through organized activities. These activities, the work projects, and personal counseling attempted to create a sense of self-respect and responsibility toward others. The training programs ultimately aimed at the enrolle's self-support after leaving the CCC.

The technical services with army concurrence placed the 200-man camps as close to the work projects as possible. The National Park Service frequently located its camps on park lands although the army also later leased private lands for camp locations. Roosevelt briefly and then the CCC director approved all camp locations. To increase local employment in the building trades and devote the enrolles' work time to work projects, local labor rather than the enrolles constructed camp buildings. Many of the construction materials were also purchased locally. The army quickly regularized camp designs for three types: the tent and rigid camps and the portable camps introduced in 1934. By 1935, the portable camps had become the norm. Each camp usually contained 24 buildings (Paige 1985: 11, 70-71; Otis 1986: 71).

The army erected tent camps of primarily pyramidal tents prior to establishing more permanent buildings. The technical services established the small, temporary side camps accommodating about 20 men to support work projects in remote areas. The tents were placed on wood floors and wood framing. Although varying according to terrain, site plans contained consistent elements. The flag pole became the focal point of the site. Behind it lay the 14' by 28' administration tent building or office and the 8'10" by 9'2' officers' barracks placed in straight rows in front of the enrolles' tents which were also placed in closely spaced rows. The enrolles' tents were frequently 16' by 16' with floor boards, studs, clapboards to a height of 2.5', and rafters. Other buildings included the pit latrine, infirmary, shower and washroom, kitchen unit with service tent, mess unit tent; the 22' by 50' frame garage with an open front and single pitched roof; and a 20 by 30 frame shop with a double pitched roof.

The army introduced rigid camp construction by November, 1933. Designing them to last about 18 months, the army did viewed them as temporary buildings. To ready for the winter of 1933-1934, their construction became a massive undertaking utilizing 40,000 carpenters and 300 million board feet of lumber to construct 15,000 buildings at 1400 camps. The typical CCC permanent camp included eleven buildings: 4 barracks, a mess hall, recreation hall, infirmary, officers' quarters, truck garage, latrine and shower building, and an education building which contained a library, lecture hall, and writing and reading room. These buildings often measured a standard 14' by 20'.

The use of portable buildings began late in 1934. They were constructed in six foot sections which could be disassembled and reassembled at another location. Of stark design, they were rarely placed on foundations, had board and batten or clapboard siding, and roll roofing or shingles. The windows were the six pane, casement type. The portable camp buildings included four enrolle barracks (20' by 130'), mess hall and kitchen (20' by 160'), forestry agent's quarters (20' by 80'), officers quarters (20' by 40'), the administration building (20' by 30'), store house (20' by 40'), the welfare building (20' by 100'), dispensary (20' by 30'), education building (20' by 60'), lavatory and bathhouse (20' by 35'), and latrine (10' by 15') (Otis 1986: 8, 18, 71-80; Ermentrout 1981: 22; Potter 1973: 59).

At the closing of the camp, federal and local agencies and communities often acquired the camp buildings. Few camp buildings remain in the state parks. The site of the camp at Backbone which was located near its west entrance likely remains intact as an historical archaeological site as does the one at Lake Wapello. Five CCC buildings, the mess hall, hospital, recreation hall, pumphouse, and shop which have been modified to group camp buildings and a truck shed remain at Springbrook. The later were rigid camp buildings. These buildings were extensively remodeled on the interior to meet the needs of the group camp. The mess and recreation halls are one story, frame, ell-shaped buildings which may represent the combination of several original CCC buildings. The wings of the ell vary in length from 50 to 80 feet and are 20'4" in width. The infirmary is a rectangular building measuring 20'3" in size. All three buildings are covered with asbestos siding and gable roof. Most of the windows are 4 or 9 light hopper windows. The truck garage has received a substantial addition to the side, and the pumphouse also appears modified. Thus, these buildings are more significant as group camp than CCC camp

buildings (Iowa DNR 1917-89 [plans for CCC camp remodeling, n.d.]).

Departments of the Interior and Agriculture: The Work Projects

Introduction

The Departments of the Interior and Agriculture, known as the technical services, supervised the work projects. The Department of the Interior, primarily the National Park Service but also the General Land Office, Office of Indian Affairs, Bureau of Reclamation, Grazing Service, Fish and Wildlife Service, and the Office of Education and Territories, supervised CCC work. And, from the Department of Agriculture, while the National Forest Service became the focus of CCC work, the bureaus of Biological Survey, Agricultural Engineering, Agricultural Industry, and Entomology and the Soil Conservation Service which had been the Soil Erosion Service under the Department of the Interior until 1935 also contributed to CCC work (Wirth 1944: 21; Helms 1980: 1; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1933: 1-2]). Nation-wide, the National Forest Service directed 82% of all the work projects in 1933 while the National Park Service supervised 11%. In Iowa, the National Forest Service concentrated upon reforestation, timber management, and soil erosion. It also operated soil erosion as well as developed state, county and local parks projects. Both technical services were responsible for planning and executing the work projects, furnishing equipment, tools, and supplies, and providing transportation to the projects (Grieshop 1989b: 14; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1933: 7]; Ermentrout 1981: 11).

Although the technical services did not run the camps, each camp was associated with a work project operated by a division of one of the technical services which chose the location for the camp. The camp number was composed of a one or two letter prefix which referred to the type of project and technical service with which it was associated and a sequential number within each state. For example, S referred to State Forest camps and SCS to erosion camps of the Soil Conservation Service both under the National Forest Service, and SP to state park work under the National Park Service. Camps were also transferred from one service to another which necessitated a number change.

The distribution of the camps for the National Park Service and the

National Forest Service which operated work projects associated with the Iowa state parks is presented in Table 4 and the number of National Park Service camps and the total number for the nation appear in Table 5. The total number of state park camps nation-wide is presented accurately only through period 5. The peak in camp number in 1935 reflects a recession and rise in unemployment in that year. The number dropped quickly as Roosevelt attempted to balance the federal budget and limited the number of CCC enrolles with the goal of making it a permanent government agency. Figures indicate that a majority of the National Park Service camps were associated with state parks rather than the national parks. During the first period, Iowa contained a high percentage of state park camps in comparison with the average nation-wide. In period 1, thirty-one states had 102 state park camps giving an average of 6.6 camps for each state as opposed to the 16 in Iowa. But in period 5, 33 states had 475 state park camps giving an average number of 14 per state, the same number of state park camps which were in Iowa. Thus, it appears that Iowa's ability to plan projects may have given it an initial advantage in attaining state park camps. By the middle of 1940, the 697 CCC camps had added improvements to 881 state, county, and local parks in 47 states (Salmond 1967: 170; Otis 1986: 12; Paige 1985: 24; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1940: 44; U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [10/9/33: box 27]).

Table 4
Average Number of Iowa Camps Per Technical Service Unit, 1933-41 (1)

Service	Periods for 1933-35 (2) 1	2	3	4	5
Department of Agriculture:					
National Forests					1
State Forests					3
Drainage Levee					5
Erosion: Forest Service	14	9	11	10	
Soil Conservation Service				2	25
National Park Service:					
State Parks (3)	2	13	11	10	14
Army					1
Total Iowa Camps	16	22	22	22	49
Total Federal Camps	1468	1468	1468	1468	2916

Service	6	7	8	9	10	11
Department of Agriculture:						
State Forests	1	1	1	3	3	3
Biological Survey	1	0	1	0	0	0
Agricultural Engineering	5	5	5	5	0	5
Soil Conservation Service	21	21	21	19	17	17
National Park Service:						
State Parks (3)	9	8	8	8	5	6
Total Camps	37	36	36	35	30	31
Total Federal Camps	2427	2111	2096	1849	1604	1500

Service	12	13	14	15	16	17
Department of Agriculture:						
State Forests	3	3	3	3	3	2
Agricultural Engineering	4	4	0	0	0	0
Soil Conservation Service	17	17	21	20	20	15
National Park Service:						
State Parks (3)	6	6	5	5	5	3
Total Camps	30	30	29	28	28	20
Total Federal Camps	1500	1500	1500	1500	1500	1103

Service	18	19
Department of Agriculture:		
State Forests	1	Ø
Soil Conservation Service	13	1
National Forest Service:		
State Parks (3)	2	Ø
Total Camps	16	1
Total Federal Camps	6ØØ	369

(1) U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1935: appendix D, 1937: appendix C, 1938: appendix D, 1939: appendix H, 194Ø: appendix D, 1941: appendix D.

(2) For the time dates of each period, see Table 5.

(3) State park work lists only the state park camps and not the Department of Agriculture camps which worked in state parks.

Table 5
The National Distribution of Camps for the National Park Service
By CCC Period (1)

CCC Period	Duration of period	No. of NPS Camps	No. of State Park Camps (2)	Total No. of Camps
1	6/1/33-9/3Ø/33	172	1Ø2	1468
2	1Ø/1/33-3/31/34	3Ø4	239	1468
3	4/1/34-9/3Ø/34	428	263	164Ø
4	1Ø/1/34-3/31/35	429	283	1125
5	4/1/35-9/3Ø/35	561	475	2635
6	1Ø/1/35-3/31/36	489	---	2427
7	4/1/36-9/3Ø/36	43Ø	---	2111
8	1Ø/1/36-3/31/37	426	---	2Ø9Ø
9	4/1/37-9/3Ø/37	379	---	1849
1Ø	1Ø/1/37-3/31/38	32Ø	---	16Ø4
11	4/1/38-9/3Ø/38	3Ø5	---	15ØØ
12	1Ø/1/38-3/31/39	311	---	15ØØ
13	4/1/39-9/3Ø/39	311	---	15ØØ
14	1Ø/1/39-3/31/4Ø	31Ø	---	15ØØ
15	4/1/4Ø-9/3Ø/4Ø	31Ø	---	15ØØ
16	1Ø/1/4Ø-3/31/41	3Ø8	---	15ØØ
17	4/1/41-3/3Ø/41	223	---	11Ø3
18	1Ø/1/41-3/31/42	78	---	6ØØ
19	4/1/42-6/3Ø/42	39	---	369

(1) Wirth 1944: 14.
(2) Consistent data for the number of state park camps by period is given only through period 5 by U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1935: appendix D. U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1937: appendix C; 1938: appendix D; 1939: appendix H; 1940: appendix D; 1941: appendix D] presents this data only by fiscal years from July, 1936 to July, 1941: 1937: 337 camps, 1938: 245 camps, 1939: 227 camps; 1940: 201 camps, and 1941: 155 camps.

Table 6
Iowa State Park Development by CCC Camp (1)

Camp No.(2)	Period (3)	Park	Community	County	Service
PE53 (S99)	2	Walnut Woods	Commerce	Polk	NFS (1)*
S100	5-7	Springbrook	Guthrie Center	Guthrie	NFS*
S102	8-17	Lacey-Keosauqua	Keosauqua	Van Buren	NFS*
S104	15-19	Red Haw	Chariton	Lucus	NFS
(side camp?)	7-8	Lacey-keosauqua	Keosauqua	Van Buren	NFS*
PE62	1-3	Lake Keomah	Oskaloosa	Mahaska	NFS*
PE60	1-3	Ledges	Boone	Boone	NFS
PE71 (SCS20)	3-12	Honey Creek	Rathbun	Appaloosa	NFS
			(Centerville)	Appaloosa	NFS
	1-3	Pammel	Winterset	Madison	NFS
PE66	1-4	Ledges	Boone	Boone	NFS
DPE68 (SCS25)	2-7	Maquoketa	Maquoketa	Jackson	NFS
PE69	2-4	Pike Peak	McGregor	Clayton	NFS
DPE79 (SCS12)	5	Preparation	Moorehead	Monona	NFS
PE88 (SCS24)	2-3	Maquoketa	Maquoketa	Jackson	NFS
PE89 (SCS17)	1-6	Waubonsie	Sidney	Fremont	NFS
DSES1 (SCS1)	1-3	Waubonsie	Sidney	Fremont	NFS
			Shanandoah	Page	NFS
SCS7	6-?	Pine Lake	Eldora	Hardin	NFS
SP1 (DSP1)	2-6	Palisade	Mt. Vernon	Linn	NPS
SP2	1-17	Backbone	Dundee	Delaware	NPS*
		Bixby			
	12-18	Brush Creek			
SP3	2	Des Moines	Des Moines	Polk	NPS

SP4 (SP22)	3-11	Beed's Lake	Hampton	Franklin	NPS*
SP5	2	Dolliver	Council Bluffs	Pottawa-tomie	NPS*
	4-5	Lake Manawa	Milford	Dickenson	NPS
SP6 (DSP3)	3-5	Dolliver	Lehigh	Webster	NPS*
SP7	2-4, 11-17	Springbrook	Guthrie Center	Guthrie	NPS*
SP8	2-5	Black Hawk	Lake View	Sac	NPS*
	2-4, 12	Oak Grove	Lakeview	Sac	NPS*
SP9	1-5	Rush Lake Medium Lake Lost Lake Trappers Bay Lake Park Mini Wakan Fort Defiance Pillsbury Point Gull Point Four Mile Lake Okamanpedan Orleans Hatchery Wakan Pikes Point	Milford	Dickenson	NPS*
SP10	2-5	Pine Creek/Lake	Eldora	Hardin	NPS
SP11 (SCS27)	2-3,	Twin Springs	Decorah	Winne-shiek	NPS
	2-4	Siewer Springs			
	4	Echo Valley Palisades (West	Union)		
	10-12	Pikes Peak			
SP12	2	Lake Wapello	Bunch	Davis	NPS
	2-3	Lacey-Keosauqua	Keosauqua	Van Buren	NPS*
SP14	1-13	Lake Wapello	Drakesville	Davis	NPS
SP15	?	Oak Grove	Hawarden	Sioux	NPS
SP16	3	Pilot Knob	Forest City	Winnebago	NPS*
SP17	1-2	Palisades	Lamont	Delaware	NPS
	3-4	Backbone	Dundee	Delaware	NPS*
	2-5	Bixby			
SP18	3-9	Lake Ahquabi	Indianola	Warren	NPS*
	2	Lake Manawa	Council Bluffs	Pottawa-tomi	NPS
SP19 (PE60)	5-10	Lake McBride	Solon	Johnson	NPS
SP20 (PE62)	6-10	Lake Keomah	Oskaloosa	Mahaska	NPS*
SP21 (DSP2)	3-6	Lacey-Keosauqua	Keosauqua	Van Buren	NPS*
SP22 (DSP4)	3-10	Beed's Lake	Hampton	Franklin	NPS*

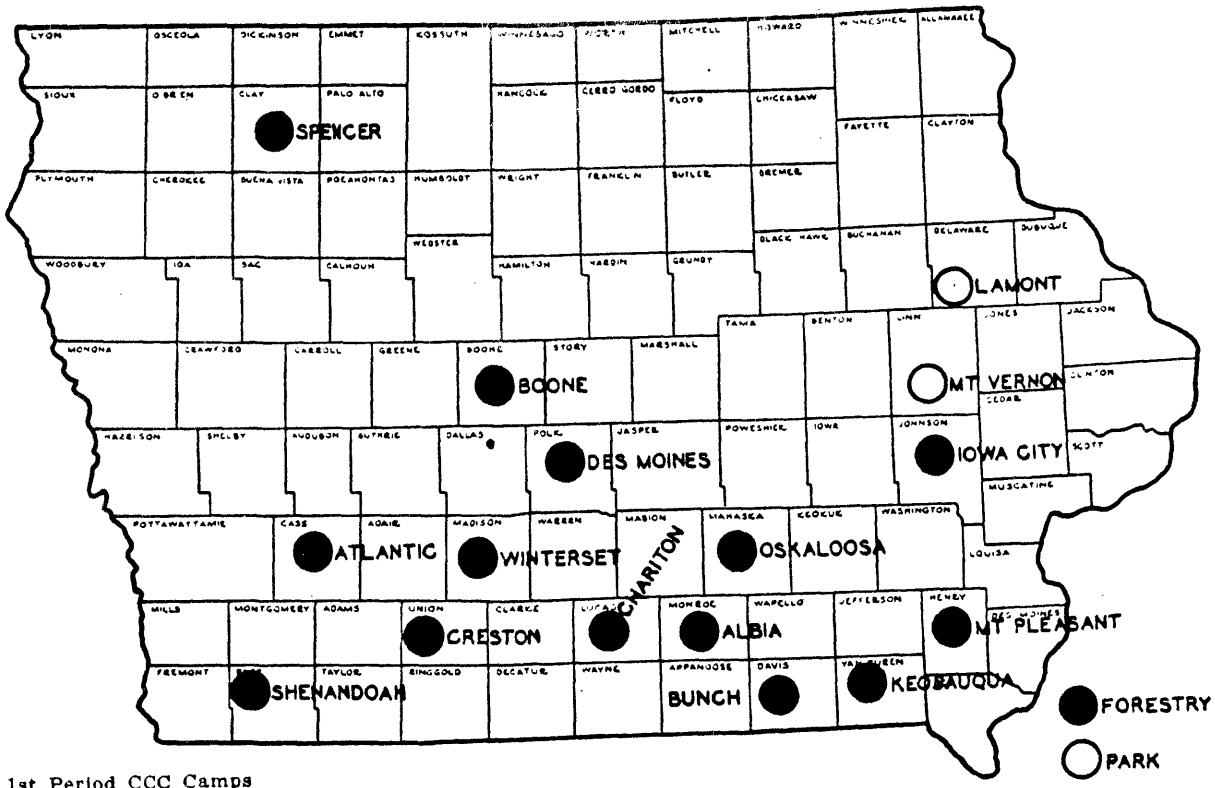
SP23	5-13	Stone	Sioux City	Woodbury Plymouth	NPS
SP24 (SCS28)	5-18	Lake of 3 Fires	Bedford	Taylor	NPS
SP26 (DSP5)	3-6	Ledges	Boone	Boone	NPS
SP27	12-16	Black Hawk	Lake View	Sac	NPS
SP28	13-18	Geode	New London	Henry	NPS*

(1) Compiled from Alleger and Alleger c. 1935; U.S. NPS, Project Supervisor 1933-47; U.S. CCC 1933-42. Research for those parks nominated to the National Register indicates that the general statistics published by the CCC, Office of the Director are not very accurate for dating purposes. Those * camps were checked and periods of work revised to indicate a more accurate date.

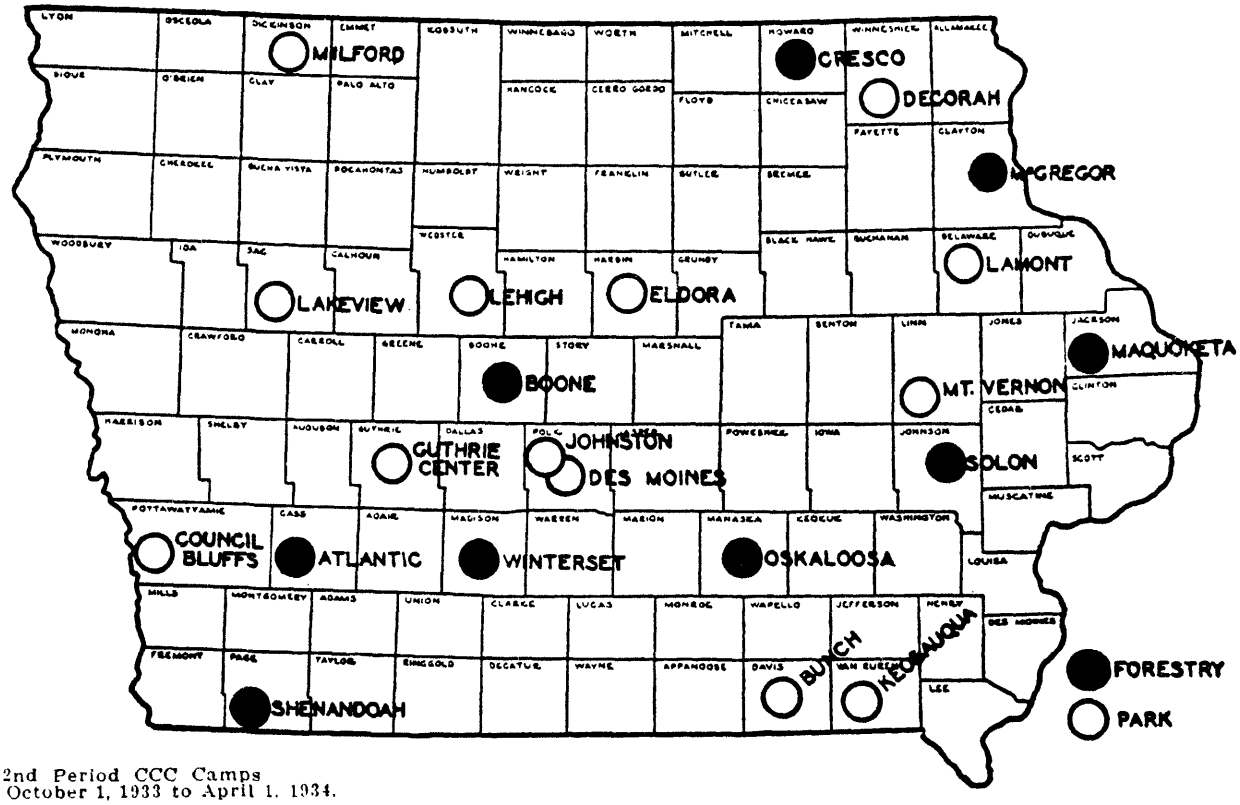
(2) The letter prefixes used in the camp numbers stand for the following services: PE: Private Erosion (National Forest Service), S: State Forest (National Forest Service), D: Drought Relief (National Forest Service and National Park Service), SES: Soil Erosion Service (National Park Service), SCS: Soil Conservation Service (National Forest Service), SP: state parks (National Park Service). The numbers in parentheses represent alternative designations assigned to the camp as the definition of their work altered or in the case of PE or SES numbers as the SCS came into existence during period 5.

(3) For National Forest Service camps and the National Park Service working at Bixby, periods represent the length of time the company was at a particular camp. It is not clear how long the company actually worked in the park during their stay.

Although Congress authorized the President to create the CCC at two to three year intervals, Roosevelt reaffirmed its existence for each six month period. The operation of the CCC by six month periods necessitated the submission of work proposals two months prior to the close of the period for the projects of the next period. Such planning and scheduling required the frequent moving of camps to new project locations so that a number of parks were developed by several camps (Table 6). Proposals for state park projects originated from the state office, for example the Iowa Conservation Commission, and went to the National Park Service or the National Forest Service for approval. The CCC required assurance of long term commitment to the project beyond the involvement of the CCC in construction (Potter 1973: 46-47; Wirth 1980: 105; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-37 [1935: 195]).

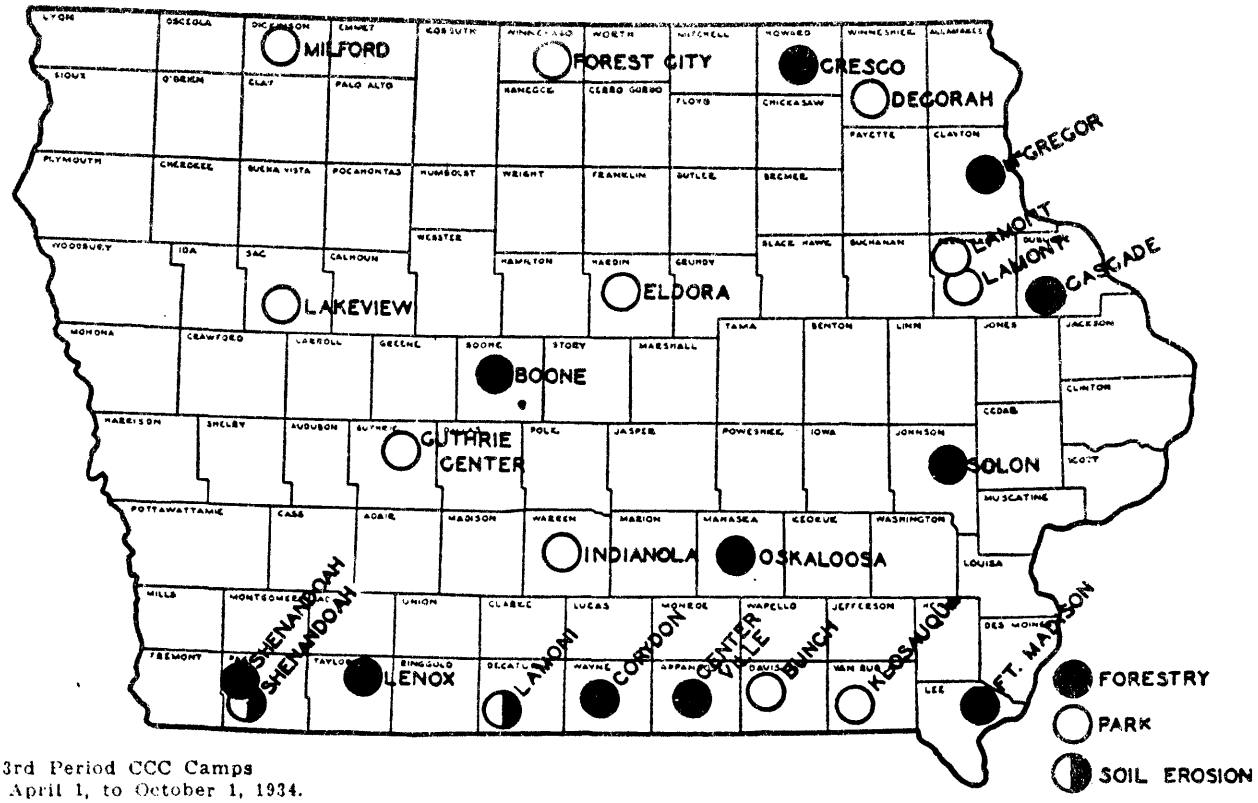


1st Period CCC Camps
April 1 to October 1, 1933.

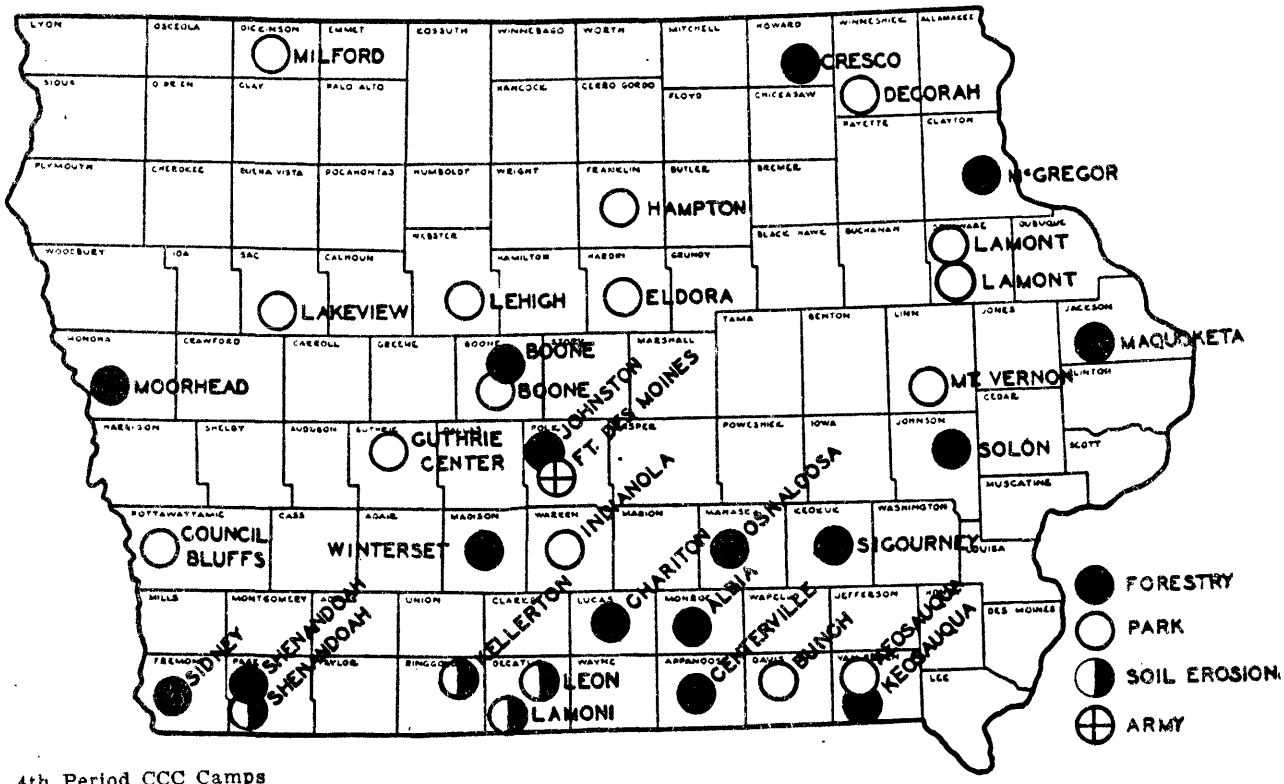


2nd Period CCC Camps
October 1, 1933 to April 1, 1934.

Map 2: The location of CCC camps and their affiliation with federal agencies for the years between 1933 and 1935 (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-1936 [1935: 197]).



3rd Period CCC Camps
April 1, to October 1, 1934.



4th Period CCC Camps
October 1, 1934 to April 1, 1935.

Map 2: continued

Work Projects Under the Direction of the National Park Service

The main emphasis of the National Forest Service and Soil Conservation Service CCC work projects was reforestation and related projects and soil conservation (Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984). Iowa proved to be the only state in the National Forest Service's administrative region 9, the North Central Region, without national forests. Much of the CCC work in Iowa occurred upon newly acquired state forests and private lands (Otis 1986: 5; Table 6). Project planning under National Forest Service direction followed the general procedure outlined above. The state office submitted the proposal which included project descriptions, plans and maps, and cost estimates to the Forest Service. The Forest Service sent its recommendations for approval to the director of the CCC based upon its survey of national forest needs. The director of the CCC made the final project selection (U.S. National Forest Service 1943a: box 908; Salmond 1967: 26).

Common National Forest Service work projects in region 9 included forest culture, the development of forest nursery operations such as those at Ames, forest protection, transportation improvement within forest areas, recreation, reforestation and timber stand improvement, fish and wildlife programs, and erosion and flood control (Otis 1986: 61). Reforestation required the expansion of nurseries to provide stock. Between 1933 and 1938, the CCC planted 1.3 billion acres of forest nationwide. Forest protection included fire fighting, construction of fire breaks, and prevention and protection from insects and disease. Accomplished over 3,100,000 acres by May, 1938, Forest improvement entailed the removal of dead, defective or worthless trees, thinning overcrowded stands, the survey of timber stands, and opening areas for livestock pasture. The development of game and bird refuges required the restocking of forest areas with game, stream improvement to develop fish hatcheries, the feeding of animals during extreme weather, and reforestation providing food and shelter. The Forest Service did perform many of these activities on state park lands.

Until 1935, soil erosion control was performed by both the National Forest Service and the National Park Service. Soil erosion and flood control projects under the National Forest Service included soil mapping, gully and terrace outlet construction, the erection of check dams, bank sloping, planting on gully banks, the construction of ditches and outlets, terracing, liming and fertilizing depleted soils, seeding or planting trees, and the operation of lime quarries to provide building materials. The CCC

practiced erosion control over 20,000,000 acres. Much farm land had been drained prior to the 1930s, and farmers depended on the operation of drainage ditches for continued use of the lands. During the early years of the depression, they became unable to maintain them. By 1935, CCC drainage camps (DSP camps) began their restoration.

Other bureaus also operated in Iowa. The U.S. Bureau of Biological Survey primarily pursued wildlife conservation programs. Although it did maintain one CCC camp in 1937 and received the cooperation of other CCC camps in other years, it most often supervised WPA and other state relief agencies. It also oversaw the biological laboratory project under state control. The Bureau of Agricultural Engineering ran a small number of Iowa drainage camps, and performed other tasks related to flood control. One of these camps also cooperated with the Bureau of Biological Survey at Lake West Okoboji to further wildlife conservation (Grieshop 1989a: 30-31; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 13-14]; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 185]).

By the 1930s, the nation's forests experienced a rising number of visitors. It was felt that forests should be developed for recreational activities non-harmful to the natural setting and made more accessible to motorists. Forests supported several types of recreational areas depending upon their natural setting. Most areas were capable of providing hiking, nature study, and camping. Improvements constructed by the Forest Service often along with other forestry work in state parks included trails, access roads, bridges, erosion control devices, administration buildings, museums, picnic and trailside shelters, dams for the creation of swimming and boating facilities, bathhouses, guest cabins, comfort stations, and water and sewage systems (U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1935: 40-41]; Otis 1986: 1, 10; Lacy 1976: 139-57, 165-66, 172-74; Kylie 1937: 279-81; Owen 1983: 129; U.S. Federal Security Administration 1941d; Grieshop 1989a: 30).

Work Projects Under the Direction of the National Park Service

Created within the National Park Service in 1932 as a continuation of the Landscape Engineering Division, the Branch of Planning and Design had prior to May, 1933 always maintained an informal relationship with the states in the development of their park systems. CCC development of state parks received federal approval on April 28. The regional offices gained the responsibility for

directing CCC work in the state and local parks to bring decision-making closer to the field. Its major functions included the supervision of architectural and landscape design, planning, development, construction, and the generation of master plans for parks. It worked with state park organizations where they existed and in many instances helped to organize them at the state level. It assisted the state in drafting legislation to provide the government organization for planning, developing, and maintaining state park programs. Supplementing the work of state offices, the branch designed literally thousands of rustic buildings and structures for parks scattered across the United States. The functions of the regional offices remained relatively stable (Paige 1985: 45-49). This branch also administered the Works Project Administration program begun in 1935, the recreational demonstration area programs for the development of submarginal lands as parks, and the Park, Parkway, and Recreational Area Studies in cooperation with state and local governments to further the planning of park development. During the 1930s, the branch underwent several name changes becoming the Branch of Planning and State Cooperation in 1935, the Branch of Recreational Planning and State Cooperation in 1936, the Branch of Recreation, Land Planning, and State Cooperation in 1938, the Branch of Recreation and Land Planning in 1941, and finally the Branch of Land Planning in 1942 (Hill 1966: 11, 13; Wirth 1980: 76, 88).

The director of the Branch of Planning and Design was also the assistant director of the National Park Service until 1938 when the title altered to Supervisor of Recreation and Land Planning. Conrad Wirth directed the branch during much of the depression era (Hill 1966: 11, 13). Wirth's responsibilities included the assignment of camps to state parks, the allocation of funding, instruction preparation for state park administrators, and supervision of the state parks inspection program.

The National Park Service administered the state parks program from what were initially denoted as four district offices from May, 1933. The Midwest belonged to the second district headquartered at Indianapolis under Paul Brown from May, 1933. In 1935, the Branch of Planning and State Cooperation expanded its four districts to eight regions with Iowa placed in region VI headquartered at Omaha. In June, 1936, the National Park Service transferred the administration of national parks into the regional program to avoid duplication of services. In late 1936, the regions were consolidated from eight to four regions which had two to five suboffices or districts. Iowa remained responsible to the Omaha

office.

Staffed by landscape architects, historians, foresters, and engineers, the district or later the regional offices directly supervised the work in state parks. Its field officers inspected and evaluated the work projects, remained responsible for the quality and progress of state park work, made necessary revisions in design plans compatible with the National Park Service philosophy, and offered recommendations for future projects. During construction projects, inspectors commented upon workmanship, setting of the building, use of materials, general location of construction, and building costs. They also made recommendations for the camp supervisor and technical personnel. Inspectors covered from five to seven parks submitting weekly and monthly reports to the district or later regional offices. These offices wrote monthly reports including these inspection reports within them. And, the camp superintendent also completed weekly, monthly and bi-monthly reports upon the work projects to the Branch of Planning and Design. Although they reported to the state park authorities, the National Park Service paid the wages of the technical staff and superintendents in the state parks. The park offices within the states prepared project plans and oversaw employment and procurement. The National Park Service office in Washington gave final approval concerning new state park projects, new camp locations, funding allocations, and land acquisition (Paige 1985: 40-45, 69; Tweed 1977: 91; Wirth 1980: 111-114; U.S. National Park Service, District Office 1933-35 [10/9/33: box 27]).

To participate in the CCC's state park program, states were required to submit a planning document. By 1933, there were only a small number of states which had developed such a plan including Iowa, New York, Illinois, Indiana, California, and Michigan. Without it, the states were unable to effectively utilize the man-power suddenly available to them. The plan had to include some form of state park organization such as a state park board or commission to guide the development of the program. To rectify this problem, the National Resources Board guided the development of comprehensive park plans for 41 states. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) provided funding to describe the states' resources, define park and recreation needs, and determine which of these areas might utilize the assistance of the CCC. A report documenting the findings of this study was published at the national level in 1934. These plans then became the basis for requesting CCC camps for the state parks. Between 1936 and 1942, the National Park Service also assisted eighteen states to rewrite

their conservation legislation which included protection of the state park lands (Ahlgren 1987: 38-42, 46-47; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-42 [1935: 32, 34]; Wirth 1944: 28). Iowa's twenty-five year master plan fulfilled these planning needs. In 1936, the National Park Service continued the planning process through the Park, Parkway, and Recreation Study. Under this act, 46 states and the territory of Hawaii participated in state-wide studies of park and recreation resources and needs. The report was published in 1941 (U.S. National Park Service 1941).

Upon the creation of a planning document, park authorities submitted their application for work projects to the state office which then commented upon the projects and forwarded them to the district or later regional offices. These offices prioritized the projects and sent the requests to the Washington office of the National Park Service. The director with input from the Office of the Director of the CCC then made the final selection and notified the states concerning project approval and camp selection for the project. After notification, the camp superintendent and state submitted detailed plans and estimates of time, labor, and costs to Washington for final approval (Paige 1985: 50-51).

National Park Service camps in Iowa worked solely in state parks (Grieshop 1989a: 29). The CCC standardized its projects classifying them by series numbers. Initially, the CCC enrolles were assigned to projects in state parks requiring limited skill, for example the construction of truck trails, minor roads, and foot trails (series 200: transportation improvement); erosion control (300 series), and general clean-up and clearing (series 700: landscape and recreation) rather than park building construction (series 100: structural improvements) with which the CCC is generally associated. However, experience through the first period in 1933 indicated that with proper supervision from the local experienced men and technical services, the enrolles were capable of erecting relatively complicated buildings and structures.

In most state parks, the CCC crews initially surveyed the park's natural resources to evaluate each park's resource values, mark boundaries, and draw maps to facilitate the final planning for park development (series 1000: other activities). The first phases of development included the conservation, protection, and enhancement of the park's natural resources and the development of public access to them if utilization was not harmful to the resource. Such projects often included soil erosion control and stream and lake bank protection (series 300: erosion control), flood control

such as the clearing and cleaning of channels, levees, reservoirs, ponds, and lake sites, and riprapping (series 400: flood control and drainage); forest culture, for example forest stand improvement such as thinning out diseased and dead trees and planting of trees and shrubs (series 600: forest culture); forest protection such as building fire breaks and fire trails, other fire prevention projects, and tree and plant disease and insect control (series 600: forest protection); some landscaping such as general clean-up of forest stands and other areas, planting trees, construction of parking areas and overlooks, and the razing of undesirable buildings (series 700: landscape and recreation); transportation improvement including truck trails, minor roads, and foot trails to provide visitor access to the park (series 200: transportation improvement); and minimal structural and building improvement such as vehicle and foot bridges, guard rails, and fences to improve access (series 100: structural improvements). After 1935, the state park projects pursued conservation measures on lands outside the parks when affecting park lands. In Iowa, such measures included the drainage areas of artificial lakes.

More intensive park development which focused upon building and structure construction and recreational improvements followed. Major buildings and structures included barns, bath and boathouses, overnight cabins, combination buildings, park custodian's dwellings, equipment and storage sheds, garages, latrines and toilets, lodges and museums, lookout houses and towers, and shelters (series 100: structural improvements). Other improvements included under series 100 were the construction of large impounding dams for artificial lake projects, power lines, incinerators, sewage and water systems, drinking fountains, telephone lines, camp stoves and fireplaces, trailside seats, signs, markers, monuments, picnic tables, and docks and piers. Additional landscaping and recreational facilities included beach improvement, landscaping, the laying out of campgrounds and picnic areas, and associated gravel and concrete walks (series 70: landscape and recreation). Additionally, the CCC attended to wildlife needs through the construction of fish rearing ponds, lake and pond development, fish stocking, food and cover planting and seeding, and the construction of wildlife shelters (series 900: wildlife) and pursued the development of historical and archaeological sites including research and restoration (series 1000: other activities) (U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1933: 40; 1935: 34; 1938: appendix J; 1941: appendix L]; Wirth 1944:27-28; Paige 1985: 18-19).

During the early years of the CCC program to about 1935, state park

officials tended to encourage overdevelopment of park lands which intruded upon the natural resources and created maintenance problems. For example, the extensive road systems proposed by the states appeared detrimental to the wildlife. Additional problems included extensive underbrush removal, artificial landscaping, and introduction of non-native vegetation in natural areas as well as the intrusion of trails in wilderness areas. Overnight accommodations proved too elaborate. Buildings and structures sometimes failed to blend sufficiently into the natural environment. Artificial developments for recreation such as lakes were to be limited to state parks and excluded from national parks which were viewed as more primitive areas. To end such infringement upon National Park Service development policies, National Park Service officials threatened removal of camps from offending parks (Paige 1985: 103-07; Wirth 1980: 113). Thus, adjustment to park philosophies by the state agencies was not always immediate.

Conclusion

Because the definition of permissible work projects conducted by the National Park Service and the National Forest Service often overlapped, considerable friction arose through the CCC period between the Department of the Interior and the Department of Agriculture. Receipt of a greater share of projects meant greater funding. For example, both departments performed soil erosion projects. With the creation of the Soil Conservation Service in 1935, most of this work went to the Department of Agriculture. Jobs composed of over 50% resource management tasks were generally conducted by the Department of Agriculture. Thus, if a minor portion of the project involved park development, then the National Forest Service might complete the work. Also, the method of forest protection frequently varied between the two agencies. Those in forest areas usually included straight line fire lanes and other features while park projects commonly called for solutions more responsive to the nature of the landscape and architectural features. Thus, the National Forest Service did work in park areas requiring minimal recreational and landscape development (Salmond 1967: 83; Paige 1985: 60-61).

The CCC state park program offered federal assistance for the development of state parks for the first time. The state park program which pushed park development ahead by many years received considerably more camps than did the national program. Of the

approximately 3114 CCC camp years of work supervised by the National Park Service, 28% were allocated to national parks and 72% to state parks. By the end of the CCC era, most states had developed a state park plan, ten of the thirteen states without park lands had acquired them and begun development through CCC labor, and many states who possessed park systems by 1933 considerably expanded their lands and facilities. Creation of these facilities provided a public devastated by depression "...the physical, mental, and spiritual benefits of outdoor recreation..." where none had been available before. While most national parks remained inaccessible to a majority of the nation, a system of state parks located at a 50 to 80 mile interval provided what was considered a wholesome source of recreation to almost everyone (Lacy 1976: 159; Wirth 1944: 27, 88; Merrill 1981: 28; Tilden 1962: 15).

LIQUIDATION OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

By 1939, one of every five CCC recruits left the CCC before the end of his enrollment. Budget cuts, personnel reductions, and the CCC's indefinite future failed to attract the more motivated, abler individuals who found employment elsewhere. A new crisis, the declaration of war against Japan in December, 1941, diverted the nation's attention and funding away from the CCC (Salmond 1967: 179; Paige 1985: 28). Many potential enrolles were attracted to higher paying defense employment or the armed forces.

However, CCC administrators only slowly recognized the causes of reduced enrollment and desertion and began to stress the CCC's potential role in the national defense (U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1941: 6]; Salmond 1967: 208-09; Paige 1985: 28, 30). The CCC enrolles were then seen as potential candidates for the army and therefore engaged in physical and vocational training appropriate for this goal. By 1940-1941, the CCC increased training in defense-related industries, continued its academic training program, introduced twenty hours of defense training each week in 1940, and diverted the work projects to assist the war effort. For example by 1942, 200 camps were placed on military installations to construct structures for training exercises. A majority of the other camps were engaged in natural resource conservation tasks. Vocational training stressed activities such as building, operating, and repairing bridges and roads and equipment operation and repair for preparation either in defense-related industries or the military (Grieshop 1989a: 32;

U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1940: 1, 4, 19; 1941: 11]; Salmond 1967: 209; U.S. Federal Security Administration 1942).

In January, 1941, 300,000 enrolles continued to serve the CCC. By October, 1941, this number had been reduced to 160,000 in 900 camps. The CCC ceased operation on June 30, 1942. This action required the discharge of 60,000 enrolles, closing of 350 camps, and the termination of all work projects. Liquidation was completed by July 1, 1943. In July, 1942, the CCC possessed a total of 1367 closed camps with 20 to 24 buildings each. Many of the portable buildings and equipment were turned over to the military to further the war effort. The military had also already acquired a large number of closed camps for training locations and housing. The remainder of the buildings were acquired by local agencies and governments. With the departure of the CCC work crews and funds diverted away from park development by the war, the state parks possessed few resources to maintain the large number of improvements gained during the CCC era (Paige 1985: 30; Wirth 1944: 1; 1980: 20; U.S. Federal Security Administration 1942: 1-2; Grieshop 1989a: 32-33).

CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS PARK WORK IN IOWA

THE ORGANIZATION OF STATE PARK WORK IN IOWA

The National Park Service required that the states develop a preliminary plan before receiving CCC assistance in park development. Unlike most states which were unprepared to utilize this man-power, Iowa had developed its twenty-five year master plan for natural resource and recreation development between 1931 and 1933 (Crane 1933). Even by the end of 1933, states including Iowa lacked a permanent state planning board despite its founding of a Board of Conservation as early as 1917. Iowa established its State Planning Board early in 1934. Its twenty-five year conservation plan was completed under the direction of the State Board of Conservation and the Fish and Wildlife Commission and provided the guide for CCC work from 1933 to 1942 (Grieshop 1989b: 15; Wirth 1980: 150). With such planning, Lieutenant Governor Nels G. Krushcel and State Forester G.R. McDonald presented their proposal for sixteen Iowa CCC camps in Washington in late April, 1933. The conservation plan provided accurate data and maps to illustrate the need for reforestation, erosion control, flood control, and state park work. Their plan stated the necessary locations for the

sixteen camps across southern Iowa, the nature of the work project, the supervisory agencies in Iowa, and necessary equipment and set the number of men at 3200. The director of the CCC authorized their plan for CCC camps within three days (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1935: 6-7, 195]; Merrill 1981: 128; Grieshop 1989b: 14).

The operation of the CCC program in Iowa as in other states relied upon the cooperation of a host of existing state agencies with several federal agencies. The state agencies included the Iowa Emergency Relief Administration, the State Conservation Commission, the Iowa Highway Commission, the Extension Service at the Iowa State University at Ames, and the director of Emergency Conservation Work in Iowa, the State Forester who was also the secretary of the Department of Agriculture located at Ames. He coordinated the work of these agencies. The National Park Service, National Forest Service, U.S. Bureau of Biological Survey, Soil Conservation Service, Bureau of Agricultural Engineering, CCC, WPA, National Youth Administration, and U.S. Bureau of Fisheries all touched on facets of emergency relief conservation employment in Iowa (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 182]; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: (1, 5): 7; U.S. National Park Service, State Inspector, 1934-39 [4/22/35, box 1]; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 16). Submission of work plans accompanied by maps and drawn plans and its role as procurement agent composed the two major tasks of the state in the operation of the CCC program (Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984).

Established in 1933, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration provided grants to the states for emergency relief needs. On April 5, 1933, the U.S. Department of Labor appointed the Iowa Emergency Relief Committee to oversee the employment relief programs in Iowa. It functioned as the state selection agent for the Civilian Conservation Corps and oversaw the relief programs operated by the state. It was incorporated as the Iowa Emergency Relief Administration in July, 1934. Its social welfare department associated with the Board of Social Welfare supervised relief funding and the certification of those eligible to receive Work Progress Administration Employment and Civilian Conservation Corps selection. Certification was handled at the local level by county boards of social welfare. And, its department of finance distributed state funding and supervised accounting procedures. This state agency oversaw the operation of the CCC camps in Iowa in cooperation with other state agencies. Its role appears to have

been primarily selective and fiscal (Iowa Secretary of State 1939-40: 370-72; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1936: (1, 5): 4]; Johnson 1941: 176-77; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [appendix A]).

The funds to run the CCC operations in Iowa came from several different sources but were primarily administrated by the director of CCC work in Iowa, G.B. MacDonald, the State Forester. Those funds provided by the federal government under the Federal Emergency Relief Administration financed the general supervisory positions of the camps, for example the camp superintendent and the technical staff, funded the purchase and operation of equipment, and purchased construction materials. The Iowa General Assembly supplemented these funds through special appropriations such as the Iowa Conservation Work Fund and others. In 1935, for example, the Iowa General Assembly appropriated one million dollars for the state CCC program which funded the purchase of state park lands. These funds were also used to purchase equipment, materials, and supplies and to support CCC state personnel not funded by federal allotments (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 19-21, 107]; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 187]; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1936: (1, 6) 4]).

G.B. McDonald, State Forester and Secretary of the Department of Agriculture with his office at Iowa State University, Ames was selected as the director of the CCC program in Iowa. The director managed the work of the CCC camps at the state level. He also directly administered the federal and state funds allotted for CCC work. In his relationship to the National Park Service and the National Forest Service, the director coordinated the planning of projects and the preparation of proposals for the work required by the federal agencies, recommended the assignment of camps for projects, and oversaw the technical supervision of the work projects (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1936: (1, 6): 4]; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1935: 6-7; 1936: 12]; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1939: 56]).

The Director of the CCC in Iowa cooperated with the Iowa Conservation Commission which represented a May 18, 1935 merger of the State Board of Conservation and the Fish and Wildlife Commission. This state agency developed and gave initial approval for most of the work plans of the state parks and forests not only for the emergency conservation activities of the CCC but for the Transient Bureau of the WPA, and the Iowa Emergency Relief Administration (IERA). The Commission additionally facilitated

interservice agreements between the Forest Service and Park Service concerning jurisdiction over particular state park jobs. The district office of the Branch of Planning and Design remained in close contact during the development of park plans and general policies. The Conservation Commission itself added staff during the CCC work programs including an architect and two landscape architects along with the existing engineer and wildlife technician who also contributed to planning (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 188-89]; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 14, 105, 107; 1938: 15-16]; U.S. National Park Service, Regional Office 1936-38 [9/36, Box 3]; District Office 1935-36 [4/36, Box 23]).

Although the Branch of Planning and Design of the National Park Service first in Indianapolis and then in Omaha evaluated, recommended changes in, and provided actual designs for the Iowa state parks as did the technicians at the parks, much of the design work was completed in the Central Design Office of the Extension Service, Iowa State University, Ames. From 1933 to September, 1934, a private architectural firm executed the architectural designs in a Des Moines office, the engineering designs were prepared at the highway buildings in Ames, and the landscape designs were completed in the landscape studio at Iowa State University, Ames. Cost estimates for all jobs were prepared in an office in Agricultural Hall, Iowa State University, Ames. And, the state procurement office for the National Park Service and National Forest Service who operated through different procurement systems was operated together rather than separately as requirements dictated.

By September, 1934, all designs for engineering, architecture, and landscape architecture from the Central Design Office and the project cost estimation was consolidated at Agricultural Hall, Iowa State University, Ames. The Central Design Office then contained one senior and one junior engineer, one landscape architect, one architect, one junior architect, one draftsman, and one estimator. Architect Haynes, Landscape Architect John R. Fitzimmons, Engineer Groth, and Wildlife Technician Damon completed many of the designs. The U.S. procurement office for the National Park Service was separated from the National Forest Service and located in the same building (U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [10/22/33, box 2; 8/21/34 and 9/4/35, box 4]). After reorganization, the Iowa State Conservation Commission continued to render state approval for all park designs and plans. Engineering, architectural, and landscape

designs prepared at state parks for CCC work were submitted through the Central Design Office for inspection by the National Park Service inspector and Conservation Commission (U.S. National Park Service, District Office, 1933-35 [12/6/34, box 6]; State Inspector 1934-39 [4/22/35: box 1]; Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1936: 1 (6): 4]).

Preliminary designs which were to show floor plans, elevations, cost estimates, and materials were then reviewed by the district or regional office. After approval, these preliminary plans were then revised as a final draft. Final designs were to be rendered following a thorough field survey of the park area. The layout plans, topographical survey, and research produced by the study at the park prior to work projects and refinement of proposals recorded scenic, topographical, geological, native plant and wildlife, historical, and recreational values. Advanced crews composed of the technical staff, including the engineer, landscape architect, and project supervisor, and small CCC crew completed the survey. After conference with the National Park Service inspector, work began (Ahlgren 1987: 51-54; U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [1/15/34 and 12/3/34: box 2]).

Additionally, Iowa State University, Ames provided technical assistance for the CCC work projects in forestry, agriculture, and botany. And, the Iowa Highway Commission assisted state emergency relief work through its blueprinting services, engineering consulting services, and the loaning of equipment and storage facilities. The Chief Engineer of the Highway Commission acted as supervisor of all state park roads (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: 7]).

The inspectors from the Branch of Planning and Design in district 2 or after 1935 in region 6 formed the main point of contact between the state authorities and the parks and the National Park Service. The inspector for Iowa moved his office from Omaha to Ames in April, 1936 to ensure closer contact with his area. The inspector ensured that the National Park Service development policies became a reality in state park design and construction. For this reason, the inspector allocated much of his time to checking designs and visiting the parks inspecting construction work in progress and discussing proposed CCC projects (U.S. NPS, Regional Office 1935-36 [4/36, box 23]; District Office 1933-35 [12/11/33, box 2]; Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984). Thus, CCC work in Iowa was indeed a cooperative effort between and among state and federal agencies and an excellent example of the

operation of the newly created bureaucratic form of government.

ORGANIZATION OF THE IOWA CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS CAMPS

Operating as a state camp since April, 1933, Company 769 at PE53 in Albia became the first CCC unit to be organized in Iowa in early May. It performed primarily forest work and soil erosion control (Grieshop 1989a: 22-23; Alleger and Alleger CA. 1935: 14). By the end of May, the sixteen authorized Iowa camps were in operation. While fourteen were associated with the National Forest Service, two were located in state parks. By the beginning of the second period, there were 13 CCC camps associated with state parks in Iowa in comparison to a total of 172 in 26 states or an average of 6.6 per state. Thus, probably because of Iowa's planning document, the amount of state park work in Iowa's second period was relatively greater than in most of the participating states (Grieshop 1989a: 23). The average number of camps in Iowa for each year numbered 29 but the actual number varied widely between 16 in 1933 and 45 in 1935 (Table 4). In comparison to the rest of the states which contained CCC camps, Iowa ranked seventeenth in enrollment quota and contained about 2% of the CCC camps at any one time.

As Grieshop noted, the CCC proved to be a very fluid organization. Roosevelt authorized the operation of the CCC at six month intervals although Congress generally extended the life of the CCC for two to three year spans. Therefore, work projects were geared to last the length of one period. While companies often remained several or more periods at one camp, they moved around the state multiple times during the lifetime of the CCC. Additionally, Iowa companies moved to other states such as Minnesota, and companies from other states such as Missouri and Arkansas worked in Iowa (Grieshop 1989b: 18, 23; see also Salmond 1967: 84; Alleger and Alleger ca. 1935: 12). And, because work projects had to be submitted about two months prior to the end of each six month period for approval by the National Park Service or the National Forest Service, projects were delayed and sometimes not completed by the CCC. And, at least in Iowa, the Conservation Commission sometimes failed to prioritize its projects for the camp superintendents to allow the completion of more important projects. The Conservation finished a number of CCC project especially in the 1940s (U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [12/10/33, box 2]).

The total number enrolled in the Iowa CCC from 1933 to 1942 reached 49,266 including 41,190 juniors and veterans, 60 Native Americans,

and 4,596 non-enrolled personnel consisting of camp officers and supervisory workers. However, those working in Iowa numbered 45,846. Average enrollment per year varied from 7,500 juniors and veterans in 1933 to a peak of 9,000 in 1935 and a decline to 4,500 by the close of 1939. By the end of 1933, Iowa had organized 23 CCC camps 13 of which were assigned to state parks. Thirteen camps remained associated with state parks into the summer of 1934. The number of camps reached a maximum of 46 with nine state park camps, 21 Soil Conservation camps, two National Forest Service camps, five drainage camps associated with the Bureau of Agricultural Engineering, and the district headquarter company at Fort Des Moines during August, 1935. At that time, 177 officers, 6,511 juniors, 909 veterans, and 736 local experienced men composed the CCC enrollment. By April, 1936, the number had dropped to 38 camps with a majority of 21 camps operated by the Soil Conservation Service and nine state park camps under the National Park Service. These camps then contained 102 officers, 5,607 juniors and local experienced men, and 551 veterans. By 1939, enrollment in Iowa camps as elsewhere severely declined as young men found jobs in an improving economy primarily stimulated by preparation for war. In that year, there were about 30 camps six of which were associated with state parks in Iowa. An additional eight Soil Conservation Service camps from Minnesota and Missouri boosted Iowa's enrollment at the end of 1939. By 1940, 30 camps remained, but the number declined rapidly especially with the declaration of war on Japan. The last camp operating in Iowa, camp Cordon (SCS34) closed by June, 1942 (Tables 3-4) (Grieshop 1989a: 11, 24, 32-33; Iowa Secretary of State 1939-40: 368-369; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 182]; Merrill 1981: 128; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1939: 113]).

Iowa camps until 1935 ranged in total size from 200 to 250 men (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1933-36 [1935: 106]). After that date, companies began to shrink to as low as 157 men. In the first period in 1933, camps were all initially begun at Fort Des Moines for a conditioning period of several weeks and then sent to their assigned camps. After the first period, the physical conditioning and counseling of new men occurred in the camps. Fort Des Moines served as the Iowa district headquarters for the army. Through the CCC era, it operated as a training and organizational/supply center (Alleger and Alleger ca. 1935: 12-13).

The CCC camps constructed by local workmen paralleled the types built on a national basis as described above. Until the fall of 1933, the enrolles occupied five-men army tents. Permanent wooden

barracks were begun in November to prepare the camps for winter habitation (Grieshop 1989a: 23-24; Otis 1986: 72, 76). Although it is not clearly stated, it is assumed that Iowa also received its share of portable buildings beginning in late 1934 or early 1935.

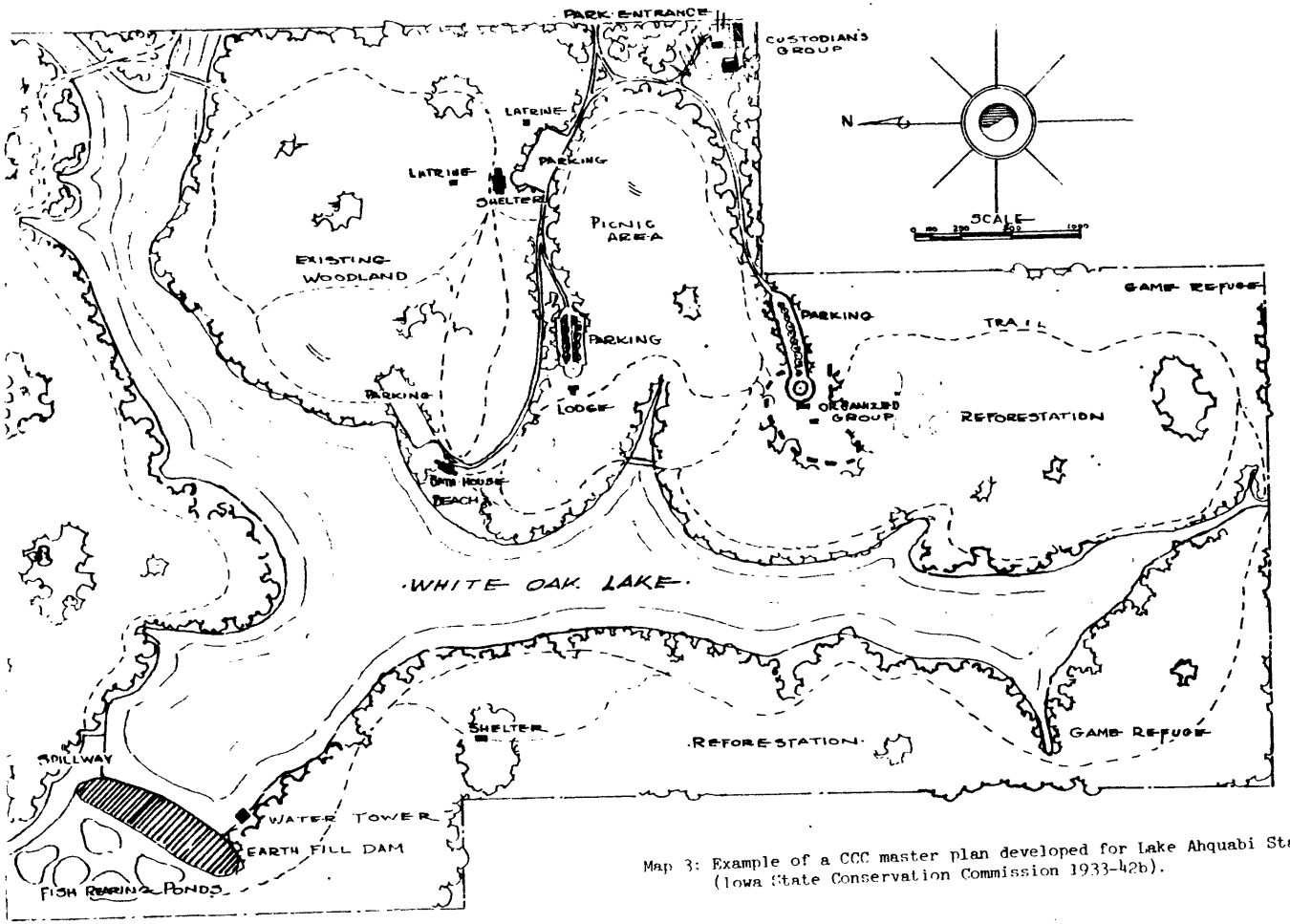
Iowa CCC enrolles like camps in other states followed the usual camp work day. Rising at 6:30, they started for work by 8:00 to 8:30. Work ended at 4:00 and classes occurred during the evening between 7:00 and 9:30. Their day ended at 11:00. The schedule was relaxed during the weekend. Depending upon the kind of work performed, the distance to the work site from the camps, and the urgency for its completion, some camps operated upon different schedules. For example, pressing projects likely with the camp located close to the work site operated upon three eight hour shifts per day. On the other hand, if the work site occurred a long distance from the camp, either a side camp was established or the enrolles worked a shorter day, for example six hours. Also as the CCC began to adjust to the war effort, it allotted time from the work week for defense training (Grieshop 1989a: 26; 1989b: 20).

The evening education programs at the Iowa camps appear relatively similar to those experienced nation-wide. This program was officially mandated by the act which renewed the CCC in 1935. By 1936, the Iowa program aimed at the elimination of illiteracy, educational advancement, the shaping of work attitudes, and vocational training. Beyond the primary level, possible educational courses might include typing, shorthand, electronic theory and application, journalism, biology, industrial chemistry, commercial arithmetic, and business. Correspondence courses were also available from midwestern colleges and universities. The range of vocational courses tended to vary according to the work projects upon which the camp focused. They often included first aid and addressed a diverse group of occupational techniques in forestry, soil erosion, auto mechanics, mechanical drawing, surveying, stone masonry, carpentry, concrete work, park landscaping, radio construction, blueprint reading, and the principals of aviation. Many camps improved their literary skills through the publication of a camp paper. Although often rather mute about the work projects, they do provide insight into camp life and the camp's relationship to the adjacent community. Most camps erected an educational building and utilized the equipment available from the work projects and local institutions for their educational programs (Grieshop 1989a: 26-27; Alleger and Alleger ca. 1935). By 1936, about 90% of the enrolles were enrolled in at least one course. An educational advisor for the district,

equivalent to the state, created educational programs, and a majority of the camps possessed their own educational advisor to run the program. The educational program was presented by camp officers, the technical staff, and often local teachers (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 183]).

Many of the CCC work projects occurred in rural areas, and their camps were located within or near small, local communities. These communities were often conservative, suspicious of outsiders, and ill-informed about the purposes of the CCC. A quickly conceived and executed plan to employ 375,000 men in 200-man camps across the country to bring order to the nation's resources was often difficult for many to conceptualize. Initial concerns included fear of local job displacement by the work of the CCC enrolles and apprehension that a group of notably poor, strange young men might create disturbance. Cultural differences between the enrolles and the host communities, that is distinctions between rural communities and the generally more urban CCC enrolle, also created apprehension and some problems. Additionally, the fear that the federal government was interfering in their local way of life created local opposition to the CCC. In fact, the communities correctly perceived the government's intent but had failed to accept a federal solution to what they perceived as a community problem to be resolved by community action. Some local communities did oppose the creation of camps in their vicinity, and they were not established in these areas (Ahlgren 1987: 44; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1939: 1]; Potter 1973: 61; Alleger and Alleger ca. 1935: 7; Otis 1986: 2).

To dispel the fears expressed by local host communities and the general public, the U.S. Department of Labor, the CCC, the U.S. Federal Security Administration and the National Forest Service printed brochures as late as the 1940s presenting the purpose of the CCC and its entrance requirements and describing CCC life and the work projects (U.S. Department of Labor 1933; 1935; U.S. Federal Security Administration 1941a; 1941b; 1941c; 1941d; U.S. National Forest Service 1937; U.S. Civilian Conservation Corps 1937). Newspapers, radio stations, and other media disseminated information about the CCC as an organization and CCC accomplishments (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: (3, 1): 8]). Camps held open houses during the summer for visitation by the public. Such publicity allowed the public to see the camps, talk to the enrolles and staff, and view the results of work projects. For example, Camp DSES6 associated with Ledges State Park opened their camp and construction project to public view in



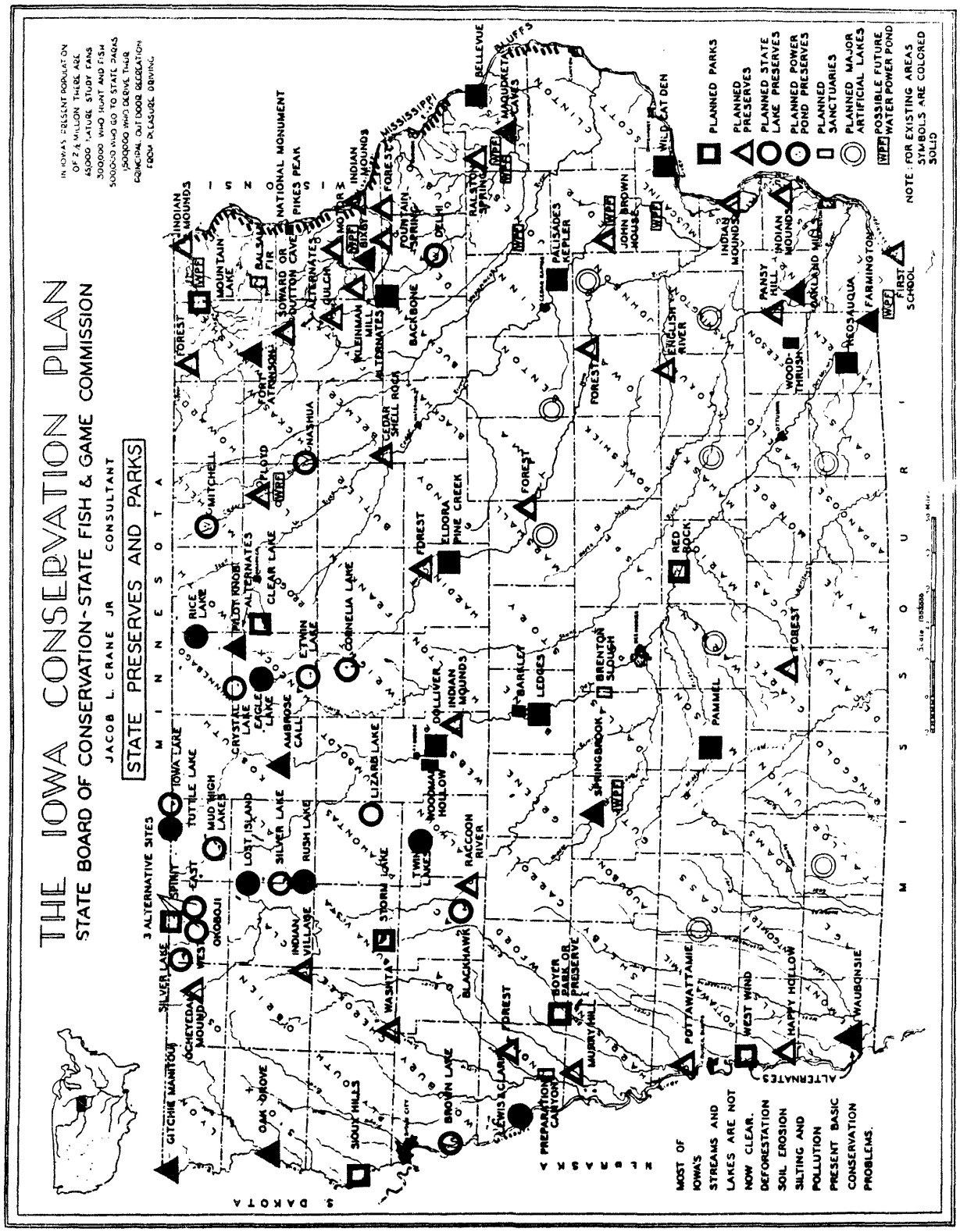
Map 3: Example of a CCC master plan developed for Lake Ahquabi State Park (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1933-42b).

INDIANOLA TRACT

WARREN COUNTY

INDIANOLA IOWA

PROJECT NO	DESCRIPTION
1	TELEPHONE LINE
11	GENERAL CLEAN UP
14B	FOOT TRAILS
22	CAMP GROUND CLEARING
24	LATRINES
26A	WASTE DISPOSAL (SEWER LINE
26B	WASTE DISPOSAL
27	CAMP GROUND FACILITIES
28A	SHELTER
28B	BATH HOUSE
28C	CUSTODIAN'S HOUSE
31A	STORAGE FACILITIES
31B	PIPELINES
34	PLANTING
46B	EROSION CONTROL
47A	FOOT BRIDGE
48A	WATER IMPROVEMENT
50	RECREATIONAL DAM
53	LANDSCAPING



Map 4: The location and categorization of Iowa state parks as suggested by the 1933 state conservation master plan (Crane 1933: 136).

October, 1934 (Alleger and Alleger ca. 1935: 87; Ahlgren 1987: 55).

The presence of a camp often stimulated the local economy. They employed local personnel as local experience men and utilized community services especially during the construction of the camp. The CCC camp purchased many of its supplies, equipment, food, clothing, and construction materials locally. To support 300,000 men in relatively permanent facilities, the CCC allocated more than 3 million dollars nation-wide half of which was spent in the local communities near the camps (Salmond 1967: 111; Otis 1986: 2; Paige 1985: 17; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1933: 10]; Salmond 1967: 108-110).

A SUMMARY OF IOWA STATE PARK WORK

Development of Designs and Work Plans: 1933-34

Planning and design for CCC work projects followed Iowa's 25-year conservation plan. CCC requirements dictated that the park design be developed in its entirety, and then based on that master plan (map 3) work was to be proposed in six month increments (TIMBER CADET 1934 [10/11]).

Completed in 1933, Iowa's conservation plan projected a four fold increase in park attendance as the highway system approached completion. The parks then drew a total annual attendance of 2,000,000 visitors who were primarily Iowans. Pine Creek attracted 250,000 of this total while Ledges and Backbone drew 200,000 and 150,000 respectively. To meet these needs, the study recommended the full development of a portion of Iowa's 42 state parks. The master plan provided a series of park development categories based upon recreation needs, the park's natural setting, and its potential values. State parks were to be positioned 50 to 80 miles apart and their natural settings were to contain some outstanding physical values and fulfill active recreation needs. It recommended the development of about ten to twelve existing parks such as Pilot Knob, Backbone, Pine Creek, Dolliver, Bellevue, Palisades-Kepler, Ledges, Pammel, Waubonsie, Lacey-Keosauqua, and Wild Cat Den. It proposed the development of approximately seven new parks: one from the Okoboji District, Mountain Lake, Storm Lake, Sioux Hills, Boyer, Red Rock, West Wind, and Clear Lake (map 4).

Eighteen to twenty of the current parks were suggested as preserves. The main focus lay in their beauty and natural features. Creation of a park would ensure their preservation. The degree of development, location, and size of the park depended upon the natural features which the park contained. Development generally included land purchase, parking, picnic grounds, shelters, drinking water, and comfort facilities. Potential effect upon the natural resources guided the addition of recreation areas to the park. The study recommended the creation of a total of 75 to 80 state preserves. Existing parks with improper geographical distribution such as Ambrose A. Call, Fort Defiance, Farmington, Oak Grove, Maquoketa, Springbrook, and Wapsipinicon were to become preserves (Crane 1933: 122-37) (map 4).

The study listed a number of preserve categories separated on the basis of their values. Historic preserves such as Fort Atkinson which included points of interest in Iowa's history were recommended for visitation but not for additional development. The CCC supported research for the projected restoration of its fortifications in July, 1934 (U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [7/27/34: box 3]). Scientific preserves contained unique geological formations or archaeological sites, for example Bixby, Gitchie Manitou, and Maquoketa Caves preserves. The seven forest preserves protecting 300 to 1000 tracts of woodlands were to receive minimal development. Scenic preserves were reserved for more passive public recreation in areas of outstanding beauty. Areas such as Ambrose A. Call and Oak Grove were generally smaller, less developed, and more secluded than park areas. Natural lake preserves afforded public access to lakes primarily for enjoyment of the water scape and offered minor facilities such as parking and picnicking. They included Clear Lake, Twin Lakes, and Lewis and Clark. The study recommended the creation of about nine artificial lake preserves in southern Iowa. Lake preserves emphasized recreational values. The lake and area around it afforded general recreation such as fishing, picnicking, camping, boating, winter sports, and swimming. Some merited overnight cabins and inns. Possible sites included a new lake preserve at Lake Wapello and their creation in existing parks such as Springbrook and Pammel state parks (Crane 1933: 11-15, 135-39).

As development proceeded in the fall of 1934, the state inspection reports noted a number of difficulties and trends in Iowa park development. As early as 1933, designers of CCC plans such as John R. Fitzimmons were using and/or adapting stock plans prepared by

the Branch of Planning and Design of the National Park Service (U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [10/22/33, box 2]). In March, 1934, the Iowa State Board of Conservation's Central Design Office published a manual of standard construction details for relatively mundane structures such as barriers, guard rails, parking posts, dams, revetments, erosion control devices, footbridges, incinerators, ovens, park furniture, retaining walls, signs, sanitation facilities, trail construction, and wells (Department of Natural Resources 1917-89 [Wapello State Park 1934 [March]).

By 1934, building design and landscaping by the Central Design Office had become sufficiently elaborate that the Iowa CCC exceeded allotted material costs and overdeveloped some park areas. The National Park Service set a limit for material costs depending on building function. While buildings and structures over this ceiling might have merited construction, the completion of such projects by the CCC interfered with the skilled labor trade which fell under the projects of other federal relief agencies.

The field inspectors for Iowa continued to voice the National Park Service philosophy that the overall goal of park planning and design was the protection and restoration of the natural setting. Policy permitted development for public enjoyment which did not infringe upon park values. The CCC was to construct buildings of "simple character" (TIMBER CADET 1934 [10/11/34: (1, 1) 1]). And, all artificial development became a concession to nature. Iowa inspectors noted the tendency toward overdevelopment. Overnight cabins and custodians dwellings had become overdone. Additionally, buildings and structures were to be designed for completion by the CCC. CCC work did not include fancy inside decorations, light fixtures, and expensive heating systems. While earthen dams, bridges, and flood control objects remained within the scope of the CCC, extensive concrete dams were Progress Works Administration (PWA) projects. Inspectors warned against the overly large designs for refectories and bathhouses as well as extensive landscaping which dressed-up nature while attempting to hide the effects of artificial development. State inspectors admonished the Central Design Office to design simple projects with input from the camp superintendents and within the time and costs allotted (U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [12/5/34, box 2]).

The CCC participated in a comparatively large number of work projects in Iowa state parks beginning in period 2 from September, 1933 through period 4 ending in March, 1935. Table 4 illustrates the number of state parks per period. While Table 6 presents the

Iowa CCC camps performing state park work by camp, Table 7 lists the work by periods. State park camps which performed almost solely state park work were associated with the National Park Service. The state park work in Table 4 computes CCC camps on this basis. However, some camps associated with the National Forest Service or Soil Conservation Service also performed state park work on a less regular basis. Their work was often more oriented toward reforestation, landscaping or road building projects rather than building construction. Records indicate which National Forest Service and Soil Conservation Service camps worked in state parks and noted which companies and periods during which they were stationed adjacent to the state park, but the exact periods during which the park work was performed remains unclear.

Table 7
Iowa State Park CCC Work Projects During Periods 1 to 4

Camp	Period 1 (2)	Period 2	Period 3	Period 4
PE53	Walnut Woods			
PE6Ø	Ledges	Ledges	Ledges	
PE62	Lake Keomah	Lake Keomah	Lake Keomah	Lake Keomah
SP1	Palisades-Kepler	Palisades-Kepler		
SP2	Backbone		Backbone	Backbone
PE68		Maquoketa		
SP3		Des Moines Parks		
SP4		Des Moines Parks		
SP5		Lake Manawa		Lake Manawa
SP6		Dolliver		
SP7		Springbrook	Springbrook	Springbrook
SP8		Black Hawk	Black Hawk	Black Hawk
SP9		Okoboji Parks	Okoboji Parks	Okoboji Parks
SP1Ø		Pine Creek	Pine Creek	Pine Creek
SP11		Decorah Parks	Decorah Parks	Decorah Parks
SP12		Lake Wapello	Lacey-Keosauqua	Lake Wapello
SP14		Lake Wapello	Lake Wapello	
			Oak Grove	
SP16			Pilot Knob	
SP17			Backbone	Backbone
			Bixby	Bixby
SP18			Lake Ahquabi	Lake Ahquabi
PE71				Preparation
PE89			Waubonsie	

(1) U.S. CCC 1933-42 [1933-35].

(2) Period 1: April to September, 1933; period 2: October, 1933 to March, 1934; period 3: April to September, 1934; and period 4: September, 1934 to March, 1935.

Peak Park Development: 1935-36

The number of park projects quickly rose to a maximum involvement of about 21 camps during period 5 between April 1 and September 30, 1935. This number dropped to about 15 in period 6, October 1, 1935 to March 31, 1936 and fell to 12 in period 7, April 1 to September 30, 1936. This count included the National Forest Service as well as the National Park Service camps. By April, 1935, two National Forest Service camps were working at Honey Creek and Springbrook. They performed general construction, forest nursery operations, and forest and game improvement projects in addition to park work. There were likely other National Forest Service camps working at Walnut Woods, Preparation Canyon, Maquoketa, and Waubonsie state parks during one or more of these periods (table 2) (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-37). Although the CCC contributed much of the labor to these projects, the Iowa State Conservation Commission, Soil Conservation Service, and WPA also participated in park development (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 121-22]).

Table 8
Iowa State Park CCC Work Projects During Periods 5 to 6 (1)

Camp	Period 5	Period 6	Period 7
PE53 (S99)	Walnut Woods (2)	Walnut Woods (2)	
SCS12 (DPE79)	Preparation Canyon (2)		
SCS17 (PE89)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)
SCS20 (PE71)	Honey Creek (2)	Honey Creek (2)	Honey Creek (2)
SCS24 (PE88)	Maquoketa (2)	Maquoketa (2)	
SCS25 (DPE68)	Maquoketa (2)	Maquoketa (2)	Maquoketa (2)
DSES1 (SCS1	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)
SP1 (DSP1)	Palisades		
SP4 (SP22)	Beeds Lakes	Beeds Lake	Beeds Lake
SP7 (S100)	Springbrook	Springbrook	Springbrook
SP9	Okoboji parks		
SP10	Pine Lake		
SP11	Decorah parks	Decorah parks	

SP14	Lake Wapello	Lake Wapello	Lake Wapello
SP17	Backbone	Backbone	Backbone
	Bixby (2)	Bixby (2)	Bixby (2)
SP18	Lake Ahquabi	Lake Ahquabi	Lake Ahquabi
SP19 (PE60)	Lake McBride	Lake McBride	Lake McBride
SP20 (DP2)	Lake Keomah	Lake Keomah	Lake Keomah
SP21	Lacey-Keosauqua		
SP23	Stone	Stone	Stone
SP24	Lake of 3 Fires	Lake of 3 Fires	Lake of 3 Fires
SP26	Ledges		

(1) U.S. CCC 1933-42 [1935-1936].
(2) State park work may continue into the next several periods, but the data fail to specify exactly when non-National Park Service projects occurred.
(3) Period 5: April to September, 1935; period 6: October, 1935 to March, 1936; period 7: April to September, 1936.

The number of Iowa camps participating in state park work reached their peak in the fifth period, April 1, 1935 to September 30, 1935. As the president attempted to trim the federal budget after the 1935 recession, the number steadily declined in period 6, October 1, 1935 to March 31, 1936 and period 7, April 1, 1936 to September 30, 1936 as Table 8 illustrates.

To meet employment needs during the drought years, the Roosevelt administration raised the quotas for enrolles thus explaining the sudden mushrooming of state park projects in Iowa. However, despite the increase in National Park Service employees and budget, the technical services could no longer maintain the design level of earlier years. The use of adaptation of stock plans such as those designed in March, 1933 became more common. Not only did overdevelopment contradict the park services's goal to preserve and enhance the natural setting for visitors, but by 1935 elaborate designs were no longer feasible as the number of projects mushroomed. At a meeting with the Central Design Office, the state inspector again warned against overdevelopment of parks and stressed the importance of preserving the natural environment (U.S. NPS, District Office, 1935-1936 [7/35, box 22]).

Table 9
State Park Construction Projects: May, 1935 - June, 1936 (1)

Project (2)	Number of Projects Constructed by: CCC (3)	All Relief Agencies
Custodian residences	8	8
Park lodges	6	6
Shelters	25	25
Service buildings	12	12
Bathhouses	5	5
Boathouses	3	3
Latrines	45	51
Earth Impounding Dams	8	10
Concrete Impounding Dams	1	1
Footbridges	34	36
Vehicle bridges	14	15
Water systems	21	21
Sewage systems	10	10
Cabins	10	10
Entrance portals	19	20
Total number of projects	221	233
Miles of road	not given	14.09
Landscaping (2)	34	39

(1) Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 122]).

(2) The columns present the number of projects completed in each park except for roads which are denoted by milage and miscellaneous landscaping which indicates the number of parks in which the project was completed.

(3) This count includes not only those projects completed by the CCC but also those on which the CCC completed part of but not all of the work.

During the period between May 17, 1935 and June 30, 1936, which was delimited by the creation of the Iowa State Conservation Commission and the end of its fiscal year, the number of buildings and structures erected by the CCC with the assistance of the WPA grew dramatically (Table 9). Minor park development included the construction of fencing, trails, park and camp conveniences such as fireplaces and benches, guard rails, lookout towers, sewage disposal systems, and riprapping. Landscaping work such as fine grading, seeding and sodding, and tree and shrub planting attempted

to blend the man-made features into the natural setting. Park development also preserved and restored the natural landscape through reforestation, erosion control, development of wildlife cover, and control of tree and insect disease (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-1936 [1936: 184-85]; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 11-12, 107, 109, 112-13]).

The construction of artificial lakes in southwest Iowa which lacked recreational park facilities received a major boost in this short period. Serving as the nucleus of the recreational parks, lakes were completed in Lake Wapello, Lake Keomah, Lake Ahquabi, Pine Lake, Springbrook, and Backbone state parks and were under construction at Lacey-Keosauqua, Beed's Lake, and Palisades-Kepler state parks. Many included improvement devices such as brush shelters to assist fish propagation. The CCC also constructed numerous fish rearing ponds for fishing activities. Suggestive of the type of activities available in state parks, the state rented concessions to private parties in five parks in 1935 and 13 parks in 1936. These services included miscellaneous refreshments, bathhouse facilities, commercial boating and boat livery, and lodge meals (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 99, 116, 123]; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-1936 [1935: 202]).

Project Reduction: 1937-1940

As federal funding was reduced, periods 8 through 11 between October 1, 1936 to September 30, 1938, witnessed a gradual reduction in the number of work projects. The decline accelerated by period 12 beginning October, 1938. While Table 4 records the reduction in state park CCC camps from eight to five, Table 10 indicates other CCC camps operated by the National Forest Service and the Soil Conservation Service which also contributed to state park work in these periods at for example Lacey-Keosauqua, Maquoketa, and Springbrook. The total number of camps involved with state park work was reduced from approximately thirteen to seven camps by period 14. Other agencies outside the CCC also assisted with state park work including the WPA and the National Youth Administration. And, the Iowa State Conservation Commission hired labor to build or complete projects. Not only did the WPA assist with park development, but its enrolles participated in the parks' educational programs at Stone and Lake Ahquabi state parks in the summer of 1937, in Lake Ahquabi and Palisades-Kepler in 1938, Lake Ahquabi, Maquoketa Caves, McGregor, and Stone in 1939, and Lake Ahquabi and McGregor in 1940. The educational program

attempted to stimulate visitor interest in the natural values which park development was attempting to highlight. In addition to guided nature tours, the State Conservation Commission created self-guided tours and published nature notes (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-1942 [1938: 108-109, 113, 130; 1940: 156-57, 160]).

Table 10 indicates the location of state park work from periods 8 to 14.

Table 10
Iowa State Park CCC Work Projects During Periods 8 to 14 (1)

Camp	Period 8 (3)	Period 9	Period 10
S102	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)
SCS20 (PE71)	Honey Creek (2)	Honey Creek (2)	Honey Creek (2)
SCS25 (DPE68)	Maquoketa (2)	Maquoketa (2)	
SCS17 (PE89	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)	
SCS1 (DSES1)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)
SP14	Wapello	Wapello	Wapello
SP17	Backbone	Backbone	Backbone
SP18	Lake Ahquabi	Lake Ahquabi	Lake Ahquabi
SP19	Lake McBride	Lake McBride	Lake McBride
SP20	Lake Keomah	Lake Keomah	
SP22			
SP22 (SP4)	Beed's Lake	Beed's Lake	Beed's Lake
SP23	Stone	Stone	Stone
SP24	Lake of 3 Fires	Lake of 3 Fires	Lake of 3 Fires

Camp	Period 11	Period 12	Period 13
102	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)
SCS20 (PE71)	Honey Creek (2)	Honey Creek (2)	
SCS1 (DSES1)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)
SP7	Springbrook	Springbrook	
SP8		Black Hawk	
		Oak Grove (2)	
SP14	Lake Wapello	Lake Wapello	Lake Wapello
SP17	Backbone	Backbone	Backbone
SP19	Lake McBride	Lake McBride	Lake McBride
SP23	Stone	Stone	Stone

SP24	Lake of 3 Fires		
SP27		Black Hawk Oak Grove (2)	Black Hawk Oak Grove (2)
Camp 14	Period 14		
SP102	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)		
SCS1 (DESE1)	Waubonsie (2)		
SP7 (S100)	Springbrook		
SP17	Backbone		
SP19	Lake McBride		
SP27	Black Hawk		
	Bixby (2)		
SP28	Geode		

(1) U.S. CCC 1933-42 [1936-40]).

(2) State park work may continue into the next period for National Forest Service camps, but the data fail to specify exactly when state park projects occurred for this agency.

(3) Period 8: September, 1936 to March, 1937; period 9: April to September, 1937; period 10: October, 1937 to March, 1938; period 11: April to September, 1938; period 12: October, 1938 to March, 1939; period 13: April to September, 1939; period 14: October, 1939 to March, 1940.

Table 11 illustrates the dramatic reduction in the number of major state park construction projects most of which were completed by the CCC. The table records work completed between July, 1936 to July, 1938 and July 1938 to July, 1940 in 32 and 31 Iowa state parks respectively.

Table 11
State Park Construction Projects: July, 1936 - July, 1940

Project	July, 1936-June, 1938		July, 1938-June, 1940	
	By CCC	Total (2)	By CCC	Total (2)
Custodian's residence	2	3	4	4
Park lodges	4	7	1	3
Shelters	3	7	3	4
Service buildings	6	9	2	2
Bathhouses	5	5	3	5
Boathouses	1	1	1	1
Latrines	11	20	3	7
Earth impounding dams	1	3	0	0
Concrete dams	2	3	0	0
Footbridges	7	21	0	2
Vehicle bridges	6	7	2	3
Sewer systems	6	9	2	3
Water systems	7	12	4	5
Overnight cabins	24	36	10	10
Entrance portals	4	10	1	1
Dredging	0	1	0	3
Power lines	2	2	1	6
Toboggan slides	0	0	1	3
Boat docks	0	0	3	3
Total number of projects	91	156	41	65
Roads	5	8	2.73	2.96
Misc. landscaping	12	28	15	23

(1) Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 114-15; 1940: 10-11, 178-79]).

(2) The columns present the number of projects completed in each park except for roads which denote milage and miscellaneous landscaping indicating the number of parks in which the project was done. "BY CCC" refers to those completed by the CCC and "total" refers to those completed by the CCC, WPA, and the State Conservation Commission and in 1938-1940 by the NYA as well.

By about 1938, the emphasis on construction shifted somewhat away from the development of water recreation areas to service buildings and structures and camping facilities. Greater structural work occurred prior to mid-1938 with the building of major bridges in

Backbone, Black Hawk, Lacey-Keosauqua, and Lake Wapello and road work at Backbone and Ahquabi. Complementing building design, landscaping including planting, road construction, and signage received emphasis between 1937 and 1940 (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 111]). The CCC undertook an extensive planting program in those parks which contained camps while the WPA sponsored planting projects in other parks. Relatively extensive planting occurred at Backbone, Beed's Lake, Black Hawk, Dolliver, Lacey-Keosauqua, Lake Ahquabi, Lake Keomah, Ledges, Maquoketa, Pilot Knob, Stone, Wapello, and Lake of Three Fires state parks. The effort totalled 1,083,194 trees and 356,933 shrubs between 1936 and 1938. Reforestation planting occurred in the newer parks with attention to simulation of natural landscaping. New planting augmented the forests and replaced diseased specimens in older parks. Nurseries established at Lacey-Keosauqua and Ames in 1936-1938 as well as Lake Ahquabi, Walnut Woods, Lake Manawa, Black Hawk in 1938 to 1940 provided the planting stock for CCC projects. These planting and reforestation projects recognized one of Iowa's most urgent conservation needs (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1940: 160-71; 1938: 116-17]).

By 1938, the Iowa State Conservation Commission completed the construction of 18 artificial lakes totalling 1670 acres. Many but not all of these projects were at least partially constructed by the CCC. Participating parks included Springbrook, Lake of Three Fires, Lake Ahquabi, Lake Keomah, Lake Wapello, Lacey-Keosauqua, Palisades-Kepler, Backbone, Pine Lake, and Beed's Lake. The CCC also participated in the dredging of Black Hawk Lake between 1938 and 1940. The Iowa State Conservation Commission continued to lease the concession facilities at 15 to 18 parks improved by the CCC between 1937 and 1940. Concessions included boating and bathing, refreshments, tobogganing, lodge meals, and miscellaneous items. They represent a considerable increase in the parks' recreational facilities since 1936 (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 119, 135; 1940: 168, 171, 190-91]).

Cabin camping also increased in popularity after 1936 as CCC labor added cabins to Iowa state parks. Lake Ahquabi, Lake Wapello, and Dolliver received the first 18 cabins in 1937. In 1938, 44 were added to Backbone, Dolliver, Lake Ahquabi, Lake Wapello, Ledges, Palisades-Kepler, and Pine Lake. Between 1939 and 1940, six cabins were added at Backbone and three at Lake Wapello giving a total of 53. Group camps used by organizations were also built during this period. Such camps included cabins, central dining halls, and comfort facilities. Although the facilities existed, tent camping

never gained popularity during this period. CCC labor added facilities to meet the needs of winter sports including skating, skiing, coasting, and toboggan as the sports experienced increasing popularity from 1936 (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 109; 1940: 157]).

The Effects of the War Effort Upon the CCC: 1940-1942

Reduction in the number of camps and correspondingly in the number of completed state park projects continued through 1940 in period 15, April 1, 1940 to September 30, 1940 and experienced drastic reduction by period 17, April 1, 1941 to September 30, 1941. Between the two periods, the number of parks involved in the construction projects dropped from nine to five and by period 18, October 1, 1941 to March 31, 1942 to two. There was one Soil Conservation Service camp in Iowa, SCS34, at Coryden in period 19, April 1, 1941 to June 30, 1942, and no known state park work. On the other hand, state parks continued to grow in popularity among the visiting public. The Iowa State Conservation Commission opened four new parks and the existing parks were "...taxed beyond capacity" (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1940: 116, 154-55; U.S. CCC 1933-42 [1942]). The WPA and NYA continued to furnish labor, funds, and equipment for state park projects until period 19 (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 116, 132-33]).

Table 12 illustrates the rapid decline in the number of CCC camps which
performed state park work during periods 15 through 18. No Iowa state park work by the CCC occurred during period 19, April to July, 1942.

Table 12
Iowa State Park CCC Work Projects During Periods 8 to 14 (1)

Camp	Period 15 (3)	Period 16	Period 17
S102	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)	Lacey-Keosauqua (2)
S104	Red Haw (2)	Red Haw	
SCS1 (DSES1)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie (2)	Waubonsie
SP7 (S100)	Springbrook	Springbrook	
SP17	Backbone	Backbone	Backbone

SP19	Lake McBride	Lake McBride	Lake McBride
SP27	Black Hawk	Black Hawk	
SP29	Geode	Geode	Geode

Camp	Period 18	Period 19
SP19	Lake McBride	None
SP28	Geode	

(1) U.S. CCC 1933-42 [1940-42].

(2) State park work may continue into the next period, but the data fail to specify exactly when National Forest Service projects in state parks occurred.

(3) Period 15: April to September, 1940; period 16: October, 1940 to March, 1941; period 17: April to September, 1941; period 18: October, 1941 to March, 1942; period 19: April to July, 1941.

The number of construction projects also dropped drastically from the 1938 to 1940 biennium to the July, 1940 to July, 1942 biennium. Table 13 records the number of projects in a total of 34 Iowa state parks.

Table 13
State Park Construction Projects: July, 1940 - July, 1942 (1)

Project	By CCC	Total (2)
Custodian's residence	2	3
Park lodges	0	1
Shelters	3	5
Service buildings	6	6
Bathhouses	1	1
Boathouses	0	1
Latrines	7	12
Footbridges	1	2
Vehicle bridges	1	2
Sewer system	6	8
Water systems	7	13
Cabins	18	20
Entrance portals	2	2
Boat docks	1	4
Dams	3	4
Power lines	1	5
Total projects	59	89
Roads	2.45	2.46
Miscellaneous landscaping	9	17

(1) Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 132-33]).
(2) The columns present the number of projects completed in each park except for roads which denote mileage and miscellaneous landscaping indicating the number of parks in which the project was done. "By CCC" refers to those completed by the CCC and "total" refers to those completed by the CCC, WPA, NYA, and the State Conservation Commission.

Landscaping was considerably reduced as the extensive labor needed for such projects evaporated. With the assistance of the CCC and other relief agencies, a total of 8,670 trees and 8,300 shrubs were planted during the biennium. The parks operated six holding nurseries at Lake Manawa, Lake Wapello, Lake Ahquabi, Black Hawk Lake, Walnut Woods, Wapsipinicon, and Josh Higgin Parkway (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 117]).

Swimming, cabin camping, picnicking, and fishing remained popular recreational pursuits in the parks. The CCC constructed 18 cabins

at Backbone and Springbrook state parks making a total of 73 cabins in nine Iowa state parks. Nine of the cabins at Springbrook composed a group camp. Six additional cabins, probably erected by the Conservation Commission, were also under construction by July, 1942 at Lake of Three Fires. The state also added two new cabins to the Dolliver group camp of ten cabins. This camp contained a central assembly hall and comfort facilities. Tent camping still failed to attain popularity particularly in comparison to the heavy use of cabin facilities (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 111-14, 155]).

The reduction in the number of concessions within the parks was attributed to war time conditions not lack of public interest. Concessions included boating, bathing, refreshments, and dining room meals (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1933-42 [1942: 126, 144-45]).

Other State Agencies Involved in Iowa State Park Work. In addition to CCC camps sponsored by the National Park Service, National Forest Service, and Soil Conservation Service, agencies such as the Project Works Administration (PWA), Civil Works Administration (CWA), Works Progress Administration (WPA), especially the transient division, Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), and the National Youth Administration (NYA) all worked in Iowa state parks. A brief review of their contributions assists an understanding of overall park development through relief labor.

The WPA proved to be the most active agency besides the CCC. However, their park work did not begin until 1935 with the creation of the WPA. The Division of Planning and Design of the National Park Service through the same project inspectors also supervised WPA projects in state parks. Such projects were generally oriented toward the employment of skilled, local labor which was used to a limited extent in Iowa parks. However, most of the WPA work was performed by the TP camps of the Transient Division which appears to have operated much the same as the CCC except the age restrictions did not apply. Most of the projects were of short, but varying duration requiring limited skill. The work crews received skilled supervision, and the projects were regularly inspected. The WPA engaged in work in city parks such as those in Des Moines, Webster City, Fort Dodge, Dubuque, Rockford, and Oskaloosa as well as numerous state parks (Table 14) (U.S. NPS, District Office 1935-36 [12/35 and 3/36, box 23]; State Inspector 1934-39 [box 1]; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1936: 184]; Iowa Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 13-14, 1938:

113]).

Table 14
Non-CCC Work in Iowa State Parks: 1935 - 1942 (1) (2)

Park	5/35-6/36	7/36-6/38	7/38-6/40	7/40-6/42
Backbone	S		S	C-S
Beaver Meadows	W	S		S
Beed's Lake	C-W		W-S	S-N
Bellevue		S		
Black Hawk	C-W	W	W-S-C	S
Brush Canyon		S		
Call, A. A.			W	
Clear Lake		W	W-S	S
Cold Springs			W	S
Dolliver	W	W		S
Eagle Lake				S
Echo Valley	C-W			
Farmington		W	N	
Flint Hills	W			
Fort Defiance	C-W	W	W-S	
Geode				C-S
Gull Point	C-S-W			
Heery Woods	W	W		
Josh Higgins				N-S
Lacey-Keosauqua		W		
Lake Ahquabi	C-W	C-W	S	S
Lake Keomah		W	W	S
Lake McBride	C-W	C-W	S	
Lake Manawa	C-W	W	W-S	
Lake Wapello			C-S	
Lake of 3 Fires	C-W			
Ledges		W		S
Lewis and Clark	W	W	S	
Lost Island				S
Maquoketa		W	W	
Mill Creek		W	W-S	W-S
Oak Grove	C-W			
Palisade-Kepler	C-W	C-W		C-S
Pammel	C-W			S
Pikes Peak		S		
Pikes Point				S
Pillsbury Point	S			

Pilot Knob			N-S	N-S
Pine Lake		W		N-S
Red Haw Hill		W		S
Sharon Bluff				N-S
Springbrook	S-W-C			S
Storm Lake			W-S	
Tapper's Bay				S
Twin Lake			W-S	S
Walnut Woods	W	W	W-S	S
Wanata				W-S
Wapello				S
Waubonsie		W		
Wild Cat Den	W	W		

(1) Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1936: 122-23; 1938: 114-15; 1940: 178-79; 1942: 132-33]).

(2) Key: S: Iowa State Conservation Commission, W: local WPA labor and transient WPA camps, N: National Youth Administration, C: CCC in combination with other agencies. The table excludes all those projects utilizing only CCC labor.

Much of the work completed by the WPA appears to be minor buildings and structures such as latrines, riprapping, footbridges, sewer and water systems, small bridges, roads, shelters, and cabins. But, projects also included dams, lodges, bathhouses, entrance portals, and service buildings often erected with the work force of another agency. The WPA completed landscaping ranging from planting to stone riprapping around the natural and artificial lakes at many of the parks. It also sponsored a planting program in state parks lacking CCC camps in the 1936-1938 biennium (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: (3, 1) 14]; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 116, 119]). The flexibility of the WPA also allowed the agency to offer nature tours from 1937 to 1940 (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 108-09; 1940: 156-57]). Although the WPA worked at many of the State Parks in Iowa as noted in Table 14, those with the transient camps appear to have received the most building projects in 1935-1936. These camps were established in city as well as state parks: Wild Cat Den, Lacey-Keosauqua, Black Hawk, Walnut Woods, Beaver Meadow, Heery Woods, and Clear Lake (U.S. NPS, District Office 1935-36 [12/35, 3/36, 4/36: box 23).

Some Iowa communities and counties released Civil Works Administration (WPA) enrolles to work in state parks under the

supervision of the National Park Service. These civil divisions continued to pay the wages of the CWA workers. Much of this cooperation appears to have occurred relatively early in 1933 and 1934 in such parks as Wanata, Lake Manawa, and Wild Cat Den. CWA workers became involved in such diverse projects as dredging Lake Manawa; the construction of a shelter, trails, latrines, and footbridges in Wanata; and trails and guard rails at Wild Cat Den (U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [12/2/33, 12/10/33, 2/27/34, box 2; 7/34, box 3]). The National Youth Administration also furnished labor and materials for some recreation area projects late in the 1930s (Table 14) (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 116]). The Federal Emergency Relief Administration directly supported work on state conservation projects in 36 counties. This program primarily supplied financial aid but probably did not directly hire laborers. Its work supported both major and minor projects including trails, custodian's residences, bathhouses, shelters, park furniture, erosion control, bridges, and landscaping (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1936: (1,1) 4]). The CCC tended to limit the financial ceiling of its projects leaving larger projects to such agencies as the Project Works Administration. Larger projects included concrete dams, bridges, and flood control. However, it is not clear whether the PWA actually sponsored such work in Iowa state parks (U.S. NPS, District Office 1933-35 [12/5/34, box 2]). Finally, the Iowa State Conservation Commission completed some of the unfinished projects during and after the 1933 to 1942 era. Much of this work occurred in the 1940-1942 biennium (Table 14) (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 116]). After 1942, the two divisions of the State Conservation Commission continued park maintenance, tree planting, wildlife preservation, and nursery operations but they were extensively curtailed (Grieshop 1989a: 33).

Iowans did dramatically increase the use of their state parks during the CCC era as the Roosevelt administration had anticipated. Visitation rose to 2,500,000 by the end of 1937, an 100,000 person increase from the previous season. The number of state parks doubled from 36 in 1927 to 72 in 1937, and likewise the visitation almost doubled in the same period. Sixty percent of the increase in attendance and 75% of the increase in parks occurred between 1933 and 1937 in the CCC era. Such figures likely influenced the Conservation Commission's efforts in its state park development. And, this rise continued. By 1942, the estimated state park visitation reached 3,686,481, a rise of about 47% since 1937. Most of the visitors came from the local area of the parks. Thus, as new parks were created, the visitation in older ones did not drop.

Favored recreation was clearly water recreation and cabin camping with increasing interest in winter sports. However, the physically less active sports oriented toward the appreciation of nature such as hiking and nature study did not gain the popularity during the 1930s which the Commission had hoped. The orientation of CCC park development had been the enhancement of the landscape to allow its appreciation by the visiting public (Iowa State Planning Board 1936-38 [1938: 14]; Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 13]).

THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE CCC MOVEMENT

The achievements of the Iowa CCC in the state parks as in other states indicate above all that the nation had reached a sufficient level of maturity to conceive and operate a public works program which affected a large cross-section of the United States. Prior to the crisis of The Depression, a majority of the public and the government had been unwilling to commit such responsibilities to the care of the federal government. Although initially conceived in the early part of the century under the Progressive Movement, the bureaucratic system of government had come of age. This movement introduced new directions for the federal government. It now became broadly involved in the conservation of natural resources, it influenced state and local government programs, and it became increasingly responsible for the welfare of its individual citizens as it strove to put the unemployed back to work and cared for their families. The CCC thus forecasted the more sophisticated conservation and human welfare programs of the future (Ahlgren 1987: 121, 125-28). These trends were also reflected at the state level of government and contribute considerable significance to the properties which represent this era.

For the first time, the federal government constructed a successful public welfare program which employed young men in productive work. Between 1933 and 1942, the program created work for 5% of the male population including 45,000 Iowans. The state park program utilized the labor of 2 million of the nation's enrolles in 881 state, county, and municipal parks. Through their employment, it provided a small additional income for their families. Enrolles in the CCC gained knowledge of work skills which many later utilized in industrial employment. Many enrolles achieved additional education which had seemed pointless in a nation without work. They gained social maturity, new values and attitudes, and a sense of responsibility through such a communal experience. They

acquired hope for the future after a past which had left them apathetic. Their accomplishments in park development and conservation brought to the communities in or near which they work a general mood of optimism and confidence in the future growth of the nation. Although there are few remnants of the camps in which they experienced this change, the CCC enrolles expressed their newly learned skills in the tangible buildings, structures, objects, and landscaping which they completed in state parks (Paige 1985: 126, 132; Holland and Hill 1974: (1944): 113; Wirth 1980: 100; Grieshop 1989a: 25, 34; 1989b: 24).

CCC expenditures also added over $50 million to Iowa's economy including the salaries earned by the enrolles and the portion sent to their dependents. Local communities near where the camps were located received a boost in their economy from the purchase of food stuffs, supplies, services, and construction materials; the employment of contractors during the building of the CCC camps, employment of local experienced men, and the hiring of heavy equipment for construction (Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1935: 196]; Grieshop 1989a: 35; Cohen 1981: 18).

The CCC program preserved and restored the natural resources on which the nation depended. Such work as soil, forest, and water conservation could not have been accomplished under normal economic conditions. The CCC's example as importantly reversed the nation's past tendency to waste more resources than could be restored. Its efforts altered public awareness to the serious nature of the problem and the continuing need to practice resource conservation. Evidence of these conservation measures also occurs in state park projects. A significant component of the park work involved reforestation, erosion control, improvement of water resources, and landscaping to simulate the natural conditions. Thus, many park visitors directly experienced these contributions (Wirth 1944: 2; 1980: 151-52; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1941: 3]; Iowa Department of Agriculture 1935-36 [1935: 194]).

By providing for state park development through the National Park Service, the CCC significantly contributed to the built environment of the parks and overall park planning. By 1938, the CCC had developed more than three million acres for park use in 854 states and stimulated a considerable rise in park visitation. Public monies allowed rapid park expansion in Iowa as elsewhere. It provided public recreation facilities during a period when leisure time was increasing and few citizens could afford them. Many lacked access to such facilities. As noted by many, the CCC

advanced park development by many years through its provision of the finances, labor, organization, and technical assistance of the National Park Service.

In Iowa, the State Conservation Commission accomplished nearly 75% of its twenty-five year master plan between 1933 and 1937. The CCC program allowed the Conservation Commission to accomplish development initially determined financially impossible. The emphasis on park planning was a most significant contribution of the movement. The approach ensured assessment, proper utilization, and protection of the park's natural values. It determined the kinds of visitor utilization and consequently the location and type of park development necessary. The National Park Service's involvement also directed the kind of development: the concentration of development at specific locations, the emphasis upon architectural blending with proper landscaping, and the style of architecture. The buildings and structures thus remain a "visible legacy" of their work (Ahlgren 1987: 111). The rustic architecture of the National Park Service which remains embodies these ideas. Its construction would not have been possible without the large CCC crews providing the intensive labor required by such a building program and the close supervision supplied by the National Park Service through the state program (Ahlgren 1987: 3-4, 114, 121-22; Wirth 1980: 145; Paige 1985: 127; U.S. CCC, Office of the Director 1933-41 [1935: 4-6]; Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984; Grieshop 1989b: 24).

State park work in Iowa symbolizes "...a federal program that combined social humanitarian ideals with conservation and recreational improvements to benefit the nation" (Ahlgren 1987: 128). The CCC state park properties thus represent a heritage rich in meaning from the depression era.

F. PROPERTY TYPES

1. NAME OF PROPERTY TYPE
CCC Properties in Iowa Parks

2. DESCRIPTION

The CCC Properties in Iowa Parks property type is treated as one type divided into subtypes by function somewhat modified from the classification presented by Good in 1938 (Good 1938). This categorization attempts to best reflect the view of park properties held by their creators during the period in which they were built. Park properties were designed according to standard functions in several different physical forms so that they blended into the landscape of a particular region. Thus, these functional property types were combined to fit the landscape and needs of the park. Since the physical setting of each park location was unique, the National Park Service rarely prepared overall standard park designs. Such plans occur only for overnight and group camps. The discussion of the property type begins with a description of the shared physical and associative characteristics of the type and then reviews the traits specific to each subtype.

Shared Associative and Physical Characteristics

The property type relates the context to the properties. In so doing, it defines the temporal, geographical, and thematic limits of the type. The property type includes all CCC buildings, structures, and objects erected entirely or substantially with the assistance of other federal, state or local relief agencies in Iowa parks whether municipal, county or state during the years which the Civilian Conservation Corps was active, 1933 to 1942. Thus, the geographic limits of the type specify location in parks within the state of Iowa, and the temporal limits are defined as May, 1933 to July, 1942.

CCC Park Properties in Iowa parks represent the theme Iowa State Park Development by the Civilian Conservation Corps: 1933-42 which covers the same temporal range but focuses on state parks. The broader geographic limits of the property type recognizes that a similar property type was erected in county and municipal as well as state parks.

The property type then represents the subthemes presented under

section E. The philosophy guiding park development dictated attention to the values of the physical setting and was one aspect of the rapid growth of the conservation movement in the 1930s under the Roosevelt administration. Within the restraints of landscape preservation, federal and state governments recognized that the growth in leisure time required government provision of surroundings in which this time would be spent to ensure the preservation of society. The properties are the result of one of the first successful welfare programs sponsored at the federal level. They were one aspect of the "New Nationalism." The CCC program evidences the capability of a society to reformulate its principals to cope with a crisis. In this sense, the program had a lasting effect. The CCC movement represents the first successful coordination of a bureaucratic system which had been formulated several decades before. The organization of the CCC was through the cooperation of diverse federal agencies. Through this system, the federal government absorbed social welfare functions which had previously been the prerogative of local communities and families. Thus, the properties represent a period of rapid social change in American society. While the concepts brought to the New Deal programs were not individually new, their successful combination into a lasting form of government organization, the rapid extension of a professional bureaucratic system, was new. This form of organization allowed the federal level National Park Service and National Forest Service as well as other agencies to cooperate in the development of state parks for the first time.

The philosophy guiding rustic architecture so characteristic of the national parks by the mid to late 1920s became incorporated into state park design through the cooperative effort of the state and federal government. It is a very tangible example of the influence of the bureaucratic system in this period. Also, rustic architecture itself symbolizes the progress of the conservation and related historical movement with its guiding philosophy and the blending of man-made park features with the landscape and represents in a stylistic fashion some facet of pioneer heritage. Such organization brought together the necessary professional guidance and large amount of skilled and unskilled labor on a broad aerial basis necessary for constructing such architecture at the state level. Thus, the architecture portrayed in Iowa state parks in itself expresses the Iowa State Park Development by the Civilian Conservation Corps context and thus becomes a very significant representation of the theme.

Because the style is essentially apart of the theme, it was

described within the context itself. A summation of the guidelines specifically directing its physical expression appears below. Park development began with the creation of the master plan. Planning was to ensure minimum effect on the natural values of the park setting and yet maximize the utilization of these values and other features of the park for human enjoyment and recreation. Prior to the engagement of the full work force, professional technicians, the camp supervisor, and a small work crew developed the final plan, mapped the area by topographical survey, and described the natural setting and park values. The plan specified building location in relation to natural features and other buildings, defined the kinds of vegetation natural to the area to allow the blending of man-made improvements with their surroundings, and indicated the function, plan, size, materials, and embellishments of each building, structure, and object. Proper planning avoided and controlled soil erosion within and adjacent to the park. The concentration of buildings at several locations rather than throughout the park and the combination of several functions into one building short of creating overly large designs had less impact on the landscape. Overdevelopment of the park, one problem which the landscape architects and architects at the Central Design Office at Ames encountered early in the CCC era, was to be avoided (U.S. NPS 1935-36 [7/35, box 22]). In most sections of Iowa, low, horizontal sometimes rambling buildings and structures blended into the rolling, prairie or sparsely wooded landscape. Intensive hand labor minimized the impact of construction on the landscape and left the main building materials in a more natural condition. In Iowa, native wood either as logs or as lumber was cut and local stone quarried and dressed by CCC enrolles (Ahlgren 1987; 1988; Tweed 1978).

The architecture within the park was to express a single historical theme through a unified design. Building and structure design stressed simplicity of architectural style. By limiting ornate design, the building or structure easily blended with the landscape. Such design enabled construction by unskilled labor and cost less. The use of hand tools, native materials, and less sophisticated design elements gave the impression that buildings and structures had been executed by pioneer craftsmen thus relating the property to a past historical theme (Good 1938: (1) 5; Ahlgren 1986: 186). In Iowa, this romantic primitiveness usually meant the use of log roof supports, roughly cut wood siding, and native stone laid in a random ashlar or random rubble pattern. And, as much as possible, the positioning of materials within the building was to resemble its natural state. Stone was to be placed horizontally on

its natural bedding plane. Although larger stones were to be placed at the base, a variety of sizes and shapes were to occur throughout the building. Logs were to retain their knots, and pole-like pieces were to be avoided. However, logs were to be peeled to avoid deterioration and the mess of shedding bark and to be placed on concrete footings extending well above the ground to enhance preservation (Good 1938: (1) 7). The heaviness of the roof system was to parallel the walls. The verge and gables were then to be oversized and the roof materials heavy and durable. "Wavering, free-hand lines" were favored over "straight, rigid eaves." In Iowa, this goal usually entailed the use of heavy timber rather than dimension lumber rafters and other roof elements and coverings of native wood shakes. Colors such as warm browns and grays also blended architectural forms (Good 1938: (1) 6-8).

The use of a single style within the park presented a less obtrusive appearance and a unity of design (Good 1938: (1) 8). Simplicity of ornamentation allowed harmony with the surroundings (Ahlgren 1988: 202-203). Elaborations often followed the American Craftsmen style (1900-1930). In the Midwest, this style frequently occurred on bungalows whose general proportions paralleled many ideals of rustic architecture. Utilizing rectilinear, yet bold motifs, bungalows were simple in detailing, were built of brick, stone or stucco, had broad, low gables, low massing, and large dormers. Decorative details included exposed rafters and purlins, knee braces, brackets, a relatively wide overhang, a dominating dormer, bay windows, horizontal bands of windows, dentils along porches, stickwork in gables, flared bases, and enclosed porches or the use of closed rails, and heavy porch piers (Gottfried and Jennings 1985).

The principles of rustic architecture specified the spatial distribution of park properties in general terms indicating their relationship to their natural setting and each other. Properties were to cluster in loose concentrations in areas where such development would not harm the natural values for which the park gained importance. Plantings and minor structures adjacent to these developments were used to blend the man-made elements into their natural surroundings.

As the context notes, the Central Design Office in Ames with guidance from the National Park Service inspectors created many of the park and building designs. Initially, although standard plans existed, most building designs were created for each individual park. Minor structures were perhaps drawn from stock plans. As

the number of projects multiplied by the mid-1930s, the plans became more standardized. The project supervisors with their technicians created some building designs while others originated from the Branch of Planning and Design in Indianapolis and later in Omaha. Thus, the designs for Iowa parks came from several different sources, but primarily the Central Design Office. The landscape architect associated with this office and the State Conservation Commission, John R. Fitzimmons, created many of them. All buildings, structures, and objects associated with the multiple resource nomination were begun or substantially completed by Civilian Conservation Corps enrolles, the local experienced men, and technicians who guided them. Some were completed by relief workers employed by the Works Progress Administration, the National Youth Administration or contractors hired by the Iowa State Conservation Commission.

The longevity of many of the CCC park properties is limited. Their proper maintenance many times required the use of materials and skilled or intensive labor which was not later economically available. Some of the smaller buildings and structures and landscaping elements such as barriers, signs, fountains, fencing, incinerators, and privies were by their manner of construction and size more temporary. Building function also altered changing interior designs or openings or adding wings. The buildings of CCC camps within the parks were intentionally temporary, erected with the intent of demolition or removal. Few of these buildings remain. Finally, changing public recreational needs and values have induced modifications or resulted in abandonment of many CCC park structures. Thus, the persistence of a high number of CCC buildings in state parks was not anticipated prior to the survey. However, many projects did survive. Subtypes designed for considerable public activity such as picnic shelters, comfort stations, refectories, bathhouses, and boathouses often retain a large degree of integrity. Those with functions not specifically associated with public activities or those exposed to weathering tend to have less integrity of design. It is important to determine which subtypes continue to maintain their historical and/or architectural values to direct maintenance goals and modification for current needs.

THE PHYSICAL AND FUNCTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PROPERTY SUBTYPES

Albert Good (1938) produced a manual for the National Park Service presenting the designs for buildings, structures, and objects organized by function. The variations within each category were primarily intended for different natural settings and variations in functional requirements. Since he did not generally display overall park plans for different kinds of parks, buildings and structures were to be combined to fulfill the needs of the park. Since Good's categories express the needs of parks in the 1930s, they provide the basis for the property subtypes offered below. Such a division should lead to a better understanding of how the park's creators viewed the use of the park, that is, the creator's vision of the immediate meaning of the park to local park consumers. Good divided park architecture into three broad functional categories: I. Administrative and Basic Service Facilities, II. Recreational and Cultural Facilities, and III. Overnight and Organized Camp Facilities (Good 1938).

I. Administrative and Basic Service Facilities

Administrative and Basic Service Facilities were those buildings and structures (Good 1938: I, 50):

> ...considered to embrace structural development necessary for the ...considered to embrace structural development necessary for the control, supervision, and maintenance of an area [the park] together with the basic service which might be termed the park equivalent of the city's public utilities. Included are entrance and boundary structures, administration buildings as the seat of order and authority, signs as instrument of control, equipment and maintenance buildings functioning to give continuity to desirable physical conditions attained, and structures for housing those persons charged with administering and maintaining the park preserve. Here also are those "first things" needed for safe use of an outdoor area by the public, namely, drinking water supply, toilets, rubbish disposal, and fire lookout structures, paralleling respectively the city's water, sanitation, rubbish disposal, and fire alarm systems. These are topped off with trail steps, crossings, culverts, and bridges...."

Good reasoned that since these buildings and structures had a

practical function to fulfill, they should therefore be erected as practical edifices constructed without "frills" and usually located in one or more loose concentrations beyond public view. They were requisite to any park (1938: (1) 5). For this group of buildings and structures in particular, Good recommended the combination of related functions under one roof where it would not create an overly large building. And being practical, they were to have limited embellishment (1938: (1), 8).

A. Entranceways and Checking Stations
The entranceway was intended to identify to the visiting public the existence of the park, invite use, and yet deter the potential abuse introduced by the automotive age. To accomplish this, Good suggests widening the entrance. The checking station allows the collection of admissions and introduces an element of control. The checking station with low gate across the road provided working space for park employees. Suggested checking stations include small, primarily random rubble stone, circular or rectangular buildings adjacent to the side of the road. They usually occur in combination with stone entrance pylons which more frequently appear by themselves. The pylons, often random rubble stone and rectangular or square in cross-section with or without flanking wing walls, are placed along either side of the entrance to the park and support the park sign and a timber gate across the road. They vary in number from a single pylon on either side of the road which often vary from each other in size to several or more pylons along each side of the road. In the later case, the shapes and sizes on either side of the road are often but not always balanced, and the pylons may carry connecting, horizontal timbers (Good 1938: (1) 9-30).

B. Barriers, Walls, and Fences
Barriers, walls, and fences are intended primarily to restrain automobile traffic. Since such artificial enclosure obtrudes upon the openness of the park, they are to be carefully blended into the landscape. Appropriate materials match the prevailing elements of the landscape. Good also suggests that the form of barrier construction vary to imitate nature's irregularity. The least obstructive to the view and those which survive was the low, log or rock guard rails placed in naturalized groupings. The horizontal wood barriers are not likely to survive. However, the more durable natural log or stone grouping and low stone curb and stone retaining wall of random rubble are suited to areas of rock outcroppings and more likely to persist (Good 1938: (1) 31-38).

C. Signs
Signs provide directional, designative, regulatory or cautionary information. They are often keyed into the general natural or historical motifs of the park. Good warns against their overabundance as an intrusion upon nature but acknowledges their necessity to direct the flow of visitors. To allow them to blend into their background, Good stresses the use and proper scaling of native materials. For example, substantial log signs are appropriate for heavily wooded areas but not prairies. This type does not survive. For prairie areas, signs with square timber supports are appropriate. Two upright posts with a single or several cross pieces between them support the sign. Information was placed on a panel suspended between the cross pieces as shown for Gull Point State Park (Good 1938: (1) 45). Good recommends burned rather than painted lettering for maintenance reasons (Good 1938: (1) 39-56).

D. Administrative Buildings
The administration building is described as the headquarters for the direction and business management of the park, as the point of control in the park. Administrative buildings often include multi-functional buildings to reduce their number by combining several needs such as park office, museum, checking point, custodian's dwelling, dining concession, community building, and recreation pavilion. Administration buildings functioning simply as offices infrequently exist in state parks (Good 1938: (1) 57-72). In Iowa, park administration during the CCC era is placed either in the custodian's dwelling or the equipment and maintenance building both of which occur in the service group. These buildings are described under their own headings.

E. Custodian and Staff Residences
These residences housed the custodian's and assistant custodian's family within the park. Good's model for such buildings is the romanticized pioneer homestead of the locale. For example in the Midwest, they often imitate log or stone cabins. Good aims at "...an efficiently planned five- or six-room rural dwelling that stresses the importance of fitness to the environment" (1938: (1) 73). The custodian's residence often includes several other functions, particularly the administrative function, in Iowa parks. While not intruding into the park setting, such quarters are placed in close proximity to areas of concentrated use to provide adequate supervision. The appearance of the dwelling is quite variable depending on the natural setting (Good 1938: (1) 73-88). These

residences are generally stone, either random rubble or uncoursed ashlar, or much less frequently frame or even concrete block such as the example at Springbrook. Shapes vary from a rectangular block usually with an ell at the rear to an irregularly shaped dwelling which has the essential shape of an ell. They are almost always one story or rarely one and a half stories and covered with an intersecting gable, wood shingled roof. The gables of stone dwellings are occasionally sided with weatherboard or vertical siding. Elaborations are limited and include any combination of exposed purlins and rafters, quoins, bay window, picture window, dormer, segmental stone lintels, flagstone patio, and open breeze way to maintenance building. Interiors usually include a living room, less frequently a dining room, kitchen, several bedrooms, and office space which is now usually a bedroom or was located in a full basement. Interiors are sometimes covered with vertical panelling and the roof support system is occasionally exposed in the main rooms.

F. Equipment and Maintenance Buildings
Equipment and maintenance buildings which have limited contact with the public require little embellishment in their proper location, those convenient to areas of concentrated use but removed and screened from public view. Often positioned adjacent to the custodian's residence, these buildings were frequently placed in a group to avoid clutter across the park and centralize maintenance operations. The preferred arrangement was a square service court surrounded by service buildings shielding these activities from public view (Good 1938: (1) 89-102). More frequently in Iowa, there is a single or in one instance at Springbrook several maintenance buildings located linearly along the park road near the custodian's dwelling. Such buildings house vehicles, equipment, and tools and implements; store supplies including firewood, ice, maintenance materials, feed, gas, oil, and park objects such as picnic tables; once sheltered horses and even cows and chickens with the necessary stalls and granary; and offer cover for maintenance operations such as the creation and repair of park signs and wood objects and the repair of park vehicles and of metal objects. Thus, they fulfill such functions as garages, barns, shops, woodsheds, storehouses, and blacksmithing operations.

Typical in Iowa are the one to one and a half story random rubble or uncoursed ashlar stone, rectangular buildings with exposed timber purlins and wood shingled, gable roof. Several

are sided with weatherboard in the gable ends. The service group such as the ones at Springbrook, Ft. Defiance, and Dolliver state parks form a one story, random rubble or cinder block ell. At Dolliver, the central portion is one and a half stories with one story wings of small compartments. The front of both varieties is entered through multiple overhead doors. Those remaining from the 1930s such as the ones at Dolliver State Park are side-hinged doors with narrow, flush siding placed in a herring bone pattern. Fixed or hopper windows are most common. Maintenance buildings are frequently elaborated with exposed purlins and rafters and perhaps a front, off-set dormer, a cupola, vertical timber door jambs, horizontal timbers along the eaves, and segmental window lintels. On the interior, the roof framing is exposed and the walls are usually unfinished.

G. Water Supply
The provision of drinking water was considered one essential element of any park. Associated buildings and objects include the pumphouse and the water fountain (Good 1938: (1) 103-28).

The surviving water fountains are small, three foot high, random rubble or coursed ashlar stone objects which are square or nearly square and hollow in cross section. Their top is dished to receive water from a metal spicket. A stepping stone and drain almost always stand adjacent to the fountain. More elaborate fountains are placed at the center of an angled, often stepped, random rubble stone retaining wall.

Pumphouses and water storage tanks also survive. Good recommended the cleaning of suitable springs or the excavation of a well and the erection of an enclosure to minimize the danger of pollution and house the pumping equipment (Good 1938: (1) 103-105). Water storage tanks are frequently cement and underground. Pumphouses may be a poured cement room placed underground with an angled, entrance through the roof. The door is composed of vertical boards. Pump houses are frequently small, single story, rectangular or square stone or frame buildings with a timber supported gable or hip roof. Frame buildings are covered with vertical siding or weatherboard. One example at Lacey-Keosauqua is a random rubble stone building which is circular in shape and covered with a flat roof. Elaborations are limited to exposed purlins and rafters and small cut-out decorations in vertical wood doors. Interiors are unfinished.

H. Comfort Stations and Privies Placed in areas of intensive use, comfort stations composed a second requisite of the park. Comfort stations as opposed to privies distinguish those buildings offering flush toilets whereas privies include pit vault latrines. This subtype includes those buildings which alone house such facilities and not those such as concession stands and picnic shelters which incorporate them. Both comfort stations and privies are constructed in a similar manner (Good 1938: (1) 129-5Ø). They are rectangular or ell-shaped, single story buildings of random rubble or less frequently uncoursed ashlar stone or frame covered with vertical siding or weatherboard. Gable or intersecting gable roofs are covered with wood shingling. Entrances, often at the gable ends, are occasionally protected with random rubble stone walls. Rows of windows often occur high under the eaves to provide adequate ventilation. Dormers occasionally occur along the roof line. Additional elaborations often include exposed purlins and rafters, cut-out decorations in vertical board doors, and flared eaves on stone buildings. Interiors walls are generally unfinished and roof timbers are exposed. A building may contain one room for either sex or a double building including two rooms for each sex and sometimes a room between them to store supplies. Thus, a rectangular privy might contain two rooms with a door at each end and a store room between them.

I.Incinerators
The park also contains small, random, rubble stone or cobblestone incinerators for the disposal of combustible waste. They are usually placed near but somewhat removed from areas of intensive use. Incinerators are low and rectangular in cross-section and vented with a flue at one end. A gate for combustion and one for cleanout beneath occupies the front of the structure. Good describes an example for Backbone State Park which probably now survives in ruins (Good 1938 (1): 153).

J. Trails Steps and Associated Trails
Good did not include trails in his typology. Good complained that "...only unavoidably sharp grades not readily negotiable as such, with no reasonable alternative of an easier grade, will justify resorting to steps at all" (1938: (1) 161). Then, steps were not to be erected for their own sake. In areas of less concentrated use, they were not to intrude on nature and to simulate it as much as possible. However, in those areas experiencing heavy visitation, precautions of safety and ease of negotiation became a greater consideration than their unnatural

appearance. For those wooded areas and those with natural rock outcroppings and ledges, stone trail steps are usually composed of a single layer of unmortared stones. They frequently lack side walls, but in particularly steep areas, random rubble retaining walls prevent erosion along the slopes. Such steps frequently wind along the natural landscape. In areas of heavy use, steps tend to be more regular, often mortared stone or cement with mortared, random rubble stone side walls along steep grades. One cement example at Backbone State Park includes decorative iron work along the iron hand rails. Good illustrates an Iowa example of stone steps with low, stepped retaining walls from Dolliver State Park (1938 :(1) 167, 161-68). Trails experienced as little modification as possible. In addition to steps, such modification includes clearing of vegetation, small stone drains, and the addition of gravel in low areas. Associated features such as benches and overlooks are described under trailside seats, shelters, and overlooks.

K. Culverts, Crossings, and Tunnels
A culvert allowed a trail or road to pass over a drainage obstacle while a crossing permitted a drainage to pass over the road. The crossings in Iowa state parks are a concrete slab ford allowing vehicles to cross shallow streams. Unlike the bridge which is always conspicuous, the smaller culvert consisted of an unobtrusive drainage way piercing a retaining wall placed on either side of the road. The drainage way may be 3 to about 8 feet high and composed of concrete or concrete veneered with random rubble or uncoursed ashlar stone. Random rubble retaining walls usually stepped down away from either side of the drainage way toward the bank. The extension of the culvert wall well beyond the side of the road allowed their masking with vegetation and eliminated high head wall barriers. Lintels or in larger structures corbeling, either relieving arches or segmental arches and often with keystones, bridged the span under the road. In the later case, the culvert begins to resemble a bridge (Good 1938: (1) 169-74). Finally, one bridle tunnel placed under a park road exists at Stone state park. Rectangular in cross-section, it is composed of concrete with a random rubble stone veneer. Rubble side walls on either side of the opening quickly angle into the adjacent slope.

L. Vehicle and Foot Bridges
The necessity of bridges, particularly footbridges along a trail, depended upon the location's proximity to intensive-use areas and the amount of drainage which was spanned. As an

obtrusion into the natural setting, extensive use of bridges led to overdevelopment of the park. Once the bridge became justified, then its appearance was to be one of strength and stability through emphasis upon structural elements. This approach maintained a balanced relationship with the surrounding natural elements. Appropriate materials were native to the locale and visibly occurred close to the bridge to allow blending. And, within the park, variety of design in materials and arch and truss forms as well as variation in height and span somewhat dictated by location also made such artifices less obtrusive. Horizontal coursing, clear vertical joints, and variety in masonry were recommended for stone bridges. Bridges of rounded or hand-hewn square timbers were preferred to stone but open trusses leading to preservation problems were to be avoided. Hence, the acceptable variety of bridges was considerable.

Surviving footbridges in Iowa include those composed of random rubble, tapered, stone piers which support large, horizontal timber spans. The platform of the bridge is often of dimension lumber. Usually supported by the two end piers, horizontal hand rails are now primarily of dimensional lumber rather than timber. Although occurring also over smaller spans, Good intended that they bridge large obstacles. Stone footbridges in Iowa closely resemble Good's small culvert. Usually ranging in length up to 30 feet, they are composed of random rubble or uncoursed ashlar masonry stone. Most span obstacles with a segmental arch which frequently includes a keystone. The stone footbridges have low stone side walls.

No timber vehicle bridges survive. The single, arched stone vehicle bridges resemble the footbridges closely except that they are either masonry or concrete with a veneer of stone. They all possess low side walls. More elaborate examples have rounded, tapered piers at the end of each wall such as the example at Lacey-Keosauqua. Several examples constructed by the CCC at Ledges State Park which appear out of character for CCC construction are composed of a horizontal slab of concrete supported by steel I beams. The horizonal rails placed upon squared timber uprights are composed of dimension lumber (Good 1938: (1): 175-97).

M. Other Minor Park Structures
Multiple utilitarian structures omitted by Good but necessary to the functioning of Iowa parks and constructed by the CCC include

erosion control devices, plantings of native vegetation and similar landscaping features, service and access roads, parking areas, and sewer and water lines. All of these features significantly affect the appearance of the landscape through their placement and design. The mortared or unmorated, rubble stone erosion control devices frequently span small gullies. The main wall of the structure is flanked by tapering wing walls and frequently contains either small ceramic drainage pipes and/or indentations in the top center of the wall to relieve the water pressure behind it. Tapering supporting walls perpendicular to the main wall and to the flow of water are also common. Although originally gravel, almost all roads and many parking lots are now paved. However, most roads retain their original location and tend to wind their way through the park. The native CCC plantings are now difficult to separate from the original vegetation cover unless the park was once composed of open farmlands.

II. Recreational and Cultural Facilities The recreational and cultural facilities category include recreational and cultural day-use park facilities specifically designed for the visitor. Good reviews the manner in which classes of recreation affected the park and the ways in which park design minimized their impact upon their natural surroundings.

Since the picnic areas tend to inflict heavy wear upon the natural environment, they are restricted to concentrated areas. Good devises a double use area one-half of which is used in alternating seasons. This approach allows regeneration of the vegetation in the dormant areas and provides auxiliary space for overflow during periods of peak use. He places the expensive facilities such as shelters, restrooms, and fireplaces between the two. These hubs of activity are scattered along this dividing line. Good proposes moveable picnic tables sufficient in number to serve the needs of a single half. Although an important element in picnic area design, only a single CCC picnic table is identified in Iowa at Lake Wapello State Park.

In addition to careful trail layouts, hiking requires such facilities as seats, small shelters, and overlooks for resting. The trails themselves are included with trail steps under section I as an extension of that feature. Water recreation gained considerable popularity during the 1930s not only in Iowa but across the country. But, dams creating artificial lakes for bathing and boating were unnatural and only acceptable where

natural facilities for water recreation did not exist. Such lakes diminished the natural values of the area. Gaining in popularity, winter sports such as bobsledding and tobogganing required the construction of tracks while the others such as skating, sledding, and skiing were preferred because they introduced less obtrusive modifications. They required such amenities as heated shelters and concessions. Horseback riding required the addition of stables, corrals, and bridle paths. While resources associated with swimming and boating survive, those relating to winter sports and horseback riding do not. Admittedly of somewhat questionable identification, the sports lodges which also doubled as refectories at Lake Ahquabi, Lake McBride, and Pine Lake are the only remaining known examples of this facility. Cultural recreation refers to the interpretation of the natural and historic values of the park. Buildings and structures facilitating this goal include the museum, campfire circle, amphitheater, and outdoor informational signs which also encompass historical markers and shrines (Good 1938: (2) 1-6).

A. Picnic Shelters The picnic shelter is one of the most common park buildings in Iowa parks surviving from the CCC era. Because of their almost universal appearance in parks, Good enlisted the park designer to ensure variety between and within parks. Picnic shelters consisted of an overhead shelter with open or partially open walls and fireplaces in addition to the benches and tables. Also under this heading, combination buildings were composed of shelters with restrooms (Good 1938: (2) 59).

Picnic shelters appear in several forms. Least common such as the example at Backbone are the entirely open shelters whose rounded timber posts supported the gable roof. The shelter with one long side enclosed by a random rubble or uncoursed ashlar stone wall often pierced with rectangular openings or doorways is one of the most frequent varieties. One version is T-shaped with one long wall enclosed. A third variety has an enclosed long side wall and two adjacent stepped end walls all of random rubble stone. Timber posts support the roof. A fourth variation includes the closing of one end wall with an uncoursed ashlar wall. Finally, the variety with three walls enclosed and the fourth supported by stone piers and/or timber posts is usually flanked by two random rubble stone restrooms. Except for the T-shaped shelter which has an intersecting gable roof, gable roofs originally with wood shingling covered the shelters.

Most floors were initially constructed of flagstone and later covered or replaced with concrete. Late examples have a concrete floor poured in squares. The fireplace usually stands in the center of the long wall except for the variation with an enclosed end wall. They provide a center for elaboration. Timber benches on stone piers may flank the fireplace. Fireplaces were also placed along the outside wall in association with a flagstone patio and benches. Additional elaborations include exposed rafters and purlins, bracing, brackets, and horizontal timbers in the gable ends.

B. Concessions and Refectories
The concession sold "recreation food" or snacks and other miscellaneous supplies and when small in size may be combined with other functions such as a picnic shelter. Bathhouses often incorporated concessions but are not viewed as concessions in overall function. The concession enclosed space for storage and display of supplies and preparation of light snacks. Refectories ranged from dining lodges serving meals in a dining room to a large concession with formal seating. The refectory required space for cooking and serving complete meals and seating visitors as well as storage of supplies. Either were placed at the center of concentrated activity (Good 1938: (2) 73-92).

In Iowa, concessions are often combined with picnic shelters such as the ones at Backbone, Pikes Peak, and Ledges state parks. Here, the picnic shelter shares a wall with a small, rectangular, random rubble stone wing with the intersecting gable or gable roof covering both. The concession window opens into the shelter and/or along the outside wall. Shelter forms vary considerably from one enclosed on one long side and one enclosed on three sides to one partially enclosed on all sides. Elaborations follow those of the picnic shelter. Stone state park contains a concession which functions solely as such. It is a small, rectangular building similar to those with attached picnic shelters. The interior of the concession is usually unfinished.

The refectory is considerably larger, more complex in floor plan, and constructed with completely enclosed walls of primarily random rubble or uncoursed ashlar stone. Gables may be closed with weatherboard. Porches are built either of stone or timber framing. Refectories also include sections constructed of frame or log. Shapes vary from ell to irregular forms.

While most are one story, some contain areas reaching two stories. The banks of windows along side walls continued the general horizontal extent of the buildings. Main entrances occasionally contain double doors. Refectories often display the most elaborate decorative elements in the park. They include exposed rafters and purlins, bays, bracing, decorative timbers in gables, segmental window and door lintels, decorative diagonal siding, and patios. Spaces on the interior were often devoted to a large dining/lodge room, a kitchen, restrooms, lobbies, storage rooms, and coat room. They sometimes include an attached picnic shelter. Walls are often covered with wood panelling but the roof framing is exposed. Elaborate fireplace mantles, wrought iron lighting fixtures, decorative floor paintings, and furnishings constructed by the CCC characterize interior features.

C. Trailside Seats, Shelters, and Overlooks
This subtype encompasses a wide range of buildings, structures, and objects which generally offer repose and sometimes shelter along trails or roads. They are frequently placed at scenic points in the park.

Trailside seats offer places of rest along a trail and at areas with outstanding views. Such seats are generally more informal than those associated with areas of concentrated use. Natural formations such as ledges of stone, boulders or logs are modified to form such seating. Backbone offers examples of this variety. The common trailside bench is composed of rubble stone with flat stone slabs forming the seat and back. Most forms are rather massive in appearance and either rectangular in overall shape or semi-circular, often around a stone outcropping.

The more elaborate trailside shelters offer a sheltered seat, are generally smaller in size than the picnic shelter, and provide a place of rest and shelter for hikers on trails. Some combine a place of rest with a view of park scenery thus approaching the size and function of the overlook. For example, circular, timber, umbrella shelters are composed of a center core of rounded timbers which support the timber roof framing and shingled roof. A wooden seat circles the base. Good illustrates an example from Dolliver State Park which no longer remains (1938: (2) 93). Similar shelters are preserved at Waubonsie State Park. Categorized as either a shelter or overlook, the timber shelters at Maquoketa State Park are

hexagonal in shape. Their roofs are supported by individual vertical timbers.

Overlooks usually occur at prominent points in the park along both roads and trails, vary considerably in form, and frequently differ from the trailside shelter only in placement. An overlook may simply be a graveled widening in the road marked by stone guard rails and offering a view of the surrounding park to the motorist. Along the trail, overlooks in Iowa such as the example at Black Hawk and Palisades state parks are a hexagonal, stone edifice. Stone piers rise from the random rubble, waist high wall to support the timber framing of the roof. A considerably more elaborate overlook is the observation tower at Pilot Knob State Park. Its massive stone, circular walls shelter steps which allow the visitor to reach the flat roof. Narrow openings light its interior. A gable roof shelter covers the entrance.

D. Dams, Lakes, and Pools
Good views dams and lakes as necessary evils and consistently recommends small dams to create romantic pools considerably smaller in size than those created by the CCC in Iowa. He accepts their use in smaller parks for areas which lack water recreation facilities. Good did not discuss masonry or concrete dams in part because they manifested a complete absence of harmony with their natural surroundings. He instead considered dams primarily built to simulate natural ledges. Such dams created small pools which were adaptable to a limited degree to swimming (1938: (2) 119-26).

However, such structures did not meet the needs of southwest Iowa parks in which the CCC erected substantial earthen dams with concrete spillways to create lakes ranging in size from 27 to 237 acres (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 119]). The State Conservation Commission with the assistance of the CCC and other relief agencies also erected recreational facilities along their shores.

Although not included in Good's typology, fish rearing ponds from which the state stocked the lakes were relatively frequent and important structures at Iowa parks. Either rectangular with rounded corners or irregular in shape, the ponds had earth bottoms and sides with concrete inlets and drainage ways. This category also includes small pools fed by natural springs which were created primarily for landscaping at for example Backbone

State Park. They are round or irregular in shape with earth bases and both earthen and stone and concrete top edges. They are associated with such structures as retaining walls and trail steps.

E. Bathhouses
Good advises against the construction of spacious bathhouses to allow a moderate fee for their use by the public. He recommended a locker or checking system for possessions to free dressing booths when not actively occupied and thus reduced the size of the facility. The two dressing rooms then provided open spaces and booths for temporary use as well as restroom and shower facilities. The checking room where fees were collected, clothing checked, and other administrative duties performed occupied the space between the dressing rooms to allow adequate supervision. Supplementary dependencies either attached to the bathhouse or immediately adjacent to it included restrooms, a concession, lobby, and a boat storage area (Good 1938: (2) 127-44).

Spatially, the central checking room acted as a rectangular or hexagonal core area from which radiated the dressing rooms. The dressing rooms were essentially rectangular in shape and generally lacked a roof. If extant, the food and boat concession and restrooms were either attached to this core or placed at or near the end of the dressing rooms. These rooms were one story, rectangular buildings with gable or intersecting gable roofs. While bathhouses were generally one story in height, some functions such as the boat concession were placed beneath part of the main building. Thus, bathhouses were often low, rambling buildings. Although they were constructed primarily of random rubble or ashlar stone, bathhouses also contained frame wings or panel inserts along the dressing rooms covered with vertical siding or weatherboard. Weatherboard might also close the gable ends. Decorative elaborations include exposed rafters and purlins, log bracing, stone patios, cupolas, and diagonal wood siding. Interiors were generally unfinished and roof timbers were exposed to view.

F. Boathouses
Iowa state parks also contain a small number of boathouses which are detached from the bathhouse. They usually provide a location for such functions as boat concession and storage, boat repair and painting, and storage of motors, oars, paddles, and other boating gear and occasionally incorporated office space

and showers and restroom facilities (Good 1938: (2) 145-54).

Both boathouses surviving in Iowa state parks at Backbone and Gull Point are composed of what originally functioned as a rectangular one story, stone boat storage area standing adjacent to a round, two story stone observation tower. Heavy, exposed timbers support the roof. Both buildings have a squat, heavy appearance.

G. Miscellaneous Recreational Structures
This category includes bridle paths, stables and associated corrals, warming shelters associated with ice skating and other winter activities, ski, coasting, bobsled, and toboggan runs, and golf courses. While Iowa state parks once contained such resources, they are no longer extant. However, several of the buildings which are now identified as refectories may have at one time partly functioned as sports lodges. They include lodges at Pine Lake, Lake McBride, and Lake Ahquabi which are characterized under refectories.

H. Markers, Shrines, and Museums
Unlike signs which direct, regulate or caution, markers and shrines inform the visitor about natural, historical or archaeological values of the park.

Markers, while placed conveniently for the visitor to absorb their terse information, do not intrude upon the features they explain. Plain or carved panels on posts; panels enframed with timbers on posts; letters inscribed on stone; and the sheltered marker, a panel between two posts and covered with a small gable, shingled roof, are common interpretive devices in the park. Shrines include illustrative materials such as photographs, drawings, maps or natural specimens in addition to an explanation. To meet these functions, the shrine usually shelters one or several shallow, vertical cases with glass fronts. These vertical, often full length exhibits are supported by several substantial timber posts and sheltered by gable roofs supported by exposed timbers covered with shingle or clapboard. These devices provide self-guided tours. Such displays in Iowa parks vary from this norm and include memorial plaques in landscaped settings such as the Dolliver Memorial. Adjacent to a pool set against rock ledges, the plaque to Dolliver describes not only the achievements of Jonathan Dolliver but of the early settlers whom he represents.

Like the marker and shrine, park museums interpret the natural and historical features of the park. Museum buildings contain exhibit halls and office space and occasionally a library and small pavilion. Most of the smaller museums lack exhibit preparation or storage space. The museum's architecture reflects the historical or natural flavor of the locality. Historical museums commonly portray the romanticized pioneer building such as the log cabin or the block house (Good 1938: (2) 169-84). In Iowa state parks, museums are combined with other functions, generally the refectory. The example at Lacey-Keosauqua, a one and two story frame and stone, ell shaped building, is a lodge substantially refurbished and enlarged by the CCC. While it is primarily a refectory, one room contains wall length museum cases which serve as the park museum.

I. Campfire Circles and Amphitheaters
Campfire circles and amphitheaters provide outdoor meeting areas for cultural events within the park. Placed in wooded areas, they are generally somewhat removed and secluded from other park activities. Although fragile and unlikely to survive, examples of campfire circles composed of a circle of roughly regularly spaced, single, unmortared rubble stones still survive at, for example, Waubonsie State Park. Examples may have once included an arch of seats of log or stone around the circle. They are intended primarily for sings and story-telling. Amphitheaters are essentially expanded campfire circles. They generally appear in natural half-bowls. The central stage at the base of the bowl is composed of turf enclosed in a semi-circular retaining wall. Stone steps may lead up to the stage. The stage is often positioned on the east or north side of the bowl to avoid the afternoon sun. Frequently composed of plank or log, seats placed on log or stone piers, extends from the stage along the walls of the bowl on the west and south sides. The example at Pilot Knob sits in a shallow bowl enframed with a stone retaining wall. Plank seats rest on masonry supports along the southeast, south, and southwest sides. Enclosed with a stone retaining wall, the turf stage reached by stone steps occurs on the north side (Good 1938: (2) 205, 197-212).

III. Overnight and Organized Camp Facilities The overnight and organized camp facility provides individual or family accommodations for one or more nights in camping areas, individual cabins, and group camps which also contain cabins as well as other facilities serving group needs and activities. Such individualized and organized camping emerged from the desire to escape the

cramped, artificial urban environment. Although group camps also provide overnight accommodations to individuals and families in cabins, the stay often lasted longer. The organized group referred to character building, educational, welfare, and similar groups engaged in supervised activities. Such groups include families, boys, girls, and handicapped children (Good 1938: (3) 1). Many of the buildings and structures described within this category also belong to other subtypes. However, here their importance derives from their inter-association and general layout of the facilities. Good attempts to design plans which serve many kinds of groups. He creates informal, haphazard arrangements rather than the regular camp streets associated with the military establishment. His camp layout incorporated only the overnight areas and did not include a plan for the entire park. This effort represents his only variation from the presentation of buildings isolated from their surrounding natural and built landscape (1938: (3).

A. Individual Facilities
Individualized facilities include the tent camp sites, cabins, associated service facilities such as the camp stoves, road, water supply systems, washrooms and laundaries, and community buildings.

Layouts for tent camping which occurred in 30 Iowa state parks by 1938 (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1938: 109] consist of one-way roads with scattered parking spurs angling from them. The spurs are bounded by natural barriers to define the camper's parking area. The facilities at each camping place which were separated from one another by a screen of vegetation include picnic tables and fireplaces and general facilities such as drinking water supply, restrooms, and a washhouse and laundry. Evidence from road layouts have yet failed to pinpoint the location of such facilities.

Cabin camping attained considerable popularity in Iowa during the mid-1930s. The State Conservation Commission responded by erecting 18 cabins in three parks in 1937, and by 1942 it had completed 73 cabins in nine parks. But not all were erected by the CCC (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 112]). Because of their relationship to the pioneer era, cabins appeared appropriate to the 1930s park setting. Good places them in loose groupings. He illustrates cabins of different sizes and facilities to provide a price range for the visitor. Minimum facilities include sleeping areas and a kitchenette with restroom and bathing facilities in a separate unit serving a

group of cabins. Second class cabins contain sleeping facilities, a kitchenette, and living room which converted into a sleeping area at night. They often contain fireplaces. Restrooms remain separate. First class cabins gain bathrooms facilities and greater space. Each kind was to be placed in its own group. Cabins accommodate four to six persons. Screened porches are recommended for all cabins. Cabins were to be arranged in an irregular, natural distribution.

Good offered a large variety of interior and exterior cabin plans. Cabins erected by the CCC in Iowa such as those at Backbone, Springbrook, and Pine Lake are rectangular, one story buildings covered with gable roofs. They likely once contained one or two sleeping rooms the second of which was a living room and a kitchen alcove. They are thus minimum and second class facilities. Standing on piers or footings, they are composed of frame with vertical or horizontal siding and random ashlar stone. Elaboration is limited to exposed purlins and rafters. Although Good recommends a number of community buildings for these cabin groupings, none now remain (1938: (3) 75-95).

B. Group Facilities
Good discusses group camp layout for those accommodating from 25 to 100 campers. Ideally, group camp cabins were placed in units of up to 32 campers. Any group composed of more than 32 individuals requires subdivision into smaller units of 16 or 24 to a maximum of 32. This number allows adequate leadership for each unit. The camp units were composed of cabins for campers and leaders with their own unit lodge for social and recreational meetings and restroom facilities. Separated from the cabin units for privacy, a central area outside these camping units contains such facilities as the camp administration building, service buildings, dining facility and kitchen, infirmary, and a camp-wide recreational and cultural facility including the main recreation building, accessories to water sports, museum, craft shop, and campfire ring. Not all camps contained each of these buildings and structures. Such factors as the projected number of campers, its topographical conditions with rough terrain dictating a more scattered camp, the position of a lake which generally formed a prime location for camps, and the kind of organization that sponsored activities at the camp all affected its lay-out. Good provides plans for three different kinds of camp layout indicating the distribution of buildings and their function.

Iowa state parks possessed group camps at Dolliver, Sringbrook, and Lake Ahquabi (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1935-42 [1942: 112-13]). Only a dining hall at Lake Ahquabi's organized group camp remains. The WPA constructed the camp at Dolliver which includes campers' and counselor's cabins, a lodge, and dining hall. At Springbrook, the CCC erected the eight campers' cabins while the Iowa State Conservation Commission substantially remodeled the former CCC buildings into the organized group joint facilities: the recreation hall, dining hall, and infirmary. While the camps at Springbrook and Dolliver were designed to serve well over 32 campers, perhaps as many as 50 to 60, only one group of cabins exists. The joint camp buildings at these camps fall into Good's second category, the medium camp for 48 to 64 campers. Good's layout contains two units with each unit possessing cabins containing four to six campers, a unit lodge, restrooms, and counselor's cabin and joint facilities including the dining lodge, central washhouse, staff quarters, an administrative building, infirmary, and garage. The group camp buildings resemble their counterparts in other areas of the park except perhaps in scale. Most are single story, rectangular or ell-shaped, gable roof buildings of frame with horizontal or vertical siding (Good 1938: (3) 109-119). But, while the group camps at Sringbrook and Dolliver represent important park resources, they should be nominated as a unit under the WPA theme which represents the most important building contributions at each group camp.

The different subtypes belonging to the type CCC Properties in Iowa Parks are thus functional categories recognized by those who designed CCC properties. The above discussion attempts to define the original purpose of the buildings, define their intended park placement, and provide general physical descriptions relevant to the Iowa CCC experience.

2. Significance

The CCC properties in Iowa Parks property type represents the tangible results of CCC work projects in the state as well as other county and municipal parks across the state. The CCC Properties in Iowa Parks are described by the context Iowa State Park Development by the Civilian Conservation Corps: 1933-1942. The property type is thus applicable to a greater range of resources than those specifically considered by the context. The context discusses the related topics of the conservation and recreation movement of the

1930s within the state, the effects of The Depression and efforts to ameliorate them through relief programs at the state and federal levels which set the stage for a specific discussion of the CCC experience, the development of a bureaucratic government and an examination of the CCC's relationship to it, the organization of the CCC especially as it relates to the National Park Service and its programs in the states, and the organization and general description of CCC work projects in Iowa state parks. These topics closely discuss how the GOVERNMENT/POLITICS, SOCIAL HISTORY, RECREATION, AND CONSERVATION areas of significance relate to the Iowa CCC. The CCC interrelates these four areas of significance. The early 1930s was a dramatic era of change in all levels of government, and the CCC properties represent not only the first successful nation-wide relief program devised by the American government but the first period in which conservation practices and related recreation issues became a national concern. The CCC properties result from the cooperation of the many levels of government which contributed to this relief and conservation program. Rustic architecture is a conscious expression of the conservation and park movement and thus an integral part of the context. With its twenty-five year master plan developed by 1933, Iowa became an early recipient of CCC National Park Servile camps whereas many states were initially unprepared to utilize the CCC work force. For example, much of the Wisconsin program did not begin until 1935 (Ahlgren 1987). Thus, Iowa's CCC properties illustrate the development of park systems during the entire period from 1933 to 1942 (Wirth 1980). Utilization of emic subtypes allows the interpretation of the role of the buildings from the perspective of park planners.

The CCC property type also gains significance in the area landscape architecture. The utilization of CCC relief work in state parks required the establishment of a park master plan as also did the principles of rustic architecture. Landscape planning organizes the placement of plantings, trails, and roads as well as the arrangement of buildings, structures, and objects on the landscape. Since rustic architecture consciously attempted to harmonize the cultural resources with the landscape, the properties properly derive their significance from the area of LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE.

The area of LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE also closely relates to the other areas of significance in Iowa. The Roosevelt administration met a clear need to preserve and conserve American's natural resources. Rustic architecture which sought harmony with the

natural landscape became one vehicle in the states' parks to express this ethic. The conservation movement in Iowa had its beginnings in the 1890s and reached maturity in the 1933 master plan (Crane 1933). This master plan provided a framework through which not only to conserve Iowa's resources but to relate that effort to the creation of a state park system. The 1933 plan concluded that in order to create the proper atmosphere in which to develop parks, the soils, woods, and bodies of water required conservation. It also recognized the state government's role in providing recreation for its citizens during an era when leisure time was significantly increasing and the ability of most of the population to travel to them had been attained. The plan clearly echoed the romantic, escapist philosophy developing since the turn of the century as did the romantic allusions expressed by rustic architecture itself. While man had found ways to control nature, he had lost control of the developments of his urban environment. Parks provided an opposition to the city. The city represented man's creation which he could not control while nature was free from congestion and corruptness attributed to the urban environment. Thus, rustic architecture dictated that park development must have a minimum effect upon nature; it must harmonize with nature. The National Park Service officials stressed these principles as the Iowa State Conservation Commission developed its parks during the CCC era.

The CCC property type gains significance under National Register criteria A and C. The criteria link the areas of significance to the properties. Under criteria A, the properties primarily gain importance because of the historical trends they represent. These properties thus remain as tangible evidence of the CCC state park development effort occurring under the New Deal. They tie together the conservation, recreation, and welfare movements guided by the national government through the National Park Service and to a lesser degree by the National Forest Service and other federal agencies at the state and federal levels. With the CCC emphasis upon the fit of buildings, structures, and objects into the landscape so that they enhance and blend with it, CCC properties gain significance under the area of landscape architecture.

The CCC properties in Iowa gain significance between May, 1933 and March 31, 1942, the period of CCC construction. For each park, the period of significance is defined by the time span during which the CCC companies erected the park properties. Properties constructed by relief organizations of the 1930s are recognized as significant by the National Register through 1941. Therefore, those erected

between January and March, 1942 must claim significance under criterion exception G. As part of the New Deal era, properties erected during these months represent the continuation of a significant movement which began in 1933 well before the beginning of the modern era, and thus possess significance for that reason.

Commemorative properties constructed by the CCC gain significance under criterion exception F. The principles of rustic architecture not only attempted to harmonize the park's properties with their natural surroundings but they reflected some aspect of the area's local history. Many times this history became a romanticized depiction of the area's pioneer tradition embodied in the CCC's use of log cabins and roughly finished building materials. But also under this same principle, the CCC erected monuments which recognize the contributions of local citizens to the settlement of the area or the formation of the park. Such memorials then become an expression of one of the basic principles of rustic architecture and are an expression of the perspective from which the planner viewed the local historical traditions. As urban development rushed forward, citizens began to study their local history, primarily the beginnings of their community, to help anchor the past during a present which had been forging rapidly ahead and became uncertain in the 1930s. The plethora of late nineteenth and early twentieth century histories remain as one example of this movement. Despite their apparently inadequate interpretations of the past in accordance with late twentieth century standards, these histories offer their rapidly changing world a feeling of security. This form of historicism was fact-oriented. The past was viewed as a series of discrete, true happenings. Because the future of the 1930s communities remained hazy, their past had to be certain and reliable. It was known, and the future, especially in the 1930s, was uncertain. Monuments such as the commemorative signs and landscape arrangements erected by the Iowa CCC are an expression of this use of the past to secure the future and parallel the romantic historicism of rustic architecture. Such commemorative properties thus gain significance under criterion consideration F not for what they commemorate but as a by-product of a contemporary historical movement.

Each district was determined eligible at both the local and state levels. Each district achieves significance at the state level because it represents a national level movement, the CCC, which was activated at the state level. The State of Iowa supervised the planning, design, financing, and execution of park development for the CCC program. Thus, although few individual properties within

a park would achieve a state level of significance, the districts formed within the parks represent this state level effort.

Additionally, each property may be compared at different spatial levels, the local, state, and national levels, to determine how it represents its property subtype in terms of form and integrity. Here, properties are compared at a level commensurate with the pervasiveness of the subtype within the state according to the areas of integrity most relevant to the property's significance, not just simply integrity of design. Generally, each individual CCC park property gains significance as a local expression of the rustic architecture movement. Iowa's Central Design Office under the direction of the Conservation Commission with heavy input from the inspectors of the Branch of Planning and Design from the National Park Service's offices developed park designs. Although often utilizing standardized models, the overall park designs and buildings, structures, and objects were intended to blend with the specific natural landscape of each park and express a consistent historical theme of the local area. They were to be local expressions. And, in general, CCC resources which occur in concentrations within a state park and appear in a setting similar to the one constructed by the CCC are more likely to attain eligibility. The park landscape will not match the one established by the CCC but should be an outgrowth of it with few post-1942 intrusions. This holistic approach best conveys the master planning guiding rustic architecture.

However, those properties which are outstanding expressions of the rustic architecture design concept or which represent scarce subtypes once prevalent in parks may achieve significance at the state level. Comparative studies examining National Register properties in Missouri and properties evaluated but not nominated in Wisconsin provide a broader base from which to render such recommendations. The Missouri thematic nomination of depression era state park properties includes 11 historic districts and 32 individual properties giving a total of 247 buildings and 95 structures located at 14 state parks and one historic site. This total excludes the WPA work completed in one of the state parks and CCC-WPA joint construction efforts. The properties within this nomination generally fall under the subtypes discussed above (Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984). The Wisconsin study discusses prominent state park properties constructed in eight parks (Ahlgren 1987; 1988). It focuses more upon major building types such as picnic shelters, refectories, and bathhouses. Both state studies generally fail to carefully examine

the landscape in which the properties are placed.

This comparative review suggests that some CCC park resource subtypes in state parks are not well represented and indicates which subtypes may merit state level significance. Under administrative buildings and structures, checking stations appear in limited numbers in both Iowa and Missouri. Iowa examples remain at Dolliver and Lacey-Keosauqua. Smaller structures such as signs, incinerators, and crossings have limited representation in Iowa at Lacey-Keosauqua and Backbone, Black Hawk, and Ledges state parks respectively and lack known examples in Missouri. Few timber footbridges remain intact in Iowa and are found singly in two state parks, one each in Missouri and Wisconsin. Examples in Iowa remain at Lake Ahquabi. Only a single concession and several concessions with attached picnic shelters exist in Iowa at Stone, Backbone, Pikes Peak, and Ledges as compared with one in Missouri. Like Wisconsin, they composed parts of several multifunctional buildings in Wisconsin.

Under recreational buildings and structures, while trailside shelters occur in Missouri, its state parks possess only two overlooks and no trailside seats. Likewise, Iowa's state parks possess a limited number of the trailside shelters at Waubonsie, Maquoketa, Palisades, and Black Hawk and those overlooks erected as observation towers, the one at Pilot Knob. While relatively small bathhouses occur in both Wisconsin and Missouri, most fail to attain the size or complexity of those illustrated by Good (1938: (2) 107-44) or many erected in Iowa such as the ones at Lake Wapello or Springbrook. This variation may reflect the emphasis placed on recreational reserves in southern Iowa which essentially lacked such facilities prior to the 1930s. Like Missouri parks which preserve a single boathouse, Iowa parks contain only two at Backbone and Gull Point although two bathhouses, those at Lake Wapello and Lake Ahquabi, also contain this function. Markers, shrines, buildings functioning primarily as museums, campfire rings, and amphitheaters are not recognized in either Missouri or Wisconsin except for a single museum which occurs as part of a combination building in Missouri. Similarly, Iowa contains few of these subtypes. Lacey-Keosauqua possesses a museum housed within a refectory, Ft. Defiance and Pammel preserve several campfire rings, and Pilot Knob contains an amphitheater. And like Iowa, the other recreational structures possess low representation in Wisconsin and Missouri with the exception of several ski lodges and one toboggan trail in two state parks in Wisconsin. Iowa parks may possess several sports lodges located at Lake McBride, Pine Lake,

and Lake Ahquabi. They are now generally viewed as refectories.

While Missouri parks preserve intact individual cabins in two parks, there are no recognized individualized facilities including washrooms and laundry combinations or tent and trailor camp layouts as is the case for Iowa. Individual cabins remain at Backbone and Springbrook. Both Wisconsin and Missouri park systems do preserve three group camp facilities. While Iowa parks preserve a limited number, none are wholly constructed by the CCC. Some of these group camps include remnants of CCC camps like Iowa's Springbrook group camp. Although relatively complete CCC camps should be recognized as historically significant properties in themselves because of their small numbers, the camp remnants such as those at Springbrook represent only small segments of such camps. Therefore, these CCC buildings gain their primary significance as part of group camps. Thus, the three converted CCC buildings at Springbrook are significant as part of a group camp. However, these buildings were modified by the Iowa State Conservation Commission. They warrant nomination under a more inclusive park theme. Because of the limited representation of CCC buildings, sizeable CCC camp remnants and verified historical archaeological evidence of intact whole CCC camps possess state level significance.

Additionally, those state park properties which retain most of their CCC properties without notable intrusions from other building eras also gain significance as a district. Importantly, such examples must preserve park layouts: the natural landscaping, property interrelationships, and the relationships between the properties and their natural setting. Included building subtypes must also remain intact. None of Wisconsin's state parks appear to preserve park layouts. However, the eight-park study was not conducted with this aspect of significance as a primary goal. Two Missouri state parks preserve portions of park planning: Bennet Springs and Cuivre state parks. Dr. Edmund A. Babler, Sam A. Baker, and Washington state parks form complete or relatively complete districts while Lake of the Ozarks State Park includes three large districts. However, the degree of attention in this study to the association between the properties and the landscape remains unclear. Thus, complete CCC parks in Iowa merit state significance as an example of Iowa CCC construction and design work of the Central Design Office. Much of Dolliver Memorial State Park represents such an example in Iowa.

Finally, minor park structures such as culverts, barriers, walls,

fountains, trail steps and trails, parking areas, roads, erosion structures, and benches, and buildings such as privies generally gain significance in association with major CCC buildings and structures. However, when concentrated in high numbers and especially when associated with relatively intact landscapes, then they may acquire significance on their own.

The above comparative study is intended to examine the pervasiveness of CCC properties in other midwestern states. It provides a basis on which to judge the state level significance of scarce, relatively intact resources in Iowa state parks.

4. Registration Requirements

All of the CCC park properties in Iowa State Parks share a group of general associative and physical characteristics which they must possess to gain eligibility for the National Register.

All of the properties must occur within parks in Iowa and be wholly or primarily constructed by the Civilian Conservation Corps between 1933 and 1942. Resources in each park gain significance during the period in which the CCC erected the properties. As representations of a related movement, all the properties achieve significance under the areas of LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE, GOVERNMENT, SOCIAL HISTORY, CONSERVATION, and RECREATION. All properties must gain significance under criterion A as a representation of a CCC project. No single property or property subtype is more or less representative under criterion A except those which specifically relate to past historical themes which rustic architecture was intended to evoke. For example, the boathouse at Gull Point State Park which contains a low, rather massive tower achieves a romantic, rather medieval appearance. The floor designs in the refectory at Lake Ahquabi make general reference to the Native American past. A more important consideration is the concentration of resources related to a pivotal resource, one of major dimensions such as a picnic shelter, refectory, residence, maintenance building, bathhouse, or boathouse and the presence of associated landscaping or a high concentration of minor resources such as intact trail systems with improvements including trail steps and benches. In this way, the properties and their landscape convey the design principles through which the park was planned to their viewer. Properties must also gain significance under criterion C. They must retain a sufficient level of integrity to represent their subtypes. The elements of integrity required for each

property to represent its subtype is presented below both in the general discussion of integrity and the consideration of individual subtypes. Because property function forms a basis for the creation of the typology, the elements defining the original function should remain intact.

The general guidelines for integrity apply to all the property subtypes. Integrity of location refers to the place where the resource was erected. Location emphasizes the importance of the relationship between the property and the place and may indicate why the property was created. The CCC properties' positioning on the landscape is specified in the park's master plan. Thus, the correct location of the property in a park planned and at least partly constructed through the CCC program is essential to its fit within the CCC context and therefore to its eligibility. However, the park need not originally have belonged to the state and the property although primarily erected by the CCC may be completed by another agency. Such examples were usually erected late in the CCC period and illustrate the transition of rustic architecture to other design concepts. For example, the CCC erected the cabins late in the era and some were completed by the Iowa State Conservation Commission. They are all minimally elaborated, simple frame buildings common to park architecture developed after 1942.

Integrity of setting refers to the man-made and physical environment of the property, to the character of the place. The retention of central elements of the natural landscape is a main principle of rustic architecture. Good stressed the need to blend the building with the natural landscape by using colors such as browns, grays, and buffs, through the low, horizontal massing of the building, and attention to the transition between the building and the surrounding landscape through, for example, the use of a rubble stone foundation or native plantings along the foundation. Good also emphasized the importance of positioning the building in relation to other properties. He prescribed a scattered concentration of a limited number of buildings. By combining functions in medium-sized buildings, he avoided the clutter of a series of small, separately functioning buildings. To enhance the natural setting of the park, he advocated the location of most buildings in one general area. But close clustering would lead to overuse of the area and would completely detract from the natural setting he attempted to create. Thus, he advanced loose concentration of a minimum number of medium-sized buildings. Other more minor features such as fences, paths, steps, roads, and benches played an important role in the effort to blend man-made

features with nature. They were also scattered and followed an irregular plan. Good's plans shaped nature to look like nature. This trend reflects the long-term rejection of the regular, closed, congested, urban environment, an escapism. The ideal location then became its antithesis, irregular, open, primitive areas with a sparse distribution of man-made objects, structures, and buildings. If man must shape the environment, then it should look like nature even if a bit contrived.

Thus, integrity of setting plays an important role in the determination of a property's eligibility. The proper positioning and scattered concentration to convey the necessary natural aesthetic is more apparent in a district than a single property. Thus, because landscaping plays such a central role in CCC planning, districts best express CCC park architecture although individual properties represent the appearance of functional subtypes. A close parallel between the current arrangement of the park and to its original arrangement as specified in the master plan comprises an important element in the consideration of the property's integrity of setting. Thus, modern intrusions particularly those which fail to blend with the natural landscape detract from integrity. Such intrusions include major elements such as recent buildings and sheds, additions to a property visible from the major facade, repairs through the use of modern materials, and severe alteration of landform and vegetation patterns. However, the addition of small moveable objects such as picnic table or the erection of removal chain link fences do not affect overall eligibility of the setting. They may be eliminated without affecting the building's fabric.

Integrity of design considers the arrangement of elements which compose the form and style of the property. Design reflects the available technology, purpose, orientation, and aesthetic of the builder. Good advocated simple designs in part because most participants were unskilled builders. The aesthetic preference of the era also dictated against elaborate designs. Thus, construction techniques were limited in number and easy to execute, and ornamentation was limited and subdued and often reflected extensions of the building itself. Since buildings were visible from all sides, both facades and elevations were to be treated with equal attention. Because subtypes are based on function, while their current function may vary from the original use, the original floor plan which assisted the accomplishment of those functions and associated interior finish work should remain relatively intact. Good prescribed a unified style throughout the park. The design of

the landscape was also essential to the building's aesthetic. Where nature was rearranged during park construction, its design was to be irregular and without severely straight lines; it was to be like nature. The scale of building elements was to match the setting with forested areas requiring a more robust and rugged use of materials than prairie environments. Thus, the survival of the original design concepts of both the buildings and structures and their landscape compose an additional central element of integrity.

The choice of materials played an important role in the overall aesthetic of the properties as well as its economy. To allow blending, most properties were to be covered with materials native to the local landscape including native stone, timber, and frame with vertical or horizontal siding. And, since they were to be locally available, they often derived from the building site itself. Minimal shaping not only gave the sought-after simple, primitive look but also affected economy. Unity of materials ensured simplicity of design. Rustic architecture relied heavily upon the visual impact of native materials to relate the property to the past.

Workmanship indicates the physical evidence of the level of technology in a given period. The simplicity of technology visible in CCC construction reflects not only the primitive aesthetic advocated by rustic architecture but the level of available craftsmanship. It should be reflected in the plans of the structure, ornamentation, and method of construction. To achieve primitive, handcrafted aesthetic, Good suggested the least destructive means of site clearing, by hand rather than with heavy equipment. The shaping of materials on site, the cutting and processing of timber and the quarrying of stone by heat treatment, crow bar, and block and tackle rather than by explosives at or near the park contributed to the primitive effect through use of native materials and economy of the project. While workmanship perhaps is not the most visible element of integrity and therefore not the most central, it did play a role in the creation of the overall aesthetic of the building and its surroundings. Thus, properties displaying fine, well executed, or technically difficult workmanship are not typical of CCC workmanship and do not possess greater significance. As importantly, new construction which is out of character with these guidelines will strongly affect the eligibility of the property.

Feeling is the quality a historic resource evokes through the

property's aesthetics. A property with integrity of feeling offers a sense of a past period. Feeling often depends upon integrity of design and setting. CCC buildings, structures, and objects and their landscaping were intended to convey a sense of primitive nature. This feeling opposed the congested, dirty, cluttered urban scene. Intrusion or alteration detracting from this sense of primitiveness thus adversely affect eligibility. Because rustic architecture was intended to evoke a specific feeling, this element plays an important role in assessing integrity. For example, the addition of visible construction using modern materials or displaying elaborate designs most often affect the integrity of feeling and detract from the eligibility of a property. The replacement of banks of wood frame with steel casement windows along the wall of a building, the addition of railroad ties to replace stone steps along much of a trail system, the alteration of roof line at Backbone State Park, and the substitution of horizontal for decorative siding along the upper story of the Gull Point service building all change the primitive character and adversely affect the property.

Integrity of association allows the viewer to relate the property to the pattern of events which produced it. This ability also depends on integrity of setting, location, and design. CCC properties should continue to convey their original function and the park should also continue to play a role parallel to the one conceptualized by its creators. Its current role should thus not detract from its original function in the categories of (I) scenic park, (II) recreational park, and/or (III) individual or group overnight accommodation.

The necessary degree of integrity for each property subtype to achieve specific levels of eligibility varies by property subtype and must be determined through a comparative evaluation which follows. Particularly for the determination of state level significance, comparisons with properties in other midwestern states such as Missouri and Wisconsin expands the depth of knowledge about the variety of scarce CCC resources or properties of outstanding design and facilitates decisions concerning eligibility.

Although a small number of entranceways remain in Iowa state parks, only three checking stations are extant at Dolliver, Ledges, and Lacey-Keosauqua. Three examples of checking stations also remain in Missouri state parks. They include both entrance portals and

checking stations (Missouri Department of Natural Resources 1984). Thus, while entrance portals are relatively numerous and should meet high standards of integrity for eligibility, checking stations are somewhat rare in Iowa as well as Missouri. In most situation, all elements of the portal should be present and intact. However, timber horizontal members and gates may be absent or replaced with duplicates since they rarely survive. Because checking stations no longer function as such, some deterioration especially of wood members such as doors, windows, and signs but few design changes affecting function are acceptable. Those experiencing limited deterioration may achieve state level significance.

Barriers, walls, and fences as well as signs and incinerators tend to possess a short life span, may be difficult to associate with CCC activities, and are not generally viewed as important elements in themselves but contribute to the overall design of the landscape. Unless they appear unique, their significance must rely on their association with other eligible properties. While stone walls must be generally intact, wood signs which deteriorate easily may gain eligibility if members have been replaced with duplicate elements. Stone incinerators which have suffer limited deterioration are also eligible.

Custodian and staff residences remain relatively common in Iowa. However, because of changes in dwelling needs, they have suffered modification. Such alterations as the addition of asphalt shingle to the roof, the alteration of interior wall covering, the addition of a small rear ell or porch at the rear, the alteration of offices to domestic rooms, and alteration of rear or inconspicuous side window frames do not significantly affect eligibility. Because of their numbers, architecturally well preserved examples remain significant at the local level unless they possess architecturally or functionally unique characteristics.

Missouri state parks preserve a high number of equipment and maintenance buildings primarily serving as garages and warehouses. The CCC constructed them in two common forms, barn-like structures and plain rectangular buildings but none achieve the courtyard effect recommended by Good. Iowa parks also preserve many of the rectangular variety. Frequent and acceptable changes for eligibility include replacement of side-hinged doors with overhead doors or vertical wood siding, addition of asphalt roofs, alteration of rear or inconspicuous windows frames, and the installation of an interior dividing wall to form office space. Courtyard service buildings which have undergone similar changes

may be eligible at the state level because of their scarcity and role in CCC design work as illustrated by Good (1938).

Above-ground elements related to the water supply system include the fountain and the pumphouse. Although rather seemingly impermanent elements of the park, many stone water fountains remain. To attain eligibility at the local level and generally in association with other park resources, the fountain must maintain a high level of integrity. Thus, those whose tops have been maintained with abundant concrete are not eligible. Small pump houses remain in two forms. The underground pumphouse is constructed with concrete floor, walls, and ceiling and entered through a wood door. To remain eligible, its above ground features must be intact. Above-ground pumphouse are generally frame with wood siding. Although somewhat scarce, given their simple character, they should remain intact on the exterior although functional changes to accommodate new machinery are acceptable on the interior. Except for pumphouses with unique characteristics such as shapes, they gain eligibility at the local level. However, while hatcheries were constructed by the CCC in Missouri, none of the complete complexes appeared to maintain sufficient integrity to merit nomination. Intact examples in Iowa, particularly those which retain their original landscaping, may achieve significance at the state level.

Iowa parks preserve a large number of comfort stations and privies conforming to the single story, rectangular stone or frame form. They frequently suffer interior alterations especially in wall covering and the addition of small vents. Such changes to allow modernization of facilities are acceptable. Those meeting the other general integrity specifications gain significance at the local level.

Although steps were not to be constructed for their own sake because they intruded into the natural setting (Good 1938: (1) 161), the CCC produced many trails and trail steps in Iowa state parks. However, they are subject to considerable deterioration through weathering. Those stone steps which have not lost a substantial number of stones or contain a relatively high number of replacement timbers may achieve significance as part of a trail system at the local level. Acceptable modifications for the associated trails include some rerouting of the path, addition of gravel in low areas, the addition of inconspicuous drains, and similar changes to allow the maintenance of such an unstable resource. But, trail systems displaying unique features or apart

of a large area illustrating extensive landscaping features and known to be constructed by the CCC, merit state significance.

Generally apart of a large feature such a road or trail, the culvert gains significance in association with those features. They must generally remain intact without the addition of conspicuously modern materials along their walls and supports.

Single span masonry vehicle and foot bridges are relatively numerous and remain intact in Iowa. Unless varying from this variety, they gain significance at the local level. Timber footbridges are less numerous in Iowa and are also scarce in Missouri and have suffered the replacement of many elements. Those with duplicate replacements for hand rails, associated uprights, and planking remain eligible at the local level. None remain completely intact.

Although categorized as a minor park structure and rarely eligible by itself, the road merits special attention within the setting of other eligible properties. Almost all the park roads were original covered with graveled surfaces, and by the 198Øs they received new surfaces to meet the current needs of the park. If the path of the road remains intact, then the road is considered to be a contributing property even if it has been resurfaced. The road maintains the same design and continues to take the visitor through the park in the originally designed manner.

While the multiple utilitarian structures necessary to the functioning of Iowa parks compose important features when associated with their context, alone they are not likely to achieve significance.

The numerous Iowa picnic shelters primarily merit a local level of significance unless they display unique design elements. Acceptable alteration for eligibility include the replacement of shingle with asphalt shingles along the roof, the covering of stone floors with concrete, and the loss of the stone and timber benches occasionally placed on either side of the fireplace.

While Iowa's substantial dining lodges or refectories are comparatively numerous, the concession which often exists in association with picnic shelters are few in number not only in Iowa but in Missouri and Wisconsin. Because many of these refectories although somewhat deteriorated are relatively intact, they achieve

significance at the local level. Acceptable changes include the addition of asphalt shingle to the roof, the replacement of some inconspicuous windows, and the covering of the interior walls of functionally minor rooms. Because of their poor representation, the small, park concession and those associated with major picnic shelters retaining most of its general integrity may attain state significance.

Trailside seats and shelters and small overlooks are substantial and relatively numerous in both Wisconsin and Missouri parks. Perhaps because they are composed of more fragile elements, they are less abundant in Iowa. Those shelters and overlooks which retain a majority of their elements intact, may be eligible at the state level of significance while those which have suffered deterioration gain significance at the state level. Thus, alteration usually accrues from deteriorated or missing elements not the addition of modern materials except for asphalt roofing and cement floors. Observation towers which Good classifies as overblown overlooks are rare in Iowa, Wisconsin, and Missouri. Thus, the example which retains its exterior elements although suffering interior alterations gain significance at the state level.

Without bodies of water appropriate for recreation, southern Iowa received a large number of artificial lakes and the associated earthen dams during the CCC era. As noted, Good condoned artificial lakes and dams only in circumstances such as Iowa's and generally favored those dams which were inconspicuous and lakes which were relatively small, irregular, and natural looking if not romantic in plan. Because of their numbers in Iowa, most such well-preserved structural complexes achieve local significance. However those illustrating unique design features particularly lake settings paralleling those described by Good may merit state level significance. Given their abundance, alterations are limited to the raising of walls of heights required by federal law in a manner duplicating the original stone work.

Given the high number of artificial lakes, Iowa also received numerous bathhouses during the CCC era. Because of the number of remaining examples, bathhouses generally merit local significance. However, those displaying outstanding design elements and/or extraordinary scale may merit state level significance. Bathhouses erected in Wisconsin and Missouri tend to be smaller in scale than those in Iowa. Thus, those well illustrating the dominating

position of bathhouses in Iowa parks have greater significance. Acceptable alterations include the use of asphalt roofing, replacement of some wooden members which tend to deteriorate, the interior alteration of the checking room which has usually lost its original function, and changes relating to the updating of plumbing facilities.

Likely because of their proximity to water, few boathouses from the CCC era survive in Iowa parks. Likewise, only one small frame boathouse survives at Lake of the Ozarks State Park in Missouri. Recognizing their rare representation, those which retain most of the elements defining their function and their major design elements may achieve significance at least the local level. Additional alterations include changes upon the interior relating to functional adaptations of the building, the replacement of side-hinged doors, and the repair or replacement of some wood elements particularly around windows and eaves. However, those which have undergone extensive alteration of design are no longer eligible.

Additional recreational facilities did not prove as numerous in Iowa. Its parks may only retain possible sportsmen lodges which are now categorized as refectories. If they retain their original integrity and thus display the design and spatial elements associated with their intended function, then they gain eligibility at the state level. Buildings of parallel function were also rare in Wisconsin parks which retain two ski lodges.

Markers and shrines and buildings serving primarily as museums are not noted in either Wisconsin or Missouri and only several properties represent this subtype in Iowa. The single building which contains a museum in Iowa functions primarily as a refectory and therefore gains its significance under this subtype. Iowa parks retain no markers. The remaining shrines are constructed as landscaping features and are commemorative in nature. If the shrine and its associated landscaping remains intact, the property then gains state level significance as a rare example not only in Iowa but in Wisconsin and Missouri. Because the shrine relates to the CCC's emphasis on past traditions, it also gains significance under criterion exception F.

Both campfires and amphitheaters are fragile structures which are integral parts of their surrounding landscape. These resources were not noted in either Wisconsin or Missouri. Thus, the small number of these structures in Iowa which retain most of their

elements intact and have integrity of setting gain significance at the state level. Acceptable alterations include limited deterioration of wood and stone elements and replacement of wood elements with similar materials and through parallel workmanship.

Individual overnight facilities including the tent camps and overnight cabin groups with community buildings and laundry and washroom facilities did not remain intact as an associated group in Wisconsin or Missouri. Missouri parks such as Washington and Sam A. Baker state parks preserved cabin groups but not the associated buildings. Cabins at Bennett Springs, Montauk, and Roaring River state parks suffered deterioration and modification as public needs alter. Likewise, in Iowa only the cabin group remain and most cabins have experience at least minor alteration. Hence, the individualized cabin is a relatively fragile resource. Intact cabin groups suffering minimal interior alteration such as the addition of bathroom facilities and the replacement of wood with asphalt shingles merit state significance.

Missouri state parks preserve three organized group facilities. Camp Sherwood at Cuivres State Park appears to retain many of its buildings while Camp Pin Oak at Lake of the Ozarks State Park contains only one of its five cabin groups and some of its main facilities such as the dining hall, office, infirmary, and service buildings and a unit lodge and outdoor kitchen associated with one of the cabin groups. Additionally, Camp Smokey at Roaring River State Park is composed of four CCC barracks which became the nucleus of the camp developed by the NYA after 1940. Likewise, remnants of a CCC camp, four barracks, remain as a group camp at Devil's Lake State Park in Wisconsin (Ahlgren 1987: 113) and seventeen CCC buildings were converted to a group camp at the Rabideau National Register Historic District at the Blackduck Ranger District of the Chippewa National Forest in northern Minnesota. After 1941, it was maintained as a group camp by the University of Illinois (Cohen 1980: 26). Iowa parks contain several group camps, but they were not wholly constructed by the CCC. While significant under other themes because they retain a substantial portion of their buildings and structures within their original setting, they do not gain significance under the theme associated with the CCC.

Most of the remaining CCC camp buildings and structures comprise fragmentary remains of the original camp and often survive as parts of group camps. Because such buildings do not represent most of

the camp and their function often altered to group camps by the early 1940s usually requiring significant modifications, these buildings gain greater significance as part of group camps rather than as CCC camps. Those instances such as the Rabideau group camp where much of the CCC camp remains intact may merit nomination as such since few CCC camps survive intact. While Iowa state parks may possess miscellaneous CCC buildings such as Springbrook which have gained new functions, relatively complete camps have not been identified.

While individual properties may prove eligible as examples of their subtypes, they possess greater significance when placed within their original concentration of CCC properties. Part of their significance derives from their location in relation to other CCC elements and their natural setting. Hence, they achieved greater significance when preserved in their original natural and built park setting rather than as isolated properties. The minor park structures lose their meaning altogether when deprived of their setting and do not merit eligibility as isolated examples. Thus, those more massive properties which gain the attention of the public and were the center of park activity are more likely to attain eligibility individually as well as act as pivotal resources within a district. They generally include entranceways and checking stations, superintendent and staff quarters, equipment and maintenance buildings, picnic shelters, concessions, dams and lakes, bathhouses, boathouses, lookout stations, amphitheaters, shrines, and cabins and related buildings either as individual or groups facilities. Minor properties which usually require a related pivotal property to gain eligibility and are often related to landscape development include walls and barriers, signs, drinking fountains, comfort stations and privies, trail steps, single trails, crossings, culverts and tunnels, small vehicle bridges, and picnic tables.

State parks must be analyzed not only from the perspective of individual properties as representatives of their subtypes but also from the perspective of the integrity of the entire park. The parks must be compared with each other according to their overall function. Those preserving a high proportion of their built environment within an outgrowth of the 1930s setting as compared with others in the same category, for example state parks and recreational, lake, forest, historical or geologic and biologic reserves, may achieve significance as a district at the state level.

While the above text describes the necessary registration requirements in relationship to single properties, a property's eligibility is usually enhanced by its placement in the context of a larger district. During CCC park development, each park was generally viewed as a whole with functional parts, hence the functional subtypes. Thus, a district includes a cross-section of the building functions necessary to parks. Additionally, the CCC designed its park buildings, structures, and objects around the natural landscape. They were to blend with it. In most cases, the nominated property should retain some of that natural surrounding to convey a sense of the overall park design. Master planning called for the layout of buildings in relation to other park features and the landscape. They were to be in a loose concentration of a minimum number of medium-sized buildings. Again, an understanding of broad park layout can only be gained from a district format. Finally, this kind of nomination relates the minor features, the paths, steps, benches, roads, and the like, to each other and to pivotal buildings and the landscape. These minor features would lack functional meaning if divorced from their setting. Only through interrelating the buildings, structures, and the natural environment can the thrust of CCC park development become clear.

G. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.

[x] See continuation sheet

H. Major Bibliographical References

[x] See continuation sheet

Primary location of additional documentation:

- [x] State historic preservation office
- [x] Other State agency
- [ ] Federal agency
- [ ] Local government
- [ ] University
- [ ] Other

Specify repository: State Historical Society of Iowa; Department of Natural Resources

I. Form Prepared By

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G. SUMMARY OF IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION METHODS

SELECTION OF CONTEXT

The presence of a large number of CCC properties within the State of Iowa stimulated the investigation of the context and a study of CCC properties in all Iowa state parks. The study assists the planning needs of the Iowa Department of Natural Resources. It also acts as a model to assist the implementation of studies of other state-wide themes including the evaluation of depression era properties erected in state parks by the WPA and NYA and similar agencies. Development needs of the parks threaten to impact CCC resources. The study determines which properties merit preservation and assists the creation of prioritized maintenance schedules sensitive to the historic character of significant properties. It also isolates those properties which possess potential historical significance but require further study for their determination of eligibility. The study also pinpoints those properties which lack sufficient integrity for eligibility thus isolating those which may receive modification to accommodate modern needs.

HISTORICAL RESEARCH AND FIELD INVESTIGATION METHODS

The project possesses broad implications for the method through which inventories encompassing large spatial extent and numerous resources may be conducted. It provides for the development of a broad context to assist identification of significant properties. And, by completing a broadly based survey of thematically related properties through the assistance of the park officials of the Iowa Department of Natural Resources, the project allows the development of a comprehensive system of CCC property subtypes. It also facilitates comparison within the subtypes as well as between state parks to ensure the nomination of those which most appropriately represent the theme.

Prior to the commencement of the project, the Department of Natural Resources completed the preparation of a context for its Backbone State Park exhibit upon the CCC in Iowa. This project provided the starting point for research upon CCC properties in Iowa state parks (Grieshop 1989a; 1989b).

Research began at the state and national levels at the State

Historical Society of Wisconsin which contains a major collection of federal and state documents and secondary resources relating to the CCC era. Department of the Interior reports for the 1933 to 1942 era offer a major resource not only for national but also state and in some cases local trends. This repository also contains reports published by the Iowa State Conservation Commission during the CCC era (Iowa State Conservation Commission 1934-1942). A master's thesis upon CCC structures in Wisconsin state parks by Ahlgren (1987; 1988) provided comparative data. Research at the state repositories of the Iowa State Historical Society in Des Moines and Iowa City and at the Department of Design at the Iowa State University at Ames was oriented toward state and local involvement with the CCC and the work projects within the parks. The archives of the State Historical Society of Iowa, Des Moines have acquired Department of Natural Resources historical files which contain primary materials relating to the construction of park resources by the CCC. Individual parks also retain historical data, primarily plans and drawings, relating to the CCC work projects in the parks.

The records of CCC projects related to potentially eligible properties were examined at the National Archives. Relevant information was primarily contained in Record Group 79, entries 30, 37, 39, 40, 41, and 64 which relate to the National Park Service's involvement with CCC projects and Record Group 35, entries 13 and 115, records of the CCC camp inspections and the CCC camp directories.

Also, limited newspaper research by the park rangers at Waubonsie and Fort Defiance and several other state parks and earlier newspaper research for an archaeological survey project at Maquoketa Caves (see Roetzer 1980) provided considerable additional data for those parks lacking records in state and national repositories. Limited oral information from Iowa CCC alumni supplemented this data (see bibliography).

Park rangers completed the survey of all identified CCC properties in all the Iowa state parks after attending a training session. The kinds of field data gathered by the intensive survey was guided by a revised Iowa Site Inventory form created for this survey. The form accompanied by instructions was thus able to address architectural and historical elements specifically related to the CCC properties. This approach is intended to assist the surveyor conceptualize and articulate the important elements of each property and provide more uniform responses. While DNR park

officials completed part I of the survey which recorded physical and historical details, the contractor evaluated the properties in part II. Part I was reviewed and corrected and amplified where necessary by the contractor. A designated DNR official for each DNR district took survey photographs.

During the review of completed survey forms, the contractor conducted an initial evaluation of property significance to pinpoint potentially significant districts and individual properties. The contractor then visited those parks which appeared to possess potentially eligibility properties for the National Register and supplemented field data and photographs not obtained through the initial survey.

DERIVATION OF THE PROPERTY TYPOLOGY AND INTEGRITY REQUIREMENTS

The CCC property subtypes were derived from Albert Good's 1938 edition of PARK AND RECREATION STRUCTURES which was published by the National Park Service. This work and its 1935 forerunner provided more of a summary of rustic architecture in national and state parks than a model from which to draw plans as it was intended. The work came at the end of an era of park expansion and development rather than the beginning (Tweed 1977). This framework thus provided emic categories through which to understand the role of the properties within the parks. Although chosen categories were limited to those properties currently found in Iowa state parks, with slight modification they would also apply to Iowa county and municipal parks developed under the guidance of the Branch of Planning and Design of the National Park Service.

Integrity requirements were derived from a general knowledge of the preservation status of CCC state park properties not only in Iowa but also in Wisconsin and Missouri. The requirements attempted to stress the integrity of those elements displaying the principles of rustic architecture, for example the focus upon native materials and the natural setting. They were also created with the realization that some property subtypes by their very function possessed a relatively short lifespan. Integrity requirements were adjusted to recognize some deterioration and modifications for such properties. And, the comparative study pinpointed those CCC properties which now lack a broad representation to assist the determination of the significance level.

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